A QUANTUM LEAP FOR GENDER EQUALITY

For a Better Future of Work For All

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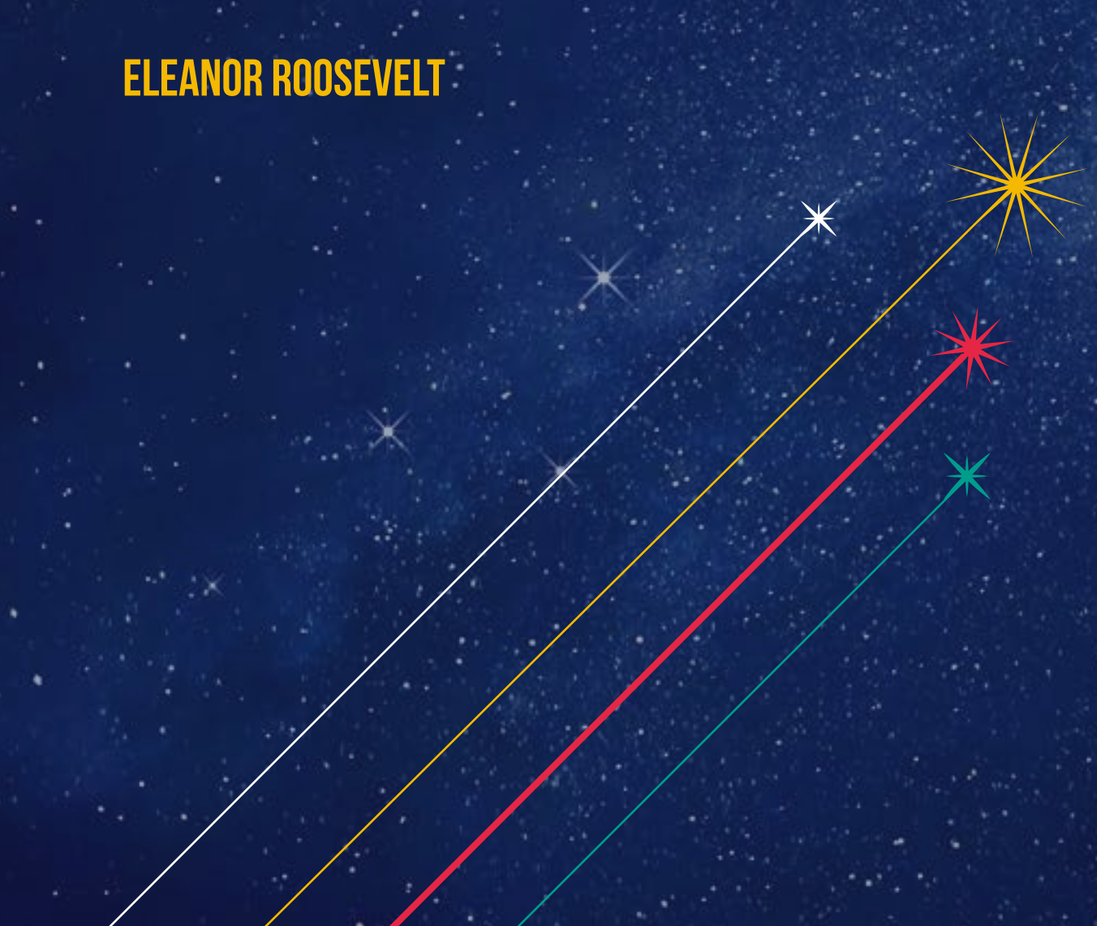
A QUANTUM LEAP FOR GENDER EQUALITY

For a Better Future of Work For All

“THE WORLD OF THE FUTURE IS IN OUR MAKING. TOMORROW IS NOW.”

ELEANOR ROOSEVELT



PREFACE

In 2013, we embarked on the Women at Work Centenary Initiative, with the support and guidance of the ILO Director-General. This “culmination report” brings together the research and data undertaken and the learning and insights gained in the context of the Initiative. All the findings of the Initiative indicate that, while there are many paths to addressing gender equality in the world of work, they must ultimately all unite to reinforce each other. Reaching this significant point in the journey is both rewarding and humbling. It is rewarding since today we know much more about the gender gaps in the world of work and what fuels them. We wanted to better understand why progress for women in the world of work was so slow and what could be done to accelerate it, and we have learned a considerable amount in this respect. We know more about what women want in the world of work, and why they are not getting it, through listening to their voices. With what we know now, the often heard excuse that women do not want to work or do not find work meaningful is no longer credible, and no longer acceptable anywhere.

Women want to work at paid jobs. But it is the unpaid part of their work that essentially holds them back. Looking at the various gender gaps and the range of obstacles, the road consistently comes back to care. Social norms reinforce the roles of women as caregivers, men as breadwinners. Care needs must be addressed in an intentional and meaningful way – for both women and men – through laws, policies and services. The implications of the unequal distribution of unpaid care work are far-reaching: women are more vulnerable to violence and harassment at work, to low and unequal pay, to lack of voice and representation. The current imbalance also means that men work long hours for pay and miss out on family life. A transformative and measurable agenda for gender equality and the future of work must take these factors into account. Whether women work in the fields, the boardroom or through digital platforms, whether they are own account workers or managers, the care and paid work conundrum needs to be addressed. Otherwise the future of work for women will simply replicate the past.

This stage of the Initiative is also humbling, since it is clear that mindsets still need to change and there is a long way to go in this regard. The journey is far from over. What comes into sharp focus, however, is that it is no longer possible for governments, workers and employers or international organizations to claim that they are advancing gender equality in the absence of a proactive and courageous agenda and unwavering political will. Transformation will not happen organically or by tentative and disjointed steps. Choices need to be made now, and they may not always be popular ones, to ensure a better future of work for all.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CEACR – Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations
CEO – Chief Executive Officer
ECED – Early-Childhood Educational Development
EPIC – Equal Pay International Coalition
ETUC – The European Trade Union Confederation
EU – European Union
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICLS – International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICSaW – International Classification of Status at Work
ICT – Information and Communication Technology
ILO – International Labour Organization
IPU – Inter-Parliamentary Union
ISCO – International Standard Classification of Occupations
ITUC – International Trade Union Confederation
LGBTI – Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex
NEET – Neither in Employment nor in Education or Training
NSDI – National Social Dialogue Institutions
OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PIAAC – Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies
PSA – Public Service Association – Te Pukenga Here Tikanga Mahi
RTI – Routine Task Intensity
SDG – Sustainable Development Goal
STEM – Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
UN – United Nations
WIEGO – Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 1919, the ILO adopted the first Conventions on women and work. A century later, women are a force in the labour market, breaking boundaries that at one time would have been considered impossible. While significant advances have taken place for women at work over the past century, there is no room for complacency.

Progress in closing gender gaps has stalled, and in some cases is reversing. The gender gaps with respect to key labour market indicators have not narrowed in any meaningful way for over 20 years. This situation should give rise to concern. Unless the present trajectory is changed, unless policy choices are made that put gender equality at their core, the situation is likely to deteriorate further as work becomes more fragmented and the future remains uncertain.

MINDING THE GENDER GAPS

WOMEN WANT TO WORK BUT ARE STILL NOT GETTING THE JOBS

It can no longer credibly be claimed, in any region or for any income group, that the employment gap between women and men is due to the fact that women do not want to work outside their home. Based on a representative global sample, about 70 per cent of the women interviewed said that they would prefer to be in paid work, and 66.5 per cent of men agreed that they should be. However, in 2018 only 45.3 per cent of women had a job, which equates to a gap of almost 25 percentage points between the desired and the actual employment rate for women.

Over the past 27 years, the gender employment gap has shrunk by less than 2 percentage points. Both women's and men's employment rates have declined globally, but men's have declined at a faster rate. In 2018, 1.3 billion women were in employment compared to 2.0 billion men, which means that there were still over 700 million fewer women in employment than men. In other words, women were still 26.0 percentage points less likely to be employed than men. Not surprisingly, gross enrolment ratios for secondary and tertiary education have increased for both women and men and gender gaps in enrolment rates had almost closed in 2017. However, 21.2 per cent of youth are neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET), and a high proportion of those (69.1 per cent) are women.

In 2018, women were more likely to be employed in occupations that are considered to be low-skilled and to face worse working conditions than men. In fact, women are more exposed than men to informal employment in over 90 per cent of sub-Saharan African countries, 89 per cent of countries in Southern Asia and almost 75 per cent of Latin American countries. In addition, women are also often found in occupations that are the most vulnerable to decent work deficits, such as in domestic, home-based or contributing family work. Migration status, ethnicity, disability and HIV status are some of the characteristics which, when intersecting with gender, further exacerbate the likelihood of women experiencing unfavourable working conditions and might increase informality rates.

Women are also under-represented in managerial and leadership positions. Globally, only 27.1 per cent of managers and leaders are women, a figure that has changed very little over the past 27 years. However, while few women make it to the top, those who do, get there faster than men. Across the world, women managers and leaders are almost one year younger than men. This difference in age shrinks as the national income increases. Women managers are also more likely to have a higher level of education than men managers. Globally, 44.3 per cent of women managers have an advanced university degree compared with 38.3 per cent of men managers.

"Since "having time" is one of the essential elements required to enable the redistribution of care responsibilities, greater time sovereignty is needed to allow workers to exercise more choice and control over their working hours."

AN ACCUMULATION OF FACTORS STILL HINDERS WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES AND QUALITY OF THEIR JOBS:

Education matters, but it is not the main reason

The higher the level of women's and men's education, the higher their employment rates. But women do not get the same employment dividends as men for their education. While 41.5 per cent of adult women with a university degree are either unemployed or outside the labour force, the same is true for only 17.2 per cent of men in the same situation. Education alone is unlikely to close gender gaps in the labour market and other factors also need to be addressed.

Caregiving plays the biggest role

Traditionally, women have been portrayed as the "caregivers", and society and labour markets continue to function largely on this assumption. Unpaid care work is the main reason why women are outside the labour force. Across the world, 606 million working-age women (or 21.7 per cent) perform unpaid care work on a full-time basis, compared to 41 million men (or 1.5 per cent). Between 1997 and 2012, the time that women devoted to housework and caregiving diminished by only 15 minutes per day, while for men it increased by just eight minutes per day. At this pace, it is estimated that the gender gap in time spent in unpaid care work would not be closed until 2228; in other words, closing the gap would take 209 years.

Motherhood penalties remain significant

In 2015, estimates for 51 countries showed that 45.8 per cent of mothers of young children (i.e. aged 0–5 years) were in employment compared to 53.2 per cent of women without children of that age. This suggests the existence of a ***motherhood employment penalty***. This penalty has worsened compared both to women without young children, whose employment rates have grown much faster, and to fathers. Between 2005 and 2015, the ***motherhood employment penalty*** has increased by 38.4 per cent. The "parenthood employment gap" has also increased from 41.1 percentage points to 42.8 percentage points.

Mothers also tend to experience a ***motherhood wage penalty*** that can persist across their working life, while the status of fatherhood is associated with a wage premium. As long as social pressure continues to compel women to be the main caregivers and men to work longer hours for pay as the main breadwinners, women will not be able to reduce their workload at home, or increase their hours of paid work. An absence of working-time autonomy for both women and men remains a considerable obstacle to gender equality and decent work.

Mothers of young children also experience a ***motherhood leadership penalty***. They have the lowest participation rates in managerial and leadership positions (only 25.1 per cent of managers with children under six years of age are women) compared with their male counterparts (74.9 per cent of managers with children under six years of age are men). For women and men without young children, 31.4 per cent of managers without children are women and 68.6 per cent are men. However, where men share unpaid care work more equally with women, more women are found in managerial positions.

Lower and unequal pay

The gender wage gap is still an average of 20 per cent (18.8 per cent) throughout the world. Gender pay gaps derive from a host of factors, including lower returns to women's education. Women working in the same occupation as men are systematically paid less, even if their educational levels equal or exceed those of their male counterparts. Other factors, such as occupational segregation and the gender composition of the workforce, significantly influence the gender pay gap. For example, in some countries, working in an enterprise with a predominantly female workforce can give rise to a 14.7 per cent wage penalty. Research and data from a joint ILO and LinkedIn initiative have also shown that women are less likely to have digital skills, which are currently a requirement for the most in-demand and highest paying jobs in the science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields. Overall, much of the pay gap remains unexplained, particularly in high-income countries. Work predominantly done by women is frequently undervalued because it mirrors work which has traditionally been carried out by women in the home without pay, or simply because it is work performed by women.

Violence and harassment in the world of work

Violence and harassment have a detrimental impact on women's participation in employment and the quality of their work. It impacts women in the fields and in the boardrooms, in every country and sector, public and private, formal and informal. It can affect women selling products in the markets as well as start-up founders. From one side, cyber-bullying and cyber-intimidation through technology exacerbate the risk of violence and harassment, from the other side, new apps and secure social networks are emerging to help victims report and address sexual harassment and assaults.

The many faces of technology

Women's employment opportunities and quality of their jobs are also affected by the current technological and digital revolution. For example, 73 per cent of activities in the accommodation and restaurants sector, which employs a large proportion of women, are susceptible to automation. Conversely, education and health and social work, which are highly feminized sectors, exhibit the lowest risk of automation due to the personal interaction component that is embedded in such care-related work. Increasing robotization of production in high-income economies and partial reshoring of production from middle- to high-income countries is also threatening women's jobs in middle-income countries. There is a significant risk that, if these transitions are not managed properly, the gender gaps in employment will widen even further in these countries.

Weak voice and representation

Women are under-represented in trade unions and employers' organizations. Furthermore, despite evidence suggesting that the presence of women in the collective bargaining process is important to achieving outcomes that benefit women, under-representation of women is a reality in national social dialogue institutions, such as economic and social councils, tripartite commissions and labour advisory boards. Available data for 2018 show that female membership in national social dialogue institutions only ranged from 20 to 35 per cent.

PATHS TO GENDER EQUALITY IN THE WORLD OF WORK

A better future of work for women can only be realized by redressing discrimination and disadvantage and overcoming entrenched stereotypes relating to women in society, the value of their work and their position in the labour market. Achieving this goal requires simultaneous action on four different and mutually reinforcing paths.

1. THE PATH OF RIGHTS FOR A FUTURE WITH GENDER EQUALITY AT WORK

A future of work where women and men have equal opportunities

Laws to establish that women and men have equal rights are the basis for demanding and achieving substantive equality in practice. Achieving gender equality in the world of work is possible if laws that discriminate against women and girls prior to entry into the labour market are repealed, as well as provisions preventing women from working at night or underground, or entering and progressing in a specific sector or occupation altogether. Evidence shows that lifting such barriers has a positive effect on the participation of women in the labour market. Laws that actively promote equality also have a significant impact, and are needed to further accelerate progress.

A future of work free from discrimination, violence and harassment

Discriminatory practices in the world of work continue to extend to all aspects of employment and occupation, including remuneration, career advancement, and social security provisions and coverage. Unfair treatment, which includes abuse, harassment and discrimination, is among the top three challenges facing working women, especially young women between the ages of 15 and 29. A world of work free from violence and harassment is essential if there is to be a future of work with gender equality. Collective agreements and workplace measures can be important vehicles for addressing violence and harassment in the world of work, both to improve the scope and coverage of legislation when such exists, and to fill the gap when legislation is non-existent.

A future of work where work done by women is recognized and valued

Legal provisions mandating equal pay for work of equal value have long been in place in many countries. Since the gender pay gap stubbornly persists, additional measures, such as wage transparency, have been put in place to accelerate action and close the gap. However, unless such measures are compulsory, their application remains very limited. Other measures that can lead to positive outcomes in reducing gender pay gaps include minimum wage setting mechanisms and collective bargaining that pay attention to gender equality. When well-designed, minimum wages are effective in addressing inequalities at the low end of the wage distribution, as they serve as an effective wage floor.

A future of work with more women leading the way

The cumulative effect of the many forms and layers of discrimination before and after entering the labour market impact women's career prospects. This is especially true for the social norms dictating women's responsibility for unpaid care work. Over the past decades, proactive measures to mitigate motherhood penalties and redistribute unpaid care work have been introduced at both the national and the workplace level. These include quotas and voluntary targets, mentoring and training specifically for women, as well as flexible working-time arrangements. All these measures have resulted in an acceleration of the pace of women's participation in managerial and leadership positions.

A future of work with inclusive maternity, paternity and parental leave

A comprehensive system of legislation providing paid family and care leave for both women and men is vital to securing women's access to and progress in the labour market. A growing number of countries have increased their maternity leave schemes and some have taken steps to cover women working in the informal economy. Paternity and parental leave policies are also an integral component in advancing women's positions in the labour markets. However, very few fathers benefit from such entitlements and evidence shows that fathers' uptake increases when the entitlement is conceived as a mandatory individual right that cannot be transferred to the other parent. Collective agreements can be instrumental in improving family leave policies.

A future of work with time to care

Since "having time" is one of the essential elements required to enable the redistribution of care responsibilities, greater time sovereignty is needed to allow workers to exercise more choice and control over their working hours. This would be particularly beneficial for workers with family responsibilities. Harnessing technology to achieve a balance between work and personal life can help workers to gain greater autonomy over their working-time. For instance, working remotely can help workers balance work and family responsibilities. However, such flexible working-time arrangements could reinforce gender roles, particularly if only women make use of them, while continuing to shoulder the majority of unpaid care work.

2. THE PATH OF ACCESS TO INFRASTRUCTURE, SOCIAL PROTECTION AND PUBLIC CARE SERVICES TO TRANSFORM THE FUTURE OF WORK FOR WOMEN

Infrastructure, social protection and public care services, when intelligently designed and sufficiently financed, have a positive impact on redistributing unpaid care work and freeing women's time. The provision of infrastructure, such as clean water, safe cooking fuel, electricity, secure transportation, schools, health facilities, and information and communication technology, can also be a source of decent jobs for women. All such initiatives have a better chance of being effective when their design, planning and implementation is based on accurate gender analysis informed by sex disaggregated data and consultations with the beneficiaries of the infrastructure and services.

Care services for a future where everybody cares more

Childcare and long-term care policies and services are essential factors in achieving gender equality. Evidence confirms that the employment rates of women aged 18–54 years with families tend to be higher in countries that have a higher share of GDP invested in public expenditure on pre-primary education, long-term care services and benefits, and maternity, disability, sickness and employment injury benefits. Employment in the care economy provides a significant source of income, especially for women. The combination of an expanding population and rapidly ageing societies is driving an increased demand for care work, although there will be significant deficits in coverage unless there is further investment in public care services. It is predicted that an increase in investment in care services to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) would create 120 million more jobs in the care economy and 149 million indirect jobs in non-care sectors by the year 2030. This confirms that investing in the care economy would result in job creation across many sectors. The "5R Framework for Decent Care Work" proposed by the ILO – recognize, reduce, and redistribute unpaid care work, and reward and represent care workers – offers a successful recipe of legislative and policy measures to achieve decent work. This will also be essential for attracting more workers, women and men, to the care sector.

Universal social protection for women's future at work

The future of women at work will also depend on the degree to which women have effective access to adequate social protection throughout the course of their lives. Gender-responsive social protection systems, including floors, need to be fair, inclusive and sustainable, provide adequate protection to the entire population, and allow for a sufficiently large degree of redistribution. These systems should also be financed in a sustainable and equitable way, usually by a combination of taxes and contributions. Some recent policy innovations demonstrate the capacity of social protection systems to adapt to changing circumstances.

A sound macroeconomic framework to finance infrastructure, social protection and public care services

Public investment in infrastructure, social protection and care services are some of the key investments required to close gender gaps in the labour market. Current levels of public and private investment (proportionate to GDP) in the care sectors need to be doubled in order to ensure that these goals are achieved, along with the creation of decent work for paid care workers. To this end, fiscal space must be expanded in order to invest in care provision, services and infrastructure. Creating fiscal space is feasible, even in low-income countries. Effective macroeconomic policies are needed to ensure that national budgets respond to women's priorities, as assessed by women themselves. Gender-responsive budgeting is an important tool for more effectively prioritizing gender equality in the overall set of national policies.

3. THE PATH OF ENGAGING AND SUPPORTING WOMEN THROUGH WORK TRANSITIONS

The global transformations currently under way – relating to technology, demographics and climate change – require greater efforts to engage and support women during work transitions.

Lifelong learning so that no one is left behind

The fast-changing pace at which the world of work is transforming requires an approach that allows workers to keep up with demands for new skills. Lifelong learning can be instrumental in helping to prevent people, women in particular, from being left behind during social and economic development. Proactive measures encouraging young women to engage in STEM studies and occupational trajectories are increasing, as are training programmes aimed at facilitating the return to work for women and men either after childbirth, following a period of parental leave, or as a result of long-term unemployment due to unpaid family care responsibilities. Closing the digital gender divide must also be a focus of gender-responsive lifelong learning initiatives.

An enabling environment for women entrepreneurs

Initiatives promoting women's entrepreneurship development are prioritized by many countries. Steps to create a more favourable environment in this regard are increasingly being taken, including in the context of technology, innovation, finance and public procurement. Trends also indicate more integrated approaches to entrepreneurship policies and their implementation. In the future, greater attention should be paid to providing incentives to support women in transitioning to formalized enterprises, including through cooperatives and other social and solidarity economy units.

4. THE PATH OF WOMEN'S VOICE AND REPRESENTATION

To be effective, all paths discussed so far need to function in tandem with the path of women's voice and representation. Proactive measures have helped to increase women's participation and representation in the internal governance structures of trade unions and employers' organizations. Collective representation and social dialogue, including collective bargaining, that embrace gender diversity are better positioned to navigate future of work transitions and to more swiftly pursue all the paths that lead to a better future for women at work. It is not a matter of "fixing" women but rather ensuring that the environment is receptive to women's voice and that barriers are removed to allow women to participate in enterprise, national and international social dialogue processes.

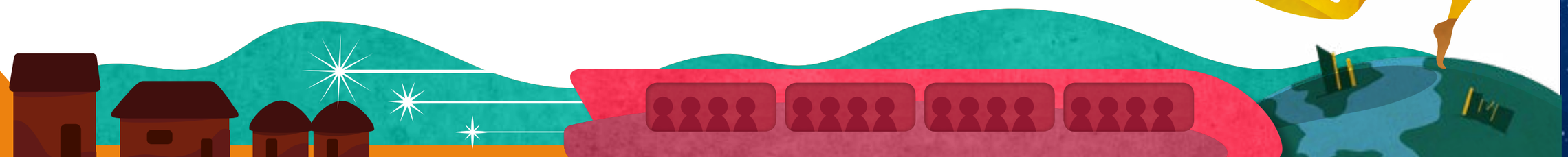
TOWARDS A TRANSFORMATIVE AND MEASURABLE AGENDA FOR GENDER EQUALITY

A QUANTUM LEAP FOR GENDER EQUALITY

In the current organization of societies, women and girls still perform the greatest share of unpaid care work, even though men and boys of the twenty-first century are increasingly aware of the need to share this work and eager to shoulder part of the responsibility. A shift in mindsets can be accelerated if economies and societies recognize not only that they depend on care work to survive and thrive, but also that work and care are closely interconnected. This mutual dependence is even more apparent in the context of the current transition towards a digital and green economy.

Reconciling the worlds of "work" and "care" is one of the key challenges to actively promoting gender equality. Decreasing fertility rates, increasing migrant movements and ageing populations, and the rising number of women in employment are today's reality. Accelerating a new equilibrium requires bold policies and measures that end violence, harassment and discrimination against women with the underpinning aim to better distribute care responsibilities across genders. Reliable gender-disaggregated data are essential to designing such policies and monitoring outcomes to establish what works for women. Meeting these challenges also requires placing emphasis not only on individual agency, but also on collective action through solidarity, building strategic alliances and promoting social mobilization, all of which relies on greater participation of women in decision-making.

"Tripartism, which is embedded in the structure of the ILO, is a dynamic force to upscale efforts and achieve gender equality in the world of work."



INTRODUCTION

Choices will shape the future of work. In particular, choices about laws and policies are key to determining whether the future of work will promote and ensure gender equality, or if it will further entrench inequalities. A better future for women at work is possible, but only with an ecosystem of reinforcing measures and an unwavering commitment to gender equality.

In 1919, the ILO adopted the first Conventions on women and work. A century later, women are a force in the labour market, breaking boundaries that at one time would have been considered impossible. Women are presidents, prime ministers, CEOs of Fortune 500 companies, trade union leaders, entrepreneurs. Professions, boardrooms and occupations that were once closed to them are now attainable - at least for some women and in some countries.

While significant advances have taken place for women at work over the past century, there is no room for complacency. Progress in closing gender gaps has stalled, and in some cases is reversing. The gender gaps in terms of key labour market indicators have not narrowed in any meaningful way for over 20 years. This situation should give rise to concern. Unless the present trajectory is changed, unless policy choices are made that put gender equality at their core, the situation is likely to deteriorate further as work becomes more fragmented and the future remains uncertain. This is a clear message coming out of the extensive and often groundbreaking work undertaken in the context of the ILO's Women at Work Centenary Initiative, launched in 2013.[1] The findings and recommendations of the Initiative resonate with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015.[2] The realization of the 2030 Agenda depends on the achievement of gender equality in the world of work.

This report is the culmination of the Women at Work Centenary Initiative. Challenging assumptions has been the hallmark of the Initiative. How well are women actually doing in the labour market compared to men, in terms of both the quantity and the quality of jobs; what do women want in the world of work and why are they not getting it; what is the impact of violence and harassment in the world of work; is education supporting more equal participation of and pay for women; will the digital economy help or harm women's prospects; what lies behind gender pay gaps? Evidence-based research and analysis in the context of the Initiative has shattered some widely held assumptions that have stood in the way of real progress on gender equality. What is clear is that there remains an unacceptable gap between women's aspirations and labour market realities. There is also an expanding body of evidence to support the principle that gender equality is an economic imperative - for households, communities, businesses, economies and societies.

Laws, policies and practices that have made a tangible difference for women in the world of work have also been a focus of the Initiative, highlighting proven and promising measures in the context of a rapidly changing world of work. As the nature and organization of work continues to change, understanding the implications of this evolving environment for women and men, and ensuring appropriate policy responses, is more important than ever.

The first chapter of this culmination report highlights gender gaps and key obstacles to decent work for women. The focus is on areas which also reflect specific Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the 2030 Agenda.[3] Chapter 2 further explores the structural barriers that shape the nature and extent of women's engagement in paid employment, and

1 ILO, 2013b.
2 United Nations General Assembly, 2015.
3 SDG 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls; SDG 8 on promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all; SDG 4 on ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all; SDG 10 on reducing inequalities within and among countries.

how laws, policies and practices in some countries have addressed them. Chapter 3 calls for a mix of legislative and policy measures to accelerate progress. The role of unpaid care work is highlighted and analysed throughout the report, as this remains the main barrier limiting women's access to paid employment, in terms of both the quantity and the quality of jobs. Violence and harassment in the world of work is also a significant barrier, and impacts on women being able to access and remain in jobs, pay and representation. The role of technology is also a cross-cutting theme. The report recognizes that women are not a homogeneous group and analyses the impact of ethnicity and migration status, which, along with gender, often result in the compounding of labour market inequalities.

Drawing and expanding on the insights and reflections from innovative research, surveys and data analysis, as well as dialogues and partnerships in the context of the Women at Work Centenary Initiative, this report reinforces the need for a multifaceted approach and provides a direction regarding the measures that can, and should, be taken. The ILO's Centenary Initiative provides a privileged opportunity to change the trajectory and accelerate efforts to ensure that the future delivers decent work for all women and men, in the spirit of the 2030 Agenda. Achieving this goal will require the commitment, support and involvement of all actors, at all levels, with the ILO constituents leading the way.

"As the nature and organization of work continues to change, understanding the implications of this evolving environment for women and men, and ensuring appropriate policy responses, is more important than ever."

1919
ILO ADOPTED THE FIRST CONVENTIONS ON WOMEN & WORK

CHAPTER 1
MINDING THE GENDER GAPS

Over the past century, women have become a significant force in labour markets across the globe, and they continue to break new boundaries. However, in 2019, decent work for women, including equal rights at work and equal opportunities, remains elusive.

Globally, women are estimated to have lower chances of being employed than men and are more likely to be at the bottom of the professional ladder.[1] They earn, on average, only 80 per cent of what men make, and discrimination, including violence and harassment in the world of work, against women is pervasive.[2] Progress in closing gender gaps has stalled, and in some cases is even reversing, despite the many laws, policies and international commitments adopted in support of gender equality over the past decades.[3]

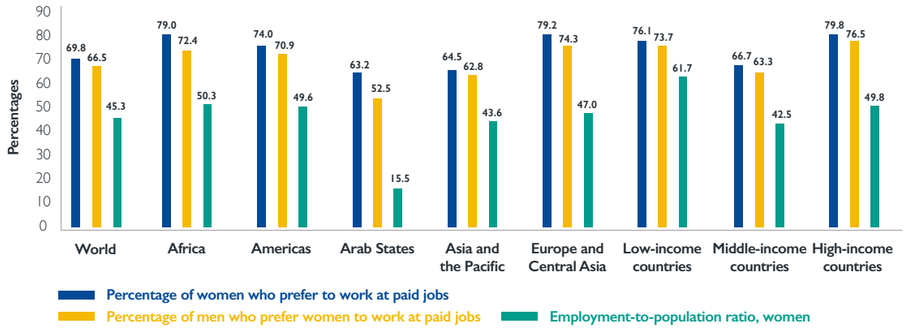
This chapter seeks to identify the structural barriers that hinder women's progress in the world of work across regions and within regions. It looks in particular at beliefs and practices that hinder women's access to paid work and that prevent them from being paid fairly or reaching the top of the occupational ladder. Closing these gaps is essential to realizing the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda, particularly SDG 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls and SDG 8 on promoting inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all.

WOMEN WANT TO WORK BUT ARE STILL NOT GETTING THE JOBS

Women want to work at paid jobs, including when they have children, and men agree that they should have that opportunity. And women who are in employment are more likely to consider that they are "thriving" than women who are not employed. These are the findings set out in a joint ILO–Gallup report released in 2017[4] which proved that widely held assumptions about women's preferences and societal expectations were actually wrong. Based on a representative global sample, about 70 per cent of the women interviewed said that they would prefer to be in paid work, and 66.5 per cent of men agreed with such preference (figure 1.1).[5] This was the case even in those regions where low female participation in employment is the norm, such as in the Arab States. It can no longer credibly be claimed, in any region or income group, that the employment gap between women and men is due to the fact that women do not want to work outside the home.

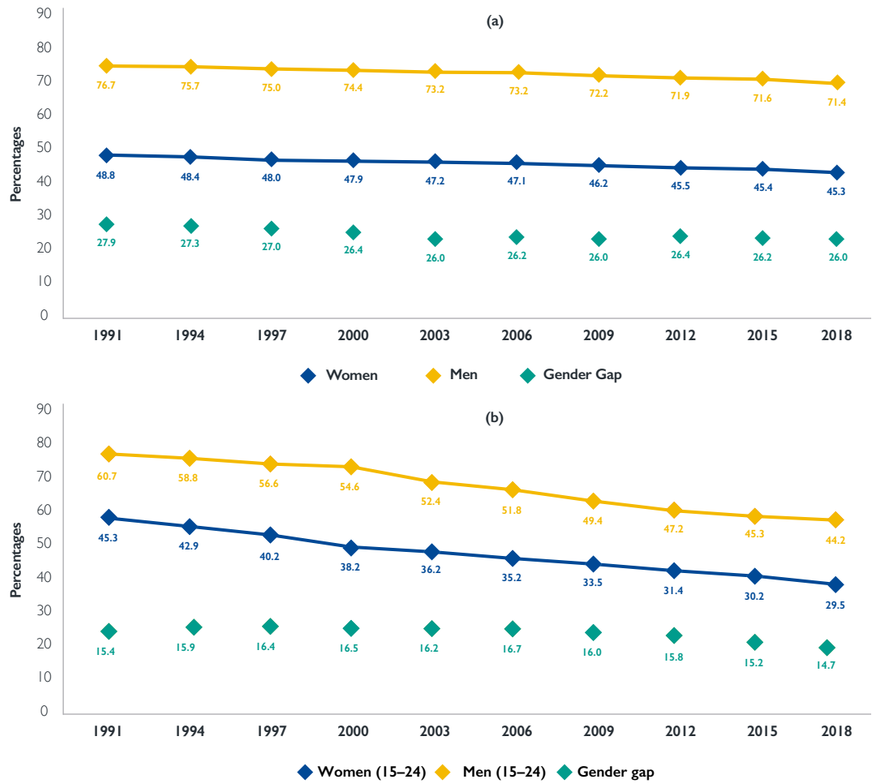
However, the reality of the situation is in stark contrast to women's and men's wishes regarding women's employment. Only 45.3 per cent of women had a job, resulting in a gap of almost 25 percentage points between the desired and the actual employment rate for women (see figure 1.1). In 2018, 1.3 billion women were in employment compared to 2.0 billion men, which means that there were still over 700 million fewer women in employment than men. In other words, women were still 26.0 percentage points less likely to be employed than men. Over the past 27 years, the gender employment gap has shrunk by less than 2 percentage points. Both rates have declined globally, but for men it declined at a faster rate (see figure 1.2a). This trend is explained in part by the reduction in the employment rates of both young women and young men, which may be a positive development as many of them might have decided to pursue further studies (see figure 1.2b). Not surprisingly, gross enrolment ratios for secondary and tertiary education have increased for both women and men and gender gaps in enrolment

Figure 1.1. Preference of women to work at paid jobs and employment-to-population ratio, latest year



Note: Data on preferences are from 2017 and data on employment-to-population ratio are from 2018, age group 15 years and above.
Source: ILO calculations based on ILO–Gallup, 2017 and ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Figure 1.2. Global employment-to-population ratios by sex, 1991-2018: (a) Age group 15 years and above; (b) Age group 15–24 years.



Note: The employment-to-population ratio is the ratio of the labour force currently employed to the working-age population.
Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

rates had almost closed in 2017.[6] However, the proportion of the youth population that is neither in employment nor in education or training (the NEET rate) is 21.2 per cent, of which 69.1 per cent are women.[7] The over-representation of women among the NEET, especially in emerging countries, is strongly linked to care responsibilities, such as childcare, older person care, care for disabled persons or those living with HIV, and in some cases to gender stereotypes.[8]

Differences across regions

These global employment trends conceal substantial regional variations. The Arab States, for example, have experienced a slight reduction of 0.4 percentage points between 1991 and 2018 in the gender employment gap. This is essentially due to the limited quantity and poor quality of the jobs generated, traditional expectations of women's role in society, recurrent political instability[9] and reliance on natural resource rents in some economies of the region.[10]

Other regions, such as Asia and the Pacific, have seen women's employment rates fall more markedly than men's, despite women being better educated, having fewer children and being more likely to live in urban areas compared to three decades ago. This is especially the case for the most dynamic economies of the region, such as India and China. While demographics provide one explanatory factor, other causes are also at play: the rapid transition from agricultural to industrial sectors,[11] the lack of care services and infrastructure that enable women to combine paid employment with domestic chores and family responsibilities, and the persistence of social norms regarding what is considered appropriate for women and what tasks they are better suited to undertake.[12]

The Americas is the region which, over the past 27 years, has witnessed the largest, though still modest, decline in the gender employment gap (9.0 percentage points), with Latin America and the Caribbean providing the driving force behind this trend (see figure 1.3). This was driven by the growth in women's employment rates between 1996 and 2008, due to better education for women, greater availability of formal jobs in the service sector, lower fertility rates, migration from rural to urban areas[13] and promotion of part-time working arrangements.[14] By contrast, since 2012, the trend has reversed and employment rates for both women and men have started to decline, with men's rates declining faster.[15]

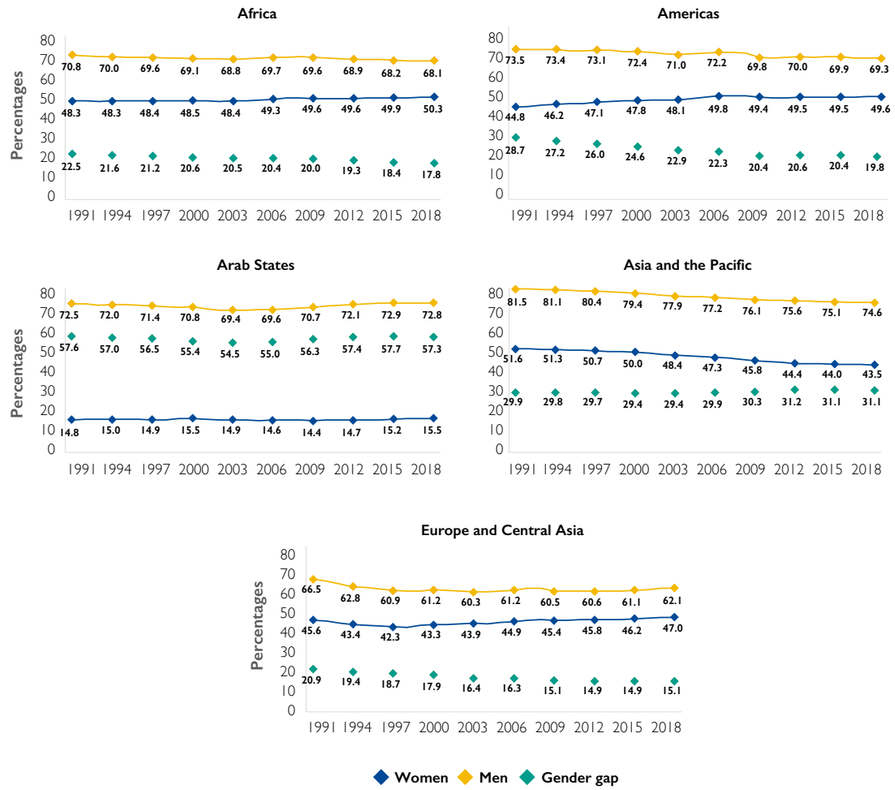
In Europe and Central Asia, the gender employment gap has declined by 5.8 percentage points between 1991 and 2018. This reduction has been driven by a slight increase in women's employment rate of just 1.4 percentage points and a more pronounced decrease in men's employment rate of 4.4 percentage points. Higher female educational achievements, the expansion of the service sector and the increase in part-time employment opportunities have all played a role.[16] In 2030, a significant rise in the demand for long-term care is expected as further increases in life expectancy are anticipated.[17] Boosting employment opportunities, especially in the care sectors, will be critical for economic growth and public finances, as well as for the sustainability of pension systems (see Chapter 2 for further detail).[18]

Similarly, in Africa the gender gap in the employment rate has decreased slightly, reaching 17.8 percentage points in 2018, but a north–south divide in subregional dynamics persists. Northern Africa is the subregion with the lowest female employment rates. Women seem to leave paid work around the age of 25, which usually coincides with marriage, suggesting that ascribed gender roles and stereotypes are deeply ingrained in the region.[19] Another possible reason is the limited expansion of the service and manufacturing sectors, where there are usually more employment opportunities for women.[20] In contrast, in sub-Saharan Africa, women's employment rates are the highest in the world (59.1 per cent) and gender gaps in employment rates are the lowest (9.8 percentage points), but at the expense of job quality. Indeed, in sub-Saharan Africa, informal employment is the main source of employment, especially for women,[21] who are over-represented in agriculture, a sector which permits them to more easily combine paid work and unpaid care responsibilities.[22] Drivers of high informality rates in the region range from inappropriate macroeconomic frameworks and inefficient public institutions to the presence of micro and small family enterprises and smallholder or subsistence farmers.[23]

THE QUALITY OF WORK LEAVES MUCH TO BE DESIRED

Historically, women have been crowded into a narrower set of occupations and sectors than men, often those that are lower paid and have more limited career prospects. Globally, women are almost as likely as men to be employed in agriculture,[24] although the

Figure 1.3. Employment-to-population ratios by region and sex, 1991–2018



Note: The employment-to-population ratio is the ratio of the labour force currently employed to the working-age population.
Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

global picture conceals several subregional disparities. For instance, in Northern Africa, 38.2 per cent of women are employed in agriculture, a value which is 15.0 percentage points higher than men's share of employment in agriculture. While in Southern Asia women are 20.8 percentage points more likely to be employed in agriculture than men,[25] as men tend to migrate to urban areas to look for better quality jobs.[26] In the absence of social infrastructure in rural areas, women are more prone to accept low-paid jobs in the agricultural sector, where it is easier for them to juggle paid employment and unpaid care work.[27]

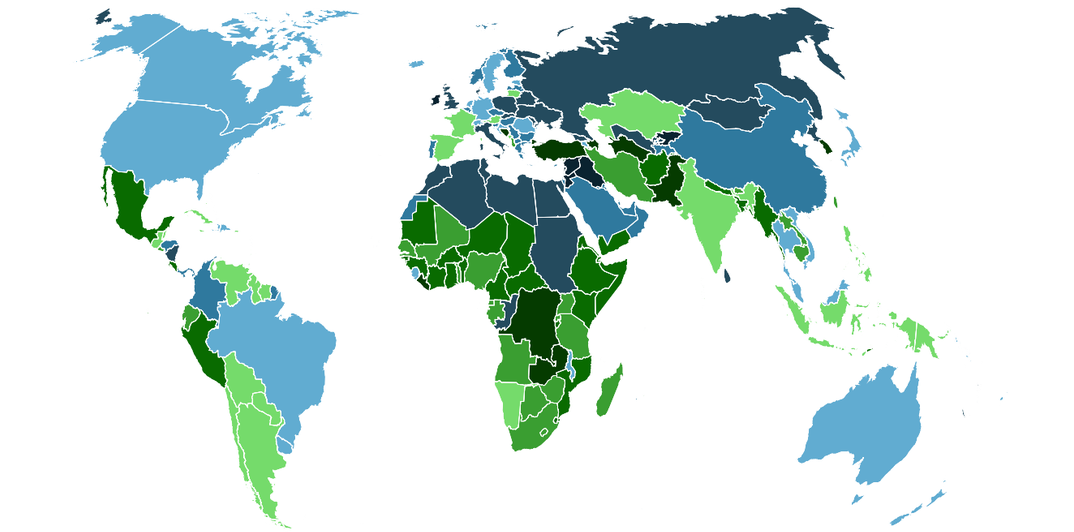
Women are also more likely to be employed in occupations that are considered to be low-skilled, such as clerical support workers and service and sales workers – occupations in which one-quarter of women in employment are found. At the sub-regional level, in Northern America and Northern, Southern and Western Europe, the share of women employed in these two occupations jumps to almost 40 per cent, mainly due to the availability of part-time working arrangements and a well-developed service economy. Throughout the world, women are also less likely than men to be employed as managers (see the section below "There are still too few women at the top").[28]

In most low- and middle-income countries, the majority of women work informally

Globally, the share of women in informal employment is lower than the share of men but there are actually more countries (55.4 per cent) where the share of women in informal employment exceeds the share of men. In fact, women are more exposed to informal employment than men in over 90 per cent of sub-Saharan African countries, 89 per cent of countries in Southern Asia and almost 75 per cent of Latin American countries (figure 1.4). Not only are women more likely to work informally than men in emerging economies, they are also often found in occupations that are the most vulnerable to decent work deficits, such as in domestic, home-based or contributing family work.[29] It is therefore not surprising that in most of these countries more women than men who work in the informal economy live in households which are below the poverty line.[30]

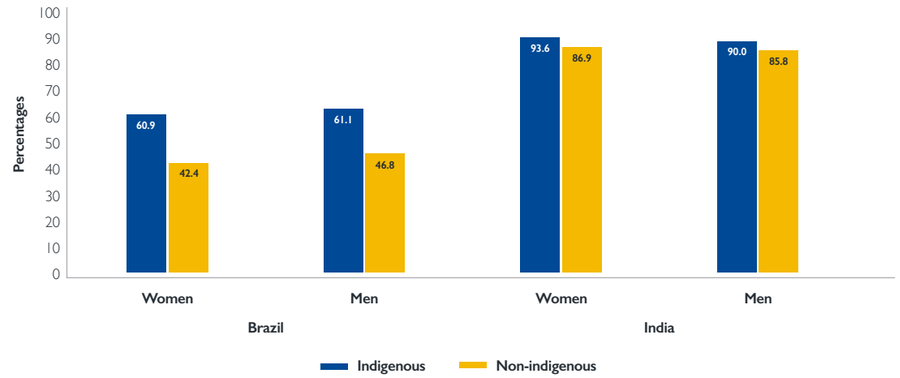
There are certain social groups, such as indigenous and tribal peoples, which exhibit higher than average informality rates. Among these groups, women are at greater risk of working informally compared to their male counterparts and to non-indigenous women. When gender intersects with other characteristics, such as ethnicity, migration status and disability, this results in the widening of both gender disparities and intra-women inequalities (figure 1.5).[31] This makes it necessary to supplement universal policies with targeted measures in support of women who face compounded disadvantages due to their personal characteristics.

Figure 1.4. Gender gap in the share of informal employment in total employment, including agriculture, latest year



Note: IE is informal employment; pcpts is percentage points.
Source: ILO, 2018n.

Figure 1.5. Informal employment as a share of total employment by ethnicity and sex, latest year

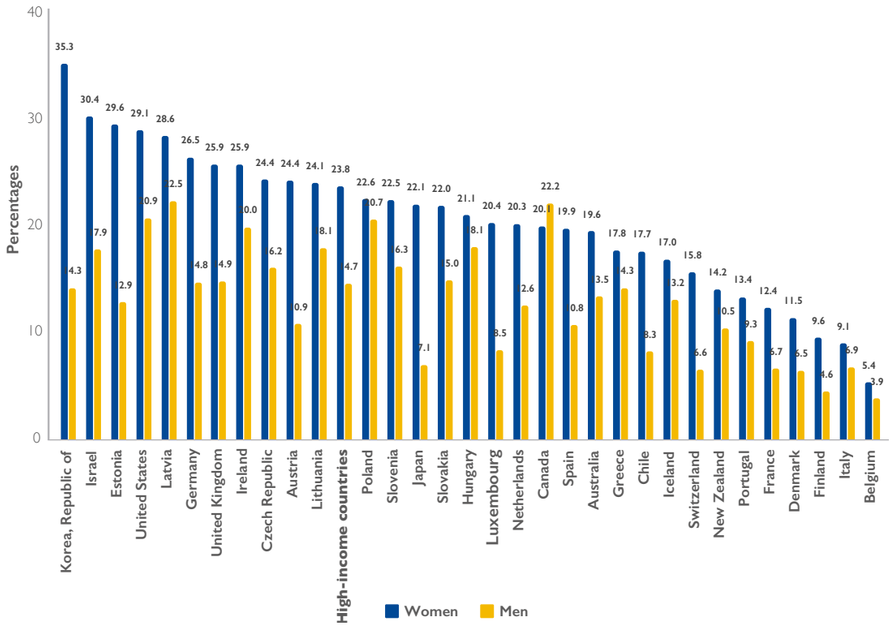


Note: See Appendix A2, Table A.2.1 for survey year.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

The ILO estimates that in 2017, there were 164 million migrant workers worldwide, 68 million of whom were women.[32] Migration status is another characteristic associated with a greater chance of working in the informal economy. Indeed, in high-income countries, the majority of domestic workers, who are typically undeclared workers, are migrants.[33] In 2013, the ILO global estimates show that, throughout the world, there are 11.5 million migrant domestic workers – of these, 73.4 per cent are women. The South-East Asia and the Pacific region hosted the largest share of women migrant domestic workers (24.0 per cent), followed by Northern, Southern and Western Europe (22.1 per cent) and the Arab States (19.0 per cent). In contrast, more than half of male migrant domestic workers (50.8 per cent) are found in the Arab States, followed by Northern, Southern and Western Europe (11.3 per cent) and South Asia (10.9 per cent).[34]

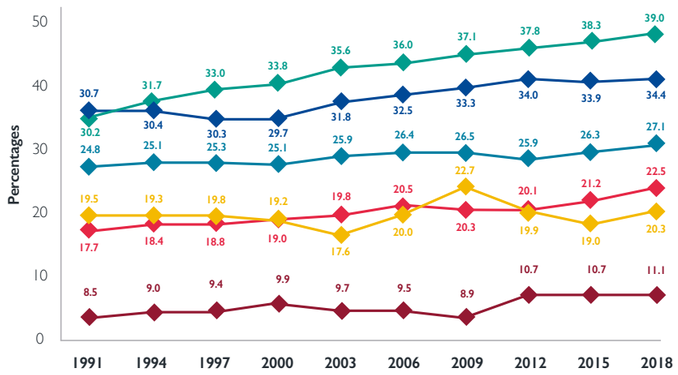
"When gender intersects with other characteristics, such as ethnicity, migration status and disability, this results in the widening of both gender disparities and intra-women inequalities."

Figure 1.6. Incidence of full-time low-paid workers, by sex, latest year



Note: The incidence of low-paid workers is defined as the share of full-time workers earning less than two-thirds of gross median earnings of all full-time workers. Latest year is 2017 in seven countries, 2016 in five counties, 2015 in two countries, 2014 in eight countries. High-income countries: employed population weighted average covering 86.2 per cent (32 countries) of the total employed.
Source: OECD.Stat 2019.

Figure 1.7. Share of women in managerial positions by region, 1991–2018



Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

In high-income countries, women are concentrated in low-paying jobs

In high-income countries, a considerable share of the population is poor despite being employed. Those working for low pay are mainly women, migrant workers[35] and workers who are in temporary employment, which may or may not be on a voluntary basis.[36] In Europe, 63 per cent of women state that they engage in temporary jobs because they could not find a permanent one. Women in temporary jobs face wage penalties, in comparison to women with similar personal characteristics and in similar, though open-ended, jobs.[37]

Part-time work, when voluntary, can be advantageous and allow for a better work–family balance. Yet, throughout the world, more women than men report that they are underemployed – meaning that they are willing but unable to work more hours and induced to accept part-time working arrangements and hence lower than desired earnings.[38] Low-paid employment is a concern even for full-time women workers, especially women. In high-income countries, 23.8 per cent of full-time women workers are in low-paid jobs compared to 14.7 per cent of men (figure 1.6).

"Part-time work, when voluntary, can be advantageous and allow for a better work–family balance. Yet, throughout the world, more women than men report that they are underemployed – meaning that they are willing but unable to work more hours and induced to accept part-time working arrangements and hence lower than desired earnings."

THERE ARE STILL TOO FEW WOMEN AT THE TOP

A growing body of evidence shows that companies with a more balanced representation of women in their decision-making bodies achieve better financial results compared to those with less diverse leadership structures.[39] And yet, globally only 27.1 per cent of managers and leaders are women – a figure that has changed very little over the past 30 years (figure 1.7).[40] In 2018, the share of women in managerial and leadership positions ranges from 11.1 per cent in the Arab States to 39.0 per cent in the Americas. The Americas experienced the largest increase over the 27-year period (8.8 percentage points), followed by Asia and the Pacific (4.8 percentage points) and Europe and Central Asia (3.7 percentage points). In Africa, women's share of representation in top positions is around 20 per cent.

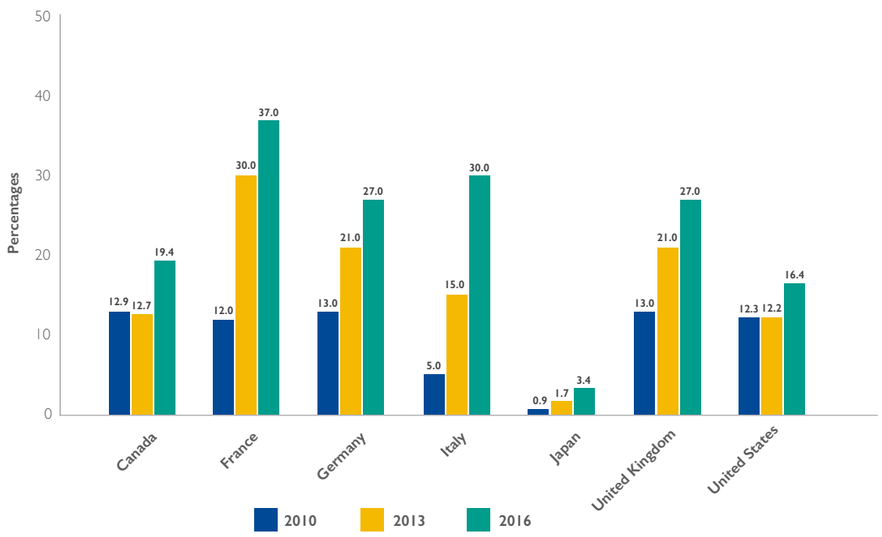
Across G7 countries, the largest publicly listed companies also saw an increase in the share of women sitting on company boards between 2010 and 2016,[41] with Italy and France experiencing the largest increase, resulting from the introduction of quotas for women on company boards in the two countries (figure 1.8).[42] However, the percentage of women who chair company boards remains critically low, ranging from 0 per cent in Germany to 4.6 per cent in the United States, showing that the glass ceiling still needs to be broken (figure 1.9).

It takes less time for women to reach a managerial or leadership position

While few women make it to the top, those who do, get there faster than men.[43] Based on the most recent worldwide data, women managers and leaders are almost one year younger than their male counterparts and the difference in age shrinks as the national income increases. In low-income countries, women managers are, on average, 6.1 years younger than men, 1.3 years in middle-income countries and 1.7 years in high-income countries (figure 1.10). This is an interesting and unexpected finding.

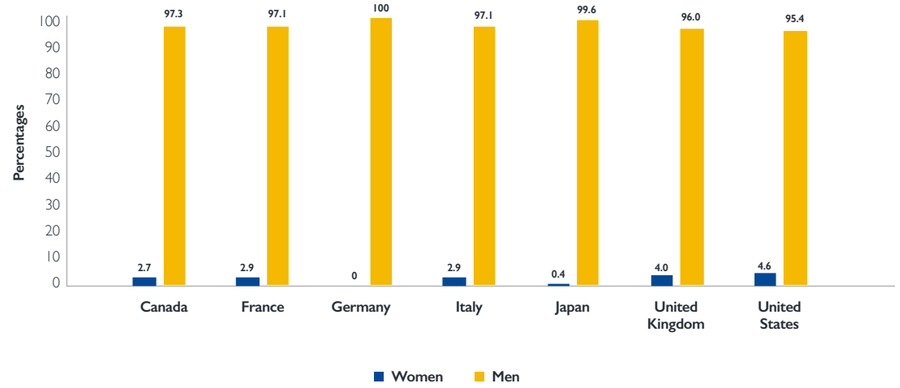
"Women managers and leaders are almost one year younger than their male counterparts and the difference in age shrinks as the national income increases."

Figure 1.8. Share of women sitting on company boards, 2010–2016



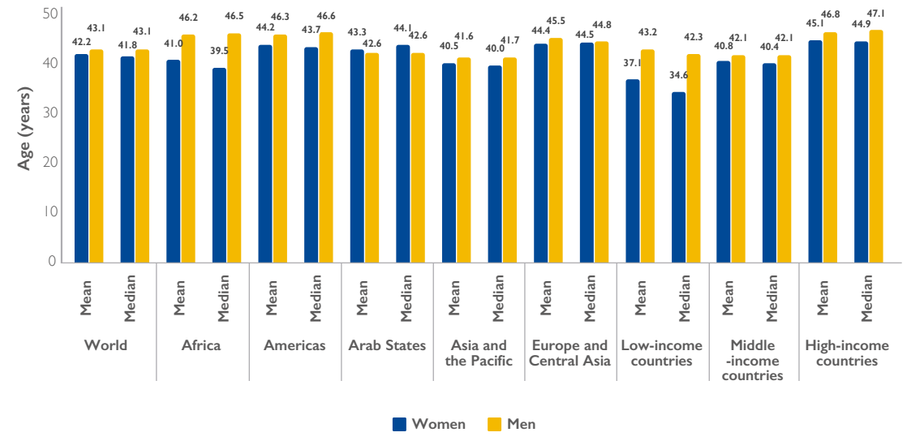
Source: OECD.Stat 2018, based on data from largest publicly listed companies.

Figure 1.9. Percentage of Chief Executive Officers who are women, latest year



Note: Reference year: first half of 2018 for France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom; 2016 for Canada, Japan and the United States.
Source: France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom: European Institute for Gender Equality 2018, based on data from largest publicly listed companies. Canada, United States and Japan: Deloitte, 2016.

Figure 1.10. Mean and median age of leaders or managers, by sex, latest year



Note: Age group: 15 and older. Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the male and female population in managerial and leadership positions. Percentage of employed population and number of countries: World: 82 per cent (82); Africa: 63 per cent (19); Americas: 80 per cent (11); Arab States: 33 per cent (3); Asia and the Pacific: 89 per cent (18); Europe and Central Asia: 82 per cent (31); Low-income countries: 65 per cent (14); Middle-income countries: 88 per cent (38); High-income countries: 69 per cent (30). See Appendix A.1, table A.1.1 for country-level data and Appendix A.2, table A.2.1 for survey year.
Source: ILO calculation based on labour force and household surveys.

"Globally, 44.3 per cent of women managers have an advanced university degree compared with 38.3 per cent of men managers, showing that women managers are more likely to have a higher level of education than men managers."

The younger age of women managers is supported by LinkedIn data for a selection of countries, indicating that women LinkedIn members[44] are on average, slightly faster than men in reaching a director-level position (Figure 1.11). This is true among members who became leaders five, ten or many years ago, suggesting this is a consistent trend.

Why do women reach the top more quickly?

Potential reasons for this finding might be that younger women have fewer family responsibilities (see the section on "The motherhood leadership penalty" below)[45] or that women have higher levels of educational achievement compared to men. Globally, 44.3 per cent of women managers have an advanced university degree compared with 38.3 per cent of men managers, showing that women managers are more likely to have a higher level of education than men managers. Across regions, with the exception of Asia and the Pacific, women managers are more likely to have an advanced degree compared to men (figure 1.12).

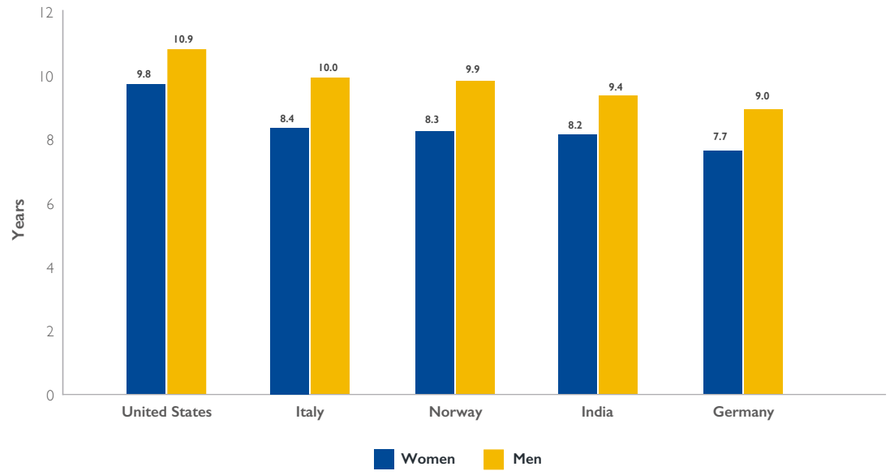
This situation begs the question: If women want to work, why don't they get paid jobs, or the good jobs?

WHAT HINDERS WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES?

Education matters, but is not the main reason

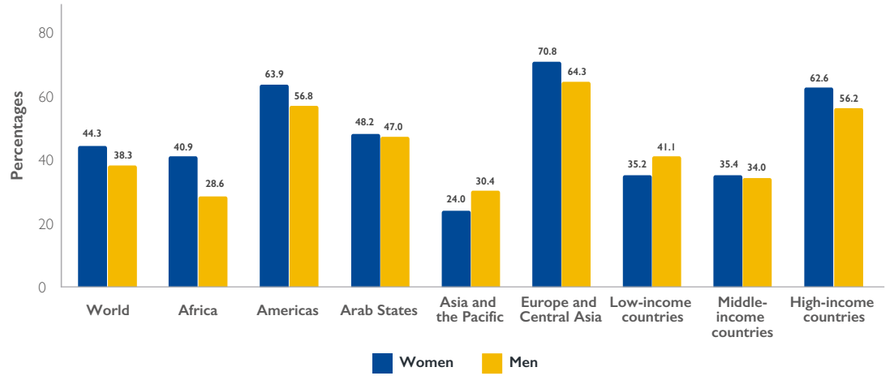
Despite the impressive progress in closing the gender gaps in enrolment rates in secondary and tertiary education over the past 40 years, substantial gender inequalities in educational achievements for adult populations remain.[46] Globally, 31.6 per cent of adult women have less than primary education, compared to 21.9 per cent of men, but in low-income countries these percentages are twice as high for both genders.

Figure 1.11. Average number of years to reach a director-level position, 2018



Note: Number of women and men LinkedIn members who reached director-level positions: United States (women: 1,568,904; men: 2,880,750), Italy (women: 40,105; men: 74,075), Norway (women: 17,938; men: 30,814), India (women: 86,362; men: 407,316), Germany (women: 46,013; men: 149,068).
Source: Calculations based on LinkedIn microdata.

Figure 1.12. Share of women and men with advanced university degrees in managerial or leadership positions, latest year



Note: Age group: 15 and older. Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the population in managerial and leadership positions. Percentage of employed population and number of countries: World: 80 per cent (83); Africa: 63 per cent (20); Americas: 81 per cent (13); Arab States: 33 per cent (3); Asia and the Pacific: 86 per cent (17); Europe and Central Asia: 72 per cent (30); Low-income countries: 65 per cent (14); Middle-income countries: 86 per cent (39); High-income countries: 62 per cent (30). See Appendix A.1, table A.1.2 for country-level data and Appendix A.2, table A.2.1 for survey year.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

Data show that a higher level education corresponds to higher employment rates (figure 1.13). Gender gaps in employment participation are also further reduced by higher educational achievements. For instance, the gender gap in employment participation for primary education holders stands at 41.1 percentage points, while it decreases to 24.3 percentage points for university degree holders. This finding is also consistent with the ILO–Gallup survey, mentioned earlier, which revealed that women and men with higher education are more likely to approve of women in the family working outside the home[47] (figure 1.14).

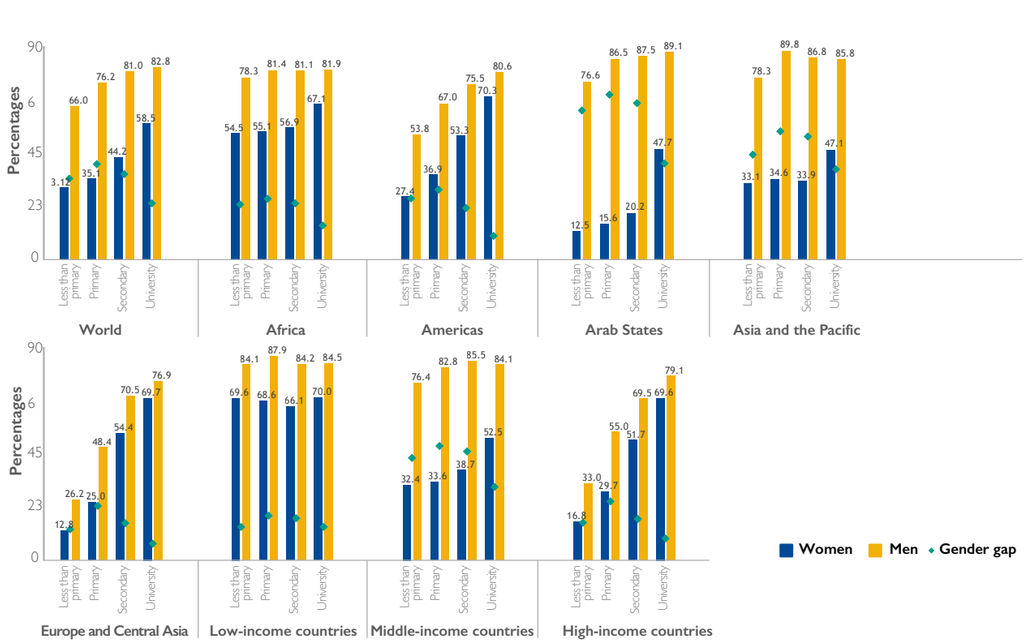
Nevertheless, over 41.5 per cent of adult women with a university degree are either unemployed or outside the labour force, while only 17.2 per cent of men are in a similar situation. Women and men are not getting comparable employment dividends for their education.[48]

While education is key to bringing more women into employment and keeping them there, it is insufficient on its own. Economic structures also play a role. In low-income countries, where employment is concentrated in agriculture, higher educational achievements for women may have a limited effect in securing them a job that is commensurate with their knowledge and that meets both individual and societal expectations. Conversely, as national income increases, the demand for jobs with mid to high levels of skills also rises.

Caregiving plays the biggest role

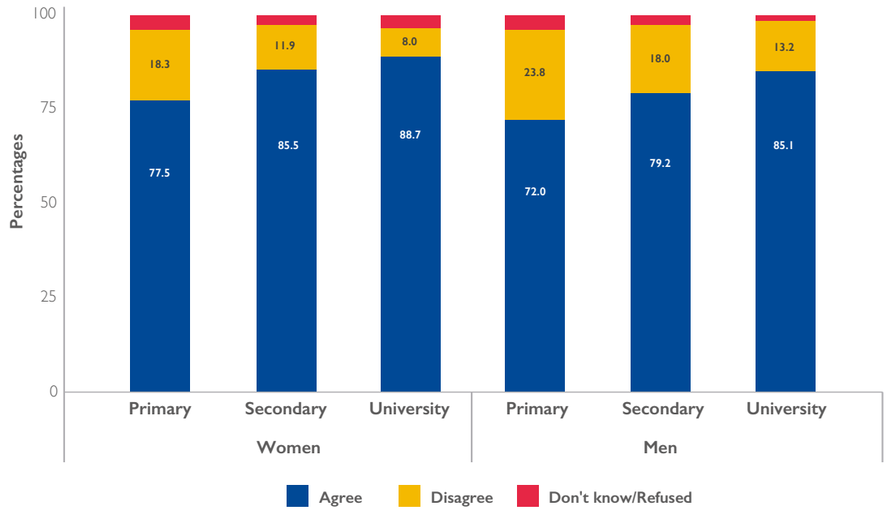
Looking after spouses, partners, children or other family members can be rewarding for the care provider and beneficial for those who receive the care. Care is also indispensable to human well-being and the development of people's capabilities.[49]

Figure 1.13. Employment-to-population ratio by sex and level of education, age group 25 years and above, latest year



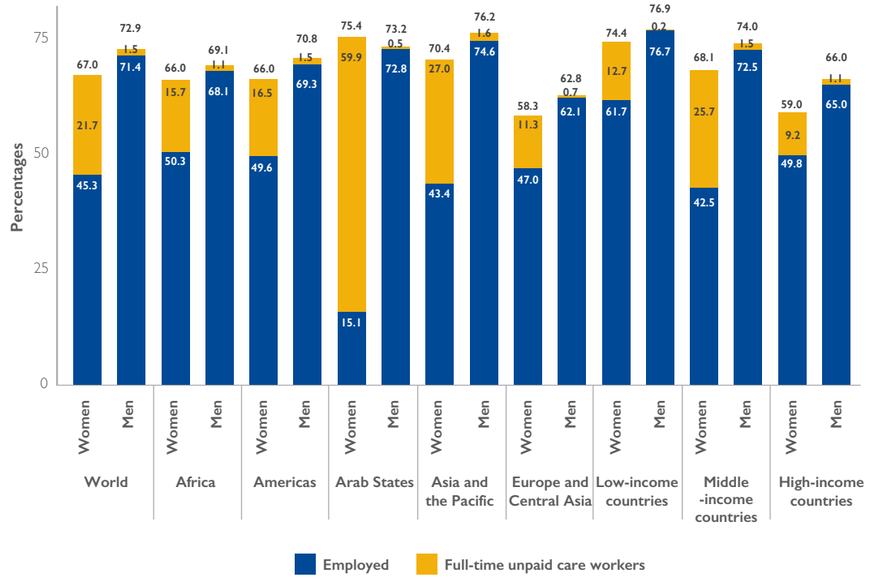
Note: Age group: adults (25 years and above). Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the adult population. Percentage of adult population and number of countries: World: 69 per cent (132); Africa: 64 per cent (31); Americas: 98 per cent (24); Arab States: 72 per cent (6); Asia and the Pacific: 57 per cent (27); Europe and Central Asia: 93 per cent (44); Low-income countries: 71 per cent (20); Middle-income countries: 62 per cent (65); High-income countries: 96 per cent (47). See ILOSTAT, 2018 for country-level data and survey year.
Source: ILO calculations based on ILOSTAT, 2018.

Figure 1.14. Acceptability of work for women, by sex and educational achievement, 2016



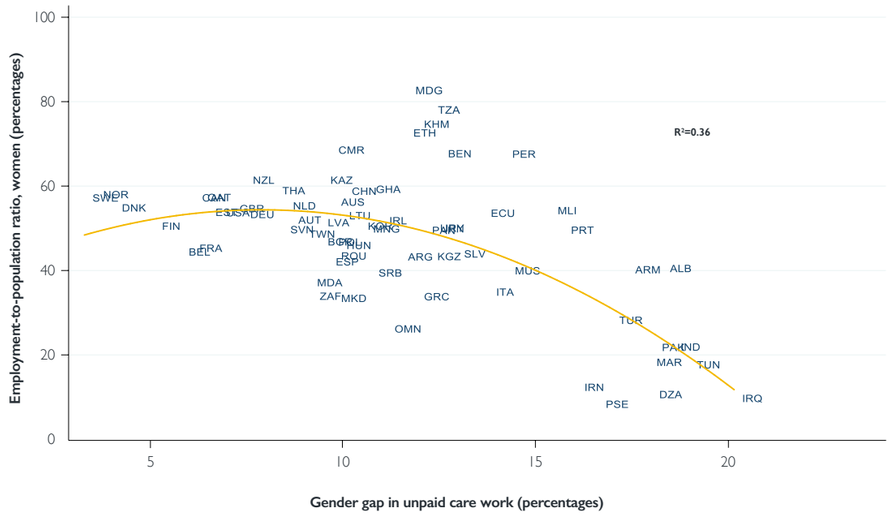
Note: Question asked to men and women: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? It is perfectly acceptable for any woman in your family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one.
Source: ILO calculations based on the Gallup World Poll microdata.

Figure 1.15. Employed workers and full-time unpaid care workers, by sex, latest year



Note: Age group: 15 and older. Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the working-age population. Percentage of working-age population and number of countries: World: 80 per cent (84); Africa: 61 per cent (21); Americas: 87 per cent (12); Arab States: 43 per cent (3); Asia and the Pacific: 85 per cent (15); Europe and Central Asia: 75 per cent (33); Low-income countries: 54 per cent (12); Middle-income countries: 84 per cent (40); High-income countries: 73 per cent (32).
Source: ILO calculations based on ILO, 2018a.

Figure 1.16. Relationship between the gender gap in the share of time spent in unpaid care work and women's employment-to-population ratio, latest year



Sources: ILO calculations based on ILO modelled estimates, November 2018, and Charmes, 2018.

However, depending on who provides it and for how many hours a day, unpaid care work can prevent or reduce the chances of people with family responsibilities engaging, remaining and progressing in paid employment.

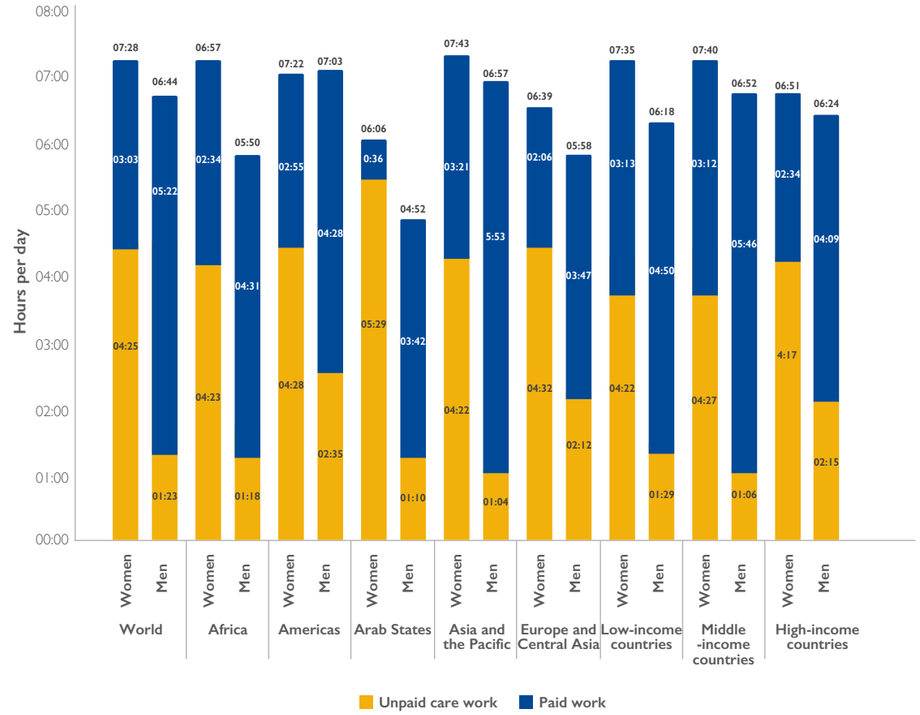
Traditionally, women have been portrayed as the caregivers and societies and labour markets continue to function largely on this assumption. Unpaid care work is the main reason why women are outside the labour force. Across the world, 606 million working-age women (or 21.7 per cent) perform unpaid care work on a full-time basis, compared to 41 million men[50] (or 1.5 per cent) (figure 1.15). Across regions, the Arab States have the highest percentage of women full-time unpaid care workers (59.9 per cent), followed by Asia and the Pacific (27.0 per cent), the Americas (16.5 per cent), Africa (15.7 per cent) and Europe and Central Asia (11.3 per cent). See box 2.6 "Recognizing unpaid care work as work".

The distribution of unpaid care work between men and women in the household influences women's levels and types of engagement in the labour market. Indeed, where the bulk of caregiving (for children, older persons, persons with disabilities and household chores) falls on women's shoulders, they are less likely to work for pay or profit (figure 1.16).

When the number of hours spent in paid and unpaid work are combined, women's working days (seven hours and 28 minutes) are longer than men's (six hours and 44 minutes). Globally, women perform more than three-quarters of the total time spent in unpaid care work (76.2 per cent) and dedicate, on average, four hours and 25 minutes daily to unpaid care work, in comparison to men's average of one hour and 23 minutes (figure 1.17). Over the course of a year, this represents a total of 201 working days (based on an eight-hour working day) for women and 63 working days for men. In low- and middle-income countries, the gender gap in the share of unpaid care work is larger than in high-income countries (figure 1.17).

The imbalanced division of work within the household between men and women is one of the most resilient features of gender inequality. Between 1997 and 2012, it is estimated the time women devoted to housework and caregiving diminished by only 15 minutes per day, while that of men increased by just eight minutes per

Figure 1.17. Time spent daily in unpaid care work, paid work and total work, by sex and income group, latest year



Source: ILO calculations based on ILO modelled estimates, November 2018, and Charmes, 2018.

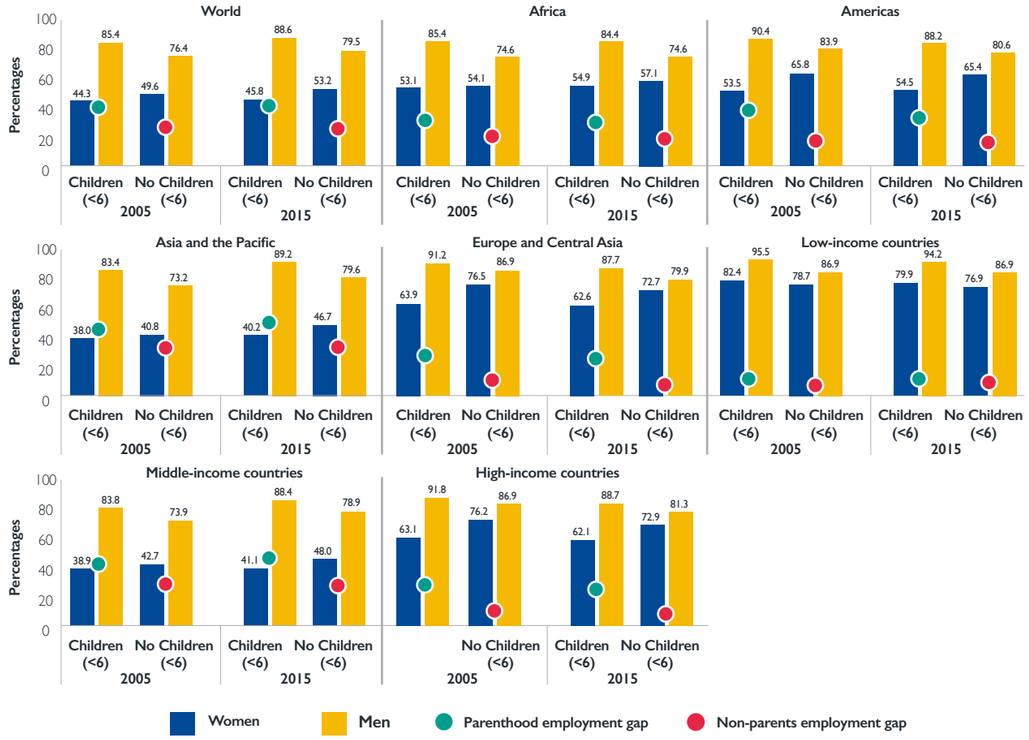
day. At this pace, it is estimated that the gender gap in time spent in unpaid care work would not be closed until 2228; in other words, closing the gap would take 209 years.[51]

Because of the disproportionate share of time spent in unpaid care work, women who work for pay are often said to work a "second shift"– one at work and another at home.[52] This has negative consequences for the health and well-being of women, in the form of sleep deprivation and anxiety.[53]

Women and men agree that unpaid care responsibilities, including balancing work and family and lack of access to care services and infrastructure, constitute a substantial challenge for women.[54] Yet, while women and men recognize the challenges, men are still not taking on their fair share of unpaid work, and social protection systems in many countries continue to be designed based on the assumption that women will take on this double role.[55]

"It is estimated that the gender gap in time spent in unpaid care work would not be closed until 2228; in other words, closing the gap would take 209 years."

Figure 1.18. Employment-to-population ratios of women and men with and without children under 6 years of age, 2005 and 2015



Note: The age group for high-income countries is 25–54 years, and for middle- and low-income countries 18–54 years. Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the working-age population. Percentage of working-age population and number of countries: World: 67 per cent (51); Africa: 31 per cent (6); Americas: 81 per cent (10); Arab States: No data; Asia and the Pacific: 79 per cent (6); Europe and Central Asia: 49 per cent (29); Low-income countries: 22 per cent (2); Middle-income countries: 73 per cent (19); High-income countries: 62 per cent (30). See Appendix A.1, table A.1.3 for country level data and Appendix A.2, table A.2.1 for survey year. 2005 is the average year in the earliest surveys and 2015 is the average year in the latest surveys. Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

Motherhood penalties remain significant

THE MOTHERHOOD EMPLOYMENT PENALTY

Against this backdrop, it is not surprising that motherhood reduces women's chances of being employed. In 2015, estimates for 51 countries showed that 45.8 per cent of mothers[56] of young children[57] were in employment compared to 53.2 per cent of women without children under six years old. This suggests the existence of a "motherhood employment penalty" (figure 1.18). This penalty has worsened compared to both women without young children, whose employment rates have grown much faster, and to fathers. Between 2005 and 2015, the motherhood employment penalty has increased by 38.4 per cent. The parenthood employment gap, namely the difference between the employment-to-population ratio of mothers and fathers, has also increased from 41.1 percentage points to 42.8 percentage points. At the same time, the employment gap between men and women without young children has remained almost unchanged (figure 1.18), although variations by region and income are, nonetheless, significant.

The challenge facing women of combining paid work with care duties can be even greater in households with older persons, persons with disabilities or members living with HIV. This is particularly true in countries with a high HIV-prevalence and either a lack of, or poor coverage of, care services.[58] An ILO study found that, in Liberia, Namibia and Zambia, women living in a household with a family member with HIV saw their chances of being employed significantly reduced.[59] As for parents of children with disabilities, there is evidence that the likelihood of not being employed is greater for mothers than for fathers.[60]

THE MOTHERHOOD WAGE PENALTY

Women in general are exposed to pay penalties when in employment (see the section on "Lower and unequal pay" below) but mothers tend to earn less than women without children, and this pay gap is known as the "motherhood pay gap". It ranges from 1 per cent or less in Canada, Mongolia and South Africa, to as much as 30 per cent in Turkey (figure

Figure 1.19. Motherhood and fatherhood wage gaps for selected economies, latest year

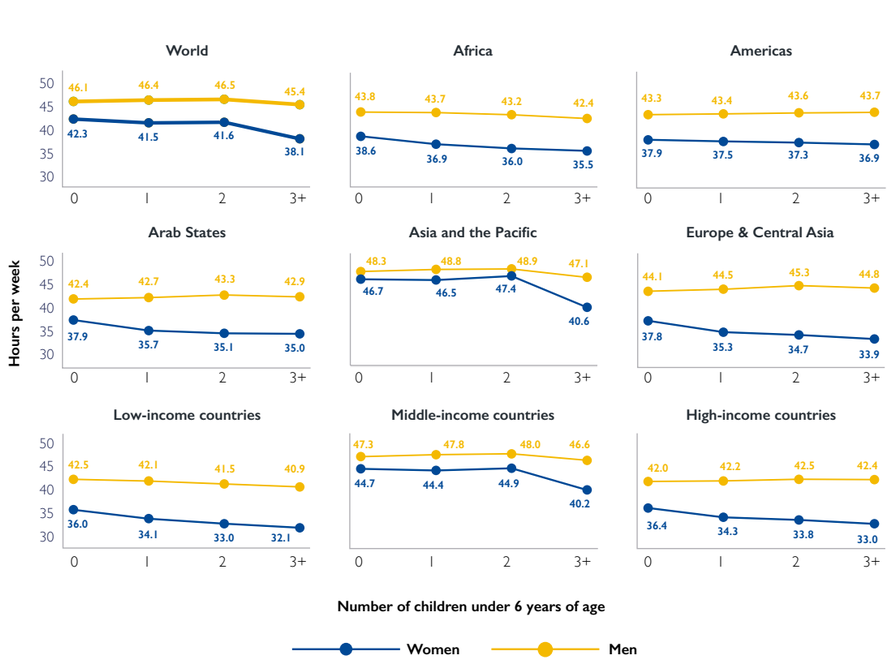
Source: ILO, 2018g.

1.19).[61] On the other hand, fathers are more likely to receive better pay than men without children. This pay gap is known as the "fatherhood pay gap".

Lower wages for mothers may be related to a host of factors, including career breaks for paid and unpaid maternity leave, reduction in hours of work and gender-biased hiring and promotion decisions at the enterprise level – all of which penalize the careers of mothers.[62] In other words, motherhood brings about a wage penalty that can persist across a woman's working life, while the status of fatherhood is associated with a wage premium.

As mentioned earlier, men work longer hours, on average, for pay or profit than women everywhere, but the difference in the number of hours devoted to paid work starts to widen with the arrival of the first child (figure 1.20). Globally, women living in households with no children under the age of six years worked on average, 42.3 hours per week compared with 46.1 hours worked by their male counterparts. This represents a gender gap in the number of hours worked for pay or profit of three hours and 48 minutes. In the presence of one young child, this gender gap reaches almost five hours. As long as social pressure continues to compel women to be the main caregivers and men to work longer hours as the main breadwinners, women and mothers will not be able to reduce their workload at home, or to increase their hours of paid work.[63] At the same time, a culture of long working-hours may not only have detrimental effects on workers' health and productivity, but may also lead to stigma against workers who choose flexible working-time arrangements, such as reduced hours or teleworking.[64] "Choices" of working-time, paid and unpaid, remain highly constrained by social pressures and the absence of publicly provided services. An absence of working-time autonomy for both women and men remains a considerable obstacle to gender equality and decent work.

Figure 1.20. Weekly hours worked for pay or profit, by sex and number of children under six years of age, latest year

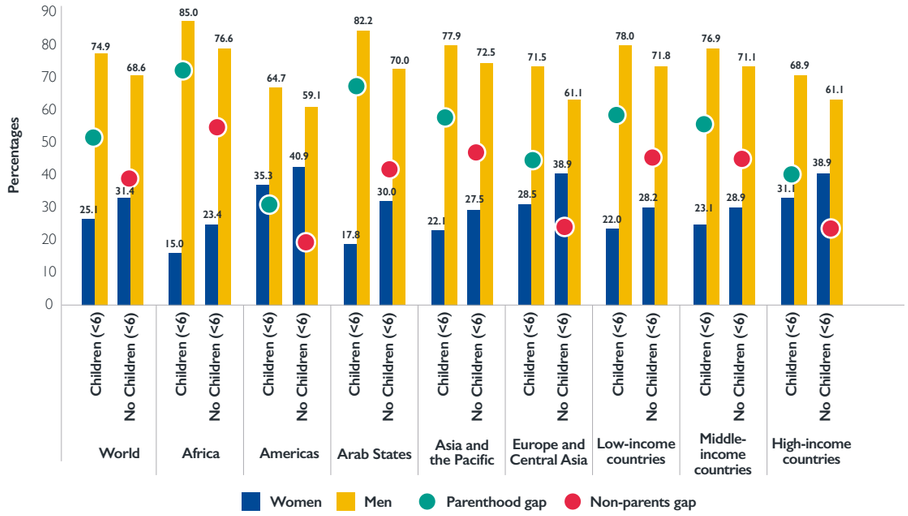


Source: ILO, 2018a.

THE MOTHERHOOD LEADERSHIP PENALTY

Globally, mothers of children aged 0–5 years have the lowest participation rates in managerial and leadership positions (25.1 per cent of managers with children under six years of age are women) compared with both their male counterparts (74.9 per cent of managers with children under six years of age are men) and with men and women without young children (68.6 per cent of managers without children are men and 31.4 per cent are women) (figure 1.21). Women managers may struggle to

Figure 1.21. Share of managers with and without children under 6 years of age, by sex, latest year



Note: The age group for high-income countries is 25–54 years, and for middle- and low-income countries 18–54 years. Global, regional and income group estimates weighted by the total population in managerial and leadership positions. Percentage of employed and number of countries: World: 76 per cent (72); Africa: 61 per cent (18); Americas: 76 per cent (10); Arab States: 33 per cent (3); Asia and the Pacific: 80 per cent (12); Europe and Central Asia: 75 per cent (29); Low-income countries: 56 per cent (11); Middle-income countries: 80 per cent (31); High-income countries: 69 per cent (30). See Appendix A.1, table A.1.4 for country level data and Appendix A.2, table A.2.1 for survey year.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

balance professional and personal lives, especially when care services are not efficient or available. Research suggests that the most successful and best paid women are less likely to be married or to have children.[65]

This explanation for the motherhood penalty on women accessing managerial and leadership positions is also supported by an ILO company survey conducted across regions in 2015. Family responsibilities were found to be the top barrier to women's leadership, followed by gender stereotypes and masculine corporate culture (table 1.1).[66] One such stereotypical belief is that women who display the traditional characteristics and attitudes of male managers stand a better chance of succeeding. The belief "think manager–think man"[67] is often internalized within corporate culture,[68] influencing stereotypes about women in high-level roles.[69]

However, where men share the burden of unpaid care work more equally with women, a greater share of women are found in managerial positions. This is the case in Sweden, Denmark, Norway and Finland, where men and women are close to gender parity in terms of time spent on unpaid care work, while the opposite case is found in Morocco and India, where women taken on the bulk of family and domestic duties (figure 1.22).

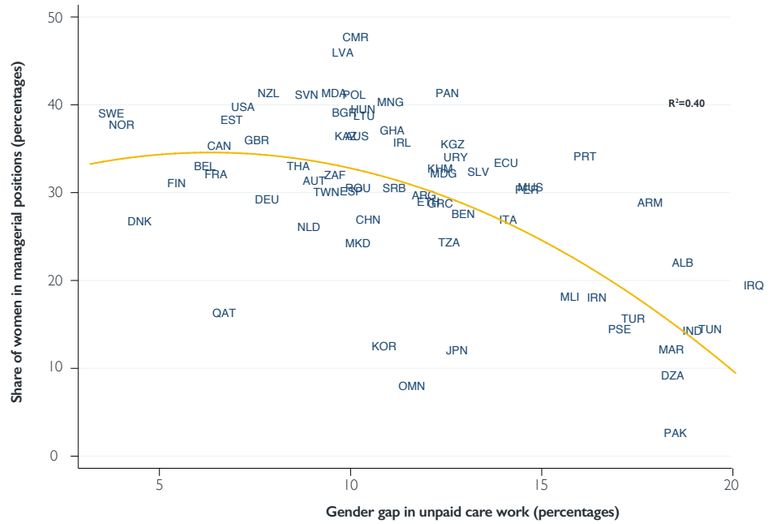
How can women enjoy equal opportunities and treatment at work with men, if they continue, and are expected, to work a second shift[70] of unpaid care work?

Table 1.1. Ranking of barriers to women's leadership, 2015

BARRIERS TO WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP 2015
1. Women have more family responsibilities than men
2. Roles assigned by society to men and women
3. Masculine corporate culture
4. Women with insufficient general or line management experience
5. Few role models for women
6. Men not encouraged to take leave for family responsibilities
7. Lack of company equality policy and programmes
8. Stereotypes against women
9. Lack of leadership training for women
10. Lack of flexible work solutions
11. Lack of strategy for retention of skilled women
12. Inherent gender bias in recruitment and promotion (ranked the same as)
12. Management generally viewed as a man's job
13. Gender equality policies in place but not implemented
14. Inadequate labour and non-discrimination laws

ILO, 2015b.

Figure 1.22. Relationship between the share of women in managerial positions and the gender gap in the share of time spent on unpaid care work, latest year



Source: ILO calculations based on ILO modelled estimates, November 2018, and Charmes, 2018.

Lower and unequal pay

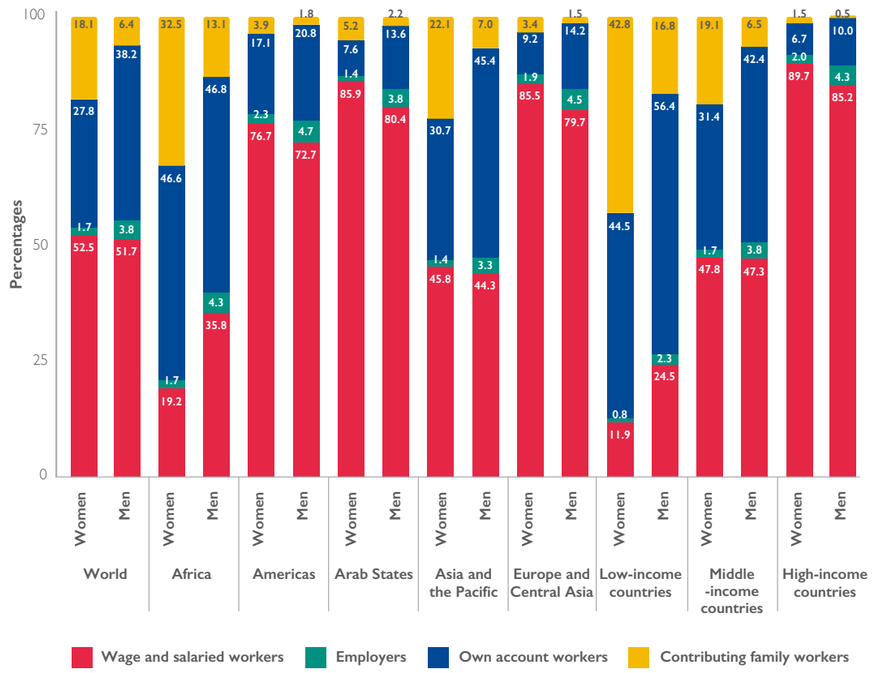
A stubborn gender pay gap

Wages are often taken as a proxy for the quality of work as wage and salaried work is usually associated with better working conditions. In 2018, there were 673.9 million women (or 52.5 per cent employed women) and 1.05 billion men (or 51.7 per cent employed men) who worked as wage earners throughout the world (figure 1.23 – see next page). Since 1991, the proportion of women wage workers has increased by 10 percentage points, compared to 6.8 per cent growth for men.

The faster growth in the incidence of wage employment in total female employment has not been matched, however, by a substantive decline in the gap between men's and women's average wages. Different organizations have tried to estimate the number of years needed to close this gap at the current pace. While the actual figures vary depending on the methodology used, all converge in saying that it would take far too long. Gender pay gaps diminish very slowly over time, as workers' characteristics

"The faster growth in the incidence of wage employment in total female employment has not been matched, however, by a substantive decline in the gap between men's and women's average wages."

Figure 1.23. Employment status, by sex (percentage of female and male total employment), 2018



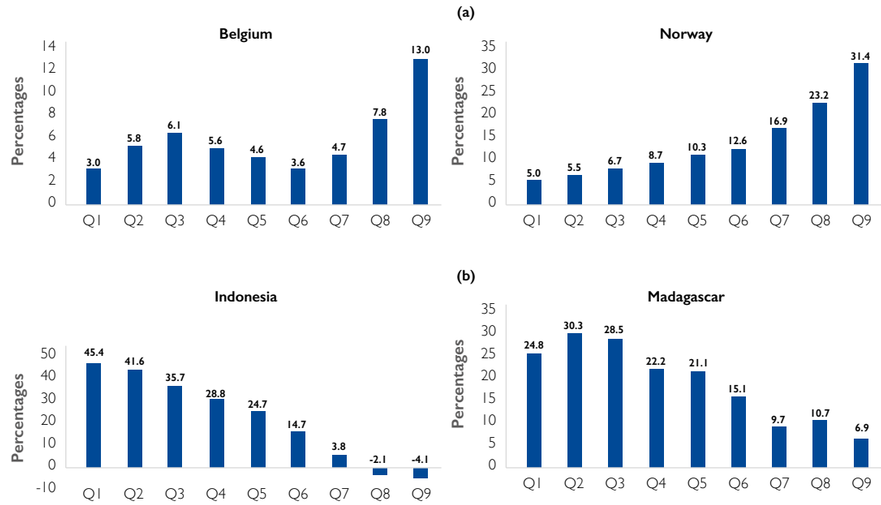
Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

and pay discrimination towards women rarely change quickly.[71] Currently, the gender pay gap[72] is still 18.8 per cent throughout the world, ranging from 12.6 per cent in low-income countries to 20.9 per cent in upper middle-income countries.[73] Dedicated and concerted efforts are therefore needed to accelerate the closing of the gender pay gap, but, to this end, understanding what lies behind this gap is essential.

ILO data show that the size of the gender pay gap varies depending on how women are distributed along the wage distribution. In high-income countries, the gender pay gap is wider for women at the top of the skills and earnings scale (see figure 1.24a). In low- and middle-income countries, women who are often in informal wage employment face a double penalty: they receive, on average, lower wages than their male counterparts as well as lower wages than workers in the formal economy (see figure 1.24b).[74] In this case, the formalization of wage employment and minimum wages are useful policies for raising women's wages and reducing the gender pay gap in the lower half of the pay distribution.

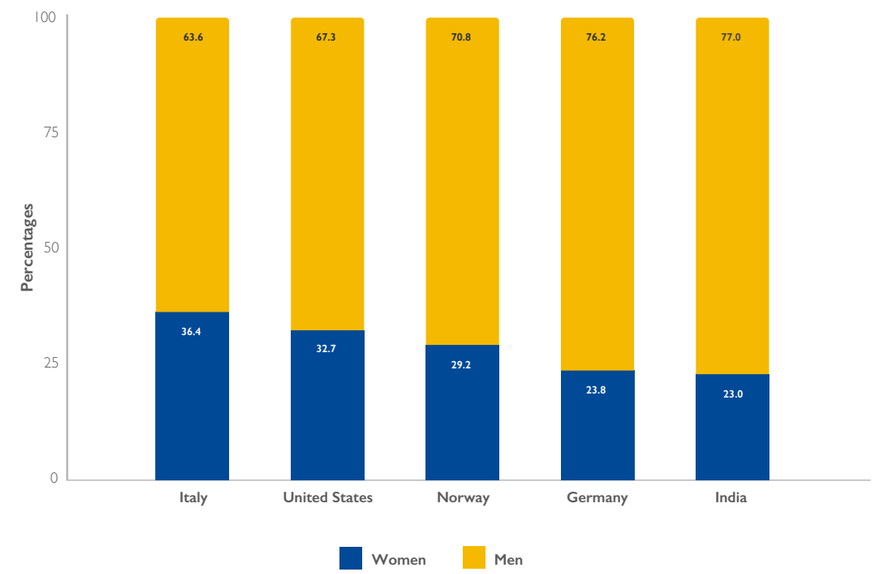
The most in-demand and highest paying jobs are found in the science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields where women are currently lagging behind, as they lack the required digital skills.[75] Figure 1.25 shows that Italy has the highest share of LinkedIn members with digital skills

Figure 1.24. Gender pay gaps across the wage distribution for selected countries, latest year: (a) High-income countries; (b) Middle- and low-income countries



Source: ILO, 2018g.

Figure 1.25. Share of LinkedIn members with digital skills that are women and men,[77] 2018



Note: Number of LinkedIn members with technological skills: Italy (619,177); United States (9,375,058); Norway (109,258); Germany (583,266); India (2,595,173).
Source: Calculations based on LinkedIn microdata.

that are women; followed by the United States, Norway, Germany and India, where only 23 per cent of LinkedIn members with digital skills are women. Research is also showing that some women with digital skills are actually not using them as they are leaving the industry due to the prevalence of a male-oriented workplace culture and the lack of support for women.[76]

Education is not the reason for the pay gap

Recent ILO research has revealed that, on average, education is not a significant explanatory cause of the gender pay gap, although its importance varies between countries.[78] Indeed, returns to women's education are consistently lower than those of men. Women working in the same occupation are systematically paid less than men, even if their educational levels equal or exceed those of their male counterparts. As seen earlier, women in management positions tend to have higher levels of educational attainment than their male counterparts.

Other factors, such as occupational gender segregation and the gender composition of the workforce in enterprises with, otherwise, similar productivity characteristics, stand out as more significant causes. In Europe, for example, working in an enterprise with a predominantly female workforce can give rise to a 14.7 per cent wage penalty compared to working in a similarly productive enterprise but with a predominantly male workforce (figure 1.26). This finding suggests the existence of discrimination.

Much of the pay gap remains unexplained

A significant proportion of the gender pay gap across regions remains unexplained, particularly in high-income countries.

Work performed by women is frequently undervalued either because it mirrors work which has traditionally been carried out by women in the home without pay or simply because it is work performed by women. Numerous studies using panel data for long periods of time show that certain sectors and occupations, such as nursing or teaching in primary education, which had gradually been infiltrated by women and eventually became female-dominated, have exhibited a steady decline in average earnings relative to national average wages.[79] Another reason for women's lower average wages is because they tend to work in parts of the labour market where unionization and collective bargaining coverage are more limited.[80]

The established practice of asking how much a job applicant earned in their previous job may also have the unintended consequence of perpetuating gender bias in the valuation of the work done by women.[81] Biases may also arise in the way in which wages are structured and jobs are classified, with women typically being classified at lower levels.[82]

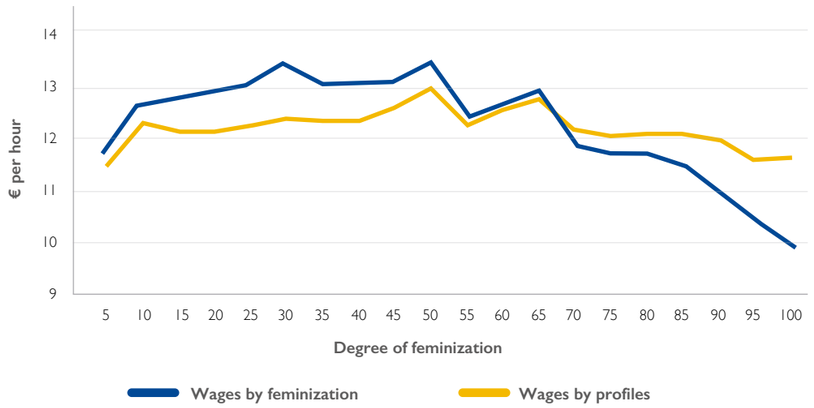
The full application of the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value (equal pay), set out over 50 years ago in the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) is essential to address the conscious and unconscious biases in the determination of the value of work performed by women relative to that performed by men. The right to receive equal pay is not confined to equal or similar work, but also extends to work that may be of an entirely different nature, but is of equal value.[83]

While 173 countries have ratified ILO Convention No. 100, only 86 countries have passed laws that give full effect to the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value (figure 1.27).[84] The implementation in practice of this concept is challenging even today due to a lack of understanding of the scope and application of the concept of "work of equal value".[85]

A recent study of top universities in the United Kingdom suggests that academics from an ethnic minority experienced a pay gap in comparison to their white peers. While men also experience an "ethnicity pay gap", this becomes wider for women since it is an additional factor to the gender pay gap. Data show that, compared with Caucasian men, Caucasian women on average earned 15 per cent less, Asian women earned 22 per cent less and black women earned 39 per cent less.[86]

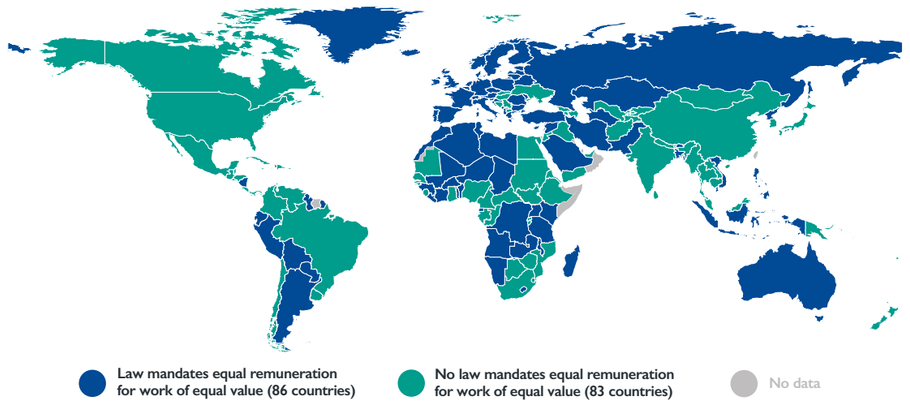
There are also increasing indications of a pay gap between lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) and non-LGBTI workers. LGBTI workers who have same-sex partners rarely enjoy the same benefits as married couples, resulting in a lower level of remuneration than their non-LGBTI counterparts. Among the few studies that have looked at the LGBTI pay gap, several suggest an inherent bias and discrimination against LGBTI workers as the main reason for the pay gap. However, this is difficult to quantify as sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression are, for now, "invisible" factors and therefore challenging to map.[87]

Figure 1.26. Hourly wage by degree of feminization at the enterprise level and wage profile in Europe, 2014 [77]



Source: ILO, 2018g.

Figure 1.27. Countries where the law mandates equal remuneration for work of equal value, 2018



Sources: ILO calculations based on ILO legal data, 2018 and World Bank, 2018.

Tax systems

Empirical studies show that income taxation affects women's participation in employment more than men's.[88] For example, a higher tax burden on workers with lower earnings may have a disproportionate negative effect on female employment outcomes, as women typically earn less than men.[89] When married couples are taxed jointly on their earned incomes, it may be that the lower income earner within the couple – usually the woman – is taxed at a higher rate than in an individual system.[90] This "marriage tax or penalty" combined with the high cost of childcare, is a disincentive for women, and especially those with children, to participate in the labour market. This is especially the case in countries and contexts where childcare services are scarce, of poor quality and expensive. Individual tax systems for dual-earner households are more gender responsive, as they encourage both a more equal sharing of earnings across different household members and equal labour market participation.[91]

Violence and harassment in the world of work

While violence and harassment in the world of work can affect all workers, it has a significant gender dimension. It has a detrimental impact on women's participation in employment and on the quality of work. Violence and harassment impact women in the fields and in the boardrooms, in every country and sector, public and private, formal and informal. It can affect women selling products in the markets as well as start-up founders, who are often harassed by venture capitalists, sponsors or investors.[92]

Data on the prevalence of violence and harassment in the world of work is patchy, but nonetheless striking. Sexual harassment is the most frequently reported form of sexual violence and harassment.[93] Physical violence and harassment is frequently reported in occupations where workers deal with the public, including in education, health care and social work, which are care-related and female dominated.[94] Physical violence committed by patients and students is often considered to be simply "part of the job".[95] Violence is ubiquitous in the domestic work sector.[96]

Bullying and harassment (forms of psychological violence) are the most widely reported forms of adverse social behaviour in the workplace in Europe.[97] A study in the United States found that more than 27 per cent of American workers had experienced "abusive conduct" at work.[98] Again, there is evidence that care workers are particularly at risk of psychological violence.[99]

Violence and harassment affect certain groups more than others. Workplaces which are dominated by one gender or ethnicity might be more hostile to people who do not conform to established gender norms or to individuals coming from under-represented groups. Where grounds of discrimination intersect, the risk of violence and harassment in the world of work is exacerbated. For example, violence and harassment against transgender women workers is prevalent everywhere, and they often experience multiple discrimination based on ethnicity, disabilities and indigenous background.[100]

Recent active global movements against violence and harassment have succeeded in raising awareness of the seriousness and pervasiveness of, in particular, sexual harassment in the world of work, and promoting the adoption of strengthened legislation. However, according to available data, only 130 countries currently have laws prohibiting sexual harassment in employment.[101] Not all of these countries take into account the different aspects of sexual harassment, including not only quid pro quo harassment but also hostile work environments.[102]

Violence and harassment are addressed in a range of laws, including those on equal opportunities and non-discrimination, labour codes, occupational health and safety regulations, tort and criminal laws. However, not all types of violence and harassment, or all workers, may be covered. An 80-country ILO study, which aimed to represent all regions, subregions and income groups, and based on available information, found that 27 per cent do not define or only vaguely define violence and harassment, and 6 per cent only cover physical conduct, thus excluding pervasive forms of psychological violence and harassment.[103] Some countries also exclude those outside the employment relationship, as well as specific groups, such as domestic workers.[104] Technology also provides new avenues for violence and harassment, with cyber-bullying and cyber-intimidation being facilitated in particular by social media.[105]

The link between domestic or intimate partner violence and workplace violence is also gaining recognition. Anyone can be a victim or a perpetrator of domestic violence; however, the vast majority of reported cases are committed by men against women. Although domestic violence may originate in the home, it can spill over into the workplace. Domestic violence, regardless of where it occurs, can have a negative impact on the victim's ability to get to work, stay at work and perform well at work.[106] Gender equality cannot advance, and decent work cannot exist, in a climate of violence and harassment.

The many faces of technology

TECHNOLOGY COULD WIDEN OR NARROW GENDER GAPS AT WORK

Will the fourth industrial revolution reverse or deepen the current gender inequalities in the labour market? Will the future of work for women look like the past? Part of the answers to these questions will certainly depend on whether families and public policies can manage to balance the unpaid care work–paid work equation.[107] The extent to which technology will be used to reduce labour input and/or to increase workers' productivity will also play a role.[108]

Technological advances – artificial intelligence, automation and robotics – will create new jobs in certain sectors and occupations, and destroy jobs in others. Workers who perform more routine tasks are more at risk of potential replacement by robots and artificial intelligence.[109] Those who will lose their jobs in this transition may be those who are least equipped to seize the new job opportunities.[110]

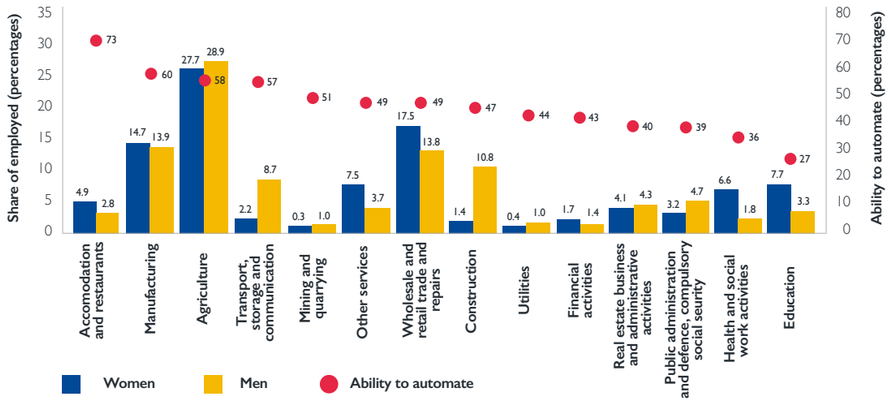
The routine task intensity (RTI) index, a new index of job routines based on data from the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) survey, ranges from zero to one, with higher values indicating that a worker engages more in routine activities. Findings for 28 OECD countries, as well as Cyprus and Singapore, show that women have a 13 per cent higher chance than men of being in occupations and sectors that involve more routine tasks. This finding enabled an estimate that 11 per cent of employed women in these countries are at high risk of being replaced by automation compared to 9 per cent of men.[111]

"Findings for 28 OECD countries,as well as Cyprus and Singapore, show that women have a 13 per cent higher chance than men of being in occupations and sectors that involve more routine tasks."

The risk of automation varies substantially across sectors. The accommodation and restaurants sector, which employs 4.9 per cent of women and 2.8 per cent of men globally, has the highest such risk, with almost 73 per cent of all activities being susceptible to automation.[112] On the other hand, education and health and social work, which are highly feminized sectors, exhibit the lowest risk of automation due to the personal interaction component that is embedded in care work (figure 1.28).[113]

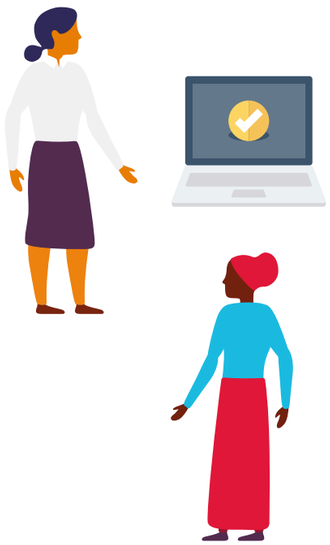
The risk of job-replacement also depends on a country's income level. ILO evidence shows that robotization in middle-income countries resulted in significant job losses and a drop in employment of about 14 per cent between 2005 and 2014. Massive robotization of production in high-income countries and partial reshoring of production from middle- to high-income countries contributed to this state of affairs.[114] In middle-income countries, manufacturing absorbs almost 18 per cent of employed women,

Figure 1.28. Global share of employment by sex, sector and sector's ability to automate, latest year



Note: Data on share of employed by sector are from 2018 and data on ability to automate are from 2017.
Sources: ILO calculations based on ILO modelled estimates, November 2018 and McKinsey Global Institute, 2017.

"Increasing robotization of production in high-income economies and partial reshoring of production from middle- to high-income countries is also threatening women's jobs."



compared to 14.1 per cent of men,[115] and the occupations in which women are concentrated are those which can be most easily automated. There is a high risk that, if these transitions are not managed properly, the gender gaps in employment will widen even further in these countries.

THE ROLE OF THE DIGITAL ECONOMY: FRIEND OR FOE OF GENDER EQUALITY?

Advances in information and communication technology (ICT) have given rise to employment mediated through digital labour platforms.[116] The incidence of digital employment in total employment is estimated to range from 0.5 per cent in the United States[117] to 5 per cent in Europe.[118] In some countries, where digital platforms are still at an incipient stage, they are seen as a promising means to create job opportunities,[119] such as the "Digital Malaysia" programme, which targeted the bottom 40th percentile of income earners and Nigeria's "Microwork for Job Creation – Naijacloud".[120]

Will the digital economy bring equal work opportunities to women and men? It is too soon to be certain, but the ILO's research seems to suggest that the online economy is not going to be friendlier to women than the offline economy. One study has found that there are gender differences in the propensity to engage in crowdwork, with women representing only one out of every three crowdworkers. In developing countries, the gender balance is particularly skewed, with only one out of five crowdworkers being a woman. Many women combine crowdwork with care responsibilities; one out of five female crowdworkers have young children (0–5 years old). They nonetheless spend 20 hours per week on the platform, just five hours fewer than the sample as a whole; many work during the evenings and at night.[121] A US study found a gender pay gap at the bottom of the distribution, not at the top, after controlling for individual characteristics, because women tend to select less demanding and less well-paid gigs, to allow them to combine paid work with household chores.[122] It is clear that, unless there is a better sharing of care provision and access to publicly provided childcare services, crowdwork risks becoming just another trap, offering low-paid, intermittent work to women.

In Ukraine, another study covering gigs with a greater technological content revealed that men earn 2.2 times more than women, a gap that is considerably higher than in the Ukrainian offline economy. This gap can largely be explained by the presence of strong occupational gender segregation. As different tasks are also performed for different markets (some mainly for the local market, others for international markets), occupational gender segregation translates into segregation by market served, resulting in a wage gap.[123]

There is a risk that crowdwork reinforces gender roles and the expectation that women should only undertake paid work within the confines of their homes.[124] Further, evidence shows that algorithms used in job matching may perpetuate gender biases. Despite, the apparent anonymity that workers enjoy, an ILO study found that women earned less than men for selling the same product. Buyers were able to detect sellers' gender by the information supplied in postings and were less willing to pay women the same amount of money that they would pay men.[125] At the same time, there is reason to believe that women's lower take-up rate of gigs with greater value-added is also a reflection of the fact that fewer women pursue STEM studies.[126] For women to fully reap the opportunities offered by the online platform economy, gender-responsive measures are needed within broader policy efforts aimed at improving labour protections for crowdworkers.

"There is a risk that crowdwork reinforces gender roles and the expectation that women should only undertake paid work within the confines of their homes."

Weak voice and representation

Sound industrial relations and effective social dialogue contribute to good governance in the workplace, decent work, inclusive economic growth and democracy for women and men.[127] The participation of women in these processes is important to represent the diversity of the workforce and ensure their democratic function.[128] Furthermore, the presence of women in decision-making bodies is considered to be an important precondition for the pursuit of women's interests in the world of work.

According to available data, in the trade union movement men outnumber women both in membership and in leadership positions. For example, within the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) and the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), women's membership rates average at 42 per cent and 43.5 per cent, respectively.[129] However, looking at union leaders, the average representation rate of women in the highest union decision-making bodies within ITUC affiliates is 28 per cent, while within ETUC affiliates only 11 of the 39 confederations have a woman as the key leader.[130, 131]

The low membership of women in trade unions is due, in part, to the fact that women are frequently employed in sectors of the economy, occupations or in work arrangements with lower rates of union membership and are also less likely to participate in the labour market.[132] In particular, women in non-standard forms of work might be prevented from joining trade unions or unions of their choice. For instance, in Viet Nam, workers with contracts of less than six months' duration cannot join unions[133] and, in Paraguay, workers are prohibited from joining more than one union even if they have more than one part-time contract.[134] Nonetheless, for women, rates of trade union membership are on the rise. In particular, higher rates of unionization can be observed in the public sector where women tend to be employed in higher concentrations.[135] Despite this, even in sectors with high rates of female employment and union membership, men continue to occupy the majority of trade union leadership positions.[136]

Likewise, women are under-represented in employers' organizations. Despite the scarcity of data, it can confidently be said that the majority of employers' organizations have a board of directors with fewer than 10 per cent women, and only 8 per cent have a gender-balanced board.[137] Within these organizations, women face similar structural barriers to those confronting women who wish to progress in their career in the world of work.

In addition, despite evidence suggesting that the presence of women in the bargaining process is important to achieving outcomes that benefit women,[138] under-representation of women in national social dialogue institutions (NSDIs), such as economic and social councils, tripartite commissions and labour advisory boards, is observed. Available data for 2018 show that female membership in NSDIs still only ranged from 20 to 35 per cent. There are, nonetheless, some encouraging examples of parity or near-parity in France, Norway, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Samoa and Switzerland.[139]

"Women are underrepresented in trade unions, employers organizations and national social dialogue institutions."

MINDING THE GENDER GAPS

WOMEN WANT TO WORK AND MEN AGREE

69.8%
of women prefer to be in paid work

66.5%
of men prefer women to be in paid work

45.3% / **71.4%**
45.3% of women are employed compared to 71.4% of men

27.1%
Only 27.1% of managers and leaders are women

WOMEN CLIMB UP THE MANAGERIAL LADDER A YEAR FASTER THAN MEN

44.3% / **38.3%**
44.3% of women managers have an advanced university degree compared with 38.3% of men managers

WHAT HINDERS WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES?

41.5% / **17.2%**
41.5% of women with a university degree are either unemployed or outside the labour force, while only 17.2% of men are in a similar situation

21.7% of women perform unpaid care work on a full-time basis compared to 1.5% of men

21.7% / **1.5%**

4H 25M WOMEN
1H 23M MEN
Women spend on average 4 hours and 25 minutes per day doing unpaid care work while men only 1 hour and 23 minutes per day

209 YEARS
209 years needed to close the gender gap in time spent in unpaid care work at the current pace

2015 ↑ 2005
38.4%
The motherhood employment penalty has increased by 38.4% between 2005 and 2015

45.8% **53.2%**
45.8% of mothers of young children are employed compared to 53.2% of women without children of that age

25.1% **74.9%**
Mothers of young children have the lowest chance of being a manager while fathers of young children the highest: 25.1% of people in managerial positions with young children (aged 0–5 years) are women and 74.9% are men.

31.4% **68.6%**
31.4% of people in managerial positions without young children (aged 0–5 years) are women and 68.6% are men.

20%
GENDER PAY GAP

ONLY 130 COUNTRIES HAVE LAWS PROHIBITING SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN EMPLOYMENT

END NOTES

1 ILO, 2018m.
2 Ibid.
3 ILO, 2016c.
4 Five new questions for women and men around the world were added to the Gallup World Poll.
5 ILO–Gallup, 2017.
6 According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2018): the world gross primary school enrolment ratio for women is 104.5 per cent, while for men it is 103.7 per cent in 2017; the world gross secondary school enrolment ratio for women is 76.2 per cent, while for men it is 76.9 per cent in 2017; and the world gross tertiary level education enrolment ratio for women is 40.2 per cent, while for men it is 35.7 per cent in 2017.
7 ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.
8 Ibid.; Fernández and Martínez Turégano, 2018.
9 ILO–Gallup, 2017; Metcalfe, 2008.
10 Beblawi, 1987; ILO, 2012b; Ross, 2008.
11 In Asia and the Pacific, the share of women employed in agriculture decreased by 24.4 percentage points since 1991 and reached 32.4 per cent in 2018. The share of men employed in agriculture has also decreased by 22.6 percentage points, reaching 32.6 per cent in 2018.
12 Dasgupta and Verick, 2016.
13 Gasparini and Marchionni, 2015.
14 Bentancor and Robano, 2014.
15 Gasparini and Marchionni, 2015.
16 Thevenon, 2013.
17 ILO, 2018a.
18 Ibid.; Fernández and Martínez Turégano, 2018.
19 Verme, 2015.
20 ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.
21 ILO, 2018n.
22 ILO, 2018a.
23 ILO, 2017i.
24 In 2018, 27.7 per cent of women are employed in agriculture compared with 28.9 per cent of men (ILO modelled estimates, November 2018).
25 Ibid.
26 Pattnaik et al., 2018.
27 ILO, 2018a.
28 ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.
29 ILO, 2018a; ILO, 2018n; ILO, 2016c.
30 A major difference between women and men in informal employment is the proportion of women who are contributing family workers. This proportion is more than three times higher among women in informal employment compared to men. This status, which is classified as particularly vulnerable, represents 28.1 per cent of women in informal employment compared to 8.7 per cent of men. More than 30 per cent of women in informal employment in low- and lower middle income countries are contributing family workers (ILO, 2018n).
31 ILO, 2015a.
32 ILO, 2018q.
33 ILO, 2018a.
34 ILO, 2015c.
35 Branyiczki, 2015.
36 ILO, 2016a.
37 Aleksynska, 2017.
38 Ibid.
39 European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017; McKinsey Global Institute, 2015 and 2016.
40 As in indicator 5.5.2 of the Sustainable Development Goals, managers are defined as those within category 1 of ISCO-08. In the International Standard Classification of Occupations 2008 (ISCO-08) category 1, the following sub-groups are included: 11 Chief Executives, Senior Officials and Legislators; 12 Administrative and Commercial Managers; 13 Production and Specialized Services Managers; 14 Hospitality, Retail and Other Services Managers.
41 In the European Union, data are from the largest 50 companies included in the country's blue-chip index (CAC 40 in France, DAX in Germany, FTSE-MIB in Italy and, FTSE 100 in the United Kingdom), while in Canada and in the United States, data are from the largest companies included in the MSCI index, which covers 85 per cent of the market capitalization.
42 See Chapter 2.
43 Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2009; Krishnan and Park, 2005; Simpson and Altman, 2000.
44 Half of the sample (57 per cent) started their first leadership position within the past ten years. The vast majority of members (87 per cent) began their first leadership position after the year 2000, suggesting the data is representative of recently developed leaders.
45 ILO, 2018a.
46 Ibid.
47 ILO–Gallup, 2017. The poll, which was conducted in 142 countries and territories, is representative of 98 per cent of the global population.
48 ILOSTAT, 2018.
49 Sen, 1999.
50 Full-time unpaid carers or full-time unpaid care workers are women and men of working age who are outside the labour force due to unpaid care work duties/family responsibilities.
51 ILO, 2018a.
52 Hochschild and Machung, 2012.
53 Chandola et al., forthcoming.
54 ILO–Gallup report, 2017.
55 ILO, 2017c.
56 Mothers and fathers in employment are defined as employed adult women and men who live in households with at least one young child.
57 Children aged 0–5 years.
58 ILO, 2018a.
59 Cattaneo, Licata and Montefiori, forthcoming.
60 United States National Health Interview Survey. See McCall and Starr, 2018.
61 ILO, 2018g.
62 Ibid.
63 Goldin, 2014.
64 ILO, 2016c; Lee, McCann and Messenger, 2007.
65 Adda, Dustmann and Stevens, 2017; Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2009.
66 ILO, 2015b.
67 Cortis and Cassar, 2005; Schein, 2007.
68 ILO, 2015b.
69 Schein, 2007.
70 Hochschild and Machung, 2012.
71 OECD, 2017b.
72 Mean factor weighted gender pay gap using hourly wages. This new alternative and complementary method for generating estimates of the gender pay gap removes some of the major composition effects caused by the existence of clusters. For an in-depth explanation, please refer to ILO, 2018d.
73 ILO, 2018g.
74 Ibid.
75 LinkedIn, 2018 and 2019.
76 Fouad and Singh, 2011; Scott, Klein and Onovakpuri, 2017; Seron et al., 2016; World Economic Forum, 2017.
77 Digital skills (LinkedIn): SQL; HTML; Java; Windows; JavaScript; C++; software development; C (programming language); integration; cascading style sheets (css); troubleshooting; Microsoft SQL server; Linux; SAP products; networking; requirements analysis; MySQL; business intelligence; Python (programming language); agile methodologies; testing databases; C#; web development; PHP; software development life cycle (SDLC); cloud computing security; XML.
78 ILO, 2018g.
79 Brynin and Perales, 2016; Miller, 2017; Murphy and Oesch, 2016.
80 Dickens, 2010; Rubery and Koukiadaki, 2018.
81 Bailey, 2018; Miller, 2018.
82 Oelz, Olney and Tomei, 2013.
83 ILO, 2012a.
84 As of 21 December 2018.
85 Rubery and Koukiadaki, 2016.
86 Croxford, 2018.
87 Drydakis, 2009; OECD, 2017a.
88 Blundell, Pistaferri and Preston, 2008; Evers, De Mooij and Van Vuuren, 2008; Meghir and Phillips, 2009.
89 Elborgh-Woytek et al., 2013.; Gonzales et al., 2015.; Jaumotte, 2003; Pissarides et al., 2005.
90 ILO, 2018a.
91 ILO, 2016c.
92 First Round Capital, 2017.

93 ILO, 2018c.
94 ILO, 2018a.
95 Lippel, 2018.
96 ILO, 2018a.
97 Eurofound, 2015.
98 Workplace Bullying Institute, 2014.
99 ILO, 2018c.
100 Pillinger, 2017.
101 World Bank, 2018.
102 ILO, 2012a; ILO, 2018c.
103 ILO, 2018c.
104 Ibid.
105 Lippel, 2018.
106 Ibid.
107 Howcroft and Rubery, 2018.
108 Ibid.; Pritchard and Brittain, 2015.
109 Acemoglu and Restrepo, 2017; Graetz and Michaels, 2015.
110 ILO, 2019a.
111 Autor and Dorn, 2013; Brussevich et al., 2018; De La Rica and Gortazar, 2016.
112 McKinsey Global Institute, 2017 calculates the degree of automation based on workplaces in the United States.
113 ILO, 2018a.
114 Carbonero, Ernst and Weber, 2018.
115 ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.
116 ILO, 2018h.
117 Farrell and Greig, 2017.
118 European Parliament, 2017.
119 ILO, 2018h.
120 Graham, Hjorth and Lehdonvirta, 2017.
121 ILO, 2018b.
122 Adams and Berg, 2017.
123 Aleksynska, Batsrakova and Natalia, 2018.
124 ILO, 2018b.
125 Ibid.
126 Aleksynska, Batsrakova and Natalia, 2018.
127 Muller, forthcoming.
128 Blaschke, 2015.
129 Gausi, 2018; Castro Vizentin, Gausi, Haddad 2018.
130 However, as three confederations have a joint leadership, where the president and general secretary share the top spots, there are 42 leadership positions, of which 11 (26.2 per cent) are held by women.
131 ETUC, 2018.
132 OECD, 2017c; Muller, forthcoming.
133 Landau, Mahy and Mitchell, 2015.
134 See Paraguay – CEACR, observation, C.87, published 2016; ILO, 2016a; Muller, forthcoming.
135 OECD, 2017c.
136 Britwum, Douglas and Ledwith, 2012.
137 ILO, 2017k.
138 Blaschke, 2015.
139 Muller, forthcoming.

CHAPTER 2
PATHS TO GENDER EQUALITY IN THE WORLD OF WORK

A better future of work for women can only be realized by redressing discrimination and disadvantage and overcoming entrenched stereotypes relating to women in society, the value of their work and their position in the labour market. A better future of work cannot rely on women continuing to have to adapt themselves to a world of work shaped by men for men.[1]

Untangling the many factors that stall progress on gender equality can seem daunting. However, wherever the analysis begins, a common denominator emerges: unpaid care work. Unpaid care work is the factor common to all the gender gaps analysed in Chapter 1: employment-to-population ratio, pay and the share of women in management and leadership positions. All of these gaps are impacted by the unequal gender division of labour and by the low value attributed to care work. With women's daily time spent in unpaid care work decreasing by just one minute per year over the past 15 years, it can safely be said that progress needs to accelerate.

Addressing the root causes and effects of this imbalance requires society to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care work, as acknowledged in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Achieving this goal calls for simultaneous action on four different and mutually reinforcing paths: (1) rights; (2) infrastructure, social protection and public care services; (3) policies to engage and support women through work transitions; and (4) voice and representation. When these four paths converge, the achievement of gender equality in the world of work becomes attainable.

1. THE PATH OF RIGHTS FOR A FUTURE WITH GENDER EQUALITY AT WORK

In the last century, laws and justice played a crucial role in advancing gender equality in the world of work. They have been instrumental in reducing gender gaps in employment and pay and in increasing the share of women in managerial and leadership positions. The ILO has shed a guiding light along this path. The Declaration of Philadelphia (1944) states that "all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity" and "the attainment of the conditions in which this shall be possible must constitute the central aim of national and international policy".[2]

Equality and non-discrimination are fundamental principles and human rights to which all persons are entitled, and they are essential for the enjoyment of all other rights. For workers to choose their employment freely, to develop their potential to the full and to reap the economic rewards they deserve, equality and non-discrimination must be respected. Combating discrimination and ensuring equality of opportunity and treatment are essential to decent work, and success on this front resonates well beyond the workplace. For this reason, these principles have been a distinct feature of the ILO standard-setting mandate. Some Conventions and Recommendations, such as the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156) and the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), are particularly significant in promoting equality and eliminating discrimination against women, thereby reducing gender gaps in the world of work.

Transformative laws embrace a notion of equality that goes beyond aiming for the same treatment for women and men, and strives for substantive equality. To achieve a better future for women at work, legislation must be enacted to address discrimination and promote equality in a multidimensional and integrated manner: "Substantive equality should simultaneously redress disadvantage (the redistributive dimension); address stigma, stereotyping, prejudice and violence (the recognition dimension); facilitate participation and voice (the participative dimension); and bring about structural change (the transformative dimension)".[3]

ILO instruments support substantive gender equality. Convention No. 111 requires the elimination of not only direct discrimination, which is less favourable treatment explicitly or implicitly based on one or more prohibited grounds, but also more subtle and less visible forms of discrimination – where treatment appears neutral, but has a disproportionate impact on persons with specific characteristics (indirect discrimination).[4] The Convention also requires that the underlying causes of inequalities which result from deeply entrenched discrimination, complex social patterns, institutional structures, policies and legal constructs, be addressed, including through the implementation of proactive measures, with the aim of achieving substantive equality. This can only be realized through the effective participation and involvement of women from all spheres and backgrounds.[5]

"Equality and non-discrimination are fundamental principles and human rights to which all persons are entitled, and they are essential for the enjoyment of all other rights."

A future of work where women and men have equal opportunities

Laws to establish that women and men have equal rights in the world of work are the basis for demanding and achieving equality in practice. Pay differentials between women and men were one of the most tangible and measurable manifestations of discrimination when women entered the world of work in large numbers during the Second World War. Women proved that they could undertake all types of jobs and be as productive as men; equal pay should necessarily follow. The Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), recognized the principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value. It also paved the way for the acknowledgement that equality in pay could not be achieved without the elimination of discrimination in all areas of employment. A few years later, the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111), 1958, were adopted as the first comprehensive instruments dealing specifically with equality and non-discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.[6] Both instruments highlight the importance of tripartism, setting out clear requirements of cooperation and consultation with workers' and employers' organizations, to ensure the effective implementation of rights.

Convention No. 111 addresses all forms of discrimination in the context of the world of work on the basis of specific grounds, namely race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction and social origin, with the possibility of extending protection to tackle discrimination on the basis of other criteria. Additional grounds that have been added by a number of countries include real or perceived HIV status, sexual orientation and gender identity, family responsibilities, disability, age and nationality.[7]

Distinctions in employment and occupation based on pregnancy and maternity are discriminatory, as they can only, by definition, affect women. For this reason, the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), has explicitly recognized that maternity protection is a precondition for gender equality and for non-discrimination in employment and occupation. Discriminatory practices related to pregnancy or maternity continue to exist and have been particularly linked to dismissal and denial of the return to work following maternity leave, the use of temporary contracts to discriminate against pregnant women and mandatory pregnancy testing.[8] More recently, concerns have been raised regarding the use of non-standard forms of employment, including in the platform economy, to circumvent the requirement to respect non-discriminatory provisions and maternity protection legislation for women.[9] However, sex discrimination refers not only to distinctions based on "biological characteristics", but also to unequal treatment arising from socially constructed roles, stereotypes and responsibilities assigned to a particular sex, including the idea that only women should take on primary responsibility for unpaid care work.[10] An additional factor is the stereotyping of women as sexual beings, which may lead to violence and harassment in both public and private spheres.[11]

When Conventions No. 100 and No. 111 were adopted, they covered all workers. However, due to the historical context in which they were established, a binary approach to gender equality as equality between women and men prevailed and national anti-discrimination laws dealt with each ground of discrimination separately, not yet acknowledging the reality of an individual's intersecting identities. Yet women are often subjected to discrimination based on more than one ground. The compounding of discrimination based on different grounds, or intersectional discrimination, can have a significant impact on the ability to access and progress in paid work. As long as recourse to justice is limited to proving discrimination based on distinct categories, it will be difficult for anti-discrimination laws to cover those who are unable to "fit" themselves into the "fixed" categories.[12] Moving beyond the "single-axis framework" of discrimination provides a unique opportunity to leave no one behind. More recently, legislation is being adopted in some countries which recognizes the need to go beyond the binary gender equality concept in order to better reflect the multiplicity of discrimination layers that, through their interaction, can result in increased unequal and unfair practices.[13]

Convention No. 111 also recognizes that achieving gender equality in the world of work will be more difficult – if not impossible – unless gender-based discrimination prior to entry into the labour market is also addressed. Distinctions based on civil or marital status and family situation are therefore contrary to the Convention when they affect women's ability to seek paid work outside the home, to access, own and control property, resources and assets, and to enter into agreements.[14] Lifting such societal barriers is a necessary precondition to providing equal opportunities in the labour market.

"Achieving gender equality in the world of work will be more difficult – if not impossible – unless gender-based discrimination prior to entry into the labour market is also addressed."

For instance, in Ethiopia, in 2000, when the Government repealed the spousal objection to working outside the home and raised the minimum legal age of marriage for girls from 15 to 18 years, women's participation in paid work outside the home increased by 15 to 24 per cent in five years in those regions where the law was implemented.[15,16] Likewise, in the 1990s, when Peru reformed its customary laws – primarily practiced by indigenous and rural communities – that limited women's right to work, access to banking and financial services, and their right to own and inherit assets, women's formal labour force participation increased by 15 per cent within a decade.[17]

Laws that prohibit women from working at night or underground, or from entering and progressing in a specific sector or occupation altogether (such as mining, construction, transportation, the judiciary and the police force), deviate from the principle of equal treatment and non-discrimination (see box 2.1). Over time, such restrictions have contributed to the low participation rate of women in the labour force, thus widening the gender gap in employment. Removing legal restrictions to women's access to paid work in particular sectors or occupations or night shifts could accelerate women's participation in employment and in higher paying jobs. For instance, as a result of Chile's repeal of restrictions on women working in the mining sector, women now represent 8 per cent of the country's mining sector labour force.[18]

Box 2.1. The shift from protectionism to substantive equality in the history of the ILO

Even at the international level, immediately following its creation, the ILO adopted standards which aimed to protect certain categories of workers, such as youth and women, excluding them from working in certain sectors or occupations or on night shifts.[19] Concern for women's health and safety, specifically their reproductive health, their role as caregivers and their morals, was the rationale behind these restrictions.[20]

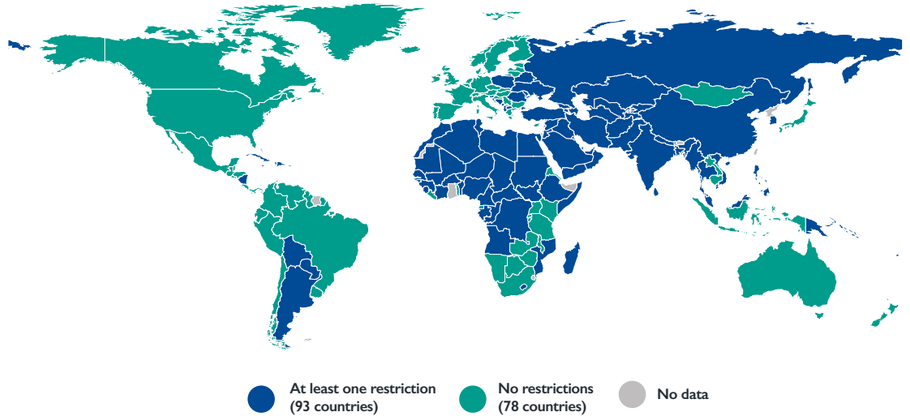
The protective measures aimed at women were adopted despite the opposition of certain factions of the women's movements, which deemed these measures discriminatory and called for a more general protection of workers' health, irrespective of their sex. In 1919, the first Women's Labour Congress united activists from 19 countries in demanding equal remuneration for work of equal value, maternity protection and the representation of women when the new labour standards were negotiated. Although the resolutions passed on from this International Congress of Working Women were not officially debated by the first International Labour Conference (ILC), it is highly likely that the Women's Labour Congress affected the direction and vision of the early ILO by introducing a focus on social justice between women and men.[21]

Despite the fact that compelling arguments for substantive equality were already being offered by the Women's Labour Congress to the first ILC in 1919, it took some time for the ILO to move from a protectionist approach to women's rights to one of gender justice. A shift in the thinking around equality for women and men in international labour standards came in the 1950s, with the adoption of the Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) in 1951 and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) in 1958.

Even though there is evidence of a steady easing of legal restrictions that prevent women from entering certain occupations and sectors and from working at night, a large number of countries continue to place restrictions on women's employment (figure 2.1).[22] Where these inequalities in labour legislation exist, their implications for women, and for society as a whole, remain significant and discriminatory: they result in gender-based occupational segregation in the labour market and the associated gender pay gaps, as most of the restricted jobs are also in some of the more highly paid industries. Beyond the national level, women's opportunities to find employment abroad have been curtailed by gender-based restrictions on labour migration. Such measures to address structural abuse against women migrants, while perhaps well-intentioned, run counter to the principles of equality and non-discrimination, and their effect on preventing migration-related risks has been limited.[23]

Over time, it has become clear that substantive equality requires more than the simple elimination of offending discriminatory practices. As clearly stated in Convention No. 111, substantive equality needs to be accompanied by measures and programmes to correct or compensate for past or present discrimination, or to prevent discrimination from recurring in the future.[24] Irrespective of the terminology used, proactive measures aim to redress disadvantage and accelerate the pace of participation of members of under-represented groups in gaining access to jobs, education, training and promotion, among other things.[25] Employment equity plans, setting goals and timetables for increasing the representation of beneficiary groups and indicating the policies needed for their realization are examples of these types of measures. Quota systems allocating a proportion of certain positions for members of designated groups fall under the label of affirmative action measures. Public procurement has also been increasingly used at the national level to complement legislation in furthering social goals.[26] For instance, in Tanzania, a legal amendment to the Public Procurement Act in 2016 allocates 30 per cent of Government tenders to enterprises led or owned by women, youth, older persons or persons with disabilities.[27]

Figure 2.1. Countries with at least one restriction on women's employment opportunities, 2018



Sources: ILO calculations based on ILO legal data, 2018 and World Bank, 2018.

A future of work free from discrimination, violence and harassment

Discriminatory practices in the world of work are not limited to recruitment and access to the labour market. Convention No. 111 covers all aspects of employment and occupation, including access to vocational training and terms and conditions of employment, such as career advancement, job tenure, equal remuneration for work of equal value, as well as social security measures and welfare facilities and benefits provided in connection with employment.[28]

Almost 80 per cent of the 189 countries reviewed by the World Bank prohibit gender discrimination in employment.[29] Notwithstanding this fact, unfair treatment, which includes abuse, harassment and discrimination, is among the top three challenges facing working women, especially young women between the ages of 15 and 29.[30] Unfair treatment at work is the most frequently mentioned concern in developing economies. This can be explained to some extent by the fact that developed countries are more likely to have legislative frameworks in place that provide women with equal access to labour markets and protection from discrimination at work.[31, 32]

"Unfair treatment, which includes abuse, harassment and discrimination, is among the top three challenges facing working women, especially young women between the ages of 15 and 29."

CELEBRATING A CENTURY OF WOMEN AT THE ILO

2019 100 YEARS OF HISTORY TOWARDS A BRIGHTER FUTURE FOR ALL

2030

2018 20TH ICLS RESOLUTION I: UNPAID CARE WORK IS RECOGNIZED AS A STATUS AT WORK

2015 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS
Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation (No. 204)

2013 LAUNCH OF THE WOMEN AT WORK INITIATIVE
19TH ICLS RESOLUTION I: UNPAID CARE WORK IS RECOGNIZED AS WORK

2011 CONVENTION 189 ADOPTED
Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189)

2010 HIV AND AIDS RECOMMENDATION

2008 DECLARATION ON SOCIAL JUSTICE FOR A FAIR GLOBALIZATION

2006 CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

2000 MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS
MATERNITY PROTECTION CONVENTION (NO. 183)

1998 DECLARATION ON FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES AND RIGHTS AT WORK

1996 CONVENTION 177 ADOPTED
Home Work Convention (No. 177)

1995 4TH WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN (BEIJING)
ILO ACTION PLAN ON GENDER MAINSTREAMING FOR GENDER EQUALITY

1994 CONVENTION 175 ADOPTED
Part-time Work Convention (No. 175)

1993 WORLD CONFERENCE ON HUMAN RIGHTS (VIENNA)

1990 CONVENTION 171 ADOPTED
Night Work Convention (No. 171)

1989 CONVENTION 169 ADOPTED
Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (No. 169)

1985 3RD WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN (NAIROBI)

1983 CONVENTION 159 ADOPTED
Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention (No. 159)

1981 CONVENTION 156 ADOPTED
Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156)

1980 2ND WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN (COPENHAGEN)

1979 CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)

1975 1ST WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN (MEXICO CITY)
DECLARATION OF EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY AND TREATMENT FOR WOMEN WORKERS

1964 WOMEN WORKERS IN A CHANGING WORLD AT WORK
ILO Report "Women Workers in a Changing World at Work" called for non-discrimination, pay equity and redistribution of unpaid care work

1956 CONVENTION 102 ADOPTED
Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102)

1958 CONVENTION 111 ADOPTED
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111)

1951 CONVENTION 100 ADOPTED
Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100)

1952 CONVENTION 103 ADOPTED
Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) (No. 103)

1948 UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS
FREEDOM OF ASSOCIATION AND PROTECTION OF THE RIGHT TO ORGANISE CONVENTION (NO. 87)

1949 CONVENTION 98 ADOPTED, 97 REVISED
Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (No. 98)
Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) (No. 97)

1919 CONSTITUTION OF THE ILO
FIRST WOMEN'S LABOUR CONGRESS
MATERNITY PROTECTION CONVENTION (NO. 3)

1944 DECLARATION OF PHILADELPHIA

In addition, those workers who are most disadvantaged and vulnerable to discrimination have failed to benefit from adequate protection, as the effectiveness in practice of laws that provide for equality and non-discrimination is normally dependent on litigation. Such workers tend not to make use of the law to gain redress because of a lack of information or fear of retaliation, or exclusion from the labour law altogether, as is the case for many informal workers or migrant domestic workers.[33] Cost, location and distrust of the legal system are also frequent barriers to meaningful access to redress. To ensure compliance and implementation, a range of issues need to be addressed, including the cost and speed of enforcement mechanisms, the burden of proof, the availability of legal aid, protection against retaliation and sufficiency of redress. This entails the involvement of both State and non-State bodies, such as labour inspectorates, trade unions, employers' organizations and civil society organizations. In particular, when labour inspectors are well-equipped and trained to handle gender equality issues, they play a key role in ensuring the application in practice of the principle of equal treatment and non-discrimination (box 2.2).

The need to address violence and harassment in the world of work has been brought into sharp focus by recent global outcries and campaigns. The "normalization" and pervasiveness of such behaviours, and their devastating effects, has been given heightened visibility. A world of work which is free from violence and harassment is essential if there is to be a future of work with gender equality. In many countries, however, laws do not cover the range of behaviours that constitute violence and harassment in the world of work.[35] An inclusive, integrated and gender-responsive approach is needed for the elimination of violence and harassment. All forms of harassment need to be prohibited, and effective prevention strategies put in place.[36] Interventions need to take into consideration the variety of reasons that might expose some categories of workers more than others to violence and harassment. For example, it has been recorded that in sectors with a high prevalence of piece-rate pay, women are more likely to experience concerns about sexual harassment and verbal abuse compared to women workers who are paid by the hour.[37]

Recognizing that there can be a relationship between the world of work and the private sphere, some countries have also introduced family and domestic violence leave provisions with a view to helping victims of violence receive the support they need or facilitating their return to work.[38] This legislative progress is a significant step forward but gaps in implementation also need to be addressed, otherwise a culture where violence and harassment are treated with impunity will persist. Addressing this issue requires adequate financing and effective means of enforcement of laws to prevent, report and punish violence and harassment in the world of work.[39]

Collective agreements and workplace measures can be important vehicles for addressing violence and harassment in the world of work, both to improve the scope and coverage of legislation when such exist, and to fill the gap when legislation is non-existent. Numerous collective agreements around the world have established policies and measures to tackle violence and harassment.[40] Furthermore, a growing number of enterprises have included policies on zero-tolerance for sexual harassment and bullying, including when based on sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression.[41]

Box 2.2. Labour inspection is key to making gender equality a reality in the world of work: The case of Costa Rica

Since 2016, the Costa Rican Ministry of Labour and Social Security has partnered with the National Institute for Women to implement international and domestic legislation on gender equality. Among other issues, this collaboration has focused on improving labour inspection and equipping the inspectorate with the tools and skills necessary to ensure the application in practice of gender equality legislation, including safe working conditions. A new guide has been approved to help labour inspectors identify, prevent and track unequal treatment of women and men workers in areas such as wages and equal remuneration, hiring, training, promotion and occupational safety and health, including sexual or other types of harassment. In addition, a new catalogue of infractions helps inspectors to identify gender-related legal violations more effectively during their visits. Training materials for labour inspectors have been developed with the financial and technical spport of the ILO.[34]

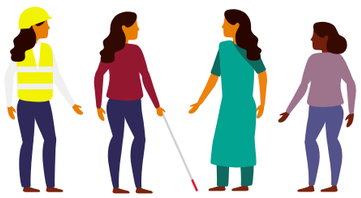
Technology can also play a role in ending violence and harassment in the world of work. Against the backdrop of the #*MeToo* movement, new apps and secure social networks are emerging to help victims report and address sexual harassment and assaults.[42] However, technology has also provided new avenues for violence and harassment, which need to be addressed.[43]

A future of work where work done by women is recognized and valued

"A world of work which is free from violence and harassment is essential if there is to be a future of work with gender equality."

The entrenched stereotype that women should take on primary responsibility for unpaid care work at home has had a spillover effect on the value attributed to women's contribution to the labour market. Women are seen as secondary earners, and since work in care professions, which are dominated by women, is seen as a natural extension of women's unpaid care work, it is significantly undervalued. Unless work done by women is fairly valued and remunerated, substantive equality cannot be achieved.

While the principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value, often referred to as "equal pay", has been widely endorsed, what it actually entails and how it is applied in practice has proved difficult to grasp.[44] Equal pay for work of equal value encompasses, but goes beyond, comparing the same or similar work, and includes comparing jobs of an entirely different nature which are nevertheless of equal value. When women and men perform work that is different in content, involving distinct responsibilities, requiring specific skills or qualifications, and which is performed under different conditions, but is of equal value overall, they should receive equal remuneration. For instance, certain jobs in highly feminized sectors, such as humanities and care work, are undervalued in comparison with work of equal value performed by men in more male-dominated sectors, such as construction, engineering and science. The concept of "work of equal value" is fundamental to tackling this occupational sex segregation, which exists in almost every country.[45]



Legal provisions mandating equal pay for work of equal value have long been in place in many countries. In recent years, some countries have broadened the scope of legislation on equal pay for work of equal value to go beyond the binary concept of gender. In the United States in 2016, the state of Maryland

amended its Equal Pay for Equal Work Act to cover both gender and gender identity. The California Fair Pay Act of 2015 has been expanded to cover race- and ethnicity-based pay differences. In 2013, South Africa amended the Employment Equity Act, broadening the grounds to include sexual orientation.[46]

However, as the gender pay gap remains stubbornly persistent, additional measures are clearly needed to accelerate action and close the gap. This is particularly relevant in the context of an ageing population, as the gender pay gap also leads to a larger gender pension gap for women. Ensuring equal pay throughout the working life of women will have a positive cumulative impact on reducing the gender pension gap (box 2.3).[47]

Depending on the national context and existing governance structure, different wage transparency measures have been emerging in recent years. In Iceland, companies and institutions with an average of 25 or more employees are required by law to obtain certification on an annual basis confirming that they meet the requirements to tackle unequal pay.[55] Australia adopted the Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012, which obliges private companies with more than 100 employees to report on gender equality indicators, including equal pay for work of equal value.[56] In Switzerland, employers with 50 or more employees are required to carry out a pay audit and remove the discriminatory part of any pay difference if they wish to participate in public tenders.[57] In addition, in the United States some states have enacted recent new legislation to prohibit employers from inquiring about compensation history from potential employees prior to making a job offer.[58]

Recent voluntary measures to address pay equity, such as equality labels, company-based action plans and codes of conduct, have also become more common. However, while it is encouraging to see a revived interest in ensuring equal pay, indications are that, unless measures are compulsory, their application remains very limited.

Other measures that can lead to positive outcomes in reducing gender pay gaps include minimum wage setting mechanisms and collective bargaining that pay attention to gender equality. When well-designed, minimum wages are effective in addressing inequalities at the low part of the wage distribution, as they serve as an effective wage floor. This link between minimum wages and reduced gender pay gaps has been documented in countries as diverse as the United States[59] and Indonesia.[60] An ILO study suggests that the introduction in 2012 of a minimum wage in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has contributed to reducing the gender pay gap among those working at the lowest wage levels.[61]

In some cases, minimum wage legislation covers informal workers, including domestic workers, as called upon by the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189). A positive trend in this direction is particularly evident in Latin America, where a number of countries over the past decade have extended national minimum wages to informal workers. To maximize the effect of minimum wages on gender pay gaps it is necessary to ensure that minimum wages do not themselves discriminate, directly or indirectly, against women (for example, by setting lower wage levels in sectors or occupations where women predominate, or even excluding female-dominated sectors or occupations from coverage).[62]

Collective bargaining can also help to reduce wage disparities both within and across sectors and firms.[63] Collective agreements can focus on increased transparency of company pay differentials; higher pay rises for female-dominated job classes; and gender-neutral job evaluations to avoid gender biases in job classification and pay systems.[64] In high-income countries a greater trade union density rate is associated with lower gender pay gaps (figure 2.2). Evidence from the United States shows that women members of unions, or those covered by union contracts, have

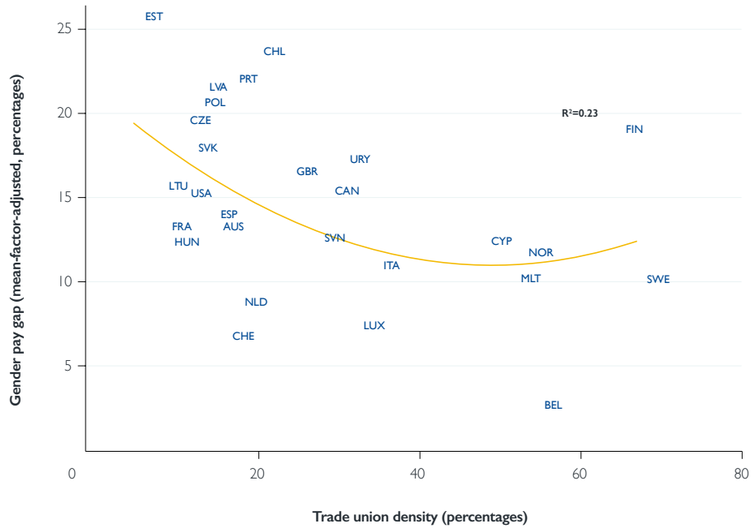
Box 2.3. Reducing the gender pay gap also enhances women's pension entitlements

The design of pension systems determines the extent to which inequalities in the labour market are perpetuated into old age, and whether and how they result in a gender gap in pensions.[48] Interrupted employment careers can reduce pension entitlements, lower retirement ages for women compared to men in some countries, and can prevent women from accumulating sufficient contributions. The non-contributory elements of pension systems, such as tax-financed pensions, do not depend on previous employment, but frequently offer only modest levels of benefit that are often insufficient to prevent poverty in old age.

The contributory elements of pension systems, both public and private, tend to offer higher benefits and are more closely linked to employment histories, particularly defined-contribution schemes, which are often designed around a male breadwinner model, providing the highest levels of protection for those with an uninterrupted and full-time career in the formal economy.[49] There is, however, significant diversity within these schemes. Unlike private pensions, many social insurance pension schemes include more redistributive elements, such as the recognition and valuing of care periods (e.g. in Canada, France and Germany)[50] or guaranteed minimum pensions for insured persons with low earnings.[51] Many private pension schemes are still based on sex-differentiated mortality tables and annuities that tend to result in lower pension levels for women.[52] The most effective way to achieve greater gender equality in pension schemes is to guarantee adequate public pensions, including tax-financed basic pensions and well-designed social insurance pensions.[53]

The ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202) sets out that states should guarantee at least a minimum level of social protection to all, including access to essential health care and basic income security in every stage of life, and should progressively ensure higher levels of protection through comprehensive social protection systems, based on the principles of gender equality, non-discrimination and responsiveness to special needs.[54]

Figure 2.2. Gender pay gap (mean factor-adjusted) and trade union density, latest year



Sources: ILO, 2018g and ILOSTAT, 2019.

gender pay gaps that are half the size of those with no coverage.[65]

The level of collective bargaining can also affect the gender pay gap. The more centralized the collective bargaining process, the smaller the size of the gender pay gap.[66] The availability of formal grievance processes and representation to help tackle wage complaints is also likely to contribute to the advantage of women.[67] In Belgium, a 2012 law made it mandatory for the gender pay gap to be specifically taken into account when unions and employers negotiate their wage agreements. The law also requires the Federal Labour Service to check and sign off job classifications on the basis of their gender neutrality.[68] As a result of these measures, there has been a significant decrease in the gender pay gap in Belgium since the law was enacted.[69]

Effective justice, including through labour inspection systems, is crucial to ensuring that discrimination is prevented and addressed in practice. A growing number of countries, such as El Salvador and Mexico, have strengthened their labour inspection systems to detect inequalities in wages more effectively. Legal action, including class action, can also be taken to tackle the issue of equal pay. Across the world, a growing number of class actions on equal pay for work of equal value have been brought to court. In 2013, in New Zealand the successful equal pay settlement for care and support workers resulted in 60,000 workers, mostly women and mostly earning the minimum wage, receiving pay increases of up to 50 per cent. The case has paved the way for women working in female-dominated occupations, such as in the care economy, to challenge their pay rates on the basis of gender discrimination.[70] In France, representative workers' organizations and associations are legally entitled to bring group actions in cases of discrimination.[71]

A future of work with more women leading the way

The cumulative effect of the many forms and layers of discrimination before entering and when in the labour market, has implications for another persistent gender gap – the share of women in managerial and leadership positions. Social norms regarding women's responsibility for unpaid care continue to impact on women's career prospects. Career disadvantage is often seen as a consequence of women's career interruptions (or assumed future career interruptions) due to maternity and childcare, although men who experience similar periods of career interruption are not necessarily penalized to the same extent.[72]

Over the past decades, many countries have introduced proactive measures to accelerate the pace of participation of members of under-represented groups in gaining access to jobs, education, training and promotion, among other things. The motherhood penalty for women in managerial and leadership positions has often been addressed by the introduction of proactive measures, including voluntary targets and quotas, as well as flexible working-time arrangements. Quotas first emerged as temporary measures to overcome gender inequalities in representation in politics in many countries (see box 2.4 for an example of the effect of quotas on representation in national assemblies).[73] In more recent years, quotas have also been used in the private sector to increase the share of women in managerial and leadership positions. For instance, the introduction of quotas in Italy and France has resulted in a 500 and 208 per cent increase, respectively, in the share of women on company boards between 2010 and 2016.[74]

Box 2.4. More women in parliaments

Recent years have seen a growing number of women elected in national assemblies. Evidence suggests that quota policies are successful in improving the gender balance in national parliaments. According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), in 2017, women won over 30 per cent of seats in 24 chambers (across 21 countries) where quotas were in place, compared to only 15.4 per cent of seats in 19 chambers (across 16 countries) where no form of electoral gender quota existed. Quotas are implemented differently according to the national context, and the pace at which a measure is introduced, as well as the enforcement mechanisms in place, contribute to the effectiveness of the affirmative action policy.[75]

Beyond the introduction of quotas, the private sector is increasingly addressing the gender gap in the share of women in managerial and leadership positions through non-binding, voluntary targets or other means, such as providing flexible working-time arrangements in all their different forms (telecommuting, condensed hours, compressed work weeks, flexible working locations, etc.). Modern technology has certainly facilitated a culture of flexibility at work but it has also emphasized the on-demand economic model, which threatens to intensify working lives. Behind the need for flexibility is the reality of demanding care commitments and, even if more men are starting to share the care, women still tend to do more unpaid care work.

Interesting initiatives supporting the agenda of women in management and leadership positions also include companies and networks that are establishing databases of profiles of qualified women who are ready to take on responsibilities at board level. With the aim of increasing the visibility of women candidates in an environment dominated by men, the Global Board Ready Women initiative, for example, maintains a database of over 8,000 qualified women.[76] At the national level, the BoardAgender forum in Singapore identifies board-ready women leaders and provides networking opportunities for women professionals.[77] The Croatian Employers' Association has collaborated with the Gender Equality Ombudsperson to build and maintain a database of women who are suitably qualified and experienced for management and board positions.[78]

Mentoring and training programmes specifically targeting women candidates are often highlighted as good practices for promoting women's ascension into leadership positions.[79] For instance, in the United States, the Executive Leadership Program in Academic Medicine aims to change the masculine organizational culture and climate in care occupations by offering mentoring and career counselling for the career advancement of women to counter vertical segregation.[80]

Voluntary initiatives and campaigns can play an important role in challenging traditional stereotypes and, therefore, in promoting a more equal power partnership between women and men (box 2.5).

Box 2.5. Men and boys as part of the solution in changing stereotypes relating to unpaid care work

Intervening at an early stage of life to positively transform the existing gender roles in society can lead to beneficial change. For example, in India, the Gender Equity Movement in Schools programme, targeting students in grades six and seven, contributed to making positive differences in attitudes and behaviours. Students increased their support for a higher age at marriage for girls, for men's active engagement in unpaid care work, as well as expressing increased opposition to both gender discrimination and the use of violence.[81] In Nepal, a programme targeting parents, children and community members challenged gender stereotypes. After the programme, the percentage of children who agreed that boys can do household chores increased from 49 per cent to 85 per cent.[82] In addition, training and educational campaigns that specifically target fathers can empower men to feel capable of and responsible for participating in unpaid care work. In Turkey, thousands of fathers gained basic parenting skills and improved awareness of their roles in childcare. As a result, fathers spent more time with their children, shouted less, used less harsh discipline and became more involved in parenting and housework.[83]

A future of work with inclusive maternity, paternity and parental leave

Since balancing work and family has been identified as the number one challenge in both developed and emerging economies for women in the world of work, and the lack of affordable care for children and other family members in need as a bigger challenge in emerging and developing economies,[84] structural change is needed to address these two interrelated areas. Change of this nature requires acceptance not only of the fact that women can enter the paid workforce on equal terms, but also that men can take on caring roles in the home, as well as in the labour market. Similarly, and as analysed below, this dimension also requires closer attention to the provision of public care services, social protection and infrastructure, ensuring that caring is recognized as a social function and that it is redistributed between families and the State. Some ILO Conventions and Recommendations, such as the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202), the Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177) and the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), are particularly relevant in this context and provide clear guidance.

A comprehensive system of legislation providing paid family and care leave[85] for both women and men is needed to facilitate women's access to and progress in the labour market, as well as a comprehensive reconsideration of the notion of time in relation to the world of work. "Having time" is one of the essential elements required to enable the redistribution of care responsibilities.[86] Combining full labour market engagement with caregiving obligations is challenging. The future of work requires greater time sovereignty, allowing workers to exercise increased choice and control over their working hours.[87] Achieving this goal would be particularly beneficial for workers with family responsibilities.

Maternity protection has been a primary concern of the ILO since its inception. One of the first international labour standards adopted by the ILO, the Maternity Protection Convention, 1919 (No. 3), recognized the right to paid leave in relation to childbirth. The scope and entitlements of maternity protection have been expanded progressively by the Maternity Protection Convention (Revised), 1952 (No. 103), and by the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183).[88] The instruments aim to preserve the health of both the mother and newborn, to provide economic and job security, including protection from dismissal and discrimination, maintenance of earnings and benefits during maternity, and the right to resume work after giving birth, and therefore to promote equal opportunities in employment and occupation for women.[89]

Even though maternity protection is central to advancing the rights, health and economic security of women and their families, only a small proportion of women worldwide benefit from maternity leave and cash benefits.[90] Some positive trends are evident, however, as a growing number of countries have increased their maternity leave schemes, such as El Salvador (from 12 to 16 weeks), India (from 26 to 56 weeks), Lao People's Democratic Republic (from 13 to 15 weeks), Paraguay (from 12 to 18 weeks), Peru (from 13 to 14 weeks), Rwanda (from 6 to 12 weeks) and Seychelles (from 14 to 16 weeks).[91]

Some steps have also been taken to extend maternity protection to workers in the informal economy, such as in Mongolia. The country has aimed to achieve universal maternity protection – covering, notably, the self-employed, herders, nomads and rural workers in the informal economy – through the combination of a contributory social insurance scheme and a welfare scheme.[92]

Collective agreements can also be instrumental in improving maternity rights. For instance, in Australia, collective bargaining coverage has improved women's access to paid maternity leave and, in 2010 (just as Australia was first introducing statutory maternity leave), 14 per cent of all collective bargaining agreements included maternity leave provisions.[93] In the United States, unionized employees in California were more than three-and-a-half times as likely to have access to leave benefits that were above the legal requirements than their non-unionized counterparts.[94] In Greece, centralized collective bargaining increased the length of maternity leave for workers covered.[95]

The ILO Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156) and its corresponding Recommendation, 1981 (No. 165) opened the door to paternity and parental leave entitlements. In 1975, when consideration was being given to adopting a standard like Convention No. 156, it was already

"Even though maternity protection is central to advancing the rights, health and economic security of women and their families, only a small proportion of women worldwide benefit from maternity leave and cash benefits."

acknowledged that any change in the traditional role of women needed to be accompanied by a change in the traditional role of men, requiring increased participation of men in family life and household duties. In the context of the Convention, paternity and parental leave are closely examined as integral components of a national policy to support workers with family responsibilities.[96]

Research suggests a positive correlation between men's take-up of paternity leave and their time spent in caring for their children even after the end of the entitlement, and also positive effects in increasing their daily share of household chores every day.[97] In addition, mandatory paternity leave can also generate an increase in women's wages. A Swedish study found that, for every month of leave taken by men in the first year of the child's life, the woman's long-term salary was 6.7 per cent higher.[98]

Some countries have begun moving towards leave that can be transferred, at least in part, to fathers. In the Czech Republic, mothers are entitled to 28 weeks of maternity leave. It is obligatory to take 14 weeks, including at least six weeks after the birth. However, from the start of the seventh week after childbirth, either the mother or father may use the leave. Similar provisions can also be found in Bulgaria, Croatia, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom.[99]

Despite the scarcity of data on take-up rates of parental leave, there is clear evidence that fathers' uptake increases when the entitlement is conceived as a mandatory individual right that cannot be transferred to the other parent.[100] For instance, in Germany, uptake rose from 3.3 per cent in 2006 to 29.3 per cent in 2012 after the introduction of a two-month individual entitlement. Similarly, research shows that fathers take the exact amount of leave mandated by law.[101] Bonuses in cash or time if both parents take leave is another measure to boost fathers' uptake. In Sweden, for example, parents receive a cash bonus on top of the daily allowance if parental leave is equally divided between the parents.[102]

Despite these recognized benefits, and many countries introducing legal entitlements, very few fathers globally benefit from such leave provision.[103] Moreover, the provision of gender-neutral parental leave does not automatically lead to gender equality in its take-up. Even where policies allow sharing of parental leave, mothers still take the majority of this time.[104] In some instances, men are stigmatized for taking their leave entitlements and considered less worthy of promotion.[105] In the absence of legislative

provisions, some collective agreements have provided for paternity leave, though examples remain limited. Of particular interest is the case of Denmark, where all male employees covered by collective agreements receive full pay during paternity leave.[106]

In order to be effective, family leave policies should be provided through collectively financed mechanisms – such as social insurance, universal benefits or social assistance schemes. However, in many countries, employer's liability remains the most common funding mechanism for family leave policies, putting a disproportionate burden on the employer. Currently, maternity leave is funded through social security contributions in 58 per cent of countries where it is available, by employers in 26 per cent and through a mix of government and employer contributions in the remaining countries. Employers are responsible for funding leave in most countries in the Middle East and North Africa and South Asia. These are also regions where the majority of countries do not meet the ILO standard of 14 weeks of paid maternity leave and where women's labour force participation rate is particularly low.[107]

A future of work with time to care

It is a reality today that living longer also comes with an increased need for care. Very often, workers not only have to look after their children but their parents too, while also working at a paid job. Hence, labour market institutions need to adapt their policies to respond to the care needs of this "sandwich generation", making it possible for care to be provided not just for their young children but also for their ageing relatives.[108] In 2014, only 89 out of 186 countries provided leave to care for adult family members' health needs.[109]

Substantial gaps also exist in the leave schemes to care for ill or disabled children. Deficits concern both universally accessible leave (in many cases countries do not have any legislation covering this issue) and the State's primary funding role (where such leave is available, it is often unpaid or paid at a low rate). In general, there has been less progress regarding the right to paid leave and flexible work for those caring for older or disabled people compared to those caring for children.[110] The future of work will need to pay more attention to this area of legislation and policy.

To cope with all the care demands, a higher proportion of women work in part-time or "marginal part-time work" jobs compared to men.[111] Often out of necessity or constrained choice, women are also present in non-standard forms of employment.[112] These working arrangements often penalize women in terms of earnings and career development. This situation also emphasizes the predominance of the full-time and linear male-breadwinner career model. While part-time work should be an option for those who want to take it, a reduction in normal working hours at full pay for both women and men workers would be particularly effective within a world of work where everybody needs to be more involved in care. This approach could directly address the issue of women's time poverty in both developed and developing countries.[113]

Reduced full-time hours have been implemented in some countries at the national, sectoral and workplace level. In New Zealand and Sweden, companies experimented, respectively, with a four-day working week at full pay and six-hour days on an eight-hour salary. Both these experiments proved to be successful, benefiting employees and employers alike, with growing numbers of employees feeling that they were able to manage their work–family balance successfully and increased productivity reported.[114]

In addition, flexible working-time arrangements have become common as a cost-effective solution to achieving work–family balance.[115] Workers need greater autonomy over their working-time, while meeting the needs of their employers. Harnessing technology to expand choice and achieve a balance between work and personal life can help to realize this goal. However, attention is needed to address the pressure that might come with the blurring of boundaries between working-time and private time.[116] With the growing use of the Internet and technological progress, working remotely can represent another measure to help workers balance work and family responsibilities. However, there is also the risk that such flexible working-time arrangements will reinforce gender roles, particularly if only women make use of them, while continuing to shoulder the majority of unpaid care work. When considering how to achieve balanced working-time arrangements, the issue of constant availability for work due to ICT connectivity must also be considered.[117] This is an emerging issue which only a few initiatives, in a handful of countries, have undertaken to address thus far.[118]

Social dialogue serves as an important tool for shaping innovative working-time arrangements tailored to both workers' and employers' needs. Collective bargaining has proved to be key in promoting family-friendly working arrangements. Results from a survey by the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) showed that 49 per cent of unions had concluded agreements for improved work–family balance.[119] Results from a Eurofound–ILO report also showed that national, sectoral or company-level social dialogue has played a significant role in the regulation of teleworking in Belgium, Finland, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden.[120]

2. THE PATH OF ACCESS TO INFRASTRUCTURE, SOCIAL PROTECTION AND PUBLIC CARE SERVICES TO TRANSFORM THE FUTURE OF WORK FOR WOMEN

Complementary to proactive legal measures that can substantially and positively impact gender equality, access to infrastructure, public care services and social protection are essential elements for enabling societies to advance gender equality. These services can take different forms, depending on the national context. In all cases, when intelligently designed and sufficiently financed, they have a positive impact on redistributing unpaid care work and thus reducing the time spent by women in unpaid care work. As a result, women are able to spend more time in paid jobs without suffering time poverty.

Sustainable infrastructure for gender equality

In low-income countries, basic infrastructure and services, such as clean water, safe cooking fuel, electricity and secure transportation, schools, health facilities and ICT have a tremendous impact on women's time to dedicate to work while also being a source of decent jobs for women.[121] Many low-

income countries have little or no access to such basic infrastructure and women in rural areas are particularly affected (figure 2.3).

Initiatives concerning the production and provision of water and fuel for household consumption using renewable and sustainable approaches not only help to mitigate the effects of climate change but can also generate economic opportunities for women and improve their health. For example, solar panel installations or clean biogas production in rural communities can create training and employment opportunities and provide clean energy to households with benefits for their health and the environment. If designed in a way that takes into account the practical daily tasks within households – of which women perform the overwhelming majority – such initiatives can free up time for women to engage in economic activities.[122]

Infrastructure and services related to transport can have a significant and positive impact on women's ability to engage in paid work, in terms of supporting safe access to the workplace, saving time in travelling from one place to another, as well as providing better access to places where paid work is more available, such as markets and other workplaces.[123] For example, in Cambodia, rural road investments have supported an increase in women's farm produce sales.[124] Transportation is of great importance to women as they rely on public transportation to a greater extent than men. However, women are also more exposed than men to violence and harassment on public transport.[125] When women have access to affordable and safe transportation, their likelihood of being in the labour market is greater and their level of negotiating power over their mobility within the household increases.[126]

Of equal importance is ICT infrastructure, especially in rural areas where Internet access is very limited. Modern development approaches, such as those that facilitate the electrification of off-grid communities, can increase the connectivity of villagers and their access to markets, services and know-how, in particular for women.[127] ICT-enabled services, such as mobile technology, can also help in providing information and advice on agricultural crops that are commercially sustainable, thereby contributing towards improving incomes and productivity.[128]

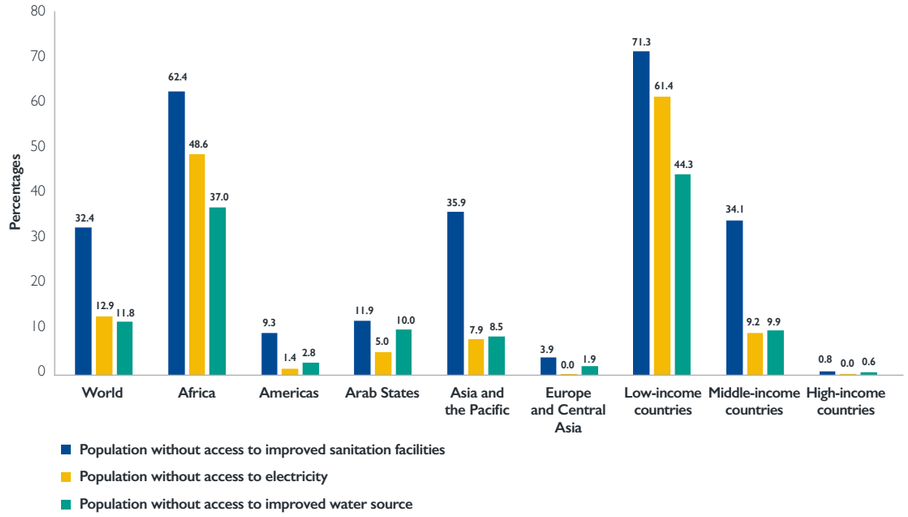
The provision of infrastructure should also be viewed as a source of decent jobs that can benefit women. For example, when public works and employment-intensive programmes include proactive measures to address the barriers that prevent women from participating, these are more likely to succeed and help bring about positive change in social norms. In South Africa, the Expanded Public Works Programme, launched in 2003, also invested in early childhood and community-based care services, including for HIV-affected households.[129] This contributed to both increasing women's employment in the care sector and alleviating the burden of unpaid care work, of which they performed the overwhelming share.[130] In Lebanon and Jordan, the Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programmes,[131] which aimed to create employment opportunities for Syrian refugees and host communities, employed an average of 10 per cent women in 2018. This small but significant achievement was due to proactive measures used to challenge norms and encourage women to engage in these non-traditional jobs. The measures included training contractors in gender-responsive recruitment and management, as well as incorporating the mandatory recruitment of women in the contract, provision of skills training for women who had never engaged in paid work and a task-based payment system to ensure fairness in wages. The programmes also introduced adjusted working hours, safe transportation and separate worksite toilets for women.[132]

All such initiatives have a better chance of being effective when their design, planning and implementation is based on accurate gender analysis informed by sex disaggregated data and consultations with the beneficiaries of the infrastructure and services.

Public care services for a future where everybody cares more

Another significant determinant of women's participation in the labour market is the availability, affordability and quality of public care services. Childcare and long-term care policies and services are particularly important. No substantial progress will be made towards achieving gender equality, especially in the world of work, until unpaid care work is recognized (box 2.6), reduced and redistributed – both between women and men, and between families and the State.

Figure 2.3. Population without access to basic infrastructure by region and income group, 2015–16



Note: Data for access to electricity are for 2016 and for access to improved sanitation facilities and water source are for 2015.
Source: World Bank, 2019.

Box 2.6. Recognizing unpaid care work as work

In 2013, the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) adopted Resolution I, which defines unpaid caregiving services and unpaid domestic services for household and family members as "own-use provision of services".[133] Resolution I makes it clear that work can be performed in any kind of economic unit, including households and communities,[134] and can also include services that are not provided in the context of market transactions. In 2018, the 20th ICLS went one step further in its Resolution I by providing a new International Classification of Status at Work (ICSaW-18), which covers all jobs and work activities in all forms of work, including own-use provision of services.[135]

Currently, time spent in own-use provision of services, i.e. unpaid care work, is mainly measured through time-use surveys. However, only 35 per cent of countries produce time-use survey data and these surveys are administered only every five or ten years. To improve the frequency of data collection, as well as the accuracy and comparability of the estimates, the ILO has initiated work on different methodologies to test alternative approaches for measuring participation and time spent in unpaid care work through ad-hoc modules attached to labour force and household surveys based on recall- and-diary based methods. Given the associated costs and challenges involved in performing large-scale time-use surveys, the use of such survey modules can represent a cost-effective alternative to increase the frequency of data collection and thus facilitate the regular monitoring of policies.[136]

All this progress is game changing not only for labour statistics but also for gender equality in the world of work, as it makes visible and measurable the amount of unpaid care work performed by women and men. The 19th and 20th ICLS resolutions expand the boundaries of work beyond pure market transactions, recognizing unpaid care work as work and opening the door to a future where social and economic progress is measured by more than just a country's gross domestic product (GDP).[137]

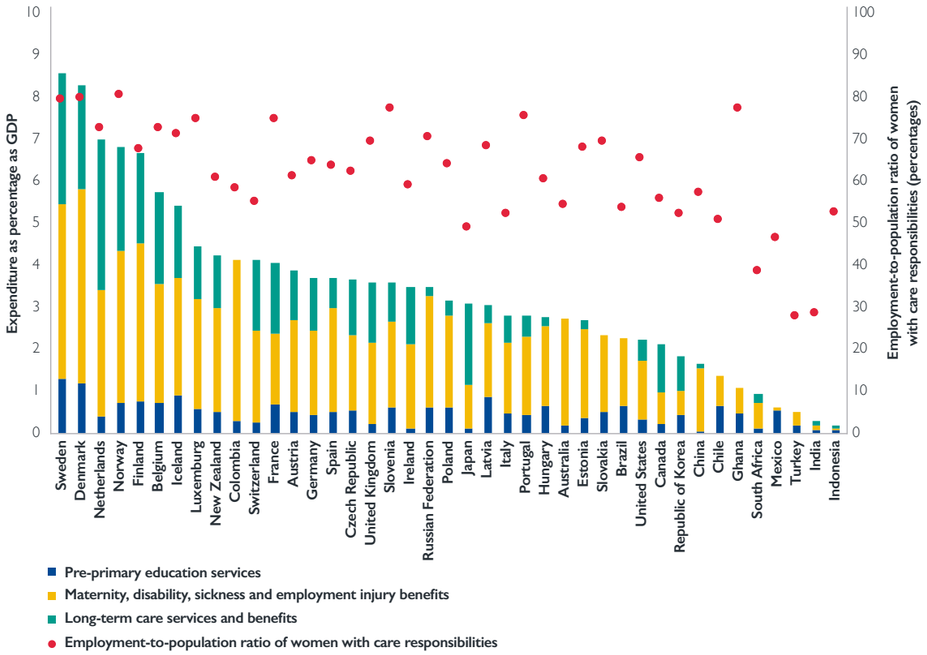
Care services – encompassing the direct provision of services for children, older persons, people with disabilities and people living with HIV, as well as care-related social protection transfers and benefits given to workers with family or care responsibilities, unpaid carers or people who need care – play a transformative role in advancing gender equality.[138] Evidence derived from 41 countries for which data are available confirms that the employment rates tend to be higher for women aged 18–54, with families, and in countries that have a higher share of GDP invested in public expenditure on pre-primary education, long-term care services and benefits, and maternity, disability, sickness and employment injury benefits (figure 2.4)[139]

Further evidence confirms a strong and positive correlation between the employment-to-population ratios of women with young children and the number of their children enrolled in early-childhood educational development (ECED) programmes.[140] This finding suggests that policies aimed at increasing the coverage of such enrolment could trigger an increase in women's participation in employment (figure 2.5). Such policies must be inclusive and take into consideration the needs of different groups of children, such as those with disabilities.

Overall, it is encouraging to see that there is an increase in national childcare strategies and investment among middle- and high-income countries and that this has led to positive outcomes for women's participation in employment. However, relatively few developing countries in Asia and Africa have inclusive childcare services and policies and, in the absence of such municipal or state-provided childcare, parents must rely on informal arrangements to help them juggle family and paid work responsibilities. Many families rely on grandmothers or older sibling daughters for childcare provision. These coping strategies can be disadvantageous to young girls and their education, thus perpetuating women's time poverty and occupational segregation.[141]

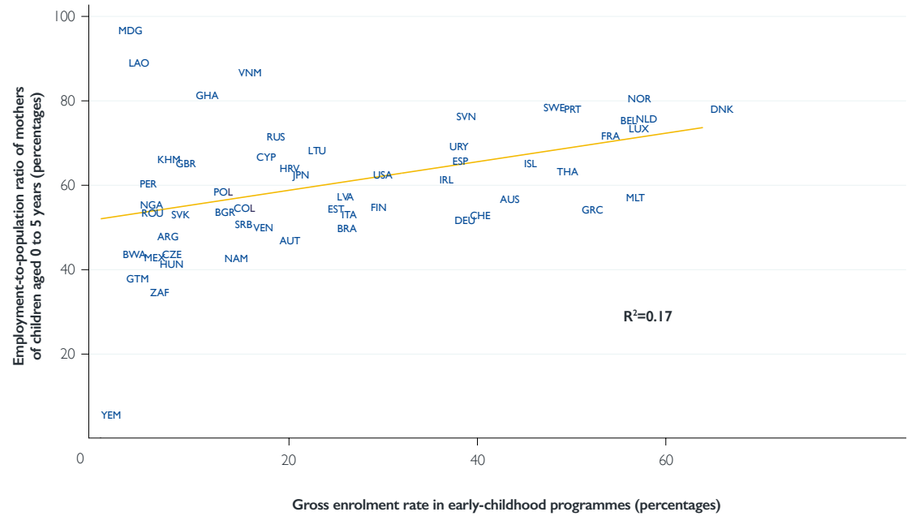
Social protection policies play an important role in the context of childcare and thus contribute to securing women's equal opportunities and treatment

Figure 2.4. Public expenditure on selected care policies as a percentage of GDP, and employment-to-population ratio of women with care responsibilities, latest year



Source: ILO, 2018a.

Figure 2.5. Employment-to-population ratio of women with young children (0–5 years) and gross enrolment rates in ECED programmes, latest year



Sources: ILO calculations based on ILO, 2018a and UNESCO, 2018.

in employment. In low-income countries, subsidized day care has proven to be a cost-effective public policy. Results of a randomized control trial study carried out in Kenya showed that women who received day-care vouchers for their children were 8.5 percentage points more likely to be working than those who did not.[142] Likewise, in Mexico, a programme covering up to 90 per cent of childcare costs by subsidizing both low-income parents and the suppliers of childcare has improved labour market access for women and created 45,000 formal jobs, mainly for them.[143]

Specific measures – when included in national social policies – can directly impact women's participation in employment. Examples of such measures are entitlements, including tax-free childcare, childcare safety nets in disadvantaged communities, childcare allowances for the unemployed or informal workers, and universal childcare subsidies.[144] When such measures are combined with family leave policies, the likelihood of increasing women's participation in the economy increases.[145]

The private sector can also play a role in helping workers with family responsibilities.[146] By providing facilities or subsidizing childcare for employees, enterprises enjoy positive outcomes in terms of reduced employee turnover and higher retention rates, as well as reduced costs and increased productivity, including lower rates of sickness absence and absenteeism.[147] Some enterprises opt to offer both childcare and care for older, disabled or sick family members of employees as part of a

life-cycle approach in human resources management. By supporting workers with family responsibilities throughout their life cycle, the "caring company model"[148] can also increase women's opportunities to reach managerial and leadership positions.[149]

Another way to support workers with family responsibilities is through solutions for long-term care, such as care for older family members, those with disabilities and those living with HIV. Over 48 per cent of the world's population lives in countries that do not provide any long-term social protection and services to older persons. Women are disproportionately affected by this lack of provision since they live longer than men, have fewer financial resources in old age, including through pensions, compared to men, and are often expected to provide such care to their family members until late in their lives.[150]

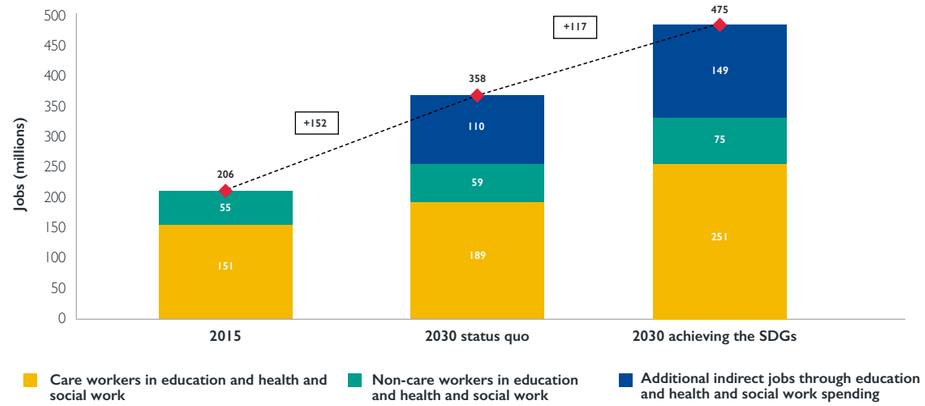
Only 5.6 per cent of the global population lives in countries that provide long-term universal care coverage through national legislation.[151] A number of countries are considering implementing this coverage; for example, China, which is facing considerable demographic challenges, is considering the introduction of compulsory long-term care insurance.[152] Montenegro has increased the number of older person day centres and supported housing.[153] In Australia, Brazil, Quebec (Canada) and the United Kingdom, better governance of long-term care services has been the object of recent legislation and accompanying measures.[154]

In sub-Saharan Africa, cooperatives, such as those in Rwanda and Zimbabwe, are helping to meet the long-term care needs of persons living with HIV. Cooperatives for older person care, which provide housing or home-based care, are prevalent across Asia, including in Japan and the Republic of Korea; Western Europe, such as in France and the United Kingdom; Canada and the United States; and parts of South America, such as in Uruguay. Social cooperatives and enterprises, such as in Italy, provide social, health and educational services for children and older persons at community centres, and health-care facilities and home-based care for older persons.[155] Also common across North America are cooperatives that focus on services for youth with developmental needs.[156]

Good quality care that benefits all involved – recipients and providers, whether paid or unpaid – is highly dependent on the working conditions of the care workers, who are the "faces and hands" of paid care service provision. The global care workforce includes care workers in care sectors (education and health, and social work), those workers employed in the care economy with supporting administrative and managerial functions, and also domestic workers. Employment in the care economy provides a significant source of income, especially for women, around the world. In 2015, the care workforce comprised an estimated 206 million persons (151 million women and 55 million men). The combination of expanding population and rapidly ageing societies is driving an increase in the demand for care work, although there will be significant deficits in coverage unless there is further investment in care services. It is predicted that an increase in investment in care services to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) would create 120 million more jobs in the care economy and 149 million indirect jobs in non-care sectors by the year 2030 (figure 2.6). This confirms that investing in the care economy would result in job creation across many sectors.[157]

Quotas, targets and specific incentives to encourage more men to go into occupations such as childcare and long-term care as well as education could help to promote a more balanced representation of men and women in various occupations and reduce occupational segregation. However, to ensure that the care sector is attractive to both women and men, it is imperative to provide decent working conditions. This requires regulating and implementing decent terms and conditions of employment and achieving equal pay for work of equal value for all care workers. To achieve this and ensure a safe, attractive and stimulating work environment for both women and men care workers, further progress is needed in enacting laws and implementing measures to protect migrant care workers, whose numbers have grown significantly over the past decades. In addition, promoting freedom of association for care workers and employers, social dialogue and the right to collective bargaining is of paramount importance. The ILO's "5R Framework for Decent Care Work" represents a successful recipe of legislative and policy measures to achieve decent work in the care economy (table 2.7). Its key components include Recognizing, Reducing and Redistributing unpaid care work; Rewarding paid care work; and ensuring Representation, social dialogue and collective bargaining for care workers. Each group of policy recommendations is matched by a set of policy measures based on ILO labour standards and intended to achieve the SDGs.[158]

Figure 2.6. Total care and related employment in 2015 and 2030, status quo and achieving the SDGs



Source: ILO, 2018a.

Table 2.1. The 5R Framework for Decent Care Work

Main policy areas	Policy recommendations	Policy measures
Care policies Macroeconomic policies Social protection policies Labour policies Migration policies	Recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care work	• Measure all forms of care work and take unpaid care work into account in decision-making • Invest in quality care services, care policies and care-relevant infrastructure • Promote active labour market policies that support the attachment, reintegration and progress of unpaid carers into the labour force • Enact and implement family-friendly working arrangements for all workers • Promote information and education for more gender-equal households, workplaces and societies • Guarantee the right to universal access to quality care services • Ensure care-friendly and gender-responsive social protection systems, including floors • Implement gender-responsive and publicly funded leave policies for all women and men
	Reward: More and decent work for care workers	• Regulate and implement decent terms and conditions of employment and achieve equal pay for work of equal value for all care workers • Ensure a safe, attractive and stimulating work environment for both women and men care workers • Enact laws and implement measures to protect migrant care workers
	Representation, social dialogue and collective bargaining for care workers	• Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life • Promote freedom of association for care workers and employers • Promote social dialogue and strengthen the right to collective bargaining in care sectors • Promote the building of alliances between trade unions representing care workers and civil society organizations representing care recipients and unpaid carers

Source: ILO, 2018a.

In recent years, many countries have enacted legislation to improve working conditions for care workers. For example, in Jordan, legislation enacted in 2018 obliged private schools to transfer salaries electronically; this protects both the employer and the employee against salary fraud and ensures that women are not paid less than the minimum wage. The Gambia introduced a special "hardship allowance" in 2006 to attract and retain teachers in remote schools. This allowance is reported to be encouraging teachers to take up such posts.[159] In Argentina, a sectoral collective agreement in 2016 granted home-based paid carers annual leave, and vocational training and education financed by their employers.[160] In Pakistan, campaigns led by the All Pakistan Lady Health Workers' Association have led to a gradual increase in the remuneration of community health workers (who are mainly women), the granting of employment benefits and, eventually, the Supreme Court ordered setting the remuneration of "lady health workers" at no lower than the minimum wage.[161]

Furthermore, tripartite and bipartite social dialogue and collective agreements are also emerging as a way to ensure decent work for care workers employed through digital platforms (see box 2.7). For instance, in Denmark a trade union signed a collective bargaining agreement in 2018 establishing a digital platform that features job opportunities, such as cleaning homes. The collective agreement guarantees a set of rights[162] in accordance with national legislation.[163] Technological change and automation of production processes can also contribute to safer care jobs. In Japan, robots help to mitigate the physical workload of care workers in lifting older persons, potentially reducing related occupational injuries.[164]

Universal social protection for women's future at work

The future of women at work will also depend on the degree to which women and men have effective access to adequate social protection throughout the course of their lives. Gender-responsive social protection systems, including floors, are key to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in the future. New forms of work and employment have emerged, some of which exist alongside the more traditional categories of work offering a low level of protection, often in non-standard forms of employment or the informal economy.[167] Such forms of employment are often not associated with adequate social protection, especially for women. At the same time, many countries have started to adapt their social protection systems to the changing circumstances, in order to better respond to the needs of this growing category of workers, close coverage gaps and improve their social protection systems, including floors.[168]

In this context, a discussion has emerged regarding the potential decoupling of employment and social protection, which has important implications for women. While the strengthening of tax-financed social protection can provide an important mechanism for closing coverage gaps for women, the weakening of contributory forms of social protection, particularly social insurance, may be detrimental to women's economic security. Weakening public provision may lead to a stronger role for private arrangements, with their limited potential for risk pooling and redistribution – thus potentially exacerbating inequality, including gender gaps.[169] Every contributory form of social protection (including private arrangements) requires a regular and adequate income stream, which implies that women with interrupted employment careers and low earnings would be negatively affected by a shift from a defined benefit to a defined contribution model.[170]

Gender-responsive social protection systems, including floors, need to be fair, inclusive and sustainable, provide adequate protection to the entire population and allow for a sufficiently large degree of redistribution. These systems should also be financed in a sustainable and equitable way, usually by a combination of taxes and contributions.[171] Some recent policy innovations, in both developing and developed countries, demonstrate the capacity of social protection systems to adapt to changing circumstances. For example, a number of countries have started to introduce adapted mechanisms to ensure social protection for self-employed workers. These include: i) simplified tax and contribution collection mechanisms; ii) measures to prevent misclassification and curb disguised employment (designed to avoid social insurance contributions), with a view to ensuring the protection of all workers and fair competition for enterprises; iii) the adaptation of registration, contribution collection and benefit payment mechanisms to the circumstances and needs of specific categories of workers; iv) tailored solutions for workers with multiple employers; and v) measures to take into account the specific situation of workers on digital platforms, many of whom combine that work with a regular job in which they may enjoy some social protection coverage.[172] Ensuring social protection coverage for workers in all forms of employment is essential for curbing the growing trend in inequality and for promoting gender equality and a better future of work for all.

Box 2.7. Care and support through a digital platform in New Zealand[165]

In New Zealand, the Public Service Association – Te Pūkenga Here Tikanga Mahi (PSA) is involved in tri- and bipartite discussions to ensure security and protection for support workers and to support flexibility, choice and control for those receiving support. With the advent of platforms in the care sector, PSA's work covers workers as employees or contractors. The PSA is the largest union in New Zealand, with 70,000 members, 74 per cent of whom are women, working in the public and community services. Over 25,000 PSA members are employed in the health and disability sector, including the provision of community-based services.

The PSA has played a vital role in starting to build a new care and support services economy that will benefit everyone. A union campaign by the PSA and E tū for "decent pay, decent work, decent lives" for both workers and service users helped to achieve minimum wage payments for sleepover shifts and reimbursement for travel time and costs between client visits as well as pay equity for aged care, disability, home support, vocational disability, mental health and addiction support workers. Both agreements were enshrined in relevant legislation.[166]

To ensure a fair and sustainable health and disability sector, the relevant parties also discuss how to attract and train workers, keep them safe from violence and harassment and enable them to have a collective voice. These issues are particularly pertinent when engaging with platforms. For platform users, flexibility, choice and control over when, where and by whom a support service is provided are the key attractions of the business model. However, support workers' job security, protection of terms and conditions, continuous training, safety and a collective voice must also become an integral part of this service model – and unions are well positioned to achieve this.

A sound macroeconomic framework to finance infrastructure, social protection and public care services

Public investment in infrastructure, social protection and care services to address care deficits are some of the key investments required to close gender gaps in the labour market. Achieving this closure is imperative not only from a rights-based perspective but also from an economic perspective. Investments in inclusive social protection systems, public care services and sustainable infrastructure are often under-funded. They are also the first to be cut when austerity measures are implemented during recessions and economic crises. Paradoxically, reducing investments in education, health, childcare and older person care renders economies less resilient in the long term, and exposes more people to poverty that cycles across generations.[173] Instead, these periods should be viewed as crucial moments for investments aimed at empowering and building on human capabilities in order to ensure that gender inequalities are not further exacerbated and positive trends are not reversed.[174]

Current levels of public and private investment (proportionate to GDP) in the care sectors need to be doubled in order to ensure that these goals are achieved, along with decent work for paid care workers. This requires fiscal space to be expanded in order to invest in care provision, services and infrastructure. Creating fiscal space is feasible, even in low-income countries. It is estimated that Bangladesh, Cambodia, Ghana, the United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda could generate an additional 4 per cent of GDP in tax revenue within a decade. Fiscal space can also be achieved, for instance, by improving the efficiency of tax collection and by addressing institutional and capacity constraints. Many countries in sub-Saharan Africa have generated public revenues in this way.[175] Public borrowing and debt restructuring are two further ways in which care-related policies can be financed.

Fiscal policies, as well as trade, monetary and exchange rate policies, determine both the levels of GDP growth and the patterns of growth, including which sectors are more dynamic and which shed jobs. They are therefore a key determinant of decent employment for women.[176] However, such policies are often assumed to be "neutral" in the way that they impact women and men, when in reality they are not.

For instance, trade liberalization is often linked to the feminization of global labour and higher gender wage gaps.[177] While, in sub-Saharan Africa, trade openness has benefitted men working in agriculture more than women, as a result of underlying agricultural land and assets ownership,[178] in Asia and the Pacific, employment opportunities for women in the manufacturing sector have increased more than for men. In the region, there has been a feminization of employment in export-led manufacturing industries, such as garment production, where women are often stuck in low-wage, low-skill occupations with limited opportunities for skills development. Facing intense global competition, firms search for low-cost female labour in areas such as stitching and sewing, adopting flexible and often informal work arrangements, such as temporary contracts and dependent own-account work.[179] These contractual arrangements place the burden of quickly adjusting to changes in global demand for their products on the workers. As a consequence, in Asia and the Pacific gender pay gaps in export-oriented manufacturing remain high also due to the weak collective bargaining position of female workers and the ability of firms to relocate their production to other countries.[180]

As with trade policies, monetary policies have been assumed to have gender-neutral effects on employment. However, it was found that, in developing countries, the ratio of women's to men's employment tends to decline during periods of contractionary inflationary reduction.[181] In the United States there is evidence of a consistent increase in female unemployment following the implementation of contractionary monetary policy.[182] Although monetary and trade policies have the potential to stimulate aggregate demand, which is required to increase employment opportunities for both women and men, these policies should be engineered in conjunction with public care, infrastructure and social protection policies in order to promote fair treatment for women and marginalized groups in the labour market.

Macroeconomic policies have not yet focused sufficiently on employment creation or enhancing existing livelihoods, resulting in limited progress in addressing gender gaps in labour markets. Jobless growth, downsizing of the public sector and privatization of public services have had negative impacts on women's employment outcomes. Economic growth needs to be engineered to overcome inequalities, break down occupational segregation, decrease gender pay gaps and promote formal working arrangements. Whether or not economic growth benefits women depends on if and how States carry out their redistributive role, and the mechanisms through which women are able to take advantage of growth beyond employment opportunities.[183]

Macroeconomic policies that are effective for a better future of women at work need to ensure that national budgets respond to women's needs and priorities. Women must have a voice in assessing what needs to be done and what could support a better future of work. Providing the space for women, including those in the informal economy, to be involved in designing macro-economic policies that work for them is key to delivering on decent work.[184]

Gender-responsive budgeting is an important tool for more effectively prioritizing gender equality in the overall set of national policies. It uses fiscal policy and administration to promote gender equality, and girls' and women's development without overlooking the needs of boys and men.[185] The effective implementation of gender-responsive budgeting requires resources and infrastructure to collect and analyse the gendered impacts of macro-economic policy. It also requires strong transparency and accountability mechanisms to ensure that institutions tasked with delivering macroeconomic policies do so in the best interests of women. Gender-responsive budgeting has led to higher levels of investment in girls' education, in particular for marginalized groups, children in rural areas and children with a disability. Such interventions in Timor Leste resulted in increasing numbers of scholarships for girls in secondary and tertiary education, a rise in the number of female teachers, expanded training for teachers in inclusive education and a review of the "gender friendliness" of curricula.[186] Similarly, in India, enrolments in primary schools increased in those States where gender-responsive budgeting was introduced.[187]

"Gender-responsive budgeting is an important tool for more effectively prioritizing gender equality in the overall set of national policies."

3. THE PATH OF ENGAGING AND SUPPORTING WOMEN THROUGH WORK TRANSITIONS

Levelling the playing field for women workers through legislation, social protection, infrastructure provision and public care services is not enough unless women are also fully engaged and supported in work transitions. The challenge of these transitions is compounded by global transformations currently under way related to technology, demographic shifts and climate change. Doing so will empower women to shape their working lives and societies to harness the demographic advantages in some regions and create lifelong active societies in others.[188]

Lifelong learning so that no one is left behind

The fast-changing pace at which the world of work is transforming requires an approach that allows workers to keep up with demands for new skills. From shifts in the organization of work to the new technologies entering different workplaces, such as farms, factories, offices and homes, change is an inevitable element of the world of work. Leveraging the ongoing transformations to open doors and create opportunities that also benefit women requires all workers to have an entitlement to lifelong learning.[189]

For these and other reasons, lifelong learning is a smart policy option for enabling people to acquire skills, to reskill and to upskill. In addition to paid work-related skills, lifelong learning encompasses formal and informal learning from early childhood and basic education to adult learning. It also combines foundational skills, such as reading, writing, problem solving, learning how to learn, self-esteem, self-management, social and cognitive skills, and skills needed for specific jobs, occupations or sectors.[190]

Lifelong learning can be instrumental in helping to prevent people, women in particular, from being left behind during social and economic development. However, persistent structural barriers and gender stereotypes need to be addressed to ensure that women and specific groups are able to participate in and benefit equally from such learning. Many might not be able to participate or engage at the expected pace if participation implies a cost – whether financially or in terms of time away from paid work and family.[191] Other disincentives to participation that need to be identified and overcome, include requiring the purchase of digital training devices.[192] In addition, offering learning through the workplace can reinforce patterns of occupational sex-segregation unless the training is specifically designed to challenge these, such as training women specifically for management or supervisory roles during regular working hours.

But even when women and men participate in lifelong learning at similar rates, significant differences exist in the types of learning they pursue and the benefits they gain.[193] Unless policies related to lifelong learning are part of an overall ecosystem that places equality at the heart of development and progress, informed by gender analysis based on sex-disaggregated data, their implementation will not be beneficial and can further marginalize women.[194] This is particularly important in the context of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and digital skills, which are in high demand and an area in which women and girls fall behind.

For instance, proactive measures have been used to reduce gender-based occupational segregation and increase women's access to better-paying jobs through the diversification of skills options for young women through technical and vocational education and training in non-traditional occupations[195] and by encouraging young women to engage in STEM studies and STEM occupational trajectories.[196] Investments in preparing women to meet the challenges associated with the changing world of work can take the form of internships and career advice, competitive grant programmes, awareness raising on STEM careers for women, fairs and financial and in-kind support for STEM programmes or through summer camps to encourage female students to enrol in STEM secondary and tertiary education. Exposure to early STEM learning can begin at very early stages, for children between 3 and 5 years old.[197]

Closing the digital gender divide must also be the focus of gender-responsive lifelong learning initiatives. Despite increased attention in this field, the digital gender divide continues to span across countries, regions, sectors and socio-economic groups.[198] This is especially true for women in low- and middle-income countries.[199] It is therefore crucial to ensure that barriers which contribute to this gap – such as socio-cultural constraints on women's and girls' ICT use, lack of foundational literacy and digital skills, including digital financial literacy – are removed in order to achieve a more equal representation of women in the ICT sector.

A significant and positive trend over the last few decades has been government and policy-makers' recognition that learning takes place across a lifetime, includes formal and informal settings and supports the development of vocational skills and personal capacity. Understanding the employment-life cycle is key to ensuring equal access to lifelong learning skills. This means ensuring that girls attain basic levels of literacy and numeracy,[200] are exposed to or encouraged to consider a wide range of potential occupations, and that expectations for their life and opportunities are not constrained by family, cultural and social expectations.[201] Similarly, when occupations are segregated by sex, and often also by ethnicity and social origin, vocational and post-compulsory education needs to take this into consideration and ensure that the outcome aims at achieving substantive equality rather than further exacerbating discriminatory patterns.[202]

Understanding the employment life cycle also requires that the lifelong implications of gender stereotyping of roles, responsibilities and duties in unpaid household and care work be taken into account. In recent years, a positive trend has emerged to support workers with family responsibilities to engage in lifelong learning. Such initiatives are designed to help women and men who are returning to work either after childbirth, following a period of parental leave or as a result of long-term unemployment due to unpaid family care responsibilities. These initiatives vary from reskilling, including provision of basic digital skills, to promoting lifelong learning and distance programmes, such as those in Argentina, India, Mexico and the United Kingdom.[203] Other examples are vocational training, job counselling and childcare services in France, which are offered to women with children aged up to 3 years old. In Germany, initiatives include those focused on migrant women with children, who face higher barriers in accessing or re-entering the labour market. In Australia, Canada, India and the United States, initiatives focus on women with disabilities, culturally and linguistically diverse and indigenous women, older women, widows and women veterans.[204]

"Lifelong learning can be instrumental in helping to prevent people, women in particular, from being left behind during social and economic development."

An enabling environment for women entrepreneurs

Numerous national plans include provisions and budgets for entrepreneurship development for women. This is due to a growing consensus on its relevance in promoting sustainable development,

reducing poverty, enhancing gender equality and transitioning to formal work.

Around the world, women own and operate approximately one-quarter to one-third of formal sector enterprises. In addition to generating incomes for their families, women entrepreneurs contribute substantially to national economies, since they create jobs and provide valuable products and services. Although women are operating businesses across multiple sectors and in international markets, the majority of these entrepreneurs in emerging and developing economies are concentrated in local markets and in low-growth activities. They are often restricted to the informal economy due to constraints such as gender stereotyping, legal and regulatory restrictions, including barriers to access to and control over productive resources and assets, such as land, capital and credit. Additionally, this can restrict their access to education and training opportunities.[205]

To mitigate the barriers to women's entrepreneurship, many countries are endeavouring to create a more favourable environment. These efforts reflect the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurship policies and their linkages with other aims, such as education and skills development, technology and innovation, finance, public procurement, capacity-building and equality legislation. Trends also indicate more integrated approaches to entrepreneurship policies and their implementation, as well as their financing and training opportunities. For example, women's entrepreneurship training is being combined with lifelong learning programmes, while also increasing women's access to markets and their control over productive resources, especially credit, land and ICT.[206] Another positive development relates to the increased financing for women's entrepreneurship advancement; for example, Mexico has doubled the number of loans available to women, from 7,000 in 2016–2017 to 14,000 in 2018.[207] Preferential public procurement policies specifically aimed at enterprises owned by women are also becoming more common, including in developing countries.[208]

Overall, national programmes and schemes that offer support to individuals and small businesses through entrepreneurship have increased. Services include training, business plan development, business mentoring and allowances, dedicated agencies offering advice and counselling, and networking and professional development for women's start-ups and women entrepreneurs.[209] Positive outcomes are evident when such programmes are combined with initiatives that raise public awareness and increase cultural acceptance by, among other things, promoting female entrepreneurs as role models.[210]

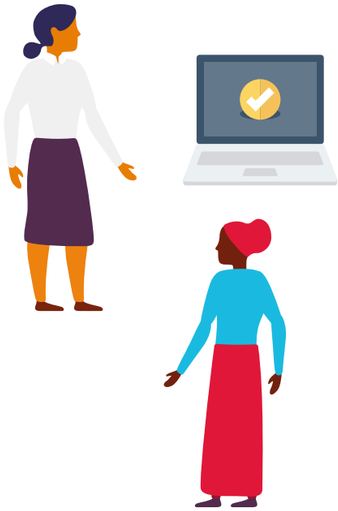
However, entrepreneurship should be a choice, not a necessity. The lack of access to safe and decent formal employment opportunities and discrimination in employment are two of the drivers behind women taking the entrepreneurship path. As a result, proportionally more women than men entrepreneurs are found in businesses in the informal economy and in sectors with low growth potential. It is therefore essential to tackle the issue of informality by implementing provisions that go beyond financing and training and include social protection to facilitate the transition of informal workers into decent work, as advocated by ILO Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204) concerning the transition from the informal to the formal economy.[211] Transition to formality requires policies aimed at decreasing obstacles to formalization, including investment in infrastructure, such as electricity and piped water, and relaxing of stringent regulations for businesses. This would ease the availability of credit and, in turn, increase productivity and wages for women. A larger tax base would become available, stimulating the expansion of the formal economy.[212] In turn, social protection benefits, such as childcare allowances, old-age pensions and disability benefits, as well as maternity, paternity and parental leave, will promote an equal sharing of decent work opportunities for both women and men.

In the future, greater attention should be paid to providing incentives to support women in transitioning to formalized enterprises, including to cooperatives and other social and solidarity economy enterprises and organizations. Cooperatives are a democratic membership-based business model that allow for pooling of resources and know-how, help mitigate risks and provide a range of services, including finance, and facilitate integration into formal social protection systems. Cooperatives also provide improved livelihoods, creating economies of scale and negotiating power for their members, especially in rural, informal and crisis economies. Women-only cooperatives and cooperatives for women have the advantage of promoting women's economic empowerment and gender equality (box 2.8). Women are able to take control of their own economic activities, and this is particularly important in situations where their ability to participate in the world of work is reduced by social and cultural constraints.[213] As a result of the increasing demand for care services and the deficiency in such services, care cooperatives and other social and solidarity economy enterprises and organizations are growing in this sector where more jobs will be created for both women and men. The emergence of platform cooperatives as successful alternatives to the standard Internet business model in the platform economy is another development. These cooperatives, jointly owned and managed by members using a protocol, website or mobile application to facilitate the sale of goods and services, can help in the promotion of decent work practices devised by and for workers in the platform economy. Such cooperatives have formed alliances with trade unions, cooperative development experts, local governments, funders, legal practitioners, software developers and other businesses that share similar ethical standards and vision to create an ecosystem which has grown and spread around the world.[214] For example, the cooperative "We Can Do It!" brings together 83 members, almost all of whom are migrant women, to create a women-run, women-owned, eco-friendly housecleaning business. The cooperative is designed to create living wage jobs as well as to provide social support and educational opportunities for its members.[215]

Box 2.8. Solidarity and technology for women tanners in Senegal

The women leather tanners' cooperative, COPTAC, was registered in 2017 in line with the Emergent Senegal Plan, which aims to formalize workers in the informal economy.[216] COPTAC is a women-only cooperative with 80 members of all ages situated in Guédiawaye, outside Dakar. Through its work, COPTAC has significantly contributed to empowering women tanners through the promotion of literacy, skills development and voice. It has provided an opportunity to its members, including younger tanners, to participate in decision-making forums and social dialogue and provided access to better economies of scale through collective purchases of materials. This spirit of solidarity has also helped to improve their working conditions: safety and health training programmes have inspired the women to modify their worksite, which is now cleaner and offers more protection from the weather. They also use protective equipment, including gloves, have enlarged the transport routes and implemented better security to control entry to the worksite.

Most recently, technology has helped COPTAC to further improve productivity and, hence, their livelihoods. In 2018, COPTAC partnered with Weebi, an information and technology start-up company that supported COPTAC's streamlining of management and administration tasks. New tools include a flexible and fast application that allows for better management of stock, more control over margins and augmented client retention.



Overall, the future of women's entrepreneurship will require increased attention to women's business incubators and innovation in the digital economy, as well as better access to finance and credit, such as through mobile banking and blockchain technology.[217] Such technology allows digital information to be distributed but not copied, which can translate into benefits for women's autonomy. For example, in Viet Nam, women entrepreneurs are using blockchain technology to prove their ownership of business assets, verify production values and establish a digital identity. Blockchain has the potential to benefit women in rural areas, where their chances of having an individual financial account are limited in comparison to men, as well as during humanitarian crises.[218]

Furthermore, the future of entrepreneurship for women should embrace all women, including older women who have life experience, self-confidence and are willing to try new things. Recognizing these abilities would help to boost economies, including in rural areas. In fact, women entrepreneurs aged 55 to 64, who in most countries outnumber men entrepreneurs of the same age, are more likely to succeed, with 70 per cent of women-owned businesses lasting more than five years compared to 28 per cent of those owned by young entrepreneurs.[219]

4. THE PATH OF WOMEN'S VOICE AND REPRESENTATION

Finally, the different paths discussed so far – rights, infrastructure, social protection and public care services, and engagement and support through work transitions – need to function in tandem with the path of women's voice and representation. Collective representation of workers and employers through social dialogue is a public good that lies at the heart of democracy and that should be encouraged and pursued through public policies.[220] Societies cannot afford to leave women out of these processes. Addressing issues of women's representation and participation in tripartite bodies, as well as in trade unions and employers' organizations, is key to promoting collective voice and representation.[221]

However, women continue to be under-represented in national social dialogue institutions[222] despite the fact that workers' and employers' organizations that improve gender diversity internally are better positioned to serve the needs of their members.[223] Having more women in decision-making structures also has a positive impact on an organization's governance, identity and public image. It can influence women's perceptions about the values of these organizations and incentivize them to join. Importantly, it can advance gender equality by prioritizing women's needs and aspirations in social dialogue and collective bargaining.[224]

First and foremost, it is important to ensure that women have the space to collectively come together. In developing countries, awareness raising has played a key role in helping women understand the benefits of unionizing. Efforts have been made to demonstrate the credibility of unions in the area of equality, to profile women members with a view to promoting solidarity among women workers, and to present unions as organizations devoted to providing services to their members. For instance, in Benin, unions have provided laundry services for working women in their neighbourhood to alleviate their heavy workload at work and in the home and, concurrently, to create employment for other women in the neighbourhood. They have also provided childcare facilities near the main market for children of women vendors to facilitate breastfeeding, allowing women to continue working, and also to free up their time to participate in collective activities.[225]

Innovative organizing techniques – including the use of digital technology – can offer a new approach to organizing labour and attracting more women. Workers across diverse workplaces and countries can be organized through digital means and engage in new forms of collective action.[226] Organizing migrant workers, including through bilateral agreements, has been a means of giving migrant care workers a voice.[227] Efforts have also been made to organize informal workers, particularly women, in unions, cooperatives or associations, in order to increase their collective and representative voice. Making work decent and more remunerative, overcoming discrimination and redefining social norms are among the common goals that organizations of informal workers seek to achieve (box 2.9).

Box 2.9. Women leaf pickers unionize: A stronger voice for decent work

In the Indian State of Odisha, approximately 1.5 million tribal women and their families make a living by plucking, collecting, collating, grading and supplying kendu leaves in the forest. For many years, the workers endured miserable conditions and were exploited by the leaf buyers. After organizing rallies and demonstrations for over seven years, the Odisha Kendu Pata Workers Union empowered the informal tribal forest workers to raise their voices and demand their rightful share of the industry. The initial victory occurred in 1973 when the Government brought the trade under the joint management of the Forest Department and the Forest Corporation. Unfortunately, the workers' wages and working conditions remained unchanged. This resulted in the union filing an industrial dispute. Negotiation continued until 2004 when the union made a call for a rasta roko (road block), in which 500,000–600,000 women workers participated. The Government finally agreed to set up a wage commission as well as an Independent Welfare Trust Board for the kendu leaf pickers, with union representation on the board, and the union's General Secretary in the position of a founder trustee. Today, around 95 per cent of the pickers and seasonal workers are unionized. The workers are better off and have achieved decent work through improvements in their wages and working conditions.[228]

However, simply having more women as members in organizations is not enough. It is of paramount importance to ensure that these women have equal access and opportunities to reach leadership positions. As the world of work has historically embedded traditional gender roles, so too have these organizations long reflected the traditional social construct of societies, including in their governance systems. Constraints on women's time due to their assigned care responsibilities make it difficult for them to devote time to the networking activities needed to build support for their leadership. In addition, a strong male-dominated culture has often discouraged women from participating more actively and taking up leading roles. Women are often expected to fulfil administrative roles and are less likely to be identified as leaders or given the training and opportunities necessary to develop these skills. As the world of work has changed and more women have entered the labour market, proactive measures and intensive campaigns have helped to change perceptions of the added value of women in these organizations.[229]

Increasingly, measures have been put in place to escalate women's participation in leadership positions. For instance, as a result of the Count Us In! campaign run by the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC), the average representation rate of women in the highest union decision-making bodies is now 28 per cent, with 7 per cent of top leadership posts held by women. Five years ago,

women occupied less than 15 per cent of the top two positions in their organizations. The campaign also considerably increased women's membership in trade unions, with a number of unions reporting increases ranging from 2.5 per cent to 23 per cent. Women's membership rates average 42 per cent in ITUC affiliates and women occupy 40 per cent of the top leadership positions of Global Unions.[230]

At the national level, proactive measures have helped to increase women's participation and representation in the internal governance structure of trade unions. For instance, the implementation of quotas has increased women's representation in union decision-making processes, effecting a more gender-responsive organizing strategy, specifically for women.[231] Quota systems have also been adopted to achieve a more equal representation of women and men among negotiators during collective bargaining. The adoption of quotas in collective negotiations has positively influenced women's representation and organizational outcomes, which has contributed to union revitalization.[232]

For instance, in Latin America, the Trade Union Confederation of the Americas has a gender quota of 40 per cent women on the Executive Council and the Secretariat and 50 per cent for the delegations to congresses.[233] Furthermore, in Argentina, many unions have adopted quotas of 30 per cent women in union elected positions, including the negotiation team for collective bargaining if women's membership was below 30 per cent.[234] In Brazil, Central Única de Trabajadores sets a lower limit of 30 per cent and an upper limit of 70 per cent of either sex in leadership positions.[235] In Spain, the General Workers Confederation adopted a quota system to establish a lower limit of 40 per cent for each sex in decision-making bodies.[236]

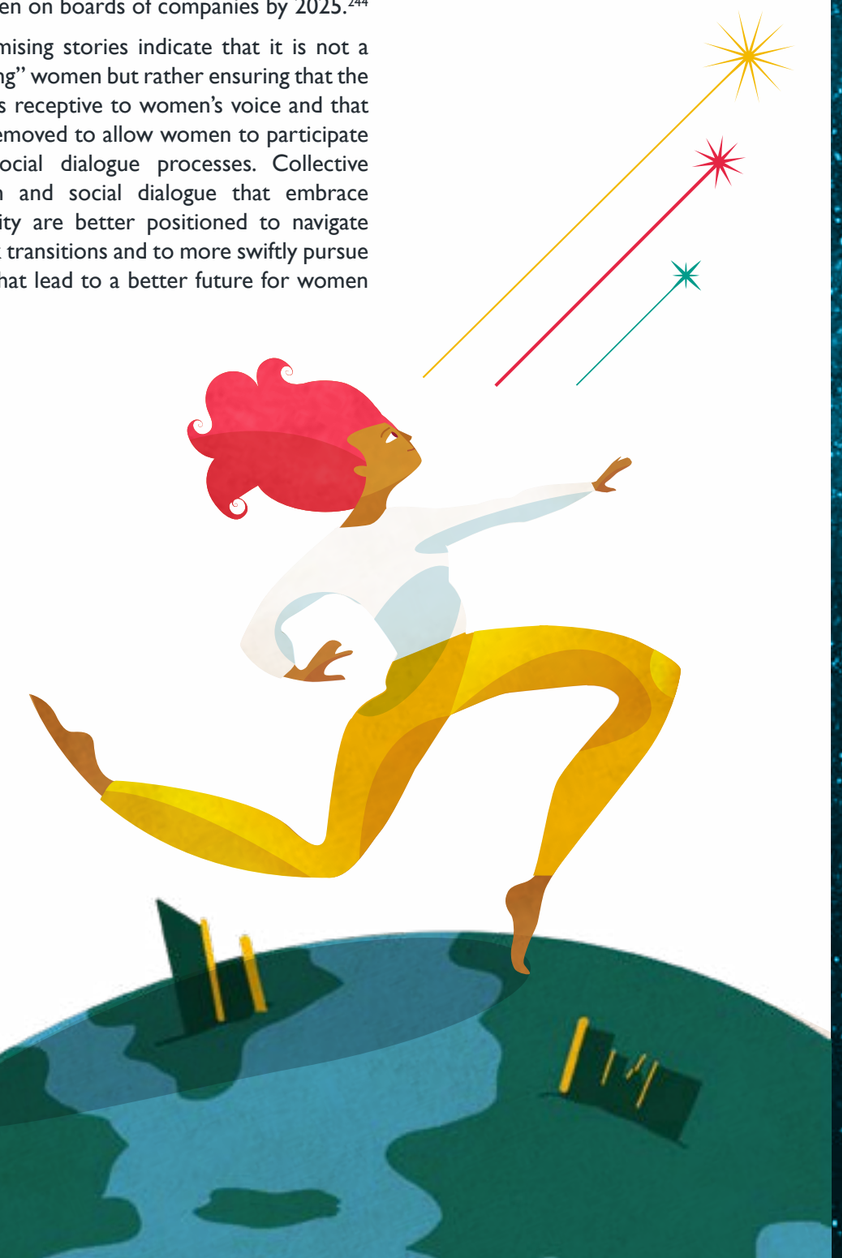
Quota policies have also been extended to ensure gender diversity. For example, the Kenya National Alliance of Street Vendors and Informal Traders (KENASVIT) invested on institutionalization of gender mainstreaming, youth participation and the participation of persons with disabilities. KENASVIT requires that its leadership structures and appointed positions should be represented by no more than two-thirds of the same gender. Additionally, KENASVIT promotes the active participation of persons with disabilities in its decision-making processes as well as in entrepreneurial activities.[237] In Brazil, the Unified Workers' Central invests in empowering black and rural women and also promotes greater diversity, integrating women from poorer neighbourhoods, urban and rural workers, academics, young women and LGBTI workers with the help of the women trade members' capacity to build bridges with academia and to work in partnership with social organizations.[238]

Beyond quotas, women's committees have also offered significant opportunities to advance the agenda of women at work by voicing improvements in working conditions and building a working environment free from gender discrimination and unfair treatment. For example, in the Dominican Republic, the trade union BANELINO (Asociación Bananos Ecológicos de la Línea Noroeste), formed by Caribbean banana producers, established its Pro-Women Committee in 2014. For the first time, women actively participated in the union's hierarchical structure, contributing to their empowerment.[239]

Employers' organizations in various countries have also taken important steps to improve gender diversity internally. First, they have increasingly supported work–life balance as a way to achieve greater equality in leadership and management. Measures implemented include flexible working arrangements, child-friendly policies and mentoring and training for staff on gender diversity.[240] For instance, the national employers' organization in South Africa (Business Unity South Africa) conducts training for women at board level, while the Honduran Private Business Council offers mentoring for women professionals through its Vital Voices programme under Junior Achievement as well as through the Micro, Small and Medium Development Centres. The Montenegrin Employers' Federation founded the Business Women Association of Montenegro to support the development of women in entrepreneurship and management.[241]

To address male-dominated cultures and to promote democratic processes and expand the pool of candidates, a common mechanism is that all members of the employers' organizations can put forward nominations for board membership, creating opportunities for diverse nominations.[242] In addition, other mechanisms, such as proactive measures, including voluntary targets and timelines, have also been introduced. For instance, in France, the Mouvement des Entreprises de France, has introduced a quota for women in management positions,[243] while the Lebanese League for Women in Business launched its "Women on Boards 2025" initiative in 2016, and has since then been working on multiple fronts to achieve the objective of having 30 per cent women on boards of companies by 2025.[244]

All these promising stories indicate that it is not a matter of "fixing" women but rather ensuring that the environment is receptive to women's voice and that barriers are removed to allow women to participate in national social dialogue processes. Collective representation and social dialogue that embrace gender diversity are better positioned to navigate future of work transitions and to more swiftly pursue all the paths that lead to a better future for women at work.



END NOTES

1 ILO, 2019b
2 ILO, 1944.
3 Campbell et al., 2018.
4 ILO, 2012a.
5 Campbell et al., 2018; Fredman, 2016; UN Women, 2015."
6 Other ILO standards, such as the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122), the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204), the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202) and the Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142) address the principle of non-discrimination through specific provisions. A further group of instruments focus on distinct categories of workers, such as the Rural Workers' Organisations Convention, 1975 (No. 141), the Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 (No. 175), the Promotion of Cooperatives Recommendation, 2002 (No. 193), the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169), the Vocational and Rehabilitation Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159) and the Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177).
7 ILO, 2012a.
8 Bates, 2019; ILO, 2012a.
9 In the European Union, up to 70 per cent of workers in the platform economy reported that they could not access basic schemes, such as pregnancy, childcare and housing benefits (European Parliament, 2017).
10 ILO, 2012a.
11 Campbell et al., 2018.
12 Uccellari, 2008.
13 So far, only a few countries, such as Poland, Bulgaria, Canada and South Africa, have attempted to address the concept of multiple or intersectional discrimination in legislation. Other countries, such as Austria, Italy and Romania, have provided for multiple discrimination to be taken into account when calculating compensation (Howard, 2011).
14 ILO, 2012a.
15 According to the latest available data from the Demographic and Health Surveys, child marriage has dropped by one-third in the last decade, the word's sharpest decline (UNICEF, 2018).
16 Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo, 2013.
17 Gonzales et al., 2015.
18 USAID, 2018.
19 ILO, 2018f.
20 Ibid.
21 Boris, Hoehtker and Zimmermann, 2018.
22 Some 94 countries out of a total of 171 (World Bank, 2018).
23 ILO, 2016d; Napier-Moore, 2017.
24 ILO, 2012a; ILO, 2018f.
25 ILO, 2012a.
26 Governments have started to redefine procurement policies to include greater use of female suppliers as a way of increasing women's workforce participation through public bids and ensuring equal pay for work of equal value. Successful procurement reforms have been enacted in several jurisdictions. Some countries, such as Chile, Botswana, India, Israel, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, the United States and Zambia, have introduced preferential public procurement policies specifically aimed at enterprises owned by women (Harris Rimmer, 2017; Combaz, 2018).
27 Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, Public Procurement (Amendment) Act, 2016.
28 See also ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Recommendation, 1958 (No. 111).
29 World Bank, 2018.
30 ILO–Gallup, 2017.
31 Ibid.
32 According to data from 2015, only 15 countries in sub-Saharan Africa have legislation that prohibits sex discrimination in recruitment (African Development Bank, 2015).
33 Harkins and Åhlberg, 2017.
34 ILO, 2017d; ILO, 2017e; ILO, 2017f.
35 ILO, 2018c.
36 ILO, 2018d.
37 Borino, 2018.
38 Interesting examples are found in Argentina, Australia (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2018), Italy and Spain. In Italy, women victims of violence are entitled to a three-month period of leave on full pay. In order to be eligible, they have to be enrolled in a safety and rehabilitation programme run by dedicated public services, see Art. 24, Legislative Decree No. 80 of 2015, INPS Circular No. 65 of 2016.
39 Oxfam, 2018.
40 As reported by the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), in 2017 more than 160 collective agreements were in place in ten European countries, addressing the multiple forms of violence and harassment prevalent in the world of work (ETUC, 2017). In the Philippines, the Associated Labour Unions, with the support of the IndustriALL Global Union, negotiated eight collective bargaining agreements with anti-sexual harassment provisions in the mining, energy and manufacturing sectors. In Argentina, more than 70 unions and the Ministry of Labour signed a groundbreaking collective agreement to prevent and deal with violence and harassment in the world of work in 2012. This agreement condemns all forms of violence and harassment in the world of work and promotes collective bargaining as a means of establishing policies and measures to end such mistreatment at work. With this in mind, many unions are currently establishing offices to deal with violence in the workplace (Pillinger, 2017).
41 Stonewall, 2018.
42 Paul, 2018.
43 Lippel, 2018.
44 Oelz, Olney and Tomei, 2013.
45 ILO, 2018g.
46 Greenfield and Levine, 2015; Government of South Africa, 2014.
47 Addati and Behrendt, 2018.
48 ILO, 2017j.
49 Samek Lodovici et al., 2016; Tinios, Bettio and Betti, 2015.
50 Fultz, 2009; ILO, 2016a.
51 ILO, 2017j.
52 Behrendt and Woodall, 2015.
53 Over 85 per cent of the countries in which there is no gender gap in effective pension coverage have non-contributory pensions; either universal or pension tested (ILO, 2017j; ITUC, 2018).
54 ILO, 2017b.
55 Government of Iceland, 2018.
56 Government of Australia, 2016.
57 Government of Switzerland, SECC-S, 2018. At the time of writing this report, in December 2018, the Swiss Parliament voted an amendment to the Gender Equality Act. In the future, companies with at least 100 employees (constituting about 1 per cent of companies and 46 per cent of the Swiss workforce) will have to conduct regular equal pay analyses. The correct conduct of the analysis must be verified by a third party (audit body, gender equality non-governmental organization, social partner), which sends a report within one year to the management of the company concerned.
58 Willis Towers Watson, 2018.
59 DiNardo, Fortin and Lemieux, 1996.
60 Hallward-Driemeier, Rijkers and Waxman, 2015.
61 Petreski and Mojsoska Blazevski, 2015.
62 Rubery and Koukiadaki, 2016.
63 ILO, 2018g.
64 Ibid.
65 Chalaby, 2018.
66 Sissoko, 2011.
67 Chalaby, 2018.
68 Pillinger, 2014.
69 ILO, 2018g.
70 Court of Appeal of New Zealand, 2014. Terranova Homes & Care Ltd v Service and Food Workers Union Nga Ringa Tota Inc, CA63/2013 [2014] NZCA 516.
71 Government of France, 2016.
72 Grimshaw and Rubery, 2015.
73 The list of countries includes Belgium, Belize, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Cuba, El Salvador, India, Japan, Nepal and Pakistan (ILO, 2012a). In Latin America, all countries except for Guatemala and Venezuela apply gender quotas to national legislative elections. On the African continent, Rwanda has long been a champion of gender equality in political representation, with women making up 61 per cent of representatives in its lower house and 38.5 per cent in its Senate. Rwanda, in common with Algeria, Burundi, Djibouti, Eritrea, Eswatini, Kenya, Morocco, the Niger, Somalia, South Sudan, the Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe, has reserved seats for women in its national parliament (IPU, 2018b).
74 See Law No. 120 of 2011 in Italy and Law No. 103 of 2011 in France.
75 IPU, 2018a.
76 ILO, 2017k.
77 Ibid.
78 Bodiraga-Vukobrat and Martinovic, 2017.

79 Ibarra, Carter and Silva, 2010. However, research seems to suggest the presence of under-sponsoring and over-mentoring of women. This means that, even when participating in formalized mentorship programmes, women are not given the same opportunities as their male peers to advance in their careers. Mentoring is still occurring within the context of a system built on assumptions about men and women. Mentorship programmes do not tend to fundamentally change the way in which an organization functions. Such programmes must be designed to overcome barriers that may not be visible and to be more critical of the stereotypes and assumptions about women.
80 Richman and Magrane, 2009.
81 International Center for Research on Women, 2011.
82 Lundgren et al., 2013.
83 Anne Çocuk Egitim Vakfı (AÇEV), 2017.
84 ILO–Gallup, 2017.
85 Family leave is meant as a period of time allowed away from work in order to deal with a family situation and includes maternity, paternity and parental leave.
86 Zbyszewska, 2016.
87 ILO, 2019a.
88 Together with the corresponding Recommendations, No. 95 in 1952 and No. 191 in 2000.
89 Other ILO Conventions have further enriched the scope and level of maternity protection. For instance, ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202) calls for maternity benefits to be granted at least to all resident workers, with the objective of achieving universal protection. The call to progressively extend maternity protection to all workers in the informal economy is further highlighted in the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204).
90 ILO, 2014b.
91 ILO, 2018a.
92 Ibid.
93 ILO, 2014b.
94 Ibid.
95 ILO, 2017j.
96 ILO, 1993.
97 Huerta et al., 2013; Tamm, 2018.
98 Johansson, 2010.
99 International Leave Network, 2018.
100 Brandth and Kvande, 2001; O'Brien, 2009; Rutten, 2012.
101 In Norway, the mandatory father's leave quota was first increased over a period of 20 years and then decreased with the option of taking voluntary paid leave. The decrease in the mandatory quota dramatically reduced the time that men spent on parental leave, leading to the reintroduction of a mandatory quota of 15 weeks reserved for the father/co-parent in 2018 (NAV, 2017).
102 van Belle, 2016.
103 ILO, 2018a.
104 Haas and Rostgaard, 2011.
105 Rudman and Mescher, 2013.
106 For instance, in Austria, there is no statutory paternity leave, but public sector workers are entitled to a month of unpaid leave. Other collective agreements provide a few days of leave on full pay for the birth of a child (ILO, 2018a).
107 ILO, 2014b.
108 Kröger and Yeandle, 2014.
109 ILO, 2018a.
110 ISSA, 2017.
111 "Marginal part-time work" is defined as working for fewer than 15 hours per week (see ILO, 2016a).
112 ILO, 2016a.
113 ILO, 2018p.
114 Starting from November 2018, the option to work just four days a week while still earning their regular five-day pay has become a normal option available to all workers in New Zealand (Foster, 2018).
115 ILO, 2018p.
116 ILO, 2019a.
117 Eurofound and ILO, 2017.
118 These initiatives attempt to limit the negative effects of ICT by protecting employees' non-working-time and have taken place at the workplace level, most prominently in France and Germany. In the majority of cases, different collective agreements have limited the functioning of company email servers after normal working hours, as well as during weekends and holiday periods. In addition, France enacted a specific article on the right to be disconnected in a recent revision of the French labour code, in 2016, which includes an obligation for every company with 50 or more employees to negotiate the use of ICT in order to ensure respect for the rest and holiday periods of workers and their personal and family lives (ILO, 2018p).
119 Pillinger, 2014.
120 ILO, 2018f.
121 Chopra, 2018.
122 ILO, 2018a.
123 Chopra, 2018.
124 Asian Development Bank, 2017.
125 ILO, 2018c.
126 Malik, Irvin-Erickson and Kamiran, 2018.
127 Global Commission on the Future of Work, 2018a.
128 Ibid.
129 ILO, 2018l.
130 ILO, 2018a.
131 These programmes are operational in the areas of road construction and maintenance, irrigation infrastructure, reforestation and soil conservation.
132 ILO, 2018i.
133 ILO, 2013a; UN, 2017.
134 Nussbaum, 2017.
135 Own-use provision of "services" (beyond the 2008 System of National Accounts production boundary but within the general production boundary) covers: (i) household accounting and management, purchasing and/or transporting goods; (ii) preparing and/or serving meals, household waste disposal and recycling; (iii) cleaning, decorating and maintaining one's own dwelling or premises, durables and other goods, and gardening; (iv) childcare and instruction, transporting and caring for older, dependent or other household members and domestic animals or pets, etc. The term "for own-use" means that the intended destination of the output is mainly for final use by the producer in the form of capital formation, or final consumption by household members or family members living in other households (ILO 2018j; ILO, 2019b).
136 ILO. Department of Statistics, 2016.
137 According to ILO estimates based on data from 53 countries representing 63.5 per cent of the global working-age population, the time spent in unpaid care work amounts to 9.0 per cent of global GDP, with women contributing 6.6 per cent of GDP, and is the equivalent of 11 trillion US dollars purchasing power parity (2011 as the reference year for USD) (ILO, 2018a). See also ILO, 2019; Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi, 2009.
138 ILO, 2018a.
139 Ibid. Public investment ranges from over 8 per cent of GDP in Denmark and Sweden to less than 1 per cent in South Africa, Mexico, Turkey, India and Indonesia. Countries tend to invest more to offset the care contingencies of the working-age population in case of maternity, sickness and employment injury as well as disability (in that case spanning all ages) (2 per cent of GDP on average), and less for the care needs of the very young (0.47 per cent of GDP on average on pre-primary education) and older persons (0.98 per cent of GDP on average on long-term care expenditure, which mainly concerns older people).
140 Ibid.
141 Hill, 2018; ILO, 2018a.
142 Institute for the Study of International Development, 2017.
143 Ameratunga, 2017.
144 ILO, 2017j.
145 ILO, 2018a.
146 International Finance Corporation, 2017.
147 Fuller and Raman, 2019.
148 Ibid.
149 ILO, 2018a.
150 ILO, 2017j.
151 Ibid.
152 ILO, 2018a.
153 CEACR, 2017.
154 ILO, 2018a.
155 ILO, 2017h.
156 ILO, 2018a.
157 To achieve the SDGs in the care economy an additional US$12.8 trillion would be needed compared with 2015 levels of investment (Ibid).
158 Ibid.
159 ILO, 2016b.
160 ILO, 2017g.
161 Barria et al., 2018.
162 E.g. hourly minimum wage, payment of unemployment benefits in case of sickness, protection against dismissal and rules on the cancellation of shifts, the right to holidays and working-time protection.
163 De Stefano, 2018.
164 Government of Japan, METI, 2011.

165 The information in this box is taken from correspondence with Andrea Fromm, PSA.
166 Martin, Davies and Ross, 2018.
167 2016a.
168 Behrendt and Nguyen, 2018; Global Commission on the Future of Work, 2018b.
169 Global Commission on the Future of Work, 2018b; ILO, 2016a.
170 ILO, 2017j; Ortiz et al., 2018.
171 ILO, 2017j.
172 Behrendt and Nguyen, 2018; Global Commission on the Future of Work, 2018b.
173 UNHLP, 2017.
174 UN Women, 2017.
175 For instance, Rwanda, where a 60 per cent increase in tax revenue was recorded between 1998 and 2005. New taxes can also be introduced on financial transactions and most of the resulting revenue used to fund social policies and services, such as access to health care and social protection, as was the case in Brazil from 1997 to 2008 (ILO, 2018a).
176 Elson, 1995; Kabeer and Natali, 2013.
177 Elson and Cagatay, 2000; Standing, 1989.
178 Bussolo and De Hoyos, 2009.
179 Sinha and Mehrotra, 2016.
180 Barhan, Bowles, and Wallerstein 2006.
181 Braunstein and Heintz, 2005.
182 Seguino and Heintz, 2012.
183 Esquivel, 2017.
184 UN Women, 2017.
185 Chopra, 2018; Stotsky, 2016.
186 Asian Development Bank and UN Women, 2014.
187 Stotsky, 2016.
188 ILO, 2019a.
189 Ibid.
190 ILO, 2018k.
191 Waller, Pitt and Bovill, 2010.
192 Huber and Huemer, 2015.
193 Boeren, 2011.
194 ILO, 2019a.
195 Countries include India, Japan, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation and the United Kingdom (ILO, 2018o).
196 Countries include Argentina, Australia, Canada, the Netherlands, Russian Federation and the United States (ILO, 2018o).
197 Ibid.
198 Due to the greater restrictions on women's access to ICT and their lack of resources, the proportion of women using the Internet is 12 per cent lower than the proportion of men using the Internet worldwide (ITU, 2017).
199 ITU, 2016.
200 For example, girls in a number of African countries are currently being excluded from school for becoming pregnant (Human Rights Watch, 2018).
201 Boye and Grönlund, 2018.
202 Jackson, Malcolm and Thomas, 2011.
203 ILO, 2018o.
204 Ibid.
205 ILO, 2018e.
206 Ameratunga, 2017.
207 ILO, 2018o.
208 ILO, 2012a.
209 ILO, 2018o.
210 Ibid.
211 ILO, 2018n.
212 Oviedo, 2009.
213 ILO, 2014a.
214 Esim and Katajamäki, 2018.
215 See https://www.wecandoit.coop/about.
216 Seck, N'Diaye and Khai, 2017.
217 Blockchain is a technology based on distributed ledger databases that facilitates peer-to-peer transactions without using a third party which controls the databases. Blockchain is resistant to data tampering as all the transaction-related information is stored in the databases and millions of users agree on the shared ledger in a decentralized way (Hammond and Young, 2018).
218 Ibid.
219 Isele, 2018.
220 ILO, 2019a.
221 Briskin and Muller, 2011.
222 Muller, forthcoming.
223 ILO, 2017a.
224 Ibid.; Ameratunga et al., 2002.; Ameratunga and Kawar, 2009.
225 Ameratunga et al., 2002.
226 King-Dejardin, 2019.
227 In 2015, the National Federation of Worker and Employee Trade Unions in Lebanon assisted migrant domestic workers to found the Domestic Workers Union, which became the first union in Lebanon and the region representing their interests. In Asia, the Federation of Asian Domestic Workers Unions unites six nationality-based unions of domestic workers in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China. In 2014, a bi-national agreement was reached between domestic workers' organizations and trade union confederations in Paraguay and Argentina to promote decent work for Paraguayan migrant domestic workers employed in Argentina. In the same year, representatives of the Congress of South African Trade Unions, the Zimbabwe Domestic and Allied Workers Union, the South African Domestic Service and Allied Workers Union, the Federation of Unions of South Africa, the Lesotho Trade Union Congress and the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions signed a tri-national workers' declaration and joint action plan to promote decent work for migrant domestic workers along the South Africa, Zimbabwe and Lesotho Corridor (King-Dejardin, 2019).
228 Nathan, 2018.
229 Ameratunga et al.,2002; ILO, 2017a.
230 Gausi, 2018.
231 Kirsch and Blaschke, 2014.
232 Eurofound, 2014.
233 Anigstein, 2017.
234 Gobble, 2012.
235 Ibid.
236 Ibid.
237 Dias and Sansom, 2016.
238 Castro, 2018.
239 See: http://www.fao.org/world-banana-forum/projects/good-practices/women-committee/en/
240 ILO, 2017a.
241 IOE-ILO ACT/EMP, 2018.
242 ILO, 2017a.
243 IOE-ILO ACT/EMP 2018.
244 Lebanese League for Women in Business, 2016.

CHAPTER 3
TOWARDS A TRANSFORMATIVE AND MEASURABLE AGENDA FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Barriers to women's participation in the world of work remain firmly intact, as evidenced by the lack of any meaningful progress in closing gender gaps. A quantum leap is needed to prevent the future of work for women simply replicating the past.

Women's labour market aspirations have been ignored for too long, and policies have focused on "fixing" women so they adjust to a world of work designed for and by men.[1]

With a gender gap in employment rates of 26.0 percentage points, a gender pay gap an average of 20 per cent (18.8) and only 27.1 per cent of managerial and leadership positions filled by women, it is obvious that, at the present rate, gender equality in the world of work will not be achieved for many lifetimes. A transformative and measurable agenda for gender equality is urgently needed, as called for by the ILO Global Commission on the Future of Work.[2] Mutually reinforcing paths need to converge to provide the key elements for a gender equality agenda. Such an agenda is crucial to widening people's opportunities and improving their well-being at a time when new forces are transforming the world of work.[3]

The 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda recognizes that gender equality is not only a goal in itself, but a prerequisite for progress across all 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).[4] Together, they set out a comprehensive blueprint for a collective journey towards a more inclusive and sustainable future in which nobody is left behind.[5] Gender equality is the nexus of all the interconnected and interdependent SDGs, as decent work for all women contributes not only to making poverty history but also to achieving education, peace and safety, as well as food security, nutrition and health outcomes for children and all members of the household. It also contributes to preserving natural resources, boosting inclusive economic growth, generating decent jobs and facilitating sustainable means of production and consumption.[6]

Some of the 2030 Agenda SDGs are particularly relevant to achieving a better future for women at work:

> **SDG 5** on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.

> **SDG 8** on promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.

> **SDG 4** on ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all.

> **SDG 10** on reducing inequalities within and among countries.

Table 3.1 highlights the details of the SDGs that relate specifically to gender equality and women's future in the world of work.

Table 3.1. Sustainable Development Goals for a better future of women at work

5 GENDER EQUALITY	8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH	4 QUALITY EDUCATION	10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES
5.1 End all forms of discrimination against women.	8.5 Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men.	4.1 All girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to effective learning outcomes.	10.1 Progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40 per cent of the population at a rate higher than the national average.
5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls in the public and private spheres.	8.5 Achieve equal pay for work of equal value.	4.2 Ensure all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education.	10.2 Empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status.
5.4 Recognize the value of unpaid care and domestic work through public services, infrastructure and social protection policies.	8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.	4.3 Ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education.	10.3 Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcomes, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices, and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.
5.5 Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership.	8.10 Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.	4.4 Increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.	10.4 Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater gender equality.
5.B Enhance the use of enabling technology to promote the empowerment of women.		4.5 Eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations.	
5.C Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality.		4.C Substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers.	

Source: Authors' elaboration based on United Nations General Assembly, 2015.

Eliminating direct discrimination is essential for a better future of women at work, but it is not, on its own, sufficient to ensure substantive equality and to close the persisting gender gaps. Eradicating gender-specific constraints, as well as other forms of discrimination with which they intersect, requires a concerted effort to address indirect forms of discrimination and the structural barriers that have the effect, if not always the intention, of producing unequal outcomes. Achieving substantive equality calls for overcoming longstanding stereotypes and thereby shaping a more egalitarian gender contract.

When structural barriers for women in the world of work are addressed in a systematic and comprehensive way, through a combination of sound policies, legislation and practices, gender gaps can be reduced. Investing in transformative policies is essential to achieving gender equality. Such measures, especially when mandatory, have the potential to challenge persistent gender stereotypes and prejudices about the roles of women and men in society. Redistributing unpaid care work by promoting a more equal division between women and men, and between families and society must be a prime objective. Only when care is put at the centre of social and economic policies will a better future of work for women – and for men – be possible.

A QUANTUM LEAP FOR GENDER EQUALITY

In the current organization of societies, women and girls still perform the greatest share of unpaid care work, even though men and boys of the twenty-first century are increasingly aware of the need to share this burden and eager to shoulder part of the responsibility. A shift in mindsets can be accelerated if economies and societies recognize not only that they depend on care work to survive and thrive, but also that work and care are closely interconnected. This mutual dependence is even more apparent in the context of the current transition towards a digital and green economy. Decreasing fertility rates, increasing migrant movements and ageing populations and a rising number of women in employment are today's reality. Care and work must therefore be integral to the reality of both women and men, who are now called upon to be both worker and caregiver in equal measure. In other words, it is necessary to ensure that caring is recognized as both a social function and a social good, in the same way that "work" is, and it must be clear that everyone could and should be able to contribute to both.[7]

However, as long as the current societal model makes it socially acceptable and economically feasible for men to choose not to care, women have no choice but to take on the burden.[8] For this reason, accelerating a new equilibrium requires bold policies and measures that end discrimination against women, including violence and harassment in the world of work, and actively promote equality that will reconcile the two worlds of "work" and "care".

While all four paths detailed in Chapter 2 are essential for accelerating gender equality in the world of work, the starting point for each country will depend on its particular level of development and the structure of its economy. For instance, basic infrastructure and public services, particularly in rural areas, may be an essential starting point in changing the trajectory of women's time spent in unpaid care work in some developing economies. In more advanced economies, care services as well as family and care leave policies may be the initial entry point in promoting a more equitable sharing of care responsibilities between women and men and between the family and State. Provisions establishing that women and men have equal rights in the world of work and equal access to social protection should, however, represent a basic floor for demanding and achieving equality in practice in all countries.

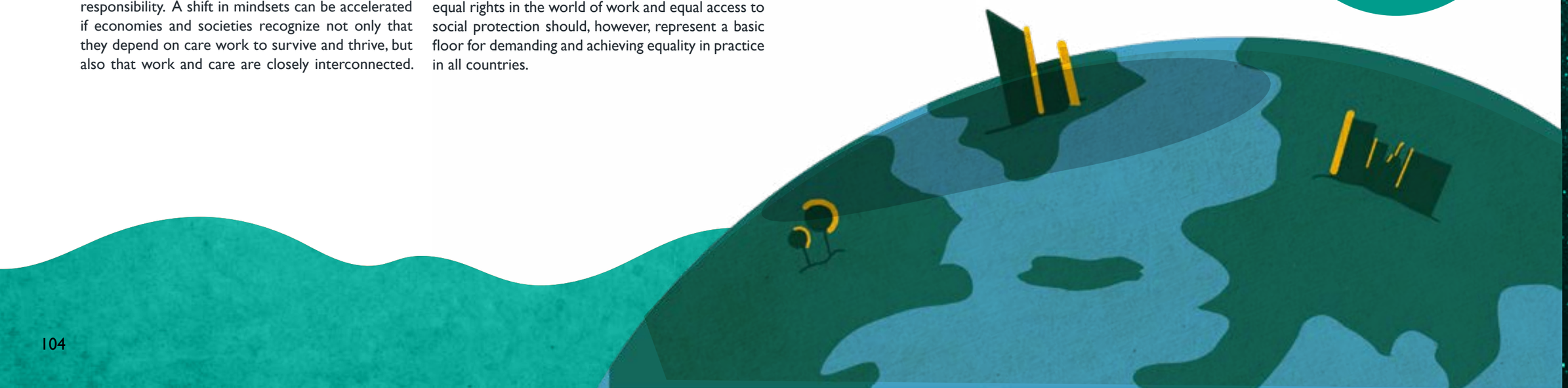
Experience shows that compulsory measures are needed to meaningfully challenge traditional gender roles. Addressing women's time poverty is an essential element to enable a redistribution of responsibilities. Achieving this goal requires a new regulatory approach that embraces and accommodates contemporary workers' needs, aspirations, choices and interests. In addition, increasing investment in the care economy to ensure decent working conditions for care workers, including migrants, is another area where urgent action is needed. More care jobs must be created to address the impending care crisis – and the need for more jobs in general in the future. Decent care jobs have the likelihood to be one of the biggest areas of employment growth. Therefore, the potential dividends for women, men, society and the economy could be significant. This is echoed in the Global Commission on the Future of Work report, which advocates for public investment in the care economy to advance true gender equality and address the needs of a rapidly ageing population.[9]

Despite different economic and social realities, the reconciliation of work and care will necessarily imply a range of interventions that work towards realizing substantive equality. These include providing infrastructure, social protection and public care services, as well as designing and implementing policies that engage and support women through work transitions. None of this progress is feasible without a stronger voice and representation of women at all levels of the decision-making processes. These paths will also need to be conceived as complementary, mutually supportive and reinforcing. Paths that run parallel and never meet will continue to make gender equality an elusive goal.

PATHS THAT RUN PARALLEL AND NEVER MEET WILL CONTINUE TO MAKE GENDER EQUALITY AN ELUSIVE GOAL

WOMEN AND MEN ARE NOW CALLED UPON TO BE BOTH WORKER AND CAREGIVER IN EQUAL MEASURE

NO PROGRESS IS FEASIBLE WITHOUT A STRONGER VOICE AND REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN



Closing the gender data gap

Good gender-disaggregated data are vital to designing policies and monitoring outcomes to establish what works for women. In this respect, a system of frequent data collection and production of statistics in line with the latest labour statistical resolutions is needed. In particular, the implementation of sound and regular time-use surveys, which are key to measuring progress in gender equality in the labour market, is an area where urgent acceleration is needed. In addition, enterprise level surveys, as well as labour force and household surveys, should be updated with the aim of distinguishing between the value of a job and the earnings that the individual employee receives. The inclusion of information on variables, such as marital or parenthood status, number of children, number of older persons, presence of persons with disabilities or persons living with HIV, will provide essential data. Information on these variables is as important as data on education, part- or full-time status and the industrial sectors, to allow for a proper unpacking of both the explained and the unexplained parts of the gender pay gap.

Other areas where more and better gender data are needed are the gross enrolment ratios in early childhood education and development, which are crucial to monitoring the association between the presence of childcare institutions and employment rates for mothers of young children. In addition, more needs to be known about the take-up rates of paternity and parental leave for fathers. National statistical offices should disaggregate data by gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location. [10]

The crucial elements necessary to improve statistical capacity and mainstream gender statistics within statistical systems are: a sustainable funding mechanism at both the national and international level; an innovative skills development programme to exploit emerging data sources and methods; strong political backing and commitment at the national level to support gender statistics; and evidenced-based decision-making on gender equality.[11]

Walking the paths towards a better future for women at work

Substantive equality for women is within reach, given the right mix of economic and social policies working in tandem and in a way that is inclusive of different social groups. A key element for tangible gender equality is embedding the concept of "nothing about us without us" into the workstreams of all policy- and decision-makers so that it becomes a reality for all women. This means promoting and facilitating democratic participation in the making of laws and policies and in their enforcement.[12] It requires placing emphasis not only on individual agency, but also on collective action through solidarity, building strategic alliances, promoting social mobilization and requiring committed participation in decision-making.[13] Such an approach ensures the representation of all relevant and different voices, and specifically pays attention to intersectionality, the provision of proper space to contested positions, and a platform for those whose voices are often not heard. The response to these challenges must come through dialogue and participation, and mechanisms need to be put in place to ensure the accountability of those who represent these interests.[14] Everyone has a role to play in advocating for change and raising awareness to accelerate this momentous achievement.

Accelerating action to develop and implement a transformative and measurable agenda for gender equality at work requires a concerted response that will engage the multiple dimensions of rights, infrastructure, social protection, care services, and policies that can support women through work transitions. Voice and representation play an important role in all of these paths, as does harnessing technology for gender equality to lift women who lag behind, including those in the informal economy. Recognizing, reducing, and redistributing unpaid care work and rewarding and representing paid care workers, as encapsulated in the ILO's 5R Framework, not only cuts across all these areas, it is the very foundation of the road ahead (see illustration 3.1).

"Gender equality is a universal common goal and an aspiration that can only be reached through solidarity between countries, people and institutions, as emphasized in the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda."

EMBRACING COMMITMENTS FOR A BRIGHTER FUTURE OF WOMEN AT WORK

The future of work has the potential to provide immense opportunities to improve the quality of the working lives of women and men, expand their choices and achieve social justice for all. To move from potential to reality, a human-centred agenda offers the best way to achieve the transformative changes needed in this new era.[15]

Women have always made an important contribution to the economy and to societies. Those contributions need to be acknowledged and valued, and solutions that will allow them to fully enjoy equal opportunities and treatment at work need to be consciously accelerated. For this to happen, bold commitments must translate into concrete transformative laws, policies and practices that remove stereotypes, value women's and men's work equally and open the door to women to sit at the table with equal power. Generous and smart investments are needed to support such commitments, as well as rigorous monitoring and accountability.

Gender equality is a universal common goal and an aspiration that can only be reached through solidarity between countries, people and institutions, as emphasized in the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. Tripartism, which is embedded in the structure of the ILO, is a dynamic force to upscale efforts and achieve gender equality in the world of work. The ILO and its constituents have an obligation, and are uniquely placed, to ensure that no one is left behind in the future of work.

Illustration 3.1. A transformative and measurable agenda for gender equality in the world of work

DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS & DISSEMINATION MONITORING & ACCOUNTABILITY

Establish frequent data collection and production of statistics on paid work, unpaid care work, earnings, take-up rates for paternity and paternal leave for fathers, gross enrolment ratios in early childhood education and development, in line with the latest statistical standards.

ADVOCACY & AWARENESS-RAISING CAMPAIGNS

ENHANCING WOMEN'S VOICE & REPRESENTATION

CARE WORK

RECOGNIZE
REDUCE
REDISTRIBUTE
REWARD
REPRESENT

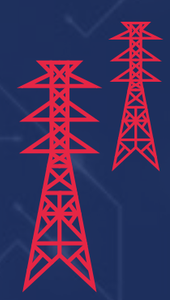
(5R FRAMEWORK)

RESPECT & AFFORD EQUAL RIGHTS

– Ratify and implement the ILO fundamental Conventions and other ILO Conventions on gender equality
– Prevent and protect against violence and harassment in the world of work
– Ensure full application of the principle of equal pay for work of equal value in laws and practices (i.e. wage transparency at company level; low-cost and user-friendly tools to trace and measure unequal pay)
– Remove discriminatory legal provisions restricting women's access to certain sectors and occupations
– Make maternity protection, paternity and parental leave a reality for all
– Facilitate time sovereignty for all
– Promote an enabling environment for women's career progression

INFRASTRUCTURE, SOCIAL PROTECTION & PUBLIC CARE SERVICES

– Provide infrastructure, including ICT
– Implement universal social protection
– Supply quality and affordable childcare and long-term care services and facilities
– Invest in the care economy
– Promote the 5R Framework for decent care work for all, including, domestic workers and home-based workers
– Develop sound, gender-responsive macroeconomic policies



ENGAGE & SUPPORT WOMEN THROUGH WORK TRANSITIONS

– Harness technology for gender equality
– Promote lifelong learning (including STEM and digital skills for women and girls)
– Create an enabling environment for women entrepreneurs
– Help workers to move from the informal to the formal economy

SUBSTANTIVE EQUALITY IN THE WORLD OF WORK

END NOTES

1 ILO, 2018m; ILO, 2019a.
2 Co-chaired by South African President Cyril Ramaphosa and Swedish Prime Minister Stefan Löfven, the independent 27-member Commission on the Future of Work included leading global figures from business, trade unions, think tanks, government and non-governmental organizations. It was established by the International Labour Organization in 2017 as part of the ILO's Future of Work Centenary Initiative.
3 ILO, 2019a.
4 United Nations General Assembly, 2015a.
5 UN Women, 2018.
6 Ibid.
7 Giele, 2006.
8 Fudge, 2012.
9 ILO, 2019a.
10 SDG 17 of the 2030 Agenda (target 17.18) states that national statistical offices should "increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location".
11 Buvinic, Furst-Nichols and Koolwal, 2014.
12 Hepple, 2014.
13 Campbell et al., 2018.
14 Hepple, 2014.
15 ILO, 2019a.

APPENDIX

A.1. Country level data

Table A.1.1. Mean and median age of leaders or managers, by sex, latest year

Country	Women		Men	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
Afghanistan	34.7	30.0	40.0	37.0
Albania	42.4	45.0	41.9	43.0
Argentina	48.5	48.0	50.2	50.0
Australia	42.2	41.0	44.4	44.0
Austria	44.0	46.0	46.3	48.0
Bangladesh	35.8	35.0	40.6	40.0
Belgium	42.6	42.0	46.4	46.0
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	40.0	39.0	44.5	43.0
Botswana	41.0	40.0	44.4	43.0
Brazil	41.2	40.0	43.7	43.0
Brunei Darussalam	41.5	41.0	45.0	44.0
Bulgaria	46.1	46.0	47.0	46.0
Cambodia	41.9	42.0	48.8	50.0
China	39.3	39.0	43.2	44.0
Congo	23.0	18.0	27.2	23.0
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	39.7	39.0	50.0	51.0
Croatia	43.3	43.0	46.0	45.0
Cyprus	48.9	51.0	50.2	52.0
Czech Republic	45.6	46.0	45.7	44.0
Denmark	48.4	48.0	49.1	50.0
Dominican Republic	40.7	40.0	46.0	46.0
Ecuador	42.7	42.0	45.4	44.0
Egypt	47.3	50.0	47.9	49.0
Estonia	45.0	45.0	43.0	42.0
Ethiopia	33.2	30.0	37.0	35.0
Finland	47.9	47.0	48.3	48.0
France	46.4	46.0	46.1	46.0
Germany	44.2	46.0	46.2	47.0
Ghana	42.5	41.0	44.0	43.0
Greece	46.6	45.0	47.8	48.0
Guatemala	37.5	36.0	40.0	40.0
Hungary	49.2	50.0	45.5	44.0
India	38.3	38.0	40.2	40.0
Indonesia	42.3	41.0	43.1	43.0
Iraq	43.1	44.0	40.7	41.0
Ireland	44.8	43.0	46.2	46.0
Italy	47.1	47.0	50.0	50.0
Jordan	44.1	45.0	47.0	47.0
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	38.3	37.0	43.4	43.0
Latvia	48.2	49.0	45.0	44.0
Liberia	42.2	40.0	44.4	46.0
Lithuania	46.5	47.0	45.7	45.0
Luxembourg	44.0	42.0	46.3	46.0
Madagascar	42.3	43.0	45.2	45.0
Malawi	33.3	31.0	39.7	34.0
Mexico	40.4	39.0	42.9	42.0
Mongolia	39.9	39.0	39.5	39.0
Myanmar	37.5	36.0	40.9	39.0
Namibia	39.4	38.0	41.4	41.0
Nepal	36.5	32.0	43.4	42.0
Netherlands	43.9	45.0	46.7	47.0
Nicaragua	41.1	39.0	45.3	43.0
Nigeria	38.5	32.0	46.2	47.0
Norway	46.7	47.0	46.8	47.0
Pakistan	37.6	36.0	40.8	40.0
Peru	49.5	44.0	47.3	44.0
Philippines	45.6	45.0	44.4	44.0
Poland	42.8	42.0	44.5	42.0
Romania	42.1	41.0	43.4	43.0
Russian Federation	43.8	44.0	44.3	42.0
Samoa	43.0	41.0	48.0	48.0
Senegal	39.0	34.0	45.1	46.0
Serbia	45.7	47.0	44.9	45.0
Sierra Leone	37.0	32.0	47.7	46.0
Slovakia	40.9	40.0	43.6	43.0
South Africa	42.0	41.0	44.4	43.0
Spain	46.1	45.0	47.3	46.0
Sri Lanka	43.9	44.0	45.5	44.0
Sweden	46.1	46.0	47.4	48.0
Switzerland	43.3	43.0	45.8	46.0
Tanzania, United Republic of	37.6	35.0	43.2	44.0
The Gambia	36.0	30.0	44.6	44.0
Timor-Leste	32.4	29.0	43.4	43.0
Turkey	38.1	38.0	42.4	41.0
Uganda	32.7	31.0	40.8	35.0
United Kingdom	44.8	45.0	45.7	46.0
United States	45.3	45.0	47.2	48.0

APPENDIX

Country	Women		Men	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
Uruguay	48.1	48.0	48.9	48.0
Viet Nam	43.4	44.0	46.2	47.0
Yemen	40.0	40.0	41.3	40.0
Zambia	38.3	38.0	41.3	43.0
Zimbabwe	41.3	37.0	42.1	40.0

Note: 81 countries.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

Table A.1.2. Share of women and men with advanced university degrees in managerial or leadership positions, latest year

Country	Women	Men
Afghanistan	78.4	50.4
Albania	39.7	36.1
Argentina	50.6	35.8
Australia	12.7	12.8
Austria	57.7	62.0
Belgium	80.2	70.2
Bangladesh	53.4	61.9
Bulgaria	70.4	55.1
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	56.8	60.5
Brazil	58.7	50.0
Brunei Darussalam	39.5	44.1
Botswana	27.0	39.8
Switzerland	54.9	71.1
China	33.4	39.2
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	31.6	44.6
Congo	7.4	14.0
Cyprus	82.9	79.8
Czech Republic	55.2	48.7
Denmark	59.2	54.0
Dominican Republic	73.1	47.8
Ecuador	80.4	67.4
Egypt	33.9	14.7
Spain	61.9	55.6
Estonia	71.2	52.7
Ethiopia	17.8	25.7
Finland	88.2	76.6
France	75.3	73.0
United Kingdom	63.7	56.5
Ghana	24.5	51.9
The Gambia	5.6	47.2
Greece	36.7	47.4
Guatemala	43.3	42.2
Honduras	9.2	17.8
Croatia	67.0	48.9
Hungary	77.8	66.9
Indonesia	12.3	25.5
India	13.1	24.1
Ireland	69.7	68.1
Iraq	41.0	27.6
Italy	28.8	29.7
Jordan	86.7	97.8
Cambodia	7.8	23.2
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	10.7	32.9
Liberia	14.8	24.8
Sri Lanka	12.8	9.4
Lithuania	79.9	68.6
Luxembourg	73.0	47.1
Latvia	75.9	58.8
Madagascar	47.1	43.4
Mexico	67.2	60.6
Myanmar	88.8	66.3
Mongolia	83.0	76.6
Malawi	77.7	57.6
Namibia	32.7	39.7
Nigeria	83.6	69.1
Nicaragua	76.6	40.0
Netherlands	70.8	60.3
Norway	61.4	47.3
Nepal	53.6	53.5
Pakistan	92.2	49.5
Panama	53.6	39.2
Peru	100.0	95.9
Poland	65.7	60.8
Romania	82.9	64.5
Russian Federation	89.3	90.9
Senegal	63.8	54.3
Sierra Leone	72.1	50.9
Serbia	66.6	50.0
Slovakia	73.2	61.5

APPENDIX

Country	Women	Men
Sweden	63.8	43.9
Timor-Leste	38.1	41.1
Tunisia	78.1	30.4
Turkey	71.4	44.7
Tanzania, United Republic of	24.7	19.9
Uganda	84.4	69.8
Uruguay	52.9	34.0
United States	65.9	59.9
Viet Nam	64.6	65.9
Samoa	38.9	44.0
Yemen	60.3	42.3
South Africa	44.1	39.1
Zambia	33.5	36.4
Zimbabwe	78.3	71.8

Note: 83 countries.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

Table A.1.3. Employment-to-population ratios of women and men with and without children under 6 years of age, earliest and latest year

	Earliest year	Children (<6)		No children (<6)		Latest year	Children (<6)		No children (<6)	
		Women	Men	Women	Men		Women	Men	Women	Men
Angola	2004	52.4	72.0	55.6	61.2	2011	74.2	84.0	73.5	71.2
Argentina	2003	53.6	90.8	62.7	83.9	2016	47.9	85.9	59.8	75.0
Austria	2004	52.2	98.0	82.1	95.5	2016	47.0	88.5	80.1	86.2
Bangladesh	2006	28.8	92.8	29.8	84.3	2013	38.0	93.7	34.2	81.5
Belgium	2004	80.3	94.3	77.1	90.3	2016	74.2	91.1	74.1	80.5
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	2005	57.5	92.6	64.0	78.8	2015	52.6	93.1	60.8	80.4
Brazil	2001	48.2	86.8	59.3	80.6	2016	49.7	83.9	60.6	76.5
Bulgaria	2007	72.5	93.1	91.9	91.4	2016	53.6	74.8	68.4	71.4
China	2007	43.7	71.1	42.5	58.8	2013	51.1	85.4	59.4	76.4
Cyprus	2005	74.1	98.1	76.6	96.0	2016	66.7	87.3	72.4	77.2
Czech Republic	2005	46.5	97.8	93.8	96.2	2016	43.2	95.8	85.2	89.0
Denmark	2004	88.2	97.9	90.1	94.2	2016	77.9	93.9	78.5	80.6
Dominican Republic	2001	37.2	88.2	46.1	78.6	2014	46.1	86.9	51.2	79.4
Ecuador	2003	50.0	90.1	55.2	82.0	2016	54.4	92.0	63.3	83.5
Egypt	2008	19.4	92.7	22.2	73.1	2016	18.4	87.4	22.1	65.5
Estonia	2004	57.5	88.3	88.1	83.5	2016	54.3	92.7	85.7	82.3
Ethiopia	2005	78.3	95.6	74.6	85.2	2013	78.4	94.6	75.1	86.7
Finland	2004	61.1	96.8	92.6	92.5	2016	54.8	86.8	79.0	75.7
France	2004	72.5	97.7	84.7	93.7	2016	71.7	90.1	80.7	84.8
Ghana	2006	76.5	82.6	69.9	70.9	2013	80.8	88.9	74.6	77.4
Greece	2008	63.2	98.9	72.7	93.2	2016	54.2	86.3	54.3	70.9
Hungary	2005	94.6	95.5	86.4	88.5	2016	41.5	90.3	83.7	83.3
Iceland	2004	79.1	95.3	89.3	93.7	2015	65.2	88.8	78.7	83.2
India	2005	30.6	94.6	38.4	86.2	2012	25.5	92.6	32.1	82.4
Ireland	2004	58.0	95.2	68.4	91.2	2015	61.4	82.7	66.5	75.0
Italy	2004	58.7	94.7	66.8	90.4	2015	53.3	89.0	59.0	76.9
Latvia	2005	67.2	94.2	88.5	89.7	2016	57.3	89.0	78.5	75.9
Lithuania	2005	71.9	96.5	91.6	90.1	2016	68.3	84.9	80.2	80.9
Luxembourg	2004	61.5	98.8	70.1	96.4	2015	73.9	92.3	78.9	88.2
Malta	2007	37.9	99.2	47.0	94.6	2014	57.2	95.3	59.9	87.9
Mexico	2005	39.0	92.6	51.0	83.5	2016	43.1	91.2	53.6	81.8
Netherlands	2005	57.7	95.7	67.9	92.1	2016	75.5	94.1	75.7	85.4
Norway	2004	81.8	96.7	85.5	92.0	2016	80.4	92.1	79.1	84.4
Pakistan	2007	20.5	92.5	22.4	84.1	2014	24.8	91.7	24.7	81.4
Peru	2001	56.2	84.7	62.2	77.0	2016	60.4	91.4	70.6	80.7
Philippines	2001	44.3	85.4	54.0	75.4	2013	44.6	85.3	58.1	77.2
Poland	2005	66.9	86.8	78.0	80.3	2016	58.3	74.0	70.3	68.7
Portugal	2004	82.1	98.3	80.7	92.4	2016	78.1	89.1	75.8	79.7
Romania	2007	55.5	92.8	75.8	92.2	2016	53.8	83.2	63.9	80.2
Slovakia	2005	82.5	97.2	92.7	94.4	2016	53.2	90.0	85.0	86.4
Slovenia	2005	93.6	98.5	88.5	92.6	2016	76.4	92.4	76.8	82.4
South Africa	2000	27.7	47.9	39.3	54.4	2016	34.6	53.7	51.8	60.4
Spain	2004	59.7	85.6	59.9	73.1	2016	65.7	83.2	65.2	73.9
Sweden	2004	74.3	92.1	92.2	94.5	2016	78.4	91.5	81.3	84.8
Switzerland	2007	41.2	80.5	69.5	81.1	2015	52.3	80.5	72.3	80.5
Tanzania, United Republic of	2006	90.4	95.2	86.6	90.4	2014	82.7	93.4	80.2	87.2
United Kingdom	2005	54.2	78.5	76.8	78.0	2016	65.6	93.5	80.1	85.5
United States	2000	63.0	92.9	78.0	87.8	2016	62.5	89.6	74.1	83.5
Uruguay	2004	59.3	90.7	72.0	87.6	2016	69.2	94.6	77.3	90.5
Venezuela, Bolivarian Rep. of	2005	46.8	84.0	55.5	76.6	2016	50.0	85.9	58.6	78.7
Viet Nam	2007	84.1	95.1	82.4	86.4	2014	85.1	95.8	84.5	88.5

Note: 51 countries.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

APPENDIX

Table A.1.4. Managers with and without children under 6 years of age, by sex

Country	Women		Men	
	Children (<6)	No children (<6)	Children (<6)	No children (<6)
Afghanistan	0.9	22.0	99.1	78.0
Argentina	29.1	37.3	70.9	62.7
Australia	32.7	39.2	67.3	60.8
Austria	20.6	34.5	79.4	65.5
Bangladesh	11.2	12.0	88.8	88.0
Belgium	37.5	39.7	62.5	60.3
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	36.6	43.0	63.4	57.0
Botswana	39.3	44.1	60.7	55.9
Brazil	36.6	43.6	63.4	56.4
Brunei Darussalam	46.1	42.2	53.9	57.8
Bulgaria	39.8	42.0	60.2	58.0
Cambodia	6.4	44.9	93.6	55.1
China	34.0	38.6	66.0	61.4
Congo	86.4	46.9	13.6	53.1
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	20.9	33.5	79.1	66.5
Croatia	38.2	38.4	61.8	61.6
Cyprus	15.7	19.7	84.3	80.3
Czech Republic	11.4	32.7	88.6	67.3
Denmark	12.6	31.9	87.4	68.1
Dominican Republic	37.3	46.1	62.7	53.9
Ecuador	27.2	38.7	72.8	61.3
Egypt	3.8	10.1	96.2	89.9
Estonia	25.7	34.7	74.3	65.3
Ethiopia	26.1	28.1	73.9	71.9
Finland	34.7	35.5	65.3	64.5
France	25.5	30.8	74.5	69.2
Germany	9.8	35.7	90.2	64.3
Ghana	42.2	41.3	57.8	58.7
Greece	24.6	30.1	75.4	69.9
Guatemala	22.2	37.4	77.8	62.6
Hungary	10.1	39.5	89.9	60.5
India	10.2	16.3	89.8	83.7
Iraq	12.0	25.7	88.0	74.3
Ireland	31.1	33.1	68.9	66.9
Italy	25.5	33.7	74.5	66.3
Jordan	38.0	49.0	62.0	51.0
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	58.9	61.9	41.1	38.1
Latvia	40.0	42.4	60.0	57.6
Liberia	9.2	26.7	90.8	73.3
Lithuania	22.1	43.8	77.9	56.2
Luxembourg	35.0	26.8	65.0	73.2
Madagascar	41.7	31.2	58.3	68.8
Mexico	37.4	36.9	62.6	63.1
Namibia	45.4	39.0	54.6	61.0
Netherlands	25.2	34.3	74.8	65.7
Nicaragua	20.2	56.4	79.8	43.6
Nigeria	12.3	45.9	87.7	54.1
Norway	36.6	38.4	63.4	61.6
Pakistan	2.2	7.0	97.8	93.0
Philippines	50.1	52.8	49.9	47.2
Poland	37.0	45.9	63.0	54.1
Romania	20.3	33.8	79.7	66.2
Russian Federation	35.3	45.3	64.7	54.7
Serbia	28.5	32.6	71.5	67.4
Sierra Leone	36.6	56.3	63.4	43.7
Slovakia	45.9	37.7	54.1	62.3
South Africa	29.1	34.5	70.9	65.5
Spain	34.5	31.2	65.5	68.8
Sri Lanka	21.5	34.7	78.5	65.3
Sweden	37.3	54.8	62.7	45.2
Switzerland	21.2	34.1	78.8	65.9
Tanzania, United Republic of	24.4	29.2	75.6	70.8
The Gambia	23.7	32.1	76.3	67.9
Tunisia	4.4	17.9	95.6	82.1
Uganda	42.0	15.5	58.0	84.5
United Kingdom	28.8	38.6	71.2	61.4
United States	35.3	40.7	64.7	59.3
Uruguay	30.4	38.0	69.6	62.0
Viet Nam	21.1	27.5	78.9	72.5
Yemen	1.9	8.2	98.1	91.8
Zambia	19.2	42.0	80.8	58.0
Zimbabwe	18.7	21.0	81.3	79.0

Note: 72 countries.
Source: ILO calculations based on labour force and household surveys.

APPENDIX

A.2. Labour force and household survey

Table A.2.1. List of labour force and household surveys by country and year, microdata

Country	Survey	Earliest year	Latest year
Afghanistan	Living Conditions Survey		2014
Albania	Quarterly Labour Force Survey		2013
Angola	Inquérito de Indicadores Básicos de Bem-Estar (QUIBB)	2004	2011
Argentina	Encuesta Permanente de Hogares (EPH)	2003	2016
Australia	Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA)		2015
Austria	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Bangladesh	Labour Force and Child Labour Survey	2006	2013
Belgium	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	Encuesta de Hogares	2005	2015
Botswana	Botswana Core Welfare Indicators Survey		2009
Brazil*	Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios Contínua (PNAD)	2001	2016
Brunei Darussalam	Labour Force Survey		2014
Bulgaria	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2007	2016
Cambodia	Labour Force Survey		2012
China	Chinese Household Income Project (CHIP)	2007	2013
Congo	Enquête sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel		2009
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	Enquête sur l'Emploi, le Secteur Informel et sur la Consommation des Ménages		2012
Croatia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)		2016
Cyprus	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Czech Republic	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Denmark	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Dominican Republic	Labour Force Survey	2001	2014
Ecuador	Encuesta Nacional de Empleo, Desempleo y Subempleo	2003	2016
Egypt	Labour Force Survey	2008	2016
Estonia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Ethiopia	National Labour Force Survey	2005	2013
Finland	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
France	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Germany	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)		2012
Ghana	Ghana Living Standards Survey Round 6 (with Labour Force Module)	2006	2013
Greece	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2008	2016
Guatemala	Encuesta Nacional de Empleo e Ingresos (ENEI)		2016
Honduras	Encuesta de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples		2014
Hungary	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Iceland	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2015
India	National Sample Survey (NSS)	2005	2012
Indonesia	Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS)		2015

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Country	Survey	Earliest year	Latest year
Iraq	Household Socio Economic Survey (HSES)		2012
Ireland	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2015
Italy	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2015
Jordan	Harmonized Labour Force Survey (HLFS)		2010
Lao People's Democratic Republic	Labour Force and Child Labour Survey		2010
Latvia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Liberia	Labour Force Survey		2010
Lithuania	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Luxembourg	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2015
Madagascar	Enquête Sur L'Emploi 1–2		2012
Malawi	Labour Force Survey		2013
Mali	Enquête Modulaire Permanente auprés des Ménages (EMOP)		2015
Malta	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2007	2014
Mexico	Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE)	2005	2016
Mongolia	Labour Force Survey		2015
Myanmar	Labour Force, Child Labour and School to Work Transition Survey		2015
Namibia	Labour Force Survey		2016
Nepal	Labour Force Survey		2008
Netherlands	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Nicaragua	Encuesta Nacional de Hogares para la Medición del Nivel de Vida (EMNV)		2014
Nigeria	General Household Survey		2013
Norway	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Pakistan	Labour Force Survey	2007	2014

Country	Survey	Earliest year	Latest year
Peru	Encuesta Permanente de Empleo	2001	2016
Philippines	Labour Force Survey	2001	2013
Poland	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Portugal	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Romania	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2007	2016
Russian Federation	Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey		2014
Samoa	Labour Force Survey		2012
Senegal	Enquête Nationale sur l'Emploi		2015
Serbia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)		2016
Sierra Leone	Labour Force Survey		2014
Slovakia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
Slovenia	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
South Africa	Quarterly Labour Force Survey	2000	2016
Spain	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Sri Lanka	Quarterly Labour Force Survey		2013
Sweden	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2004	2016
Switzerland	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2007	2015
Tanzania, United Republic of	Integrated Labour Force Survey	2006	2014
The Gambia	Labour Force Survey		2012
Tunisia	Tunisia Labor Market Panel Survey (TLMPS)		2014
Turkey	Household Labour Force Survey		2016
Uganda	Labour Force and Child Labour Survey		2012

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Country	Survey	Earliest year	Latest year
United Kingdom	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	2005	2016
United States	Current Population Survey (CPS)	2000	2016
Uruguay	Encuesta Continua de Hogares	2004	2016
Venezuela, Bolivarian Rep. of	Encuesta de Hogares por Muestreo (EHM)	2005	2016
Viet Nam	Labour Force Survey	2007	2014
Yemen	Labour Force Survey		2012
Zambia	Labour Force Survey		2014
Zimbabwe	Labour Force and Child Labour Survey		2011

Note:* For figure 1.5 latest year is 2015.

A.3. Regional and income groupings

Table A.3.1. Country, regional, subregional and income groupings

Region	Subregion	Country code	Country
Africa	Northern Africa	DZA	Algeria
		EGY	Egypt
		LBY	Libya
		MAR	Morocco
		SDN	Sudan
		TUN	Tunisia
		ESH	Western Sahara
	Sub-Saharan Africa	AGO	Angola
		BEN	Benin
		BWA	Botswana
		BFA	Burkina Faso
		BDI	Burundi
		CPV	Cabo Verde
		CMR	Cameroon
		CAF	Central African Republic
		TCD	Chad
		COM	Comoros
		COG	Congo
		COD	Congo, Democratic Republic of the
		CIV	Côte d'Ivoire
		DJI	Djibouti
		GNQ	Equatorial Guinea
		ERI	Eritrea
		ETH	Ethiopia
		ESW	Eswatini
		GAB	Gabon
		GHA	Ghana
		GIN	Guinea
		GNB	Guinea-Bissau
		KEN	Kenya
		LSO	Lesotho
		LBR	Liberia
		MDG	Madagascar
		MWI	Malawi
		MLI	Mali
		MRT	Mauritania
		MUS	Mauritius
		MOZ	Mozambique
		NAM	Namibia
		NER	Niger
		NGA	Nigeria
		RWA	Rwanda
		STP	Sao Tome and Principe
		SEN	Senegal
		SLE	Sierra Leone
		SOM	Somalia
		ZAF	South Africa
		SSD	South Sudan
		TZA	Tanzania, United Republic of
		GMB	The Gambia
		TGO	Togo
		UGA	Uganda
		ZMB	Zambia
		ZWE	Zimbabwe
Americas	Latin America and the Caribbean	ARG	Argentina
		BHS	Bahamas
		BRB	Barbados

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Region	Subregion	Country code	Country
		BLZ	Belize
		BOL	Bolivia, Plurinational State of
		BRA	Brazil
		CHL	Chile
		COL	Colombia
		CRI	Costa Rica
		CUB	Cuba
		DOM	Dominican Republic
		ECU	Ecuador
		SLV	El Salvador
		GTM	Guatemala
		GUY	Guyana
		HTI	Haiti
		HND	Honduras
		JAM	Jamaica
		MEX	Mexico
		NIC	Nicaragua
		PAN	Panama
		PRY	Paraguay
		PRT	Peru
		PRI	Puerto Rico
		LCA	Saint Lucia
		VCT	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
		SUR	Suriname
		TTO	Trinidad and Tobago
		VIR	United States Virgin Islands
		URY	Uruguay
		VEN	Venezuela, Bolivarian Rep. of
	Northern America	CAN	Canada
		USA	United States
Arab States		BHR	Bahrain
		IRQ	Iraq
		JOR	Jordan
		KWT	Kuwait
		LBN	Lebanon
		PSE	Occupied Palestinian Territory
		OMN	Oman
		QAT	Qatar

Region	Subregion	Country code	Country
		SAU	Saudi Arabia
		SYR	Syrian Arab Republic
		ARE	United Arab Emirates
		YEM	Yemen
Asia and the Pacific	East Asia	CHN	China
		HKG	Hong Kong, China
		JPN	Japan
		PRK	Korea, Democratic People's Republic of
		KOR	Korea, Republic of
		MAC	Macau, China
		MNG	Mongolia
		TWN	Taiwan, China
	South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific	AUS	Australia
		BRN	Brunei Darussalam
		KHM	Cambodia
		FJI	Fiji
		PYF	French Polynesia
		GUM	Guam
		IDN	Indonesia
		LAO	Lao People's Dem. Rep.
		MYS	Malaysia
		MMR	Myanmar
		NCL	New Caledonia
		NZL	New Zealand
		PNG	Papua New Guinea
		PHL	Philippines
		WSM	Samoa
		SGP	Singapore
		SLB	Solomon Islands
		THA	Thailand
		TLS	Timor-Leste
		TON	Tonga
		VUT	Vanuatu
		VNM	Viet Nam
	Southern Asia	AFG	Afghanistan
		BGD	Bangladesh

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Region	Subregion	Country code	Country
		BTN	Bhutan
		IND	India
		IRN	Iran, Islamic Republic of
		MDV	Maldives
		NPL	Nepal
		PAK	Pakistan
		SLE	Sri Lanka
Europe and Central Asia	Central and Western Asia	ARM	Armenia
		AZE	Azerbaijan
		CYP	Cyprus
		GEO	Georgia
		ISR	Israel
		KAZ	Kazakhstan
		KGZ	Kyrgyzstan
		TJK	Tajikistan
		TUR	Turkey
		TKM	Turkmenistan
		UZB	Uzbekistan
	Eastern Europe	BLR	Belarus
		BGR	Bulgaria
		CZE	Czech Republic
		HUN	Hungary
		MDA	Moldova, Republic of
		POL	Poland
		ROU	Romania
		RUS	Russian Federation
		SVK	Slovakia
		UKR	Ukraine
	Northern, Southern and Western Europe	ALB	Albania
		AUT	Austria
		BEL	Belgium
		BIH	Bosnia and Herzegovina
		–	Channel Islands
		HRV	Croatia
		DNK	Denmark
		EST	Estonia
		FIN	Finland
		FRA	France
		DEU	Germany
		GRC	Greece
		ISL	Iceland
		IRL	Ireland
		ITA	Italy
		LTV	Latvia
		LTU	Lithuania
		LUX	Luxembourg
		MLT	Malta
		MNE	Montenegro
		NLD	Netherlands
		NOR	Norway
		PRT	Portugal
		SRB	Serbia
		SVN	Slovenia
		ESP	Spain
		SWE	Sweden
		CHE	Switzerland
		MKD	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
		GBR	United Kingdom

Source: ILO Department of Statistics, based on ISO 3166-1 alpha-3.

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High-income countries		
Argentina	Guam	Poland
Australia	Hong Kong, China	Portugal
Austria	Hungary	Puerto Rico
Bahamas	Iceland	Qatar
Bahrain	Ireland	Saudi Arabia
Barbados	Israel	Singapore
Belgium	Italy	Slovakia
Brunei Darussalam	Japan	Slovenia
Canada	Korea, Republic of	Spain
Channel Islands	Kuwait	Sweden
Chile	Latvia	Switzerland
Croatia	Lithuania	Taiwan, China
Cyprus	Luxembourg	Trinidad and Tobago
Czech Republic	Macau, China	United Arab Emirates
Denmark	Malta	United Kingdom
Estonia	Netherlands	United States
Finland	New Caledonia	United States Virgin Islands
France	New Zealand	Uruguay
French Polynesia	Norway	
Germany	Oman	
Greece	Panama	

Low-income countries	
Afghanistan	Nepal
Benin	Niger
Burkina Faso	Rwanda
Burundi	Senegal
Central African Republic	Sierra Leone
Chad	Somalia
Comoros	South Sudan
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	Syrian Arab Republic
Eritrea	Tajikistan
Ethiopia	Tanzania, United Republic of
Guinea	The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau	Togo
Haiti	Uganda
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	Yemen
Liberia	Zimbabwe
Madagascar	
Malawi	
Mali	
Mozambique	

Middle-income countries	
Albania	Morocco
Algeria	Myanmar
Angola	Namibia
Argentina	Nicaragua
Armenia	Nigeria
Azerbaijan	Occupied Palestinian Territory
Bangladesh	Pakistan
Belarus	Papua New Guinea
Belize	Paraguay
Bhutan	Peru
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	Philippines
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Romania
Botswana	Russian Federation
Brazil	Saint Lucia
Bulgaria	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Cambodia	Samoa
Cameroon	Sao Tome and Principe
Cabo Verde	Serbia
China	Solomon Islands
Colombia	South Africa
Congo	Sri Lanka
Costa Rica	Sudan
Cuba	Suriname
Côte d'Ivoire	Thailand
Djibouti	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
Dominican Republic	Timor-Leste
Ecuador	Tonga
Egypt	Tunisia
El Salvador	Turkey
Equatorial Guinea	Turkmenistan
Eswatini	Ukraine
Fiji	Uzbekistan
Gabon	Vanuatu
Georgia	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of
Ghana	Viet Nam
Guatemala	Western Sahara

APPENDIX

Middle-income countries	
Guyana	Zambia
Honduras	
India	
Indonesia	
Iran, Islamic Republic of	
Iraq	
Jamaica	
Jordan	
Kazakhstan	
Kenya	
Kyrgyzstan	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	
Lebanon	
Lesotho	
Libya	
Malaysia	
Mauritania	
Mauritius	
Mexico	
Moldova, Republic of	
Mongolia	
Montenegro	

Sources: Country groupings correspond to World Bank Income classification available at: https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups

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In 1919, the ILO adopted the first Conventions on women and work. A century later, women are a force in the labour market, breaking boundaries that at one time would have been considered impossible. While significant advances have taken place for women at work over the past century, there is no room for complacency. Progress in closing gender gaps has stalled, and in some cases is reversing. But a better future of work for women is possible, with an ecosystem of reinforcing measures and an unwavering commitment to gender equality. The paths to gender equality, with a view to implementing a transformative and measureable agenda for gender equality, are explored in this report.

This report is the culmination of the extensive and often groundbreaking work undertaken in the context of the ILO's Women at Work Centenary Initiative. The findings and recommendations of the Initiative resonate with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015. The realization of the 2030 Agenda depends on the achievement of gender equality in the world of work.

This report highlights key gender gaps and obstacles to decent work for women. It explores the structural barriers, including unpaid care work, that shape the nature and extent of women's engagement in paid employment, and how laws, policies and practices in some countries have addressed them. This report reinforces the need for a multifaceted approach and provides a direction regarding the measures that can, and should, be taken to seize the opportunities presented by the changing world of work.

The ILO's centenary provides a privileged opportunity to change the trajectory and accelerate efforts to ensure that the future delivers decent work for all women and men, in the spirit of the 2030 Agenda.

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