



Achieving stronger growth by promoting a more gender-balanced economy

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1. Rationale in the context of the G20

At the February Meeting of the G20 Finance Ministers and Central Bank Governors, Ministers committed to develop appropriate policies able to “lift the G20 collective GDP by more than 2 per cent above the trajectory implied by current policies over the coming 5 years”. Stronger trend growth can be achieved through a number of policies, including higher labour utilization. There is scope in most G20 countries to increase female employment and labour force participation. Several G20 countries are also facing the prospect of shrinking labour forces over the next 20 years due to population ageing and low fertility rates, which further underpins the economic case for greater gender equality in the labour market (Annex 1).

G20 countries have much to gain from increased female labour force participation in terms of economic growth and increased welfare. But merely increasing labour force participation among women will not be enough to ensure that gender gaps in economic empowerment are eliminated. To optimize the labour productivity potential of increased female employment, women should be fully integrated in the labour force, not subjected to discriminatory gender wage gaps and not involuntarily confined to part-time employment and to the most low-paid, low productivity and vulnerable² jobs (ILO, 2013a; IMF, 2013, OECD, 2012a; and, World Bank, 2011).

2. Key indicators of gender gaps in G20 countries

There has been progress in closing gender gaps in labour market outcomes, but substantial differences remain. Since 1980, the global rate of female labour force participation rose by over 2 percentage points (to 52%), while the male rate fell by nearly 5 percentage points (close to 77%). On average across OECD countries, the gender gap in labour force participation for the working-age population narrowed from 23 percentage points (ppts) in 1990 to 13ppts in 2012; among the G20 countries it ranges from a low of 7ppts in Canada to more than 50ppts in India and Saudi Arabia (Table 1). Since 2000, female employment rates have increased in most countries and, by 2012, they reached 60% or more in half of the G20 countries. Nevertheless, gender employment gaps remain larger than 10 percentage points in 15 of the G20 countries (Annex Table A3.1).

¹ This short note draws from previous notes prepared by the OECD on gender for the past two G20 Sherpa meetings: “Achieving the 2% growth target by promoting a more gender-balanced economy”; and “Proposal for a Gender Pillar under G20 National Growth Strategies”; as well as on the background report prepared by the OECD, in collaboration with the ILO and the World Bank Group at the request of the G20 Australian Presidency for the G20 Task Force on Employment on “*Promoting inclusive labour markets in G20 countries: potential returns and obstacles*”. This latter report reviews in more details the gender gaps in G20 countries and highlights a number of good policy practices in different G20 countries to foster gender equality.

² Vulnerable employment is defined as the sum of the employment status groups of own account workers and contributing family workers. They are less likely to have formal work arrangements, and are therefore more likely to lack decent working conditions, adequate social security and ‘voice’ through effective representation by trade unions and similar organizations. Vulnerable employment is often characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult conditions of work that undermine workers’ fundamental rights.

Table 1: Indicators of gender gaps^a in labour market outcomes

	Labour force participation rate, 15-64 years ^b		Employment / population ratio, 15-64 years ^b	Proportion of youth not in education, employment or training (NEET), 15-24 years ^c		Gender gap in the incidence of part-time employment ^d , 15+ years	Gender gap in the incidence of senior managers ^e , 15+ years	Gender pay gap ^f , 15+ years	Gender gap in PIAAC numeracy proficiency ^g , 15-65 years
	Female level	Gender gap	Female level	Female level	Gender gap				
	2012 ^h	2012 ^h	2012 ^h	2011	2011	2012	2011 ⁱ	2011 ^j	2012
Argentina	56.1	24.8	51.1	22.4	-8.8	-24.8
Australia	70.4	12.1	66.6	10.9	-2.0	-25.3	3.8	16.0	15.0
Brazil	60.8	22.4	55.7	23.6	-9.6	-14.9	1.3
Canada	74.3	7.3	69.2	10.3	2.0	-14.7	4.2	19.2	16.1
China ^k	70.3	14.0	68.0	1.9	..	7.5
European Union ^l	65.5	12.4	58.5	13.3	-0.8	-20.9	3.3	12.2	11.7
France	66.7	8.7	60.0	14.2	-1.1	-16.4	2.4	14.1	12.6
Germany	71.7	10.7	68.0	9.1	-1.2	-29.1	3.2	16.5	16.6
India	27.2	51.6	26.1	57.0	-42.3
Indonesia	52.5	32.5	49.0	1.1	16.6	..
Italy	54.2	20.8	47.8	20.9	-1.4	-24.7	2.6	10.6	10.3
Japan	63.4	20.9	60.7	10.9	-1.5	-24.2	..	27.4	10.6
Korea	55.2	22.4	53.5	14.6	2.6	-8.2	3.1	37.5	9.1
Mexico	47.8	35.2	45.3	34.0	-22.5	-15.1	0.6
Russian Fed.	68.2	9.9	64.7	-2.5	3.3	39.3	..
Saudi Arabia	21.0	57.8	16.7	-6.4
South Africa	48.3	13.4	34.9	32.7	-4.9	-6.9	4.2
Spain	68.8	12.4	51.3	20.4	1.5	-16.8	3.0	10.6	14.3
Turkey	32.3	43.5	28.7	43.2	-22.5	-17.5	7.6	20.1	..
United Kingdom	71.0	12.3	65.7	15.2	-1.3	-27.2	5.0	18.2	13.4
United States	67.6	11.2	62.2	13.9	-1.9	-9.5	2.4	17.8	15.6

.. no data available

a) The gender gap is defined as the level for men minus the level for women, unless specified otherwise. b) Data refer to persons aged 15+ for India, Indonesia and Saudi Arabia. c) Data based on a population weighted average of NEET rates for persons aged 15-19 and 20-24 years. d) Incidence of part-time employment refers to the proportion of employed persons who work part-time, based on a 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job. For Saudi Arabia the data refer to actual hours worked based on a 35-hour cut-off. e) Data refer to legislators, senior officials and managers - corresponding to category 1 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations 08 (ISCO-08). f) The gender wage gap is defined as the men minus female median wages as a proportion of the men median wages, in percent. The data refers to mean wages for employees only, for China (Hong Kong) and Indonesia. g) The gap refers to adjusted differences between male and female mean PIAAC numeracy scores based on OLS regressions including controls for age, education, immigration and language background, socio-economic background, and type of occupation. Data for United Kingdom refers to England and Northern Ireland only. h) Data refer to 2010 for Japan. i) Data refer to 2010 for Turkey; 2008 for Australia, Canada, Indonesia, Mexico, the Russian Federation, South Africa, the United States; 2007 for Brazil; 2005 for China. j) Data refer to 2010 for France, Italy and Turkey and 2008 for the Russian Federation. k) Data refer to Hong Kong for gender wage gap. l) Data refer to an un-weighted EU21 average for indicators on the incidence of senior managers and gender pay gap, and an un-weighted average of EU16 for indicator on PIAAC.

Source: OECD Employment database, OECD Education database, OECD Skills Outlook, ILOSTAT and the ILO Short-term Indicators of the Labour Market Database (version March 2014)

The crisis has exacerbated concerns about participation of young women. The proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEETs) is over 10% in most countries and generally concerns more young women than young men. Female NEET rates are particularly high in India, Turkey and Mexico (Table 1).

Additional indicators show that **women are less likely to work full-time than men, are less likely to progress in their careers and have lower numeracy skills. Further, there is a substantial gender wage gap:** women earn much less than men on average (Table 1), even when individual characteristics are taken into account. This is partly the result of women being concentrated in traditionally low-paid sectors--including health, welfare, education, and administrative jobs-- and being over-represented in informal employment in many of the emerging economies (Annex Table A.3.1).

Women-owned businesses could be other source of job creation, generating diversity of the business population, stimulating innovation and change in production and marketing practices. However, women remain at a disadvantage in this area too. Across the G20 countries, women represent on average only 25% of business-owners with employees (Annex Table A.3.2). In addition, women rarely own large businesses and their average earnings from self-employment are up to 60% lower than for men. Women-owned companies have less capital, fewer employees and are less represented in high-turnover sectors compared to companies owned by men.

Gender gaps in labour market outcomes persist despite the fact that young women are more educated than young men. Educational attainment is a critical factor in determining labour market opportunities. Over the years, women's educational attainment across the G20 has advanced to a degree that gender gaps in educational attainment are now most often reversed. Among 15-year old students, girls outperform boys in reading competency and lag behind in mathematics, but to a much lesser extent than boys in reading; 25 to 34 year old women are more likely to have completed a tertiary degree than men in the same age group (Table 2). Gender differences persist in choice of field of study (Annex Table A.3.2), and are much larger than what might be expected on the basis of student performance: attitudes play a key role in shaping education choices (OECD, 2012a).

Promoting a cultural shift to avoid gender stereotyping will help address differences in the choice of subject of study which limit gender equality in career opportunities and earnings progression. Pervasive views about differential gender roles (Table 2) are one of the factors underlying the **persistence of the female labour market disadvantage.** Other factors include: gender differences in access to financial markets and use of financial services (Annex Table A.3.3); barriers to finding a greater gender equity in the balance of paid and unpaid household work; constraints to public work/life balance supports including child-related leave arrangements, child- and out-of-school-hours care supports; and, increasingly, with population ageing, supports for elderly care.

In most G20 countries, legal and social institutions are broadly similar for men and women, but important gaps remain in some areas in many G20 countries. In some G20 countries, there is unequal treatment of men and women in legal frameworks (for example with respect to registering a business, ownership or eligibility for tax deductions) and/or there is still work to be done on legal protection regarding non-discrimination in employment and equal pay for men and women for work of equal value (World Bank – IFC, 2013). Institutional arrangements and incentives (e.g. the length of paid leave varies by gender across countries, but most countries have promotional policies and measures in place which encourage women to work and enhance their economic opportunities (Table 2 and ILO, 2014, World Bank, 2014 and OECD, 2012b). On their own these “incentives” may not be enough to overcome existing gender gaps, but they strengthen the enabling environment for greater gender equality in labour force participation.

National growth strategies must encompass measures to promote greater gender equality in access to quality education and marketable skills, access to assets and finance and productive

and rewarding jobs. Indeed, fostering female labour market participation features in a range of G20 activities, including work by the G20 Sherpa's, as part of the structural reforms under the G20 Mutual Assessment Process (MAP) identified by the OECD for a number of G20 members; and the G20 Employment Task Force on the integration of under-represented populations – including women – in the labour market.

Table 2: Indicators of gender gaps in opportunities

	Gender gap in OECD PISA programme reading performance	Gender gap in OECD PISA programme mathematics performance	Gender gap in the proportion of the population who attained tertiary education ^b , 25-64 years	Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to women in engineering ^c	Differences in legal treatment for men and women ^d	Legal incentives to encourage women to work ^d	Proportion of respondents that agreed to the statement: <i>When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women</i>
	2012	2012	2011	2011 ^e	2013	2013	2003-2012
Argentina	-10.0%	3.5%	-3.3	33.5	5.5	5.1	27.7
Australia	-7.0%	2.4%	-7.5	24.6	2.0	4.2	9.0
Brazil	-7.8%	4.5%	-2.7	30.2	2.3	5.1	22.3
Canada	-7.0	1.9%	-10.0	23.1	0.0	5.2	14.3
China ^f	-4.3%	0.9%	1.1	13.5	4.8	3.1	40.0
European Union ^g	-9.2%	1.8%	-4.0	28.0	29.0
France	-8.1%	1.7%	-3.4	30.4	2.3	4.4	12.3
Germany	-9.1%	2.6%	5.3	22.1	2.0	4.3	17.8
India	8.3	3.1	57.0
Indonesia	-7.4%	1.2%	1.2	..	10.0	2.1	55.4
Italy	-8.3%	3.7%	-3.1	33.0	2.0	5.6	21.9
Japan	-4.6%	3.3%	0.9	11.2	0.3	4.1	32.0
Korea	-4.4%	3.2%	8.8	23.8	0.5	5.1	36.5
Mexico	-5.8%	3.3%	3.9	28.9	0.0	4.1	17.0
Russian Fed.	-8.8%	-0.3%	-14.1	30.2	5.8	5.6	29.0
Saudi Arabia	0.2	7.5	27.3	1.1	69.7
South Africa	1.0	27.7	0.0	1.1	37.1
Spain	-6.1%	3.3%	-2.5	32.1	0.0	6.2	12.0
Turkey	-10.1%	1.8%	3.5	29.8	4.3	2.1	58.0
United Kingdom	-5.1%	2.5%	-0.7	22.6	2.0	4.3	12.2
United States	-6.4%	1.0%	-4.3	21.8	2.0	4.0	6.0

.. no data available

a) The gender gap in OECD PISA programme performance is defined as: $(\text{male level} - \text{female level}) / \text{male level} \times 100\%$; b) Tertiary education refers to all type-A and type-B programmes; the gender gap is here defined as the level for men minus the level for women.

c) Tertiary degrees in engineering refer to degrees in engineering, manufacturing and construction; d) This indicator considers differences in treatment by law of men and women and provides an aggregate count across 21 areas for married and unmarried women and for 5 areas that only apply to married women (the maximum score would thus be 47), including: application for a passport; travel outside the country; signing a contract; being head of household or family; having ownership rights over property; working the same night hours; having the same statutory retirement age; and, absence of gender or sex discrimination in the constitution. The indicator on "Legal incentives" provides an aggregate count for policies that affect women's economic opportunities across 12 areas (12 being the maximum score), including: the length of paid maternity and paid paternity leave; laws prohibiting the dismissal of pregnant women; legal quota's for women in parliament; laws mandating equal remuneration for women and men for work of equal value and laws mandating non-discrimination in hiring practices. For a complete listing see World Bank - IFC (2013), *Women, Business and the Law 2014, Removing Restrictions to Enhance Gender Equality*. e) Data for Argentina refer to 2010. f) Data refer to Shanghai for indicators on OECD PISA programme performance and Hong Kong for indicator on degrees awarded in engineering. g) Data refer an un-weighted EU27 average for indicators on OECD PISA programme performance, and an un-weighted EU21 average for indicators on tertiary attainment and qualifications.

Source: OECD Education database and OECD PISA Assessment (version March 2014); World Bank - IFC (2013), *Women, Business and the Law* database.

3. Gender equality: focal policy areas

Gender gaps are related to a mixture of economic and socio-cultural factors. Narrowing them requires a comprehensive approach that: a) accounts for the different nature of labour market challenges across the G20 countries (see above); and b) includes a range of measures aimed at fostering gender equality and enhancing women employment.

Measures to help address gender gaps can be grouped in the following four broad areas and are illustrated in Annex 4 by examples of good practices implemented by G20 countries:

Measures to eliminate unequal treatment of men and women in the labour market

Establishing clear legislative frameworks that levels the playing field for women labour market participation and protects all workers against all forms of direct and indirect discrimination and harassment – including discrimination of workers based on gender, maternity, paternity and family responsibilities – will provide a formal structure to remove barriers to female employment and career progression (ILO, 2014). Legal provisions should eliminate restrictions to ownership as well as unequal treatment of, and restrictions to, female employment in some occupations and working hours. The principle of equal pay for equal work or for work of equal value should also be respected in collective bargaining as well as labour laws and practices. Governments should encourage voluntary targets, disclosure requirements and private initiatives to promote the representation of women in decision-making positions in public and private sectors. Effective monitoring and enforcement of all these statutory provisions through labour inspection, specialized equality bodies and effective access to courts is a key factor in making progress on this front as is promoting the inclusion of non-discrimination provisions in collective agreements. Collection and publication of data on discrimination based on gender, maternity and family responsibilities is crucial to monitoring frameworks for equality.

Measures to promote an enabling environment for gender equality in the labour market

The enabling environment for gender equality in labour force participation includes maternal health measures such as prenatal, childbirth, postnatal and reproductive health services. Gender equality in future labour force participation crucially involves policies enhancing gender equality in education, such as ensuring that boys and girls have equal access to good-quality education, ensuring equal rights and opportunities to successfully complete schooling and helping students make informed choices about their field of study and career path.

Measures supporting the reconciliation of work and family life are also critical for men and women to equally participate in the labour market. There are considerable differences in socio-economic policy environments across the G20 countries – which affect the possibility to implement public family-friendly supports as those included in the OECD Gender Recommendation and ILO maternity conventions and recommendations (Annex 2). Greater efforts should be made in many G20 countries to provide employment-protected paid maternity and paternity leave to working mothers and fathers – including to informal workers. Countries should also secure the availability of, and access to, good-quality early childhood education and care as well as affordable long-term care for other dependents.

Family-friendly workplace support, such as nursing opportunities, quality part-time employment options and working time flexibility within regular career patterns, is also critical and collective agreements should be promoted to facilitate the provision of such support. Gender neutral measures such as equal treatment in wages and proportional non-wage benefits of part-time workers with comparable full-time workers and effective enforcement of maximum working hours would help level the playing field for women in employment. It is also important to provide incentives to fathers to

make more use of parental leave and/or flexible working hours, to avoid reinforcing the traditional role of women as caregivers (ILO, 2014 and OECD, 2012a).

Measures to make work pay, improve job quality and reduce informality

Tax/benefit systems should be gender neutral: they should provide broadly similar financial incentives to work and the same level of coverage to all individuals, independently of gender and marital status. Minimum wages and social security coverage for part-time workers enhance returns to work for low-pay workers. Conditional cash transfers and in-work benefits, such as Earned Income Tax Credits, can further strengthen social protection arrangements and support female labour force participation.

Policies are needed to improve employment conditions, increase access to training and enhance adequate and financially sustainable social protection coverage (ILO/OECD, 2011) for informal workers, including many own-account workers and domestic workers. Measures include, for example: improving the legal framework, its monitoring and enforcement (ILO, 2013b); providing incentives for employers to regularize informal workers; increasing social service sector employment to replace some unpaid care and household work; and, strengthening the representation of women in social dialogue institutions (examples are provided in Annex 4).

Measures to promote entrepreneurship

Public policies to promote female entrepreneurship include: fostering a gender neutral legal framework for business, promoting equal access to productive resources and finance for female and male entrepreneurs; preventing discrimination in lending markets; increasing the scale and reach of public interventions to improve equal access to financial markets for all, including small and medium-sized firms and including microfinance for informal businesses; and, increasing the capacity of financing institutions to respond to female entrepreneurs' needs. Awareness campaigns, training programmes and support networks for women entrepreneurs should also be supported.

4. The way forward

As outlined above, despite progress in the recent past – notably in educational attainment of young women - important gender gaps in labour market outcomes remain. The factors underlying the persistency of the female labour market disadvantage, include gender stereotyping that tracks women into lower paid occupations, gender difference in choice of fields of study, gender differences in access to financial markets and productive resources, gender differences in the use of leave arrangements for fathers and mothers, constraints to public childcare supports, unequal treatment of men and women in legal frameworks, including labour laws, and pervasive views about differential gender roles.

International Organizations agree on the importance of making progress through introducing measures as listed above to reduce gender gaps in labour market outcomes. These broad principles are embedded in instruments such as **the OECD Gender Recommendation and ILO international labour conventions and recommendations** (see Annex 2). **G20 countries could draw from these principles** – as appropriate for their specific country conditions and priorities - to better integrate women in the labour force and help reduce the gender gap in labour force participation and employment by 25% for each 5-year age group by the year 2025. **G20 countries can also entrust international organizations with the task of providing the elements for an adequate monitoring of progress in achieving gender equality.**

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Annex 1: Labour force projections and different female participation scenarios

In order to reach the G20 goal of stronger, sustainable and inclusive growth, greater gender equality in labour force participation can act as a key instrument by focusing on boosting labour force participation and/or mitigating its decline and, in that manner, provide added impetus to trend growth.

Demographic projections (OECD, 2012a) show that – if male and female labour participation rates remain at current levels – labour force will decrease by close to 10% in Germany, Japan, the Russian Federation and Spain by 2025 (see the “**Unchanged scenario**” in Annex Figure A.1.1). **The potential decline in the labour force can at least be mitigated** if the gender gap in labour force participation decreases.

In this context a **baseline scenario** needs to be developed which accounts for changes in the labour force participation of men and women that are likely to occur in the future even in the absence of any policy reforms. In many countries, there has been a trend increase in the participation of women which has offset a decline in participation rates for men. There have also been different trends by age groups: on the one hand, participation rates for youth have fallen in many countries in response to a lengthening of the time spent in initial education while, on the other hand, labour force participation for prime aged and older ages has been rising in several countries in response to rising educational attainment and strengthened incentives to work longer. Rather than assuming fixed participation rates, the baseline scenario assumes constant labour force entry and exit rates for 5-year age groups at their historical average over the period 2003-2012.³

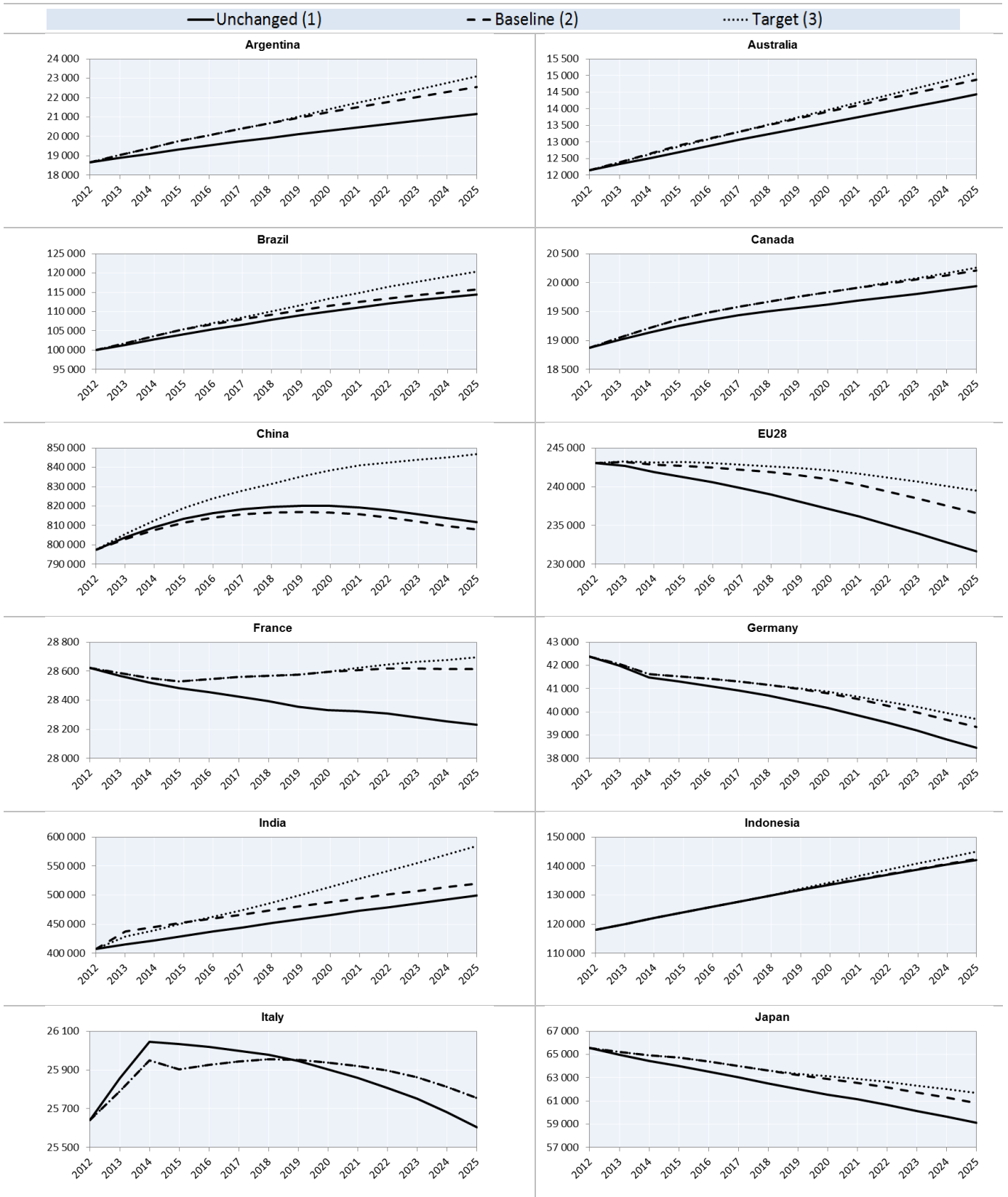
On the basis of these assumptions, the participation rate for women aged 15-64 is projected to rise in nearly all G20 economies (Annex Figure A.1.2). Apart from Japan and Spain, the effect on the size of the labour force is projected to be modest for the more advanced G20 economies where female participation rates are already high. Larger increases will occur in several of the G20 emerging economies, e.g. Argentina, Mexico and Turkey, but not all. The decline in female labour force participation since the early 2000s in China and the United States feeds into baseline scenario projecting labour forces of a smaller size than when participation rates were held constant at their 2012 levels (“unchanged scenario”).

Determining a **common G20 goal for the reduction of the gender gap in labour force participation** is further complicated by cross national differences in the current size of the gender gap. Therefore, any common target will need to be fixed at a rather modest level and in relative rather than absolute terms. Annex Figure A.1.1 simulates the effect on the size of the total labour force of such a “target scenario:” achieving a 25% reduction in the gender gap in each country by 2025 compared with the baseline scenario.

3. In the case of China, the period was 2005-2010. For Italy and Saudi Arabia, participation rates for women were modelled as a logistic function of participation rates for men for each corresponding 5-year age-group based on observed relationship over the period 1997-2012.

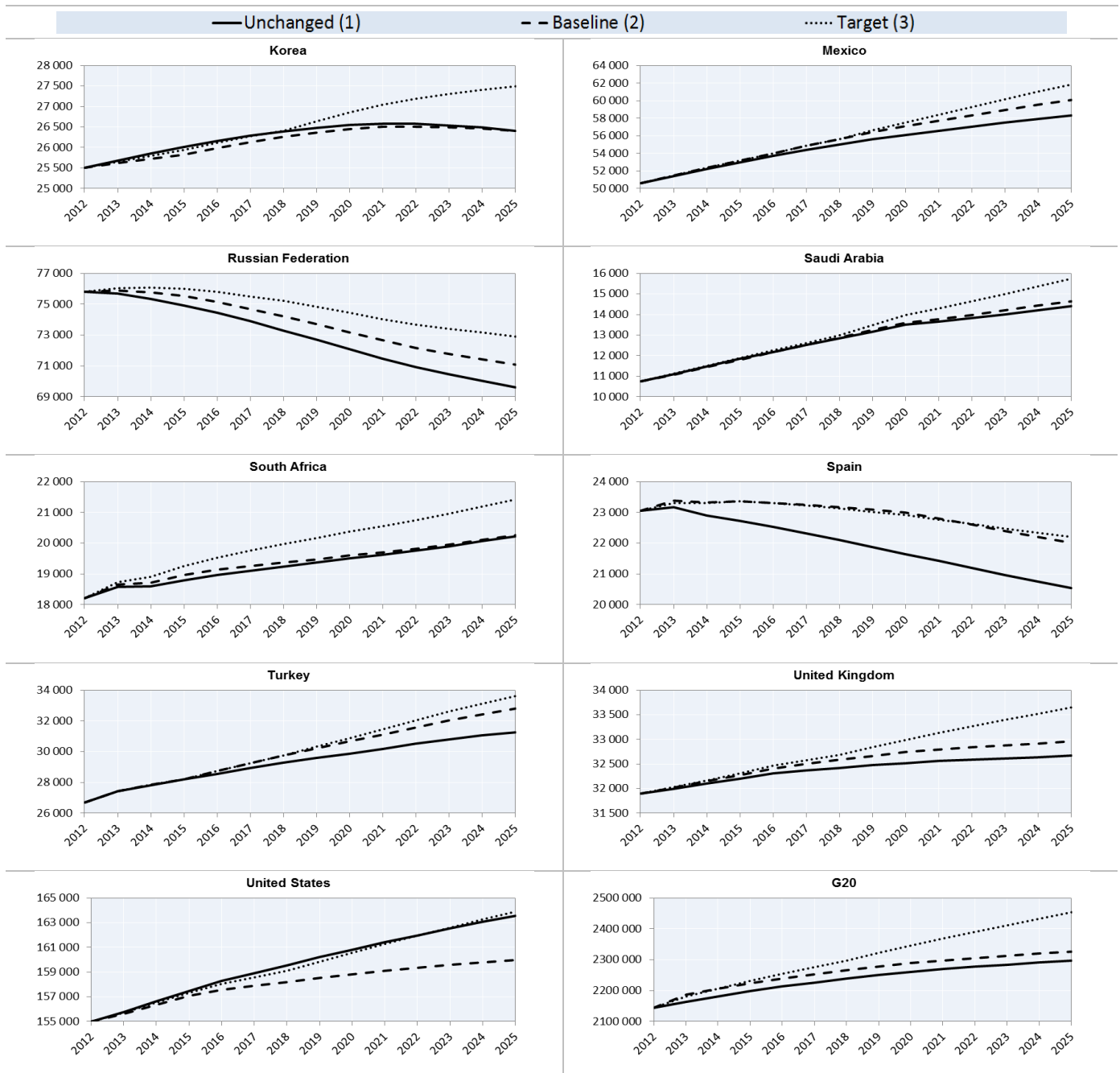
Annex Figure A1.1: Effect on the labour force size of a reduction in the gender gap in participation rates of 25% by 2025

Projected number of persons aged 15-64 in the labour force, thousands, 2012-2025



Annex Figure A1.1: Effect on the labour force size of a reduction in the gender gap in participation rates of 25% by 2025 (cont.)

Projected number of persons aged 15-64 in the labour force, thousands, 2012-2025



The labour force projections are based on population projections for persons aged 15-64 years, by 5-year age group.

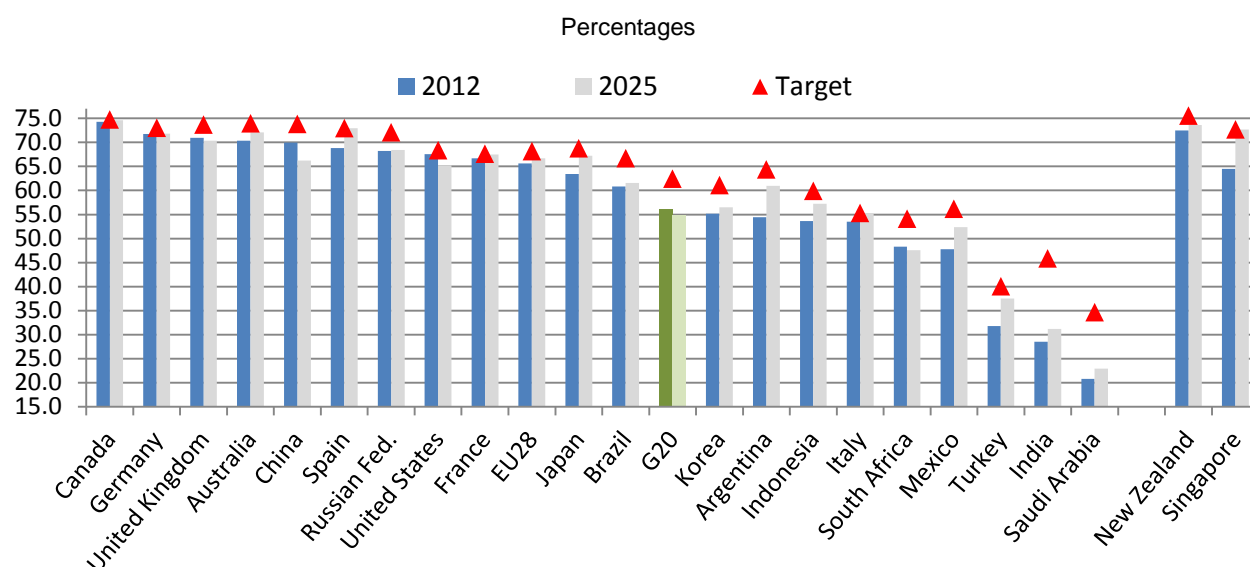
1. Unchanged: Participation rates by gender and for each 5-year age group are held constant over the period 2013-2025 at their 2012 values; changes in labour force size are driven by changes in working-age population size alone.

2. Baseline: Participation rates are projected by gender and for each 5-year age group by assuming that labour force entry and exit rates remain constant at their average value over the period 2003-2012 (2005-2010 for China. For Italy and Saudi Arabia, participation rates for women were modelled as a logistic function of participation rates for men for each corresponding 5-year age-group based on observed relationship over the period 1997-2012.

3. Target: The gender gap for each 5-year age group in 2025 is assumed to be 25% lower than its value in 2012. All other estimates for the female participation rate are obtained by linear interpolation. Where the projected reduction in the gender gap in the baseline scenario is already greater than the targeted reduction, the baseline projected labour force is taken instead.

Source: OECD's Secretariat's calculations based on the OECD Population and Demography database and the OECD Employment database.

Annex Figure A1.2: Labour force participation rate for women aged 15-64^a



Note: Countries are ranked in descending order of the participation rate of women in 2012.

a) The target value assumes that, by 2025, the gender gap observed in 2012 will be reduced by one-quarter for each 5-year age group.

Source: OECD calculations based on the OECD Demographic and Labour Force Projections Database.

In some G20 countries, the 25% target for a reduction in the gender gap in labour force participation by 2025 would only involve a modest further rise in participation rates for women and, for example Canada and France are likely to achieve this if recent increases in female participation continue in future. However, **the “25% by 25” scenario would have a significant effect on the size of the labour force in many countries**, including India, where the labour force would be 11% larger as a result of around 64 million more women in the labour force. The effect would also be considerable for the United States, where the “25% by 25”⁴ scenario would make up for reduced growth of the labour force projected by the baseline scenario. In all, under the “25% by 25” scenario, there would be 126 million more women in G20 economies participating in the labour force – or a 5% increase in the total G20 labour force by 2025 compared with the baseline scenario.

Some countries, including Germany, Japan, and Korea, would need to achieve close to **gender parity in labour force participation** to avoid the looming decline of their labour force. Reaching equality in working hours as well as in labour force participation can lead to additional increases, with significant rises projected in Australia, Germany and the United Kingdom, where today more than 30% of employed women work part-time (OECD, 2012a).

Greater female labour supply would add impetus to economic growth: a full convergence in the participation rate between men and women over 20 years could boost the GDP per capita growth rate, with increases of more than 0.5 percentage points expected in Japan and Korea, and about 1.0 percentage point in Italy. On average, among OECD countries full convergence is projected to additionally increase, by 0.6 percentage points, the annual growth rate of GDP per capita, with an equivalent increase in GDP of 12.0% by 2030 (OECD, 2012a).

⁴ For Spain, the target is below the 2025 baseline because projecting past trends in participation of women (rising) and men (falling) will achieve more than the target 25% gap reduction.

Annex 2: The OECD Gender Recommendation and ILO conventions and recommendations on gender equality

Recommendation of the OECD Ministerial Council on Gender Equality in Education, Employment and Entrepreneurship

The OECD Gender Recommendation includes a set of policy principles endorsed by OECD countries and a number of key emerging economies. The gender recommendation was adopted by the OECD Council meeting at Ministerial level on 29 May 2013 after a year of negotiations involving 11 thematic Committees of the OECD and the social partners (ITUC and IOE).

The OECD Gender recommendation is consistent with the ILO core labour standards and other relevant conventions, such as the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100), ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111), ILO Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156), the ILO Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183) and the ILO Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189). These conventions provide globally agreed standards in gender rights and policies based on the agreement of 185 member States as well as employers and workers organizations in those countries. As such the ILO-Standards represent rights and principles endorsed by both the public and private sector representatives of this global membership.

Key principles of the OECD Recommendation:

A. adopt practices that promote gender equality in education by:

1. ensuring that boys and girls have equal access to good-quality education, equal rights and opportunities to successfully complete schooling and in making educational choices;
2. reviewing and where necessary adapting school and early childhood education curricula, teaching and school practices to eliminate gender discrimination and stereotyping;
3. making the study of science, technology, engineering, mathematics (STEM) financial and entrepreneurship issues, as well as education, arts and the humanities, equally inclusive and attractive for both boys and girls; promoting the development of stronger reading habits among boys and girls;
4. campaigning and raising awareness among young men and women, parents, teachers and employers about gender-stereotypical attitudes towards academic performances and the likely consequences of overall educational choices for employment and entrepreneurship opportunities, career progression and earnings;
5. encouraging more women who have completed STEM studies to pursue professional careers in these areas, for example by means of career counselling, adult education, internships, apprenticeships and targeted financial support;

B. promote family-friendly policies and working conditions which enable fathers and mothers to balance their working hours and their family responsibilities and facilitate women to participate more in private and public sector employment by:

1. designing tax-benefit systems so that both parents have broadly similar financial incentives to work;

2. securing availability of and access to affordable good-quality early childhood education and care as well as affordable long-term care for other dependants, including for example disabled children or elderly relatives;
3. providing employment-protected paid maternity and paternity leave to working mothers and fathers;
4. encouraging working fathers to take available care leave, for example by reserving part of the parental leave entitlement for the exclusive and non-transferable use by fathers;
5. providing incentives to fathers to use flexible work entitlements, promoting a more temporary use of part-time work among men and women, providing incentives for women to participate more hours in the labour force, and raising awareness of gender stereotypes to encourage a more equal sharing of paid and unpaid work (household responsibilities) between men and women;
6. ensuring that all parents can participate in the labour market regardless of their partnership status, providing ample employment supports to sole parents;
7. ensuring that policies that address the problem of unemployment do not discriminate either directly or indirectly against women;
8. improving employment conditions and access to social support for informal workers, especially those in the most vulnerable categories such as home-based and domestic workers;

C. increase the representation of women in decision-making positions by:

1. encouraging measures such as voluntary targets, disclosure requirements and private initiatives that enhance gender diversity on boards and in senior management of listed companies; complementing such efforts with other measures to support effective board participation by women and expand the pool of qualified candidates; continuing to monitor and analyse the costs and benefits of different approaches – including voluntary targets, disclosure requirements or boardroom quotas – to promote gender diversity in leadership positions in private companies;
2. introducing mechanisms to improve the gender balance in leadership positions in the public sector, such as disclosure requirements, target setting or quotas for women in senior management positions; strengthening the flexibility, transparency and fairness of public sector employment systems and policies; and monitoring progress of female representation in the public sector;
3. encouraging greater participation and representation of women at all levels of politics, including in government, parliament, local authorities, and the judiciary system;

D. eliminate the discriminatory gender wage gap by: strengthening the legal framework and its enforcement for combating all forms of discrimination in pay, recruitment, training and promotion; promoting pay transparency; ensuring that the principle of equal pay for equal work or for work of equal value is respected in collective bargaining and/or labour law and practice; tackling stereotypes, segregation and indirect discrimination in the labour market, notably against part-time workers; promoting the reconciliation of work and family life;

E. promote all appropriate measures to end sexual harassment in the workplace, including awareness and prevention campaigns and actions by employers and unions;

F. reduce the gender gap in entrepreneurship activity by:

1. designing appropriate responses to gaps and market failures, including: policies to reduce barriers to women entrepreneurship, administrative burdens on firms and excessive regulatory restrictions; policies to support firm growth, internationalisation and innovation; support for

the development and implementation of awareness campaigns, training programmes, mentoring, coaching, and support networks, including professional advice on legal and fiscal matters;

2. ensuring equal access to finance for female and male entrepreneurs through actions that influence both the supply of and demand for finance by: easing access to finance for viable businesses owned by men and women; taking steps to improve the knowledge and attitudes of financial institutions; increasing awareness of finance sources and tools among women entrepreneurs; and, encouraging more women to join business angel networks or venture capital firms.

G. pay attention to the special needs of women from disadvantaged minority groups and migrant women in relation to the aims set out above;

H. reduce the gender gap in financial literacy by developing and implementing initiatives and programmes aimed at addressing women's financial literacy needs, and in particular at fostering their awareness, confidence, competencies and skills when dealing with financial issues;

I. mainstream the gender equality perspective in the design, development and evaluation of relevant policies and budgets, for example by conducting systematic gender-impact assessments and generating appropriate data and evidence to build a benchmark for future assessments as well as a compilation of best practices for governments and government agencies;

J. strengthen accountability mechanisms for gender equality and mainstreaming initiatives across and within government bodies.

The Recommendation of the OECD Council on Gender Equality in Education Employment and Entrepreneurship (OECD, 2013), was adopted by all 34 OECD Member countries, Costa Rica, Latvia and the Russian Federation.

Selected ILO Conventions and Recommendations on gender equality

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111), 1958

Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90), 1951

Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183) and Recommendation (No. 191), 2000

Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156) and Recommendation (No. 165), 1981

Part-Time Work Convention (No. 175) and Recommendation (No. 182), 1994

Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189) and Recommendation (No. 201), 2011

Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202)

Annex 3: Additional indicators on gender gaps in opportunities and labour market outcomes

Annex Table A3.1 presents additional indicators on labour market outcomes for men and women as well as childcare enrolment rates, gender gaps in the population that holds an account/loan with financial institutions and information on attitudes on employment when jobs are scarce. For most of these indicators data are presented for 2000 as well as the most recent year.

Annex Table A3.2 presents indications on educational attainment and performance by gender.

Annex Table A.3.3 Indicators on accounts with and loans from formal financial institutions.

Annex Table A3.1: Indicators on male and female labour market outcomes

	Labour force participation rate, 15-64 years ^a				Employment / population ratio, 15-64 years ^a				Incidence of part-time employment ^b , 15+ years				Proportion of youth not in education, employment and training (NEET), 15-24 years ^c				Incidence of senior managers ^d , 15+ years				Gender pay gap ^e , 15+ years	
	2012 ^f		2000 ^g		2012 ^f		2000 ^g		2012		2000 ^h		2011		2000		2011 ⁱ		2000		2011 ^j	2000
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women		
Argentina	80.9	56.1	75.9	51.1	14.0	38.8	13.7	22.4
Australia	82.5	70.4	82.5	65.4	78.1	66.6	77.1	61.4	13.1	38.4	11.7	38.8	8.9	10.9	8.4	11.7	12.8	9.0	13.8	8.6	16.0	17.2
Brazil	83.3	60.8	84.7	58.3	79.3	55.7	78.2	51.3	9.7	24.6	8.8	28.4	14.0	23.6	5.5	4.2	4.7	3.5
Canada	81.6	74.3	81.9	70.4	75.2	69.2	76.2	65.6	11.8	26.6	10.4	27.2	12.3	10.3	11.8	12.1	11.3	7.1	11.7	7.5	19.2	23.9
China^p	84.3	70.3	87.8	76.7	82.0	68.0	84.6	73.8	2.5	0.6	7.5	12.9
European Union^q	77.9	65.5	77.0	60.0	69.6	58.5	70.6	53.6	8.2	29.2	5.9	27.5	12.5	13.3	7.5	4.2	10.6	5.8	12.2	17.0
France	75.4	66.7	75.3	62.5	68.0	60.0	68.8	54.8	5.9	22.4	5.5	24.9	13.1	14.2	11.0	13.3	8.6	6.2	8.8	5.8	14.1	14.6
Germany	82.4	71.7	78.9	63.3	77.6	68.0	72.9	58.1	8.7	37.8	4.8	33.9	7.9	9.1	9.9	12.8	6.4	3.2	7.4	3.6	16.5	20.6
India	78.8	27.2	82.3	34.1	76.1	26.1	78.7	32.7	14.7	57.0
Indonesia	85.0	52.5	82.8	56.5	80.0	49.0	78.0	53.0	2.1	1.0	16.6	..
Italy	75.0	54.2	74.3	46.3	67.5	47.8	68.2	39.6	7.5	32.3	5.7	23.4	19.5	20.9	19.7	22.2	5.0	2.4	5.9	1.7	10.6	7.4
Japan	84.3	63.4	85.2	59.6	80.3	60.7	80.9	56.7	10.3	34.5	8.6	30.9	9.4	10.9	27.4	33.9
Korea	77.6	55.2	77.1	52.0	74.9	53.5	73.1	50.0	6.8	15.0	5.1	9.8	17.2	14.6	3.6	0.5	3.6	0.3	37.5	40.4
Mexico	83.0	47.8	84.7	41.0	78.9	45.3	82.8	39.6	13.7	28.8	7.1	25.6	11.5	34.0	6.9	37.2	2.2	1.6	2.7	1.6
Russian Fed.	78.1	68.2	75.9	66.2	73.6	64.7	67.6	59.3	2.9	5.4	4.9	10.0	8.6	5.3
Saudi Arabia	78.8	21.0	73.5	16.8	76.5	16.7	70.8	15.5	6.5	12.9
South Africa	61.7	48.3	66.0	52.9	47.5	34.9	50.7	38.1	4.8	11.7	27.7	32.7	9.3	5.1
Spain	81.3	68.8	80.4	52.9	61.0	51.3	72.7	42.0	6.1	22.9	2.6	16.5	21.9	20.4	9.9	13.9	6.3	3.3	8.5	6.7	10.6	..
Turkey	75.8	32.3	76.9	28.0	69.2	28.7	71.7	26.2	6.7	24.2	5.7	19.3	20.7	43.2	20.6	55.4	10.5	2.9
United Kingdom	83.2	71.0	84.1	68.9	76.1	65.7	78.9	65.6	12.2	39.4	8.6	40.8	13.9	15.2	9.6	13.8	12.5	7.5	18.3	11.5	18.2	26.3
United States	78.8	67.6	83.9	70.7	72.3	62.2	80.6	67.8	8.7	18.3	7.7	18.0	11.9	13.9	8.6	12.7	16.3	13.9	17.8	23.1

Annex Table A.3.1: Indicators on male and female labour market outcomes (continued)

	Gender gap ^k in the share of employment in key sectors			Incidence of voluntary part-time employment ^b		Incidence of entrepreneurs ^l		Incidence of informal employment ^m		Preschool enrolment rate among children aged 3-5 years
	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Female level	Gender gap	Female level	Gender gap	Female level	Gender gap	
	2012	2012	2012	2012	2012	2012 ⁿ	2012 ⁿ	2012 ^o	2012 ^o	2010
Argentina	0.5	23.8	-24.5	2.6	2.2	49.6	0.2	72.8
Australia	2.0	22.3	-24.3	27.9	-20.1	1.6	1.1	80.1
Brazil	7.4	17.4	-25.0	2.7	2.9	45.9	-6.7	57.9
Canada	2.0	21.5	-23.3	19.5	-11.0	2.6	4.3	47.3
China	35.7	-5.6	..
European Union^q	1.8	22.7	-24.4	2.4	3.6	82.6
France	2.0	21.8	-23.8	15.9	-11.6	2.2	4.1	101.1
Germany	0.8	26.0	-26.8	33.0	-26.1	2.5	4.2	93.9
India	-16.8	5.3	11.5	84.7	-1.4	..
Indonesia	1.4	6.3	-7.7	72.9	-0.6	29.6
Italy	1.9	23.7	-25.6	18.2	-14.4	3.8	4.7	95.7
Japan	0.1	18.4	-18.5	28.1	-19.5	0.9	2.3	90.3
Korea	-0.5	7.7	-7.2	3.2	5.1	83.1
Mexico	15.6	12.9	-28.7	2.4	3.4	57.8	-7.0	88.9
Russian Fed.	3.8	19.3	-23.1	5.0	-2.3	10.9	2.4	74.5
Saudi Arabia	5.1	26.6	-31.7
South Africa	2.5	22.1	-24.6	3.1	4.7	36.8	-7.3	..
Spain	3.4	21.4	-25.2	9.0	-7.5	3.5	3.4	99.3
Turkey	-19.4	15.8	3.6	1.3	5.3	32.6	-2.5	27.0
United Kingdom	0.9	21.1	-22.3	34.5	-25.8	1.4	2.0	93.3
United States	1.5	17.9	-20.2	16.4	-8.9	1.1	3.2	66.5

.. no data available.

a) Data refer to persons aged 15+ for India, Indonesia and Saudi Arabia.

- b) Incidence of part-time employment refers to the proportion of employed persons who work part-time, based on a 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job. For Saudi Arabia the data refer to actual hours worked based on a 35-hour cut-off.
- c) Data based on a population weighted average of NEET rates for persons aged 15-19 and 20-24 years.
- d) Data refer to legislators, senior officials and managers - corresponding to category 1 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations 08 (ISCO-08).
- e) The gender wage gap is defined as the men minus female median wages as a proportion of the men median wages. The data refers to mean wages for employees only, for China (Hong Kong) and Indonesia.
- f) Data refer to 2010 for Japan.
- g) Data refer to 2001 for Brazil and South Africa.
- h) Data refer to 2001 for Australia and Brazil; 2002 for Japan.
- i) Data refer to 2010 for Turkey; 2008 for Australia, Canada, Indonesia, Mexico, the Russian Federation, South Africa, the United States; 2007 for Brazil; 2005 for China.
- j) Data refer to 2010 for France, Italy and Turkey and 2008 for the Russian Federation.
- k) The gender gap is defined as the level for men minus the level for women.
- l) The incidence of entrepreneurs refers to the percentage of employed persons who are employers.
- m) Incidence of informal employment is generally higher among women than men, thus resulting in a negative gender gap.
- n) Data refer to 2011 for Canada, Korea and South Africa; 2009 for Brazil.
- o) Data refer to 2010 for China, the Russian Federation and South Africa; 2009 for Argentina, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Mexico and Turkey.
- p) Data refers to Hong Kong for gender wage gap
- q) Data refer to an unweighted EU21 average for indicators on the incidence of senior managers, gender pay gap, incidence of entrepreneurs; and an unweighted EU27 average for indicator on childcare enrolment.

Sources: OECD Employment database; OECD Education database; OECD Skills Outlook; ILOSTAT (version March 2014); ILO Short-term Indicators of the Labour Market Database (version March 2014); OECD Gender Data Portal; OECD Family database; and, the World Value Survey - latest available year (2003-2012)

Annex Table A3.2: Indicators of male and female educational attainment and performance

	OECD PISA programme reading performance				OECD PISA programme mathematics performance				Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary education ^a , 25-34 years				Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary education ^a , 25-64 years				Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to women in engineering ^b	
	2012		2000		2012		2003		2011		2000		2011		2000		2011 ^c	2000
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women		
Argentina	377	414	393	437	396	382	12.0	15.3	33.5	..
Australia	495	530	513	546	510	498	527	522	38.3	51.0	27.7	35.0	34.6	42.0	26.1	28.8	24.6	21.5
Brazil	394	425	388	404	401	383	365	348	10.6	14.7	10.2	12.9	m	m	30.2	..
Canada	506	541	519	551	523	513	541	530	48.8	64.6	43.3	53.6	46.3	56.3	37.7	42.5	23.1	22.7
China^d	557	581	616	610	4.1	3.0	13.5	..
European Union^e	468	511	493	485	30.2	41.1	21.5	25.9	26.5	30.5	19.8	19.7	28.0	23.2
France	483	527	490	519	499	491	515	507	38.7	47.2	28.9	33.8	28.0	31.4	21.1	22.0	30.4	23.8
Germany	486	530	468	502	520	507	508	499	25.7	29.7	24.0	20.4	30.2	24.9	28.6	18.3	22.1	19.6
India
Indonesia	382	410	360	380	377	373	362	358	8.1	6.9
Italy	471	510	469	507	494	476	475	457	16.4	25.6	9.3	11.7	13.4	16.4	9.9	9.4	33.0	..
Japan	527	551	507	537	545	527	539	530	55.1	62.5	46.3	49.4	46.8	45.9	36.6	30.6	11.2	8.9
Korea	525	548	519	533	562	544	552	528	60.6	67.2	40.3	33.4	44.8	35.9	29.9	17.9	23.8	23.3
Mexico	411	435	411	432	420	406	391	380	22.7	22.4	19.0	16.1	19.4	15.5	17.9	11.9	28.9	22.2
Russian Fed.	455	495	443	481	481	483	473	463	49.6	63.3	46.0	60.1	30.2	..
Saudi Arabia	15.0	14.8	7.5	0.9
South Africa	12.2	13.8	6.6	5.6	27.7	..
Spain	474	503	481	505	492	476	490	481	34.4	44.1	31.1	37.2	30.3	32.8	23.4	21.8	32.1	27.0
Turkey	453	499	452	444	430	415	19.9	17.8	9.8	7.9	15.7	12.1	9.6	6.7	29.8	24.2
United Kingdom	487	512	500	488	45.4	48.5	30.4	27.5	39.1	39.8	26.7	24.5	22.6	19.6
United States	482	513	490	518	484	479	486	480	38.2	48.1	36.1	40.0	40.3	44.6	36.9	36.1	21.8	21.2

.. no data available.

a) Tertiary education refers to all type-A and type-B programmes.

b) Tertiary degrees in engineering refer to degrees in engineering, manufacturing and construction.

c) Data for Argentina refer to 2010.

d) Data refer to Shanghai for indicators on OECD PISA programme performance.

e) Data refer an un-weighted EU27 average for indicators on OECD PISA programme performance, and an un-weighted EU21 average for indicators on tertiary attainment and qualifications.

Sources: OECD Education database; OECD PISA Programme Assessment (version March 2014).

Annex Table A.3.3: Indicators on accounts with and loans from formal financial institutions

	Proportion of the population that have an account at a formal financial institution, 15+ years		Proportion of the population that have taken a loan formal financial institution in the past year, 15+ years	
	Female level	Gender gap ^a	Female level	Gender gap ^a
	2011	2011	2011	2011
Argentina	31.8	2.8	7.8	-2.6
Australia	98.6	1.0	15.3	3.7
Brazil	51.0	10.1	6.1	0.4
Canada	97.2	-3.0	17.8	5.1
China	60.0	7.6	6.1	2.2
France	96.6	0.9	17.4	2.9
Germany	98.7	-1.2	10.9	3.3
India	26.5	17.2	6.7	1.9
Indonesia	19.2	0.8	8.2	0.8
Italy	64.3	14.8	3.2	3.1
Japan	96.8	-0.9	3.5	5.3
Korea	93.1	-0.1	12.9	7.6
Mexico	22.0	11.2	6.7	1.8
Russian Fed.	47.7	1.1	7.4	0.6
Saudi Arabia	15.2	57.5	1.4	1.4
South Africa	51.0	5.4	6.5	4.9
Spain	91.7	3.5	9.7	3.9
Turkey	32.7	49.4	2.4	4.2
United Kingdom	97.7	-0.9	11.2	1.3
United States	84.1	7.9	18.3	3.8

a) The gender gap is defined as the level for men minus the level for women.

Source: World Bank (2012), Global Financial Inclusion (Global Findex) Database

Annex 4: Examples of good practice in gender equality policy.

This Annex present some examples of good policy practice, in line with the categorisation of policy areas as in section 3 of this note. However, this can only serve as a broad guidance as policies often cover different areas.

Measures to eliminate unequal treatment of men and women in the labour market

Statutory labour legislation provides for a maternity leave duration of at least 14 weeks paid at two-thirds of previous earnings by social security (as called for by the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No.183) in **China, Turkey and Japan**. Domestic workers are statutorily covered for paid maternity leave in **Argentina, Brazil and South Africa**. In **Spain**, social security legislation specifically includes casual, seasonal and self-employed workers within the scope of maternity benefits. Self-employed workers are also mandatorily covered for maternity cash benefits in **Brazil**.

Labour legislation guarantees the right to return to work to the same or an equivalent position paid at the same rate after maternity leave, for example, in **Canada, Korea and the United States**. In **France**, the 2014 law on equality between women and men establishes that employers cannot terminate the employment contract of a male employee during the four weeks following the birth of a child. “Sex”, “pregnancy” and “family responsibilities” are explicitly given as prohibited grounds of discrimination in the legislation of **Australia, France, Italy and Korea**. The burden for proving that reasons for dismissal are unrelated to maternity rests on the employer, for instance, in the legislation of **Argentina, Germany and Turkey**.

Statutory labour legislation protects pregnant and nursing workers and children from hazardous and unhealthy work, and in some countries these arrangements allow for employees to be temporarily re-assigned or work contents to be adjusted for medical reasons, as for example, in **France, Japan and Spain**. **Italy, Mexico, the Russian Federation** also have statutory provisions for working time arrangements facilitating nursing/breastfeeding. **Korea and Turkey** provide time off with pay for prenatal medical examinations.

Many countries have institutional arrangements which facilitate the request to work part-time for family reasons, and among G20 countries **France** and **Germany** also grant the right to revert back to full-time working hours for such part-time workers.

In **Indonesia**, equal employment opportunities guidelines were developed by the government in collaboration with social partners, which explain the principle of equal pay for men and women for work of equal value and provide guidance on how to identify discriminatory pay practices.

Measures promoting an enabling environment for gender equality in the labour market

Good education practice involves the elimination of gender discrimination and stereotyping from curricula, teaching and school practises. For example, **France** has introduced measures (including teaching tools and conferences) to promote gender equality and reduce stereotypes in education (ABCD Égalité).

In many countries, governments and businesses have implemented family-friendly policies - parental leave, childcare, out-of-school-hours care, flexible working arrangements, etc. - to help parents and children. **France** and the Nordic countries, for example, provide a continuum of publicly provided reconciliation support for parents during the early years of their child’s life, and they have been able to combine high female employment with high fertility rates, carrying a demographic dividend with

them into the future. Authorities in emerging market economies have also implemented interesting and innovative models to help informal workers reconcile work and family responsibilities. For example: **Mexico** has developed a federal day care programme for working mothers, “Programa de Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras”, which subsidises community and home-based day care to facilitate the employment of low-income mothers. The programme offers both demand- and supply-side incentives: grants for individuals and civil society organisations interested in running nurseries and subsidies to low-income mothers to enrol their children. Similarly, a large scale extension of preschool capacity in **Argentina** had positive effects on maternal labour force participation and child development. The Rio de Janeiro public day care programme in **Brazil** takes a holistic approach offering integrated social, health and educational services for children aged 0-3 living in disadvantaged areas. It helps improve female employment, knowledge about good parenting practices, but also helps to identify families and children s in need of essential services. In **South Africa**, the Expanded Public Works Programme includes social care service delivery in its definition of public works, an important innovation, which has translated into the provision of early child development services and home- and community-based care for people living with HIV. The programme provides temporary jobs, training and accreditation to caregivers, with the intent of formalizing and improving the quality of jobs in the social care sector.

One policy option towards better sharing of unpaid work is to institute leave arrangements for the exclusive use of fathers. Many countries have paternity leave for a few days up to two weeks as for example, in **France, Spain and the United Kingdom**. In a number of countries including **Germany, Italy** and from July 2014 onwards **France**, policy encourages fathers to take leave to care for young children by granting them the exclusive right to part of the paid parental leave entitlement for two months or more on a ‘use it or lose it’ basis or provide “bonus” months when couples share leave entitlements while to a varying degree providing income support during the leave period. Recent change include the inclusion of “Dad and Partner Pay” for up to two weeks, paid at the rate of the national minimum wage in the **Australia** parental leave scheme, and the introduction of paternity leave in **Argentina, Brazil and Hong Kong, China**.

In addition to gender gaps in employment participation, **women still face a glass ceiling in getting through to the top**. To increase women’s representation in decision-making positions, countries have introduced mandatory quotas, such as in **France, Italy, Spain**, target-setting as in Denmark, disclosure initiatives, as in the **United States** and monitoring.

Measures to make work pay, improve job quality and reduce informality

Women are often overrepresented in low-wage or minimum wage occupations. All G20 governments have established or are in the process of establishing minimum wages to protect women and other low-paid workers. Many G20 governments, including **China, Indonesia, Argentina and Brazil** have raised minimum wages substantially in recent years. These measures can help to address increasing concerns about inequality and rising levels of working poverty.

Initiatives providing maternity benefits, healthcare, social protection and improvement of working conditions of vulnerable female workers in the informal sector include:

- **India’s** National Rural Employment Guarantee programme requires that at least one-third of beneficiaries will be women. In practice, that goal has consistently been exceeded, with about half of all positions held by women at national level, although there is wide variation across states. The programme has benefited 50 million rural households and succeeded in bringing large numbers of women into paid work, many of them for the first time. It provides childcare, transport allowances and other support to facilitate women’s participation. The Beedi (Leaf

Cigarettes) and Cigar Workers Act and the Beedi Workers Welfare Fund Act provided social security such as healthcare, childcare and housing supports to around 4 million of vulnerable workers, and the Indian government is working to replicate the model to cover other categories of home-based workers and sectors.

- In **Mexico** the “Seguro Popular” programme provides free healthcare to more than 50 million poor people; it includes the “Healthy Pregnancy Strategy” (HPS), which provides poor women with free access to care before, during and after childbirth, covering almost 1.8 million pregnant women in 2011.
- In **Brazil**, a rural social pension scheme with 7 million beneficiaries provides income support to elderly, survivors or disabled, and maternity and work insurance coverage for workers in the agricultural sector.
- In **South Africa**, domestic workers accounts for about one-sixth of all employed women and in 2002 the domestic workers regulations under the Basic Conditions of Employment Act were introduced to set a minimum wage and lay down working conditions such as hours of work, overtime pay, salary increases, and leave entitlements, and there is some evidence to suggest that real wages have risen in response with a decline weekly working hours.
- Several countries have taken steps to improve the working conditions of domestic workers and reduce the incidence of informality among them. **India** adopted the Unorganised Workers’ Social Security Act in 2008, which includes domestic workers and provides for self-registration of workers with a view to receiving benefits. Some countries – for example **France, Canada (Quebec), Singapore and South Africa** – have introduced model contracts to facilitate the establishment and formalization of an employment relationship.
- A unique example of empowerment of poor women working in the informal economy concerns the Self-Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) in **India** with its 1.3 million members. SEWA is active in the areas of microfinance and insurance (mainly through the SEWA Bank), training and communication, but it is its work on labour issues – paralegal assistance, lobbying, health insurance, childcare, maternity benefits and pensions – is at the heart of the association. Most of the women who joined SEWA experienced improvements in earnings, marketing, and working conditions.

Measures to promote entrepreneurship

And across the G20 a range of programmes aim to help women entrepreneurs. In **India**, the TREAD Trade Related Entrepreneurship Assistance and Development (TREAD) Scheme for Women involves preferential interest rates and credit guarantee schemes for women entrepreneurs. In **Brazil**, the Individual Microentrepreneur Programme (MEI) reduces registration costs with large effects on informality among female, low-income entrepreneurs. Under the scheme, registered micro-entrepreneurs become eligible for social security and get access to low-interest credit lines in public banks. **China** has also undertaken initiatives to promote women’s self-employment through training, consulting, business guidance and some subsidies credits, which if successful could be expanded further.