Proposed indicators of gender gaps in job quality

Report by the ILO and the OECD for the 1st G20 EWG meeting under the Italian G20 Presidency
15-17 February, 2021

Executive summary

Measuring and monitoring developments in gender gaps in job quality important are important for guiding policy to tackle gender inequalities in labour market outcomes. G20 Leaders at their 2020 Summit in Riyadh called for a roadmap to ensure progress not only in reducing the gender gap in labour force participation but also in improving the quality of women's employment. Therefore, at the request of the Italian G20 Presidency, a number of indicators have been put forward in this paper that capture gender gaps in objective measures of job quality in the dimensions of earnings, labour market security and working conditions. Within these dimensions, indicators have been chosen based on the criteria of pertinece and parsimony, availability, comparability and timeliness.

These indicators generally show that across all G20 economies job quality in several dimensions is poorer for women than men on average. This is especially true in terms of the gender gap in earnings, which remains substantial in most G20 countries, especially when adjusted for compositional differences in employment. The picture is more mixed across countries for some indicators of labour market security, although the share of women in jobs with job tenure of 5 years or more is uniformly smaller than for men. Lastly, the picture in terms of working conditions is also mixed. For some indicators, such as long hours of work and job strain, job quality tends to be worse for men than women on average. However, for other indicators, such as time-related underemployment or the total time spent on paid and unpaid work, the opposite is true. As a whole, the indicators in this paper will hopefully provide countries with a guide to where policy action should be directed to reduce gender gaps in job quality.

In terms of the next steps, it is proposed to revise the paper and update the data for the indicators following comments by Delegates at the first meeting of the G20 Employment Working Group (EWG). It is also proposed based on these indicators to include a discussion of recent developments in the gender gap in job quality in the annual G20 monitoring report on Women at Work prepared by the ILO and the OECD. This will complement the discussion of progress in achieving the G20 Brisbane goal of reducing the gender gap in participation by 25% by 2025. In each annual report, further analysis could be carried out for selected indicators of the factors driving gender gaps in job quality and changes over time in these gaps. This would further help to guide policy action.

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Introduction

At their 2014 Summit in Brisbane, G20 Leaders committed to reduce the gender gap in the labour force participation rate by 25 per cent by the year 2025 compared to 2012 (the 25x25 goal). G20 Ministers of Labour further agreed on a set of key principles to improve the quality of women's employment. Indeed, better job quality for women would not only enhance their well-being but also increase their incentives to participate in the labour market and reduce the underutilisation of their skills. Moreover, G20 Leaders at their 2020 Summit in Riyadh called for a roadmap to ensure progress in reducing the gender gap in labour force participation and improving the quality of women's employment. Measuring progress in reducing gender gaps in job quality is therefore important for assessing where further policy efforts are required and for identifying possible opportunities for peer learning from successful country initiatives to reduce these gaps.

In this context, the Italian Presidency of the G20 has requested that the ILO and the OECD prepare a paper on a possible set of indicators that could be used to monitor developments across G20 economies in closing gender gaps in job quality. This paper has been prepared in response to this request. The proposed indicators, as well as the conceptual framework and criteria behind the choice of these indicators, are set out in Section 1. An overview of the results of the indicators is given in Section 2. A summary of the paper and possible next steps is given in the concluding section.

1. Selection and development of indicators

Conceptual framework for indicators

The 2015 G20 Job Quality Framework provides a natural starting point for developing indicators of gender gaps in job quality. Three key dimensions of job quality are identified: i) earnings, ii) labour market security and iii) working conditions. These three dimensions feature in the 2017 G20 Policy Recommendations to reduce gender gaps in labour force participation and pay by improving women's job quality. A key feature of this framework is to measure job quality objectively rather than subjectively. Therefore, for instance, it excludes measures such as job satisfaction, which is inherently subjective and will vary from one person to another even for two workers who may from all objective perspectives hold the same job.

Criteria for the selection of the indicators

Within this framework, the following (PACT) criteria have been used to select or develop one or more indicators for each of the three job quality dimensions:

- **Pertinent and parsimonious**. They should be directly relevant, easily interpretable and limited in number.
- **Available**. They should draw on data that are available for a large majority of the G20 economies from existing international and national data collections.
- **Comparable**. They should be internationally comparable in concept and measurement.
- **Timely**. They should be available for a recent year as well as previous years to track progress over time.

List of indicators

The proposed selection of indicators is given in Table 1, including the broad definition of each indicator. A distinction has been made between core and auxiliary indicators. In the core are indicators which are considered to be essential for guiding policy but also readily available and which would be updated on an annual basis. Auxiliary indicators comprise those which are also judged to be highly relevant for policy but which may be more difficult to obtain on a regular basis for all G20 economies and so would be updated less frequently and with a lower country overage. This list of indicators will be refined and adjusted in light

of the discussion within the G20 Employment Working Group as to their relevance and feasibility of collection.

Table 1. Proposed indicators of gender gaps in job quality

Dimension and indicator	Definition
Earnings (E)	
E1a. Unadjusted gender gap in earnings	Difference in mean hourly earnings between men and women divided by the value for men
E1b. Unadjusted gender gap in earnings	Difference in median hourly earnings between men and women divided by the value for men
E2. Gender gap in low-paid work	Gender difference in share of workers earning less than 2/3 of median earnings for all persons
Auxiliary indicators (A)	
AE1. Factor-weighted gender gap in earnings	Gender gap in mean (median) hourly earnings adjusted for gender differences in worker and job characteristics
AE2. Gender gap in labour income	Gender difference in total labour income received per head of the population aged 15-64 divided by the value for men
AE3. Parental pay gaps	Difference in mean earnings between women (men) with young children and women (men) without
Labour market security (S)	
S1. Gender gap in unemployment rate	Gender difference in overall unemployment rate
S2. Gender gap in temporary work	Gender difference in incidence of temporary employment
S3. Gender gap in informal employment	Gender difference in incidence of informal employment
S4. Gender gap in long-tenured jobs	Gender difference in share of all workers with job tenure of 10 years or more
Working conditions (W)	
W1. Gender gap in long hours of work	Gender difference in the incidence hours of work greater than 50 per week
W2. Share of women in managerial and leadership positions	Share of women employed in managerial and leadership occupations (ISCO-08 Group 1)
W3. Gender gap in self-employment	Gender difference in incidence of self-employment
W4. Employment gap for women associated with young children	Difference in employment rate between women aged 25-54 with young children (aged 0-5) and those without
W5. Gender gap in time-related underemployment	Gender difference in incidence of time-related underemployment
Auxiliary indicators (A)	
AW1. Gender gap in job strain	Gender difference in the incidence of job strain (i.e., where job demands are excessive relative to the resources available to cope with those demands)
AW2. Share of women managers with and without children under 6 years of age	Share of women aged 25-54 years employed in managerial and leaderships occupations (ISCO-08 Group 1) with and without children under 6 years of age
AW3. Gender gap in time spent on paid and unpaid work	Gender difference in the total time spent in paid and unpaid work.
AW4. Gender gap in very short hours of work	Gender difference in the incidence hours of work lower than 15 per week

Source: ILO and OECD.

Earnings (E). The proposed core indicators in this dimension of job quality are intended to capture the overall gender gap in average earnings as well as gender differences in earnings inequality, which also influence the well-being of workers through social status effects and perceptions of fairness. There is no

single ideal summary measure of the gender gap in the level of earnings (see Box 1). Two alternatives are proposed as core measures for the unadjusted gender gap in earnings (**E1a** and **E1b**). As discussed in Box 1, the ILO and OECD would recommend keeping the gender gap in median earnings (**E1b**) as the preferred measure if a choice has to be made between the two indicators. In addition, it is proposed to include an auxiliary measure called the factor-weighted gender pay gap (**AE1**), which takes into account the composition of workers by one or more factors such as age, education, working time and institutional sector of work. Gender differences in earnings inequality are captured by gender differences in low-paid work (**E2**). Finally, two additional auxiliary indicators are proposed. The gender difference in per capita labour income (**AE2**) provides a summary measure of the extent to which the combined influence of gender differences in participation in work, time spent at work and hourly earnings contribute to the difference in the total income that men and women receive on average from employment. As it is a constructed variable and not generally published by each country's national statistical authority, it is proposed to include it as an auxiliary indicator. The other auxiliary indicator (**AE3**) captures the extent to which there is a gendered wage penalty to parenthood that policy may need to address. Again, this is proposed as an auxiliary variable since it is not readily available on an annual basis for all countries and needs to be constructed from more detailed data.

Box 1. Measuring gender gaps in earnings

It is not straightforward to measure gender gaps in earnings by any one summary measure. The ideal indicator should measure the extent to which women are equally rewarded as men for the value of what they produce from their work.

One implication is that gender differences in working time need to be taken into account. Women may earn less than men because they work fewer hours. Thus, earnings should be measured ideally on an hourly or a full-time equivalent basis.

A choice also needs to be made on how to summarise the average earnings of men and women. The simple mean of the earnings distribution (total earnings of all workers divided by the total number of workers) is one common measure that is widely available. This is the basis of the indicator E1a. However, as is usually the case, a relatively small number of workers with very high earnings may result in a higher mean wage relative to what most workers actually earn. The median wage provides an alternative summary measure that avoids this problem by taking the level of earnings for each gender where half of the workers earn less than this and half earn more. This is the basis for the indicator E1b.

Compositional effects also matter. For example, if relatively few women participate in paid work and they tend to be more highly educated on average than the men who are working, this could result in a negative gender gap in earnings, i.e. women may on average earn more than men. However, it may still be the case that there are considerable gender gaps when earnings are compared for women and men with the same level of qualifications. Therefore, it is proposed to include the factor-weighted gender gap in earnings (AE1) as an auxiliary indicator, which takes into account these compositional effects that often disguise the extent of gender gaps in earnings for similar jobs. Various factors can be taken into account when constructing this indicator. For example, based on the human capital theory of workers' productivity reflecting experience (age) and education, it can be constructed as a weighted average of the gender earnings gaps for workers grouped by age categories and levels of education. See (ILO, 2018) for a more detailed description and examples of its application.

Labour market security (S). The well-being of workers will also be affected by the extent to which their jobs provide a secure form of employment. Gender gaps in job security can be captured by a range of proxy indicators. The most widely available is the gender gap in the unemployment rate (**S1**), which captures both the risk of unemployment and its likely duration. Open unemployment provides only one indicator of job stability and may not fully capture gender differences if women are more likely than men to

enter inactivity rather than unemployment following job loss. Alternatively, job stability can be captured by characteristics of the job itself such as contract status which may make it inherently unstable. Therefore, it is proposed to include two indicators for gender differences in the incidence of temporary work (**S2**) and informal employment (**S3**). Workers in informal employment are also likely to be less covered by social protection schemes than those in formal employment, which provides an additional reason to monitor gender gaps in the incidence of informal work. Another indicator of job stability that can be readily calculated for most G20 countries is the gender gap in the incidence of long-tenured jobs (**S4**).

Working conditions (W). The quality of the working environment is another key factor driving well-being at work. The OECD has developed a summary measure of job strain to capture the quality of working conditions based on answers by workers to questions about objective aspects of their work environment (e.g. exposure to chemical hazards or the possibility to change the order of their tasks) (see OECD, 2014). Job strain occurs there are high job demands, such as time pressure or physical health risk factors, combined with insufficient job resources to accomplish the required job duties, such as work autonomy and social support at work. However, this measure is not available on an annual basis and not for all G20 countries and therefore it is proposed to include it as an auxiliary indicator (**AW1**) rather than as a core indicator. Instead, a number of other measures are put forward as core indicators to capture different facets of gender gaps in the quality of the working environment. Working very long hours of work can lead to job strain and so a core indicator is included on the gender gap in long hours of work (**W1**). However, this does not take into account gender differences in time pressures arising from the combination of paid and unpaid work, which are captured in the proposed auxiliary indicator AW2. This indicator is not included as a core indicator since, typically, it is only measured infrequently. The indicator on the share of women in managerial and leadership positions (**W2**) is intended to capture gender differences in access to high social status jobs that also generally involve greater work autonomy. An auxiliary indicator has been added for the share of women managers with and without children under 6 years of age (**AW2**), which is intended to capture the extent to which women with young children are penalised in moving into leadership roles. The gender gap in self-employment (**W3**) also provides a proxy measure of gender differences in jobs potentially involving a high-degree of work autonomy as well as flexibility in working hours. The ease of combining work and family responsibilities is proxied by the indicator of the employment gap for women associated with young children (**W4**). This is complemented by an auxiliary indicator of the gender gap in the total time spent on paid and unpaid work (**AW3**), which is captures the higher time demands that women often face which can be constraining their work choices as well as having a negative impact on their well-being. Finally, two inter-related indicators are proposed concerning shorter working hours. The gender gap in time-related underemployment (**W5**) is intended to capture gender differences in the extent to which workers are working fewer hours than they would like. The auxiliary indicator of the gender gap in very short hours of work (**AW4**) is proposed as an additional proxy indicator of time-related underemployment but also as an indicator of higher exposure of women to lower labour earnings, a higher risk of poverty, few or no benefit entitlements (e.g. paid leave or social security benefits), variable hours and unpredictable work schedules and limited opportunities for career development.

2. Developments in the gender gap in job quality

In this section, the indicators in Table 1 are used to assess developments in the gender gap in job quality across G20 economies. The indicators will be updated in further revisions of the paper.

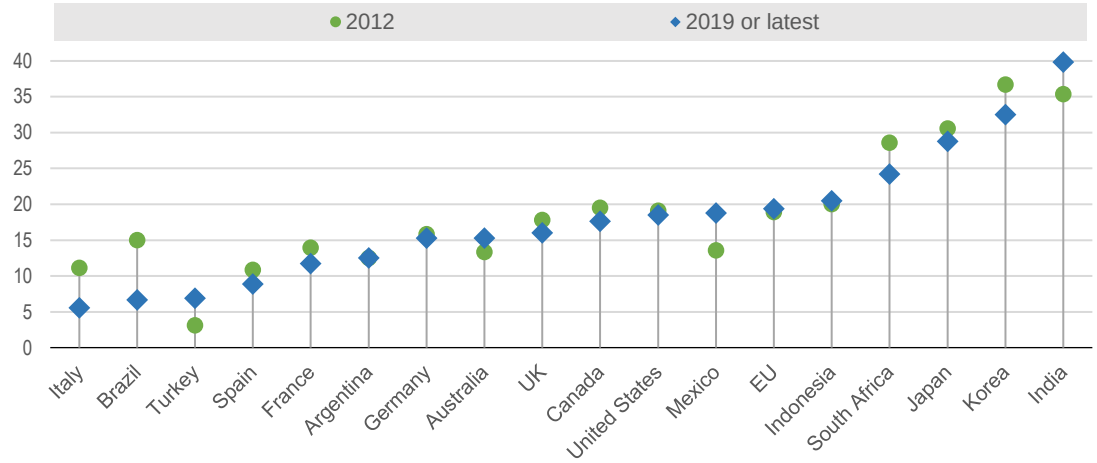
1. Earnings

On average, women continue to be paid less than men in all G20 economies when measured in terms of full-time median earnings (**E1b**) (Figure 1). In most countries, the gender gap in earnings is even larger when adjusted for gender differences in paid work by characteristics such as the level of education. This is illustrated in Figure 2 for selected European G20 economies based on mean hourly earnings. The difference between the unadjusted (**E1a**) and adjusted gaps (**AE1**) is particularly striking for Turkey: in 2014, women earned slightly more overall than men but when the earnings gap is adjusted for

compositional differences in paid work by level of education they are paid on average 18 per cent less. The adjusted gap corresponds to the weighted average of the gender gap in earnings at each level of education. Of the countries shown, the adjusted gap is smaller than the unadjusted gap only in the case of Germany. If data availability issues can be resolved, it would probably make sense to include the adjusted gender gap in earnings as a core indicator rather than an auxiliary one.

Figure 1. Gender pay gaps remain substantial

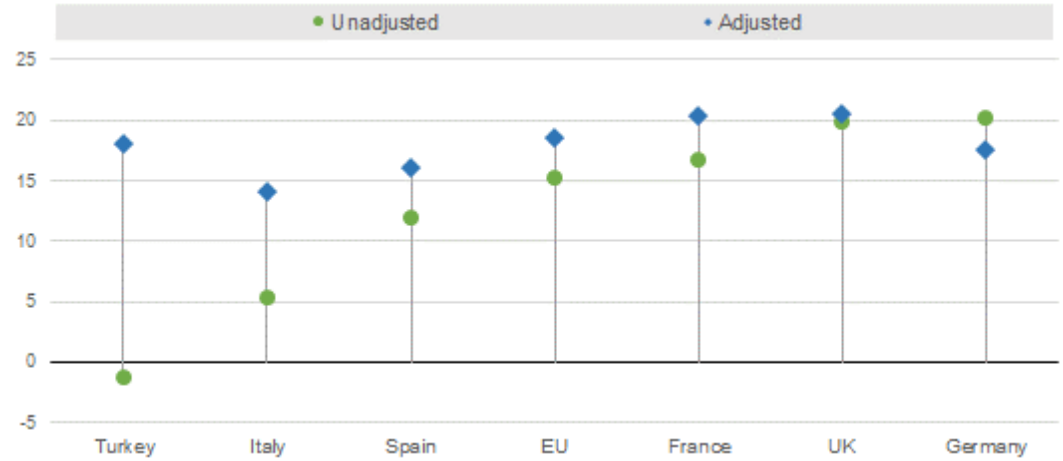
Difference in median full-time earnings between men and women as a % of the level for men, 2012 and 2019



Note: The data for 2019 refer to: 2014 for the EU and Turkey; 2015 for Brazil; 2016 for Italy; 2017 for France and Spain; and 2018 for Germany, India and South Africa. The data for 2012 refer to 2010 for the EU and Turkey, 2013 for South Africa and 2014 for Korea.
Source: OECD Earnings Distribution Database; Eurostat; and national labour force surveys.

Figure 2. The gender gap in earnings is even larger when adjusted for compositional effects

Difference in mean hourly earnings between men and women as a % of the level for men, 2018

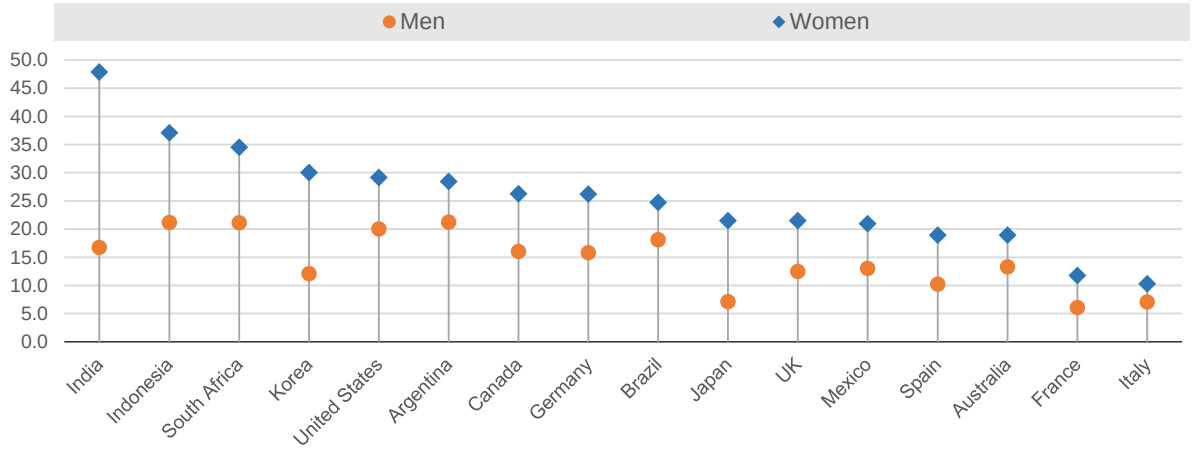


Note: The adjusted gender gap is calculated by weighting the gender difference in mean hourly earnings by broad level of education by the corresponding average of the gender shares of all employees at each level. The data refer to 2014 for Turkey.
Source: European Structure of Earnings Survey as reported in Eurostat.

Women also tend to be more clustered at the bottom of the earnings distribution than men. In all countries with data available, the incidence of low-paid work (**E2**) is much higher for women than for men (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Women are at higher risk of low pay

Share of workers by gender earning less than two-thirds of median earnings for all workers, 2018 (%)

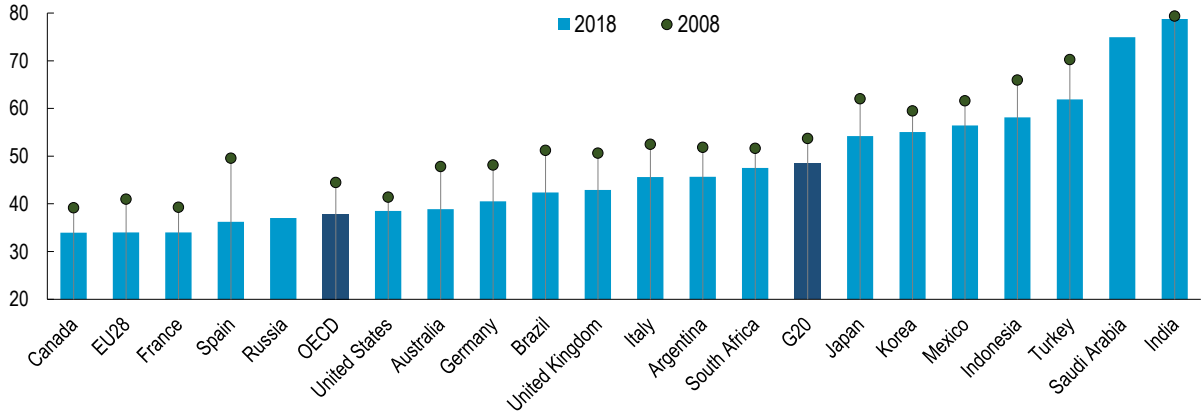


Note: The data refer to 2017 for Argentina and Indonesia, 2015 for Brazil and South Africa, and 2012 for India.
Source: OECD Earnings Distribution Database; European Structure of Earnings Survey as reported in Eurostat; and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina, Brazil, India, Indonesia and South Africa.

The combination of lower pay for women than men as well as lower employment rates and fewer hours of work translates into a substantial gender gap in annual labour income per capita (**AE2**) in all G20 economies for which data are available (Figure 4). In the G20 emerging economies where the gap is particularly large, gender differences in employment rates account for a substantial part of the gap. Nevertheless, there has been a widespread and large reduction in the gap over time, mainly driven by reductions in the gender gap in employment rates and hours worked.

Figure 4. The gender gap in total labour income is substantial in all G20 economies

Difference in total annual labour income received per capita between men and women as a % of the level for men, 2008 and 2018



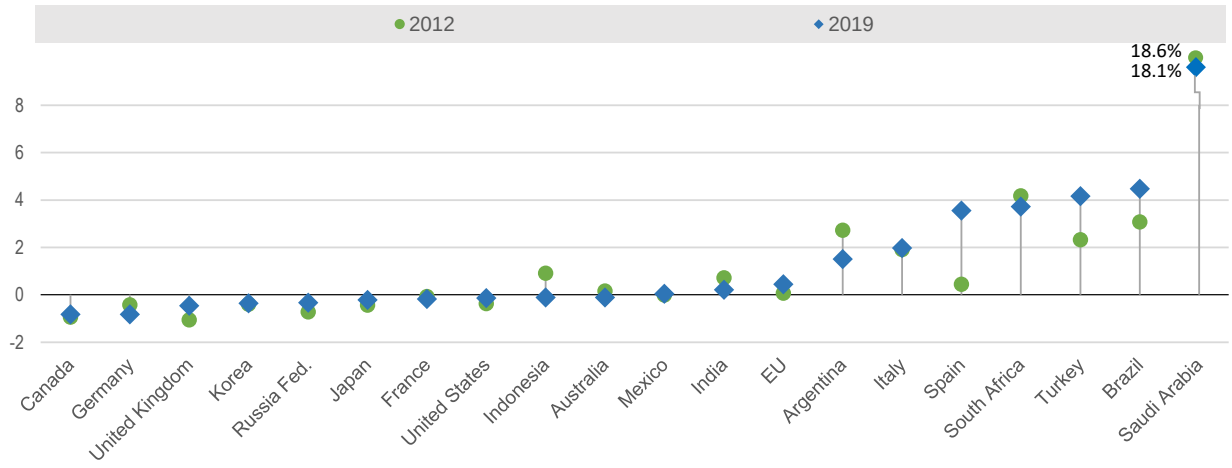
Note: The gap is calculated using the employment gap, the gap in hours worked and the gender pay gap for full-time employees for OECD countries. For non-OECD countries it is calculated using the employment gap and the gender pay gap for all employees. The data refer to 2006 and 2014 for France, Spain and Turkey; to 2006 and 2016 for Italy; to 2007 and 2017 for Germany and Japan and 2017 for Russia.
Source: OECD calculations based on data from OECD Earnings distribution database, OECD Employment Database and national labour force surveys.

2. Labour market security

For around half of G20 economies, the unemployment rate for women remains higher than for men (**S1**) (Figure 5). In several of these countries, the gap increased further between 2012 and 2019 along with a rise in the overall unemployment rate. More recently, the COVID-19 crisis led to an increase in the unemployment rate that was initially greater for women in several G20 economies than for men.

Figure 5. Gender gaps in unemployment vary across G20 economies

Difference in unemployment rate between women and men, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

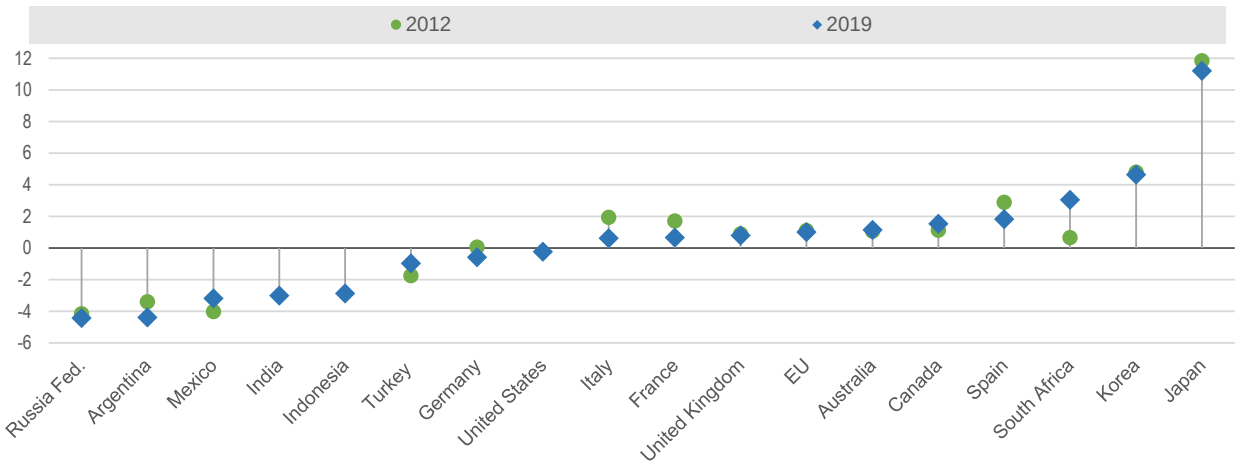


Note: The data for 2019 refer to 2018 for India.
Source: National labour force surveys.

In most G20 economies where data is available, the share of employees on temporary contracts is higher for women than for men, most notably in Japan and Korea (**S2**) (Figure 6). However, in the majority of countries, the gender gap narrowed between 2012 and 2019.

Figure 6. Temporary work is more common for women than men in many countries

Difference between women and men in the share of employees on temporary contracts, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

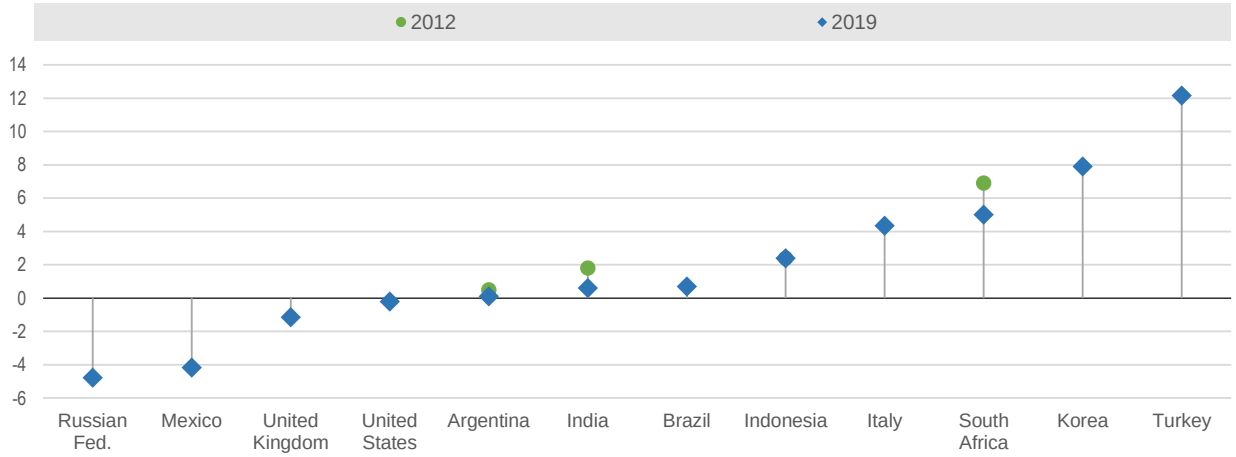


Note: The data for 2019 refer to 2017 for the United States.
Source: OECD Employment Database and ILOSTAT.

In many of the G20 emerging economies, informal employment accounts for a high proportion of the employed population. However, the gender gap in this proportion is relatively small (**S3**) (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Gender differences in the incidence of informal employment are generally small

Difference between women and men in the incidence of informal employment, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

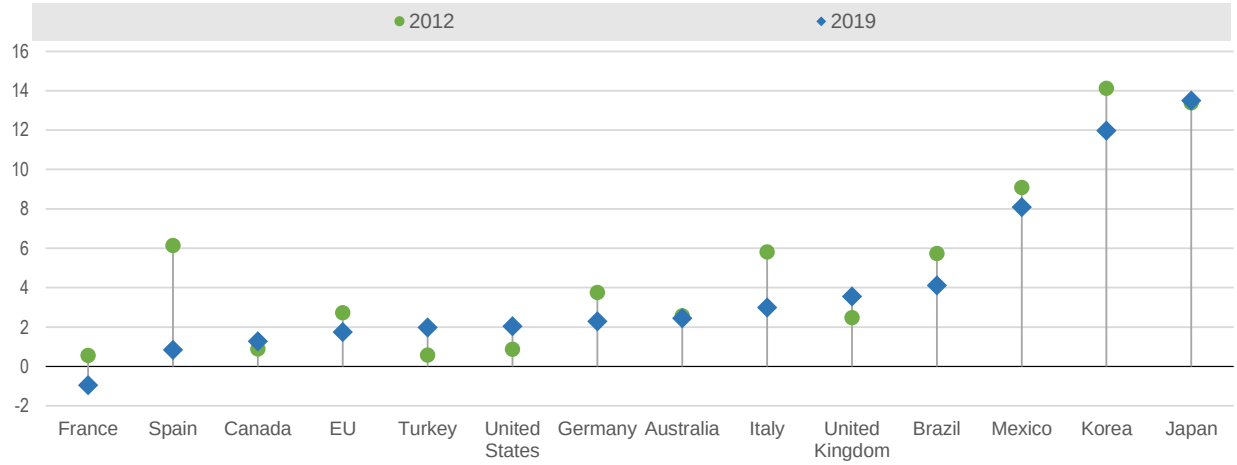


Note: The data for 2012 refer to 2016 for Indonesia.
Source: ILOSTAT.

In nearly all G20 countries, a smaller share of working women than working men have been in the same job for 5 years or more (**S4**) (Figure 8). However, there has been a widespread decline in this gap since 2012, most notably in Italy, Korea and Spain.

Figure 8. Gender gaps in long-term jobs are declining

Difference between men and women in the share of those employed with job tenure of 5 years or more, 2012 and 2019 (% points)



Note: The data for 2019 refer to: 2018 for Brazil and the United States; and 2017 for Japan.
Source: National labour force surveys.

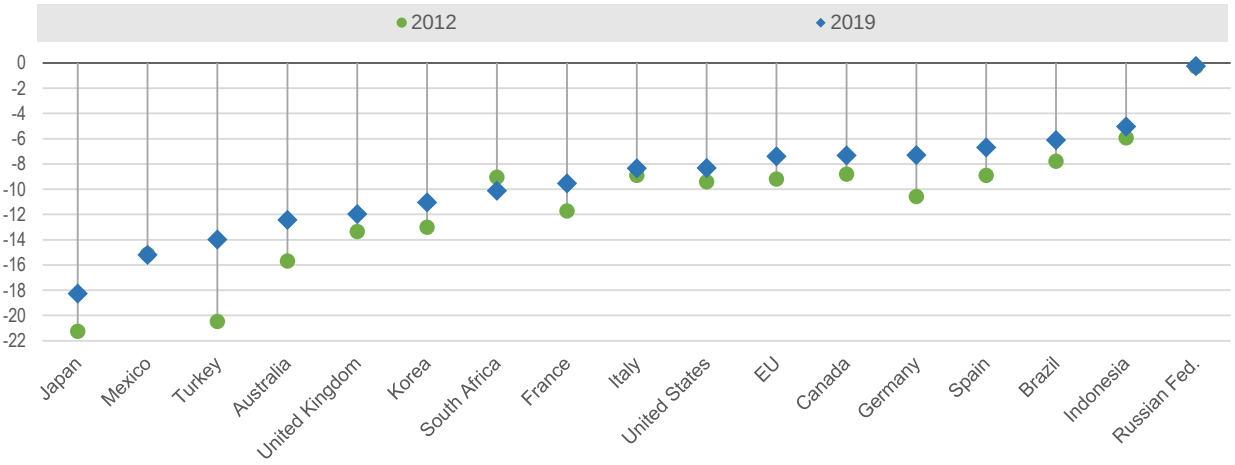
3. Working conditions

Working very long hours per week is much more common for men than for women in nearly all G20 economies, except for Russia where there is close to gender parity (**W1**) (Figure 9). Since 2012, there has

been a widespread decline in incidence of very long hours of work for both men and women, but generally somewhat more pronounced for men.

Figure 9. Very long working hours are more common for men than women

Difference between women and men in the share of those employed who usually 50 hours or more per week, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

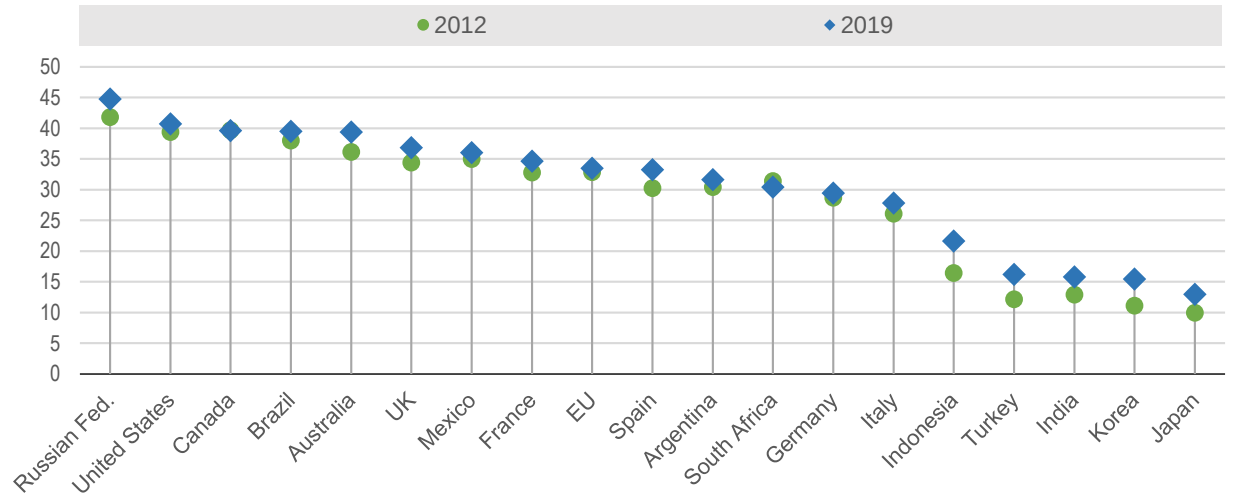


Note: The data for 2019 refer to 2017 for Indonesia.
Source: National labour force surveys.

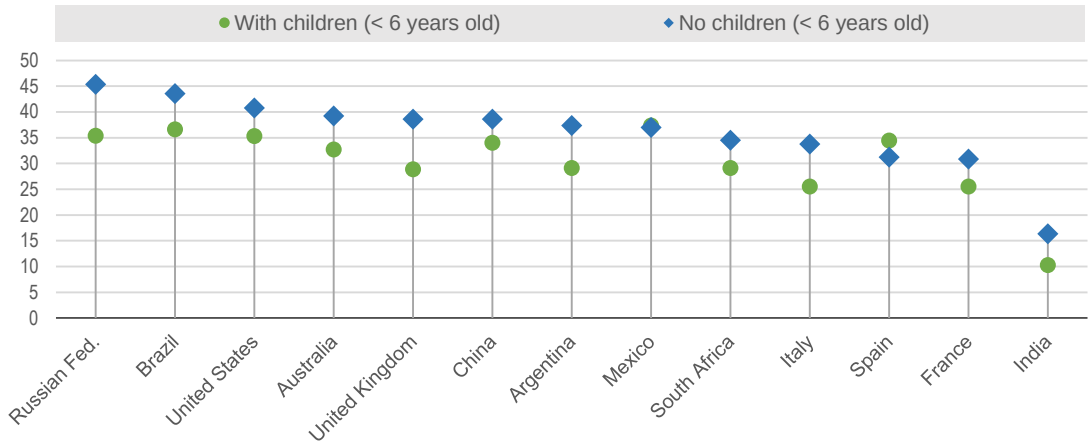
Women account less than half of all managerial jobs in all G20 countries, ranging from a high of around 40% or more in Russia and the US to around 15% or less in Korea, India and Japan (**W2**) (Figure 10). Since 2012, their share has increase in most G20 countries, notably in Indonesia. These shares are even lower among managers with young children (**AW2**) (Figure 11). Indeed, the key objective of the private sector G20 Alliance for the Empowerment and Progression of Women's Economic Representation (G20 EMPOWER Alliance), which was launched at the 2019 G20 Summit in Osaka, is to encourage the advancement of women in leadership in the private sector in each of the G20 and invited guest countries.

Figure 10. A small rise in the share of women in managerial jobs

A. Share of women in total employment in management occupations (ISCO-08 Group 1), 2012 and 2019 (%)



B. Women's share of managers (ISCO-08 Group 1) with and without young children, latest year available (%)

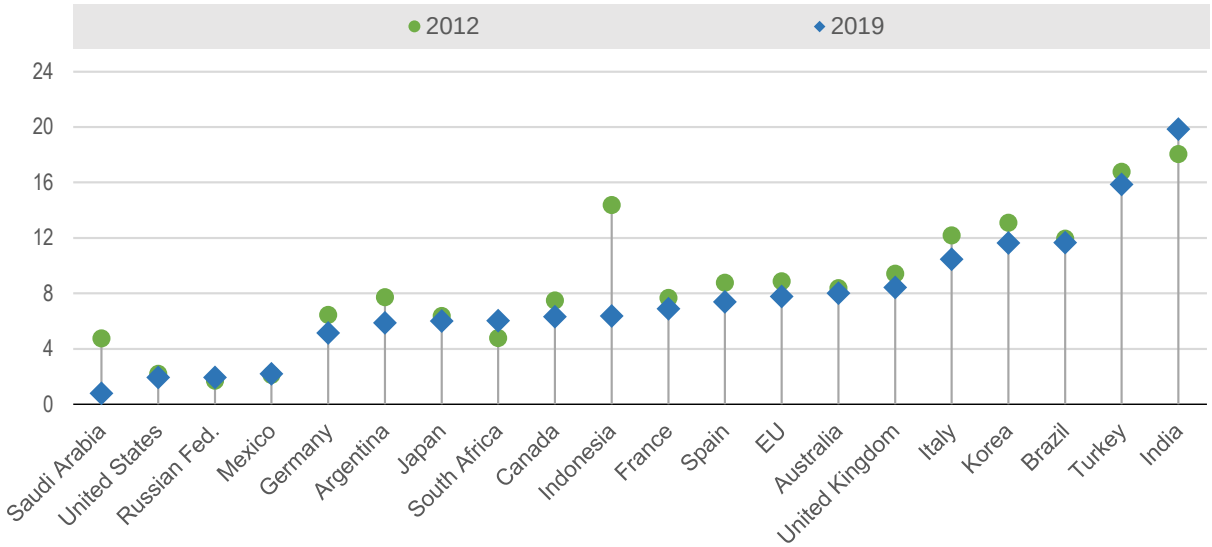


Note: In Panel A, the data for 2012 refers to 2013 for Mexico and 2014 for France. In Panel B, the data refer to: 2016 for Argentina, Brazil, France, Italy, Mexico, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States; 2014 for Russia and South Africa; 2013 for China; and 2012 for India.
Source: ILO and OECD estimates based on national household and labour force surveys

Self-employment can be another important source of jobs involving both a high degree of work autonomy and working-time flexibility. However, the share of all working women who are self-employed is lower on average across G20 economies by 7½ percentage points than the share for working men (**W3**) (Figure 11). This gap ranges from near parity in Saudi Arabia to around 20 percentage points in India. Since 2012, some progress has been made in most G20 countries in closing the gender gap in self-employment, notably in Indonesia.

Figure 11. The gender gap in self-employment is narrowing

Difference between men and women in the share of the self-employed in total employment, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

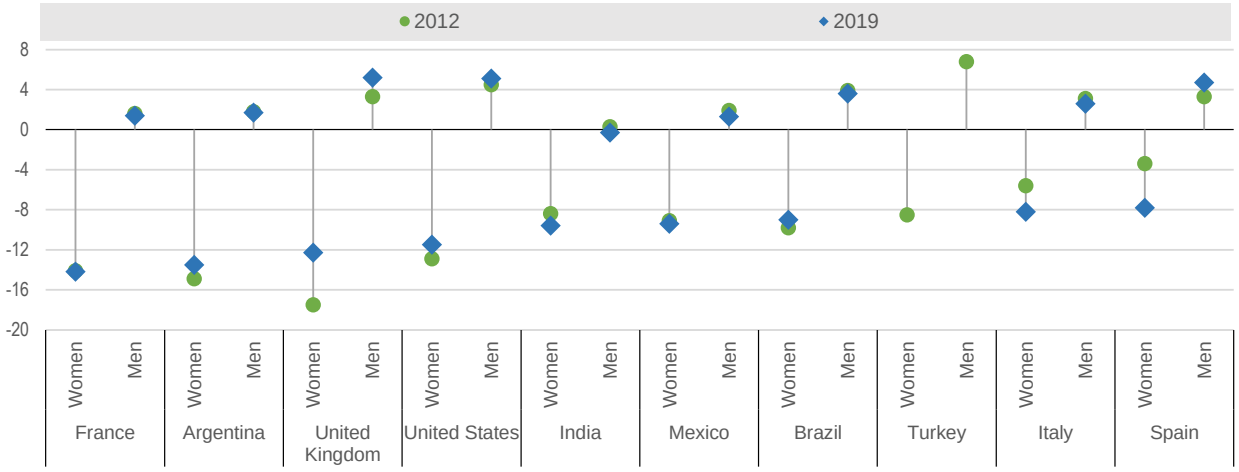


Note: The data for self-employment include own account workers. The data for Saudi Arabia refer to 2013 and 2015, respectively.
Source: ILOSTAT and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys.

The presence of young children lowers employment rates considerably for women (**W4**) (Figure 12), whereas it leaves employment rates stable or even higher for men. There has been no consistent narrowing of the gap for women across countries since 2012.

Figure 12. The presence of young children lowers employment rates for women but not for men

Difference in employment rates for parents aged 25-54 with and without children aged less than 6, women and men, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

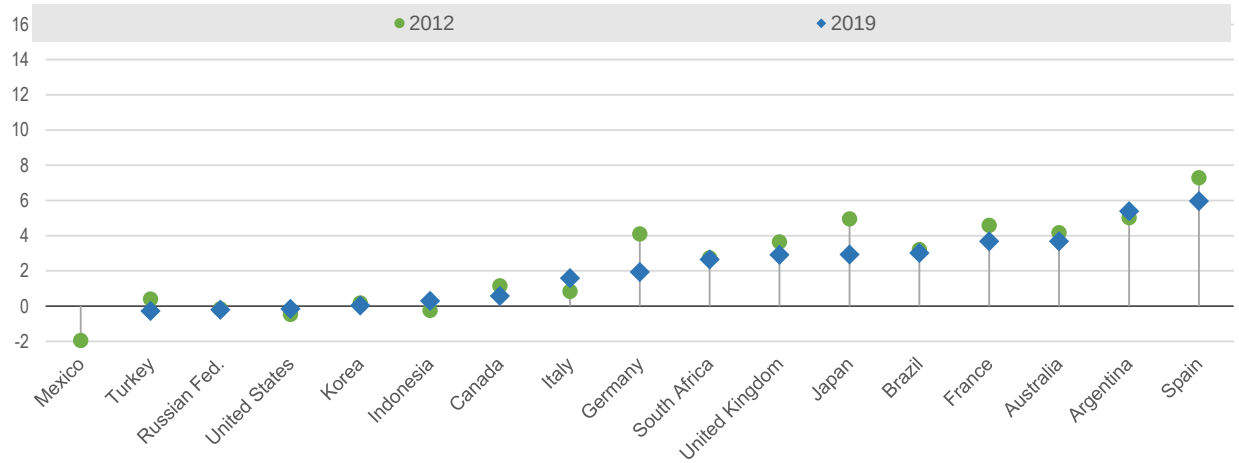


Note: The data for 2012 refer to 2011 for the United States and 2014 for Italy; and for 2019 to 2018 for India.
Source: ILOSTAT.

In most G20 economies, the share of employed women who are working fewer hours than they would like to is greater than the corresponding share for men (**W5**) (Figure 13). In most of these countries there has been some narrowing of this gap since 2012, although early evidence suggest there may have been a widening during the COVID-19 crisis.

Figure 13. Women are more likely than men to be working fewer hours than wished

Difference between men and women in the share of the labour force that is in time-related underemployment, 2012 and 2019 (% points)

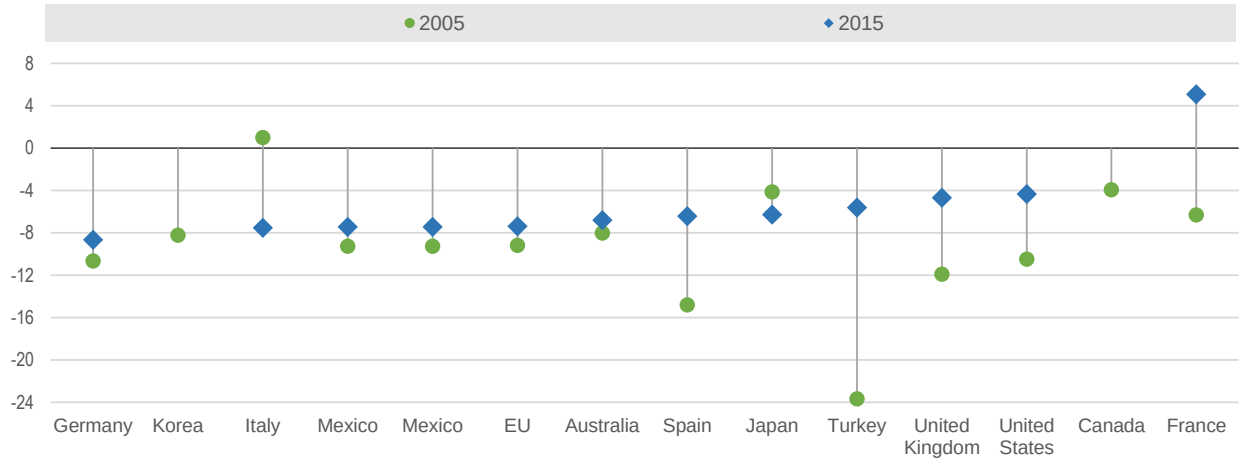


Note: The data for 2012 refer to 2015 for Korea and Indonesia; and for 2019 to 2014 for Mexico and 2016 for the Russian Federation.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Typically, across the G20 economies where data are available, men are more likely than women to be working in jobs that involve job strain, i.e. where job demands exceed the resources available to meet those demands (**AW1**) (Figure 14). Since 2005, the gender gap has generally narrowed as a result of a bigger decline in the incidence of job strain for men than for women.

Figure 14. Job strain is generally more common for men than for women

Difference between women and men in the share of the employed who are working in jobs subject to job strain, 2005 and 2015 (% points)

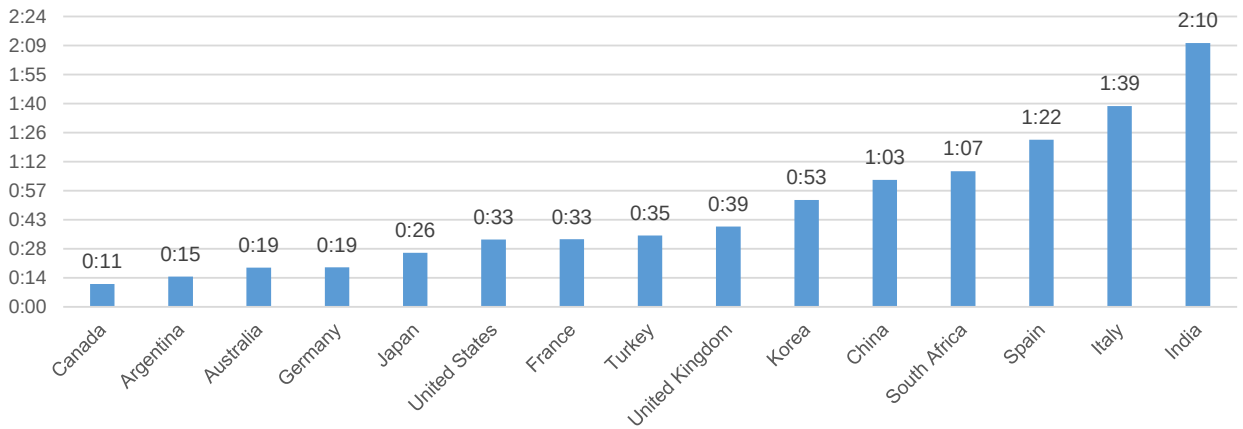


Note: Job strain refers to a situation where the job demands of a worker's job exceeds the resources available to meet those demands. No data are available for 2015 for Canada and Korea.
Source: OECD.Stat database on job quality.

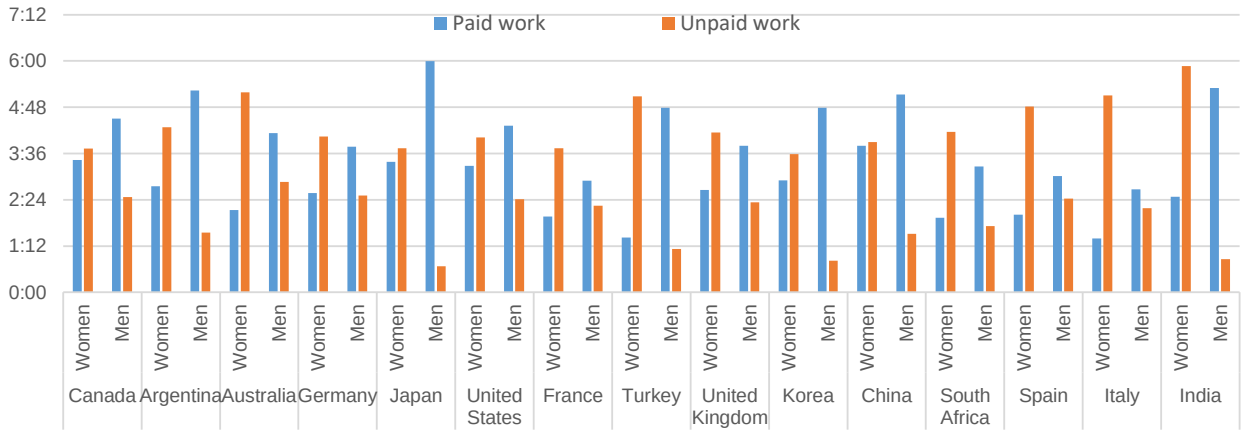
In all G20 economies where comparable data are available, women spend more time on average than men on paid and unpaid work (**AW2**) (Figure 15, Panel A). Early evidence for some countries suggests that this gap may have increased during the COVID-19 crisis. In all countries, this overall gap is the result of women spending a much greater amount of time on unpaid work than men on average which more than offsets the smaller amount of time they spend on average on paid work (Figure 15, Panel B).

Figure 15. The total time devoted to paid and unpaid work is greater for women than men

A. Difference between women and men aged 15-64 in the total daily time spent on paid and unpaid work, latest year available (hours and minutes)



B. Daily time spent on paid and unpaid work by women and men aged 15-64, latest year available (hours and minutes)

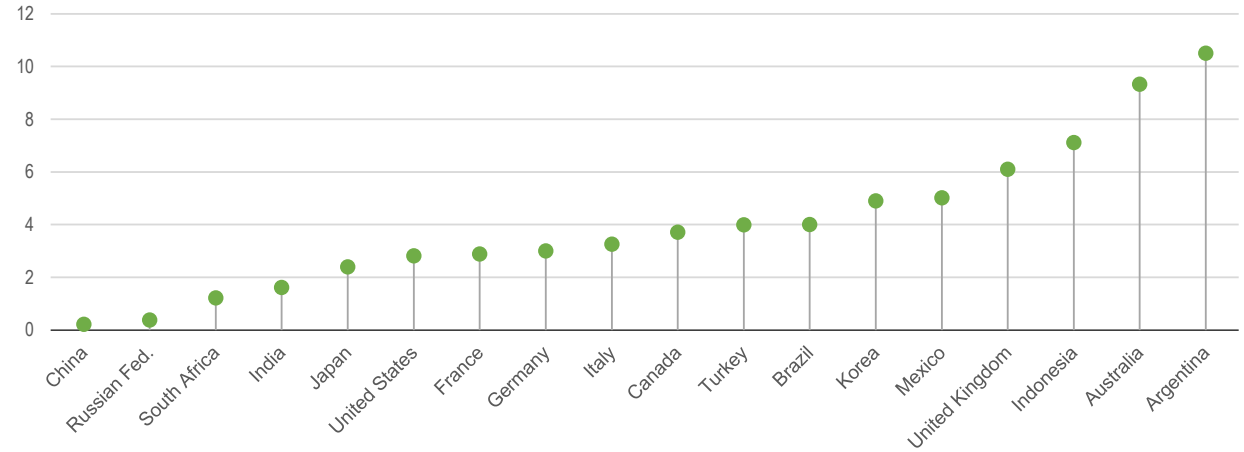


Note: The data refer to persons aged 15 and over for Australia. For each country, the year of the data is given in parenthesis: Australia (2006); Canada (2015); China (2008); France (2009/10); Germany (2012/13); India (1998/99); Italy (2013/14); Japan (2016); Korea (2014); South Africa (2010); Spain (2009/10); Turkey (2014/15); United Kingdom (2014/15); and United States (2018).
Source: OECD.Stat database on time use.

Finally, very short hours of work are more prevalent among employed women than employed men in all G20 countries where the data are available (**AW4**) (Figure 16).

Figure 16. Women are more likely than men to be working in jobs with very short hours of work

Difference between women and men in the share of the employed with usual working hours of less than 15 hours per week, 2019 (% points)



Note: The data refer to 2014 for China and 2015 for Australia, Germany and Japan.
Source: ILO.

Conclusions

Measuring and monitoring developments in gender gaps in job quality are important for guiding policy to tackle gender inequalities in labour market outcomes. Therefore, at the request of the Italian G20 Presidency, a number of indicators have been put forward in this paper that capture gender gaps in objective measures of job quality in the dimensions of earnings, labour market security and working conditions.

These indicators generally show that across all G20 economies job quality in several dimensions is poorer for women than men on average. This is especially true in terms of the gender gap in earnings, which remains substantial in most G20 countries, especially when adjusted for compositional differences in employment. The picture is more mixed across countries for some indicators of labour market security, although the share of women in jobs with job tenure of 5 years or more is uniformly smaller than for men. Lastly, the picture in terms of working conditions is also mixed. For some indicators, such as long hours of work and job strain, job quality tends to be worse for men than women on average. However, for other indicators, such as time-related underemployment or the total time spent on paid and unpaid work, the opposite is true. As a whole, the indicators in this paper will hopefully provide countries with a guide to where policy action should be directed to reduce gender gaps in job quality.

In terms of the next steps, it is proposed to revise the paper following comments by Delegates at the first meeting of the G20 Employment Working Group (EWG). The data for the indicators that are retained will be updated as part of this revision. It is also proposed based on these indicators to include a discussion of recent developments in the gender gap in job quality in the annual G20 monitoring report on Women at Work prepared by the ILO and the OECD. This will complement the discussion of progress in achieving the G20 Brisbane goal of reducing the gender gap in participation by 25% by 2025. In each annual report, further analysis could be carried out for selected indicators of the factors driving gender gaps in job quality and changes over time in these gaps. This would further help to guide policy action.

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