


Women at Work in G20 Countries:

A background paper

ILO, OECD, IMF, and World Bank

Background paper

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1. Introduction

At the 2014 Summit in Brisbane, G20 Leaders committed to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25 per cent by 2025 (the 25-25 target); G20 Ministers of Labour agreed on a set of key policy principles to improve the quality of women's employment. This Policy initiative by the G20 leadership also supports the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2015, especially Sustainable Development Goal 8 (SDG8) on inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all, which seeks to address gender inequalities at work. [1]

Recognizing that improvements in the employment and working lives of both women and men workers is the ultimate policy goal, this paper suggests that further efforts be required to benefit women so as to reduce gender gaps through upward adjustments

Two challenges stand out: 1) to maintain the steady entry of women in the labour force and 2) to enhance the quality of their work. This must happen in a context of slow and fragile economic recovery and constrained public spending in social protection in advanced G20 countries, and economic slowdown and continuing challenges in the public provisioning of social policies in some emerging G20 economies. To improve the quality of work, the *G20 Job quality framework,* adopted by the G20 in 2015, suggests a focus on: improving the quality of earnings; increasing labour market security; and better working conditions.

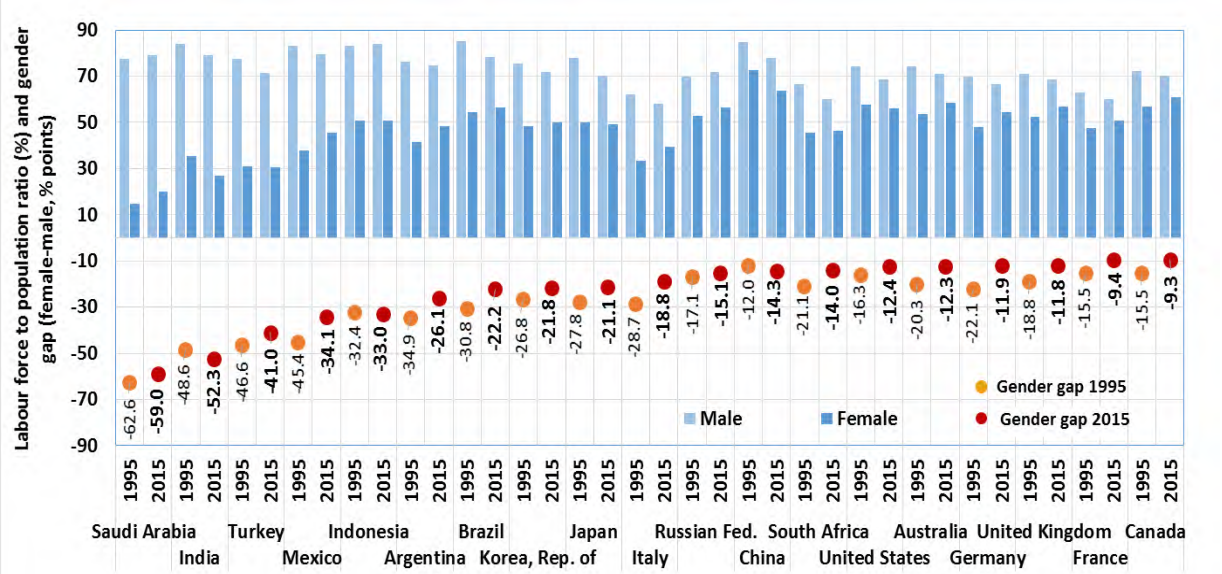
Optimal policy mixes to improve the quantity and quality of labour force participation will vary across countries according to their current situation and their policy priorities. Nonetheless, the G20 LEMM Declaration, 2014 (see Annex I) already provides an agreed set of policy principles that can be built on. To further the objective of gender equality at work, this paper first reviews progress in closing gender gaps in labour force participation (section 2) and in the quality of employment (section 3). It then reviews the main economic and social arguments in support of greater gender equality in the labour market and further examines the relevant policy challenges countries are facing in reaching these objectives (section 4). Section 5 concludes.

2. Modest and mixed progress in closing the participation gap

Overall, the gender gap in labour force participation has narrowed slightly over the past 20 years (Figure 1). This is because more women have joined (and stayed) in the labour market, but partly also because of the decline in male participation rates in many countries. Where female employment has increased, this follows increased educational attainment, improved work/life balance support systems and/or efforts to compensate the decline in household income as a result of partners' job losses (ILO 2016a; Eurofound 2016). More women also work as wage earners today and the gender gap in relation to wage and salary employment as a share of paid employment has also declined (ILO 2016a).

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

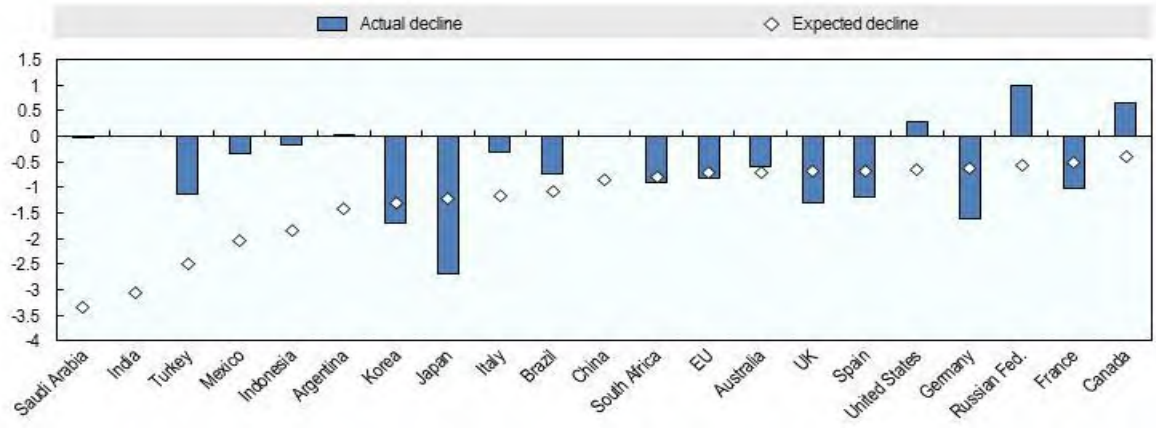
Figure 1. Labour force to population ratio by sex and gender gap in G20 countries (%, 1995-2015)



Note: Gender gap equals to the difference in labour force to population ratios between women and men (in percentage points). Population of reference aged 15 and over.
Source: ILO Key Indicators of the Labour Market 2016

Progress has also continued over the past 3 years (2012-2015), with the participation gap declining from 20.3% in 2012 to 19.6% in 2015 (figure 2)[2].Reductions were largest in Japan (2.7 percentage points), Korea (1.7 p.p.), Germany (1.6 p.p.), Australia (1.3 p.p.) and Spain (1.2 p.p.). However, in some countries, where the gender gap was small, it increased (the Russian Federation, Canada and the United States), and in others, it remained large: over 50 percentage points in Saudi Arabia and India, 42 p.p. in Turkey, 35 p.p. in Mexico and 32 p.p. in Indonesia. Clearly, despite some progress, the difference between expected versus actual progress in reducing the gender gap in participation in the past 3 years shows that substantial challenges remain to achieve the gender target by 2025 (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Actual versus expected decline in gender participation gap, 2012-2015



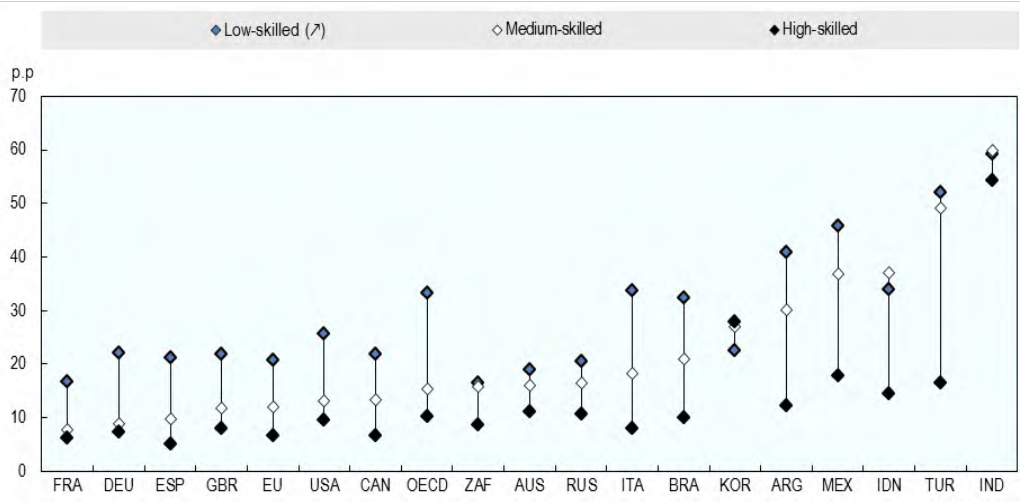
Note: The actual decline refers to the actual change in the gender gap between 2012 and 2015. The expected decline is calculated assuming a linear decline between 2012 and 2025 in the gender gap. For Argentina, the data for 2015 refer to Q2 2015. No recent

[2] The 25-25 target was adopted with reference to 2012.

data are available for India or China to calculate the actual decline in the gender gap. For China, the data for 2012 have been projected to calculate the expected decline in the gender gap.
Source: OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys.

Gender gaps in labour force participation differ by skill, age and family status. Participation gaps are smaller among the high-skilled (Figure 3) and wider among the low skilled, as opportunity costs of not participating in the labour market are bigger for workers with higher levels of education.

Figure 3. Gender gaps in labour participation are larger among lower skilled
(Percentage-point difference in labour force participation rates between men and women by level of educational attainment, people aged 25-64, 2014)*



Low skilled refers to below upper secondary education; Medium-skilled refers to Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education; and, High-skilled refers to tertiary education.
* 2010 for China; OECD is the unweighted average of 34 OECD countries; For Argentina, selected urban areas
Sources: OECD Education Database; Census data for China; and OECD estimates based on the EPH for Argentina, the NSS for India, the SAKERNAS for Indonesia, the QLFS for South Africa

Gender gaps in labour force participation also vary with age. They are lowest amongst youth and grow among older workers OECD (2016a), with gaps starting to widen around the start of parenthood, reflecting a motherhood penalty for women in the labour force. In many G20 countries, the rates of youth not in education, employment or training (NEET) are lower among female teenagers than among their male counterparts (OECD 2015a).However, female NEET rates are also relatively high in countries such as India, Indonesia, Brazil, South Africa and Mexico. This coincides with relatively high adolescent fertility rates (40 or more births per 1000 women age 15-19) (OECD 2016b forthcoming). The higher female NEET rates essentially reflect inactivity due to childcare responsibilities.

3. Gender gaps in job quality

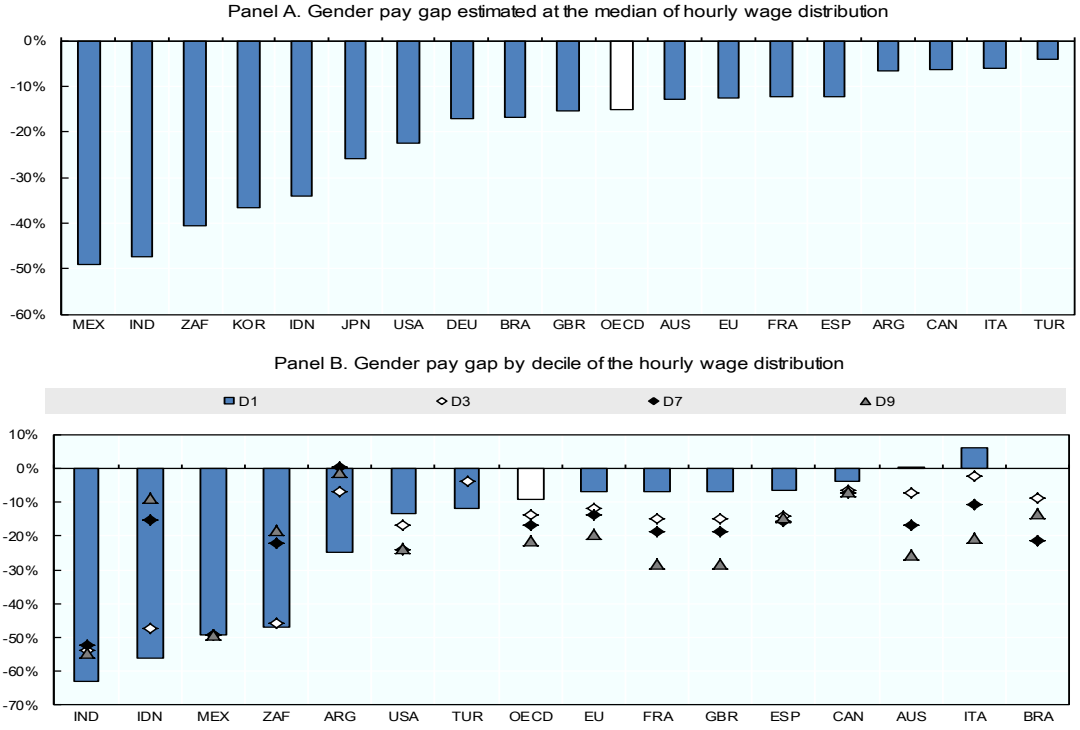
The *G20 Job Quality Framework* identifies the risk of being in low pay employment as a key indicator of labour market (in)security, as lowing paying jobs also tend to be more insecure. Women are much more likely than men to experience this risk. It also highlights the importance of non-economic aspects of job quality such as the nature and content of the work, contractual arrangements and working-time arrangements. Informal employment and non-standard forms of employment, in which women are over-represented, are typically associated with lower levels and stability of earnings, lower prospects of skills enhancement and lower social security. Working very long hours impairs workers' physical and mental health (OECD 2011), but very short hours and/or limited control of work schedules can be also important

sources of stress and anxiety for workers (ILO 2016b). Finally, the possibility for women to engage and remain in decent jobs, thereby also reducing the gender participation gap, also depends on whether they are able to reconcile work with family responsibilities and on men's willingness to share unpaid care work at home.

The quality of earnings: gender gaps in earnings and low pay

The persistent gender pay gap points to deep-rooted differences in the quality of earnings of men and women. The gender pay gap in terms of gross hourly wages, estimated at the median of the distribution, is highest in emerging economies. India, Mexico and South Africa have pay gaps above 40 per cent, which is twice as large as in most advanced G20 countries. However, at over 30 per cent at the median, gender pay gaps are substantial in Korea and Japan (Figure 4, panel A). Comparatively narrow wage gaps in Turkey are due to the small share of women in wage employment who are often more educated than their male peers.

Figure 4. Gender pay gaps are substantial across the G20



Note: Data refer to 2014 for all countries except for India (2012), Turkey (2013) and South Africa (2012).They refer to hourly wage for full-time employees (working more than 30 hour per week in the main job), except for India and South Africa for which they refer to monthly earnings of full-time employees.
Source: OECD estimates based on EU-SILC for EU countries, *Encuesta Permanente de Hogares* for Argentina, Household, Income and Labour Dynamics for Australia, Labour force Survey for Canada, *Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílio* for Brazil, National labour force survey for Korea, Labour Force Survey for Japan, National Sample Survey for India, National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas) for Indonesia, *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) for Mexico, General Household Survey for South Africa, National Labour Force Survey for Turkey and the Current Population Survey, ASEC Supplement for the United States.

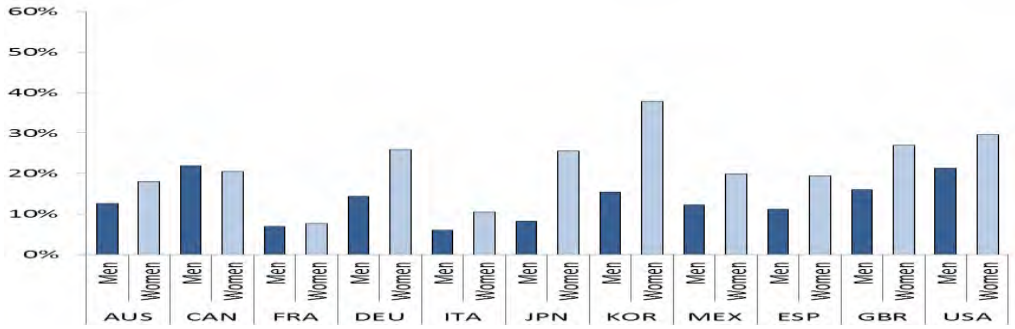
In many G20 countries, the gender pay gap is largest at the top end of the earnings distribution (Figure 4, panel B; ILO 2016d). By contrast, in India, and Mexico the large pay gaps vary little across the earnings distribution, while in Indonesia, South Africa and Argentina pay gaps become smaller along the earnings distribution.

Many factors contribute to the prevalence of gender pay gaps in favour of men in the G20, including inadequate skills and education; occupational segregation, or concentration of women in a narrower spectrum of less well-paid occupations and sectors than men; unequal sharing of parenthood responsibilities that results in interrupted working lives; women's over-representation in informal and non-standard forms of employment; and discrimination in employment and remuneration.

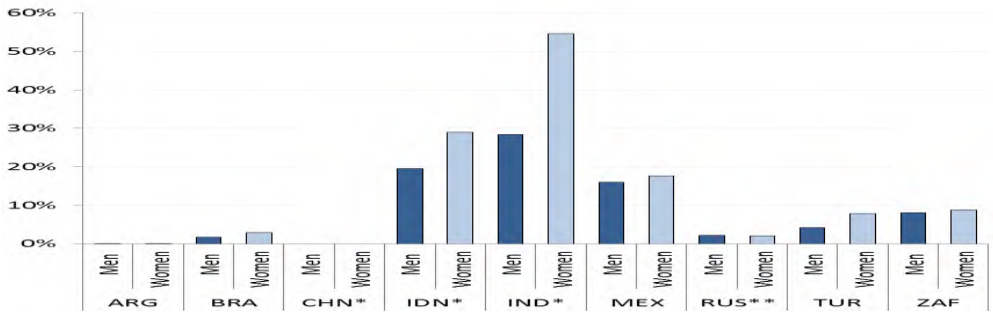
Interestingly the gender pay gap is steeper for women at the top end of the skills and wage distribution, as is the unexplained part of the gap, which is equated with discrimination (ILO 2015b). In Europe, among men and women CEOs who are among the best-paid one per cent of wage earners, the gender pay gap is above 50 per cent (ILO 2016d). The senior corporate world also exhibits large gender gaps in senior corporate positions. Social norms and gender stereotypes, that create a glass ceiling for women, and women's shorter working hours are among the reasons for the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions (Christiansen et al 2016).

Figure 5: Women are at higher risk of low pay

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



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



Note: For detail on calculation methods regarding extreme low pay, see OECD 2015. Calculations are based on 2012-2013 data, except for India (2011-2012), Mexico (2010-2012), Russian Federation (2012), South Africa (2010-2012) and Turkey (2011-2012).
Source: See Figure 3.

The incidence of "low pay", defined as less than two-thirds of gross median earnings, is higher among women than among men: in the advanced G20 countries the proportion of women earning less than two-thirds of the gross median wage is on average 8 percentage points higher than that of men (figure 4, panel A). The incidence of low pay for women is particularly high in Japan, Korea and the United States. This explains why the gender pay gap remains substantial, despite signs of moderate reduction, and has stalled in the advanced G20 countries (ILO 2016a).

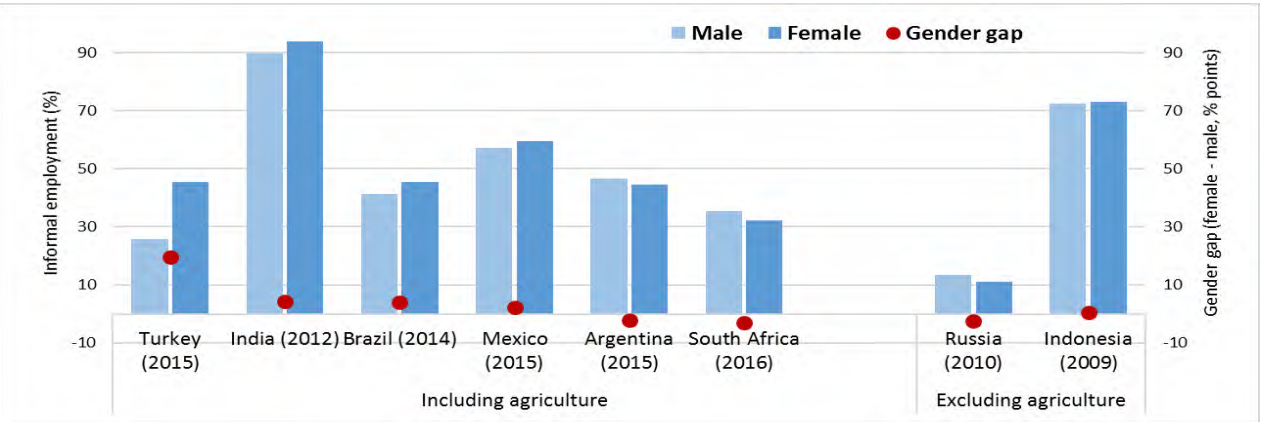
A more appropriate measure of low pay in emerging economies may be "very low pay" as measured by the USD2 PPP per day threshold (Figure 5). In India, Indonesia and Mexico, half of all working women are at risk of earning less than USD2 per day, while the incidence of very low pay is limited in Argentina, Brazil, the Russian Federation, South Africa and Turkey, where gender gaps are relatively small in comparison (Figure 4, panel B).

Motherhood is an important driver of the wage penalty for women. Working mothers with two children often earn less than working women without children, who, in turn, earn less than working fathers. The unadjusted motherhood wage gap – defined as the gross average monthly earnings of women who are not mothers and the gross average monthly earnings of mothers multiplied by 100 in a selected number of G20 emerging economies ranges between under 5 per cent in the Russian Federation to 16.8 per cent in Argentina, 21.7 per cent in Brazil and over 30 per cent in Mexico (ILO 2015b). By contrast, working fathers not only earn more than working women –with or without children – but also earn on average more than working men without children. A commonly observed pattern is that men increase their working hours when children arrive, while women may reduce theirs, which may explain at least part of this gap. However, in countries that managed to reduce the motherhood wage penalty through family-friendly policies, the father premium has become the main driver of the wage gap between working fathers and working mothers.

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

Informal employment is common in many emerging G20 countries. In Brazil, India, Mexico, South Africa and Turkey women participate at a higher rate in informal employment than men (and this has implications not only for the level and stability of earnings, but also for labour market security and the quality of working conditions (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Informal employment as a percentage of total employment in selected G20 countries by sex (latest available year)

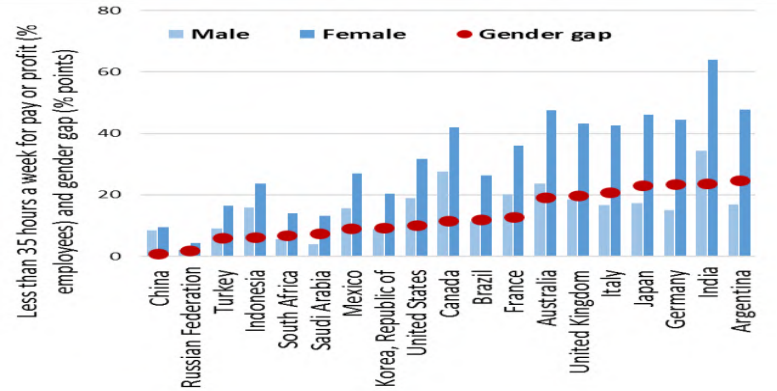


Source: ILO based on national household survey data
Note: Informal employment includes informal employment in the informal sector or in the formal sector, following the statistical definition of informal employment adopted by the 17th ICLS (November 2003).

Women are also more likely to work in non-standard forms of employment (NSFE) than men. In 2014, in all G20 countries, the share of women in part-time employment was higher than that of male employees. The highest incidence of part-time employment among women occurred in India, and it was almost three times higher than among men in Argentina, Germany, and Saudi Arabia. Moreover, gender differences are

particularly large in marginal part-time work – involving less than 15 hours per week –in all G20 countries except China (ILO 2016b). Women are also often over-represented in temporary jobs. In Europe, between 1995 and 2014, the incidence of fixed-term contracts among women employees remained on average two percentage points higher than that of men. In Japan, women are over four times more likely than men to hold temporary jobs, while in the Republic of Korea, women account for 52 per cent of temporary employment. In Brazil and South Africa, temporary employment rates are also higher for women than for men (ILO 2016b).

Figure 7. Proportion of employees working less than 35 hours weekly by sex (%), 2014 or latest available year



Source: ILOSTAT

Both part-time and temporary work can be an important means for women to integrate into the labour force, provided they are of good quality and voluntary. However, throughout the world, more women than men report that they are willing but unable to work more hours. Especially when involuntary, part-time employment is often associated with lower hourly wages than full-timers, higher risks of discrimination, and fewer training opportunities, which jeopardizes women's chances to obtain better-quality jobs. Women's over-representation in NSFE stems from their greater care giving responsibilities, their higher presence in occupations that typically recruit on an on-call basis, the structure of the economy and women's lower bargaining power because of their lower unionization rate and lower coverage by collective agreements.

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

Gender gaps in social protection

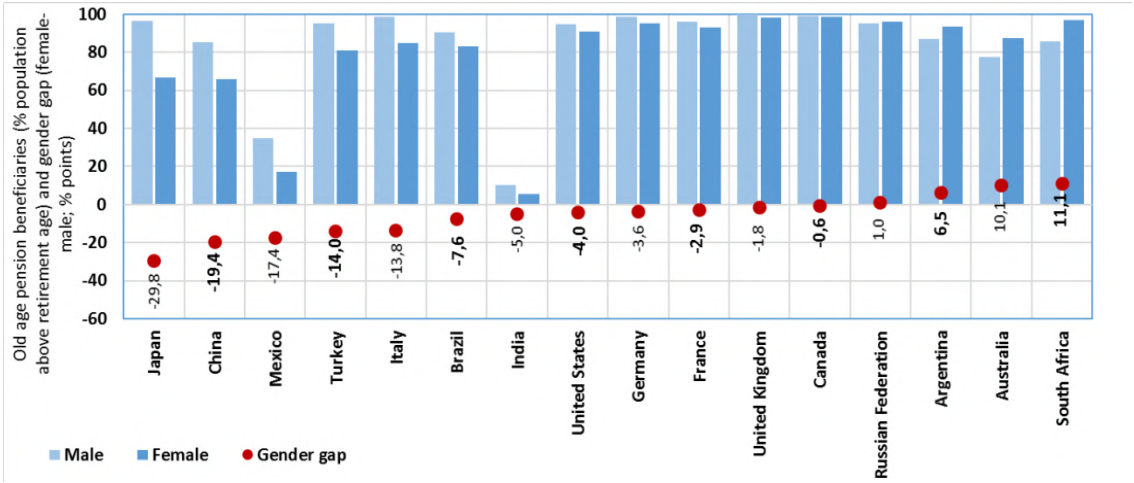
Low pay and informal employment are associated with limited, if any, access to employment-related social protection schemes, in particular unemployment, maternity and old-age benefits. Exclusion of women from these schemes increases the risk of child poverty and female old-age poverty. Maternity protection,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

ineffective maternity protection, combined with inadequate work family supportive policy measures, including childcare support, is a factor in the decline of fertility rates below replacement levels (ILO 2014a).

Lower labour force participation rates and lower affiliation rates to employment-related social protection schemes for women are seldom compensated by the development of non-contributory pension schemes. In 12 out of the 16 G20 countries for which data are available, the proportion of older women receiving an old-age pension (whether contributory or not) is significantly lower compared to men. The only exceptions (Australia, Argentina, Russian Federation and South Africa) are countries that have established large non-contributory schemes (Figure 8). Several other countries are introducing basic budget financed social pensions, which is a positive step. Another noteworthy measure to improve women's capacity to accrue adequate pensions is pension credit for child or elderly care, or high survivor benefits as introduced in Japan. (Clements et al, 2014)

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

Figure 8. Old age pensioners as a proportion of population above retirement age (percentage, latest available year)



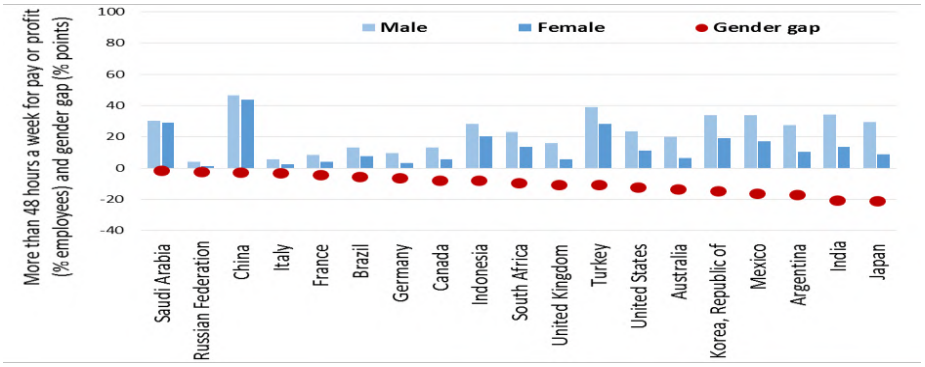
Source: ILO based on national household survey data

Gender gaps in working hours in paid and unpaid work

In all G20 countries men are more likely than women to work very long hours (for pay or for profit), defined as 48 hours or more per week (ILO et al, 2016; OECD) (see Fig.9). The same trends is observed when 60 hours or more per week is taken as the yardstick, as in the G20 Job Quality framework (OECD 2015b). However, in countries such as Korea, Mexico and South Africa, the proportion of women also working very long hours is

relatively high, although consistently lower than men's. Men's longer working days are due to the type of occupations and sectors in which they work and the unequal division of family responsibilities with women.

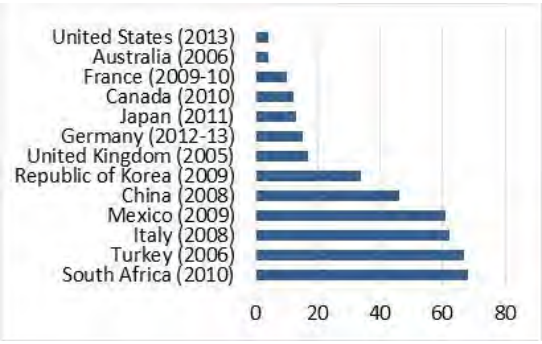
Figure 9. Men are more likely than women to work very long hours for pay or profit
(Percentage of employed working more than 48 a week for pay or profit, and gender gap, latest available year*)



* Figures represent 2014 values except for Brazil (2011), China (2009) and India (2011). Data by gender for Argentina, China, India and Indonesia are missing.
Sources: OECD calculations based on national household and labour force surveys (EPH: Argentina, PNAD: Brazil, UHS: China, SAKERNAS: Indonesia, ENIGH: Mexico, NIDS: South Africa), the EU-SILC national files (Turkey), the European Social Survey (Russian Federation) and the Gallup World Poll (India). The respective figure for the OECD concerns all employed and is calculated as the simple cross-country average based on the OECD Employment Database.

In fact, when paid and unpaid care work are considered together, women work longer hours than men in both advanced and emerging G20 countries (Figure 10). The imbalance in the sharing of unpaid work reduces women's availability for paid work other than part time (see above) or for training, and limits women's chances of obtaining better paying jobs. In some instances, the absence of family-friendly workplace policies may also compel women to opt for informal employment because of the greater flexibility it affords with regard to work-family reconciliation (ILO 2016a).

Figure 10: Difference between women and men in the total number of minutes per week spent on paid and unpaid work (minute per week)



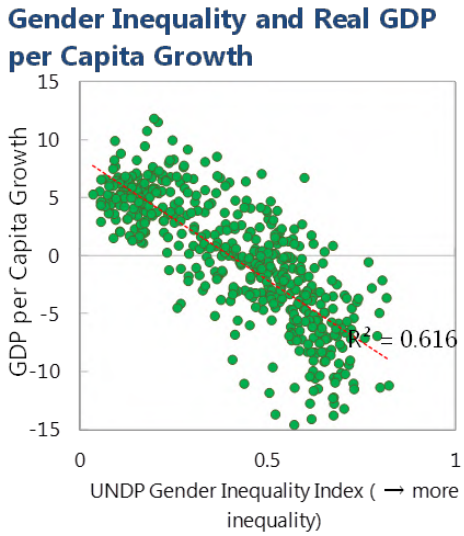
Source: ILO based on United Nations, 2015. *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics*

4. Case for policy actions

Economic case for accelerating action to achieve the 25-25 target

The potential "growth dividend" from closing gender gaps in participation rates could be substantial. In a number of countries, reaching the 25-25 target is projected to increase the annual growth rate by 0.2 to 0.6 percentage points; halving the gender gap by 2025 could increase annual growth by up to 0.68 percentage points (see Annex 3). The association of gender inequality with lower economic growth greater income inequality, and subpar firm performance is further illustrated in Figure 11 and finds support in a large body of evidence (Christiansen and others, 2016; Cuberes and Teignier, 2016; World Bank 2011; European Commission 2011; OECD 2012; Elborgh-Woytek and others 2013; Gonzales and others 2015).

Figure 11.



Also, increased female labour force participation strengthens household incomes and maintains aggregate demand in times of economic downturns and helps maintain or consolidate the middle class. (Vaughan-Whitehead 2016). In addition, current trends in life-expectancy and fertility rates in G20 countries, are contributing to a worrisome growth in dependency ratios (ratio of below 15 and above 65 year olds over the 15-64 year olds), making a compelling case for increasing the participation of women in the labour force (ILO 2016a).

A more balanced distribution of both paid and unpaid care work between men and women would allow fathers to be more involved in the education of their children. At the same time, mothers would be able to invest more in training, overcome isolation and dependence upon partners by realizing gains in income security. Women in employment evaluate their lives more positively than those outside the labour market (Gallup/ILO, forthcoming). Narrowing gender gaps in remuneration, including those due to discriminatory wage systems, results into higher expenditures in children's education and health and reduced old age poverty for women. It has also positive effects on enterprises' performance in terms of reduced absenteeism and higher productivity (Chicha 2006).

Policy obstacles and challenges

Many complex factors shape the quantity and quality of women's employment. Achieving equality requires simultaneous and coordinated policy action that addresses all of these obstacles.

Improving the quality of earnings for women requires effective wage policies - as reflected in the G20 Sustainable Wage Policies-and addressing occupational segregation. In particular, minimum wage policies and collective agreements often do not cover the low-paying occupations, sectors and jobs in which women most commonly work. Gender biases in remuneration systems also need to be uncovered and addressed (Oelz et al. 2013). Improving earnings of high-skilled women in management positions also require measures that enable them to break through the glass ceiling through a combination of work- family reconciliation measures and targeted action, such as boardroom quotas, voluntary targets or disclosure requirements. For example, Australia places an objective of 40 per cent gender balance for both listed companies and state-owned enterprises while Germany requires publicly listed companies to have women occupy at least 30

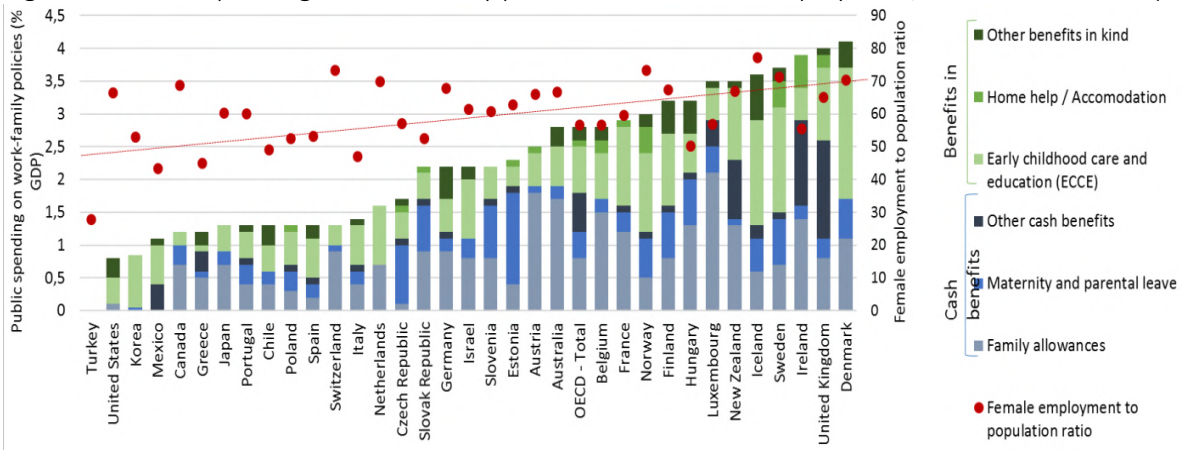
percent of supervisory board seats. Furthermore, income tax systems that penalize secondary earners (typically assumed to be women) run counter to efforts aimed at rising women's labour force participation.

Enhancing women's education in terms of both attainment levels and subject choice is key to reducing occupational segregation and improving women's earnings. Gender differences in educational choices that young women make have implications for their labour market outcomes (OECD, 2012, 2015a and 2016e) and require specific policy action (OECD, 2013).

Removing obstacles to mothers and caregivers, through adequate maternity protection and family policies, would help increase female labour participation in numbers and hours. For example, where the employer is the only party responsible for providing maternity protection, this may discourage the hiring and promotion of women of childbearing age and may increase dismissals based on pregnancy status. Further, without adequate incentives, small businesses may find it difficult to afford maternity protection to their female employees (ILO 2014b).

While family policies, from parental leave to child care services and subsidies, have an effect on their own, it is their combination that drives female employment rates up. For instance, childcare combined with parental leave and flexible working time arrangements is associated with higher female full-time employment rates, while receipt of child allowances/family benefits is not (See Fig. 12). An adequate combination of family policies requires a strong State commitment, and openness and cooperation from employers (EUROFOUND 2016).

Figure 12. Public spending on work-family policies and women's employment, 34 OECD countries (2011)



Source: ILOSTAT and OECD Family database

Policy action can also help Increase men's share of unpaid work and reduce their current longer hours in paid work. Reserving specific periods of leave for partners and/or providing strong financial incentives to take leave is one such policy measure (Adema et al, 2015). In Germany, following the introduction of two bonus months to parent caregivers, at a replacement rate of on average 65 per cent of the individual parent's net monthly earnings over 12 months before the child's birth, the proportion of children with a father who used parental leave jumped from 8.8 per cent in 2007 to 34.2 per cent for all children born in 2014. Fathers in France (6 months) and Japan and Korea (12 months) also have individual entitlements to paid leave around childbirth, but use is more limited, as replacement rates are low (in France) and/or fathers fear the consequences for their careers (MOEL, 2016).

Upgrading the quality of jobs in the care economy[3] would help attract more women into the labour force, while allowing more mothers to remain in paid work. In a number of G20 countries, an increasingly large number of care workers are women migrants. Labour migration policies informed by a sound assessment of labour market needs and respect for migrant workers' rights would be also required.

Making the quality of NSFE better and accommodating transitions in the labour market would help reduce insecurities associated with these types of jobs and women's over-representation in them. Some G20 countries have developed promising policy innovations, such as promoting good-quality part-time work (The Netherlands); placing limits on the use of non-standard arrangements, including fixed-term contracts l(Chile and Russian Federation); ensuring that workers in non-standard forms of employment have the right to join unions and engage in collective bargaining though extension clauses (South Africa), and lowering thresholds for qualifying for social security benefits (France) or enhancing portability of entitlements (ILO, 2016b).

Facilitating the formalization of largely informal female occupations, such as domestic work, would improve the overall quality of women's employment, while reducing the overall incidence of informal or undeclared work, especially in emerging G20 countries. Ongoing efforts in G20 countries have included extending specific social security benefits or minimum wage coverage to domestic workers (Brazil, South Africa or United States); simplifying administrative procedures and/or lowering costs regarding workers' registration with the social security agency, while investing in the professionalization of domestic workers to enhance the quality of their services (France).

Upgrading the availability, quality and safety of infrastructure and facilities would reduce the burden of women's unpaid care work and remove barriers to their physical mobility. Targeted spending for infrastructure development in Kerala, India, and changes in public transportation to provide safer options for women (Stotsky 2016), on the way to and from work, are relevant policy examples.

5. Conclusions

Gender gaps in labour force participation are declining, although at too slow a pace. The quality of women's employment remains a serious concern: gender pay gaps remain stubbornly large; women are seriously underrepresented in decision-making positions and are over-represented in low-pay jobs, informal employment and non-standard forms of employment, that are often associated with labour market insecurity, unacceptably short or unpredictable work schedules and fewer prospects of skills upgrading. Improving the earnings quality, labour market security and the working conditions of women and men will improve working lives, their well-being and enhance economic growth. Hence, policy packages to improve job quality for women and men, well- attuned to diverse national circumstances, must be developed with urgency.

[3] -Domestic workers, early childhood care and education personnel and long-term care workers and nurses.

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

[…]

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

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

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

ANNEX 2: Length of maternity leave, level of income replacement, source of funding and estimates of coverage in practice of maternity leave cash benefits, G20 countries, 2014

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

Source: ILO Working Conditions Laws Database - Maternity protection and ILO, 2014, "Maternity and paternity at work: Law and practice across the world"

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

ANNEX3: Projected average annual growth rate in GDP per capita in USD 2005 PPP, percentage, 2013-2025

	Baseline	25-by-2025 scenario: gender gaps in LFPR reduced by a quarter by 2025		50-by-2025 scenario: gender gaps in LFPR halved by 2025	
Country	Projected average annual growth rate	Projected average annual growth rate	Percentage point change relative to baseline	Projected average annual growth rate	Percentage point change relative to baseline
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..
Australia	2.11	2.17	0.06	2.28	0.17
Brazil	1.79	1.98	0.18	2.20	0.40
Canada	1.21	1.22	0.00	1.29	0.08
China (People's Republic of)	5.26	5.48	0.23	5.63	0.37
France	1.75	1.75	0.00	1.84	0.09
Germany	1.35	1.37	0.02	1.47	0.12
India	4.61	5.21	0.60	5.75	1.14
Indonesia	4.63	4.73	0.10	5.03	0.40
Italy	1.15	1.08	-0.07	1.30	0.15
Japan	1.30	1.36	0.07	1.55	0.25
Korea	2.82	2.97	0.15	3.20	0.37
Mexico	1.77	1.91	0.14	2.28	0.51
Russia	3.09	3.25	0.16	3.34	0.25
Saudi Arabia	..	..	..	..	..
South Africa	3.91	4.17	0.26	4.34	0.43
Spain	1.10	1.03	-0.08	1.14	0.04
Turkey	3.59	3.79	0.20	4.27	0.68
United Kingdom	2.08	2.17	0.10	2.28	0.21
United States	1.88	1.99	0.11	2.10	0.22

1. Baseline projections of GDP per capita taken from the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database. Estimates of GDP per capita under each of the scenarios are achieved by adjusting projections from the OECD's long-term growth models (as published in the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database) according to changes in the size of the 15-74 year old labour force that follow the assumed changes in labour participation.
2. The “25-by-2025” scenario: male participation rates are projected based on average entry and exit rates for each five-year age group over the period 2003-2012 (2005-2010 for China); female participation rates are projected so that the 2012 gap between male and female participation rates within each five-year age group falls by 25% by 2025.
3. The “50-by-2025” scenario: male participation rates are projected based on average entry and exit rates for each five-year age group over the period 2003-2012 (2005-2010 for China); female participation rates are projected so that the 2012 gap between male and female participation rates within each five-year age group falls by 50% by 2025.
Source: OECD estimates based on the OECD Population and Demography Database, OECD Employment Database, and the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database.