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Economic Contributions of Women and Men in APEC Economies

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This report is released to inform parties of ongoing research and to encourage discussion.

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Executive Summary

This report is part of a project entitled "The Economic Contributions of Women and Men in APEC Economies." The three purposes of this project are to identify gaps in sex-disaggregated economic data, to document women's and men's participation in economic activities from the available data, and to make recommendations for improvements in data collection and analysis. Systematic documentation of economic activities that women perform in these economies will facilitate effective policy development that will help level the playing field for women.

This project conducted a systematic inventory of the sex-disaggregated economic data currently collected and disseminated by APEC economies, identified gaps in relevant data sets, and addressed the need for reporting comparable sex-disaggregated data across APEC economies in the future.

The report provides an overview of the economic contributions of women and men in APEC economies. An inventory of the available data indicates gaps in the data for many APEC member economies.[1] The data used in the analyses come from various sources including national and international organizations. The lack of sex-disaggregated data is particularly significant in Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, Chinese Taipei , and Vietnam. These deficiencies in the data are further aggravated by a lack of common standard for reporting data by the member economies.

[1] The figures and table in this report incorporates data from selected economies based primarily on data availability. In some cases, data only from a few economies are presented as examples. However, the appendix tables relate to all economies for which data are available.

Additionally, for some economies, the absence of historical data makes it difficult to assess changes in women's and men's participation in economic activities. It is also evident that there is a pronounced gap in the availability of data for employment for the informal sectors of the economy. This lack of data from the informal sector particularly limits the ability to assess women's contributions to the economy, many of whom are engaged in informal activities.

Key findings indicate that an increasing proportion of women are entering the labor force in APEC economies. Yet, there are sectoral and occupational differences between women and men. Also, women's multiple roles including motherhood and homemaking often create pre-conditions that may lead women to withdraw from the formal labor market and force them to be part of the informal economy. However, in the absence of comparable sex-disaggregated statistics on employment in the informal sector, it is difficult to create a clear picture of women's and men's contribution to this sector.

This report offers suggestions for improvements in data collection that will reinforce the gender mainstreaming goals of APEC, and emphasizes the need for:

- Sex-disaggregated employment data, preferably by age.
- A comparable system of data reporting and dissemination so that data are comparable between economies
- Data about the informal economy

Glossary

APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
GFPN	Gender Focal Point Network
ILO	International Labor Organization
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labor Market
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
HDR	Human Development Report
HDI	Human Development Indicators
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Fund for Women

Introduction

The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) was established in 1989 and has since developed as the premier forum for facilitating economic growth, cooperation, trade, and investment in the Asia-Pacific region. APEC consists of 21 member economies: Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Chile, People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Peru, The Republic of the Philippines, The Russian Federation, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, Thailand, the United States of America, and Vietnam. These economies together account for more than 2.5 billion people, a GDP of 19 trillion US dollars and 47 percent of world trade. It is also one of the most economically dynamic regions in the world, generating nearly 70 percent of global economic growth during the period 1989 to 1999. Women account for half of the population in the APEC economies, yet little is known about the economic contributions that women make in these economies. Among the reasons for this lack of knowledge about women's contributions are a general lack of sex-disaggregated data and an underutilization of the sex-disaggregated data that are available.

In addition to its general goals of economic growth and cooperation in the region, the APEC leadership has expressed a strong interest in advancing the economic interests of women in the member economies. In 1998, the APEC leadership endorsed the recommendations of the First Ministerial Meeting on Women. This meeting was held in Makati, Philippines, and recommended the development of a 'Framework for the

Integration of Women in APEC,' which was subsequently developed and endorsed in 1999.[2] The guidelines presented in this and later meetings recommended sharing information and support between member economies and the secretariat in order to advance gender issues and the economic interests of women, as well as recognize women's contributions to member economies. Some of the important issues recommended by the APEC leadership include understanding the barriers to women accessing finance, information, and technology for their full participation in business, the workforce, education, and leadership. They also recognized the importance of improved collection, monitoring, and use of sex-disaggregated data that would help identify the possible differences in the impact of policies on women and men, as well as on different groups and cultures within our societies.

This report summarizes findings from an analysis of women's and men's economic participation in the 21 member economies. The report discusses the current status of women and men in the labor market in general, historical trends, and sectoral differences. It emphasizes the differences between women and men with respect to employment, unemployment, and youth employment. The report attempts to incorporate the latest available information for each of the member economies. This report also highlights that some economies do not have enough detailed sex-disaggregated data to enable gender analysis, and there is much heterogeneity between individual economy reporting systems. It draws attention to the challenges of assessing gender differences in economic participation based on current data availability, and presents an overview of the state of women's and men's economic participation and the challenges in their paths.

[2] The theme of the meeting was "Women in Economic Development and Cooperation in APEC," with sub themes: "Women and Small and Medium Enterprises," Women and Industrial Science and Technology", and "Women and Human Resources Development."

Some of the important questions discussed in this report include:

1. Is the female-male labor force participation gap closing?
2. What are the characteristics of female and male work?
3. Are women and men segregated into different sectors of the economy?
4. Is there wage equity between women and men?
5. Do women and men experience similar pre-conditions that help to enhance employment?

Organization of the Report

The study is divided into five sections. Section 1 sets the context with a brief description of the differences in labor force participation among women and men. Section 2 includes a discussion about the employment and unemployment situation in the APEC economies. Section 3 examines the various sectors of the economy, occupational segregation, and gender differences in earnings. Section 4 is concerned with women's and men's status in employment, their engagement in informal work, and entrepreneurship. Section 5 presents a summary of findings, major observations, and a set of recommendations on how to promote and strengthen women's and men's participation in the economy, and the need for sex-disaggregated data.

I. Labor Force Participation

The economically active population is a measure of the workforce of a economy. It comprises both employed and unemployed people who engage in or attempt to engage in economic activities to produce goods and services. The labor force participation rates for men and for women indicate how many of working age are participating or willing to participate in the labor market. These rates estimate the relative size of the labor supply available to the economy.

Table 1-1 shows the activity/labor force participation rates for selected APEC economies for the latest year available. Overall, labor force participation rates are highest in East Asia (70 percent or higher): China, Papua New Guinea, Thailand, and Vietnam. Low participation rates (50 percent or lower) are found in Chile and Malaysia. The largest gaps in the labor force participation rate for women and men are seen in Mexico, Brunei, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and the Philippines. In Mexico, for instance, only 47 women for every 100 men in the labor force are economically active. Similarly, in Brunei there are only 56 economically active women for every 100 economically active men. On the other hand, there is little difference between the participation rates of women and men in the labor force in Vietnam, China, Canada, and Russia. In Vietnam and China, there are 90 and 86 economically active women, respectively, for every 100 men in the labor force. Canada and Russia have 83 and 77 economically active women, respectively, per 100 economically active men.

[Table 1-1 about here]

Figures 1-1 to 1-5 show the male and female labor force participation rates by age groups for selected economies. For most economies and for both women and men, participation rates by age group show an inverted U-shaped pattern. In most of these economies, labor force participation rates peak between the ages of 25 and 54 years. However, women's participation rates are lower that those of men at all ages. Men in general also have a steady level of labor force participation during this peak ages. For instance, men in Brunei, the United States, Thailand, Canada, and Mexico maintain an even level of labor force participation between the ages of 25 and 54 years.

[Figures 1-1 to 1-5 about here]

On the other hand, women's participation rates vary across this broad age range between economies. In some economies, women's participation rates dip during the child bearing ages and increase thereafter, while in others, these rates continue to decline after the child bearing years. In Brunei Darussalam, for instance, women's labor force participation peaks between age 24 to 29 years, which corresponds to the main childbearing years for women, and decline steadily afterwards indicating that women drop out of the labor force as they have children. In the United States, Canada, and Thailand, women's labor force participation decreases slightly during the childbearing years but increases thereafter before decreasing again around the age of 50 years. This indicates that in these economies, women are more likely to re-enter the labor force after a period of childbearing and early childcare (ILO, 2004a). At the older ages (65 and over), participation rates decline for both women and men. However, this decline is steeper in more industrialized economies of Canada and the United States, where retirement benefits are fairly standard.

Trends in Labor Force Participation – Is the labor force participation gap closing?

In recent times, a striking economic phenomenon observed worldwide is the increase in the number of women in the labor force. The gap in labor force participation has been generally decreasing for all APEC economies, but at different rates. Figures 1-6 to 1-9 show the labor force participation rates for women and men in selected APEC economies. This closing of the gender gap is largely related to a significant rise in women's participation in economic activities during the last 3 decades (ILO, 2004b; Hayghe, 1997). Participation rates for women have increased substantially since the 1970s with additional boosts during the mid 1980s. For instance, in Australia, women's labor force participation rate increased from 37 percent in 1971 to over 55 percent in 2002. The activity rate for men declined from 80 percent in 1971 to 72 percent in 2002. Such a narrowing trend is evident in the other economies as well. Yet, in spite of a narrowing trend, in some of the Asian and Latin American members of APEC, the gender gap in labor force participation rates remain. In Japan, Chile, and Indonesia, for instance, the activity rates for men and for women are gradually converging over time. The participation rate for women has increased during the last 2 decades but a large gender gap still remains.

(Figures 1-6 to 1-9 about here)

II. Employment and Unemployment

Employment and unemployment are among the most closely watched measures of economic activity and utilization of labor. Recent and long-term trends in employment and unemployment provide a comprehensive picture of an economy. With sex-disaggregated data, this information can be used for gender-sensitive planning and policy implementation.

Figure 2-1 shows the percent distribution of women and men in the total employment level in member economies. It is evident that women account for less than half of the total employment in all of the member economies. The largest difference between women's and men's distribution in total employment is observed in Chile, Mexico, and Malaysia. In Chile, men accounted for over 66 percent of the total employment in the economy, and women accounted for only 33 percent. These large differences can at least be partly attributed to women's employment in the informal activities in these economies (ILO, 2004b). However, there is need for more data to make definitive conclusions.

[Figure 2-1 about here]

Employment-to-Population Ratios

While the labor force participation rate measures the supply of labor force in an economy, the employment-to-population ratio measures the ability of an economy to create jobs and engage the working-age population in productive activity. The employment-to-population ratio is the proportion of the economy's working-age population that is employed. Figure 2-2 shows the employment-to-population ratios for selected APEC members for the most recent year available, by sex.[3] Data from these

[3] Employment-to-population ratios were calculated using the number of employed persons aged 15 or older and the total 15 and older population.

economies show that for men, the employment-to-population ratio is larger than that for women. Employment-to-population ratios for men ranged between 57 and 83 percent. For women, on the other hand, the employment-to-population ratios range between 32 and 63 percent.

[Figure 2-2 about here]

The largest gender gap in employment ratio is observed in Mexico, Chile, Indonesia, and the Philippines. Although a high ratio of employment is considered a good indicator of the economy, this indicator alone does not shed light on other labor market issues such as low earnings, underemployment, poor working conditions, or a large informal economy (ILO, 2004b). For instance, the high employment-to-population ratio observed in Indonesia, Mexico, and Thailand is probably related to the fact that the measure of employment includes a large informal economy, which continues to be a source of job creation in these economies.

Unemployment

Together with the employment-to-population ratio, the unemployment rate is one of the best known and most widely used indicators of the health of an economy.

Worldwide, women generally have higher unemployment rates than men. In 2003, the global unemployment rate for women and men were 6.1 and 6.4 percent, respectively (ILO, 2004). Figure 2-3 shows the unemployment rates for women and men in among APEC members. Within APEC, there is a combination of economies, some of which have higher male unemployment rates compared to those of women, and others where women's unemployment rates exceed those for men. In Hong Kong, men's

unemployment rate is 2.4 percentage points higher than that of women, while in most Latin American APEC members unemployment rates have been historically higher for women than men (ILO, 2004c).

[Figure 2-3 about here]

Youth unemployment

Unemployment rates can be further disaggregated by age. The youth unemployment rate is calculated for people aged 15 to 24. In general, youth unemployment rates are much higher than overall unemployment rates. In most of the member economies, the youth unemployment rate is almost double that of the general unemployment rate. Figure 2-4 shows the youth unemployment rate along with the female youth unemployment rate as a percentage of the male youth unemployment rate for selected economies. A youth unemployment rate higher than the general unemployment rate indicates an underutilization of the high potential of young people. This can be a threat to the long-term economic capacity of an economy.

As the difficulty of finding work is greater for the youth, it is interesting to assess the male-to-female differences in youth unemployment rates. In general, the youth unemployment rates are higher for women in most regions except the industrialized economies in the west and in East Asia. Figure 2-4 shows that in Canada, the United States, Australia, Japan, New Zealand, and Korea, more young men than young women are unemployed. In keeping with the general trend observed in most Latin American and Caribbean economies, Mexico experiences a higher female than male youth unemployment rate. In Mexico, for every 100 men between the ages of 15 and 24 years, 124 young women in the same age group were unemployed.

[Figure 2-4 about here]

Long-term unemployment

The long-term unemployment rate shows the duration or length of time that an unemployed person has been looking for work. While short periods of joblessness can cause negative consequences, it is of lesser concern than the long-term rate, especially when unemployed individuals are covered by insurance for short time job loss, and when people use this time to seek optimal employment, or when employers allow this time to weather temporary shortfalls in business (ILO, 2004a). On the other hand, long-term unemployment can not only cause loss of income but also diminish the employability of the job seeker. Figure 2-5 shows the long-term unemployment rates as a percentage of total unemployment for selected economies in 2002. Korea and Mexico exhibit some of the lowest long-term unemployment rates while Japan has the highest. Men in general experience a higher rate of long-term employment. The gender gap, however, varies between economies, with Japan experiencing the largest male disadvantage almost 14 percentage points higher than that of women.

[Figure 2-5 about here]

Although unemployment rate is one of the most used labor market measures, differences in definitions between economies limit its ability to provide a clear picture of the shortcomings of the labor market. For instance, in some economies, definitions of unemployment exclude those individuals who want to work but are not actively looking for work, mainly because they feel that no work would be available or because they have restricted labor mobility and face discrimination related to cultural, social, or structural barriers. Interestingly, in most economies, this group of 'discouraged workers' is often

largely made up of women (ILO, 2004b). It is, therefore, extremely important to exercise caution in interpreting unemployment rates and trends. For instance, a reduction in unemployment rates for women could simply indicate a situation where women are totally opting out of the labor market, reducing work time, or working part-time due to deteriorating economic conditions. Part-time work indicates fewer numbers of hours of work in general. However, as there is no agreed international definition of how many hours constitute part-time work, the rate of part-time employment is measured either on a country-by-country basis or by using special estimation procedures. Figure 2-6 shows the part-time employment rate and the percentage of the part-time workforce comprised of women in select APEC economies.[4] Among them, Korea and the United States have some of the lowest levels of part-time employment.

In general, a larger proportion of women than men work part-time, and in most economies, women account for well over half of all part-time workers. Women's share in part-time employment is highest in the industrialized economies, where they make up nearly three-quarters of the total number of people working part-time. There has been little change in part-time employment rates since the 1990s. While Japan, New Zealand, and Australia have shown a declining trend in part-time employment, it has increased in the United States (ILO, 2004a).

(Figure 2-6 about here)

A combination of the unemployment rate and the employment-to-population ratio show that women have lower employment-to-population ratios and that they experience unemployment although men often experience higher unemployment rates. This indicates that there are women who cannot find work in spite of their desire to do so. For

[4] Part-time employment rate is the total part-time employment as a proportion of total employment.

member economies, where the unemployment rate is higher among women than men, it is clear that more employment opportunities need to be created for them. While in industrialized economies, some women can afford and choose to remain out of the work force, it is likely that in many economies, women would work if there were opportunities available. A first step is to create a more balanced playing field for women and men is to provide women and men equal access to education and opportunities in acquiring skills useful in the labor market.

Trends in Employment and Unemployment – Do women who look for work find work?

Women are gradually closing the gap in their share of the employed labor force (ILO, 2004b). In the United States, the percent of women in the employed work force increased from 37 percent in 1969 to 51 percent in 2002. In some member economies in Southeast Asia, like Indonesia and Malaysia, there has been a slight decline in women's share since the early 1990s. In others like Chile and Mexico, in spite of an increase in women's share of the employed work force, the gap between women and men is still prominent.

[Figures 2-7 to 2-8 about here]

There was remarkable variation among economies in the employment-population ratios during previous decades. Among APEC economies, the industrialized economies of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States have shared a high capacity to create jobs. In the East and South East Asian economies, the trends reflect regional economic gains, losses, and employment instabilities (ILO, 2004c).

In order to assess the unemployment situation by sex, Figures 2-9 to 2-10 show trends in the unemployment rate for women and men in Canada and the United States. Trends in unemployment vary between member economies and reflect regional and national economic conditions. The United States and Canada have experienced moderate declines in unemployment for women and men during the last 2 decades although since 2000, these rates have increased. Like most other Latin American economies, Chile shows a decline in unemployment rates, particularly for men. Labor markets in most Latin American economies are recovering from recession and local economic crises of recent years.

[Figures 2-9 to 2-10 about here]

Unemployment is a relatively new phenomenon in East Asia and is still at a low level in the East Asian APEC economies. Southeast Asia has a diverse set of economies with different unemployment outlooks. As a group, economies in this region have experienced an increase in unemployment for both women and men, but particularly women, although the rates are still relatively low. The current unemployment rate is relatively higher than the rate before the Asian financial crises.

III. Employment Sectors, Occupation, and the Gender Gap in Earnings

An analysis of the distribution of women and men in various sectors of the economy and in varied occupations provides another view of the gender component of an economy. This section of the report focuses on the sectors of employment, occupational segregation, and differences in earnings between women and men.

Employment by Sector - Are different sectors of the economy favorable for women and men?

Sectoral data on employment divides the economy into three broad categories: agriculture, manufacturing, and services. Figures 3-1 to 3-3 show the percent share of employment in these categories by sex. Barring a few South East Asian economies, where agriculture continues to be a major source of employment, most of the APEC member economies have the largest share of employment in the services sector, followed by manufacturing, and a smaller proportion in agriculture. Indonesia and Thailand, with larger agricultural sectors have 40 percent of their women and men employed in agriculture. These economies exhibit a smaller gender gap in employment in agriculture compared to those where agriculture employs only a small share of the labor force.

The share of employment in manufacturing varies remarkably between women and men in most economies. There are higher proportions of men than women in agriculture and manufacturing, whereas a higher proportion of women than men work in the services sector in most economies. The female share of employment in service industries exceeds that of men by 15 percentage points or more in 10 of the economies, with Chile having the largest difference of over 30 percentage points.

[Figure 3-1, Figure 3-2 and Figure 3-3 about here]

Within the services sector, women are more likely to be in those jobs that are traditionally associated with care-giving gender roles such as in social, personal, and educational services (ILO, 2004b). Figure 3-4 shows the number of women and men employed in educational, financial, and community services for these economies.

[Figure 3-4 about here]

Generally, time trends in employment by sector show a decline in employment in agriculture and manufacturing for both women and men (ILO, 2004c). Segregation of job sectors by sex is gradually declining, but at a very slow rate, and continue to experience discrimination as stereotypes continue to associate women with care-giving, and more docile and often home-based activities.

Occupational Segregation

Sex-segregation in different occupations is one of the most interesting and often troubling aspects of segregation in an economy. Apart from the issues of equality of opportunity, occupational segregation by sex is a major contributing factor to the gender gap in earnings (Forth, 2002; Miller et al., 2004). Occupational segregation by sex, which is often extensive in some regions of the world, is one of the most enduring phenomena of labor markets (Anker, 1997). Figure 3-5 shows the percentage of female and male legislators, senior officials, and managers in select economies. The statistics show that over 50 percent of those engaged in these professions are men in most economies (with the exception of new Zealand and the Philippines). Furthermore, in some parts of East Asia, including Japan and Korea, over 90 percent of legislators, senior officials, and managers are men.

[Figures 3-5 and 3-6 about here]

Figure 3-6 shows the sex distribution of professional and technical workers for selected APEC members. Among the 15 economies shown in the Figure, women's share in professional jobs is highest in the Philippines, followed by Russia, and Thailand.

The main factors that lead to such occupational segregation are cultural and social norms and attitudes that define "male" and "female" jobs and an even deeper male-female disparity in education. Occupational segregation of this order can be of two types; the first level of segregation relates to the type of work and is called "horizontal occupational segregation" (Anker, 1997; ILO, 2004). For instance, traditionally, more men are employed in the engineering, judicial, and financial professions, while women dominate the 'softer' professions like teaching. In Canada, for example, in 2001, 79 percent of women employees were in teaching, nursing, clerical/administrative, and sales/service jobs. Similarly in Singapore, Korea, and Mexico women are underrepresented in the administrative and managerial occupations as well as professional and technical occupations (Ministry of Manpower, Government of Singapore, 2001; Kong, 1997; UNIFEM, 2000).

The second form of segregation, also termed as "vertical occupational segregation" relates to differences in position and remuneration within the professions. For instance, even within the medical profession, more men are likely to be doctors and administrators, while women dominate the nursing jobs.

Sex-segregation into professions such as teaching, nursing and clerical occupations can partly be attributed to the greater flexibility in terms of the part-time and temporary work available in these occupations (ILO, 2004d). These advantages appeal to the women who generally have household and other responsibilities. Often women have to make a choice not only between paid work and family but also between occupations in order to prioritize between their family life and professional life.

A 2001 study surveying about 1200 female and male executives in different regions of the world found that 32 percent more women than men delayed marriage or having a family in order to establish their careers (Families and Work Institute, 2003). Results from the same survey showed that 34 percent of women and 24 percent of men had reduced their career aspirations for their personal or family lives. A survey in Canada in 2001 found that among women executives, 47 percent had even considered leaving their jobs to find a better balance between work and family (Women Executive Network, 2001).

An informal survey conducted in a few Latin American economies showed that when women started a family, they more often negotiated vacation time and flexible work hours in place of promotions and wage increases, and some even left the workforce (although the survey also showed that in most Latin American economies, where the focus is on the family, the availability of family support for childcare make it easier for some women to continue with their careers) (Braine, 2002).

In most economies, women are underrepresented in managerial positions, particularly at the higher levels. According to the U.S. General Accounting Office, in 2002, women represented 47 percent of the work force but only 12 percent of all managerial jobs and were largely underrepresented in the higher positions. Over 60 percent of women managers in the United Stated are in the medical services, hospitals, and education. Similarly in Canada, women held 35 percent of managerial jobs and 23 percent were at the senior management level in 2001 (Statistics Canada, 2002).

In Japan, where women are seriously underrepresented in managerial jobs, a survey of 6,700 companies in 2002 showed that 12 percent of women managers were

working as sub-section chiefs, 6 percent were section chiefs, and 3 percent were department heads (Japan Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare, 2002). Furthermore, the survey indicated that male employees were promoted more rapidly than female employees who had the same educational qualifications. In Thailand's private sector, women's share of directors was 29 percent compared to over 40 percent as officers, supervisors, and department managers (Tonguthai, 2002)

Estimates of women's share of executive heads of organizations are limited and differently defined in different economies, making it even more difficult to make cross-national comparisons. A survey of 200 top companies in Australia showed that in 2002, 8.2 percent of board positions were held by women and only 1 percent (2) were CEOs (ILO, 2004d). Out of these companies, over half had no women executive managers, 30 percent had had just one woman executive manager, and nearly 20 percent had multiple women executive managers. Most of the executive managerial jobs held by women were in software, banking, telecom, insurance, and retailing, and some in real estate, hotels and restaurants and leisure and energy.

In Canada, women held 14 percent of the corporate officer positions in FP500 companies in 2002.[5] Another survey done in the United States showed that women held 14 percent of board positions in Fortune 500 companies in 2003.

Progress toward a balanced distribution of professional jobs between women and men reflect an evolving situation of gender equality in an economy. Among the APEC members in general, there has been a gradual increase in women's share of professional jobs. Overall, women's share has increased and women have also made in-roads into male dominated professional jobs (ILO, 2004d). However, in spite of these

[5] Canada's top 500 private & public companies

improvements, women continue to have a smaller share of professional jobs in many of these selected economies. For instance, in Mexico, where women have increased their share in professional jobs by 10 percentage points between 1991 and 2000, women's share of these jobs still remained at 24 percent in 2000.

Women tend to be over-represented in the clerical occupations in most economies. Women are also generally underrepresented in craft and production related occupations, skilled agriculture, and plant and machinery-related occupations, where the nature of work in more strenuous. Figures 3-7 to 3-9 show the detailed occupations held by women and men in Mexico, Australia, and Peru.

[Figures 3-7, 3-8, and 3-9 about here]

Earnings Gaps - Is there wage equity between women and men?

In general, women earn less than men. Apart from women's concentration in low-paying non-professional jobs, gender differences in education and job training, society's attitude toward women's ability to work leading to differences in pay within the same occupation are some of the main factors that lead to a gap between women's and men's earnings. In addition to these factors, there are other disadvantages created by social, cultural, and institutional barriers (Anker, 1997; Gunderson, 1994). Empirical studies that have analyzed the gender gap in wages divide these factors into two major groups: differences related due to differences in productivity, and differences in returns from their endowments (Oaxaca, 1973). One such study estimated that about a third of the male-female differential in wages is due to occupational segregation by sex (Terrell, 1992; Gonzalez, 1991; Treiman and Hartmann, 1981; World Bank, 1994)

Due to the lack of sex-disaggregated data on income and wages, direct measures of income are often unavailable and have to be estimated or derived. Also, when differences in wages are measured by occupations, the rates are greatly affected by the level of aggregation of the occupational data. Gender differences in wages based on occupations are more evident when occupational data are more disaggregated (Anker, 1997). Figure 3-10 shows the percent of estimated female to male earned income derived from estimates of male and female earned income.[6] The percentage of female to male earned income varies between economies, ranging from 27 percent in Peru to 71 percent in Australia. Canada, China, New Zealand, Russia, Thailand, United States and Vietnam are some of the other members where women earn over 60 percent of men's earned income. Among economies that have some of the largest female disadvantage in earnings are Peru, Chile, and Mexico.

[Figure 3-10 about here]

In addition to socio-cultural and education barriers, women often experience a shorter and more disrupted career span than men, which also leads to less pay and fewer promotions. For instance, women are more likely to take time off from work during the childbearing years, and also have time, travel, and relocation restrictions (ILO, 2004d). Such limitations along with the other barriers may not only lead to a gender gap in wages but also a gap in the 'perks', bonuses, commissions, profit sharing, and retirement benefits between women and men. In fact studies in several industrialized economies suggest that mothers tend to earn less than other women and that while one child could

[6] The data used to estimate these measures include the ratio of female non-agricultural wage to the total non-agricultural wage, male and female shares of the economically active population, the total female and male population, and the GDP per capita (for more detail, see Human Development Report, 2004).

lead to an earnings loss of 6 to 7 percent for the mother, the penalty could be 13 percent for 2 children (Harkness and Waldfogel, 2004).

Various surveys in different economies have also shown that women earn less than men even when they have the same educational qualifications. In a survey conducted in Japan in 2001, it was found that women earned about 65 percent of men's earnings, and that women graduates between the ages of 35 and 50 earned 81 percent and 60 percent respectively of what men in the same age groups and with same degrees earned. In the financial and insurance sectors, women graduates earned only about half of men's earnings (53 percent). When asked about the reason for these disparities in earnings, Japanese respondents attributed wage differentials to the concentration of women in lower paid jobs, less time spent with a single employer, and men receiving allowances as the head of the family.

Similarly in 2000 in Korea, women who were university graduates earned nearly three- fourths of men's earnings with the same qualifications. Singapore had a similar situation with women earning about 75 percent of what men earned. According to respondents in Singapore, the wage gap has narrowed in professional jobs and most of the differential was related to women's lower qualification and lesser experience, rather than discrimination. In 2000, women directors in Thailand earned an average monthly income that was 80 percent that of men. Public sector salaries in New Zealand were 17 percent less than that of men in 2002 and managers earned 16 percent less if they were women.

Women managers and professionals in the United States earned 71 percent of men's earnings. In the "executive, administrative, and managerial" and the

'professional" groups, women earned 67 and 73 percent respectively of what men in these same groups earned. In the financial sector, which has some of the most well-paid jobs, women managers earn only 65 percent of men's salaries. Among lawyers, who are the best paid among professionals; women earn nearly 70 percent of men's wages. The wage differentials are smaller in management jobs related to personnel, training, and labor relations.

With globalization and increasing trade liberalization, some recent research has focused on the impact of trade agreements on women's employment and living standard. These studies largely agree that such liberalization increases women's paid employment. However, this increase often shields caveats that include a continuing gender gap in earnings, job insecurity, sectoral relocation, and an increase in women's overall work burden and working hours (Cagatay, 2001; Cardero, 2000).

IV. Status in Employment, Informal work, and Entrepreneurship

Gender equality, status in employment, and entrepreneurship go hand in hand. With women's increased participation in the economy, policymakers and planners need to be aware of the economic significance of women's productive activities and the nature of their contribution to income generation. Therefore, some of the fundamental issues that need to be explored include women's and men's status in employment, informal work, and their role as entrepreneurs.

Status in Employment

Using the status in employment indicator, the employed population can be divided into 3 broad categories, namely employees who are wage and salary workers; self-employed workers who are either employers (self-employed workers with employees) or own-account workers (self-employed workers without employees), and contributing family workers who are unpaid family workers.

Figures 4-1 and 4-2 show the employment status of women and men in selected APEC economies for the latest year available. There are differences in the status of employment between economies and between the sexes, although wage and salary workers form the dominant group irrespective of economy and sex. In general, more men were self-employed than women and among those self-employed, both women and men were predominantly own-account workers without employees. However, among those self-employed, more men were employers than women. In East and Southeast Asia, including Thailand, Korea, and Japan, and some Latin American and Caribbean economies like Peru and Mexico, the share of female- contributing family workers in total employment is higher than that of men, and women are also less likely to be salaried workers.

[Figure 4-1 and Figure 4-2 about here]

There is some evidence that even among women who are salaried workers, more women are likely to be in non-regular or atypical employment (ILO, 2004b). While men are more likely to be hired in regular or core better–paid positions, women are increasingly being hired in peripheral, insecure, less-valued jobs including home-based,

casual, or temporary work. These jobs are often characterized by very low pay, irregular income, little or no job security, and a lack of social protection.

When the APEC economies are viewed over time, a variety of patterns evolve in women's and men's employment status. While New Zealand, Korea, and Australia show an increase in employees and a decrease in contributing family workers, Japan shows a decrease in the self-employed (both own-account workers and employers).

[Figures 4-3, 4-4, 4-5]

Informal Employment

Informal work is a part of the economy in developing as well as developed economies. Definitions of informal work have changed and evolved since the informal sector was discovered and includes a variety of visible workers like street vendors, luggage cart pullers, bicycle peddlers, as well as less visible workers including repair workshops in small kiosks or stalls, small merchandise shops on street corners, home-based sellers and producers of embroidered goods, shoemakers, food processors, casual workers in restaurants, sub-contracted janitors and security guards, and temporary office staff. Although the conditions of work and the level of earnings vary markedly depending on the type and sector of informal work, most of these workers lack social protection.

With changes in definitions and inclusion and expansion of the concept, informal employment is now understood to include all remunerative work including self-employment and wage employment, which are not recognized, regulated, or protected within a legal and regulatory framework of an income-producing framework (ILO, 2002). Informal enterprises can be classified by type of unit or employment status. They include

micro-enterprises with an employer and employees, family businesses with an owner-operator and often other unpaid family workers, and own-account operations with an individual owner-operator. The employees may either consist of those employed in informal enterprises or domestic workers who do not have regular contracts; casual workers with a fixed employer; industrial outworkers for formal firms, informal firms and their intermediaries; and unregistered or undeclared workers.[7]

Few economies have information on their informal sectors and even fewer have collected survey data on informal employees outside of the informal sector. In the absence of such direct measures, most of our information about informal workers comes from indirect estimates. These estimates show that the informal sector contributed significantly to the non-agricultural GDP in some of the member economies. For instance, in Mexico the informal sector contributes about 13 percent of the non-agricultural GDP in 1998, while it contributed over 30 percent of the non-agricultural GDP in Indonesia and the Philippines.

Sex-disaggregated data about the contribution of the informal sector to the total non-agricultural GDP is available for only a few economies. Figure 4-6 shows informal employment as a percentage of non-agricultural employment by sex for selected economies. Indonesia and the Philippines had some of the highest levels of informal employment in the non-agricultural sector. Informal employment is generally a larger source of employment for women than men. Indonesia is an exception. Caution needs to be used in interpreting the data in Figure 4-6 since it excludes agricultural activities, which are a major source of employment, particularly for women, thereby

[7] For a more detailed discussion of the informal economy and its components, see "Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture," ILO, 2002.

underestimating the size of informal employment. Among the few that have included informal agriculture as a distinct type of informal employment, estimates from Mexico show that when informal agriculture is included, the significance of informal employment increases. In Mexico, about 58 percent of women and 64 percent of men are in informal employment.

[Figure 4-6 about here]

As Figure 4-7 and Figure 4-8 show, self-employment has a larger share of non-agricultural informal employment than wage-employment in most economies. Among the economies reported, more women than men in Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand are informal workers, who are self-employed. In contrast, over 60 percent of women in Chile are informal wageworkers.

[Figures 4-7 and 4-8 about here]

Measuring employment in the informal sector in industrialized economies involves an analysis of non-standard employment arrangements, where there is no access to basic labor rights and employment-based social protection. Such arrangements include part-time and temporary employment in formal firms, self-employment (own-account workers without employees), inter-firm subcontracted work, and industrial outwork including homework, sweatshop work, and day labor.

Women comprise the majority of part-time workers. This share ranges from 55 percent in Korea to nearly 75 percent in New Zealand.[8] The main occupations of part-time workers are services and sales, clerical, and low-skilled labor (ILO, 2002). Women are mostly concentrated in service and sales. For most economies, hourly earnings of part-time workers represent 55 to 90 percent that of full-time workers. However, the

[8] See Figure 3-10 for distribution of male and female part-time workers in selected economies.

wage differential between male and female part-time workers is less than that between comparable full-time workers. This is mainly attributed to the fact that women's full-time jobs are not significantly different from women's part-time jobs and that male part-time jobs are associated with only a few select occupations (ILO, 2002).

Another form of informal employment in these economies is temporary employment. In the United States in 1999, temporary workers were about 4.1 percent of those employed. In Japan in 1997, the majority of the 12 percent of temporary workers were women (Houseman et al., 1999). Self-employed is the third category of non-standard work and represented less than 10 percent of non-agricultural employment in the United States, Japan, and New Zealand (ILO, 2002).

Women and Men in Business

Entrepreneurship is an effective measure of women's and men's contribution to an economy. In fact, business ownership in general is not only an indicator of economic growth, but women's entrepreneurship has a stronger correlation with GDP growth than work force participation or occupation (Weeks and Seller, 2001). But more importantly and in addition to increasing economic growth and providing job opportunities for job seekers, women's entrepreneurship improves the socio-economic and health status of women and their families. Yet, little quantitative and comparable data across economies is available to analyze women's and men's contribution to their economies through their entrepreneurial activities.

The most comparable and frequently used data across economies is on the status of employment that differentiates between employees, own-account workers, and

employers. Although the information about employers does not distinguish between small and medium-sized enterprises and micro-enterprises, it provides a snapshot of entrepreneurship across economies. More men than women are employers.[9] However, women's and men's share in business ownership varies between economies: United States, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, where women own at least a third of the businesses versus Japan and Mexico, where women's share is less than 20 percent. In the United States for instance, women alone own 26 percent of firms in addition to 17 percent that are owned jointly by women and men (Chun, 1999). In Korea and Mexico, women own over 30 percent of the businesses (Figures 4-9, 4-10, 4-11). Furthermore, in some economies in Latin America, women's share in self-employment (own-account workers and employers) more than doubled between 1970 and 1990 (Weeks and Seller, 2001).

(Figures 4-9, 4-10, 4-11 about here)

Yet, data on sales revenues and receipts for male and female–owned business, when available, show that businesses owned by women are smaller in sales revenue than men-owned firms. For instance, in the United States, women-owned firms earn only about 4 percent of sales revenue compared to 36 percent by men-owned firms (Figure 4-12). In Canada, over 40 percent of women-owned firms had sales revenue of under $250,000, over 80 percent had revenue under $500,000, and 90 percent less than $1 million (Figure 4-13). Similarly, another survey in the Philippines found that a majority of those surveyed had annual sales less than US$ 40000 (Figure 4-14).

(Figures 4-12, 4-13, 4-14 about here)

[9] See section on 'Status in Employment' for details.

An analysis of survey data from various APEC members shows that much of this discrepancy between women's and men's share in business ownership and their share in sales revenue is related to different characteristics of their enterprises.[10] These data show that women-owned businesses are smaller in size than businesses owned by men. Among the self-employed, women are less likely than men to be employers and more likely to be self-employed without employees or work as unpaid family workers. In the United States for instance, only 7 percent of firms with paid employees are owned by women compared to 8 percent that are jointly-owned, and 42 percent that are owned by men (Figure 4-15). Among those women and men who own businesses that have employees, women-owned businesses have fewer employees than their male counterparts. Figure 4-16 and Figure 4-17 show women's share in business by size of business. Although the size groupings vary across economies, in all the selected economies, women have a larger share in smaller businesses than men. The size of a firm has important implications for growth and development since earlier studies have shown that smaller firms are less likely to be aware of and use financial support, internet facilities, and training programs, which are important for a business to be successful (Weeks and Seiler, 2001).

(Figure 4-15, 4-16, 4-17 about here)

Women-owned firms are also younger than men-owned firms, and due to the fewer years that these firms have been in business, they are less likely to be aware of available business resources and use them to their benefit. Women owned firms, unlike men-owned firms, are largely concentrated in the service sector, particularly in the hotel and personal services industries (Figure 4-18 and 4-19).

[10] Data are from "Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs in the APEC Region," Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, Policy Level Group on Small and Medium Enterprises, Small and Medium Business Administration.

(Figure 4-18 and 4-19 about here)

Interestingly, male and female owners of business are generally equally educated in most of the APEC economies for which data are available. They are generally concerned with the same business issues that include access to capital, access to technology and training, and government business policies.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Women's participation in the labor market and contribution to the economy is important in promoting growth and development. As women are increasingly becoming integral participants in the economy, there is growing interest in their contribution to the economy. This report discusses gender differences in economic participation, wages, employment status, and entrepreneurship in the APEC economies. Using multiple measures of economic participation and labor market indicators, this report addresses not only the difference in participation rates between women and men, but also explores the underlying conditions and factors that are likely responsible for this difference.

One of the most important conclusions is that more women in APEC economies work today than ever before. Data from various economies within the APEC region demonstrate a surge in women's participation in the labor force. However, the rate of increase varies across economies as well as within economies. The gap between women's and men's participation rates has been declining. Yet, there are some economies where women's participation continues to be substantially lower than that of men. Women in the Latin American APEC members also have higher levels of youth unemployment compared to men.

The data in this report suggest that there are differences in the sectors of employment in which women and men work. Employment in agriculture and manufacturing is predominantly male while women are more likely to be found in the service sector. Even within the service industry, men predominantly hold the high-paying jobs in finance, wholesale, and retail, while there are more women in care giving, educational, and personal services, which have traditionally been dominated by women.

Apart from sectoral concentration, there continues to be striking gender segregation in occupational status. Men continue to hold higher positions in the occupational hierarchy with about 60 percent of the professional jobs in most member economies, and about 90 percent of the administrative, managerial, and legislative jobs in some. However, there are some economies like Russia and the Philippines, where a more balanced distribution of professional jobs is observed. Perhaps even more striking is the fact that, even when women are employed as salaried workers, they are often engaged in atypical and non-regular work. Also, women's wages continue to be lower than that of men.

Employment in informal activities and in the informal sector has become a major source of employment, particularly for women in the APEC economies, as elsewhere in the world. With a general lack of data about employment in these activities, it is, however, difficult to provide a detailed account about women's and men's contributions through economic engagement. Data from some economies at least suggest that among those who are self-employed, more women than men were self-account workers while more men were employers.

Women's share in entrepreneurship has increased in recent years and from the little data that are available for a few economies, it is evident that in some, women own over 30 percent of firms. Yet, women's share in sales revenue is substantially lower than firms owned by men.

Overall, this report suggests that women have made important strides toward increased participation in the APEC economies. As half or more of the adult population, women consistently contribute to the growth and development of the economy through their involvement not only in the formal employment sector but also through other activities. However, the fact that women and men have systematically different access to and control of resources, including that of time, has significant implications for economic growth and development. Women's contributions to the economy in the household and community are often overlooked. Figure 5-1 shows that women in most of the selected economies spend more time working than men. However, during this time, women are more likely to be engaged in non-market activities while men are more likely to be involved in market activities (Figure 5-2 and Figure 5-3). Consequently, if these activities are not recognized, women's need for economic incentives and productive resources are often ignored or not understood. For instance, women's labor force participation generally dips during the child-bearing and child-rearing years in most economies. Also, women's multiple roles that include family care giving and household chores often impose restrictions on their ability to work inflexible hours.

In addition to social and cultural expectations that often restrict women to more traditional and care-giving roles, unequal power relations within the family and the

workplace stifle professional women's upward mobility to high paying and powerful positions in the occupational hierarchy.

(Figures 5-1, 5-2, and 5-3 about here)

Unless more is done to balance the resources that help to create equal opportunities for women and men, women are unlikely to achieve the fruits of development. With better access to the productive resources and a reduction of the traditional norms in the sexual division of labor, women are more likely to move into better-paid and more stable sectors of the economy. With policies that address gender equality in education, family chores, and childcare facilities, the APEC economies can bring about a marked improvement in income-earning and entrepreneurial capacities.

To achieve this goal, there needs to be more research on women's and men's roles in the economy. The APEC is a diverse group of economies that are characterized by different cultural and societal norms and beliefs. To be able to analyze women's contributions to these diverse societies, there is an urgent need for sex-disaggregated comparable statistics across economies. At present, there is only limited quantitative data on a few indicators of women's and men's labor market participation. For some economies, there is a dearth of even the most basic data. Furthermore, even when there is data, they are neither comparable across economies nor through time. With ever-changing definitions and categories, the available data are often ill-suited for comparative research and trend research.

Secondly, most of the data that are available is for formal activities. There is limited information on the informal sector or informal activities. Even if some economies have information on some of the indicators, most of these data are not sex-

disaggregated. This is particularly disadvantageous for women since in most of the APEC economies, more women than men are engaged in informal activities and in the absence of sex-disaggregated data their contribution is left unmeasured. The same is true with regard to sex-disaggregated data on entrepreneurship.

Thirdly, many APEC members are undergoing a rapid ageing of the population. With increased life expectancy, and healthier aging, some older women and men may continue to work beyond the retirement years. Given that women comprise the majority of older population and also that women and men may differ in their experience in the labor market, it is relevant to explore women's and men's participation in the labor force beyond the generally accepted working age.

Based on these gaps in data, this report recommends:

1. The use of a common template of sex-disaggregated data collection for the basic indicators of the labor market. The Appendix tables in this report provide examples of templates that could be used for data dissemination.
2. Sex-disaggregated data by age that will provide a picture of women's and men's economic participation at different age groups.
3. Maintenance of at least some basic definitions for indicators so that they are comparable across economies and over time.
4. Additional small surveys to obtain sex-disaggregated data for the informal sector. These surveys could at least provide an overview of women's and men's contribution to the informal economy.

5. A basic data registry of business enterprises through local or county statistical agencies. This will not only provide sex-disaggregated data on business ownership, but also help identify entrepreneurs who need training and other assistance. With the rising significance of SMEs and microenterprises in economic development, particularly for women, it is pertinent that more data be available on participation in these activities.

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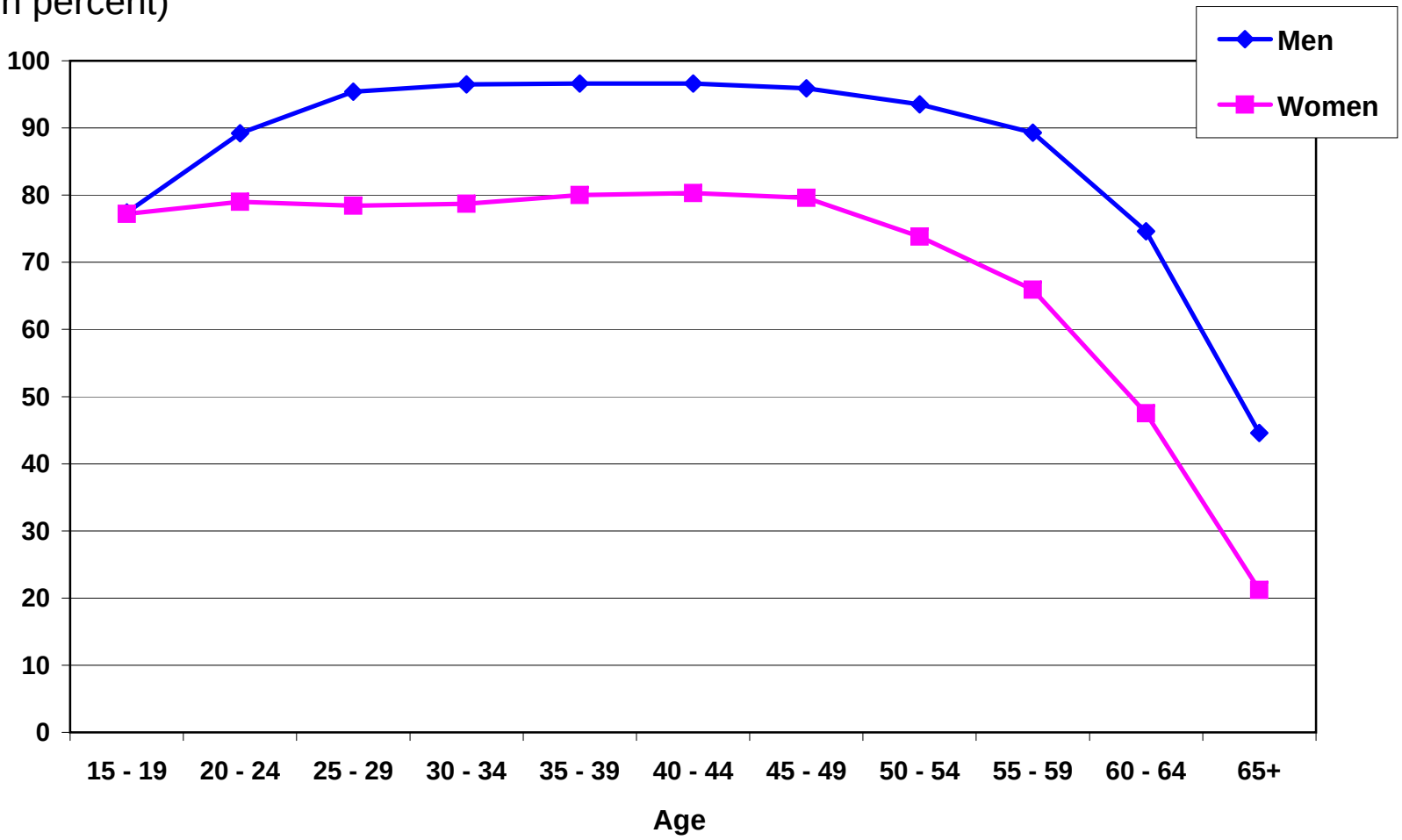
Table 1-1: Activity Rates of the Total Population Aged 15 years and over, by Sex

Country	Year	Total	Male	Female	F/M Ratio
Australia	2002	63.4	72.0	55.1	0.77
Brunei Darussalam	1991	65.6	82.2	46.4	0.56
Canada	2002	66.9	73.3	60.7	0.83
Chile	2001	38.4	51.8	25.4	0.49
People's Republic of China	1990	79.2	85.0	73.0	0.86
Hong Kong, China	2001	61.4	72.9	50.7	0.70
Indonesia	1999	67.9	84.6	51.5	0.61
Japan	2002	61.2	74.7	48.5	0.65
Korea	2001	60.8	73.6	48.8	0.66
Malaysia	2000	41.3	52.7	29.4	0.56
Mexico	2002	58.9	81.7	38.6	0.47
New Zealand	2002	64.7	72.8	57.0	0.78
Papua New Guinea	1971	73.1	88.0	57.4	0.65
Peru	2001	68.8	79.6	59.0	0.74
Philippines	2001	67.5	82.3	52.8	0.64
Russia	1999	58.8	67.1	51.8	0.77
Singapore	2000	68.6	81.1	55.5	0.68
Thailand	2001	73.2	81.4	65.0	0.80
United States of America	1991	66.9	74.4	60.1	0.81
Vietnam	1989	77.2	81.5	73.6	0.90

Source: ILO

Figure 1-1. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Sex, Thailand: 2001

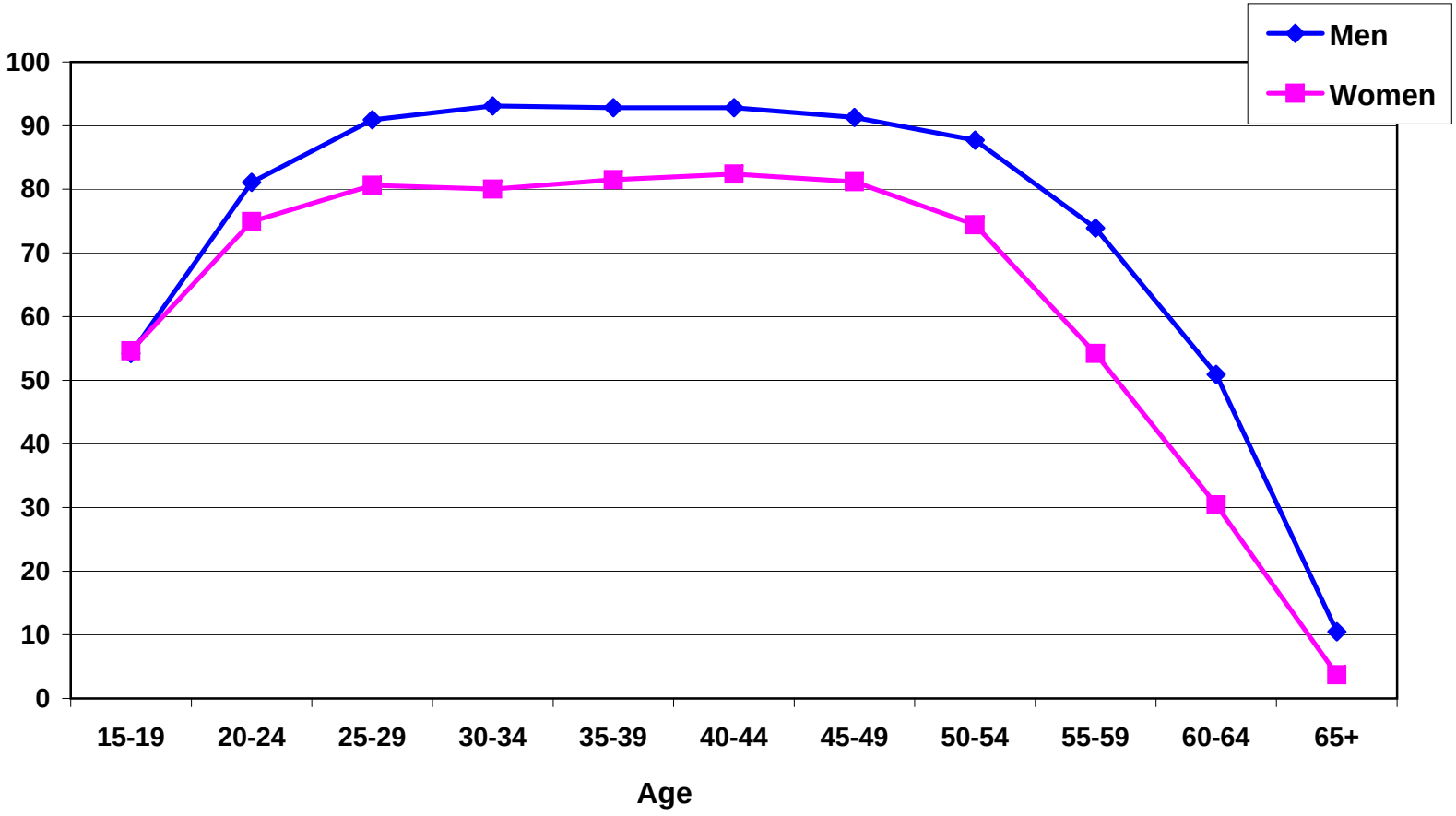
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-2. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Sex, Canada: 2002

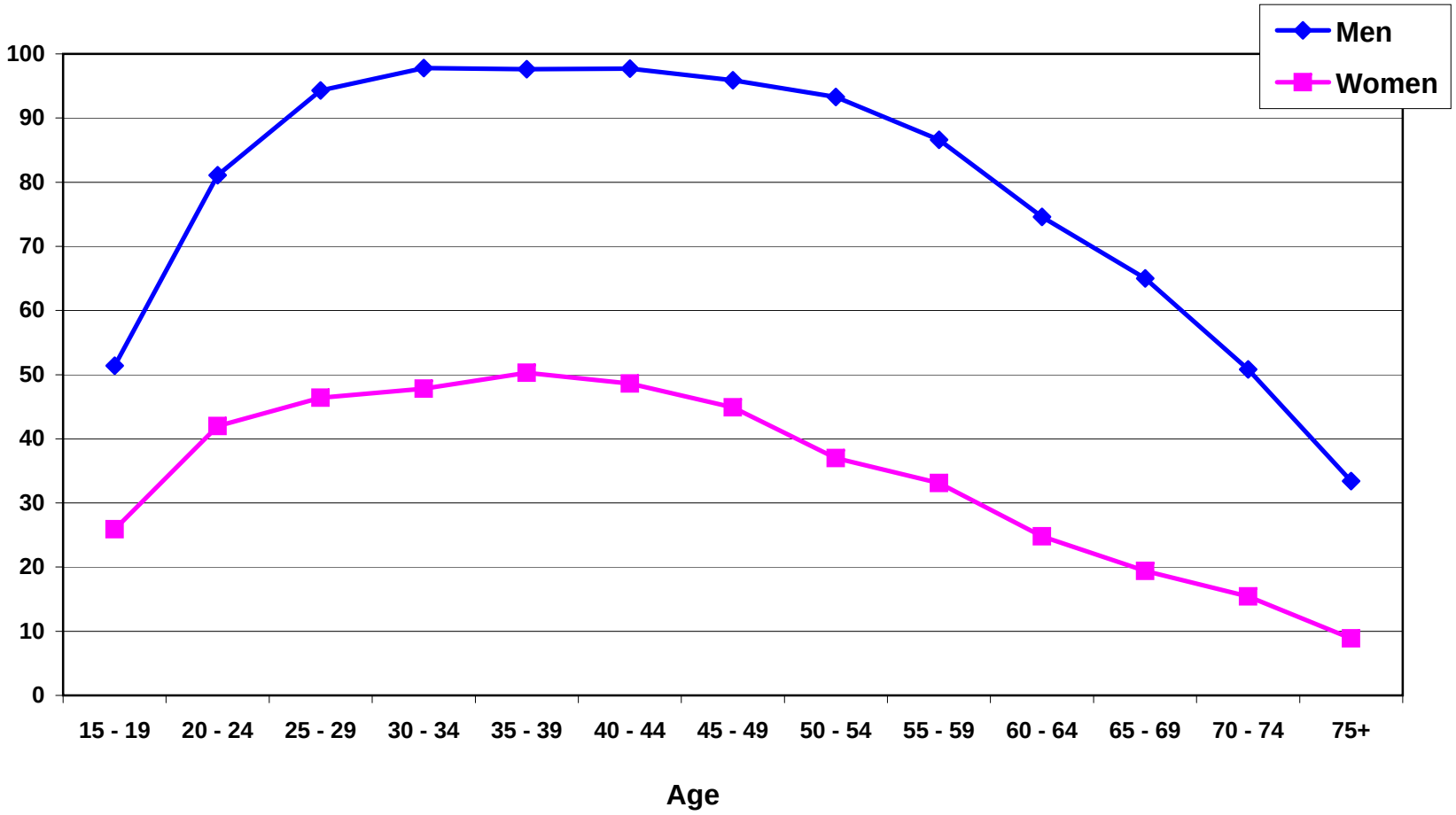
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-3. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Sex, Mexico: 2002

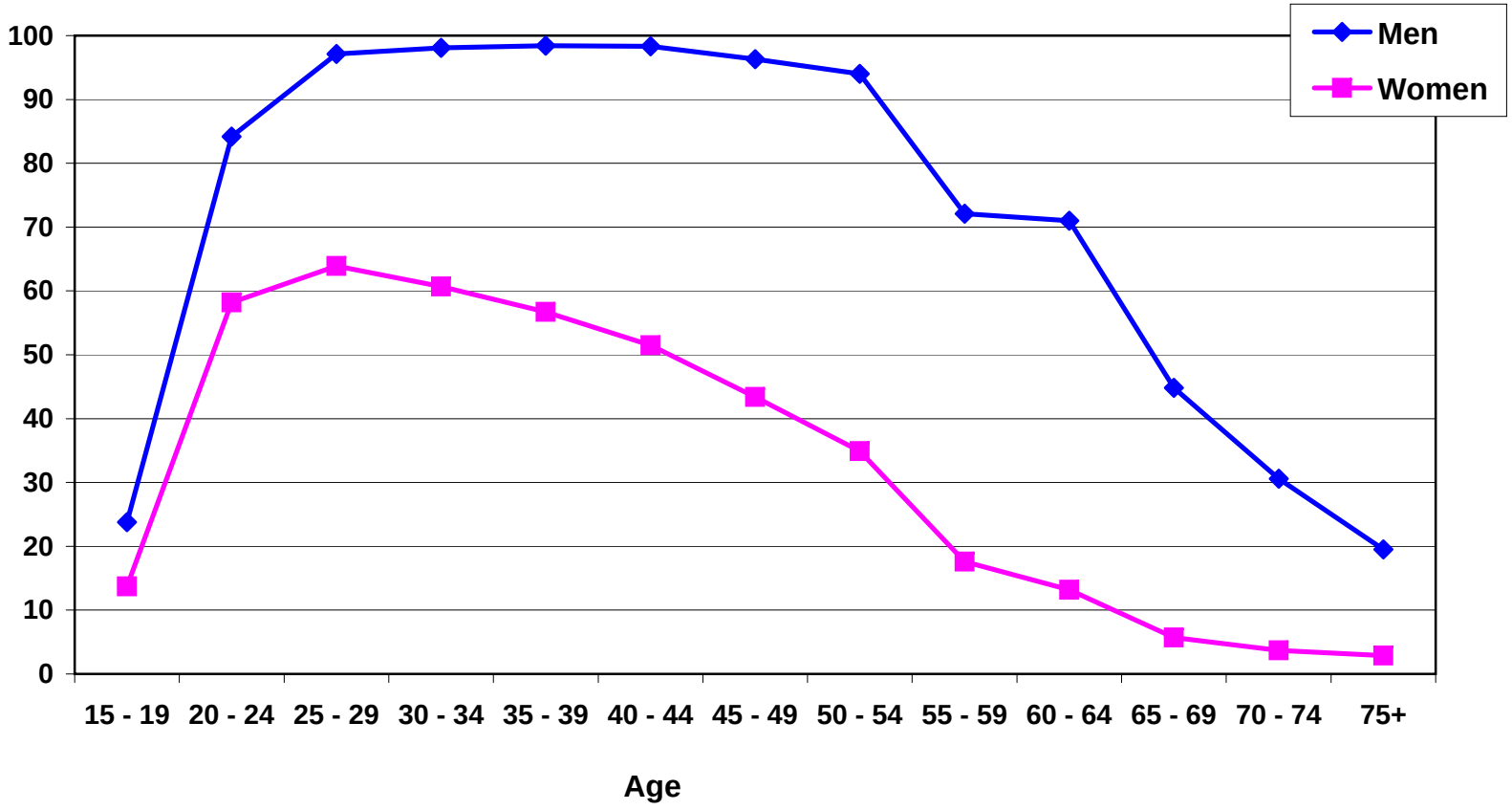
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 14 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-4. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Sex, Brunei Darussalam: 1991

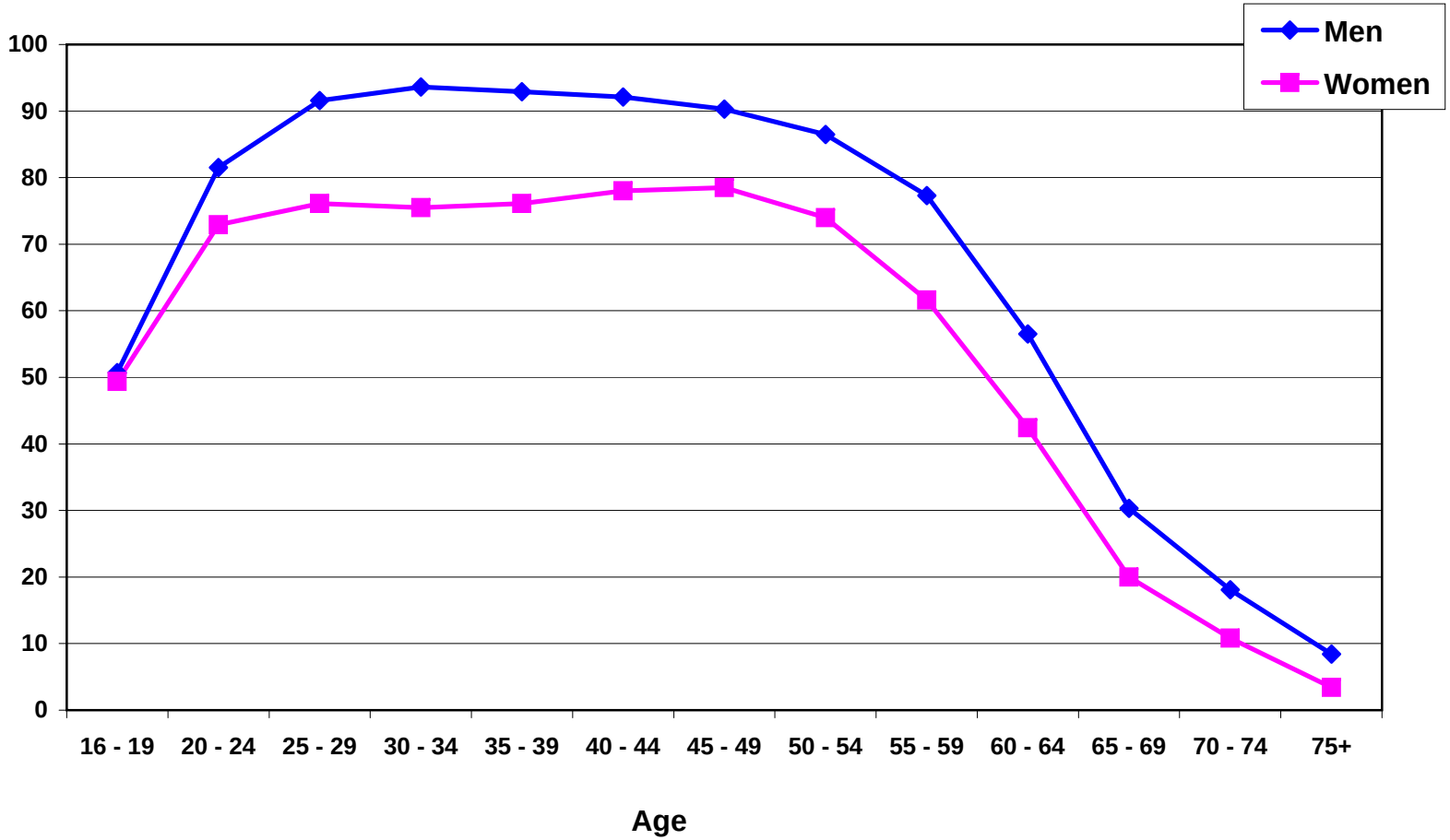
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-5. Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Sex, United States: 2002

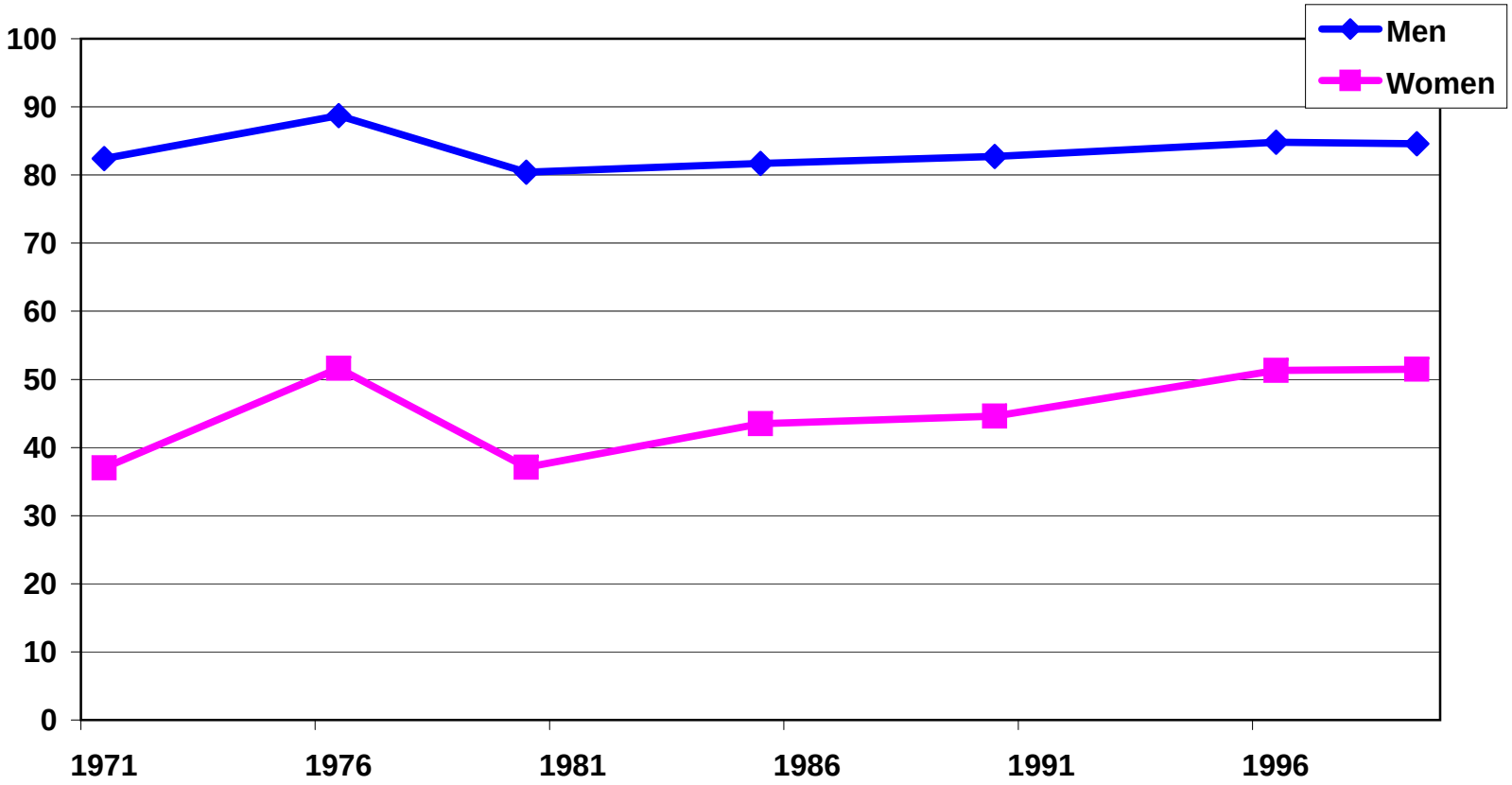
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 16 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-6. Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex, Indonesia: 1971 - 1999

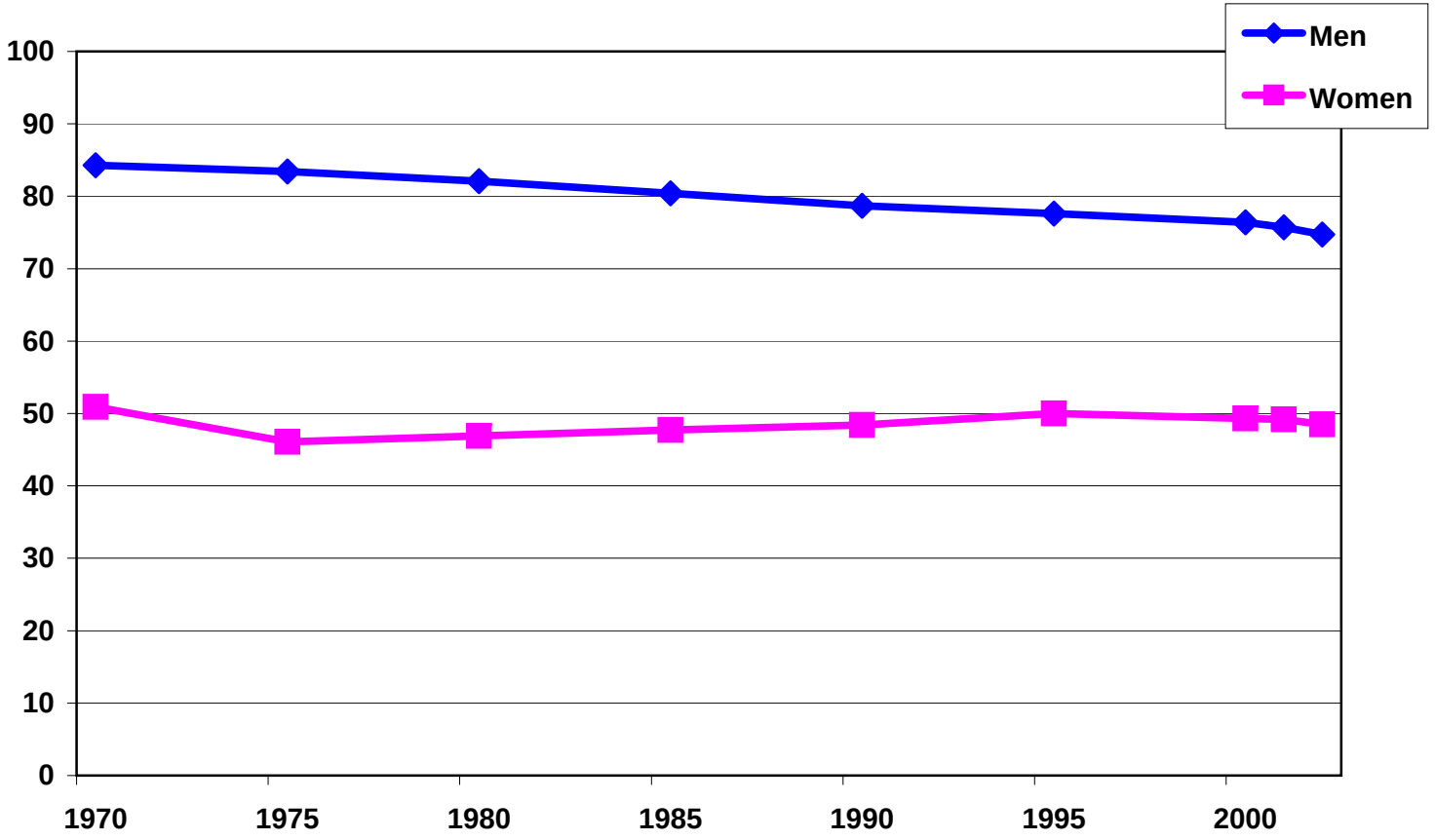
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-7. Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex, Japan: 1970 - 2002

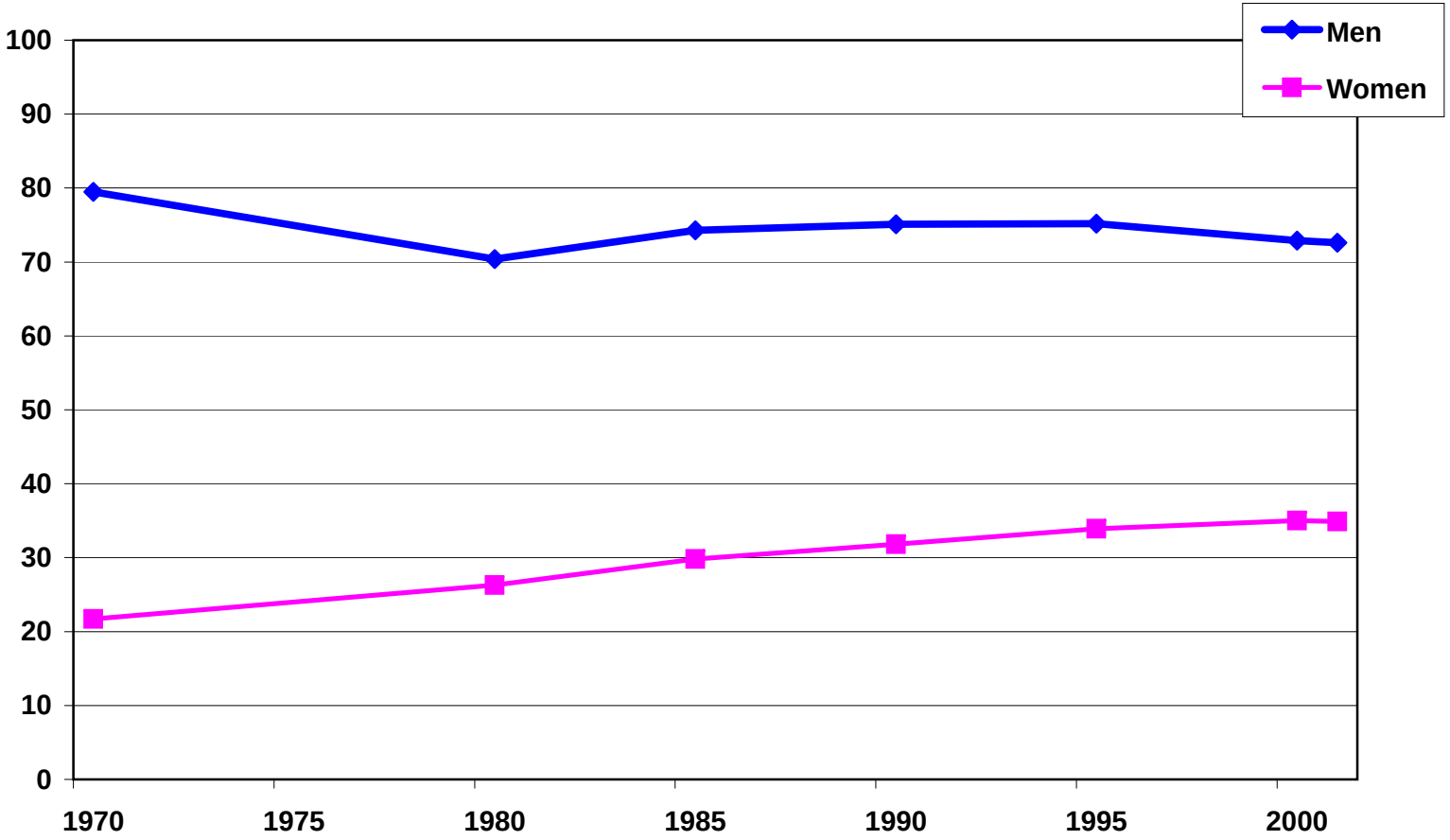
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

Figure 1-8. Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex, Chile: 1970 - 2001

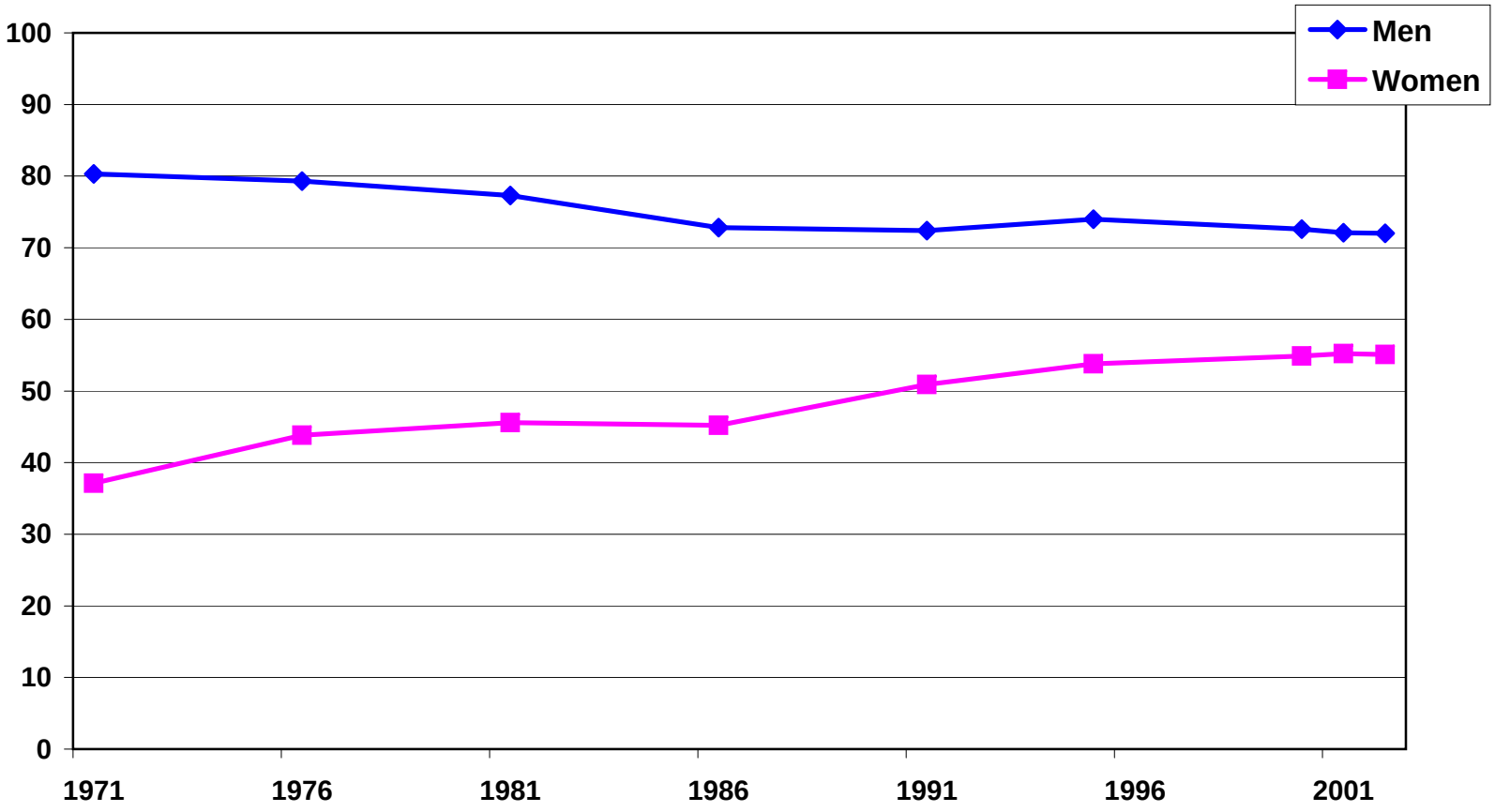
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

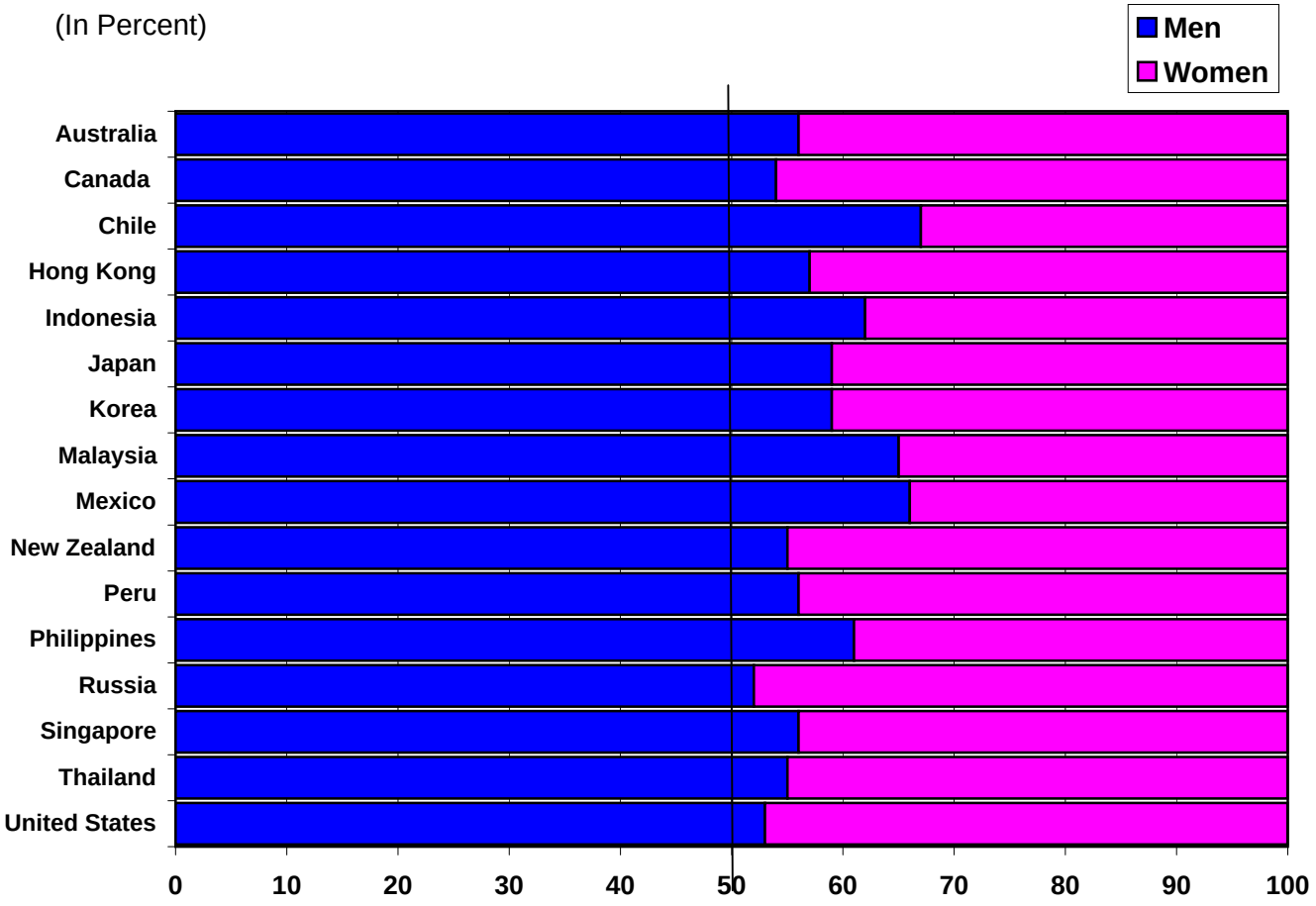
Figure 1-9. Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex, Australia: 1971 - 2001

(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization website, 2004.

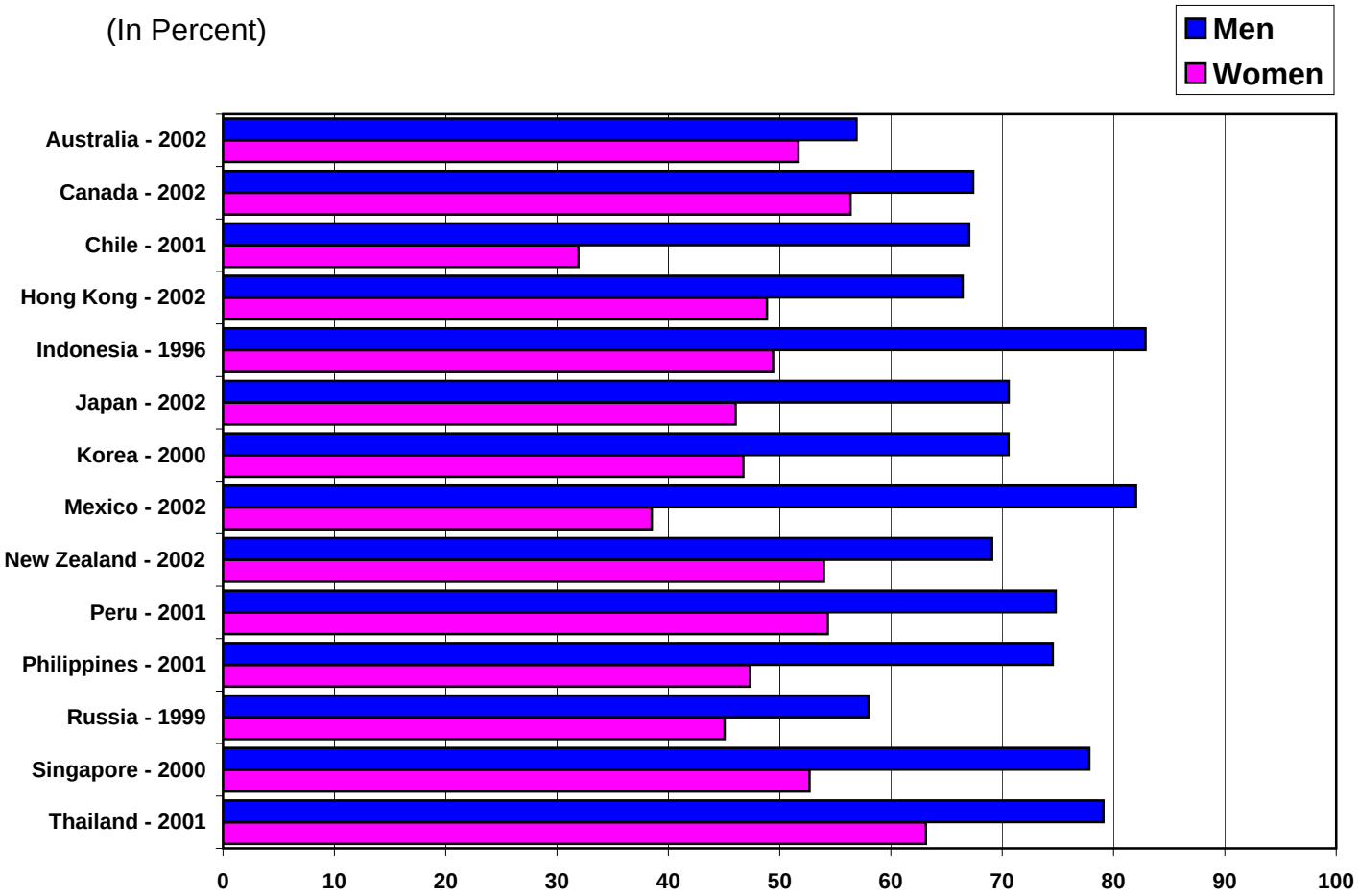
Figure 2-1. Men and Women in Total Employment in Selected APEC Economies: 2001



Source: International Labor Organization.

Figure 2-2. Employment Population Ratio by Sex: Latest Year Available

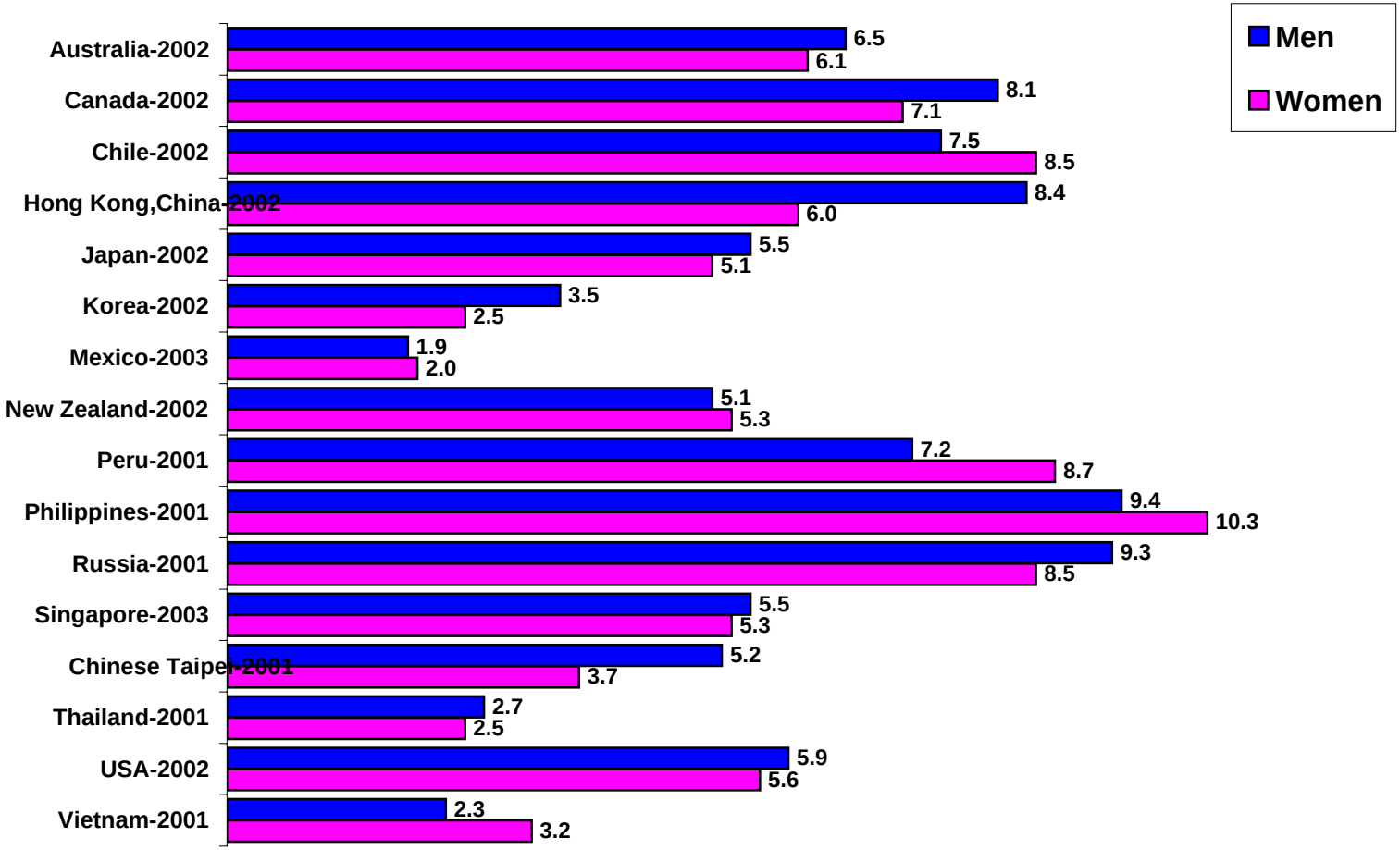
(In Percent)



Source: International Labor Organization.

Figure 2-3. Unemployment Levels by Sex for Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

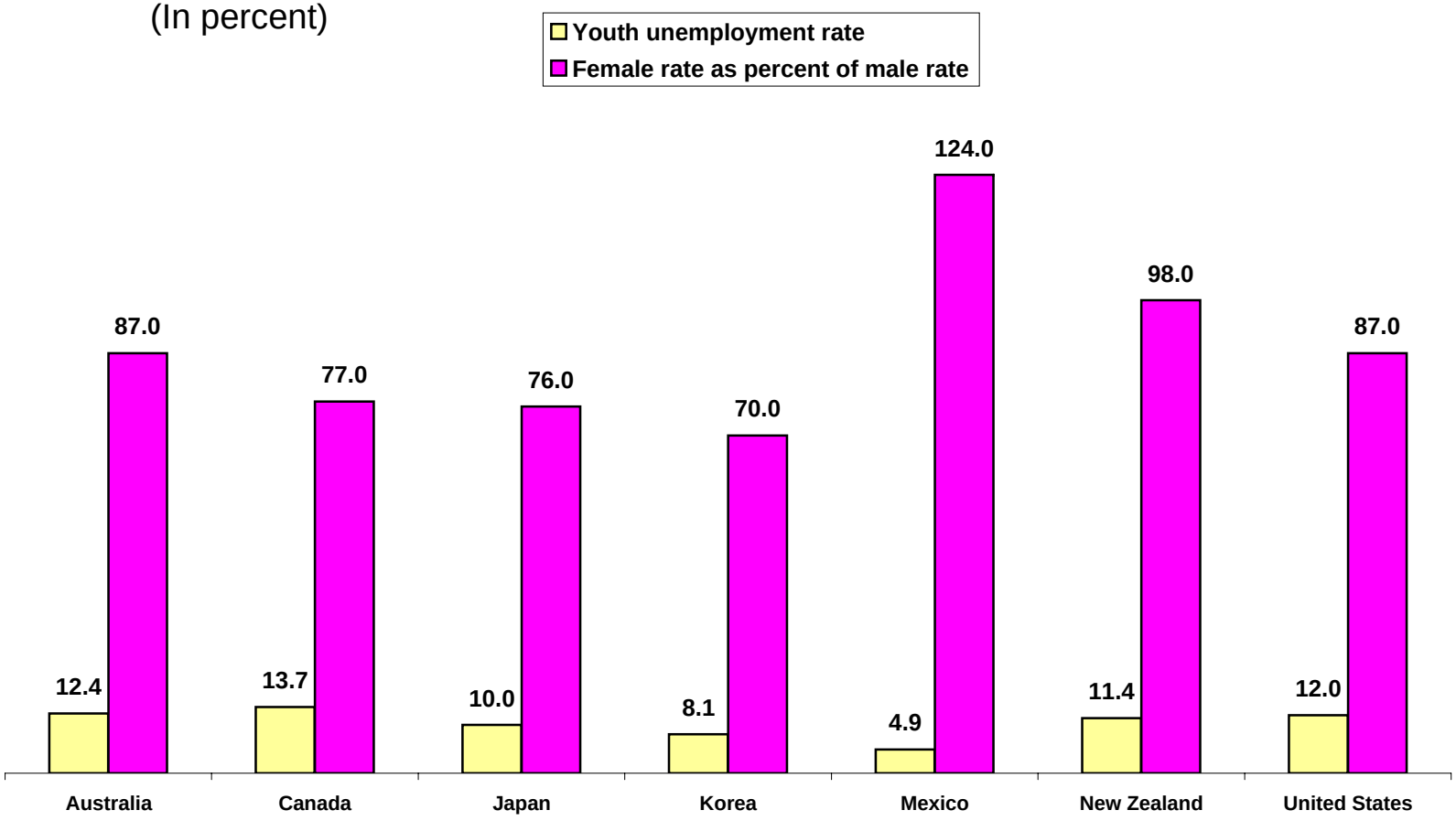
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization

Figure 2-4. Youth Unemployment Rate in Selected APEC Economies: 2002

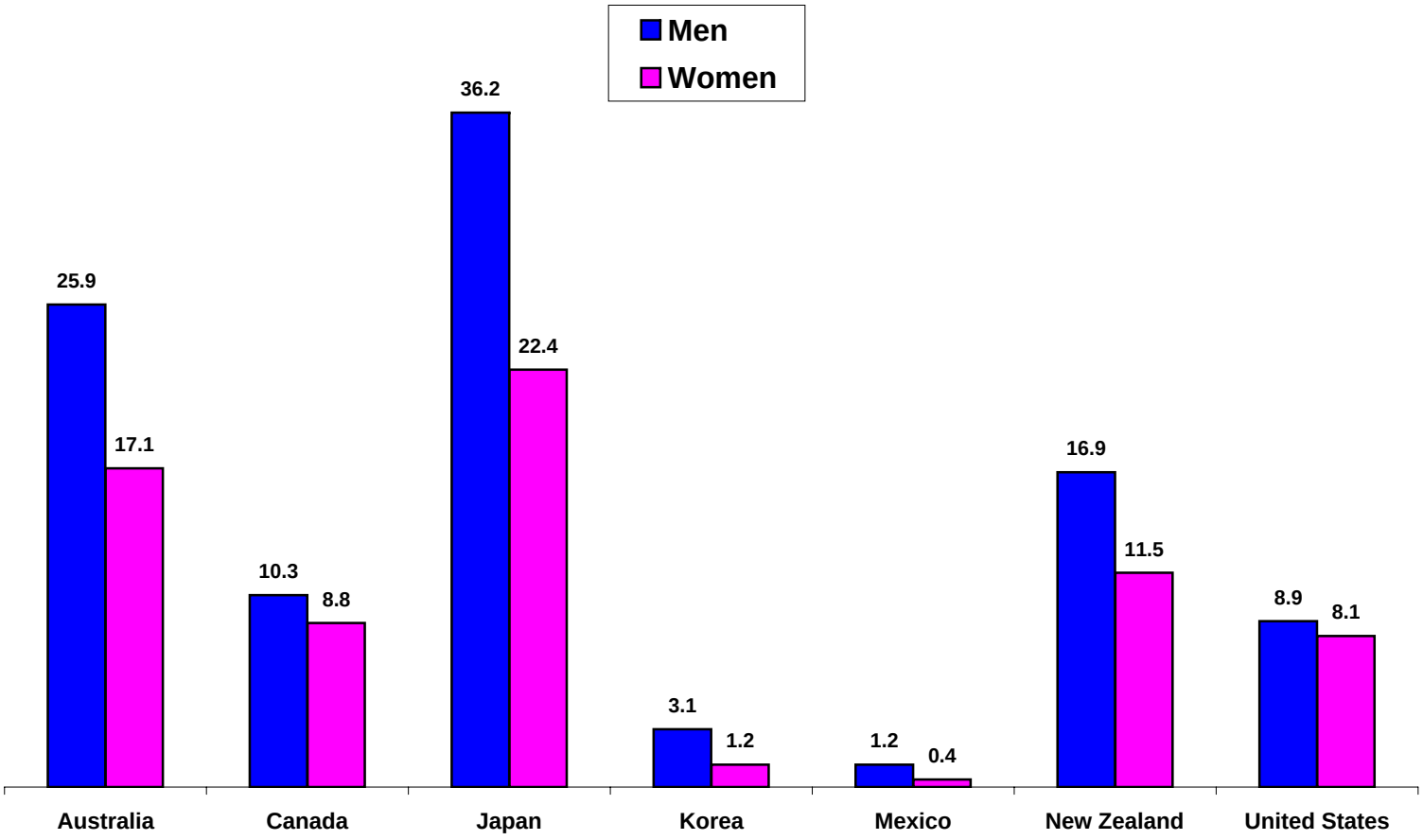
(In percent)



Note: The youth unemployment rate is for the population aged 15 to 25. Where the female rate as a percent of the male rate is less than 100, it means men are unemployed at a higher rate than women; where it is greater than 100, women are unemployed at a higher rate than men.
Source: Human Development Report, 2004.

Figure 2-5. Long-Term Unemployment as a Percentage of Total Unemployment, by Sex for Selected APEC Economies: 2002

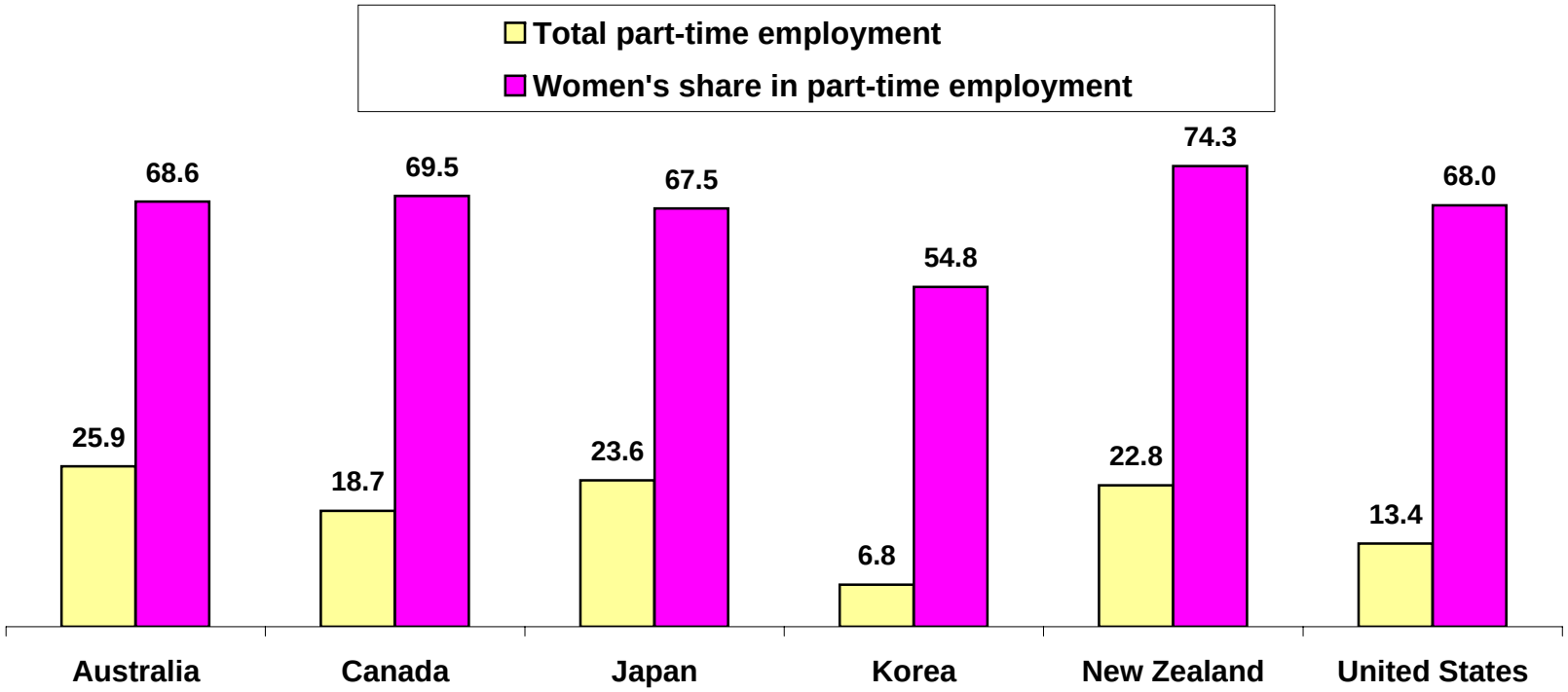
(In percent)



Source: Human Development Report, 2004.

Figure 2-6. Part-time Employment as a Proportion of Total Employment and Women's Share in Part-time Employment in Selected APEC Economies: 1998

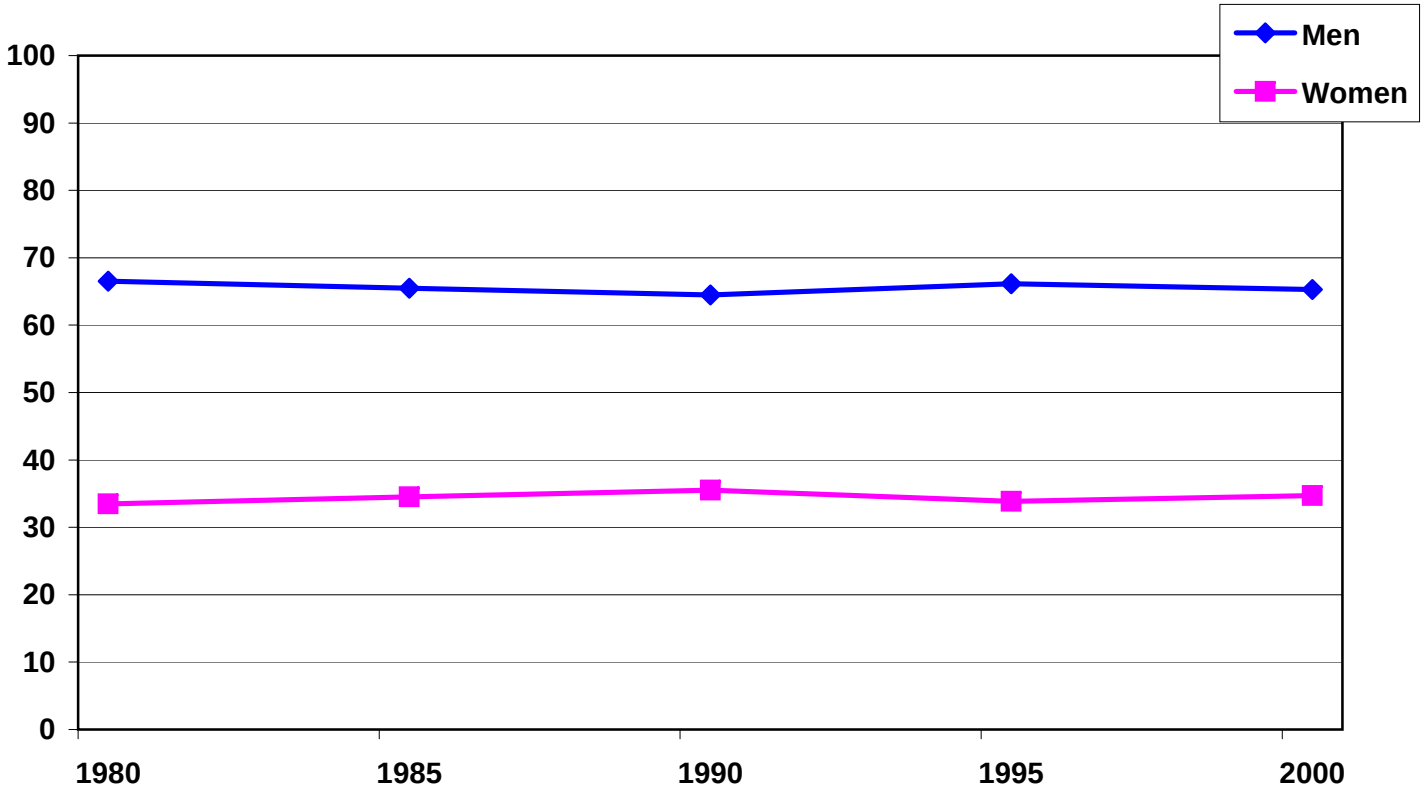
(In percent)



For Japan, Australia, and Korea, data are based on actual hours worked; for Australia, part-time employment is based on hours worked at all jobs; for Japan, part-time employment is less than 35 hours per week; for the United States, estimates are for wage and salary workers only.
Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 2-7. Sex Distribution of the Employed Population, Malaysia: 1980 - 2000

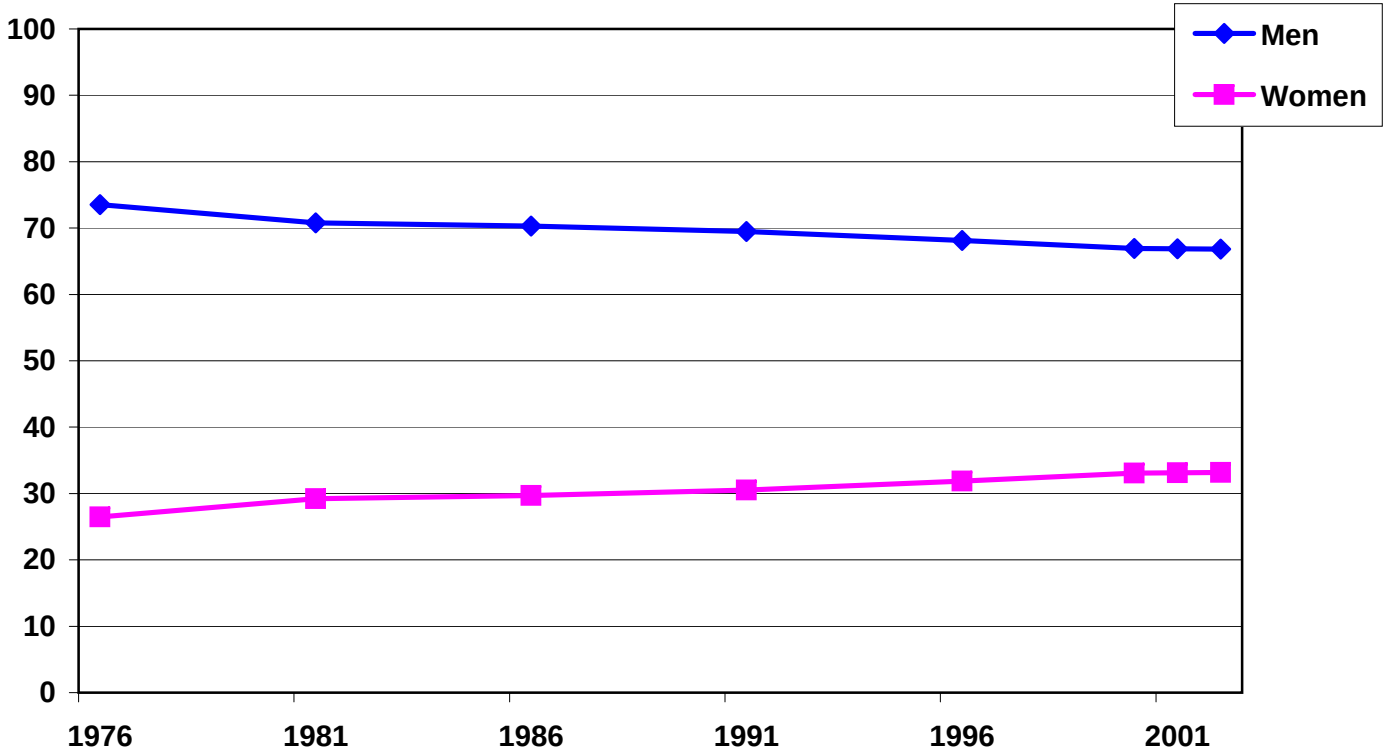
(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over.
Source: International Labor Organization.

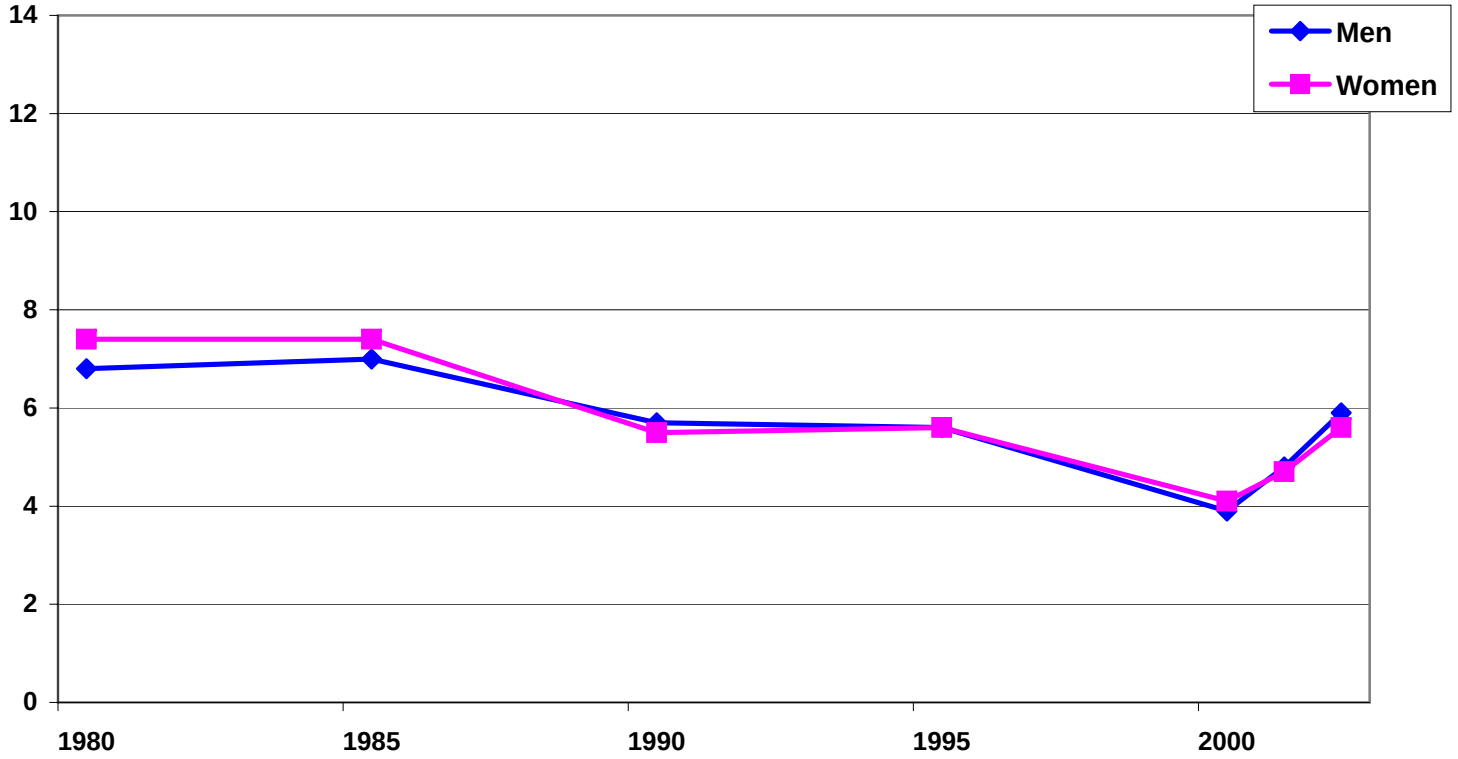
Figure 2-8. Sex Distribution of the Employed Population, Chile: 1976 - 2001

(In percent)



Note: Data are for the population aged 15 and over. Data are collected the fourth quarter of each year. The sample design was revised in 1996.
Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

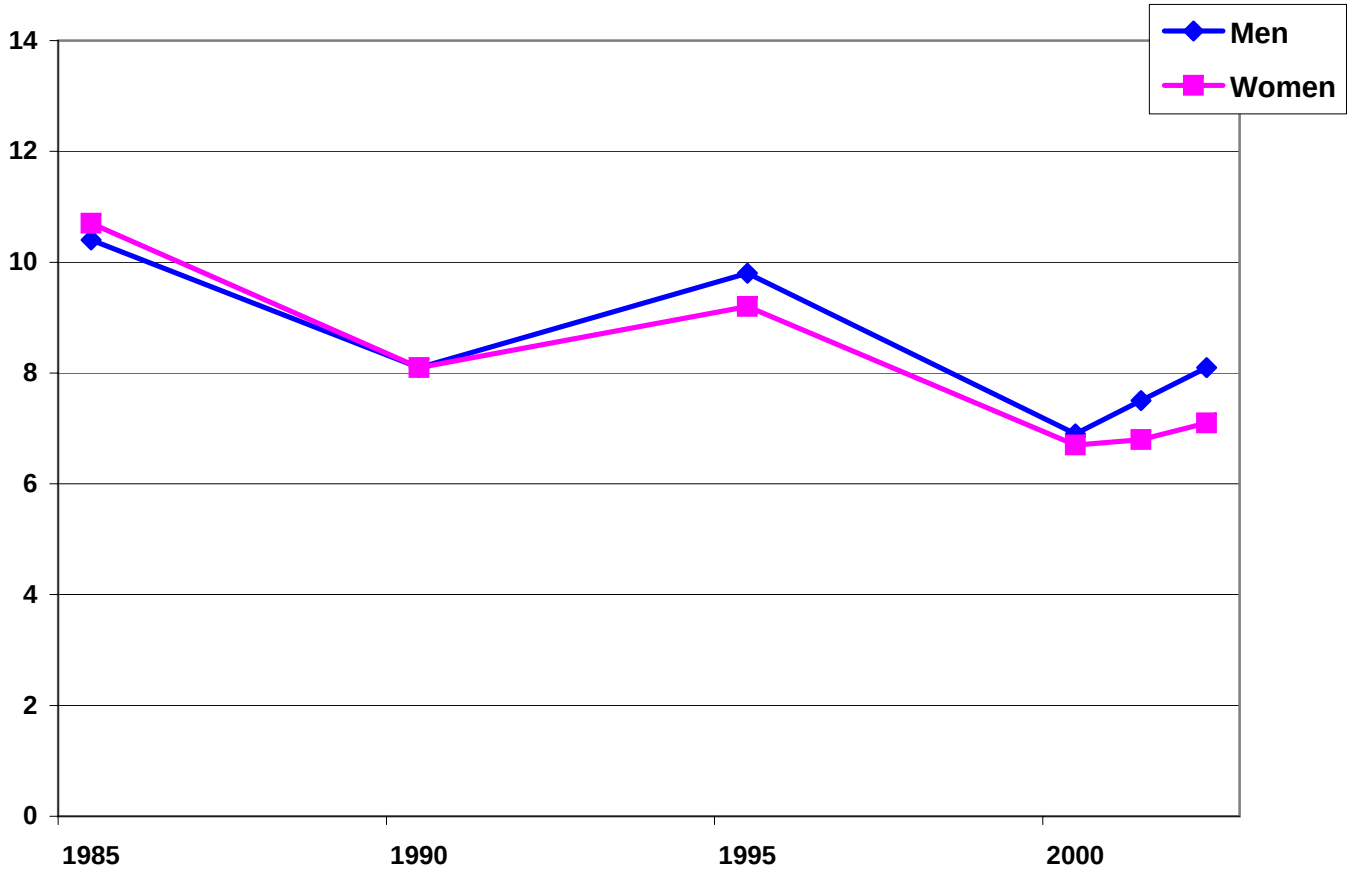
Figure 2-9. Unemployment Rate for the United States, by Sex: 1980 - 2002
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization

Figure 2-10. Unemployment Rate for Canada, by Sex: 1985 - 2002

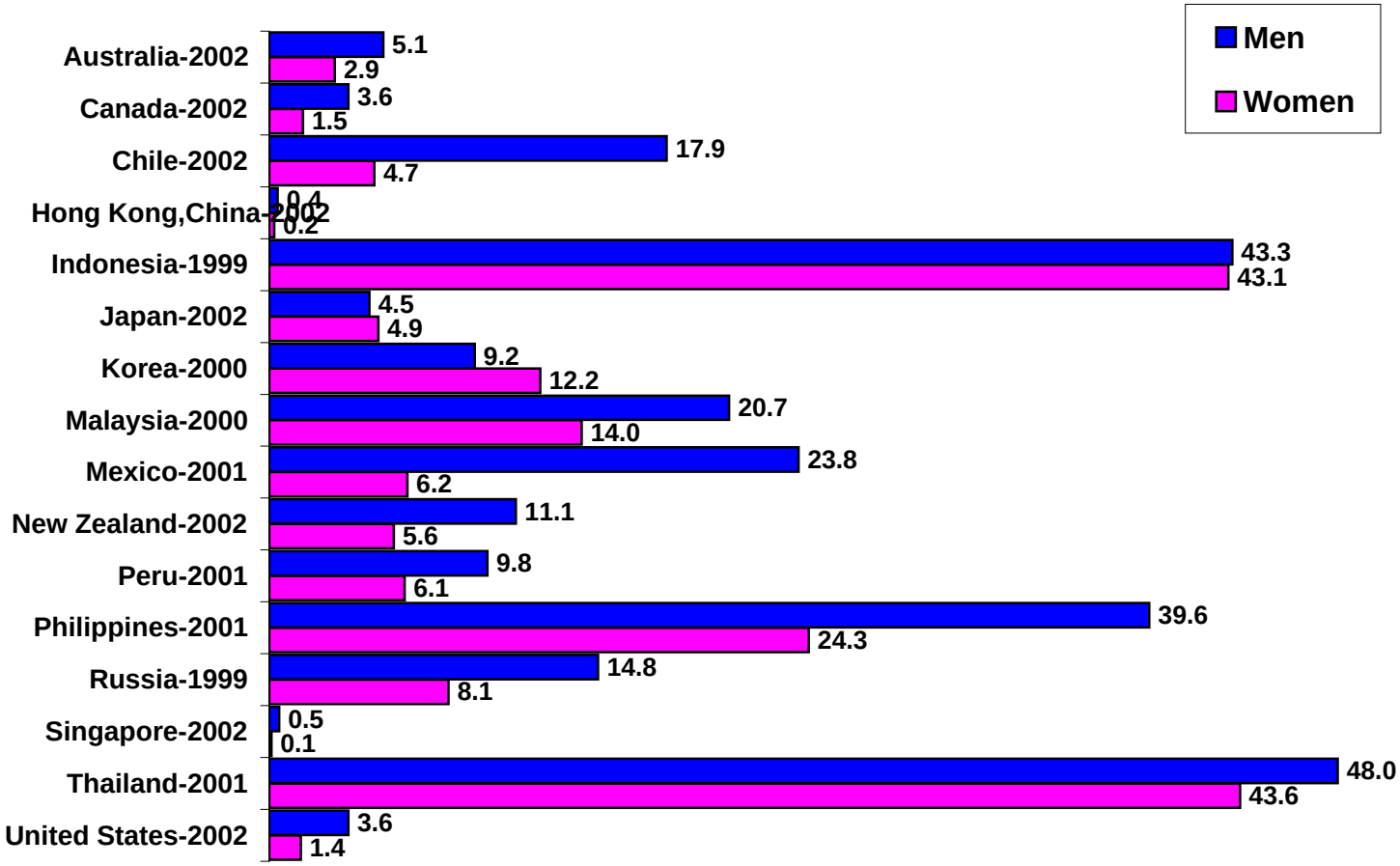
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization.

Figure 3-1. Employment in Agriculture by Sex in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

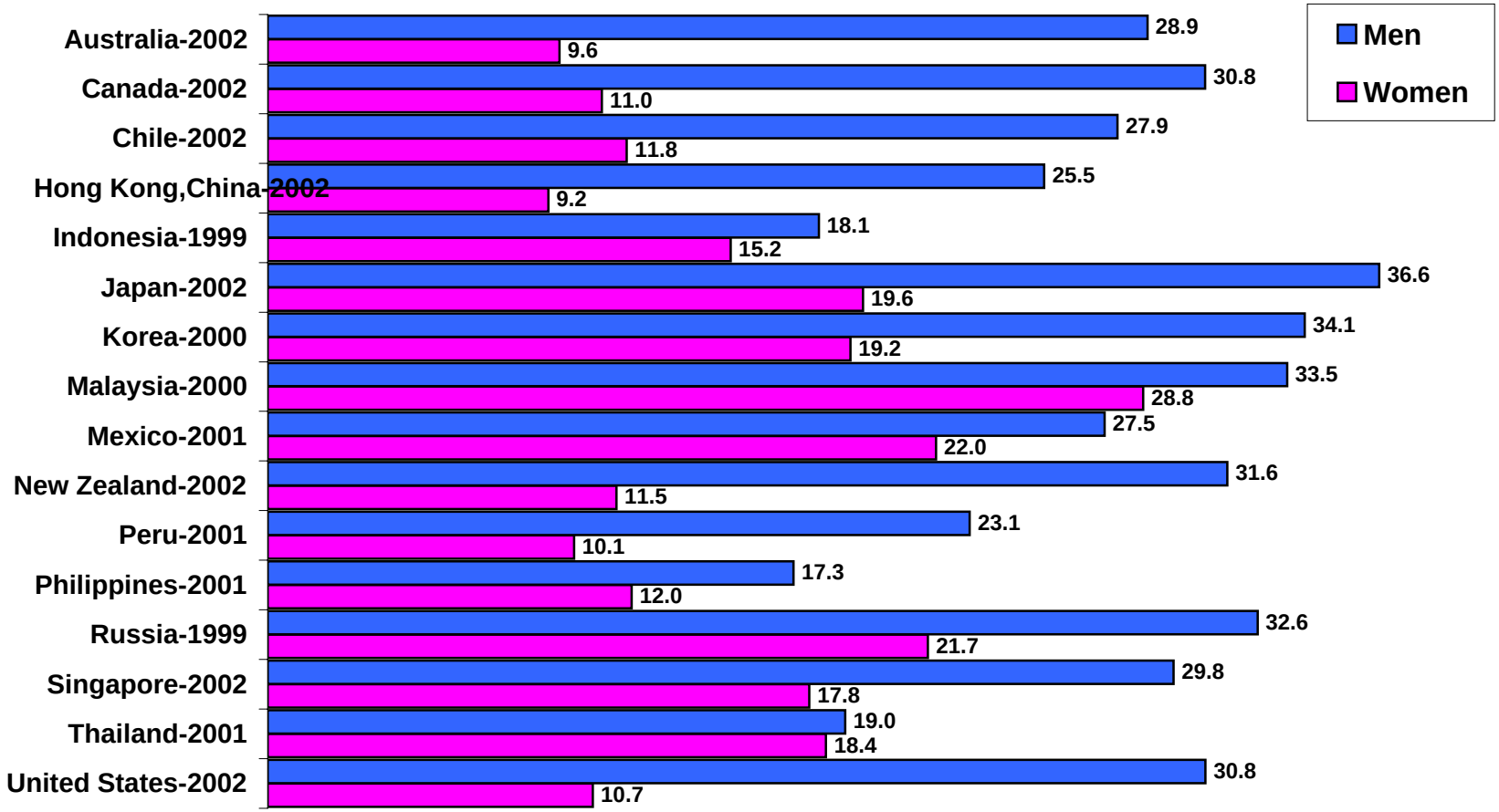
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

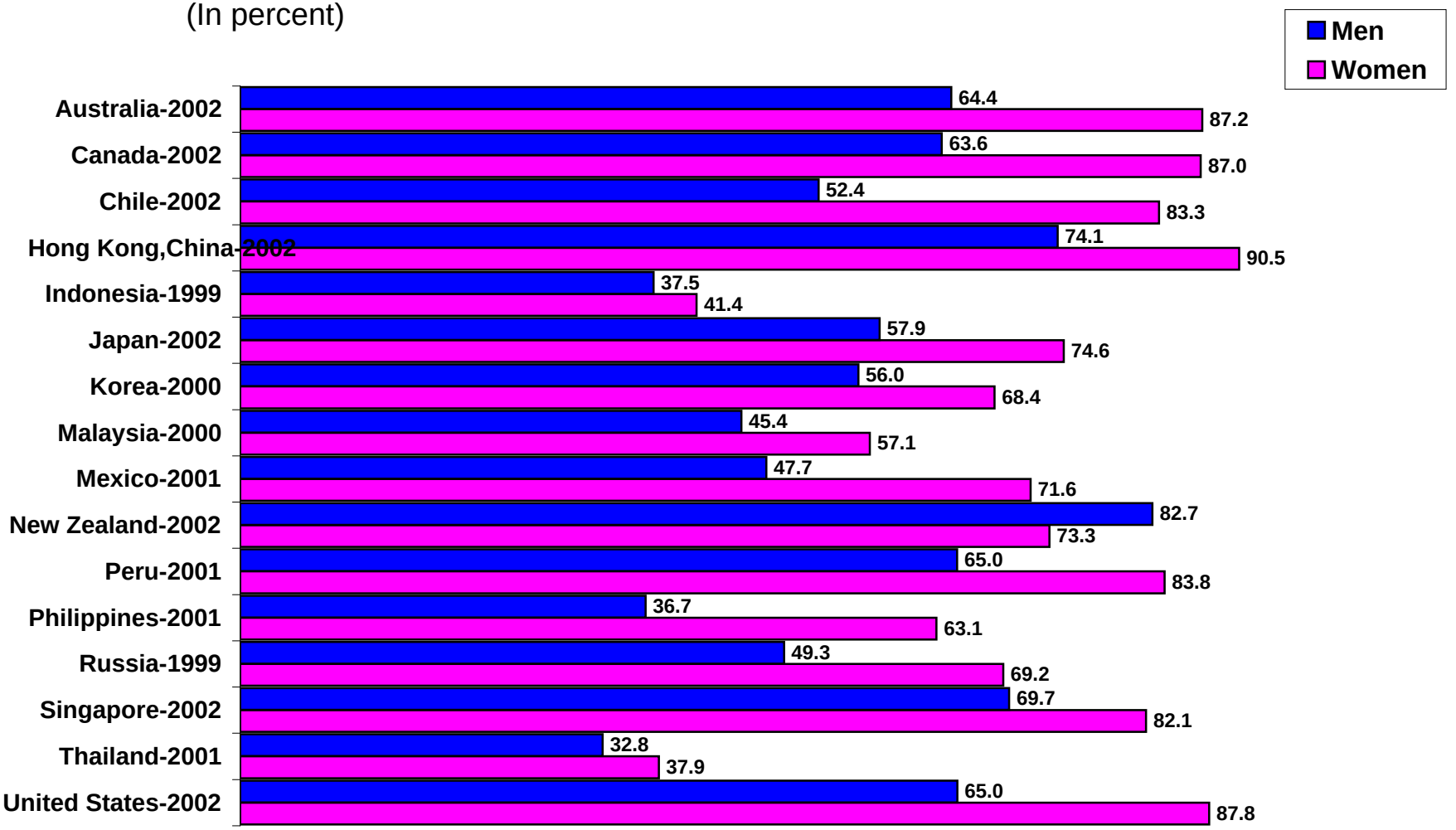
Figure 3-2. Employment in Manufacturing and Construction Activities by Sex in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

(In percent)



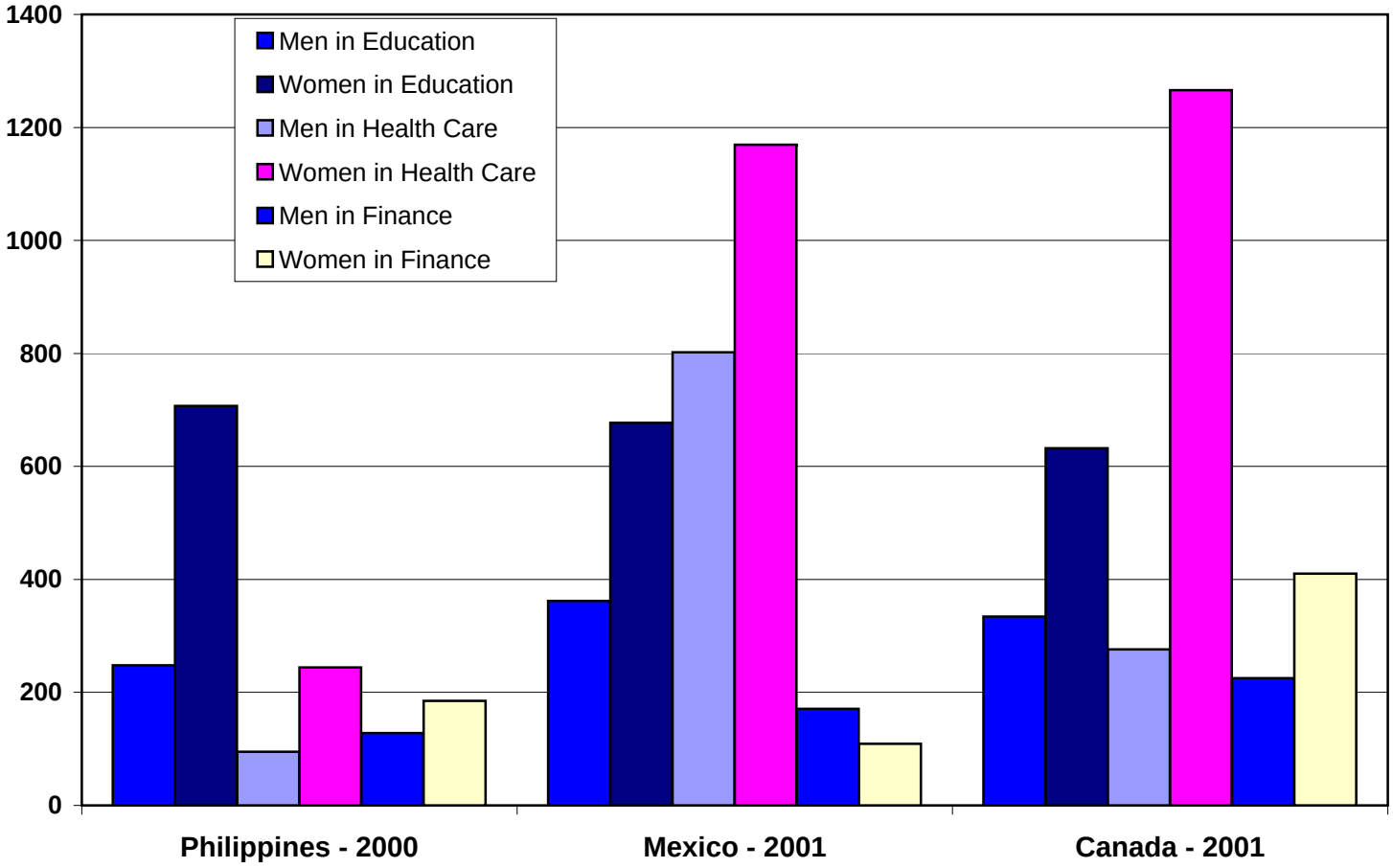
Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 3-3. Employment in Service Activities by Sex in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

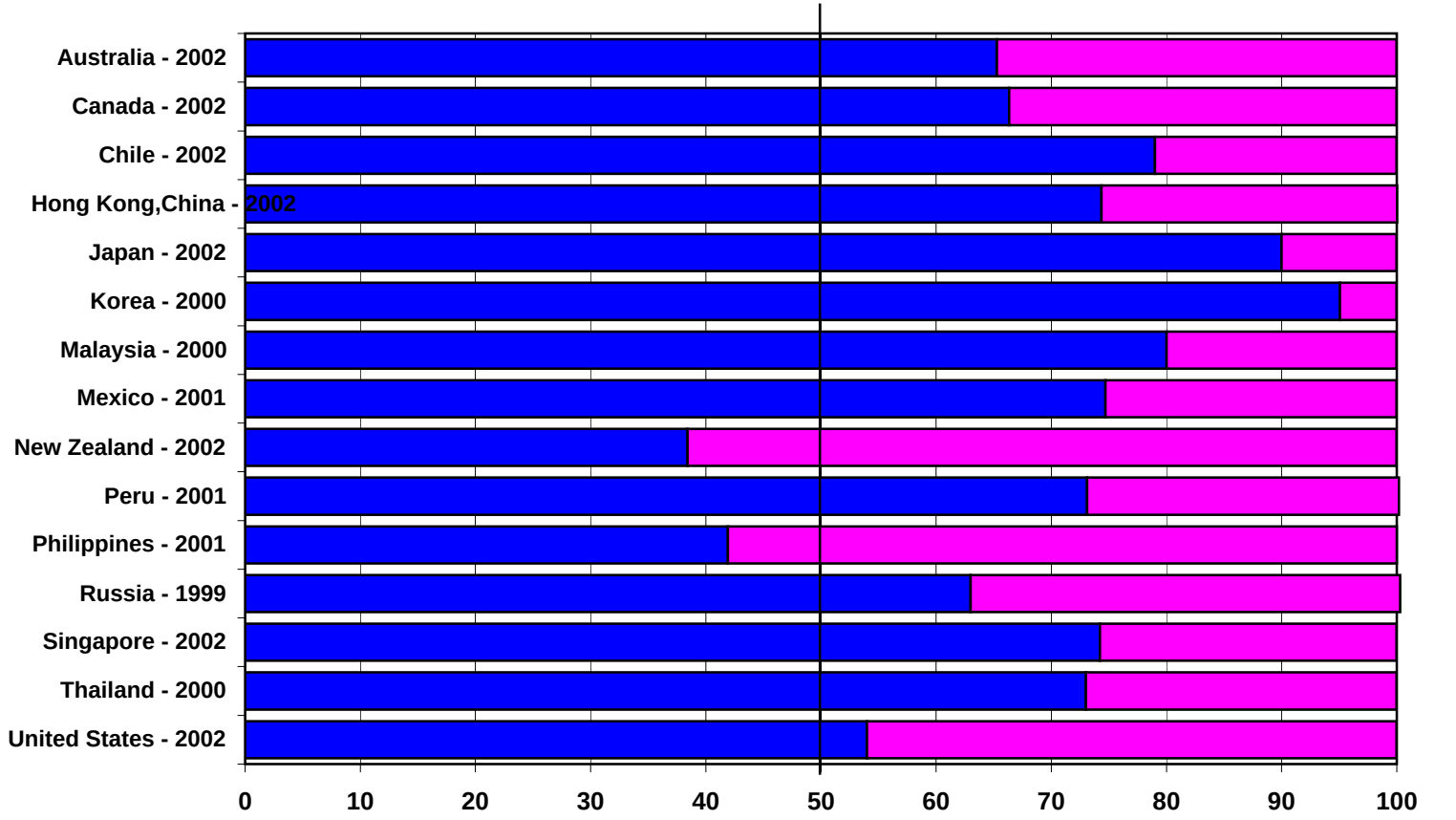
Figure 3-4. Men and Women Employed in the Service Sector for Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 3-5. Men and Women Employed as Legislators, Senior Officials, and Managers in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

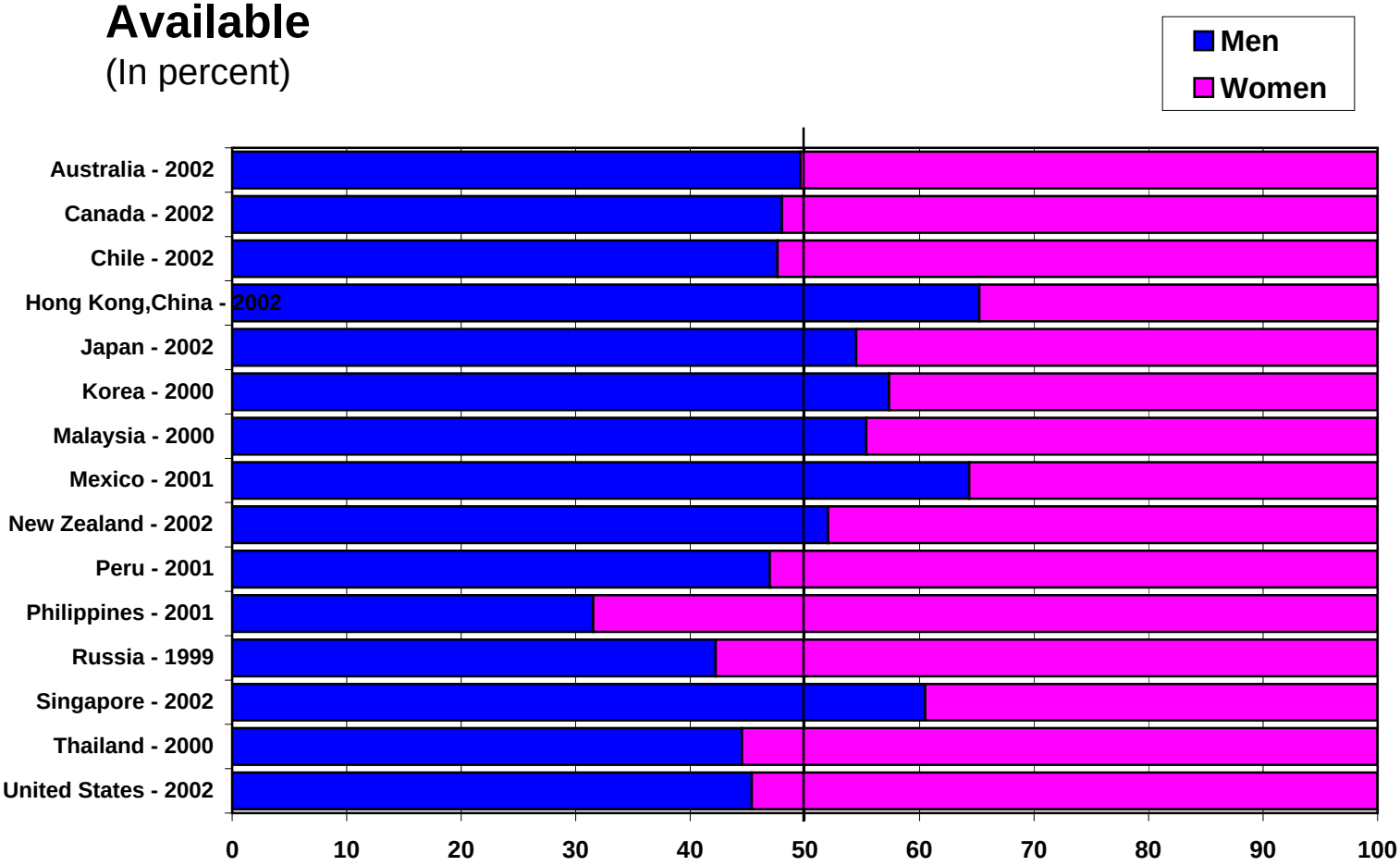
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 3-6. Men and Women Employed in Professional and Technical Work in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

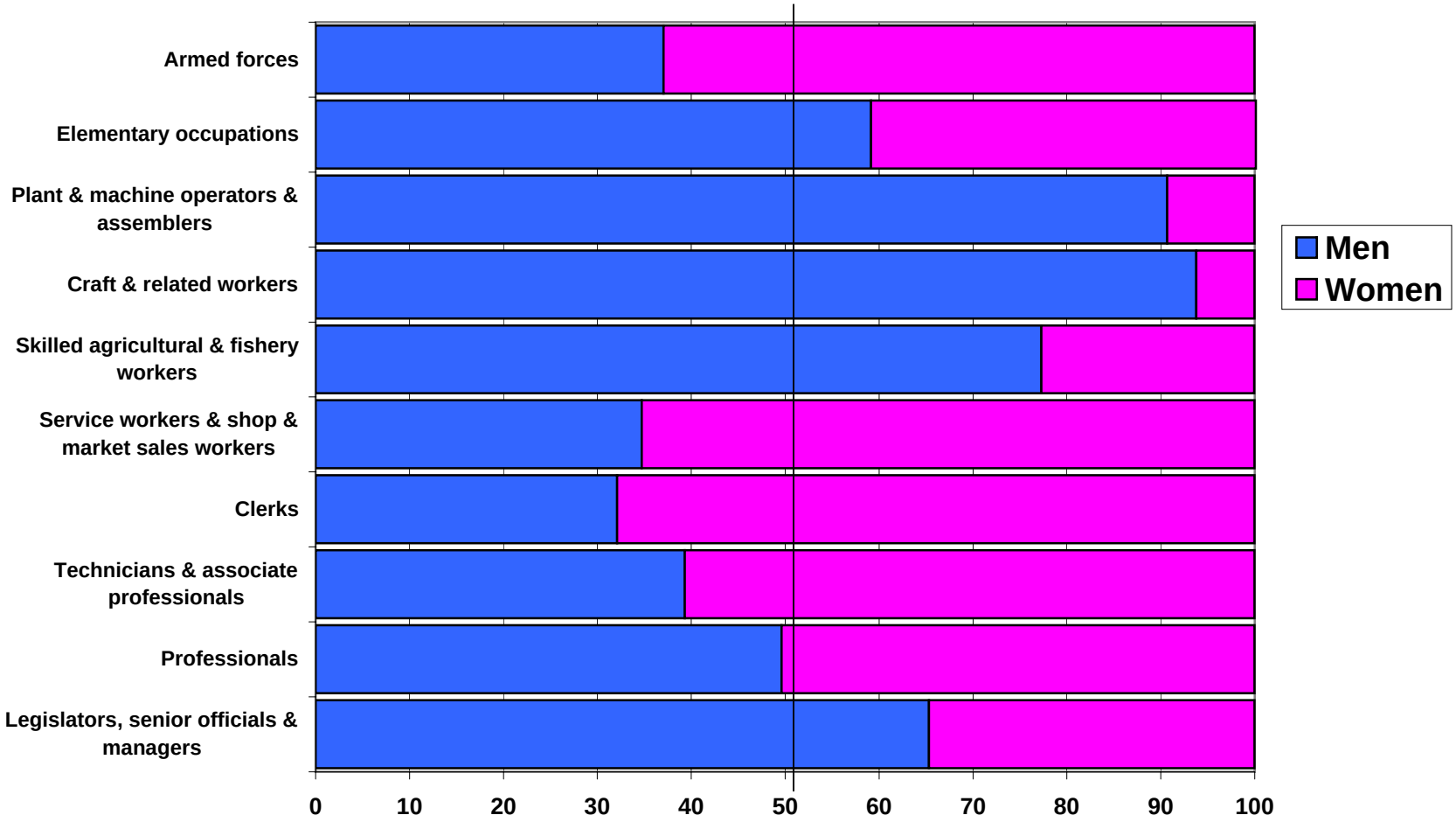
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 3-7. Employment Levels by Occupation and Sex, Australia: 2002

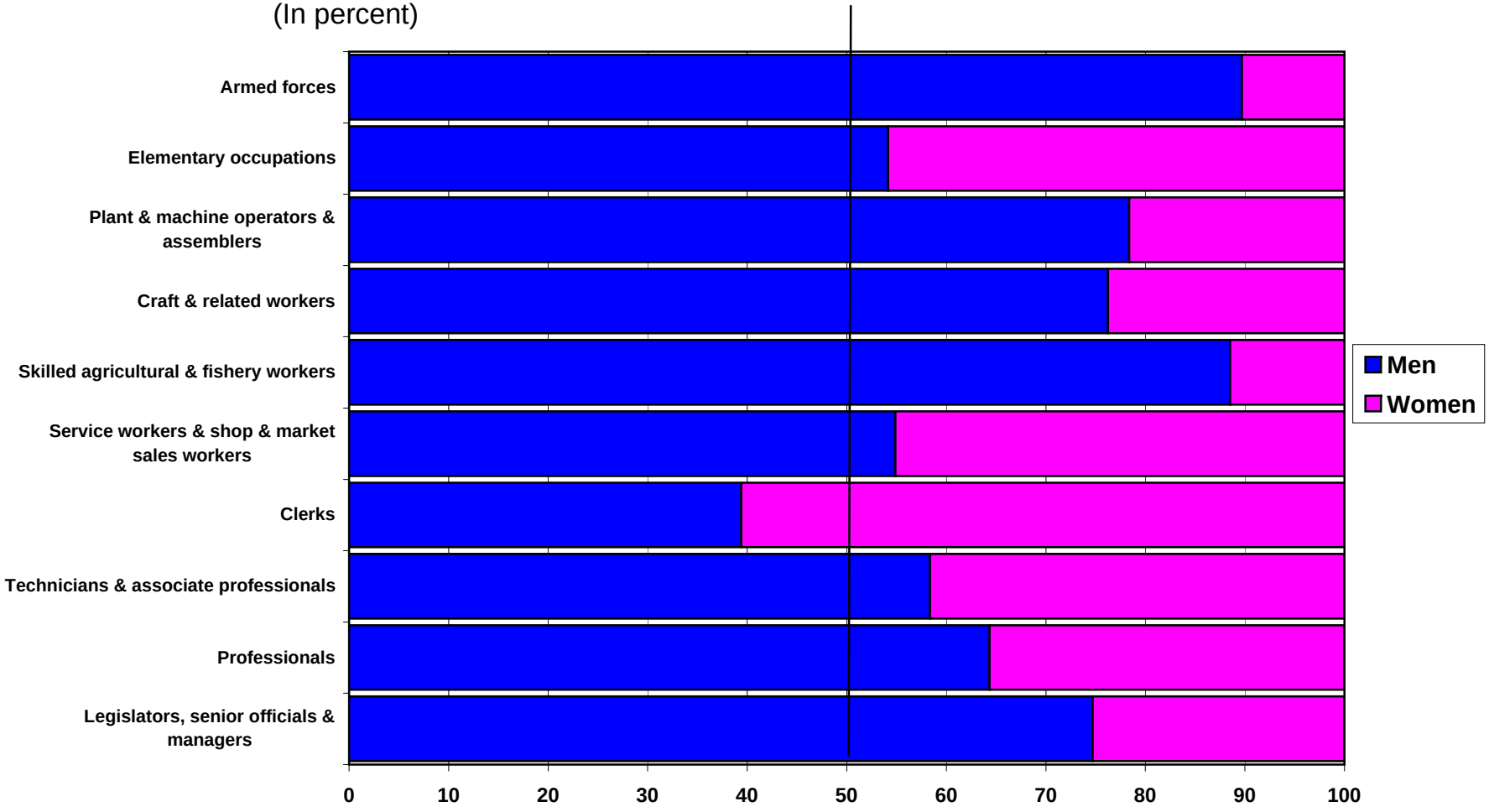
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 3-8. Employment Levels by Occupation and Sex, Mexico: 2001

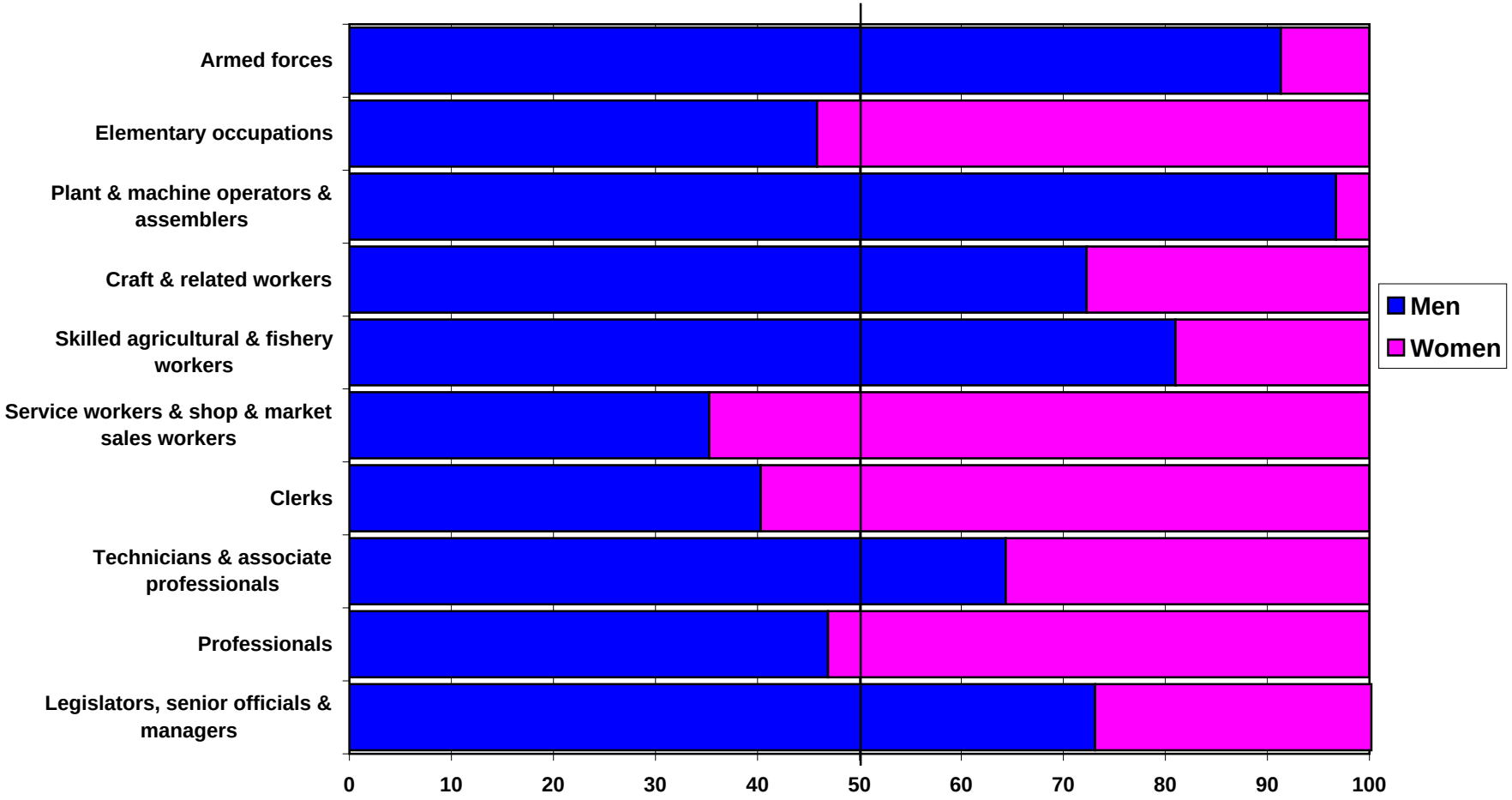
(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

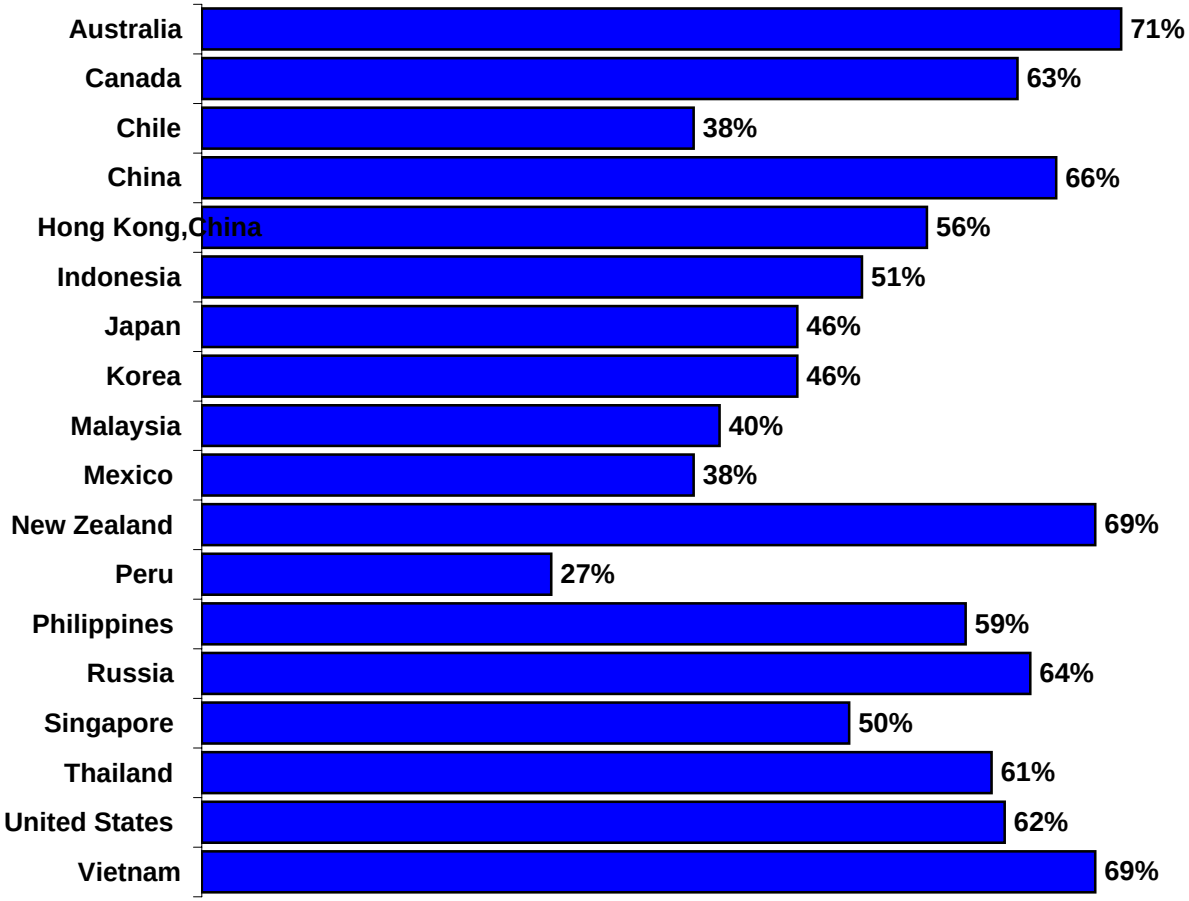
Figure 3-9. Employment Levels by Occupation and Sex, Peru: 2001

(In percent)



Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

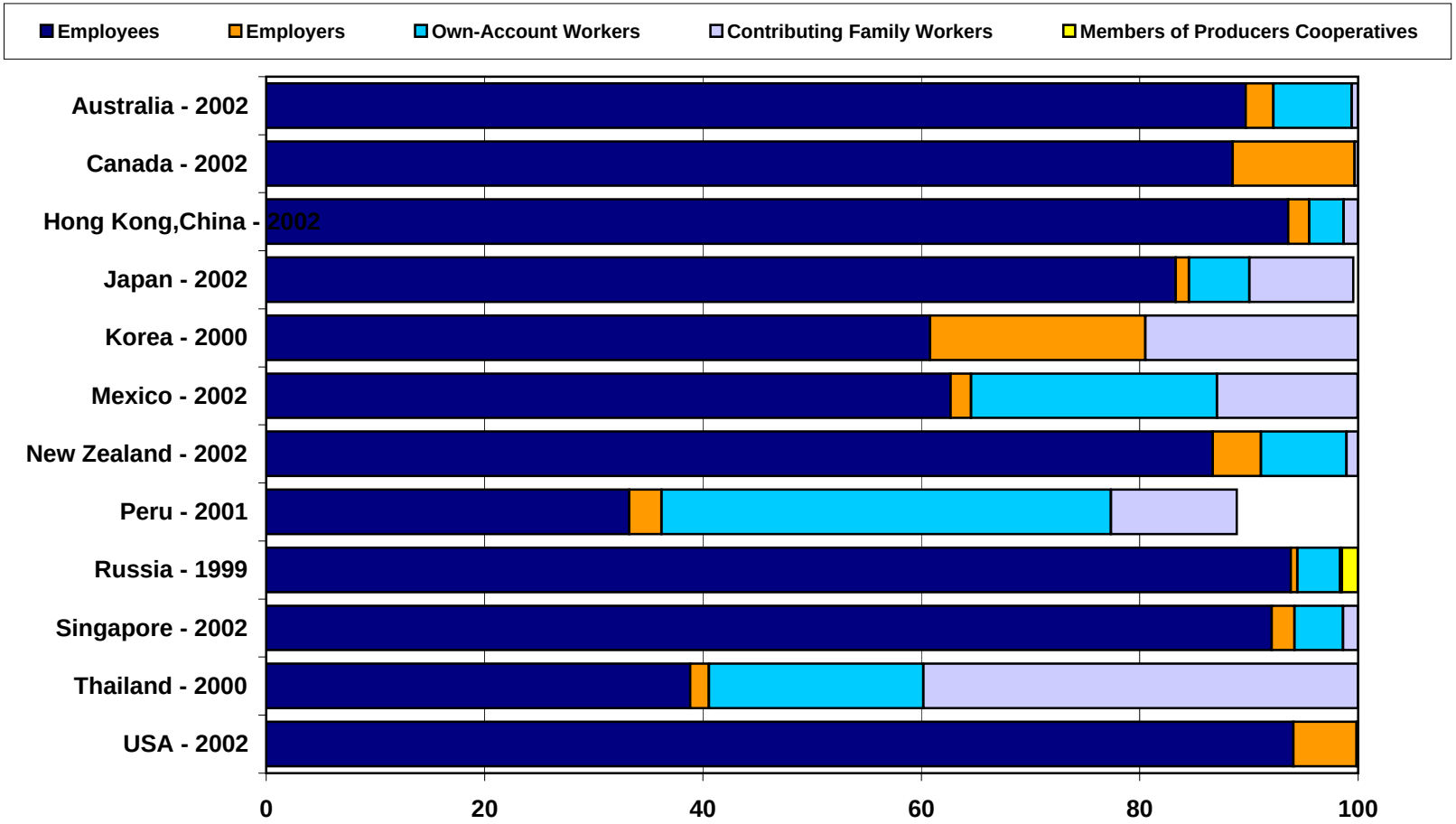
Figure 3-10. Estimated Female to Male Earned Income in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available



Note: Calculations are based on estimated male income and female income for the most recent year available during the period 1991-2001.
Source: Human Development Report, 2004.

Figure 4-1. Women's Status of Employment in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

(In percent)



Note: Percentages do not add up to 100 percent in some countries because there are some people who cannot be classified.
Source: International Labor Organization.

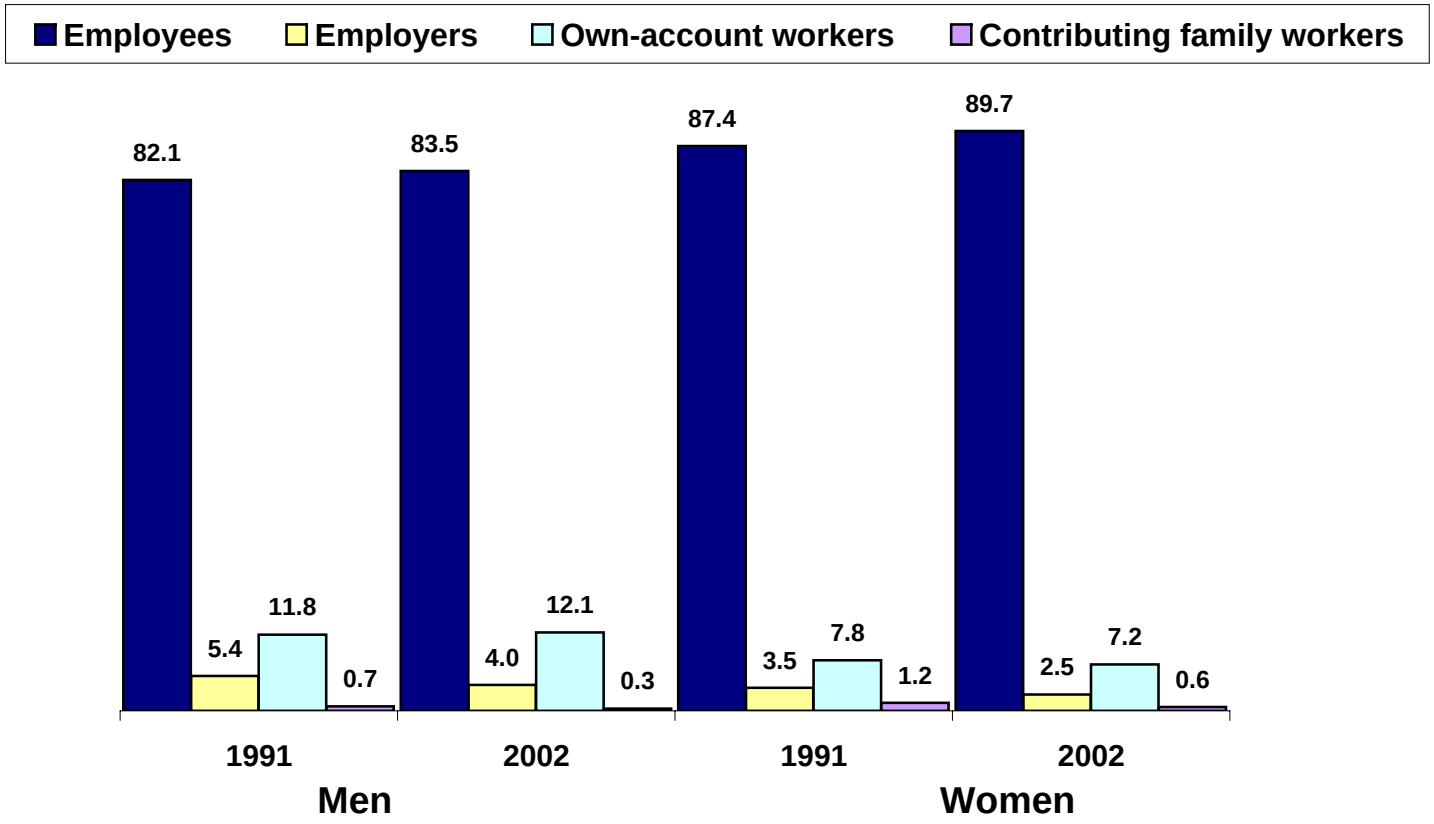
Figure 4-2. Men's Employment Status in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

(In percent)

Note: Percentages do not add up to 100 percent in some countries because there are some people who cannot be classified.
Source: International Labor Organization.

Figure 4-3. Status of Employment by Sex, Australia: 1991 and 2002

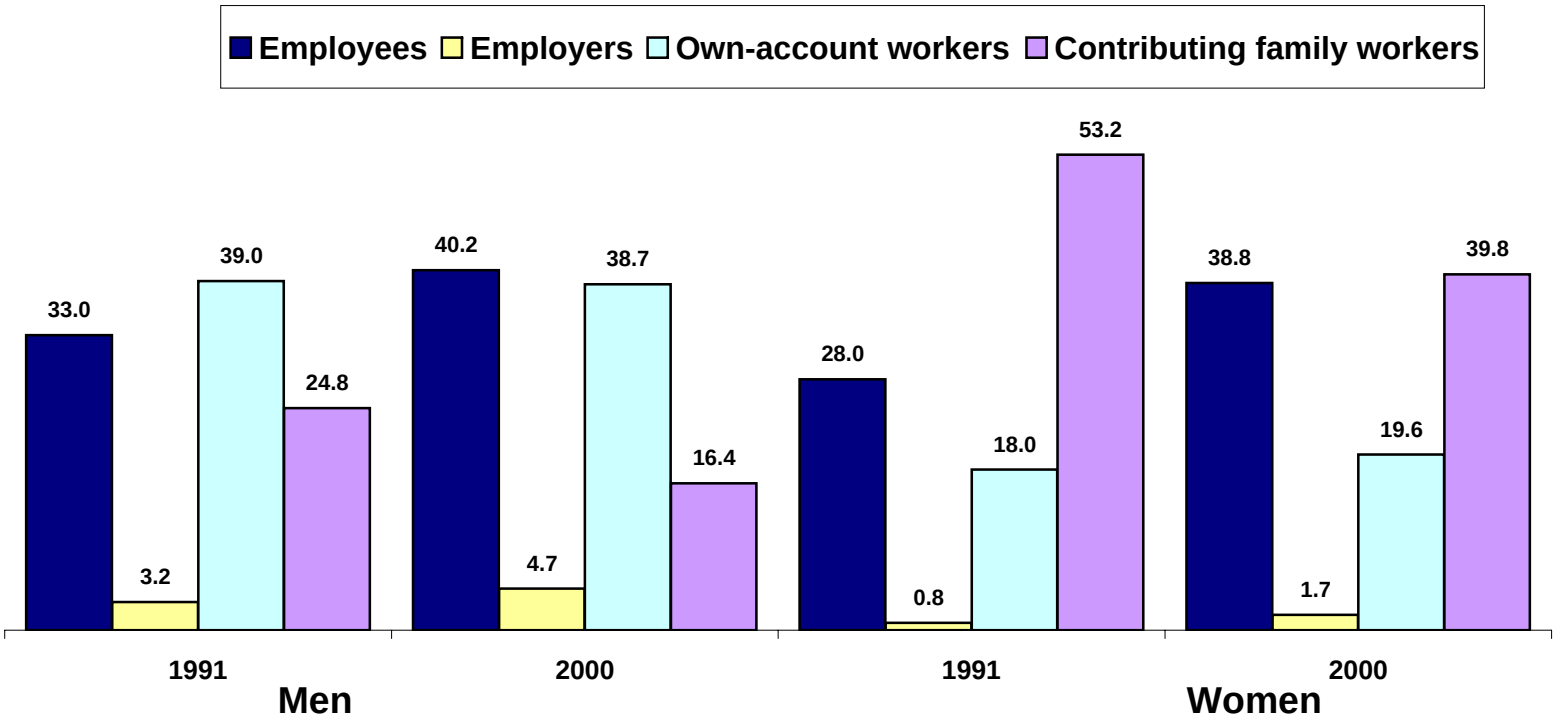
(In Percent)



Source: International Labour Organization

Figure 4-4. Status of Employment by Sex, Thailand: 1991 and 2000

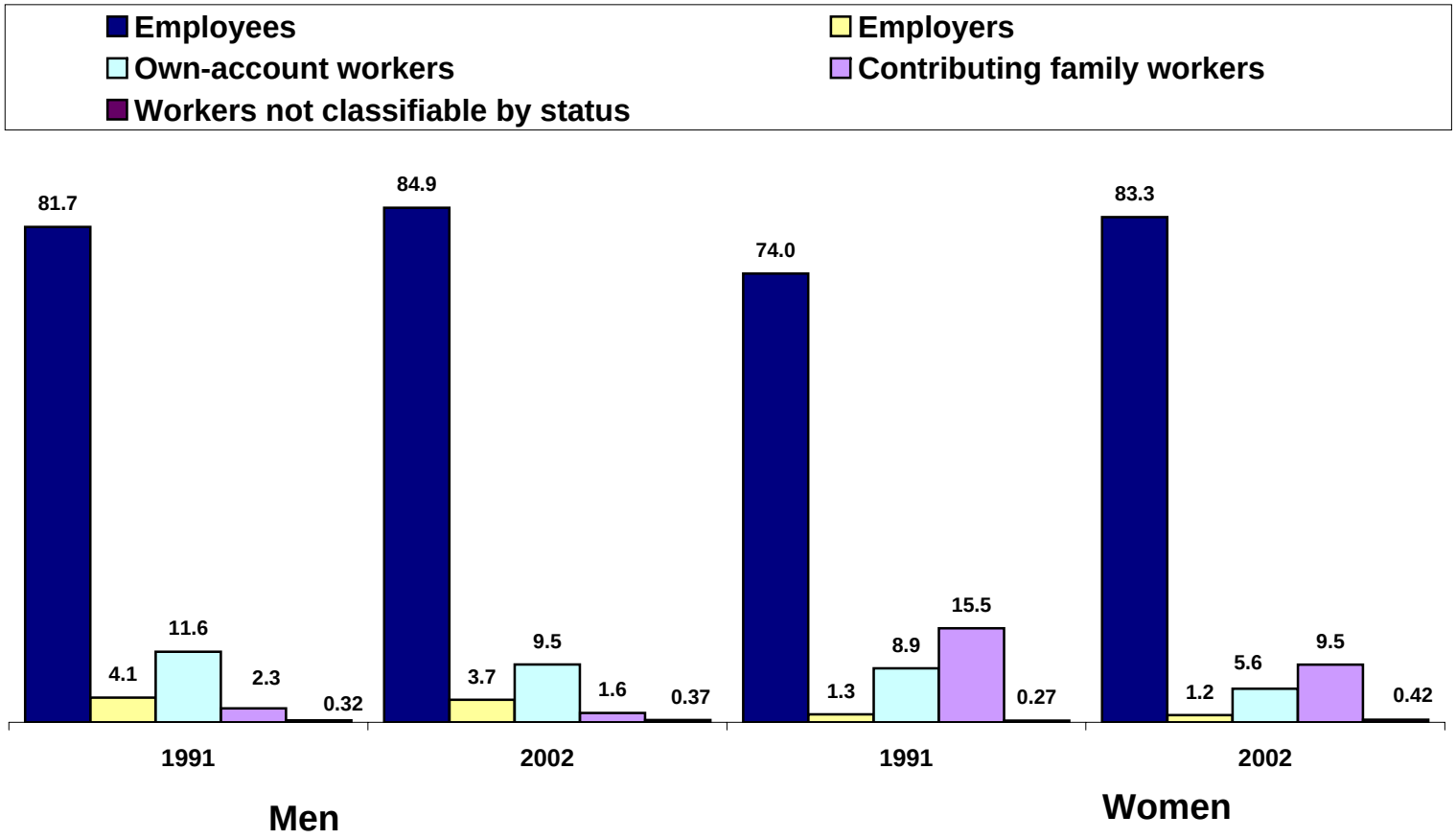
(In Percent)



Source: International Labour Organization

Figure 4-5. Status of Employment by Sex, Japan: 1991 and 2002

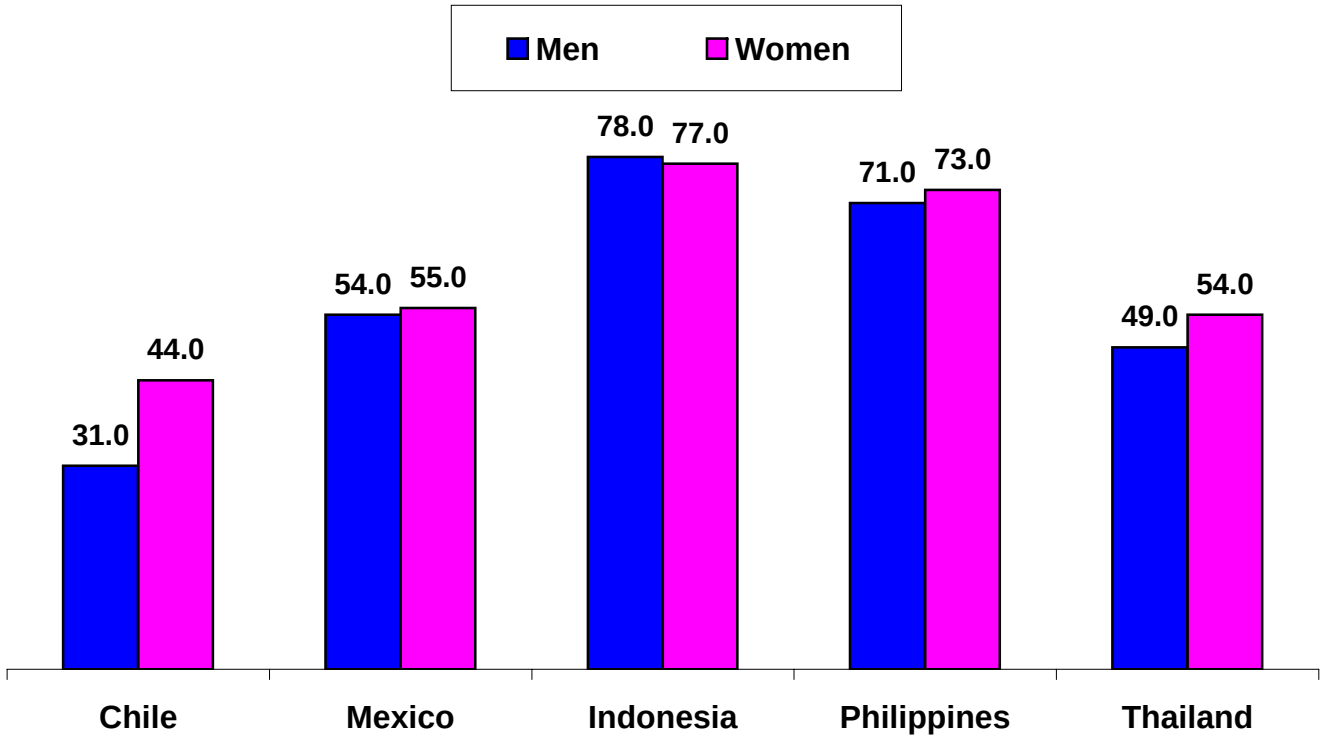
(In Percent)



Source: International Labour Organization

Figure 4-6. Informal Employment as Percentage of Non-Agricultural Employment for Select APEC Economies, by Sex: 1994 and 2000

(In percent)

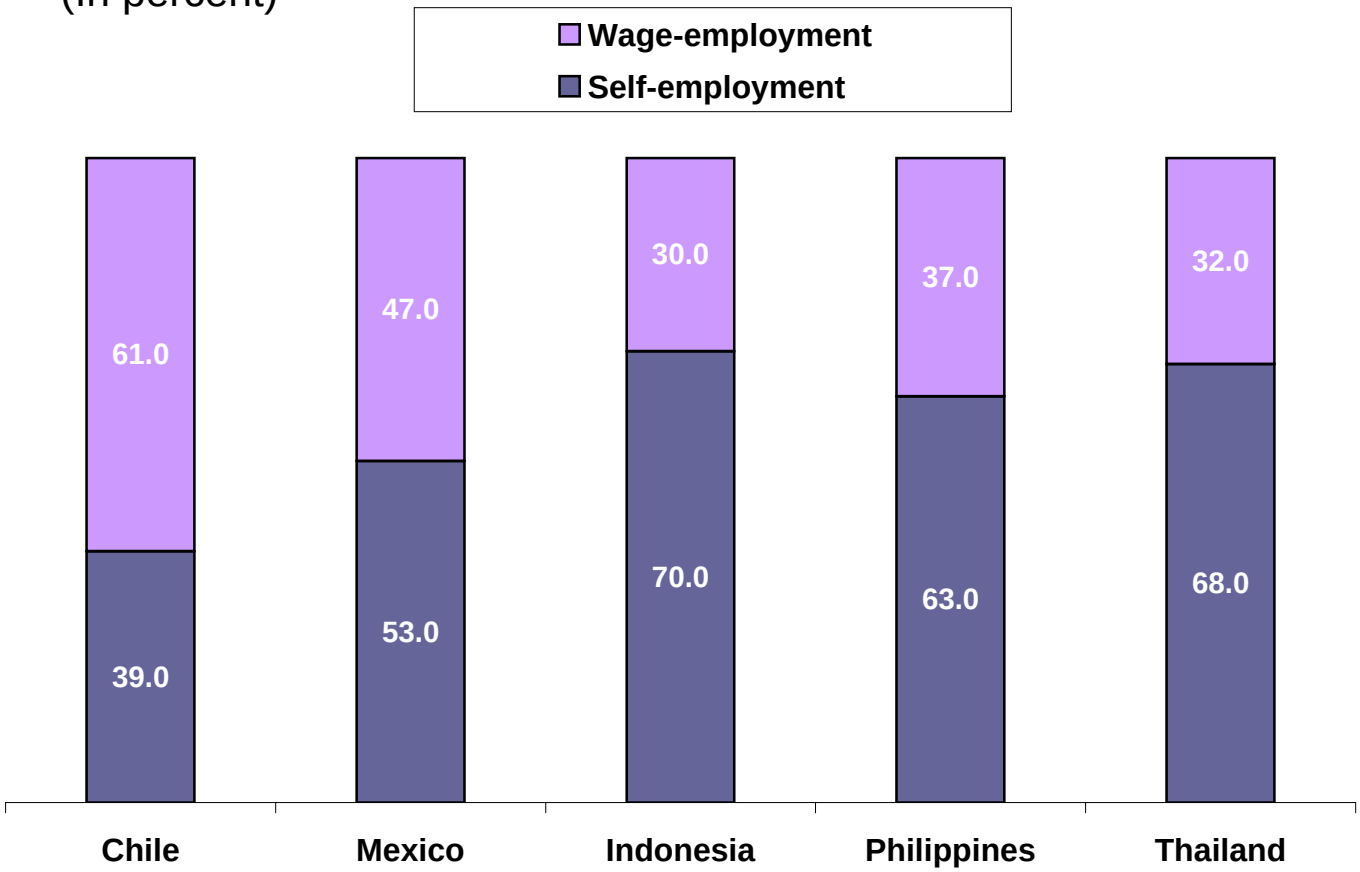


These are estimates of informal employment. For details on the estimation methods, see "Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture."

Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 4-7. Self- and Wage-Employment in Non-Agricultural Informal Employment for Women in Selected APEC Economies: 1994 and 2000

(In percent)

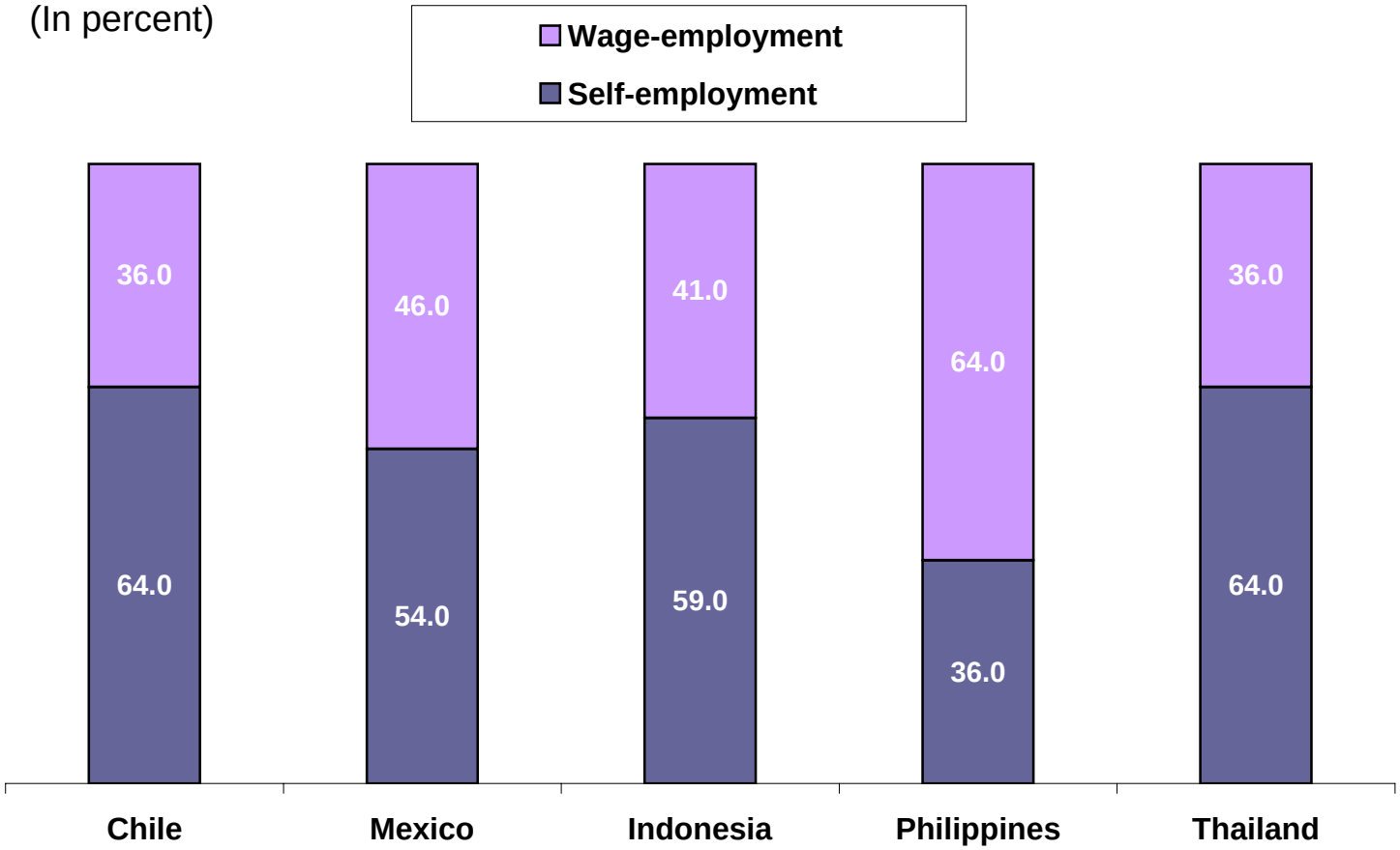


These are estimates of informal employment. For details on the estimation methods, see "Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture."

Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 4-8. Self- and Wage-Employment in Non-Agricultural Informal Employment for Men in Selected APEC Economies: 1994 and 2000

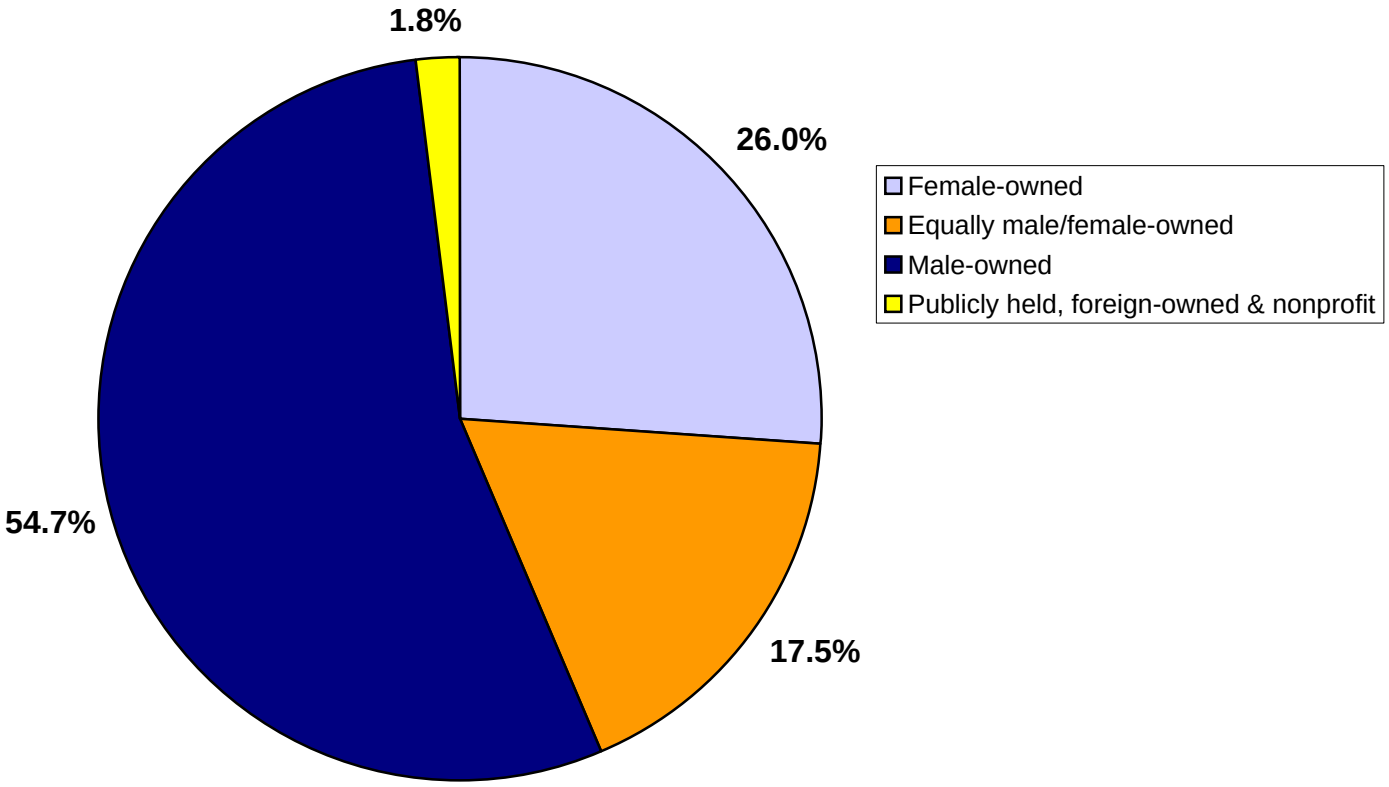
(In percent)



These are estimates of informal employment. For details on the estimation methods, see "Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture."

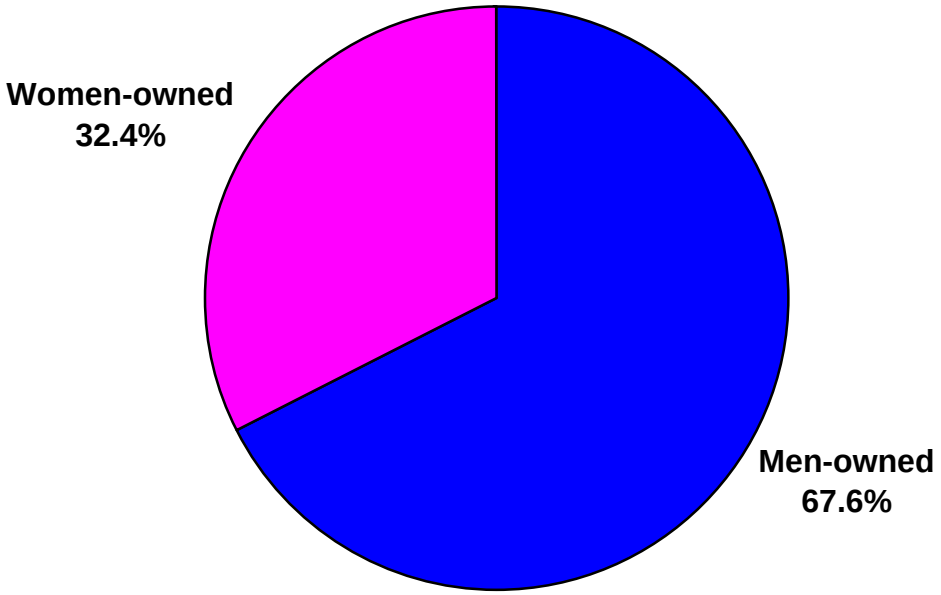
Source: International Labor Organization, 2002.

Figure 4-9. All Firms by Type of Ownership, United States: 1997



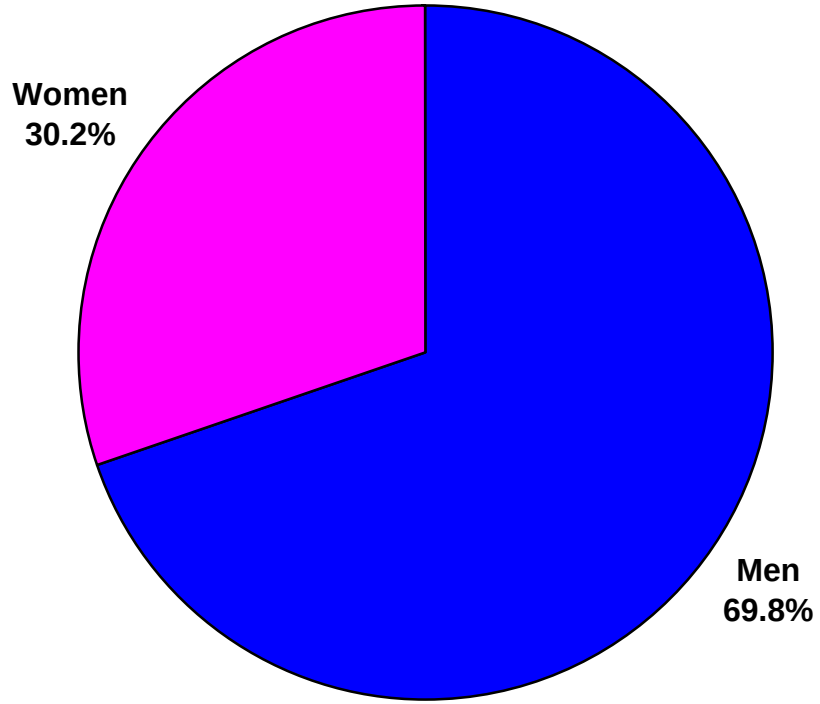
Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-10. Firms by Sex of Owner, Korea: 1998



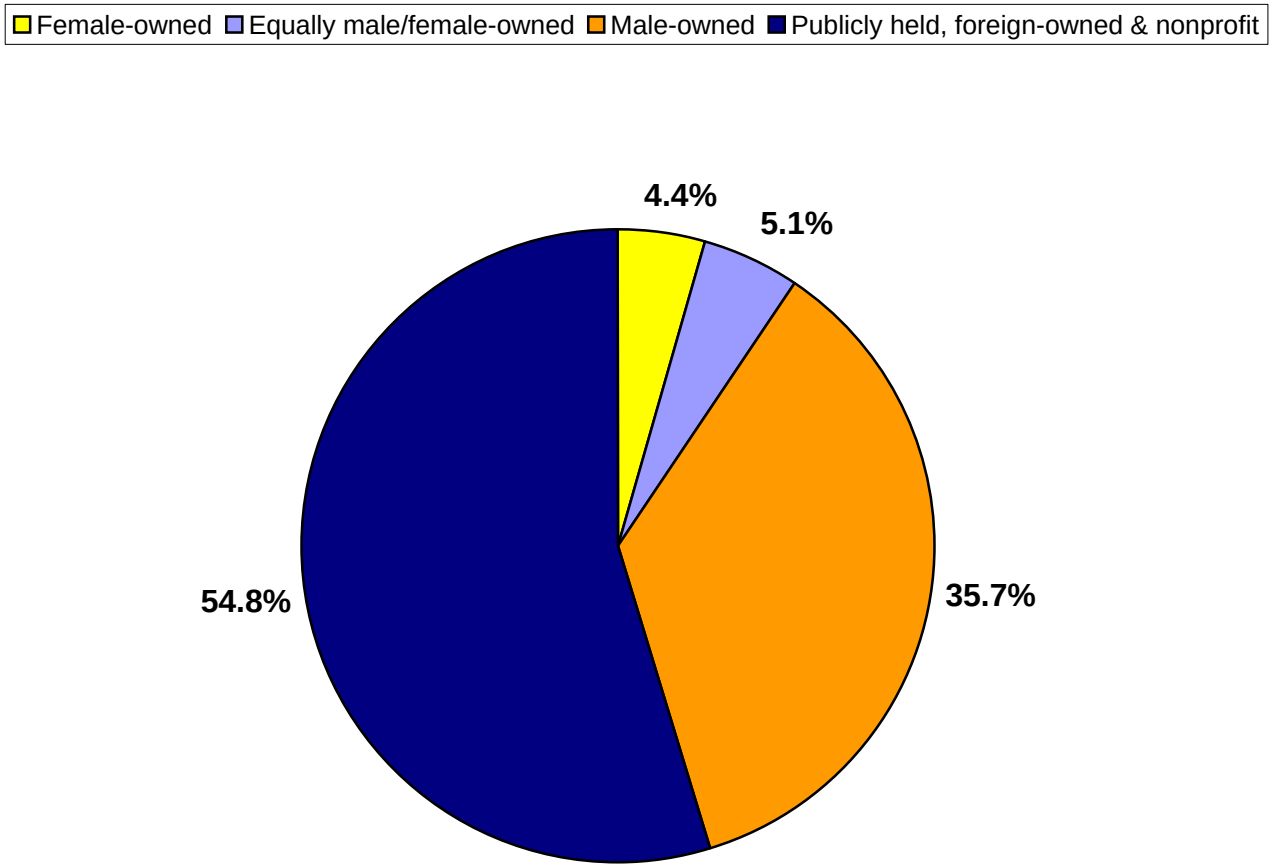
Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-11. Business Owners by Sex, Mexico: 1995



Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-12. Firm Sales and Receipts by Ownership, United States: 1997



Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-13. Annual Sales by Ownership, Canada: 1995

(In Percent)

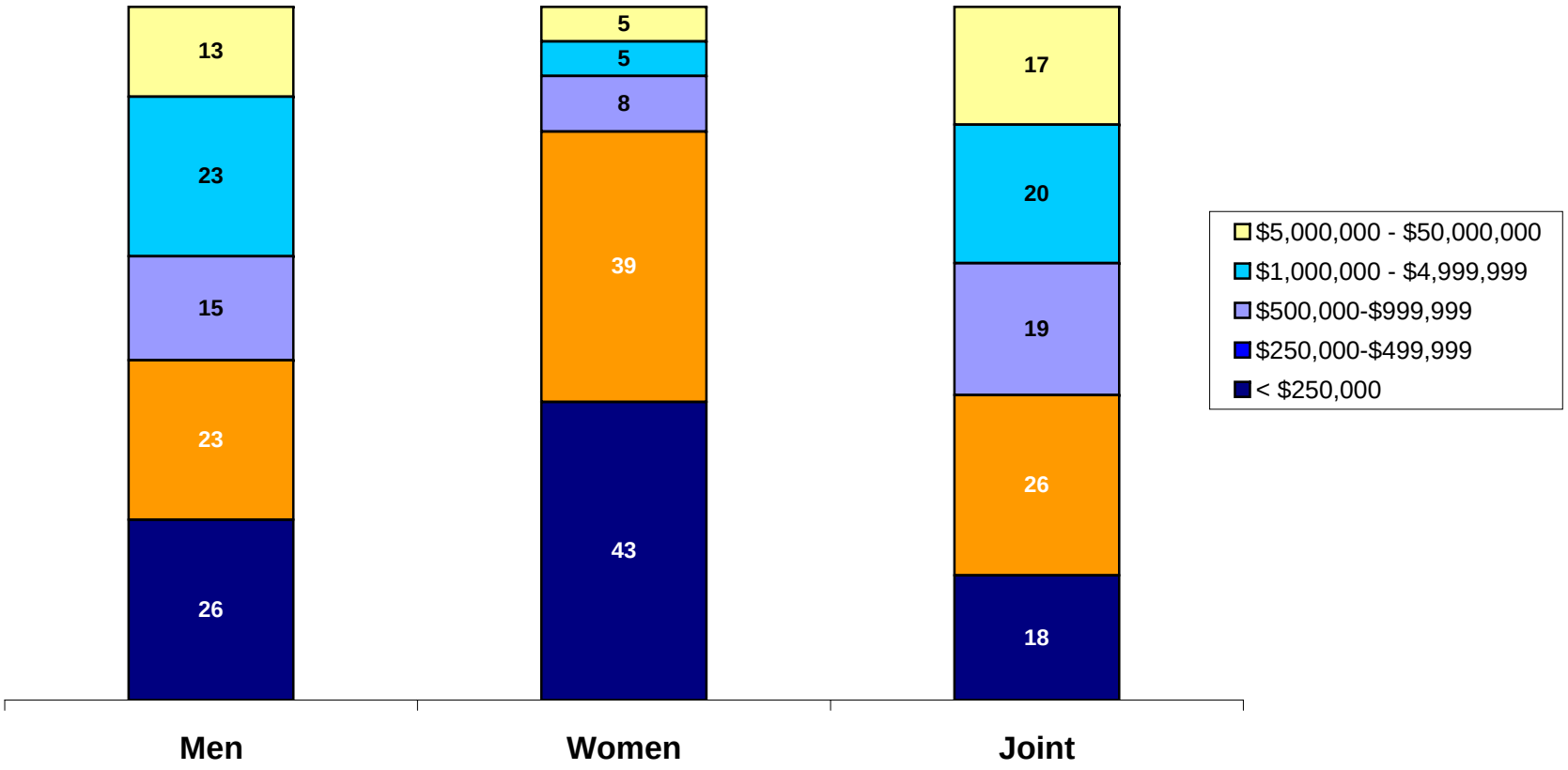
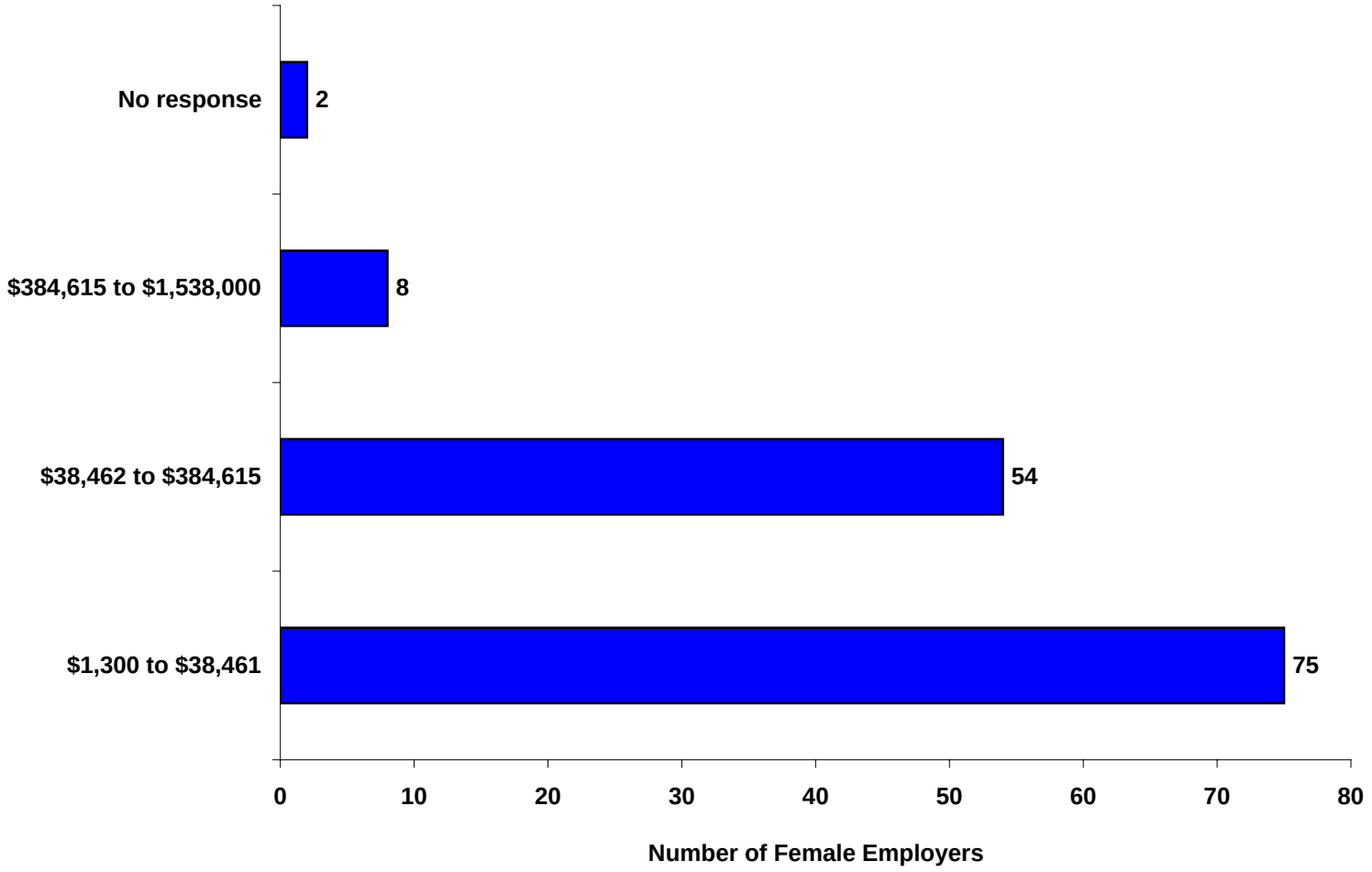
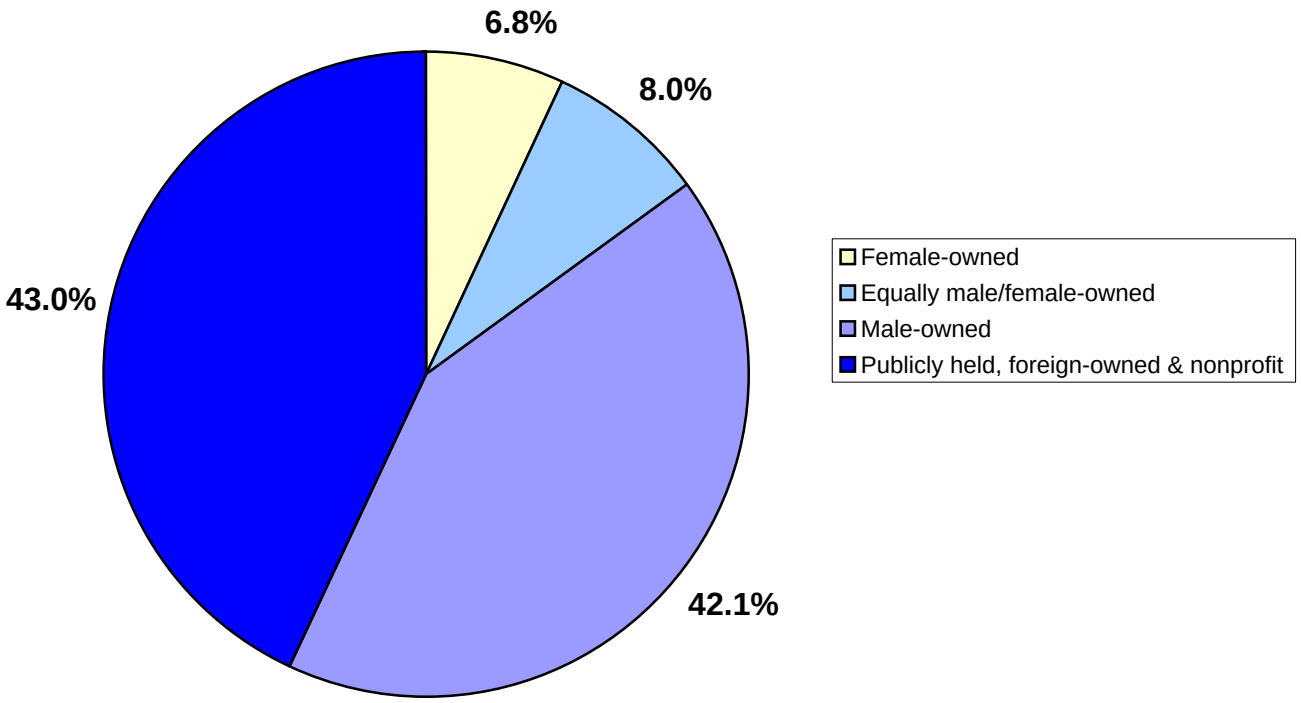


Figure 4-14. Annual Sales (US$) for Female Employers, Philippines: 1995



Survey of Women Entrepreneurs (N = 139)
Source: Chun, 1999.

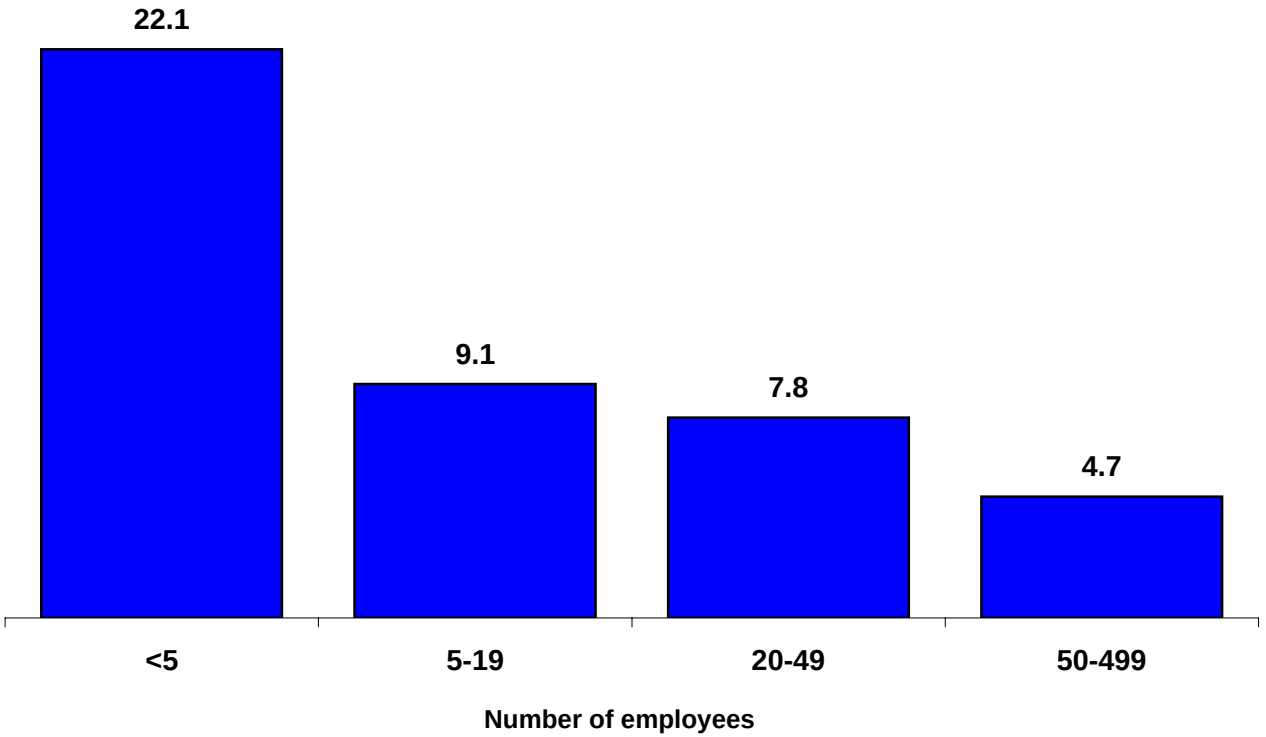
Figure 4-15. Firms With Paid Employees by Ownership, United States: 1997



Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-16. Women's Share in Business by Number of Employees, Canada: 1996

(In percent)

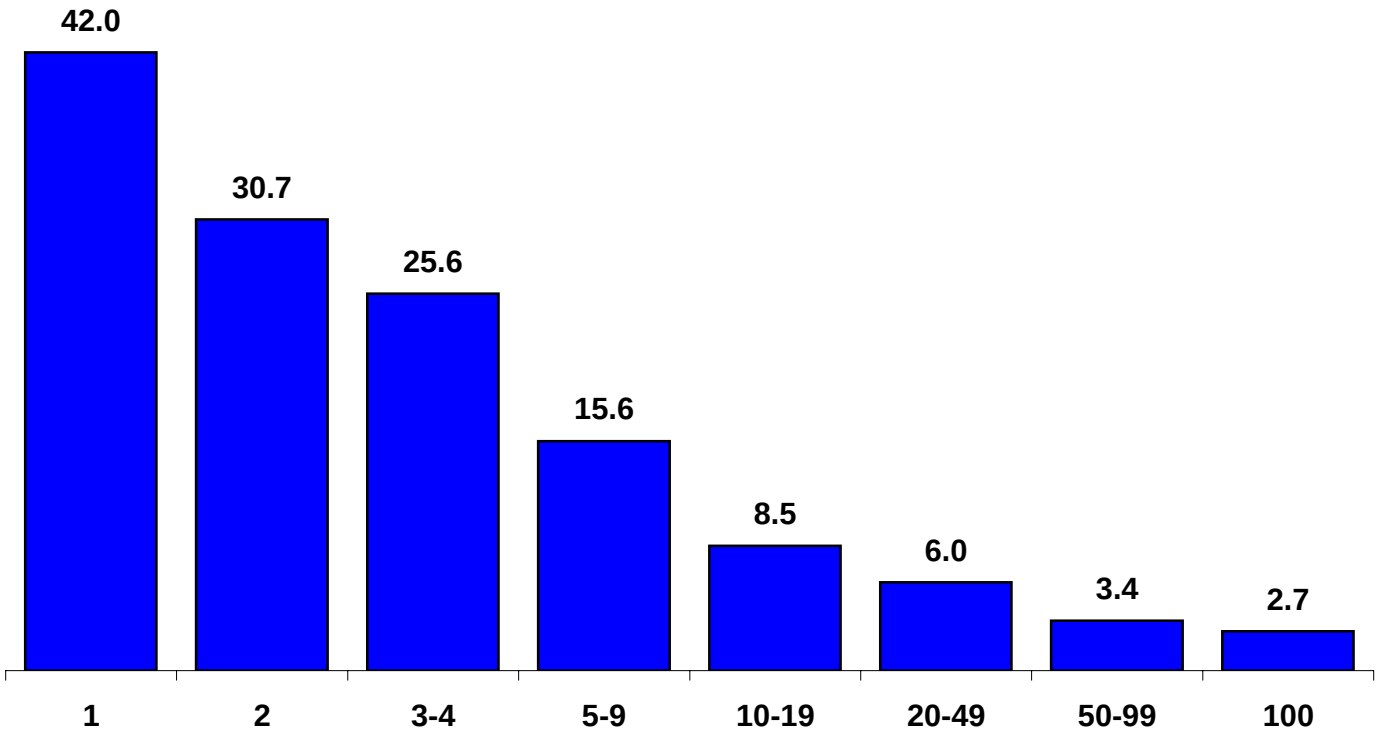


Note: Women's share in each size of business. For instance, 22.1 percent of all businesses with less than 5 employees are owned by women.

Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-17. Women's Share in Business by Number of Employees, Korea: 1997

(In percent)

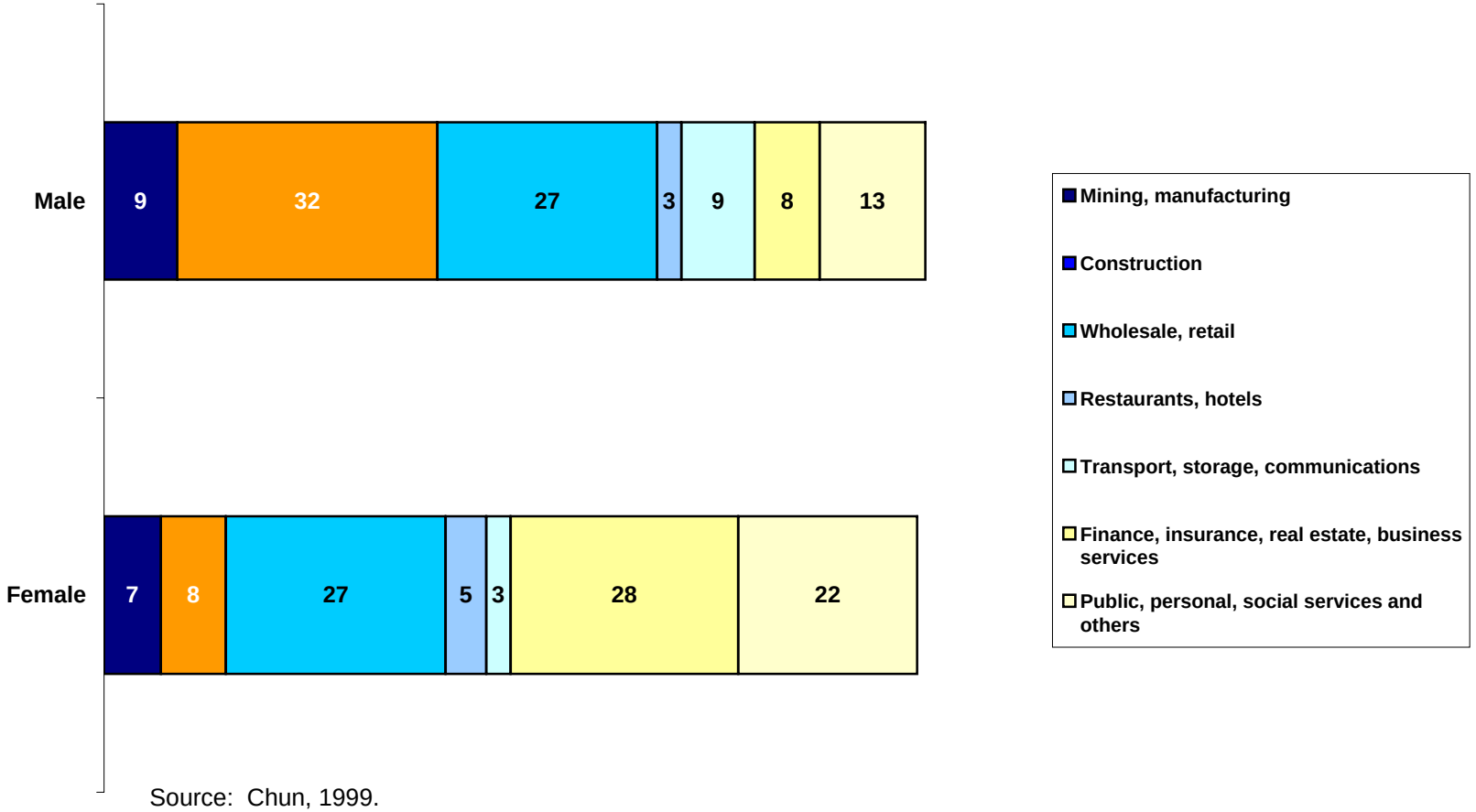


Note: Women's share in each size of business. For instance, 42.0 percent of all businesses with 1 employee are owned by women.

Source: Chun, 1999.

Figure 4-18. Industries of Male/Female Employers, Australia: 1997

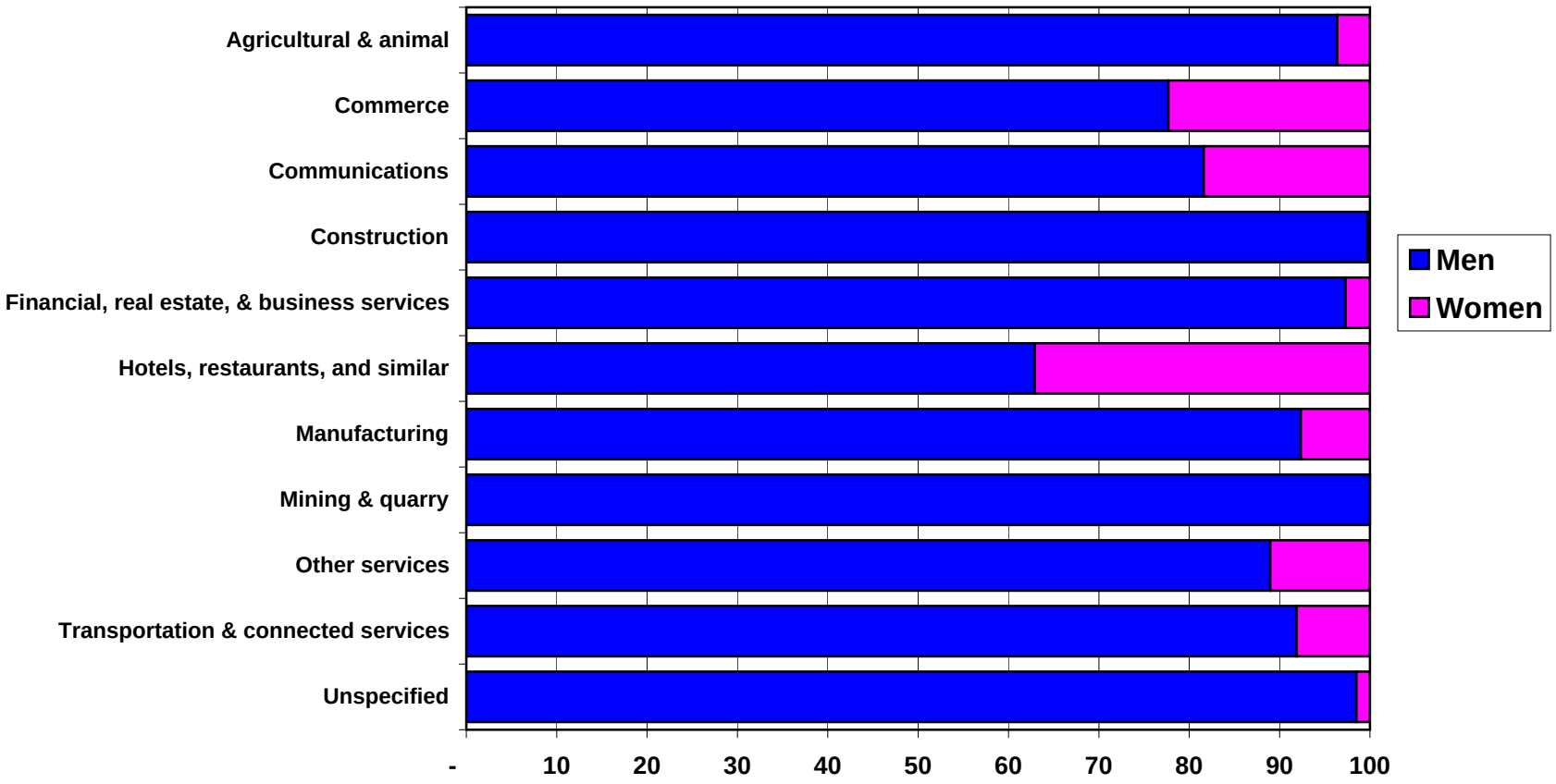
(In Percent)



Source: Chun, 1999.

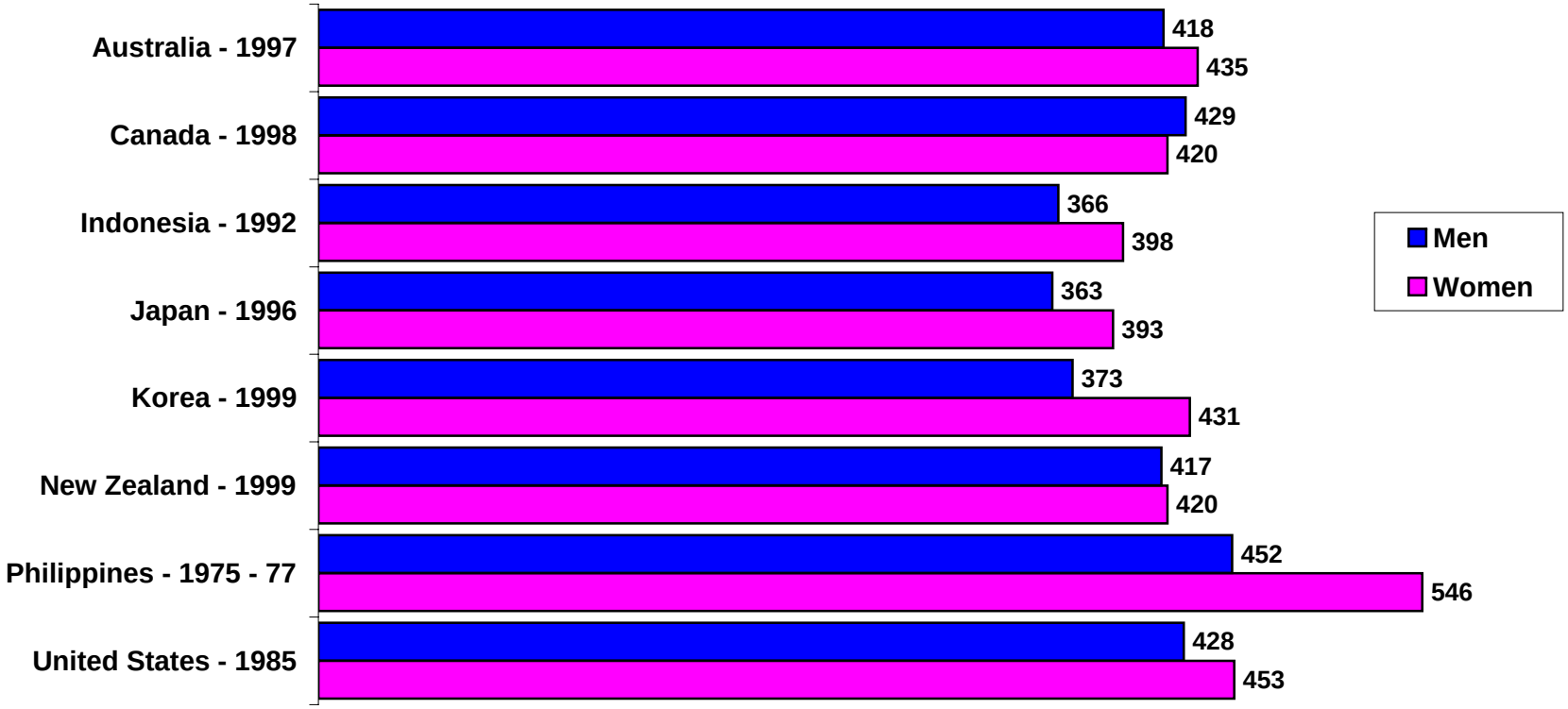
Figure 4-19. Sex Ratio of Owners by Industry, Mexico: 1995

(In Percent)



Source: Chun, 1999

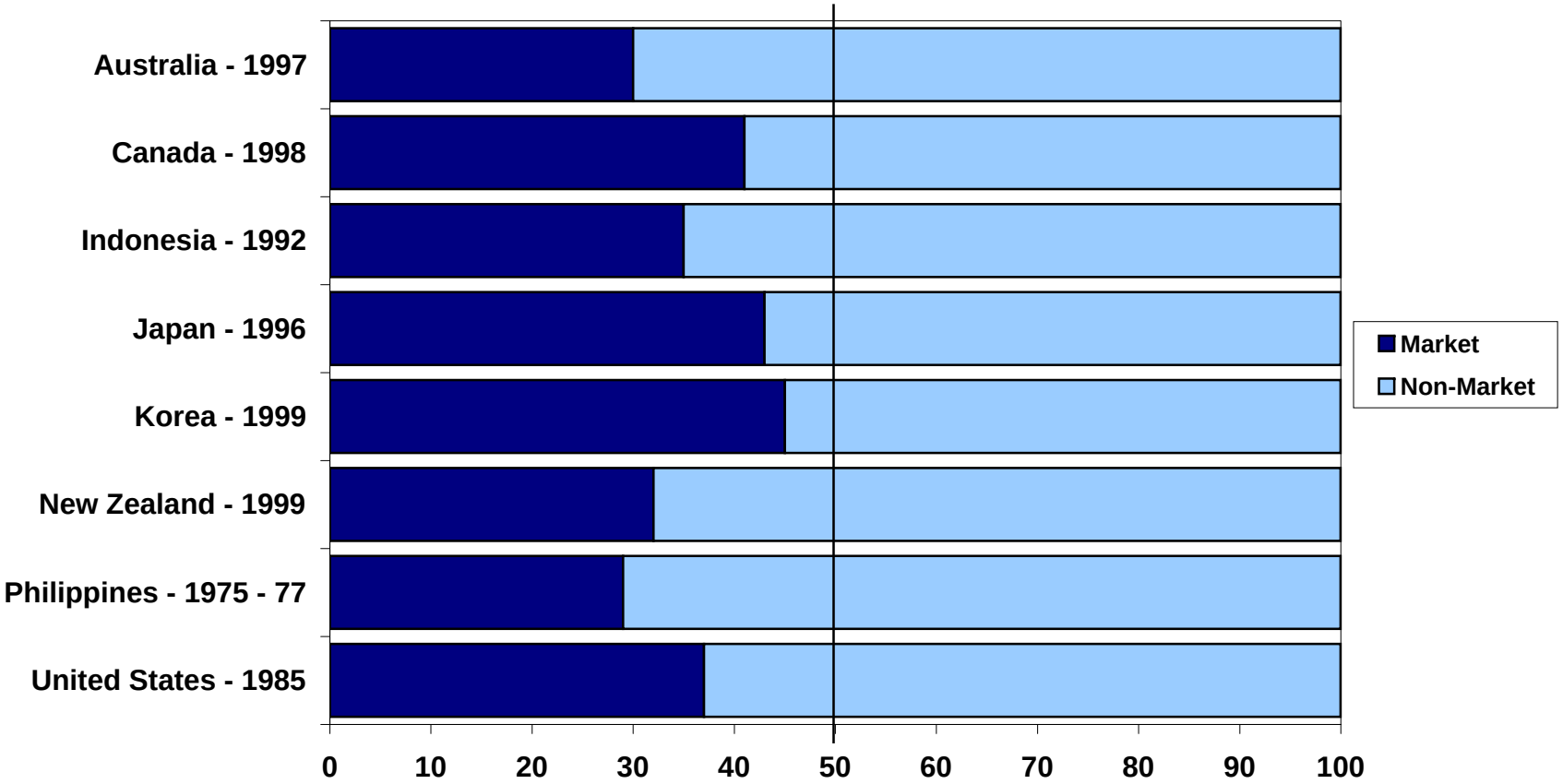
Figure 5-1. Total Work Time in Minutes Per Day, by Sex for Select APEC Economies: Latest Year Available



Data are based on time-use surveys. Data for Indonesia refer to urban areas only. Data for Philippines refer to rural areas only.
Source: Human Development Report, 2002

Figure 5-2. Time Spent by Women in Market and Non-Market Activities in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

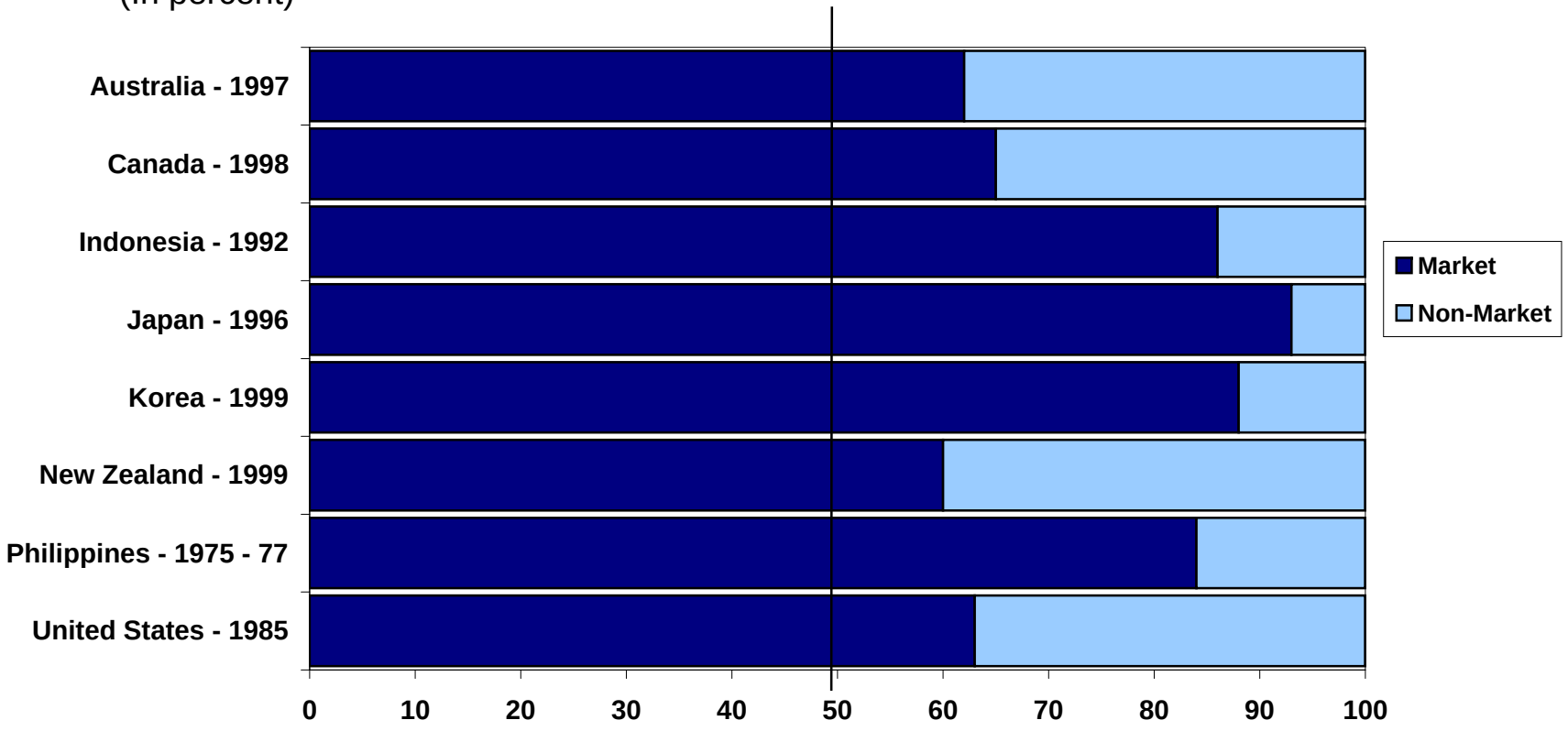
(In percent)



Data are based on time-use surveys. Data for Indonesia refer to urban areas only. Data for Philippines refer to rural areas only.
Market activities refer to market-oriented production activities as defined by the 1993 revised UN System of National Accounts.
Surveys before 1993 are not strictly comparable with those for later years.
Source: Human Development Report, 2002.

Figure 5-3. Time Spent by Men in Market and Non-Market Activities in Selected APEC Economies: Latest Year Available

(In percent)



Data are based on time-use surveys. Data for Indonesia refer to urban areas only. Data for Philippines refer to rural areas only. Market activities refer to market-oriented production activities as defined by the 1993 revised UN System of National Accounts. Surveys before 1993 are not strictly comparable with those for late years.

Source: Human Development Report, 2002.