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**REPORT ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE OECD GENDER RECOMMENDATIONS - SOME
PROGRESS ON GENDER EQUALITY BUT MUCH LEFT TO DO**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY¹

1. The OECD's 2013 Gender Recommendation and the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life call on Members and non-Members who adhered to the Recommendations² (the Adherents) to enhance gender equality in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life through actions including legislation, policies, monitoring and campaigns. Over the past four years, many Adherents have taken steps to prioritize gender equality in policy. Yet gender gaps persist, and all countries must step up their efforts to ensure that public policy truly reflects – and results in – more inclusive societies, in which boys, girls, men and women can all reach their true potential.

2. The OECD Gender Recommendations are rooted in the OECD Gender Initiative, which started in 2010; the All on Board for Inclusive Growth initiative, which launched in 2012; and the understanding that, despite existing policies, as the 2013 OECD Gender Recommendations states, "significant gender disparities and biases nevertheless remain in educational and occupational choices; earning levels and working conditions; career progression; representation in decision-making positions; in public life; in the uptake of paid and unpaid work; in entrepreneurial activities; in access to finance for entrepreneurs; and in financial literacy and financial empowerment." Reporting to Council is due in 2017, and regularly thereafter, on Adherents' progress in implementing the recommended policies aimed at reducing gender gaps. This report draws from recent and ongoing gender work in different Committees and the 2016 Gender Equality Questionnaires (OECD 2016 GEQs), which were sent via Committees³ to Adherents in order to monitor their progress in policy development and gender equality outcomes.

3. Gender gaps persist in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life opportunities and outcomes. In OECD countries, girls and young women often outperform boys and young men in education, both in terms of education attained and in proficiencies. Girls do better in reading and boys continue to do better in mathematics, on average, in PISA testing, but in recent years most OECD countries have recorded a narrowing of gender gaps in PISA scores. Outside the OECD, educational opportunities for girls and young women frequently remain constrained by attitudes, social institutions, and the absence of infrastructure supporting girls. Nevertheless, overall, the difference between boys' and girls' secondary school participation is slowly narrowing in developing countries.

4. Gender gaps in education feed into gender gaps in employment. While women's labour force participation rates have moved closer to men's rates over the past few decades, women are still less likely than men to be in the workforce across the OECD. When women do work, they are more likely to work part-time and work for low pay. All of these factors contribute to gender pay gaps remaining at about 15% at the median across the OECD on average, and there has been little change in recent years. Migrant

¹ The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

² Costa Rica, Colombia, Kazakhstan, Lithuania and the Russian Federation are Adherents to the 2013 Gender Recommendation. There are no non-Member Adherents to the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life.

³ OECD 2016 GEQs were sent to the Corporate Governance Committee (CGC) and its Working Party on State-Owned Enterprises and privatisation Practices (WPSOPP); the Committee on Statistics and Statistical Policy (CSSP); the Education Policy Committee (EDPC); the Employment, Labour and Social Affairs Committee (ELSAC); the LEED Directing Committee; and, the Working Party on SMEs and Entrepreneurship (WPSMEE). The International Network on Financial Education (INFE) launched a survey on financial literacy and financial inclusion in 2015.

women face particularly high barriers; their 'doubly disadvantaged' position leads to lower prime working-age employment rates than both native-born women and migrant men. In emerging economies and Key Partners, gaps in employment and pay are often larger and have sometimes widened (OECD, 2014a).

5. These trends in the labour market are reflected in a thick glass ceiling, both in public life and in the private sector. In 2016, women held only 28.7% of seats in lower houses of Parliament on average across the OECD. While women make up 55% of all judges (according to available national data), their presence decreases when moving up the judicial hierarchy. In the private sector in 2016, women occupied 20% of board seats of publicly listed companies and only 4.8% of chief executive officer positions.

6. Women in 2015 were still much less likely to be self-employed – a proxy measure for entrepreneurship – than men, and women were far less likely to employ staff than men. Reflecting the size of their companies, the sectors in which women operate, and a variety of other factors, the gender earnings gaps among the self-employed is very large at 33.7% at the mean across OECD countries.

7. Some countries face greater challenges than others (Table 1). All countries have room to improve on gender equality, but those that do well in one area often do well in others. Countries where gender differences in OECD PISA scores are relatively small and/or more strongly favour girls, for example, tend to be those where young women hold the largest advantage in tertiary education. In turn, countries where women do well in literacy scores and educational attainment are also those with the smallest gender gaps in labour force participation and leadership positions.

8. There is some cause for optimism, however. Reflecting the narrowing of gender gaps in education, gender gaps in the labour market behaviour of young men and women are smaller than for previous cohorts. Across countries, gender gaps increase with age, reflecting the crucial role that parenthood plays in gender equality: much more than fatherhood, motherhood typically has marked negative effects on labour market participation, pay, and career advancement, and it is at this stage in the life course that gender gaps start to widen in labour market outcomes (OECD, 2016a).

Priority issues and recent policy gains

9. Adherents to OECD Gender Recommendations have committed to closing gender gaps through public policy in several key areas. The OECD GEQs 2016 asked Adherents to select the top three most urgent issues in gender equality in their country. These issues were motivated by topics in the OECD Gender Recommendations and by recent and ongoing OECD work on gender. The most commonly selected issue, across Adherent countries, was violence against women. 21 of the 37 responding countries listed violence against women as one of their country's three most urgent issues (Figure 1). The second most common response was "Women being paid less than men for the same work," i.e., the gender wage gap, with 16 countries listing this as a priority area. The third most urgent issue was the unequal sharing of household tasks between men and women, with 14 countries selecting this as a top priority.

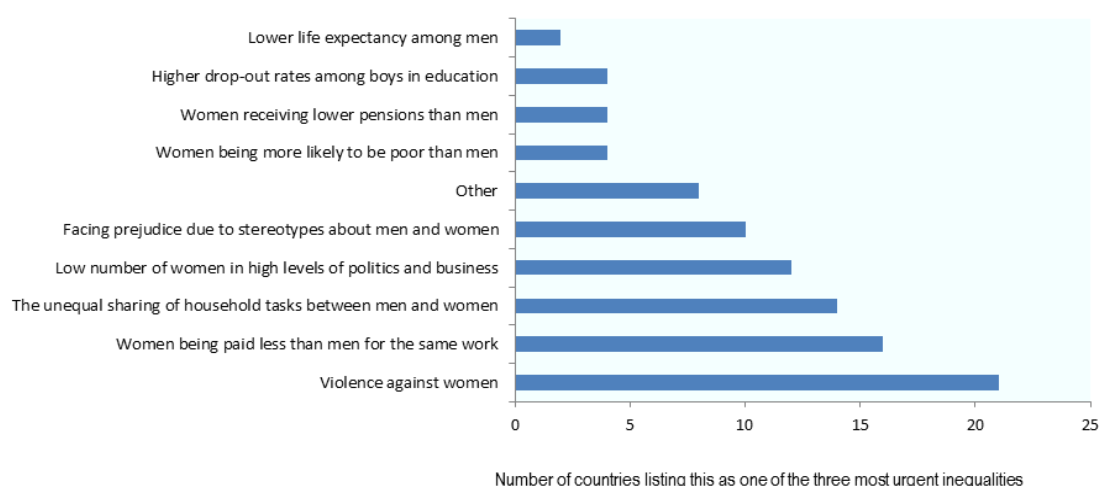
10. These priority issues reflect components of the Gender Recommendations and have resulted in important policy initiatives by countries. Key policy changes and examples of best practice in the areas covered by the OECD Gender Recommendations are as follows:

- Violence against women (VAW) remains a global pandemic. It is estimated that 35% of all women worldwide have experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime (WHO, 2013). OECD countries have increasingly prioritised **sexual harassment and violence against women** as a policy issue (OECD GEQs 2016). Reflecting the 2013 Gender Recommendation's call for intensified efforts on sexual harassment, in itself a form of VAW, new policy measures in this area have typically taken one

of two forms: 1) new or stronger laws or regulations governing sexual harassment; and 2) information or awareness-raising campaigns aimed at defining and preventing sexual harassment. Austria, Costa Rica, France, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Mexico, Portugal, and Slovenia are among the Adherents that introduced or reinforced anti-harassment laws. (In contrast, the Russian Federation partially decriminalised domestic violence in 2017.) Belgium, Denmark, Estonia Greece, Israel, Korea, Lithuania, the Netherlands, and Portugal have all conducted, or are conducting, awareness-raising about definitions of sexual harassment, ways to prevent sexual harassment, and legal rights (for victims) and obligations (for employers) when harassment occurs. Other countries, like the Czech Republic, have embedded sexual harassment within larger national strategies on gender equality or gender-based violence. Countries are also increasingly collecting data on harassment and VAW, but large data gaps remain and these efforts must be strengthened.

Figure 1. Priority areas in gender equality

Number of countries listing the following as one of the three most urgent issues needing to be addressed regarding inequality between men and women in their country.



Note: 35 countries responded. Countries could select up to three top priority issues in their country.

Source: OECD ELSAC Questionnaire on Progress in Implementing the 2013 Gender Recommendation

- Policymakers across the OECD are aware of the lack of progress of **girls and women in studying and working in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics areas (STEM)** and other occupations not traditional for women. Since the adoption of the 2013 Recommendation many countries have targeted policies on girls and women and under-represented groups in STEM (e.g. Australia, the Flemish community in Belgium, Germany, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom). On the other hand, men remain under-represented in the health and education sectors. In the Netherlands, initiatives that promote STEM among young women are accompanied by initiatives for men to engage in the education sector.
- Persistent gender pay gaps have led about two-thirds of countries to introduce new policies focused on **gender pay equality** since the adoption of the 2013 Gender Recommendation. Pay transparency is a key lever, and companies are increasingly required to carry out analyses of gender wage gaps and are requested or required to share information on the gender disaggregation of wages with employees, auditors, or the public. Since 2013, these types of measures have been implemented or are in the proposal stage in Australia, Japan, Germany,

Lithuania, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. Other new strategies include the introduction of "pay gap calculators," which are often publicly available online, as well as certifications for companies showing best practice in gender equality, including pay equality.

- Many OECD governments have introduced measures to **improve access to Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)** since the start of 2013. Several have taken steps to address affordability, usually through increases in subsidies or benefits/rebates for those using childcare (*e.g.* Canada, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Poland), and occasionally through the introduction or expansion of free childcare hours (Norway and the United Kingdom). Other strategies adopted by countries looking to improve access to and attendance in ECEC include the introduction of legal entitlements to a place in childcare from a certain age and the lowering of compulsory attendance ages. Several countries have also increased public investment in new facilities, in most cases with an emphasis on places for children under age three. Korea arguably undertook the most comprehensive reform in recent years: through increased public ECEC investment, the share of children under age six in ECEC facilities has more than tripled since 2004 (OECD, 2016a and 2016b).
- Reflecting the OECD Gender Recommendations, policies that promote **gender balance on boards and in senior management** have been initiated in a majority of OECD countries. Countries that have adopted a quota saw a more immediate increase in the number of women on boards, while those that took a softer approach, using disclosure or targets, have seen a more gradual increase over time. For example, the United Kingdom's "comply or explain" approach has seen the representation of women on boards increase from 13% in 2010 to 27% in 2016. Since 2013 Australia, Chile, the Czech Republic, Japan, Poland, Portugal, Luxembourg and Switzerland initiated soft targets for gender balance across the board of directors at PLCs and/or state-owned enterprises (SOEs). Furthermore, several countries (*e.g.* Australia, Chile, Finland, Spain and the United Kingdom) added disclosure requirements on the gender composition of boards in their corporate governance codes or regulation. As of 2016, nine countries (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Israel and Norway) have introduced mandatory quotas for women's representation on boards of PLCs and/or SOEs.
- In line with both OECD Gender Recommendations, a majority of OECD countries have put in place some form of **political affirmative measures** for women, though they vary in extent and type, *e.g.* reserved seats (constitutional and/or legislative), legal candidate quotas (constitutional and/or legislative), and political party quotas (voluntary). As of 2016, of the 28 OECD countries with available data, 24 have voluntary political party quotas, 10 have legislated quotas in their single/lower houses of Parliament, 10 have adopted quotas in their electoral law, and 3 have constitutional quotas.
- Countries increasingly recognise – in line with the 2013 Gender Recommendation – that **fathers' participation in unpaid care and housework** is a key tool for achieving gender equality. In an attempt to increase fathers' caregiving, many countries offer paid paternity leave for at least a few days around childbirth, and since the start of 2013 the Czech Republic, Ireland, Italy and Turkey introduced statutory paid paternity leave. Portugal, Slovenia and Spain extended existing provisions, and Estonia re-introduced paternity benefits after their 2009 suspension. However, to make a real difference to care behaviours, longer leave periods are needed. Since 2000, about ten OECD countries have moved to provide fathers with strong financial incentives to take parental leave for at least two months. Japan and Korea provide the longest father-specific leaves in the OECD, with leave periods of about one year, though take-up is very low. In order to encourage fathers to take leave, Korea now provides – subject to certain conditions – 100% wage replacement up to a threshold of around USD 1350 for three "daddy months". Over the past few

years, Sweden extended its daddy quota from two to three months, while Norway moved the other way by reducing its daddy quota from fourteen to ten weeks. Concerns around possible career repercussions, especially in less progressive workplace cultures, mean that it can take time for policy changes to change behaviour. In Germany, for example, since the 2007 leave reform, the proportion of children with a father who used parental leave increased from 20.8% for children born in 2008 to 34.2% for children born in 2014. Further policy efforts are needed to encourage changes in behaviour and, crucially, gender stereotyping at home, in work, and in society at large.

- The 2013 Gender Recommendation promotes female entrepreneurship, and since its adoption countries have largely focused on **closing gender gaps in access to finance and entrepreneurial skills**. A widely-used strategy for facilitating female entrepreneurs' access to finance has been to improve access to bank financing through loan guarantees. In OECD economies, one recent trend has been to increase the ceiling of the guarantee amounts and to make additional training and networking support available to beneficiaries. This is the case with France's Guarantee Fund for the Creation, Resumption, and Development of Enterprises Initiated by Women, a loan guarantee that was increased in 2015. Two other strategies gaining ground are the use of public procurement and efforts to improve women's access to risk capital. Many countries also attempt to address gender gaps in entrepreneurship awareness, culture, networks and skills through, for example, entrepreneurship training, coaching and mentoring programmes, workshops, business counselling and support in building entrepreneurial networks.
- For gender equality to be fully realised, a whole-of-state approach must be adopted that includes the tools to deliver outcomes and mechanisms to ensure accountability, as emphasised in the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life. This requires **embedding gender equality in all policymaking**, in all ministries and all levels of government. In 2015, 25 OECD countries reported having introduced obligatory gender impact assessments when developing new legislation. **Gender budgeting** is an increasingly used tool for ensuring that women's and girls' concerns are mainstreamed in policy and public administration, and almost half of OECD countries report that they have introduced, plan to introduce or are actively considering introducing gender budgeting. Clarity and legitimacy of roles and responsibilities for gender equality across public institutions is crucial to ensure effective policy implementation. A number of countries have recently undertaken steps to strengthen the role of centres of government in monitoring the inclusion of a gender perspective across all policies along with central gender institutions (e.g., Mexico and Canada) and to reinforce the role of central gender equality institutions with regard to gender mainstreaming (e.g., Sweden and Chile).
- The adoption of the **Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)**, particularly Agenda 2030's gender-dedicated goal and targets (SDG5), promises to increase the prioritisation of gender equality within national and global development agendas. Agenda 2030's universal framework is a sober reminder that no country has achieved gender equality (OECD, 2016c). Despite improvements in some areas of gender equality, such as education for girls, progress in other areas has been slow and uneven. The OECD Gender Recommendations call on Adherents to co-operate with developing countries and emerging economies to address gender inequalities, including: the low labour force participation of women, gender wage gaps, early marriage, discriminatory social norms and stereotypes, and high rates of violence against women and girls. Many legal and institutional barriers still remain: women in over 100 countries covered by the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) still face legal and other forms of discrimination in their access to land and property and 77 countries have inadequate legislation addressing domestic violence (OECD Development Centre, 2014). All these factors have detrimental effects on women's rights and well-being and on national development outcomes.

11. The evidence in this report reaffirms the strong relevance and utility of the OECD Gender Recommendations, but much remains to be done to narrow – and eventually close – gender gaps. Adherents to the OECD Gender Recommendations must extend recent progress through sustained campaigns, monitoring and evaluating policies, exchanging best practice, expanding legal measures and public investment. Countries should draw from the different policies in this report and build on good practices such as the various STEM initiatives across the OECD; experiences with developing a work-life balance supports with parental leave and ECEC for parents with children in Nordic countries and France; the many pay transparency initiatives to reduce gender pay gaps; different policy pathways towards greater representation of women in public and private leadership; efforts to obtain a better sharing of paid and unpaid work among partners in Germany (OECD, 2017a); initiatives to improve access to finance for entrepreneurs; and efforts to promote good governance for gender equality in Mexico (OECD, 2017b).

12. No single road leads to gender equality, and the "best" policy options are country-specific; policy changes should reflect existing gaps in gender equality and will be influenced by broader institutional, historical, and cultural contexts. Given the prevailing gender gaps, all Adherents must continue implementing and strengthening the policies embedded in the OECD Gender Recommendations, and policy development should reflect a sense of urgency as – at the current pace – it will take many years to close gender gaps in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life. At this stage there is no need to revise the OECD Gender Recommendations. Progress will require the continued monitoring of policy changes going forward, including the next reporting to Council in 2022.

Table 1. Countries where women do well in education have the smallest gender gaps in labour force participation and leadership positions

Gender gaps in benchmark indicators on Education, Employment and Entrepreneurship.

	Top performers			Moderate performers			Bottom performers	
	Gender gaps in education:			Gender gaps in employment:			Gender gaps in entrepreneurship:	
	Mean PISA reading score ^a , 15 year olds	Mean PISA mathematics score ^a , 15 year olds	Share that have attained tertiary education ^a (%), 25-34 year olds	Labour force participation rate (%), 15-64 year olds	Share of managers ^a , all ages	Gender gap in median earnings for full-time employees ^a (%), 2014 ^a	Share of employed who are employers ^a (%)	
	2015	2015	2015 ^a	2015 ^a	2015 ^a	2014 ^a	2015 ^a	
OECD average	-26.9	7.9	-11.9	12.2	37.7	14.5	3.2	
OECD std. dev.	9.6	7.4	6.5	8.0	16.3	7.6	0.9	
Finland	-46.5 *	-7.5 *	-16.4	3.0	33.4	19.6	3.9	
Lithuania	-39.1 *	-1.3	-19.9	3.3	20.8	12.4	..	
Sweden	-39.2 *	-2.2	-15.6	3.6	20.9	13.4	3.4	
Norway	-39.8 *	-2.3	-17.3	4.3	27.9	6.3	1.6	
Iceland	-41.6 *	-1.1	-16.8	4.8	23.5	13.6	3.8	
Latvia	-42.1 *	-1.9	-28.4	6.1	11.4	21.1	3.6	
Denmark	-22.2 *	9.4 *	-17.8	6.3	46.3	6.3	3.2	
Portugal	-16.7 *	10.0 *	-15.2	6.4	34.7	18.9	3.7	
Slovenia	-43.2 *	3.8	-22.3	7.4	25.3	5.0	2.8	
Estonia	-27.9 *	5.2	-20.3	7.5	38.6	28.3	3.3	
Canada	-26.2 *	9.0 *	-17.7	7.6	29.0	19.2	3.3	
Israel	-22.9 *	8.5	-19.4	7.8	35.5	21.8	4.6	
France	-29.1 *	6.0	-8.4	8.0	36.7	13.7	3.9	
Switzerland	-25.3 *	12.0 *	-2.9	8.7	29.6	16.9	4.3	
Germany	-20.8 *	16.6 *	-1.9	9.1	41.4	17.1	3.7	
Belgium	-16.0 *	14.3 *	-12.1	9.2	34.9	3.3	3.5	
Austria	-20.2 *	27.0 *	-5.6	9.2	40.6	17.7	3.9	
Netherlands	-23.6 *	2.5	-8.9	9.9	47.9	14.1	3.2	
New Zealand	-32.3 *	8.5 *	-8.4	10.2	..	6.1	2.1	
United Kingdom	-21.9 *	11.6 *	-6.8	10.3	29.3	17.4	2.0	
Luxembourg	-21.3 *	11.3 *	-10.4	10.4	63.6	4.1	2.2	
Spain	-20.2 *	16.0 *	-12.1	10.8	37.2	8.6	3.0	
Russian Fed.	-26.1 *	6.0	-13.1	10.9	22.6	..	..	
Australia	-31.7 *	5.8	-11.9	11.5	27.6	15.4	0.9	
United States	-20.1 *	8.5 *	-8.3	11.5	13.2	17.5	2.1	
Hungary	-24.8 *	8.2	-12.3	13.1	18.9	3.8	3.6	
Slovak Republic	-35.6 *	5.7	-16.1	13.2	37.4	14.4	2.2	
Poland	-29.4 *	11.4 *	-18.7	13.4	19.7	11.1	2.4	
Ireland	-12.0 *	16.1 *	-11.8	14.8	31.5	15.2	4.2	
Czech Republic	-26.1 *	7.1	-13.9	14.9	41.0	16.3	2.9	
Greece	-37.3 *	0.1	-12.4	16.0	48.6	9.1	4.2	
Japan	-13.3 *	13.8 *	-2.7	18.2	75.2	25.9	1.8	
Italy	-16.0 *	19.9 *	-11.6	20.3	46.9	5.6	4.0	
Korea	-40.5 *	-7.0	-9.0	20.8	79.0	36.7	4.6	
Chile	-11.9 *	18.3 *	-1.6	21.9	49.3	21.1	2.9	
Colombia	-15.6 *	10.9 *	-7.3	22.1	..	9.6	..	
Costa Rica	-15.0 *	16.1 *	-5.0	26.6	17.4	5.2	..	
Mexico	-15.7 *	7.3 *	-1.8	35.2	31.4	18.3	3.0	
Turkey	-27.8 *	5.9	0.6	42.0	73.7	6.9	4.6	
Brazil	-23.1 *	15.5 *	-6.1	21.1	..	..	..	
China	-16.2 *	5.8	0.7	14.0	..	..	..	
India	..	..	..	52.9	..	..	..	
Indonesia	-23.4 *	-2.7	-1.1	33.0	55.9	..	..	
South Africa	..	..	-2.2	13.0	37.8	..	4.9	

Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the gender gap in the labour force participation rate. Values are shaded according to the size of the gender gap relative to the OECD average and the OECD standard deviation. 'Top performers' are those with gender gaps more than half a standard deviation below the OECD average (i.e. those with smaller gender gaps or gender gaps that more strongly favour women), 'moderate performers' those with gender gaps within half a standard deviation of the OECD average, and 'bottom performers' those with gender gaps more than half a standard deviation above the OECD average (i.e. those with larger gender gaps or gender gaps that more strongly favour men). For the gender gaps in mean PISA reading and mathematics scores, countries marked with an * are those where the gender gap is statistically significant. Data for 'China' refer to the four PISA participating China provinces (Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu and Guangdong) only.

a) See Annex Figures I.1, I.2 and I.3 for definitions, notes and reference years.

Source: See sources to Annex Figures I.1, I.2 and I.3.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the report

13. The Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Education, Employment and Entrepreneurship [[C/MIN\(2013\)5/FINAL](#)] - hereafter the “2013 Gender Recommendation” - was adopted by the Council at its Meeting at Ministerial level on 29 May 2013 [[C/M\(2013\)12](#)]. Since then, five non-Members have adhered to the 2013 Gender Recommendation: the Russian Federation (29 May 2013), Costa Rica (5 November 2013), Lithuania (1 July 2014), Kazakhstan (15 January 2016), and Colombia (18 April 2017).

14. The 2013 Gender Recommendation sets out a number of measures that Members and non-Members who adhered to it (hereafter the “Adherents”) should consider implementing in order to address gender inequalities in education, employment, and entrepreneurship. It notably recommends that Adherents – through appropriate legislation, policies, monitoring, and campaigning – provide equal access to education, better enable female labour force participation, promote family-friendly policies, foster men's greater uptake of unpaid work, work toward a better gender balance in public and private sector leadership positions, and promote entrepreneurship among women. The 2013 Gender Recommendation also calls on Adherents to elaborate policy principles, guidelines, good practices and data on gender equality in education, employment and entrepreneurship, and there is also a call to “further the Recommendation's objectives through co-operation with all relevant stakeholders, including the private sector, public agencies, trade unions, employers’ organisations and civil society”.

15. The 2013 Gender Recommendation was developed through an horizontal process and the draft was reviewed by the following bodies: the Corporate Governance Committee (CGC); the Development Assistance Committee (DAC); the Employment, Labour, and Social Affairs Committee (ELSAC); the Education Policy Committee (EDPC); the Committee on Statistics and Statistical Policy (CSSP); the Committee on Financial Markets (CMF); the Committee on Industry, Innovation and Entrepreneurship (CIIE) and its Working Party on SMEs and Entrepreneurship (WPSMEE); the Investment Committee; the Public Governance Committee (PGC) and its Working Party on Public Employment and Management; the Regulatory Policy Committee (RPC); the Directing Committee for the Co-operative Action Programme on Local Employment and Economic Development (LEED); and the Governing Board of the Development Centre.

16. The 2013 Gender Recommendation inspired and informed the development of the Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Public Life [[C\(2015\)164](#)] - hereafter the “2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life”, adopted by the Council on 14 December 2015. The 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life complements and deepens the relevant high-level provisions in the 2013 Gender Recommendation sections, C, I and J (see below). The 2015 OECD Gender Recommendation in Public Life focuses on effective governance and implementation of gender equality and mainstreaming initiatives in public life, as well as on enhancing women’s equal access to public leadership opportunities such as in parliaments, the executive, judiciary and public administrations.

17. Together with the All on Board for Inclusive Growth initiative, the OECD Gender Recommendations provide a comprehensive framework to help countries design and implement comprehensive policies that foster gender equality in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life and that deliver stronger growth and greater inclusiveness.

1.2. *Measuring and reporting progress*

18. The 2013 Gender Recommendation instructs the ELSAC and other competent committees to establish a mechanism to monitor the implementation of the Recommendation through accessible data, analytical studies, and good practice, to assess progress and to report to Council by 2017 and regularly thereafter. Similarly, the Council instructed the PGC, in co-operation with ELSAC, to monitor the implementation of the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life, which as stipulated therein is linked to the 2013 Gender Recommendation and reporting to Council is due at the same time.

19. As the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life was only adopted in December of that year, it is too early to measure its policy impact in full detail. However, to document progress with the implementation of the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public life, the PGC has promoted the development of four Survey tools⁴ addressing respectively public administrations, legislatures, judiciaries and gender equality ministries (or equivalent bodies). The survey results will feed into a Baseline Report for the implementation of the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life in 2018. The Report will be prepared within the framework of the implementation approach approved by the PGC at its 53th session on 21 – 22 April 2016 [[GOV/PGC\(2016\)8](#)].

20. Reporting to Council draws on: a) new evidence derived from recent and ongoing gender related work across Committees; and b) Adherents' direct reporting on progress with implementing the OECD Gender Recommendations.

21. The OECD has developed an extensive portfolio on gender to inform an assessment of progress following the 2013 Gender Recommendation. The 2013 Gender Recommendation led to the development of the [OECD Gender Data Portal](#), which is updated annually on March 8 - International Women's Day. Since 2013 the dataset has been extended and now includes about 85 indicators on Education, Employment, Entrepreneurship, Health and Development, and Public Life (see OECD Gender Portal as from 8 March 2017). In addition to these indicators, progress reporting draws on the wide range of [ongoing OECD gender work](#), which covers analysis on education, employment and work-life balance, entrepreneurship, public governance, OECD Regional Initiatives on Governance and Competitiveness (including on MENA countries), the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) Network on Gender Equality, GENDERNET, the OECD Development Centre's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), financial education, health, science, access to justice and equality before the law, taxation and work on the OECD Better Life Index.

22. In preparation for reporting to Council on progress with the implementation of the 2013 Gender Recommendation, in Spring 2016 various Committees sent questionnaires regarding "their respective focal areas of the Recommendation" to seek Adherents' input on policy change or announced policy change or otherwise report on progress with the implementation of the 2013 Gender Recommendation since its adoption. Such questionnaires – hereafter referred to under the umbrella label "*Gender Equality Questionnaires*" (OECD GEQs 2016) - were sent to the CGC and its Working Party on State-Owned Enterprises and Privatisation Practices (WPSOPP), the CSSP, the EDPC, the ELSAC, the LEED Directing Committee, and the WPSMEE, and responses were assessed during the second part of 2016. The International Network on Financial Education (INFE) launched a survey on financial literacy and financial inclusion in 2015 to which 30 countries responded. Also, the Governing Board of the Development Centre

⁴

The four survey tools are: the 2016 OECD Survey on Gender Sensitive Electoral and Legislative Practices; the 2017 OECD Survey on Gender Sensitive Practices in the Judiciary; the 2017 OECD Survey on National Gender Equality Frameworks and Public Policies; and, the 2017 OECD Survey on Gender Equality in Public Employment.

has consulted the members of the Development Centre that are not OECD Members and non-Adherents on gender issues and some best practices are referred to in this report to Council. The response rates to the OECD GEQs 2016 vary per Committee – Table 2 presents information on the number of responses per body and was highest for delegates to ELSAC.

Table 2. Overview of questionnaire responses

Responses by Members and non-Member Adherents

Bodies	Focal Item OECD Gender Recommendation ²	Number of responses ¹
CGC	C1	24
WPSOPP	C2	20
CSSP	II B and C	28
EDPC	A1 to A5	17
ELSAC	B1 to B8, D, E, G	37
LEED Directing Committee	F1, F2	17
WPSMEE	F1, F2	12
INFE	H	14

Note: 1) The maximum is 40: i.e. 35 Members + non-Member Adherents (Colombia, Costa Rica, Kazakhstan, Lithuania and the Russian Federation). In addition responses were received for Argentina, Brazil, China, Hong Kong (China), the Philippines and South Africa.

2) Broadly speaking the focal items in the OECD Gender Recommendation concern: A – Education; B – Employment; C – Women in leadership positions; D- the gender wage gap; E, Sexual Harassment; F- Entrepreneurship; G, women from disadvantaged minority groups and migrant women; H- Financial Literacy. Items I (mainstreaming gender equality in policies and budgets) and J (strengthening accountability mechanisms for gender equality) were assessed through the ongoing programme of work of the PGC.

Developing Data

23. The 2013 Gender Recommendation calls for generating data and evidence as part of gender-sensitive policymaking. The GEQ to the CSSP on gender statistics shows that since 2013 many Adherents have been engaged in developing their gender statistics, and while levels of ambition and activities differ, all respondents (28 countries) report some progress.

24. In general, gender indicators in the area of education and employment tend to be more developed than indicators referring to measuring entrepreneurship by gender, which is a relatively new statistical area. The minimum set of gender indicators within the area of entrepreneurship typically consists of statistics compiled from the labour force surveys. Most of the countries where more elaborate measures of entrepreneurship by gender (i.e. based on linked data on businesses and individuals) do not yet exist seem, however, to be in the process of developing these and/or report that further action will be taken in this area.

25. Among Adherents with well-developed gender statistics, such as Australia, Canada, Chile, Mexico and the Nordic countries, most initiatives attempt to further efforts to promote dissemination of the indicators already produced or to raise awareness within the statistical community of the importance of producing gender statistics. In a few countries, such as Colombia, development has been fast and thorough: the entire statistical process has been gender mainstreamed across all areas, with a major impact on the production process and the compilation of gender indicators.

1.3. *The OECD Gender Recommendations in a global environment.*

26. The 2013 and 2015 OECD Gender Recommendations reflect and – importantly – *advance* the measures proposed in other international instruments on gender equality. This international approach necessarily implies looking beyond OECD member countries and sharing lessons, knowledge, and best practice with developing and emerging economies. The 2013 Gender Recommendation invites "Partners to adhere to the Recommendations and to collaborate with the OECD to exchange policy principles, guidelines, good practices and data on gender equality in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life." Members are also invited to "co-operate with developing and emerging countries to support their efforts to address the gender equality dimensions of poverty through women's economic empowerment."

27. The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly Agenda 2030's gender-dedicated goal and targets (SDG5), is a reminder that no country has achieved gender equality (OECD, 2016c) and promises to increase the prioritisation of gender equality within national and global development agendas. Agenda 2030 draws on and reinforces existing normative instruments and frameworks, including the Convention for the Elimination for All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979)⁵ and the Beijing Platform for Action (1995), as well as the OECD Gender Recommendations. Agenda 2030's universal framework, goals and targets open a critical opportunity to fast track progress on gender equality and women's empowerment across all countries. To meet these commitments, all countries will need to scale up investments in reducing key policy, financing and data gaps.

28. The wide range of OECD gender indicators and policy work undertaken to measure progress with the implementation of the Gender Recommendations can help to reduce these gaps and address key challenges in measuring the SDG's gender equality targets (SDG5), including strengthening the evidence base for targets; identifying which policies and practices have shown promising positive impact for achieving gender equality in social institutions; and considering emerging financing trends for gender equality and how to sustain such support.

29. The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly Agenda 2030's gender-dedicated goal and targets (SDG5), promises to increase the prioritisation of gender equality within national and global development agendas and is interlinked with the promotion of sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all - SDG8 (UN, 2015a). Despite such growing global consensus and commitments, the mixed record puts the spotlight on the unfinished business of gender equality, and suggests how Agenda 2030 can be a lever for fast tracking progress. Benchmarking some of the targets under SDG 5 clearly shows the strategic opportunities as well as the steep challenges ahead. For example, Target 5.1 recognises that removing all forms of discrimination in formal and informal (customary, religious and traditional) laws is a critical first step for building an enabling environment for gender equality. Since 2012, legislative reforms have seen the removal of discrimination in labour laws - 64 economies have enacted 94 reforms increasing women's economic opportunities (World Bank, 2015a) as well as family laws (at least 12 countries have enacted laws or policies to end child and early marriage). Yet, many legal and institutional barriers still remain. Today, women in just over 100 countries covered by the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) still face legal and other forms of discrimination in their access to land and property and 77 countries have inadequate legislation addressing domestic violence (OECD Development Centre, 2014).

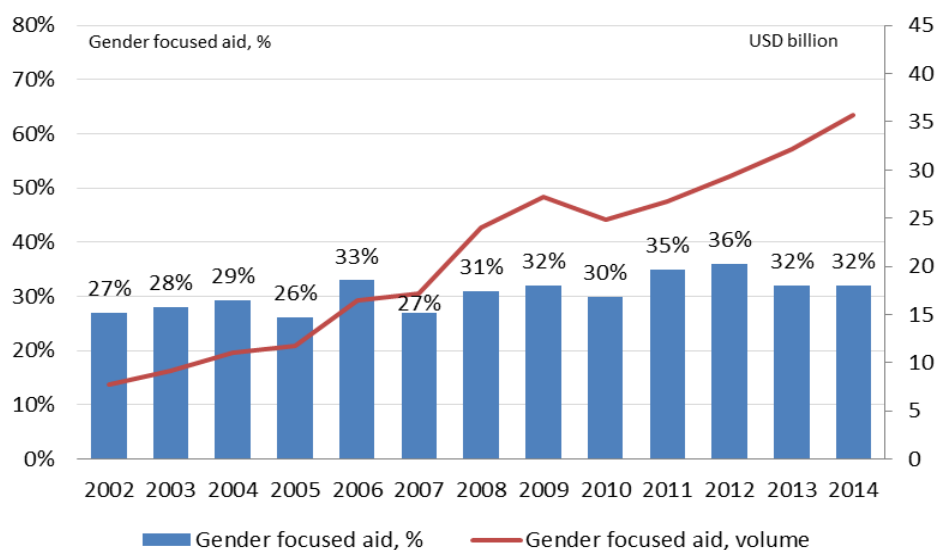
⁵ The United Nations Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is the body of independent experts that monitors implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. (<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CEDAW/Pages/CEDAWIndex.aspx>).

30. SDG 5.3 aims to “Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation”. Analysis from the SIGI suggests the potential positive impact of achieving this target for girls’ education outcomes. Around the world, 39 000 girls under the age of 18 are married every day: one in three before the age of 19, and one in nine before the age of 15. This discriminatory social institution not only infringes on girls’ rights as protected by the law, but is also an underlying factor influencing gender inequality in education: in non-OECD Members where early marriage is twice as prevalent for girls than for boys, only 60 girls for 100 boys are completing their secondary education. In contrast, 90 girls are educated for every 100 boys in countries where both girls and boys are less likely to marry young. In short, achieving SDG 5.3 could help accelerate progress on gender equality in education, which is also covered by targets under SDG 5.4 (UN, 2015).

31. The 2013 OECD Gender Recommendation invites Adherents to co-operate with developing and emerging countries to support their efforts to address the gender equality dimensions of poverty, including by “increasing the gender equality and women’s empowerment focus of aid, especially in the economic and productive sectors”. Official Development Assistance (ODA) in support of gender equality and women’s empowerment is at an all-time total high of USD 35.5 billion in 2014. This reflects a rapid rise in ODA in support of gender equality, which more than quadrupled over the course of the Millennium Development Goals from 8 billion in 2002 to USD 35.5 billion in 2014 (Figure 2). Despite this upward trend, investments remain insufficient to finance the achievement of the gender equality commitments of the SDGs and only a small proportion of ODA addresses women’s specific needs. Investment in gender – focused ODA need to be strengthened. In particular, financing for dedicated projects/programmes on gender equality is far below that of programmes in which gender equality is mainstreamed, and overall gender-responsive investments fall short of political commitments in a number of key priority areas of the SDGs including women’s economic empowerment, climate change, and peace and security.

Figure 2. Aid in support of gender equality and women’s empowerment has increased

2002 14 period, annual commitments, DAC Members, total, USD billion, constant 2011 prices



Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System database, statistics based on DAC members’ reporting on the Gender Equality Policy Marker.

1.3.1. *Pushing forward the principles of the OECD Gender Recommendation*

32. The principles underlying the OECD Gender Recommendation, specific OECD analysis related to the Recommendation and the OECD's concerted efforts to advance the gender equality agenda, were instrumental in bringing gender equality to the front of the G20 agenda and in the adoption of the commitment by G20 Leaders at their 2014 Brisbane Summit to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% in 2025 as well as a set of key policy principles to improve the quality of employment (see the employment section below). The OECD was asked by the G20 to monitor progress along with the International Labour Organization, and is actively involved in the monitoring process for the 2017 German G20 Presidency.

33. The OECD continues to advance the gender equality agenda in global fora. Pushing forward the principles of the Gender Recommendation also served to establish the common principles to boost women's entrepreneurship and promote role models, as agreed by G7 Leaders at their summit in Schloss Elmau in 2015, while for the Ise-Shima G7 Presidency of Japan, the OECD contributed to the building up of an agenda to encourage more girls to enter Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) disciplines. The OECD is also working closely with the Italian G7 Presidency to develop a G7 Roadmap for a Gender-responsive Economic Environment. The OECD is also helping to advance the gender agenda in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region through its contribution to the G7 Deauville Partnership.

34. The OECD Gender Recommendations invite adherents and the Secretary-General to disseminate the Recommendations. Since their adoption, the OECD Gender Recommendations have been disseminated through a range of OECD Gender Publications, various high-level events, seminars and workshops with OECD member and partner countries, the gender portal and other communications. The OECD Gender Recommendations continue to feed gender work on non-member countries, such as, for example, working with the Pacific Alliance (OECD, 2016d), countries in the Asia-Pacific region (OECD, 2014b), the OECD Middle East and North Africa (MENA) Competitiveness Programme which promotes the integration of women in the economy including through women's entrepreneurship (OECD, 2017c), or, as concerns public life work with Colombia, Egypt, Indonesia, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Morocco, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates.

2. **Education**

35. The OECD Gender Recommendation asks Adherents to adopt practices that promote gender equality in education, reduce the gender gap in financial literacy, and work with non-Adherents to ensure safe and affordable school environments so that girls and boys can complete quality secondary education.

36. In OECD countries girls and young women often outperform boys and young men in education systems (Table 1), both in terms of education attained and in testing achievements. On average across the OECD in 2014, more women than men obtained tertiary qualifications: 57-58% of bachelor's and master's (or equivalents) graduates were women, while only 47% of doctoral graduates were women. In a global perspective, young girls and have been catching up with men in terms of educational participation: the gender gaps in primary, secondary and tertiary school enrolment rates have decreased between 2000 and 2014 (World Bank, 2014a). Nevertheless, in many regions of the world, gender gaps favouring boys and young men widen for secondary and tertiary education (Box 1).

Box 1. Keeping girls in school

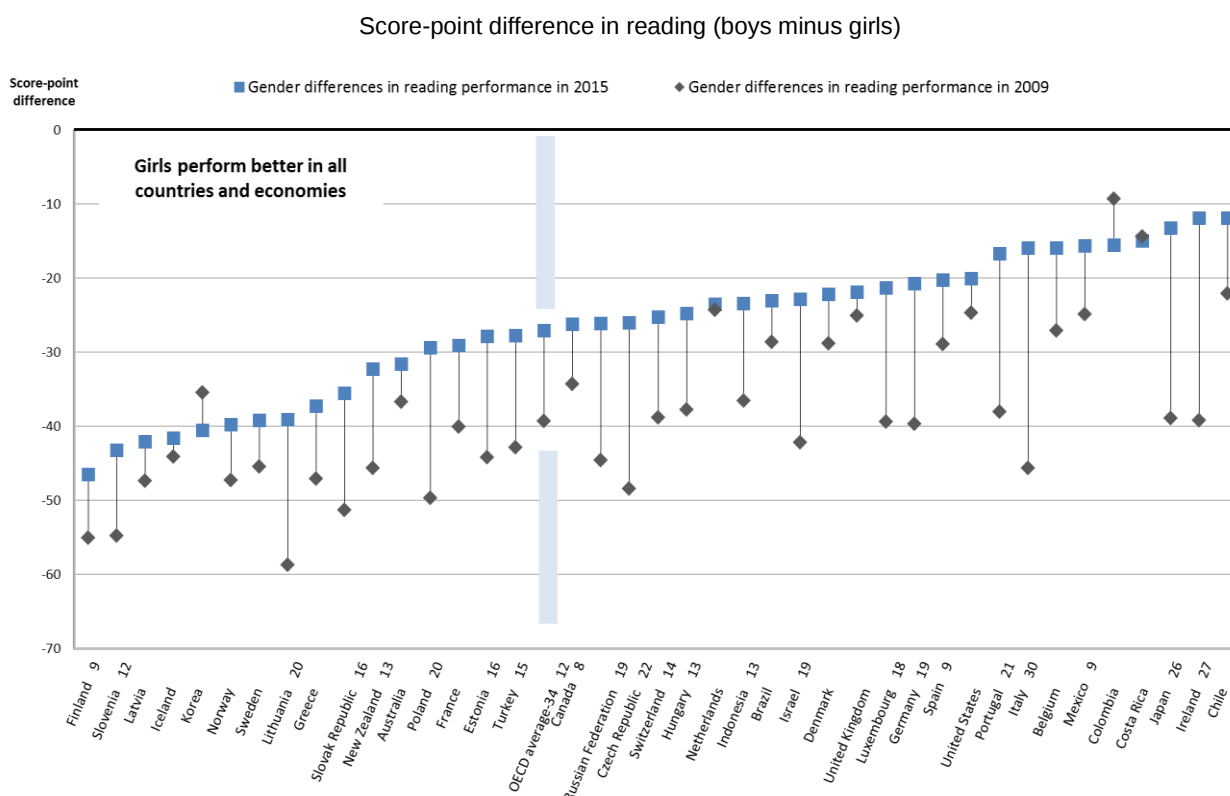
Beyond common barriers adolescent girls face to pursue secondary education around the world, some constraints are specific to developing countries. The mixture of inter-related factors such as economic factors (the cost and benefits of education), social institutions and gender roles and personal safety issues (during travel to and from school or at school) all contribute to many girls not starting or dropping out of secondary school.

Discriminatory social institutions, such as early marriage, and gender roles increasing girls' caring responsibilities can also cut short their education. Often gender-biased laws and social norms place heavy domestic workloads on adolescent girls (Ferrant, Pesando and Nowacka, 2014). Stereotypical notions are present from childhood: girls are twice more likely than boys to perform such amount of domestic work, thus increasing gender gaps in education. SDG 5.3 aims to "Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation". Analysis from the SIGI suggests the potential positive impact of achieving this target for girls' education outcomes. Around the world, 39 000 girls under the age of 18 are married every day: one in three before the age of 19, and one in nine before the age of 15. This discriminatory social institution not only infringes on girls' rights as protected by law but is also an underlying factor influencing gender inequality in education: in developing countries where early marriage is twice as prevalent for girls than for boys, only 60 girls for 100 boys are completing their secondary education. In contrast, 90 girls are educated for every 100 boys in countries where both girls and boys are less likely to marry young. The decision for a girl to drop out of school is often preceded or closely followed by early marriage and/or adolescent pregnancy that increase their caring responsibilities.

Addressing gendered barriers to girls accessing education in Kenya: In 2015, Plan International initiated the Adolescent Girls Initiative-Kenya (AGI-K) in Nairobi slums to tackle barriers to girls' education. The intervention combines conditional cash transfer schemes and a mentorship programme where girls learn about sexual and reproductive health. Studies have previously shown that conditional cash transfers based on school attendance were successful in increasing school attendance in sub-Saharan Africa. The Adolescent Girls Initiative-Kenya (AGI-K) covers 176 primary schools and has enrolled over 2 000 girls in the mentorship programme. The intervention uses an automated tracking system to monitor school attendance and at-home visits in the case of a pro-longed absence. The programme will run for two years (Plan International, 2015; The Population Council, 2015).

2.1. *Gender gaps persist in performance and STEM choices*

37. Globally, "Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction" and "Natural Science, Mathematics and Statistics" are the least popular subject choices for female students, but there has been a small increase during the 2000 to 2015 period (UNESCO, 2017, *forthcoming*). The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results have consistently shown that, on average, boys outperform girls in mathematics but not by as much as girls outperform boys in reading. Between the OECD PISA 2012 and OECD PISA 2015 assessments, the gender gap in mathematics scores did not change significantly in the vast majority of participating countries. By contrast, but over a longer period, between OECD PISA 2009 and OECD PISA 2015, the gender gap in reading narrowed by 12 points on average across OECD countries: boys' performance improved somewhat, while girls' performance deteriorated, particularly among the lowest-achieving girls (-16 points at the 10th percentile).

Figure 3. Change between 2009 and 2015 in gender differences in reading performance

Note: Countries and economies are ranked in ascending order of gender differences in reading performance in 2015.

All gender differences in PISA 2009 and in PISA 2015 are statistically significant. Statistically significant *changes* between PISA 2009 and PISA 2015 are shown next to the country name.

Source: OECD PISA 2015 Database.

38. OECD PISA results suggest that among 15-year old students, girls are more likely to out-perform boys across the three academic subjects considered in PISA: on average across OECD countries in 2015, 15.5% of boys were all-round (including reading, science and mathematics) low-achievers compared to 11.4% of girls (OECD, 2016e and 2016f). In 22 of the 35 OECD countries, more boys than girls were all-round low achievers; and, the same held for 26 out of the 35 non-OECD countries that participated in OECD PISA 2015. By age 25, however – as results of the OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) suggest – young men often outperform young women in numeracy and perform on a par with young women in literacy.

39. Boys are more likely than girls to be “digitally engaged”, and while the digitisation of everyday life may ultimately represent an opportunity to engage boys with reading, it may also represent a challenge for girls as their advantage in reading declines. Videogaming and web surfing can promote certain skills and be used as learning aids, however, excessive use of computers is associated with poorer academic results. Many teenage boys display a lack of engagement with school, and, as a result tend to drift off and drop out of education without completing upper secondary school.

Box 2. Gender gaps in financial literacy

The 2012 G20 Leaders Declaration recognised the need for women and youth to gain access to financial services and financial education and asked the OECD International network on Financial Education (OECD/INFE) to identify the barriers they may face. In response to the G20 call and to countries' growing interest, OECD/INFE developed significant work on gender issues in financial literacy and financial education and the OECD (2013a), Policy Guidance on Addressing Women's and Girls' Needs for Financial Awareness and Education, was endorsed by G20 Leaders in 2013. OECD/INFE also presented a toolkit for measuring financial literacy and financial inclusion (OECD, 2015a).

In 2015, OECD/INFE undertook a second survey of financial literacy which showed that women are less knowledgeable than men about basic concepts such as compound interest rates, inflation and risk diversification in 19 out of 30 participating countries and economies, with no significant gender differences for the other countries and economies (OECD, 2016g). Moreover, in general, the 2015 survey showed that men tend to be more financially resilient than women, in the sense that fewer women than men reported that they would be able to face major unexpected expenses, cover living expenses in case of income loss and support themselves in retirement independently of their spouses or family.

More and more countries are collecting internationally comparable data on gender differences in financial literacy. However, evidence on the effectiveness of financial education initiatives targeted at women and girls is still limited, as is information on the delivery methods that can best bridge gender gaps in financial literacy and financial outcomes. Gender sensitive evaluation efforts need to be stepped up in future.

40. Despite outperforming boys at school, girls remain under-represented in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM), and there has been little change in this regard since the adoption of the OECD Gender Recommendation. In 2014 across OECD countries, less than 20% of graduates in computing were women, as were only around 17% of those with engineering degrees. The dearth of women in computing and engineering is rooted in gender differences in the career expectations that boys and girls have: on average across OECD countries, 15-year-old boys are more than twice as likely as girls to expect to work as engineers, scientists or architects; and while less than 0.5% of girls expect to work as ICT professionals, almost 5% of boys do. Some of these differences reflect persistent stereotypes about which career choices are suitable for boys and girls on the part of teachers, peers and parents: OECD (2015b) showed that parents are more likely to expect their teenage sons to work in STEM-areas even when their daughters perform just as well in mathematics, reading and science.

2.2. *Education policy for gender equality*

41. There is an urgency to change gender stereotypical patterns in education as otherwise these will continue to affect life choices of future generations for years to come. Policymakers across the OECD are aware of the problem of gender stereotyping at school and the effect that may have on future education and career choices. In Sweden, the revised 2010 pre-school curriculum suggests that "The preschool should counteract traditional gender patterns and gender roles. Girls and boys in preschool should have the same opportunities to develop and explore their abilities and interests without having limitations imposed by stereotyped gender roles". Since the adoption of the OECD Gender Recommendation other countries have taken steps to combat gender stereotyping at school. For example, in Chile, the Bachelet government incorporated initiatives on non-discrimination and the promotion of equity, including on ensuring that study programmes and textbooks help teachers avoid practices that reinforce gender stereotypes. In Hungary in 2013 textbooks were revised for grades 1 to 8 to ensure that students are not exposed to stereotypes and develop an awareness of gender equality. Examples of new materials include: a revision of biology textbooks to illustrate the role of women in science by demonstrating the works of female scientists; the representation of women who were successful in their fields of work in a career section in the physics textbooks; and discussions of the gender equality issues and the historical background of the change in the traditional roles of women in history textbooks.

42. Since the adoption of the OECD Gender Recommendation many countries have introduced new initiatives or reinforced existing initiatives that focus on girls and under-represented groups in STEM-areas (Australia, the Flemish community in Belgium, Germany Italy, Japan, Latvia, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom). Initiatives can be aimed at parents, teachers, and/or students. For example, in England “Your Daughter’s future” is an online guide for parents to help parents with school subjects and career choices, while “Opening Doors” provides good practice in countering gender stereotyping in schools for teachers and students. At the same time, New Careers Advice Statutory Guidelines were developed to tackle gender stereotyping in careers advice. Germany’s National Pact for Women in MINT (the German acronym for “STEM”) Careers, called “Go Mint”, was created in 2008 to bring together politics, business, science and the media, through a range of local initiatives including exchanges of best practice, technical courses, mentoring and networking to increase young women’s interest in scientific and technical degree courses and attract female university graduates into careers in business. Japan promotes initiatives that provide practical information for career selection in the STEM fields, as for example, through “Riko-Challe Support Partners” – a partnership between industry, academia and the government, which provides role-models of leading female researchers and engineers and event information about job-experience activities and tours by firms and universities. The OECD-Mexico NiñaSTEM initiative that invites Mexican women engaged in prominent careers in science and mathematics to visit schools and encourage girls to choose STEM options and be ambitious. In the United States, the Department of Education’s “Race to the Top” programme prioritised improving STEM achievement overall and within under-represented groups – including women and girls – in awarding grants to states.

43. As the same time, men are under-represented in the health and education sectors. For example, on average across OECD countries in 2014, only 18% of primary school teachers were men, as were only 32% of lower secondary teachers and 42% of upper secondary teachers. Again, these career choices are related to expectations among adolescents: in 2015, around 8% of girls but only 3% of boys across OECD countries expected to work as teachers. Gender gaps in students’ expectations to work in the health sector are even more pronounced: 25% of girls expect to work in this sector in the future compared to around 10% of boys, and the gender gap has increased by 5 percentage points between 2006 and 2015.

44. Governments should emphasize the importance of removing barriers that keep men from working in the teaching profession. These can include promoting higher teacher salaries, raising the social status of teachers and countering the public perception that teaching is primarily an occupation for women. Since gender imbalances have become more pronounced in recent years, as older cohorts of teachers reach retirement age, fewer and fewer young people will be exposed to male teachers, thereby reinforcing stereotypes. In the Netherlands initiatives that promote STEM among young women are accompanied by initiatives for men to engage in the education sector. More generally, public campaigns should ensure that boys, girls and their parents consider a career in teaching, and that school environments put greater value on gender diversity in the teaching profession.

3. Employment

45. To address gender inequalities in employment, Adherents to the 2013 OECD Gender Recommendation are advised to promote family-friendly policies and working conditions in order to facilitate women’s participation in both public and private sector employment; increase the representation of women in decision-making positions; eliminate the discriminatory gender wage gap; and pay attention to the special needs of women from disadvantaged minority groups and migrant women. Countries are undertaking policy efforts in all these areas, but more urgency is required in pushing forward the reform agenda to combat labour market inequalities more effectively.

3.1. *Participation gaps remain substantial*

46. The long-term narrowing of gender gaps in education has contributed to a narrowing of gender gaps in the labour market, but these gaps nevertheless remain substantial in many countries. At 67.43% on average across the OECD in 2015, female labour force participation rates (LFPRs) were 12.2 percentage points lower than for men (Annex Figure I.2). Gender gaps in labour force participation rates are generally largest in countries with the lowest female participation rates, and exceed 40 percentage points in Saudi Arabia, India and Turkey and in some MENA countries (OECD, 2017c), while they are smallest in Canada, France and Germany – though these conclusions do not account for gender gaps in working hours.

47. This gender gap in participation represents a major loss that countries can ill afford in their quest to promote economic development and/or to deal with rapid population ageing. The OECD Gender Recommendation informed the November 2014 G20 Summit in Brisbane, where Leaders agreed to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025 (OECD et al, 2014). Given that young women are as well-educated (if not more) as young men, their increased contributions to the labour market go well beyond the pure counting of hours worked: achieving the G20 gender target would bring millions more women into the workforce, reduce poverty and significantly increase growth across the OECD and the G20 (Annex Table II.1). This section uses the “25% by 2025” target as a benchmark for progress in labour force participation against, even for countries that are outside the G20.

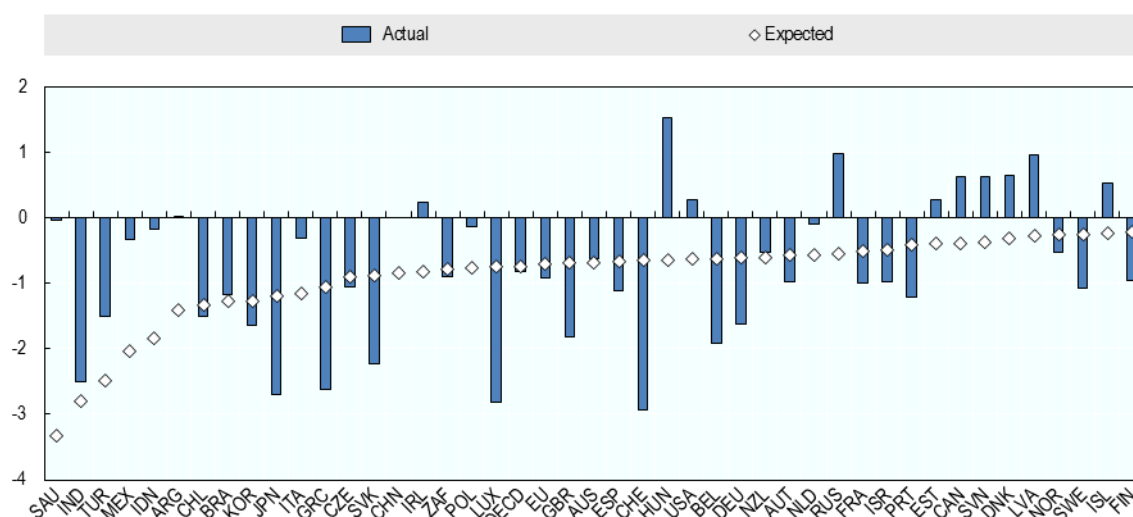
48. Gender gaps in labour force participation among the working-age (15-64 year olds) population remain very large in some countries: over 50 percentage points in Saudi Arabia and India, 42 p.p. in Turkey, 35 p.p. in Mexico and 32 p.p. in Indonesia. Since 2012, there has been some progress in reducing gender gaps in labour force participation across the OECD (Figure 4). The average unweighted gender gap for countries with available data declined from 13.0% in 2012 to 12.2% in 2015. The greatest reductions (well above the rate of decline needed to meet the G20s 25% target reduction by 2025) occurred in Japan, Greece, Luxembourg, and Switzerland (Figure 4). However, in some countries the gap in labour force participation among working-age men and women increased. In countries with relatively small gender gaps (less than 10 percentage points) such as Canada female LFPRs were at their peak in 2012/13 and since then stabilised just below that level while male LFPRs edged up. In Latvia the increase in male LFPRs outpaced the female LFPRs since 2012 (OECD, 2016h), and the same holds for Hungary and the Russian Federation which already had gender gaps in participation rates in excess of 10 percentage points (Annex Figure I.2). At 11 percentage points in 2012, the gender gap in labour force participation (age 15-64) in the United States was also large and it has increased further by almost half a percentage point since 2012 as male and female LFPRs declined due to population ageing, and the decline in female LFPRs outpaced the decline in male LFPRs. In the United States, the decline in female LFPRs since 2000 is associated with population aging, as baby boomers are now eligible to qualify for pensions, and with the inadequate provision of family-friendly policies, such as affordable childcare and paid parental leave (U.S. Council of Economic Advisors, 2014).

49. According to the baseline scenario (see the note to Figure 4), the size of the labour force (15-64 year olds) is projected to rise in OECD countries, but - with population ageing - will decline significantly in Germany, Japan, the Russian Federation, and the European Union as a whole (see Annex II. for more detail on scenarios). In some countries, meeting the 25% target for a reduction in the gender gap in labour force participation by 2025 would involve only a modest further increase in the size of the labour force relative to the baseline scenario (e.g. Australia, Canada and Mexico), as in these countries (based on past trends) the gender gap in labour force participation is already set to fall by close to 25% by 2025. However, in Korea and Japan, for example, the 25% by 2025 scenario would help avoid the looming decline of labour forces. Reaching equality in working hours as well as in labour force participation would lead to additional increase in countries where women often work fewer than 30 hours per week with projected

sizeable increases including in Australia, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (OECD, 2012a).

Figure 4. Most countries are well-placed to meet the 25% by 2025 target

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



Note: For the target setting on the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025, a baseline scenario was developed which accounts for changes in the labour force participation of men and women that are likely to occur in the future in the absence of any policy reforms. In many countries, there has been a trend increase in the participation of women, but not, for example, in China and the United States, where participation rates declined for men and women. There have also been different trends by age groups: on the one hand, participation rates for youth have fallen in many countries as a result of more time spent in education while, on the other hand, labour force participation for prime aged and older ages has been rising in several countries in response to rising educational attainment and stronger financial incentives to remain in work. The baseline scenario does not assume fixed participation rates, but constant labour force entry and exit rates for 5-year age groups at their historical average over the period 2003-2012.

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 data refer to Q2 2015. For India, the data refer to the population aged 15 and over. No recent 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.

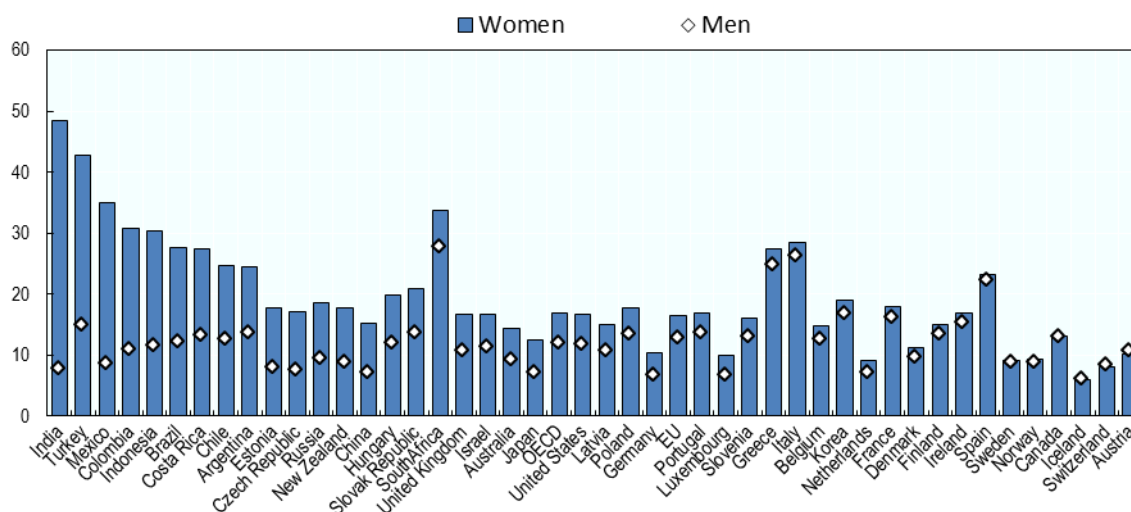
50. The potential “growth dividend” from closing gender gaps in participation rates and boosting the size of the labour force could be substantial. In Mexico, for example, reducing the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025 could, through increases in the size of the labour force, potentially add 0.14 percentage points to the projected average annual rate of growth in GDP per capita for the period 2013-2025, which is equivalent to boosting cumulative GDP per capita growth by just under 4 percentage points over the whole period (Annex Table II). Gender gaps in labour force participation are smallest among the high-skilled as the opportunity costs of not participating in the labour market tend to be higher for those with higher levels of educational attainment. Given that educational attainment levels (as proxied by the proportion of the population with tertiary education) are relatively low in Brazil, Indonesia, Italy, South Africa and Turkey, these countries stand to gain most from greater investment in effective education policies, which would boost more and more gender equal labour market participation. An exception to this pattern is India, where a woman staying at home is frequently considered to increase the family’s social status (OECD, 2014a).

3.2. Gender gaps are smaller for young adults

51. Related to the narrowing gender gaps in education, the gender gaps in labour market behaviour of young men and women are relatively small. Indeed in many OECD countries, gender gaps in the rates of young people *Not in Education, Employment or Training* (NEET) are limited, and in fact, female teenagers tend to have lower NEET-rates than their male counterparts in many countries (OECD, 2015c). However, female NEET rates are considerably higher than men's in countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Turkey and South Africa, where age at first birth is younger than the OECD average (Figure 5), and traditional attitudes on the role of women at home are more prevalent. Across countries, gender gaps increase with age, reflecting the crucial role that parenthood plays in gender equality in economic opportunities and outcomes: much more than fatherhood, motherhood typically has pronounced negative effects on labour market participation, and it is at this stage of the life course that gender gaps start to widen in labour market outcomes (OECD, 2016a).

Figure 5. Gender gaps in NEET rates are largest in India, Turkey and Mexico.

Percentage point difference in Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET) rates between men and women^a, 2015



Note: Countries are ranked by a diminishing size of the gender gap.

a) The data show the percentage point difference in female and male NEET rates, for youth aged 15-29, for 2015; 2014 for Argentina, Brazil, Japan and South Africa, 2013 for Chile and Korea; 2012 for India and 2010 for China; OECD is the unweighted average of 34 OECD countries (Japan excluded); and, data for Argentina concern selected urban areas only.

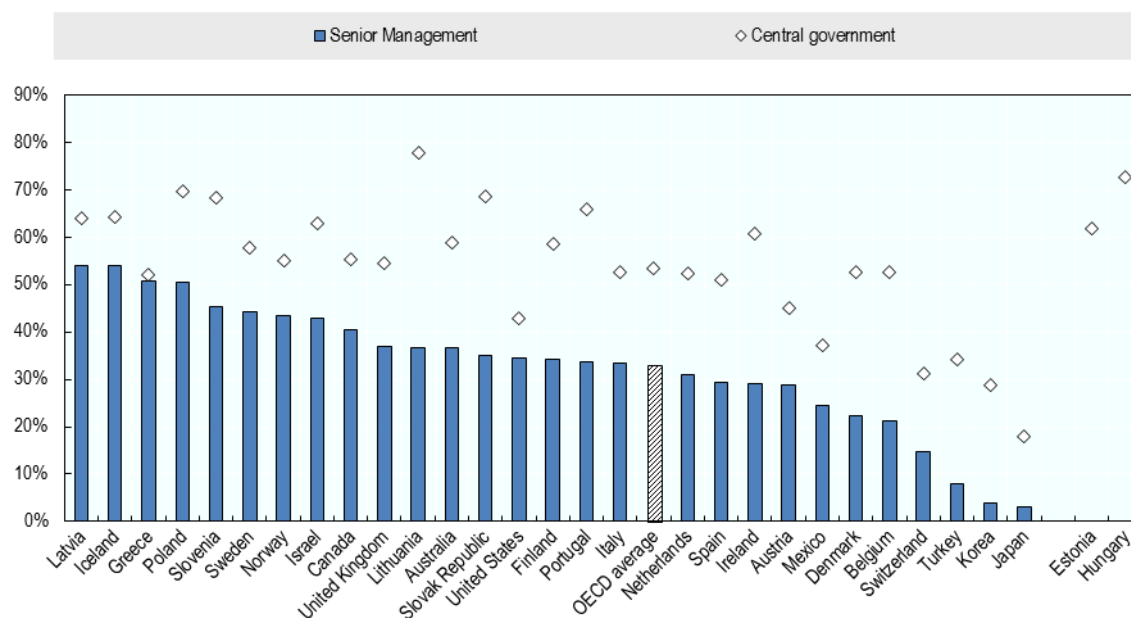
Source: OECD Education Database for Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, the Russian Federation, Turkey and the OECD average; ILO STWTS for Egypt and Peru; Census data for China; and OECD estimates based on the EPH for Argentina, the NSS for India, the SAKERNAS for Indonesia, the QLFS for South Africa and the ENPE for Tunisia.

3.3. Gender gaps in public employment

52. Between 2010 and 2016 the female share of employees in central government across OECD countries remained stable at 53%. However, despite recent gains women remain under-represented in middle and senior management positions, reflecting a “leaky pipeline” in career progression in the public sector (Figure 6). In 2016, women held on average 43.3% of middle management positions (39.7% in 2010) and 33% of senior management positions, up from 28.6% in 2010.

Figure 6. There is a leaky pipeline in public sector employment.

Female share of employment in senior management in central government and female share of all employment in central government, 2016



Note: Data on the occupational category of “senior management” within the public service were available for 27 countries in 2016 up from 20 countries in 2010. For countries which report data for both years there is a clear upwards trend in the female share of employment in senior management.

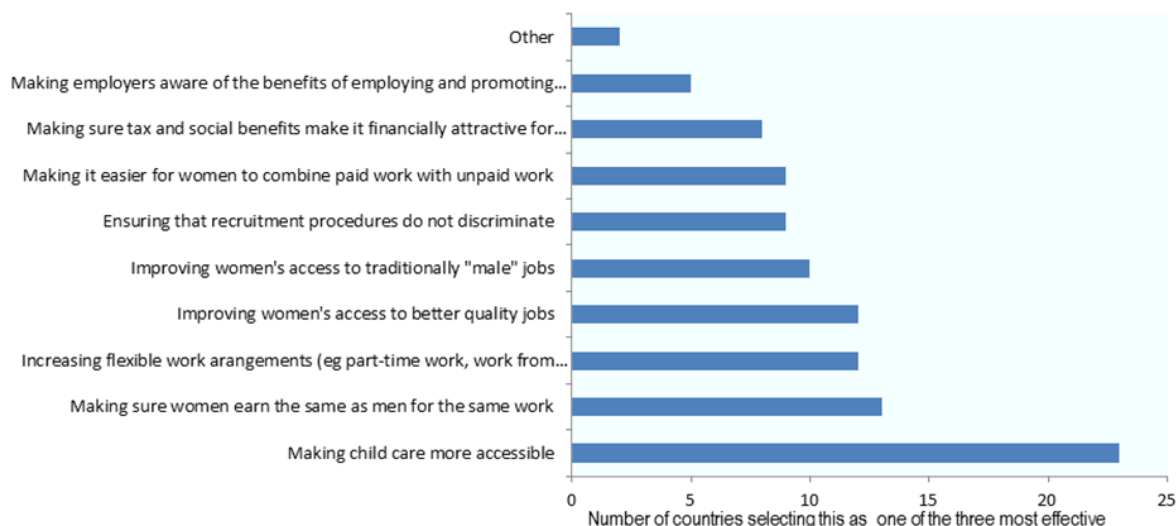
Source: OECD (2016) Survey on the Composition of Employees in Central/Federal Governments – preliminary data.

3.4. Barriers to employment

53. Since 2012, female employment rates have increased by almost 2 percentage points on average across the OECD. The gender employment gap remains at 11%, however, and OECD governments keep looking at ways and means to reduce barriers to employment. Figure 7 shows country responses to the question “What are the three most effective ways to tackle barriers to female employment?” The most common response was “Making child care more accessible,” with 23 country responses, and the second most common response was “Making sure women earn the same as men for the same work,” with 13 countries choosing this as a top three option. Increasing flexible work arrangements and improving women's access to better quality jobs were the third most popular policy measures, with 12 responses apiece.

Figure 7. Country priority rankings: The most effective ways to remove barriers to female employment

Tabulation of countries listing the following as one of the three most effective ways to tackle barriers to female employment



Note: 35 countries responded. Countries could select up to three top priority issues in their country.

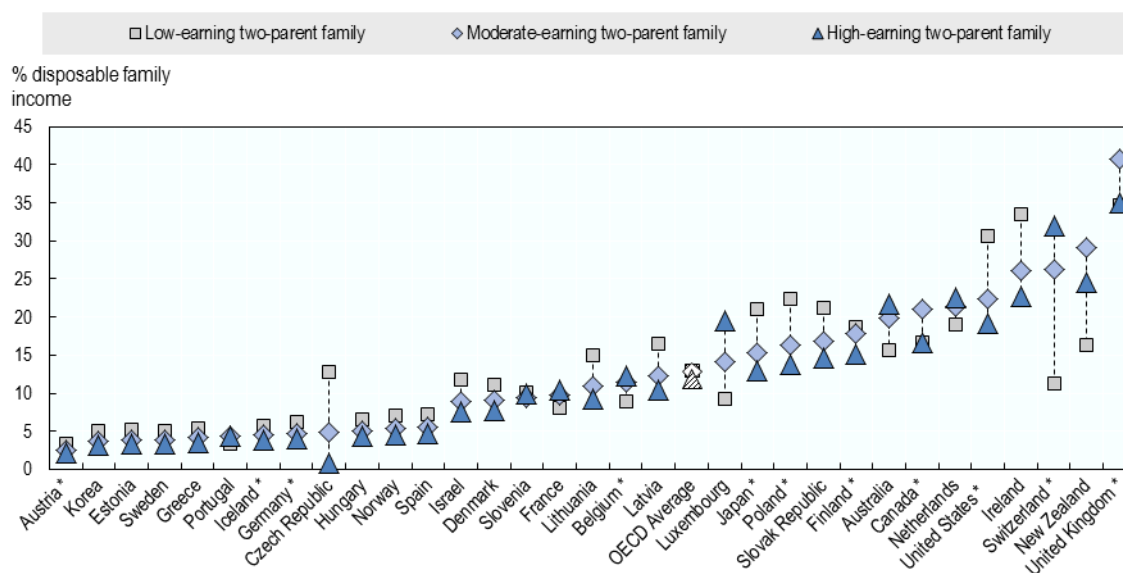
Source: OECD ELS Questionnaire on Progress in Implementing the 2013 Gender Recommendation

3.4.1. Overcoming the "motherhood penalty": Putting childcare to work

54. Across most OECD countries, motherhood exerts a "penalty" on female employment. Even in countries where male and female employment patterns are similar among young people, patterns tend to diverge around the time of childbirth, for various reasons. The relationship between childcare and female labour supply is well established (e.g. OECD, 2012a; Thévenon, 2013; Olivetti and Petrongolo, 2017), and it is unsurprising that many countries prioritise childcare policies as a measure for facilitating female employment. Some OECD countries already invest heavily in childcare services – in 2013, public expenditure on early childhood education and care (ECEC) exceeded 1% of GDP in six OECD countries (Finland, Norway, France, Denmark, Sweden and Iceland) – but in many countries childcare places remain in short supply, especially for very young children below age three, and costs to parents are often high. In Canada, Ireland, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States, childcare costs can claim more than 20% of the disposable family income of a two-child dual-earner couple on moderate earnings, with this rising to above 40% in the United Kingdom (Figure 8). In many countries, costs are often higher (in relative terms) for low-income families. These high costs frequently put formal childcare out of reach for a considerable number of families – especially those with lower incomes, who in many OECD countries are significantly less likely to put their children into formal care (OECD, 2016i) – and act as an obstacle to paid work for many mothers.

Figure 8. Childcare costs are very high in some OECD countries

Out-of-pocket childcare costs for a two-child dual-earner family as a proportion (%) of disposable family income, by family income level, 2015



Note: Data reflect the net cost (gross fees less childcare benefits/rebates and tax deductions, plus any resulting changes in other benefits received following the use of childcare and/or change in family income) of full-time care in a typical childcare centre for a two-parent two-child family, where both parents are in full-time employment and the children are aged 2 and 3. Gross earnings for the two earners in the 'low earning' two-parent family are set equal to 67% of average earnings for the first earner and 50% of average earnings for the second earner, those for the two earners in the 'moderate earning' family at 100% of average earnings for the first earner and 67% of average earnings for the second earner, and those for the two earners in the 'high earning' family at 100% of average earnings. 'Full-time' care is defined as care for at least 40 hours per week. Data for countries marked with an * are based on estimates for a specific region or city, rather than for the country as a whole, and do not capture the variation in childcare costs that may exist within countries. See the OECD Tax and Benefit Systems website (<http://www.oecd.org/els/soc/benefits-and-wages.htm>) for more detail on the methods and assumptions used and information on the policies modelled for each country.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD Tax and Benefit Models 2015 (preliminary data) (<http://www.oecd.org/els/soc/benefits-and-wages.htm>).

55. Most OECD governments report having introduced measures to improve access to childcare since the start of 2013. Several have taken steps to address affordability and the costs charged to parents, usually through increases in subsidies or benefits/rebates for those using childcare (e.g. Canada, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Poland), and occasionally through the introduction or expansion of free childcare hours (Norway and the United Kingdom). In some cases these measures are targeted specifically at low-income or disadvantaged families, as in Norway, for example, which has over the last few years phased-in 20 weekly hours of free childcare for 3-5 year olds from low income families.

56. Korea provides an example of one of the most extensive and impressive efforts to improve affordability and reduce costs to parents. Korea has long subsidised the cost of centre-based care, but historically these subsidies were restricted to children from the very poorest households only. From 2004 onwards, however, the income-test on the subsidy was gradually loosened and the level of the subsidy itself steadily increased, to the point where it now covers the cost of a place in centre-based care in full. In 2013, the income-test was removed altogether, effectively establishing a programme of free childcare for all children up to age six regardless of background or family income level. These reforms were supported by extensive public financial investment – public spending on ECEC in Korea increased from 0.1% of GDP in 2004 to 0.9% in 2014, the largest increase in the OECD over the period (OECD, 2016j) – and have contributed to massive increases in participation. Since 2005, the proportion of children aged 0-2 using centre-based childcare services has more than tripled from 9% to 34% (OECD, 2016a) while the share of children aged 3-5 in pre-primary education has jumped from 31% to 92% (OECD, 2016b).

57. Other strategies adopted by countries looking to improve access to and attendance in ECEC include the introduction of legal entitlements to a place in childcare from a certain age (Germany, Poland and, from September 2017, the Czech Republic) and the lowering of compulsory attendance ages (Finland, Hungary, Lithuania). For example, in recent years Finland and Lithuania have both introduced compulsory pre-primary education from age six, while Hungary has made attendance obligatory from age three. Several other countries have also increased public investments in childcare supports (Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovak Republic and Switzerland), in most cases with an emphasis on places for children under age three. Germany has adopted elements of several of these measures in a comprehensive package of reforms. Since August 2013, all children aged one or older have been legally entitled to a place in ECEC, and this has been backed up by the continuation of a programme of public investment that has seen the number of children under three enrolled in public or publicly-subsidised care more than double over the past decade, from just under 290,000 in 2006 to over 720,000 in 2016 (Destatis, 2016a).

58. Given the economic challenges associated with single parenthood, and single parent families' higher poverty risks, OECD governments are also advised to provide ample employment supports to single parents – most of whom are mothers who face challenges combining care work with paid work. Childcare policies have adapted in many countries, as discussed, which implicitly aids single mothers providing childcare. However, policies specifically targeting single parents have unfortunately seen little improvement since 2013. Australia changed its income test taper rate for the Newstart Allowance to allow single parents to earn more before losing benefit eligibility (2013), and Germany raised its single parent tax allowance (2015).

59. Recognising the challenges unique to indigenous communities, for 2017-18 Canada also targeted CAD 100 million of its Early Learning and Childcare Framework to indigenous childcare and early learning on reserves.

3.4.2. *Ensuring that tax-benefit systems encourage second earners*

60. Employment decisions among parents are also influenced by how well *tax and benefit arrangements* interact to provide both parents with equal financial incentives to work. Although tax-benefit rules are not, in general, explicitly gender-specific, certain aspects of tax-benefit systems may be more relevant for either men or women, thereby exacerbating the unequal distribution of work and earnings. In many couple families in the OECD, the man is the main earner with his female partner frequently earning considerably less (OECD, 2017a).

61. Across the OECD, dual-earning couple families pay the government net transfers (tax paid – public transfers received by households) of about 17.4% on average while – at an identical gross income of 133% of the average wage – single-earning families transfer 21.5%. A household where both partners earn the same enjoys, on average, a 6.4% higher net income than a single-earner household with the same total gross income. These average results depend on the fact that indeed in about two-thirds of OECD countries it pays for a couple-family to be dual earners, while in the other one-third whether one or two people are earning income makes little difference to net transfers paid by households. In Germany, however, single-earner couples pay less tax than dual earners: its tax-benefit system does not provide strong financial incentives for couple families to share paid work (OECD, 2016a).

62. Since 2013, very few countries have made changes to tax benefit systems that would affect the gendered division of labour in the household. Among those who did make changes, Austria reduced its entry tax rate (2016) and Canada reduced the second personal income tax rate in households (2016). In Norway, the allowance for joint taxation was reduced in 2014, which in certain cases strengthened the incentive for the second partner to enter work. In Australia, the maximum rate of the Family Tax Benefit

Part B is now based on the age of the youngest child, and it is reduced when the child turns five. In Switzerland several planned measures aim to alleviate the tax burden on second earners. Draft legislation addressing tax deductibility of child care costs and the uneven tax burden of married couples will be evaluated in 2017.

3.4.3 *Women's risk of unemployment and job loss*

63. Gender differences in unemployment rates are relatively small. In most OECD countries gender gaps in unemployment rates among working-age (15-64 year old) men and women are less than one percentage point (OECD, 2016n). However, in some countries – like Ireland and Latvia – unemployment is two percentage points higher than for women, while in the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovenia, Spain and Turkey, unemployment rates for working-age women are at least two percentage points higher than those for men. In Greece, the gap is more than seven percentage points (OECD, 2016n).

64. However, related to women's lower likelihood of participating in the labour market, their greater exposure to atypical contracts (which affects the unemployment risk), and their higher likelihood of caregiving, women and men tend to be impacted differently by events such as the loss of a job, a separation, or the birth of a child. While coupled women who lose their job tend to be buffered by their spouse's income, childbirth and divorce often strongly drive down women's income. Job loss brings especially high costs to single mothers.

65. Most OECD countries do not differentiate between men and women in unemployment policies, even though women often face unique challenges – such as unpaid care obligations – when attempting to re-enter work. Among the 37 respondents to the OECD GEQ (2016), eleven reported taking measures since 2013 aimed at ensuring that men and women have equal access to labour market policies: Australia, Austria, Costa Rica, France, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden and Switzerland. Of those, three offered childcare support, either in the form of childcare spaces for mothers seeking employment (France and Ireland) or by relaxing rules so that mothers seeking employment can access spaces (Japan). France has developed a smartphone application notifying long-term unemployed mothers of day-care availability, and a national charter is being developed which would reserve day-care spaces for unemployed parents to facilitate the return to work. Chile offers after-school care to children whose mothers work or are looking for a job. Austria and Switzerland provide training specifically for unemployed women, and Portugal combines training with childcare support: since 2015, unemployed women or men who participate in a training programme in Portugal may apply for a care-allowance if they prove that they need to trust children and/or dependent adults to a third-party carer.

Box 3. Family formation changes present new challenges and opportunities

While the male breadwinner model still dominates in all OECD countries, demographic changes imply ever-changing roles for women and men in the labour market. OECD research has developed the following noteworthy family formation facts:

1. While the vast majority of individuals in OECD countries live with a partner, rates of cohabitation – rather than marriage or civil partnership – are rising. Around 10% of people aged 20 and older cohabitately informally.
2. Women are increasingly likely to partner with men with equal or lower levels of education, reflecting the increase in young women's educational attainment.
3. Fertility rates are decreasing in most OECD countries, in part because women with higher educational attainment generally start a family at an older age, after establishing themselves in the labour market.

What are the consequences of these family formation changes for labour markets and for society? All of these factors contribute to very gradually eroding the 'traditional' gendered division of labour and expectations around gender roles. For example, changes in educational mating affect the gains partners can expect from a division of work once

children are born. While gender roles persist, fathers are nowadays, on average, more involved in childcare work and the education of children. The greater involvement of fathers in education, care and housework reflect life-styles that are more frequently attached to partners with high education, who cohabit and show gender egalitarian attitudes.

The rise in the number of women being the main breadwinner in the family is also an indication that the gendered division of work is losing ground. The number of female primary breadwinners is increasing across all economically advanced countries (Cory and Stirling, 2015; Klesment and van Bavel, 2015). For instance, 4 in 10 American households with children under age 18 include a mother who is either the sole or primary earner for her family, and this share has quadrupled since 1960 (Wang et al., 2013). In Europe, roughly one in eight women earn 50% or more of households' earnings (OECD, 2017a; Klesment and van Bavel, 2015).

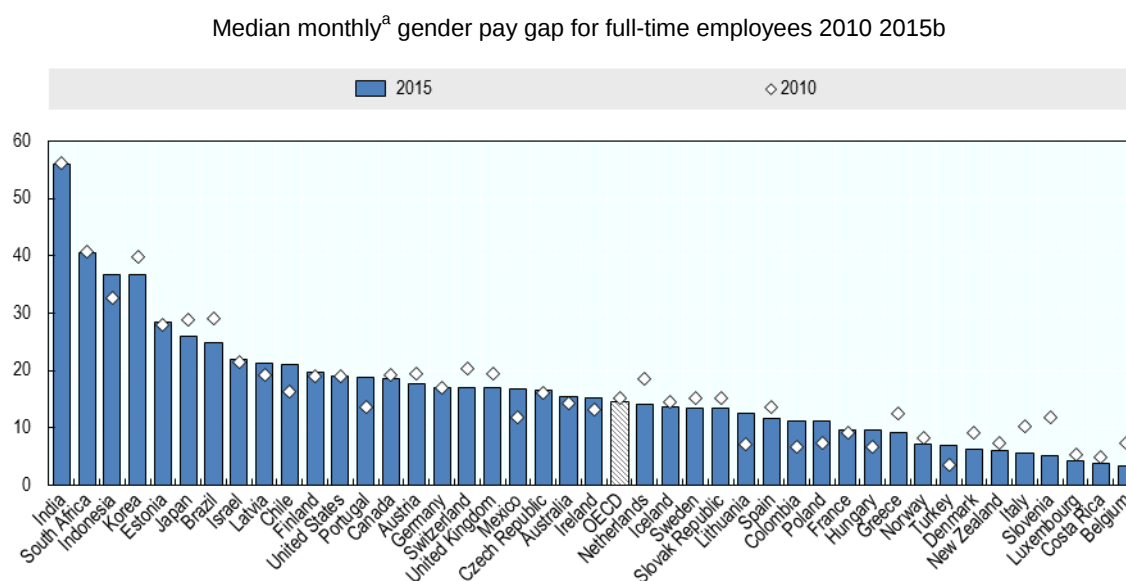
3.5. *Gender pay gaps*

66. Making progress in gender labour market gaps is going to take time, as workers' characteristics do not change quickly and the current employment outcomes of prime-age and older workers continue to be influenced by education and career decisions that were made 20 to 40 years ago, when societal norms, technology (the pre-internet generation) and career expectations were different then from what they are today.

67. The gender pay gap is a persistent challenge. Indeed, in many countries the gender pay gap has changed little in recent years (Figure 9). The largest decline (over 5 percentage points) was recorded for Slovenia, which may be related the aftermath of the crisis and associated losses of relatively well-paid manufacturing jobs. Increases of 5 percentage points or more were recorded for Chile, Lithuania, Mexico and Portugal, to which a relative growth in low-paid female employment is likely to have contributed – in Portugal a drop in the number of low-paid jobs affected men more than women.

68. Gender gaps based on hourly earnings are generally smaller than for aggregate earnings, because of differences in working hours. Estimates for India (55%) and South Africa (40%) suggest that gender pay gaps in hourly earnings in emerging economies are well above those in OECD countries (Box 4), while Korea and Japan also show relatively high median gender pay gaps. The relatively low gender gaps in some countries such as Turkey, Colombia, Greece and Italy are related to a selection effect whereby fewer women are in the labour market compared with other countries, but those who work tend to have relatively high skills and pay relative to men. In other countries such as Belgium and Slovenia relatively high minimum wages combined with a widespread coverage of collective bargaining – which in Belgium also involves gender pay reporting for companies with 50 staff or more – contribute to relatively small gender pay gaps. Gender pay gaps increase in the presence of children and tend to be wider at higher earnings, with occupation and industry segregation playing an important role as highly educated women are more likely to work in public administration, health and education, while better paid men are more likely to work in finance, banking and insurance. Although factors like preferences for work-life balance or more competitive jobs contribute to occupational choice, early gender socialisation also leads to stereotyping around what roles and course of study are "suitable" for boys and girls. This can effectively limit girls' (and boys') life options at a very early age.

Figure 9. Gender pay gaps have changed little across the OECD and G20 countries, and they remain substantial.



Note: The gender pay gap is defined as the difference between male and female median monthly earnings divided by male median monthly earnings for full-time employees.

a) Data refer to weekly earnings for Australia, Canada, India, Ireland, United Kingdom and United States. They refer to hourly wages for Denmark, Greece, Iceland, New Zealand, Portugal and Spain.

b) Data refer to 2014, instead of 2015 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey. Instead of 2010, data refer to 2011 for Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, to 2007 for Israel.

Source: Employment Outlook, 2017 for OECD countries; and Encuesta Permanente de Hogares for Argentina; Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílio for Brazil; Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares for Colombia; Encuesta Continua de Empleo for Costa Rica; 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.

Box 4. Women in service and informal employment in emerging economies

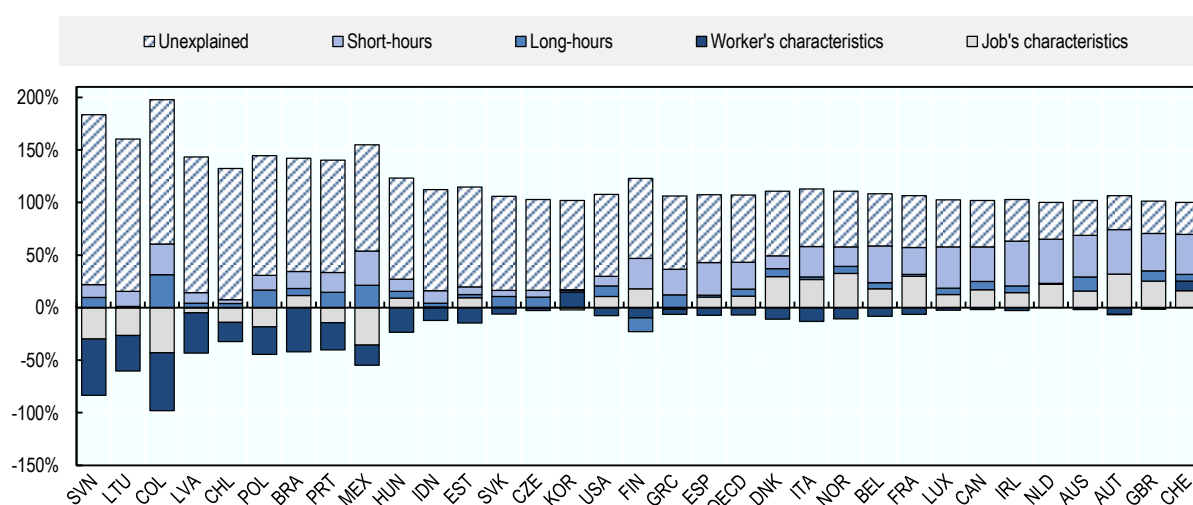
Gender pay gaps in emerging economies are larger than in OECD countries. This is partly related to women being more likely to be employed in social and personal service sectors, where pay is generally lower than in the tradable sector (e.g. manufacturing), where men are overrepresented. Related to women's predominance in the personal services sector, women are more likely to work informally than men in almost all emerging economies, although these differences are not large on average (OECD, 2016h). Informality presents challenges to both informal employees and the informally self-employed. Informal firms are typically less productive and provide workers with fewer opportunities for human capital accumulation, which is a drag on earnings and opportunities for career advancement (OECD, 2016h). Own account workers face challenges, as well. Domestic work, for example, is a common form of self-employment in developing countries, especially Latin America (OECD, 2017b). Domestic workers face multiple levels of exploitation. They hold a precarious position in the labour market, care work is undervalued, and they often face discrimination based on gender, class, and often race or ethnicity (du Toit, 2013). These workers typically work without labour contracts, and have little access to social protection like health and pension coverage (Tokman, 2010).

Many of the policies that support female employment in OECD countries, such as childcare supports, are also helpful in emerging economies. However, policy measures to reduce informality are particularly important to improve the quality of labour market outcomes. An effective strategy to reduce informal employment should encompass a broad range of policies aimed at reducing the costs of formalisation, increasing its benefits and strengthening enforcement of labour codes. Special attention needs to be paid to minimising existing disincentives to formality that disproportionately affect women, such as high marginal tax rates on secondary earners. Removing obsolete legislation that impedes women's access to certain sectors of the economy, but instead allows them to work in all types of jobs, will further reduce reliance on informal employment (OECD, 2016h). It is also important to extend coverage of labour legislation to all sectors of the economy in countries where this is not yet the case (OECD, 2017b).

69. Considering the drivers of gender pay gaps, workers characteristics – including educational attainment – suggest that women should on average earn more than men. However, this is not case. The gender difference in the likelihood of working very long hours accounts for another 6% of the wage gap. Industrial segregation of women explains 9% of the gender pay gap at the mean, but most of the monthly pay gap is explained by differences in hours worked, with short hours accounting for 22% of the observed gap on average across the OECD. This effect is relatively high in countries where part-time work is relatively common, especially among women such as in Australia, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (Figure 10). However, when the decomposition of the gender pay gap is considered for *hourly* earnings, then the effect of working hours on gender pay differentials is insignificant.

Figure 10. Much of the gender pay gap cannot be explained by observable variables

Decomposition of the monthly gender pay gap for all employees.



Note: The decomposition is performed using the Oaxaca-Blinder methodology, using the coefficients from a pooled model over both groups as a reference. Short-hours refer to a dummy variable equal to one in the case the individual works less than 30 hours per week in the main job. Long-hours refer to composition effect of working more than 50 hours per week in the main job. Worker's characteristics refer to a full set of dummies for age categories, educational attainment groups and parenthood status. Job characteristics refer to a full set of dummies for industry and occupation.

Source: OECD estimates based on national household surveys data.

70. Nevertheless, after controlling for differences in the observed worker and job characteristics, as well as working hours, just over half of the monthly gender pay gaps across the OECD remains unexplained, and this has not changed in recent years. This suggests that attitudes, social conventions and institutions, and discrimination play an important role in pay differentials between men and women, particularly in emerging economies where gaps are large and where women are more likely to be unpaid family workers and/or engage in informal employment (OECD, 2016a).

71. Disentangling the effects of observable and non-observable characteristics, such as gender discrimination, in hiring, career progression, and pay, is not easy. Traditional explanatory factors (age, education, occupation, and industry) are becoming less important in explaining the gap in pay, while the share of the pay gap explained by the under-representation of women in top income groups remains overwhelming and accounts for a growing proportion of the explained gap over time (Chzen and Mumford 2011, Fortin and al. 2016). This is consistent with research by Goldin (2014) which emphasised how women are disadvantaged in the race to work long hours, with correspondingly higher pay.

72. Gender discrimination is a persistent challenge for women, but it is hard to prove and difficult to measure. Field experiments in which two identical resumes are submitted with nothing differing except the sex of the applicant are one way to test the degree to which discrimination exists (OECD, 2008). Country-level studies, too, shine light on this issue. The Australian Human Rights Commission, for example, recently reviewed discrimination related to pregnancy and return to work after childbirth and found that about half of all women experience discrimination during pregnancy, parental leave, or after returning to work. The Australian government consequently developed a website and toolkit supporting employers and employees in preventing discrimination during this period (AHRC, 2015). A Statistics Canada study found the persistence of a sizeable wage gap even within the same occupation – in other words, a wage difference even when men and women hold the same job – and point to three possible explanations: 1) gender discrimination, 2) women's preferences to take less demanding and/or more flexible positions to accommodate caregiving responsibilities, and 3) women possibly being less willing or adept at negotiating their pay or competing, as these attributes are deemed "masculine" by society (Moyser, 2017).

73. Race and ethnicity compound gender when looking at wages. Minority women tend to earn less than not only men, but also white women. In 2015 in the United States, white women earned only 86% of the median hourly earnings of white men, but minority women fared even worse: black women earned only 78%, and Hispanic women earned only 74%, of a white man's wage (US BLS, 2016). These racial and ethnic gaps are driven by differences in education, job sector, occupation, and discrimination.

3.5.1. *Pay transparency and other pay equality measures*

74. Among Adherents of the 2013 Gender Recommendation, the gender wage gap is the second most commonly-cited priority area, and many countries report having made policy progress: since 2013, 25 countries report having introduced new national measures to reduce wage disparities between men and women.

75. A promising policy measure involves pay transparency, which makes companies acknowledge the size of their gender pay gap. Companies are increasingly required to carry out analyses of gender wage gaps, and are requested or required to share this information with employees, government auditors, or the public. These types of measures have been proposed or introduced in a diverse range of countries since 2013, including Australia, Japan, Germany, Lithuania, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. In some countries, the results of these analyses must be shared with employees or employee representatives. In Lithuania, for example, at the request of employee representatives, employers with more than 20 employees will be required as from 1 July 2017 to provide average wages by professional group and gender at least once a year. In Switzerland, draft legislation would require employers with at least 50 employees to conduct a regular wage analysis, have the analysis be reviewed by a third party, and inform employees about the results of the review. In other countries, this information is also requested (or mandated) to be shared publicly. In Germany, legislation expected to take effect in 2017 will require companies with over 500 employees to publish equal pay measures and outcomes. The United Kingdom also recently mandated that companies report differences in pay between male and female employees, starting in April 2017.

76. Austria legislated pay transparency rules in 2011 and in 2015 carried out an evaluation of the implementation of these measures, and applied the strategy of requiring companies to report pay and indicate minimum wage in job vacancies, in order to improve pay transparency at the time of hiring.

77. Other new strategies include the introduction of pay gap calculators, which are often publicly available online, as well as certifications for companies showing best practice in gender pay equality. The Czech Republic offers, and Greece is developing, pay calculators that help employees better understand what salary they should receive for a given job, sector, and locality. Spain has developed and made

available to companies a self-diagnosis gender pay gap tool and a software utility system for rating job positions with a gender perspective. Costa Rica, Mexico, and Latvia have introduced certifications or awards for companies showing a commitment to reducing the gender pay gap, among other measures (e.g. reducing discrimination, improving diversity in workplaces), and Iceland is piloting an “Equal Pay standard” certification system. A few countries, including Israel, Lithuania, Slovenia and Sweden, have strengthened anti-discrimination laws aimed at reducing pay inequality, and five countries report having carried out awareness campaigns around the gender wage gap, targeting the public, employees, and/or employers (OECD GEQs 2016). Countries that have commissioned studies of the gender wage gap include Australia, France, Iceland, the Netherlands and Portugal).

78. Following the passage of the Workplace Gender Equality Act of 2012, Australia has developed a comprehensive approach to gender pay equality. All non-public sector employers with 100 or more workers are required to provide the Australian Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) with disaggregated data regarding the remuneration profile of managers and non-managers by gender and workplace profile; the existence of a remuneration policy or strategy (including any gender pay equity objectives included in such a strategy or policy); whether any remuneration pay gap analysis has been undertaken (and if so, when); and the actions taken, if any, as a result of a gender remuneration pay gap analysis. Additional reporting requirements that went into effect in 2015-2016 require employers to provide data on the number and proportion of employees who were awarded promotions by gender, employment status and manager/non manager. WGEA offers a comprehensive website⁶ with guidance on reporting requirements and a gender pay gap calculator, which is intended to help organisations identify and analyse the causes of various types of gender pay gaps.

79. Within the public sector, some OECD countries have recently shown a commitment to adopt special measures to overcome the pay gap. For example, in Canada, in October 2016 the Government committed to introduce legislative reform towards a “Proactive pay equity” in both the federal public service and the federally regulated private sector – a concept that includes engaging employers to examine their own pay practices, identify possible gender wage discrimination, adjust wages accordingly, and maintain the plan over time. In 2016, the United Kingdom announced its intention to include a mandatory requirement for public bodies, with 250 or more employees, to undertake gender pay gap reporting. Portugal is promoting equal pay in state-owned companies by requiring state-owned enterprises to report on salaries paid to men versus men every three years and establish workplace plans to address wage inequalities.

80. It is too soon to tell whether such measures reduce gender pay gaps, but these initiatives draw attention to pay inequalities and incentivize companies that care about reputation and spending effectively on wages. These measures should be evaluated rigorously going forward.

⁶

Australia's Workplace Gender Equality Agency provides online information and courses on reporting requirements (<https://www.wgea.gov.au/elearning-modules/wgea-legislation-and-reporting-requirements>), as well as a pay gap calculator and training on how to use it (<https://www.wgea.gov.au/elearning-modules/using-gender-pay-gap-calculator>).

Box 5. Women, health, and the labour market

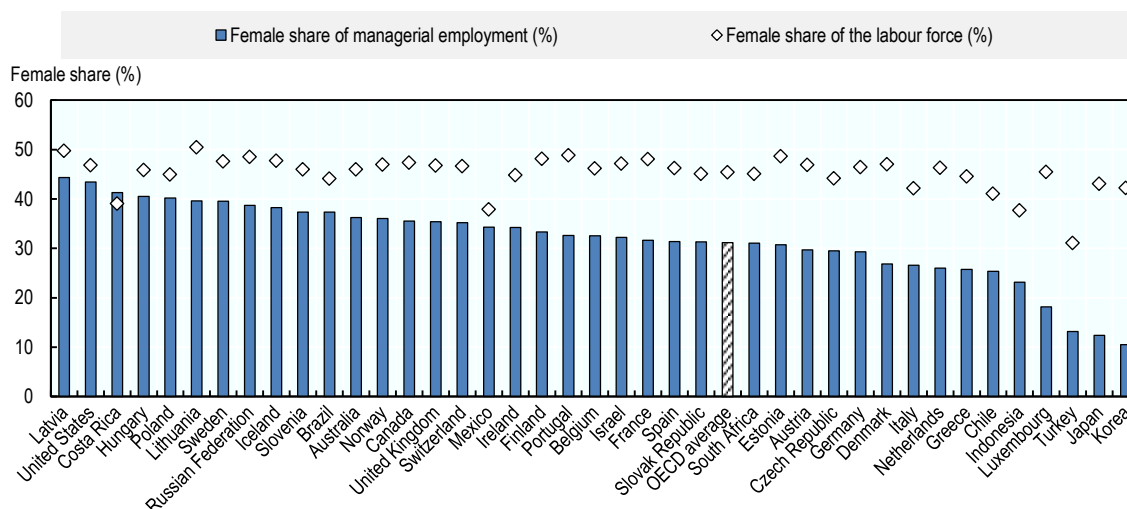
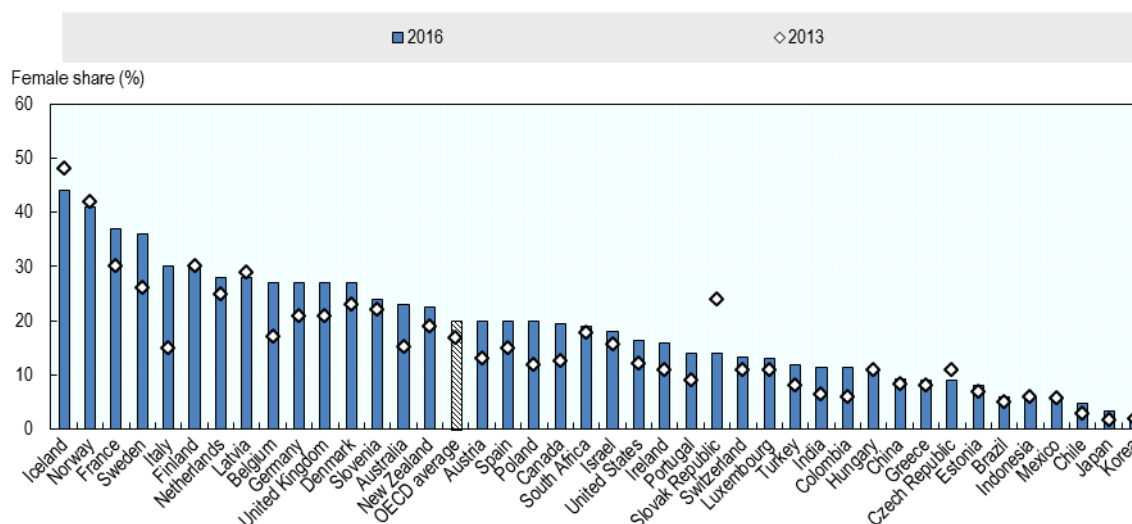
The important relationship between women's health and employment was not explicitly noted in the 2013 Gender Recommendation, but the issue is increasingly important given population aging, declining labour force participation in many countries, and women's longer life expectancy than men. To the extent that these additional years of life are lived in good health, longevity presents opportunities for people to remain active (both in and out of the labour market) longer. However, while women do live longer than men, on average, across the OECD, these extra years of life are often spent in poor health. Although life expectancy at age 65 in 2013, on average across OECD countries, was significantly higher for women (21.2 years) than men (17.8 years), healthy life expectancy at age 65 was almost identical, at 9.5 years for women and 9.4 for men. Women are also more likely to develop disabilities earlier in life, which can limit daily activities and work opportunities. Higher rates of disability mean that women are the main users of long-term care, but access to and affordability of these services varies, and quality is poorly monitored. Strengthening these services should be a priority for OECD countries.

In addition to living longer (and often in worse health) than men, women are also more likely than men to provide informal care when a relative or a friend becomes ill or disabled. Similar to women's disproportionate responsibility for unpaid caregiving and housework, women also tend to provide more unpaid long-term care. Even in Sweden, for example, where gender roles are relatively equal, 57% of daily carers aged over 50 are women, while in Slovenia 70% are women. Informal care can be beneficial for the care recipient and rewarding for the carer, but it can also have costs. There is an opportunity cost to the time that someone spends providing care, since it could have been used for paid work or leisure. People providing intensive care (more than 20 hours per week) are less likely to be in work and more likely to suffer from mental health problems (OECD, 2011). These costs fall disproportionately on women. Again, strengthening social protection can help to reduce inequalities: gender gaps in informal long-term care provision tend to be smaller in countries with comprehensive social protection for long-term care, and the negative impact of caring can be mitigated by providing support to carers, such as financial benefits or respite care.

3.6. *Improving women's access to private and public leadership positions*

81. Women's lower labour force participation, their higher probability of interrupting their careers to care for family members, their higher likelihood of working part-time, and other, less tangible factors – including discrimination – all lead to attrition in the number of women who advance to upper management. The 'leaky pipeline' has contributed to women making up less than a one-third of managers in the OECD on average, though there is considerable variation across countries (Figure 11, Panel A). Gender balance at the top of listed companies is also still a distant goal (Figure 11, Panel B). In 2016, women on average across the OECD occupied 20.0% of board seats of publicly listed companies (PLCs), up slightly from 16.4% in 2013: on average, 4.8% of CEOs were women in 2016 up from 2.4% in 2013 (OECD GEQs 2016).

82. Figure 11, Panel B shows that more than 80% of Member countries experienced progress in the female share of board members between 2013 and 2016. However, in most countries progress was modest and over the 2013-2016 period Italy, Belgium and Sweden recorded the greatest progress in gender balanced boardrooms (by 10 percentage points or more), while the Slovak Republic recorded a decline of a similar magnitude yet has the second highest female share of board chairs in Europe.

Figure 11. Women are under-represented in management positions and on boardsPanel A. Female share of managerial employment^a and female share of the labour force, all ages, 2015^bPanel B Female share of seats on boards of publicly listed companies^c, 2013^d and 2016^e

Notes: a) For Canada, Chile, Indonesia and the United States: percentage of employees that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 88 category one (as legislators, senior officials and managers) that are female. For all other countries: percentage of employees that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 08 category one (as managers) that are female.

b) Data for Indonesia and the United States refer to 2013 and for Australia, Brazil, Canada, and South Africa to 2014.

c) For EU countries, Iceland, Norway and Turkey, data refer to the proportion of seats held by women on boards for the largest 50 members of the primary blue-chip index in the country concerned (including only those companies that are registered in the given country). 'Board members' refers to all members of the highest decision-making body in the given company, such as the board of directors for a company in a unitary system, or the supervisory board in the case of a company in a two-tier system. For all other countries, data refer to the proportion of seats held by women on boards for companies covered by the MSCI's 'global director reference universe'. 'Board members' refers to either the board of directors for companies in a unitary system or the supervisory board in the case of a company in a two-tier system, with management and audit boards omitted.

d) Data for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United States, Brazil, China, Colombia, India, Indonesia, and South Africa refer to Q1 2013, and for EU countries, Iceland, Norway and Turkey, to H2 2013.

e) Data for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United States, Brazil, China, Colombia, India, Indonesia, and South Africa refer to Q3 2015, and for EU countries, Iceland, Norway and Turkey, to H1 2016.

Sources: Panel A: ILO (2016), "ILOSTAT Database", ILO Department of Statistics; OECD Online Employment Database. Panel B: EC (2016) Database on women and men in decision-making for EU countries, Iceland, Norway and Turkey, and MSCI (2015) Women on Boards: Global trends in Gender Diversity on Corporate Board for all other countries.

83. Policies that promote gender balance on boards and in senior management have been initiated in a majority of OECD countries. Countries that have adopted quotas have seen more immediate increases in the number of women on boards, while those that have taken a softer approach using disclosure or targets have seen a more gradual increase over time. Most countries either mandate disclosure or as part of their corporate governance code ask companies to comply or explain. The United Kingdom's voluntary business-led initiative has shown positive improvements. A target together with gender composition disclosure requirements is mandated by law for all listed firms in the United Kingdom. The corporate governance code that governs listed companies in the premium segment, established a "comply or explain" approach for board diversity disclosure. The approach by Sweden for companies to strive for gender balance through their corporate governance code has also shown results. Similarly, since the adoption of the OECD Gender Recommendation Australia, Chile, the Czech Republic, Japan, Poland, Portugal, Luxembourg, and Switzerland initiated soft targets for gender balance across the board of directors at PLCs and/or State-owned enterprises (SOEs). Furthermore, a number of countries (e.g. Australia, Canada⁷, Chile, Finland, Spain and the United Kingdom) added disclosure requirements on the gender composition of boards in their corporate governance codes or regulation. Other initiatives include the signature of voluntary agreements by companies and the public administration in Spain whereby companies commit themselves to reach specific targets regarding gender balance in decision-making positions and boards of directors, as well as develop and implement measures to achieve those voluntary targets. As of 2016, nine countries (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Israel and Norway) have introduced mandatory quotas for women's representation on boards of PLCs and/or SOEs⁸. While quotas have boosted the number of women on boards, the gains at the top have not cascaded down to women below board level.

84. In the public domain, the recent increase in women's political representation has been small: women held 28.7% seats in lower or single houses of Parliament on average in the OECD countries in 2016 up from 26.8% in 2012. This is despite the majority of OECD countries having put in place some form of political quota for women, though they vary in type – reserved seats (constitutional and/or legislative), legal candidate quotas (constitutional and/or legislative), and political party quotas (voluntary) – and extent. As of 2016, of the 28 OECD countries where data are available, 24 have voluntary political party quotas, 10 have legislated quotas in their single/lower houses of Parliament, 10 have adopted quotas in their electoral law, but only 3 have Constitutional quotas. Over the 2013-2016 period there was no change in the number of countries with legislated quotas (or any other quota) but one country – Mexico – increased the minimum 40-60% representation of either gender in the assembly to gender parity and alternation between women and men on parties' candidate lists (OECD, 2017b).

85. Despite the persistent challenges to women's political participation, the introduction of political affirmative action in electoral legislation or, in some cases, in constitutions has contributed to an increase in the share of elected women in emerging economies. From 2005 to 2015, women have more than doubled their representation in lower or single houses of Parliament across the MENA region with Algeria and Tunisia having crossed the 30% threshold deemed by the United Nations to be the tipping point for women to truly influence policy. Tunisia took a bold step in 2014 by enshrining a parity and alternation principle within its legal framework. Egypt has reserved 25% of its local council seats for women in the 2014 Constitution, and likewise Jordan reserves nearly a third of local council seats to women and 10% of

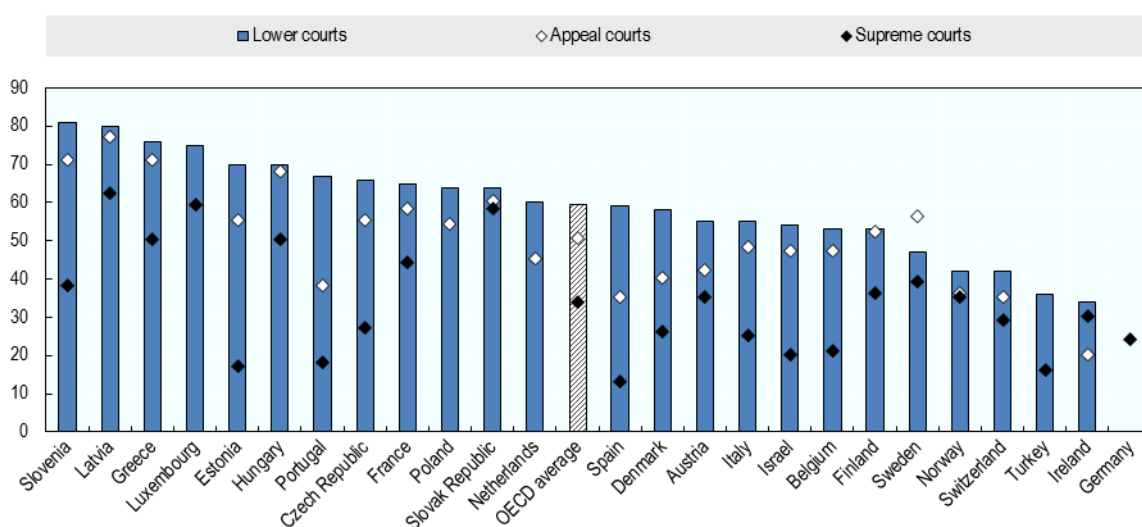
⁷ As of December 2014, this concerns all provincial and territorial securities regulators, except for British Columbia, Alberta and Prince Edward Island.

⁸ In Finland, while there is no *legislated* target in the Finnish state-owned enterprise sector, the nomination practices of the state ownership agency have a rule actively favouring at least 40% representation by each gender.

seats in its House of Representatives. In the LAC region, parliamentary gains followed the widespread introduction of gender quotas starting in the 1990s but also more recently. The latest adopters include Chile (April 2016), Colombia (July 2011), and Uruguay (March 2009). In the 2000s, many LAC countries further committed to gender parity, with Ecuador being the first in 2008, followed by Costa Rica in 2009, Bolivia in 2010, Nicaragua and Panama in 2012, and Mexico in 2014. The 2016 electoral reform in Chile establishes “flexible parity,” allowing neither gender to exceed 60% or fall below 40% of all candidates. As for countries such as India, the lack of a quota law at the national level has surely influenced low shares of women in the parliament, with minimal increase between 2009 (10.8% lower house and 10.6% upper house) and 2014 (11.4% lower house and 12.8% upper house), while a completely different situation is witnessed at the subnational level where several states adopted affirmative actions and shares of women’s representation are higher.

86. Women constitute 54.7% of all judges in the OECD, but women are currently over-represented among lower courts and their presence decreases when moving up the judicial hierarchy, and women only hold 33.6% of judgeships in Supreme Courts. This trend is mirrored in the proportion of presidential positions women occupy in courts. On average, women hold 45.9% of presidencies in courts of the first instance, 28% in courts of second instance, and 18.6% in supreme courts.

Figure 12. Female share of professional judges by level of court



Note: Data not available for Australia, Canada, Chile, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Source: European judicial systems efficiency and quality of justice, CEPEJ STUDIES No. 23 (Edition 2016, 2014 data);

87. In the civil service, there are various measures which explicitly seek to enhance equal opportunities in hiring, promotion and career advancement of women. According to 2016 data, the most common policy measure in place is the setup of hiring targets for women which are used by 10 OECD countries. Affirmative measures towards under-represented groups specifically targeting women are adopted by some OECD countries: preferential right for being promoted (Germany, Israel); preference in the selection and/or promotion processes (Austria, Canada, Germany, Korea and Switzerland); targeted information sessions (Belgium, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States); coaching (Japan, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States); promoting targets (Austria, France, Japan, Korea, Spain and Switzerland).

88. Within both the private and public sectors, transparency of employment, appointment and promotion procedures is key to generating a culture of accountability for gender equality, fairness and inclusiveness within public and private companies. Greater gender diversity in leadership can strengthen the performance of private companies and public agencies, and generate greater equality of opportunities for workers. Countries therefore urgently need to put greater emphasis on the effective implementation of the mixture of corporate and institutional policies including quotas, targets and disclosure requirements as well as leadership development schemes in the near future.

3.7. *Women on the move: the gendered dimension of migration in the OECD*

89. Migrant status continues to be a barrier to employment in OECD countries, especially for women. Migrant women's 'double disadvantage' in the labour markets is evident when comparing working-age employment rates across migrant women, migrant men, and native-born women. On average in 2014, employment rates are 57.4% for migrant women, 61.9% for native-born women, and 73.3% for migrant men. In traditional settlement countries like New Zealand, Canada, Australia, and the United States, employment rates for migrant women are all higher than the OECD average, though migrant women still have lower employment rates than native-born women; in Canada, for example, the (working-age) native-born female employment rate is 71%, whereas for foreign-born women it is 64% (OECD, 2017d). One factor driving this gender gap is the fact that men are often the primary migrants who arrive first (as labour migrants, international students or refugees), while women account for most of the "trailing spouses." Being a family migrant has negative implications for women's integration in a host country, their language acquisition, and their ability to work. In these circumstances, a family migrant can become highly dependent on her partner – economically, socially, and also legally, as the residence permit of the family migrant is initially linked to the primary migrant.

90. While men have typically dominated labour migration, women do outnumber men in some activities. One major category of employment for migrant women is work in domestic services and care for children, the elderly, and those with disabilities in private households. Migration flows are substantial in OECD countries where care work is a legal migration channel. For example, the number of care workers in Israel rose from fewer than 22 000 in 2000 to more than 57 000 in 2016. Women migrants also tend to predominate in providing care in institutional settings (e.g. hospitals, retirement homes) and under contract to employers (e.g. visiting nurses and nurse aides).

91. Among more highly-educated workers, tertiary-educated women are now more likely to emigrate to the OECD than their male counterparts, and largely from Asia, Oceania, and sub-Saharan Africa. The 'female brain drain' presents opportunities for women, but it also presents challenges for countries of origin, as women's education is an important determinant of growth. While women are more likely than men to send remittances back to their country of origin, these remittances do not compensate for the loss of highly-educated women in developing countries (Dumont, *et al* 2007).

92. Tackling the double disadvantage faced by many migrant women in OECD countries requires flexible policy responses that consider the specific needs of this group. However, few OECD countries have developed systematic policies in this regard. In general, integrating immigrant women should consider the family angle, given that many women are family migrants. Combining childcare with training programmes for immigrant mothers is an important step that has been adopted by Austria, Canada, Germany and New Zealand. An additional option is to ensure that migrant women have access to entrepreneurship opportunities, which can be an effective path into the labour market. Entrepreneurial activities are potentially more flexible and easier to combine with childcare, cultural barriers or other commitments than regular employment.

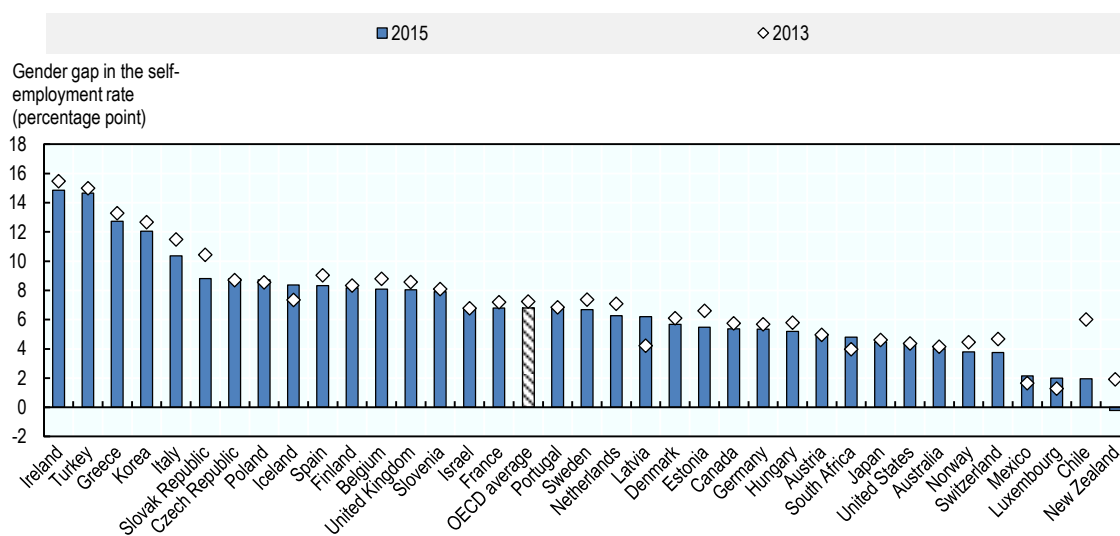
93. Apart from childcare and cultural barriers, many of the obstacles that women face are tied directly to their immigration status. Due to immigration rules, family migrants are often neglected in integration measures, including active labour market policies. To address this gap, Australia, Canada and Germany counsel family migrants upon arrival about the services they need and inform them of available integration options. Some countries, like Norway, Germany, and Australia, even make low-educated migrant women an explicit target for integration and unemployment support. Finally, across policy measures, it is important to design an adequate tax-benefit incentive structure that encourages migrant women to (re-)engage in training or take up employment. It is also crucial to engage in community outreach activities, as some migrant women are largely confined to their household and ethnic communities and are subsequently hard to reach via regular information channels.

4. Entrepreneurship

94. The OECD Gender Recommendation calls on countries to reduce the gender gap in entrepreneurship activity. Yet the majority of OECD countries have only made slight progress in closing the gender gap in self-employment, measured as those self-employed workers with and without employees, from 2013 to 2015 (Figure 13). In nearly every OECD country women were still much less likely to be self-employed than men in 2015, and in a few countries the gender gap grew even larger in favour of men.

Figure 13. Gender gaps in self-employment have fallen slightly in most OECD countries

Gender gap (male minus female) in the self-employment rate^a, 15-64 year olds, 2013^b and 2015



Note: a) The self-employment rate is the number of self-employed expressed as a proportion (%) of the total number of employed. The self-employed are defined as those who own and work in their own business, including unincorporated businesses and own-account workers, and declare themselves as "self-employed" in population or labour force surveys. Data for Canada and the United States include both unincorporated and incorporated self-employed, and data for Australia include only unincorporated self-employed. Data for Chile and South Africa are based on the annual average of quarterly data. Data for Australia, Chile, Israel and Korea refer to all ages (15+), and for the United States to 16-64 year olds.

b) Data for the United States in 2013 are estimated.

Source: OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys.

95. Gender inequalities in entrepreneurship become even larger when focusing on business expansion, hiring staff and increasing earnings. On average across countries, employed men are more than twice as likely as employed women to be self-employed and have employees (Annex Figure I.3). The gender gap in the share of the employed with employees is greatest in Israel, Korea, Turkey and South

Africa (at almost five percentage points) and smallest in Australia (less than one percentage point). There has been some progress from 2013 to 2015, however, as the gender gap in the share of the self-employed with employees fell slightly in more than half of OECD countries. Self-employed women also tend to earn less than self-employed men, with the gender gap in average self-employment earnings reaching more than 50% in Italy, Portugal and the United States, and more than 60% in Poland (Annex Figure I.3).

96. Gender gaps in entrepreneurship are driven by various factors. Institutional and market failures, including women's inadequate access to funding and support programmes aimed at entrepreneurs, can depress women's business creation. Indeed, one of the most persistent challenges for both male and female entrepreneurs, across countries, is access to finance. Female entrepreneurs often have lower levels of capital and are more reliant on owner equity and insider financing than men, and women typically face greater challenges in accessing loans and debt financing. There is evidence that gender-based differences in credit terms are driven not only by objective applicant traits, but also by gender discrimination. Consequently there are both real and perceived gender gaps in access to credit. Women tend to also have less entrepreneurial training and lower levels of entrepreneurial skills.

97. Some of the gender gaps in entrepreneurship reflect the goals and motivation of entrepreneurs themselves. In addition to being influenced by traditional factors driving entrepreneurs (e.g. the state of the economy, access to finance), women are more likely than men to move into self-employment out of a desire for flexibility in reconciling work and family life. This affects the growth potential and earnings of female-owned businesses.

4.1. *Show me the money: improving women's access to finance*

98. OECD government policies since 2013 have largely focused on closing gender gaps in financing and entrepreneurial skills. Policies to support entrepreneurs in *accessing finance* are rooted in market failures, including information asymmetries and financing gaps. Most government policies focus on interventions that provide grants and loans, and more recently, microcredit. It is increasingly common for these types of schemes to not only facilitate access to finance, but also help women strengthen their entrepreneurship skills through training, workshops, business counselling and coaching and mentoring. This increases the chances of success for beneficiaries.

99. A widely-used strategy for facilitating female entrepreneurs' access to finance is to *improve access to bank financing* through loan guarantees. Access to bank financing is a challenge for women entrepreneurs in both OECD and non-OECD countries, but especially in countries where relevant legislation may not directly prohibit discrimination by gender or marital status (OECD, 2017c). Closing this credit gap by 2020 could produce a 12% increase in per capita income in emerging markets by 2030, a gain that could be as large as 25% to 28% for countries such as Brazil and Vietnam, where the credit gaps in the formal SME sectors are currently the widest (GMI, 2014). Evaluations of women-specific loan guarantees in Canada show better results in terms of job creation than mainstream programmes (WED, 2014) and programmes in European Union countries also tend to demonstrate a positive impact (OECD/European Commission, 2014 and 2017).

100. Recently launched loan guarantee schemes tend to be more prevalent in emerging economies, where banks are often conservative in lending to the SME sector and generally not sensitive to gender issues or to the untapped market potential of women-owned businesses. One such example is the *Caisse Centrale de Garantie* in Morocco. In wealthier economies, the recent trend has been to increase the ceiling of the guarantee amounts and to make additional training and networking support available to beneficiaries. This is the case with France's Guarantee Fund for the Creation, Resumption, and Development of Enterprises Initiated by Women (*Fonds de garantie pour la création, la reprise, le*

développement d'entreprise à l'initiative des femmes), which is a loan guarantee for female entrepreneurs that was increased in 2015 to cover 70% of a loan for up to EUR 45 000.

101. Two other strategies are gaining ground in efforts to close gender gaps in financing: *the use of public procurement*, and efforts to *improve women's access to risk capital*. Governments are increasingly incentivizing the awarding of public procurement contracts to female SMEs. Indeed, a small number of countries – including the Dominican Republic, Korea, Indonesia, South Africa, and the United States – have implemented measures that limit competition for tenders in favour of targeting women-owned businesses in public procurement. For example the five per cent of US federal contracts are designated to go to eligible women-owned small business with the explicit goal of increasing women's entry in male-dominated sectors (OECD, 2014b) Finally, governments are committing more and more to improving women's access to risk capital, i.e. venture capital (equity financing that is provided by firms or funds to small, early-stage firms with high growth potential). Governments are also attempting to attract more female investors to traditional venture capital networks, by using tax credits, and by strengthening linkages between financial, industrial, research, and government actors to promote investment, as is the case in Japan. Chile has introduced regulatory changes, certification, training and mentoring in order to increase the representation of women enterprises in public procurement.

4.2. Developing entrepreneurial skills

102. In addition to these efforts to better finance female entrepreneurs, many OECD countries since 2013 have also attempted to address gender gaps in entrepreneurship awareness, culture, networks and skills. Traditional policy actions supporting the development of entrepreneurial skills include entrepreneurship training, coaching and mentoring programmes, workshops, business counselling and support in building entrepreneurial networks. Such programmes are often tailored to the specific barriers faced by women and delivered to women-only groups of beneficiaries. In many countries, women's entrepreneurship centres are a long-established model for identifying the needs of women entrepreneurs and designing appropriate support to help them overcome the challenges of starting a sustainable business. There is a need to continue to promote and adopt this good practice approach, particularly in emerging economies (OECD/European Commission, 2017; OECD, 2014c).

103. Given the increasing evidence of the growth potential of women-owned enterprises, many governments are placing a greater emphasis on programmes to help women acquire and develop the skills needed to successfully launch and grow high-growth potential businesses. One approach is to deliver tailored support through women-only business incubators, which typically offer the provision of premises, networking opportunities, training and workshops tailored to the needs of women entrepreneurs. Estimates suggest that fewer than 3% of business incubators are dedicated to women entrepreneurs (InfoDev, 2010), but some countries, such as Korea, are well above this benchmark. Experience in the United States suggests that dedicated incubators can be more effective than mainstream incubators. The latter rely on male-centric networks (with inadequate outreach to women's networks), select entrepreneurs through male-dominant selection panels, offer gender-insensitive programmes that do not address the needs of women, and tend to promote a “macho” environment that is often off-putting to women entrepreneurs (ICIC, 2016; Jaffee and Johnson, 2015).

104. Another similar trend is the rise of business accelerator programmes for women, who are greatly under-represented in mainstream accelerator programmes (Aspen, 2015). The distinction between an incubator and accelerator is blurring, but traditionally business accelerator programmes have sought to accelerate the start-up process over three to six months for high-potential women entrepreneurs, predominantly in technology-driven fields. The objective is usually to prepare them for an infusion of private risk capital and entry into the marketplace. Policy makers support business accelerators for women to encourage more women to enter innovative and technology fields, address the challenges that women

face in accessing seed and investment capital, develop the capability of women entrepreneurs to scale-up their business models and achieve growth, and create role models for young women. Business accelerators for women are often started by successful women entrepreneurs, but they may also be initiated by gender-sensitive business support organisations or as part of government programmes. The United States is the global leader in creation of business accelerators for women, but other examples can be found in Canada, Ireland, Mexico, India and New Zealand.

105. One of the key questions in delivering entrepreneurship support to women is whether it needs to be delivered in dedicated programmes by specialist agencies, or whether it can be integrated into mainstream programmes. Countries where women face fewer challenges in accessing education and opportunities in the labour market (e.g. Finland, Germany and Sweden) tend to deliver women's entrepreneurship support largely through mainstream programmes. However, access to mainstream support is a challenge in many other countries so there is a preference for dedicated women's support. Regardless, of the approach taken, policy makers need to ensure that the support provided is relevant and that women-specific support does not re-inforce the barriers that women face.

5. Changing policies, changing minds

106. Reducing and eliminating gender inequalities requires a comprehensive approach. To succeed, such strategies cannot only target women. To this end, the OECD Gender Recommendation stipulates that Members promote policies and working conditions which enable fathers and mothers to balance their working hours and their family responsibilities, and promote all appropriate measures to end sexual harassment in the workplace, including awareness and prevention campaigns and actions by employers and unions.

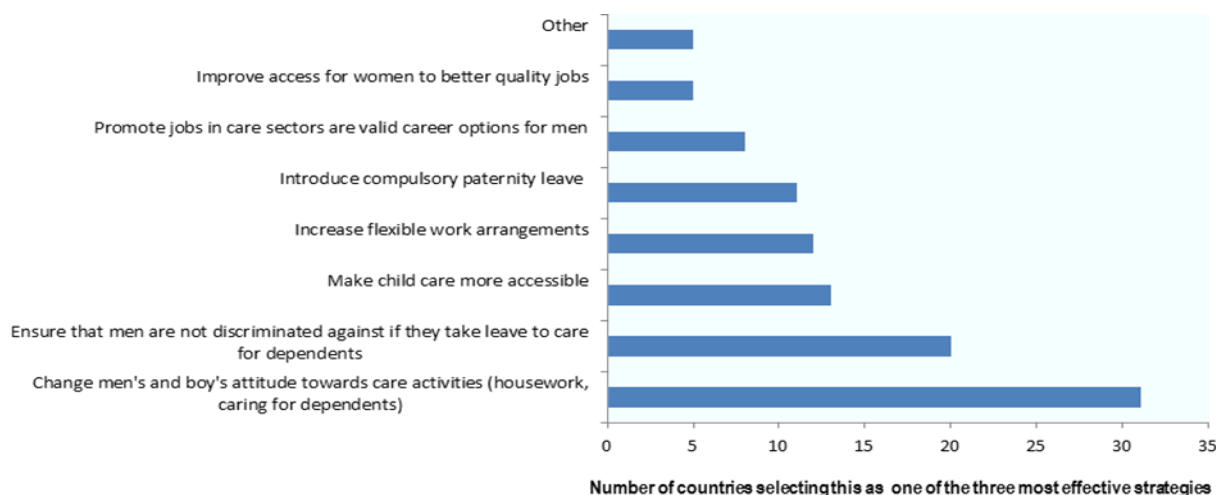
107. Men, civil society, leaders, and all parts of government must fundamentally rethink how their behaviours and institutions contribute to the disadvantaged position of women. This requires, among other things, promoting men's commitment to equal caregiving and work-life balance, as well as changing norms around men's behaviour towards women, including violence against women.

108. Recognising the importance of including men in gender equality strategies, the OECD GEQs 2016 asked countries to identify the three most effective ways to increase the time men spend on care activities. Inequality in unremunerated work is one of the biggest remaining barriers to women's equality in the labour market, and promoting equal participation in unpaid work can help give women more options outside of the home (Figure 14).

109. Gender gaps in paid work translate into substantial gender gaps in unpaid work. Time spent on unpaid household work, including care work, has been identified as a major contributor to persisting gender differences in formal labour market outcomes, and women are much more likely than men to engage in unpaid work. This holds across the globe. Among countries for which data are available the gender gaps are largest in Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Turkey and India, where women undertake more than three-quarters of all unpaid work (OECD Development Centre, 2014). Traditional attitudes towards women's work and family roles also persist in OECD countries, and on average across OECD countries, around 25% of women think that a mother with young children should not work. Across the OECD and the EU on average, almost two-thirds of all women think that mothers with young children should work, though mostly on a part-time basis (OECD, 2016k). Of course, attitudes are not set in stone, and interact with policy developments (amongst other things). For example, with more public support for working parents, including increased public investment in affordable quality childcare, opinions towards working mothers have become more favourable over time (OECD, 2017a).

Figure 14. Priority rankings: Getting men to spend more time on care activities

Tabulation of countries listing the following as one of the three most effective ways to improve men's unpaid care work at home



Note: 35 countries responded. Countries were asked to pick the three most effective strategies to increase the time men spend on unpaid care work.

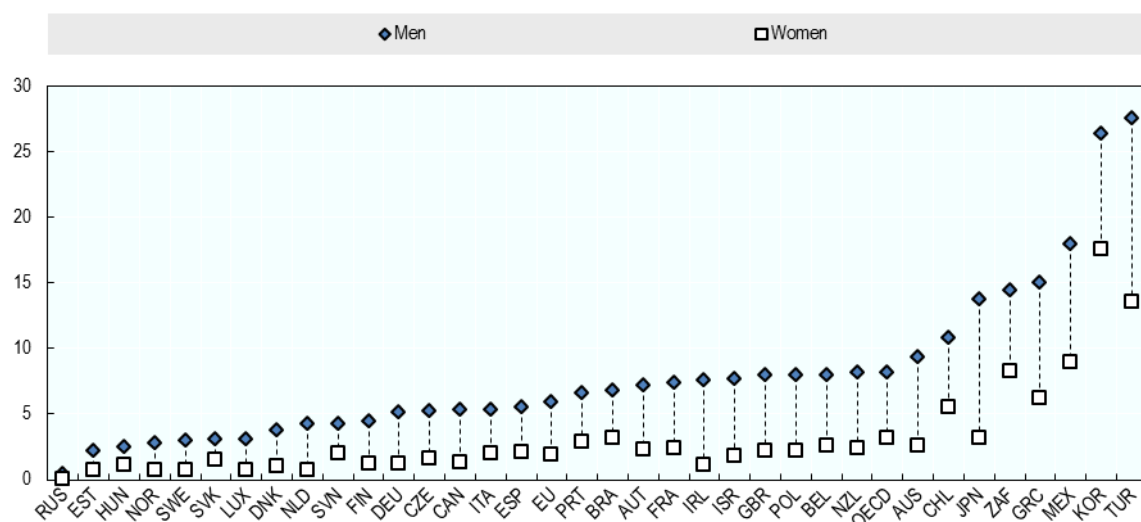
Source: OECD 2016 Gender Equality Questionnaires.

5.1. *Men behaving badly: Reducing stereotypes and promoting equal responsibilities*

110. Reducing gender gaps in paid and unpaid work does not just require changing female labour market behaviour; it requires changing men's behaviour, too, and fundamentally reshaping gender stereotypes at home and in public. As long as women are more likely than men to take leave for care responsibilities, and men are more likely to work long hours to show their commitment to their careers, employers will be less inclined to invest in female employees. This contributes to persistent gender pay gaps and gendered career profiles.

111. Figure 15 suggests that, across countries, the share of men working long hours in paid work (defined as 60 hours or more per week) is well above that of women. A culture of long paid work hours has gendered effects on labour market behaviour and gender pay gaps, as women then are disproportionately responsible for unpaid childcare and housework, resulting in many couple families where men often work 40 hours or more while the female partner works zero or a limited number of paid hours per week (OECD 2017a and 2017b). Work-life balance can be particularly challenging in countries such as Greece, Korea, Mexico, South Africa and Turkey, where there are many male and female workers who spend long hours at the workplace (Figure 15).

112. However, despite career and workplace pressures there are good reasons why workers should reduce long hours: on average very long hours impairs workers' physical and mental health, particularly when employees have little control on the number of hours they work and/or on their work schedule (OECD, 2011 and 2015a), while there are diminishing returns to anything other than occasional long weekly working hours, as above 40 hours per week productivity per hour generally declines (OECD, 2017b).

Figure 15. Men are much more likely to spend more time at the workplace than womenPercentage of employed working more than 60 hours in an average week, by gender, latest available year^a

Note: a) Figures represent 2014 values except for Brazil (2011). Data by gender for China, India and Indonesia are missing.

Source: OECD calculations based on national household and labour force surveys (PNAD: Brazil, the EU-SILC national files (Turkey), the European Social Survey (Russia). The figure for the OECD concerns all employed and is calculated as the simple cross-country average based on the OECD Employment Database.

113. Men are also far less likely than women to work part-time, but evidence from European OECD countries suggests that working fathers are often no less likely to have access to flexible working arrangements – teleworking, flexible start and finishing hours, long breaks during the day, than working mothers (OECD, 2016l). Recent OECD government policies in this area have focused largely on strengthening employee rights to reduced hours or flexible arrangements. Since the start of 2013, several OECD countries, including Australia, Hungary, Portugal and, Slovenia and Turkey, have introduced or extended the rights of parents with young children to at least request part-time hours or flexible work, while both the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have gone further in widening the ‘right to request’ to all workers regardless of caring responsibilities or personal circumstance. A few countries (Finland, Germany, Korea and Turkey) have also introduced payments or allowances for parents who reduce their working hours, with the aim of minimising financial barriers to part-time work.

114. Since the mid-2000s, German policies have moved to promote a more gender-equal sharing of paid and unpaid work, and in this sense it is ahead of most OECD countries, aside for some of the Nordics. Germany encourages part-time work among fathers and an equal sharing of paid and unpaid work. This allowance (*‘ElterngeldPlus’*, implemented in 2015) comes with a ‘Partnership Bonus’ whereby each parent can receive up to four additional months of payments if both parents work part-time simultaneously and in parallel for at least four months. There is also a range of publicly-supported initiatives involving different stakeholders in the private sector, which include initiatives towards greater sharing of best practices amongst stakeholders and audits of family-friendly companies. Most recently, in 2015 various stakeholders (including employer associations and unions) signed a memorandum on the “New Reconciliation” of work and family life (*“Neue Vereinbarkeit”*), which identifies areas of progress (e.g. greater awareness of flexible working hours in companies) but also challenges (e.g. encouraging longer paid work hours of mothers).

115. Some countries have also looked to promote flexible work by providing employers with guidance and advice on best practice (*e.g.* Austria and Hungary) or through financial assistance (Korea). In Korea, for example, the ‘work-life balance support programme’, introduced in January 2016, provides SMEs with up to a year of monthly payments worth KRW 200,000-300,000 (USD 171 – 256) for each worker using flexible arrangements or remote working, with a view to offsetting at least some of the indirect costs borne by the employer when employees take up flexible work.

5.1.1. *Taking leave for care purposes*

116. Public policy can help encourage men to spend less time in the office and more time on unpaid work around the house. Focusing on behaviours after childbirth is particularly important, as couples tend to be more egalitarian before having children but then assume more “traditional” gender roles after they become parents (OECD, 2017a). Governments across the OECD have attempted to influence gender norms around caregiving by new parents through measures aimed at encouraging fathers to take parental leave and/or use flexible working arrangements.

117. Many governments have looked to fathers-only leave as a means of encouraging men to take leave and spend more time at home when children are very young, and a majority of OECD countries now provide fathers with their own specific paid leave entitlements in one form or another. In many cases these father-specific entitlements take the form of paid paternity leaves – short but usually well-paid periods of leave, normally lasting no more than a few weeks that fathers can use within the first few months of a baby’s arrival. Since the start of 2013, four OECD countries (the Czech Republic, Ireland, Italy and Turkey) have introduced statutory paid paternity leave for the first time, while Portugal, Slovenia and Spain have extended existing provisions, and Estonia has re-introduced paternity benefits after their suspension in 2009 following the economic crisis.

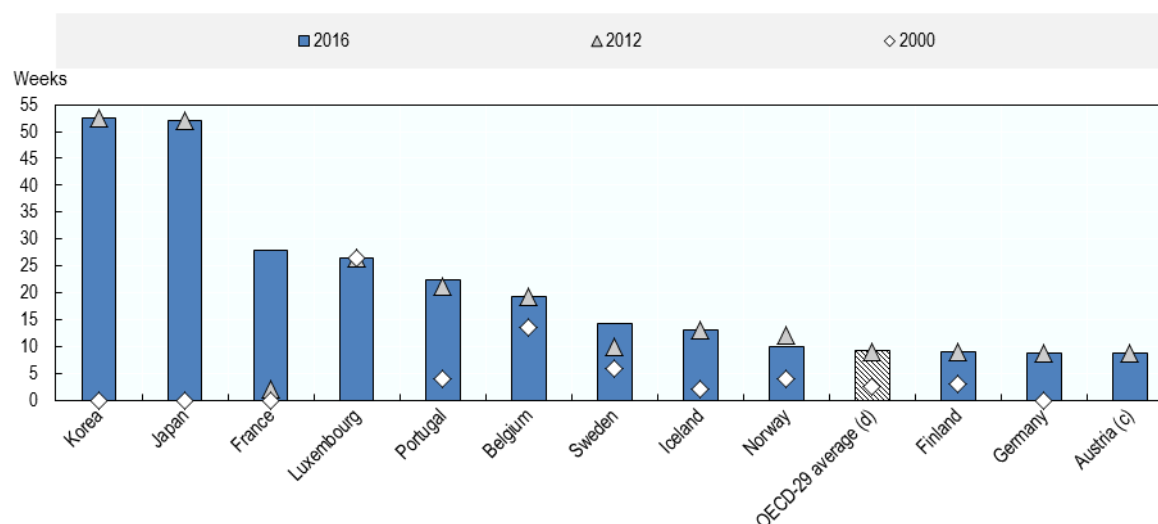
118. Some OECD countries go further by providing fathers with their own non-transferable entitlements to paid parental leave – longer periods of paid leave, usually supplementary to specific maternity and paternity leaves that focus more on allowing parents to provide care for young children over the medium-term. These father-specific parental leaves can take several forms. Most common are “father quotas”. These are specific portions of an overall parental leave period that are reserved exclusively for fathers, as offered in many of the Nordic countries or the Canadian province of Québec, for example. Other options include “father bonuses” – where a couple may qualify for some extra weeks of paid leave if both parents use a certain amount of sharable leave, as in Germany, for instance – or the provision of paid parental leave as an individual entitlement for each parent right from the start, as in Belgium and, most notably, Japan and Korea, who provide the longest father-specific leaves in the OECD (Figure 16). Over the past few years, France has introduced a form of father-specific parental leave by reserving at least six months of parental leave payments for the ‘second parent’ (extending to up to twelve months for families with two or more children), and Sweden has extended their quota from two to three months. Norway moved in the other direction by cutting the length of their father quota from a peak of fourteen weeks in 2013 to ten weeks from 2014; the Netherlands reduced financial support by abolishing the tax credit available to parents using parental leave.

119. It can take some time for changes in policy to influence behaviour, but evidence from several OECD countries suggests that providing fathers with their own exclusive leave entitlements can boost male take-up. In Germany, for example, the proportion of children with a father that used parental leave increased from 20.8% for children born in 2008 to 34.2% for all children born in 2014 following the introduction in 2007 of the two-month “bonus period” when both parents take at least two months of leave, although the average duration taken by fathers (3.1 months) remains well below that for mothers (11.6 months) (Reich, 2010; Destatis, 2016b). In the U.S. state of California, which has offered all new parents the right to paid leave under the wider paid family leave programme since 2004, the share of ‘bonding

claims’ – claims for bonding with a very young child – filed by men has doubled since 2004 to 30% of all claims, with an average duration of 4 weeks, compared to 5.2 weeks for women (Adema et al, 2015).

Figure 16. Entitlements to father’s leave are increasing in duration

Total length of paid leave reserved for fathers (paid paternity leave and paid parental) leave^a, in weeks, OECD countries that have at least eight weeks of paid leave for fathers, 2000, 2012 and 2016^b



Note: a. Information refers to entitlements to paid paternity leave (defined here as paid employment-protected leave of absence for employed fathers [or ‘other’ parents] at or in the first few months after childbirth), ‘father quotas’ or any other periods of paid parental leave that can be used only by the father (or ‘other’ parent) and cannot be transferred to the mother, and any weeks of sharable leave that must be taken by the father in order for the family to qualify for ‘bonus’ weeks of parental leave. Data reflect entitlements at the national or federal level only, and do not reflect regional variations or additional/alternative entitlements provided by states/provinces or local governments in some countries (e.g. Québec in Canada, or California in the United States).

b. Data refer to paid leave entitlements in place as of April in the given year, and as such do not reflect entitlements introduced or amended after April 2016. Countries are shown only if they provide fathers with at least eight weeks of paid paternity leave and paid father-specific parental leave. Fifteen other OECD countries also provide fathers with at least one day of paid paternity leave or paid father-specific parental leave in April 2016.

c. Data for Austria in 2000 not shown as changes to the structure and organisation of the childcare allowance system in 2008 and 2010, and in particular the introduction of different ‘options’ regarding the level and duration of payments, mean that the length of the period (effectively) reserved for fathers is not comparable over time.

d. The OECD-29 average refers to the unweighted average for OECD countries with available data for all three time points. It excludes Austria, Chile, Estonia, Israel, Latvia and Slovenia.

Source: OECD Family Database, <http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm>

120. Providing fathers with their own specific entitlements is not the only way countries can encourage fathers to take leave. Cross-national evidence suggest that fathers’ use of leave also tends to be higher where leaves are well-paid (OECD, 2016m), and in recent years several OECD countries have increased parental leave payment rates (e.g. Iceland, Japan, Latvia) or reformed payment systems to provide fathers with explicit financial incentives to take leave (e.g. Austria, Korea). For example, in 2014 Korea introduced a special “daddy month”, with the payment rate on the parental leave benefit increased from 40% to 100% for the first month of leave taken by the ‘second’ parent. From 2016, this “daddy’s month” was extended to 3 months, and is expected to further increase the use of leave by fathers. Concerns around possible career repercussions limit the use of leave by many fathers in Korea (as elsewhere), but early evidence suggests that the financial incentives introduced by the “daddy month” may – together with the provision of the longest father-specific entitlement in the OECD – have helped encourage male take-up. At 8.5%, the male share of parental leave users in Korea has tripled since 2012 (MOEL, 2017), and

although fathers' use still remains low relative to some other OECD countries, when fathers do take leave they tend to use it for almost as long as mothers.⁹

5.1.2. *Raising awareness of gender stereotypes*

121. Public policy can only go so far in promoting gender equality if inegalitarian attitudes, sexism, and misogyny persist in society. Survey data show that public opinion towards the roles of men and women have changed slowly over time in OECD and emerging economies (OECD 2016h and 2017b).

122. The persistence of gender stereotyping in society continues to function as a key barrier to greater gender equality in society. Many factors, including parental expectations, continue to discourage girls and women from certain opportunities. For example OECD (2015b) found that parents of boys are more likely to expect their sons to work in STEM occupations, compared to parents with daughters. As discussed in Section 2 (Education) above, since the adoption of the OECD Gender Recommendation various countries have taken steps to combat gender stereotyping; for example Germany, Iceland, and Mexico have introduced official guidelines to ensure that educational materials do not perpetuate gender stereotypes.

123. The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) points to the importance of transforming social norms (OECD Development Centre, 2014a). Media, broadcasting and popular culture have an important role to play in reinforcing –and challenging – social norms and stereotypes about gender (OECD Development Centre, 2015a). Women are often stereotyped and sexualised in the media. For example, in a study of films in eleven countries, Smith et al (2014) found that only 23.3% of films had a girl or woman as a lead or co-lead and just over one in ten characters with a STEM job was a woman. Television and social media are also challenging these traditional images. Fisher (2014) showed that popular forensic science television shows, like Crime Scene Investigation (CSI), which portray women in strong roles, has had a significant impact on the number of female applicants to forensic science programmes. The online feminist TV show Luchadoras in Mexico City is another example that uses the internet to share stories of inspirational women as drivers of change.

124. In addition to implementing fathers' leave programmes, many governments have committed to trying to change gender stereotypes through public awareness-raising campaigns. Since 2013 at least seven OECD countries, including Australia, Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Korea, Portugal, and Slovenia, have carried out national public awareness campaigns tackling gender stereotyping and norms, using a mixture of traditional and online media channels. Among these, Australia's joint public-private campaign was novel: the "Equilibrium Man Challenge" was an online micro-documentary series attempting to raise awareness of work-life balance by following a group of men who are pursuing flexible work arrangements, often to care for family members. Australia reports that the documentaries reached nearly 30,000 views, and were successful in generating awareness of flexible work and promoting uptake of flexible work arrangements in the partner organisations. Portugal and Slovenia's national campaigns specifically targeted the equal sharing of household activities and a better reconciliation of work-life responsibilities.

125. Information campaigns are a soft measure for changing opinions and behaviours, and evidence suggests that mass media interventions and other brief stimuli are not usually effective in durably reducing prejudice (Paluck, 2016; Broockman and Kalla, 2016). However, rigorous methods are increasingly used to improve the quality of this evidence and accurately evaluate the effects of awareness campaigns. Randomised control trials have not been used to evaluate campaigns aimed at reducing *gender* stereotypes, but scholars have found evidence of information interventions reducing prejudice against transgender

⁹ In 2015, the average duration of parental leave taken by fathers in Korea was 8.5 months, compared to 9.8 months for mothers (MOEL, 2016).

individuals in the United States (Broockman and Kalla, 2016) and reducing opposition to migrants in Japan (Facchini, et al 2016). During the design phase of information campaigns, governments could strategize about how to accurately evaluate effects on gender stereotypes.

5.2. *Sexual harassment is increasingly prioritised in policy*

126. The OECD GEQs 2016 reveal that countries are increasingly prioritising violence against women (VAW) as an issue area. Indeed, 21 of the 37 responding countries listed VAW as one of the three most urgent issues facing their country (Figure 1). The OECD Gender Recommendation recommends promoting measures to end *sexual harassment* – in itself a specific form of violence against women – in the workplace. Countries have made good progress in this policy area, and for good reason. Workplace sexual harassment presents both a human rights challenge and an economic cost. Victims of sexual harassment suffer negative psychological and physical health consequences, which lowers workplace productivity and contributes to employee turnover, absenteeism, loss of managerial time to investigate complaints, and legal expenses (Hersch, 2015). Organisations should therefore feel incentivized to eliminate workplace sexual harassment, but – as harassment clearly persists – further policy measures are still required to ensure that organisations provide inclusive and safe workplaces.

127. Since 2013, 19 countries responding to the GEQ to ELSAC reported introducing new measures aimed at eliminating sexual harassment in the workplace, making this a policy area with a relatively large number of changes. The new measures have typically taken one of two forms across OECD countries: 1) *new or stronger laws or regulations governing sexual harassment*, and/or 2) *information or awareness-raising campaigns around what constitutes sexual harassment and the right to a life free from sexual harassment*. Measures such as training on what constitutes sexual harassment have been found to help workers (particularly men) identify what constitutes unwanted sexual behaviours (Antecol, 2015). Emphasising the prevention of sexual harassment is also important, for example by issuing strong statements of zero tolerance (Hersch, 2015).

128. Austria, Costa Rica, Finland, France, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Mexico, Portugal, and Slovenia are among the countries that introduced or reinforced anti-harassment laws. New laws and regulations have expanded the definition of sexual harassment (various countries), expanded maximum penalties (e.g., France), better defined employer obligations (e.g., Iceland, Korea, Mexico, and Slovenia), and/or focused on harassment in particular industries or sectors (e.g., higher education in Israel). In a 2014 study of laws protecting women in 100 countries, 78 countries already had laws in place regulating workplace sexual harassment (World Bank, 2014b). Coverage is high across OECD countries. In 2017 Japan plans to expand guidelines on measures to be taken by management related to sexual harassment in the workplace (OECD GEQs 2016).

129. Other national governments have carried out information campaigns or published guidelines to workers and employers about definitions of sexual harassment, ways to prevent sexual harassment, and legal rights (for victims) and obligations (for employers) when harassment occurs. Belgium, Denmark, Estonia Greece, Israel, Korea, Lithuania, Portugal, and the Netherlands have all conducted, or are in the process of conducting, some form of awareness-raising or distributed guidelines to workplaces. Portugal, for example, promoted a study providing concrete and updated information on the phenomenon of the sexual and moral harassment in the workplace, which aimed to support the efforts of public authorities, employers, employees and their representatives to prevent and combat harassment in the workplace (Torres et al, 2016). Others, like the Czech Republic, have embedded sexual harassment within larger national strategies on gender equality or gender-based violence.

130. It is especially crucial to ensure that victims have safe and straightforward mechanisms for filing complaints and effective protection from retaliation by co-workers or supervisors. Sexual harassment is

underreported by victims, as evidenced by the low rates of legal charges filed relative to the levels of sexual harassment reported in surveys (Bergman, et al, 2002; McCann, 2005). The absence of a safe and effective avenue for reporting harassment clearly limits the effectiveness of new regulations. Given the importance of workplace culture in reducing sexual harassment, anti-harassment laws and initiatives targeting employers show promise and should be evaluated carefully. Slovenia, for example, in 2013 clarified an employer's liability for damages and compensation in the event of discrimination or workplace mobbing (Employment Relationship Act (ERA-1), Article 8). In these cases, the employer is liable to provide compensation to the candidate and/or worker under the general rules of civil law. Mental distress is emphasised as an element in defining non-pecuniary damage incurred to a candidate or worker, though challenges exist in determining fair compensation in court. Iceland, too, expanded its anti-harassment regulation to more clearly define employer obligations around ostracism, sexual harassment, gender-based harassment and violence in the workplace (Regulation No. 1009/2015). All Icelandic workplaces are required to draw up a plan describing preventative measures, and how to respond if such events occur. The plans must be tailored to meet the needs of specific workplaces. Many countries, as part of their awareness-raising campaigns, provide information on employer obligations to prevent and respond to harassment.

5.2.1. *Measuring violence against women*

131. Violence against women (VAW) remains a global pandemic and is an area of increasing policy priority for OECD countries (GEQs). The World Health Organization estimates that 35% of all women worldwide have experience either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime (WHO, 2013). Most of this violence is carried out against women by male intimate partners: globally 30% of all women who have been in a relationship have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner, and 38% of all murders of women are committed by intimate partners (*ibid*). A 2014 survey in EU countries found that an estimated 13 million women experienced physical violence in the twelve months prior to the survey, and 33% of women had experienced physical and/or sexual violence since she was 15 years old (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), 2014). Across countries, public attitudes continue to reflect a disturbing acceptance of domestic violence; across the 160 countries included in the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), one in three women agrees that domestic violence is justified (OECD Development Centre, 2014a).

132. A range of OECD countries have carried out multiple (albeit infrequent) waves of national surveys with questions on sexual harassment, including Belgium, the Czech Republic, Finland, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Sweden, and these cases are useful for within-country comparisons (Eurofound, 2015). Korea's Ministry of Gender Equity and Family Affairs conducted a survey of 1200 private and 400 public companies in 2015, which will be repeated every three years (Korean Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, 2016). Countries like Canada and the United States are also increasingly conducting surveys of sexual harassment in the military, as military organisational structures are associated with relatively high rates of sexual harassment and assault against women (Statistics Canada, 2016; RAND, 2016).

133. Mexico does well in attempting to quantify harassment and VAW: it carried out an extensive household survey (*Encuesta Nacional sobre la Dinámica de las Relaciones* (National Survey of Household Dynamics) [ENDIREH]) with questions on violence against women and workplace harassment in 2006, 2011, and 2016. Mexico also carries out an annual survey of the Federal Public Administration with questions on harassment at work (*Encuesta de Clima y Cultura Organizacional* (Organisational Climate and Culture Survey [ECCO])).

134. Measuring VAW is difficult. Survey-based estimates likely underestimate the extent of the problem, as many victims are reluctant to admit abuse. Administrative data, such as police reports, are

usually even less informative; many violent crimes against women go unreported for various reasons, including fear of further victimisation and threats (towards the woman and her loved ones), stigma, lack of means for self-support, lack of institutional protection, and mistrust in the criminal justice system (OECD, 2017b). Careful planning and protocol are needed to ensure that questions are phrased appropriately and that women feel safe to answer honestly.

135. Comparisons across countries are nearly impossible, due to differences in survey methodologies and national differences in respondents' likelihood of reporting harassment. There are many explanations for observed differences across countries in the prevalence of VAW, including (but not limited to) the social acceptability of talking about violence with other people; underlying levels of gender equality in society, which may lead to higher (or lower) levels of disclosure of violence; women's exposure to risk factors for violence (e.g., whether or not she works outside the home); and differences across countries in overall levels of violent crime, which can partly drive cross-national differences in violence against women (FRA, 2014). WHO notes that "differences in political and cultural factors mean that individual countries need their own data, and that extrapolating one country's prevalence estimates to another is not necessarily appropriate for policy and programmatic decision-making;" rather, countries should collect their own data to serve as a baseline for measuring progress (WHO, 2013). For countries that have carried out multiple waves of surveys with questions on sexual harassment and/or violence against women, it is possible to note changes over time. However it is difficult to say whether higher or lower rates of reporting indicate substantive change on the ground, greater awareness of what constitutes sexual harassment, and/or willingness to report, which is both an individual and societal construct.

136. Despite these challenges, however, VAW is an issue that governments must make better efforts to quantify and understand through surveys. Specific surveys on VAW should be carried out and repeated over time; one-off VAW surveys and VAW modules in larger surveys obtain only limited information on physical and sexual violence. The United Nations *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence Against Women* provide a useful rubric (U.N, 2014).

5.2.2. *Combatting violence against women*

137. VAW affects multiple aspects of victims' lives, including their education, employment, income, social protection, justice, security, and health, and policies must address all aspects. Threats to women's health include injuries; unintended pregnancies; sexually transmitted infections; pregnancy complications such as miscarriage, stillbirth, pre-term delivery, and low birth weight babies; mental health problems like depression, post-traumatic stress, sleep difficulties, or eating disorders; and fatal outcomes, including homicide or suicide (WHO, 2016). There are significant economic effects, as well; women may be unable to work, lose wages, stop participating in regular activities, and have a decreased ability to care for themselves and their children (ibid). In Mexico, for example, where 71% of women report feeling insecure in public transport, stakeholders point to the fear of violence or harassment as a barrier to women commuting to a job (OECD 2017b).

138. Some OECD countries have made progress in advancing laws and policies combatting VAW. The World Bank identifies several OECD countries making legal changes since 2013 aimed at better protecting women from violence, including Belgium, Hungary, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, New Zealand (World Bank, 2015). Portugal, too, reports having strengthened the legislative system and policies to combat violence against women and girls. In response to the sexual harassment and assault of soldiers, the Canadian Armed Forces implemented "Operation Honour", a victim-focused mission to eliminate harmful and inappropriate sexual behaviour in the military. The strategy aims to facilitate reporting incidents and better support victims.

139. Mexico offers an example of an OECD country that has comprehensively prioritised the prevention and elimination of VAW over the past decade (OECD, 2017b). Mexico's multifaceted approach, entitled the Integrated Programme to Prevent, Address, Sanction, and Eradicate Violence Against Women, involves a range of government actors at all levels of government. One important policy measure is the Secretariat of the Interior's ability to issue "gender alerts," which oblige authorities to implement measures that protect women's rights and physical security, conduct more comprehensive investigations into acts of VAW, and increase efforts to address the problem in areas where violence is prevalent. The gender alerts send a strong statement about the severity of the problem, and the publicly-funded justice centres that have been set up in many Mexican states are helping some women locally. These local, multi-purpose anti-violence centres are intended to offer psychological, legal, and medical care; temporary shelter; consultation with child development experts; and workshops on social and economic empowerment to support women in breaking the cycle of violence and starting a self-sustainable life free from violence. Mexico – like every OECD country – still has a long way to go to ensure that women live a life free from violence, but these policy measures signal that the government is drawing attention to, and committed to eliminating, VAW.

140. Australia has also recently taken steps addressing VAW. In 2015, the Australian Government announced an AUD 100 million "National Plan to Reduce Violence Against Women and their Children," a series of measures designed as a safety net for women and children at high risk of experiencing family and domestic violence. This programme includes funding for – among other measures – trials of innovative technology (such as GPS trackers for predators); security arrangements for victims to remain in their homes; the creation of specialised domestic violence units to provide women with coordinated access to legal, social, and cultural services; education to change attitudes of young people; and the development of better services and police involvement in indigenous communities, in an attempt to prevent and better respond to incidences of domestic violence in those communities. Furthermore, under part of its *Fair Work Act*, Australia in 2013 began offering employees experiencing domestic violence the right to request flexible work.

141. Sweden, too, is taking a comprehensive approach. In November 2016, the Swedish government adopted a national ten year strategy to prevent and combat men's violence against women, including actions against domestic violence, honour-based violence, prostitution, and trafficking for sexual purposes.

142. Unfortunately, some countries are taking steps in the wrong direction. Russia, for example, partially decriminalised domestic abuse in 2017, even though the country's record on violence against women has been extensively criticised by civil society groups and intergovernmental organisations (Amnesty International, 2017; U.N. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2013).

143. Given the multidimensional nature of VAW, it is crucial that countries invest further political commitments, funding, qualified human resources, and co-ordination efforts around VAW across policy areas. Government actors must build specialised capacity and work together to effectively prevent VAW, but – when violence happens – they must also successfully protect victims, support victims' empowerment and reintegration in society, and hold perpetrators accountable.

6. Governance for gender equality

144. For gender equality to be fully realised in education, labour markets and public life, countries must continue to mainstream gender in governance. The 2013 Gender Recommendation addresses these issues and the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life elaborates on these principles. The 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life recommends that Adherents mainstream gender equality in the design, development, implementation and evaluation of relevant public policies and budgets, and

emphasizes the need to set out a "whole-of-state" strategic course of action and establish or strengthen the institutions that are responsible for the realisation of this.

6.1. Strategic and institutional framework for gender mainstreaming

6.1.1. Building a strategic course of action

145. The 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life emphasizes that making effective progress in gender equality requires a whole-of-state approach. While most OECD countries have put in place some gender equality strategies, many of them suffer from implementation gaps, incomplete needs analysis of human and financial resources, and competencies across the public sector to be able to deliver against identified gender equality needs. The voices of a broader array of governmental and non-governmental stakeholders could be better captured at the design stage of strategies. The 2017 OECD Survey on Governance of Gender Equality will aim to provide further, more in-depth analysis of these challenges.

146. In addition, clear incorporation of gender equality objectives within the overall government planning process is needed to reduce the risk of marginalising gender equality efforts. In this context, since 2013, several OECD countries have increased efforts to align gender equality objectives with their broader policy objectives or development goals. For example, in Mexico, both the Planning and the Federal Budget and Fiscal Accountability Acts mandate gender mainstreaming, and the 2013-2018 National Development Plan (NDP) includes gender equality as a cross-cutting principle in support of the country's goal to "unlock its full potential" (OECD, 2017b).

6.1.2. Sound institutions for gender equality and mainstreaming

147. Building a strategic course of action is not sufficient to translate gender equality goals into reality. Implementation depends on the institutional framework put in place to support these efforts. To facilitate a consistent response at appropriate levels of government, most OECD countries had a central gender equality institution in 2013. Yet many of these institutions suffered from issues of authority, visibility, funding and capacity. To respond to these challenges, a number of countries recently took steps to further strengthen their gender equality institutions. For example, following a Gender Equality Inquiry presented to the Swedish government in 2015, which stated the need for improved coordination and more consistent implementation of gender mainstreaming initiatives, Sweden created a new national body dedicated to gender equality to be operational from the beginning of 2018 (Government Offices of Sweden, 2016). Similarly, in Chile in 2016, the National Women's Agency was officially reconstituted as the Ministry of Women and Gender Equality.

148. Delivering gender equality involves complex, cross-cutting, multidimensional tasks, which requires the involvement of and buy-in from all government actors. Therefore, beyond gender institutions, Centre of Government (CoG)¹⁰ can play an important role in clarifying what line ministries are expected to do to advance gender equality; developing clear, simple performance measurement and assessment frameworks; and removing obstacles to implementation. There is growing awareness across OECD countries of the importance of the role of CoG in supporting gender equality. In 2016, the OECD Network of Senior Officials from CoG discussed how they could steer the development and implementation of a strategy for achieving gender equality in the framework of the Sustainable Development Goal 5

¹⁰

Driving Better Policies from the Centre of Government [GOV/PGC/MPM(2014)] describes CoG as "the body or group of bodies that provides direct support and advice to the head of government and the Council of Ministers." The CoG is known under different labels in different countries, such as the Chancellery, Cabinet Office, Office of the President, etc. The broader definition of the CoG does not only denote the Presidency or its equivalent, but also includes key strategic partners, such as the Ministry of Finance or a Ministry of Planning.

(<http://www.oecd.org/gov/cog.htm>). Several OECD countries are already taking active steps in assigning a bigger role to CoG in promoting gender equality. For example, in Canada, the Treasury Board Secretariat, the Privy Council Office and Status of Women Canada ensure that departments and agencies incorporate gender considerations, where appropriate, into the design of policies, programmes, initiatives and services. The different impacts on men and women are to be identified and addressed so that results are equitable. Since 2016, Canada is undergoing a reform to further strengthen the role of CoG in monitoring gender based analysis (GBA) in the development of government proposals. In Mexico, central government departments (e.g. the Secretariat of Finance and Public Credit) play an important role – in cooperation with the National Women's institute, INMUJERES - in incorporating a gender perspective in government action. In 2016, the Secretariat of Finance and INMUJERES joined efforts in developing criteria for incorporating a gender perspective in the evaluation of sectoral policies (OECD, 2017b). The Swedish Government runs a programme for Gender Mainstreaming in government authorities. The overall purpose of this programme is to ensure that the activities and services produced by participating government agencies contribute to the Government's gender equality policy objectives. The programme currently encompasses sixty public sector authorities that are tasked with integrating a gender equality perspective in their activities, based on a tailor made Action Plan developed by the respective agency. The programme started in 2013 but has since been expanded in 2014 and 2016.

149. Line ministries are responsible for designing and implementing relevant gender initiatives and analysing the gender impacts of their policies and programmes. To support these objectives, almost all OECD countries have installed focal points across ministries who are responsible for promoting gender equality. In spite of this, OECD studies and peer reviews (e.g. OECD, 2017b) reveal that often these focal points lack visibility and the necessary mandate and resources to influence policy making. For example, while in Mexico the number of gender units within the Federal Public Administration more than doubled from 2012 to 2017, and presently 16 of the 17 Secretariats have established gender focal points, the mandates, authorities and responsibilities of these focal points vary greatly. The 2017 OECD Survey on Governance of Gender Equality will provide more in-depth insights into the functioning of gender units across OECD member countries in order to establish more targeted policy recommendations.

6.2. *Getting equipped to deliver gender equality outcomes*

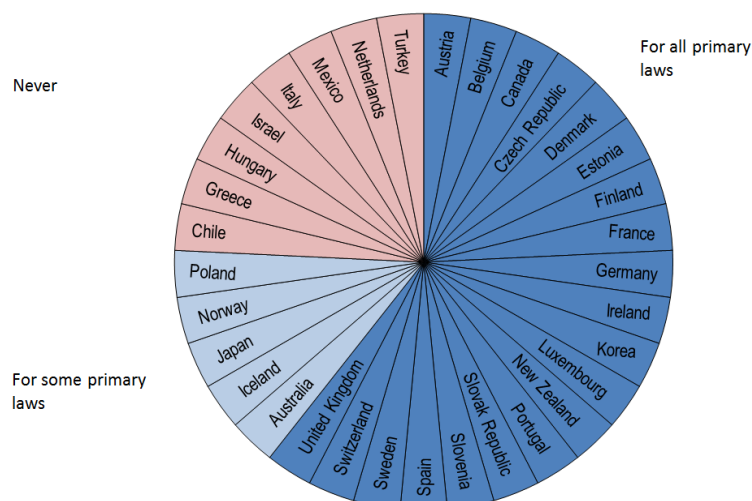
150. For gender equality to be fully realised on the ground, governments must continue to embed gender equality considerations in all ministries and at all levels of government, and reflect gender equity in all policies – including policy development, design, implementation, and evaluation. To support governments in this task, the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life offers a variety of gender mainstreaming tools, including gender-impact assessments (GIA) and gender-budgeting which can be applied to all policies, programmes and budgets.

6.2.1. *Gender mainstreaming in the regulatory process*

151. The 2015 Gender Recommendation recommends that its Adherents "integrate evidence-based assessments of gender impacts and considerations into various dimensions of public governance (for example, public procurement, public consultation and service delivery management) and at early stages of all phases of the policy cycle". The aim is to fully assess policy consequences for women and men to ensure a valid comparison and drawing of conclusions (Horsburgh, 2011). There are many methods for gender mainstreaming including gender analysis, gender impact assessments, gender-budgeting, and gender controlling. One of these methods is to integrate assessments of gender impacts within the regulatory process. According to OECD Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG) 2015, 25 OECD countries reported that regulators are required to include assessments of the impact on gender equality when developing all or some primary laws. This highlights progress since 2013 when countries such as Belgium, Denmark, and France introduced or strengthened their requirements to assess gender

impacts in the development of primary laws. For example, in Denmark, due to the low number of laws assessed from a gender perspective, the government introduced a reform on the implementation of gender equality in legal processes in the Gender Equality Act. This reform requires all public authorities to incorporate gender equality in all planning and administration. It is supported by guidance and recommendations on gender impact assessment from both a practical (use of data and statistics, tools) and a theoretical perspective (relevance to carry out GIA, analysis). The reform also entails organisation of workshops addressed to ministries to help them introduce a gender-sensitive approach to their work (European Commission, 2014). Following the 2015 Report of the Auditor General on Implementing GBA, Status of Women Canada, the Privy Council Office and the Treasury Board Secretariat committed to work together, and with other federal departments and agencies, to respond to the three recommendations mentioned in the Auditor General Report. The three institutions developed an action plan covering the period 2016-2020 and highlighting the specific activities envisaged to address the gaps identified by the Auditor General, building on progress and lessons learned, and striving towards a more rigorous application of gender-based analysis (GBA+) in the development of government proposals and evaluation of federal programmes (Government of Canada, 2016a).

Figure 17. Requirements to assess the impacts of gender equality in developing primary laws (2014)



Note: Based on data from 34 OECD countries and the European Commission.

Source: OECD Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG) 2015, <http://www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/indicators-regulatory-policy-and-governance.htm>.

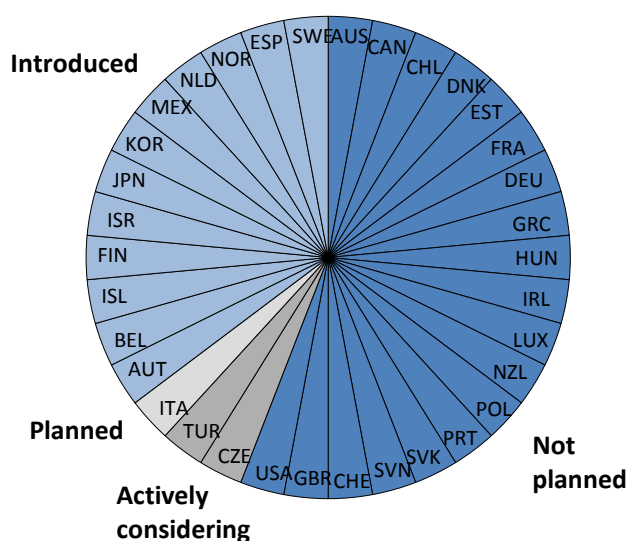
6.3. Gender budgeting: A key change in governance

152. Gender budgeting is another mainstreaming tool which is increasingly used to ensure that a clear gender perspective is integrated within the budget process. Since every ministry and level of government has a budget, gender budgeting has the potential to help policy-makers address a range of inequalities that have become embedded in the baseline of policies and the allocation of public resources. Accordingly, the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life recommends that Adherents "consider integration of the gender perspective in all phases of the budget cycle, as appropriate, so that transparency regarding gender-relevant resource allocation decisions is maximised."

153. Gender budgeting is gaining momentum, with almost half of OECD countries now reporting that they have introduced (12), plan to introduce (1), or are actively considering (2) its introduction. A number of these developments have taken place in recent years, including advancements in Austria and Mexico

(2013); Israel, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden (2014); and Japan and Iceland (2015). Canada has committed to producing a gender-based analysis of budgetary measures from Budget 2017 onwards. Given that gender mainstreaming in public budgets is a key priority of the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life, and that policy developments in this area are proceeding apace in many countries, this is a policy area that should continue to grow and be documented in OECD work, including future progress reports. The OECD Senior Budget Officials (SBO) Network on Gender Budgeting, initiated in May 2017, will provide one important forum to advance this issue.

Figure 18. Status of gender budgeting



Source: 2016 OECD Survey of Gender Budgeting.

154. Although gender budgeting practices vary across countries, there are three broad categories: i) gender-informed resource allocation, whereby gender assessments inform individual policy decisions and/or funding allocations; ii) gender-assessed budgets, where the budget as a whole is subject to some degree of gender analysis; and iii) needs-based gender budgeting, where the process itself reflects a prior assessment of gender needs.

155. Two-thirds of OECD countries that use gender budgeting fall into the first or second categories, with just four undertaking a gender needs assessment as part of the budget process. Among OECD countries, the present focus has been on applying some form of gender assessment during ex ante phases of resource allocation, and on applying a gender dimension in the setting of performance targets. There has been little application of gender perspectives during ex post spending reviews, which is becoming a standard tool of budgeting in most OECD countries.

156. The effectiveness of gender budgeting can be measured in several different ways. In particular, a number of countries reported that gender budgeting has stimulated the adoption of gender equality policy developments. Mexico has been relatively successful in establishing a legal framework for allocating funds for women's initiatives and has continuously increased budget allocations since gender budgeting was legislated in 2006 (OECD, 2017b).

157. A broad interpretation of gender budgeting includes direct financial allocations made to advance a gender-equality objective. For example, in the education sector in Mexico there are now various

programmes that provide scholarships to young mothers, artistic scholarships for women and scholarships for indigenous women in higher level studies associated with careers that were previously only considered suitable for men. In the health sector, special attention has been given to diseases that particularly affect women, such as cervical, ovarian and breast cancer, as well as teen pregnancy prevention. Similarly, in Japan, increased focus on gender policies has led to measures to reduce workplace discrimination towards mothers. In the Netherlands, gender-responsive policy is having an impact on how funding is allocated. For example, in early 2017, the Science Minister announced an additional EUR5 million allocation to support the appointment of 100 female professors, addressing a systematic under-representation of women at this level.

158. In spite of these examples, only half of countries with some form of gender budgeting can point to specific instances where it has brought about significant change in policy design and/or outcomes. This may be partly because the introduction of gender budgeting is still relatively new, and a wider range of impacts may become more evident with time. However, it also suggests the need for systematic gender-disaggregated data and statistics to allow for gender-responsive policies to be assessed objectively, and on equal terms with non-gender-related policies. It is important to ensure that gender-related policies are expressed in terms of measurable outputs and SMART targets, which assist in gender equality budget assessments. Two-thirds of OECD countries that have introduced gender budgeting use the development and application of gender-related indicators to assess its impact.

159. Some governments have also sought to integrate gender assessment tools throughout the annual routines of budgeting. This includes the ex-ante assessment of budget-related policy proposals, the presentation of budgetary documentation on the impacts and incidence of costs and benefits, and the summary of budget information for citizens and for parliamentarians. In Sweden, as a consequence of a more systematic effort on gender budgeting, the Budget Bill now contains improved and more extensive gender equality analysis, as well as enhanced use of statistics disaggregated by gender. Finally, gender budgeting has benefitted from active and engaged parliaments. The success of gender-related budget accountability is intrinsically linked to the quality of broader budget accountability, including *ex ante* phases of budget policy development, *ex post* accountability on the basis of audit findings, and institutional supports that facilitate parliamentarians in dealing on equal terms with complex and opaque budgetary information.

160. Of countries that have not introduced gender budgeting, 90% still report using some kind of tool(s) to promote gender equality (OECD Survey of Gender Budgeting, 2016). The nature and quality of these approaches vary, ranging from a *pro forma* statement of impacts on gender equality attached to all new policies coming before government, to more structured and systematic “gender impact assessments”. A few countries report that gender equality is “mainstreamed” in the sense that responsibility rests with line ministries to advance this agenda within their respective policy domains. Consequently, no particular role for the budget process is envisaged as necessary.

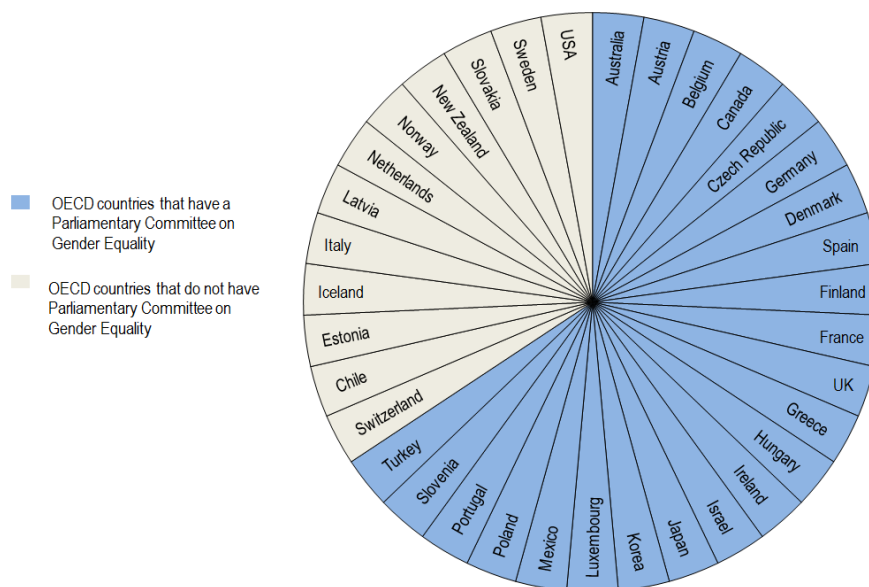
6.4. Accountability and oversight for gender mainstreaming

161. One of the main risks of gender mainstreaming – as any government-wide objective – is that it may become the responsibility of everyone and no one. Limited accountability mechanisms are the main barrier to effective gender mainstreaming across OECD countries (OECD, 2014d).

162. Legislatures have important responsibilities in championing gender equality. Without effective oversight by the legislature, gender equality work can stall and may fade from the legislative agenda. To address this issue, the House of Commons in Canada, for example, adopted in 2016 a motion to create the (temporary) Special Committee on Pay Equity (ESPE) to conduct hearings on pay equity and propose a plan that would enable the House to vote on proactive federal pay equity. Following extensive consultation

with experts from across Canada, the committee submitted its report to the House of Commons. The report focused on how the pay equity system was currently being implemented, how it could be improved, and how to learn from other jurisdictions in order to come up with a fairer, more efficient federal regime. As a result, the Canadian Government has worked towards establishing pay equity in both the federal public service and the federally regulated private sector (Government of Canada, 2016b).

Figure 19. Parliamentary committees on gender equality (or equivalent) in OECD countries (2016)



Source: Data taken from official websites of OECD country legislatures as well as Inter-Parliamentary Union PARLINE database.

163. In 2017, 23 OECD countries had gender equality committees. While a majority of them were established more than a decade ago, Ireland and the United Kingdom established their equality commissions in 2014 and 2015, respectively. Some countries do not have specific committees that deal with gender equality, either specifically or among other portfolios, but they have mandated different committees to deal with issues related to gender equality (e.g., Committee on the Labour Market in Sweden, Government Administration Committee in New Zealand). However, the establishment of gender equality committees is not –in itself – sufficient for delivering more gender-sensitive policies. Recent legislative outcomes in Mexico show that out of 1 523 initiatives discussed in Congress in 2015-16, only 42 (2.75%) were submitted to the Gender Equality Committee for consideration. Almost all of these initiatives were exclusively focused on making amendments to the General Law on Women’s Access to Life Free of Violence and General Law for Equality between Women and Men (OECD, 2017b). This example highlights that gender issues continue to be perceived as add-on initiatives relevant “for women only” in both law and policy making processes.

164. As outlined in the 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life, independent institutions also play a crucial role in advancing the gender equality agenda. For example, in 2016, the Auditor General of Canada pointed to the need to do more to fully implement GBA as a rigorous practice across government. As a result, the Status of Women Canada, the Privy Council Office and the Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat are committed to working together, in cooperation with other federal departments and agencies, to respond to the recommendations of the Auditor General and to develop an action plan (Government of Canada, 2016a).

7. Conclusion

165. The OECD Gender Recommendations, together with the All on Board for Inclusive Growth Initiative, provide a comprehensive framework to help countries design and implement comprehensive policies that foster gender equality and which deliver stronger growth and greater inclusiveness. This report has provided an overview of the implementation of the OECD Gender Recommendations in the areas of education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life since the adoption of the 2013 and 2015 OECD Gender Recommendations. The overview suggests that OECD and other adherent countries are increasingly prioritising policies that combat violence against women and sexual harassment in the workplace, the gender wage gap, and the unequal division of unpaid housework and care work – as advised by the 2013 Gender Recommendation - which have negative implications for women's participation in work and society outside of the home.

166. The OECD's analysis of survey data, administrative data, and the OECD Gender Equality Questionnaires finds that countries are making mixed progress in gender equality. Gender gaps persist across countries – to varying degrees – in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life opportunities and outcomes. Countries around the world continue to make progress with girls' education, which is a key driver of future progress towards gender equality (Section 2). Yet progress has been slow in changing girls' and young women's educational choices, as advised in the 2013 Recommendation, and girls continue to be under-represented in the potentially lucrative STEM fields.

167. Female labour force participation has grown sluggishly in many OECD countries, and in some countries has plateaued (Section 3). Parenthood is still associated with wider gender gaps in labour market outcomes in nearly every OECD country. This is occurring despite increased investments – in line with the 2013 Gender Recommendation – in paid parental leave, the provision of ECEC, and awareness-raising around gender stereotypes (Section 5) aimed at encouraging parents to share better paid and unpaid work. Countries have also been active in adopting measures to enhance pay transparency, as the gender wage gap has shown little change in recent years, and through the use of quotas, targets and disclosure measures countries have stepped up efforts to get more women into management and executive-level positions. Reflecting lingering gender gaps in entrepreneurship rates and earnings, governments have committed to greater access to finance and training for entrepreneurs (Section 4). All of these measures reflect the measures put forth in the 2013 OECD Gender Recommendation.

168. The 2015 Gender Recommendation in Public Life emphasises that gender equality must be reflected in all government policies, across ministries, and at all levels of government. Correspondingly, countries are increasingly introducing gender budgeting and mainstreaming measures in governance and public life (Section 6). However, across all of the aforementioned measures, the intensity of policy progress varies and has been slow to bring about change on the ground.

169. Gender inequality in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life remains a key issue for OECD countries and a barrier to inclusive growth. Much remains to be done to narrow – and eventually close – gender gaps in the future. Countries must build on recent progress through sustained campaigns, monitoring and reviewing policies aimed at gender equality, exchanges of best practice, and the introduction and/or expansion of legal measures and public investment.

170. Countries should share and learn from the different policy experiences, such as, for example, the various STEM initiatives across the OECD; the development of a continuum of work/life balance supports including parental leave and ECEC-supports for parents with children in Nordic Countries, France, and (more recently) Korea; the many pay transparency initiatives to reduce gender pay gaps; the different policy pathways towards greater representation of women in public and private leadership; the policy efforts to obtain a better sharing of paid and unpaid work among partners in couple families in Germany

(OECD, 2017a); the initiatives to improve access to finance for entrepreneurs; and, the efforts to implement good governance for gender equality in Mexico (OECD, 2017b).

171. Reducing and eliminating gender inequalities requires changing behaviours not only at work and in school, but at home and throughout society. To this end, governments have increasingly focused on promoting men's commitment to equal caregiving and work-life balance, changing norms around gender stereotypes, and ensuring that all actors in society are committed to women living lives free from harassment and violence. Many countries have invested more in paternity leave and parental leave for fathers, and are incentivising fathers to take leave for which they are eligible. This is an important step, given that behaviours set around childbirth tend to carry on as children age – with implications for parents' unpaid (and paid) work patterns later in life. Harassment and violence against women are increasingly prioritised in policy, and many OECD governments have committed to awareness-raising campaigns, new legislation against harassment and violence, better data collection, and comprehensive government programmes to reduce harassment violence. Nevertheless, norms and attitudes move slowly, and not all governments have shown the same level of commitment to promoting gender-egalitarian values. This is an area that urgently needs more effort as otherwise attitudes and gender stereotypical patterns will continue to affect life choices of future generations for years to come.

172. Countries have different cultural, institutional and historical experiences which contribute to cross-national differences in the extent of existing gender inequalities. All these differences will affect the policy change required and the different pathways towards gender equality. However, given the extent of the prevailing gender gaps, it will take many years to close the gender gaps in education, employment, entrepreneurship and public life. Therefore, all Adherents must urgently implement and strengthen the policies embedded in the OECD Gender Recommendations. At this stage there is no need to revise the OECD Gender Recommendations. Progress will require the continued monitoring of policy changes going forward, including the next reporting to Council in 2022.

173. The evidence presented in this report reaffirms the continued relevance of the OECD Gender Recommendations. Considering that there is still progress to be made in the implementation of both Recommendations, and noting that the 2015 OECD Recommendation on Gender Equality in Public life took effect fairly recently, it would be important to report again to Council in five years' time to take stock of progress in implementing both Recommendations and re-assess the relevance of their content.

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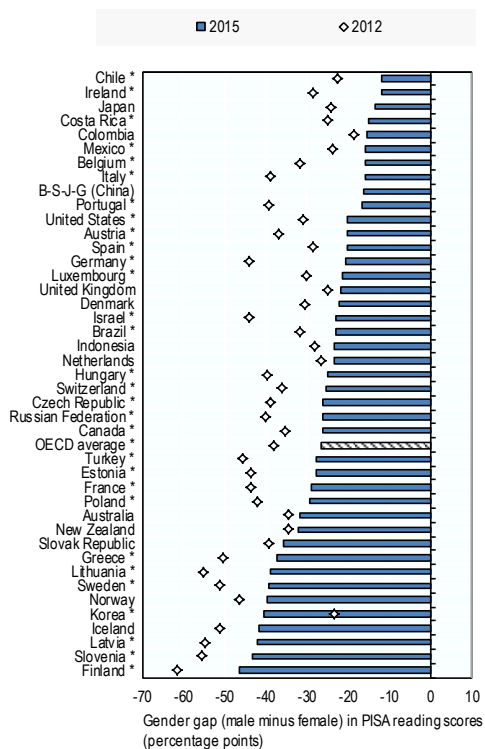
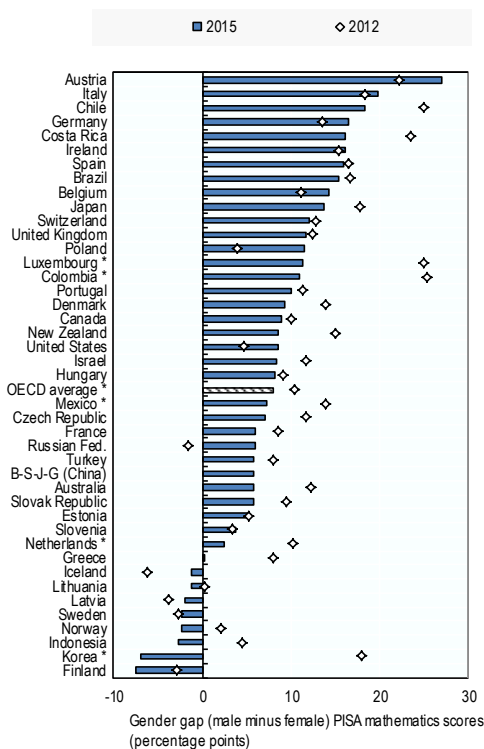
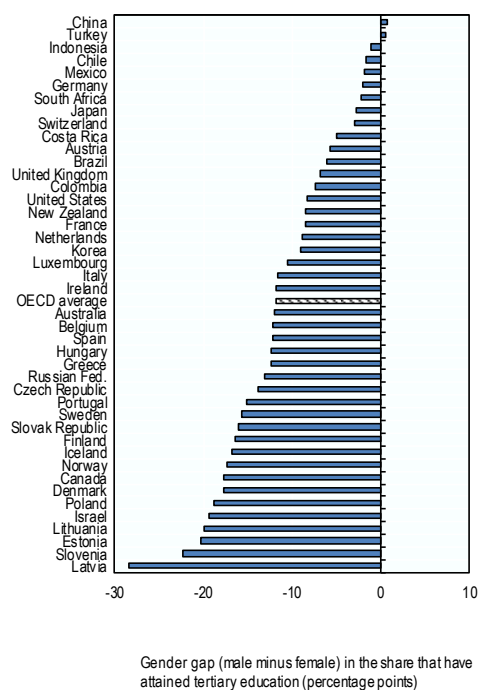
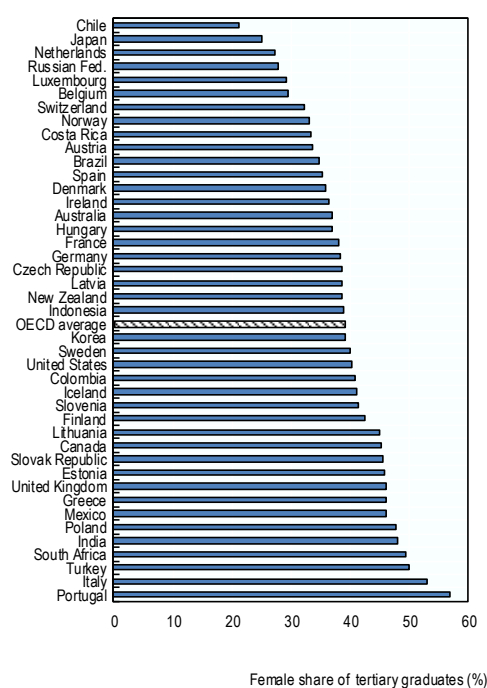
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**ANNEX I: RECENT CHANGE IN BENCHMARK INDICATORS ON GENDER EQUALITY IN
EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

Annex Figure I.1. Recent change in education benchmark indicators

Panel A. Gender gap (male minus female) in PISA reading scores^a, 15 year olds, 2012 and 2015Panel B. Gender gap (male minus female) in PISA mathematics scores^a, 15 year olds, 2012 and 2015Panel C. Gender gap (male minus female) in the share that have attained tertiary education^b, 25-34 year olds, 2015 (or latest available year^c)Panel D. Female share of tertiary graduates in science, mathematics and computing^d (%), 2014 (or latest available year^e)

Note: The OECD average is the unweighted average for all OECD member countries with available data for all relevant time points on the given measure.

a) Mean PISA scores reflect the mean average score of all students of the given gender in the given country on the given test subject. Where marked with an *, the change in the gender gap in PISA scores between 2012 and 2015 is statistically significant. Data for 'B-S-J-G (China)' refer to the the four PISA participating China provinces (Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Guangdong).

b) The 'share that have attained tertiary education' is defined as the proportion (%) of the population (25-34 year olds) that has attained any kind of tertiary qualification, including short-cycle tertiary and Bachelor's level qualifications (ISCED 2011 levels 5 and 6) and Master's or Doctoral level qualifications (ISCED 2011 levels 7 and 8)

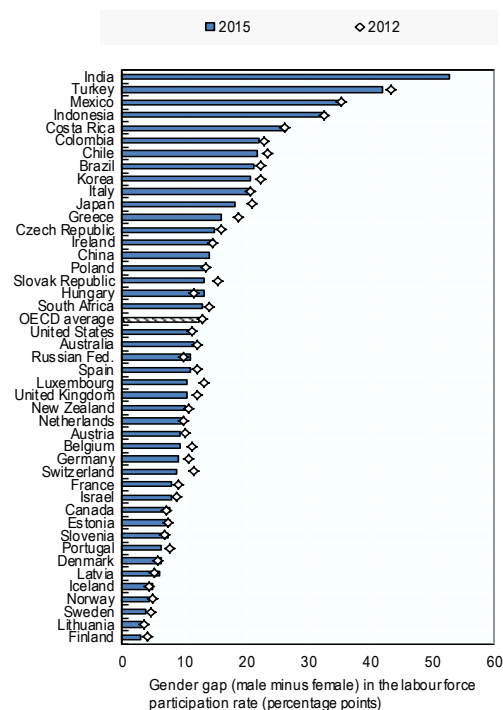
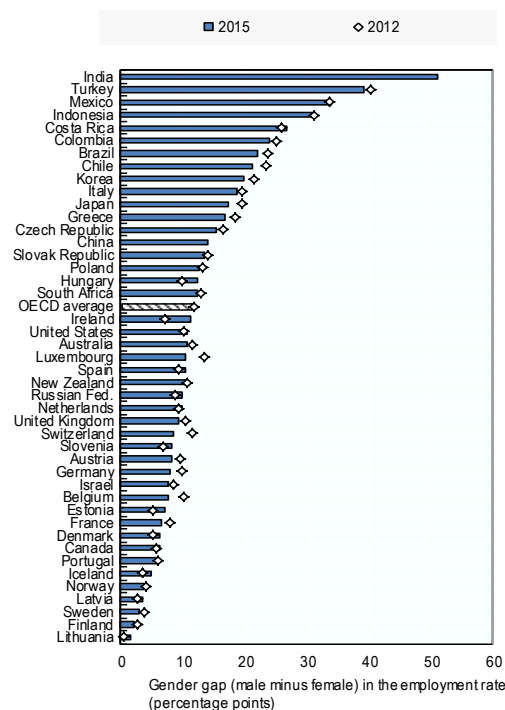
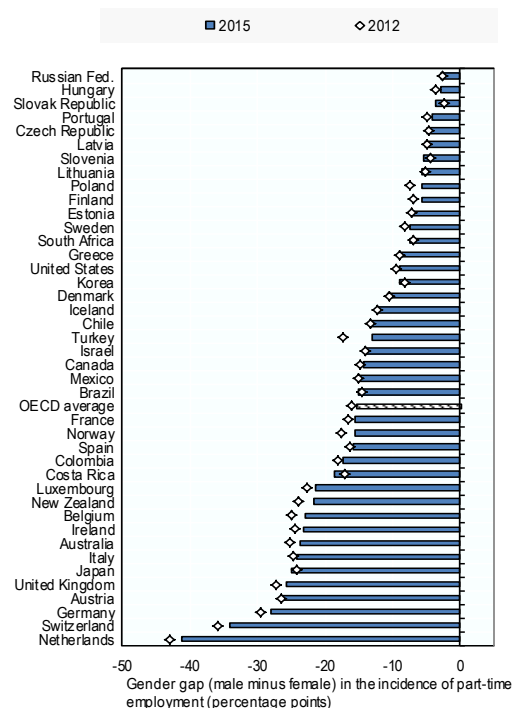
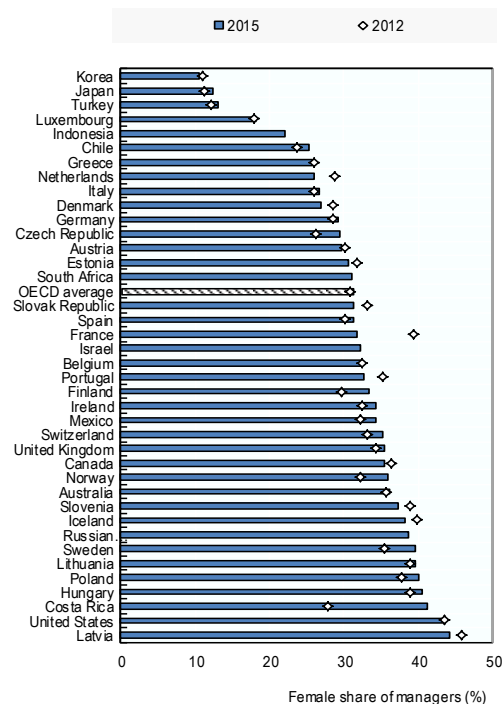
c) Data for China refer to 2010, for Chile and Indonesia to 2013, and for Brazil, France and South Africa to 2014

"d) 'Tertiary graduates in science, mathematics and computing' includes graduates from all tertiary-level programmes (including short-cycle tertiary and Bachelor's level programmes [ISCED 2011 levels 5 and 6] and Master's or Doctoral level programmes [ISCED 2011 levels 7 and 8]) in the field of science, mathematics and computing.

e) Data for Belgium, Canada, Iceland, India and South Africa refer to 2013

Source: Sources: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015, <http://www.oecd.org/pisa/>; OECD (2016) OECD Education at a Glance 2016: OECD Indicators, <http://www.oecd.org/edu/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm>

Annex Figure I.2. Recent change in employment benchmark indicators

Panel A. Gender gap (male minus female) in the labour force participation rate, 15-64 year olds, 2012 and 2015 (or latest available year^a)Panel B. Gender gap (male minus female) in the employment rate, 15-64 year olds, 2012 and 2015 (or latest available year^a)Panel C. Gender gap (male minus female) in the incidence of part-time employment^b, all ages, 2012 and 2015 (or latest available year^c)Panel D. Female share of managers^d (%), all ages, 2012 and 2015 (or latest available year^e)

Note: The OECD average is the unweighted average for all OECD member countries with available data for all relevant time points on the given measure.

a) Data for China refer to 2010, for India to 2012, for Indonesia refer to 2013 and for Brazil to 2014.

b) Part-time employment is defined as usual weekly working hours of less than 30 hours per week in the main job. For all countries other than the United States, the incidence of part-time employment refers to the number in part-time employment as a proportion of total employment (both dependent employment and self-employment). For the United States, data refer to the proportion among dependent employees only.

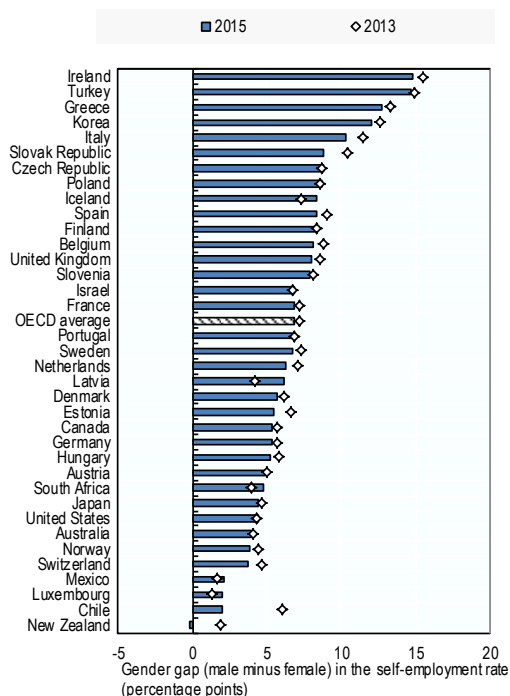
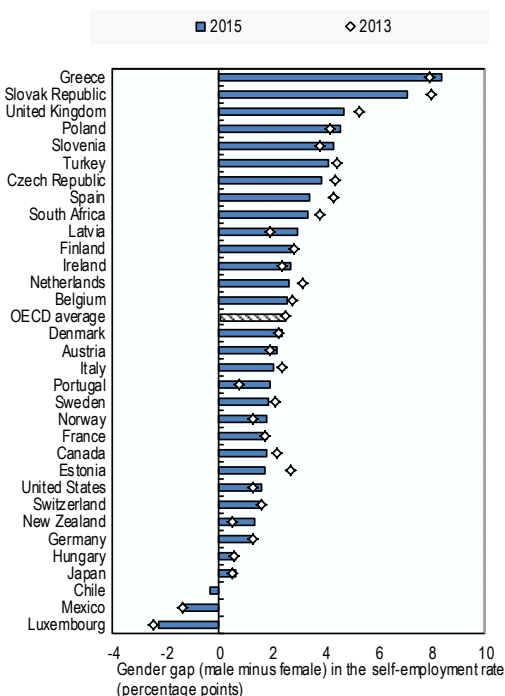
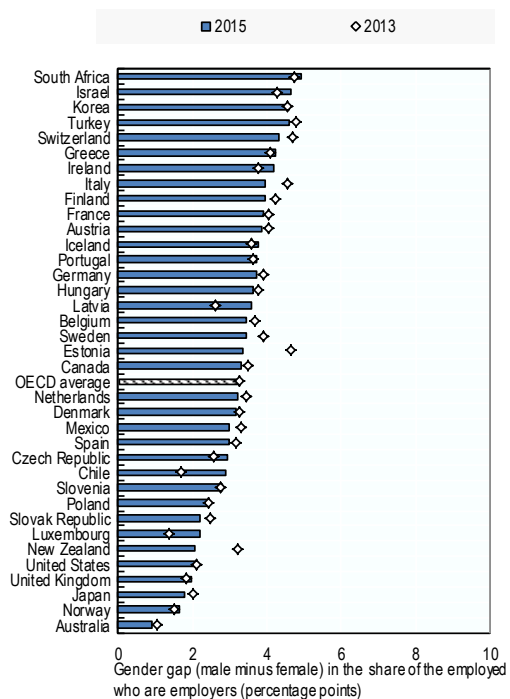
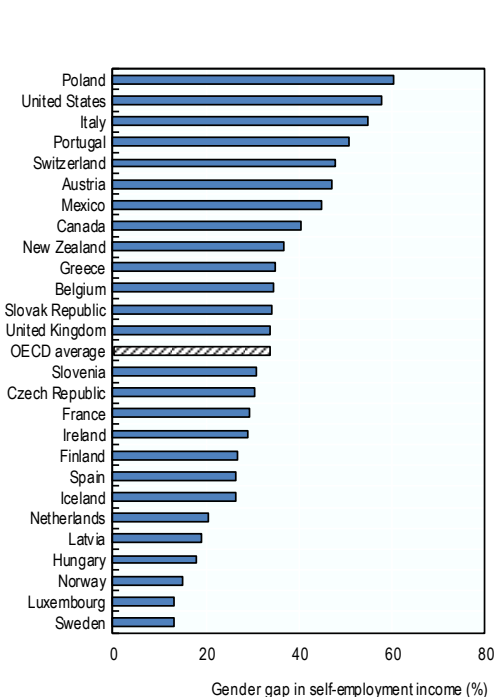
c) Data for Colombia and Brazil refer to 2014.

d) For Canada, Chile, the United States and Indonesia: proportion (%) of the employed that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 88 category one (as legislators, senior officials and managers) that are female. For all other countries: proportion (%) of the employed that hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 08 category one (as managers) that are female.

e) Data for the United States refer to 2013, and for Australia, Canada and South Africa to 2014 .

Source: OECD Employment Database, <http://www.oecd.org/employment/emp/onlineoecdemploymentdatabase.htm>; ILO (2016) ILOSTAT database, <http://www.ilo.org/ilostat>.

Annex Figure I.3. Recent change in entrepreneurship indicators

Panel A. Gender gap (male minus female) in the self employment rate^a, 15-64 year olds, 2013^b and 2015Panel B. Gender gap (male minus female) in the self employment rate^{ac}, 15-29 year olds, 2013^b and 2015^dPanel C. Gender gap (male minus female) in the share of the employed who are employers^{ae}, 15-64 year olds, 2013^b and 2015Panel D. Gender gap in self-employment income^f (%), all ages (18+), 2013/14^g

Notes: The OECD average is the unweighted average for all OECD member countries with available data for all relevant time points on the given measure.

a) The self-employment rate is the number of self-employed expressed as a proportion (%) of the total number of employed. The self-employed are defined as those who own and work in their own business, including unincorporated businesses and own-account workers, and declare themselves as “self-employed” in population or labour force surveys. Data for Canada and the United States include both unincorporated and incorporated self-employed, and data for Australia include only unincorporated self-employed. Data for Chile and South Africa are based on the annual average of quarterly data. Data for Australia, Chile, Israel and Korea refer to all ages (15+), and for the United States to 16-64 year olds.

b) Data for the United States in 2013 are estimated

c) The self-employment rate for 15-29 year olds is the number of self-employed aged 15-29 expressed as a proportion (%) of the total number of employed aged 15-29. Data are based on smoothed estimates using 3-year centred moving averages. For the first and last years of a country series, 2-year moving averages are used. Data for Canada and the United States include both unincorporated and incorporated self-employed. Data for South Africa are based on the annual average of quarterly data.

d) Data for Chile refer to 2013

e) The share of employers among all employed is the number of self-employed who have employees as a proportion (%) of the total number of employed. Data for Canada and the United States include both unincorporated and incorporated self-employed, and data for Australia include only unincorporated self-employed. Data for Chile and South Africa are based on the annual average of quarterly data. Data for Australia, Chile, Israel and Korea refer to all ages (15+), and for the United States to 16-64 year olds.

f) The gender gap in self-employment income is unadjusted and defined as the difference between male and female average self-employment incomes divided by the male average self-employment income, and multiplied by 100. Self-employment income is defined as the income received, during the income reference period, by individuals as a result of their involvement in self-employment jobs. It is calculated as gross receipts minus operating expenses, and can thus take either positive values (self-employment benefits) or negative values (self-employment losses). There are still no international guidelines on the computation of self-employment income; this may limit comparability across countries (see OECD, 2016o). Data are based on smoothed estimates using 3-year centred moving averages. For the first and last years of a country series, 2-year moving averages are used.

g) Data for Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom refer to 2013, and for Austria, Canada, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Slovenia, Spain, and the United States to 2014.

Source: for Panels A-C: OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys; for Panel D: OECD estimates based on EU SILC, the Canadian Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics and the Canadian Income Survey (Canada) the Mexican Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (Mexico), the New Zealand Income Survey (New Zealand) and the American Community Survey (USA).

ANNEX II: INCREASING FEMALE LABOUR SUPPLY AND THE GROWTH DIVIDEND

Promoting gender equality and encouraging female labour participation could produce large economic gains in OECD and G20 countries. To illustrate the potential effects, research conducted for this report made use of the OECD's in-house labour force projection and long-term growth models to project both the size of the labour force (15-74 year olds) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita in OECD and G20 countries under various different hypothetical scenarios. Three scenarios were considered in total:

- The '*baseline*' scenario: labour force participation rates for men and women of all ages are estimated using the OECD's standard dynamic age-cohort model, which projects participation rates (by gender and by five-year age group) based on current (2006-2015) rates of labour market entry and exit.
- The "*gender gap reduced by 25% by 2025*" scenario: male participation rates are projected (by five-year age group) based on current (2006-2015) rates of labour market entry and exit; female participation rates are projected so that the gap observed in 2012 between male and female participation rates within each five-year age group falls by 25% by 2025.
- The "*gender gap reduced by 50% by 2025*" scenario: male participation rates are projected (by five-year age group) based on current (2006-2015) rates of labour market entry and exit; female participation rates are projected so that the gap observed in 2012 between male and female participation rates within each five-year age group falls by 50% by 2025.

Estimates of the size of the labour force under each of the three scenarios were produced by combining the assumed labour force participation rates with projections of the size of the working age (15-74 year olds) population from the OECD Population and Demography Database. In each case the labour force was projected individually by gender and five-year age group, with the overall labour force size the sum across both genders and all five-year age groups. If the projected labour force size is smaller than the baseline scenario then it is assumed that the baseline scenario applies.

Estimates of GDP per capita were calculated using a modified version of the long-term growth models presented in *OECD Economic Outlook*, No. 95. These growth models estimate GDP based on a standard Cobb-Douglas production function with the usual long-term growth determinants (i.e. physical capital, human capital, potential employment, and labour efficiency). Estimates of changes to GDP per capita under each of the three scenarios were produced by adjusting projections from these long-term growth models according to the assumed change (relative to the baseline) in the overall labour force participation rate (which enters the model as a sub-component of potential employment). In each case changes and developments in all other factors of production – such as physical and human capital, productivity, and the remaining sub-components of potential employment – were held steady at the baseline.

Annex Table II shows estimates of the average annual rate of growth in GDP per capita and the cumulative points change (relative to the baseline) in growth in GDP per capita under each of the three hypothetical scenarios. Results suggest that the potential effects of closing gender gaps in participation rates vary considerably from country to country but also that, in a number of cases, the potential "growth dividend" from closing gender gaps and boosting labour force sizes could be substantial. For example, in the United States, reducing the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025 could potentially add 0.10 percentage points to the projected average annual rate of growth in GDP per capita for the period 2013-2025, equivalent to a cumulative points change in GDP per capita growth across the period as a whole of just over 1.5 percentage points (Annex Table II; the 25-by-2025 scenario). Going further and

halving the gender gap in labour participation by 2025 (the 50-by-2025 scenario) could potentially add 0.25 percentage points to the projected average annual rate of growth for the period 2013-2025, equivalent to a 3.3 percentage point increase in growth across the whole period.

The largest potential gains can seemingly be reaped in Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, Korea, Mexico, and Turkey, while potential effects are smaller in Canada, New Zealand and European countries where existing gender gaps in labour participation are relatively small, at least in terms of headcount participation. In a number of European countries (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland) plus also Chile, Israel and Japan, reducing the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025 might not provide any additional boost to the average annual rate of growth in GDP per capita. This is because, based on recent trends, gender gaps in labour participation in these countries are already expected to fall by at least a quarter by 2025. However, almost all of these countries could still see gains in GDP growth if they were to go further and reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 50% by 2025 (the 50-by-2025 scenario).

It should be pointed out that these projections are purely mechanical, in the sense that they assume changes in female participation do not interact with other labour inputs – such as male labour participation, or male and female working hours – or any other production factors, including physical or human capital or productivity. With these limitations in mind, the projections should be read only as estimates or approximations of the impact that changes in female labour supply will have on economic output.

Annex Table II. 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		
	Projected average annual growth rate	Projected average annual growth rate	Percentage points change relative to baseline	Cumulative percentage points change relative to baseline by 2025	Projected average annual growth rate	Percentage points change relative to baseline	Cumulative percentage points change relative to baseline by 2025
OECD countries							
Australia	2.11	2.17	0.06	1.01	2.31	0.20	2.55
Austria	1.67	1.67	0.00	0.00	1.76	0.09	1.19
Belgium	1.32	1.32	0.00	0.00	1.41	0.09	1.22
Canada	1.21	1.27	0.06	0.89	1.37	0.15	1.98
Chile	3.96	3.96	0.00	0.00	4.18	0.22	2.85
Czech Republic	2.84	2.89	0.05	0.95	3.04	0.20	2.63
Denmark	1.32	1.38	0.06	0.91	1.44	0.12	1.56
Estonia	3.22	3.25	0.04	0.73	3.33	0.11	1.49
Finland	1.68	1.74	0.06	0.95	1.80	0.12	1.57
France	1.75	1.75	0.00	0.00	1.84	0.09	1.23
Germany	1.35	1.35	0.00	0.00	1.46	0.11	1.48
Greece	2.63	2.63	0.00	0.00	2.73	0.10	1.27
Hungary	1.89	1.99	0.11	1.72	2.10	0.21	2.78
Iceland	0.99	1.07	0.08	1.15	1.09	0.11	1.37
Ireland	1.72	1.72	0.00	0.00	1.78	0.06	0.76
Israel	1.80	1.80	0.00	0.00	1.88	0.09	1.15
Italy	1.15	1.15	0.00	0.00	1.34	0.20	2.55
Japan	1.30	1.30	0.00	0.00	1.59	0.30	3.87
Korea	2.82	3.01	0.19	3.43	3.30	0.48	6.26
Luxembourg	1.44	1.44	0.00	0.00	1.50	0.06	0.81
Mexico	1.77	2.01	0.24	3.94	2.44	0.67	8.66
Netherlands	1.85	1.85	0.00	0.00	1.96	0.11	1.39
New Zealand	1.73	1.77	0.05	0.76	1.90	0.17	2.20
Norway	1.49	1.49	0.00	0.00	1.56	0.07	0.92
Poland	2.41	2.50	0.09	1.52	2.64	0.23	3.01
Portugal	1.31	1.31	0.00	0.00	1.49	0.18	2.32
Slovak Republic	2.68	2.80	0.12	2.13	2.94	0.26	3.39
Slovenia	1.57	1.68	0.11	1.69	1.77	0.20	2.60
Spain	1.10	1.10	0.00	0.00	1.10	0.00	0.04
Sweden	2.08	2.11	0.03	0.52	2.16	0.09	1.13
Switzerland	1.45	1.45	0.00	0.00	1.60	0.15	1.91
Turkey	3.59	3.82	0.23	4.54	4.25	0.66	8.53
United Kingdom	2.08	2.13	0.05	0.87	2.26	0.18	2.35
United States	1.88	1.98	0.10	1.56	2.13	0.25	3.26
Other G20 countries							
Brazil	1.79	2.03	0.24	3.86	2.29	0.50	6.47
China	5.26	5.51	0.26	3.32	5.65	0.39	5.03
India	4.61	5.24	0.63	14.53	6.75	2.14	27.29
Indonesia	4.63	4.85	0.22	4.99	5.30	0.67	11.68
Russian Federation	3.09	3.23	0.14	2.55	3.32	0.23	4.39
South Africa	3.91	4.01	0.09	1.87	4.17	0.26	5.30

1. Baseline projections of GDP per capita taken from the OECD Economic Outlook No 95 long-term baseline projections database (OECD, 2014e). 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.