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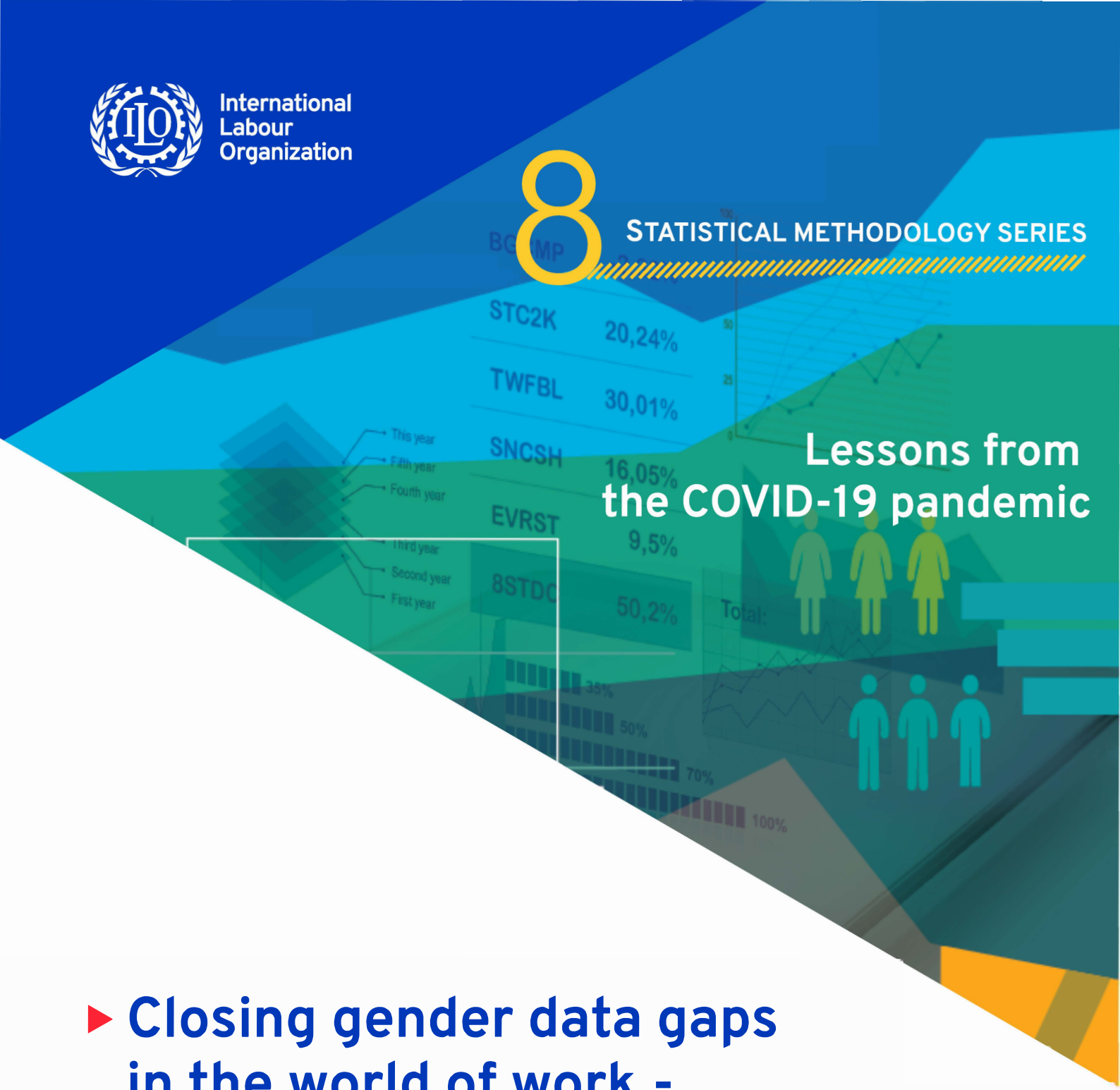
Lessons from the COVID-19 pandemic



Closing gender data gaps in the world of work - role of the 19th ICLS standards

Antonio R. Discenza, Kieran Walsh

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STATISTICS
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Lessons from the COVID-19 pandemic:

Closing gender data gaps in the world of work – role of the 19th ICLS standards[1]

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Acronyms

EMP	**Employed**
ICLS	**International Conference of Labour Statisticians**
ILO	**International Labour Organization**
ILOSTAT	**ILO's statistical database**
LFS	**Labour Force Survey**
LU	**Labour Underutilization**
OPW	**Own-use producers of goods and services**
OPWg	**Own-use producers of goods**
OPWs	**Own-use providers of services**
TRU	**Time-related Underemployment**

Acknowledgement

This report was drafted by Antonio Discenza and Kieran Walsh, both of the ILO Department of Statistics. It is part of a series of reports describing the findings of a programme of pilot studies completed between 2015 and 2017 to test different approaches to applying the standards adopted at the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in labour force surveys.

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Key points

- The COVID-19 pandemic has brought into sharp focus the existence of many inequalities in the world of work, including disparities in women and men's engagement in paid and unpaid work. These inequalities are being to be exacerbated by the crisis, but the data required to understand and monitor these trends are scarcely available for varying reasons.
- Filling data gaps on the world of work, such as the gender data gaps highlighted by the pandemic, requires a range of actions. One important action that can be taken is the implementation of the latest statistical standards, notably those adopted at the 19th ICLS in October 2013.
- The new standards establish a forms of work framework which identifies both paid and unpaid work through a coherent set of definitions. Application of these definitions through surveys will expand the range and depth of analysis used to understand gender inequalities, highlighting the different working activities of men and women. This creates a more nuanced and detailed picture of working lives that cannot be achieved when employment alone is measured.
- Furthermore, the standards propose additional indicators of labour underutilization to supplement the unemployment rate, thereby adding extra clarity on the level of engagement with the labour market of people not in employment. These indicators are proving to be very important in the current time of crisis, when people's ability to engage with the labour market is being impacted in many ways that cannot fully be captured by the unemployment rate alone.
- The scale of uptake of the standards is increasing over time, with the expectation they will be widely applied in the coming years. To support this process the ILO has been undertaking development and research over recent years to identify and share good practices.
- One of the benefits of the research undertaken, including extensive pilot studies, is that it allows the analytical potential of the standards to be illustrated, highlighting messages such as:
    - Both women and men who responded to the studies widely engaged in unpaid work, whether or not they were employed. However, women were more likely to engage in these activities and spent substantially more time doing unpaid work than men on average.
    - Men were more likely to be engaged in employment than women and employed males did have longer working time in employment than employed females. Consequently, males contributed over 60% of all the measured working time in employment.
    - This gap is reversed and even greater when unpaid household services are considered. Participation and working time in this work was substantially higher among women than men. As a result women contributed three quarters of all of this type of work.
- Many other gender relevant analytical possibilities are highlighted in the report touching on issues such as types of jobs held, simultaneous participation in different forms of work, inadequate employment situations including labour underutilization and barriers to labour market engagement.
- These analytical possibilities will only be unlocked once the standards have been applied and good measurement practices used.

1 Background

Data gaps are pervasive and increasingly recognized as an important barrier to the achievement of policy goals. How can policies be adequately designed to influence something which is not yet measured or where existing data does not create the contrast needed to monitor change over time? Data gaps persist across all domains. This is made clear by the tier ranking of Sustainable Development Goals indicators which identifies less than half of all indicators as Tier I (agreed methodology and wide data availability).

The extent and implications of these data gaps have never been more visible than during the COVID-19 pandemic. The demand for data has increased to meet the need for evidence to inform urgent policy responses that will impact large parts of the population in many countries. However, simultaneously the ability of countries to collect and report data has been undermined or completely disrupted.

A superficial assessment could conclude that the domain of labour statistics is well served, given the prevalence of labour force surveys and large amount of data available on the ILO's database (ILOSTAT). More recently this could also be assumed from the apparent preponderance of estimates of the impact of COVID-19 on the world of work, as highlighted through a series of monitors published by the ILO. Among the highlights of these monitors have been estimates of total loss in working time of 17.3% between the fourth quarter of 2019 and the second quarter of 2020, or 495 full-time equivalent jobs globally. Among the many other points of note are estimates that the pandemic has had an even greater impact on the work of women than men due to the fact that women are more commonly employed in sectors and occupations which are at greater risk of loss, in particular in the services sector. Women also account for a large proportion of front-line workers, and are simultaneously feeling the effects of an increased burden of unpaid care work being necessitated by the pandemic for many reasons such as school closures, illness of family members etc. As a consequence the gender inequalities that already existed prior to the pandemic have been exacerbated.

However, while the above implies reasonable data availability on the world of work, this is in fact far from the case. Data gaps were pervasive prior to the pandemic and the situation has worsened in the short term with many surveys being postponed, cancelled or facing major operational difficulties. Many countries do not have up to date estimates of employment and unemployment, never mind data on unpaid working activities. If this continues to be the case, our ability to monitor progress towards building back better or building back fairer from the pandemic will be seriously limited. Concerted and substantial efforts will be needed to try and fill data gaps, and this will be even more challenging in a time of crisis.

As the SDG indicator tier system suggests, one important step in the elimination of data gaps is the establishment of clear standards and methodologies, which guide countries in measurement and support users in interpretation. The domain of work statistics is well served in this regard given that it benefits from a long-standing standard setting mechanism hosted by the ILO once every 5 years, the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). In recent decades, standards adopted at the 13th ICLS in 1982 (ILO, 1982) have been widely applied and have contributed to the widespread availability of statistics on the labour force. However, while performing a very important function, there were increasing calls for an

update in the standards over time, leading to the adoption of new definitions and standards at the 19th ICLS in 2013 (ILO, 2013a).

The gender relevance of these developments, as described further below, is clear. The ILO report "Women at work: Trends 2016" highlights that "The unequal distribution of unpaid care and household work between women and men [...] is an important determinant of gender inequalities at work" and "the larger share of unpaid household and care work, [limits women capacity] to increase their hours in paid, formal and wage and salaried work" (ILO, 2016). The evidence supporting these statements is difficult to generate with currently available data, and this can in some part be linked to their lack of visibility in the 1982 standards. The importance of this type of data gap is increasingly widely recognized. For example, research completed by Data2x in 2019 identified "unpaid work as one of the most pressing gender data gaps for economic opportunities" and also recognized the essential nature of additional data to add context, stating "Apart from measuring women's time spent on unpaid work, we also need better data to understand its relationship to demographics, livelihoods and employment" (Data2x, 2020). COVID-19 has again served to further emphasize this with Melinda Gates observing that existing data is not sufficiently engendered to properly understand the particularly great impact of the pandemic on women, including on their working activities.

The 19th ICLS standards create the base to close some of these gaps by seeking to mainstream the provision of coherent data on paid work, unpaid work and labour market engagement, in the same way earlier standards supported the mainstreaming of key labour market indicators, which we now take for granted across the majority of countries.

However, statistical standards alone will not fill data gaps. The work done by ILO in recent years to identify good measurement practices to implement the 19th ICLS has highlighted that meaningful and comprehensive measurement and reporting of women's and men's working activities, not only requires the 19th ICLS standards to be applied, but also requires careful approaches to questionnaire design. The pilot studies discussed in this report (ILO, 2018a) clearly show that risks of misclassification are greater for women's work than for men.

In this context, this report serves a dual purpose. Firstly, it seeks to elaborate on the value which can be generated when the 19th ICLS standards are applied through the extensive range of indicators that can now be generated, which were either not supported by the 1982 standards, or simply not measured in practice (see also the ILO brief "Gender relevance of the 19th ICLS statistical standards", ILO, 2020a). In particular, it highlights the range of gender relevant analysis which is now enabled and the types of gender data gaps filled, such as those highlighted by Data2x. A second purpose is to identify some of the key measurement challenges identified by the ILO through recent pilot testing work, thereby raising awareness of the need for good measurement practices alongside application of the latest standards.

It is hoped that by illustrating the analytical potential unlocked by the 19th ICLS standards, this can support the process of advocacy needed to gain support for the injection of resources needed to enable their implementation.

1.1 19th ICLS statistical standards

Resolution I of the 19th ICLS[2] introduced major changes to the framework of definitions used to produce statistics on work and the labour market. Relative to existing standards from 1982 it reduced the scope of the statistical definition of *employment* to work done for pay or profit and introduced a wider definition of *work*, along with the *forms of work framework*, to support the analysis of participation in both paid and unpaid productive activities (ILO, 2013a).

Perhaps the easiest way to understand the scope of the changes between the old and new standards is to see them as a move from a single framework of statistics on *economic activity* to a dual overlapping framework of statistics on *work* and *labour force status.*

The 1982 standards assigned people among one of three mutually exclusive statuses at the headline level, namely *employed*, *unemployed* or *not economically active*. Employment was the only recognized form of work, and was broadly defined to align with production within the System of National Accounts, thereby including some unpaid work such as subsistence farming. All persons not in employment would be defined either as unemployed (if meeting criteria of search and availability for work) or not economically active. Within the 1982 framework no definitions were provided for unpaid work or labour underutilization beyond unemployment.

Through the 19th ICLS standards we now have a wide definition of work, with multiple forms of work, both paid and unpaid. This includes a recognition that:

- different forms of work can be defined based on the intended destination of the output and the motivation underlying the work (see **Figure 1**);
- people can be engaged in different forms of work simultaneously in a particular reference period; and
- these different work activities should be measured and reported.

[2] See "Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization" adopted in October 2013. https://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/meetings-and-events/international-conference-of-labour-statisticians/19/lang--en/index.htm

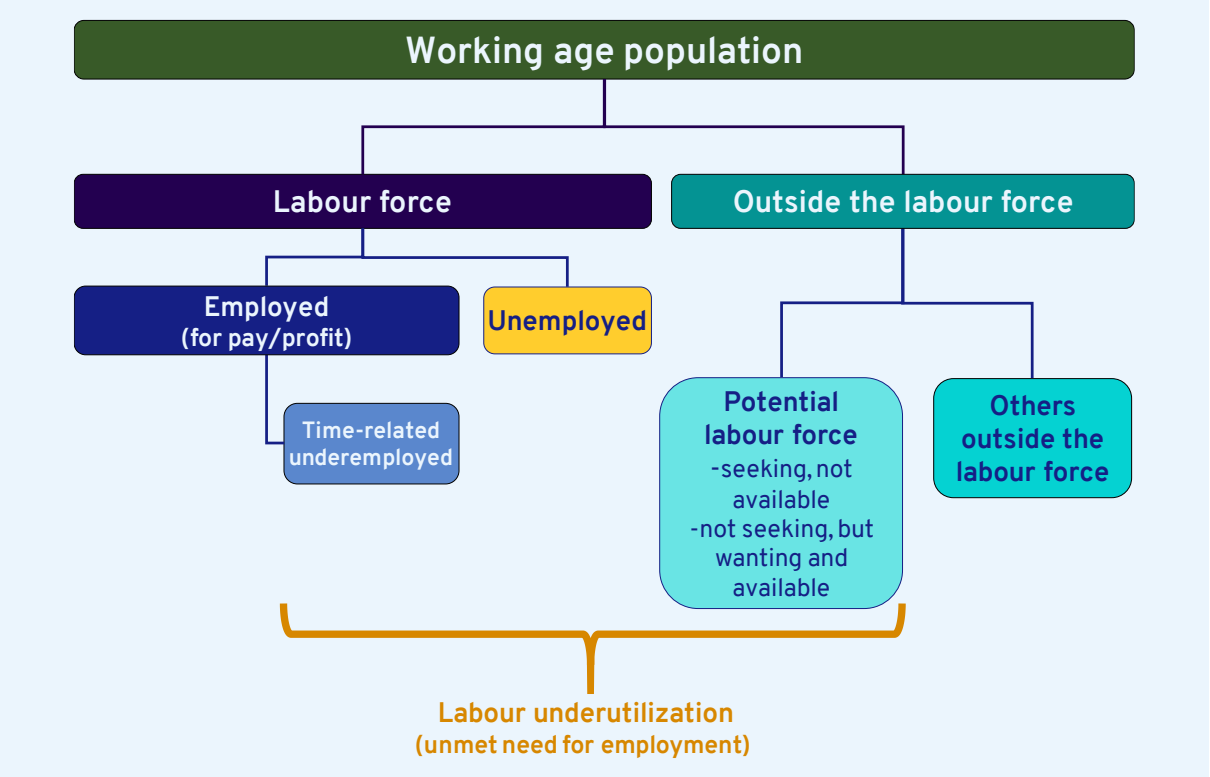
▶ **Figure 1. Forms of Work framework**

<table>
<tr><td>Intended destination of production</td><td colspan="2">for own final use</td><td colspan="5">for use by others</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Forms of work</td><td colspan="2">Own-use production work</td><td rowspan="3">Employment (work for pay or profit)</td><td rowspan="3">Other *</td><td rowspan="3">Unpaid trainee work</td><td colspan="3">Volunteer work</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">of services</td><td rowspan="2">of goods</td><td rowspan="2">in market and non-market units</td><td colspan="2">in households producing</td></tr>
<tr><td>goods</td><td>services</td></tr>
<tr><td>Relation to SNA 2008</td><td colspan="8">within SNA production boundary
inside SNA General production boundary</td></tr>
</table>

* Includes compulsory work performed without pay for others, not covered in the draft resolution

Alongside the forms of work framework, there is a classification of labour force status which includes but goes beyond employment and unemployment, reflecting existing practices in some countries (ILO, 2013b), in particular through the definition of additional components and indicators of labour underutilization to complement statistics on unemployment (see **Figure 2**). Employment sits at the nexus of the two frameworks, being one of the forms of work (now more narrowly defined as work for pay or profit), and the starting point of the labour force status classification.

▶ **Figure 2. Components of labour underutilization to monitor unmet need for employment**



The introduction of the forms of work framework means that, unlike under the previous standards, it is possible to fully capture the participation and scale of working contributions of people in, for example, employment, volunteer work and own-use production work. This enables an analysis of the total amount of hours spent by individuals "for the production of goods and services for use by others or for own use". This spreads across, paid work, unpaid domestic services for household and family members (housework), caregiving activities for household and family members, unpaid work to produce foodstuff or other goods for own-use, volunteer work, etc. When analyzed at the household level information on these activities can show the different contributions of household members to overall household livelihood and well-being. Further, it becomes possible to evaluate how participation in one form of work impacts participation in another form of work. This is a major departure from the previous standards under which any individual only had one status in one reference period (employed, unemployed, not economically active) and the many unpaid working activities people do were either conceptually included under employment or not defined at all. From the gender perspective, as put by Data2x, "The new framework allows for greater understanding of the connections between paid and unpaid work for both women and men" (Data2x, 2019). Reflecting the importance of this within its Gender Equality Strategy, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation identified unpaid labour as one of the barriers that females from all backgrounds face… a) toward their economic empowerment… b) to provide an equal chance to thrive and lead healthy, productive lives…. c) to experience the benefits of economic growth (BMGF, 2020). However, in terms of data this barrier has typically been invisible up to now.

The new labour underutilization indicators focus on issues of insufficient labour absorption as shown by an inadequate quantity of paid work. *Unemployment* remains a key part of a range of measures, but is now

supplemented by *time-related underemployment* and the newly introduced concept of the *potential labour force* (*see* **Figure 2**). Together these three measures are designed to more broadly monitor insufficient labour absorption, or unmet need for employment. For dissemination purposes, a range of indicators, LU1-LU4, based on different combinations of the three measures are also proposed in the standards.

We can note, as in many domains, a high relevance of the 19th ICLS standards for assessing the impacts of COVID-19. Beyond health impacts, the impact of COVID-19 on working lives is one of the more direct effects many people will experience. Generating the data to evaluate this is a particular challenge due to the impact of COVID-19 on data collection activities (ILO, 2020b). As UNWomen have observed "Emerging evidence on the impact of COVID-19 suggests that women's economic and productive lives will be affected disproportionately and differently from men" (UNWomen, 2020). While employment will inevitably be a major focus of analysis and policy, a sole focus on employment will not lead to complete understand of the causes or extent of impacts as "As women take on greater care demands at home, their jobs will also be disproportionately affected by cuts and lay-offs. Such impacts risk rolling back the already fragile gains made in female labor force participation, limiting women's ability to support themselves and their families, especially for female-headed households" (UNWomen, 2020). This re-emphasizes the need for coherent data on unpaid work and labour market engagement, precisely what the 19th ICLS standards are designed to create.

Reflecting the above, in terms of analytical potential the whole (of the 19th ICLS) can be said to be greater than the sum of the parts (the forms of work framework and the new labour force status definitions) as the these components supplement each other to shed light on the interaction of engagement in different working activities and labour market participation.

Figure 3 attempts to summarize the developments from the 1982 to 2013 standards. This illustrates that the new forms of work framework combined with the new labour underutilization indicators offer the potential for a far richer insight into both the productive activities people are engaged in, how people interact with the labour market, and how those things are inter-related.

▶ **Figure 3. Comparison of scope of statistical standards**

	1982 standards (13th ICLS)	2013 Standards (19th ICLS)
Employment definition:	All activities within the SNA production boundary including some unpaid activities such as subsistence farming	Work done in exchange for pay or profit
Recognition of forms of work beyond employment	No	Yes
Ability to measure total work burden	No (framework only identified one status during a reference period)	Yes, along with the fact multiple forms of work could be performed in the same reference period (e.g. unpaid domestic services and unpaid caregiving for household and family members, farming for own-use, employment, etc.).

Relationship to System of National Accounts	Conceptually a one to one relationship between employment and productive activities within the SNA production boundary (not necessarily applied in practice)	The different forms of work can be combined to aligned to both the SNA production boundary and the General production boundary
Labour underutilization	Limited to unemployment indicators and subsequently time-related underemployment.	Recognition of unemployment, time-related underemployment and the potential labour force which combined into four labour underutilization indicators.

With all the above said, it should be recognized that the 13th ICLS standards played an important role in providing a clear basis for the development of labour market statistics. This has supported the major expansion in availability of labour market related data across all regions in recent decades. The hope and expectation is that the adoption of the 19th ICLS will be a precursor to a similar expansion in the availability of more comprehensive data on paid and unpaid work, and labour market engagement over the coming years and decades.

The impact of the shift from the 13th ICLS standards to the 19th ICLS standards is addressed in a separate note (ILO, 2020c). The present report intends to provide an overview of how information collected in line with the 19th ICLS Resolution could be used to gain additional insights into differences in the working activities of women and men. The report also contains elements that can help to understand how unpaid working activities can influence labour market engagement and vice versa, especially in those countries where work in agriculture for own family use is an important component of the national economy.

The analysis presented in the report is based on data collected during a series of pilot studies completed by the ILO between 2015 and 2017 in partnership with countries across different regions of the world (ILO, 2018a). The background to the studies, methodology, and main findings regarding questionnaire design are presented in a series of report, which have been published on the ILO website. As described in the report covering the methodology of the pilot studies (ILO, 2018b), 5 different model questionnaires were tested across the 10 countries involved in the pilot studies, with two questionnaires tested in each country. Each of the model questionnaires had the same scope and a similar overall coverage, but applied different measurement approaches to enable comparisons. To facilitate easier interpretation of the data, not affected by minor differences in the data collection tools/questionnaires, the statistics presented in this report are based on data collected using a questionnaire which – being the most 'typical' questionnaire in existing practice - was also the most widely implemented of the five models developed, having been used in the pilot study in 8 of the 10 countries (model questionnaire 3).

One point to bear in mind is that the design of the studies was experimental in nature, and it did not apply representative samples. The estimates presented therefore should not be interpreted as representative estimates for the countries or any sub-regions. Nonetheless, they illustrate the type of analysis that can be enabled through implementation of the standards, and their gender relevance, and which it is hoped will become mainstreamed through wide application of the standards.

The pilot studies had a wide range of measurement objectives related to LFS design and content. Assessing the questionnaire to fully capture women's and men's work was one of the high priority objectives. Reflecting and reinforcing the high gender relevance, the work was supported by the Women's Work and Employment Partnership, hosted by Data2x[3]. The partnership offered a platform for sharing of experiences and knowledge between the participating agencies (ILO, World Bank, Food and Agriculture Organization), thereby promoting the cause for better measurement of labour across different types of surveys. The ILO is very grateful for the ongoing collaboration and support through the partnership.

While the main focus of the report is to highlight the analytical value of the data generated through implementation of the standards, a number of key lessons learned for design of Labour Force Survey (LFS) questionnaires are also highlighted, as further elaborated in the reports of the findings from the pilot studies[4] and reflected in ILO's published model LFS questionnaires, related tools and guidance[5]. Available guidance will be supplemented over time as further development and testing work takes place, for example through work done in Sri Lanka in 2018/9 to compare outcomes from the LFS with other types of household surveys, or other future testing activities.

A key summary message is that a deeper understanding requires more in-depth analysis and a focus on wider sets of data than just headline indicators. While this has always been true, the 19th ICLS standards create a framework which emphasizes this. Applying the standards while using good measurement practices will generate highly valuable data, including the type of data presented in this report. The data highlighted in the report are only a small subset of the types of analysis which can in theory be generated when the standards are applied, and have been chosen to illustrate the range of questions which can potentially be addressed. The intention is not to present a template for publication, rather to illustrate some of the range of gender relevant analysis enabled. Parts of the analysis suggested could be undertaken within the framework of the old standards, at least in the case of data on employment. However, this would be based on the old 'wider' definition of employment and the type of analysis illustrated was not frequently done in reality.

This report is divided in several sections. **Section 2** provides information on participation of women and men in employment and own-use production. **Section 3** focuses on simultaneous engagement in different forms of work. **Section 4** reports on the time worked in the different forms of work and in total. **Section 5** discusses the key findings regarding labour underutilization and inadequate employment situations. The final section (**Section 6**) outlines the main conclusions and recommendations. The **annex** contains additional tables with a full set of the estimates discussed in the report.

[3] https://data2x.org/

[4] https://ilostat.ilo.org/about/lfs-research/lfs-pilot-study-programme/

[5] https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/lfs-resources/

2 Participation of women and men in employment and own-use production

A key gender data gap directly addressed by the standards adopted at the 19th ICLS, is a lack of data on participation of women and men in unpaid work and, by extension, all work. Evidence and analysis on this subject to date has generally been based on data laboriously compiled from varying data sources including time use surveys and other household surveys, which have covered the topic on an ad hoc basis. Such data sources have typically suffered from low periodicity and unclear comparability across countries, or worse, simply non-existent in many countries.

Recent work undertaken by ILO has highlighted the value which data on both paid and unpaid work can provide. For example, one simple but powerful message supported by available data is that men work longer hours on average in employment, but women work longer hours on average when employment and unpaid work are considered, thus having an overall higher total work burden. This message is hidden or even contradicted when the comparative analysis of the work burden of women and men is only based on widely available data on time worked in employment (ILO, 2016). The data required to complete this picture, namely time spent in unpaid working activities, suffers from extensive data gaps, in turn linked to gaps in the conceptual framework established by previous international statistical standards.

The 19th ICLS standards provide definitions for different forms of work, and in doing so, promote the mainstreaming of provision of coherent statistics on all work, both paid and unpaid, in the same way previous standards supported the mainstreaming of statistics on employment and unemployment. Among the different forms of work, employment and own-use production work (work done to produce goods or services for yourself or your family) are the most prevalent and both were covered in the model questionnaires developed by the ILO for the pilot testing programme[6].

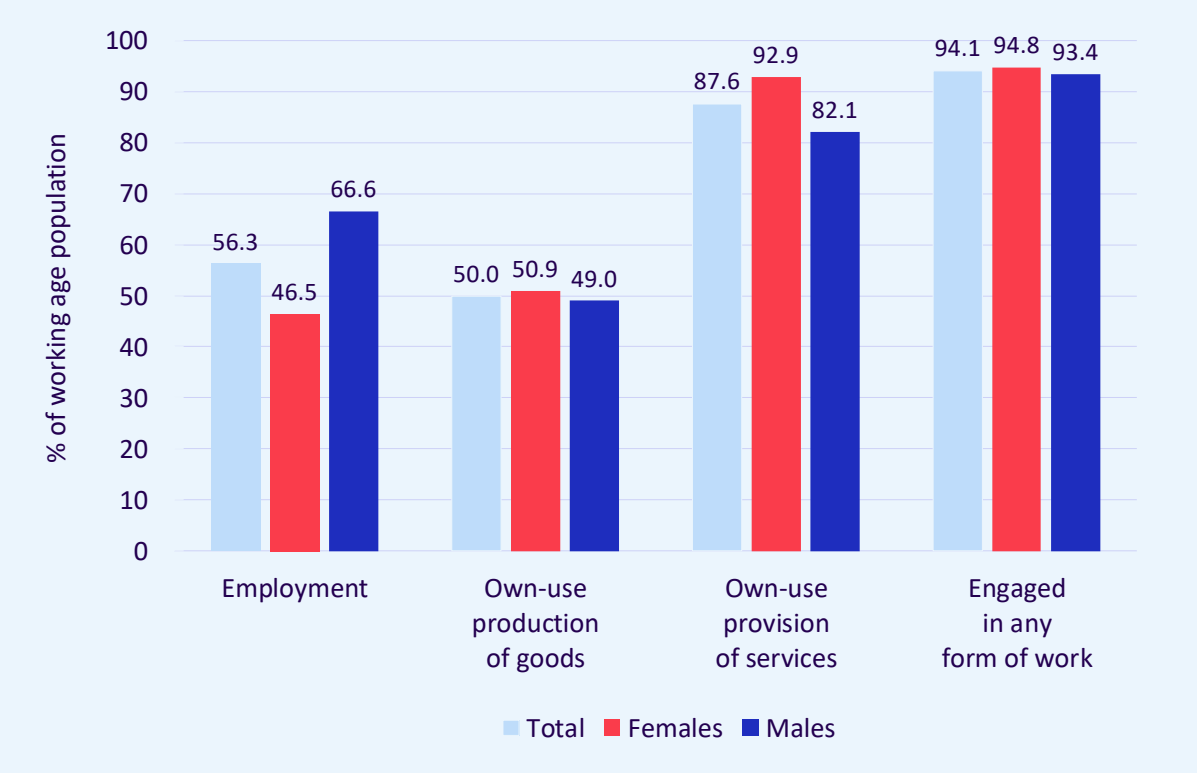
This section highlights participation of male and female respondents of working age in employment and in own-use production work based on the eight pilot countries who tested model questionnaire 3. In general throughout the report, own-use production work is separated between own-use production of goods and own-use provision of services, given the notable differences in participation and gender gaps between those two types of working activities that would be masked if a total for 'own-use production work ' was the focus of analysis. This separation will in general be necessary for various purposes, for example for national accounting purposes given that own-use production of goods lies within the SNA production boundary, while own-use provision of services lies outside the SNA production boundary but within the general production boundary. Hereafter they will be referred to as types of work or types of working activity.

Overall, about 94 out of every 100 respondents to the studies were engaged in at least one of the forms of work. Similar shares were generally observed for men (93.4%) and women (94.8%). Overall 56.3% of

[6] A separate project is being advanced on the measurement of volunteer work. See https://ilostat.ilo.org/about/lfs-research/

respondents were in employment, 50% were engaged in own-use production of goods and 87.6% were engaged in own-use provision of services (*see* **Figure 4**). Gender gaps in the participation in these forms of work are discussed in the remainder of this section, while the **following section** focusses on what we can learn about peoples multiple working burdens as demonstrated through simultaneous participation in different forms of work.

▶ **Figure 4. Share of female and male respondents of working age engaged in different types of working activity**



2.1 Employment

Participation in employment of female respondents was about twenty percentage points (pps) lower than male respondents, at an average of 46.5% across the eight pilot countries (see **Figure 4**). A similar scale of gender gap has been found in other setting (see for example "Women at work trends 2016" (ILO, 2016)). Participation in employment generally increased with age; however, the gap between women and men remained wide for all age groups. The largest gender gap was observed among respondents aged 25-44, with 58.8% of female respondents in employment compared with 83.1% of male respondents, a gap of 24.3pps (see **Table 1** in the annex).

20 pps

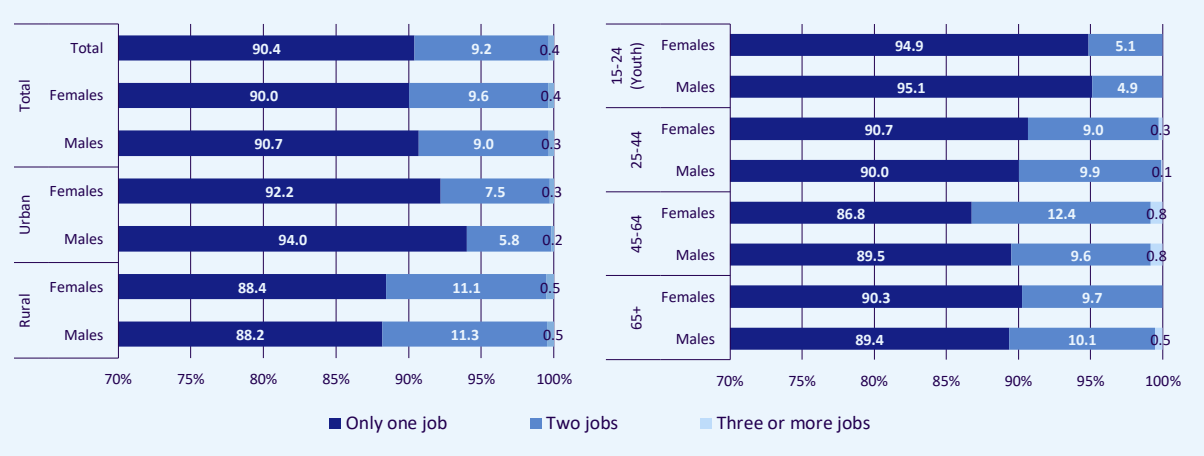
was the gap between the employment to population ratios of female and male respondents

Below we illustrate some characteristics of the kind of jobs held by people in employment and how they differed between male and female respondents. Analysis of the characteristics of jobs held can highlight many important imbalances between women and men such as differences in prevalence of casual jobs, part-time work etc. Some of these characteristics are illustrated below.

2.1.1 Multiple job holders

About 10% of respondents classified as employed reported having more than one job and less than 0.5% reported more than two jobs (see **Figure 5**). Similar values were observed overall for both male and female respondents. The proportion of employed respondents with multiple jobs was much higher in rural areas compared to urban areas and generally increased with age, going from about 5% for youth to about 11% for the age group 45-64. Female respondents showed a slightly higher proportion of multiple jobs than men in urban areas and in the age group 45-64.

▶ **Figure 5. Number of jobs/businesses reported by employed respondents, by location of residence, age group and sex**



2.1.2 Status in employment of main job

The *International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE)* is a classification that provides information about the relationship between a worker and their job or business. The 20th ICLS recently (October 2018) adopted a Resolution Concerning Statistics on Work Relationships[7] which provides an updated International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-18) (ILO, 2018c), replacing the existing ICSE-93 which was adopted at the 15th ICLS in 1993 (ILO, 1993).

The new resolution and classification can be used to highlight differences in the levels of authority and economic risk workers have in relation to their job or business. For example, employees are very generally characterized as having low authority but also low risk (not relying on profits from a business), while independent workers tend to have high risk but also high authority. **Figure 6** shows the classification organized based on degree of authority (ICSE-18-A).

To take one example of the significance of the updated classification we can look at the case of contributing family workers (CFWs), i.e. helpers without pay in family businesses or farms. At its highest level ICSE-93 had a dichotomy between "paid employment jobs" and "self-employment jobs". Within that, CFWs were included in self-employment jobs along with own-account workers and employers. Under ICSE-18-A there is a recognition that CFWs differ from those who run businesses with respect to the authority they exercise. CFWs in this case are 'dependent workers", while those running family business would be "independent workers". Assuming measurement has been done correctly (discussed further in **Box 1**) this creates a more meaningful distinction of the type of relationship those workers have to their job/business.

▶ **Figure 6. International Classification of Status in Employment according to type of authority (ICSE-18-A)**

Independent workers	Dependent workers
Employers ▶ Employers in corporations ▶ Employers in household market enterprises **Independent workers without employees** ▶ Owner-operators of corporations without employees ▶ Own-account workers in household market enterprises without employees	**Employees** ▶ Pemanent employees ▶ Fixed-term employees ▶ Short-term and casual employees ▶ Paid apprentices, trainees and interns **Dependent contractors** ▶ Dependent contractors **Contributing family workers** ▶ Contributing family workers

[7] https://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/meetings-and-events/international-conference-of-labour-statisticians/20/WCMS_648693/lang--en/index.htm

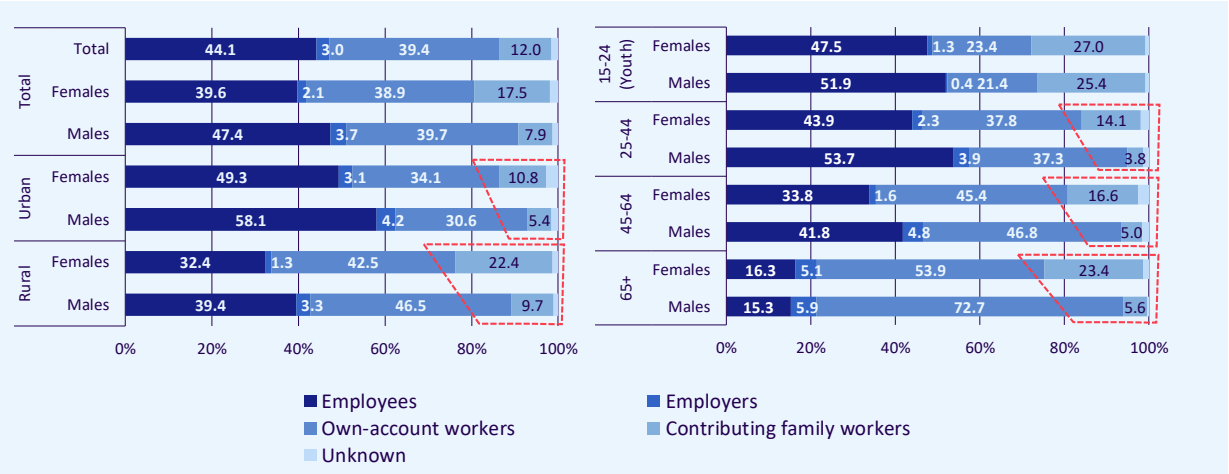
Looking at the data from the pilot studies, CFWs are a good case of a group where there are important gender differences. A characteristic of persons in this group is that the work done is unpaid in the sense the workers themselves are not directly paid[8]. Put in terms of risk and authority these workers can be distinguished in that they have both low authority (as explained above) over the work done, and high risk as they are relying on the family business making a profit. Given the relatively higher proportion of employed women that fall in this category, especially in developing countries, it is a group which must be clearly identified and distinguished from other statuses in employment. This is something that is facilitated by the new standards (19th ICLS and ICSE-18) and latest model questionnaires published by the ILO.

Figure 7 shows the distribution of employed men and women by status in employment in the main job[9] and helps to highlight important differences between males and females. At a broad level, female respondents in employment were more likely to be working as CFW (orange bars) than males, and less likely to be working as employees (blue bars).

A very clear difference in distribution can be observed between urban and rural areas. In urban areas, employee work was more commonly recorded for both males on females. On the other hand, respondents in rural areas were relatively more likely to be own-account workers or contributing family workers.

When disaggregated by sex we can see that the proportion of CFWs among employed respondents was much higher for women than men (17.5% vs 7.9%), and this direction of gap was seen both in urban and rural areas as well as across all age groups. By contrast, the proportion of employees was much higher among men (on average 47.4% vs 39.6%). While similar overall (39.7% for employed male respondents versus 38.9% for females), the proportions of own-account workers (blue bars) by sex differed across age groups and location of residence (urban or rural).

▶ **Figure 7. Status in employment of the main job, by location of residence, age group and sex**



[8] According to the 19th ICLS Resolution I, they do not receive direct pay for their job, but may receive intra-household transfers through family income.

[9] According to the 19th ICLS Resolution I, it is defined as the job in which the respondents usually work the highest number of hours.

When we look at the distribution among different age groups, we note other interesting patterns. For example, while CFWs were prevalent among both men and women aged 15-24 (25.4% of male respondents and 27.0% of female respondents), it was very infrequently reported for males in older age groups. However, it continued to be reported among reasonable proportions of female respondents, and was almost as common among females aged 65+ (23.4%) as females aged 15-24 (25.4%). In summary, this suggests that while CFW was a transitory status for young males, it was ultimately a more persistent status among females within the samples covered by the studies. This was particularly found in rural areas where 22.4% of all employed female respondents were CFW. This pattern could be explained in a number of ways, for example it could indicate that women found it more difficult to find other employment than males. Alternatively, it could indicate that as males aged they typically took greater control in the family business and thus are instead shown as own-account workers or employers, even if working within the same business, while women continue to report themselves as unpaid family helpers in the business. An alternative explanation can relate to the self-perception nature of the question used to generate this information which is discussed further in **Box 1** below.

▶ Box 1. Identifying contributing family workers versus business co-operators

The analysis above is based on the self-perceived status in employment. This is derived from a single question that asks respondents to self-classify their employment status. This is a common practice in surveys. However, under both ICSE-93 and ICSE-18 there will be cases where a self-identification question alone creates a risk of misclassification. CFWs are one of the groups where this risk exists. Both ICSE-93 and ICSE-18 state that a person who has a decision making role in a business ("make(s) the most important decisions") should not be classified as a CFW and instead should be classified as a business (co)operator. The risk with the single self-identification question is that people will self-perceive their status as a helper in the business, even if they do in fact have a decision making role, if they perceive another family member as being the operator of the business. The potential gender relevance of this is clear.

To assess this the questionnaire used in the pilot studies included some additional questions for those respondents declaring themselves "Helping in a household/family business" (CFW) in the main job. The objective of these additional questions was to verify whether the self-perceived status was a good representation of their role in the family business. Neither ICSE-193 nor ICSE-18 provide detail on how "making important decisions" can be operationalized, so for the pilot studies it was decided to include three additional questions for self-reported CFWs, to know whether they, alone or together with other family member(s) or others, made different types of decisions about the business. The three questions identified if the respondents:

- usually made decisions about the running of the business; or
- did not make decisions about the running of the business but were involved in the day to day administration; or
- usually decided how the income earned would be use.

The analysis of this data allows us to identify the potential level of misclassification which could be present when the single self-identification question alone is used. The results are presented in **Table 4** in the annex.

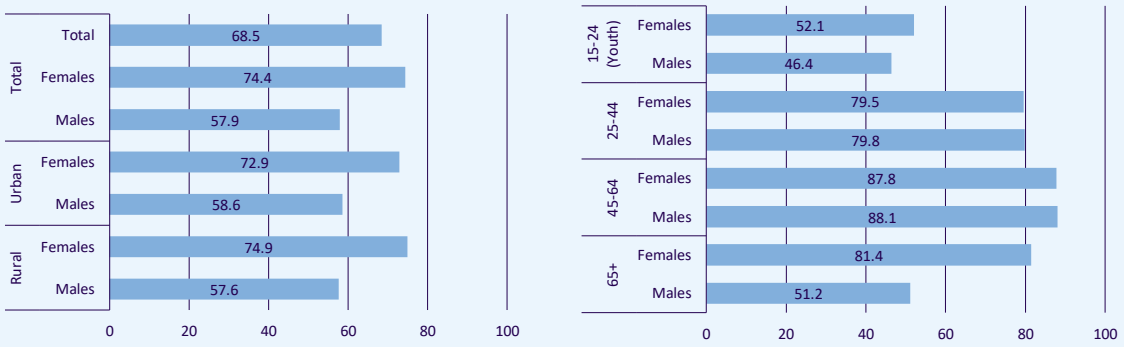
Figure 8 below shows that 68.5% of the respondents who initially declared themselves as helpers in the family business, subsequently reported making decisions on the running or the day to day administration on the business, or on how to use the income (i.e. responded yes to at least one of the

three recovery questions).

In general, female respondents were more likely to be in this situation than males (74.4% of self-reported female CFWs, compared with 57.9% of males).

The gender difference was observed in both urban and rural areas, and for youth and respondents aged 65 years or older. In the two central age groups, similar high proportions of male and female CFWs reported having some decision make role, i.e. about 80% for those aged 25-44, and about 90% of the group 45-64.

▶ **Figure 8. Proportion of self-declared "Contributing family workers" in the main job who take decisions on the family business, by sex, location of residence and age group**



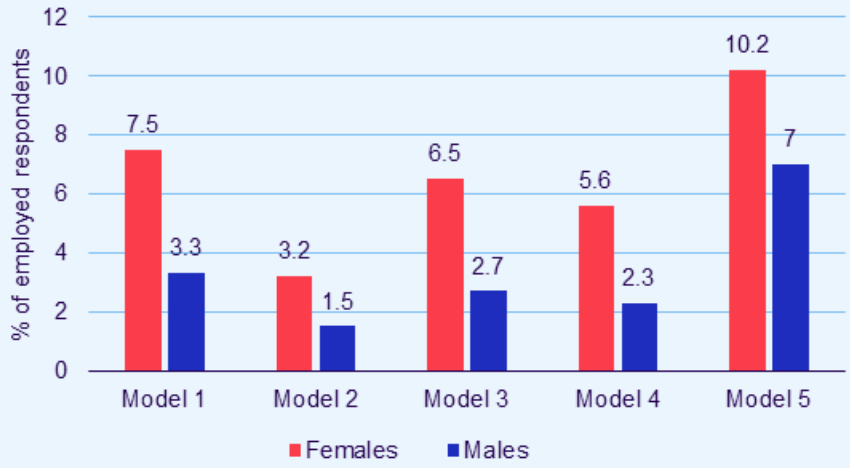
This problem creates a variety of issues. Firstly, as already noted it represents a potential misclassification under ICSE (both 93 and 18). Secondly and related, it can create a false and misleading impression of the role of people in family businesses, disproportionately affecting women and reflecting a wide issue of self-perception as family helpers. The summary lesson learned is that proper classification of work by status in employment requires us to look beyond traditional single questions based on self-perception and at least in the case of CFW add a question on decision making role. This conclusion has been reflected in published ILO model LFS questionnaires, which include one question of this type (see ILO LFS Resources at https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/lfs-resources/). The results of the pilot studies suggest the numbers of people involved could be substantial, but this was found to vary across the pilot countries. It's feasible that the impact would be much lower in other settings and this can only be revealed through inclusion of questions on decision making on a wider scale.

A second related issue was also highlighted through the pilot studies. In addition to the risk of misclassification of their status in employment, there is a risk that these types of workers may not be captured as employed at all, without appropriate questionnaire design. As illustrated in the published findings from the pilot studies (see: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/--stat/documents/publication/wcms_635732.pdf), dedicated 'recovery' questions directly targeting people helping in family businesses were found to be important to ensure comprehensive coverage of this group. The proposed wording of this question in published model questionnaires is:

"Last week, did (you/NAME) help in a family business or farm?"

As shown in **Figure 9** this was even more important, in terms of comprehensive coverage of employment, for women than men. Taking model questionnaire 3 as an example, over 6% of all employed female respondents were 'recovered' by this question, compared with about 3% of employed males. It was even more important for some of the other model questionnaires used (for example capturing 10% of employed females for model questionnaire 5).

Figure 9. Proportion of employed respondents captured by 'family helper' recovery question, by model questionnaire and sex



This possibly reflects a mix of issues, including the fact that this type of work was more prevalent among female respondents, but also that females were relatively less likely to report this type of work when asked typical starting LFS questions about work for pay or profit, or other similar wordings, as they did not perceive the work in this way.

The summary message we can take from these findings is that appropriate question design is critical to ensure both that CFWs are captured as employed in the first place, and subsequently to ensure that their status in employment is appropriately classified for analytical purposes.

2.2 Own-use production of goods (OPWg)

We have already seen from **Figure 4** that approximately fifty percent of respondents of working age were engaged in own-use production of goods (OPWg), either as their only type of working activity or in combination with others. Participation of women was slightly higher than men at the overall level (about 2pps). Participation in OPWg was much higher among respondents in rural areas where it was around 64% for both women and men, about double the proportion observed among respondents in urban areas (see **Table 5** in the annex). Participation in OPWg increased with age at least for respondents up to 64 years old.

In this section we look in more detail at those who were engaged in OPWg and which specific activity they did among those covered in the questionnaire.

The critical point to bear in mind when looking at this data is that, under the previous standards, this type of work (along with OPWs as discussed later) was not separately recognized. In some countries part of this work was being captured within employment, but not in others leading to comparability and interpretation difficulties across countries. Within the new framework, this work is separately defined and promoted for measurement. The new framework also recognizes that people can be both employed and doing OPWg or OPWs in the same reference period, allowing a total work burden across different forms of

work to be estimated. None of this was supported under the previous standards. As with other parts of the report, this data should be viewed as an illustration of the type of valuable information that can be generated when the new standards are applied.

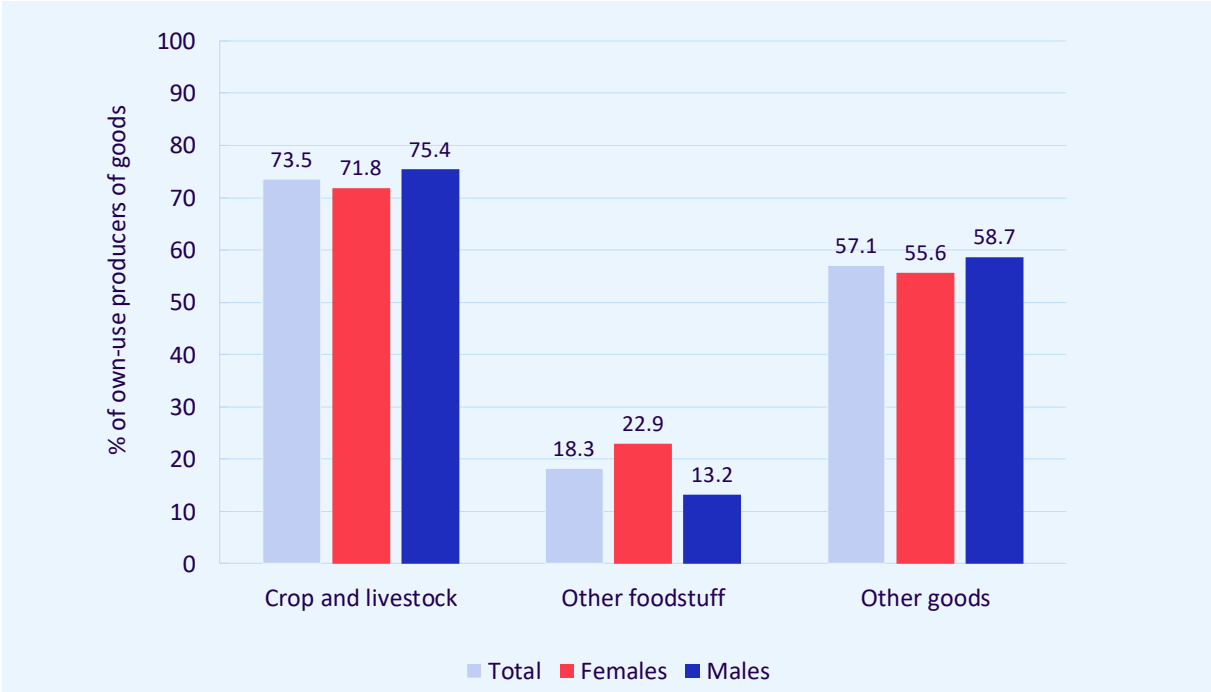
Figure 10 shows that *crop farming and livestock rearing* was the most common OPWg activity, being reported by 73.5% of the respondents who did any OPWg during the reference week.

For both male and female respondents who worked in own-use production of goods, *crop farming and livestock rearing* was the most common activity (75.4% and 71.8% respectively). These proportions increased with age for respondents of both sexes (see **Table 5** in the annex).

The next most common OPWg activity was the production of other non-foodstuff goods (for example making furniture or clothes for own use, collecting water or fuels (58.7% for males and 55.6% for females respectively). However, while engagement in this type of activity was relatively stable across age groups for male respondents, it decreased for females (e.g. 62.4% of 15-24 year old female respondents compared with 49.3% of females aged 65+).

Participation in "production of other foodstuff and processing for storage" was much lower than the other OPWg activities, and women's participation was generally higher than men's (13.2% for males and 22.9% for females).

▶ **Figure 10. Share of respondents engaged in own-use production of goods, by type of activity and sex**



Note: The category "Other goods" includes: fetching water, collecting firewood, own construction and production. The category "Other foodstuff" includes: fishing, hunting, gathering and processing food for preservation.

Another interpretation we can arrive at is that it was not unusual for people to be engaged in the production of multiple different types of goods for family or household consumption, for example gathering firewood, farming, making clothing for the family etc. This can be seen by the fact that the sum across the activities is greater than 100% for both male and female respondents. Applying the standards would therefore allow more in-depth analysis of the different combinations of activities people engage in, and how this differs across population sub-groups.

2.3 Own-use provision of services (OPWs)

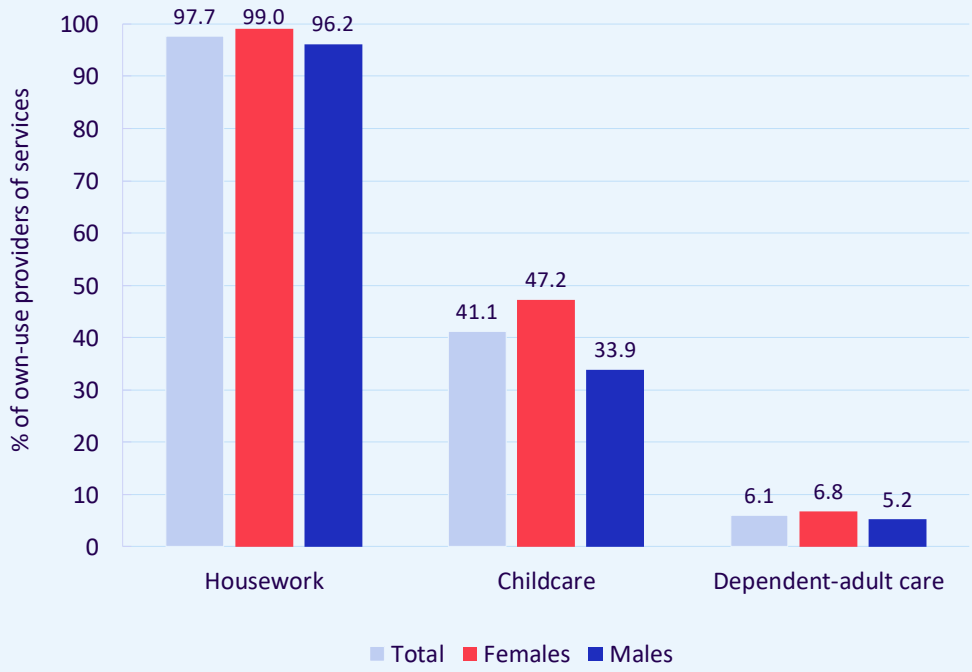
Participation in own-use provision of services (OPWs), either as the only type of working activity or in combination with others, was very high for respondents of both sexes (87.6% of all respondents – see **Figure 4**), both youth and adults, and in rural and urban areas. This high level of participation is expected given the activities covered such as cleaning, cooking, caring for children, and other very commonly performed unpaid household services. Nonetheless, the gender gaps observed are notable. Among female respondents, 92.9% reported engaging in this type of work, about 10pps more than male respondents. There remained a gap between female and male participation among all groups but it was greatest among respondents in urban areas and those aged 15-24 (see **Table 6** in the annex).

Figure 11 shows the share of own-use providers of services engaged in the different OPWs activities. This tells us which activities were most common among those respondents who did any OPWs activity (94% of all respondents). Men and women had very similar participation rates in housework[10] (96.2% and 99% respectively) and care of dependent adults (5.2% and 6.8%). These rates remain quite stable across subgroups (see **Table 6** in the annex). The very high participation rates observed for housework illustrate the very wide scope of the activities involved such that over the period of a week almost all respondents are likely to have engaged in some activity, thus requiring information on time spent in these activities to undertake a more meaningful analysis, in particular to understand gender gaps (discussed further in **Section 4** below).

A more substantial gender gap was noted in the case of childcare (33.9% of male respondents versus 47.2% of female respondents). Both the proportion of people engaged in childcare, and the gap between males and females, reach the maximum for the age-group 25-44, with, 68.1% of all female respondents in that age group reporting having performed childcare activities compared with 48.4% of male respondents.

[10] The category "Housework" presented in **Figure 11** includes a wide range of unpaid domestic services covered by the pilot study questionnaires such as: preparing meals, cleaning, managing the household finances, arranging services, buying goods and transporting them, recycling and managing household waste, minor household maintenance and decorating, and gardening.

▶ **Figure 11. Share of respondents engaged in own-use provision of services, by type of activity and sex**



Note: The category "Housework" includes a wide range of unpaid domestic services covered by the pilot study questionnaires such as: preparing meals, cleaning, managing the household finances, arranging services, buying goods and transporting them, recycling and managing household waste, minor household maintenance and decorating, and gardening

2.4 Summary - Measurement of employment and own-use production work

The 19th ICLS standards advance us from a framework that defined employment as the only form of work, to a wider framework with a broad concept of work, and definitions of different forms of work. Improving the gender relevance of statistics was a key motivator behind this change. Data from the ILO pilot studies highlight the useful range of analysis that can be generated when the new standards are applied, the majority of which was not possible under the old framework, for example work done to produce goods or provide services for the household, including childcare, housework etc.

Moreover, the pilot study work made clear that in addition to the application of the latest standards, good measurement practices are needed to provide the robust evidence required to support the more comprehensive and gender relevant analysis now enabled.

Among the key messages that can be drawn from the types of analysis highlighted in **section 2** are:

- Nearly all respondents were engaged in some form of work. A higher proportion of men than women were engaged in employment, while a higher proportion of women were engaged in own-use provision of services, childcare in particular.

- The data highlight the value of incorporating additional variables into the analysis such as status in employment, along with many others not highlighted in this note such as informality, occupation, industry etc. Interesting differences between male and female employment can be highlighted by application of the latest standards and classifications. For example women are more likely than men to be engage in work without pay in family businesses (CFWs), with this status persisting for longer among women than men.

- Several important methodological issues were also highlighted. These include the need for targeted questions to ensure employment is fully captured and properly classified, with even greater impact on estimates on women's employment than men's.

3 Simultaneous participation in different forms of work

While the **previous section** focused on participation in different forms of work, itself a major advancement from statistics produced under the 1982 standards, an important innovation of the new standards is the recognition that people can be engaged in multiple productive activities in a single reference period. Among other things, this enables a comparison of total working burden, including all working activities, not just employment. This type of analysis typically (and also in the pilot studies) shows that men on average work longer hours in employment than women, but this is reversed when unpaid working activities are added in. While this finding has been highlighted before[11], the data to support it have been difficult to compile, drawing across multiple sources, having to account for various data gaps and methodological differences.

Furthermore, within the conceptual framework of the 1982 standards the concepts did not exist to enable such an analysis, requiring bespoke analytical work to be done without a clear internationally agreed set of definitions to refer to. One aspiration underlying the introduction of the new standards is to mainstream collection and publication of this type of information, at some frequency, applying consistent definitions, making analysis and interpretation of this type far easier in the future.

One starting point to understand the full scale of work done by women and men, is to look at the proportion of people of working age participating exclusively in only one form of work, or simultaneously in more than one. As throughout the report own-use production work is separated between own-use production of goods and own-use provision of services to better highlight gender gaps.

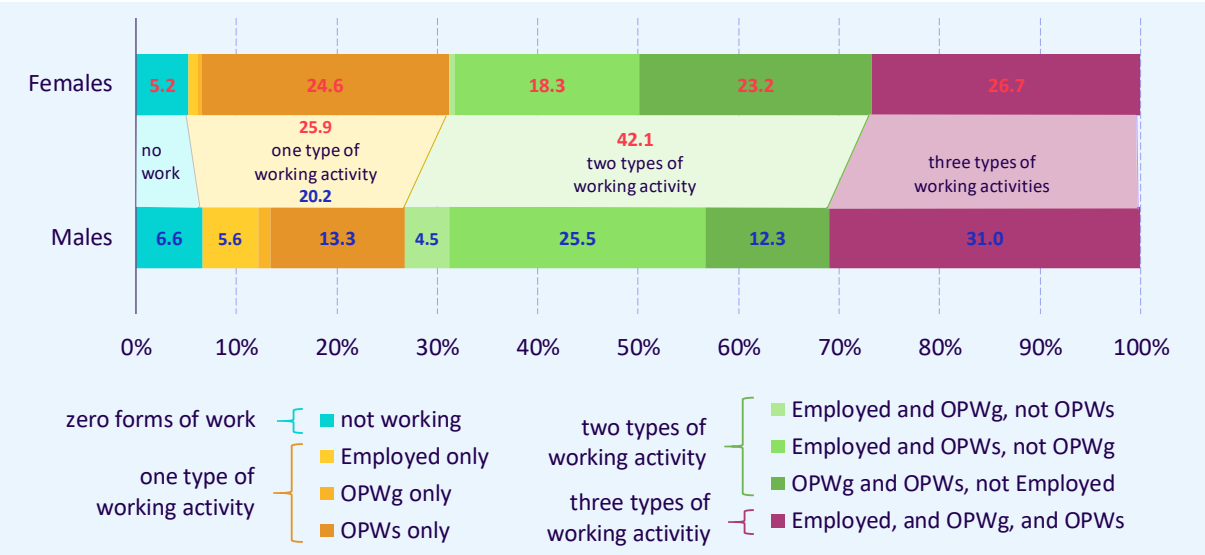
[11] See for example page 42: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_732791.pdf

A first point to note is that the most common situation reported by respondents was engagement in multiple forms of work in the reference period (71% of all respondents doing 2 or 3 of the types of work, see **Table 7** in the annex). This was true for all subgroups of the population, albeit with different combinations being more common depending on the subgroup. This is already a useful finding which was not supported under the 1982 standards.

Almost three out of ten respondents (28.8%) reported engagement in all the three types of working activity (employment, OPWg and OPWs) during the reference week. The percentage of male respondents in this situation, was higher than for women (31.0% vs 26.7%, see **Figure 12**) and this gender gap was largest in rural areas (40.4% vs 34.1%), and for the age group 45-64 (38.8% vs 32.3%), see **Table 7** in the annex. This difference can primarily be accounted for by the higher proportion of male respondents in employment.

The expansion of the analytical focus to multiple forms of work inevitably adds some complexity to the analysis. The messages from data such as those presented in **Figure 12** and **Table 4** in the annex may not be immediately clear, but do emerge when assessed closely. For example, taking the data presented in **Figure 12**, we see that a reasonable proportion of both women and men were doing one form of work (25.9% of female respondents as compared with 20.2% of males). While this does not seem like a substantial difference, closer review shows that the women in this situation were almost entirely doing OPWs (unpaid household care and domestic work), while males were relatively more likely to have employment as their only type of working activity (5.6%). Similarly, for those doing two of the types of work (42.1% of females and 42.3% of males), it was more common for males that employment was one of the types of work (for example 25.5% of males engaged in employment and OPWs), while for females this more frequently only involved unpaid working activities (23.2% doing both OPWg and OPWs). This highlights the clear difference in the balance of paid and unpaid working activities between males and females as illustrated further in **Section 4**.

▶ **Figure 12. Engagement in different types of working activity, by sex**

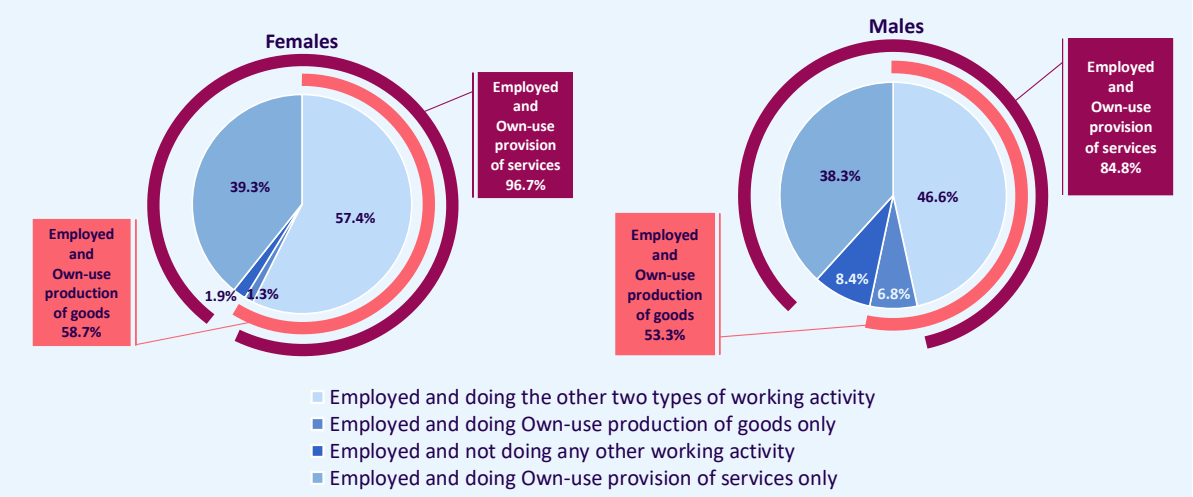


Another important point which emerges from analysis of different combinations of forms of work is the relatively greater prevalence of unpaid own-use production work among women, whether or not they are also employed.

Taking the example of those in employment, **Figure 13** shows us that:

- only 1.9% of female respondents in employment did not engage in OPWg or OPWs compared with 8.4% of male respondents in employment;
- over half of female respondents in employment were engaged in all three types of working activity (57.4%) and this was less common among employed male respondents (46.6%); and
- almost all females in employment were also engaged in OPWs (96.7%), as compared with 84.8% of males.

▶ **Figure 13. Engagement in own-use production work (goods and/or services) of respondents in employment, by sex**

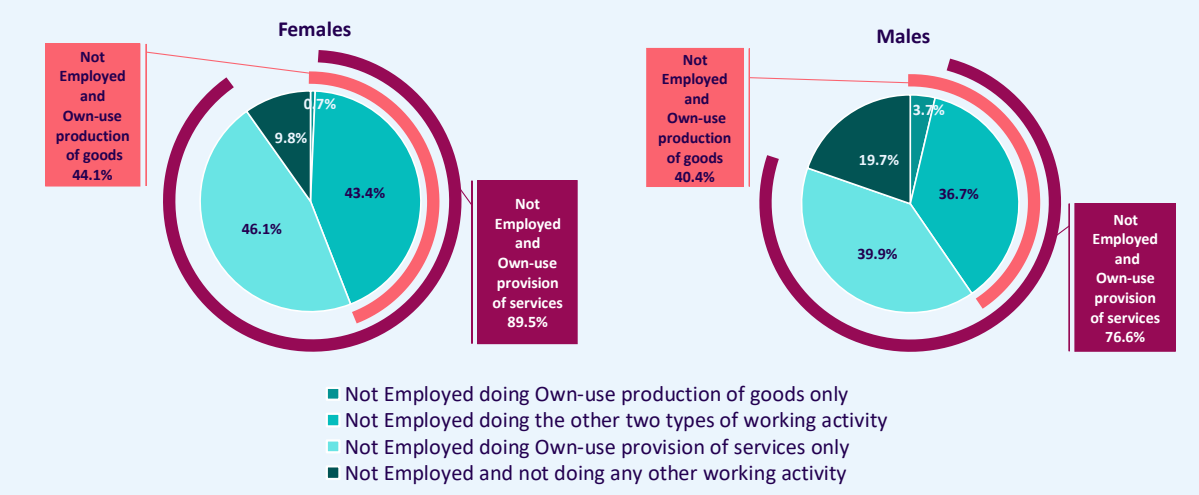


For those not employed (see **Figure 14**) we can see that a higher proportion of females than males:

- were engaged in the other two types of work (OPWs and OPWg) during the reference week (43.4% vs. 36.7%); and
- were engaged in OPWs (89.5% vs. 76.6%), whether or not also engaged in OPWg.

Moreover, while about one in ten women not in employment (9.8%) did not engage in either of the other two types of working activity; this was approximately half the proportion observed for men (19.7%).

▶ **Figure 14. Engagement in own-use production work (OPWs and/or OPWs) of respondents not in employment, by sex**



In summary, simultaneous performance of working activities was commonly reported by respondents to the studies (71% doing 2 or 3 of the types of working activity covered), but for females the balance of activities was more heavily weighted to unpaid working activities than males. This highlights one key development related to the new standards. Under previous standards from 1982, this was not visible, given the exclusive focus on employment. The analysis this enables is of very high gender relevance, highlighting important differences in working activities between men and women, which vary across age groups and between urban and rural areas (see **Table 7** in the annex).

The analysis presented here is a relatively short overview of the type of data that can be generated when the different activities are measured. However, while the new standards make this analysis possible, this is potential will only be realized if appropriate questions are included in questionnaires to cover the different forms of work.

4 Working time of women and men

While the report so far has focused on levels of participation in different forms of work, this only gives a partial picture of the total work burden. A large number of women in many countries around the world are only able to work short hours in employment given their family responsibilities. Conversely, long hours spent in employment can limit time available to dedicate to unpaid work. To understand these types of interactions we need to look beyond the statistics on participation rates and consider working time in the different forms of work, and by extension total working time.

An important point in analyzing the data on hours worked from the studies is that this is a topic known to be difficult for respondents and very sensitive to the questions asked. While several lessons were learned through the studies, one of particular note was that reporting was found to be particularly difficult for some activities, notably childcare, highlighting the need for good approaches to the measurement of time-use. This methodological challenge is discussed further in **Box 2** and will be the subject of follow-up studies by the ILO.

In addition, there is a new analytical complexity created for the analysis of working time due to the recognition of multiple forms of work. Under the old standards all analysis centred on working time in employment. This made analysis relatively straightforward, as all averages were based on persons in employment. The addition of multiple other forms of work means we now have a situation where different people are doing different forms of work. As a consequence we need to be very clear what reference group we are looking at when calculating an average. For example, we could use the whole working age population, those doing any form of work, those only doing individual forms of work etc. This is being highlighted in this report as any user of the data should be clear on the reference population being used to ensure their analysis and interpretation is valid. This issue is also discussed further in **Box 2**.

The remainder of this section presents the data collected through the pilot studies, with the caveat that figures and indicators proposed could be affected by the types of measurement errors outlined in **Box 2**. Nonetheless the indicators are illustrative of the high value data which can be generated when the standards are applied. The analysis starts with total working time across forms of work (given that this is the most prominent departure from the previous standards), and then looks at working time in each form of work.

4.1 Total working time of women and men

Traditionally, working time analysis has focused on employment only. While this remains a key topic under the new standards, we are now able to take a wider view and look at total work burden across different forms of work defined in the standards, three of which were covered in the pilot studies.

Figure 15 shows the total number of hours workers reported across the three types of working activity, presented in bands. Overall, 35.6% of working respondents spent up to 39 hours in the reference week, with little difference observed between men and women (36.3% vs. 35%).

33.8% of women

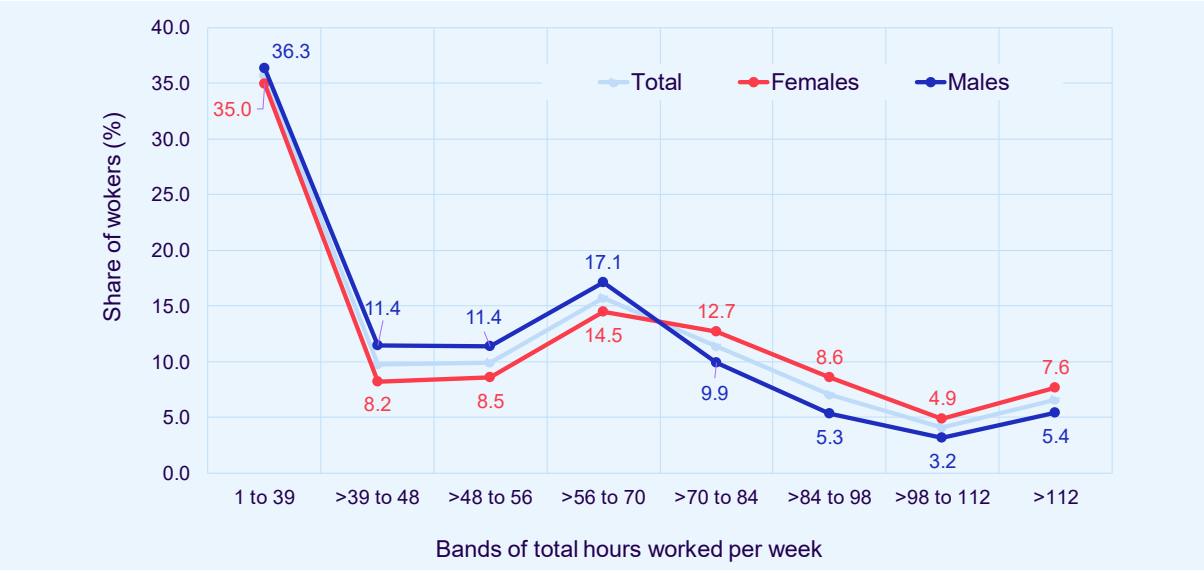
who reported at least one of the three types of work, worked more than 70 hours in the reference week (more than 10 hours per day)

23.8% of men

The proportion of female respondents working long hours during the reference week was generally higher than men. Over one third of female working respondents (33.8%) worked over 70 hours per week (more than 10 hours per day) across the different forms of work, compared with less than one-quarter (23.8%) of working male respondents.

A small group of workers (6.6% overall) reported in excess of 112 hours worked across the forms of work, corresponding to more than 16 hours worked per day on average (see **Table 10** in the annex). As expected, this was reported more frequently by women (7.6%) than men (5.4%).

▶ **Figure 15. Average total weekly working time (across employment, OPWg and OPWs), by working time band and sex**



▶ Box 2. Methodological issues related to measurement of working time in labour force surveys

Challenges with the measurement of working time

The measurement of working time is a long recognized challenge for household surveys. The pilot studies included questions on time spent performing the different forms of work. A range of important lessons have been learned from the tests completed.

One lesson is that stylized questions (asking respondents to recall the time spent over a period of a week or 7 days) were observed to be particularly problematic for more routine activities where the start and end point were less clear than others, or activities which could be undertaken simultaneously with others, childcare being a good example of both types of issue.

An additional issue observed was that, as generally observed with household surveys, the reporting of working time is more difficult for longer reference periods. This had been particularly observed for OPWg where a 4 week period was initially used during cognitive testing, which caused substantial reporting difficulties leading, to a 1 week reference period being incorporated for the field testing phase of the work.

Notwithstanding the improvements made between the cognitive and field testing stages of the studies, reporting difficulties continued to be observed during the field testing stage particularly for more routine activities as already mentioned. The evidence of this was seen in the presence of implausibly high reported working hours when hours were summed across the different forms of work (in some cases even in excess of 168 hours in a week). To avoid a disproportionate impact on the average hours generated for analysis the dataset was trimmed to remove values with total working time greater than 112 hours per week.

Further methodological development work is required to improve measurement approaches and a particular area of interest for the ILO in this regard is the possibility to integrate good measurement practices on a modular basis into the LFS, and thus enable reporting of time spent working across different activities on a coherent basis. This will require some comparative studies of different time-use measurement approaches, and the ILO is commencing a project with this objective in 2020.

Challenges with the analysis of working time data

Users of data on working time do not typically have to concern themselves majorly with how averages have been calculated. For example when analyzing data on working time in employment, the situation is relatively straightforward. Averages are presented based on all persons in employment. This makes interpretation relatively clear.

Similarly, when data from other sources such as time-use surveys are analyzed, the reference for the analysis is generally relatively clear and consistent, e.g. the average amount of time spent by all people in a 24 hour period on different activities.

The analysis of working time across different forms of work, as enabled under the new standards, creates some additional complexity and requires some decisions to be made as to how averages are calculated. These decisions will determine how the averages can be interpreted.

A common approach is to estimate averages only among those who perform the activity and this is what is typically done when analyzing working time in employment.

Another possibility would be to use the full working age population. With multiple forms of work it also becomes possible to use as reference those who performed any type of work.

Each of these different approaches will essentially answer different questions, for example:

Averaging just based on those who did an activity answers questions like: “Do employed men or women work longer hours in their jobs?”, or “In which sector of the economy do people work the highest hours

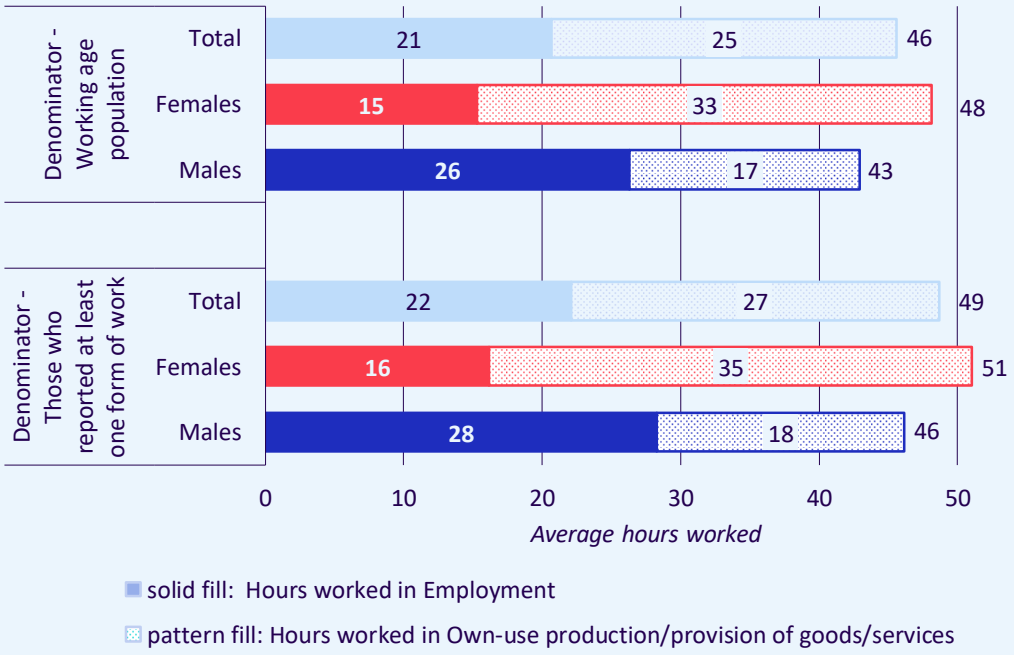
on average?", or "Among those who do childcare, which age group does the most hours?", and many other similar questions

If we use the full population we instead answer questions like "Do women or men work more hours overall on average?", or "Which age group spends most time working overall?". This type of averaging is not typical in labour market analysis as it includes those who worked no hours, making averages lower and mixing issues of differences in participation level and differences in intensity of work.

The new standards enable a third approach, namely to use as a reference point those who did any form of work. This will answer questions like "Among those who did any work, what were the average working hours and how did this differ across groups?" This is useful for analysis and comparison of total work burden. This is the approach reflected in **Figure 15.**

Figure 16 illustrates alternative approaches to calculate average hours worked in total across the three forms of work covered by the pilot studies. Using the full working age population the average hours worked were 46, with a gender gap of 5 hours between females (48 hours) and males (43 hours). If we limit the reference population only to those who performed at least one form of work the average rises to 49 hours but the same gap between females and males remains.

▶ **Figure 16. Average time spent on working activities in the reference week by form of work, sex and type of denominator**



One of the implications of using different denominators for averages is that the averages will not be additive across different forms of work. In other words you would not be able to sum average time spent in employment with average time spent in own-use production work if different denominators were used. As such the intended use of the data has to be considered when calculating averages, and the calculation approach needs to be considered when analyzing and interpreting the data.

4.2 Total working time across forms of work

One of the key advancements of the standards already discussed is the ability to measure multiple working activities in the same reference period. Here we highlight a set of the stylized facts that can be generated by analyzing the working time data generated for those engaged in more than one form of work. As discussed in **Box 2**, the many possible combinations between the forms of work, and the huge proportion of men and women engaged in own-use production, makes the analysis of the average hours worked potentially complicated. To gain greater understanding of this, below we focus on simultaneous activities of those in employment first, then of those not in employment.

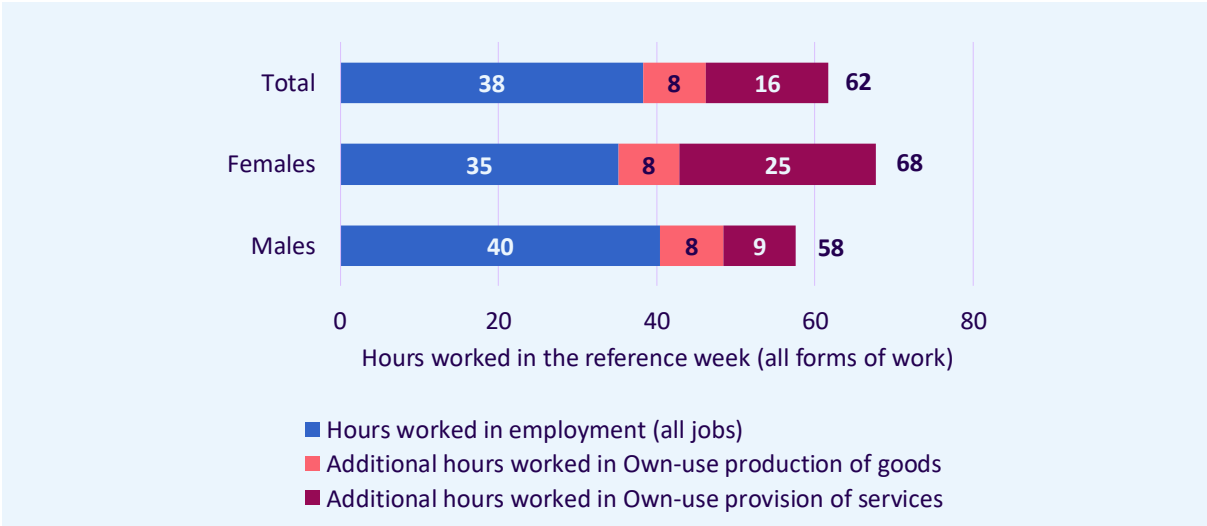
25 hours for women

25 are the additional hours worked in own-use provision of services by women in employment versus the 9 hours worked by men

9 hours for men

In the case of employment, firstly we can see from **Figure 17** that employed women typically spent much longer hours engaged in own-use provision of services (25 hours) than employed males (9 hours) and this pattern was repeated across each status in employment (see **Figure 18**). Employed female respondents reported on average 68 hours across the three forms of work, compared with 58 hours in the case of employed males, while if the analysis was only limited to time in employment males had higher average hours (40 versus 35) (see also **Table 11** in the annex).

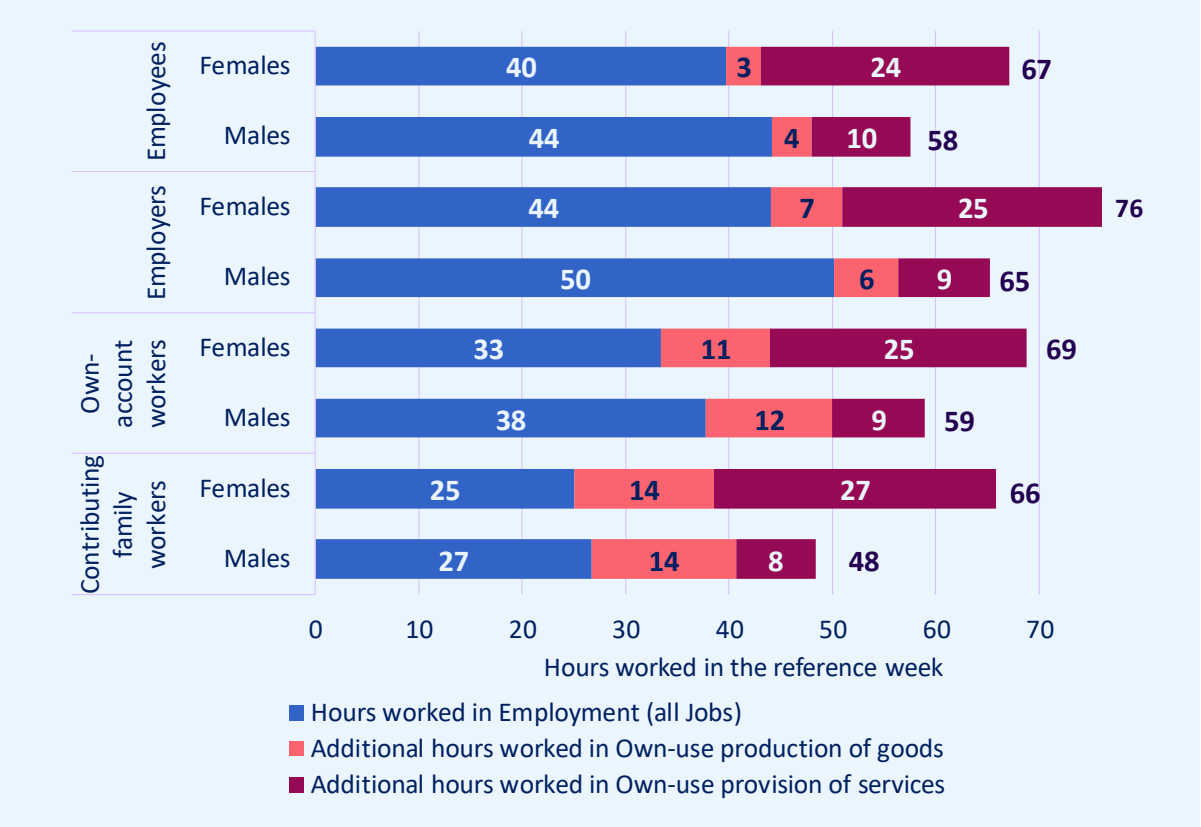
▶ **Figure 17. Average hours actually worked in all jobs by employed males and females, and additional hours worked in own-use production of goods and own-use provision of services**



The highest gender gap in total working time was observed for respondents who were employed as CFWs (see **Figure 18**) with female CFWs working 17 hours on average more than males across the forms of work. One interpretation of this is that women helping in family businesses retain higher unpaid working time than people with other types of employment, possibly due to the lack of recognition of their time working in the family business.

Time spent in OPWs was relatively insensitive to the hours spent in employment. For example if we look at female CFWs they spent 27 hours engaged in the performance of unpaid household service work, even more than their working time in employment (25 hours). However, when we look at female employers, despite working nearly 20 hours more in employment (44 hours) than CFWs, they worked only 2 hours less in OPWs (25 hours). This insensitivity was also seen among male respondents although the number of hours worked in OPWs was substantially less than for females (between 8 and 10 hours depending on the status in employment).

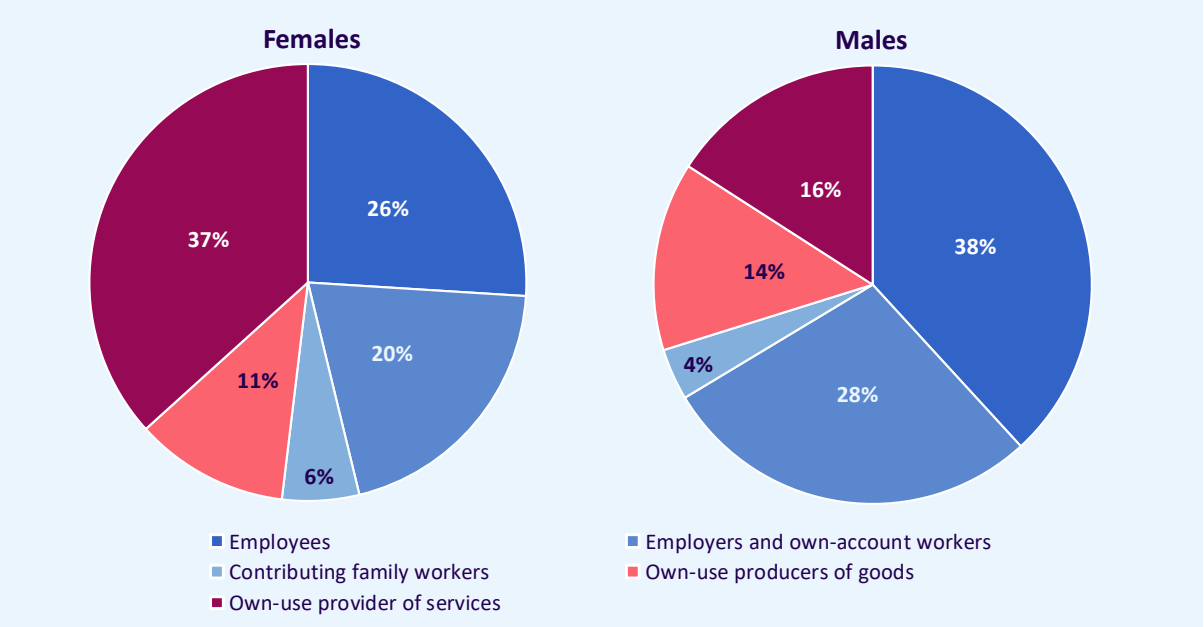
▶ **Figure 18. Average hours actually worked of those in employment, by status in employment, sex and type of working activity**



By contrast, time spent in own-use production of goods appeared to be more heavily influenced by working time in employment than OPWs. Male and female contributing family workers spent on average 14 hours in OPWg, double or more the time spent by employees or employers.

Looking at those employed in a different way, we can see a stark contrast between men and women in the overall split of working time between paid and unpaid work (see **Figure 19**). A far higher proportion of the total working time reported by employed male respondents was done in return for direct payment (either as an employee, employer or own-account worker). This applied to two-thirds (66%) of all working time for employed males. The remaining 34% was split between contributing family work, which is considered employment but not directly paid, (4%), own-use production of goods (14%) and own-use provision of services (16%). By contrast less than half of the work of employed female respondents was done for direct payment (46%) with a much higher proportion of work being done in own-use provision of services in particular (37% of reported working time). These differences reflect both differences in prevalence (e.g. employed males were more likely to be employers than employed females) and intensity (e.g. employed females were likely to retain higher working time in own-use provision of services than employed males). Along with other indicators and analysis this can provide a useful contrast on differences between women and men's work.

▶ **Figure 19. Breakdown of total reported working time of employed respondents by type of working activity, self-reported status in employment and sex**

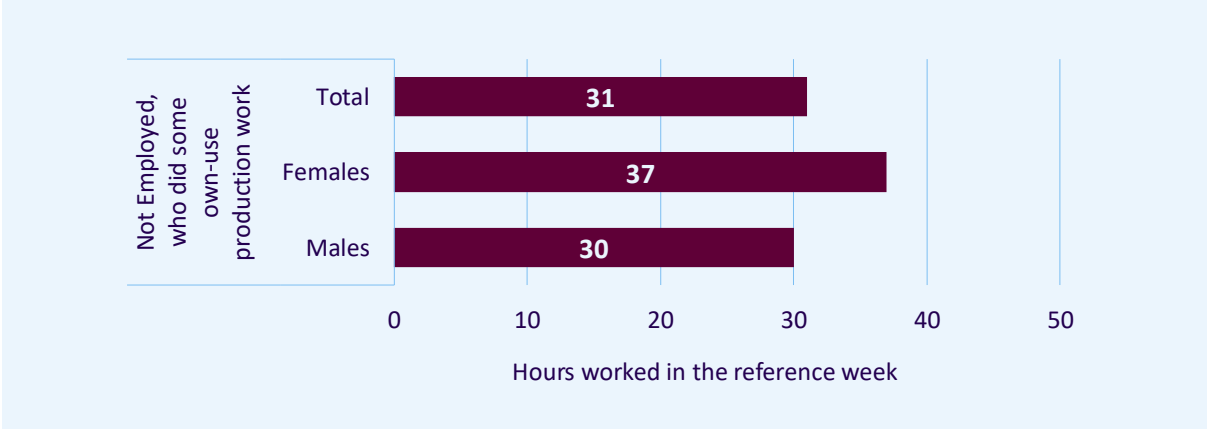


One of the benefits of the new standards is that it also enables a perspective to be gained on the working time of those not in employment (see **Table 13** in the annex). This benefit is shown in the two figures below, and clearly highlights substantial gender gaps.

For example, while the gender gap in total working time between female and male employed respondents was 10 hours (68 hours versus 58 hours), the gap among those not employed who did some own-use production work was even greater (see **Figure 20**), about 37 hours for females versus 20 hours for males corresponding to approximately 2.5 hours per day on average.

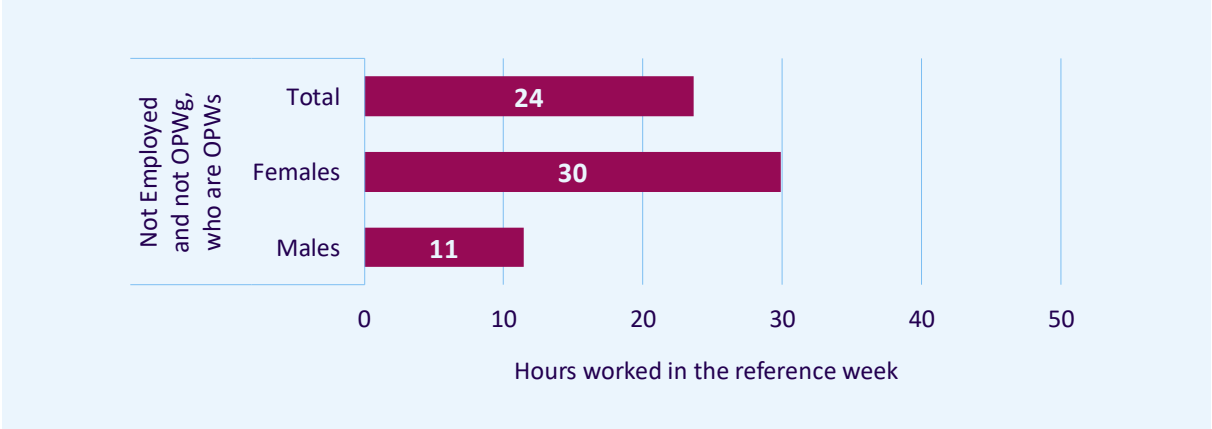
This shows that female respondents on average retained a higher unpaid work burden than males regardless of whether or not they were in employment. Furthermore, the gap was higher among those not employed than among those employed.

▶ **Figure 20. Average hours actually worked in own-use production work (OPWg and OPWs) of those not in employment, by sex**



For the subgroup of those only engaged in own-use provision of services the gender gap becomes even greater with females continuing to work on average 30 hours compared with 11 hours among males (see **Figure 21**).

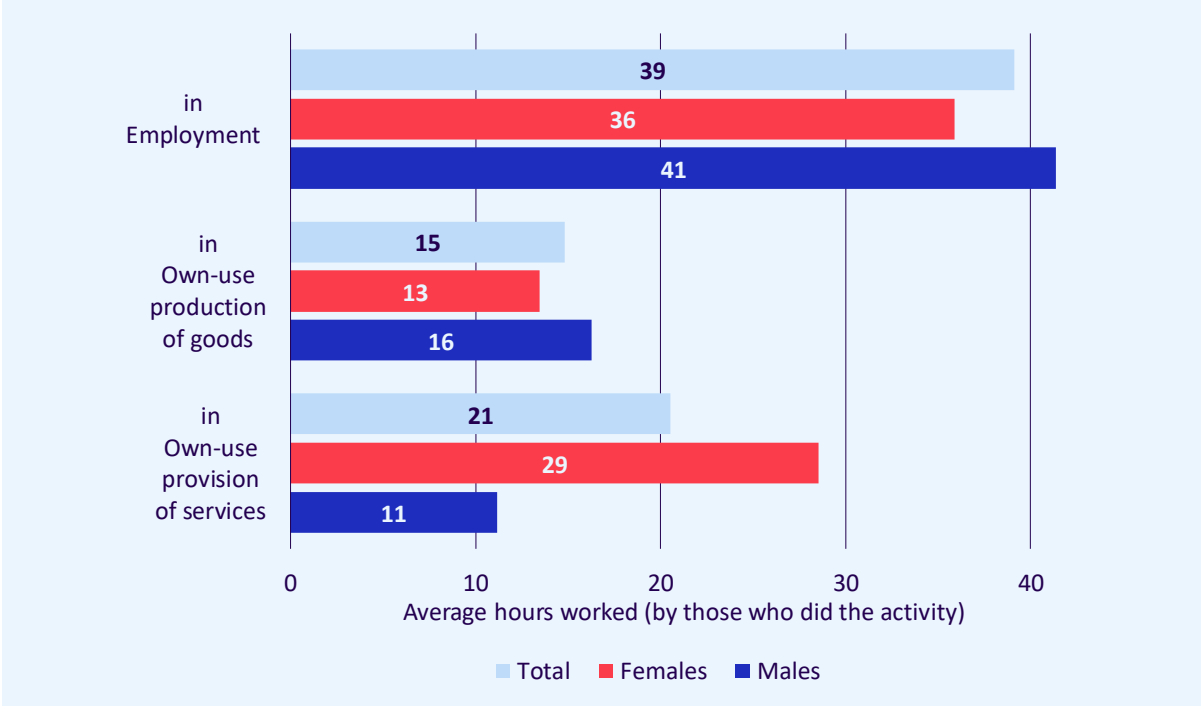
▶ **Figure 21. Average hours actually worked of those only engaged in own-use provision of services, by sex**



4.3 Hours worked by form of work

As discussed in **Box 2** average hours worked can be estimated using different reference groups, typically either those who worked, or a wider group such as the working age population. The interpretation differs depending on the denominator chosen. One common approach is to estimate averages just with respect to those who performed the work, for example average hours in employment among those employed. This approach is applied in the following analysis. In this case we are showing how intensive each form of work is for those people who engage in it. A message which can be taken from this is that employment is typically the most 'intensive' form of work (as measured by hours spent). However, among males OPWg is the second most intensive form of work (16 hours), while among females OPWs is the second most intensive form of work, by some distance over OPWg (29 hours versus 13 hours - see **Table 15** in the annex). **Figure 22** below shows the average hours actually worked per week in each of the different forms of work. In line with findings elsewhere (ILO, 2016), the data from the pilot studies showed that male respondents worked higher hours than female respondents in employment (5 hours more, on average). The same pattern was observed in the case of OPWg (3 hours more), but this is reversed by a significant margin for OPWs (18 hours more per week for female respondents). A message which can be taken from this is that employment is typically the most 'intensive' form of work (as measured by hours spent). However, among males OPWg is the second most intensive form of work (16 hours), while among females OPWs is the second most intensive form of work, by some distance over OPWg (29 hours versus 13 hours - see **Table 15** in the annex).

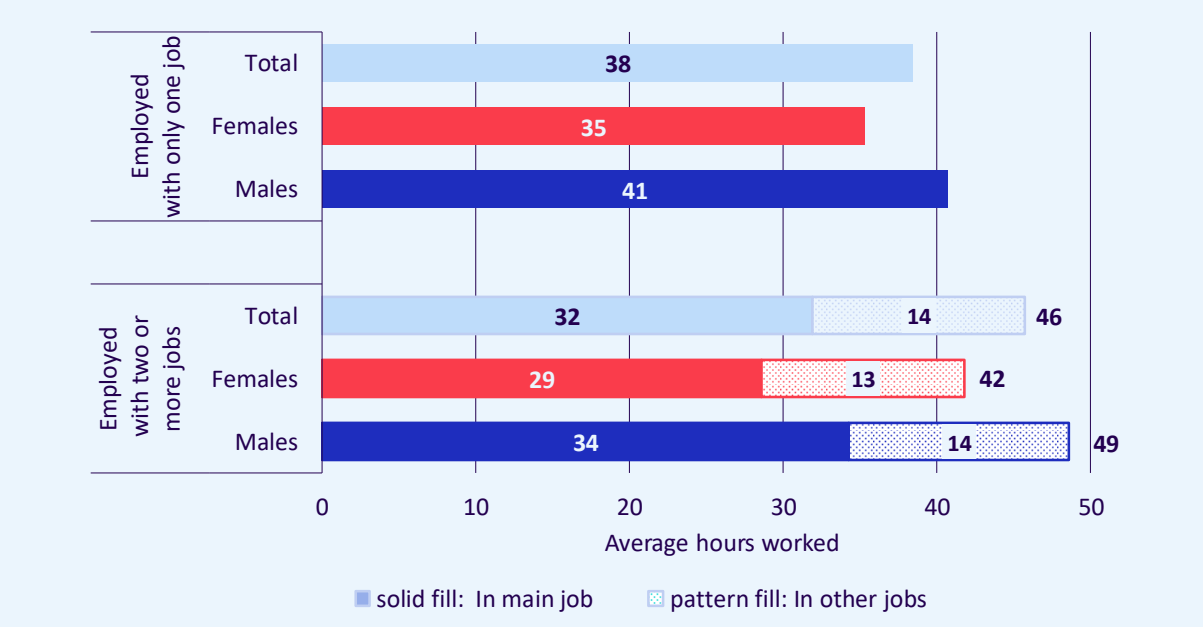
▶ **Figure 22. Average number of hours worked in the reference week among those who engaged in each form of work**



4.3.1 Employment

Looking in more detail at one aspect of employment, in addition to the overall averages shown in **Figure 22**, we can observe that the hours worked in second jobs represented only the 3.3% of the total volume of hours worked among employed respondents (3.2% for males and 3.5% for females). This is due to the fact that a relatively small minority of respondents reported having more than one job or business. However, these second jobs were generally significant for those individuals. In fact, the hours worked in second jobs represented about the 30% of the total hours worked in employment (28.8% for males and 30.9% for females) by respondents with second jobs (see **Figure 23** below and **Table 16** in the annex).

▶ **Figure 23. Hours actually worked in the reference week, by number of jobs and sex**



There was a very clear relationship between status in employment and average hours worked although males worked more hours than females for each status. Employers worked on average the longest hours, followed by employees, own-account workers and contributing family workers. Male employers reported the highest total number of hours worked in employment (50 hours) during the reference week (see **Figure 24**); while female contributing family workers reported the lowest (25 hours).

▶ **Figure 24. Average actual weekly working time in employment, by status in employment and sex**

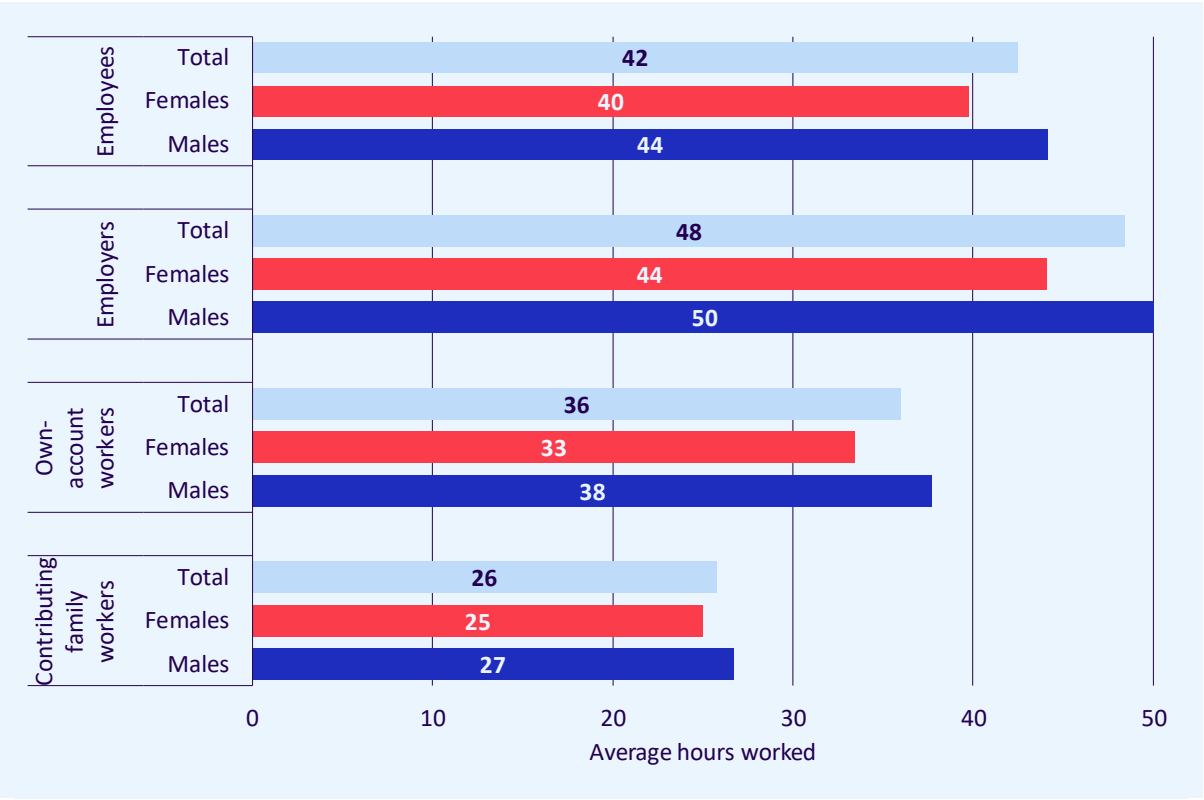
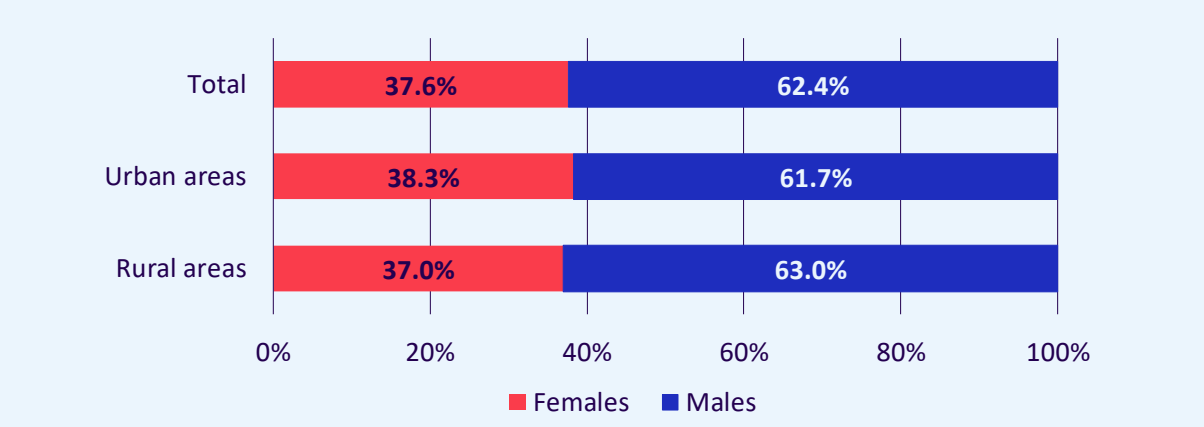


Figure 25 shows an alternative view of working time in employment, in this case looking at how much of the total working time is contributed by men and women. This shows that employed female respondents contributed a bit more than one third of total working time in employment (37.6% overall) and a similar level was seen both in urban (38.3%) and rural areas (37.0%). This reflects the combination of lower participation (20 percentage points lower than men as reported in **Section 2**) and fewer average hours worked in employment (5 hours less than men on average).

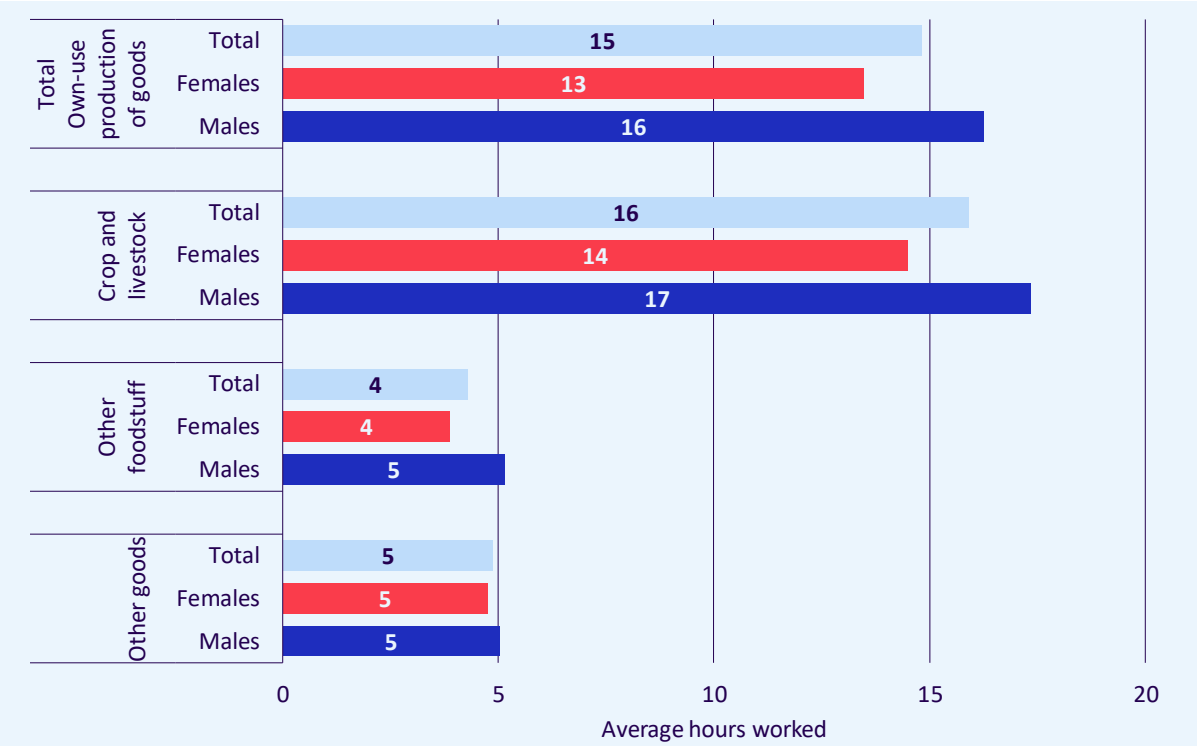
▶ **Figure 25. Shares of the total hours worked in employment by sex, by location of residence**



4.3.2 Own-use production of goods

In the case of own-use production of goods, male respondents doing this type of work reported higher average hours of work than female respondents (16 hours versus 13 hours). Looking at the different activities involved, the longest hours were reported for *crop and livestock farming* while other activities within OPWg were relatively lower intensity, for example both men and women who produced non-foodstuff goods for family consumption spent 5 hours per week on average in this activity (see **Figure 26**) [12]. Among other things, this highlights an important consideration when designing surveys, namely the choice of activities to cover. Working activities undertaken with higher participation and/or greater intensity could be measured more frequently than those with lower average hours worked; this is important to achieve an appropriate balance between respondent burden and coverage of total working time.

▶ **Figure 26. Average number of hours worked in the reference week, by type of OPWg activity and sex**

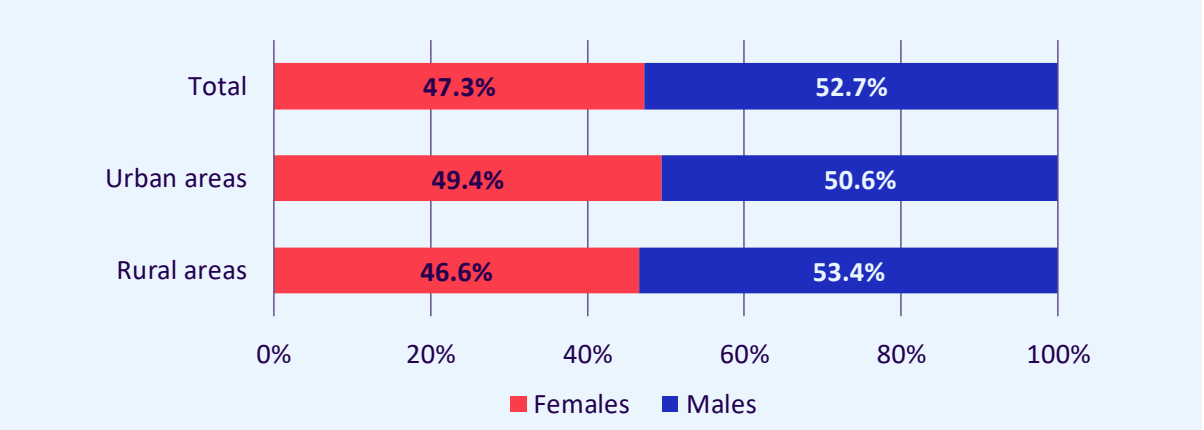


Note: The category "Other goods" includes: fetching water, collecting firewood, own construction and production. The category "Other foodstuff" includes: fishing, hunting, gathering and processing food for preservation. The averages are calculated using as denominator the number of respondents who actually engaged in the specific activity.

[12] In **Figure 26** the averages for all those engaged in OPWg are computed adding the hours worked in the different OPWg activities and dividing by the number of respondents classified in OPWg. However, the averages for the other OPWg activities are computed using only the respondents engaged in such activities. This allows an assessment of intensity for the activity for those who do it, but does not allow the different activities to be summed to an overall average, which would require the same denominator to be used.

Combining the differences between participation (as discussed in **section 2.2**) and average working time in OPWg, the split of total working time in OPWg was relatively even between male and female own-use producers of goods (52.7% male, 47.3% female overall). This was true in both urban and rural areas (see **Figure 27**).

▶ **Figure 27. Shares of the total hours worked in own-use production of goods by sex, by location of residence**



4.3.3 Own-use provision of services

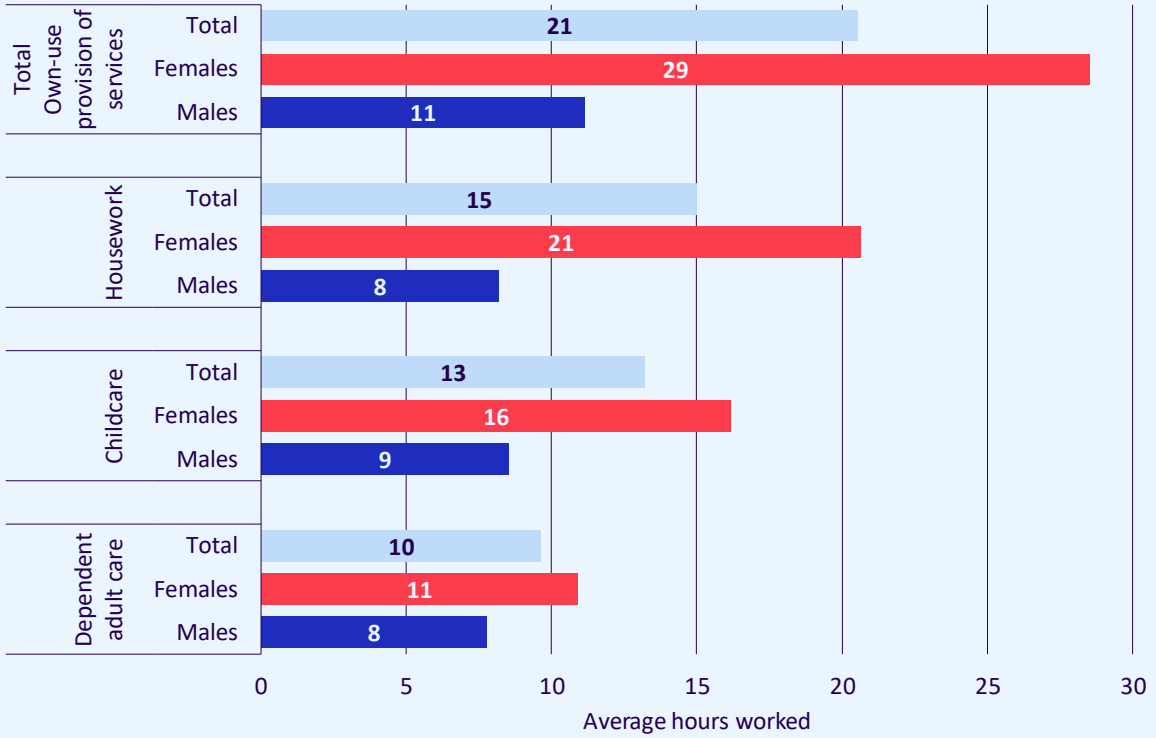
We have already seen in previous sections that a higher proportion of female respondents were engaged in OPWs, (82% of men compared with 93% of women). In addition to a higher participation rate, women reported working substantially higher hours than men in these kinds of work activities.

Overall, women spent 29 hours in OPWs on average during the reference week; compared with 11 hours for male respondents[13] (see **Figure 28**). This gap of about 18 hours was observed both in rural and urban areas. By age group, the gap was greatest (22 hours) for those aged 25-44 years (35 hours for females and 13 hours for males) (see **Table 19** in the annex).

Important differences in the hours worked by female and male respondents were observed for each of the three OPWs activities, i.e. for *housework* (21 vs. 8 hours respectively), for *childcare* (16 vs. 9 hours) and *care for dependent adult*s (11 vs. 8 hours). The hours worked in these activities are fairly stable across sub-groups, except for youth (15-24 years) who had lower rates of participation and spend less time on average (see **Table 19** in the annex for more details).

[13] In **Figure 28** the averages for all those engaged in OPWs are computed adding the hours worked in the different OPWs activities and dividing by the number of respondents classified in OPWs. However, the averages for the other OPWs activities are computed using only the respondents engaged in such activities. This allows an assessment of intensity for the activity for those who do it, but does not allow the different activities to be summed to an overall average, which would require the same denominator to be used.

Figure 28. Average number of hours worked in the reference week, by type of OPWs activity and sex



Note: The category "Housework" includes: managing the household and accounts; buying goods, and transporting them; preparing food, serving meals, recycling, throwing the rubbish; cleaning, maintaining household premises, fixtures, other goods, decorating, gardening; and caring for pets.

Combining the differences in participation (as discussed in **section 2.3**) and average hours worked we find a very substantial difference in overall contribution to unpaid household service work between men and women, with three quarters of all this work being performed by female respondents (75.1%) and this was similar in both urban (75.5%) and rural areas (74.7%) (see **Figure 29**).

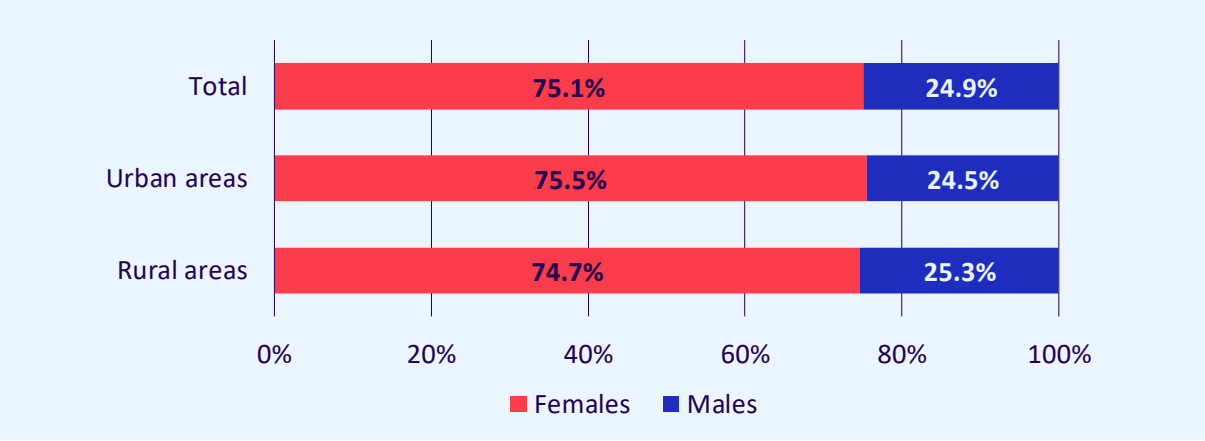
75%

of total time spent in own-use provision of services was performed by women. This was due to higher levels of participation and higher average hours engaged than men

Despite the high level of participation of males in these activities (82% of all male respondents did some of this form of work), males contributed only one quarter of the total hours worked in OPWs due to substantially lower average hours worked.

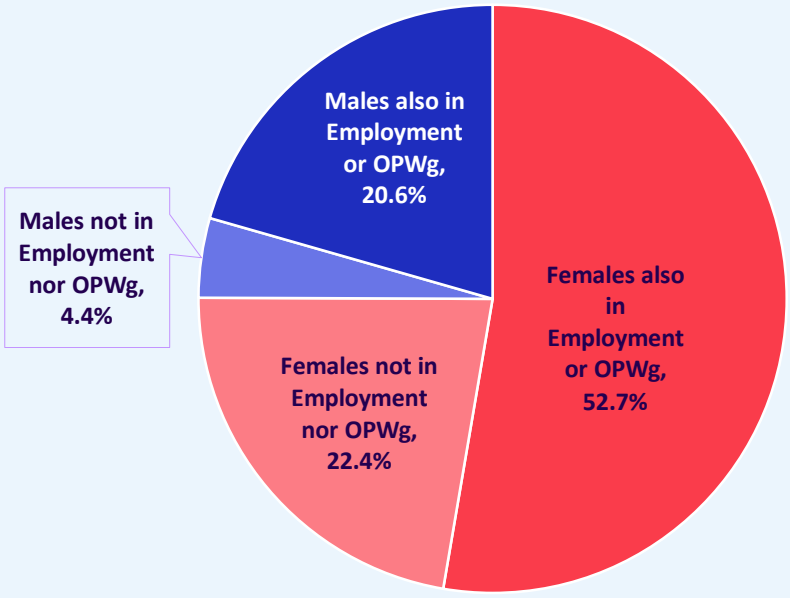
Very similar patterns have been observed in other recent analyses (UN, 2015), (ILO, 2016), (ILO, 2018d) and (UNWomen, 2020).

▶ **Figure 29. Shares of the total hours worked in own-use production of services by sex, by location of residence**



By subdividing this further we can also see the extent to which women are multi-tasking to a greater extent than men. Notably, over half of total time spent in own-use provision of services was performed by women who were also engaged in employment or own-use production of goods (see **Figure 30**).

▶ **Figure 30. Shares of the total hours worked in own-use provision of services by sex and engagement in other forms of work**



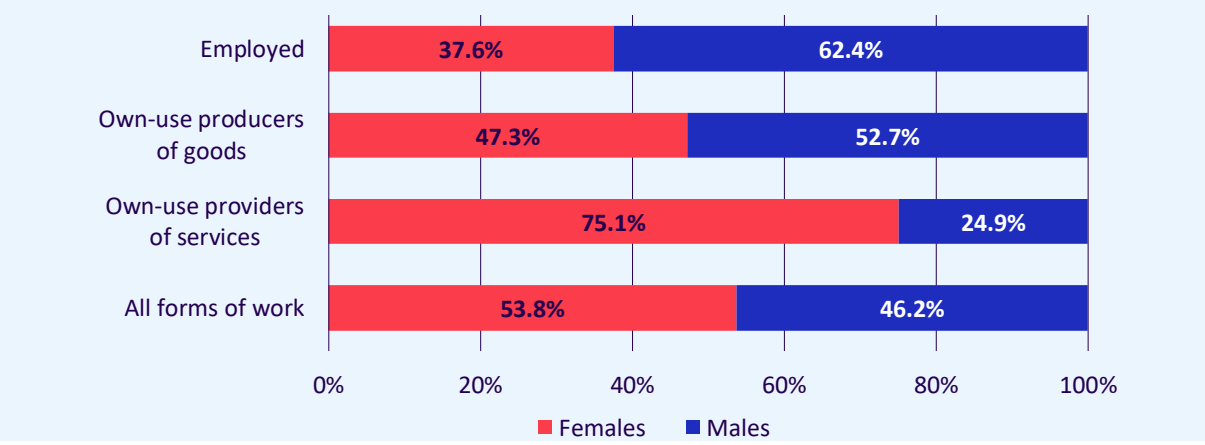
4.4 Summary – working time of women and men

This section has illustrated just some of the incredibly wide range of analysis of working time that can be generated when the 19th ICLS standards are applied, and working time in multiple forms of work is measured. Not all of these indicators will be of interest for regular measurement, reporting or analysis. However, for those undertaking more detailed analysis of gender differences in working activities, there is now a much richer and more gender differentiated framework than offered under old standards or typical analysis.

Among the many indicators presented some of the key analyses highlighted are:

- *Working time across forms of work*: The new standards enable analysis of total working time and time spent in different forms of work. Among respondents to the pilot studies, males spent more time on average in employment, but females spent substantially more time engaged in unpaid household work (OPWs). Overall this meant female respondents had higher total average hours of work.
- Women continued to spend relatively higher hours doing OPWs even when employed, and this did not vary substantially by their status in employment.
- The gap in time spent in OPWs between men and women was relatively consistent whether or not they were employed. Employed females worked 16 hours more in OPWs than employed males (25 hours versus 9 hours), while females without employment worked 17 hours more in OPWs than males without employment (37 hours versus 20 hours).
- When differences in level of participation and average working hours are taken into account male respondents accounted for two thirds of all time spent in employment (see **Figure 31**). For OPWg the split was close to half each between men and women. For OPWs women provided three quarters of all the time worked. Overall across the forms of work this translated to 53.8% of the total working time being performed by female respondents.

Figure 31. Shares of the total hours worked by men and women in the different forms of work



In the **next section** we look at the other key area of development within the 19th ICLS standards, labour underutilization, another topic of high gender relevance, reflecting degree of engagement with the labour market and opening the door to an analysis of barriers to labour market engagement.

5 Labour underutilization, inadequate employment and barriers to labour market engagement

Along with the new forms of work framework, the expansion of labour underutilization measures is the key advancement we can associate with the standards adopted at the 19th ICLS. Two additional components of labour underutilization are defined to supplement unemployment, namely time-related underemployment (TRU) and the potential labour force (PLF). These components, along with unemployment, are combined in the form of the four recommended labour underutilization indicators defined in the standards (LU1 to LU4) (see **Box 3** for more details).

▶ Box 3. Labour underutilization in the 19th ICLS standards

Under the 13th ICLs standards, unemployment was the key measure of labour underutilization. It referred to situations where people were not employed, seeking and available for work. To reflect different country contexts some flexibility was allowed in application, such as the use of a 'relaxed' definition that put aside the requirement to be actively seeking work in settings with limited labour markets. While very useful this measure has been the subject of some criticism, including its inability to fully reflect different situations of mismatch between the volumes of labour people are willing to supply and the paid work they are able to engage in.

The 19th ICLS standards retain unemployment as a core headline measure but more tightly refine the definition to increase consistency of application and comparability. The central elements remain the same, in other words it refers to persons who are without employment, seeking work and available to work. Furthermore the definition of the labour force (employed persons plus unemployed persons) is the same as the previous definition of the economically active, and this remains the denominator for the unemployment rate. However, the reference point for employment is the new definition, which is more narrowly defined, potentially leading to increases in estimates of unemployment and the unemployment rate when the new standards are introduced, depending on the country context and existing measurement practices.

In addition two further components of labour underutilization are defined within the new standards:

- ***Time-related underemployment (TRU)***: This refers to situations where people have part-time employment (working less than a specified hours threshold) but would want and are available to work longer hours in return for more pay
- ***Potential labour force (PLF)***: These are people who are not employed and fulfil one of the other two criteria for unemployment. Namely people seeking but not available for work (unavailable jobseekers) and people available but not seeking work but with a desire to work (available potential jobseekers).
- The standards also provide definitions of four rates, which can be calculated and published as ***labour underutilization indicators***. They comprise different combinations of unemployment, TRU and the PLF (LU1 to LU4) with LU1 being the unemployment rate and LU4 being the widest indicator including all three of the components of labour underutilization.

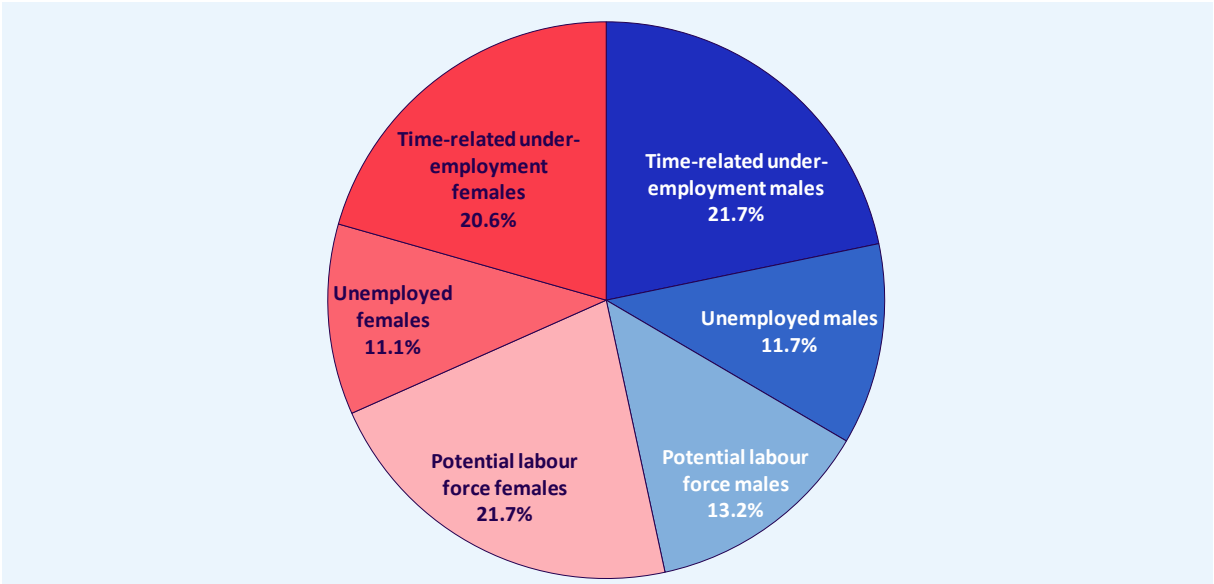
Some countries have been publishing indicators of a similar nature to the LU indicators for many years and those indicators have grown to achieve high prominence alongside the unemployment rate. This is based on a recognition of the analytical value they add, providing as they do a more complete picture of insufficient employment availability than can ever be provided by one single indicator on its own. However, their publication is far from widespread, despite the fact that they can, at least in part, be generated from information already typically included in the LFS. This is also true where the 1982 standards have been applied, however, it must be borne in mind that changes in the definition of employment introduced at the 19th ICLS could generate differences in these indicators when the new standards are introduced.

This section seeks to highlight some of the insights which can be gained from these indicators and the newly defined components of labour underutilization. As with previous sections of the report we must bear in mind that the estimates generated are not based on representative samples of the population and so must be considered illustrative only.

5.1 Unemployment and other labour underutilization indicators

A first point to note is that while unemployment is a very high profile labour force concept, it is often not the largest component of labour underutilization as defined under the 19th ICLS. Among respondents to the pilot studies, the largest component of labour underutilization was persons in TRU, accounting for 42.3% of all persons in situations of labour underutilization, and was almost equally composed of males and females (see **Figure 32**).

▶ **Figure 32. Shares of the total respondents in labour underutilization, by sex and labour underutilization component**

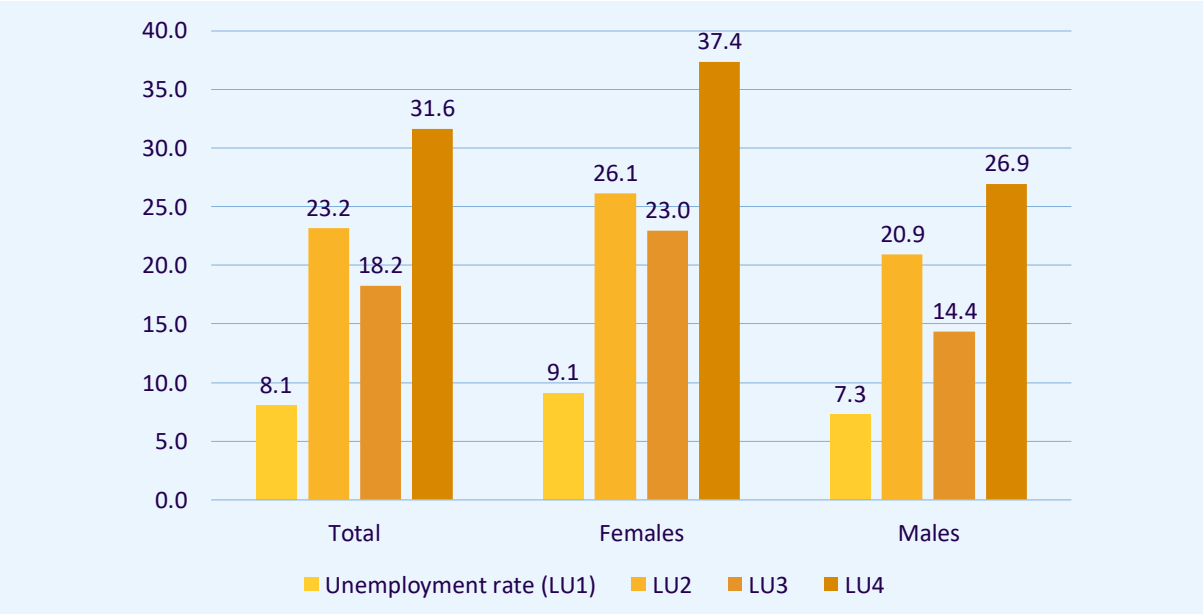


Persons in unemployment represented 22.8% of all those in situations of underutilized labour, and again males and females were almost equally represented. The potential labour force represented 34.9% overall, however in this case there was a notable gender difference, with to close two-thirds of all respondents in the PLF being female, and over one-third being females living in rural areas (see also **Table 22** in the annex).

Converting these components into the LU indicators proposed in the standards requires us to apply the appropriate denominators. For LU1 (the unemployment rate) and LU2 (the combined rate of TRU and unemployment) the denominator is the labour force (employed plus unemployed). For LU3 (combined rate of unemployment and PLF) and LU4 (composite measure of labour underutilization comprising all 3 components) the denominator is the extended labour force (labour force plus PLF). Like all rate calculations, the significance of the denominator is that the lower it is the higher the rate will be if the numerator is the same. This has clear gender relevance as females have lower labour force participation in many settings, meaning they would have higher unemployment rates even if the number of unemployed females was very close to (or the same as) that of males. This is the precise case observed in the data obtained from the pilot studies.

Each LU indicator was higher among female than male respondents. The overall unemployment rate (LU1) among respondents to the pilot studies was 8.1% (see **Figure 33**) with a gender gap of close to 2pps (9.1% for females and 7.3% for males). The gender gap increases to 5.2pps for LU2 (26.1% versus 20.9%). The gender gap in LU3 (combined rate of unemployment and PLF) is 8.6 percentage points (23% among female respondents compared with 14.4% among males). The widest indicator (LU4) which combines unemployment, TRU and PLF had a gender gap among respondents of approximately 10.5pps (37.4% for female respondents versus 26.9% for male respondents) [14].

▶ **Figure 33. Labour underutilization indicators (19th ICLS) by sex**



[14] These are not unusual results. As reported by (ILO, 2020a), the female potential labour force is much larger than the male, and women are more likely to be in time-related underemployment, across all country income groups.

An interpretation we can take from this is that a substantial part of overall labour underutilization (as now defined) is missed when the unemployment rate alone is the focus of analysis. Further, the different components can highlight differences or patterns not visible when only one indicator is referenced, for example, within the pilot studies the PLF was particularly relevant for understanding of labour underutilization among females and gender gaps.

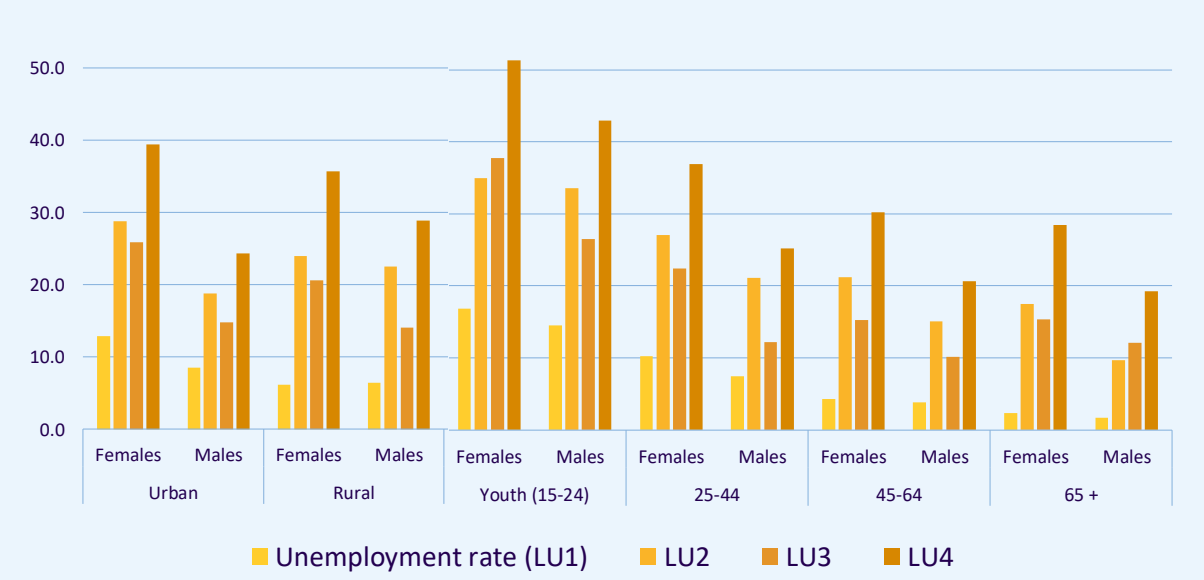
The patterns described above were generally repeated across both urban and rural areas and all age groups (see **Figure 34**) although we can note some additional interesting points including:

- In urban areas the gender gap in the unemployment rate among respondents reached 4pps, while in rural areas, female respondents had a slightly lower unemployment rate than male respondents. The unemployment rate generally decreased with age for both male and female respondents.

- The unemployment rate was higher in urban areas than rural areas for both males and females. This is not untypical and reflects the more active labour market setting in urban areas, enabling a higher level of job-search among those not employed.

- Respondents in the 15-24 age group had substantially higher rates of LU than other age groups with an LU4 rate among female respondents of over 50% and over 40% among males. However, labour underutilization in general remained prevalent among all age groups, and female rates were higher than male rates in all age groups.

Figure 34. Labour underutilization indicators (19th ICLS) by location of residence, age group and sex



5.2 Time related underemployment

Estimates of TRU have been calculated and published by many countries, but not all. As an indicator it has been heavily used analytically to assess situations of inadequate employment in terms of available work hours. Statistical standards were adopted on this topic at the 16th ICLS in 1998, however the 19th ICLS embedded the concept into a wider frame of labour underutilization statistics, hopefully leading to wider availability of statistics on the topic in the future. Below we take a more in-depth look at TRU as captured through the pilot studies.

As already noted, TRU was the largest component of LU recorded among the respondents to the pilot studies. As explained in **Box 3**, TRU is a function of 3 things, namely the hours a person works (not working full-time hours), their desire to work more and their availability to work more.

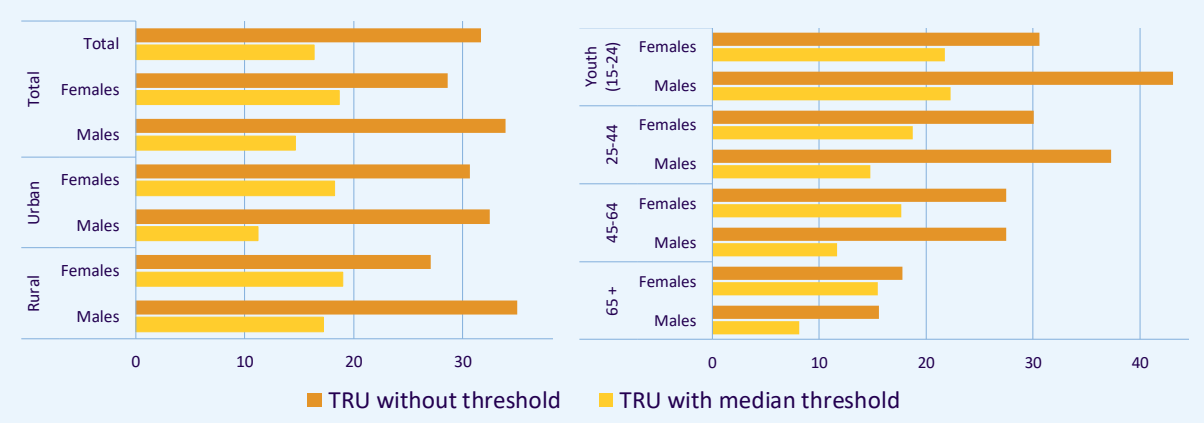
Looking at the hours worked part of TRU we note that both mean and median hours were lower for females than males, both based on usual and actual hours worked in employment. While this fact is in itself important, it also has an influence on the estimation of TRU given that a respondent would only be identified as in TRU if they work less than a specified working time threshold. In other words, all other things being equal, men are less likely to be identified in TRU given that on average they work longer hours in employment than women.

The evidence of this is found in the data presented in **Figure 35**. The brown bars in the graph show the level of TRU which would be recorded among employed respondents if no threshold were applied (i.e. using only the "desire" and "availability" for more hours criteria). The level of TRU identified in this way was higher among males than females across almost all subgroups, the exception being those aged 65+ among which TRU was least prevalent. This suggests that even though employed males were more likely to work longer hours in employment on average (as shown earlier), they also desired additional paid work at a greater frequency than females in employment.

Once an hours threshold is introduced (yellow bar), in line with the definition of TRU from the 19th ICLS standards, the situation by and large reverses and we see larger groups of female than male respondents being identified. This threshold is required to more closely focus on those with limited working time and thus in relatively less adequate employment situations. Overall, 18.7% of employed female respondents were identified as being in TRU as compared with 14.7% of employed males and this pattern repeated across all subgroups, except those aged 15-24 where there were a higher percentage of employed males in TRU.

Higher shares of TRU were found for contributing family workers (26.9% for men and 20.2% for women) than other types of workers (see **Table 23** in the annex). This is unsurprising as by definition CFW are engaged in unpaid work and, as reported earlier, work lower hours on average. Thus the desire to work extra hours for pay is predictably higher. Among the other types of workers (employees, employers and own account workers) TRU was generally more common for female than male respondents.

Figure 35. Time related underemployment (TRU) with and without an hours worked threshold, by location of residence, age group and sex (% of employed)



5.3 Inadequate employment situations and barriers to labour market engagement

The model questionnaires used in the pilot studies included a variety of additional questions relevant to the topic of inadequate employment situations and barriers to labour market engagement. Some of those elements are presented in the reports on the main findings of the pilot studies previously launched by the ILO[15]. The set of questions included on inadequate employment situations was not very detailed and thus would not allow a detailed analysis of the reasons for inadequacy (skills mismatch etc.), nonetheless they give an indication of the scale of inadequate employment situations reported. Some of the relevant questions included:

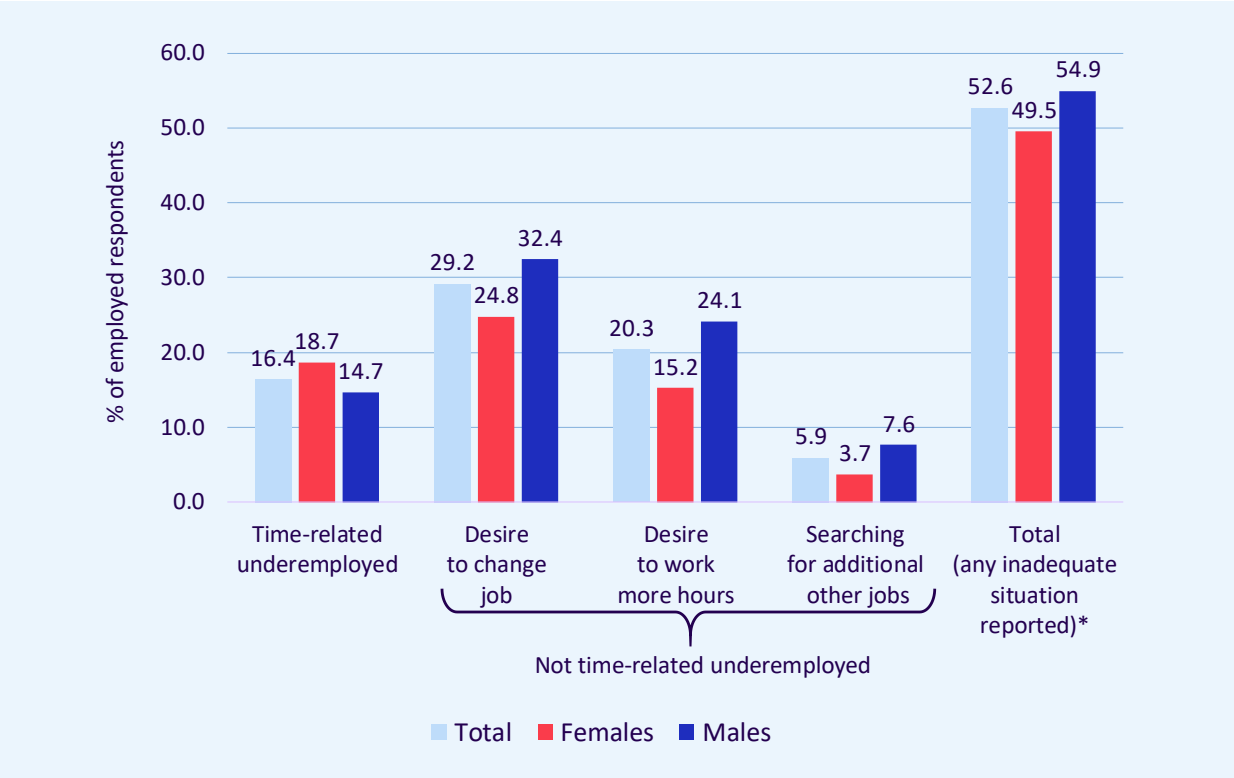
- Whether the person was looking for additional work (if employed)
- Whether the person wanted to change their current employment situation and if so the main reason for that
- Reasons for not looking for work among those who are not looking but would want to work
- Reasons for non-availability among those not available for work

Figure 36 shows a set of indicators reflecting inadequate employment situations among those in employment, including TRU. This shows that in addition to those in TRU a further 29.2% of employed respondents indicated a desire to change their job, and 5.9% had searched for additional or other jobs. Approximately one fifth of employed respondents (20.3%) desired to work more hours but were not identified in TRU as they worked in excess of the median hours threshold. In combination this meant that over half of the employed respondents had indicated their employment situation was inadequate or sought other work (52.6%).

[15] See for example pages 37 to 39 : https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/publication/wcms_635733.pdf

Among those not in TRU desire to change work was prevalent among both male and female respondents but higher among males (32.4% versus 24.8% for females). While search for other jobs was less prevalent (5.9% of respondents) it nonetheless highlights a non-negligible proportion of the employed who were putting additional pressure on the labour market and competing for available work with those not in employment (see also **Table 24** in the annex).

▶ **Figure 36. Time-related underemployment and other inadequate employment situations (% of employed), by sex**



Moving to barriers to engagement in the labour market, we can assess these to some degree based on the responses people gave to questions on the reasons for their non-engagement (for those not seeking or available), or reasons for working less hours than usual.

Of particular gender relevance we can see that, whether employed or not, family responsibilities were more often cited by female respondents as a constraint to their desired or usual labour market engagement, either as a reason for working less hours than usual, as a reason for not seeking work or a reason for non-availability to take up a paid job (see **Figure 37**). Specifically:

- Close to one third (32.2%) of female respondents who reported working less hours than usual in employment, reported family responsibilities as the reason, compared with 22.5% of males in the same situation
- 41.2% of females who did not look for work but wanted to work said their reason was family responsibilities, compared with just 7.7% of males
- 59% of females who wanted to work but were not available again reported family responsibilities

as their main reason. This was true of just 15% of male respondents who wanted to work but were not available.

- Family responsibilities was a main reason for non-availability for a particularly large proportion of those aged 25-44 (79% for women and 27% for men). While relatively lower among youth (15-24 years) it remained a commonly reported reason for non-availability among female respondents (30%) (see **Table 25** in the annex).

▶ **Figure 37. Reporting of family reasons/household responsibilities as barriers to labour market engagement**

The above is a very summary view of the LU indicators and their components as defined by the 19th ICLS standards, as well as some additional possible indicators on inadequate employment situations. This scratches the surface of the gender relevant analysis on inadequate employment which can be generated by labour force surveys with the appropriate content. Among the key messages we can take are:

- The four LU indicators proposed under the new standards are a significant expansion from a focus on one indicator (the unemployment rate), which, while still critical, could never fully reflect all situations of unmet need for employment. This is reinforced by the fact that among the components of LU, unemployment was the least prevalent among respondents to the pilot studies.

- Some interesting differences between male and female labour market engagement can be observed when looking at the different components of LU and the LU indicators. For example, the largest gender gap was observed in the PLF in the case of the respondents to the pilot studies with two-thirds of all respondents in this group being female.

- Collecting additional information on inadequate employment situations and reasons for labour market situation/non-engagement enables some particularly gender relevant analysis, highlighting among other things the barriers faced, in particular by women, to labour market engagement.

As with all indicators illustrated in this report, analysis of this nature will only be possible if the indicators are published nationally, which in turn requires well designed surveys which apply the latest standards.

6 Conclusions and recommendations

The statistical standards adopted at the 19th ICLS create a framework which enables a much more detailed and meaningful analysis of work and labour market engagement than possible under the 1982 standards. This has become particularly relevant given the gender inequalities that have been highlighted more than ever, and exacerbated, by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Overall, the pilot studies showed that a properly designed LFS questionnaire, applying the 19th ICLS standards, is able to provide a comprehensive picture of participation of men and women in various forms of work. This report illustrates the range of statistics that could be generated on participation and hours spent in three types of working activity covered, along with labour underutilization. The true analytical potential that can be derived from a comprehensive LFS will extend well beyond this.

Some of the key figures from the pilot studies illustrating the potential available include:

- About 94 out of every 100 males and females respondents to the studies were engaged in at least one of the forms of work, and close to 30% were engaged in all three types of working activity in the short-reference period covered by the studies (see **Figure 12** in **Section 3**).
- Participation of female respondents in employment was about twenty percentage points lower than male respondents. Similar proportions of men and women engaged in OPWg, while a higher proportion of women engaged in OPWs (unpaid household services) than males (see **Figure 4** in **Section 2**).
- The proportion of employees and employers among the employed was lower for females than males. By contrast, the proportion of contributing family workers (CFW) was higher among females. Disaggregation by age group also showed that females were more likely to remain CFWs as they aged, while males typically changed to other statuses (perhaps taking over the family business for example) (see **Figure 7** in **Section 2.1.2**).
- Employed female respondents worked on average 5 hours less in employment than males and this gap remained when OPWg was added. However, when the hours worked in OPWs were included, employed female respondents were found to work more hours than males (on average 10 more hours per week) (see **Figure 15** in **Section 4.2**). Even when they were not employed, but were engaged in OPWg or OPWs, female respondents still worked at least 37 hours per week in

own-use production, substantially more than men in a similar situation (see **Figure 20**).

- Looking at working time in a slightly different way we can see that while male respondents accounted for 62% of all working time in employment (see **Figure 31** in **Section 4.4**), female respondents accounted for three-quarters of all work done to provide unpaid household services (OPWs). Overall across the forms of work this translated to 53.8% of the total working time being performed by female respondents.
- Among those in employment, female respondents were less likely to indicate desire and availability to work more hours for pay. This can potentially be attributed to the lower demand for additional paid work among women due to simultaneous engagement in other responsibilities. However, due to lower average hours in employment, female respondents were nonetheless more likely to be recorded in time-related underemployment than males (see **Figure 36** in **Section 5.3**). Female respondents also made up two-thirds of the potential labour force, a newly defined concepts from the 19th ICLS standard, highlighting a group with unmet labour demand but not visible under the previous standards.
- Family responsibilities were far more frequently reported as a barrier to labour market engagement among females than males. This was true for those who worked less hours than usual, those who wanted work but did not seek work, and those who were looking for work but not immediately available (see **Figure 37** in **Section 5.3**).

In addition to the analytical conclusions, the report highlights issues in questionnaire design which are highly relevant from a gender perspective, including:

- Many lessons were learned through the pilot study process. These are now reflected in published model LFS questionnaires, guidance and findings from the pilot studies[16].
- Careful design is needed to properly measure the different working activities people engage in as well as the related working time.
- Risks of misclassification or misreporting are greater among some groups than others. For example, it has been observed that dedicated questions are needed to identify help in family businesses or farms to avoid under-reporting, as people may not report it in response to standard LFS questions about work for pay or profit. Furthermore questions on decision making roles in family business highlight that many of those who self-identify as contributing family workers, in fact make regular decisions in the business and should more accurately be reflected as business operators in the same way as others who run businesses. Both of these risks/issues are relevant for gender analysis as women are more likely to be in these situations.
- Working time remains a challenging topic for measurement, particularly in relation to relatively routine or regular activities with unclear start and end times, such as childcare. This is particularly relevant for unpaid household service work (OPWs).
- Many gender relevant issues can be highlighted by the inclusion of questions such as those now included in published model questionnaires.

[16] https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/lfs-resources/

Countries need to consider the range of data demands they are facing and resources available in deciding on the content of household survey questionnaires, including the LFS. In designing questionnaires, a careful balance needs to be sought between topic coverage and respondent burden. It would neither be feasible nor desirable to measure all forms of work on a very regular basis. Choices will need to be made in each country on the appropriate periodicity of measurement for different forms of work and different levels of detail. Synergies should and can be sought in designing a system of surveys implemented over time to deliver the full range of data required.

6.1 Future work and next steps

A modular LFS with different topics included over time offers the potential to deliver a wide range of labour and work related data. This is the approach taken in published model LFS questionnaires. The ILO will continue to review and expand the content of these questionnaires and the related guidance. Pilot study activities in countries will be an important reference point for further updates and ILO will seek further opportunities to engage with countries wishing to undertake testing activities to inform future updates or expansion to relevant topics not yet covered. For example, informality is an area where further work is required to fit in with the process to update the existing standards and guidelines on this topic, planned for discussion at the 21st ICLS in 2023.

One other known area requiring further study, as highlighted in the report, is methods for the measurement of time spent in unpaid care and household service work. Different approaches are used in practice but insufficient study has been done to truly assess the most appropriate approaches to be used that maintain a good balance between data quality and respondent burden. Time-use surveys are one source which can be used for this type of data, but their complexity, cost and respondent burden will limit their wide application. The ILO is commencing a project in 2020 to assess how 'light' time-use approaches can be integrated in the LFS to deliver high quality data as efficiently as possible. The success of this approach will offer many benefits, including that it will deliver coherent information on different forms of work also being measured through the LFS. Given the type of analysis highlighted in this report, the gender relevance of good measurement of working time in different forms of work is clear.

The lessons learned through the work of recent years will be leveraged to update existing training materials and courses, as well as inform technical assistance provided by the ILO. This is a regular ongoing process of the ILO. The ILO also recognizes the need for expanded guidance and tools covering the many challenges facing countries in implementing LFSs and using the data generated. ILO plans to incrementally provide guidance on additional topics over time.

Advocacy work to promote the implementation of the standards needs to continue and be accelerated given the many competing demands for resources as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Activities to implement the standards are accelerating over time but they are to date applied in a minority of countries, and the plans of some countries are being set back due to lockdowns and resource constraints. The ILO will continue its support for the implementation process, but other international development partners will also play an important role in advocating for the changes and resources needed.

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Annex: Statistical tables

This annex contains the detailed tables referred to in the report that were used for the analysis contained in this report.

▶ Table 1. Participation in each form of work by location of residence, age and sex

		Ratios to working age population				
		Employment	Own-use production of goods or services			Engaged in any form of work
			Total	Own-use production of goods	Own-use provision of services	
Total	Total	56.3	90.9	50.0	87.6	94.1
	Males	66.6	87.8	49.0	82.1	93.4
	Females	46.5	93.8	50.9	92.9	94.8
Urban	Males	65.7	83.5	29.5	79.6	91.9
	Females	44.7	93.7	34.3	93.1	94.9
Rural	Males	67.3	91.1	63.9	84.0	94.6
	Females	48.0	93.9	64.2	92.7	94.6
15-24 (Youth)	Males	48.4	83.1	40.7	77.5	89.3
	Females	33.8	90.7	39.7	90.0	92.0
25-44	Males	83.1	89.2	48.0	83.2	96.4
	Females	58.8	97.2	52.4	96.2	97.8
45-64	Males	73.0	92.4	57.4	86.7	97.0
	Females	52.5	96.8	59.3	95.7	97.7
65+	Males	34.0	81.6	47.8	76.2	83.1
	Females	20.2	83.3	47.0	82.2	84.2

▶ Table 2. Number of jobs reported by those in employment, by location of residence, age group and sex

		Number of jobs		
		Only one job	Two jobs	Three or more jobs
Total	Total	90.4	9.2	0.4
	Males	90.0	9.6	0.4
	Females	90.7	9.0	0.3
Urban	Males	92.2	7.5	0.3
	Females	94.0	5.8	0.2
Rural	Males	88.4	11.1	0.5
	Females	88.2	11.3	0.5
15-24 (Youth)	Males	94.9	5.1	0.0
	Females	95.1	4.9	0.0
25-44	Males	90.7	9.0	0.3
	Females	90.0	9.9	0.1
45-64	Males	86.8	12.4	0.8
	Females	89.5	9.6	0.8
65+	Males	90.3	9.7	0.0
	Females	89.4	10.1	0.5

▶ Table 3. Share of employed persons by self-reported status in employment, location of residence, age and sex

		Employed persons by self-reported status in employment				
		Employees	Employers	Own-account workers	Contributing family workers	Unknown
Total	Total	44.1	3.0	39.4	12.0	1.6
	Males	47.4	3.7	39.7	7.9	1.3
	Females	39.6	2.1	38.9	17.5	1.9
Urban	Males	58.1	4.2	30.6	5.4	1.6
	Females	49.3	3.1	34.1	10.8	2.7
Rural	Males	39.4	3.3	46.5	9.7	1.1
	Females	32.4	1.3	42.5	22.4	1.3
15-24 (Youth)	Males	51.9	0.4	21.4	25.4	0.9
	Females	47.5	1.3	23.4	27.0	0.8
25-44	Males	53.7	3.9	37.3	3.8	1.3
	Females	43.9	2.3	37.8	14.1	1.9
45-64	Males	41.8	4.8	46.8	5.0	1.6
	Females	33.8	1.6	45.4	16.6	2.6
65+	Males	15.3	5.9	72.7	5.6	0.5
	Females	16.3	5.1	53.9	23.4	1.3

▶ Table 4. Type of decision making role of contributing family workers, by location of residence, age group and sex

		Type of involvement in the household or family business			
		Involved in making any of the three kinds of decisions	Usually making decisions about the running of the business	Not usually making decisions about the running of the business, but involved in the day to day administration	Usually deciding how the income earned from the business will be used
Total	Total	68.5	50.2	16.6	49.0
	Males	57.9	38.7	18.0	36.9
	Females	74.4	56.5	15.7	55.8
Urban	Males	58.6	37.9	20.7	35.5
	Females	72.9	60.6	12.3	52.5
Rural	Males	57.6	39.1	16.9	37.5
	Females	74.9	55.0	17.0	57.0
15-24 (Youth)	Males	46.4	30.0	15.5	25.8
	Females	52.1	30.3	21.8	24.6
25-44	Males	79.8	55.1	24.7	52.4
	Females	79.5	59.8	16.5	62.0
45-64	Males	88.1	55.4	25.9	72.2
	Females	87.8	74.3	10.4	74.0
65+	Males	51.2	51.2	0.0	51.2
	Females	81.4	73.2	8.2	73.2

▶ Table 5. Own/use production of goods (OPWg), by type of activity, location of residence, age group and sex (% of those doing OPWg)

		Share of Own-use producers of goods engaged in different activities		
		Crop and livestock	Other foodstuff (fishing, hunting, gathering and processing)	Other goods (fetching water, collecting firewood, own construction and production)
Total	Total	73.5	18.3	57.1
	Males	75.4	13.2	58.7
	Females	71.8	22.9	55.6
Urban	Males	66.9	10.7	54.7
	Females	60.1	27.4	50.7
Rural	Males	78.4	14.1	60.1
	Females	76.9	21.0	57.7
15-24 (Youth)	Males	64.6	12.9	61.5
	Females	56.5	17.4	62.4
25-44	Males	69.5	15.1	60.9
	Females	69.4	23.2	59.4
45-64	Males	83.9	12.0	54.1
	Females	79.6	26.3	50.2
65+	Males	86.7	11.5	60.4
	Females	79.5	20.3	49.3

▶ Table 6. Own/use provision of services (OPWs), by type of activity, location of residence, age group and sex (% of those doing OPWs)

		Share of Own-use providers of services engaged in different activities		
		Housework	Childcare	Dependent adult care
Total	Total	97.7	41.1	6.1
	Males	96.2	33.9	5.2
	Females	99.0	47.2	6.8
Urban	Males	97.1	34.1	5.5
	Females	98.9	48.4	6.9
Rural	Males	95.5	33.6	5.1
	Females	99.1	46.2	6.7
15-24 (Youth)	Males	96.8	24.8	5.5
	Females	98.8	45.7	5.1
25-44	Males	94.9	48.4	4.8
	Females	99.4	68.1	6.6
45-64	Males	96.9	29.3	5.7
	Females	98.8	32.8	7.9
65+	Males	97.1	14.4	5.2
	Females	98.8	18.4	7.6

Note: The category "Housework" includes: managing the household and accounts; buying goods, and transporting them; preparing food, serving meals, recycling, throwing the rubbish; cleaning, maintaining household premises, fixtures, other goods, decorating, gardening; and caring for pets.

▶ Table 7. Participation in different types of working activities (% of working age population), by number and types, location of residence, age group and sex

		Shares of WAP engaged in different types of working activity							
		not working	1 type of working activity			2 types of working activity			3 types of working activity
		Not Employed, not OPWg, not OPWs	Employed only	OPWg only	OPWs only	Employed and OPWg, not OPWs	Employed and OPWs, not OPWg	OPWg and OPWs, not Employed	Employed, and OPWg, and OPWs
Total	Total	5.9	3.2	0.8	19.2	2.5	21.8	17.9	28.8
	Males	6.6	5.6	1.2	13.3	4.5	25.5	12.3	31.0
	Females	5.2	0.9	0.4	24.6	0.6	18.3	23.2	26.7
Urban	Males	8.1	8.4	0.8	18.6	3.0	35.4	6.8	18.8
	Females	5.1	1.2	0.3	33.7	0.4	25.7	16.1	17.5
Rural	Males	5.4	3.4	1.5	9.3	5.6	17.9	16.4	40.4
	Females	5.4	0.7	0.4	17.4	0.8	12.4	28.9	34.1
15-24 (Youth)	Males	10.7	6.3	2.1	23.6	3.4	18.8	15.2	20.0
	Females	8.0	1.3	0.4	36.4	0.3	14.5	21.3	17.6
25-44	Males	3.6	7.2	0.5	6.2	5.4	35.0	6.6	35.4
	Females	2.2	0.7	0.4	20.0	0.6	24.8	18.6	32.8
45-64	Males	3.0	4.6	1.0	10.0	4.6	24.9	12.9	38.8
	Females	2.3	0.9	0.3	19.1	0.9	18.5	25.8	32.3
65+	Males	16.9	1.5	2.1	24.1	3.4	9.8	23.0	19.3
	Females	15.8	1.0	0.4	30.3	0.7	6.0	33.3	12.6

▶ Table 8. Participation in other forms of work by persons in employment (% of employed respondents), by type of activity, location of residence, age group and sex

		Shares of employed by different combinations of types of working activities						
		Employed only	Employed and OPWg, not OPWs	Employed and OPWs, not OPWg	Employed and OPWg, and OPWs	Total Employed	Employed and OPWg, whether or not OPWs	Employed and OPWs, whether or not OPWg
Total	Total	5.6	4.4	38.7	51.2	100	55.6	89.9
	Males	8.4	6.8	38.3	46.6	100	53.3	84.8
	Females	1.9	1.3	39.3	57.4	100	58.7	96.7
Urban	Males	12.8	4.6	53.9	28.6	100	33.2	82.6
	Females	2.6	0.8	57.4	39.2	100	40.0	96.6
Rural	Males	5.1	8.3	26.6	60.0	100	68.3	86.6
	Females	1.4	1.7	25.8	71.0	100	72.7	96.8
15-24 (Youth)	Males	12.9	7.1	38.8	41.2	100	48.3	80.0
	Females	3.7	1.0	43.0	52.2	100	53.2	95.2
25-44	Males	8.7	6.5	42.1	42.7	100	49.2	84.8
	Females	1.1	1.0	42.2	55.7	100	56.7	97.9
45-64	Males	6.3	6.3	34.2	53.2	100	59.5	87.3
	Females	1.8	1.6	35.2	61.4	100	63.1	96.6
65+	Males	4.4	9.9	28.8	57.0	100	66.8	85.7
	Females	4.7	3.4	29.7	62.1	100	65.6	91.8

▶ Table 9. Persons not in employment, by other types of activity engaged in, location of residence, age group and sex

		Shares of not employed by different combinations of forms of work and types of working activity							
		Not Employed, and OPWg, not OPWs	Not Employed, and OPWs, not OPWg	Not Employed, and OPWg, and OPWs	Not Employed, not OPWg, not OPWs	Total Not Employed	Not Employed and OPWg, whether or not OPWs	Not Employed and OPWs, whether or not OPWg	Not Employed and OPWg or OPWs
Total	Total	1.8	43.8	40.9	13.5	100	42.7	84.7	86.5
	Males	3.7	39.9	36.7	19.7	100	40.4	76.6	80.3
	Females	0.7	46.1	43.4	9.8	100	44.1	89.5	90.2
Urban	Males	2.4	54.1	19.9	23.6	100	22.3	74.0	76.4
	Females	0.6	61.0	29.2	9.2	100	29.7	90.2	90.8
Rural	Males	4.7	28.5	50.2	16.6	100	54.9	78.7	83.4
	Females	0.8	33.4	55.5	10.3	100	56.3	88.9	89.7
15-24 (Youth)	Males	4.1	45.7	29.5	20.7	100	33.6	75.1	79.3
	Females	0.6	55.0	32.2	12.1	100	32.8	87.3	87.9
25-44	Males	3.2	36.6	38.9	21.4	100	42.1	75.4	78.6
	Females	1.0	48.5	45.2	5.3	100	46.2	93.7	94.7
45-64	Males	3.9	37.1	47.9	11.1	100	51.7	85.0	88.9
	Females	0.6	40.2	54.4	4.7	100	55.1	94.6	95.3
65+	Males	3.2	36.5	34.8	25.6	100	38.0	71.2	74.4
	Females	0.5	38.0	41.8	19.8	100	42.2	79.7	80.2

▶ Table 10. Working time in all types of working activities (employment, OPWg and OPWs), by working time band, location of residence, age group and sex

		Hours worked in all types of working activities							
		1 to 39	>39 to 48	>48 to 56	>56 to 70	>70 to 84	>84 to 98	>98 to 112	>112
Total	Total	36	10	10	16	11	7	4	7
	Males	36	11	11	17	10	5	3	5
	Females	35	8	9	14	13	9	5	8
Urban	Males	38	12	13	18	10	5	3	2
	Females	37	8	9	15	13	8	5	5
Rural	Males	35	11	10	17	10	5	4	8
	Females	33	8	8	14	12	9	5	10
15-24 (Youth)	Males	61	10	8	11	5	3	1	2
	Females	53	7	8	12	8	5	2	5
25-44	Males	22	12	14	23	13	6	3	5
	Females	18	9	9	17	17	12	7	10
45-64	Males	30	11	12	17	11	6	5	7
	Females	32	9	9	16	13	8	6	8
65+	Males	54	11	6	9	4	4	3	8
	Females	63	7	6	9	6	3	2	4

▶ Table 11. Working time of those in employment, by status in employment, types of working activities, location of residence, age group and sex

		Hours worked by employed in all jobs and additional hours worked in other types of working activities, by self-reported status in employment of the main job																			
		Employees				Employers				Own-account workers				Contributing family workers				Total Employed			
		All jobs	OPWg	OPWs	Total	All jobs	OPWg	OPWs	Total	All jobs	OPWg	OPWs	Total	All jobs	OPWg	OPWs	Total	All jobs	OPWg	OPWs	Total
Total	Total	42	4	15	61	48	6	13	68	36	12	15	63	26	14	19	58	38	8	16	62
	Males	44	4	10	58	50	6	9	65	38	12	9	59	27	14	8	48	40	8	9	58
	Females	40	3	24	67	44	7	25	76	33	11	25	69	25	14	27	66	35	8	25	68
Urban	Males	45	2	10	57	50	2	10	63	42	8	9	59	28	9	7	44	43	4	10	57
	Females	40	2	24	66	49	2	25	76	36	8	26	69	31	9	22	62	38	5	24	67
Rural	Males	44	6	9	58	50	11	8	69	35	15	9	59	26	16	8	50	38	11	9	58
	Females	39	5	24	68	33	18	25	76	32	12	24	69	22	15	29	67	33	10	25	68
15-24 (Youth)	Males	42	3	6	50	41	5	0	46	35	10	8	53	21	14	5	40	35	7	6	48
	Females	40	2	18	61	30	3	24	57	29	13	25	66	19	9	21	49	32	6	20	59
25-44	Males	45	3	10	59	52	5	10	67	39	12	9	60	39	12	11	62	43	7	10	60
	Females	41	3	27	71	45	6	25	76	33	10	28	70	27	14	35	76	36	7	28	72
45-64	Males	45	5	11	61	50	7	7	65	38	14	9	60	31	17	12	60	41	10	10	61
	Females	38	5	24	67	51	1	27	79	37	11	22	69	29	16	26	71	36	9	23	69
65+	Males	44	10	8	63	42	7	9	57	33	13	9	55	15	16	6	37	34	12	9	55
	Females	27	1	16	44	36	27	23	86	29	11	20	60	21	16	20	58	27	11	19	57

▶ Table 12. Distribution of total working time of those in employment, by form of work, status in employment, location of residence, age group and sex

		Breakdown of total reported working time of employed respondents by types of woking activity and status in employment						
		in Employment				in Own-use production of goods	in Own-use provision of services	Total
		Total	Employees	Employers and own-account workers	Contributing family workers			
Total	Total	62.0	32.7	24.6	4.6	12.8	25.2	100
	Males	70.2	38.2	28.2	3.8	13.9	15.9	100
	Females	51.9	26.0	20.2	5.7	11.4	36.7	100
Urban	Males	75.4	46.5	26.2	2.7	7.7	16.9	100
	Females	56.9	32.2	20.0	4.8	6.8	36.3	100
Rural	Males	66.1	31.6	29.8	4.6	18.8	15.1	100
	Females	47.9	21.0	20.4	6.4	15.1	37.0	100
15-24 (Youth)	Males	72.9	45.8	15.8	11.3	14.6	12.5	100
	Females	55.1	35.8	10.9	8.4	10.5	34.4	100
25-44	Males	71.7	42.1	27.0	2.5	11.5	16.8	100
	Females	50.8	28.1	18.4	4.2	9.6	39.6	100
45-64	Males	68.1	32.8	32.6	2.6	15.9	16.0	100
	Females	52.8	21.1	25.4	6.3	13.3	33.9	100
65+	Males	61.3	12.7	46.6	1.9	22.6	16.2	100
	Females	47.4	9.0	30.3	8.2	19.0	33.6	100

▶ Table 13. Working time of those not in employment, by types of working activity, location of residence, age group and sex

		Average hours worked by persons not employed, by combination of types of working activities					
		total hours worked by respondents engaged in OPWg or OPWs	total hours worked by respondents engaged in OPWg only	total hours worked by respondents engaged in OPWs only	total hours worked by respondents engaged in OPWg and OPWs		
					hours worked in OPWg	additional hours worked in OPWs	total hours worked
Total	Total	31	18	24	14	25	39
	Males	20	18	11	17	12	29
	Females	37	18	30	13	32	45
Urban	Males	15	17	12	13	12	24
	Females	35	22	32	9	33	43
Rural	Males	23	19	11	18	12	30
	Females	38	15	27	14	31	45
15-24 (Youth)	Males	11	10	7	10	7	17
	Females	28	6	24	8	27	36
25-44	Males	24	14	14	17	17	33
	Females	49	19	43	13	43	56
45-64	Males	26	25	16	21	12	33
	Females	38	27	29	15	29	45
65+	Males	23	29	12	21	13	34
	Females	29	17	20	14	22	37

▶ Table 14. Distribution of working time in each type of working activity by sex, location of residence and age group

		Type of working activity			
		in Employment	in Own-use production of goods	in Own-use provision of services	in all forms of work
Total	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Males	62.4	52.7	24.9	46.2
	Females	37.6	47.3	75.1	53.8
Urban	Males	61.7	50.6	24.5	45.2
	Females	38.3	49.4	75.5	54.8
Rural	Males	63.0	53.4	25.3	47.0
	Females	37.0	46.6	74.7	53.0
15-24 (Youth)	Males	62.4	57.2	21.4	44.0
	Females	37.6	42.8	78.6	56.0
25-44	Males	63.5	51.9	23.6	46.6
	Females	36.5	48.1	76.4	53.4
45-64	Males	60.7	52.3	27.9	47.5
	Females	39.3	47.7	72.1	52.5
65+	Males	62.5	51.5	28.9	43.5
	Females	37.5	48.5	71.1	56.5

▶ Table 15. Average number of hours worked in the reference week by those who did any form of work, by types of working activity, location of residence, age group and sex

		Average hours worked in the reference week			
		in Employment	in Own-use production of goods or services		
			Total	in Own-use production of goods	in Own-use provision of services
Total	Total	39	26	15	21
	Males	41	18	16	11
	Females	36	32	13	29
Urban	Males	44	16	14	12
	Females	39	31	11	29
Rural	Males	39	20	17	11
	Females	33	34	15	28
15-24 (Youth)	Males	36	13	13	7
	Females	34	27	10	24
25-44	Males	44	18	15	13
	Females	37	37	13	35
45-64	Males	42	21	18	12
	Females	37	33	15	27
65+	Males	34	21	21	12
	Females	28	28	15	21

▶ Table 16. Hours actually worked in main and second jobs, and incidence of second jobs by location of residence, age group and sex

		Average hours worked in employment * in the reference week					Incidence of hours worked in second jobs	
		All	Employed with only one job	Employed with two or more jobs			over the total hours worked by employed	over the total hours worked by employed with second jobs
				Total hours	in main job	in other jobs		
Total	Total	39.1	38.5	45.7	31.9	13.9	3.3%	29.6%
	Males	41.4	40.7	48.6	34.3	14.3	3.2%	28.8%
	Females	35.9	35.3	41.8	28.6	13.2	3.5%	30.9%
Urban	Males	44.0	43.7	47.9	35.6	12.3	1.7%	25.1%
	Females	39.0	38.9	40.4	29.5	10.9	2.0%	26.8%
Rural	Males	39.3	38.0	48.8	33.7	15.1	4.5%	30.3%
	Females	33.4	32.2	42.5	28.1	14.4	5.0%	32.8%
15-24 (Youth)	Males	35.7	35.4	42.6	28.9	13.7	1.8%	32.1%
	Females	33.6	33.6	33.3	20.9	12.4	1.9%	37.2%
25-44	Males	43.7	43.0	50.5	37.0	13.5	3.0%	26.8%
	Females	37.2	36.4	44.3	30.4	13.9	3.5%	30.9%
45-64	Males	42.3	41.6	47.6	32.4	15.2	4.0%	30.5%
	Females	36.6	35.8	41.9	28.9	13.1	4.4%	29.9%
65+	Males	34.3	32.7	47.7	31.7	16.0	4.6%	32.0%
	Females	28.1	27.7	32.9	23.0	9.9	3.0%	30.0%

▶ Table 17. Average weekly hours actually worked in all jobs by status in employment in main job, location of residence, age group and sex

		Hours actually worked in all jobs			
		Employees	Employers	Own-account workers	Contributing family workers
Total	Total	42	48	36	26
	Males	44	50	38	27
	Females	40	44	33	25
Urban	Males	45	50	42	28
	Females	40	49	36	31
Rural	Males	44	50	35	26
	Females	39	33	32	22
15-24 (Youth)	Males	42	41	35	21
	Females	40	30	29	19
25-44	Males	45	52	39	39
	Females	41	45	33	27
45-64	Males	45	50	38	31
	Females	38	51	37	29
65+	Males	44	42	33	15
	Females	27	36	29	21

▶ Table 18. Average weekly hours worked in own-use production of goods, by type of activity, location of residence, age group and sex

		Hours actually worked in the reference week			
		Total	Crop and livestock	Other foodstuff (fishing, hunting, gathering and processing)	Other goods (fetching water, collecting firewood, own construction and production)
Total	Total	15	16	4	5
	Males	16	17	5	5
	Females	13	14	4	5
Urban	Males	14	16	3	5
	Females	11	13	4	4
Rural	Males	17	18	6	5
	Females	15	15	4	5
15-24 (Youth)	Males	13	15	6	4
	Females	10	12	3	5
25-44	Males	15	16	6	5
	Females	13	14	4	5
45-64	Males	18	18	4	5
	Females	15	15	4	5
65+	Males	21	21	4	5
	Females	15	16	4	5

▶ Table 19. Average weekly hours worked in own-use provision of services, by type of activity, location of residence, age group and sex

		Hours actually worked in the reference week			
		Total	Housework	Childcare	Dependent-adult care
Total	Total	21	15	13	10
	Males	11	8	9	8
	Females	29	21	16	11
Urban	Males	12	9	9	7
	Females	29	21	17	11
Rural	Males	11	8	8	8
	Females	28	21	16	11
15-24 (Youth)	Males	7	6	6	5
	Females	24	16	16	8
25-44	Males	13	8	9	8
	Females	35	23	18	10
45-64	Males	12	9	8	7
	Females	27	22	13	11
65+	Males	12	10	12	14
	Females	21	18	14	17

Note: The category "Housework" includes a wide range of unpaid domestic services covered by the pilot study questionnaires such as: preparing meals, cleaning, managing the household finances, arranging services, buying goods and transporting them, recycling and managing household waste, minor household maintenance and decorating, and gardening.

▶ Table 20. Share of total time in own-use provision of services, by sex, engagement in other forms of work, location of residence and age group

	Shares of the total hours worked in Own-use provision of services provided by men and women engaged in different types of working activities						
	Males			Females			Total
	also in Employment or in OPWg	not in Employment nor in OPWg	Total	also in Employment or in OPWg	not in Employment nor in OPWg	Total	
Total	20.6	4.4	24.9	52.7	22.4	75.1	100
Urban	18.6	5.9	24.5	44.4	31.0	75.5	100
Rural	22.3	3.0	25.3	59.9	14.7	74.7	100
15-24 (Youth)	14.8	6.6	21.4	45.1	33.5	78.6	100
25-44	21.5	2.1	23.6	55.5	20.9	76.4	100
45-64	23.1	4.7	27.9	55.4	16.7	72.1	100
65+	19.0	9.9	28.9	45.1	26.0	71.1	100

▶ Table 21. Labour underutilization indicators (%) (19th ICLS), by location of residence, age group and sex

		Labour underutilization indicators			
		Unemployment rate (LU1)	LU2	LU3	LU4
Total	Total	8.1	23.2	18.2	31.6
	Males	7.3	20.9	14.4	26.9
	Females	9.1	26.1	23.0	37.4
Urban	Males	8.5	18.8	14.8	24.3
	Females	12.9	28.8	25.9	39.4
Rural	Males	6.4	22.5	14.1	28.9
	Females	6.1	24.0	20.6	35.7
15-24 (Youth)	Males	14.5	33.6	26.5	42.9
	Females	16.9	35.0	37.8	51.3
25-44	Males	7.5	21.1	12.2	25.2
	Females	10.2	27.1	22.4	37.0
45-64	Males	3.8	15.1	10.1	20.6
	Females	4.3	21.2	15.3	30.3
65+	Males	1.7	9.7	12.1	19.3
	Females	2.3	17.5	15.3	28.4

▶ Table 22. Composition of labour underutilization (%) by sex, component, location of residence and age group

	Shares of the total respondents in labour underutilization, by sex and sub-groups								
	Females				Males				Total
	Time-related underemployed	Unemployed	Potential labour force	Total	Time-related underemployed	Unemployed	Potential labour force	Total	
Total	20.6	11.1	21.7	53.4	21.7	11.7	13.2	46.6	100
Urban	19.9	16.1	22.0	58.1	16.5	13.7	11.8	41.9	100
Rural	21.1	7.2	21.5	49.8	25.7	10.2	14.2	50.2	100
15-24 (Youth)	13.1	12.3	24.4	49.8	19.1	14.6	16.4	50.2	100
25-44	21.8	13.3	20.3	55.3	23.0	12.6	9.1	44.7	100
45-64	26.9	6.8	20.6	54.3	23.3	7.9	14.5	45.7	100
65+	24.2	3.8	24.6	52.5	17.6	3.7	26.2	47.5	100

▶ Table 23. Time related underemployment indicators by type of working time threshold applied, status in employment, location of residence, age group and sex

		Time related underemployment (TRU) - applying median threshold					Time related underemployment (TRU) - without hours threshold				
		Employees	Employers	Own-account workers	Contributing family workers	Total Employed	Employees	Employers	Own-account workers	Contributing family workers	Total Employed
Total	Total	12.6	9.0	19.0	22.7	16.4	31.8	26.0	32.1	29.9	31.6
	Males	10.7	8.3	17.6	26.9	14.7	34.4	28.9	33.7	34.2	33.9
	Females	15.6	10.8	20.9	20.2	18.7	27.6	19.1	29.9	27.3	28.6
Urban	Males	8.0	9.0	14.1	31.2	11.2	33.3	25.9	30.2	40.0	32.5
	Females	14.2	6.4	23.5	18.9	18.3	27.4	12.5	36.1	30.0	30.7
Rural	Males	13.6	7.6	19.2	25.1	17.2	35.5	31.8	35.5	31.8	35.0
	Females	17.3	18.4	19.4	20.6	19.0	27.8	30.5	26.2	26.4	27.1
15-24 (Youth)	Males	15.4	58.7	25.1	32.6	22.3	43.1	58.7	42.2	42.4	43.1
	Females	17.3	24.1	26.8	25.8	21.8	29.1	24.1	34.4	31.4	30.6
25-44	Males	10.3	9.6	20.9	27.6	14.8	36.2	27.1	40.8	33.1	37.3
	Females	14.8	11.9	22.4	21.6	18.7	27.0	20.0	32.7	33.0	30.0
45-64	Males	8.7	6.5	14.6	12.2	11.7	26.6	36.4	28.6	16.3	27.5
	Females	15.1	9.3	18.8	17.1	17.7	27.9	16.5	27.8	21.1	27.5
65+	Males	3.7	0.0	8.2	20.1	8.1	14.5	10.3	16.2	20.1	15.6
	Females	26.4	0.0	15.7	7.9	15.5	26.4	0.0	18.3	11.9	17.8

▶ Table 24. Inadequate employment situations (% of employed respondents), by location of residence, age group and sex

		Employed who want to work more hours for pay or want to change their employment situation					
		Total (any inadequate situation reported)*	Employed in TRU	Employed not in TRU			
				Total	Desire to change job	Desire to work more hours	Searching for additional other jobs
Total	Total	52.6	16.4	36.2	29.2	20.3	5.9
	Males	54.9	14.7	40.2	32.4	24.1	7.6
	Females	49.5	18.7	30.8	24.8	15.2	3.7
Urban	Males	53.7	11.2	42.5	33.6	26.4	8.6
	Females	50.6	18.3	32.3	25.8	17.5	5.7
Rural	Males	55.7	17.2	38.5	31.5	22.4	6.9
	Females	48.7	19.0	29.7	24.0	13.6	2.2
Youth (15-24)	Males	64.9	22.3	42.6	35.0	25.7	12.2
	Females	56.4	21.8	34.7	27.1	15.2	5.3
25-44	Males	58.1	14.8	43.3	35.0	27.6	8.4
	Females	52.2	18.7	33.4	27.6	17.2	3.9
45-64	Males	49.5	11.7	37.8	30.1	20.7	5.1
	Females	46.1	17.7	28.4	22.2	14.3	3.2
65 +	Males	29.8	8.1	21.7	17.0	10.7	2.0
	Females	28.2	15.5	12.7	9.5	4.8	0.0

* Employed who are in TRU, or desire to change job, or desire to work more hours than usually worked, or searching for additional/other job(s)

▶ Table 25. Reporting of family responsibilities as a barrier to labour market engagement, by situation, location of residence, age group and sex

		Reporting of family reasons/household responsibilities as barriers to labour market engagement		
		Employed working less hours than usual	Not employed, wanting to work and available, but not looking for work	Not employed, looking for work, but not available
Total	Total	26.2	28.7	45.0
	Males	22.5	7.7	15.0
	Females	32.2	41.2	59.0
Urban	Males	19.5	6.6	16.8
	Females	33.0	43.8	51.6
Rural	Males	24.1	8.4	14.0
	Females	31.7	39.3	63.6
Youth (15-24)	Males	22.2	4.4	5.9
	Females	41.5	30.1	30.0
25-44	Males	18.3	6.4	26.6
	Females	30.2	51.2	78.6
45-64	Males	24.2	14.1	28.7
	Females	32.3	45.6	59.8
65 +	Males	53.5	6.5	0.0
	Females	25.0	10.0	24.4