

## LMF1.6: Gender differences in employment outcomes

### Definitions and methodology

This indicator presents data on gender differences in employment outcomes through four main measures:

- The *gender gap in the employment rate* (15-64 year olds), with the employment rate calculated as the number of people aged 15-64 years old in employment as a proportion of the corresponding population, and the gender gap calculated as the male rate minus the female rate. Definitions of employment follow [ILO guidelines](#).
- The *gender gap in full-time equivalent employment rate*, with the full-time equivalent employment rate calculated as the employment rate (15-64 year olds) multiplied by average usual weekly working hours, divided by 40. The resulting full-time equivalent rate can be interpreted as the proportion of the working-age population that would be employed if all those in employment worked a full time 40-hour working week. The gender gap is again calculated as the percentage point difference between the male and the female rate.
- The *gender gap in the employment rate (25-64 year olds) by level of educational attainment*, with levels of educational attainment defined according to the standard ISCED 2011 classification (See OECD (2024) [OECD Education at a Glance 2024](#): OECD Indicators for more details).
- Male and female *part-time employment rates*, calculated as the number of people in part-time employment as a proportion of total employment. Part-time employment is defined as people who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job (see comparability and data issues).
- The *gender share of part-time employment for women*, calculated as the proportion of persons who are in part-time employment who are women.
- The *female share of managers*, calculated as the proportion of persons employed as managers who are women. 'Managers' are defined as the employed who hold jobs classified in International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 08 category one ("Managers").

In addition to the data on gender differences in employment outcomes, this indicator also provides supplementary information on maternal employment in Box LMF1.6.A. Maternal employment is captured by one measure:

- *Employment rates for women (15-64 year olds) with at least one child (aged 0-14) by age of youngest child in the household*. Here, 'children' are generally defined as any children aged 0-14 inclusive who live in the same household and are reported as the child of the woman (including both biological children and step or adoptive children). Women with children who do not live in the same household are generally not included, nor are women with children aged 15 or older regardless of whether or not the child lives in the same household and/or is dependent on the woman. The age groups used for the youngest child are 0-2, 3-5 and 6-14 years of age. Definitions of employment again follow [ILO guidelines](#).

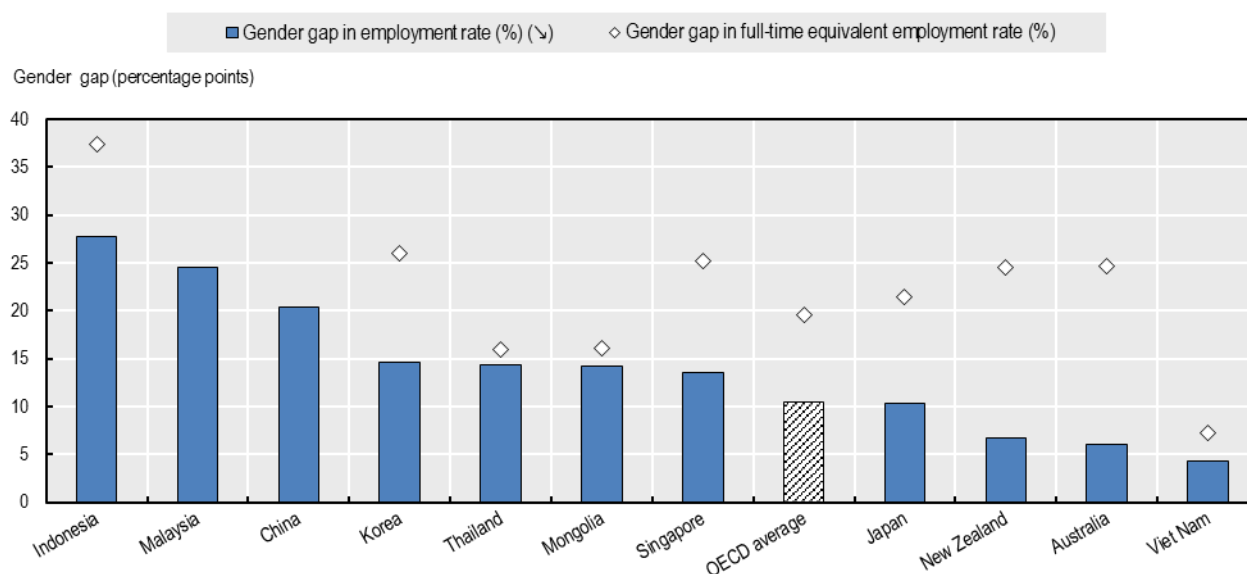
<i>Other relevant indicators:</i> LMF1.4 Employment profiles over the life-course; LMF2.1 Usual weekly working hours among men and women by broad hours groups
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## Key findings

Across Asia/Pacific countries as also across OECD countries, women are less likely to be found in employment than men (Chart LMF1.6.A). In the Asia/Pacific countries included here, employment rates for men are higher than those for women, and in many countries the gender employment gap is large. Among the covered Asia/Pacific countries, the largest gender employment gaps are recorded for Indonesia (27 percentage points), Malaysia (24.5pp) and China (20.5pp) – the average for OECD countries is 10.4pp. The smallest gender gaps are in Viet Nam (4.3pp), Australia (6.1pp) and New Zealand (6.8pp). Gender gaps in employment widen once working hours are taken into account (Chart LMF1.6.A). In all countries for which data are available, the gender gap in the full-time equivalent employment rate is larger than the gap in the headcount employment rate. In Mongolia and Thailand, the gap in full-time equivalent rate is only marginally higher than the gender gap in the standard employment rate. In other countries, such as Australia, Korea, Singapore and New Zealand, the gap in the full-time equivalent employment rate is much larger (by more than 10 percentage points or more) than the gender gap in the headcount employment rate.

Chart LMF1.6.A. **Gender gap in the employment rate and full-time equivalent employment rates, 2024 or latest available**

Gender difference (men minus women) in the employment rate and the full-time equivalent employment rate, 15-64 year olds



Notes: Data refer to 2023 for Malaysia, Mongolia and Singapore; to 2022 for Indonesia 2021 for Malaysia and Thailand; and to 2020 for China. Data for Indonesia and Mongolia refer to age group 15 and above. Data for Singapore refer to the June of the given year, and to nationals currently resident in Singapore only. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average across the 36 OECD member countries with available and comparable data. See OECD Family Database Indicator LMF1.6 (<http://www.oecd.org/els/family/database.htm>) for more detail.

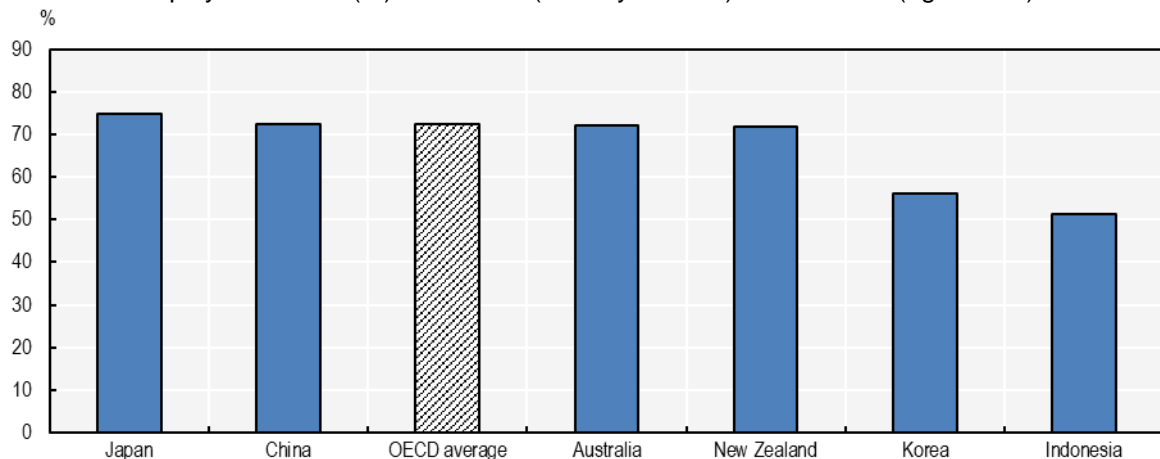
Sources: Australia, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, and New Zealand: [OECD Employment Database](https://oecd.org/els/family/database.htm); China: 1% National Population Sample Survey 2020; Indonesia: ILOSTAT (processed from National Labour Force Surveys); Malaysia: Labour Force Survey; Mongolia: Labour Force Survey; Singapore: Ministry of Manpower, Labour Force; Thailand : Labour Force Survey; Viet Nam: Labour Force Survey.

### Box LMF1.6: Employment rates for mothers

Parenthood often has very different effects on the labour market behaviours of men and women. Across countries, women tend to take on the lion's share of the unpaid work that comes with children and parenthood, and women's careers are often disproportionately affected by childbearing and childrearing in ways that men's careers are not. While not the only factor at play, the differential effects of parenthood on men and women's patterns of employment and labour market behaviours are some of the major drivers behind the gender differences in employment outcomes.

Comparable data and information on maternal employment are relatively scarce for Asia/Pacific countries, but those data that do exist point to considerable differences in maternal employment rates across countries (Box Chart LMF1.6). In Japan, for example, employment rates for mothers are very high: in 2021 close to three-quarters (74.8%) of mothers in Japan with at least one child aged 0-14 were in employment, higher than the average for OECD countries (72.3%). In Australia, China and New Zealand employment rates among mothers are over 71%. In Indonesia and Korea maternal employment rates are much lower. In Korea, around 56% of mothers with children aged 0-14 are in paid work, a percentage that falls to 51% for Indonesian mothers.

**Box Chart LMF1.6. Maternal employment rates, 2021 or latest available year**  
Employment rates (%) for women (15-64 years old) with children (aged 0-14)



Notes: Data for China and Indonesia refer to 2015 and for New Zealand to 2020. For Australia and Japan, data cover all women aged 15 and over, and for Korea married women aged 15-54. For Korea, children aged 0-17. For Australia, women with 'at least one child aged 0-14' are those whose 'relationship in household' is classified as either 'wife or partner with children under 15' or 'lone parent with children under 15'. Women with 'no children aged 0-14' are those with any other type of 'relationship in household'. Data for Australia refer to June months. For Japan, data refer to the employment status of the (youngest) mother in households with a mother and a youngest child in the given age group, rather than to mothers as individuals. In households that contain more than one mother (e.g. some same-sex parent households and some three-generation households), the employment status of the older mother(s) is not covered.

Sources: [Australia, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, and the OECD average: OECD Family Database Indicator LMF1.2](#); China: China Social Survey 2015; Indonesia: National Socio-Economic Survey, 2015.

Where available, data suggest that in most Asia/Pacific countries gender gaps in employment rates are smaller among men and women with high levels of educational attainment than among those with low education (Table LMF1.6.A). In Australia, for example, the gender gap among men and women with tertiary education (6.7pp) is 8 percentage points smaller than that among men and women who have attained a maximum level of education below secondary education (14.7pp). In Indonesia, the difference is almost 20 percentage points. Korea is the exception – there, the relation runs in the opposite direction, with the smallest gender gap among men and women with less than upper secondary education (15.7pp), and a 5 percentage points higher rate both for those with upper secondary and tertiary education (20.8pp).

**Table LMF1.6.A. Gender gaps in employment rates by educational attainment, 2024 or latest available**

Male and female employment rates by level of education attained, 25-64 year olds

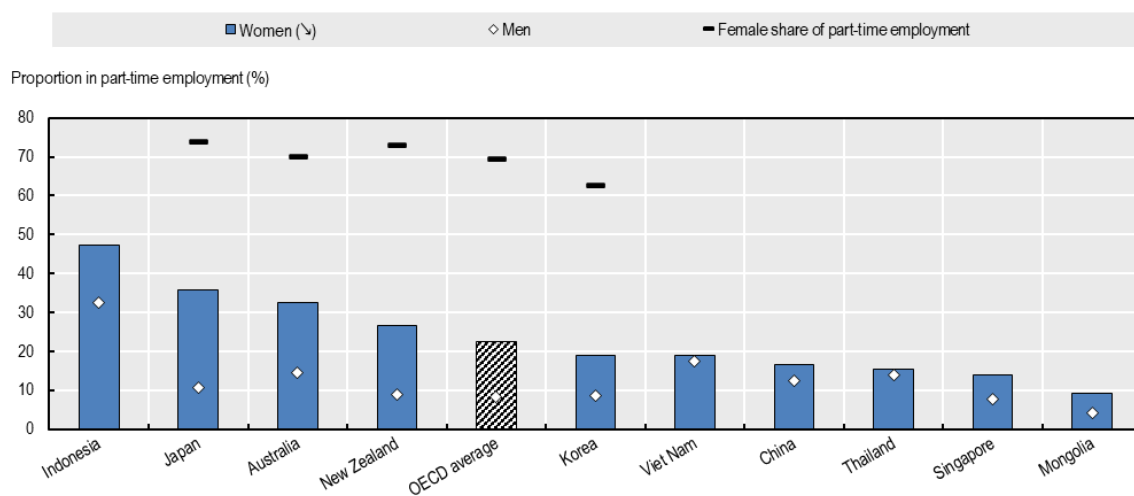
	Year	Below upper secondary			Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary			Tertiary Education		
		Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
Australia	2021	67.2	52.5	<b>14.7</b>	85.3	71.0	<b>14.2</b>	89.3	82.5	<b>6.7</b>
China	2020	84.0	66.4	<b>17.6</b>	85.3	67.9	<b>17.4</b>	92.3	87.8	<b>4.5</b>
Indonesia	2021	89.8	57.2	<b>32.6</b>	87.7	52.9	<b>34.8</b>	88.1	74.5	<b>13.5</b>
Japan	2021	..	..		..	..		94.3	78.2	<b>16.1</b>
Korea	2021	70.5	54.8	<b>15.7</b>	80.1	59.4	<b>20.8</b>	87.3	66.4	<b>20.8</b>
Malaysia	2023	11.9	8.1	<b>3.8</b>	57.7	48.3	<b>9.4</b>	30.5	43.6	<b>-13.1</b>
Mongolia	2023	53.6	39.1	<b>14.5</b>	62.0	42.6	<b>19.5</b>	80.9	66.3	<b>14.6</b>
New Zealand	2021	78.3	64.4	<b>13.9</b>	89.8	76.2	<b>13.6</b>	92.5	86.1	<b>6.4</b>
OECD average	2021	67.7	46.8	<b>20.9</b>	81.9	67.3	<b>14.6</b>	89.3	81.8	<b>7.5</b>
Singapore	2021	83.4	60.1	<b>23.2</b>	90.7	71.1	<b>19.5</b>	92.2	83.6	<b>8.6</b>
Thailand	2021	71.7	52.1	<b>19.6</b>	78.1	61.5	<b>16.6</b>	79.4	77.1	<b>2.2</b>
Viet Nam	2024	85.4	74.3	<b>11.1</b>	85.2	78.6	<b>6.6</b>	87.4	79.1	<b>8.3</b>

Notes: For Japan, data on tertiary education include upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary programmes (less than 5% of the adults are under this group). For Malaysia, the employment rates by education attainment refers to the highest level (age 15-64 years old) in which a person has completed schooling. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average across OECD member countries. See OECD [Education at a Glance 2024](#) for more detail.

Sources: Australia, Indonesia, Korea, Japan, New Zealand and the OECD average: OECD [Education at a Glance 2024](#) China: China Social Survey 2020; Malaysia: Labour Force Survey; Mongolia: Labour Force Survey; Thailand: Labour Force Survey; Vietnam: Labour and Employment Survey; Mongolia: Labour force survey.

In most Asia/Pacific countries, employed women are far more likely to work part-time than employed men (Chart LMF1.6.B). The proportion of employed women in part-time employment is higher than the proportion for men in the Asia/Pacific countries included here. In Australia, Japan, Korea, and New Zealand (as well as on average in the OECD), the share of women in part-time employment is more than twice as high as for men. In a couple of countries, the gender gap is only relatively small. In Viet Nam, the gender gap is lower than 2 percentage points. In countries for which data is available, women take up more than 60% of part-time jobs, and in Japan, this is as high as 74%, which means that out of every four part-time jobs, three are taken by women.

**Chart LMF1.6.B. Gender differences in part-time employment, 2024 or latest year available**  
Proportion of total employed in part-time employment, by sex, all ages



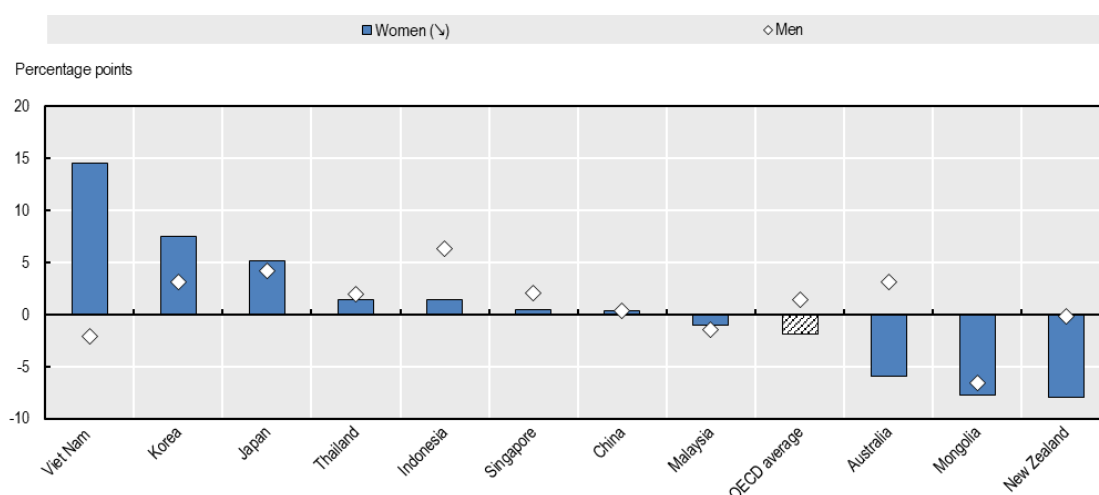
Notes: Data refer to 2023 for Mongolia, Singapore, and Malaysia; to 2022 for China, Korea, New Zealand, Japan and the OECD average; to 2021 for Indonesia and 2019 for Australia. For Japan and Korea, part-time employment is based on actual rather than usual weekly working hours. For China and Mongolia, part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 40 hours in their main job.

Sources: Australia, Indonesia, Japan, Korea and New Zealand: [OECD Employment Database](https://oecd.org/employment/); Indonesia: ILOSTAT (processed from National Labour Force Surveys); Malaysia: Labour Force Survey (2023); Mongolia: Labour Force Survey (2023); Singapore: Ministry of Manpower (2023), Labour Force in Singapore; Thailand: Labour Force Survey (Quarter 3, 2024); Viet Nam: Labour Force Survey (2024).

Trends in the proportion of employed women working part-time are mixed across Asia/Pacific countries (Chart LMF1.6.C). In Korea and Viet Nam, part-time work has become more common among employed women over the past decade or so, with the share in part-time work increasing by at least 7.5 percentage points since 2005. In Japan the share of women with part-time employment is almost 5 percentage points higher in 2022 than in 2005. In China, Indonesia, and Singapore the proportion of employed women in part-time work has changed little since 2005, while in Australia, Mongolia and New Zealand it has fallen by over 5 percentage points over the same period. For men, part-time work has become more common in Australia, Indonesia, Japan, and Korea; it has changed little in China and New Zealand; and decreased most notably in Mongolia, with the increase in economic activity.

**Chart LMF1.6.C. Evolution of gender differences in part-time employment, 2005-2024 or latest available**

Percentage point change in the proportion of employed in part-time employment, by sex, all ages

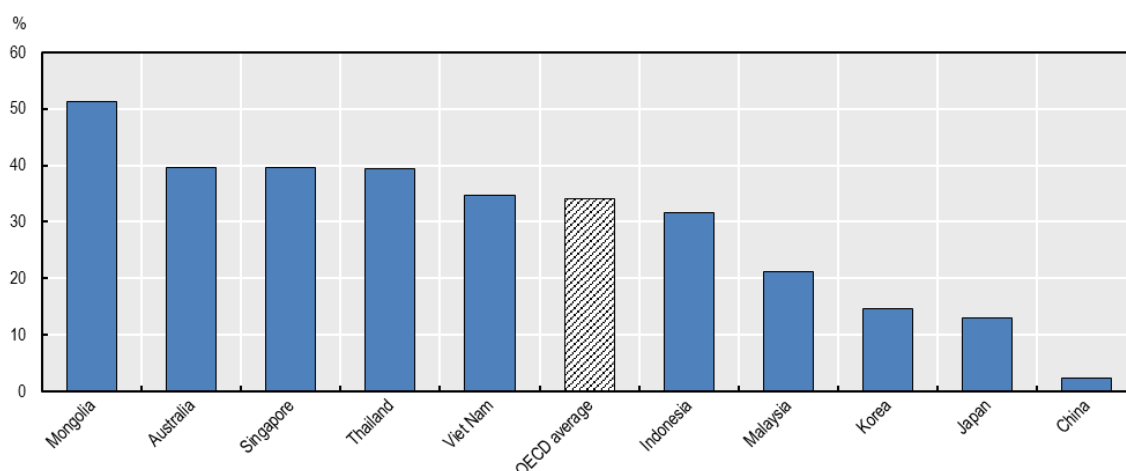


Notes: For China, part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 40 hours in their main job. The part-time employment rate is calculated for all working people. For Mongolia, the part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 40 hours per week in their main job. For Japan and Korea, part-time employment is based on actual rather than usual weekly working hours. For Australia, Japan, Korea and New Zealand the jobs covered are all jobs. Data for 2005 refer to 2010 for Singapore; and to 2011 for Malaysia. Data for 2024 refer to 2021 for Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam; to 2020 for Indonesia. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average across OECD member countries. See [OECD Family Database](#) Indicator LMF1.6 for more detail.

Sources: Australia, Indonesia, Japan, Korea and New Zealand: [OECD Employment Database](#); OECD average: [OECD Family Database](#) Indicator LMF1.6; China: 1% National Population Sample Survey, 2005; census in 2010; Indonesia: ILOSTAT (processed from National Labour Force Surveys); Malaysia: Labour Force Survey; Mongolia: Labour Force Survey; Singapore: Ministry of Manpower, Labour Force in Singapore; Thailand: Labour Force Survey; Viet Nam: Labour Force Survey.

In Asia/Pacific countries, as across the OECD, women remain under-represented in top positions and continue to make up less than half of all individuals employed as managers (Chart LMF1.6.D). This is particularly the case in China, Japan and Korea, where women make up less than 15% of managers. In China, representation of women in managing position remains at around 2%. In Australia, Mongolia, Singapore and Thailand women make up around 40-50% of managers, which is also above the OECD average (34%).

**Chart LMF1.6.D. Female share of managerial employment, 2024 or latest available**  
Proportion of persons employed as managers that are women



Notes: For Mongolia, used ISCO-88 up to 2010 and has used ISCO-08 since 2011. For this estimation, 13 categories of ISCO-88 were used up to 2010. 2023 for 2022 for Indonesia Korea; 2021 for Australia; 2019,. Data refer to 2023 for Mongolia, Singapore and Malaysia, to 2022 for Korea, Japa and the OECD average; to 2021 for Australia and to 2019 for China. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average across the OECD member countries with available and comparable data. See [OECD Family Database Indicator LMF1.6](#) for more details.

Sources: Australia, Japan, Korea, New Zealand and OECD average: [OECD Employment Database](#); China: 1% National Population Sample Survey; Indonesia: ILOSTAT (processed from National Labour Force Surveys); Malaysia: Department of Statistics Malaysia (DOSM), Wages and Salary (2021); Mongolia: Labour Force Survey; Singapore: Ministry of Manpower, Labour Force in Singapore; Thailand: Labour Force Survey; Viet Nam: Labour Force Survey.

### *Comparability and data issues*

Most of the data used in this indicator are taken from or are based on information from national labour force surveys or household surveys or, in the case of China, the national population census. Organisations such as the International Labour Organization (ILO) set out and define numerous [standards and guidelines](#) that should be followed by countries when conducting labour force surveys and producing labour statistics, which should help reduce comparability issues. Still, a few issues should be noted:

- For Charts LMF1.6.B and LMF1.6.C, part-time employment rates are based on a harmonised definition of 'part-time employment' whereby all workers whose usual weekly working hours in their main job are less than 30 are considered to work 'part-time'. However, for Japan and Korea the data used are *actual* hours worked, for Australia, Japan, Korea and New Zealand the jobs covered are *all* jobs. For Indonesia, part-time refers to people working less than 35 hours per week. For China and Mongolia part-time employment refers to an employment of less than 40 hours per week in a person's main job. Relative to other countries, these differences may lead to an underestimation of the numbers working part-time in Australia, Japan, Korea, and New Zealand, and an overestimation in China, Indonesia and Mongolia.
- For Box Chart LMF1.6.E, data on maternal employment rates by age of youngest child refer to rates for mothers aged 15-64 with children aged 0-14, only. However, for Japan, data refer to mothers of all ages without restriction. To the extent that there are any mothers of children aged 0-14 that are younger than 15 or older than 64 in the sample, and to the extent that these mothers are less likely to be in employment than mothers aged 15-64, this difference may lead to an underestimation of the maternal employment rate in Japan relative to other countries.

*Sources and further reading:* OECD (2025), OECD Dashboard on Gender Gaps, via [www.oecd.org/gender](http://www.oecd.org/gender); International Labour Organization (2022), *Asia-Pacific Employment and Social Outlook 2022: Rethinking sectoral strategies for a human-centred future of work*, [https://www.ilo.org/asia/publications/WCMS\\_764084/lang--en/index.htm](https://www.ilo.org/asia/publications/WCMS_764084/lang--en/index.htm); United Nations Women (2022). Annual Report for Asia and the Pacific 2020-2021, [https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-08/UNW\\_Annual-Report-2022\\_FA-r18x.pdf](https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-08/UNW_Annual-Report-2022_FA-r18x.pdf); International Labour Organization (2021), *World Employment and Social Outlook 2021: Trends 2021*, [https://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/weso/trends2021/WCMS\\_795453/lang--en/index.htm](https://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/weso/trends2021/WCMS_795453/lang--en/index.htm).