Women’s Employment Summit
Edinburgh, 12 September 2012

Research & Analysis Commission
Evidence Paper
## Introduction & Summary
- school choices
- school leaver destinations
- Modern Apprenticeships
- subject choice at college/university
- graduate destinations
- qualification levels

## Education & Learning
- school choices
- school leaver destinations
- Modern Apprenticeships
- subject choice at college/university
- graduate destinations
- qualification levels

## Patterns of Employment
- sectoral segregation
- science, technology, engineering and mathematics
- occupational segregation
- part-time working
- flexible working

## Issues in Work
- gender pay gap
- underemployment (skills)
- underemployment (hours)
- training
- childcare
- women in management

## Women in Enterprise
- self-employment
- business ownership

## Women not in Work
- unemployment
- long term unemployment
- claimant count
- NEET
- inactivity

## Transition Phases
- families
- lone parents
- older women
- retirement and pensions

## Labour Market Trends
- long term trends
- recent trends
- women in recession

## International Comparisons

## Glossary

## References
1 Introduction & Summary
Introduction
The purpose of this paper is to give a broad overview of the evidence relating to women in employment. It brings together existing data and research, and highlights the key issues from these sources. It is not a compendium, but it is hoped it will be a useful aid to discussions.

As far as possible, data shown relates to Scotland. Where non-Scottish data is used, this is clearly labelled in the text, charts and tables.

Summary

- Women make different learning choices. Women are more likely to stay on at school, and to go in to further and higher education.

- Gender differences are strongly evident in subject choices at school, in further and higher education, and in Modern Apprenticeships. Though more women are qualifying in traditionally male subjects within STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics).

- Women consistently do well in education. Women do better than men at all stages of education and across all attainment levels.

- Women's educational performance is not reflected in longer term labour market outcomes. Women are more highly qualified and more likely to move into positive destinations on leaving education. Early career earnings of young woman are similar to young men’s. Yet the gender pay gap continues and there are few women in managerial and senior positions.

- Part-time and flexible working opportunities are very important. Balancing caring responsibilities with work means part-time and flexible working are essential for families. Achieving this balance can have negative consequences in terms of employment opportunities and career progression for women.

- Occupational segregation by gender continues to be a strong feature of women’s employment. With women concentrated in administration, education and health sectors, and fewer women than men in management roles.

- The public sector plays an important role in women's employment. The public sector employs a greater proportion of working women than men in Scotland. Compared to the private sector, the gender pay gap is smaller, it offers more flexible working, higher levels of training and good pension provision. However, this also means women are more at risk of potential future reductions in employment in this sector.

- Women and men's employment patterns are different. There are key transition points in a woman’s life, such as starting a family or taking on caring duties for older relatives. These can have an impact on their labour market participation – potentially affecting an individual's availability to work to their full potential, limiting their employment opportunities and the labour market pool for business and enterprise.

- The long term trends are positive. There are increasing numbers of women in employment and the headline gender pay gap is decreasing.
2 Education & Learning

Key Issues

- There are gender differences in terms of subject choices at school, in Modern Apprenticeships, and in Further and Higher Education.
- Girls consistently do better than boys at all stages of education and across attainment levels, and are more likely to move into a positive destination post-learning. However, this advantage is not maintained in the long-term.
- Education is not the only determinant of life chances.
- Women have lower employment rates across all qualification levels than men.

School choices

- The subject choices of girls and boys are very different, and are influenced by a range of factors including social and cultural values.
- School subjects in which more girls than boys enter exams include Biology, Administration, English, Art and Design and Languages.
- Subjects where boys dominate include Physics, Physical Education, Computing Studies, Craft and Design, Product Design and Graphic Communication.
- More girls than boys stay on at school into S5 and S6. In 2011/12, the staying on rate for S5 was 87 per cent for girls and 83 per cent for boys, and for S6 was 60 per cent for girls and 53 per cent for boys.
- Girls perform better at school than boys, at all levels in Scotland. Alongside gender, attainment can also be influenced by socio-economic background, family, social class of peers, school location, ethnicity, sexual orientation and teen parenthood.

School leaver destinations

- A higher proportion of girls are consistently in positive destinations compared with boys, both on leaving school (2010/11 90.4 per cent compared with 88.9 per cent) and 9 months later (88.5 per cent compared with 86.0 per cent).
- A higher proportion of girls than boys go into Further and Higher Education after leaving school (see Figure 2.1). Boys are more likely to go straight into employment.

Figure 2.1: School leaver destinations 2010/11, 3 months after leaving school, Scotland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Higher Education</th>
<th>Further Education</th>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Other-positive</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Destinations of Leavers from Scottish Schools: 2010/11 – Supplementary Data, SDS
Modern Apprenticeships

- More males take up Modern Apprenticeships than females (females are more likely to go into further education – see previous section on school leaver destinations). This has been a long-standing issue for apprenticeship programmes, though recent data suggests that the imbalance is decreasing – of all new starts in 2011/12, 57 per cent were male and 43 per cent were female. In 2008/09 nearly three quarters (73 per cent) of all new starts were male.

- However, the overall balance of apprentices studying (those currently in training) in March 2012 showed two thirds (67 percent) were male, and only one third (33 per cent) were female.

- There is strong segregation within frameworks (see Figure 2.2) - 72 per cent of female new starts were in business & administration; early years care and education; hairdressing; health and social care; hospitality and retail. The greatest number of male new starts were in construction, driving goods vehicles, engineering and hospitality.

- Pay levels reflect gender segregation in the wider labour market, where pay is likely to be lower in female dominated sectors such as hairdressing and retail, and higher in male dominated sectors such as engineering and construction.

- The gender segregation present across MAs reflects and reinforces wider occupational segregation issues. [See section on occupational segregation.]

![Figure 2.2: Modern Apprenticeship participation by gender and framework (those with >1,000 new starts) 2011/12](source: SDS National Training Programme Statistics)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MA Framework</th>
<th>% of Starts</th>
<th>% in Training</th>
<th>Achievements as % of leavers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business &amp; Administration</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer service</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving Goods Vehicles</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Years Care and Education</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hairdressing</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Social Care</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subject choice at college/university

- Further and Higher Education subject choices made by women and men continue to show a gendered pattern.

- In Further Education, females dominate in: Arts and Crafts (77 per cent); Healthcare/Medicine/Health (72 per cent); Politics/Economics/Social Sciences (72 per cent); and Education/Training/Teaching (69 per cent).

- For entrants to Scottish Higher Education Institutions, women dominated in: Subjects Allied to Medicine (88 per cent); Medicine and Dentistry (63 per cent); Biological Sciences (65 per cent); Veterinary Science (77 per cent); Social Studies (71 per cent); Education (75 per cent); Creative Arts and Design (65 per cent); and Languages (67 per cent).
**2 Education & Learning**

**Figure 2.3: Scottish Graduate Destinations 2009/10**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Postgraduate</th>
<th>First Degree</th>
<th>Sub-Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study / Training</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed within Scotland</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed elsewhere</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believed unemployed</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Elias & Purcell Classification**

| Graduate level occupations | 79%         | 76%         | 81%         | 49%         | 46%         | 50%         | 33%         | 29%         | 37%         |
| Non-Graduate level occupations | 22%         | 24%         | 20%         | 51%         | 54%         | 50%         | 67%         | 72%         | 64%         |

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

**Graduate destinations**

- On leaving Higher Education, women tend to perform better within the first 6 months than men, with fewer women reporting they are unemployed, at all levels of qualification (see Figure 2.3).
- Female Scottish domiciled graduates are more likely than male graduates to be working in Scotland after completion of their course, while a greater proportion of male graduates find work elsewhere, are in further study or training, or believed to be unemployed.
- Employment destinations vary by gender. Across all industries, both female and male graduates are most likely to be in Professional occupations. Female graduates were more likely to be Associate Professionals or Administrators than their male contemporaries, who were more likely to be Managers or Senior Officials.
- Out of those first degree graduates in 2009-10 who moved into employment, more female graduates than male graduates were employed in a graduate level occupation – 50 per cent compared with 46 per cent.

**Figure 2.4: Qualifications of people in employment by gender, 2011, Scotland**

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS
2 Education & Learning

Qualification levels
- Nearly half (47 per cent) of women in employment are qualified to SVQ Level 4 or above, compared with 39 per cent of men (see Figure 2.4).
- More men are qualified to SVQ Level 3 than women (31 per cent for men, 21 per cent for women), while more women are qualified to SVQ Level 2 (18 per cent for women, 11 per cent for men).
The same proportion of men and women have no qualifications – 7 per cent.

Figure 2.5: Occupational skill level* of people in employment (16-64), 2011, Scotland

Occupational skill levels
- Almost half (46 per cent) of all women in employment are employed in med-low skilled occupations compared with only 24 per cent of men (see Figure 2.5).
- One fifth (20 per cent) of women are employed in high skill occupations compared with a quarter (25 per cent) of men.
- A similar proportion of men and women are employed in low skill occupations.

Employment rates by qualification
- Women have lower employment rates across all qualification levels than men.
- The gap between male and female employment rates is smallest at the highest qualification levels (SVQ levels 4 and 5) – a gap of 5 percentage points. The gap increases as the level of qualification drops to around 20 percentage points at SVQ level 1.
- The gap for those with no qualifications is 10 percentage points.

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS
Note: The definition of occupational skill levels is provided in the glossary.
Patterns of Employment

Key Issues

- Occupational segregation by gender continues to be a strong feature in women’s employment, with women concentrated in administration, education and health sectors and with fewer women than men in management roles.
- The public sector is a key employer for women offering flexible working and high levels of training. However this also means women are more at risk of potential reductions in public sector employment.
- Flexibility is important as more women job-share and use flexitime.
- The majority of those working part-time are women. These jobs tend to be less highly skilled and lower paid.
- Women are better qualified/more highly skilled but this is not reflected in long-term employment outcomes.

Sectoral segregation

- Working women in Scotland in 2011 are most likely to be found in Public Administration, Education and Health – 46 per cent are employed in these industries, which includes public, private and voluntary sector employers (see Figure 3.1). Male employment is more evenly distributed across industries.
- In terms of the split between public, private and voluntary sectors, over a third (37 per cent) of women in employment report they work the public sector, 60 per cent in the private sector and 4 per cent in the voluntary sector. The equivalent figures for men are 19 per cent (public), 79 per cent (private) and 2 per cent (voluntary).

- There has been little change overall in terms of sectoral segregation over the last 8 years.

Figure 3.1: Level of women’s employment by broad industry sector, 2011, Scotland

Science, technology, engineering and mathematics

- The number of women STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) graduates and postgraduates has increased significantly in recent years, however only just over a quarter (27 per cent) of these graduates will stay in the sector they qualified in. This compares with 52 per cent of male STEM graduates.
- The factors that cause this loss include the practicalities of family responsibilities but also cultural factors such as attitudes in the workplace, the nature of the sector (long periods of qualification, high levels of mobility and career insecurity, fast moving so knowledge becomes obsolete quickly) and a lack of female role models at senior levels.
Occupational segregation

- Occupational segregation by gender refers to the inequality in distribution of women and men across different occupational categories and job roles.
- Occupational segregation can be ‘horizontal’ where women and men are clustered into specific job types.
- Women are most likely to be employed in Professional, Administrative and Caring, leisure and other services roles (see Figure 3.2). A greater proportion of men than women are employed Skilled trades, Process, plant and machine operative positions and in Manager and senior official roles. The top 5 female-dominated occupations in 2011 (where 75 per cent or more of people employed are female) are: secretarial; caring personal service; health professionals; administrative occupations and health and social care associative professionals.
- ‘Vertical’ occupational segregation relates to the clustering of women in lower positions and grades within organisations and their under-representation in Manager and Senior Official roles i.e. the ‘glass ceiling’ effect.
- Women are under-represented in management roles and other senior positions, even in sectors which have a predominantly female workforce. The majority (62 per cent) of Scottish secondary school teachers are women but only 31 per cent of secondary head teachers are women.
- The causes of occupational segregation are complex and include issues relating to gender stereotyping during education and career formation, inflexible work practices, and the under-valuing of roles and occupations associated with ‘women’s work’ i.e. cleaning, caring, administration.

Figure 3.2: Occupation by gender, 2011, Scotland

![Occupation by gender, 2011, Scotland](image)

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS

Figure 3.3: Proportion working part-time by age and gender, 2011, Scotland

![Proportion working part-time by age and gender, 2011, Scotland](image)

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS
3 Patterns of Employment

Part-time working

- There is considerable difference between male and female rates of part-time employment. On average, 43 per cent of all women in employment work part-time compared with only 13 per cent of men.
- A quarter (25 per cent) of women who did not want a full-time job reported the reason they work part-time was because suitable care services for children were not available or affordable. The equivalent figure for men is 6 per cent.
- Women employed in the Distribution, hotels and restaurants sector are most likely to be working part-time.
- For women, there has been little change in the proportion working part-time over the past 8 years, while for men, there has been a slight increase in the proportion working part-time.
- Part-time work is significant for women of all ages (see Figure 3.3).

Flexible working

- Approximately 11 per cent of all women in employment work flexi-time (around 134,000), where they can choose, within limits, the times they start and finish work. About 6 per cent of working women have term-time working arrangements (just under 71,000)
- Females make up the majority of people with job-sharing and term-time working arrangements (84 per cent), whilst males make up the majority of people working a nine day fortnight, four and a half day week or on-call working arrangement (74 per cent).
- Over half (56 per cent) of all people working flexi-time are females.

- Most females with flexi-time are employed in the public sector (63 per cent). For those women with term-time or job sharing working arrangements, the proportion employed in the public sector is even higher at around 80 per cent.
4 Issues in Work

Key Issues
- Women can find themselves in part-time jobs for which they are overqualified.
- The pay gap is decreasing over time but its continued existence indicates that women are placed at a disadvantage in the labour market.
- Accessible, affordable and flexible childcare is fundamental to women’s participation in work and training.
- Women continue to find it difficult to reach the top of their career ladder despite leaving the education system on the whole with better qualifications than men.

Gender pay gap
- The headline pay gap is an indicator of systemic gender inequality in the labour market. However, the causes of the pay gap are complex and are related to occupational segregation, lack of flexible working practices and discrimination in pay and grading systems.
- The pay gap between men and women is decreasing (see Fig 4.1), however women continue to be at a disadvantage in the labour market.
- In Scotland, women working full-time earned 5.8 per cent less per hour than men working full-time, based on median earnings, and 10.7 per cent based on mean earnings.
- Men earn more on average than females across every occupational group. The median pay gap varies from 2.5 per cent for full-time employees in Personal Service occupations to 29.8 per cent for Skilled Trades.

- The pay gap is greater in the private sector than in the public sector. This is mainly due to a larger gap in wages for part-time workers in the private sector (11 per cent compared to 6 per cent for part-time workers in the public sector, based on median earnings).
- Women tend to earn more than men in younger age groups but this trend is reversed for older workers.

Figure 4.1: Pay gap over time (median full-time hourly wages excluding overtime), Scotland

In-work poverty
- The relationship between gender and in-work poverty is complex because poverty rates are calculated at household level.
- For those households where there is a single women with children, it is estimated that the in-work poverty rate is 6 per cent. There are so few households with a single man with children, no robust figures for comparison can be produced.

Source: ASHE
Issues in Work

Underemployment - skills
- UK research found that when moving into part-time work, women find part-time jobs are often unavailable in their previous occupations, so they may take part-time jobs for which they are overqualified.
- UK research estimated that the probability of a woman being downwardly mobile when moving out of full-time work in to part-time work is about 50 per cent.

Underemployment – hours
- Underemployment is when individuals work fewer hours than they would prefer to work and can provide an indication of underutilisation of labour.
- In 2011, there were 107,000 women in work and 99,000 men in work who would like to work more hours than they currently do.
- The proportion of women and men facing underemployment has risen in recent years – in 2011, 12.6 per cent of women and 8.4 per cent of men wanted to work additional hours in their current job, up from 10.1 per cent and 7.6 per cent in 2008.

In work training
- On average, a slightly higher proportion of female employees receive work related training than their male counterparts – 32 per cent compared with 27 per cent.
- Women working part-time are less likely than women working full-time to receive training (see Figure 4.2) – 36 per cent working full-time received training compared with 27 per cent working part-time. There was no difference across full-time/part-time employment for men.
- The likelihood of receiving training at work increases by skill level for both men and women, with 42 per cent of women in high skill occupations receiving training compared with 16 per cent in low skill occupations.
- The difference between men and women regarding training may be explained by greater numbers of women employed in the public sector. Employers in this sector are much more likely to offer training than employers in the private sector – 85 per cent compared with 56 per cent.

Figure 4.2: Training received in last 3 months by gender and FT/PT status, 2011, Scotland

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS
4 Issues in Work

Childcare

- Women are typically responsible for childcare and the informal care of relatives or friends which limits their labour market opportunities due to the barriers they face e.g. inflexible work practices.
- Statistics from the Annual Population Survey suggest a link between women’s caring commitments and economic inactivity – 30 per cent of women classified as “economically inactive” responded that this was because they were “looking after the family, home” compared to only 5 per cent of men.
- The most common use of childcare is to enable self/partner to work.
- Informal childcare is more commonly used than formal childcare. Overall the most commonly used form of childcare is care from a relative.
- Affordable, available childcare is important. A quarter (25 per cent) of households in Scotland who used childcare (either formal or informal) stated that affording the childcare they use is a key concern.
- Average costs of early childhood learning and care UK-wide are estimated at around £100 per week or £5,000 per year for a part-time place.
- Accessing the childcare (either formal or informal) they used was felt to be difficult by 12 per cent of households.

Women in management

- Few women progress to senior management positions despite leaving the education system on the whole with better qualifications.
- The lack of women progressing into senior management indicates a loss to the labour market economy in terms of skills, knowledge and experience.
- OECD research shows that irrespective of family commitments, many women still find it very hard to reach the top of their career ladder, with inequalities rising with progression up the pay scale. Across the OECD, women earn on average 16 per cent less than men, but for top female earners, the gap is 21 per cent.
- The Equality and Human Rights Commission’s (EHRC) Sex and Power Scotland 2011 list shows there are more women in top posts in 10 of the 14 occupational categories in 2010/11 compared to 2007/08. However, most increases have been small, attributable to just one or two women joining senior posts. Compared to 2007/08, there was a drop in women’s participation in four sectors - Scottish local authority council leaders; public appointments; Scottish MEPs and Further Education college principles.
- A range of research suggests there are many reasons why women’s careers tend to stall – a lack of senior positions available on a part-time/flexible basis; the long-hours culture and ‘presenteeism’ (all of which disproportionately impact on women with caring responsibilities); traditional forms of business networking (‘old boys’ network) which can be difficult for women to access; informal recruitment based on networking; recruitment processes that favour experience and time served rather than skills and competence; discrimination based on age and gender; and the loss of promotional and training opportunities when on maternity leave.
Key Issues

- Female self-employment has increased over recent years though women continue to be less likely to start up their own business than men, and those that do tend to do it on a smaller scale.
- Few small to medium-sized enterprise employers are led by women.
- Women-led SME employers tend to be smaller than average – nine out of ten (91 per cent) were micro-businesses compared with 83 per cent overall.

**Figure 5.1: Self-employment rate by gender, 2004-2011, Scotland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS

**Self-employment**

- 84,000 women in Scotland are self-employed, which accounts for 30 per cent of all self-employed people. Female self-employment has increased over recent years – from 66,300 in 2004, a rise of 27 per cent. The number of men who are self-employed also increased, by 10 per cent.
- Women’s self-employment rate (self-employment as a proportion of those in employment) is around half of that for men - 7 per cent in 2011 compared with 15 per cent for men. See Figure 5.1.
- Almost half (49 per cent) of all self-employed women work in either Public Administration, Education and Health, or Other Services, compared with 14 per cent of self-employed men.
- The female self-employment rate is lower in Scotland than in the UK as a whole (7 per cent compared with 9 per cent), although the UK figures are influenced by high rates in London and the South. However, the gap between male and female self-employment rates is slightly narrower in Scotland – a difference of 8 per cent compared with 9 per cent across the UK.
- Self-employed women earn less than men – in the OECD the gap between the median incomes of men and women is between 30 to 40 per cent. A lack of management experience and less time devoted to the business were the main reasons suggested for this.
- Latest evidence from the SME Access to Finance Survey shows that over the three year period to 2012, a similar proportion female led-firms sought finance compared to male-led firms (44 per cent compared to 45 per cent).
5 Women in Enterprise

Business ownership

- More small to medium-sized enterprise employers are owned by men, or led by a management team with a majority of men. In 2007/08, only 18 per cent of Scottish small to medium-sized enterprise employers were women-led (defined as run by a woman or having a management team made up mostly of women).
- A further 21 per cent of SMEs are equally led by men and women. This makes a total of 39 per cent of SME employers equally or majority led by women.
- Women-led SME employers tend to be smaller than average. In Scotland, 91 per cent of women-led SME employers were micro-businesses, compared with 83 per cent overall.
- Evidence from the OECD shows that when women do start up their own business, they tend to do it on a smaller scale than men, in a limited range of sectors (higher proportions of women enterprises in wholesale and retail trade, transportation and accommodation).
6 Women not in Work

Key Issues
- Women are more likely to economically inactive whilst men are more likely to be unemployed.
- Female unemployment peaked at the end of 2011 at 8.2 per cent.
- Since 2008 unemployment has increased most amongst young women.
- 10 per cent of young women aged 16 -19 are NEET.
- 31 per cent of women unemployed have been unemployed for more than 12 months.
- The most frequent reason given for inactivity for women is looking after family/home.

Unemployment
- There are currently 90,000 women unemployed (rate of 7.0 per cent) compared to 124,000 men (unemployment rate of 8.7 per cent)
- The 2008 recession had a far more immediate impact on men than women. Male unemployment rates peaked in Spring 2010 at 9.9 per cent and female unemployment rates peaked at the end of 2011 at 8.2 per cent.

Unemployment by age
- Young women in particular have experienced a large increase in unemployment, between summer 2008 and summer 2012, the unemployment rate for women aged 16-24 increased from 11.7 per cent to 19.3 per cent.
- Over the past year, the largest increase in the unemployment rate has been amongst women aged 25-34. The unemployment rate for this group is at the highest level since the series began in 1992.

Figure 6.1: Unemployment by gender, 1992 to 2012, Scotland

Figure 6.2: Unemployment rates for women, 2012, Scotland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Unemployment Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-49</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Labour Force Survey, ONS
6 Women not in Work

Long-term unemployment
- 31 per cent of women unemployed have been unemployed for more than 12 months. This equates to 28,000 women in Scotland.
- Female long-term unemployment has risen at a steady rate since 2008 (increasing by 28 per cent over the last year to around 28,000). The rise for males was sharper, but appears to have peaked in 2010.
- The current level of female long-term unemployment (just under 28,000 as of Apr-Jun 2012) is amongst the highest seen since comparable data was collected.
- The level of female long-term unemployment has increased by over 300 per cent since 2008.

Figure 6.3: Long-term unemployment* by gender, 1994 to 2012, Scotland

Claimant Count
- There are currently 43,900 women on the claimant count in Scotland.
- The number of women on the claimant count has increased by 25,300 since July 2008. This increase in the number of women claiming Job Seekers Allowance (JSA) is in part due to a change in the eligibility rules for Lone Parent Income Support (LPIS) which has resulted in fewer lone parents being able to claim LPIS. It will also be due to the economic slowdown reducing the number of jobs available.
- Between May 2008 and May 2012 the number of lone parents (both men and women) receiving Job Seekers Allowance increased from 375 to 9,455. Some of this increase will be due to the economic slowdown.

Figure 6.4: Claimant count by gender, 1974 to 2012, Scotland

Source: Labour Force Survey, ONS
* - those unemployed for 12 months or longer.
6 Women not in Work

Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET)
- More males aged 16 to 19 are NEET than females. In 2011, 12,000 young women were NEET out of a total of 31,000.
- This represents 10 per cent of all young women aged 16 to 19.

Inactivity
- Women are more likely to be economically inactive than men. The latest data shows there are 491,500 economically inactive women in Scotland compared to 295,000 economically inactive men.
- The most frequent reason given for inactivity for women is looking after family/home.
- Nearly a quarter (24 per cent) of inactive women report they are long-term sick. This is much lower than for men (38 per cent).
- Just over 20 per cent of women who are economically inactive want a job, but are not looking for a job.

Figure 6.5: Reasons for inactivity, 2012, Scotland

Source: APS, April 2011 – March 2012
7 Transition Phases

Key Issues
- Starting a family can have negative long term consequences on women’s labour market participation.
- Women returning from maternity and looking after young families are often seeking part-time work. This can mean leaving their chosen career to find part-time work which may be in low skilled employment with little training or prospects of progression.
- Limited quality part-time opportunities means women may have to “downgrade” their employment to jobs where their skills are not fully used.
- The negative labour market effects of becoming a mother affects lone parents to an even greater extent.
- Older women are forming a growing proportion of the workforce but face challenges and issues arising from decisions made earlier in life.

Families
- Starting a family can have several negative effects on the labour market prospects of women.
- Stereotypical expectations on the role of women within society is reflected in the workplace, where policies on flexible working, which are for both women and men rarely translate into an equitable split between women and men accessing flexible and part-time work after starting a family. [See section on flexible working.]

- Taking time out to have a baby and care for a child impacts on both earnings at the time but also lifetime earnings as women lose out on experience, training and promotion opportunities.
- Many women who return to work do so on a part-time basis. This can have consequences as part-time work tends to be lower paid and lower skilled, and is more likely to be available in smaller, less unionised firms where there are fewer job prospects and where redundancy and job insecurity are more common.
- In order to take up part-time work, some women have to “downgrade” their employment as part-time work is not readily available in their chosen career. This often means they have to move employer, which presents a loss of knowledge, skills and expertise to the sector, and their experience and skills are not fully utilised.
- Moving in to low paid, low skilled employment after maternity leave rarely translates into higher skilled employment later in life and in some cases it becomes unsustainable to work part-time due to increasing childcare costs.

Lone Parents
- The employment rate for female lone parents in Scotland during 2011 was 57 per cent.
- The negative labour market effects of becoming a mother affects lone mothers to a greater extent than women who are part of a couple.
- Lone mothers who are working are more likely than other mothers to be in part-time, low paid and low skill jobs.
- Work that fits around childcare is a key consideration. Lone parents often rely on informal childcare through family to make work affordable.
7 Transition Phases

- The number and ages of children are a determining factor in whether or not lone mothers work. Those with preschool age children and those with three or more children are less likely to be working than those with fewer and older children.
- Lone mothers’ employment rates are 17 percentage points lower than those for mothers in couples (who are either the head of the household unit or the spouse/partner of the head of the household unit) and 10 percentage points lower than women with no children.
- The proportion of lone mothers and mothers in couples who work part time are similar at around 43 per cent. Women without children are the only group to have a higher proportion working full-time rather than part-time (with 69 per cent having a full-time job).

**Figure 7.1: Proportions of women in employment by family type and full-time/part-time status, 2011, Scotland**

Source: Annual Population Survey, Jan-Dec 2011, ONS

**Older women**

- Over the past year, women aged 50 to 64 in Scotland have shown a slight increase in their employment rate in contrast to a fall for all other age groups. A similar pattern was also seen across the UK.
- Evidence from across Europe suggests that older female workers are forming a growing proportion of the workforce.
- In Scotland, the proportion of older women (aged 50+) has increased slowly since 2004, when 24 per cent of all women aged 16+ were aged over 50, to over 28 per cent in 2011.
- Older women, similar to younger women, tend to have more caring duties than men. They are often relied on to care for grandchildren or older relatives. These caring duties often restrict their availability to work, and as a consequence, limits their employment opportunities.
- Evidence suggests occupation segregation continues as people age. Older women are more likely to earn less than older men; work part-time; have taken time out of the labour market to care for their families; have earned less than men overall and been employed in poorly paid occupations and industries.
7 Transition Phases

Figure 7.2: Employment rates for women by age group over time, Scotland

Source: Annual Population Survey, Jan-Dec, ONS

Retirement and pensions

• The number of people across the UK working over the State Pension Age (SPA) is increasing.
• The majority of people working past SPA in the UK are women – 61 per cent, men account for 39 per cent.
• Of these, two thirds of the men work in high-skill employment whereas two thirds of the women work in low skill employment.
• For women, lower wages over a shorter contribution period due to taking time off for caring and earlier retirement, mean a lower pension. It is also often the case that more family friendly work limits the opportunity to access supplementary pension schemes thus limiting further the pensions of older women.
• The large proportion of women working in the public sector improves women’s overall levels of pension provision.
Long term trends

- There has been a huge change in women’s labour market participation over the last 50 years. In the early 60s in Scotland, around 45 per cent women were in paid employment, whereas in 2011, it was 66.5 per cent. Over the same period, male participation has fallen from over 95 per cent in the early 60’s to 70.7 per cent in 2011.
- Over the last 20 years the number of women in employment has increased while the number of economically inactive women has decreased with unemployment remaining relatively stable, with increases in recent years.

Key Issues

- Nearly two third of women are in paid employment, compared with less than half 50 years ago. This increase is mainly from women moving from inactivity to employment.
- In more recent times, men have seen a larger reduction in employment than women.
- The continued slowdown in economic growth has implications for women as family friendly policies may be given a lower priority by employers, there may be increased competition from men and women who usually work full-time for part-time jobs, and the possibility of decreases in employment in the public sector.
8 Labour Market Trends

The impact of the recession

- The slowdown in economic growth started to impact on the Scottish labour market in the middle of 2008, with employment levels starting to decline and rises in unemployment.

- Since then, the employment rates for both men and women have fallen but the fall in male employment has been far greater – since the second quarter of 2008 male employment has fallen by 3.5 percentage points, compared with 2.1 percentage points for women. This equates to 28,000 less women in employment and 48,000 less men.

- The fall in employment during the recession, for both men and women, was driven by a decrease in the number full-time jobs. This may result in increased competition for part-time jobs from both men and women who usually work full-time.

- There have been differences in the timing of the labour market impact. Men have experienced higher job losses to date, with unemployment rising sharply during the recession and in the early stages of the recovery. In contrast, female unemployment peaked in late 2011/early 2012. There is a possibility that women may be affected disproportionately if there are any reductions in employment in the public sector in the future.

- The recession and continued slowdown in economic growth has particular implications for women as work-life balance and diversity initiatives, as well as the right to request flexible working are likely to be given lower priority by employers.

---

**Figure 8.3: Employment, Unemployment and Inactivity Rates, 2008 – 2012, Scotland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>2012 Rate (%)</th>
<th>Change on quarter (% pt)</th>
<th>Change on year (% pt)</th>
<th>Change since 2008 (% pt)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment Rate</td>
<td>People 71.6</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men 75.8</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women 67.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>-2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Rate</td>
<td>People 7.9</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men 8.7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women 7.0</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactivity Rate</td>
<td>People 22.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men 16.7</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women 27.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Labour Force Survey, April to June Quarters, ONS

**Index of male and female unemployment level**

(Mar-May 2008 = 100)
9 International Comparisons

Key Issues
- Where international comparison data is available, this tends to be at a UK level rather than for Scotland.
- The picture for the UK is mixed with strong educational attainment but weaker representation of women in business and the political environment.
- Women in the UK lag behind other countries in terms wage equality.

Generally the UK does well achieving (see Figure 9.1):
- High levels of educational attainment;
- Above average labour force participation; and
- A significant proportion of children aged less than 3 enrolled in formal childcare services.

The UK performs less well in relation to:
- The gender pay gap; and
- Board seats held by women;
- The number of female entrepreneurs; and
- Seats held in single or lower chambers of parliament

According to the World Economic Forum, the top two ranked Countries overall in terms of the gender gap are Iceland and Norway (see Figure 9.2).

### Figure 9.1 Key female outcomes, UK and OECD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>OECD</th>
<th>Highest ranking country</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduation rates in tertiary type A degrees</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>Slovak Republic</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of engineering, manufacturing and construction degrees awarded</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, 15-64s</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of part-time employment (% of total employment)</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unadjusted gender gap in median earnings for full-time employees</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of unpaid minutes of work per day</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average proportion of board seat held in listed companies</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of entrepreneurs (people who run a business and employ others) as a % of total employed population</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>Greece, Italy, Spain</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of seats held in single or lower chambers of parliament</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of children aged less than 3 enrolled in formal childcare services</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD Gender Data Browser

### Figure 9.2 Global gender gap measures, UK, Iceland and Norway

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>Iceland</th>
<th>Norway</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic Participation and Opportunity</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage equality for similar work</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated earned income</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials and managers</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional and technical workers</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Attainment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in primary education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in secondary education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in tertiary education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Survival</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex ratio at birth (female/male)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy life expectancy</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political empowerment</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in parliament</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in ministerial positions</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years with female head of state (last 50)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Glossary

**Economically active**: The economically active population are those who are either in employment or unemployed (actively seeking work).

**Economic activity rate**: The number of people who are in employment or unemployed expressed as a percentage of the relevant population.

**Economically inactive**: These people are not in employment but are not seeking work. Reasons for inactivity include sickness (temporary and long term), looking after family or home, student, retired, is not looking for work and believes there are no jobs available.

**Economic inactivity rate**: The number of economically inactive people expressed as a percentage of the relevant population.

**Employment rate**: The number of people in employment expressed as a percentage of the relevant population.

**Mothers living with extended family**: Comprises those mothers living in households where they are not the head of the household or the spouse/partner of the head of the household. The majority of this group are aged 16-24.

**NEET**: The proportion of 16-19 year olds who are not classed as a student, or in employment or participating in a government training programme.

**Occupational segregation (horizontal)**: Where men and women are clustered into specific job types/

**Occupational segregation (vertical)**: Where women are clustered in lower positions and grades within organisations and are under-represented in management roles.

**Occupational skill levels**: Are defined by the Office for National Statistics (ONS):

1. Low Skill (requires a general education, signalled via a satisfactory set of school leaving examinations);
2. Medium-Low Skill (requires knowledge provided via a good general education but will typically have a longer period of work-related training or work experience);
3. Medium-High Skill (requires a body of knowledge associated with a period of post-compulsory education but not necessarily to degree level); and
4. High Skill (requires a degree or equivalent period of relevant work experience).

**STEM**: Encompasses science, technology, engineering and mathematics.

**Underemployment**: Includes all employed persons aged 16 and over who during the reference week were willing to work additional hours, meaning that they: wanted another job in addition to their current job(s); wanted another job with more hours instead of their current job(s); or wanted to increase the total number of hours worked in their current job(s).

**Unemployment**: The ILO definition of unemployment covers people who are: not in employment who: want a job; and have actively sought work in the previous 4 weeks; and are available to start work in the next fortnight. It also includes people who are out of work but have accepted a job which they are waiting to start in the next fortnight.
11 References

2 Education & Learning


3 Patterns of employment

Annual Population Survey. Available from NOMIS. http://www.nomisweb.co.uk


4 Issues in work

Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. Available from the ONS website http://www.ons.gov.uk


Daycare Trust (2012). Childcare Costs Survey”.


11 References


5 Women in enterprise


Annual Population Survey. Available from NOMIS. http://www.nomisweb.co.uk


6 Women not in work

Annual Population Survey. Available from NOMIS. http://www.nomisweb.co.uk


7 Transition phases

Annual Population Survey. Available from NOMIS. http://www.nomisweb.co.uk


11 References


Warwick Institute for Employment Research (2007). ‘Winners and Losers in the Labour Market’. Bulletin No. 86. Available at: [http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ier/publications/bulletins/ier86.pdf](http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ier/publications/bulletins/ier86.pdf)

8 Labour market trends


9 International comparisons

OECD Gender Data Browser. Available at: [http://www.oecd.org/els/familiesandchildren/oecdgenderinitiative.htm](http://www.oecd.org/els/familiesandchildren/oecdgenderinitiative.htm)