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Routledge Studies in Gender and Economics

THE ECONOMICS OF WOMEN AND WORK IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Edited by
Reyna Elizabeth Rodríguez Pérez and
David Castro Lugo

ROUTLEDGE



THE ECONOMICS OF WOMEN AND WORK IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

This book offers an analysis of the key issues faced by women in the labor market in the 21st century. It identifies the factors that inhibit women's participation in the labor market, studies occupational segregation by gender and analyzes labor transitions, questioning whether the experience for men and women differs. It also explores the effect of entrepreneurship support programs on women's economic and social positions, as well as the public policy implications of women's entry into the labor market.

The book investigates working women in Mexico and also offers comparisons with countries such as Spain and developing countries within Eastern Europe. It explores a variety of topics, from a gender perspective, such as labor participation, the feminization of poverty, migration, wage gaps, changes in employment, informal work programs and public policy. Finally, the book offers a topical and timely analysis of the COVID-19 pandemic, tracking the gender inequalities among men and women in labor markets.

The main market for the book is the global community of academics, researchers and graduate students in the fields of economics and, specifically, in the study of the labor market from a gender perspective. It will also be beneficial to government institutions responsible for the creation of public programs and policies, as well as non-governmental and non-profit organizations.

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*Edited by Reyna Elizabeth Rodríguez
Pérez and David Castro Lugo*

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PREFACE

This book will cover recent issues of women and the labor market in the 21st century in Mexico with a comparative approach in different countries such as Spain and Eastern European developing countries, in areas such as labor participation, occupational segregation, the feminization of poverty, migration, wage differences, changes in employment, informality, programs and public policies from a gender perspective, among others.

The incorporation of the aforementioned countries presents relevant particularities for the subject matter addressed in the book. The underdeveloped countries of Eastern Europe, in the last decades, have had significant political and economic changes (incorporation to the market economy and integration to the European Economic Union). Spain, a country that in the last four decades of democratic life and after its incorporation into the European Economic Union has managed to multiply by 5 the GDP per capita. Mexico is one of the main economies in Latin America, with significant regional disparities within it, and in recent decades it has intensified economic integration with the United States and Canada, despite the economic differences with them.

This book will be an important asset in teaching activities about the most recent advances in economic science in different theories, approaches and research hypotheses that explain the study of the labor market. Likewise, different empirical studies are revealed, where multiple methodologies and databases, applied to specific problems in Mexico and other countries such as Spain and Eastern European developing countries, are used to identify the advances, opportunities and changes that have taken place in the labor market from a gender perspective, as well as to make a public policy proposal to encourage the participation of women in the labor market.

The book is structured into four parts. Part I, “Labor participation,” includes Chapter 1, “How has teleworking highlighted gender differences in Mexico in the face of COVID-19 pandemic?”; Chapter 2, “Women’s participation in Mexico’s labor market”; and Chapter 3, “Female generations and the path to gender labour equality in Spain.”

Part II, “Segregation and wage inequality,” includes Chapter 4, “Female segregation: a Mexico–Spain comparison”; Chapter 5, “COVID-19 crisis: tracking

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gender inequalities between women and men in the Mexican labor market”; and Chapter 6, “Poverty risk of female-headed households on Mexico’s northern border.”

Part III, “Labor mobility,” includes Chapter 7, “Do male and female labor market transition patterns differ in Mexico?”; and Chapter 8, “Return migration of Mexican women and their reincorporation into the labor market.”

Finally, Part IV, “Gender equality support programs,” includes Chapter 9, “Differences in levels of support for gender equality between working and non-working women in Mexico”; and Chapter 10, “Effects of entrepreneurship support programs on women’s economic and social positions: an Eastern European perspective.”

The book is aimed at the global community of undergraduate and graduate students and researchers in the field of economics, specifically, in the study of the labor market from a gender perspective. It is also addressed to government institutions responsible for the creation of public programs and policies, as well as to non-profit non-governmental organizations.



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INTRODUCTION

Since the last decades of the 20th century, gender issues have taken a central role in political and academic discussions worldwide. Rodríguez and García (2021) mention that from the field of economic science, various areas have focused their attention on explaining phenomena involving inequalities between men and women, for example, access to services, enjoyment of rights, equal opportunities, political empowerment, work–family reconciliation, domestic and labor violence, gender discrimination, feminization of poverty, occupational segregation, occupational polarization, labor transition, migration, economic empowerment programs for women, among other issues.

Therefore, these types of problems are amply documented in this book, and the authors are concerned with addressing them from different perspectives, methodologies and databases and in different countries, obtaining evidence that will undoubtedly be useful in the formulation of public policies with a gender perspective.

Banco Mundial (2020) reveals that women’s participation in economic activity is fundamental for the growth of any country’s economy, and their work could be transformative for them and their households; however, they limit their labor force due to their care and domestic work responsibilities. On the other hand, it is important to mention that gender wage inequality was affected by the economic effects of the COVID-19 pandemic because women are disproportionately employed in low-paying and insecure jobs. Traditionally, they are more likely to bear the burden of child and elder care, which is especially relevant during a period of school and elder care service closures (Alon, Doepke, Olmstead-Rumsey, and Tertilt, 2020). However, women also tend to be overrepresented in both non-core (such as hospitality) and core (such as health care) sectors.

Part I of this book on labor participation begins with Chapter 1, “How has teleworking highlighted gender differences in Mexico in the face of COVID-19 pandemic?” by Reyna Elizabeth Rodríguez Pérez and Raul Ramos, where they analyze whether job characteristics favor (or limit) to a greater extent the performance of teleworking activities in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic, and whether this situation has increased gender inequality. To do so, they use data from the COVID-19 and Labor Market Telephone Survey (ECOVIND-ML) conducted

in Mexico between April and July 2020. They apply the Oaxaca–Blinder method and the Juhn–Murphy–Pierce method: with the former, they decompose the gender gap in the probability of participating in telework activities; while with the latter, they analyze the factors that influence the evolution of this gap. The control variables considered are age, schooling, employment relationship, occupation, sector of activity and company size. The results obtained by the authors show a gender gap in telework activities of 20 points in favor of women, 9 of which are linked to personal characteristics, because they work in activities and sectors that can better adapt to this new context, but most of these differences are due to unexplained factors.

Data on women’s labor participation in developed and underdeveloped countries show that women continue to work fewer hours than their male counterparts in paid jobs, although they do most of the unpaid care and domestic work. Women have a lower labor participation rate than men. According to data from the National Occupation and Employment Survey, women’s participation in the economy has grown; however, it is lower than that of men. During the first quarter of 2020, women’s participation in Mexico was 44.9% and men’s was 76.4%.

In this context, Chapter 2, “Women’s participation in Mexico’s labor market,” by Rogelio Varela Llamas, analyzes a set of factors and variables that influence the probability that a woman is employed, unemployed, available and unavailable. The author analyzes socioeconomic and regional factors to explain the estimated probabilities. Using a Multinomial Logit Model with data from the first quarters of 2005 and 2020, the results of the work reveal that schooling, living in populated localities and being a single woman favor the labor market insertion process; on the contrary, the number of children, being a young woman and having economic support decrease it. When the author analyzes the geographic differences in Mexico, the southwest region presents a greater advantage for women for being employed than for not being available; likewise, the research finds that this fact could be attributed to the social needs that prevail in states such as Oaxaca, Chiapas or Guerrero with high poverty indexes.

During the last century, women increased their participation in the Spanish labor market. The female activity rate has shown a persistent upward trend since the late 1970s and early 1980s, and has been maintained even during the last economic crisis. Changes in family composition and the increase in the educational level of women explain to some extent the increase in the female labor supply. The authors’ research aims to unravel the evolution of female labor participation in Spain during the last decades by changes in age, period and cohort effects. The process experienced in Spain between 1987 and 2020 has similarities with the changes that are currently taking place in many developing countries, such as the increase in the educational level of women or demographic changes such as the decline in the birth rate. In many of these countries, structural reforms are seen as contributing to and facilitating the labor market integration of women and promoting gender equality. In this sense, an in-depth analysis of the Spanish process can provide elements to understand what is happening, as well as what could happen in countries that are emerging from a traditional model.

In Chapter 3, “Female generations and the path to gender labour equality in Spain,” Inmaculada Cebrián and Gloria Moreno analyze whether there are common patterns of participation throughout the life cycle (age effect), the changes in these patterns across generations (cohort effect) and the role of the economic cycle in this evolution (period effect). Using data from the Encuesta de Población Activa (EPA), they construct a “pseudo-panel” of synthetic cohorts to capture the dynamics of labor market behavior over time. Using a labor participation cohort model over the period 1987–2020, they follow the evolution of the activity rate of female birth cohorts (1936–2000). The authors find that the age effect with an increasing trend in the early part of the life course. However, they cannot verify that female labor market participation was negatively associated with the economic recession or positively affected by the economic expansion. On the other hand, the cohort effect reveals that Spanish women born during the baby boom behave differently with age and have different age profiles in their relationship with the labor market than millennials. Despite this process, the authors conclude that there is still a significant gender gap in terms of participation and other aspects of the labor market, showing that there is still a long way to go. There are at least two aspects that need to be improved in order to avoid reversing the gains in gender equality: job insecurity and the sharing of care responsibilities. Without stable employment opportunities and decent wages, young people will be discouraged from participating in the labor market and, in the case of women, there is a risk that they will revert to being secondary workers in their households or even withdraw from the labor force. Spain continues to have a growing need to integrate employment and gender policy regulations.

Occupational segregation by gender, and more specifically occupational segregation, is a persistent phenomenon present in almost all countries. It is expressed in the fact that men and women are unequally distributed in occupations, and it is argued that occupations in which women have a greater presence are generally less remunerated than those in which men prevail, which would explain, in part, the gender wage gap (Polachek (1987), Miller (1987), England, Herbert, Kilbourne, Reid, and Megdal (1994), Blau and Kahn (2003), among others).

Part II of this book deals with segregation and wage inequality. In Chapter 4, “Female segregation: a Mexico–Spain comparison,” David Castro Lugo, Diego Dueñas Fernández, Raquel Llorente Heras and Reyna Elizabeth Rodríguez Pérez in their research make a comparison of the distribution of employment by gender in Mexico and Spain in order to establish what are the determinants or foundations of men and women being unequally distributed in employment. Using data from the Encuesta de Población Activa (EPA) and the Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE) for 2018, they conduct a study of occupational segregation. First, some indicators on the existing segregation in each country are presented to subsequently perform the Oaxaca–Blinder decomposition on the estimated labor segregation probabilities for men and women. This methodology is developed from the point of view of both productive activities and occupations. The authors find that segregation is persistent, even in developing and developed

countries such as Mexico and Spain. In relation to the fundamentals of labor segregation, the level of attraction or concentration of women in female activities and occupations exceeds the degree of expulsion or rejection of male activities and occupations, this tendency being much more intense in the case of Mexico.

Incorporate: Since the World Health Organization (OMS) declared COVID-19 a pandemic, governments in most countries around the world have taken measures restricting the free mobility of people and closing borders, which has had a significant impact on the economy. According to the sixth edition of the World Labor Organization (OIT) Observatory, as of September 2020, most workers around the world were still affected by some form of workplace closure. The effects of the restriction measures are being experienced differently by different groups of people. The economic crisis resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic has affected the employment and wages of women and men, exasperating pre-existing inequalities in labor markets by gender, mainly affecting the most vulnerable groups of women, such as those who are older, less educated, in informal employment and living in rural communities. In addition, women around the world are the most affected by the effects of the economic crisis resulting from the pandemic, due to different factors. They are at greater risk of losing their jobs, not only because they are disproportionately employed in the economic sectors affected by the confinement, such as tourism and services, but also because they are usually the first to be laid off, due to their more vulnerable employment situation compared to men, they are also overrepresented in the health and care sectors and their dedication to unpaid work is greater, being more affected by the closure of educational and care institutions.

Continuing with this theme is Chapter 5, “COVID-19 crisis: tracking gender inequalities between women and men in the Mexican labor market,” by Ingrid Kuri-Alonso and Gabriela Grijalva Monteverde. Using microdata from INEGI’s National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE), the authors analyze occupational segregation by gender and wage gaps between men and women in Mexico during the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. The central questions are “How was the labor force of men and women distributed during the health emergency?” and “What were the implications of this crisis for women’s employment and women’s income?” In particular, the Karmel and MacLachlan occupational segregation index and its decomposition are calculated to elucidate the factors with the greatest impact on changes in occupational segregation. At the same time, the wage gap is estimated through income functions, incorporating the sex composition of occupations and its decomposition using the Oaxaca–Blinder method. The results show that the emergency health measures were not gender neutral, occupational segregation by sex increased, and this increase does not widen the gender wage gap.

Pearce (1978) developed the theory of feminization of poverty, which shows that men and women experience poverty differently and that gender is one of the most important factors affecting poverty and increasing women’s vulnerability to it. Similarly, Buvinic (1990) argue that due to the increase in female-headed households, poverty levels have risen; the author exposes that there is a greater representation of these in the poorest strata, which in part may be due to the high number of dependents found in them. Uken (2018) exposes that the

lack of gender equity and access to educational opportunities in addition to the unbalanced household structure are factors that contribute to women being highly more affected by poverty than men. On the other hand, for Geldstein (1994), one of the factors that increases the probability that female-headed households fall into poverty is the fact that female heads do not have a partner, and also finds that households headed by separated, widowed, single or divorced women are the most affected by poverty.

In Chapter 6, “Poverty risk of female-headed households on Mexico’s northern border,” Diana Irais Cuamea Piña and Mario Camberos Castro investigate what other factors explain the feminization of poverty on Mexico’s northern border. They use the discrimination method of Oaxaca (1973) and Blinder (1973), which measures the difference in income by gender between female- and male-headed households and detects discrimination, because it is the one that puts the majority of female-headed households at risk. For this purpose, poverty by gender is measured using Sen’s (1976) poverty line method, and to measure the risk of poverty in female-headed households, an empirical method of Carrera and Camberos (2014) and Carrera, Camberos, and Bracamontes (2015) is used. The sources of information come from the National Household Income and Expenditure Survey (ENIGH) of the National Statistical and Geographic Information System (INEGI), as well as data from the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL) for 2018. The results indicate that, in rural areas, the risk of poverty with female head of household is higher.

Mexico is among the countries with the highest labor mobility. Despite the importance of the topic, research is still limited and does not analyze the differences between women and men, especially the role that unpaid care work plays in women’s decisions regarding labor participation. However, the performance of the Mexican economy in recent decades has been characterized by episodes of stability, crisis and economic recovery. Crisis situations have significantly affected strategic labor market indicators such as unemployment, labor informality and precariousness. The conditions of economic stagnation make it difficult for segments of the population such as young people and women to enter the labor market.

Part III deals with labor mobility. In Chapter 7, “Do Male and Female Labor Market Transition Patterns Differ in Mexico?,” Flor Brown-Grossman and Isalia Nava-Bolaños analyze the differences between women and men based on labor mobility. The authors show that the most likely transitions are from informal to unemployment and from informal to formal employment. Sociodemographic factors (gender, age, education) have different effects on transition risks, highlighting the impact of unpaid care work on the risk of transition between occupation conditions, with the unfavorable position of women in the labor market given the high probability of being in informal occupation or non-occupation and the low probability of transition to formal occupation. Finally, it highlights the need to promote reconciliation policies between the public and private sectors and employment and unpaid care work.

Women's migration has increased in recent decades. According to Morokvasic (1984), women were not considered in migration analyses, because they were placed in the categories of dependents of men. Trigueros (1994), on the other hand, mentions that women (wives or daughters), in receiving countries, enter the labor market just like men. Hugo (1993) mentions that one possible explanation for this is that women themselves undervalue themselves as workers, which has led to the underestimation of female mobility in migration, as well as an androcentric bias. However, currently, the OIM. ONU Migración (2018) finds that women increasingly migrate alone or as heads of households and join the labor market in receiving places.

Beyond the characteristics of labor mobility, the topic of female migration addressed in Chapter 8, "Return migration of Mexican women and their reincorporation into the labor market," by Jorge Mora-Rivera, Ignacio Llamas-Huitron and Genaro Cruz-Salas, states that in recent years there has been an increase in the number of Mexican-born female migrants returning from the United States, a trend that is partly explained by migration policies and economic crises. However, the academic literature has focused little on analyzing the relationship between female return migration and the labor market. Using data from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican population censuses and the 2015 Intercensal Survey, we estimate logit and multinomial logit regressions to identify the main determinants of female return migrants' re-entry into the labor force in Mexico. Our results indicate that most of these women remain outside the labor market, as their individual and contextual characteristics and gender roles associated with family responsibilities limit their productive reinsertion. Moreover, many of the self-employed female return migrants are concentrated in rural and marginalized regions of southern Mexico. These results highlight the need to design and implement policies that promote the reincorporation of return migrant women into the labor market, in order to contribute to their economic and social empowerment.

Another facet of the analysis of women's participation in labor markets in both high- and low-income countries shows that women continue to work fewer hours in paid jobs and perform the vast majority of unpaid domestic and care work. Although there has been an increase in child and adult care infrastructure, this social protection has not been sufficient to significantly decrease the time spent by women in domestic work (OIT, 2018). To this day, women continue to face a double problem: economic and social barriers. They suffer more unfavorable conditions in the labor market, which is reflected in higher unemployment rates, underemployment, segregation and lower remunerations. In addition, women face prejudices linked to roles or cultural stereotypes assigned by society, where in addition to participating in the market, they must face most of the domestic and care activities.

Finally, in Part IV on gender equality support programs, Chapter 9, "Differences in levels of support for gender equality between working and non-working women in Mexico," by Jeyle Ortiz Rodríguez, Esteban Picazzo Palencia and Nelly Cristina Ramirez Grimaldo analyzes whether the effect of female participation in

the labor market is a function of women's characteristics and gender orientations. Based on information from the National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH) 2016, this study employs a hierarchical linear model (HLM). The results arrived at by the authors indicate that the difference in mean levels of support for gender equality between employed and unemployed women remains significant and positive. Social resources have a convergence effect between employed and unemployed women. Likewise, the impact of education on women's support for gender equality is the same for both employed and unemployed women.

Entrepreneurship plays a key role in creating new jobs and supporting economic growth. It influences the development of competence, social welfare and individual potential (European Commission, 2003). Therefore, entrepreneurship is often used as a tool to solve social problems, being of particular importance for countries with economies in transition. Women, being the majority of the population in almost all countries, should also play an important role in their economic and social development. Unfortunately, gender inequalities remain in many economic and social areas (Mikic and Has, 2020). Entrepreneurship can help close this gender inequality gap. Women are a major force in the growing entrepreneurial economy, and have a positive impact on job creation, increased sales and innovation output (Casson, Yeung, and Basu, 2006).

Chapter 10, "Effects of entrepreneurship support programs on women's economic and social positions: an Eastern European perspective," by Mihaela Mikic, Tin Horvatinovic and Sasho Josimovski, is devoted to the effects of state entrepreneurship support programs on improving the economic and social position of women in Eastern European countries. State support programs can lobby for women's rights, organize exchange of experience, guarantee loans to women in need, and encourage women to obtain education and training, among other things. By analyzing the data from the selected sources, it is possible to identify examples of good practice and create guidelines for the creation and implementation of future effective support programs in developing countries.

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