GENDER INEQUALITY IN THE WORLD OF WORK - MALAWI

Evidence from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The analysis provided in this report are based on key labour market indicators that have been disaggregated by sex and thus, will contribute to a much better understanding of the gender specific challenges that exists in Malawi’s labour market. It is hoped that the information provided will help to inform the most appropriate and evidence based policy mix that can help to foster productive and decent employment for men and women in the years to come.

The findings show the various difficulties men and women face in the world work in terms of labour market access and the quality of work. By analyzing gender differentials, between women and men in the labour market, it becomes obvious that women are much more disadvantaged in accessing decent work as manifested in unemployment, educational attainment of the female work force, employment statuses, informal employment, in sectoral and occupational segregation and wages, also access to productive resources such as finance and land which are particularly important in the agricultural sector. This in itself is a symptom of the negative effect of historical discrimination and gender inequality prevailing in the country.

Key findings of the analyses undertaken in this report can be summarized as follows:

- Working age population estimates for Malawi follow the demographic pattern of the country with a slightly higher number of females (4.5 million in 2013) in the working-age population when compared to men (3.8 million in 2015).
- The number of women that worked only for their own and family consumption and thus were not part of the economically active labour force was with 169,800 (or 25.8 percent of the female working age population) almost twice as high as the 91,000 male subsistence farmers that worked for own family use production, 20.6 per cent of the male working age population.
- The number of subsistence foodstuff producers in Malawi’s labour force was also noticeably higher for women (488,000 or 10.8 per cent in 2013) than for men (350,000 or 9.1 per cent).
- Overall, educational attainment of the female labour force is far lower than that of men throughout all educational attainment levels.
- The analysis uncovered substantial differences in the employment-to-population ratios between Malawian men and women whereby the ratio for men was 13.3 percentage points higher than the ratio of 63.7 per cent for women in 2013.
- Gender gaps in the employment status are pronounced throughout all age groups, whereby working women were overrepresented in the status groups of own-account workers (59.5 per cent in 2013) and contributing family workers (8.1 per cent in 2013) when compared to men.
- In absolute numbers, almost half of all male employees 602,000 (or 47.6 per cent) were working in industry and services sectors while only very few female wage and salaried employees (228,000 or 26.7 per cent) were employed in non-agricultural sectors in 2013. Considering that women constitute almost the same share that men in total
employment in Malawi, these facts reflect a severe under representation of females in non-agricultural wage employment.

- Male and female employees suffer in general from volatile wage jobs arrangements, although the situation for women is noticeably worse.
- Only, 6.2 per cent of employed women held a ‘formal’ job in 2013 and benefited from social security. The share of men with formal jobs was with 15.8 per cent more than twice as high.
- Gender gaps in sectoral employment were highly visible in all key economic sectors and the most pronounced in agriculture (9.3 percentage points, transport and storage 3.3 percentage points), construction (2.9 percentage points).
- Occupational gender segregation was the most noticeable among skilled agriculture workers (10.2 percentage points), craft and related trades workers (5.7 percentage points) and plant and machine operators (1.8 percentage points).
- Analyses of wage data for Malawi reveal that wage differentials between men and women were rampant across all economic sectors. Nevertheless, the most prominent wage imbalances could be observed in the agricultural sector where women earned on average 6,600 Malawi Kwacha per month (median gross wages) less than what men grossed on average in the sector in 2013.
- Gender gaps in unemployment rates were substantial throughout all age cohorts, reflecting that it is particularly difficult for women to find a job when compared to men. The largest differentials in unemployment rates (15.7 percentage points) could be observed between men and women of 25-34 years of age, likely reflecting on the pressures particularly women with young children face in finding appropriate jobs.
- Overall, the gender analyses in this report reveal the effects of patriarchy, cultural norms and practices that restrict female employment in Malawi. A large part of females is still confined to work as care takers of the household and children or in subsistence, agricultural work in compliance with culturally dictated gender roles.

The evidence adduced points towards the need for gender sensitive employment and skills development policies that deserve the highest priority in Malawi. Important areas for interventions include:

**Gender equality enabling macroeconomic policies:** Given that a high share of working women is concentrated in the labour intensive agriculture and largely informal service sectors, creating a favorable gender equality enabling macroeconomic environment for boosting decent employment opportunities for men and women would be vital.

**Gender sensitive education and skills development policies** are needed to address severe gender imbalances in equal educational attainment and performance. Equal access of women and men to education and training will be essential to re-dress gender imbalances and to offer equal opportunity to young women and men that have similar qualifications and chances in finding quality jobs in the labour market. Equitable interventions will be a key determinant of the future economic (and social) well-being of women and will significantly influence the level of development in Malawi in the years to come.
Since Malawi’s economy is largely rural and provides most of the employment opportunities for men and women there would be major benefits from devising a gender mainstreaming strategy which would include an affirmative action component targeting women to enhance decent and productive employment opportunities for women in agriculture. Such strategy should also address reducing gender wage gaps from agriculture production.

However large spells of informal employment reflect the need for better gender sensitive strategies to improve social protection for women, and to tailor labour market reforms for their specific gender needs.

Decent employment is not only about generating any jobs, but also about improving the quality of jobs. Thus, specifically policies are needed to stimulate wage and salaried employment creation for women, based on an appropriate balance between labour market flexibility and adequate job security; such policies involve adequate labour legislation and regulation as well as enforcement.

Policies to lower barriers for females to find productive and decent employment should be reinforced to reduce the wide gender gap of young people in the labour market.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The analysis presented in this report look at gender aspects of Malawi’s labour market. The report was initiated and funded by The UN Women Malawi Country Office that was set up in October 2012 under leadership of Ms. Alice Harding Shackelford. UN Women, in line with the 2012-2016 United Nations Development Assistance Fund and in collaboration with other partners, supports the Government of Malawi in mainstreaming gender throughout their work.

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The manuscript benefited greatly from the comments and suggestions of the UN Women team in Malawi including .... as well as from the ILO Regional Decent Work Team, including, Mr. Dominique ‘Coffi’ Agossou (Labour Statistics Specialist) and Ms. Mwila Chigaga (Gender Specialist).

This gender analysis report would not have been possible without the continuing support of the National Statistics Office, including ... that conducted Malawi’s first comprehensive stand-alone labour force survey since 1983, the basis for timely gender disaggregated Labour Market Information and Analysis presented in this report.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>DWCP</td>
<td>Decent Work Country Programme</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GoM</td>
<td>Government of Malawi</td>
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<tr>
<td>GP</td>
<td>Gender Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICLS</td>
<td>International Conference of Labour Statisticians</td>
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<td>ICSE</td>
<td>International Classification of Status in Employment</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>LMI</td>
<td>Labour Market Information</td>
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<td>LMIA</td>
<td>Labour Market Information and Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEGS</td>
<td>Malawi Economic Growth Strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>MLFS</td>
<td>Malawi Labour Force Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPRSP</td>
<td>Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>NSO</td>
<td>National Statistics Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>WDI</td>
<td>World Development Indicators</td>
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INTRODUCTION

1.1 GENDER EQUALITY – A NATIONAL CHALLENGE

20 years ago, a Platform for Action was adopted at the United Nations fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing (China) 1995 as a global strategy for promoting gender equality while mainstreaming gender into all areas of society. The platform that is currently implemented in countries around the world is an agenda for women’s empowerment. It aims at removing all the obstacles to women’s active participation in all spheres of public and private life through ensuring women a full and equal share in economic, social, cultural and political decision-making. The principle of shared power and responsibility should be established between women and men at home, in the workplace, and in the wider national and international communities.

Equality between women and men is a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice. It is also a necessary and fundamental prerequisite for equality, development and peace. To this end, governments, the international community and civil societies, including non-governmental organizations and the private sector, are called upon to take strategic action in twelve critical areas of concern identified.

Also the government of Malawi took a wide range of steps in implementing the Beijing Declaration and Platform while establishing a National Platform for Action in 1997 and organizing a ‘Bringing Back Beijing Conference’ hosted by Malawi’s civil society. The Constitution of Malawi advocates equality between men and women, and prohibits sex based discrimination.

The Government of Malawi (GoM) has reiterated its commitment to promote gender equality by signing regional and international instruments and conventions that promote gender equality, including the Southern African Development Community (SADC) protocol on Gender, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, among others.

The legal reform process in Malawi has also taken stock of gender disparities and inequalities through the amendment of laws such as Affiliation Act, Marriage Act and Wills and Inheritance Act. Further, the government has also put in place a National Gender Policy (NGP) 2000 and a national Gender Program (GP) for its implementation in 2004. Both tools are integrated part of Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (MPRSP), the Malawi Economic Growth Strategy (MEGS) and correspond to the National Development Plan 2020 that puts emphasis on accountability, effective participation of all citizens and protection of human rights and freedom. The Ministry

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1 Women and poverty, education and training of women, women and health, violence against women, women and armed conflict, women and the economy, women in power and decision-making, institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women, human rights of women, women and the media, women and the environment and the girl-child.
of Women and Child Development has the mandate to stimulate gender equality. Gender mainstreaming is encouraged in the public and private sectors as well as in the civil society through the creation of gender focal points and the gender networks.

The promotion of equal opportunities for women and men to obtain productive employment and decent work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity is specifically manifested in the decent work country programme (M-DWCP) 2012-2016 that acknowledges Malawi’s progress in creating an enabling policy and legal framework for equal rights at work for men and women. However, it also highlights that these rights in practice are constrained by historical gender discrimination based on deep rooted cultural attitudes and beliefs, the lack of sufficient capacities by duty bearers to ensure compliance with the law, inadequate capacity of the dispute settlement and adjudication system, the rapid change in the employment relationship practices in Malawi and globally, and the inability of the law to keep pace with these changes.²

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE REPORT

This report seeks to inform and monitor broad impacts of Malawi’s gender mainstreaming policies in the world of work while identifying existing inequalities between men and women on Malawi’s labour market. The analyses presented are of particular importance stressing the fact that labour markets are the key mechanism through which the benefits of growth can be distributed to the poor and disadvantaged groups.

Access to labour markets and more specifically, to decent work is thereby crucial in the process towards improving inequality between men and women. Decent work for women is also a precondition for economic development since, in the long run, economies cannot afford to ignore an untapped recourse such as that which could be offered by female labour.³

As highlighted in section 1.1, Malawi made the goal of gender equality central to its decent work agenda which gives reason to believe that gender gaps in the labour market are narrowing. In order to determine in how far these expectations are being realized, it is necessary to monitor the labour market through gender sensitive lenses on a regular bases.

1.3 METHODOLOGY AND STRUCTURE

Focussing on key labour market indicators, the following sections examine in detail the labour market situation in Malawi while paying careful attention to gender imbalances. The assessment of the indicators involves the use of a number of statistical sources. Unless otherwise cited, the data analysed were primarily taken from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013 that was implemented by the National Statistical Office (NSO), Ministry of Labour

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(MoL), Ministry of Industry and Trade and Ministry of Economic Planning and Development from December 2012 to March 2013. The funds for MLFS were provided by the African Development Bank (AfDB) through Ministry of Industry and Trade. The International Labour Organization (ILO) provided technical assistance.

GDP and other national accounts and macroeconomic data were taken from the World Bank, World Development Indicators (WDI) series and the African Development Bank’s (AfDB) Economic outlook database. Population projections were taken from the UN World Population Prospects 2013 Revision Database. Global and regional estimates are from the ILO, Global Employment Trends Report for 2014.4

All calculations provided in this report refer to the working age population which is 15 years and above in Malawi. Since the GoM is referring to the age group 15-64 to monitor labour markets, figures in this report might slightly vary from results published in the Malawi Labour Force Survey report 2013.

Analyses for the age group 15+ are applied have the advantage to allow for intra-regional and international comparisons of labour market indicators. Youth, in this report were defined as people between the age of 15 and 24, and not as nationally defined as young people between the ages of 15 and 34, to refine age specific issues. Figures for the age group 25-34 are presented separately.

2 ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC DEVELOPMENTS AND THE GENERAL LABOUR MARKET SITUATION

2.1 MALAWI’S ECONOMY AND SOCIETY

Malawi’s economy has grown on an annual average of 1.6 per cent between 2004 and 2014 mainly on the back of the agriculture (8.1 per cent on average between 2004 and 2014) and manufacturing (6.2 per cent on average between 2004 and 2014) sectors. (Table 1)

In 2014, Malawi’s economy continued to recover after the heavy economic crisis of 2012 that experienced a contraction of in the real gross domestic product (GDP) growth of 2.4 percentage points from 4.3 per cent growth in 2011. Malawi’s GDP growth stood at a firm rate of 5.7 per cent in 2014 mainly because of the favorable performance in the agricultural and services sectors.

Also the manufacturing sector added increasingly value to GDP. Between 2004 and 2014 it expanded on an average growth rate of 6.2 per cent. (Table 1)

Table 1: Growth in GDP and value added GDP by sector (constant 2005 US$, annual %)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>-7.6</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>-6.4</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-6.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
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The service sector constituted with 48.6 per cent the largest share of GDP, followed by 30.6 per cent share from agricultural. Industrial sectors contributed not more than 9.8 per cent to Malawi’s GDP in 2014. The share of value added from services sectors in GDP increased noticeably during 2004 and 2014 by 6.0 percentage points. (Table 2)

However, Malawi’s economy is far from being robust facing numerous risks due to the government’s loose fiscal and monetary policies, which are contributing to high inflation and lack of investor confidence, unfavorable favorable weather conditions, and from uncertainties in foreign demand for exports such as tobacco and tea. The withdrawal of budget support by development partners following the 2013 public finance mismanagement scandal (known as “cashgate”) placed the Government’s fiscal accounts under enormous pressure. This has resulted in a substantially increased fiscal deficit and a build-up of significant payment debts.

Table 2: Sectoral shares in GDP (constant LCU, %)

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, value added (% of GDP)</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, value added (% of GDP)</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services, etc., value added (% of GDP)</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
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Malawi has seen a rapid increase in its population since 1950, from 2.9 million people to 16.2 million in 2013. The population is estimated to continue to rapidly rise due to a very high fertility rate of an estimated 5.7 children per women in 2010. Even if the fertility rate declines the population will still grow to 20 million in 2020 according to UN estimates. Population growth for men and women is nearly the same (Figure 2).
A large percentage of Malawi’s population, 46 percent, is below age 15. While a youthful population represents the potential for a large labour force in the future, it places a heavy burden on the working-age population (15+) to provide for the basic needs and services required by children and youth, such as health and education.

Despite rapid urbanization, nearly 84 percent of the total population of Malawi lived in rural areas in 2014. According to UN urbanization prospects only 2.7 million Malawian’s resided in urban hubs of the country in 2014.

Malawi’s weak economic situation combined with the demographic pressures are also likely to reflect on its labour market performance and will certainly hamper progress in achieving gender equality in the world of work in the years to come.

Figure 1  Population by sex and years (000’s)

Source: UN, World Population Prospects 2015 Revision

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2.2 GENERAL LABOUR MARKET SITUATION

According to the latest Labour Force Survey 2013, out of 8.3 million people at working age, 5.8 million were employed\(^6\) in Malawi leading to an employment-to-population ratio of 69.8 per cent. This high employment-to-population ratio combined with the fact that only roughly a third (37.3 per cent) of Malawi’s workers had a wage and salaried job in 2013 clearly points towards a large quantity of low quality jobs in the country. (Table 3)

**Table 3 Summary of key labour market indictors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Working age 15 and above (15+)</th>
<th>Malawi LFS 2013</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working-age population ('000s)</td>
<td>8,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force ('000s) (broad definition)</td>
<td>7,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate (%)</td>
<td>87.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment ('000s)(^7)</td>
<td>5,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment-to-population ratio (%)</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment ('000s)</td>
<td>1,492.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (%)(broad definition)</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment 15-24 ('000s)</td>
<td>609.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate 15-24 (%)</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth NEET share of youth population 15-24 (%)</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-related underemployment ('000s)</td>
<td>2,022.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-related underemployment rate (%)</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Broad sectoral aggregation of employment according to ISIC REV4**

| Agriculture (%) | 65.1 |
| Industry (%) | 4.1  |
| Services (%) | 30.8 |

| Share of wage and salaried employment (%) | 37.3 |
| Share of subsistence farmers in the working age population (%) | 13.2 |
| Share of vulnerable employment in total employment (%) | 61.5 |
| Share of informal employment in total employment (%) | 88.9 |

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

The large number of economically active people\(^8\) (7.3 million in 2013) and the very high labour force participation rate of 87.7 per cent are highlighting overall low educational attainment levels among Malawian workers. Unemployment mounted to incredible 20.4 per cent of the

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\(^6\) Excluding subsistence foodstuff producers that mainly produce goods and services for their own consumption

\(^7\) Defined according to latest international labour statistics standards as working age persons (15+) who in the reference week/last 7 days were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit. This definition excludes subsistence foodstuff producers that mostly produce goods and services for their own consumption

\(^8\) The sum of employed and unemployed people, whereby unemployed people were defined applying the broad definition that excludes people that were not actively seeking for work
economically active population, according to the broad definition. Almost half of the unemployed population was young people between the ages 15-24. (Table 3)

The share of youth that was neither employed nor enrolled in education, training stood at 21.7 per cent. Young people who are not engaged in one of these activities are seen to be the most vulnerable since they are facing a difficult process of integration or reintegration into the labour force. Also NEET youth are at high risk of remaining idle and excluded from society. For Malawi, the incidence of NEET workers represents a waste of human resources and underutilization of the productive potential young people bear to foster economic advancement in the years to come.

Also Malawi’s labour market was dominated by employment opportunities in the traditional agriculture sector. Only 4.1 per cent of the employed population worked in industry and 30.8 in service sectors indicating a non-availability of sufficient quality jobs in these sectors. (Table 3)

Informal employment was with an estimated 88.9 per cent in 2013 extraordinary high. At the same time the shares of own account workers and contributing family workers among the employed added to 61.5 per cent (Table 3).

Analyses of all key labour market indicators discovered a number of additional challenges in Malawi’s labour market including; low wages, low level occupational skills persisting gender imbalances which severely hinder the maximum utilization of Malawi’s labour potential.

3 GENDER INEQUALITIES IN THE LABOUR MARKET

The analyses presented in this chapter aim to provide a gender disaggregated snapshot of the labour market in Malawi to get a better idea of the specific situations faced by women when compared to their male counterparts. It is beyond the scope of the chapter, and the report, to provide detailed gender analysis to determine how gender relations do affect and are affected by the labour market, economy and society.

3.1 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE WORKING AGE AND THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION

Working age population estimates for Malawi follow the demographic pattern of the country with a slightly higher number of females (4.5 million in 2013) in the working-age population when compared to men (3.8 million in 2015). These differences are likely driven by high infant mortality and the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS that result in unequal life expectancies for men and women than would otherwise be normal.  

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9 The unemployment rate according to the broad definition is relaxed by the criteria of actively searching for jobs. Thus working age people that were not working but available for work were defined as broadly unemployed.
On the opposite to the sex distribution observed in the working age population, labour force participation of females is noticeably lower than for males throughout most age groups which exception of the age group 15-19, reflecting on the much lower educational levels of females in this age group. Generally, it is very normal that labour force participation rates are slightly lower for females than for males in each age category. One of the key reasons that is often given are the different life cycles of women and men, whereby women in the prime age tend to leave the labour force to give birth to and raise children and men in comparison work to secure an income for the entire family.

However, the relatively low discrepancies in labour force participation of women and men in Malawi and the generally high levels of labour force participation of the same might also be an echo of low incomes, lack of social security schemes and support that do not allow women to fall out of the labour force to look after their children. Traditionally, the majority of women continue working just shortly after they have given birth.

Very high labour force participation rates, the shares of economically active people in the working age population, for men and women also mirror, against common believes, an essentially low number of subsistence foodstuff producers who were exclusively producing goods and services for their own consumption and thus were not counted in the labour force as per the latest international standards on statistics of work, employment, and labour underutilization. Nevertheless, the number of women that worked only for their own and family consumption was with 169,800 (or 25.8 percent of the female working age population) almost twice as high as the 91,000 male subsistence farmers that worked for own family use production, 20.6 per cent of the male working age population.

**Figure 2** Subsistence foodstuff producers, by sex

- **Subsistence foodstuff producers in the labour force**
  - Female: 489
  - Male: 350
- **Subsistence foodstuff producers out of the labour force**
  - Female: 170
  - Male: 91
- **Remaining out of the labour force**
  - Female: 476
  - Male: 287
- **Remaining labour force**
  - Female: 3,372
  - Male: 3,110

Thousands (000's)

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’ Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013
On the other hand, analysis of labour force survey data also show that in 2013 a large number of Malawi’s men and women at working age were economically active subsistence foodstuff producers who did not exclusively produced for their own consumption but also created some goods or services for sale or were available for employment in 2013. The number of subsistence foodstuff producers in Malawi’s labour force was also noticeably higher for women (488,000 or 10.8 per cent in 2013) than for men (350,000 or 9.1 per cent).

The results suggest that Malawi’s men and women do not longer solely live from the food they produce. They also have to earn some income to survive while paying expenditures of a modern life such as utility fees for electricity and/or water or mobile phones/credit. Since females also have a domestic burden, as they are traditionally responsible for childcare, it is predominantly men that try firstly to break out of the traditional subsistence farming to find a job, while women are more likely to remain responsible for producing food for the family but do try to yield a ‘little’ extra for selling to contribute to the household income.

Figure 3  Working-age population and labour force participation rates by sex (%)  

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’ Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

Figure 4, reveals large discrepancies in educational attainment between economically active men and women. Overall, educational attainment of the female labour force was far lower than that of men throughout all educational attainment levels. Striking were the exceptionally high shares of workers without attained education. Seven out of ten females compared to six out of
ten males have never been at school in their lives. Only 6.4 per cent of the female population had attained secondary education, nearly a half of the equivalent share for men (11.9 per cent). Also far fewer women than men hold a university level degree.

Figure 4  Educational attainment of the labour force by sex, 2013

These results indicate women’s limited access to formal education and lower adult literacy rates of women which undermine their capacity to participate in the labour market equally to men. No doubt, a well-educated work force is increasingly important in today’s global economy. Basic education increases the efficiency of each individual worker. It is well known that workers who have received none or only little formal education find it much more difficult to adapt to more advanced production processes and techniques, since they are only able to carry out manual tasks, and therefore will not be able to contribute much too devising or executing innovations. Low educational attainment of the workforce is hampering business development whereby firms will find it difficult to move up the value chain by producing more sophisticated or value-intensive products.

Since low educational attainment and skills levels of women are strongly related to prevalent gender imbalances in decent work opportunities and high rates of informal and vulnerable employment of women in the labour market it should be in the interest of the governments to equally support the education of women and men. Nurturing pools of well-educated men and women who are able to perform complex tasks and adapt rapidly to their changing environment and the evolving needs of the production system will be the precondition for Malawi’s economic development in the years to come.
3.2 GENDER INEQUALITIES IN THE QUANTITY OF EMPLOYMENT

3.2.1 EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIOS

Employment-to-population ratios broken down by sex provide information on gender differences in labour market activity from a quantitative aspect. However, the indicator does not provide any information on gender imbalances in the quality of employment as reflected in earnings, employment statuses, poor working conditions, or the existence of a large informal economy. Therefore, the analysis of employment-to-population ratios must always be done in conjunction with indicators that also look at the qualitative dimensions of work.

In 2013 of the 5.8 million employed in Malawi, 3.0 million workers were male and 2.9 million workers were female revealing almost gender balanced absolute employment numbers. However, employment numbers alone are inadequate for purposes of comparisons of women and men unless expressed as a share of the population who could be working. When looking at the employment-to-population ratios, the employment shares proportional to the respective population, one can notice substantial differences in the ratios between Malawian men and women whereby the ratio for men (15+) was 13.3 percentage points higher than the ratio of 63.7 per cent for women (15+) in 2013.

Table 4 Employment-to-population ratio’s by sex, 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment (’000s)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Gender gap</th>
<th>Both sexes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>773.6</td>
<td>831.8</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>1,605.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>910.4</td>
<td>866.9</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>1,777.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>644.1</td>
<td>540.9</td>
<td>103.2</td>
<td>1,185.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>305.7</td>
<td>314.0</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>619.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>174.1</td>
<td>188.6</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>362.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>148.2</td>
<td>129.6</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>277.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>2,956.2</td>
<td>2,871.8</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>5,828.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment-to-population ratio (%)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Gender gap</th>
<th>Both sexes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>88.7</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>90.9</td>
<td>74.9</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>82.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>80.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013. The concept of employment excludes subsistence foodstuff producers who were exclusively producing goods and services for their own consumption as per the latest international standards on statistics of work, employment, and labour underutilization.

The largest gender gap (18.9 percentage points) was observed for the age group 24 to 34 likely reflecting childcare responsibilities which this age group disproportionately faces. On the other hand gender gaps were the smallest (4.7 percentage points) for young people between 15-24
years of age. This is partly positive since it reflects a ‘fairly’ equal participation of both young males and females (as share of their age group) in education.

Pronounced gaps between male and female employment-to-population ratios often point towards gender-based differentials in the type of work, wages and employment conditions. Thus they are a reflection of multidimensional nature of gender inequalities in the labour market in Malawi.

Remarkable was also the very high ratio of 90.9 per cent for men between 35 and 44 years of age, compared to a ratio of 74.9 per cent for women in the same age cohort signaling that almost all men of that age group were employed in 2013. It needs to be pointed out that high employment-to-population ratios might be generally perceived as ‘good’ as they reflect that a large proportion of Malawi’s male and female population are employed. However, very high ratios do signal an abundance of low quality jobs in the countries labour markets and overarching struggles to make a living. Particularly males between 35-44 years of age cannot afford to not work and have to accept whatever work they can find to feed their families and to send their children to school.

### 3.3 GENDER INEQUALITIES IN THE QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT

#### 3.3.1 STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT

According to the international classification of the status in employment (ICSE) workers are differentiated in three broad types of employed persons: those working for employers or businesses and therefore earning a wage or salary (employees); those who are self-employed, either as employers who hire others to work for them or on their own account; and persons who are contributing family workers and work without pay in the family farm or business and, hence, are assisting the business owner/operator in earning profits. These persons are often the spouses, sons and daughters of the business owner/operator, but also may be members of the extended family.

Analyses of the employment status of employed Malawians show that the majority of employed men and women were engaged in non-wage and salaried jobs in 2013. Only 42.8 per cent of working men and 31.7 per cent of women were working as employees.

Gender gaps in the employment status are pronounced throughout all age groups, whereby working women were overrepresented in the status groups of own-account workers (59.5 per cent in 2013) and contributing family workers (8.1 per cent in 2013) when compared to men. The largest differences in the employment status between women and men (11.4 percentage points in 2013) were observed for the employment status group of wage and salaried workers.

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11 The method of classifying employment by status is based on the 1993 International Classification by Status in Employment (ICSE), which classifies jobs held by persons at a point in time with respect to the type of explicit or implicit employment contract the person has with other persons or organizations. Such status classifications reflect the degree of economic risk, an element of which is the strength of the attachment between the person and the job, and the type of authority over establishments and other workers that the person has or will have.
The move away from vulnerable employment\textsuperscript{12} into wage and salaried work can be a major step towards economic freedom and self-determination for many women and thus should be stimulated. It is well known that economic independence or at least co-determination in resource distribution in families is highest when women earn wages and salaries or are employers, lower when they are own-account workers and lowest when they are contributing family workers.

A comparison of the employment status of men and women at certain age groups reveals the largest gender discrepancies between males and females between 45 to 54 years of age. 41.7 per cent of males at this age group had a wage and salaried job compared to only 27.1 per cent of females at the same age cohort.

Figure 5 Status in employment, 2013 (%)

Also between the ages of 15-24 most women worked as own-account workers while the majority of young males had a wage and salaried job in 2013. The gender differences in the employment status of youth reflect on the difficulties particularly young women face in finding wage and salaried jobs in Malawi. A lack of decent work opportunities for women, if experienced at an early age, hampers their future employment prospects and frequently leads to undesirable labour market patterns that can last a lifetime. Thus, employment and skills

\textsuperscript{12} Defined as the sum of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment
development for young women should lie at the core of development agenda towards decent employment in Malawi.13

Gender differentials in wage job opportunities and its limitations can also be illustrated when cross-tabulating employment by status and broad sector data. Analysis of Table 5 shows that out of the 2.9 million wage and salaried workers in Malawi the largest numbers (164,000 men and 672,000 women) were employed in the agriculture sector. In absolute numbers, nearly half of all male employees 602,000 (or 47.6 per cent) were working in industry and services sectors while only very few female wage and salaried employees (228,000 or 26.7 per cent) were employed in non-agricultural sectors in 2013. Considering the fact that women constitute almost the same share that men in total employment in Malawi, these facts reflect a severe under representation of females in non-agricultural wage employment.

Table 5  Status of employment by broad economic sector and sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment ('000s)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wage and salaried workers</td>
<td>Employers</td>
<td>Own-account workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>664.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>61.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>540.5</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,266.5</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shares in total employment (%)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shares in sectoral employment (%)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

Further analysis of the percentage distribution of the employment status by sector proves that more than half of all female workers in the agricultural sector were employed as own-account (53.3 per cent in 2013). Combined with the 12.2 per cent of contributing family workers in the sector vulnerable employment summed up to 65.5 per cent. Vulnerable employment shares for men in the agriculture sector were with 59.2 per cent in male agricultural employment.

13 Global Employment Trends for Youth 2012
noticeably lower. High shares of vulnerable employment, the share of own account and contributing workers in total employment, in the agricultural sector indicate a lack of decent work opportunities in the same and are likely an indication of widespread working poverty in Malawi, where people work a lot but still cannot lift themselves and their families above a certain poverty threshold.

![Figure 6 Type of contract agreement, by sex](image)

However, it needs to be also pointed out that having a wage and salaried job does not necessarily mean to have a decent and productive job with decent earnings, good conditions of work, job security, social protection and legal rights. Figure 6 shows that in 2013 more than 6 out of ten male employees worked under timely limited contract arrangements. On the opposite, 8 out of ten women had a contract of unlimited duration. In other words, male and female employees suffer in general from volatile wage jobs arrangements, although the situation for women is noticeably worse.
Breaking down the groups of women and men with only timely limited contract arrangements, to study the duration of their wage job arrangements, reveals that 54.8 per cent of male employees with limited contracts only worked as daily labourers. The percentage share for females that worked only on day-by-day wage arrangements was with 67.1 per cent even higher. Especially employees aged 55 and older suffered from job insecurities. The majority of male and female wage and salaried workers in this age group (although the percentage share for women is again higher than the share for men) worked as peons.

It seems that many employees in Malawi, particularly women have no choice but to take every job they can find even with little security, low pay and fringe or no benefits to make their and their families living. It would be interesting to better understand actual contractual arrangements of male and female workers, including those classified as employees with unlimited contracts. Such a study could provide more insights to the issues that could help to inform appropriate policies that could help to balance labour market flexibility and support adequate job security for both male and above all female employees.

### 3.3.2 INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT

By offering an income, informal employment can provide a cushion for workers who cannot find a quality job and cannot afford to be unemployed. However, in the macroeconomic sense, a large share of informally employed men or women implies fewer national revenues and accordingly lower financial provisions for public spending.

Informal employment in this report was operationally defined as employment (15 years and above) without income taxation, social protection and employment benefits. It includes also all own account workers and employers employed in their own enterprises; members of informal producers’ cooperatives; and contributing family workers irrespective of whether they work for formal or informal enterprises. The examination of informal employment estimates confirms what one could already predict when analyzing preceding labour market indicators. An astonishing share of the Malawi’s men and women are informally employed but again the situation is by far worse for women. Only, 6.2 per cent of employed women held a ‘formal’ job in 2013 and benefited from social security. The share of men with formal jobs was with 15.8 per cent more than twice as high.

Looking at gender equalities in broad economic sectors reveals the largest gender discrepancies in informal employment persisted mostly in industrial sectors. In 2013, 28.4 per cent of men employed in the sectors had a formal job while only 4.1 per cent of women that worked in the sector benefited for formalized work arrangements. Similar gender discrepancies can be observed in the services sectors.

Since informal jobs are considered to be of low productivity and lack social protection they are hampering Malawi’s development. A higher share of formal jobs in the labour market is usually considered as a sign of better governance of the economy and the society as a whole. Thus, the promotion of formal employment is vital to productive employment in the country.
Formalization strategies for Malawi would be much needed and should address especially investment in female education in order to reduce the skills gap for workers in the non-agriculture sectors and equip female workers with skills needed to move to higher value added jobs and thus to foster a structural transition away from a mainly agricultural based, into a more industry and service oriented economy.

Table 6: Informal employment by broad economic sector and sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Gender Gap in informal employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formally employed</td>
<td>Informally employed</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment ('000s)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>1,657.6</td>
<td>1,754.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>97.2</td>
<td>135.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>331.0</td>
<td>734.4</td>
<td>1,065.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>466.9</td>
<td>2,489.3</td>
<td>2,956.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shares in total employment (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’ Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

3.3.3 EMPLOYMENT BY MAJOR ECONOMIC SECTORS

Gender disaggregated sectoral employment estimates, as presented in Table 7, give insights into structural gender imbalances in employment. They show gender gaps in sectoral employment are highly visible in all key economic sectors and the most pronounced in agriculture (9.3 percentage points, transport and storage (3.3 percentage points), construction (2.9 percentage points).
African working women in agriculture

Women generally own less land and the land they have is often of lower quality than the land owned by men. According to the International Development Research Centre, women in Africa only own 1 per cent of the land.¹

Financial resources are limited for women: they receive 7 per cent of the agricultural extension services and less than 10 per cent of the credit offered to small-scale farmers.¹

Population growth is still a pressing issue in Africa and families in rural areas have more children than in urban areas. This has forced farming families to sub-divide their land time and again, leading to tiny plots or families moving onto unsuitable, overworked land. This problem is compounded by the state of Africa’s soils. In Sub-Saharan Africa, soil quality is classified as degraded in about 72 per cent of arable land and 31 per cent of pasture land.²

Male rural-to-urban migration continues to be an Africa-wide phenomenon. While this can increase remittances to rural areas and strengthen market linkages between urban and rural areas, it leaves rural women increasingly responsible for farming and for meeting their households’ immediate needs. Women have to take over the tasks formerly carried out by men in addition to those for which they are traditionally responsible.

Women have to contend with limited access to financial and technical resources. They often must depend on local know-how and cannot access appropriate technology.

Women lack political influence. They are not represented when policies are formulated, when programmes are developed, when budgets are drawn or when decisions are made about their work and their life. Even within farming organizations, the pattern is frequently found: in Zimbabwe, for example, women constitute about 75 per cent of the members of the Zimbabwe Farmers Union, but only 5 per cent of the officers are female.

Social protection systems are almost non-existent in rural areas in Africa, but if they exist they often discriminate against women.

Girls receive less education, especially in poor rural areas.

Social norms play a much stronger role in rural areas, often discriminating against women and girls.

Decision-making structures within families are not in favour of women, making it difficult for them to secure a better future for their daughters.

(1) Quoted from http://www.new-ag.info/08/04/focuson/focuson6.php. In some countries, legislation makes it impossible for women to inherit land when their husband dies. They can also often not pass the land on to their daughters (see, for example: Judy Oglethorpe, ‘AIDS, women, land, and natural resources in Africa: current challenges’, Gender & Development, Volume 16, Issue 1 March 2008, pages 85-100).
(2) Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), quoted from http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/africa/4662232.stm.
The results clearly underline that economic growth in the industry and services sectors and the structural labour market transition away from purely agricultural jobs to more employment in industry and services sectors benefited more men than women. While the vast majority of females still worked in both agriculture and wholesale and trade, male workers found also job opportunities across other sectors. The majority of working women in agriculture are farmers or spouses of farmers. They substantially contribute to national agricultural production and food security. Large scale farming and commercial production is less of an income source for women in rural areas, which is why structural adjustment programmes often do not reach women.

With men increasingly leaving the traditional agriculture sector in Malawi it becomes imperative to train women to carry out tasks in agricultural production to productively enhance their contributions to food security. As the data reveals women in Malawi do most of the work in storing, processing, transporting and marketing food. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) research it is proven that when women receive the same levels of education, experience and farm inputs as men, they can increase yields of some crops by 22 per cent. But the important contribution of women takes place under difficult circumstances, as highlighted in Box 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector employment shares (%)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Both sexes</th>
<th>Gender Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, forestry and fishing</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply, sewage, waste management and remediation activities</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and storage</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food services activities</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support services</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defense</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other service</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities of households as employers</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

3.3.4 OCCUPATIONAL GENDER SEGREGATION

The structural employment imbalances between Malawi’s working men and women are also evident in Malawi’s occupational distribution of workers. There were noticeably more women than men in the occupational groups of skilled agricultural workers and sales and service and sales workers. On the opposite men dominated all other occupational groups.

Occupational gender segregation was the most pronounced among skilled agriculture workers (10.2 percentage points), craft and related trades workers (5.7 percentage points) and plant and machine operators (1.8 percentage points).

Hardly any gender segregation existed in the occupational groups of technicians and associated workers and clerical support workers which is likely because there were only very few man and women that were employment in these professions. It can be expected that with increases in the number of available jobs for higher skilled occupations, as a result of productivity growth gender segregation among these professions will likely increase.

Figure 7 Employment by occupation and sex

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’ Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013
### 3.3.5 THE GENDER WAGE GAP

Analyzing gender pay gaps (or gender wage differential), the differences between the wages earned by women and those earned by men, help to discover imbalances in access to decent and productive employment. Gender wage differentials are best explained by a variety of personal attributes and factors, such as occupation, education, work experience and seniority in job, job tenure, training, occupational segregation, etc. Other factors of importance to fully understand gender based wage differential would be the regulatory environment and practices concerning work and family life in Malawi, childcare facilities and other social rights that influence men’s and women’s labour force participation, their occupational choices, and employment patterns.

**Figure 8. Monthly (median) gross wages in the main job by broad economic sector**

Analyses of wage data for Malawi reveal that wage differentials between men and women were rampant across all economic sectors. Nevertheless, the most pronounced wage imbalances could be observed in the agricultural sector where women earned on average 6,600 Malawi Kwacha per month (median gross wages), less than half of what men grossed on average in the sector in 2013. The results are pointing towards traditional gender-based stereotypes about women’s roles and aspirations that influence job payments in the sector.

Wages of men and women in the services sectors were much more balanced between men (32,000.0 Kwacha) and women (31,053.0 Kwacha) albeit women the sector earned on average 947 Kwacha less than their male counter parts. In Industrial sectors the gender wage gap stood at 1,500 Kwacha per month on average (gross median) in 2013.
When broken down by educational attainment wage gender gaps were the most significant among male and female workers that had not attained any formal education. Men without attained school education earned on average 5,600 Kwacha per month more than women in the same situation. Considering the fact that the majority of Malawi’s economically active population has no formal school education, large gender wage gaps among this group suggests pronounced discrimination of women in the labour market.

Among men and women with attained education, gender wage gaps were the lowest, with 800 Kwacha, between workers that had primary education. However, with increasing levels of attained education the wage differentials between men and women were widening. Interestingly, women with tertiary education earned on average 4,000 Kwacha per month less than males with higher educational attainment (44,000 Kwacha gross median wage), in 2013. (Figure 9)

Figure 9 Monthly (median) gross wages in the main job by major educational attainment levels

Gender pay gaps arise for complex reasons thus in addition to the analysis provided in this section it is important to understand whether there is something like equal remuneration for work of equal value in Malawi, and whether occupational segregation and wage differentials have widened or narrowed in recent years, but such questions are very difficult to analyze at this point in time considering the limitations in both research and data.

Regardless of the gender gaps, as visible in Figure 9, higher education levels pay off, in the form of higher earnings. The analyses of wage data demonstrate the important impact that educational attainment has on wages of employees, especially for females. Women with a university earned almost five times as much as women with no formal education. In
comparison males with university education earned only three times as much as men without education.

### 3.4 GENDER INEQUALITIES IN THE UNEMPLOYED AND UNDERUTILIZED POPULATION

#### 3.4.1 UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment rates are a widely used indicator to measure the part of the working-age population that is underutilized in quantitative terms. Disaggregated by sex, they reflect gender imbalances in the economic condition of individuals that although available for work, remain jobless. Unemployment in the context of Malawi is relaxed by the criteria of actively seeking for work. This is somehow justified given the limited relevance of the criteria in the country context. As reflected in the large size of informal employment and the enormous proportion of own account and contributing family workers in the labour market seeking work by traditional means does not seem to have been common practice. This is even more valid for women, where the majority of them worked in the agricultural sector as own-account workers.

In 2013, women in Malawi had a much higher likelihood of being unemployed compared to men. The female unemployment rate, according to the relaxed definition stood at 25.6 per cent, which was significantly higher than the male rate of 14.6 per cent. The difficulty of finding proper work was especially difficult for young women between the age of 15 and 24, with 30.6 per cent of them available for work but not employed, in 2013.

Gender gaps in unemployment rates were substantial throughout all age cohorts, reflecting that it is particularly difficult for women to find a job when compared to men. The largest differentials in unemployment rates (15.7 percentage points) could be observed between men and women of 25-34 years of age, likely reflecting on the pressures particularly women with young children face in finding appropriate jobs.

Overall unemployment rates in Malawi are reflective of the severe structural issues the labour market is facing resulting from a potpourri of factors including a stricken economic situation, major demographic challenges, lack of public investment in health and education, etc.

It is very evident from the analysis of key labour market indicators presented in this report that the labour market cannot create enough decent and productive jobs to absorb the rapidly increasing number of people that enter the labour market, which are mostly women. Besides, education levels of people are too low to find proper wage and salaried jobs with good earnings. In other words there are heavy mismatches of labour demand of workers and skills supply. Women are especially affected, likely because of persistent social norms ascribing gender roles, which are often, slow to change.

Furthermore, women in Malawi continue to undertake most of the contributing family work, which has become an increasing challenge in their efforts to engage in productive work, both in subsistence agriculture and market economy, this is even exhilarated negatively by the pronounced prevalence of HIV.
It needs to be highlighted that unemployment estimates itself say nothing about the economic resources of unemployed workers or their family members and cannot be used as a measure of economic hardship. There use is limited to serving as one dimension of the utilization of labour and can give an indication of the groups of workers most vulnerable to joblessness.

Figure 10 Unemployment rates (broad definition) by age groups and sex

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

3.4.2 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE UNEMPLOYED

A gender differentiated examination of educational attainment levels of unemployed gives not only insights into gender based differences in labour market access it also helps to deeper understand mismatches of labour/skills supply and demand. For example, extraordinary high unemployment rates of young men (15-24 years of age) with a university degree (57.6 per cent) and for young women with attained secondary education (39.8 per cent) indicate a severe lack of sufficient professional mid-level jobs for these groups in Malawi’s labour market.

A look at the gender gaps uncovers that the gender gaps in unemployment rates were the highest (29.3 percentage points) between young men and women with attained tertiary education, whereby young men with university degree found it much harder to find a proper job.
Table 8 Unemployment by educational attainment, sex and age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Gender Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>25+</td>
<td>15+</td>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>25+</td>
<td>15+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>126.6</td>
<td>171.6</td>
<td>298.2</td>
<td>205.9</td>
<td>458.1</td>
<td>664.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>121.5</td>
<td>117.4</td>
<td>122.3</td>
<td>239.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>242.0</td>
<td>261.4</td>
<td>503.4</td>
<td>367.0</td>
<td>622.1</td>
<td>989.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

However, in all other instances unemployment rates of females were much higher than the rates for males, regardless of the educational level attained and age, pointing towards gender related barriers that may prevent women from obtaining jobs which they are qualified for.

It is also important to note that unemployment information in itself is a rather limited indicator to monitor the labour market situation in its complexity and to understand all dimensions of labour market inequalities between women and men. The indicator therefore, should not be used in isolation of other indicators that not just describe the quantitative aspects of labour market access but also the employment quality.

Figure 11 highlights what could already be revealed in the forgoing chapters of this report, women face enormous disadvantages in the labour market as evident from large gender gaps in labour market indicators. Women are much more prone to not receive any formal education, to work in agricultural or low productivity sectors as own account or as employees for much lower wages than men, mainly as day labourers and carry much higher economic risk do to their mainly vulnerable employment statuses, informal employment arrangements or exclusive engagement in subsistence farming. Besides, females have a much lesser likelihood of finding and holding a proper job in an increasingly tight labour market, due to a large number of labour market entries. The gender sensitive analyses in this report reveal that female employment in Malawi is not an fully accepted part of the culture yet, whereby a large part of women are still confined to work as care takers of the household an children or in subsistence work.
Analyses of the extent to which economically active men and women are time-related underemployment\textsuperscript{15} are much necessary to better understand gender specific employment and unemployment issues in terms of the ability of Malawi to provide equally full employment to all those who seek to work more. Overlooking the underemployment issue can be very misleading when trying to understand labour utilization. While not technically unemployed, time-related underemployed often compete for available hours of work in the labour market.\textsuperscript{16}

Table 9 presents the number of male and female time-related underemployed as well as their shares in total employment. Overall men found it slightly harder to find sufficient work in terms of working hours to make their living. Almost four out of ten employed males worked less than desired and was looking for additional work, compared to 32.3 per cent of all employed women in 2013. The strong yearning, of nearly one third of working men and women, to work more than the very high number of 48 hours a week reflects once again on the large quantity of low productivity jobs in the Malawi that require long working hours for little earnings or gains. In this sense those people are actually not underemployed in terms of time but rather in terms of profits and gains needed to make themselves and their families living. It is very likely that a

\textsuperscript{15} Worker in Malawi are defined as time-related underemployed if they were employed, but worked in the main and secondary job together less than 48 hours (which is the full-time threshold defined by the National Statistics Office) and were available for more work

\textsuperscript{16} See ILO 2011. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th edition (Geneva); see: http://www.ilo.org/trends
large share of people identified as time-related underemployed were also working poor in 2013.

Table 9  Time-related underemployment, by sex and age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Underemployed (’000s)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Both sexes</th>
<th>Gender Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>248.4</td>
<td>258.3</td>
<td>506.7</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>380.8</td>
<td>319.0</td>
<td>699.9</td>
<td>61.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>244.2</td>
<td>185.0</td>
<td>429.1</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>118.9</td>
<td>98.4</td>
<td>217.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>107.1</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>1,094.1</td>
<td>928.8</td>
<td>2,022.9</td>
<td>165.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Underemployment as a share of total employment (%)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Both sexes</th>
<th>Gender Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculations based on micro-data from Malawi’s Labour Force Survey (MLFS) 2013

Gender gap analysis of time-related underemployment and age and sex disclose, that gender imbalances were the largest for the age cohort 55-64, reflecting the difficulties particularly men face. Gender gaps in time-related underemployment were the lowest among young men and women (1.1 percentage points) signalling that Malawi’s young women and men experienced similar difficulties in finding productive work.

In order to fully utilize the potential of young women and men, gender sensitive cross-cutting policies should be developed that support youth, for example, enhancing the role of, education and training, business promotion and related services.

3.4.4 YOUTH NEITHER IN EMPLOYMENT, EDUCATION OR TRAINING

Analyses of figure 12 reveal that NEET rates were the highest for young women in Northern area of Malawi with 28.6 per cent, 6.0 percentage points higher than the corresponding rates for men. NEET rates for females and men in other parts of the country were noticeably lower and gender gaps were smaller. Higher NEET rates for females once more reflect on the disadvantages women face in terms of labour market, especially in the northern part of the country.
There could be a variety of reasons why young Malawian’s were NEET. Some were unemployed. Some might have been occupied in looking after other family members; been sick or disabled; or did simply not want to work; or cultural-driven beliefs and family pressures kept them idle. Though it is likely that some of them were discouraged, after being unemployed for a long period of time, believing that undertaking any kind of job search would be pointless. Others might not have sought work because they were, or at least thought they were, insufficiently educated or skilled, no suitable work were locally available or, simply did not know how to look for work effectively. This underscores the need for job creation, skills development or private sector initiatives to facilitate employment, particularly for young women.
3.5 CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY DIRECTIONS

The gender sensitive labour market analysis of Malawi’s latest labour statistics uncovered women were much disadvantaged in comparison to men in terms of both access to decent and productive jobs and the quality of employment. Women were more restricted to subsistence foodstuff producing than men and were significantly more likely to be trapped in insecure employment situations with low productivity and low earnings particularly in the agricultural sector, which is their predominant source of employment and livelihoods.

In the past decade a lot of affords have been undertaken to mainstream gender issues into various national policies and to provide targeted support to women and men in Malawi. No doubt, there are various good strategies and projects under way but more needs to be done to (1) strengthen gender mainstreaming, (2) gender-specific projects, (3) to include gender targets more broadly in government policies and programs and (4) to monitor and evaluate programmes. Besides the collection of sex-disaggregated data needs to be continued and enhanced.

Dedicated gender sensitive interventions are vital for progressively reducing gender gaps in Malawi’s labour market and to slowly change cultural norms and attitudes that discriminate women in the world of work. Given that women form a substantial part of Malawi’s population and workforce, it is essential that all policy frameworks are gender responsive. Closing gender gaps in the world of work will also require a strong political will and a coherent, gender responsive policy framework, with measurable targets and achievable outcomes to promote equality and equity in the world of work. Very important key policy entry points could include the following in Malawi:

3.5.1 MACRO-ECONOMIC POLICIES

It is well known that macro-economic policies, particularly trade and investment policies can have very different impacts on working men and women depending on the sectors they work in and under what particular economic environments. Thus it would be vital to have a gender sensitive look at social content of macro policies and the potential implications that can be drawn for women and men in the world of work.

Given that a high share of working women is concentrated in the labour intensive agriculture and largely informal service sectors creating a favorable macroeconomic environment for boosting decent employment opportunities for men and women would be vital. Also, the allocation of sufficient fiscal space for public investments in the development of social sectors, such as health and education, could exhilarate the creation of jobs for women considering the fact that traditionally, in many other countries around the world, these sectors are dominated my female workers.

Investing in rural infrastructure could create substantial employment and builds a foundation for sustainable growth. For example the construction and repairs of farm-to-market roads,
post-harvest facilities, irrigation systems, portable water systems and other farm projects, could provide long-term advantages to a large percentage of women in agriculture, in particular those working vulnerable employment statuses. It will also serve to provide opportunities for those working exclusively as subsistence farmers.

Attention should not only be paid to infrastructure projects which create jobs in the short and long run, but also to the establishment of care services will reduce the pressure on women that have traditionally have to balance family and work while providing much needed services for children, the elderly and the sick.

Also, strategic economic incentives provided by macroeconomic policies can have gender differentiated impacts on the distribution of resources (such as natural resources, capital, and land). This would ultimately lead changes in the sectoral composition resulting in changing patterns and distribution of the economically active population (composed of women/men), as well as hours spent on both productive and contributing family work by both youth and adult women and men.

3.5.2 EDUCATION AND TRAINING POLICIES

With seven out of ten economically active females and six out of ten economically active males that never attained formal education in their lives and only 6.4 per cent of the female population that had attained secondary education, nearly a half of the equivalent share for men (11.9 per cent) it becomes obvious that there are severe gender imbalances in equal educational attainment and performance. As a consequence Malawian girls and boys have unequal opportunities to develop cognitive, non-cognitive, and vocational skills that prepare them for good jobs.

Further, since a large part of the current work force has not attained any formal education or only primary education it is in particular important for women to be equipped knowledge and skills that would be required for certain jobs. An underlying reason for the discrepancies in equal non-agricultural job opportunities between adult men and women could well be the lack of technical vocational training opportunities for many women. Thus, gender sensitive education and skills development policies that address particularly the needs of women are of utmost importance.

Also equal access of women and men to education and training will be vital to prepare a youth population that has similar qualifications and chances in finding quality jobs in the labour market. ‘Starting off equivalent’ is a key determinant of the future economic (and social) well-being of women and will significantly influence the level of development in Malawi. Overall very low educational attainment levels of Malawi’s labour force stress the needs for reforms to foster participation of young men and women in secondary and tertiary educational. Education and training investments should be closely linked to economic and employment growth strategies and programmes. Responsibility for improving the state of skills should be shared between the government, the private sector, workers and parents.
Analysis of the employment by sector and occupation indicators of men and women in Malawi’s labour market showed job opportunities for women were found in a narrower range of occupations and sectors, compared to those for men, hence, it is justified to provide specific targeted education and training support in response to the current and future labour market needs for girls and women workers.

### 3.5.3 Enhancing Decent and Productive Employment Opportunities for Women in Agriculture

Since Malawi’s economy is largely rural and provides most of the employment opportunities for men and women there would be major benefits from developing an overarching and gender sensitive agriculture strategy for men and women. Such strategy should address reducing gender wage gaps from agriculture production. It is also important to increase women’s productivity and incomes from agriculture, rather than only facilitating their movement into other sectors, where currently opportunities for economic security and decent work are limited. Efforts should be made in exploring ‘cash crops’ and to develop value chains for domestic sale and export that need to actively involve women. Also women’s production of subsistence crops for food security must be supported, particularly in light of a rapidly growing population.

Overall, ways have to be discovered to create decent wage and salaried jobs in the sector. The transition from traditional subsistence to commercial agriculture production will take time and cannot be achieved overnight. Thus, immediate interventions have to particularly tackle the needs of poor women farmers.

### 3.5.4 Higher Incomes and Income Equality

Long working hours and the high willingness to even work longer hours for additional pay, as well as high shares of informal and vulnerable employment point towards large shares of working poverty in the country, where men and women do not earn enough to keep themselves and their families out of poverty. The foregoing analysis revealed that employed women across all sectors faced much more tenure when compared to men. Thus, minimum wages and equal pay between men and women particularly in the agriculture sector needs to be promoted with great urgency to overcome poverty and facilitate economic development in the country.
3.5.5 SOCIAL PROTECTION

A major concern in Malawi is the lack of social protection coverage of day laborer, informal and vulnerable and precarious workers, the majority of whom are women. Considering implementing legislation and policies that provide for employment guarantees might be a way to address the issue. Employment guarantees, if adopted, would need to be monitored and assessed to enhance their effect on gender-equitable employment.

3.5.6 GENDER SENSITIVE LABOUR MARKET INFORMATION AND ANALYSIS

In the previous sub-section it was demonstrated how Malawi’s labour market was systematically analyzed with the help of gender disaggregated labour market indicators. For formulating inclusive employment policies, a better understanding of gender and age disaggregated employment patterns in its broader context are a pre-condition.

The collection, compilation, tabulation, analysis and dissemination of gender disaggregated labour statistics and labour market information, and the strengthening of institutional relationships between producers and users of information and analysis will provide a solid basis to monitor labour markets, discover gender barriers and design and implement effective policies for women and men. More gender sensitive labour market information and analyses are urgently needed to better understand the reasons of underlying gender gaps and differences in Malawi’s labour market as well as other dimensions. Personal attributes, other than sex, such as colour, race, religion and age could also be additional grounds for causing double or triple discrimination in the labour market and for creating higher barriers to access to the labour market.

It is very likely that women from ethnic minorities face higher labour market barriers, both compared to respective cohort male groups or to women of the majority ethnic group.
Box 2 Other key policy areas that could be relevant for promoting gender equality in Malawi’s labour market

**Better infrastructure to reduce the burden of housework for women**
- Investments in infrastructure and public services, such as electricity, sanitation and clean water
- Provision of services that improve mobility can aid gender equality in employment and education

**Compensate for inequalities in the division of paid and unpaid work**
- Reduce the burden of housework through improved infrastructure (electricity, transportation, etc.)
- Reduce the burden of care work by supporting high-quality care services for children and the elderly (through provision, subsidization, etc.)
- Improve mothers’ reintegration into the labour market through active labour market policies and job guarantees

**Reducing occupational segregation and limiting its negative impacts**
- Encourage atypical choices early in life through public campaigns that challenge gender stereotypes and scholarships and mentoring programmes that promote gender-atypical choices (for instance, in terms of fields of study)
- Reduce structural barriers to the under-represented gender in male-dominated and female-dominated occupations and work places;
- Reduce the adverse impacts of segregation through gender audits and comparable work policies
- Encourage women in top positions by providing them with strong networks (for instance via diversity network programmes, initiated by human resource managers, employers or employees, that vary from regular informal meetings to national conferences and aim to share information and career advice) and clearly establishing responsibility for diversity promotion

**Other important policy areas**
- Re-skilling, training and unemployment protection, unemployment benefits and measures for women workers
- Childcare services
- Quotas for women in employment guarantee programmes targeted at the poorest households
- “Make-work-pay” measures, which increase incentives for low-paid workers to participate in the labour market by providing income tax credits
- Work-sharing schemes which include workers that do not have regular contracts
- Cash transfer programmes for poor households
- Microcredit
- Public employment programmes
- Re-training of unemployed persons to new jobs which break gender stereotypes, especially for those with family responsibilities
- Keeping/increasing minimum wages, as women are lower paid than men due to the gender wage gap


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