Women in Work

The opportunities and challenges of the tech revolution
March 2020
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International Women’s Day 2020 is an opportunity for us to celebrate the successes and continued strides that women have achieved in the workplace. Our Index this year shows that once again, Iceland and Sweden take the top place, while the UK remains in 18th place.

However, while progress has no doubt been made, the pace of improvement remains slow. The World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report 2020 projects that on current trends, the global gender gap will take nearly a century to close. Progress has also brought its own challenges: around the world, the backlash against women’s rights has been growing, which means that the gains that have been made cannot be taken for granted.1

But there is a huge prize at stake from accelerating progress: Our index shows improving female participation in work across the OECD could boost OECD GDP by US$6 trillion, while closing the gender pay gap could boost OECD GDP by US$2 trillion.

The theme of this year’s Women in Work 2020 report focuses on the opportunities and challenges that technology presents to women in the workplace.

In the first of our two special articles, we explore how women have been able to take advantage of opportunities in the tech sector across the G7. We find that Canada is the best performing country within the G7 in terms of gender representation and equality in the tech sector.

However, the sector still has a lot of catching up to do compared to others. Despite the large amount of evidence to support the positive impact of diversity on business performance, on average across the G7, women account for only 30% of the tech workforce, and even fewer women occupy the top positions of tech companies.

Examples of the pitfalls of lacking a diverse workforce in the tech sector are abound, from the development of products that don’t work as well for women as men (such as smartphones largely designed for male hands), to algorithms that perpetuate gender biases (such as in CV screening software for recruitment purposes).

But there is much that tech companies can do to address this. One of the most important priorities is to build and sustain a pipeline of diverse talent, and in this regard, PwC UK is a proud supporter of the Tech She Can® Charter in the UK, which is campaigning to inspire and educate young girls and women to get into tech careers.

However, the power of new technology can also bring new sets of challenges. AI, robotics and other forms of automation are advancing at a rapid pace, bringing great benefits to the economy, but also a lot of disruption to labour markets. A recent global PwC survey found that more than half of workers globally believe that automation will either significantly change or make their job obsolete within the next ten years.2 In our second article, we explore in which countries are women most vulnerable to automation, building on our previous research on the impact of automation on jobs,3 and the potential for female job creation in the future. We find that there could be a small gain to female workers in the OECD, but the distribution of gains and losses can vary markedly across countries and industry sectors.

There is much that policymakers and businesses can do to help people, especially women adapt to technological change throughout their working lives. Governments and businesses can offer workers, especially women, increased training in digital skills and STEM subjects, and support retraining into other jobs in sectors where the “human touch” is crucial.

This also means offering opportunities for formal or on-the-job training in softer skills, such as creativity, problem solving and flexibility. PwC can also help business organisations understand which segments of their workforce are more likely to be exposed to automation, and hence provide employees with targeted support to retrain or upskill. With the right interventions, everyone including women can benefit from the gains in productivity from technology and automation.

We hope you find this year’s study useful. Please do get in touch if you have further questions or comments about this study, or to discuss how we can help your organisation address these issues.
Executive summary
The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) continues to make gains to female economic empowerment, however continued progress is needed to achieve gender-parity in the workplace.

The eighth update of the Women in Work Index provides our assessment of female economic empowerment in 2018 across 33 OECD countries. The Index is a weighted average of five indicators that reflect female participation in the labour market and equality in the workplace.

Between 2017 and 2018, our Index shows the OECD continued to achieve incremental gains to female economic empowerment, mainly as a result of increasing the female labour force participation rate and the female full-time employment rate, as well as reducing the female unemployment rate.

The top three performing OECD countries remain the same as last year, with Iceland and Sweden retaining the top two positions on the Index for the fifth year in a row, and Slovenia in 3rd.

Estonia and Ireland recorded the biggest decline in their ranking on the Index, both falling by 4 positions mainly due to a decrease in the female full-time employment rate in Estonia and a widening of the gender pay gap in Ireland.

Czechia experienced the biggest improvement in its ranking on the Index of all OECD countries between 2017 and 2018, rising 4 places from 23rd to 19th, owing to small but positive improvements across all of the indicators in the Index, in particular the participation rate gap and the female unemployment rate.

Belgium and Poland recorded the greatest increase in absolute performance, due to strong improvements across nearly all indicators, with the Poland seeing the largest decrease in the gender pay gap across the OECD.

Note that the Index results for 2017 have changed compared to those reported in the Women in Work Index 2019 due to retrospective changes to the historical data. More detail can be found in the Methodology section of the report.
The OECD continues to make gains to female economic empowerment, however continued progress is needed to achieve gender-parity in the workplace.

The top 3 performing countries remain unchanged, with Nordic countries occupying the top two positions on the Women in Work Index, and Slovenia in third place.

Potential long-term economic gains

- Significant economic benefits can be generated in the long-term from increasing the female employment rate to match that of Sweden. The GDP gains across the OECD could be over US$6 trillion.

- Across the OECD, fully closing the gender pay gap could increase total female earnings by US$2 trillion.

Boost to OECD GDP from increasing female employment rates to match Sweden’s

Boost to OECD female earnings from closing the gender pay gap

$6tn $2tn

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
The OECD continues to make gains to female economic empowerment, however continued progress is needed to achieve gender-parity in the workplace.

Over the longer term there have been significant movements in country rankings, largely due to changes in the gender pay gap, the female unemployment rate and the gender gap in labour force participation.

Since 2000, **Luxembourg** and **Poland** have made significant improvements on the Index, as a result of a substantial reduction in the participation rate gap and the gender pay gap in **Luxembourg** and a large decrease in the female unemployment rate in **Poland**.

Conversely, France and Austria have both fallen significantly on the rankings since 2000, owing to a widening of the gender pay gap in France, and an increase in the female unemployment rate and a substantial reduction in the female full-time employment rate in Austria.

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
The UK’s position on the Index remains unchanged at 16th, but it is increasingly being out-paced by greater improvements elsewhere in the OECD

UK Ranking #16

The UK continues to perform above the OECD average, but the gap is closing

From 2017 to 2018, the UK charted improvements across all indicators of the Index, except the female labour force participation rate, which fell marginally.

That said, the UK performs better than the OECD on average. Between 2000 and 2011, the UK’s Index score was below the OECD average, but it then began to outperform the average from 2012 onwards, pulling away quickly until 2015. However, since then, the gap between the UK and OECD has narrowed and the UK’s rank has remained broadly the same, which suggests that improvements made elsewhere in the OECD are outpacing progress in the UK.

The UK performs well when compared to other G7 economies. Overall, it is second only to Canada and performs above the G7 average with respect to all indicators.

Comparision against the G7

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Women's employment opportunities have improved across the regions, with poorer performing regions closing the gap

This year’s update to the UK regional index points to a narrowing of regional inequality in women’s employment opportunities

All regions except Scotland have improved their absolute score on the index since last year.

The South West now takes first position, unseating Scotland, as a result of improvements on all indicators, most notably the gender gap in labour force participation and the gender pay gap. Northern Ireland has improved from 4th place to 2nd due to the largest improvement of all regions in its female labour force participation rate, although it still lags behind other UK regions on this indicator.

London has fallen three places to 12th as a result of a widening gender pay gap and gender labour force participation gap. It is the region that has achieved the biggest improvement in its index score since 2010, but progress has stalled more recently.

The biggest improvements in absolute terms have been observed in the poorer performing regions, thus these places are closing the gap with the rest of the UK.

In particular, the East Midlands, North East and West Midlands have achieved increases in their index score of over 12% since last year, mainly driven by broad-based improvements to female labour force participation and full-time employment, as well as the gender pay.

Women in Work regional index score, 2018 and 2017

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Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Canada leads the way for women in tech in the G7, however all countries have a long way to go to improve gender diversity in the tech industry

More women than ever before are choosing the fast-growing technology industry as a pathway to career success. Our Women in Technology Index provides an assessment of female representation in tech across the G7.

- Similar to its position in the G7 on the main Women in Work Index, Canada is the best performing country in the G7 on the Women in Technology Index. This is due to its strong and better than average performance on all indicators except the share of women on boards in the technology, media and telecoms (TMT) sector.
- France comes in second place, due to its to better than average performance on all indicators except for the female share of ICT graduates. France also has by far the highest share of women on boards in TMT in the G7 (38%).
- In contrast to the main Index, on which it is the second best performing country in the G7 and ranks in the top half of the OECD overall (16th), the UK ranks in 5th place in the Women in Technology Index for the G7. The UK’s poor performance on the Women in Technology Index is driven by its worse than average performance on all indicators except the share of women on boards in TMT.
- Italy takes sixth, with Japan in last place. Both countries’ poor performance is due to their below-average performance on most indicators. Italy in particular has the lowest female share of ICT graduates, and Japan the lowest female share of technology employment and share of women on boards in TMT in the G7.

How does the technology industry compare to the wider economy?

- On average, across the G7, the technology industry performs worse than the average for all industries on various measures of equality, particularly on the pipeline measure (the female share of ICT graduates compared to the share of graduates in general that are women), as well as share of employment. However, the G7 tech sector appears to be performing similarly to other sectors on female board representation.
- This suggests that the tech sector faces a unique challenge on female representation, and that there may be drivers that are specific to, or are more pronounced in the tech sector.

Women in Work

1 in 5 Of ICT graduates are females
23% Percentage of women on boards in technology, media and telecommunications
30% Female share of employment in the technology industry
18% Gender pay gap in the technology industry

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.

Women in Technology Index

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Women face a number of challenges in the tech sector

Why are women in tech underrepresented, and what can technology organisations do to increase opportunities for women in the sector?

We identify a number of challenges facing women throughout their career life cycle.

Gender stereotypes and a lack of female role models
Women face a number of challenges in entering, as well as staying in the tech sector. Gender stereotypes and biases that technology, both as an occupation and a product, is for men, can contribute to female underrepresentation and gender inequality in the tech industry. They can discourage women from aspiring to a career in tech and acquiring digital skills from an early age, which limits the available pipeline of women seeking careers in tech.

The lack of senior women in tech suggests that women are less visible in the sector, and that younger women also lack the mentorship and networks to provide coaching and advice, and support their career progression.

Skills and qualifications
The acquisition of technical knowledge, such as numeracy and STEM-related subjects, is crucial in taking up technical roles in the tech sector. However, women tend to be less equipped with these skills, despite no gender differences in ability for learning these skills. This suggests that there are other social and cultural factors at work influencing the take-up of these skills by women.

Workplace experiences for women
Many women join the tech sector to develop their skills through technical roles that enable direct involvement in the development of products and services. However women tend not have the same access to core, creative technical roles as men and are more often clustered into execution and project management roles.

Tech firms can foster an environment, which leads to women feeling isolated or lacking a sense of belonging in tech workplaces.

Women also often feel stalled in mid-level positions due to the lack of leadership and development opportunities, and a lack of mentors, sponsors and informal networks can mean that women’s accomplishments are less visible, which can limit progression.
However organisations can take action today to promote opportunities for women and improve female representation in tech

Organisations in the tech sector can implement a range of policies to address these challenges.

**Developing the pipeline of female talent**

Female role models, and encouraging girls and young women to develop STEM skills and aspire to careers in technology are crucial to developing the pipeline of female tech talent. Tech companies and other public sector and third sector organisations can contribute to this by collaborating with educational institutions to promote and celebrate successful women in technology and educate and inspire pupils and teachers about technology careers.

**Attracting women into the industry**

Recruiting more women into the technology industry is vital to improving female representation and challenging gender stereotypes. Organisations can help achieve this by ensuring that branding and job descriptions are gender-neutral and that recruitment teams are gender-balanced. Furthermore, setting targets for the number of women on vacancy shortlists is demonstrably effective in improving representation.15

**Fostering an inclusive workplace culture**

Promoting inclusivity in the workplace is crucial to attracting, retaining and developing female talent within the technology industry.16 Organisations can implement a number of initiatives such as mentorship schemes to support career planning, women’s networking groups and events to provide a forum for support and discussion, to help organisations better understand the issues women face in the workplace and how these can be addressed. There is also scope for cross-industry learning and the sharing of best practices.

**Providing opportunities for development**

One way organisations can help address both the pipeline and progression of women in tech is by focusing on training and education. For example, by implementing retraining and returner programmes and creating alternative hiring pathways to allow employees to move into different roles. Learning and development initiatives are particularly important to facilitate progression in the technology industry, as technical roles, and especially those that are senior, often require a high level of skills and specific expertise in order to access them.
Women are less susceptible to automation than men

The growth of advanced technology will present both challenges and opportunities for the labour force. AI and related technologies such as robotics, drones and driverless vehicles could displace many jobs formerly done by humans, but may also create many additional jobs as productivity and real incomes rise and new and better products are developed.

Understanding the different impact that new technologies may have on male and female employment can inform policy to help mitigate disproportional gender-specific effects.

**Fewer female jobs are expected to be lost from automation relative to jobs lost for the male population in the OECD.**

Our analysis shows men tend to be concentrated in sectors that are more highly automatable, such as transport and manufacturing, while women are slightly less susceptible to automation as they are more concentrated in sectors, such as health and social care and education, which are less automatable.

**The gains from the income effect are likely to be bigger for men than women.**

Technological adoption can also result in an income effect that counteracts the jobs displacement effect, as tech-driven cost savings improve production efficiency, leading to lower prices and boosting household real incomes. Job creation is more likely to benefit male workers rather than female workers, as high levels of job creation are estimated in the manufacturing sector, which is typically dominated by men. For women, this “income effect” is highest in the human health and social work sector.
The health and social care sector, as well as the education sector, is expected to experience a small net gain in female jobs resulting from the effects of technology.

The human health and social work sector could see a net increase in jobs (around 3%) for female workers. This is largely driven by the expected rapid growth in the sector as demand for health and social care increases to care for an ageing population and the lower exposure to automatability estimated over the next 20 years.

On the other hand, the number of jobs for female workers in the wholesale and retail trade, manufacturing, and other services sectors, could decline as a result of technology and automation. These sectors collectively account for 30% of female employment currently, and there could be a net loss of around 10-20% of these jobs.

Ultimately, other factors, particularly education, are more important drivers than gender for determining the impact of automation.

Our previous research found that workers with low and medium levels of education have notably higher automation rates across countries, compared to those with higher levels of education.

Education and skill levels are also an important determinant of the types of occupations workers perform, which can also vary significantly in terms of automatability. Some occupations, such as machine operators and clerical workers, are more exposed to automation as these tend to involve routine or simple computational tasks. In contrast, the risk is lower for professionals and managers that require social skills and literacy skills, as well as dealing with more complex computational tasks that are less automatable.
The health and social care sector, the largest employer of women in the OECD, is expected to experience a net increase in female employment as a result of technology.
With the right interventions, everyone, including women, can benefit from the gains in productivity from technology and automation

1. Businesses and governments can collaborate to retrain and upskill the workforce to have the skills they need to succeed in the future.

2. Stronger social safety nets can help manage the impact of automation on women and the economy.

3. Effective regulation and competition policy can help consumers benefit from technological advances.

4. Careful engagement with AI and technology is needed to maximise the potential value from technology, while minimising its negative impacts on workers.

Women in Work
PwC
Key Index results
The OECD continues to make gradual progress to improve female economic empowerment, mainly driven by a closing of the gender pay gap and a fall in the female unemployment rate.

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Iceland remains the top performer on the Index, improving on its index score from 2017 due to a reduction in the gender pay gap and the female unemployment rate, as well as an increase in the female full-time employment rate.

Norway fell from 5th position to 6th due to its worsening index score since 2017, driven by a rise in the gender pay and participation gap and a decrease in the female full-time employment rate.

Ireland experienced the biggest decline in its ranking across the OECD (along with Estonia), falling by 4 places from 10th to 14th place, mainly as a result of a widening of the gender pay gap.

Despite improvements on all indicators except the female participation rate, the UK’s position remained the same at 16th due to significant improvements in female employment prospects elsewhere in the OECD.

Czechia experienced the largest improvement in its ranking across the OECD – rising by 4 places from 23rd to 19th. Its improvement was due to small but positive improvements across all of the indicators in the Index, in particular the participation rate gap and the female unemployment rate.

Estonia recorded the biggest decline in its ranking across the OECD (along with Ireland), falling by four places from 19th to 23rd, mainly due to a decrease in its female full-time employment rate.

Korea remains at the bottom of the Index with a lower index score than 2017, owing to a worsening of its gender pay gap, female unemployment rate and female full-time employment rate, and a lack of significant improvement on other indicators.

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Since 2000, Luxembourg has made the greatest improvement in its ranking, whereas Austria and France have seen the largest decline.

Biggest movers in the PwC Women in Work Index ranking between 2000 and 2018

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
3 Potential economic gains from improving female economic empowerment
Increasing the female employment could boost GDP across the OECD by over US$6 trillion

Our analysis provides estimates of the broad order of magnitude of potential gains for each country from increasing female employment rates to match those of Sweden – a consistently top performer in our Index with a female employment rate of 69%

• The potential long-term economic gains across the OECD from an increase in women in employment amount to a GDP increase of over US$6 trillion.

• In absolute terms, the US is expected to gain the most, as much as $1.8 trillion, almost three times as much as the next biggest winner, Mexico.

• Countries with relatively low female employment rates such as Mexico, Italy and Greece are likely to accrue the largest potential gains in percentage terms. Increasing female employment rates to those in Sweden could generate GDP increases of nearly 30% for these countries.

• Countries that already have a high share of women in work, such as Estonia and Czechia, would enjoy a smaller boost in GDP.

The economic benefit to the UK from improving gender equality in the workplace could be substantial:

• Increasing the female employment rate from 58% to that of Sweden (69%) results in gains of around 9% of UK GDP, or US$270 billion (or £189 billion).
Closing the gender pay gap could boost female earnings across the OECD by over US$2 trillion, an increase of 21%.

We consider the potential gains from closing the pay gap between men and women across the OECD.

Closing the pay gap by increasing female average wages to match their male counterparts would generate a significant increase in female earnings.

- The gains to female labour earnings from closing the gender pay gap could be over US$2 trillion across the OECD.
- Of the OECD countries, the United States is anticipated to achieve the most gains in absolute terms from closing the pay gap, with total female earnings increasing by $801 billion, almost three times as much as the next biggest winner, Japan.
- The largest gains in percentage terms could be found for countries with the largest gender pay gaps, notably Korea, Estonia and Japan. The increase in female labour earnings from closing the pay gap in these countries could range from one-quarter to two-thirds of the current value. Korea’s female earnings could see a large increase of 55% from pay parity across males and females.
- Countries with relatively small gender pay gaps such as Luxembourg, Greece and Belgium are likely to generate a smaller increase in female earnings.
- Closing the gender pay gap in the UK possibly increases female earnings by £93 billion (US$ 116 billion), implying an increase of 20% of its current value.
UK and regional performance
The UK’s position on the Index remains unchanged at 16th, but it is increasingly being out-paced by greater improvements elsewhere in the OECD

**UK Ranking #16**

**UK performance 2017-2018**

- The UK saw no change in its position between 2017 and 2018, remaining in 16th position. Over this period, the UK saw small improvements on all indicators except for the female labour force participation rate, which decreased marginally.

- One of the key areas holding back the UK’s progress is a persistent gender pay gap (16%), which continues to be higher than the OECD average and barely changed between 2017 and 2018.

- Another area of weakness for the UK is the female full-time employment rate, which is significantly below the OECD average. Following the economic downturn in 2008, female full-time employment in the UK decreased while part-time employment increased. This trend has since reversed and there has since been steady growth in female full-time employment since 2012. Nonetheless, in 2018, the UK female full-time employment rate remains 12 percentage points below the OECD average.

- The UK performs well when compared to other G7 economies, being only second to Canada. This is due to the UK performing better than the G7 average on all indicators. However it lags behind Canada on all indicators except the female unemployment rate and the gender pay gap.

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**Comparison against the G7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Rank</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Japan</td>
<td>#27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>#29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
The UK continues to outperform the OECD, but a persistent gender pay gap remains an obstacle to progress

Long term trends: UK performance since 2000

- The UK’s position has barely budged since 2000 when it stood at 17th position on the Index, demonstrating slow progress over the years.

- However, it performs better than the OECD on average. Between 2000 and 2011, the UK’s Index score was below the OECD average, but it then began to outperform the average from 2012 onwards, pulling away quickly until 2015. However since then, the gap between the UK and OECD has narrowed and the UK’s rank has remained broadly the same, which suggests that improvements made elsewhere in the OECD are outpacing the UK.

- Compared with 2000, the UK has improved its performance across all five indicators, with the largest improvement made in reducing the gender pay gap and the gender gap in labour force participation, which have fallen by 10 and 6 percentage points respectively.

- Similarly, over the longer term, the UK’s key strength relative the rest of the OECD has been the female labour force participation rate, on which it has consistently outperformed the OECD average by at least 4 percentage points since 2000.

- In contrast, an area of weakness for the UK is the female full-time employment rate, on which it has consistently remained below the OECD average since 2000 by more than 11 percentage points.

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Women's employment opportunities have improved across the regions, with poorer performing regions closing the gap

This year’s update to the UK regional index points to a narrowing of regional inequality in women’s employment opportunities

All regions except Scotland have improved their absolute score on the Index since last year.

The South West now takes first position, unseating Scotland, as a result of improvements on all indicators, most notably the gender gap in labour force participation and the gender pay gap. Northern Ireland has improved from 4th place to 2nd due to the largest improvement of all regions in its female labour force participation rate, although it still lags behind other UK regions on this indicator.

London has fallen three places to 12th as a result of a widening gender pay gap and gender labour force participation gap. It is the region that has achieved the biggest improvement in its index score since 2010, but progress has stalled more recently.

In particular, the East Midlands, North East and the West Midlands have achieved increases in their index score of over 12% since last year, mainly driven by broad-based improvements to female labour force participation and full-time employment, as well as the gender pay.

The biggest improvements in absolute terms have been observed in the poorer performing regions, thus these places are closing the gap with the rest of the UK.

Most of these are the poorer performing regions, although the largest improvement in the index score has been made by Northern Ireland, which moved up three places to 2nd place. The financial services sector in London has been particularly active in this area, leading to a narrowing of the gender gap in the financial services sector.

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.

Women in Work Regional Index score, 2018 and 2017

The biggest improvements in absolute terms have been observed in the poorer performing regions, thus these places are closing the gap with the rest of the UK.

In particular, the East Midlands, North East and the West Midlands have achieved increases in their index score of over 12% since last year, mainly driven by broad-based improvements to female labour force participation and full-time employment, as well as the gender pay.

Women in Work Regional Index score, 2018 and 2017

2018 Index scores

South West | Northern Ireland | Wales | Scotland | South East | East | North West | North East | East Midlands | Yorkshire & Humber | West Midlands | London

2017

2018

South West | Northern Ireland | Wales | Scotland | South East | East | North West | North East | East Midlands | Yorkshire & Humber | West Midlands | London

2018 Index scores

- South West: 2
- Northern Ireland: 9
- Wales: 4
- Scotland: 11
- South East: 6
- East: 7
- North West: 1
- North East: 4
- East Midlands: 9
- Yorkshire & Humber: 12
- West Midlands: 2
- London: 12

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.

Biggest movers in the PwC Women in Work Index ranking between 2017 and 2018
5 Special focus – Opportunities for women in technology
Increasing gender diversity brings significant benefits for the tech sector

More women than ever before are choosing the fast-growing technology sector as a pathway to career success. However, despite efforts by technology companies and governments alike to increase female representation in technology, on average across the G7, women occupy only 30% of jobs in the tech industry. In this edition of Women in Work, we assess the opportunities and challenges faced by women in the tech industry that drive female representation in the sector. We also consider what businesses and policymakers can do to promote gender diversity and equality in the technology workplace.

Gender diversity is crucial to the financial performance of tech companies and industry as a whole

- A wealth of research shows that diverse organisations tend to be associated with better financial performance. Diverse teams are more creative and innovative, this is particularly important in the tech sector where these traits can mean the difference between success and failure. A recent study found that companies with more diverse management teams have 19% higher revenues due to innovation and these effects are stronger for companies which have high investment in digital technology.

- One of the reasons that more diverse teams are associated with better financial performance is because they create better products. The digital products and services that are created by people are shaped by their biases and personal experience. For example, the lack of gender diversity within technology companies can mean that employees lack the data, understanding and experience, to design and deliver products and services that are tailored to women, and function optimally for both men and women. Unsuitable product design can, in turn, have financial implications for technology companies, potentially in the form of lower sales, revenue and profit.

1 in 5
Of ICT graduates are female on average for the G7

30%
Average female share of employment in the technology industry for the G7

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section
However there is still a long way to go to achieve gender equality in the tech workplace

The tech sector still has a long way to go to improve female representation

• Despite the creative and financial benefits from increasing gender diversity, female representation in the tech sector remains low. On average across the G7, women make up less than a quarter of ICT graduates and occupy less than a third of jobs and less than a quarter of board positions in the tech industry.

• In addition, the tech sector has struggled with providing a conducive workplace environment for women, with lawsuits and allegations of gender discrimination and harassment being brought against a number of large and high-profile technology companies.²⁴

• These cases show that not only does the tech sector still have a long way to go in fostering gender-equal and inclusive workplaces, but that these cases have also had a negative impact on the brand image of these companies. These failures can bring significant costs, both reputational and financial, from a workplace environment that does not promote diversity and inclusivity.
Improving opportunities for women in tech will be crucial to all industries and wider society in the tech revolution

Technology is expanding rapidly across the globe, creating new industries and increasingly shaping and disrupting existing ones. Many organisations outside of the tech sector employ significant proportions of their workforce in technology roles. Digital goods and services are used on daily basis by workers and consumers across all industries too. As a result, the impact of increasing gender diversity in tech stretches beyond the sector itself, bringing wider economic and societal benefits. Therefore the lessons and outcomes from increasing opportunities for women in tech are increasingly transferrable across all industries.

Gender diversity in tech is critical to ensuring that digital products and services better reflect the needs of users and wider society

• As highlighted, gender diversity in the tech sector has implications for digital product and service design. Furthermore, digital products and services with inherent gender biases that are subsequently used in workplace may serve to perpetuate biases and lead to gender discrimination. For example, artificial intelligence technology used by an organisation in any industry to screen applicants’ CVs for recruitment purposes, which is gender-biased, might inadvertently discriminate against female job applicants.25

• Having diverse teams in the creation and development of digital goods and services are important. Firstly, to ensure they better reflect the needs of users and wider society. Secondly, to reduce gender biases from being incorporated into digital products and services. Finally, to help mitigate the secondary impact that these inherent biases can have on those who use these products and services. For example, in Europe and North America, crash-test dummies commonly used in vehicle safety tests are often designed to fit the specifications of the average male body and not those of the average female, which can have serious implications for women’s safety on roads.26 Inclusive teams, from design to development and deployment, can help businesses avoid these pitfalls.
Improving opportunities for women in tech will be crucial to all industries and wider society in the tech revolution

Increasing opportunities for women in tech will be vital to the future performance of the economy in the tech revolution

Organisations across all industries are increasingly employing workers in technology roles and using technology to facilitate their day-to-day business activities. The digitisation of the economy will require adaptable workers with new skills. In the UK, it is estimated that around 90% of all jobs over the next 20 years will require some level of digital skills. These roles tend to be well-remunerated, with occupations requiring digital skills paying 29% more than occupations that do not.

However, in many countries there exists a large digital skills gap. Upskilling and providing opportunities for women to enter the technology industry can help build a strong pipeline of digitally skilled employees for current and future workforces, and provide greater earning potential and career choices for women. The impact of improving women’s access to opportunities in tech could be economically significant in terms of the GDP and employment impacts, and reduce the risk of women falling behind in the digital age as more jobs become automated.
Canada is the best-performing country in our Women in Technology Index of the G7 in terms of female access to opportunities in tech

Our Women in Technology Index assesses the representation of women in the tech sector across the G7

The Index is a weighted average of four indicators that reflect female participation and gender equality in the technology sector across different stages of the career life cycle:

• Female share of ICT graduates
• Female share of technology industry employment
• Share of women on boards in the technology, media and telecommunications industry (TMT)
• Gender pay gap in the technology industry

Country rankings and performance

• Similar to its position in the G7 on the main Women in Work Index, Canada is the best performing country in the G7 on the Women in Technology Index. This is due to its strong and better than average performance on all indicators except the share of women on boards in TMT. In particular, its top position is driven by having the highest female share of ICT graduates and the smallest technology gender pay gap in the G7.

• In second place, France performs significantly better on the Women in Technology Index than on the main Index, in which it ranks 5th among the G7. France’s strong showing is due to better than G7 average performance on all indicators except for the female share of ICT graduates. In particular, France has by far the highest share of women on boards in TMT in the G7 (38%), significantly above the G7 average (23%).

• The US and Germany broadly occupy the same positions on the Women in Technology Index as in the G7 main index. The US performs better than the G7 average on all indicators except the share of women on boards in TMT. Germany has the highest female share of technology employment in the G7, but also the widest gender pay gap in the sector among the G7.

• In contrast to the main Index, on which it is the second best performing country in the G7, the UK ranks in fifth place in the Women in Technology Index. The UK’s poor performance on the Women in Technology Index is driven by its worse than average performance on all indicators, except the share of women on boards in TMT.

• Italy and Japan occupy the bottom two position on the Women in Technology Index, which is broadly similar to their positions on the main Index for the G7. Italy has the lowest female share of ICT graduates of the G7, at 15%, while Japan has the lowest female share of technology employment and share of women on boards in TMT.
Canada is the best-performing country of the G7 in terms of female access to opportunities in tech

Women in Technology Index

Canada occupies the top position on the Women in Technology Index, followed by France, with the United States in third place.

Average gender pay gap in the technology industry for the G7

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
However, most countries have some way to go to improve the representation of women in the tech sector

In recent years, the rapid expansion of the tech industry across the G7 has seen more women than ever before entering the industry. However, women remain significantly under-represented in the tech industry in comparison with other sectors. Across the G7, the average female share of ICT graduates, technology industry employment and board positions in TMT are below 30%, and the average technology gender pay gap is above the G7 average for all industries. This suggests that the tech sector faces a unique challenge to female representation, and that there may be drivers that are specific to, or are more pronounced in the tech sector.

On average, across the G7, the technology industry performs worse than the average for all industries on all indicators except for the percentage of women on boards, on which its performance matches the all-industry average. This shows that gender inequality appears to be more pronounced in the tech industry compared to other industries and that further efforts are needed to improve female representation in the industry.

At 20%, the G7 average female share of ICT graduates is substantially below the G7 average for the share of graduates that are women, which stands at 55%. Across the G7, ICT is among the worst performing subjects with respect to the female share of graduates, besides subjects related to engineering, manufacturing and construction.

Across the G7, the average female share of technology industry employment is 30%, which is significantly below the G7 average for all industries, at 46%, where the average gap in the share of female employment in tech being around 13-19 percentage points lower than the average for all industries.

In contrast to the other indicators, the technology industry performs similarly to other industries on the share of women on boards. This is true for all G7 countries.

On average, the gender pay gap is slightly higher for the technology industry than the average for all industries. However, in countries such as Canada and France, the technology gender pay gap is significantly lower than the national average (10% and 11% vs 17% and 15% respectively), whereas in Italy, it is substantially higher (19% vs 6% respectively).
However, most countries have some way to go to improve the representation of women in the tech sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Female share of graduates</th>
<th>Female share of employment</th>
<th>Percentage of women on boards</th>
<th>Gender pay gap</th>
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<td>Female representation (%)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male representation (%)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**G7 average performance: technology industry vs all industries**

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Women face a number of challenges when entering, as well as staying in the tech sector

What explains the lack of female representation in technology? We identify a number of challenges facing women throughout their career lifecycle, from their aspirations to entering the tech sector, through to staying in and rising to the top within the industry.

**Gender stereotypes and the lack of female role models**

Gender stereotypes and biases mean technology, both as an occupation and a product, can contribute to female underrepresentation and gender inequality in the tech industry. This often permeates throughout the career lifecycle, and can discourage women from aspiring to a career in tech and acquiring digital skills from an early age. For example, a survey of over 2,000 school and university students in the UK found that only 27% of our female respondents said they would consider a career in technology, compared to 62% of males.

This results in the lack of female role models in the industry, which in turn, reduces attraction to the tech sector for other women, which reinforces gender stereotypes that technology is for men.

The lack of senior women in tech suggests that women are less visible in the sector, and that younger women also lack the mentorship and networks to provide coaching and advice, and support their career progression.

**Skills and qualifications**

The acquisition of technical knowledge, such as numeracy and STEM-related subjects, is crucial in taking up technical roles in the tech sector, such as software engineers, systems administrators and application developers.

However, women tend to be less equipped with these skills, which restricts the available pipeline of women into the technology industry.

For example, women make up a significantly lower percentage of graduates from STEM programmes in tertiary education compared to non-STEM programmes. The average female share of graduates from ICT programmes at university for the G7 was 20%, compared to 51% for business, administration and law programmes.

This is not because girls are less competent than boys in STEM subjects: at age 15, there is little difference between girls and boys performance in science across the OECD, but only 0.5% of girls wish to become ICT professionals, compared to 5% of boys. This suggests that lack of female uptake of STEM subjects at school and university is due to social and cultural factors, not differences in ability.

**Workplace experiences for women**

Many women join the tech sector to develop their skills through technical roles that enable direct involvement in the development of products and services. However, women tend not to have the same access to core, creative technical roles as men and are more often clustered into execution and project management roles. Surveys of current and former science, engineering and tech employees in the US and from three multi-national corporations, found that more than 40% of respondents felt that “women are pushed to execution roles”. This limits women’s contribution to product innovation, which may explain why levels of female patenting is low, given patenting often requires being in a technical role.

Tech firms can foster an environment, which leads to women feeling isolated or lacking a sense of belonging in tech workplaces. Women also report feeling stalled in mid-level positions due to lack of leadership and development opportunities, despite aspiring towards leadership roles. Lack of mentors, sponsors and informal networks can mean women’s accomplishments are less visible, limiting progression.

Although many reasons for the underrepresentation of women in the technology apply to other sectors dominated by men, the tech sector stands out for having much higher female attrition rates and pay gaps. Studies show that the majority of women do not leave the tech industry due to family reasons, and that roughly half of women go on to apply their technical knowledge in jobs in other industries. This suggests the lack of development and leadership opportunities are higher within the tech sector.

Attitudes towards the importance of diversity in the tech sector also lag behind others. For example, the Future of Jobs survey conducted by the World Economic Forum, which surveys senior talent and strategy executives of leading global employers, found that the share of respondents from the ICT industry that agreed with the statement “women’s economic power and aspirations are a driver of change in their industry”, was less than half of the share of respondents from other sectors that agreed with the statement.
How can organisations promote opportunities for women in the technology industry?

Given the range of factors influencing levels of female representation and participation in the technology industry, what different policies and interventions can technology organisations implement to address these factors, and to promote opportunities for women in the technology industry throughout the career life cycle?

Developing the pipeline of female talent

One of the key drivers of female under-representation in the tech industry is the lack of girls and young women pursuing STEM subjects and careers, which creates a shortage of female talent entering the tech sector. Female role models and encouraging young women to develop STEM skills and aspire to careers in tech are vital in developing this pipeline.

Tech companies, and companies in other industries, can contribute to this by collaborating with educational institutions to promote and celebrate successful women in tech and educate and inspire pupils and teachers about tech careers. An example is the Tech We Can initiative, created as part of The Tech She Can Charter – a commitment by over 140 organisations to increase the number of women working in technology roles in the UK. Tech We Can is a portal for teachers to access free technology toolkits and lesson plans that demonstrate the breadth of tech careers. An example is the Tech We Can® initiative, created as part of The Tech She Can Charter – a commitment by over 140 organisations to increase the number of women working in technology roles in the UK. Tech We Can is a portal for teachers to access free technology toolkits and lesson plans that demonstrate the breadth of tech careers.

Following the pilot of Tech We Can in 14 schools across the UK, 47% of girls said that they would consider a future career in technology compared to 29% previously, demonstrating how such initiatives can inspire young women to pursue studies and professions in technology.

Attracting women into the industry

Despite a desire by technology companies to employ more women, attracting applications for roles from women can be difficult, but recruiting more women into the technology industry is vital to improving female representation and challenging gender stereotypes.

Organisations in the tech industry can help achieve this by ensuring that branding and job descriptions are gender-neutral and recruitment teams are gender-balanced. Collaboration and joint working by organisations across the sector is key. For example, as part of the UK Tech Talent Charter (TTC) – an industry collective in which technology organisations pledge to take action to promote greater diversity and inclusion – a number of organisations have since highlighted the work and achievements of female employees in the organisation on their website, and encouraged those involved in recruitment activities to undertake unconscious bias training.

Furthermore, setting targets for the number of women on vacancy shortlists has been shown to be effective in improving representation. For example, the signatories of the TTC that have established a target for female candidates on hiring shortlists, 64% were above the national average for the number of women in technical roles.

Fostering an inclusive workplace culture

A work environment and organisational structure where women feel that they are valued, their achievements are recognised and they have ample progression opportunities is vital in attracting, retaining and developing female talent within the technology industry. In industries where women are under-represented, such as in technology, workplace inclusivity is essential to engage and empower women in the existing workforce and also attract new female talent.

Inclusive employers also stand a better chance of hiring the best. A PwC survey of over 4,000 employees across 70 countries found that when considering a potential employer, 61% of women look at the diversity of the employer’s leadership team, 67% on whether it has positive role models with whom they could identify, and 56% on whether the organisation publicly shares its progress on diversity.

Technology companies can implement a number of initiatives such as mentorship schemes to support career planning, women’s networking groups and events to provide a forum for support and discussion, to help organisations better understand the issues women face in the workplace and how these can be addressed. There is also scope for cross-industry learning and the sharing of best practices.

Providing opportunities for development

One of the reasons for the lack of senior women in tech is the lack of leadership and development opportunities.

One way organisations in the tech industry can help address both the pipeline and progression of women is by focusing on training and education, including investment in alternative routes into tech. Learning and development initiatives are particularly important to facilitate progression in the technology industry, as technical roles, and especially those that are senior, often require a high level of skills and specific expertise to access them.

For example, returner programmes for women returning to work following a career break provide an opportunity for organisations to attract experienced and technically skilled women back into the workforce. Retraining schemes and alternative hiring pathways create opportunities for existing employees to develop new skills and transition into different, perhaps more technical, roles.

Many of the signatories of the TTC reported that training and education initiatives were among their most successful D&I initiatives, with 75% of the signatories that have implemented retraining or returners programmes recording above average numbers of women in technical roles.

Women in Work

PwC
Harnessing the technology industry’s comparative advantage: using data to achieve greater diversity and inclusion

If there’s one thing that the technology industry has in abundance, it’s data, and the technology and skills required to collect, analyse and interpret large amounts of it. As such, one way in which technology organisations could promote greater diversity and inclusion is by leveraging their data and analytical capabilities to collect data on relevant workplace metrics, identify trends, diagnose diversity and inclusion issues and design appropriate interventions to address them.

Data-driven diagnosis and design

Tech organisations could collect data on the gender breakdown of different roles, distinguishing between technical and non-technical, and looking granularly at types of technical roles. This may help to identify if women are underrepresented in technical roles, and the types of technical roles women hold (e.g. creative vs support). These findings can inform the design of interventions. For example, if the data shows that, in general, women are equally represented in technical roles as men, but tend to be in support rather creative roles, then the organisation may wish to devise initiatives to address this balance. Such initiatives might include retraining programmes, and creating new hiring pathways within creative technical roles. To address issues, including job satisfaction, tech organisations could conduct surveys to understand employee perceptions and experiences of the current work environment.

Embracing data analytics whilst exercising caution

Data analytics can be used to identify and reduce gender bias in the workplace. For example, analysis of large datasets relating to historical pay, bonuses, attrition rates and many other workplace metrics can help to identify patterns of bias that the organisation management may not be (consciously) aware of. The use of machine learning in recruitment can also help to reduce unconscious bias that might be likely to occur in the recruitment process. However, it must be acknowledged that there are risks to the use of data analytics to address diversity issues: if the data, algorithms or analytics programs have inherent biases then their use can serve to accentuate bias in the workplace rather than eliminating it.

The importance of evaluation, benchmarking and transparency

In due course, the effectiveness of any diversity and inclusion policies and interventions should be evaluated and evaluation data should be used to assess whether the desired outcome is being achieved and refine them if required. Data collected on diversity metrics can also be compared with industry, national and international benchmarks to allow organisations in the technology industry to assess where they are driving diversity forward and conversely where their performance falls below average and further improvement is needed. Data should also be made internally transparent and, if possible, externally transparent, in order to build trust amongst employees and demonstrate the firm’s commitment to improving diversity.
Special focus – the impact of technology on female employment
New technology has the potential to disrupt labour markets across the OECD, with potentially asymmetric impacts for men and women

The growth of advanced technology will present both challenges and opportunities for the labour force. AI and related technologies such as robotics, drones and driverless vehicles could displace many jobs formerly done by humans, but may also create many additional jobs as productivity and real incomes rise and new and better products are developed.

Our Women in Tech article highlights the opportunities that technology-focused sectors can offer women, and the importance of promoting women in these industries. However, these technological developments will have significant implications for women employed across all sectors and all countries.

Our previous studies have shown how automation will both displace and create jobs in different sectors, with these countervailing effects broadly offsetting each other.53 However, even if the overall effect is estimated to be neutral, there will be ‘winners’ and ‘losers’. Some industry sectors could see a net increase in jobs in the long-term, while others could see a decline. This has gender implications as men and women tend to cluster in different sectors and different occupations within those sectors. Furthermore, the occupational composition of industries means that certain industries are more automatable in certain countries than others. This will have important impacts on employment as workers may not be able to retrain easily, and moving to a different, less automatable, sector could require significant upskilling. For example, moving from the mining and quarrying industry to education.

This article extends on our previous analysis to identify the gender impacts of the rise in technology across the OECD, and understand countries and industries where women may be more vulnerable to technological change over the next 20 years. We do this by examining how differences in female employment patterns and industry automatability in each country will result in differing impacts of AI and related technologies across the OECD.

Understanding the different impact that new technologies may have on male and female employment can inform policy to help mitigate disproportional gender-specific effects. We therefore also discuss the actions that government and businesses can take to help promote the opportunities for workers that the digital revolution will generate, or to help them adapt to change.

More information on our methodology can be found in the Methodology section.
New technology has the potential to disrupt labour markets across the OECD, with potentially asymmetric impacts for men and women.

What are the potential impacts of automation and technological disruption?
Automation and technological disruption will affect jobs largely through the displacement and income effects. This article first considers the impact of the displacement effect, whereby jobs are lost as the use of technology becomes more efficient and firms are incentivised to seek cost savings through substituting towards technology and away from human labour.

We then examine how the impact of the income effect could counteract the displacement effect over the next 20 years. This refers to the dynamic effect of firms' technology-associated cost savings leading to lower quality-adjusted prices, which increase households' real incomes and spending. As a result, firms increase their production both by investing in more technology and hiring more workers.

How are different industries affected by the displacement effect?
Our previous analysis found that sectors such as transportation and storage and the financial services sector have a high degree of automatability. Differences in the potential for automation in each sector is driven mostly by the composition of tasks involved in jobs in that sector. For example, workers in the transport and storage sector spend a large proportion of their time on routine tasks, while workers in financial services spend a high proportion of their time on computational tasks, all of which are likely to be automated by machines that can perform these activities more efficiently and accurately.

The potential for automation in a sector can also differ between countries due to differences in the composition of tasks within job roles, which is influenced by factors such as educational requirements. For example, automation rates in South Korea, where educational requirements are particularly high, are relatively low.54

The following slide shows the minimum, maximum and average potential for automation in each industry across the OECD.
PwC’s analysis indicates the range of automation potential across the OECD is greatest in the finance and insurance sector, and smallest in the accommodation and food sector.
The transportation and storage, manufacturing and financial services sectors are likely to be susceptible to automation.

How will automation lead to job displacement?

Technological developments have long been feared for their potential to disrupt the labour market. These concerns have become more pressing as new smart technologies go beyond the traditional machines capable of replacing repetitive, manual tasks. A combination of AI, robotics and other related technologies are already leading to innovations that are able to automate more complex decision-making and tasks using a combination of deep learning, advanced sensors and digital connectivity.

Previous PwC studies identified how automation could lead to job displacement in three overlapping waves:

- **Algorithm wave:** the automation of simple computational tasks and analysis of structured data in areas of finance, information and communications.
- **Augmentation wave:** the automation of repeatable tasks such as filling forms, communicating and exchanging information through technological support, and statistical analysis of unstructured data in semi-controlled environments.
- **Autonomy wave:** the automation of physical labour and manual dexterity, and problem solving in dynamic real-world situations that require responsive actions.

What does this risk mean for female employment?

There appears to be a negative correlation between the share of female employment in a sector and the feasibility of automation in that sector over the next 20 years. Women tend to be clustered in sectors such as education, healthcare and domestic work that tend to be less easily automatable, possibly due to the importance of the ‘human touch’.

However, there are a number of sectors that are vulnerable to automation but also have a relatively high share of female representation. Wholesale and retail trade, finance and insurance, and public administration and defence stand out as sectors with both a high feasibility of automation and a relatively high share of female employment.
The transportation and storage, manufacturing and financial services sectors are likely to be susceptible to automation.

Automatibility and share of female employment by sector, OECD average

Source: ILOSTAT (2018) and PwC analysis
The wholesale and retail trade and health and social care sectors account for the largest share of female job losses expected from automation

Fewer female jobs are expected to be lost from automation relative to jobs lost for the male population across the OECD

Male jobs are expected to account for 58% of total losses over the next 20 years, while female job losses are expected to account for 42%. This is largely because men tend to be concentrated in sectors that are more highly automatable, such as transport and manufacturing.

On the other hand, women are less susceptible to automation as they are more concentrated in sectors that require higher levels of education and social skills, such as health and social care and education.

The wholesale and retail trade, and health and social care sectors account for the largest share of female job losses expected across the OECD.

The wholesale and retail trade sector accounts for 19% of all female jobs that are vulnerable to automation over the next 20 years.

The health and social care sector accounts for 17% of all female jobs that are vulnerable to automation across OECD countries in 20 years, largely because this sector is dominated by women. In all countries, women comprise the majority of the labour force for the health and social care sector.

Despite the manufacturing sector having a relatively high male-to-female ratio, the sector accounts for a large share of estimated female job losses across the OECD, around 13%. This is the result of the combination of the sector’s relatively high exposure to automation, as well as the sector’s large size. Although the sector is dominated by men, it accounts for around 9% of female employment on average across the OECD.

Percentage of total female job losses expected in sector over the next 20 years, % of total female job losses across the OECD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>% of Total Female Job Losses</th>
<th>% of Total Female Job Losses Across OECD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defence</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support services</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other industrial sectors</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate activities</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Technology will create new job opportunities for men and women, although women are less likely to benefit than men in all OECD economies.

How will the rise in technology lead to job creation?

The rise in technology could lead to an increase in jobs across different industries as:

- Firms experience technology-associated cost savings leading to lower quality-adjusted prices, increasing incomes and spending.
- Firms then increase their production both by investing in more technology and hiring more workers.

We term this job creation as a result of new technology as the “income effect”.

How do we estimate the income effect?

We apply a simplifying assumption that the total jobs created from technology in a country is equal to the total jobs estimated to be lost to automation. This assumption is based on the findings of our July 2018 study that the net effect from the displacement effect and the income effect is broadly neutral for the UK. This study combined insights from earlier research on job automation and the economic benefits of AI. This analysis was for the UK, but the UK is around the OECD average for job automation estimates, so may generalise to other mature developed economies.

We then project each industry’s output over a 20-year period (which alters the sectoral composition of the economy), and distribute the job gains based on each sector’s expected share of the economy in the future. This approach results in the number of jobs that are created being bigger for larger and faster-growing sectors. We apply the existing gender ratios in each industry to determine the split of job growth between male and female workers.

In all OECD countries, the number of jobs created from technology is more likely to benefit male workers rather than female workers.

Of this, around 43% of these jobs created are likely to go to female workers, with the remaining 57% estimated to go to male workers. This is due to high levels of job creation estimated in the manufacturing sector, which is typically a sector, where the majority of workers are men.

For women, this “income effect” is highest in the human health and social work sector. The human health and social work sector combined with real estate activities, wholesale and retail trade and manufacturing sectors account for 50% of the jobs likely to be created for women across the OECD.
The “income effect” from technology is expected to be highest in the human health and social work sector for women

**Expected share of jobs created for women by sector over next 20 years, % of total jobs possibly created**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate activities</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical activities</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support service activities</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defence</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other industrial</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Women are less likely to benefit from the increase in job opportunities from technology than men

The health and social care sector, as well as the education sector, is expected to experience a small net gain in female jobs resulting from the effects of technology

The human health and social work sector could see the biggest net increase in jobs (around 3%) for female workers. This is largely driven by the expected rapid growth in the sector as demand for health and social care increases to care for an ageing population and the lower exposure to automatability estimated over the next 20 years, relative to other sectors such as wholesale and retail trade and manufacturing. The sector also accounts for a significant share of female employment (around 19%), meaning that, if current employment patterns continue, the future increase in jobs are likely to go to women.

Similarly in the education sector, technology will complement teaching rather than result in teachers being replaced, meaning these jobs are less susceptible to automation. The net impacts of technology and automation could increase jobs for women in this sector by around 6%.

Three of the top 5 largest sectors for female employment today are expected to see a net decline in jobs for women

The number of jobs for female workers in the wholesale and retail trade, manufacturing, and other services sectors, could decline as a result of technology and automation. These sectors also collectively account for a significant share of female employment - around 30% currently.

It is unsurprising that these sectors are less likely to benefit from the "income effect", as the impact of technology, particularly in wholesale and retail trade, can already be observed, through replacing human cashiers with self-service tills, as well as in warehouses and distribution centres that are increasingly staffed by robots. For this reason the displacement effect outweighs the income effect for manufacturing and wholesale and retail trade, meaning that overall the number of jobs for women in these sectors could decline as a result of technology.
The health and social care sector, the largest employer of women in the OECD, is expected to experience a net increase in female employment as a result of technology.

Net impact of technology on female employment and share of female employment across the OECD

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
There is likely to be winners and losers from technology for women across the OECD

The net gain in 20 years to women across the OECD could result in an additional increase in female jobs today by 1.2%, although this gain should not be overstated.

Our analysis shows that the net gains – or the difference in jobs created through technology and growth and the jobs displaced through automation - to female workers could be around 3m, assuming that there is no net increase in employment in the economy in the future. This represents a 1.2% increase in female jobs today.

Spain, Italy and Portugal have the largest net positive impact across the OECD relative to the size of their female labour force today.

The net jobs gain for female workers, as a share of female jobs in 2018, is largest for Spain (4.2%), Italy (2.8%) and Portugal (2.4%), while women in Ireland could see up to 4% of total female jobs lost as a result of technology and automation.

### Possible net impact on female employment as % of jobs (based on 2018 figures)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Possible Net Impact on Female Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>+4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>+2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>+2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>+1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>+1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>+1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>+1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>+1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>+1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece, Republic of Luxembourg</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechia</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>+0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>-4.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Ultimately, other factors, particularly education, are more important drivers than gender for determining the impact of automation.

Although there could be varying impacts of automation and technology by gender, there are a number of other drivers that are more important in determining whether a worker is at risk of automation or not.

Educational attainment is one such factor. Our previous research found that workers with low- and medium-levels of education have notably higher automation rates across countries, compared to those with higher levels of education, such as university graduates. Highly-qualified workers tend also to be over-represented in professional, scientific and technical and education sectors, which tend to be less automatable than average. Relatively highly educated workers are also in a better position to adapt to new waves of technology so that technology is complementary to their roles rather than being replaced by them.

Women across the OECD also tend to be more highly qualified than men. Particularly in younger age groups, a significantly higher share of women have university-level qualifications than men. These trends may also explain why women are less vulnerable to automation than men.

Education and skill levels are also an important determinant of the types of occupations workers perform, which can also vary significantly in terms of automatability. Some occupations, such as machine operators and assemblers, and clerical workers, are more exposed to automation as these tend to involve routine or simple computational tasks. In contrast, the risk is lower for professionals and managers that require social skills, literacy skills, as well as dealing with more complex computational tasks that are less automatable. These are also the types of occupations that are more likely to be occupied by more highly-educated workers.

The importance of education and skills as a key determinant of automation emphasises the need for increased investment in lifelong learning and retraining.

Share of male and female population by education attainment across OECD, 2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-34 years</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PwC analysis, all data sources are listed in the Methodology section.
Most of the debate on the impact of technology on the workplace has focused on the negative impacts from job losses, which can lead to a negative immediate reaction towards the introduction of technology in the workplace.

The debate often overlooks the fact that technology can often have nuanced impacts. For example, labour markets constantly evolve but quite slowly, and technological changes don’t impact jobs overnight and can take time to filter through. Governments and businesses will need to consider the relative cost of labour and capital in determining the extent to which implementing new technologies is an optimal choice.

Automation may replace certain tasks within a role, but this frees up time to focus on service-oriented tasks or where creativity is needed. Fears that job losses will occur very quickly can therefore sometimes be unfounded.

A digital economy may also increase the share of “hybrid” jobs that are complex and multi-disciplinary, and will require a breadth of skillsets (commercial acumen, data analysis and interpretation, leadership and teamwork skills). The key to maximising the benefits is to help workers develop the skills that are likely to be in demand in a tech-enabled future.

However, the fact that potential automation rates can vary widely across different types of workers raises the issue that even if new technologies are good for the economy as a whole, there can also be important distributional impacts. This raises some important issues for public policy.

Businesses and governments could collaborate to retrain and upskill the workforce to have the skills they need to succeed in the future.

The World Economic Forum estimates that by 2022 54% of employees are going to need significant re- and up-skilling as a result of technological changes.63

Governments should invest in broader opportunities for people to develop STEM skills that will become most useful as advanced smart technology becomes more widespread. These skills will enable workers to improve their job prospects by taking advantage of the new jobs that these technologies will create. Understanding where automation is likely to occur can inform the direction of the retraining opportunities provided.

Training and apprenticeships can also provide greater opportunities for younger workers to develop the skills they will need to succeed.65 This is important as lower skilled young people may be more vulnerable to automation.

Businesses can better prepare their workforce by investing in the digital skills of their employees. However, according to our recent global survey on technology, jobs and skills, while 77% of adults would learn new skills now or completely retrain to improve their future employability, only 33% of workers say they are given many opportunities to develop digital skills outside their normal duties.66

Engaging with employees to understand how technology can improve their jobs and identify where upskilling is needed will also help businesses achieve the largest benefits from new technologies.

Stronger social safety nets can help manage the impact of automation on women and the economy

While mass technological unemployment is unlikely, patterns of employment and the likelihood of automation mean that job losses could be concentrated amongst certain sections of society. If new technologies favour those with stronger digital skills, the rise in technology could lead to greater wealth and income inequality.

Effective government policy can help mitigate the costs of the displacement effect by providing safety nets for those most at risk or most likely to struggle to adapt to new technologies.

Government intervention will be equally important in facilitating job creation, as upskilling the workforce will only support the economy if jobs are available and accessible to all.

With planning, national investment to boost the long-term productivity of the economy, will help create jobs that are not fully automatable. Local strategies focused on university research, science parks and other enablers of business growth will be most effective when informed by the existing industrial make-up of the region.

Understanding the differences in male and female employment and the likelihood of this employment being automated can inform policy to create a more equal labour market and ensure benefits of technology are shared by all.
Careful engagement with AI and technology, together with effective regulation can help workers and consumers maximise the benefits of technology

Careful engagement with AI and technology is needed to maximise the potential value from technology, while minimising its negative impacts on workers

Whether technology will destroy or create jobs and how these effects will be felt depends on the way in which individuals, businesses and governments engage with it. For example, the destruction of jobs in some industries could mean that the gender patterns of employment shift as there is an incentive for people to move into less automatable sectors. These dynamic effects could have important consequences for men and women, for example if women are disproportionately squeezed into less automatable roles that are also lower-paid (such as care work or cleaning), while men continue to cluster in higher-paying sectors and occupations that are less vulnerable to automation. The challenge will be to ensure that women are able to move into higher paid occupations during this new wave of automation.

Given the historical concentration of male employment in technology-focused sectors, as highlighted by our Women in Tech article, the promotion of female employment is particularly important to ensure that the benefits of the digital revolution are shared with women. Careful attention must also be paid to ensure that existing organisational biases do not play a part in determining roles that are automated first, to avoid female-dominated professions from being inadvertently prioritised for automation.

Effective regulation and competition policy can help consumers benefit from technological advances

Maintaining competitive pressure in both the technology sector and in the sectors using it may help to distribute the productivity benefits of AI and related technologies more widely in the economy. PwC’s assessment suggests that consumers in particular will largely gain from these advancements through lower quality-adjusted prices. Therefore competition policy can help balance the need for investors to earn a reasonable return with the long-term benefits to consumers.

Regulation can also help manage the privacy implications of such technologies, particularly AI, which often relies heavily on data collection. Recent developments have highlighted the challenges of regulating fast-moving technology. Therefore governments and regulators may need to rethink regulatory structures that can adapt to a digital environment.

33% of women think that their job is likely to be made obsolete or significantly changed by automation in the next 10 years, compared to 30% of men.

89% of women think the government should provide free/subsidised training courses for those made jobless, compared to 86% of men.

Individual labour market indicators
The average gender pay gap across the OECD countries remained unchanged at 15% between 2017 and 2018 and has fallen from 19% to 15% since 2000. Of the 33 OECD countries included in our analysis, 18 have made gains to narrow the gender pay gap between 2017 and 2018 and 27 countries have improved since 2000.

Over the longer term, Luxembourg has made the most significant improvements to the pay gap, closing it by 11 percentage points.

The UK gender pay gap narrowed from 26% in 2000 to 16% in 2018, but progress has remained stalled in recent years, with the gender pay gap remaining constant at 17% between 2013 and 2017 and falling slightly to 16% in 2018.

Source: OECD, Eurostat. OECD data refers to the difference in the median earnings for all full-time employees, while Eurostat compares the mean earnings. Data extrapolated using linear interpolation where data unavailable.
The female labour force participation rate increased slightly from 69% to 70% on average across the OECD from 2017 to 2018. The largest short-term gains were observed in Japan, which increased its female labour force participation rate from 69% to 71%.

The UK female labour force participation rate has increased from 69% to 74% when compared against 2000.

Over the longer term, the average female labour participation rate across OECD countries has increased from 62% to 70%. Chile and Spain have seen the largest improvements of 19 and 17 percentage points respectively since 2000.
The gap in participation rates between males and females has remained constant on average at 11% across the OECD between 2017 and 2018. Interestingly, Norway and Slovenia saw the largest rise in the participation rate gap from 2017 to 2018, despite being 2 of the best performing countries on the Index.

The UK has reduced its participation gap from 15% to 10% since 2000 but no improvements were made compared to last year.

Over the longer term, the participation gap has fallen from 17% to 11% on average across the OECD countries and has narrowed in all countries except Poland.

Mexico continues to experience the largest gap between male and female labour force participation rates at 35%, but this has narrowed by 9 percentage points since 2000.

Source: OECD, BLS.

Figure 7.3: Gap between male and female labour force participation rate, 2000 - 2018
Since 2000, Poland has seen the most significant reduction in female unemployment, falling from 18% in 2000 to 4% in 2018. The female unemployment rate across the OECD has vacillated significantly over the period 2000-2018, partly because of the financial crisis and the Eurozone debt crisis. The average female unemployment rate in the OECD in 2017 was marginally lower than in 2000 (7% vs 8%), as it declined after the crisis from its previously higher levels. This saw slight improvement in 2018, falling to 6%.

On the other hand, female unemployment in Greece increased from 17% to 24% over the same period.
Across the OECD, the share of women in full-time employment has remained constant between 2017 and 2018, and over the longer term since 2000. Countries such as Chile, Italy and Japan have experienced a large rise in the proportion of women working part-time since 2000.

In the UK, the female full-time employment rate has increased from 59% to 64% since 2000, however the UK continues to lag behind the OECD average by 12 percentage points on this indicator.
Methodology
Due to retrospective changes to the 2017 OECD and Eurostat gender pay gap data used in our main Index, PwC’s Women in Work Index results for 2017 have changed compared to those reported in the Women in Work Index 2019. Changes to the rankings of each country can be seen here.

• Ireland’s ranking changed the most, moving 7 places from 17th to 10th place, following a revision down of its gender pay gap for 2017 from 10% to 6%.

• The UK’s ranking moved 3 positions, from 13th to 16th, due to changes in the gender pay gap for 2017 elsewhere in the OECD. The UK’s gender pay gap for 2017 remained at 17%, despite revisions to the gender pay gap in other countries.

• Hungary also saw its ranking change by 3 places, due to a revision down of the gender pay gap for 2017 from 15% to 14%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2017 (old)</th>
<th>2017 (new)</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechia</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovak Republic</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Changes to Index rankings for 2017

Women in Work
PwC
## Index methodology – Variables included in scoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Weight %</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gap between female and male earnings</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Wider pay gap penalised</td>
<td>Earnings equality underpins the fundamental principle of equal pay for equal work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female labour force participation rate</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Higher participation rates given higher score</td>
<td>Female economic participation is one of the cornerstones of economic empowerment, which is a factor of the level of skills and education of women, conducive workplace conditions, and broader cultural attitudes outside the workplace (e.g. towards shared childcare and distribution of labour at home).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gap between female and male labour force participation rates</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Higher female participation rate relative to male participation rate given higher score</td>
<td>Equality in participation rates reflect equal opportunities to seek and access employment opportunities in the workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female unemployment rate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Higher unemployment penalised</td>
<td>The female unemployment rate reflects the economic vulnerability of women. Being unemployed can have longer-term impacts in the form of skills erosion, declining pension contributions and increased reliance on benefits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of female employees in full-time employment</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Higher share of full-time employment given higher score</td>
<td>The tendency for part-time employment may adversely affect earnings, pensions and job security. However, this factor is given a lower weight in the Index since some women may prefer part-time jobs to fit flexibly with caring roles.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methodology for calculating potential GDP impacts from increasing employment rates

We break down GDP in the following way:

\[
\text{GDP boost} = \frac{\text{GDP}}{\text{FTE}} \times \text{Difference between Sweden's FFTE and a given country's FFTE, if Sweden's FFTE is higher}
\]

We calculate full-time equivalent employment (FTE) as full-time employment plus half of part-time employment. We consider the potential boost to GDP under two different scenarios:

- Increasing the female full-time equivalent employment rates (FFTE) to that of a benchmark country (holding the male rates constant). We use Sweden as our benchmark country as it has the second highest female labour force participation rate. Iceland has the highest female labour force participation rate, however we use Sweden as it is a reasonably large economy and therefore a more suitable comparator country for the OECD.

Simplifying assumptions

In order to estimate the GDP impacts of increasing female employment rates, with the data available, we have made the following simplifying assumptions:

- Total employment in the economy is equal to employment within the 15-64 age group.
- A full-time (FT) worker is twice as productive on average as a part-time (PT) worker.
Methodology for calculating potential GDP impacts from increasing employment rates

We break down annual total earnings in the following way

\[
\text{Total earnings} = \frac{\text{Average male earnings}}{\text{Male workers}} + \frac{\text{Average female earnings}}{\text{Female workers}}
\]

where

\[
\text{Average male earnings} = \frac{\text{Average female earnings}}{(1 – \text{gender pay gap})}
\]

In order to estimate the potential gains from closing the gender pay gap, we made the following simplifying assumptions:

- Total employment in the economy is equal to employment within the 15-64 age group.
- The median wages are equivalent to mean wages.
- The gender pay gap is closed by increasing female wages to match male wages.

- The elasticity of female employment to a change in wages is 0, meaning that a 1% increase in wages results in no change in female employment. This takes into account the counteracting effects of labour supply and demand elasticities: an increase in wages makes it more expensive for employers to hire more workers, however higher earnings also incentivise potential workers to seek employment. Our literature review suggests that:
  - Estimates of labour supply elasticity range from 0.5 to 0.9.\(^6\)
  - Estimates of labour demand elasticity range from – 0.5 to – 0.3.\(^3\)
- We take a conservative view that the counteracting effects cancel each other out with no resulting change in female employment.
- The simplifying assumptions provide us with conservative gain estimates because:
  - The gender pay gap is likely to be higher at the mean, which may be skewed upwards by a small number of high earners amongst male employees, than at the median which has been used to obtain data for at least 10 countries, as noted in the data sources above.\(^4\)
  - The 64+ age group has not been included in the analysis.
We have applied the same methodology as for the main Index to construct the UK regional index. This includes using the same weights and factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Women in Technology Index methodology – Variables included in scoring

We have applied the same methodology as for the main Index to construct the Women in Technology Index. The only difference is that for the Women in Technology Index, each variable is given equal weight, unlike for the main Index.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Weight %</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female share of ICT graduates</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Higher female share given higher score</td>
<td>The number of women obtaining ICT degrees forms a key part of the pipeline of women into the technology industry. The female share of ICT graduate indicates the extent to which women are acquiring technical knowledge compared to men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female share of technology industry employment</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Higher female share given higher score</td>
<td>The female share of technology industry employment reflects the ability of women to access and obtain employment in technology and is a factor of the level of technical skills of women and workplace conditions for women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of women on boards in the telecommunications, media and technology industry</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Higher percentage of women given higher score</td>
<td>The share of women on boards reflects the extent to which women can access and obtain senior leadership positions and progress professionally within the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap in the technology industry</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Wider pay gap penalised</td>
<td>Earnings equality underpins the fundamental principle of equal pay for equal work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Data sources – Women in Technology Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Adjustments and assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female share of ICT graduates</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Share of graduates by gender in fields of education, Information and Communication Technologies</td>
<td>Total tertiary education (ISCED2011 levels 5 to 8)</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>For Japan, there is no data for ICT as it is included in another category. Therefore, the data point used is the average of the female share of natural sciences, mathematics and statistics and engineering graduates, and the female share of manufacturing and construction graduates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female share of technology industry employment</td>
<td>All except Canada</td>
<td>Female employment / total employment</td>
<td>ISIC REV.4: J. Information and communication</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>Employment in information and communication is used as a proxy for employment in the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Female share of all jobs in the ICT sector</td>
<td>ISIC REV.4: J. Information and communication</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Women in Communications and Technology</td>
<td>Employment in occupations defined by NOC 1-30 is used as a proxy for employment in the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of women on boards in the</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>Percentage of women on boards in technology, media and telecommunications industry</td>
<td>ISIC REV.4: J. Information and communication</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Deloitte, MSCI ESG Research</td>
<td>The percentage of women on boards in the telecommunications, media and technology industry is used as a proxy for the percentage of women on boards in the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Data sources – Women in Technology Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>Classification</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Adjustments and assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap in the technology industry</td>
<td>France, Germany, Italy, UK</td>
<td>(Male – female) / male, Average gross hourly earnings of employees</td>
<td>NACE Rev.2 J - Information and communication</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Eurostat</td>
<td>The gender pay gap for information and communication is used a proxy for the gender pay gap for the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>(Male – female) / male, Mean nominal monthly earnings of employees</td>
<td>ISIC REV.4: J. Information and communication</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>The gender pay gap for information and communication is used a proxy for the gender pay gap for the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>(Male – female) / male, Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers</td>
<td>Computer and mathematical occupations</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>US Bureau of Labor Statistics</td>
<td>The gender pay gap for computer and mathematical occupations is used a proxy for the gender pay gap for the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>(Male – female) / male, Average salary in tech</td>
<td>Top 5% of technology occupations as defined by skills involved in the occupation</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Brookfield Institute</td>
<td>The gender pay gap for the top 5% of technology occupations based on skills is used a proxy for the gender pay gap for the technology industry.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methodology for calculating the gender impact of technology

The analysis applies PwC methodology developed in previous studies to calculate the displacement and income effects of AI and related technologies by country and sector over the next 20 years.

There are two effects on jobs that are likely to result from the acceleration in the development and adoption of new technology. These are:

- **The displacement effect** – the loss of jobs as the use of technology becomes more efficient and firms are incentivised to seek cost savings through substituting towards technology and away from human labour.
- **The income effect** – the dynamic effect of firms’ technology-associated cost savings leading to lower quality-adjusted prices which increase real incomes and spending. As a result, firms increase their production both by investing in more technology and hiring more workers.

To estimate the displacement effect, we draw on research by Frey and Osborne (2013) and Arntz, Gregory and Zierahn (2016). The original Frey and Osborne (2013) study involved hand-labelling a sample of occupations as either automatable or not automatable and using a machine learning algorithm to generate a ‘probability of computerisation’ across US jobs, based on a standardised set of occupational characteristics.65

This methodology was extended by Arntz, Gregory and Zierahn (2016), and subsequently refined by PwC using the OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) database, which includes more detailed data on the different types of tasks for each occupation and the characteristics of individuals performing them.66 This resulted in more granular estimates of the automatability of jobs by industry sector and for each country, taking into account differences in occupational characteristics within each sector and country. These estimates also account for changes in the automatability of these jobs for each sector over time.

We multiply these estimates of automatability by the number of jobs in each industry to calculate the number of jobs at risk in each sector by OECD country over the next 20 years.

We also apply a simplifying assumption that the estimate of automatability for each industry applies similarly to men and women. This may be a strong assumption, as within each industry sector, women may cluster in particular occupations that are more (or less) automatable than occupations performed by men.
Methodology for calculating the gender impact of job automation

To estimate the impacts from the income effect, we assume that on aggregate, the jobs created via the income effect is equal to the number of jobs that are displaced. This is based on the findings of our July 2018 study that the net effect from the displacement effect and the income effect is broadly neutral for the UK. This study in turn built on combining insights from earlier research on job automation and the economic benefits of AI. This analysis was for the UK, but the UK is around OECD average for job automation estimates, so may generalise to other mature developed economies. Looking at the past, there is no evidence as it stands that tech trends and investments are taking jobs away. For example, overall UK employment rates are at a record high, despite all the advances in AI and related digital technologies seen over the past decade.

However, these additional jobs are expected to be distributed across sectors based on their relative gross value added to the economy. A larger sector is therefore expected to benefit from a bigger increase in jobs as a result of the income effect.

We collect OECD data on gross value added (GVA) at the SIC1 industry sector-level for each OECD country. Using trends in the long-term growth rate for each industry sector, we apply these trends to project the size of these sectors over a 20-year horizon. Because these growth rates differ across industry sectors, these will result in a change in the industry-sector composition of the economy in the future.

To project these impacts over a 20-year horizon, we also assume that the share of male and female employment in each industry will remain constant over this period. We also assume that the number of total jobs in a country remains constant, as we are mainly interested in the impact of existing patterns of female employment by industry (and how it drives vulnerability to automation) rather than the impact on overall employment.
## Methodology for calculating the gender impact of technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SIC1 sector</th>
<th>OECD industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, forestry and fishing</td>
<td>Agriculture, forestry, fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>Industry, including energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply</td>
<td>Industry, including energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply; sewerage and waste management</td>
<td>Industry, including energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles</td>
<td>Wholesale, retail trade, repairs, transport; accommodation, food services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>Wholesale, retail trade, repairs, transport; accommodation, food services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>Wholesale, retail trade, repairs, transport; accommodation, food services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>Information, communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>Finance and insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate activities</td>
<td>Real estate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical activities</td>
<td>Professional, scientific, support services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support service activities</td>
<td>Professional, scientific, support services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defence</td>
<td>Public administration, defence, education, health, social work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Public administration, defence, education, health, social work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>Public administration, defence, education, health, social work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts, entertainment and recreation</td>
<td>Other services activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other service activities</td>
<td>Other services activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


PwC. (2017). Winning the fight for female talent How to gain the diversity edge through inclusive recruitment.


This differs from the ONS measure of the gender pay gap as the OECD measure only considers full-time employees, therefore part-time employees are not included.

The gender pay gap is calculated for the information and communications industry for France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the UK. A computer and mathematical occupations in the US, and the top 5% of technology occupations based in Canada.

The gender pay gap is available for all G7 countries and includes a number of technology occupations. Women in technology refers to women employed in all roles in the information and communication industry. Women employed in technical technology roles in other industrial sectors are not included. Other industries refers to industries other than information and communication. Further detail can be found in the Methodology section.

This differs from the ONS measure of the gender pay gap as the OECD measure only considers full-time employees, therefore part-time employees are not included.

The gender pay gap is calculated for the information and communications industry for France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the UK. A computer and mathematical occupations in the US, and the top 5% of technology occupations based in Canada.

7. The gender pay gap is calculated for the information and communications industry for France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the UK. A computer and mathematical occupations in the US, and the top 5% of technology occupations based in Canada.


19. ILO data shows that the number of women employed in the information and communication industry has increased over the period 2014-2018 (inclusive) in Germany, France, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. Research conducted by The Information and Communications Technology Council Canada shows that the number of women employed in ICT has increased over the period 2008-2018 (inclusive).


For more information about this report, please contact members of our team

Our Economics practice in the UK offers a wide range of services covering: market reform in a range of industry sectors (including energy, water, media and telecoms, financial services, health and government services); competition policy, disputes and other investigations; economic, social and environmental impact analysis; financial economics; fiscal policy and macroeconomics. This practice forms part of Strategy&, PwC’s strategy consulting business.

For more information about our Economics services please visit: www.pwc.co.uk/economics

Our Women in Work Index is one of a series of related PwC labour market indices. Please take a look at our other indices for older and younger workers at the links below:

PwC’s Golden Age Index
https://www.pwc.co.uk/services/economics-policy/insights/golden-age-index.html

PwC’s Youth Employment Index
https://www.pwc.co.uk/services/economics-policy/insights/youth-employment-index.html

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Thank you