

GENDER AND
LABOUR IN ST
LUCIA: EVIDENCE
FROM HOUSEHOLD
SURVEYS



DEBBIE BUDLENDER

Submitted to UN Women Multi-Country Office - Caribbean

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INTRODUCTION

This paper draws together findings from an analysis of data from two surveys conducted in St Lucia—the St Lucia Survey of Living Conditions of 2005/2006 and the Quarterly Labour Force Surveys conducted in 2012. The paper is intended to inform UN Women’s support in St Lucia and the region more broadly.

ST LUCIA SURVEY OF LIVING CONDITIONS 2005/2006

This section highlights some findings in relation to employment, poverty and gender using data from the St Lucia Survey of Living Conditions. The findings must be treated with caution for at least two reasons. First, the Survey shows the situation about eight years ago, before the global economic and financial crisis. Second, the survey data include some errors and missing data. These seem, in part, to reflect complicated 'skip' patterns for the section of the questionnaires that asked about employment.

Table 1 shows a total population aged 15-plus years of 115 thousand, of which 53 per cent is female. The table disaggregates the population into three work status categories: employed, unemployed and not economically active. 'Employed' includes those who report having done employment-related work over the past seven days (the international standard period for asking about employment); 'Unemployed' includes those who did not work in the past seven days but looked for work in the last two months; 'not economically active' includes those who neither worked nor looked for work.

The table also shows key labour market indicators. The unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the

number of unemployed by the total of those employed and unemployed. It shows the extent to which people who seek work are unable to find it. The labour force participation rate is calculated by dividing the sum of employed and unemployed by the total of all three categories. This rate shows the extent to which people would like to work. The employment rate is calculated by dividing the number employed by the total in the age group. This rate shows the extent to which people are employed.

Table 1 shows that women are less likely (49 per cent versus 69 per cent) than men to want to work (labour force participation rate). Among those who want to

TABLE 1
Work Status Last Seven Days by Sex, 15+ Years

Work status	Male	Female	Total
Employed	34226	26214	60440
Unemployed	3037	3554	6591
Not economically active	16638	31346	47983
Total	53901	61114	115015
Unemployment rate	8%	12%	10%
Labour force participation rate	69%	49%	58%
Employment rate	63%	43%	53%

TABLE 2

Work Status Last 12 Months by Sex, 15+ Years

Work status	Male	Female	Total
Employed	37517	29643	67160
Unemployed	1394	2064	3459
Not economically active	14989	29407	44396
Total	53901	61114	115015
Unemployment rate	4%	7%	5%
Labour force participation rate	72%	52%	61%
Employment rate	70%	49%	58%

work, they are more likely to be unemployed (12 per cent versus 8 per cent).

Table 2 presents similar information, but treats individuals as employed if they report having done any (employment-related) work in the past twelve months. This results in an increase in the employment rate and a decrease in the unemployment rate. However, the same gender patterns remain. Indeed, the gender gap in the unemployment rate is now larger than before.

Unfortunately, there are many missing responses to the question that asked why people did not work or look for work in the past week. Among the 37,789 not economically active for whom there are responses, school accounted for 26 per cent of males and 20 per cent of females, and retirement for 33 per cent of

males and 24 per cent of females. In contrast, (unpaid) housekeeping, caring and pregnancy accounted for 19 per cent of females but only 2 per cent of males. The extent to which unpaid housekeeping, caring and pregnancy account for non-employment by women indicates the extent to which unpaid care work interferes with income-earning activities.

Table 3 expels any argument that limited education can account for women's poorer performance in the labour market. The table shows that women are less likely than men to have no formal education completed, and more likely than men to have a school-leaving certificate or degree.

The next two tables investigate the extent to which work status is affected by the family form. Family form is

TABLE 3

Highest Education Achieved by Sex, 15+ Years

Highest education	Male	Female	Total
None	50%	46%	48%
School leaving	17%	19%	18%
General Certificate of Education	21%	22%	22%
Diploma/certificate	4%	5%	5%
Degree	3%	4%	4%
Professional qualification	3%	2%	2%
Other	2%	2%	2%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	49510	55364	104874

TABLE 4

Work Status Last 12 Months of Men by Family Form, 18+ Years

Work status	Child and man	Child, woman and man	Man only	Woman and man	Total
Employed	913	22414	4872	7827	36025
Unemployed		703	274	230	1207
Not economically active	304	4816	2370	3906	11396
<i>Total distribution</i>	3%	57%	15%	25%	100%
Total	1216	27933	7516	11963	48628
Unemployment rate	0%	3%	5%	3%	3%
Labour force participation rate	75%	83%	68%	67%	77%
Employment rate	75%	80%	65%	65%	74%

defined on the basis of the presence of child/ren under 18 years ('Child'), men aged 18 or above ('Man') and women aged 18 or above ('Woman') in the household.

The 'total distribution' row in Table 4 reveals that more than half (57 per cent) of adult men live in households that contain at least one man, one woman and one child. The labour force participation and employment rates are higher for this family form than for any other. The next most common family form for men consists of at least one woman and one man but no children. The work status indicators are very similar in these households and those that consist only of male adults.

The labour force participation and employment rates are higher for households consisting of at least one man and one child (but no woman) than for those with male and female adults. However, these households account for only 3 per cent of all adult men.

Table 5 reveals that over half (54 per cent) of adult women live in households with at least one child, one woman and one man. A further 20 per cent live in households with at least one man and one woman but no children. In strong contrast to the situation for adult men, 16 per cent of adult women live in households consisting only of women and children.

TABLE 5

Work Status Last 12 months of Women by Family Form, 18+ years

Work status	Child and woman	Child, woman and man	Woman only	Woman and man	Total
Employed	5223	15856	2436	5150	28665
Unemployed	336	1265	79	114	1794
Not economically active	3360	12574	3018	5895	24847
<i>Total distribution</i>	16%	54%	10%	20%	100%
Total	8919	29695	5533	11159	55306
Unemployment rate	6%	7%	3%	2%	6%
Labour force participation rate	62%	58%	45%	47%	55%
Employment rate	59%	53%	44%	46%	52%

The labour force participation and employment rates are highest in the women-and-children households, and lowest in the woman-only and woman-and-man households. The pattern for the woman-only households is largely explained by the fact that many of these women are elderly, as seen by the fact that the median age of the women in this situation is 59 years. This differs from the median age of 48 years for men in man-only households. Where the household consists of at least one woman, one man and one child, women's labour force participation and employment rates are closer to those of the woman-and-child households than to those for households that are made up only of adults or only adult women. Where a single woman is living with one or more children, the employment rate is 65 per cent and the labour force participation rate is 70 per cent i.e. these women are the most likely to (need to) do paid work (these percentages are not shown in the table).

Table 6 provides the picture at the household level, showing the number of employed people per household (taking a 12-month view). The table shows that over half of woman-only households have no employed people. Of those with at least one woman and at least one child, more than half have only one employed person. It is the households with at least one child, one woman and one man that are most likely to have more than one employed person. More than a quarter of the households in the child, woman and man category contain three or more employed people in a single household.

TABLE 6
Number of Employed People by Family Form of Household

Family form	0	1	2	3+	Total
Child and woman	28%	54%	14%	4%	100%
Child and man	12%	76%	12%	0%	100%
Child, woman and man	5%	27%	42%	26%	100%
Woman only	55%	33%	10%	3%	100%
Man only	33%	60%	6%	1%	100%
Woman man	22%	29%	36%	14%	100%
Total	20%	37%	29%	15%	100%

TABLE 7

Work Status Last 12 Months by Sex and Poverty of Household, 15+ Years

Work status	Non-poor	Poor	Total
MALE			
Employed	29331	8186	37517
Unemployed	762	633	1394
Not economically active	10252	4738	14989
Total	40344	13557	53901
Unemployment rate	3%	7%	4%
Labour force participation rate	75%	65%	72%
Employment rate	73%	60%	70%
FEMALE			
Employed	24414	5229	29643
Unemployed	1527	537	2064
Not economically active	21413	7994	29407
Total	47354	13760	61114
Unemployment rate	6%	9%	7%
Labour force participation rate	55%	42%	52%
Employment rate	52%	38%	49%

Table 7 compares the labour force indicators for women and men in households that are poor and non-poor. Poverty is calculated at the household level using a simple adult equivalence scale that rates children under 6 years as 0.2 of an adult, children 7 to 12 years as 0.3 of an adult, and children 13 to 17 years as 0.5 of an adult. (These are the standard rates reported by Edwin St Catherine in a paper for an international workshop¹). The table suggests that for both men and women the labour force participation rates and employment rates are lower for the poor than for the non-poor and the unemployment rates are higher for the poor than for the non-poor. Further, the labour force and employment rates remain lower for women than for men regardless of poverty status. These patterns remain if the analysis

is restricted to individuals aged 15 to 59 years so as to exclude those too old to be likely to work.

1 "Some Quantitative Methods and Practices of Poverty Measurements and Poverty Statistics in the Eastern Caribbean" *Workshop on Poverty Statistics in Latin America and the Caribbean, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 10 – 14 May 2004*

TABLE 8**Number of Employed People by Poverty Status of Household**

Poverty status	0	1	2	3+	Total
Non-poor	18%	38%	30%	14%	100%
Poor	29%	32%	22%	17%	100%
Total	20%	37%	29%	15%	100%

Table 8 shows that poor households are more likely than non-poor to have no employed people. However, more than seven in ten poor households have at least one employed person. Poor households are also more likely than non-poor to have three or more employed people. Poverty is thus not simply a function of lack of employment.

Table 9 suggests that employed women are twice as likely as employed men to be government employees, but less likely than men to be employees of private companies or own-account workers. Overall, 77 per cent of employed men and 83 per cent of employed women are employees.

TABLE 9**Status in Employment of Employed by Sex, 15+ Years**

Employment status	Male	Female	Total
Employee government	11%	22%	16%
Employee statutory body	4%	4%	4%
Employee private sector	62%	57%	60%
Own account worker	18%	13%	16%
Employer	5%	3%	4%
Unpaid family worker	0%	1%	0%
Other	0%	0%	0%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	34624	26553	61177

TABLE 10

Industry of Employed by Sex, 15+ Years

Industry	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture	16%	6%	12%
Manufacturing	4%	6%	5%
Construction	21%	1%	12%
Trade	5%	13%	9%
Hospitality	5%	7%	6%
Transport	8%	2%	6%
Services	29%	36%	32%
Administration/Social security	5%	9%	7%
Education/Social services	2%	11%	6%
Other	5%	9%	7%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	34655	26856	61511

Table 10 shows some strong differences in the industrial distribution of employed women and men using the categories specified on the questionnaire. For both women and men the largest industry is services, but this sector accounts for 36 per cent of employed women versus 29 per cent of employed men. Construction accounts for more than a fifth of employed men, but only 1 per cent of employed women. Men also dominate heavily in agriculture and transport, while women are far more likely than men to be found in trade, administration and social security, and education and social services. The latter two areas partly reflect women's clustering in government employment.

The industry classification used for the survey distinguished where an industry was tourism-related. Overall, only 8 per cent of men and 6 per cent of women were reported to be employed in tourism-related industries.

TABLE 11

Occupation of Employed by Sex, 15+ Years

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	8%	10%	9%
Professionals	5%	13%	8%
Technical/associate professional	5%	5%	5%
Clerks	3%	17%	9%
Services/sales	15%	29%	21%
Skilled agriculture	11%	4%	8%
Craft	29%	4%	18%
Operators	10%	2%	6%
Elementary	15%	17%	16%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	34319	26217	60536

Table 11 provides the breakdown by occupation, using the standard international occupational classifications. These classifications provide for ten high-level groups that, for the most part, are organized in descending order of skill and specialization. The first exception is the first group, managers, which is defined on the basis of authority or decision-making power rather than skill. The second exception is the final group, armed forces occupations, which is defined on the basis of the sector. This group is often not captured well in household surveys as army personnel often live in specialized barracks or areas. The high-level groups are as follows:

- 1 Managers
- 2 Professionals
- 3 Technicians and associate professionals
- 4 Clerical support workers
- 5 Service and sales workers
- 6 Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers
- 7 Craft and related trades workers
- 8 Plant and machine operators and assemblers

9 Elementary occupations

10 Armed forces occupations

The question on occupation asks: “What is your occupation, that is what activities do you do in your work? e.g. sales manager or sales clerk, mason etc.” The open-ended response is then post-coded into a four-digit occupational code. The first of the four digits gives the high-level categorizations that follow.

For women, services and sales is the most common occupation, accounting for nearly three in every ten employed women. For men, craft (skilled) occupations account for a similar proportion. Men are also far more likely than women to be operators, while women are more likely than men to be professionals (such as teachers and nurses). Women are somewhat more likely than men to be categorized as managers, undermining simplistic arguments that women are excluded from decision-making positions. However, the fact that 25 per cent of the female managers, as compared to 12 per cent of male managers, are own-account workers raises questions as to the interpretation of this term.

TABLE 12

Sex Breakdown of Occupations with 1000+ Individuals, 15+ Years

Occupation	Total	% female
7121 Bricklayers and masons	3461	0%
5220 Shop salespersons and demonstrators	3415	77%
7123 Carpenters and joiners	2026	2%
9211 Farm hands (general)	1990	15%
8323 Bus drivers and drivers	1878	0%
6125 Banana farmers	1872	25%
5123 Waiters and bartenders	1824	63%
5214 Security officers/guards	1680	2%
5121 House stewards and housekeepers	1477	84%
5122 Cooks/chefs	1447	58%
4159 Other office clerks not elsewhere classified	1394	73%
9132 Helpers and cleaners in offices	1154	90%
1319 Other small business manager	1138	47%
7231 Motor vehicle mechanics	1033	0%

Table 12 gives a sense of the extent to which occupations are sex-segregated by showing the total number estimated in each of the occupations that accounts for 1000 or more individuals, and the percentage that women account for among these individuals. Among these common occupations, only cooks/chefs and “other small business managers” show a relatively balanced sex distribution. The overall size of the sample means that estimates at this level of disaggregation are based on a relatively small number of observations and will have a large standard error. Nevertheless, the patterns shown are as expected.

The tables that follow present patterns in respect to earnings. The survey included a relatively complicated set of questions on employment-related income. These questions were in a separate part of the questionnaire from the other employment-related questions.

The first question asked about the gross pay/income of the person during the last pay period. The answer consisted of two parts—the pay period (from daily to annually) to which the pay related, and an amount

specified in terms of eight pre-defined income bands. The second question asked about the (gross) wages and salary received in the last pay period from the main job, including overtime, tips and bonuses, income tax and national insurance. Here the exact amount (rather than an income band) was to be specified, with the assumption that the pay period would be as in the first question. There was also a further question as to whether this amount was received regularly. Third, there was a question about (gross) wages and salary received in the last pay period from other jobs, again with a sub-question as to whether this amount was received regularly.

This approach resulted in several complications in interpreting the data. These include the fact that although the third income band question covers income from all forms of employment, later questions covered only wages and salaries of employees. The challenge in converting to a standard monthly or annual amount is knowing how to adjust earnings for other periods, especially if the amounts were

not received regularly. Further, there are sometimes substantial inconsistencies between the amount specified for the income band and the exact amount specified for other questions.

In addition, there was relatively substantial non-response and missing data. Thus 17 per cent of employees (using unweighted data) did not have answers in respect of the exact amount of wages or salary received, and 7 per cent of employed people (again using unweighted data) did not have answers in respect of income bands. Some of those for whom there were answers did not have valid responses for the pay period.

A further complication relates to the issue of second jobs as for some of the analysis below (such as with respect to occupation and industry). It would be appropriate to consider earnings only from the main job, while if we are concerned with poverty, all earned income should be considered. This complication will, however, only affect the 5 per cent of employed people (6 per cent of employed men and 4 per cent of employed women) for whom income from a second job was reported.

For the analysis below, we rely on estimates of monthly earnings (from all employment) derived by St Lucia's Central Statistical Office on the basis of available information. These estimates exclude those whose pay period was specified as daily, as these individuals are likely to receive very erratic pay (this category accounted for 3 per cent of all employed people). Exclusion of these individuals is likely to inflate the overall estimates, as daily paid workers are likely to be low-paid workers. Estimates are also not provided for those individuals for whom no response was given. If St Lucia is similar to other countries, it is likely that high earners are over-represented among the non-responders. In this case, exclusion is likely to reduce the overall estimates.

Overall earnings estimates are missing or zero (and thus not included in the analysis) for 17 per cent of employed people (18 per cent of male employed and 16 per cent of female employed). Earnings estimates are missing or zero for 15 per cent of employees, 25 per cent of employers, and 26 per cent of own-account workers.

The tables shown below must be interpreted with this high-level of non-reporting considered.

TABLE 13**Mean Earnings by Occupation and Sex, 15+ Years**

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	3120	2322	2718
Professionals	2813	2420	2540
Technical/associate professional	2722	1697	2242
Clerks	1739	1348	1429
Services/sales	1421	922	1115
Skilled agriculture	1017	705	955
Craft	1599	759	1532
Operators	2106	767	1919
Elementary	1061	718	901
All	1694	1309	1524

Table 13 presents mean earnings by occupation and sex using the broader occupational groupings. Although the occupational categories are meant, apart from the manager level, to record increasing levels of skill the median wages do not neatly follow this pattern. In particular, mean operator earnings are higher than expected while skilled agricultural earnings are lower than expected. For all categories the female mean is less

than the male mean. The relative gap between male and female earnings is largest for operators, followed by craft workers. For all occupations combined, the female mean is 77 per cent of the male mean.

Table 14 presents similar information, but this time by highest level of education. (The total values differ across tables because the tables in each case exclude individuals for whom occupation, education or other

TABLE 14**Mean Earnings by Highest Education and Sex, 15+ Years**

Educational level	Male	Female	Total
None	1355	835	1172
School-leaving	1627	875	1308
General Certificate of Education	1801	1344	1573
Diploma/certificate	2236	1930	2066
Degree	4950	2902	3571
Professional qualification	3709	2557	3079
Other	1529	1355	1438
All	1720	1313	1541

TABLE 15

Mean Wages by Occupation and Sex, 15+ Years

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	3289	2906	3112
Professionals	2960	2456	2603
Technical/associate professional	2828	1697	2256
Clerks	1739	1336	1421
Services/sales	1395	939	1124
Skilled agriculture	861	813	855
Craft	1552	708	1511
Operators	1709	767	1492
Elementary	1055	713	902
All	1676	1365	1533

relevant variable for that table is missing.) Again, female mean earnings are below male mean earnings for all educational levels. The largest relative gender gap is found among those with a school-leaving certificate, followed by those with a university degree. This table refutes the suggestion that lower female earnings can be explained by women having less education or 'human capital' than men.

The previous tables reflect gross earnings of all workers, regardless of status in employment. This can be misleading as the gross earnings of employers and own-account workers, in particular, overstate their disposable income, which would be earnings net of expenses. Further, as noted above, the extent of non-reporting of earnings is greater for non-employees than for employees. Table 15 and Table 16 therefore focus only on employees.

Table 15 again shows women with lower mean wages than men in all occupations, although the gap is small for skilled agriculture. Operators and craft workers are again the groups in which women are most disadvantaged compared to men.

TABLE 16

Mean Wages by Highest Education and Sex, 15+ Years

Educational level	Male	Female	Total
None	1290	797	1111
School-leaving	1489	849	1230
General Certificate of Education	1721	1347	1527
Diploma/certificate	2081	2007	2040
Degree	5314	2902	3636
Professional qualification	4062	2604	3195
Other	1529	1355	1438
All	1695	1372	1547

Table 16 again shows women as having a lower mean wage than men at all levels of education. This again suggests that women are not getting the same monetary return to further education as men. The biggest relative earnings gap is now between women and men with a degree.

Table 17 suggests that employees of statutory boards tend to have higher wages than those employed by government who, in turn, tend to earn more than private sector employees. Among men, employer earnings are similar to those of the relatively highly paid employees of statutory boards. Among women, in contrast, the earnings of employers are only slightly higher than private sector employees. Among men, own-account workers tend to earn slightly more than private sector employees. Among women, in contrast,

own-account workers tend to earn less than all other categories. Mean earnings for female employers are only slightly above mean earnings for male employers.

TABLE 17

Mean Earnings by Status in Employment, 15+ years

Employment status	Male	Female	Total
Employee government	2012	1727	1842
Employee statutory board	2407	1906	2187
Employee private sector	1583	1193	1419
Own account worker	1604	944	1358
Employer	2426	1262	2132
All	1711	1311	1536

Table 18 reveals an exception to the rule in that the female mean earnings in construction are slightly higher than the male mean earnings. However, as seen above, very few women work in construction. Across other industries, the largest relative differences in female and male earnings are found in hospitality and trade. These are industries in which, as seen above, large numbers of women are employed.

TABLE 18
Mean Earnings by Industry, 15+ Years

Industry	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture	1214	753	1102
Manufacturing	1070	890	979
Construction	1616	1764	1620
Trade	1591	1116	1279
Hospitality	1759	1157	1461
Transport	2219	2141	2206
Services	1801	1343	1572
Administration/social security	2542	1848	2135
Education/social services	2212	1871	1936
Total	1711	1307	1533

Table 19 shows that gender differentials in earnings are found among both the younger age group aged 15 to 29 years and those aged 30-plus years. Younger people tend to earn less than older people, but the relative gender differential is larger among those aged 30-plus than among the younger workers.

TABLE 19
Mean Earnings by Age Group

Age group	Male	Female	Total
15 to 29years	1323	1130	1244
30+years	1868	1370	1644
Total	1710	1308	1534

ST LUCIA LABOUR FORCE SURVEY 2012

This section of the paper highlights findings in relation to employment and gender using data from the St Lucia Quarterly Labour Force Survey of 2012. The findings can, to some extent, be compared to those from the earlier Survey of Living Conditions. However, some cautions are necessary. First, these survey data again include some errors and missing data. Second, the survey does not include questions that allow us to measure household poverty. Third, some of the questions are asked differently from how they were asked in the Survey of Living Conditions. One particular challenge is that the Labour Force Survey asks for responses on earnings in groups rather than as the actual number of dollars. Age is also recorded in terms of five-year age groups, which limits what is possible in terms of analysis of children and adults as 18, the first year of adulthood, falls in the middle of one of the standard age groups.

Table 20 shows a total population aged 15-plus years of 135 thousand, of which 51 per cent is female. The female percentage is thus smaller than for the Survey of Living Conditions (see Table 1).

Categories are identical to those used for Table 1: the employed are those who report having done employment-related work over the past seven days; the unemployed are those who did not work in the past 7 days but looked for work in the last two months;

the not economically active are those who neither worked nor looked for work².

² The dataset included calculated variables that indicated whether a person was employed, unemployed or not economically active. In a relatively small number of cases, the values of these variables did not match those calculated for this paper. To maintain comparability, the new calculated values are used in this paper.

TABLE 20
Work Status Last 7 Days by Sex, 15+ Years

Work status	Male	Female	Total
Employed	39496	33616	73112
Unemployed	9587	10379	19967
Not economically active	17454	24683	42137
Total	66538	68678	135216
Unemployment rate	20%	24%	21%
Labour force participation rate	74%	64%	69%
Employment rate	59%	49%	54%

Table 20 shows, as in 2005/2006, that women are less likely (64 per cent versus 74 per cent) than men to want to work (labour force participation rate). However, while the participation rate for men increased by 5 percentage points, that for women increased by 14 percentage points. The gender gap is thus much smaller than before. As before, among those who want to work, women are four percentage points more likely than men to be unemployed (24 per cent versus 20 per cent). However, the level of the unemployment rates is substantially higher than before for both women and men. Finally, the employment rate for women is still lower than that of men, but the gender gap has fallen from 20 percentage points to ten percentage points. Men's employment rate has fallen while that of women has increased. These patterns could reflect the impact of the global crisis, where unemployment has increased for both women and men and a decrease in opportunities for men has forced more women into the labour market.

Table 21 presents similar information, but this time reflects individuals as employed if they report having done any (employment-related) work in the past twelve months. As with 2005/2006, this results in an increase in the employment rate and a decrease in the unemployment rate. However, the same gender

patterns remain. Similar to 2005/2006, the gender gap in the unemployment rate is now larger than when considering only seven days.

Of the not economically active, 11 per cent of the women but only 1 per cent of the men gave as the reason that they were a housewife or homemaker. When those who said that they wanted work but had not taken any steps to find work were asked for the reason, 19 per cent of women but only 2 per cent of men said that personal or family responsibilities were the reason; 13 per cent of women and 2 per cent of men cited illness, injury or pregnancy.

TABLE 21
Work Status Last 12 Months by Sex, 15+ Years

Work status	Male	Female	Total
Employed	43025	36105	79130
Unemployed	7017	8948	15965
Not economically active	16496	23625	40121
Total	66538	68678	135216
Unemployment rate	14%	20%	17%
Labour force participation rate	75%	66%	70%
Employment rate	65%	53%	59%

TABLE 22

Highest Education Achieved by Sex, 15+ Years

Age group	Highest education	Male	Female	Total
15+ years	None	30%	27%	28%
	School-leaving	12%	10%	11%
	General Certificate of Education	27%	31%	29%
	Diploma/certificate/degree	8%	12%	10%
	Other	23%	21%	22%
	Total %	100%	100%	100%
	Total number	64148	65754	129902
15-29 years	None	12%	7%	9%
	School-leaving	22%	20%	21%
	General Certificate of Education	48%	55%	52%
	Diploma/certificate/degree	6%	11%	9%
	Other	12%	7%	10%
	Total %	100%	100%	100%
	Total number	21909	21328	43236

Table 22 shows the highest educational level achieved. Unfortunately, the categories are somewhat different from those used in 2005/2006. The table provides information for both the population aged 15 years and above as a whole, and for the youth subgroup aged 15 to 29 years. For the full group, for both women and men the table shows a smaller percentage having education below General Certificate of Education levels. It shows further that women's advantage over men educationally has increased over time when compared to the 2005/2006 patterns. The information in respect of 15 to 29 years shows this even more clearly, as among this group which will have been in education more recently than their elders, only 27 per cent of females do not have at least General Certificate of Education compared to 34 per cent of males. Conversely, 11 per cent of females have a diploma, certificate or degree compared to 6 per cent of males.

The next two tables, as before, investigate the extent to which work status is affected by the family form. Unfortunately, this analysis is less accurate than previously as the recording of age in five-year age groups means that those aged 18 to 19 years are excluded from the analysis because we cannot differentiate them from children aged 15 to 17 years.

Similar to table 4, the ‘total distribution’ row in Table 23 reveals strong shifts from the profile in 2005/2006. Only 2 per cent of men now live in households with only men and children. This grouping is probably too small to provide reliable results, although the pattern seems similar to that for 2005/2006 of intense engagement with the labour market. Only 37 per cent of men live in households with men, women and children. Meanwhile the percentages living only with adult men or with only adult men and women have increased dramatically. The labour market indicators show strongest attachment to the labour market for men living only with children, followed by those living

with both women and children. Engagement is lowest for households with no children but with at least one woman alongside the man.

TABLE 23
Work Status Last 12 Months of Men by Family Form, 18+ Years

Work status	Child and man	Child, woman and man	Man only	Woman and man	Total
Employed	749	16975	10803	13352	41879
Unemployed	203	2073	1373	1997	5647
Not economically active	52	2701	3136	5149	11039
<i>Total distribution</i>	2%	37%	26%	35%	100%
Total	1004	21750	15313	20498	58565
Unemployment rate	21%	11%	11%	13%	12%
Labour force participation rate	95%	88%	80%	75%	81%
Employment rate	75%	78%	71%	65%	72%

TABLE 24

Work Status Last 12 Months of Women by Family Form, 18+ Years

Work status	Child and woman	Child, woman and man	Woman only	Woman and man	Total
Employed	5120	13485	6192	10243	35040
Unemployed	1359	3486	808	1806	7458
Not economically active	1523	5821	3590	7166	18101
<i>Total distribution</i>	13%	38%	17%	32%	100%
Total	8001	22792	10590	19215	60598
Unemployment rate	21%	21%	12%	15%	18%
Labour force participation rate	81%	74%	66%	63%	70%
Employment rate	64%	59%	58%	53%	58%

Table 24 reveals that for women, as for men, there are somewhat fewer than before living with children but not men, far fewer living with men and children, but more living in woman-only households or households with adult women and men.

The labour force participation and employment rates are, as before, highest in the women-and-children households, followed by the households with children, women and men. The unemployment rate is highest in household with children, women and men, but the rate is almost as high in households with only children and women.

Table 25 shows relatively small differences in occupational distribution for women living in child and women households when compared with all other households. For this survey, the occupation question reads: "What is your (. . .)'s job title? GIVE BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF MAIN DUTIES." As with the 2005/2006 survey, the open-ended responses are post-coded and the dataset contains only the high-level one-digit codes.

Table 25 suggests that, if anything, women in women and child households may be more likely to be managers than those living in other households, but less likely to be professionals.

TABLE 25

Occupational Distribution of Employed Women by Type of Household

Occupation	Child and woman	Other
Managers	14%	10%
Professionals	9%	12%
Technicians and Associate Professionals	9%	7%
Clerical Support workers	8%	8%
Service and sales workers	31%	29%
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fisheries	2%	4%
Craft and related trades workers	3%	3%
Plant and Machine Operators	0%	1%
Elementary Occupations	10%	11%
Not Stated	13%	15%
Total	100%	100%

TABLE 26

Distribution of Employed Women by Employment Status and Type of Household

Employment status	Child and woman	Other
Central Government Employee	17%	17%
Employee of Statutory Board	4%	4%
Private Employee	56%	55%
Self-Employed with Employees	7%	3%
Self-Employed without Employees	10%	15%
Unpaid Family Worker	0%	1%
Member of Production Cooperative	0%	0%
Other	0%	0%
Not Stated	5%	5%
Total	100%	100%

Similarly, Table 26 shows relatively small differences between the two groups of women in terms of employment status. The largest differences relate to the self-employed, where women living in child and women households are more likely than others to have employees and less likely to be own-account workers.

Unfortunately, we are not able to do analysis comparing poor and non-poor households as the required poverty-related questions are not asked.

Table 27 suggests that while employed women are still more likely than men to be government employees, the pattern is not as strong as in 2005/2006. Women are also now more likely than men to be employees in the private sector. Unfortunately, the comparison with 2005/2006 is not as exact as we would have liked it to be, as no status in employment information was provided for more than a tenth of both women and men. The fact that the percentage reported to be own-account workers is as large, or larger, than in 2005/2006 despite the 10 per cent-plus unknown suggests that there has been a shift away from employee to self-employed status. This could reflect an effect of the ongoing economic crisis.

3 In Tables 27 and 28, categories that record zero per cent are excluded (although they may contain a small number of observations that amount to less than half a percentage point).

TABLE 27

Status in Employment of Employed by Sex, 15+ Years³

Employment status	Male	Female	Total
Central government employee	10%	16%	13%
Employee of statutory board	2%	4%	3%
Private employee	47%	52%	49%
Own account worker	20%	13%	17%
Employer	7%	3%	5%
Unpaid family worker	0%	1%	1%
Not stated	13%	11%	12%
Total	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 28

Industry of Employed by sex, Including and Excluding Government and Parastatals, 15+ Years

Industry	All			Excluding government		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	14%	7%	11%	16%	7%	12%
Manufacturing	5%	4%	5%	6%	5%	6%
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning	1%	0%	1%	1%	0%	1%
Water supply; sewerage, waste	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Construction	14%	2%	8%	16%	2%	10%
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles	11%	19%	15%	13%	24%	18%
Transportation and storage	9%	2%	6%	9%	2%	6%
Accommodation and food services	12%	17%	14%	13%	21%	17%
Information and communication	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Financial and insurance activities	1%	3%	2%	2%	4%	3%
Professional, scientific and technical a	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Administrative and support services	4%	4%	4%	5%	6%	5%
Public administration and defence	7%	10%	8%	1%	1%	1%
Education	3%	10%	6%	1%	4%	2%
Human health and social work activities	1%	3%	2%	0%	1%	1%
Arts, entertainment and recreation	2%	1%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Other service activities	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
Activities of households as employers	1%	6%	3%	1%	8%	4%
Not stated	9%	7%	8%	10%	8%	9%
Total percentage	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Total number	39587	33705	73292	34154	26575	60729

In this survey, unlike the 2005/2006 survey, the industry question was open-ended, with responses post-coded to standard international categories. The question on industry reads: “What is the name of the business where you work? What type of activity is carried on there?”

Table 28 gives the industry breakdown first for the economy as a whole and then with government and parastatals excluded. The table reveals that among those for whom industry information is available, there

is again a strong male bias in agriculture, construction and transport services. Conversely, there is a strong female bias in trade and hospitality, as well as some female bias in sectors such as public administration, education and health that are mostly associated with government employment.

The 2012 survey did not distinguish between tourism- and non-tourism related industries.

TABLE 29
Occupation of Employed by Sex, 15+ Years

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	7%	10%	9%
Professionals	5%	11%	8%
Technical/associate professional	5%	7%	6%
Clerks	3%	8%	5%
Services/sales	15%	30%	22%
Skilled agriculture	11%	4%	8%
Craft	14%	3%	9%
Operators	8%	1%	5%
Elementary	12%	10%	11%
Unspecified	19%	15%	17%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	39587	33705	73292

Table 29 shows that the level of missing data in respect of occupation is less than for industry, but still disappointingly high at 15 per cent of employed women and 19 per cent of employed men. The dominance of services and sales is at the same level as before, even with the missing percentages. This suggests that the dominance is even stronger than before. Men continue to be far more likely than women to be employed as craft workers and operators. But women continue to be more likely than men to work in occupations classified as managers and professionals. Unlike the situation in 2005/2006, 54 per cent of male managers are now own-account workers, as compared to 48 per cent of female managers. Managing in an own-account situation would not normally imply substantial authority or decision-making power. A further 18 per cent of the female managers are employees of statutory boards, as against only 1 per cent of the male managers. This is in stark contrast to 2005/2006, when 7 per cent of male managers and no female managers were reported as working for statutory boards. These very different patterns could be the result of relatively small samples and the panel nature of the 2012 data (which results in some individuals being surveyed more than once) rather than real changes in occupational patterns.

TABLE 30
Gross Monthly Income from Employment by Sex

Income	Male	Female	Total
Under 200	1%	1%	1%
201—399	2%	3%	3%
400—799	10%	11%	11%
800—1199	15%	21%	18%
1200—1999	25%	22%	24%
2000—3999	15%	13%	14%
4000—5999	3%	3%	3%
Over 6000	2%	1%	2%
Not Reported	26%	24%	26%
Total %	100%	100%	100%
Total number	39587	33705	73292

As noted above, the 2012 Labour Force Survey enquired about (gross monthly) income from employment in brackets rather than in terms of the actual number. Table 30 records the responses. Unfortunately it shows that this information was not provided for a quarter of employed people. The table shows small proportions earning less than \$400 per month and substantial numbers earning less than \$2000 per month.

TABLE 31**Mean Monthly Employment Income by Occupation and Sex, 15+ Years**

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	3489	2622	3073
Professionals	3224	2912	3016
Technical/associate professional	2512	2371	2428
Clerks	1875	1979	1950
Services/sales	1669	1168	1367
Skilled agriculture	1040	1177	1073
Craft	1965	1036	1793
Operators	2446	998	2297
Elementary	1162	1056	1115
All	1906	1725	1821

In order to do further analysis, we assign each individual for whom we have information an income value that is midway between the lower and upper bands of their bracket. For example, for the bracket 201-399 we assign the value 300. For the topmost bracket, which does not have an upper bound, we assign the value 800. We use these values to generate means for different categories. The approach involves a crude approximation that is further weakened by the large proportion of missing values, as we assign the mid-values only for those for whom we have information.

Table 31⁴ presents the results by occupation. Overall, as in 2005/2006, the female mean is lower than the male. The female mean is lower than the male mean for all occupations except skilled agriculture and clerks. As seen above, the former is male-dominated and the latter more common for female workers. If we go down the table, the skilled agriculture mean is lower than all the rest, showing a similar pattern to that found for 2005/2006. The female-dominated area of services/sales has a lower mean than the male-dominated craft and operator areas despite being higher up the occupational skills ladder.

Table 32 presents similar information, but this time by highest level of education. In this table, consistent with the international pattern, female earnings are lower than male earnings for every level of education.

4 The total includes those with unspecified occupation but the mean values for unspecified are not shown in the table.

TABLE 32**Mean Monthly Employment Income by Highest Education and Sex, 15+ Years**

Educational level	Male	Female	Total
None	1421	1032	1274
School-leaving	1485	1025	1299
General Certificate of Education	1999	1570	1773
Diploma/Certificate/Degree	3862	3378	3565
Other	1695	1317	1539
All	1916	1730	1829

TABLE 33

Mean Monthly Wages Of Employees by Occupation and Sex, 15+ Years

Occupation	Male	Female	Total
Managers	3501	3076	3299
Professionals	3327	2944	3054
Technical/associate professional	2475	2424	2444
Clerks	1833	1981	1941
Services/sales	1715	1220	1430
Skilled agriculture	1035	600	1012
Craft	1699	1223	1634
Operators	1918	998	1765
Elementary	1209	1068	1146
All	1893	1833	1863

As with 2005/2006, this first set of tables presents gross earnings of all workers, regardless of status in employment. The next two tables focus only on employees so as to avoid the distortions caused by gross income of employers and own-account workers including amounts that must be spent on operating expenses.

Table 33 shows women earning more than men only in the clerical category. For skilled agricultural, as in most other occupations, women are now recorded as having lower wages than men.

TABLE 34

Mean Monthly Wages by Highest Education and Sex, 15+ Years

Educational level	Male	Female	Total
None	1494	1097	1335
School-leaving	1350	1003	1205
General Certificate of Education	1797	1599	1689
Diploma/certificate/degree	3890	3407	3578
Other	1605	1350	1490
All	1900	1834	1867

Table 34 confirms that when one restricts analysis to employees, women tend to have lower wages than men at all levels of education.

Analysis by industry is inadvisable given the very disaggregated industry structure and the relatively large number of missing values for both industry and employment income. The full table is therefore not shown. What it reveals, however, is the industries in which women (including all status in employment) tend to earn more than men. These are agriculture; professional and related activities; administrative and support services; education; arts, entertainment and recreation; and “other service activities.”

TABLE 35

Mean Monthly Employment Income by Status in Employment, 15+ years

Employment status	Male	Female	Total
Central government employee	2501	2384	2435
Employee of statutory board	2022	2304	2203
Private employee	1749	1615	1685
Own account	1446	896	1249
Employers	3200	1934	2838
Unpaid family worker	600	300	448
Other	3378	3000	3326
Total	1908	1715	1818

Table 35 suggests that the wage gap of 2005/2006 between government and private sector employees remains. As in 2005/2006, across all categories women's earnings tend to be lower than those of men.

Table 36 shows that, as in 2005/2006, older people tend to have higher earnings than young people whether analysis includes all employed people or only employees. For both groups the table suggests that female earnings tend to be very slightly higher than male earnings among those aged 15-29 years. The difference is almost certainly too small to be statistically significant, especially considering the crude measure that was used based on income groups. For the older age group, male earnings tend to be higher than female earnings. The difference between male and female is relatively small for employees but substantial when all employed people are considered. The difference

between the age groups is at least partly explained by the higher educational levels of women shown above.

It is sometimes suggested that the reason that women earn less than men is that they tend to work fewer hours. Analysis of usual working hours in the St Lucia Labour Force Survey of 2012 (for those recording non-zero hours) suggests that the median weekly hours for both women and men is 40, while for the mean there is only a two-hour difference—42 hours recorded for men and 40 hours for women. The same pattern holds among employees, but among own-account workers mean hours are 46 for men and 42 for women. The mean hours for women and men living in households with a child under five years are two hours less than those for other employed women and men. For both women and men, 9 per cent of employed people report usual hours of less than 35 per week.

TABLE 36

Mean Monthly Employment Income by age Group and Employment Status

Status in employment	Age group	Male	Female	Total
All workers	15-29years	1532	1548	1540
	30+years	2035	1790	1921
	Total	1906	1725	1821
Employees	15-29years	1544	1577	1560
	30+years	2058	1944	2000
	Total	1893	1833	1863



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