WHY WOMEN EARN LESS

GENDER PAY GAP AND LABOUR-MARKET INEQUALITIES IN MOZAMBIQUE

UN WOMEN

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UN Women is the United Nations organization dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. A global champion for women and girls, UN Women was established to accelerate progress on meeting their needs worldwide. UN Women supports United Nations Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality and works with governments and civil society organizations to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on five priority areas: increasing women's leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women's economic empowerment; and making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the United Nations system's work in advancing gender equality.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1 INTRODUCTION

Despite progress in women's economic and political participation, formal employment and education attainment, a gender pay gap remains a pervasive labour-market feature across the world. Globally, women earn only 73 cents for each US dollar earned by men.[1] The gender pay gap is a broader reflection of the work-related and economic inequality of women, including their lack of economic independence, lack of decision-making power both in the household (e.g. spending decisions) and in society (e.g. managerial decisions), and experience of violence. Mozambique is a low-income country with a population of approximately 33 million (in 2022).[2] Since the start of the 21st century, the country has made progress towards gender equality in terms of women's economic and political participation, formal employment and education attainment. For instance, as at February 2021, 42.4 per cent of seats in parliament were held by women.[3] Yet, the gender pay gap is still a pervasive labour-market feature in Mozambique.

The existence and persistence of the gender pay gap has unfavourable outcomes at both the individual and societal levels. For example, the gap is more frequently connected with higher levels of poverty and inequality among women. Moreover, women's pay being lower than men's during their working years translates into women's incomes from social security and pensions after retirement and other social benefits, such as life insurance, also being lower. The adverse effects of shorter working hours and low-paid jobs, typically associated more with women than with men, are reflected in lower pension levels, lower seniority premiums and lower levels of other coverage related to employment contributory schemes.[4] Mozambique is one of the poorest countries in the world, and its poverty rates increased from 64.6 per cent in 2014 to 74.4 per cent in 2019, based on the US$2.15 per day poverty line.[5] Moreover, the Gini coefficient, which measures inequality, decreased from 56.1 to 50.4 during the same period.[6] Addressing the gender pay gap would contribute to poverty reduction and reduce inequality.

When households and society undervalue women, other severe outcomes become likely. As a result of low economic power within the household, some women may tolerate abusive and unhealthy relationships, and domestic violence. Women's families are likely to benefit when the share of household income that women control increases; for instance, women tend to invest more in their children's nutrition, health, education and housing with increased income.[7] Overall, women's lower earnings can lead to a reduction in bargaining power and less independence, and lifetime income inequality between genders, which contributes to maintaining the lower status of women in society and ultimately to lower rates of gross domestic product (GDP) and GDP growth.

The objective of the present study is to present an overview of the adjusted gender pay gap and labour-market inequalities in Mozambique. This is part of a larger 2023 UN Women study titled "Why Women Earn Less: Gender Pay Gap and Labour-Market Inequalities in East and Southern Africa". Understanding the gender pay gap and its determinants would raise awareness among employees, employers and policymakers; lead to actions for the mitigation of economic inequalities; support women in realizing their productive potential; and ultimately support economic growth. Therefore, the study contributes to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for gender equality, within SDG 5, and for decent work and economic growth, within SDG 8. SDG

5 considers inequality more broadly than simply in terms of the gender pay gap: its ambition is to achieve gender equality in the labour market (e.g. equal access to jobs and top decision-making roles), in education (e.g. achieving gender parity in education), in access to health and in an array of other target areas, with the aims of reducing gender-based violence and discrimination, and empowering women and girls. SDG 8 also seeks to promote the collection and dissemination of sex disaggregated data on other labour-market indicators, including on employment, unemployment, informal employment and rates of those not in education, employment or training.

The report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 briefly discusses the methodology and data used in this study, Chapter 3 presents the main findings of the study and, finally, Chapter 4 concludes.

2 METHODOLOGY AND DATA

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The study analyses the gender pay gap and other labour-market inequalities in the country using quantitative techniques from labour economics, including regression analysis, quantile regression analysis, Oaxaca–Blinder decomposition and segregation indices. These methodologies disentangle multifaceted factors contributing to the gender pay gap to understand the drivers of gender-based labour-market disparities in the country.

The **raw** or **unadjusted gender pay gap** is the difference between the average pay earned by women and men in the labour market, expressed as a percentage of the average pay for men:[8]

$$\text{Gender pay gap} = \frac{\text{(Men's average pay - women's average pay)}}{\text{(Men's average pay)}} \times 100\%$$

Such a raw gender pay gap hides important information about how personal and labour-market characteristics affect the wage differential. Thus, the Mincerian earnings function[9] is used to analyse wages as a function of the productive capacity of an individual. The Mincerian earnings function takes the form:

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \sum \gamma_j * X'_t + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

where $ln(y_t)$ is the log of the hourly wage of person i; $gender_i$ is a dummy variable, taking a value of 1 for women and 0 for men; and X'_t is a vector of other individual and labour-market characteristics (including education, age and its square, experience, tenure, occupation and sector).[10] The coefficient β_1 measures the **adjusted** gender pay gap. If the vector of explanatory variables X'_t is not included, then β_1 would measure the **unadjusted** gender pay gap, i.e. the calculation would estimate only a simple difference of logged mean wages.

Specifically, the empirical models estimated are:

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 marital\_status_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 marital\_status_i + \beta_6 sectors_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (5)$$

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 marital\_status_i + \beta_6 occupations_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (6)$$

$$ln(y_t) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 marital\_status_i + \beta_6 sectors_i + \beta_7 occupations_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (7)$$

$$ln(y_i) = \alpha + \beta_i gender_i + \beta_2 age_i + \beta_3 age\_squares_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 marital\_status_i + \beta_6 sectors_i + \beta_7 occupations_i + \beta_8 informal\_job_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (8)$$

where notations are self-explanatory.

A regression estimate of the raw pay gap is performed using Equation 2, with gender being the only explanatory variable. In Equation 2, age and its square, and education, represented by three levels – (1) primary or lower, (2) secondary and (3) tertiary or higher – are added as individual characteristics to explain the gender pay gap. Note that information on work experience or tenure was not available from the survey used for this study. In Equation 4, marital status is added, represented by two levels: (1) married and (2) single and other individuals. In Equation 5, occupation dummies (reference category: managers) are added and occupations are defined using the one-digit International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08) classification.[11] In Equation 6, instead of occupation, sector dummies (reference category: agriculture) are added and sectors are defined using the one-digit Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community (NACE) Rev.2 classification.[12] In Equation 7, both sector and occupation dummies are added. Finally, in Equation 8, an indicator of whether or not a job is undertaken with or without written contract (formality status) is added. For estimation, ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates were used.

The study also estimates the gender pay gap at different percentiles of the pay distribution. The quantile regression was developed as a semi-parametric method used to analyse pay, considering pay structure and distribution.[13] While OLS estimates report the mean effects, the quantile regression method allows for the study of the marginal effects of covariates on the dependent variable at various points in the pay distribution, not only the mean. Hence, in this work, quantile regression is used, providing estimates of the gender pay gap for each of the 10 deciles along the pay distribution, as well as for the top centile. The algorithm developed by Koenker and Bassett,[14] which is based on conditional quantile regressions, is followed.

The sociologist and demographer Evelyn Kitagawa first introduced decomposition techniques in 1955.[15] The standard decomposition technique, widely applied to the gender pay gap, was introduced to economics by Oaxaca[16] and Blinder.[17] The method enables the decomposition of the mean differences in log wages based on linear regression models in a counterfactual manner. The procedure divides the pay differential between women and men into two parts: one that is "explained" by group differences in productivity characteristics, such as education or work experience; and a residual part (the "unexplained" part) that cannot be accounted for by such differences in pay determinants. This "unexplained" part is often used as a measure of discrimination, but it also includes the effects of group differences in unobservable characteristics. More information about this methodology can be found in Fortin et al., 2011.[18]

Although the analysis focuses on the gender pay gaps, other indicators relating to gender inequalities in labour markets in East and Southern Africa are also used and calculated. The first part of the analysis is to observe the gender employment gap, which is the difference between the employment rates among women and men, expressed in percentage points (p.p.). Furthermore, employment shares per sector, occupation or formality status of the job are used, which are calculated for wage employees only. Using such indicators related to employment, the aim is to capture the differences in the attachment to the labour market by the two

genders, reflecting two important ideas. The first idea is that women are usually less attached to the labour market and, hence, less frequently in employment than men because of the traditional roles that they need to undertake in the household and in taking care of children and the elderly, i.e. unpaid care work. The second idea is the fact that, when employed, women tend to be segregated into specific occupations that are frequently low status and hence lower paid.

Also calculated is the gender hours gap, which is the difference in hours worked between women and men, expressed in "hours". Capturing this difference in hours has two important roles. The first is to draw attention to the differences in gender pay gaps calculated on a monthly versus an hourly level. The basic definition of the gender pay gap uses the average hourly wages of women and men, because wages at monthly levels reflect differences in hours worked (per week or per month), in addition to differences in individual and job characteristics. This leads to the second role of this analysis. It highlights that women work shorter hours than men in paid work. This is because women invest more time in unpaid care activities, hence reducing the time they have available for paid working hours. In addition to this, hours worked are analysed by sector and occupation.

Note that negative values of gaps indicate that women are in a worse position than men.

Horizontal gender segregation is analysed using the Duncan Segregation Index.[19] This is a measure of occupational or sectoral segregation based on gender that gauges whether or not there is a larger than expected presence of one gender over the other in a given occupation or sector. Intuitively, it shows the share of employed women and men who would need to trade places with one another across industries (occupations) for their distribution to become identical.[20] A Duncan Segregation Index value of 0 indicates perfect gender integration within the workforce, while a value of 1 indicates perfect gender segregation. The analysis delves deeper into the "managers" occupational group to investigate vertical segregation, where it was provided beyond the one-digit level. The shares of women and men in each sub-occupation are calculated, to obtain an indication of whether or not women are less represented than men at the very top of the occupational ladder.

This study uses data from Mozambique's Inquérito Sobre Orçamento Familiar (IOF) – Household Budget Survey 2019/20. This survey comprises 13,333 households and 64,519 individuals, of whom 32,778 are aged 15–64 years and are included in the analysis of employment. A person is identified as employed or not based on the status of employment reported in the survey.

Among 5,340 wage employees, 107 employees had a wage of zero recorded and for 13 employees information on the number of hours usually worked was not provided. The final wage data set hence comprises 5,220 wage employees. To arrive at the hourly wages, the period for which the wage refers to (hour, day, week, month, year) is divided by the usual hours worked per week.

3 RESULTS

3 RESULTS

3.1 Employment structure

The employment rate in Mozambique is 78.4 per cent for individuals aged 15–64 years and 78.3 per cent for individuals aged 15 years or over. This is similar to the employment rate of the country (for individuals aged 15 years or over) for 2019 of 76.2 per cent as reported by the World Development Indicators. **Table 1** looks at the employment rate by gender and shows that the employment rate among women is lower than among men, with an employment gap of 5 p.p. The gender employment gaps are largest among those aged 25–49 years (7.7 p.p.) and with a secondary-level education (22.8 p.p.), with employment rates being notably lower among women than among men in these groups.

Table 1

Employment rates of women and men, by age and educational level

	Employment rate (%)		Gender employment gap (p.p.)
	Men	Women	
Employment rate	81.1	76.1	–5.0
Age group (years)			
15–24	64.1	62.3	–1.8
25–49	91.9	84.2	–7.7
50–64	91.6	88.3	–3.3
Educational level			
Primary or less	83.5	80.4	–3.1
Secondary	70.8	48.0	–22.8
Tertiary or more	89.8	77.6	–12.2

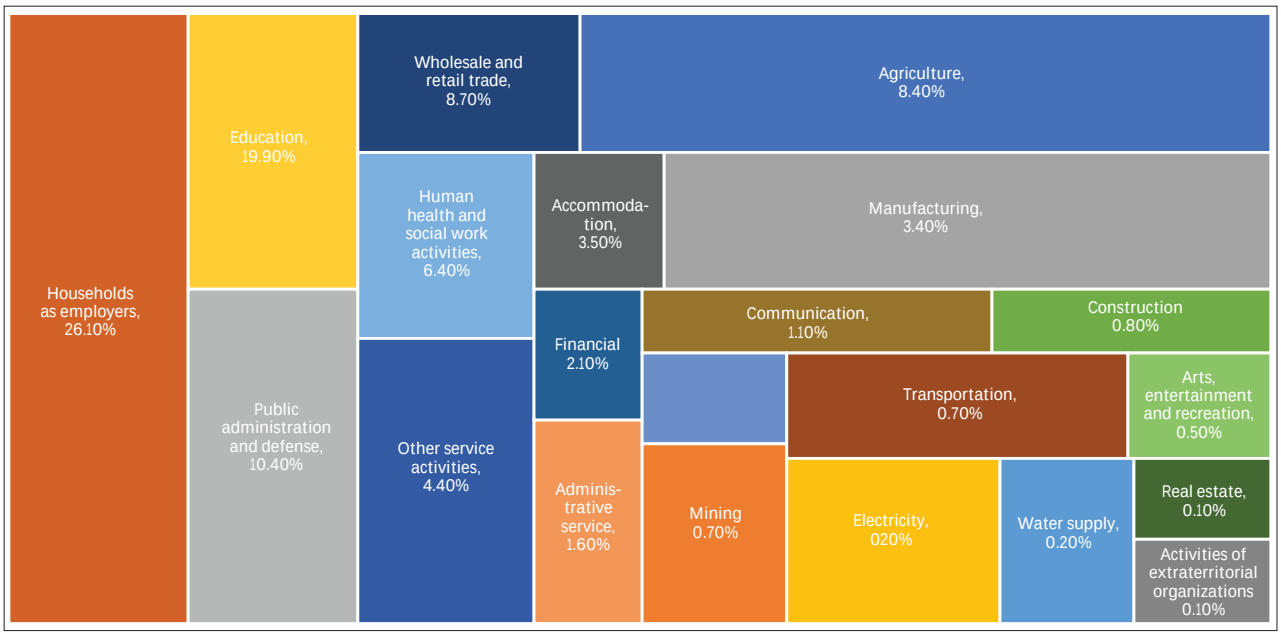
Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

As shown in **Figure 1**, the sectors that account for the majority of women's employment, in terms of women's wage employment in each sector as a percentage of women's total wage employment, are households as employers (26.1 per cent), education (19.9 per cent) and public administration and defence (10.4 per cent). Both households as employers and education involve care work. Agriculture, forestry and fishing (11.7 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (11.4 per cent), and transportation and storage (10.8 per cent) account for the majority of men's wage employment (**Figure 2**). **Figures 3** and **4** show women's and men's employment shares by occupation. Elementary occupations account for a significant source of employment for both women and men, although the share of women employed in these occupations is higher than the share of men. About 34.7 per cent of employed women and 14.1 per cent of employed men are employed in elementary occupations. In addition to this occupational class, Mozambican women are predominantly employed in high- and medium-skilled occupations, for instance

as professionals (22.2 per cent), technical professionals (11.8 per cent) and services and sales workers (12.9 per cent). After elementary jobs, men work most often as services and sales workers (21.9 per cent), craft trades workers (14 per cent), professionals (13.8 per cent) and plant and machine operators and assemblers (12.8 per cent).

Figure 1

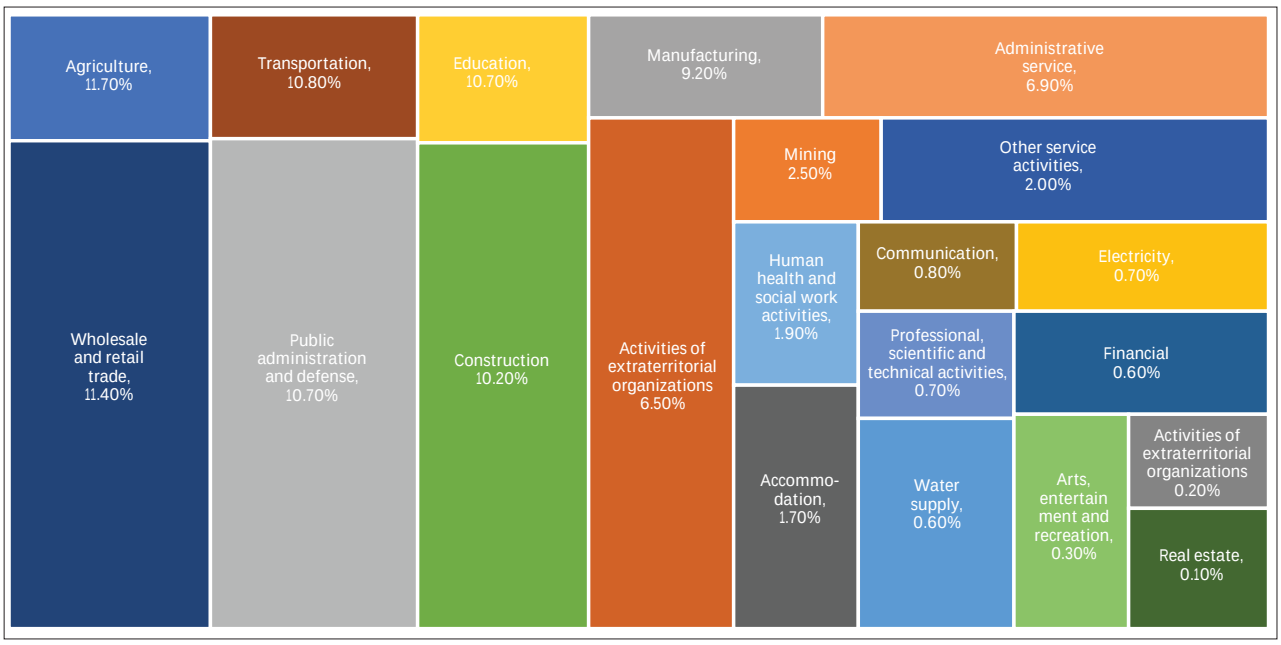
Women's share of wage employment by sector, as a percentage of women's total employment



Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

Figure 2

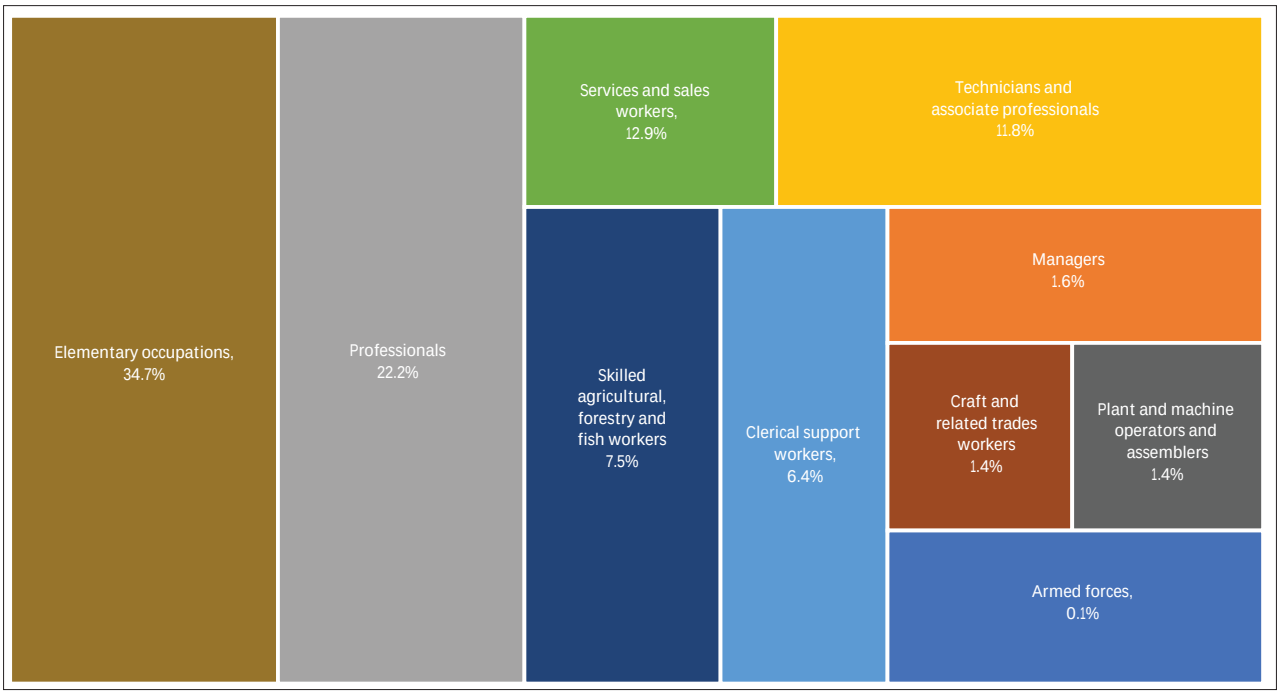
Men's share of employment by sector, as a percentage of men's total employment



Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

Figure 3

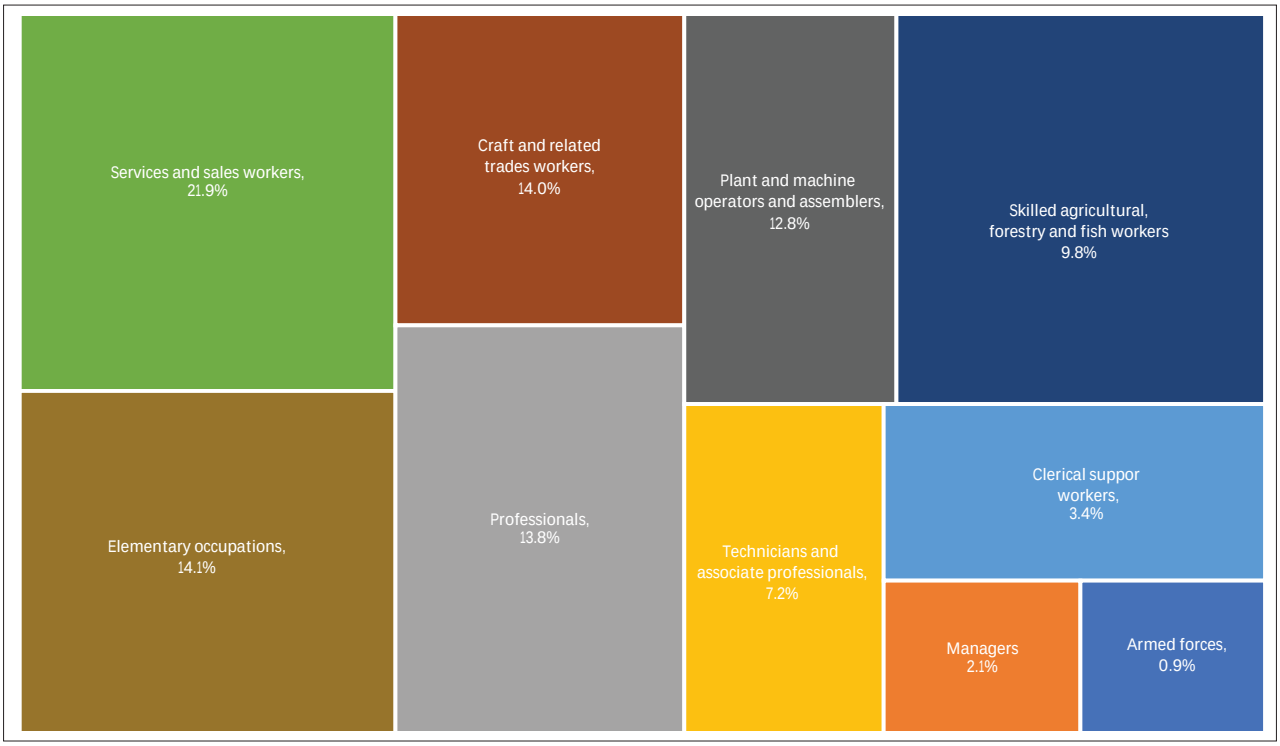
Women's share of employment by occupation, as a percentage of women's total employment



Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

Figure 4

Men's share of employment by occupation, as a percentage of men's total employment



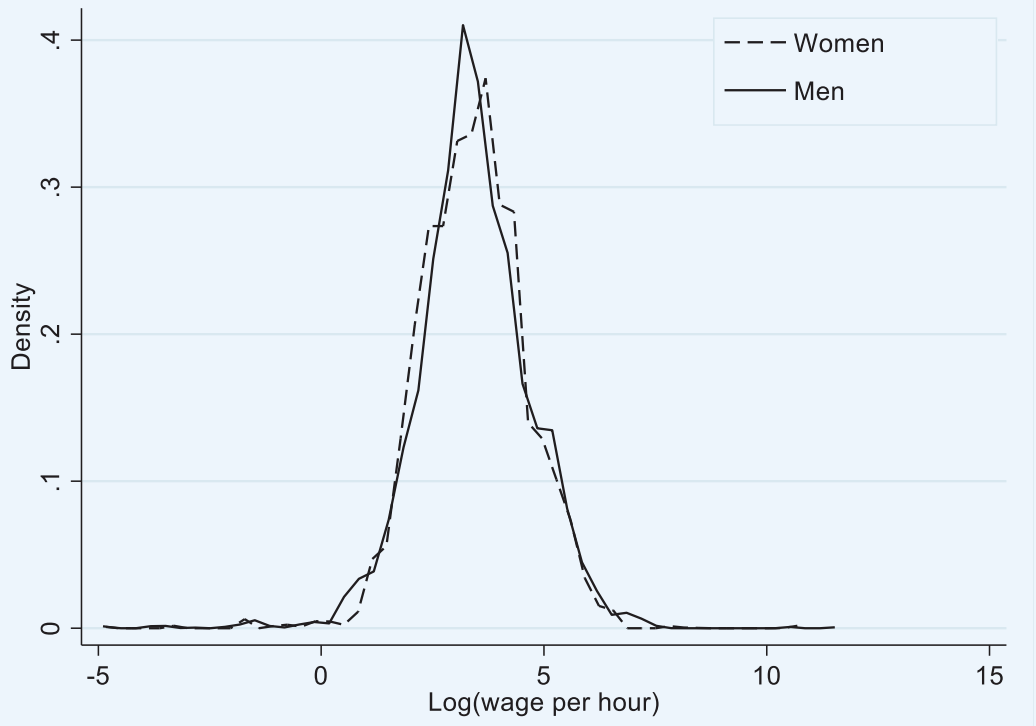
Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

3.2 Raw gender pay gap

Figure 5 shows the distribution of the log hourly wage distribution for both women and men. The dashed line, representing women, closely follows the solid line, representing men, across the distribution, indicating that women and men have similar wage levels.

Figure 5

Distribution of log hourly wages, by gender



Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

At the monthly level, the raw gender pay gap in Mozambique is 14.9 per cent, and, at the hourly level, the raw gender pay gap is 1.3 per cent, although is insignificant (**Table 2**). The difference between the monthly and hourly gender pay gaps implies that, on average, women tend to work longer hours than men in Mozambique. Henceforth, the analysis focuses solely on the hourly gender pay gap. The gap is apparent across all educational levels, although is widest for the primary educational level (23.4 per cent) and narrowest for the secondary educational level (4.2 per cent). Surprisingly, the gender pay gap is positive for both married and single individuals, being notably wide (18.7 per cent) for the latter, indicating that single women are paid considerably more than single men.

Table 2

Log wages and raw gender pay gaps, by educational level and marital status

	Men	Women	Gender pay gap (%)
Log monthly wages	3.611	3.462	–14.9
Log hourly wages	3.431	3.418	–1.3
Log wage per hour, by educational level			
Primary or less	2.903	2.669	–23.4
Secondary	3.75	3.708	–4.2
Tertiary or above	5.035	4.897	–13.8
Log wage per hour, by marital status			
Single	3	3.187	18.7
Married	3.577	3.631	5.4

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

A negative raw gender pay gap is seen for less than half of the sectors analysed (**Table 3**). In sectors where women dominate, the gap varies. For example, in households as employers, the gap is positive, at 18 per cent, indicating that women are paid more than men. However, in the education sector, with more equal shares of women and men employed, women are paid less than men, with a gender pay gap of a negative 17.3 per cent. In sectors where men seem to have a dominant presence, the gender pay gap is either smaller or even positive. For instance, the gap is zero in construction, a positive 25.3 per cent gap in wholesale and retail trade and a substantial positive 106.5 per cent gap in transport and storage. Similarly, in agriculture, where women are also less represented than men, the gender pay gap is nearly non-existent, at 1.3 per cent.

Table 3

Log wages and raw gender pay gaps, by sector

Sector	Log wages per hour		Gender pay gap (%)
	Men	Women	
All	3.431	3.418	–1.3
Agriculture	2.658	2.556	–10.2
Mining and quarrying	3.605	3.11	–49.5
Manufacturing	3.244	3.073	–17.1
Electricity	5.618	4.965	–65.3
Water supply	3.636	4.426	79.0
Construction	3.264	3.257	–0.7
Wholesale and retail trade	3.104	3.357	25.3
Transportation and storage	3.454	4.519	106.5
Accommodation and food service activities	3.252	3.024	–22.8
Information and communication	3.769	4.056	28.7
Financial and insurance activities	5.196	4.574	–62.2
Real estate activities	4.833	3.634	–119.9
Professional, scientific and technical activities	4.828	4.681	–14.7
Administrative and support service activities	3.282	3.325	4.3
Public administration and defence	4.15	4.25	10.0
Education	4.36	4.187	–17.3
Human health and social work activities	4.056	3.836	–22.0
Arts, entertainment and recreation	4.223	3.94	–28.3
Other service activities	3.618	3.6	–1.8
Activities of households as employers	2.38	2.56	18.0
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	4.606	4.52	–8.6

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

Table 4 presents the raw gender pay gaps by occupation. Notably, women receive higher pay than men in managerial roles, although they are slightly underrepresented, and in professional positions. In occupations classified as medium skilled, where men dominate, the gender pay gap varies from a positive 11.5 per cent for agricultural workers to a negative 49.4 per cent for plant and machine operators. The gap is also substantial in elementary occupations, where women are in the majority, reaching 49.7 per cent.

Table 4

Log wages and raw gender pay gaps, by occupation

Occupation	Log wage per hour		Gender pay gap (%)
	Men	Women	
All	3.431	3.418	–1.3
Legislators, government officials, managers	4.045	4.583	53.8
Professionals	4.227	4.771	54.4
Technicians and associate professionals	4.678	4.452	–22.6
Clerical support workers	4.324	4.107	–21.7
Services and sales workers	4.06	3.937	–12.3
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	3.005	3.12	11.5
Craft and related trades workers	2.866	2.542	–32.4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	3.35	2.856	–49.4
Elementary occupations	3.406	2.909	–49.7

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

3.3 Adjusted gender pay gap

Table 5 shows regression estimates for log wages, corresponding to the estimates derived from Equations 2–8. Row (1) shows the previously addressed raw gender pay gap. In row (6), the adjusted gender pay gap in Mozambique is shown to be 1.3 per cent, which is similar to the raw gender pay gap, with both figures being statistically insignificant. Nevertheless, the inclusion of observable characteristics of individuals and job-related factors contributes to the magnification of the gap, rendering it statistically significant and revealing some labour-market segregation.

The rest of the coefficients are analysed group by group. In row (2), the introduction of only personal characteristics implies that wages increase with age until about 50 years of age, when they begin to decline. In addition, education yields positive returns, as indicated in **Table A.2**. Specifically, secondary-level education results in a higher wage than primary-level education, by about 86.6 per cent.

Row (3) adds marital status and indicates that married individuals earn higher wages than single individuals, by an average of 14.5 per cent. The addition of marital status reduces the previously amplified gap to 11.8 per cent, suggesting that an interplay between personal characteristics and marital status contributes to explaining the inflated gap.

Row (4) adds sectors, and their inclusion decreases the adjusted gap to zero. Almost all sectors pay higher wages than agriculture (the reference category). The addition of the sectors also diminishes the role of personal characteristics, suggesting some sectoral segregation by education. Row (5) adds occupations, amplifying the adjusted gap to 9.6 per cent and revealing that only service, agricultural and elementary workers receive lower wages than managers, on average. Coefficients on personal characteristics

decline, indicating some occupational segregation by education.

When personal characteristics, sectors and occupations are combined (row (6)), the gap reduces to zero, in line with the raw gender pay gap. This suggests, that while personal and occupational characteristics inflate the gender pay gap in Mozambique, sectors can explain it. Moreover, there is a strong interplay between observable personal characteristics, notably educational level and sectors/occupations, indicating the sectoral/occupational segregation of women by educational level in Mozambique.

Table 5

Adjusted gender pay gap (regression results on log hourly wages)

Row No.	Particular		Coefficient	Standard error
(1)	**Raw/ Unadjusted GPG**		–0.0125	(0.045)
(2)	**Adjusted GPG**	Personal characteristics only	–0.155***	(0.037)
(3)		Personal + marriage	–0.118***	(0.038)
(4)		Personal + sector	–0.0109	(0.043)
(5)		Personal + occupation	–0.0960**	(0.041)
(6)		Personal + sector + occupation	–0.0131	(0.044)

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

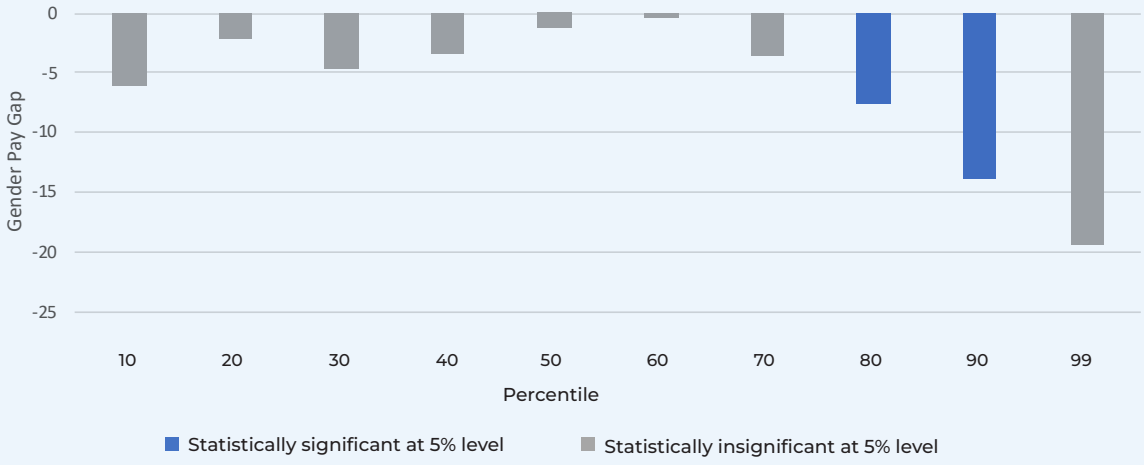
Note: **, ** and *** represent statistical significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels, respectively. Results robust to heteroskedasticity. For detailed regression results, refer to Table A.2.*
GPG, gender pay gap.

3.4 Adjusted gender pay gap by percentile

Understanding the gender pay gap at different points of the wage distribution can be used to examine the prevalence of a sticky floor and glass ceiling in the economy. A sticky floor refers to a labour market where workers, usually women, in low-paying jobs have low job mobility and face barriers to career advancement. A glass ceiling refers to impediments that prevent women from accessing top managerial and leadership positions. **Figure 6** presents the adjusted pay gap through deciles (and the top centile). Since the gender pay gap is statistically significant in only the eighth and ninth deciles, there is no evidence of a sticky floor; this finding does however provide evidence of a glass ceiling effect, despite the gap being statistically insignificant for the top 1 per cent of wage earner.

Figure 6

Adjusted gender pay gap by decile and top percentile



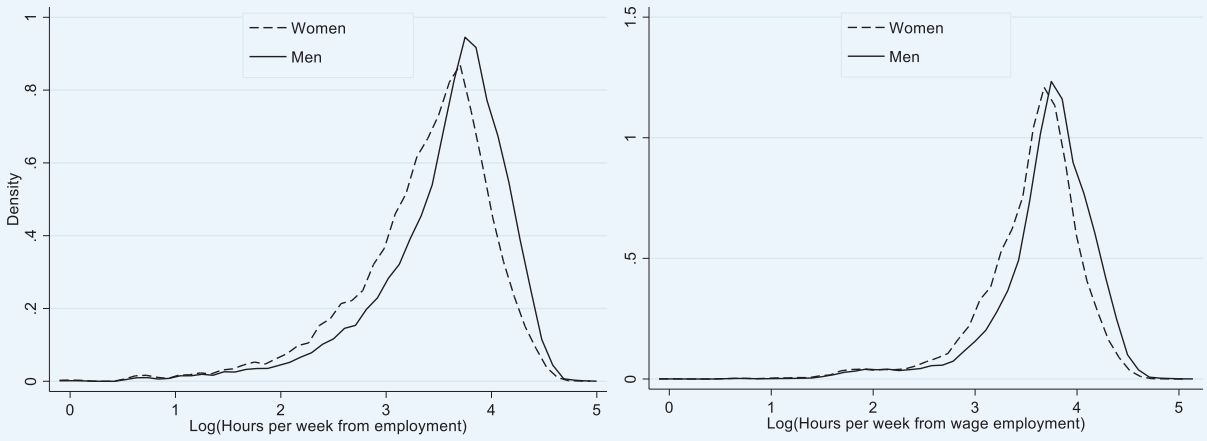
Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly*

3.5 Gender differences in hours worked in paid employment

Figure 7 presents a density distribution of hours worked by women and men in total employment and in only paid wage employment. Women work fewer hours than men along the entire distribution, i.e. for both short and long working hours, when both total employment and wage employment are considered. However, the gap is smaller when hours from wage employment are considered than when hours from total employment are considered, which reveals that most of the hours gap is derived from non-wage employment.

Figure 7

Hours worked by women and men in employment (left) and in wage employment (right)

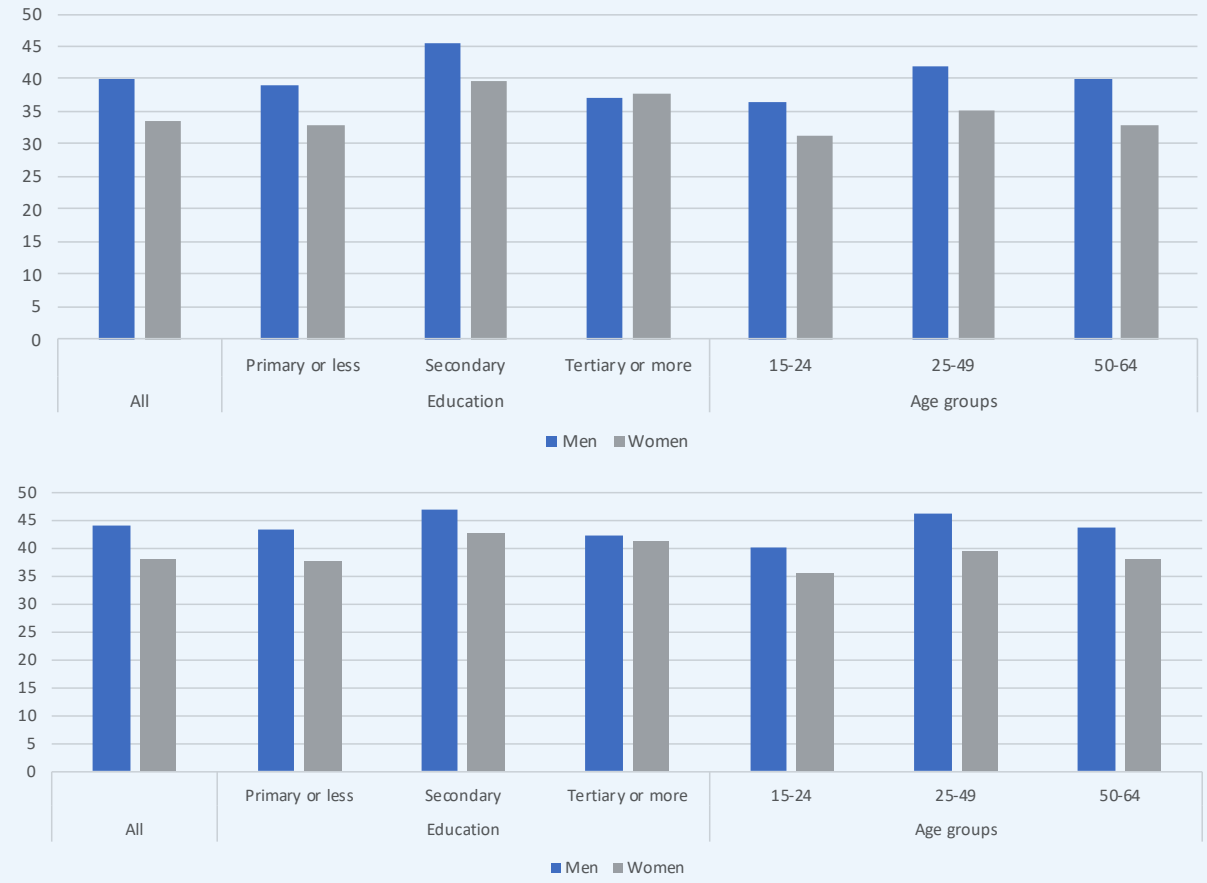


Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

Figure 8 shows that women work fewer hours in total employment in all age and educational level groups. However, women work more hours than men in wage employment in all educational level groups and in the age group 15-24 years. For total employment, the gap is widest among primary-educated individuals and individuals in the age group 25–49 years (**Figure 8, top panel**).

Figure 8

Hours worked by women and men weekly, by age and education, in total employment (top) and wage employment (bottom)



Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

In the remainder of this chapter, only hours worked in wage employment are considered, as hours could be matched with sector/occupation for wage employees only. **Table 6** shows that the numbers of hours spent on paid work in each sector vary by gender. Although both genders work long hours in the sector activities of households as employers, women work fewer hours than men, with a gender gap of 12.12 hours.

Table 6

Average hours worked per week and gender gaps in hours, by sector and occupation

	Men	Women	Gender gap in hours
Sector			
Agriculture	39.11	35.65	–3.46
Mining and quarrying	51.48	47.05	–4.43
Manufacturing	46.68	39.85	–6.83
Electricity	44.94	34.8	–10.14
Water supply	42.61	36.36	–6.25
Construction	51.4	47.22	–4.18
Wholesale and retail trade	53.91	49.84	–4.07
Transportation and storage	56.14	42.66	–13.48
Accommodation and food service activities	57.04	52.22	–4.82
Information and communication	47.41	47.32	–0.09
Financial and insurance activities	55.13	45.25	–9.88
Real estate activities	48.17	41.93	–6.24
Professional, scientific and technical activities	44.67	37.4	–7.27
Administrative and support service activities	54.88	43.22	–11.66
Public administration and defence	47.12	40.99	–6.13
Education	38.56	38.19	–0.37
Human health and social work activities	44.26	42.23	–2.03
Arts, entertainment and recreation	35.01	39.37	4.36
Other service activities	49.81	36.55	–13.26
Activities of households as employers	64.1	51.98	–12.12
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	45.53	14.76	–30.77
Occupation			
Managers	48.54	43.88	–4.66
Professionals	49.08	44.82	–4.26
Technicians and associate professionals	39.03	38.75	–0.28
Clerical support workers	44.92	40.72	–4.2
Services and sales workers	47.55	44.16	–3.39
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fish workers	56.3	49.07	–7.23
Craft and related trades workers	38.93	35.63	–3.3
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	49.18	38.39	–10.79
Elementary occupations	52.62	43.68	–8.94

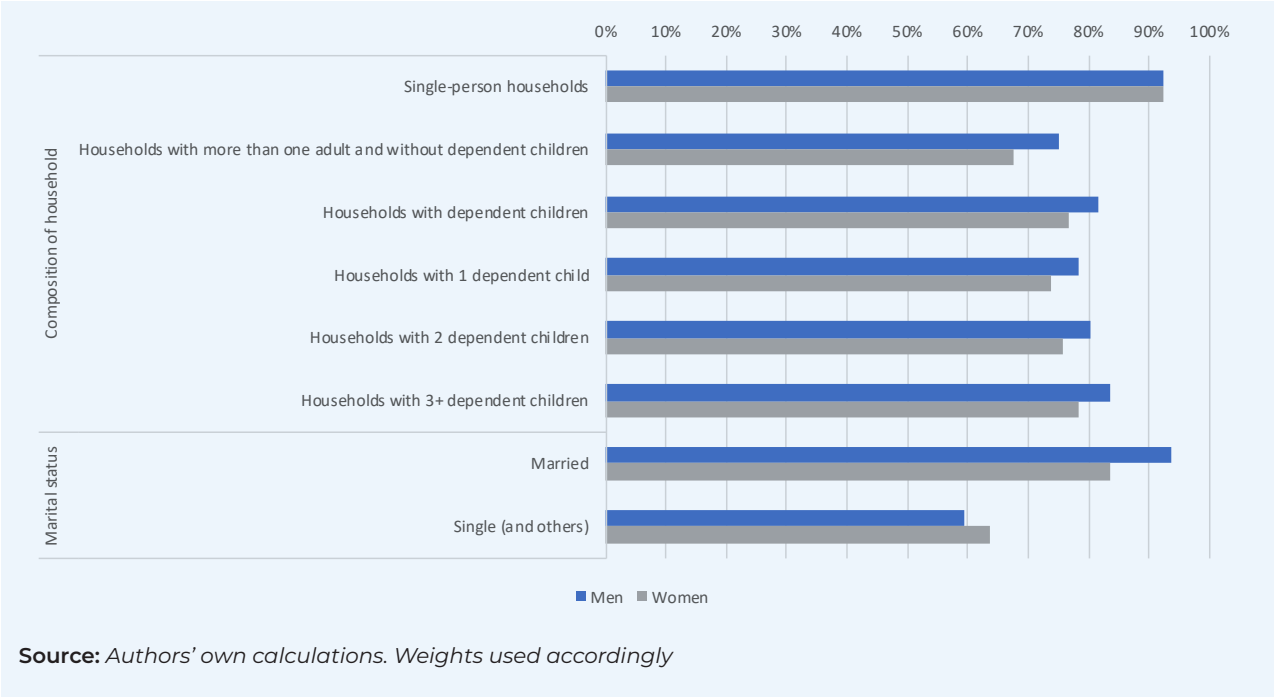
Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

3.6 Gender inequality related to household structure and marital status

Figure 9 presents the labour-market status of both women and men by household type. Across all household types, employment rates are lower among women than among men. Interestingly, the largest gap is observed for households with more than one adult and no children present, at 7.7 p.p. By marital status, the difference is stark: the gender employment gap among married individuals is negative, at 10.4 p.p., while the gap among single individuals is positive, at 4.4 p.p.

Figure 9

Employment rates of women and men, by household type and marital status



Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly*

These figures are broken down by age in **Table 7**. For single-person households, the gender employment gap is largest, at 7.4 p.p., in the age group 15–24 years. For households with dependent children, the gap is the widest for the age group 24–49 years, particularly for households with two dependent children, at 9.2 p.p. However, for the age group 24–49 years, the gap is even wider for households with more than one adult but without dependent children, at 12.7 p.p. By marital status, married women face a deeper employment gap compared to single women in all age groups. Interestingly, employment rates are higher among single women than among single men in the age groups 25–49 years and 50–64 years, with positive gaps of 9.2 p.p. and 11.1 p.p., respectively.

Table 7

Employment rates and gender employment gaps, by gender, household type, marital status and age group

	Aged 15–24 years			Aged 25–49 years			Aged 50–64 years		
	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)
Composition of household									
Single-person households	89.2	81.8	–7.4	93.7	93.7	0.0	93.7	94.0	0.3
Households with more than one adult and without dependent children	62.6	53.9	–8.7	87.0	74.3	–12.7	85.3	80.9	–4.4
Households with dependent children	63.8	63.3	–0.5	92.4	84.8	–7.6	92.7	89.9	–2.8
Households with one dependent child	65.3	63.5	–1.8	89.5	81.7	–7.8	91.0	89.8	–1.2
Households with two dependent children	61.3	64.6	3.3	91.8	82.6	–9.2	90.7	91.3	0.6
Households with three or more dependent children	64.3	62.3	–2.0	93.5	86.1	–7.4	94.4	89.1	–5.3
Marital status									
Married	90.4	78.4	–12.0	94.7	84.7	–10.0	93.2	90.6	–2.6
Single (and others)	56.0	46.8	–9.2	73.2	82.4	9.2	74.6	85.7	11.1
Total	64.1	62.3	–1.8	91.9	84.2	–7.7	91.6	88.3	–3.3

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

The gender employment gap is smallest for those with a primary-level education in all household types, except for households with more than one adult and without dependent children, where the smallest employment gap, at 2.1 p.p., is seen among those with a tertiary-level education (Table 8). The employment gap is widest, at 26.9 p.p., for households with three or more dependent children among those with a secondary-level educational. Overall, the secondary educational level group has the largest employment gap in the highest number of household types. By marital status, the difference between married and single individuals is most stark for the secondary educational level group, with married individuals facing an employment gap of 33.9 p.p. and single individuals facing an employment gap of 6.3 p.p.

Table 8

Employment rates and gender employment gaps, by gender, household type, marital status and educational level

	Primary or less			Secondary			Tertiary or more		
	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Gender employment gap (p.p.)
Composition of household									
Single-person households	95.1	93.5	–1.6	84.3	75.8	–8.5	91.5	93.5	2.0
Households with more than one adult and without dependent children	79.9	73.7	–6.2	61.1	35.8	–25.3	81.3	79.2	–2.1
Households with dependent children	83.6	80.9	–2.7	72.3	49.6	–22.7	91.2	76.7	–14.5
Households with one dependent child	81.6	79.0	–2.6	66.5	49.6	–16.9	87.9	77.0	–10.9
Households with two dependent children	82.1	80.2	–1.9	71.2	49.9	–21.3	97.1	82.4	–14.7
Households with three or more dependent children	84.9	81.7	–3.2	76.2	49.3	–26.9	89.4	67.8	–21.6
Marital status									
Married	94.6	86.2	–8.4	90.5	56.6	–33.9	94.4	83.3	–11.1
Single (and others)	63.2	69.2	6.0	47.4	41.1	–6.3	70.6	66.8	–3.8
Total	83.5	80.4	–3.1	70.8	48.0	–22.8	89.8	77.6	–12.2

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

3.7 Segregation by gender

Table 9 presents Duncan Segregation Index values. Overall, the occupational segregation value is 0.37, while the sectoral segregation value is 0.4, indicating modest to high levels of gender segregation in the country. These values suggest that more than a third of women and men employees would need to trade places across occupational categories for distribution to become identical, and two fifths would need to do this for distribution to become equal across sectors.

By educational level, the index values suggest that both occupational and sectoral segregation are highest among primary-educated individuals.

Table 9

Horizontal gender segregation index values, by occupation and sector

	All	Educational level		
		Primary or less	Secondary	Tertiary or above
Occupation	0.367	0.448	0.318	0.153
Sector	0.396	0.462	0.403	0.180

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

Table 10 dives into the composition of occupational group 1, which includes legislators and managerial workers and is considered the highest-skill occupational group as per the ISCO-08. **Table A.1** reveals that women are less frequently represented in this group. It can be observed that women account for a mere 4.8 per cent of all legislators and general managers. For the total managerial occupational group, the gender pay gap is positive, at 53.8 per cent, indicating that women receive higher wages than their male counterparts (**Table 4**). Moreover, a glass ceiling is evident for Mozambique, as the gender pay gap is statistically significant in the ninth decile at 13.9 per cent (**Figure 6**). Overall, the underrepresentation of women in the highest-skill occupational group and the clear presence of a glass ceiling at the 90 percentile (though not at the top centile) of jobs based on wages, alongside the positive gender pay gap among managers, indicate vertical segregation in Mozambique. Specifically, it suggests that Mozambican women encounter challenges in ascending the occupational hierarchy, and once they reach the top levels of the wage spectrum they are more likely to face compensation disparities compared with their male counterparts.

Table 10

Proportion of employment in the highest-skill occupational group, by gender

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Legislators and senior officials	95.2	4.8
Corporate managers	64.1	35.9
Production and specialized services managers	70.7	29.3
Hospitality, retail and other services managers	64.1	35.9

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

4 CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

4 CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of this study was to calculate and shed light on the gender pay gap and other labour-market inequalities in Mozambique. There is a 5 p.p. employment gap between women and men, with women facing lower employment rates, particularly those with a secondary-level education and in the age group 25–49 years. Among the employed population, women consistently work fewer hours than men. The raw gender pay gap in Mozambique is 14.9 per cent at the monthly level and 1.3 per cent at the hourly level (although insignificant), highlighting differences in working hours. The unadjusted hourly gender pay gap is seen across all educational levels, and is widest among primary-educated individuals and narrowest among secondary-educated individuals. In terms of marital status, the gender pay gap is notably positive for both married and single individuals. After accounting for individual and labour-market characteristics, the adjusted gender pay gap is 1.3 per cent, similar to the monthly raw gender pay gap, both being statistically insignificant.

Occupational and sectoral horizontal segregation levels are moderate to high, and about two fifths of women and men would need to switch occupational categories and sectors for distributions to become equal. Notably, occupational and sectoral segregation is most pronounced among primary-educated individuals. The gender pay gap varies across different wage deciles, revealing a pronounced glass ceiling effect in the highest decile.

Closing the gender pay gap and addressing other labour-market inequalities is important for improving women's socioeconomic position and achieving social justice for more than half of the world's population. However, as this study highlights, the gender pay gap and other labour-market inequalities are complex issues influenced by various factors, such as occupational segregation, differences in education and care responsibilities, discrimination and societal norms. Addressing these issues, therefore, requires a comprehensive approach that involves multiple stakeholders, including governments, employers, civil society organizations and individuals.

The Mozambique Government could strengthen existing legislation to ensure that women and men are entitled to equal remuneration for work of equal value. This includes effectively enforcing measures such as transparency in the recruitment process, for example by disallowing the collection of personal information (e.g. marital status) while hiring, prohibiting pay discrimination based on gender and promoting pay equity by making pay scales publicly available in the public and private sectors. Employers could also promote transparency in pay structures within organizations, ensuring that salary ranges, pay scales and benefits are clearly defined and communicated. Accessible and responsive complaint mechanisms could also be put in place, so that violations of the law or company policies and any discrimination can be reported.

Social protection policies, including measures such as minimum wage legislation and social security benefits, can be effective if they consider the specific needs and vulnerabilities faced by women in the labour market.

Substantial sectoral and occupational segregation, as observed in Mozambique,

can be challenging to tackle directly. An economy-wide approach needs to be taken to encourage the breaking down of gender segregation by promoting women's participation in non-traditional fields and sectors, where they are underrepresented. This can be done through targeted recruitment, training programmes, addressing discriminatory practices and making workplaces safer for women in traditionally "masculine" sectors. Governments and employers can also support the reintegration of women into the labour force after periods of absence, for example after maternity leave. Reintegration policies may include training programmes, upskilling opportunities and support for continuing education, enabling women to update their skills and stay competitive in the job market. This would reduce occupational segregation, wherein women are underrepresented in high-paying and competitive jobs, and minimize the negative impact of career breaks.

For an optimal result, these changes should go hand in hand with policies to recognize, redistribute and reduce women's unpaid care work responsibilities. Research has shown that unpaid care work affects women's labour-market inputs not only in terms of time spent in paid employment but also in terms of how women enter and remain in paid work. It affects their occupation selection, the quality of their jobs and their job-market attachment.[21] Policies that support work–life balance, such as flexible working arrangements, setting an upper limit to the number of working hours in the week, parental leave (where both parents are encouraged to take time off), and affordable and good-quality childcare, care for people with disabilities and elderly care, can encourage women to fully participate in the labour market. This would help to reduce the gender pay gap while also ensuring that household and caregiving responsibilities can be redistributed more equitably between men and women.

Ultimately, it is important to promote societal norms that encourage gender balance. Societal norms often assign specific gender roles and expectations, leading to the perpetuation of gender inequalities in the labour market. Thus, they affect how women and households make decisions regarding education, occupations, sectors and working hours. Societal norms can also contribute to discriminatory practices and unconscious biases that affect hiring, promotion and pay decisions. By shifting societal norms and challenging discriminatory beliefs, labour markets can become more inclusive, valuing skills and contributions over gender stereotypes.

In conclusion, achieving gender pay equality and addressing labour-market inequalities require a multifaceted approach involving various stakeholders across the economy. Better data on the pay distribution, collected at frequent intervals, would enable a better understanding of the gender pay gap in the country and inform work to advocate for policies to address it. Public policy efforts to tackle the "explained" part of the gender pay gap could prioritize enhancing educational opportunities for women and girls, promoting women's participation in high-paying and traditionally "masculine" occupations and sectors, supporting women's labour force reintegration after career breaks and providing a robust social protection system. Tackling the "unexplained" part of the gender pay gap requires regulating the private sector, to ensure that equal compensation and equal opportunities are provided to women, and introducing interventions to break down gendered cultural norms. Policies to recognize, reduce and redistribute women's and girls' unpaid care work responsibilities would complement all policy efforts to reduce the gender pay gap. In this way, Mozambique can unlock the full potential of its workforce, fostering socioeconomic advancement, innovation and sustainable economic growth.

ANNEX

Table A.1

Women's and men's shares in wage employment, by sector, occupation and formality status

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Sector		
Agriculture	11.7	8.4
Mining and quarrying	2.5	0.7
Manufacturing	9.2	3.4
Electricity	0.7	0.2
Water supply	0.6	0.2
Construction	10.2	0.8
Wholesale and retail trade	11.4	8.7
Transportation and storage	10.8	0.7
Accommodation and food service activities	1.7	3.5
Information and communication	0.8	1.1
Financial and insurance activities	0.6	2.1
Real estate activities	0.1	0.1
Professional, scientific and technical activities	0.7	0.8
Administrative and support service activities	6.9	1.6
Public administration and defence	10.7	10.4
Education	10.7	19.9
Human health and social work activities	1.9	6.4
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.3	0.5
Other service activities	2.0	4.4
Activities of households as employers	6.5	26.1
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	0.2	0.1
Occupation		
Armed forces	0.9	0.1
Managers	2.1	1.6
Professionals	13.8	22.2
Technicians and associate professionals	7.2	11.8
Clerical support workers	3.4	6.4
Services and sales workers	21.9	12.9
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fish workers	9.8	7.5
Craft and related trades workers	14.0	1.4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	12.8	1.4
Elementary occupations	14.1	34.7

Source: *Authors' own calculations.*

Table A.2

Adjusted gender pay gap (regression estimates on log hourly wages)

	Raw/ Unadjusted GPG	Adjusted GPG				
		Personal characteristics only	Personal + marriage	Personal + sector	Personal + occupation	Personal + sector + occupation
Dependent variable: log hourly wages						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Gender (1 = female)	–0.0125 (0.045)	–0.155*** (0.037)	–0.118*** (0.038)	–0.0109 (0.043)	–0.0960** (0.041)	–0.0131 (0.044)
Secondary		0.866*** (0.038)	0.867*** (0.037)	0.611*** (0.044)	0.535*** (0.041)	0.479*** (0.044)
Tertiary or above		1.971*** (0.069)	1.964*** (0.069)	1.530*** (0.075)	1.310*** (0.079)	1.148*** (0.090)
Age		0.0895*** (0.010)	0.0772*** (0.011)	0.0614*** (0.011)	0.0606*** (0.010)	0.0523*** (0.010)
Age squared		–0.000897*** (0.000)	–0.000757*** (0.000)	–0.000578*** (0.000)	–0.000576*** (0.000)	–0.000471*** (0.000)
Marital status (1 = married)			0.145*** (0.041)	0.107*** (0.040)	0.0945** (0.038)	0.0756** (0.038)
Mining and quarrying				0.576*** (0.162)		0.693*** (0.172)
Manufacturing				0.347*** (0.104)		0.431*** (0.111)
Electricity				1.680*** (0.239)		1.633*** (0.235)
Water supply				0.700*** (0.176)		0.722*** (0.160)
Construction				0.434*** (0.105)		0.612*** (0.119)

	Raw/ Unadjusted GPG	Adjusted GPG				
		Personal characteristics only	Personal + marriage	Personal + sector	Personal + occupation	Personal + sector + occupation
Wholesale and retail trade				0.181* (0.100)		0.385*** (0.112)
Transportation				0.446*** (0.111)		0.611*** (0.125)
Accommodation				0.199 (0.129)		0.422*** (0.146)
Information and communication				0.424** (0.215)		0.264 (0.223)
Financial and insurance activities				1.001*** (0.155)		0.912*** (0.157)
Real estate activities				1.186*** (0.343)		1.034*** (0.384)
Professional, scientific and technical activities				1.054*** (0.149)		0.829*** (0.167)
Administrative service				0.284*** (0.098)		0.587*** (0.111)
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security				0.592*** (0.111)		0.630*** (0.119)
Education				0.642*** (0.106)		0.329** (0.128)
Human health and social work activities				0.509*** (0.141)		0.352** (0.149)
Arts, entertainment and recreation				0.874*** (0.320)		0.688** (0.290)
Other service activities				0.472*** (0.124)		0.467*** (0.130)
Activities of households as employers				–0.239** (0.097)		0.096 (0.112)

	Raw/ Unadjusted GPG	Adjusted GPG				
		Personal characteristics only	Personal + marriage	Personal + sector	Personal + occupation	Personal + sector + occupation
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies				1.206***		1.168***
				(0.304)		(0.237)
Professionals					0.147	0.247
					(0.209)	(0.209)
Technicians and associate professionals					0.157	0.115
					(0.219)	(0.229)
Clerical support workers					–0.0626	–0.159
					(0.223)	(0.231)
Services and sales workers					–0.686***	–0.685***
					(0.227)	(0.239)
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fish workers					–0.662***	–0.288
					(0.249)	(0.258)
Craft and related trades workers					–0.344	–0.395*
					(0.231)	(0.237)
Plant and machine operators and assemblers					–0.376	–0.463*
					(0.232)	(0.239)
Elementary occupations					–0.816***	–0.701***
					(0.229)	(0.237)
Armed forces					–0.0983	–0.219
					(0.282)	(0.306)
Constant	• 3.431***	• 1.006***	• 1.138***	1.257***	2.097***	1.821***
	• (0.027)	• (0.187)	• (0.188)	(0.196)	(0.286)	(0.298)
Observations	• 5,220	• 5,220	• 5,220	5,220	5,220	5,220
R-squared	• 0	• 0.362	• 0.364	0.409	0.418	0.442

Source: *Authors' own calculations. Weights used accordingly.*

Note: **, ** and *** represent statistical significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels, respectively. Standard errors given in parentheses. Results robust to heteroskedasticity. GPG, gender pay gap.*

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