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GENDER GAPS IN CHILE AN OVERVIEW



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GENDER GAPS

IN CHILE
AN OVERVIEW



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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 PURPOSE AND SCOPE

Closing the existing gender gaps will be required to boost shared prosperity and maximize poverty reduction efforts in Chile over the coming years. Gender inequities are not only unfair from an ethical and social perspective, but also economically inefficient. Greater gender equality can raise overall productivity, improve development outcomes, especially of the next generation, and lead to more representative decision making.¹

According to a study by Teignier and Cuberes (2016), only the long term average per capita income loss stemming from excluding women from labor markets amounted to 20.24 percent in Chile in 2010. Access to economic opportunities by women is particularly important in the context of a rapidly unfolding demographic transition characterized by the end of the demographic dividend and population ageing in the country.

This review of gender issues aims to uncover the main of such gender gaps in the country, and to identify potential policy recommendations that could help closing them in the coming years. The note is an input to the development of a Gender Action Plan for the Andean Countries under the Gender Analysis Work Program (P164267). As such the note lays out a descriptive overview of gender gaps in endowments, economic

¹ World Bank 2012

opportunities and agency – the explanation of the observed situation is outside the scope of this note.

1.2 METHODOLOGY

This note applies the analytical framework devised by the WDR 2012 on Gender Equality and Development. Chapter 1 covers the legal and institutional framework and the issue of the agency of women – e.g. political repre-

sentation and violence against women, time use, and attitudes towards women; Chapter 2 provides an overview the situation with regards to the main endowments of health and education; and Chapter 3 deals with the existing gender gaps in economic opportunity – labor force participation and unemployment, the quality of employment, earnings, entrepreneurship and access to finance. The main sources of data used for the analysis are outlined below.

Sources of data for the analysis

- The World Development Indicators World Bank database has been used for the sections on health and education, and access to finance.
- The SEDLAC (Socio-Economic Database for Latin America and the Caribbean) database has been used for the education and labor markets section.
- The ECLAC database has been used for political representation and legislation.
- HHS data has been used in the sections on education and labor markets.
- Business survey data has been used for the entrepreneurship section.
- Vital statistics have been used for the health section.
- The Labor force survey (Encuesta Nacional de Empleo) and the Encuesta suplementaria de Ingresos (Supplementary Income Survey) have been used in the labor market section.
- A dedicated survey - National Time Use Survey (ENUT) – has been used in the section on time use.
- Survey of micro-entrepreneurship data have been used in the section on entrepreneurship.
- World Values Survey data (last waves) have been used in the section on gender attitudes.
- Estimations from the UN have been used in the section on contraception use.

The draft review is the result of the first stage in the assessment process. The note mainly reflects an initial descriptive exercise, and will be revised after the completion of stakeholder consultations in the countries; the results of such consultations will not only help identify additional literature and research on specific issues, but also help prioritize the key gender gaps to be addressed based on the way discussions on the issue are currently taking place in the country.

1.3 OVERVIEW FINDINGS

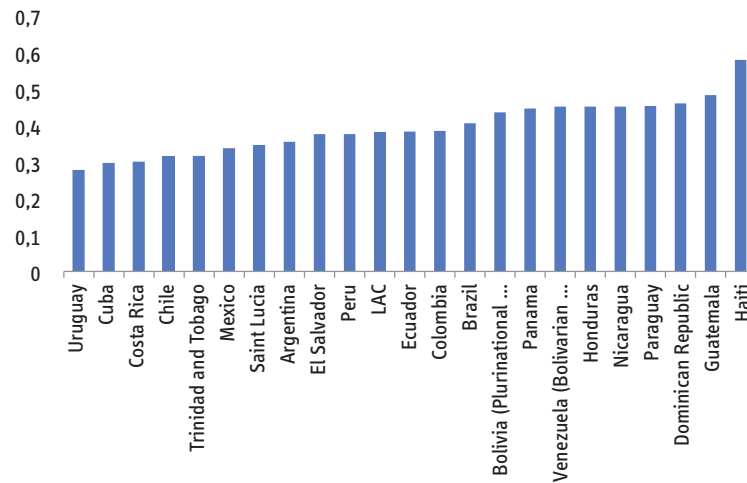
Chile has made significant progress over the last decades in the area of gender equality (see Figure 3). This is particularly the case with regards to legal and institutional developments; the progress in this area has been substantial especially under the mandates of Prime Minister Michelle Bachelet, who set the issue of gender equality at the top of the national policy agenda. Education and health inequali-

Figure 1: Key take-aways and priorities identified

KEY TAKE-AWAYS AND PRIORITIES IDENTIFIED

- Maternal mortality is still higher than that for same income level countries.
- Teenage fertility rates are above same income level countries.
- Female labor force participation is low compared to other countries in the region with much lower income levels, particularly among low income women. The low prevalence of informal work and the prevalence of traditional values and norms may explain this trend.
- Women are over-represented among the unemployed, informal workers, ni-nis and in traditionally female sectors and occupations.
- Gender wage gaps persist – and increase with level of education.
- The political representation of women is low for regional standards.
- Up-to-date official data on the incidence of gender-based violence does not exist.
- Traditional social norms regarding the social role of women are very persistent.

Figure 2: Gender Inequality Index value 2015



Source: UNDP 2016
** 1 imparity, 0 parity

ties have also been significantly narrowed over the last decades, while the attitudes towards women and social norms related to their roles vis-à-vis those of men seem to be slowly modernizing – based on differences between WWS responses in 2006 and 2011. As a result, Chile performs above average in the 2015 UNDP gender inequality index². The country is among those with lowest gender inequality in the region according to the index's ranking, only after Uruguay, Cuba and Costa Rica (see Figure 2). Chile also ranks among the forty best performing countries in this area worldwide - 38 out of the 188 countries included in the index.

2 The UN Gender inequality index focuses on maternal mortality ratios, adolescent birth rate, share of women in parliaments, population with at least some secondary education, and labor force participation rates.

Yet substantial gender gaps persist in the country (see Figures 1 and 3). Despite recent efforts, the legal framework for gender equality is still less advanced than that of many LAC countries with lower levels of income. In addition, improvements appear to be required particularly in the area of access to economic opportunities, including labor force participation, employment, earnings, type of jobs, entrepreneurship and access to finance. The political representation of women also continues to be low, and the lack of official detailed data on gender-based violence remains an issue in the country. Maternal mortality and teenage fertility are still higher than those of same income level countries.

Figure 3: Main developments and persistent gender gaps in Chile

CHILE		STATUS OF GENDER ISSUES IN LC6 COUNTRIES	
ENDOWMENTS	ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES	AGENCY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender gaps in life expectancy are small vis-a-vis LAC averages. • Maternal mortality rates are below LAC average • Nearly universal access to skilled birth assistance. • Gender differences in performance in mathematics, science and reading remain but have improved. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The gender gap in labor force participation has slightly decreased over the past decade. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chile is an international reference with regards to gender mainstreaming in institutions and policies. • Decentralized institutions for gender mainstreaming • According to the existing official data the feminicide rate in Chile is half of that registered on average in LAC. Since the country typified feminicide as a criminal offence (2010) the number and rate of feminicides appears to have decreased. 	
SUCCESSSES AND PROGRESS			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contraception use is low for regional standards. • Maternal mortality is still higher than for same income level countries. Maternal services often not adapted to the needs and culture of ethnic minorities. • Teenage fertility rates above same income level countries. • Educational gaps in enrolment and completion have reversed: Women are slightly in advantage in secondary and tertiary enrolment and in primary and lower secondary completion. • Reasons for dropping out of education are different for boys and girls: household responsibilities are more important for girls while working or looking for a job is more commonly reported by men. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Below 40 percent, female labor force participation is low compared to that of men, and also compared to other countries in the region with much lower income levels. • Labor force participation lags particularly among low income women. Hypotheses to explain the low levels of FLFP include: low prevalence of informal work, prevalence of traditional values and norms. • Women over-represented among the unemployed, informal and part-time workers, ni-nis and in traditionally female sectors and occupations. • Gender wage gaps persist - increase with level of education - research finds they could be explained with discrimination. • The share of firms with a female top manager or female participation in ownership is low compared to regional levels. • Also, women appear to have more restricted access to financial products including credit. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some legal differences apply for women and men (husband has the right to administer joint property; kinds of jobs women can do are limited etc.) • Political representation of women is low for regional standards. • More than 1 in 3 women in Chile have experienced violence by a partner (data 2012). • Women spend twice as much time in unpaid works as men and they spend less time in leisure activities. • Traditional social norms regarding the social role of women are very persistent: More than 1 in 4 Chileans believe men make better political leaders, and slightly less than half of Chileans agree that at times of jobs scarcity men should be given priority. 	
NEW AND PERSISTING CHALLENGES			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contraception use is low for regional standards. • Maternal mortality is still higher than for same income level countries. Maternal services often not adapted to the needs and culture of ethnic minorities. • Teenage fertility rates above same income level countries. • Educational gaps in enrolment and completion have reversed: Women are slightly in advantage in secondary and tertiary enrolment and in primary and lower secondary completion. • Reasons for dropping out of education are different for boys and girls: household responsibilities are more important for girls while working or looking for a job is more commonly reported by men. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Below 40 percent, female labor force participation is low compared to that of men, and also compared to other countries in the region with much lower income levels. • Labor force participation lags particularly among low income women. Hypotheses to explain the low levels of FLFP include: low prevalence of informal work, prevalence of traditional values and norms. • Women over-represented among the unemployed, informal and part-time workers, ni-nis and in traditionally female sectors and occupations. • Gender wage gaps persist - increase with level of education - research finds they could be explained with discrimination. • The share of firms with a female top manager or female participation in ownership is low compared to regional levels. • Also, women appear to have more restricted access to financial products including credit. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some legal differences apply for women and men (husband has the right to administer joint property; kinds of jobs women can do are limited etc.) • Political representation of women is low for regional standards. • More than 1 in 3 women in Chile have experienced violence by a partner (data 2012). • Women spend twice as much time in unpaid works as men and they spend less time in leisure activities. • Traditional social norms regarding the social role of women are very persistent: More than 1 in 4 Chileans believe men make better political leaders, and slightly less than half of Chileans agree that at times of jobs scarcity men should be given priority. 	

CHAPTER 1: LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND THE AGENCY OF WOMEN

1.1 LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Although the legal and institutional framework for gender equality is quite advanced in Chile, some legal differences appear to exist between women and men in the country.

Chile is part of all the most relevant international commitments and instruments in this area; in addition, it has passed national legislation for the protection and promotion of gender equality in most central spheres of life (see Annex 1). Yet based on the Women, Business and the Law 2016 report seven gender differences exist in the country's legislation. The key gap highlighted is the provision that the husband has the right to administer the joint property in the default property regime. The kinds of jobs that women can do are also restricted - women cannot legally undertake hazardous and arduous jobs, such as those that entail heavy lifting.³

Chile has been considered an international reference with regards to gender mainstreaming in institutions and

³ World Bank 2016

policies. The integration of gender aspects in the implementation of the Management Improvement Program⁴ was an important achievement in this area, leading all public services to identify relevant gender issues in their activities, design and implement plans to address them. The development of this model has been fueled by high political and social support for gender equality and the constitution of strategic alliances, among other factors.⁵

The Ministry of Women and Gender Equality is the chief institution for the promotion and protection of gender equality in the country. The Ministry was created in 2015, in accordance with the electoral commitments of Prime Minister Bachelet. The Ministry is in charge of the design, coordination and evaluation of all policies aimed at promoting gender equality and also aims to prevent and eliminate gender-based discrimination. The National Service for Women and Gender Equality within the Ministry, which used to be the main institution with regards to gender before its creation, is in charge of implementing policies, plans and programs aimed at advancing gender equality, while coordinating all public services and insti-

tutions involved.⁶ The Ministry is in charge of the implementation of the Plans on Equality of Opportunity between Women and Men 2011-2020 and 2018-2030 (see Annex 1).

Decentralized institutions for gender mainstreaming exist in Chile. The Service for Women is present in all 16 regions through regional offices. Moreover, local offices for women and gender equity have expanded and strengthened in recent years. The objective of the municipal offices is to mainstream gender in all local policies, promote women's empowerment strengthening their organizations and participation, and design local initiatives for gender equity that allow the development of the physical, economic and political autonomy of women.

1.2 MANIFESTATIONS OF THE LACK OF AGENCY

1.2.1 Political representation

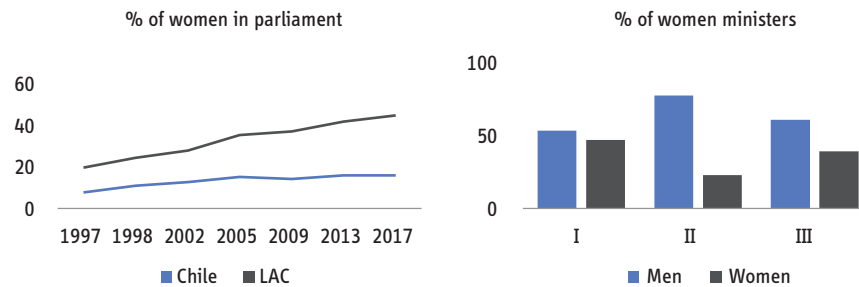
As highlighted above, Chile is one of the few countries in the world that until recently had a female Prime Minister (Michelle Bachelet). Michelle Bachelet governed between 2006 and 2010 and was again reelected in 2014 until March 11 2018. Her Governments marked an increase in the number of women elected and appointed at the highest levels.

4 In 1998 Chile started implementing the Management Improvement Program in the public sector. Under this program, the performance of public sector departments is measured against five criteria and rewarded according to each department's ability to meet such criteria. The criteria comprise targets in the areas of: (i) human resource management; (ii) client orientation; (iii) territory management; (iv) financial management; and (v) planning and management control.

5 World Bank 2007

6 <http://www.minmujeryeg.cl/sernameg/mision/>

Figure 3: National representation of women (%)



Source: ECLAC

**I:2005-2009, II:2009-2013, III:2013-2017

A minimum quota of 40 percent of women in candidate's lists for national elections was adopted in 2015. Quotas generally strengthen the position of women in political parties, increase the number of capable, educated women with the necessary professional experience in the field of politics and management of states and have a symbolic function in terms of women's political participation.⁷

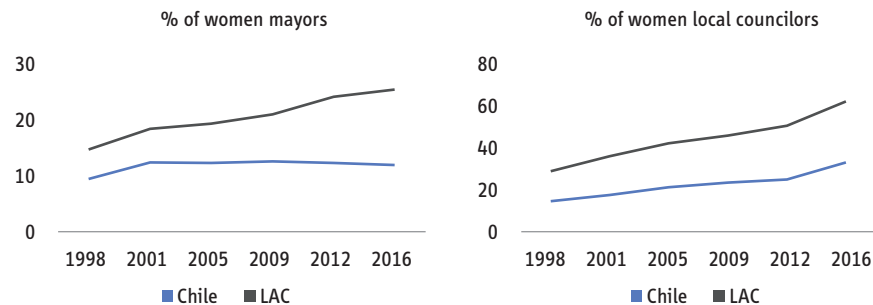
However, and despite these advancements, the share of women represented in Parliament in Chile remains low compared to the LAC average. As shown in Figure 3 (left-hand graph) below, the percentage of female legislators has been increasing gradually in LAC as a whole since the late 1990s. Yet in Chile, the increase has stalled around 15 percent women members of parliament. Hence, female representation in LAC parliaments on average was

about twice that registered in the country. This low level of effective representation may be related to the lack of zipper systems of alternate female-male candidates in lists.

The percentage of women appointed as ministers substantially decreased from 2005-2009 to 2009-2013, and then increased again in 2013-2017, coinciding with the re-election of Michelle Bachelet, to around 40 percent (see Figure 3). The difference in the representation of men and women among ministers was the smallest in mandate I, while the percentage of men was three times that of women in mandate II, when women only accounted for about 20 percent of the total ministerial positions. In 2013-2017 the share of women ministers grew again to around 39 percent, but still remains much below that of men (around 20 percentage point's lower share of women than men ministers).

⁷ Poskočilová 2015

Figure 4: Local representation of women (%)



Source: ECLAC

The local representation of women and their presence in top judiciary bodies in Chile is more or less at par with the LAC average. The percentage of women mayors has kept almost constant in Chile since 1998; this share has been above that observed in LAC on average until 2016, the first year where Chile has lagged behind (see Figure 4, left-hand side). In the case of women in local councilor positions, the share has been similar to that observed in the rest of the region for much of the period between 1998 and today, and only higher – at around 33 percent – since 2016 (see Figure 4, right-hand side). The share of women in top judiciary bodies in Chile has grown up to 2012 to then decrease to below LAC average levels.

1.2.2 Violence against women

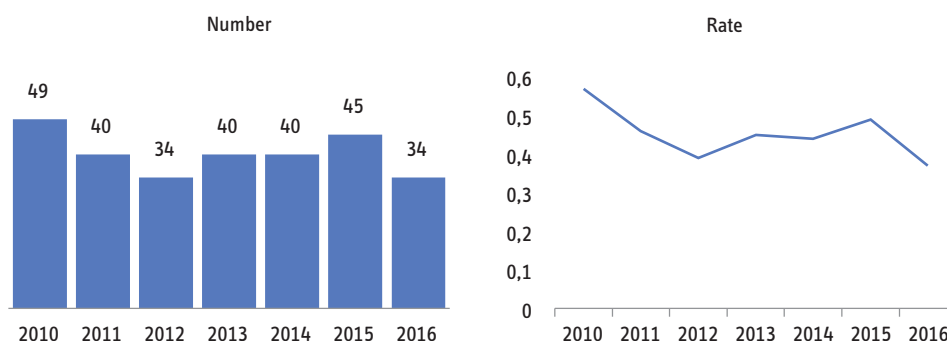
Femicide⁸ is a concerning phenomenon in all LAC countries.

An escalating number of violent female homicides committed by men in the last two decades have compelled Latin American countries to adopt specific measures to curtail this phenomenon, especially after the Convention of Belém do Pará, such as the inclusion of “femicide” as a specific aggravated crime in countries’ legislation. Despite the difficulties in measuring and comparing the incidence of these types of crimes across countries, related to the lack of capacity, under-reporting, etc., the region appears to have one of the highest rates of femicide in the world.

Femicide is a persistent phenomenon also in Chile, although the rate of cases is low for regional standards. Notwithstanding

⁸ Femicide is generally understood to involve the intentional murder of women because of their sex, and most usually by their current or former partners.

Figure 5: Number and rate (per each 100,000 women) of femicides 2010-2016



Source: Ministry of Women

the general lack of comparable and accurate information on the incidence of femicide, the phenomenon is being observed in most countries in the region including Chile. According to the existing official data the femicide rate in Chile, at around 0.4 in 2016, is half of that registered on average in LAC (0.8)⁹. The country typified femicide as a criminal offence in 2010. Since then the number and rate of femicides appears to have decreased (see Figure 5).

The lack of up-to-date readily available official data on violence against women – other than femicides – in Chile is noteworthy. The latest – and only – data available on this phenomenon from both the INE and Ministry websites is from 2012: In that year, 35.1 percent of women declared having experienced an episode of violence (in any form) by a part-

ner or a family member. The National Service for Women offers some additional data from 2010 and focusing on young age women and men: 25.1 percent of women in the age group 25-29, for instance, suffered physical violence by a partner in 2010, 12.2 percent experienced psychological violence and 1 percent sexual violence. Psychological violence appears to be more common among women with only basic levels of education and from the lowest income quintiles.¹⁰ It must be however noted that obtaining accurate and comparable data on the incidence of gender based violence remains a major challenge across countries; the figures usually collected through surveys or administrative records do not provide an exact picture of the situation due to for instance problems of under-reporting.

Other sources offer some generally patchy and out-of-date information. A

⁹ ECLAC - however, comparability of this data remains questionable given the potential differences in capacity and efforts to register and monitor these murders as femicides.

¹⁰ <http://estudios.sernam.cl/?m=s&rel=6>

PAHO report from 2013 provides data based on police records; according to it, the number of cases of violence by a partner reported to the police increased from 79,497 in 2004 to 97,524 in 2011. This increase may be a reflection of enhanced trust of women in institutions such as the police. However, the share of cases that ended in a condemnatory sentence was very low, especially when compared to other types of crimes – 8.8 percent of these kind of cases ended in condemnatory sentence compared to 13.7 percent of cases related to other crimes in 2011.¹¹ Media reports indicate that in 2016 the number of cases of intra-family violence taken to the police reached 93,545; 72,172 of them were reported by women. Only 10 percent of these cases ended in sentence. According to the National Service for Women and Gender Equality¹², it takes women victims on average 7 years to go to the police, largely due to fear of the consequences, the lack of immediate support, economic dependency, and, in many instances, the difficulty to identify maltreatment given the social normalization of such situations.¹³

1.2.3 Attitudes towards women

The World Values Survey 2014 responses on questions related to gender attitudes indicate the persistence of traditional social norms with regards to the social role of women vis-à-vis men (see Figure 6). In 2011, only 57.2 percent of respondents disagreed with the statement that at times of jobs scarcity men should be given priority, 27 percent considered that men make better political leaders than women, and 43.3 percent find abortion never justifiable.

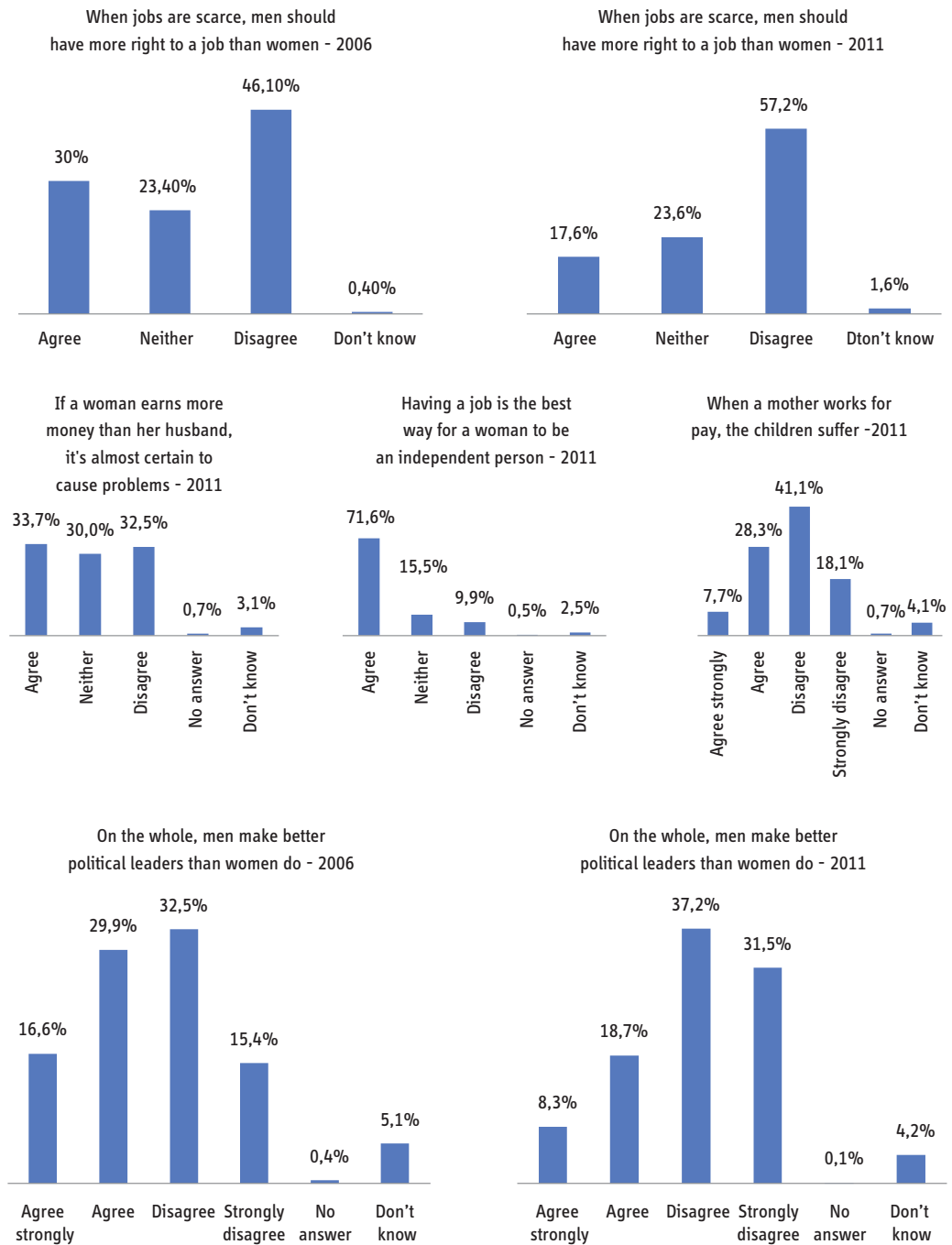
However, there has been some positive progress. In the previous (2006) round of the survey, for instance, the share of respondents disagreeing with the statement that men should be given priority over women at times of job scarcity was even lower: 46.1 percent. Similarly, 46.5 of respondents agreed with the statement that men make better political leaders than women, and 57.7 percent found abortion never justifiable. In addition, the share of participants that found divorce never justifiable has declined from around 20 to 9 percent between the two survey waves.

11 PAHO 2013

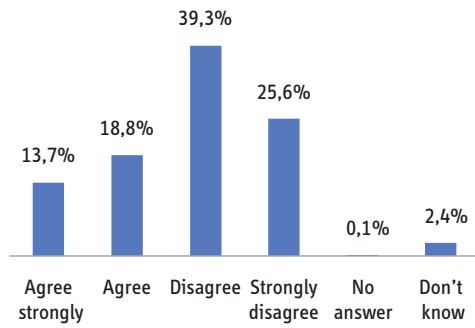
12 See section on institutions.

13 <http://www.eldinamo.cl/nacional/2017/07/04/las-cifras-negras-de-la-violencia-de-genero-en-chile/>

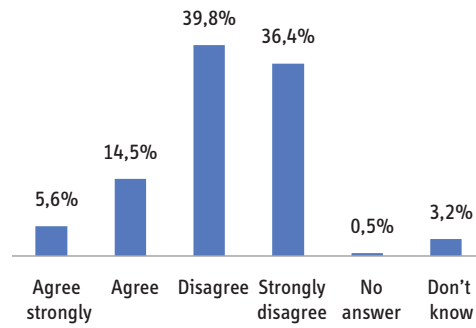
Figure 6: World Values Survey responses on gender attitudes 2014 – sixth and fifth waves (2011 and 2006)



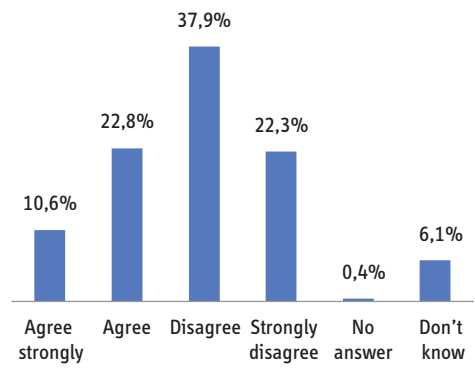
A university education is more important for a boy than for a girl - 2006



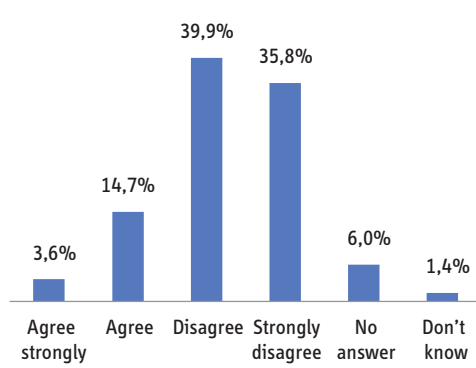
A university education is more important for a boy than for a girl - 2011



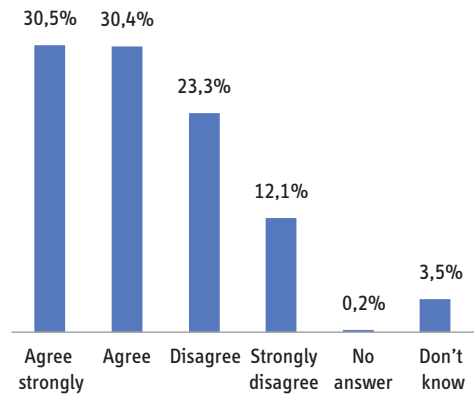
On the whole, men make better business executives than women do - 2006



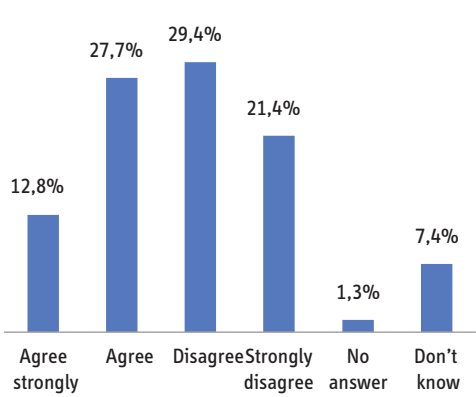
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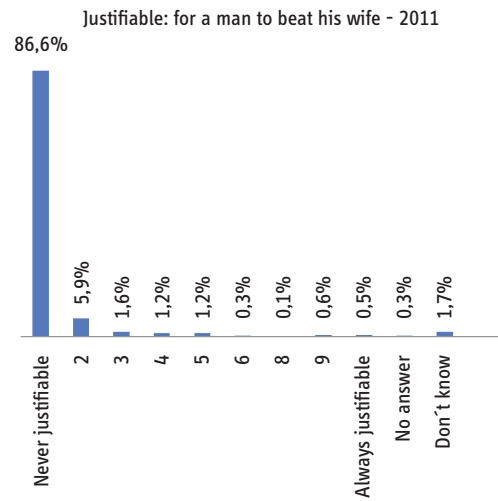
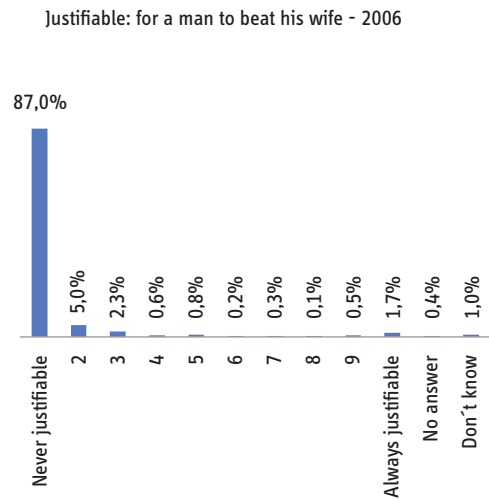
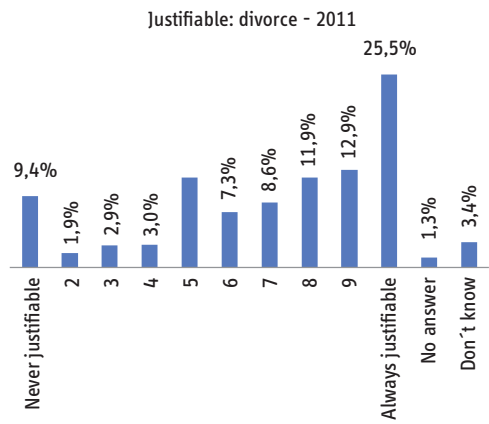
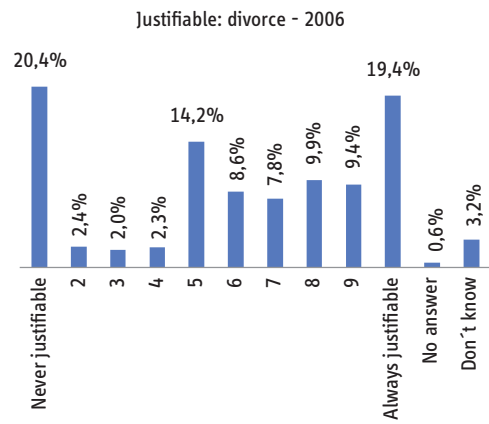
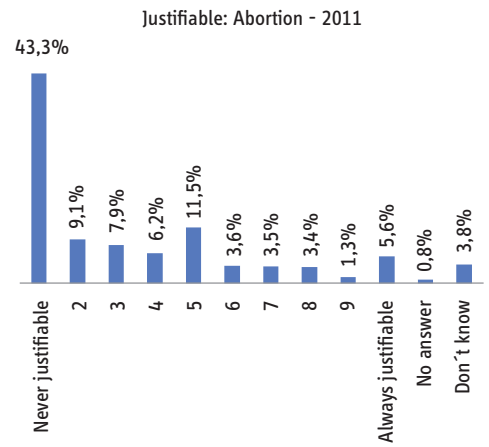
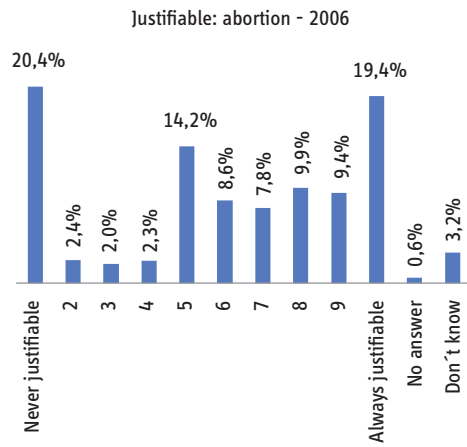


Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay - 2006



Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay - 2011





Source: WVS

CHAPTER 2: ENDOWMENTS

2.1 HEALTH

2.1.1 Life expectancy, mortality and morbidity

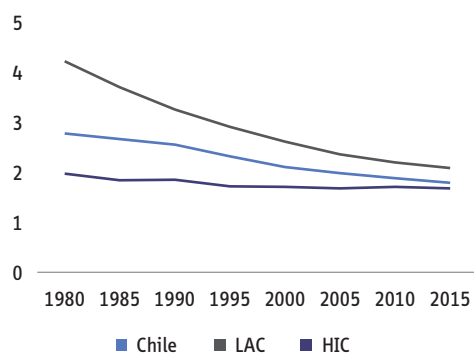
Life expectancy is higher for women than men in Chile, and has been increasing steadily since 1980 for both groups; mortality rates are correspondingly higher among men than women. Women live around 5 years more than men on average in Chile, compared to 7 years in LAC. Both female and male life expectancies in Chile (around 82 and 77 years respectively in 2015) are higher than the LAC average (77 and 72). Both the female and male mortality rates in Chile are much lower than the LAC average. Mortality rates for both men and women have been decreasing over the last two decades. The main cause of death for both women and men are circulatory illnesses followed by cancer; external causes are much more frequent among men than women (in 2015, 10.8 percent of men compared to 4 percent of women died due to an external cause).¹⁴

Chile shows high rates of mental problems and obesity, especially among women. Chile is the number one country in LAC in incidence of mental health problems according to some sources.¹⁵ However, this could likely be an effect of the efforts to

¹⁴ INE – Ministry of Women

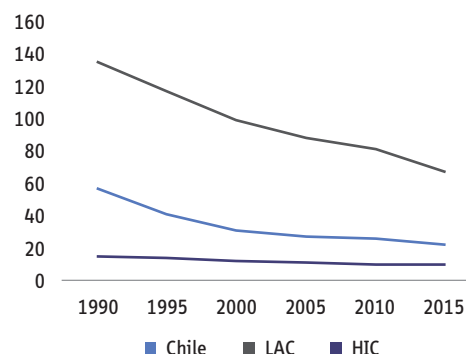
¹⁵ <http://www.hispantv.com/noticias/chile/255388/chile-mayor-incidencia-enfermedades-mentales-latinoamerica>

Figure 7: Fertility rate, total (births per woman)



Source: WDI

Figure 8: Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 women), modeled estimate



Source: WDI

measure the incidence of these types of conditions in Chile, as in many other countries in the region monitoring is probably scarcer. The prevalence of mental health problems such as depression is much higher among women than men (26.3 percent compared to 9.1 percent in 2016 in the case of depression). In addition, a recent PAHO/ FAO report¹⁶ indicates that the level of obesity among Chilean women reaches 32.8 percent, above all the rest of LAC countries.

2.1.2 Fertility trends

The fertility rate in Chile, which is lower than that registered on average for the LAC region, has decreased from 2.8 births per woman in 1980 to 1.8 in 2015 (see Figure 7). Fertility rates in Chile are therefore below replacement levels, and close to the average

16 PAHO/FAO 2017

among high income countries (HIC). This evolution explains the ongoing changes in the age structure of the population, marked by ageing, and is related to the shift in life-styles and values in the Chilean society leading to the postponement in the average age of marriage and first birth. Chile is one of the countries in LAC where the demographic transition is most advanced.

2.1.3 Maternal mortality and access to health services

Maternal and infant mortality rates in Chile are low for regional standards, although they remain above the average for same income level countries. Maternal mortality rates in Chile amounted to 22 deaths per 1,000 births in 2015 compared to 67 in LAC on average, and only 10 among HICs (see Figure 8).

Infant mortality rates in Chile (6.7 and 7.9 per 1,000 live births for girls and boys respectively) are almost half of those observed for the region (13.7 and 16.8 respectively). Maternal and infant mortality rates have decreased since the 1990s.

The reduction in maternal and infant mortality is likely to be associated with the increase in access to maternal health services. The share of births attended by skilled staff in Chile is for instance close to 100 percent.¹⁷ However, a recent study suggests that while the infrastructure is present to provide ethnically competent services¹⁸ to ethnic mi-

nority women – specifically the Aymara women in Putre – there are still gaps in its provision and execution, especially with regards to birth. Among the study participants there was a 64 percent preference for home births to hospital births, although many also mentioned that the hospital offered safer and more hygienic care in case of complications. Women reported the need for more midwifery attention in hospitals and more respect and patience in the care they receive from doctors.¹⁹ Midwives appear to play a key role in the delivery of maternal services in Chile.²⁰

The role of midwives for maternal care

Midwives have had a major presence in the Chilean Health System since 1834, just a few years after the country's independence from Spain. Since then, the professionalization and expertise achieved by professional midwives has resulted in considerable improvement in women's sexual and reproductive health. Today midwives take care of virtually all deliveries in the public system, in both rural and urban women's health care units (99.8%). Midwives not only participate in the care of the women and newborns, but also in the design of public policies, in ministries, the Congress, governmental and non-governmental institutions, public and private agencies, and the International Confederation of Midwives.²¹

17 WDI

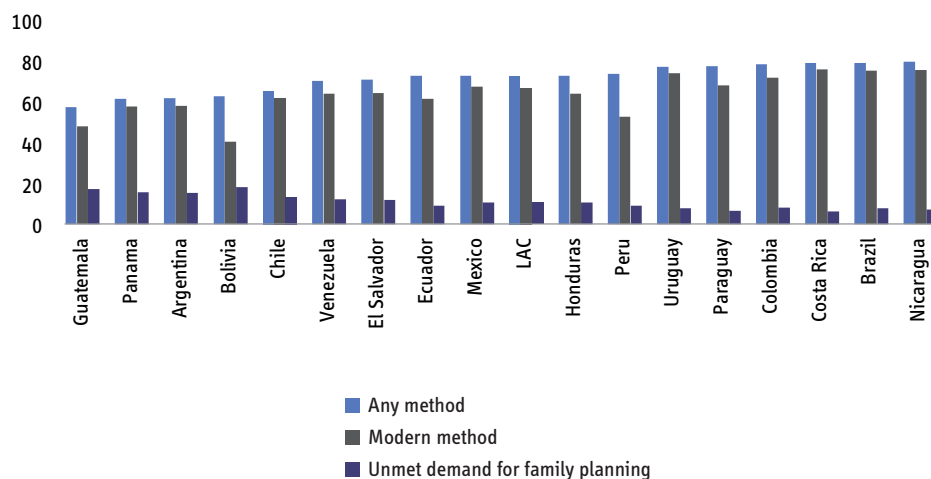
18 Indigenous communities have their own practices that complicate the provision of sexual and reproductive health by requiring health care providers to be aware of two different worldviews and how they may conflict, as well as what is necessary to provide respectful care.

19 Schnyer 2014

20 Lilo et al. 2016

21 Lilo et al. 2016

Figure 9: Contraceptive use prevalence estimations 2015



Source: UN 2015²²

2.1.4 Contraceptive use and teenage pregnancy

The use of contraception appears to be low for regional standards, especially when considering Chile’s level of income (see Figure 9). No up-to-date official data are available on the use of contraceptives in Chile. Chile’s policies on sexual and reproductive rights have traditionally been quite restrictive.

For instance, abortion has been totally criminalized until only recently (2017), when it was allowed in pregnancies of less than 12 weeks when there is risk to the mother, the fetus presents any malformations, or the pregnancy is the result of a rape. In 2008 the Constitutional Court prohibited the use of emergency contraception even in cases of sexual violence. In 2010 a new law on “Information, Guidance and Assistance on Fertility Regulation” was passed, allowing its use; however, the contradiction between the legal provision and the Court’s sentence has led to significant barriers to its use.²³ The 2012 Survey on Youth revealed that around 87 percent of

²² This report presents a concise, descriptive analysis of levels and trends in key family planning indicators from *Model-based Estimates and Projections of Family Planning Indicators 2015* and the data set *World Contraceptive Use 2015*, representing 195 countries or areas. The Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat provides regular updates of the estimates and projections of family planning indicators as part of its contribution to global monitoring of progress on internationally-agreed targets to achieve universal access to sexual and reproductive health.

²³ https://www.reproductiverights.org/sites/crr.civicactions.net/files/documents/Submission_Brief_Chile_CESCR_55th_Session.pdf

young people used contraception, which represented an increase of 18 percent since 2009.²⁴

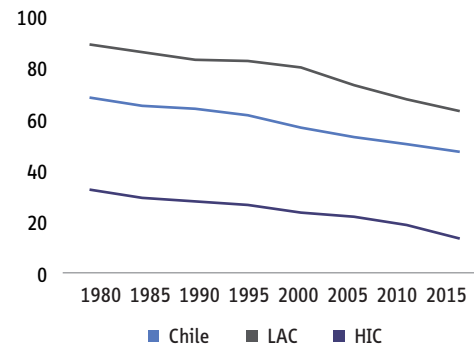
The adolescent fertility rate has decreased significantly since the 1980s - remaining significantly below the average for LAC (see Figure 10). Compared to other countries in the region, where teenage pregnancy rates are much higher and concerning, adolescent fertility rates are relatively lower in Chile (47 births per 1,000 women ages 15-19 compared to around 64 in LAC on average in 2015). At the same time, the rate is still significantly above the one on average for same income level countries (13.4 births per 1,000 women ages 15-19 in 2015). The share of births of teenage mothers in 2015 was twice that registered among teenage fathers: 10.7 and 4.5 percent respectively. Most teenage births correspond to parents between 15 and 18 years old.²⁵

The effects of teenage pregnancy are multiple in Chile. A recent study found that adolescent motherhood has negative effects on educational outcomes (high school completion, enrollment in technical institutes and universities, and years of education) and on labor outcomes of non-poor women. Childbearing in early adolescence is associated with poorer outcomes in education and labor markets in Chile; however, the adverse effects of adoles-

24 <http://www.emol.com/noticias/nacional/2013/04/08/592409/estudio-revela-que-el-uso-de-anti-conceptivos-en-jovenes-aumento-a-875-en-2012.html>

25 INE 2017c

Figure 10: Adolescent fertility rate (births per each 1,000 women ages 15-19)



Source: WDI

cent motherhood in these areas have diminished over the period.²⁶

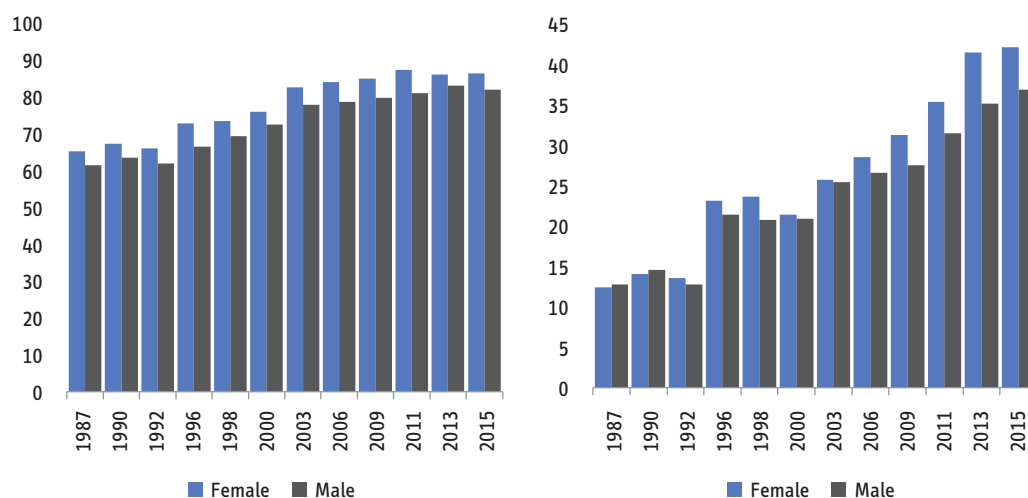
2.2 EDUCATION

2.2.1 Gender gaps in enrolment

There are no gender gaps with regards to access to primary education in Chile, while gender gaps to the advantage of girls can be observed at the secondary and tertiary levels. Over 99 percent of both girls and boys were enrolled in primary education in 2015. However, net enrolment rates are higher at the secondary level among women than men (See Figure 11, left-hand graph). With regards to the tertiary level a growing and large gap can also

26 Berthelon et al. 2016

Figure 11: Secondary and tertiary education enrolment rates, net



Source: SEDLAC

be observed to the advantage of women (See Figure 11, right-hand graph).

2.2.2 Attainment and performance

Completion rates at the primary and lower secondary levels are slightly higher among women than men. In 2015 96.1 of girls completed primary education compared to only 94.3 percent of boys.²⁷ At the lower secondary level 94.3 percent of female students completed their education compared to only 92.9 percent of males.²⁸ The total average years of education of women 18-30 amounts to 12.74 compared to 12.47 among men. The years of education

attained tend to be higher among urban male and female students than in rural areas²⁹, and also among non-ethnic minority populations.³⁰

Gender differences in performance exist, although they have decreased in mathematics and reading. According to 2015 PISA results, gender gaps in performance in mathematics, science and reading remain; however, there has been a significant improvement in mathematics results among girls and in reading results among boys between 2009 and 2015, leading to smaller gender gaps in both areas.³¹

27 SEDLAC

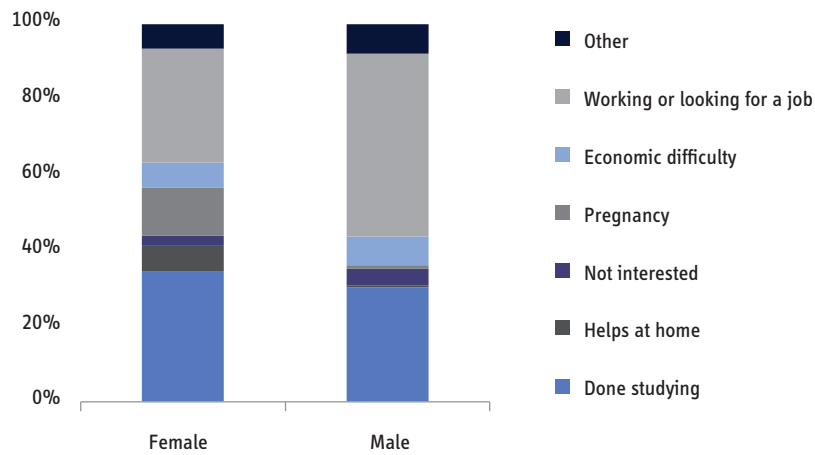
28 WDI

29 SEDLAC

30 HHS

31 OECD 2015

Figure 12: Reasons not to be enrolled in education (basic and higher) 2016



Source: HHS

2.2.3 Factors that explain differences in completion

The reasons for both boys and girls not to be in school are different. The main reasons not to be enrolled in education for boys in Chile in 2016 – other than having finished studies – were work and economic problems; for girls,

economic problems and work were also important, but still a large 7 and 13 percent stated that the main reason for their dropout was helping at home and pregnancy, respectively. Around 45 percent more men than women cited working or being looking for a job as a reason for dropping out of education (See Figure 12).

CHAPTER 3: ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES

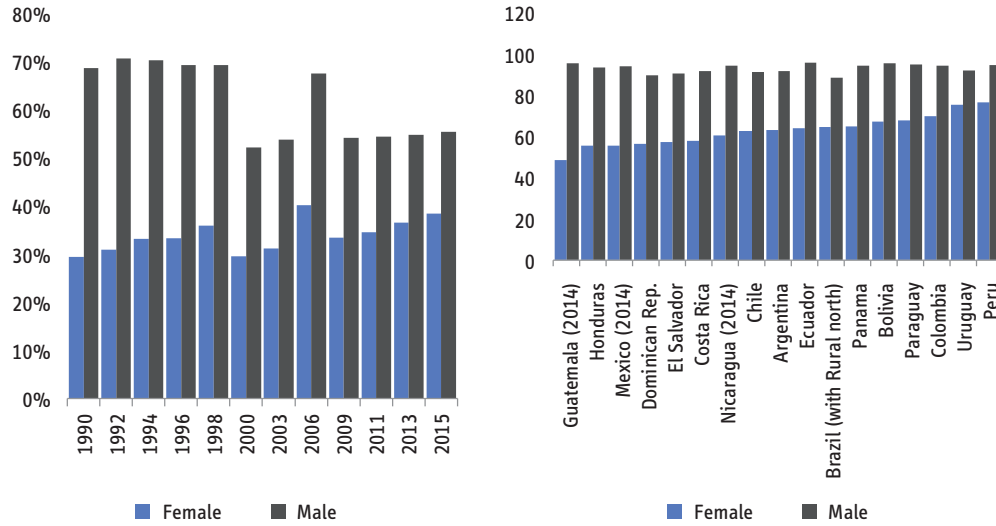
3.1 LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

The gender gap in labor force participation remains comparatively high. The gap in labor force participation between men and women in Chile has slightly decreased over the last decade. Female labor force participation was slightly below 40 percent compared to male labor force participation rates of over 55 percent in 2015 (See Figure 13, left-hand graph). However, both these rates are low for regional standards, especially when considering Chile's level of income (see Figure 13, right-hand graph).

Different factors appear to be associated with female labor force participation in Chile. Family structure and caring for children seems to be a key factor related to the traditional division of labor in the household. The difference in participation in the labor market between men and women is largest among those married, and it also tends to be higher when there are no children (see Figure 14). With regards to age groups, the gender gap is lower among the 15-24 year olds, although the LFP among men is also much lower in that group. Gender gaps in labor force participation are larger among women living in female headed households as compared to those living in households headed by men; the opposite can be observed for males.³²

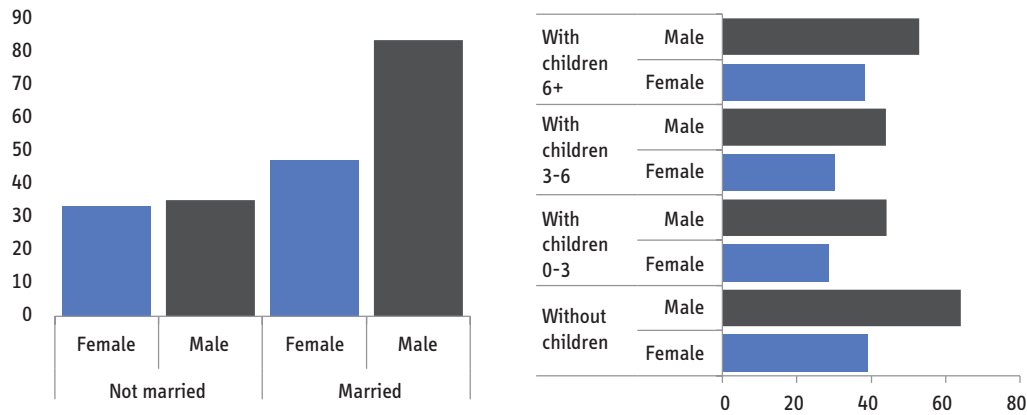
³² HHS

Figure 13: Labor force participation in Chile (2015), %



Source: HHS

Figure 14: Labor force participation by civil status and children



Source: HHS

Labor force participation lags particularly behind among low income women.

The labor force participation rate of 25-65 years old women in 2015 was 55.1 percent among the non-poor compared to 34.9 percent among the poor.³³ Previous studies also indicated that labor market participation tended to be lower among lower-income women, and that the difference by income level in female wage employment was comparatively very high in Chile. These differences are likely to be a reflection of women's different levels of human capital and labor market opportunities.³⁴

Different hypothesis exist to explain the low level of female labor force participation in Chile as compared to other countries.

One is related to the lower prevalence of informal work in the country, which seems to generally attract more women given more flexible schedules and location; another has to do with the prevalence of traditional values and norms potentially outweighing the benefits of education in this area; a third hypothesis is associated with the large coverage of poverty alleviation programs in Chile.³⁵

In order to prevent the economic loss entailed by persisting low levels of female labor force participation policies going beyond employment incentives will be required. The low level of female labor force participation in Chile is having a negative economic

impact, both by reducing real output and productivity; the inclusion of women in the labor market is particularly relevant in the current stage of the demographic transition, and as the ratio of dependents to working age population increases. Policies that promote flexible working arrangements, improving the availability of quality childcare close to the employee's worksite, or encouraging the uptake of paternity leave, will be necessary to remove barriers to women's participation.³⁶

It must also be noted that Chile has one of the most generous maternity policies in the region.

In 2011, maternity leave was extended from three to six months. Most women feared that this would lead to gender discrimination in hiring, but there is no evidence of such negative impact to date. A 2013 study showed that among women who became pregnant in 2011 around 70 percent subsequently returned to work.³⁷ Similarly, and according to Chilean law, companies with 20 or more women workers of any age and marital status must provide nearby spaces separate from the workplace in which they can feed children under the age of 2 and leave them in care while on the job.

3.2 UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment rates have been substantially higher among women than men since the 1990s. Women's unemployment

33 World Bank 2017

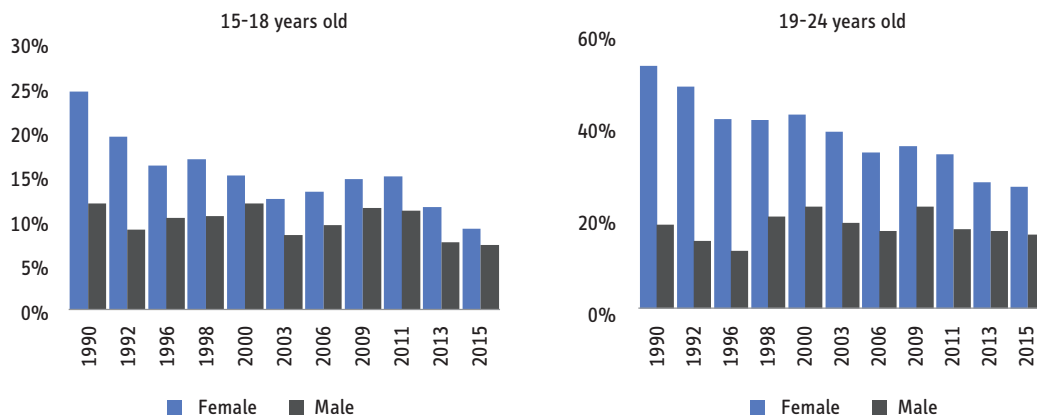
34 World Bank 2007

35 World Bank 2007

36 World Bank 2017

37 IDB 2013

Figure 15: Share of women and men who are neither in work nor studying (ni-nis)



Source: HHS

reached 7.5 percent of the total female labor force in 2017 compared to 6.4 percent among men. The gap between men and women is smaller than the average gap in LAC but larger than the one observed in HICs. The gender gap in unemployment rates is larger among youth: In 2015, 21.6 percent of young women (15-24 years old) were unemployed compared to only 18.2 percent of young men.

Women are also disproportionately represented among the *ni-nis*. Although the share of young people who are neither in work nor studying has declined substantially since the 1990s, and despite the fact that gender differences seem to have diminished over time, the gap between men and women persists, especially at older ages. Indeed, 26.5 percent of women 19-24 years old were in this situation

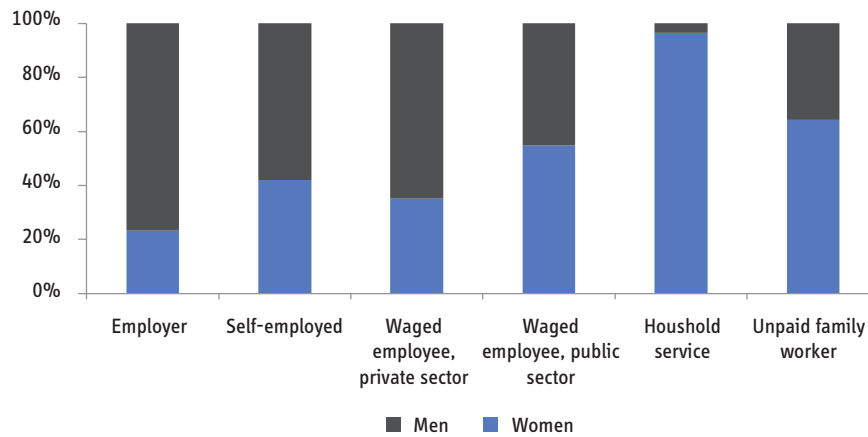
in 2015 compared to only 16.2 percent among men in the same age group (see Figure 15).

3.3 QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT

Women and men tend to concentrate in different types of jobs. As shown in Figure 16, Chilean women are overrepresented among household service and unpaid family workers. While 64.8 percent of men are waged employees in the private sector, and 5.3 percent are employers, the share among women decreases to 50.6 and 2.3 percent respectively; on the other hand, 1.9 percent of women are unpaid family workers and 8.9 percent are in household services compared to 0.7 and 0.2 percent among men, respectively.³⁸

38 INE 2017d

Figure 16: Types of employment, share of men and women in total, 2016



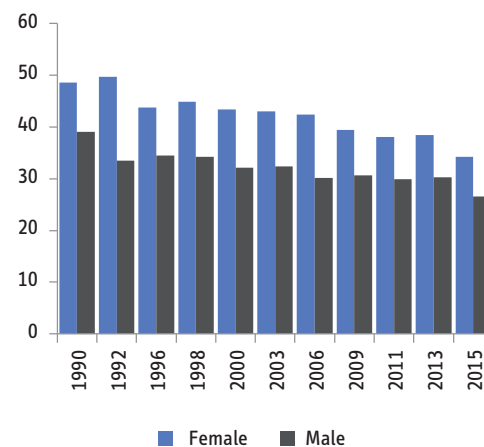
Source: Calculations based on data of the Nueva Encuesta Nacional de Empleo (new national employment survey) 2015

Women are also more frequently found in informal³⁹ jobs than men, and appear to work fewer hours. Although the share of workers in informal jobs has been decreasing since the 1990s, the gender gap is persistent. In 2015, 34.2 of women compared to 26.6 percent of men were engaged in such type of jobs (See Figure 17). Gender differences also exist with re-

39 It basically includes all jobs in unregistered and/or small-scale private unincorporated enterprises that produce goods or services meant for sale or barter. Self-employed street vendors, taxi drivers and home-base workers, regardless of size, are all considered enterprises. However, agricultural and related activities, households producing goods exclusively for their own use (e.g. subsistence farming, domestic housework, care work, and employment of paid domestic workers), and volunteer services rendered to the community are excluded in the data used for the analysis.

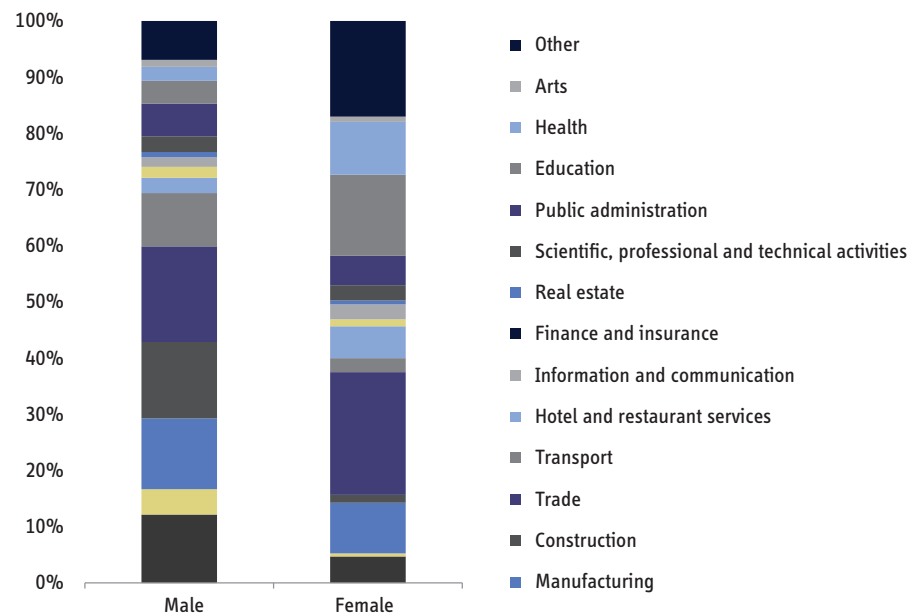
40 SEDLAC productive definition: An individual is considered an informal worker if (s)he belongs to any of the following categories: (i) unskilled self-employed, (ii) salaried worker in a small private firm, (iii) zero-income worker.

Figure 17: Informality⁴⁰ (share of workers in informal jobs)



Source: SEDLAC

Figure 18: Share of women and men by activity/occupation 2015



Source: Calculations based on data of the Nueva Encuesta Nacional de Empleo (new national employment survey) 2015

gards to the amount of working hours. In 2015, women worked an average of 40 hours compared to 44.3 among men.

Women tend to concentrate in certain occupations and sectors. As represented in Figure 18 below, a larger share of women are engaged in trade, education and health activities, hotel and restaurant services and household work (majority of the “other” category), whereas men are more present in activities and occupations related to agriculture, mining, transport, construction and manufacturing. Women also tend to be over-represented among unpaid family workers and under-rep-

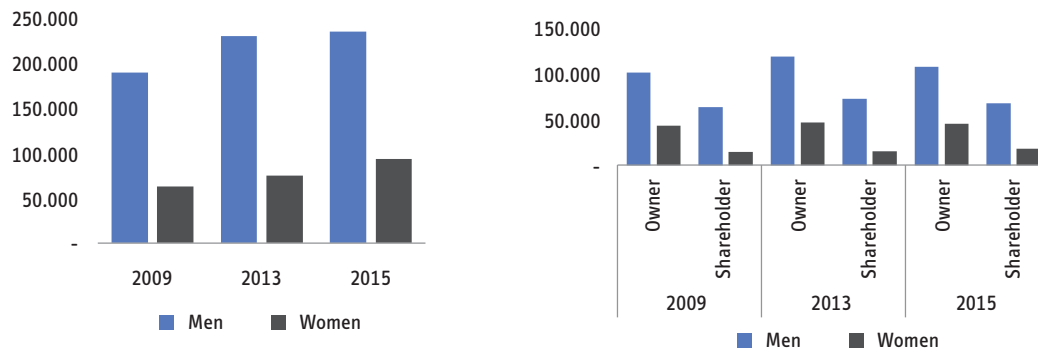
resented in the category of employers in occupations such as trade. Gender occupational segregation can have multiple negative effects including contributing to the lack of mobility in labor markets, limited female labor force participation, affecting the educational decisions of parents, or perpetuating traditional gender roles.⁴¹

Moreover, there are differences between the working conditions of men and women in the same occupations. More women than men are self-employed in the manufacturing sector, and they tend to work in smaller size

More women than men are self-employed in the manufacturing sector, and they tend to work in smaller size

⁴¹ World Bank 2007

Figure 19: Number of female/male managers



Source: INE – Business Survey⁴⁴

companies than men. Women also are more frequently found than men working under 30 hours per week –part-time jobs. In the categories of education and trade men are disproportionately represented among those who have not the minimum working conditions, whereas this is the case for women in manufacturing, hotel and restaurant services and household work.⁴²

3.4 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND ACCESS TO FINANCE

The management and ownership of companies is mostly in the hands of men. As shown in Figure 19 (left-hand graph), the number of companies led by female managers is much

lower than that of firms headed by a man. The same trend can be observed with regards to ownership. Companies with male owners and shareholders clearly outnumber those with female participation in ownership (see Figure 19, right-hand graph). Around 45 percent of the companies managed by women were in trade compared to 30 percent among those managed by men. Male managers are more present than female ones in agricultural and construction businesses. Stereotypical perceptions of women as managers exist both among men and women in Chile.⁴³

There are many more men entrepreneurs than women in Chile. In 2015, only 38.1 percent of the total number of registered entrepreneurs was female. In addition, most female

⁴² INE 2016a

⁴³ Javalgi, R.G. et al. 2011

⁴⁴ Biannual survey exploring the characteristics of businesses in Chile

entrepreneurs are earning smaller amounts per month than male entrepreneurs (64.2 percent of the entrepreneurial projects in the lowest earnings category - up to \$225.000 per month - belonged to women). For both groups the main reason to start their own business was necessity and the second the identification of an opportunity. Women's projects tend to concentrate in social areas, trade, manufacturing and services; whereas men's businesses concentrate in real estate, construction, transport and primary sector activities. A majority of women work from home, while men prefer to work in other premises. Women's businesses also tend to be more informal, and to generate less employment.⁴⁵

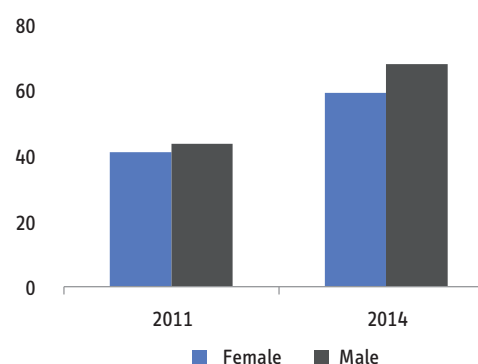
Different factors, including access to financial products, could account for this trend. A recent study in Chile highlights the influence of informal factors on male and female entrepreneur as perceptions of entrepreneurial capabilities and networking. Additionally, being a student was found to have a negative effect on both genders, while family role has a negative effect on the probability for women to undertake.⁴⁶ Access to finance may be another determinant aspect. A majority of women's entrepreneurs that used a loan to start their businesses in 2015 turned to family or friends for it (50.4 percent); only 19 percent had a loan from a financial institution compared to 44.6 percent of men.⁴⁷

45 INE 2016b

46 Fernández-Robin 2017

47 INE 2016b

Figure 20: Female/male with an account at a financial institution



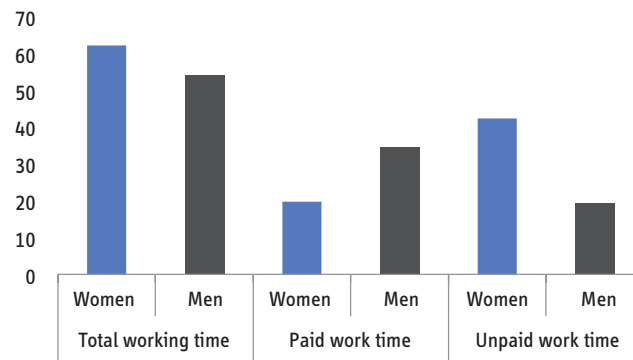
Source: WDI

The share of both men and women with accounts at a financial institution remains much lower than the LAC average (See Figure 20). As an indication of the more limited access of women to financial products in Chile, and although the percentage of women with an account in a financial institution has increased between 2011 and 2014, the gender gap in this regard has widened and is larger than the average gap in LAC.

3.5 TIME USE

A majority of unpaid work in Chile is carried out by women. The number of hours of unpaid working time per week among women is over twice that of men (see Figure 21). This gap exists across all age groups, although the difference is largest among those between 25-

Figure 21: Unpaid working time 2015 per week (population 12+ years old)



Source: Time use survey 2015

45 years old. As a result, the total time burden is about 8 hours and 22 minutes higher for women than men per week. In addition, women tend to report fewer hours of time dedicated to leisure activities, and to be more dissatisfied with the quality of such time than men.⁴⁸

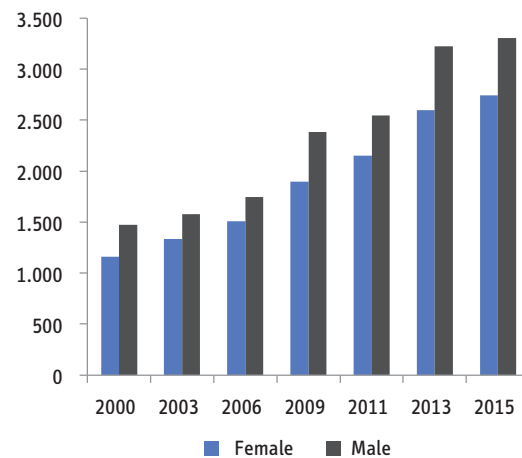
3.6 EARNINGS

The large gender gap in earnings (hourly wages) has been increasing over time.

In 2015 women made around 17 percent less than men in hourly wages, compared to 13.6 percentage points less in 2006 (See Figure 22). In contrast, in most OECD countries the gender gaps in wages remained unchanged or were narrowed over the same period of time.⁴⁹

Much of this gap could be related to discrimination. Different studies have attempted

Figure 22: Labor income (hourly wages in nominal LCU)

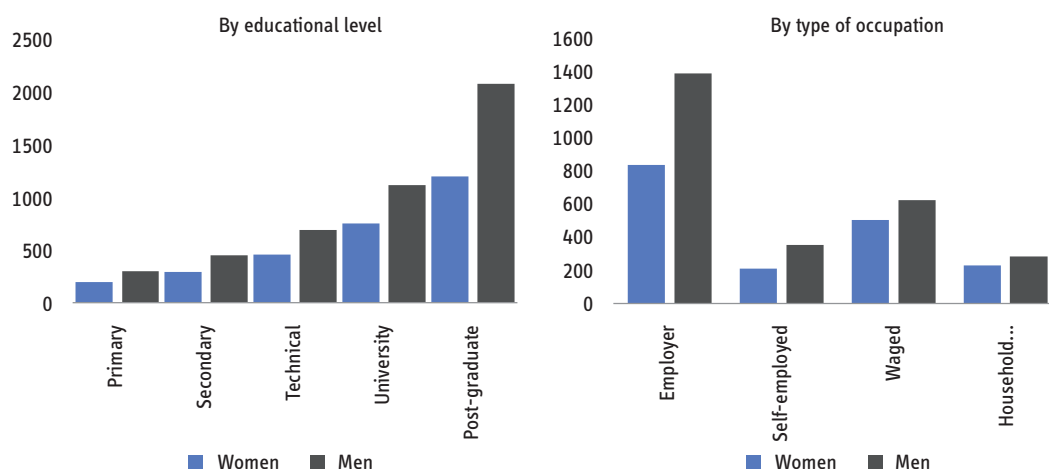


Source: SEDLAC

48 INE 2017b

49 World Bank 2017

Figure 23: Gender gaps in earnings depending on educational level and type of job 2016



Source: Encuesta Suplementaria de Ingresos 2016

to quantify the wage gender gap in Chile and to identify the factors that determine it. According to them, there is a large share of the gap that is not explained by differences in experience or education, and therefore could be associated with unobservable aspects such as discriminatory practices. In addition, traditionally female jobs are usually associated with lower salaries than those that are considered more typical of men.⁵⁰

Certain characteristics, sectors or occupations appear to be associated with larger gender gaps in earnings. The gender gap was for instance larger for those workers with post-graduate education (42.4 percent in 2016), among employers (39.7 percent) and

self-employed workers (41.2 percent), and in the primary sector (45 percent) (see Figure 23). By occupational group, some of the main gaps are observed in officials, operators and artisans (61.9 percent), agricultural workers (41 percent) and government officials and directive staff (40.6 percent); and by age group, the largest gap exists in the 45-54 years old group.⁵¹

The generally lower quality of jobs held by women leads to substantial differences in pension entitlements. The replacement rate in retirement pension remuneration is 51 percent for women compared with 70 percent for men.⁵²

50 World Bank 2007, World Bank 2017

51 INE 2017a

52 World Bank 2017

CONCLUSIONS

Key messages:

- Chile has made important progress in this area over time. The country has put into place a comprehensive institutional and legal framework for gender equality, and became an international reference in gender mainstreaming in institutions and policies. Educational gaps have been closed, while maternal health outcomes and access to maternal services have improved substantially over time.
- However, the country still lags behind other regional or same income peers in important issues. First, the representation of women in political institutions remains low even compared with countries with much lower income levels. There are also important gender gaps in legislation, such as the provision that the husband has the right to administer the joint property. The possibility of using emergency contraceptive in cases of sexual violence remains also unclear. Up-to-date official data on the incidence of gender-based violence does not exist. However, the existing data indicate that this problem has important dimensions in the country. Maternal mortality and teenage pregnancy are also still higher than same income level countries.
- The female labor force participation rate in Chile is very low, even when compared with other Andean countries with much lower income levels. Moreover, women are disproportionately represented in low quality jobs, unemployment and in certain “female” sectors and occupations. In addition, a larger share of women than men are out of school and out of work, and wide wage gaps persist in the country. Women are also un-

der-represented among firm managers and owners, and have limited access to financial products such as credit, and they continue to bear the brunt of unpaid domestic work.

Knowledge gaps:

- It would be particularly important in the Chilean context to understand what the drivers of the comparatively low female labor force participation rates and the disproportionate representation of women in low quality jobs are. More specifically, the association with prevailing patriarchal social norms should be explored.
- There is also a striking lack of official data on the prevalence of different forms of violence against women that would need to be addressed in the future to attain a better knowledge of what the current trends are in the country.
- It would also be interesting to analyze what is preventing women from accessing decision making positions both in political institutions and companies, as well as what are the main obstacles for female entrepreneurship in the country.

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Annex 1: The legal and institutional framework for gender equality in Peru

Legal framework: International dimension

Different international treaties - ratified and incorporated to the national legislation - operate as the framework for the integration of gender equality in government policies in Chile. The most relevant include:

1. The **International Covenant for Civil and Political Rights**, ratified in 1972, which established the commitment of the State to ensure that women and men enjoy equal political and civil rights.
2. The **Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)** and its Protocol were approved in 1980, and mandate that member states adopt the necessary measures to prevent, investigate and punish discrimination against women.
3. The Inter-American Convention to Prevent, Sanction and Eradicate Violence against Women - **Convención Belém Do Pará⁵³** - was approved in 1996, and recognizes that gender

⁵³ The Belém do Pará Convention entered into force on March 5, 1995 and was the world's first binding international treaty to recognize that violence against women constitutes a violation of human rights. As a legally binding treaty, the Belém

based violence constitutes a serious violation of human rights that the States need to prevent, punish and eradicate.

4. The **statute of Rome for the International Court** approved in 2009 recognizes any sexual aggression and trafficking as crimes against humanity.
5. The UN **Convention against Organized Crime** enacted in 2004 establishes the obligation of states to assist and protect the victims of trafficking.
- 6 **ILO Conventions** – Convention 100 on equality of remuneration, 111 on discrimination, 122 on employment policy and 156 on workers with family responsibilities.

Other international commitments are:

7. The **Beijing Platform for Action**⁵⁴ adopted in 1995 and the new related measures adopted in 2000.
8. The **Millennium Development Goals** approved in 2000 and the **Sustainable Development Goals** approved in 2015.
9. The **Action Framework of Daka** on education adopted in 2000.

do Pará Convention not only condemns violence against women as an assault on human dignity but also outlines states' obligations to eliminate it.

- 54 The Beijing Platform for Action, adopted at the UN's Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, China, 1995), flagged 12 key areas where urgent action was needed to ensure greater equality and opportunities for women and men, girls and boys. It also laid out concrete ways for countries to bring about change.

10. **Inter-American program on the promotion of the human rights of women and gender equality and equity** (OEA).

11. The **Mexico Consensus**⁵⁵ adopted in 2004.
12. The **Quito Consensus**⁵⁶, adopted in 2007.
13. The **Brasilia Consensus**⁵⁷, adopted in 2010.

55 Regional Consensus adopted after the Ninth Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean held in Mexico City in June 2004. The governments of the region renewed their commitment to continue adopting measures aimed at the advancement of women's rights, incorporating a gender perspective into public policies, adopting proactive policies for job creation, recognizing the economic value of domestic work, guaranteeing sexual and reproductive rights, curtailing violence against women, or addressing HIV/AIDS, among others.

56 The Consensus followed the Tenth Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean held in Quito, Ecuador, in August 2007. The Consensus focused on two strategic issues: i) political participation and gender parity in decision-making at all levels, and ii) the contribution of women to the economy and social protection, especially in relation to unpaid work. Representative governments established specific measures to overcome gender discrimination in political participation, employment, education, health and the economy.

57 Government leaders agreed to facilitate women's access to new technologies, promote a democratic and non-discriminatory media, improve health and sexual and reproductive rights of women, and promote international and regional cooperation for gender equity.

Legal framework: National dimension

Some of the main national laws⁵⁸ related to the promotion and protection of gender equality include:

- The Constitution (1980) includes a clause on equality, but not a specific provision on the prevention of discrimination: men and women are equal before the law (art- 19.2).
- Recently Law 21.030 2017 was approved allowing abortion under 12 weeks when there is risk to the mother, the fetus presents any malformations, or the pregnancy is the result of a rape.
- Law 20/840 2015 establishes a quota of 40 percent of women in all candidates' lists for national elections.
- Law 20.607 2012 sanctions any form of harassment at the workplace.
- Law 20.480 2010 modifies the criminal code and the law 20.066 on intra-family violence introducing the crime of femicide and increasing the penalties for it.
- Law 20.066 2005 on intra-family violence that replaces the previous legislation increases the penalties for offenders and strengthens the protection of victims.
- Law 20.764 2014 modifies the labor code to guarantee a more equitable distribution of tasks between parents.

- Law 20.545 2011 extends the maternal benefits from 12 to 24 weeks, incorporating also self-employed women.
- Law 20.367 2009 extends maternal benefits to adoption cases.
- Law 20.255 2008 reforms the pension system to better protect women.
- Law 20.047 2005 establishes a paternal leave of four days, later extended to five.
- The Law on the right to a life free of violence is in the process of being developed and passed.

Policies:

The main policies related to the promotion of gender equality are the Plans on Equality of Opportunity between Women and Men 2011-2020 and 2018-2030. The Plan 2011-2020 aimed to continue advancing and consolidating public policies that strengthen the equality of opportunity and rights of both Chilean men and women. Its main strategic lines are depicted in the Figure below. The New Plan on Equality between Men and Women 2018-2030 is currently being defined. Consultations were being held over the last months of 2017.

To advance towards the objective of ending gender inequality in Chile, a new Gender Agenda was presented in 2014 – with the beginning of the second Bachelet Government (2014-2018). The agenda proposed to strengthen institutions aimed at promoting

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Figure 24: The strategic lines of the National Plan on Gender Equality 2011-2020

- Line 1: Strengthen public policies and institutions to ensure gender equality.
- Line 2: Strengthen women's leadership.
- Line 3: Promote family co-responsibility.
- Line 4: Equal access to economic opportunities.
- Line 5: Strengthening of healthy and respectful relationships.
- Line 6: Promoting good quality of life among women.

gender equality in the country, creating a specific Ministry, and re-establishing the Ministerial Council for Equality of Opportunity. It also included mainstreaming gender in all relevant sector policies, as well as reforms in the areas of sexual and reproductive health, intra-family

violence, female entrepreneurship and access to labor markets, and the implementation of a national system of care, among others.⁵⁹ Many of these measures have been already or are in the process of being implemented.

⁵⁹ <http://www.minmujeryeg.cl/agenda-de-genero/programa-de-gobierno/>





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