Women and the future of work in Mongolia

A. Ariunzaya and M. Munkhmandakh

Women and the future of work in Mongolia

September 2019

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Foreword

Despite economic growth and declining poverty levels across Asia, inequality continues to grow, with large groups of society remaining marginalized in economic and social terms.

Women in Asia continue to experience massive structural disadvantages, from early childhood education through their retirement from work – if they wanted and were allowed to work – and into their older age. It is mainly women who are exploited as cheap labour in Asia's export industries and low-skill sectors, especially agriculture, textiles and the footwear and electronic industries. They are paid subsistence wages and experience increasing precariousness of their working as well as living conditions.

On the heels of all the economic progress now comes rapid technological transformation that is altering the present and future nature of work in ways that offer a multitude of opportunities but also add new levels of risks for social groups across the Global South.

Women are particularly vulnerable and disproportionally affected by these changes, both in the context of the Fourth Industrial Revolution and in the ever-expanding care work across the formal and informal sectors.

Unfortunately, the predicted productivity gains through automation and digitalization in many sectors possibly will not give women much hope for fundamental improvements of their prospects. Due to their poor access to education, skills development and professional know-how, Asia's women are at risk of slipping deeper into unemployment or resorting to migration far from their home for jobs they can manage.

The goal for them and for us in development cooperation work is to find socially just and gender-equal responses to these challenges. Solidarity and coalitions across a range of progressive movements in Asia are essential.

Through our regional networks, Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES) brings together diverse voices from social movements, civil society organizations, trade unions, political parties and academia to work together in developing progressive ideas and narratives for advancing social justice. Among the most innovative platforms is the newly established FES Asia project Women's Perspectives on the Future of Work. With insights from distinguished researchers in nine Asian countries, FES and its partners aim to further promote gender equality in the world of work, with emphasis on enhancing women's participation in public and political life and promoting decent work for all along with gender-just and human-centric economic models.

In Mongolia, relatively strong regulatory frameworks to ensure gender equality are in place. But their implementation and enforcement remain weak. Additionally, a large share of women works in informal sectors or do unpaid family work. This is amplified by traditional norms and social expectations for men's and women's roles in society. Thus, gender remains an influential factor determining the employment situation and work conditions for women. Possible impacts of technological advancements on economic opportunities for men and women in Mongolia are largely unresearched by scholars and unconsidered by policy-makers. Nevertheless, the fundamental change the Fourth Industrial Revolution will bring to the working life already looms on the horizon of Mongolia's eternally blue sky.

We hope that this paper contributes to a fruitful discussion and provides valuable insights for future initiatives.

Mirco Günther and Lea Gölnitz
FES Office for Regional Cooperation in Asia

Niels Hegewisch
FES Mongolia Office

Introduction

Around 64 per cent of the population in Mongolia is younger than 35 years. Two out of three working-age adults (aged 15 and older) are considered economically active. There are 1.2 million people in the labour market, or 63.7 percent of the total labour force. Unemployment is lower among women (at 7.8 per cent for women and 9.6 per cent for men), but there is a significant gender gap in labour force participation. The share of women in the labour market has been steadily decreasing over the past 20 years, and the gender gap in the labour force participation rates increased from 4.8 percentage points in 1996 to 12.3 percentage points in 2017.

[1]Child care, housekeeping duties, studying and early retirement of women remain the major reasons for being out of the labour force. Inactivity impacts women's participation rates and has implications on career development, pensions and poverty.

The labour force is shifting from the traditional agriculture sector to the industrial and service sectors, which is decreasing the agriculture employment rate; it dropped from 40.2 per cent in 2004 to 28.2 per in 2018. Because the share of the industrial sector, especially the mining sector, in the economy has been increasing along with increases in the global prices of mineral products, the number of workers in this sector has been increasing since late 2009. At the same time, with mortgage lending that started in late 2012, the number of workers in the construction sector has started to increase, too. About one-third of the economically active population is involved in agriculture, where productivity, wages and salaries are comparatively low.

Figure 1: Share of employment, by major economic sector, 2004–2017 (%).

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Survey 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).
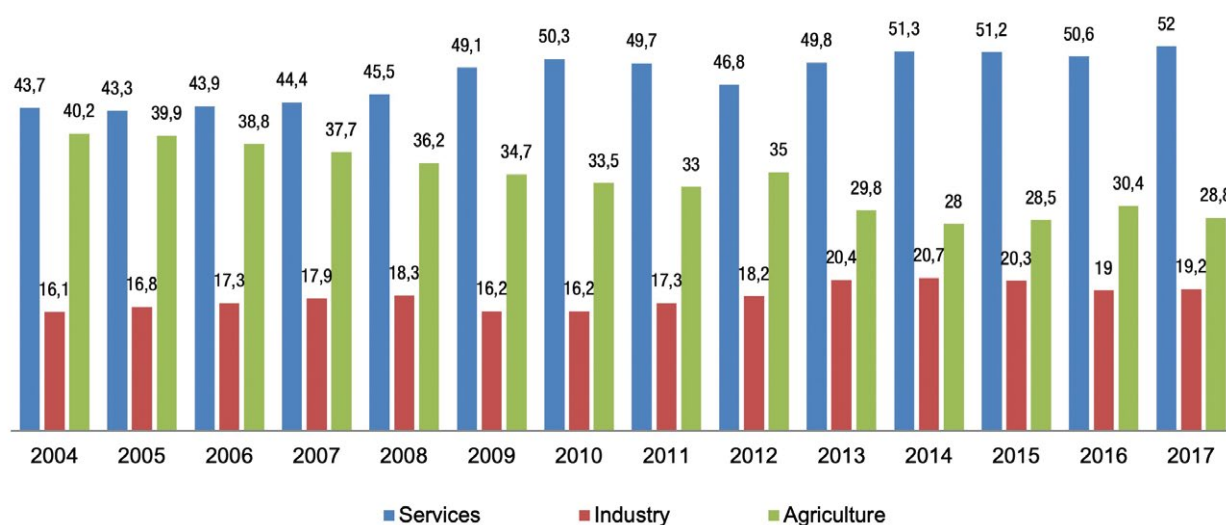
Labour market trends

Legal framework for labour market regulation

The Constitution of Mongolia (1992) guarantees gender equality, stating in Article 16: "Men and women have equal rights in the political, economic, social, cultural life and family relations." Article 14 stipulates: "Everyone shall be free from any types of discrimination based on his/her ethnicity, language, race, age, sex, social status, wealth, employment, position, religious belief, viewpoints and education level." The government adopted the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality in 2011 to specifically ensure gender equality in the political, legal, economic, social, cultural and household spheres and to regulate activities related to the implementation of the law. In the same year, the government endorsed the Mid-Term Strategy and Action Plan for 2013–2016 to implement the Gender Equality Law. Further legal regulations, such as the Law to Combat Domestic Violence (2016), the Family Law (1999, amended in 2016), the Law on Elections (2015, amended in May 2017) and the Law on Education (2002, amended in December 2016) provide for equal and fair participation and social justice for women, men, girls and boys.

The Labour Law restricts gender discrimination, stipulating in Article 7 that "discrimination [and the] setting of limitations or privileges in labour relations based on nationality, race, sex, social origin or status, wealth, religion or ideology shall be prohibited" and that "if an employer has limited an employee's rights and freedom due to the specific requirements of the job's duties when employing an employee, the employer shall be obliged to justify the grounds for doing so." However, the law does not mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value. There are also no legal regulations that mandate non-discrimination based on gender in hiring. According to the World Bank, Mongolia ranks ninth among 18 countries in the East Asia and Pacific Region with regard to legal regulations that allow different treatment of men and women.[2]

Despite the relatively strong regulatory framework to ensure gender equality, implementation and enforcement remain weak.

Current situation of labour market

Education and gender

The adult (aged 15 years and older) literacy rate is remarkably high (at 98.3 per cent as of 2010), and there are no gender disparities.

Gender differences in both basic and lower secondary education are also marginal—in 2016, 95.4 per cent of men and 95.6 per cent of women had completed at least primary education, and the completion rates for lower-secondary school were similar (at 84.1 per cent for men and 85.3 per cent for women). In contrast, there are significant differences between men and women with at least upper-secondary education. According to data from the National Statistical Office for 2010, 40.1 per cent of women and 30.7 per cent of men had a post-secondary education, 26.8 per cent of women and 20.5 per cent of men had at least a bachelor's degree, which makes an almost 10 per cent gender difference in post-secondary school completion rates.

In addition to higher rates of educational attainment among women, female graduates tend to congregate in fields of study very different from male graduates. Generally, women are more likely to study education, health and welfare or cultural services, while men are more prone to pursuing fields like science and engineering. These differences in fields of study may reinforce gender disparities in the types of jobs filled by men and women and limit the chances of women to benefit from the new job opportunities in science-, technology-, engineering- and mathematics-related occupations.

Gender disparities in the labour market

Even though women are generally more educated and consequently better prepared for income-generating activities than men on average, there are significant gender disparities in the labour market, particularly in terms of types of jobs typically pursued by men and women (figure 3).

Figure 2: Adult literacy rate, 1963–2010 (%).

Source: National Statistical Office, Population and Housing Census reports (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia).
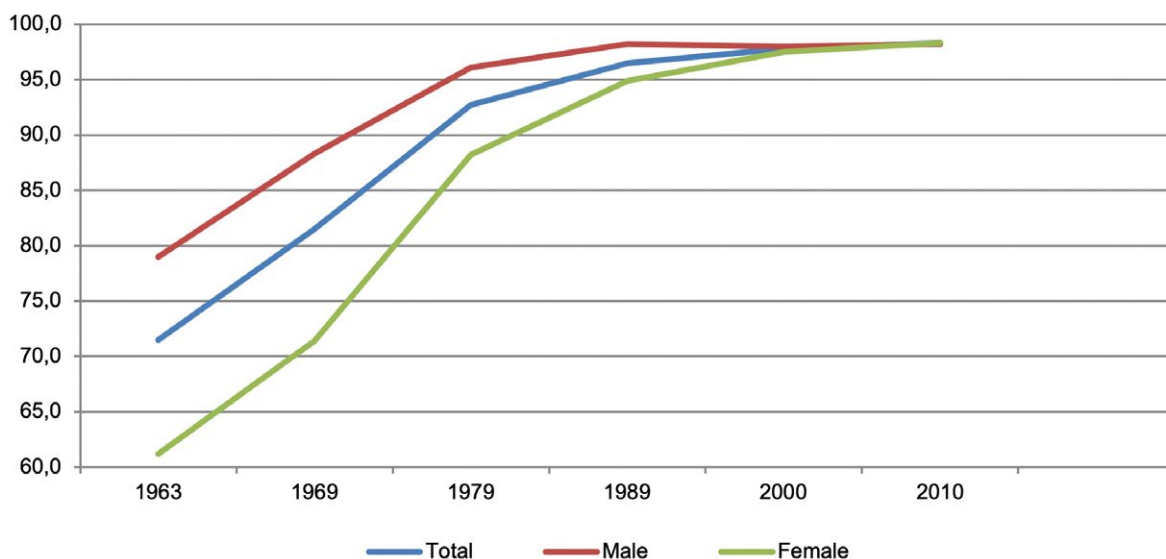
Figure 3: Employment, by economic sector and by sex, 2017 .

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Survey Report 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

Figure 3 shows that women are over-represented in education, health care and social work activities, while the mining, construction and transportation sectors are dominated by men.

A large share of women work in informal sectors or do unpaid family work. Women's participation in entrepreneurial work is lower than that of men. In addition, women also have a limited presence in higher-
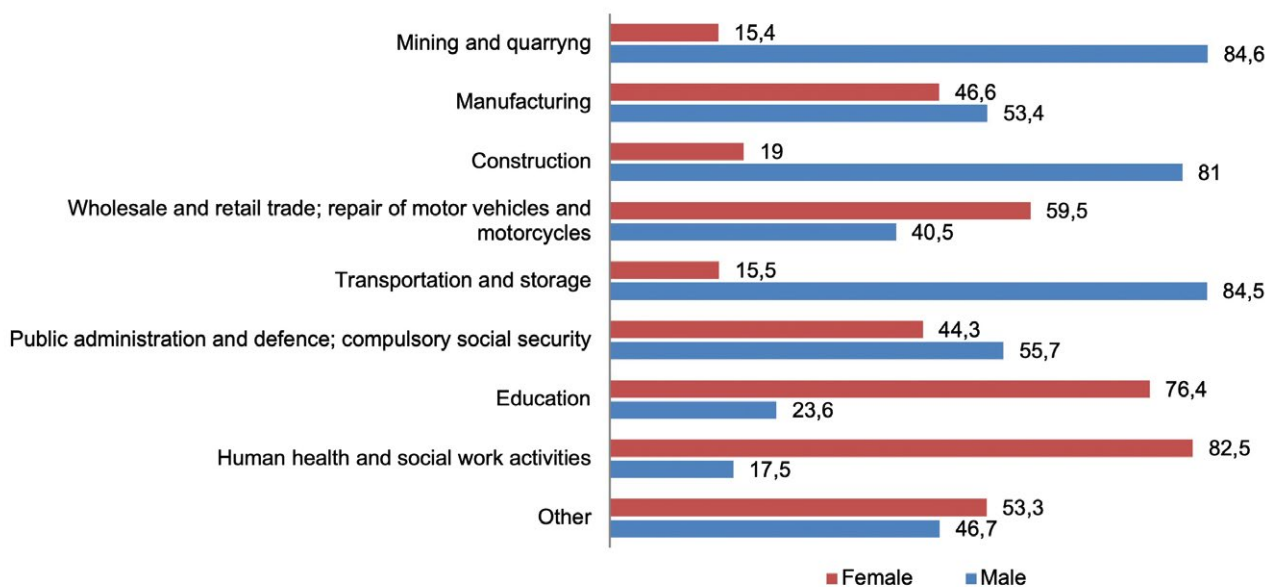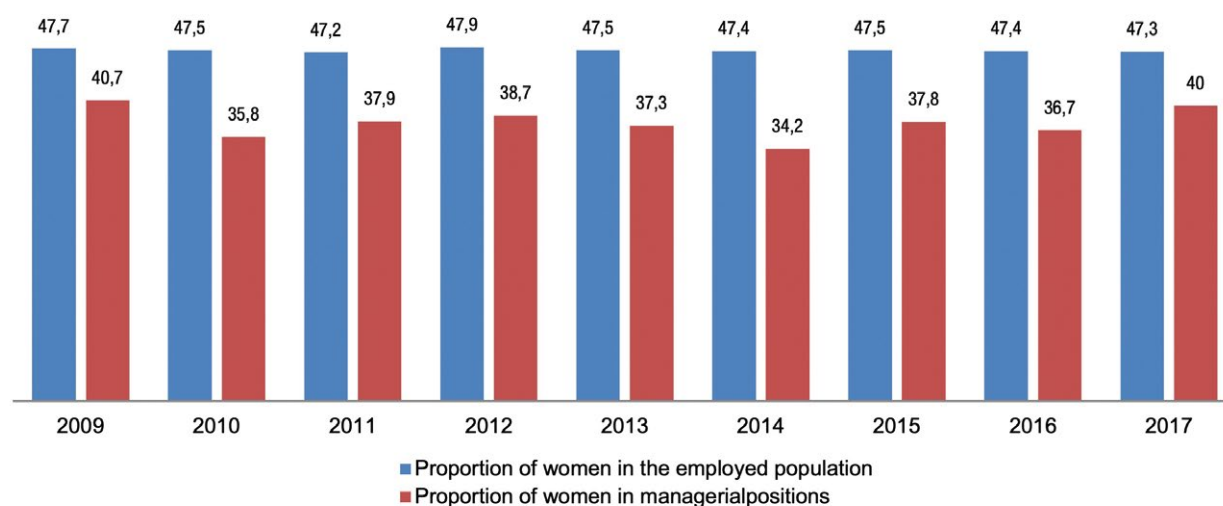
Figure 4: Proportion of female employment in total employment and women in managerial positions, 2006–2017 (%).

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Survey Report 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

level managerial positions. As shown in figure 4, women constituted only 40 per cent of managerial positions in 2017.

The average earnings of women have been consistently lower than that of men. In 2015, men on average earned 856,000 *tugrug* per month and women earned 760,700 *tugrug*. As a result, the relative gender earnings gap stood at 12.5 per cent. The reason for this situation is that relatively few women reach senior managerial positions. The majority of women are concentrated in mid- to low-level managerial and support staff positions in both the public and private sectors. The sectors predominantly occupied by women, such as health, education and social work activities, are distinguished by their significantly lower wages than in the mining, construction and transportation sectors dominated by men.

Early retirement impacts women's earnings also.[3] Pension pay-out levels depend on the length of job tenure; thus, women consistently receive lower pensions than men due to early retirement and because of career breaks due to the birth of children.

The gender gap in labour force participation rates increased from 4.8 percentage points in 1996 to 12.3 percentage points in 2017.[4] With the decreasing share

of women in the labour market, the number of available jobs in health and social work activities, traditionally predominated by women, has been increasing, while in all other sectors, including construction (dominated by men), the number of vacancies declined between 2013 and 2018. Table 1 reflects changes in job vacancies across various economic sectors, and these trends are likely to continue.

Increasing the number of available jobs in the health and social work sector would address the growing demand for paid care work. Paid and unpaid care work is mainly performed by women in Mongolia and remains a factor in determining the employment situation and work conditions for women. However, there have been no policy discussions to date regarding the relationship between paid and unpaid care work, the growing deficit of care workers and the implications on gender equality. The first and foremost important step for addressing the care work economy issues is thus awareness raising among policy-makers concerning the implications of the growing demand for care work on the gender-based and income inequalities.

The constraints underlying the gender gaps in the labour market are seen in the traditional norms and social expectations for men's and women's' roles with respect to

Table 1: Classification of economic activity.

Source: General Agency for Labour Welfare Services (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia).

Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	8.9	8.4	5.7	4.3	4.7
Mining and quarrying	14.5	7.2	5.5	5.3	5.3
Manufacturing	34.3	16.2	7.8	5.8	6.1
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	2.2	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.6
Water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	1.4	0.9	0.7	1	0.6
Construction	50.8	27.8	13.4	4.4	6.9
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	16.7	7.6	4.2	2.5	2.4
Transportation and storage	8.3	3.1	1.6	0.7	0.8
Accommodation and food service activities	8.1	3.5	2.1	1.2	2.1
Information and communication	1.8	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.5
Financial and insurance activities	1.9	1.0	0.7	0.6	1.0
Real estate activities	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0
Professional, scientific and technical activities	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Administrative and support service activities	2.1	0.7	0.5	1.6	1.8
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	5.9	2.3	2.4	2.8	1.3
Education	4.7	4.0	3.5	3.9	3.7
Human health and social work activities	2.6	1.8	1.6	1.9	3.6
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5
Other service activities	51.6	26.4	25.2	24.1	21.9
Activities of households as employers	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.2	0.5
Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	**219.1**	**114.6**	**77.6**	**62.7**	**64.5**

marriage, household and care duties and suitable career choices and jobs. They are also evident in the deficiencies in the political environment and inadequate elder-care and child-care facilities.

The main proponents for changing the gaps include government, non-government and international stakeholders who advocate for social inclusion and gender equality, mainly from the development and human rights perspectives.

The government agency in charge of monitoring implementation of the Law on Gender Equality is the National Committee on Gender Equality. Over the past few years, the committee, chaired by the prime minister, has been actively working towards implementing the National Programme on Gender Equality, which aims at providing "support to the gender-responsive policy and planning processes required to reach the sustainable development goals and to implement the Law on the Promotion of Gender Equality." However, as argued by some researchers,[5] poor awareness among public officials of the relevance and importance of gender equality and the weak capacity of both the committee and its secretariat, including lack of adequate financial and human resources, limits the effectiveness of efforts.

In recent years, the government has emphasized the importance of labour market policies and programmes, including to redress the gender disparities. The government's Sustainable Development Vision stresses the drafting and follow-through of policies and programmes that support employment and reduce the unemployment rate. It also explicitly mentions the need to train the younger generation with proper knowledge and skills so they can attain decent work or run a private business, to ensure gender equality in social development and to create a favourable environment for equal participation in all aspects of life.

There are numerous government and non-government stakeholders advocating for equal participation of women in sustainable socioeconomic development processes. A study conducted by the Press Institute in 2017 identified 27 non-government and international development agencies engaged in activities to promote gender equality in Mongolia over the past three years. The majority of them were NGOs (at 70 per cent), followed by government agencies (at 13 per cent) and other entities, such as business and educational organizations (at 8 per cent). Around 150 communications interventions on gender equality were undertaken over a period of three years, including training events, debates, meetings, exhibitions, publications, audio and video materials, posters, etc.

Major international organizations involved in advocating for gender equality and decent working conditions for all population segments include the International Labour Organization, the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the United Nations Population Fund, among many others.

Advocacy activities and actions undertaken by these actors range from efforts to reform the labour market policies and regulations to education programmes and public awareness campaigns on norms and social expectations that promote gender inequality. The United Nations Development Programme, the World Bank and other international actors, along with such local stakeholders as the National Committee on Gender Equality, have suggested that a revision of the maternity and paternity leave policies may significantly contribute to improving labour market outcomes for women, along with other changes. Paid maternity leave is currently 120 days. However, maternity leave is unlikely to be offered in the informal sector, where more than 60 per cent of the female labour force is located. Paid paternity leave for men is seven days only.

Other efforts to improve labour market outcomes for women include advocacy actions for strengthening micro-entrepreneurship support through the provision of finance and training for women-owned and operated microbusinesses. Expanding the quality and quantity of child-care services to ensure the continuous and productive labour market participation of a larger number of women has also been recommended for making the labour market more women-friendly.

Digitalization and technological development trends in Mongolia

After the transition to democracy and market economy in 1990, the government made continuous efforts to privatize the information and communication technology (ICT) sector. When the State-owned national telecommunication operator (Telecom Mongolia) was partially privatized in 1995, the mobile and internet markets were opened to commercial competition. Adoption of several policy documents, such as the e-Mongolia National Programme in 2006, the Unified Registration Programme in 2008, the National Broadband Programme in 2011, the e-Government Programme in 2012 and the State Policy on Development of ICT in 2017, have established the framework for the sector's evolution.

Internet service users rose from 200,000 subscribers in 2010 to 2.6 million by December 2016, increasing internet penetration to 86 per cent.[6] There are no significant gender differences in terms of access to and use of the internet. However, the rural population still lags behind its urban counterparts in terms of internet penetration, with a gap of around 20 per cent.

Introduction of new technologies has accompanied the boom in mobile phone use. Mobile penetration reached 3.8 million individuals[7] (at 121 subscriptions per 100 people) and the mobile-broadband population coverage is also high, with the 3G network launched in 2009 and wireless broadband communication in 2016.

Despite increasing average incomes in recent years, most computer hardware remains out of reach for a majority of the population in rural areas. As of the end of 2018, the country had 202 computers per 1,000 inhabitants.

Today, according to the United Nations International Telecommunications Union's ICT Development Index, Mongolia ranks 91 out of 176 countries.

The government has also made significant efforts to harness technology for improving governance, delivery of services and the economic productivity. Examples include:

e-Government programme

The programme, which operated from 2012 to 2016, consisted of several projects to improve the provision of public services to citizens through the internet, such as Public Services Digital Machines, Development of Modules for Integrated Web Portals of Public Services, Digital System of Public Services and an Integrated Centre of Public Services.

e-Kiosk machines

Electronic machines installed in public places in Ulaanbaatar, provincial centres and larger settlements in 2013 made it possible for citizens to access services from six public agencies electronically. Some 16 types of services, such as birth registration inquiry, citizen identification card inquiry, statement on residence address, reference of legal entity registration, ordering national ID card, inquiry of driver's license, renewal of the license, electricity payment, etc. were made accessible through the kiosks.

11:11 Call Centre

The government 11:11 Call Centre was established in 2013 to receive opinions, complaints and suggestions from citizens and provide feedback on relevant actions.

Smart Ulaanbaatar Programme

The Smart Ulaanbaatar Programme, launched in 2014, included the UB Smart Bus Project to introduce an electronic payment system for public transportation and to provide citizens with mobile applications to monitor bus schedules and movements and single windows for Ulaanbaatar citizens to reduce bureaucracy and improve the speedy provision of public services in one location.

There have been no assessment reports or gender-disaggregated data collected on the implementation and impacts of these programmes. Considering the high level of literacy and education among male and female citizens, as well as based on the equal use of the internet and mobile phones, it can only be assumed that these efforts have positively influenced the delivery of services and the economic productivity of both male and female citizens.

With regard to the specific needs of women, particularly those trying to combine career with household and child-care duties, technological improvements in the spheres of public service may have expanded access to information and services and enhanced women's possibilities to demand their rights.

The private sector has had an active role in advancing the development and use of digital technology for economic activities. The ICT, financial services and media sectors have been highly affected by technological developments. Examples include the complete switch of the broadcasting sector from analogue to digital, the introduction of new payment systems to replace traditional payment methods (such as online and mobile payment accounts), the rapid development of online news media and strong digitalization trends in information production and dissemination.

International organizations have been promoting the benefits of digital technology for economic growth, good governance and social inclusion. Examples include the Smart Government Project being implemented by the government with assistance from the World Bank. The project, funded by an International Development Association credit, aims at improving accessibility, transparency and efficiency of public services in Mongolia through the use of ICT. Components include support to developing a business analytics programme by the government, designing and implementation of an Open Data Initiative; and data production capabilities of the National Statistical Office. The Asian Development Bank provided financial assistance to the government for implementing an information technology project in the education sector. The project has created an electronic system to be used for basic registration, exchange of data and information among teachers, students and parents of secondary schools and kindergartens and relevant government authorities. For instance, teachers can submit comments to the Minister of Education, Culture, Science and Sports. Parents can obtain all information about their children, including report cards and attendance record, using the internet.

Not all citizens, however, can take advantage of the benefits offered through increased integration of technological advancements in the economic and social spheres. Even though the State Policy on Development of ICT and its action plan envisage making all citizens

digitally literate by 2025, no discussion has taken place on how to address the widening digital skills gap between young and old and urban and rural citizens. As noted, there are significant gaps in access to computers and the internet between urban and rural residents, especially people living in remote areas.

Although there are no gender-disaggregated data on access to computer hardware, there are no gaps in access to and use of the internet between men and women.[8] Only 22 per cent of the adult population has a mobile money account, and only 3.2 per cent has a credit card.[9] The share of men having a credit card (at 4.3 per cent) is greater than that of women (at 2.2 per cent), but women (at 18 per cent) tend to make more online transactions than men (at 16 per cent).

Quantitative data on the level of digital literacy among various social groups does not exist. Lack of detailed gender-disaggregated research data on the level of ICT use makes it hard to draw conclusions on the extent of the digital divide and the consequences and challenges of digitalization on women's labour conditions. Existing information on the access to and use of the internet suggest that, unless wide-ranging actions are undertaken to promote the digital literacy and access to the internet among the rural and older citizens, the chances are high that these groups of people will be at a greater disadvantage in near future with regard to opportunities of participation, education and social inclusion.

As for the potential implications of the digital transformation on labour market outcomes and a gender-based employment gap, the future challenges and policy needs remain largely unaddressed. For example, women are under-represented in the science, technology, engineering and mathematics sectors, which are anticipating job growth. The share of male students studying ICT, engineering and design is almost four times greater than the share of female students in these areas (figure 5).

In addition, women are under-represented in managerial positions, which places them at higher risk of displacement by technology.

Awareness on these and other issues related to the future effects of technological advancements on

Figure 5: Higher education study fields, by sex.

Source: National Statistical Office, Higher Education Report 2018 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2018).
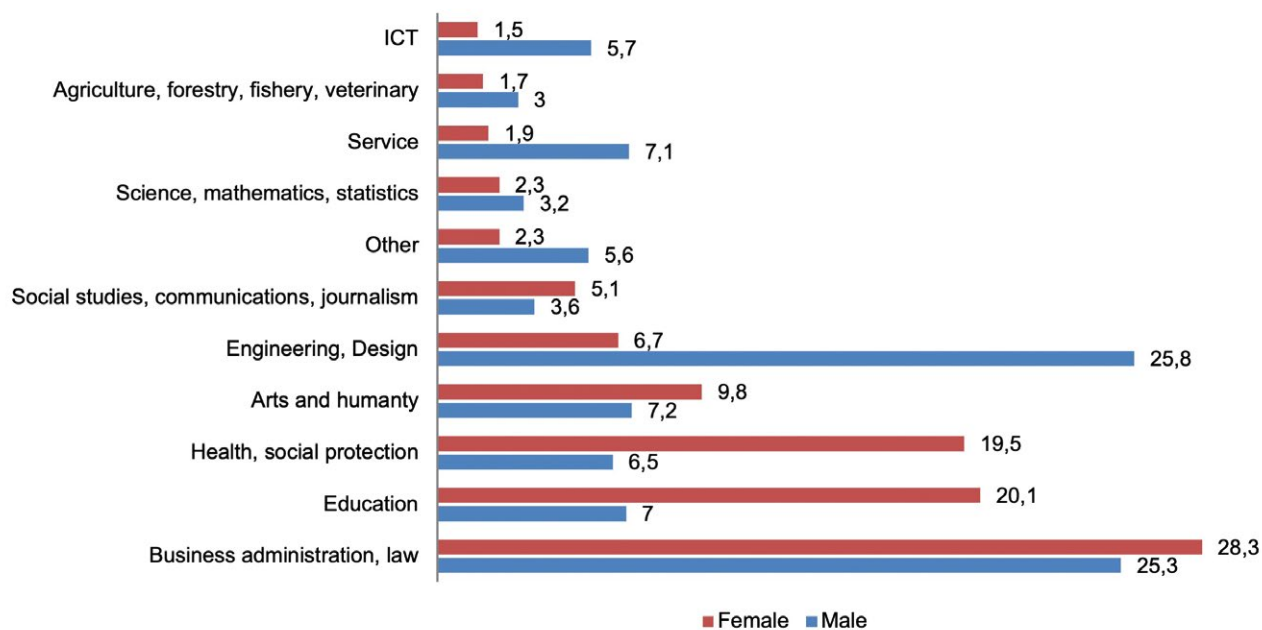
economic opportunities for men and women is lacking due to a little use of innovation in production processes (that would spur the need for research and discussion on potential impacts). Consequently, opportunities and risks related with the Fourth Industrial Revolution seem irrelevant for many policy-makers. Discussions related to digitalization mainly focus on the need for regulations concerning privacy, digital security, digital manipulation and disinformation.

Government concerns tend to focus on promoting stronger restrictions on the surveillance of the digital content and use (suggestions for regulations include revealing names or IP addresses for user-generated content and registration of social media user accounts). Civil society organizations see the promotion and implementation of policies towards improving media and information literacy as a more appropriate way to face the consequences of the digitalization.

Even though some of the international and local NGOs, government organizations and multilateral and bilateral organizations actively use social media and the internet to

promote gender equality issues and the rights of women and marginalized groups, the need for policy solutions to reduce possible risks of widening gender gaps in the labour market due to potential changes in the nature of work has yet to find any place on the government's agenda.

There is an urgent need to carefully assess the risks associated with technological advancements in the context of the labour market conditions described previously and to establish corresponding policies and programmes. To avoid exacerbating the disparities in access to economic opportunities, earnings and productivity arising from gendered labour divisions with technological advancements, priority needs to be given to policies that increase women's participation in the labour market so that earnings and occupational imbalances can be reduced. These include programmes and infrastructure that make it easier for women to combine work and family life (with affordable child care and flexible work arrangements).

Another important policy need is reforming the education system and workforce training to reduce skill mismatches

for a changed workplace and remove barriers to lifelong learning. There is a need to endow women with skills that would allow them to benefit from new work opportunities and that would encourage women to pursue careers in technology, such as through scholarship programmes and grants in science and technology training and research. ICT-related business training programmes would significantly increase the opportunities for them to benefit from the expected job increases in the ICT sector.

Digital technologies may enable flexible forms of working and improve the chances of women's participation in the labour market as well as in entrepreneurial and financial activities. Developing the digital infrastructure and improving capacities for access and use of ICT among women would thus help overcome specific restrictions, such as lack of time and restricted mobility due to the double responsibilities for gaining income and fulfilling family duties.

Research priorities related to the future of work

Due to the lack of awareness and policy discussions on future implications of the changing labour market, there is a need for research efforts to create a deep understanding of the differences in possibilities for access to the future economy for various groups of labour forces. This includes research on such issues as:

- The consequences of digitalization on women's employment prospects.
- Current trends and changing demands and requirements (if any) for labour forces (skills and knowledge that are considered to be in higher demand in the future) and how they compare with similar trends in developed countries.

- The potential impacts of changing job demands on women and the possibilities for mitigating discrimination and creating more inclusive labour markets.
- Review of education policies and practices at all levels (formal and informal education systems, including lifelong learning opportunities) to evaluate the framework for improving the readiness of labour forces for the future of work.
- Evaluation of social protection schemes for self-employed workers to assess the potential vulnerabilities of women, such as women with disabilities, female herders in remote areas, single women with children, and ways for filling the current and future gaps in social protection.

Endnotes

1. Mongolia is located in the north-eastern part of Central Asia. It neighbours the Russian Federation in the north and the People's Republic of China in the south. As of 2017, the population of Mongolia was 3.2 million people, with an annual growth rate of 1.9 per cent. Men accounted for 49.2 per cent and women for 50.8 per cent of the population. See National Statistical Office, See *Labour Force Survey 2017* (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

2. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, *Women, Business and the Law: A Decade of Reform* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2019), https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/31327/WBL2019. pdf?sequence=4&isAllowed=y.

3. The retirement age for women is five years earlier than for men and 10 years earlier if they have four or more children.

4. National Statistical Office, 2017.

5. Tsolmon Begzsuren and Dolgion Aldar, *Gender Overview – Mongolia: A Desk Study* (Bern: Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, 2014).

6. Communications Regulatory Committee, *Main Parameters of ICT Sector 2018* (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia 2018).

7. Ibid.

8. *Mongolia Media Today* (Ulaanbaatar: Press Institute of Mongolia, 2018).

9. Kepios Pte Ltd, We Are Social Ltd and Hotsuite Ink, *Digital Mongolia 2019,* https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-mongolia.

Annexes

Table 2: Main parameters of employment, by age groups, 2017.

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Study 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

Age groups	Economically active population			Employed			Unemployed			Economically inactive population		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
15–19	15347	7699	23046	12464	4873	17337	2883	2826	5709	103628	103789	207417
20–24	60250	40503	100753	48189	30125	78314	12061	10378	22439	45415	56226	101641
25–29	102433	84666	187099	89675	72875	162550	12758	11791	24549	18783	45936	64719
30–34	111309	96038	207347	100194	89426	189620	11115	6612	17727	12599	36848	49447
35–39	105157	98064	203221	97402	92498	189900	7755	5566	13321	12994	30933	43927
40–44	106931	101619	208550	99314	96443	195757	7617	5176	12793	13750	25489	39239
45–49	87105	89448	176553	80541	85557	166098	6564	3891	10455	14637	21419	36056
50–54	71690	71467	143157	65803	68368	134171	5887	3099	8986	17672	34359	52031
55–59	41511	26995	68506	38900	26493	65393	2611	502	3113	24963	47748	72711
60–64	12225	11832	24057	12225	11832	24057				28966	42364	71330
65–69	4120	4555	8675	4120	4555	8675				21085	26057	47142
70+	3846	2615	6461	3846	2615	6461				33436	43892	77328
15–24	75597	48202	123799	60653	34998	95651	14944	13204	28148	149043	160015	309058
15–34	186906	144240	331146	160847	124424	285271	26059	19816	45875	161642	196863	358505
Total	**721924**	**635501**	**1357425**	**652673**	**585660**	**1238333**	**69251**	**49841**	**119092**	**347928**	**515060**	**862988**

Age groups	Labour participation rate			Employment rate			Unemployment rate		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
15–19	12.9	6.9	10.0	10.5	4.4	7.5	18.8	36.7	24.8
20–24	57.0	41.9	49.8	45.6	31.1	38.7	20.0	25.6	22.3
25–29	84.5	64.8	74.3	74.0	55.8	64.6	12.5	13.9	13.1
30–34	89.8	72.3	80.7	80.9	67.3	73.8	10.0	6.9	8.5
35–39	89.0	76.0	82.2	82.4	71.7	76.8	7.4	5.7	6.6
40–44	88.6	79.9	84.2	82.3	75.9	79.0	7.1	5.1	6.1
45–49	85.6	80.7	83.0	79.2	77.2	78.1	7.5	4.4	5.9
50–54	80.2	67.5	73.3	73.6	64.6	68.7	8.2	4.3	6.3
55–59	62.4	36.1	48.5	58.5	35.4	46.3	6.3	1.9	4.5
60–64	29.7	21.8	25.2	29.7	21.8	25.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
65–69	16.3	14.9	15.5	16.3	14.9	15.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
70+	10.3	5.6	7.7	10.3	5.6	7.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
15–24	33.7	23.1	28.6	27.0	16.8	22.1	19.8	27.4	22.7
15–34	53.6	42.3	48.0	46.1	36.5	41.4	13.9	13.7	13.9
Total	**67.5**	**55.2**	**61.1**	**61.0**	**50.9**	**55.8**	**9.6**	**7.8**	**8.8**

Table 3: Economically inactive population, by reason, 2017.

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Study 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Total	862988	347928	515060
Household duties	62881	16340	46541
Studied	255738	125510	130228
Will go to study	7477	4210	3267
Retired	260836	94485	166352
Older person	3769	1663	2105
Disabled	68177	37956	30221
Not available for work	9257	6649	2608
Took care of children	108072	6987	101085
Sick	18623	11236	7387
Younger than working age	193	116	77
Caring for patients or older persons	11264	4072	7192
Other	56701	38704	17997

Table 4: Total employment and monthly average wage, by economic activity and gender, 2017.

Source: National Statistical Office, Labour Force Study 2017 (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017).

ISIC-Rev.4	Employment, by thousand persons			Monthly average wage, by thousand *tugrug*		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	1238.3	652.6	585.7	944.5	1029.4	860.4
A. Agriculture, forestry and fishing	356.4	202.9	153.5	681.5	694.2	665.7
B. Mining and quarrying	52.0	44.0	8.0	2119.1	2065.7	2277.2
C. Manufacturing	93.1	49.7	43.4	1088.2	1155.7	1011.0
D. Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	17.5	13.9	3.6	1334.2	1331.5	1341.3
E. Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	4.9	2.6	2.3	678.0	700.4	644.7
F. Construction	70.6	57.2	13.4	852.3	864.3	822.2
G. Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	204.5	82.9	121.6	793.0	838.4	748.2
H. Transportation and storage	72.7	61.4	11.3	1022.5	1023.4	1020.6
I. Accommodation and food service activities	36.4	10.2	26.2	585.0	628.4	561.5
J. Information and communication	14.5	9.1	5.4	865.8	943.3	785.7
K. Financial and insurance activities	24.1	8.6	15.5	1131.6	1340.6	1010.9
L. Real estate activities	0.4	0.1	0.3	870.1	878.8	861.4
M. Professional, scientific and technical activities	12.7	7.4	5.3	1569.7	1611.0	1529.3
N. Administrative and support service activities	20.8	11.8	9.0	760.3	752.1	775.1
O. Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	82.2	45.8	36.4	832.2	874.1	769.5
P. Education	98.9	23.3	75.6	720.8	746.4	712.1
Q. Human health and social work activities	40.0	7.0	33.0	767.1	804.5	757.8
R. Arts, entertainment and recreation	10.1	5.5	4.6	605.2	597.8	612.1
S. Other service activities	22.7	8.1	14.6	751.1	795.9	706.8
T. Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and service-producing activities of households for own use	2.3	0.6	1.7	594.4	554.2	640.6
U. Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	1.5	0.5	1.0	1710.0	1624.8	1773.6

Bibliography

Altantsetseg, B. and B. Dalkhjav. *Labour Force Participation and Earnings in Mongolia.* Ulaanbaatar: National University of Mongolia, 2014.

Asian Development Bank. *Inclusive and Sustainable Growth Assessment. Mongolia 2017–2020.* Manila, 2017. https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/linked-documents/cps-mon-2017-2020-ld-01.pdf.

Askitas N., R. Mahjoubi, S. Martins and K. Zougbede. *Emerging Labour Market Data Sources Towards Digital TVET,* PARIS21 Discussion Paper, no. 13 (2018). Accessed May 30, 2019. http://paris21.org/paris21-discussion-and-strategy-papers

Begzsuren, Tsolmon and Dolgion Aldar. *Gender Overview – Mongolia: A Desk Study.* Bern: Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, 2014. https://bit.ly/2IoRlDk.

Communications Regulatory Commission. *Main Parameters of ICT Sector 2018.* Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2018). http://cita.gov.mn/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/white_paper_2017_mn.pdf.

Kepios Pte Ltd, We Are Social Ltd and Hotsuite Ink. "Digital Mongolia 2019." https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-mongolia.

Naranmandakh, T. "ICT Sector Development and Smart City Initiatives in Mongolia." http://www.cieca.org.tw/v_comm/inc/download_file.asp?re_id=2998&fid=35636.

National Statistical Office. *Labour Force Survey 2017.* Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2017.

National Statistical Office. *Higher Education Report 2018* (Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2018).

Parliament of Mongolia. *Resolution on the Endorsement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) based Comprehensive National Development Strategy of Mongolia.* Ulaanbaatar: Government of Mongolia, 2008.

Press Institute of Mongolia. *Mongolia Media Today.* Ulaanbaatar, 2018.

About the authors

Munkhmandakh Myagmar studied journalism at the University of Leipzig in Germany and received a PhD in media and communication studies from the same university. For 20 years, she worked in the Mongolian media and civil society sector and promoted media freedom and access to information, assisted journalists in the improvement of their professional qualifications and skills and strengthened the role of professional media in promoting democracy and human rights.

Ariunzaya Ayush was appointed Chairperson of the National Statistical Office in July 2016. She holds a master's degree in political science, sociology and history from the University of Hannover in Germany (2005) and a master's degree in business administration from the National University of Economics in Mongolia (2017).

The views expressed in this publication are not necessarily those of Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung.

Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES) is the oldest political foundation in Germany. Founded in 1925, FES is named after Friedrich Ebert, the first democratically elected president of Germany.

Since its democratic transition in 1990 FES supports democracy and social justice in Mongolia.

This publication is part of a series under "Women and the Future of Work", a regional project coordinated by the FES Office for Regional Cooperation is Asia based in Singapore.

www.fes-asia.org

EFQM
Committed to excellence