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Part-Time Work, Gender and Job Satisfaction: Evidence from a Developing Country

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ABSTRACT

Part-Time Work, Gender and Job Satisfaction: Evidence from a Developing Country*

This paper investigates the relationship between part-time work and job satisfaction using a recent household survey from Honduras. In contrast to previous work for developed countries, this paper does not find a preference for part-time work among women. Instead, both women and men tend to prefer full- time work, although the preference for working longer hours is stronger for men. Consistent with an interpretation of working part-time as luxury consumption, the paper finds that partnered women with children, poor women or women working in the informal sector are more likely to prefer full-time work than single women, partnered women without children, non-poor women or women working in the formal sector. These results have important implications for the design of family and child care policies in low-income countries.

JEL Classification: C13, J16, J28

Keywords: job satisfaction, gender, part-time work, job flexibility

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1. Introduction

This paper investigates the relationship between part-time work and job satisfaction using a recently fielded household survey in Honduras. To our knowledge, no previous studies have explored the nexus between job satisfaction and hours of work in a developing economy, although several papers have recently estimated this relationship for a number of developed countries (Booth and van Ours, 2008; Connelly and Gregory, 2008; Frijters et al., 2004a).[1] Yet, increasing female participation and part-time work in Latin America (IDB, 2008) suggest that the issue of how households balance work and family is a relevant one, particularly in a region like Latin America where social and cultural norms regarding gender roles are likely to be more binding than in developed economies.

Female participation has risen in most countries of Latin America. While only an average of 29 percent of women participated in the labor market in 1980, this figure stood at 40 percent in 2004.[2] During the same period, births per woman decreased from 4.2 to 2.5.[3] These facts suggest an important change in labor market participation and childbearing decisions of women in the region. At the same time, a large and—in many countries of Latin America—growing proportion of the workforce is in part-time work. The share of women working part-time (i.e., less than 40 hours a week) has increased from 33 percent in the mid-1990s to 43 percent in the early 2000s. Part time is much more prevalent among women, with an incidence of 43 percent

[1] Previous job satisfaction studies frequently include hours of work as a control, which typically have a negative effect on job satisfaction (Clark, 1997; Clark and Oswald, 1994; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2003; Van Praag and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2004; Clark and Senik, 2006).

[2] Given the lack of panel data in Latin America, we cannot fully assess whether this increase in part time work is due to (i) a higher inflow of women in the labor force or rather (ii) full-timers taking up part-time jobs over time. Evidence suggests (as shown in Figure 2) that increases of participation have been association with increases in part time jobs, providing some support for the first hypothesis.

[3] World Bank Group, Gender Statistics available at:
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=labor&cty=LAC,Latin%20America%20Caribbean&hm=home2

relative to 27 percent for men in the period 2002-2004. The proportion of part-time work among women is higher in Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, Peru, Bolivia, Guatemala and Honduras (around 55 percent) and lowest in El Salvador (29 percent) during the same period (see Figure 1).[4] Across countries, part-time work is associated with higher participation of youth and older workers, especially of women, in the labor force (see Figure 2). This suggests that part-time work may be an employment option that allows women to combine paid work with other activities. However, it might well be a refuge for those women who cannot find a full time or formal job. It is therefore important to assess whether this work pattern is welfare-enhancing to the individuals concerned, and whether there are important differences between women and men.

We are particularly interested in documenting the extent of the gender differential in job satisfaction across full and part time jobs when accounting for differences in job characteristics across gender. One important feature of this new survey is that, in addition to objective job characteristics typically found in labor force surveys (hours of work, earnings, industry firm size, tenure or occupation), the survey provides information on individuals' self-reported assessments regarding a large set of job characteristics (job security, promotion and growth prospects, whether the individual feels well-remunerated, and whether the job is stressful, dangerous or monotonous, among others). We also account for differential selection into jobs for men and women.

If individuals make their choices optimally, they would choose the option (full-time or part-time) that they prefer the most, those who are in full-time work should be, everything else equal, as satisfied in their jobs as those who are working part-time, or not in the labor force (Frijters et al, 2004b). However, individuals operate within a number of constraints, which may restrict their choices, and force them to accept less desirable jobs or remain in them; these

[4] IDB (2008) available at www.iadb.org/sociometro

constraints may in turn be different for women and men. Comparing job satisfaction, as a measure of welfare at work, across gender and types of work allows us to assess gender differences in preferences but also in constraints.

In terms of preferences; both social customs and conditioning might lead to significant differences in work preferences between women and men, and affect the gender division of labor. As argued by Akerlof and Kranton (2000), society's prescription about appropriate modes of behavior for each gender are likely to result in women and men experiencing a loss of identity. Men might be more satisfied working in full-time jobs and women in part-time jobs, since both are adopting modes of behavior dictated by custom. Women might be more satisfied working in part-time jobs because they allow them to gain self-esteem by working and at the same time from being at home and caring for their families. Another related reason to predict gender differences in preferences for working hours is that partners within a household may specialize in either market or house work, as argued, for example, by Becker (1965).

Yet, as stated above, there may be important constraints in attaining the type of desired work. Regulatory and institutional constraints on hours of work may reduce individuals' opportunities to choose between part-time and full-time work. In addition, many workers (men or women) may have to work long hours to sustain their families even if their preferences are for part-time work.

Our results diverge in important ways from those found in developed economies. For the United Kingdom, for instance, a number of authors have shown that after controlling for labor income, the effect of hours worked on job satisfaction is negative (Clark, 1997; Clark and Oswald, 1994; Clark, Oswald and Warr, 1996; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2003). This effect was also found in a cross-country study by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000). Van Praag and

Ferrer-i-Carbonell (2004) also found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and hours of work for the United Kingdom and West Germany; however, this effect is not present in East Germany or France (Clark and Senik, 2006). The role of part-time status in the gender gap in job satisfaction has also been recently analyzed with a matched employer-employee survey of British workplaces by Asadullah and Fernandez (2008). They found that the UK job satisfaction gender gap remains robust (i.e., women are still happier than men at work) after controlling by firm characteristics. Particularly, they test whether this gap arises because women select workplaces that offer non-pecuniary benefits such as work-life balance or part-time work possibilities, resulting also in some degree of gender segregation in these workplaces. The main findings are that work-life balance practices are important determinants of job satisfaction, although they improve the wellbeing of males and females alike, thereby reducing gender differences only slightly.

Unlike in these previous works for developed countries, we do not find a preference for part-time work among women. Instead, we find that both women and men tend to prefer full time work, although the preference for working longer hours is stronger for men. We find that partnered women with children, poor women or women working in informal jobs are more likely to prefer full-time work than single women, partnered women without children, non-poor women or women employed in formal jobs.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses the data and the variables used in the analysis and presents summary statistics of the data. Section 3 discusses the estimation methodology. Section 4 presents the main results, and finally, section 5 concludes.

2. Data and Variables

The analysis in this paper uses a recently fielded, nationally representative household survey in Honduras collected by the National Statistical Office in 2007. The purpose of this survey is to gather information about a number of aspects related with the quality of life (QoL) and the quality of work of the population. The survey gathered data from one randomly chosen respondent aged 18 or older from each household selected to answer the special modulus. However, in practice, the enumerators were more likely to interview a person who was at home, which led to an over-representation of women. The data have therefore been re-weighted to match the distribution of the population by age, gender and education. The data contain information on 8,282 individuals regarding their individual and household characteristics, living conditions, income, education attainment and health state.

The survey also contains detailed data on objective and perception-based (subjective) work attributes. Among the objective attributes, the survey contains information on wages, hours worked, industry and occupation. It also contains information on job satisfaction and subjective assessments of work schedule, future prospects, job security, job content, stress at work and remuneration. Lastly, it covers individual's perceptions on a number of conditions and public policy in areas related to education, health and public security.

The main variable of analysis, job satisfaction, is measured with the question: "Are you satisfied with the work you do?" and the possible answers are "yes" or "no." There are also other questions related to work perceptions with the same possible answers of "yes" or "no." The question on job security is formulated as: "Do you think you could lose your job in the next six months?"; regarding opportunities at work, the question states: "At work, do you have the opportunity to progress?"; on remunerations the question is "Do you think you earn what you

deserve for what you do?'; on stress, the question is "Do you think your job is too stressful?"; on job content, the survey asks "Would you say your job is boring?"; on job safety the question is: "Do you think your job is dangerous for your health?"; and finally, the question related to the work schedule is phrased as: "Do you have a good work schedule?"

We define part-time work as comprising those workers working less than 40 working hours in a normal week in the main job. However, in order to compare with the American and some European definitions, we also use a definition of up to 34 hours per week (Bielenski, Bosch and Wagner, 2002). The definition of part-time work as less than 30 hours per week is also adopted for international comparisons by the OECD (van Bastelaer et al., 1997; OECD, 1999).[5] In addition, in order to take into account the heterogeneity of part-time work, we divide the part-time category into *marginal* (up to 19 hours per week) and *substantial* part-time work (20 to 34 hours per week) following the work of Bielenski, Bosch and Wagner (2002). This is similar to the approach of Booth and Van Ours (2008), who use normal weekly working hours in the main job and in regressions include the following categories: 1-15 (*small part-time*), 16-29 (*large part-time*, see Hakim, (1998), 30-40 (regular full-time hours), and 40 and more (working overtime). Connelly and Gregory (2008) use less than 30 hours without further disaggregation, while Clark (1997) uses log of weekly hours of work.

We control for the health state of individuals by means of a constructed score (EQ-5D) widely used in the health literature, following Shaw, Johnson and Coons (2005). The score is constructed using five questions that ask the individual to rank possible difficulties regarding the following dimensions: physical mobility, self-care ability, usual activities performance, pain and

[5] We tried alternative definitions of part time such as less than 40, less than 35 or less than 30 hours/week, all of which gave the same results.

discomfort, and finally anxiety or depression. The weighted score goes from -1 to 1, and a larger number indicates a healthier state.

Lastly, we explore differentials in satisfaction across poverty status using the official poverty line (1,626.67 Lempiras) and the official definition of poverty provided by the Honduras statistical office. According to this definition, the poor are those whose household per capita income lies below the official poverty line of 1,626.67 Lempiras, and it includes both extreme and relative poor.

Table 1 shows summary statistics for the sample of working men and women. Roughly 80 percent of women and 83 percent of men have at most completed primary school. In terms of civil status, 56 percent of working women and 67 percent of men are married or have a regular life partner. Women are also less likely than men to report they are healthy. In terms of their jobs, and as found in many previous studies, women are more likely to be satisfied with their work than men (83 versus 81 percent, respectively); the difference, however, is not statistically significant. Hourly wages are 32 percent higher for men. Men are also more likely to report being satisfied with their remuneration, their schedule or to report opportunities for progress than women. On the other hand, men are more likely to report having insecure, dangerous or stressful jobs. Women are more likely to be self-employed and work part-time than men. There is also a clear division in terms of occupations, with females more likely to be in professional, clerical and service jobs, and men more likely to be artisans, farmers and fishermen, operators or in an unskilled labor occupation.

One possible concern is that the sample of working women is biased due to an oversampling of women who work at home. We therefore provide statistics for the subset of women who work outside their dwellings. In general, summary statistics for this group look

quite similar to the overall sample of women with the main difference that women in the restricted sample are less likely to be self-employed. They are also slightly more educated and more likely to be urban than the overall sample.

Results from estimating a standard Mincer equation on hourly earnings with a *female* dummy confirm that there is a penalty in earnings for women.[6] The *female* coefficient is negative and statistically significant (equals -0.40), representing a 40 percent lower average hourly wage for women (results available upon request).

Table 2 shows some additional descriptive statistics by gender and by part-time status. Average educational attainment is higher among women working full-time relative to those working in part-time jobs, while the opposite is true among men. There are also important differences in the nature of jobs across full and part-time workers. Women in part-time jobs are more likely to be employed in low-skill occupations than women working full time, while the opposite is true for males. Connelly and Gregory (2008) show that in the United Kingdom between 14 and 25 percent of women who move from full- time jobs experience occupational downgrading. A similar pattern may be present in Honduras, although part of the difference in the skill content of jobs may be directly attributed to differences in education attainment. In terms of industries, women in part-time jobs tend to be more represented in manufacturing than women working full time, while part-time males are more likely to be employed in the primary sector relative to their full-time counterparts. Lastly, a much higher proportion of women in part-time jobs are self-employed relative to women working full time or to part-time men. This may have to do with the fact that women working part time have a higher number of young children than women working full time, while no differences appear among men.

[6] The basic equation includes: a female dummy, age, age squared, a urban/rural dummy, 3 education levels dummies (primary completed, high school completed and university completed) and a health index. Equations that included occupation and industries dummies, tenure and marital status did not change the above reported results.

Interestingly, both for women and men, people working part time earn a higher hourly wage than those working full time. Results from estimating a Mincer equation with a *female* dummy, a *part* dummy and *part_fem* (part-time dummy interacted with a female dummy) confirm these results and are available upon request. In this regression we obtained significant coefficients for the three variables (equal to -0.40, +0.50 and +0.13, respectively) even after controlling for occupation, industry, firm size, job category and individual characteristics.

Women working full time report having more opportunities to progress than women working part time, yet those in part time jobs tend to be more satisfied with their job schedule. Overall, there are no significant differences in job satisfaction among women working in full or part-time jobs. Instead, while there are no significant differences in their reported subjective work characteristics, men working full time tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than those in part time jobs.[7]

3. Estimation Methodology

Recent years have seen an increase in economists' interest in the analysis of subjective well-being. [8] Clark and Oswald (1994) consider well being, $v=v(u, \mu)$, to be determined by work

[7] Given that the sample may have oversampled women working at home, we re-examined differences among women working in full and part time jobs when excluding women working at home. The results are very similar to the ones presented here except that when excluding this group, women working part time are no longer more likely to be employed in manufacturing than those in full time jobs.

[8] The analysis of job satisfaction for different groups of the population turns out to be relevant for different academic and policy issues. For instance Akerlof, Rose and Yellen (1988), McEvoy and Cascio (1985) and Freeman (1978) all find that job satisfaction predicts future quits, while Clegg (1983) and Mangione and Quinn (1975) show that job satisfaction responses are correlated with absenteeism (negatively) and worker productivity (positively) respectively. The understanding of workers subjective well being thus provides elements to better understand labor market behavior. This setting clearly relies on satisfaction data being comparable across individuals. See more on this discussion in Clark (1997).

satisfaction, u, and μ, which is the utility derived from other areas of life. The utility from working is usually represented as:

$$u=u\,(y, h, \boldsymbol{Xi}, \boldsymbol{Xj}), \qquad (1)$$

where y denotes labor income, h denotes hours of work, and X_i and X_j are sets of individual and job-specific characteristics, respectively, with the latter including both objective and perception-based (subjective) work characteristics.

A methodological issue that needs to be addressed when dealing with perception-based variables is that answers to subjective questions may be influenced by some innate, non-observable traits, such as individuals' degree of optimism or pessimism. This implies that the error term might be correlated with the vector of subjective, self-reported job perceptions in areas regarding job prospects, satisfaction with work schedule or job related stress. This occurs for example, when optimistic individuals are both more satisfied with their jobs and at the same time have a more benign assessment of different job attributes relative to more pessimistic individuals. Another potential problem is that such unobservable traits may be correlated with the choice of jobs (for example, more optimistic people may be more likely to work full time and at the same time be happier at work). A possible solution to this problem, proposed by Van Praag and Ferrer-i-Carbonell (2004), involves using information on individuals' valuation of other aspects of their life or environment (for example, satisfaction with health services, with transport or education) and regressing each of them against a set of observed individual characteristics.[9] A principal component analysis is then performed with the unexplained component of those regressions. The first principal component of those errors might be thought to capture the degree

[9] Individual valuations of these aspects, namely health, education and other public services are included in the QOL survey for Honduras.

of optimism or pessimism (K_i) of individual *i*. We assess the robustness of our results to the inclusion of such variable. The hypothesis is that after accounting for such unobserved heterogeneity, the remaining error is no longer correlated with subjective dependent variables, and therefore the estimation no longer suffers from endogeneity bias (van Praag, Frijters and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2002).[10] [11]

After adding optimism (***k)*** as an additional explanatory variable, the model becomes

$$u=u\,(y,\ h,\ X\boldsymbol{i},\ X\boldsymbol{j},\ \boldsymbol{k}), \qquad (2)$$

We use a normal probabilistic model (Probit) to estimate equation (2), on a cross-section of men and women. We also examine whether the results obtained with this model are robust to accounting for sample selection into employment, by estimating a full maximum likelihood estimation of the Heckman selection model. In a first stage, we estimate a Probit model of labor force participation including as independent variables individual characteristics ***Xi***, plus a number of other household variables which help to identify the selection model, but are assumed not to influence reported levels of job satisfaction. These variables are: number of children under 10 in the household (*nchildren_10*), and the interaction of this variable with female (*child_female*) as well as the individuals' own unearned income excluding remittances and subsidies (*ynlm_ci*).[12]

[10] The variables used to construct optimism are: "Do you think that academic success depends on each person's abilities and effort?" (yes/no); "How satisfied are you with the Public Health services quality in your Country?" (1-10); "How satisfied are you with the Public Education System in your Country? (1-10); "How satisfied are you with the Public Transportation System in your Country?" (1-10); "Generally speaking, could you say that you can trust most people or that you need to be careful in trusting others?" (1-10).

[12] We also tried to include other variables used by Clark (1997): spouse's pay, spouse's hours of work, the household division of tasks, such as shopping or cooking , the provision of care for others (all of these interacted with gender), as well as the income of others in the household. However, not many respondents answered the household division of tasks question, and the hours of work was not relevant in our case, as hours of work is our

This paper thus considers that female-male differences in responses to job satisfaction questions and part-time work reflect a real difference in well-being; it also considers that, once all relevant variables are controlled for, there is no good reason why gender should enter into the vector of ***Xi*** variables in equation (2), i.e. identical men and women in identical jobs and identical working hours should report the same level of job satisfaction. Following Clark (1997), part of this paper will be concerned with what "identical" means, testing for different explanations of the gender satisfaction differential and concluding that such differences are not fully explained by differences in individual or job characteristics (objective and subjective).

4. Results

4.1 Part-time Preferences and Gender: Compensating Differentials, Selection or Expectations?

Table 3 presents the results of estimating model (1) on the sample of all workers 18 to 64 years old.[13] The first column includes as controls individual and objective job characteristics, excluding earnings, while the second column adds log earnings as an explanatory variable. The results indicate that, if earnings are not accounted for, all workers (women and men) prefer full-time jobs. It is only after we control for labor income in column (2) that the results show a clear gender differential, even after accounting for all individual, household and objective job

main variable of interest. Spouses' pay was added as robustness test on the sample of married individuals and results did not change.

[13] We do not restrict the sample further than this; however we did try some restrictions to the sample. First, we kept only the married or partnered individuals where the female partner was aged 25 to 50, as in Booth and van Ours (2008). Second, given the issues with our data, we also try keeping only those women working outside the home. Results remain unchanged for all these sub-samples.

characteristics.[14] An *F* test of the joint significance of the coefficients on *part_time+part_time*female* indicates that women also prefer full-time work, but to a much smaller extent than men.

Gender differences in preferences for part-time work remain once subjective work job attributes are added as controls in column (3). In fact, accounting for these differences in job characteristics yields larger coefficients (in absolute value) both for part-time and part-time interacted with female. The better we account for differences in jobs, the stronger the preference of males for full-time work, which suggests that cultural norms, rather than job characteristics, shape workers' preferences for working longer hours.

We assess whether gender differences are driven by unobserved heterogeneity in individuals' outlook which is correlated with individual's preferences for part-time work. This would happen for example, if more optimistic individuals were also more likely to work full or part time, and if there are important differences in optimism between males and females. As stated in Section 3, the hypothesis behind our approach is that by capturing these differences in optimism and controlling for them, we remove any correlation between part-time and the error term, and therefore obtain consistent estimates. The results of this exercise are presented in column (4). Accounting for such differences does not alter the results in any significant way. If anything, it strengthens the overall picture of strong preference for full-time work among males, with a smaller, but still statistically significant preference for full-time work among women.

Differences in satisfaction with part-time work by gender could be driven by differences in labor market participation across women and men. Thus, the unobserved true distribution of well-being at work may be identical across gender (once their explanatory variables are

[14] When instead of labor income we include the subjective variable "well remunerated" alone, we also find clear gender differentials, evidence that this subjective variable captures earnings quite accurately.

controlled for) but, if dissatisfied women are less likely to be in employment or in full-time jobs than men, the observed distribution of job satisfaction will be biased for the usual reasons. In Honduras, only 42 percent of women are active in the labor market, compared to 90 percent of men.[15] [16] In addition, and unlike in developed countries (Clark, 1997; Booth and van Ours, 2008) women in Honduras are more likely to be in self-employment than men (41 percent vs. 39 percent) and both genders have about the same probability of being unemployed (about 3 percent for both men and women). Therefore, differences in the employment rate (82 percent of men vis-à-vis 40 percent of women) need to be taken into account. The underlying assumption is that *potential* job satisfaction is related to the probability of being employed; if there is no relation, even non-random participation will yield a random sample of job satisfaction responses. Column (5) show the results of taking selection into account as discussed in Section 3.[17] The selection equation (not reported), shows that as predicted, there is a positive correlation between participation and job satisfaction, indicating that individuals who are more likely to be satisfied at work are also more likely to participate. However, accounting for this correlation we still observe higher job satisfaction of men in full-time jobs relative to women.[18]

We conclude the examination of the relationship between part time work and job satisfaction by presenting results separately by gender and type of part-time work (marginal or substantial) in Table 4. Columns (1) and (2) show a different coefficient in part-time work across men and women: negative and statistically significant for the first and close to zero and not

[15] We define labor market participation as being either in employment or unemployed, with the latter defined as people without a job but who have searched for a job during the week of reference.
[16] As a matter of comparison, in the UK, the corresponding figures for the 16-64 cohorts are 67 percent of women and 86 percent of men.
[17] Results obtained estimating a Heckman selection model by maximum likelihood.
[18] The correlation between the participation equation and the selection equation is positive, which implies positive selection bias in women's satisfaction. This finding suggests that the job satisfaction distribution observed for paid women is higher than would be found for comparable women workers who choose not to participate in the labor market.

statistically significant for the latter. Column (4) shows that the negative coefficient for men is driven by a large negative coefficient on substantive part time work even if earnings and the other characteristics of jobs are accounted for. Instead, women do not display any differences in job satisfaction across the different categories of part or full-time work.[19]

In sum, the results presented in Tables 3 and 4 indicate substantive gender differences in the relationship between part time work and job satisfaction. While, everything else constant, men are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in full time work, women's satisfaction is only mildly higher, or depending on the specification, not affected by full-time work. This differential emerges even after accounting for differences in a large set of objective and subjective job characteristics, or for a different degree of optimism or selection into employment. Such differential preferences are instead likely to be shaped by social norms regarding traditional gender roles, with men deriving more self-esteem from working long hours.

4.2 Job Attributes Preferences and Gender

Given that men and women seem to have a different taste for hours of work, we next explore whether they also exhibit a different taste for other job attributes. This can further inform on how preferences are shaped by gender in a developing country. Comparing the coefficients on objective and subjective work characteristics by gender (presented in Table 4) we observe some noteworthy differences. We find, for example, that men reporting stressful jobs are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs, while this relation is not significant for women. Interestingly, as discussed in Section 2 (and Table 2) men are also more likely to report that their jobs are

[19] Excluding women working at home does not change the results.

stressful. In contrast, reporting having a monotonous job reduces job satisfaction for women but not for men.

Other job characteristics impact the probability of job satisfaction for women and men. For example, considering one's job to be well remunerated, or reporting opportunities of progress at work, have a large positive impact on job satisfaction which is nearly identical for women and men. Reporting high job insecurity has a large negative and statistically significant effect for all, but the effect is twice as large for women. This suggests that women may have a lower tolerance for risk and/or a higher preference for protection, which is consistent with the finding that women are more likely to be affiliated with social security in Latin America (IDB, 2008). Finally, another noteworthy difference is the larger and statistically significant coefficient on earnings for males compared to a smaller and not statistically significant coefficient for women, suggesting that earnings have a larger bearing on job satisfaction for male workers.

4.3 Part-Time Preferences, Gender and Marital Status

Men and women with different family responsibilities are likely to have different attitudes towards part-time work. In this section we examine the relationship between job satisfaction and part time work depending on the nature of the living arrangements of individuals. To do so, we run our basic regressions splitting the sample by gender and between married (or partnered) and non-married individuals. The results are presented in Table 5. Only coefficients for part-time work and earnings are presented, but the specifications control for the full set of variables as we included in column (4) from Table 3. We find large differences across living arrangements. Single, divorced or widowed women are more likely to report they are satisfied with their jobs when working part-time than when in full-time jobs. In contrast, the part-time dummy is not

statistically significant among married or partnered women. Both married and single men have a strong preference for full-time jobs, but the coefficient is only statistically significant for married men, given the larger number of observations in this regression.

The former indicates that there are important differences in preferences between single and married women. What may account for this difference? We postulate that this finding can relate to the fact that married women are more likely to have children, which in turn increases their need to work full time to sustain their families. So, even if we account for earnings, a higher number of dependents may increase women's willingness to work longer hours to make ends meet. To further explore this hypothesis, we re-estimate the regressions presented in the first four columns of Table 5 and include a variable that takes the value of 1 if a woman works part-time and has children. The results presented in columns (5) and (6) in Table 5 indicate that while married women without children behave much like single women, married (or partnered) women with children are more likely to prefer full-time jobs. Dearing et al (2007) find similar evidence from Germany and Austria.[20]

Overall, we do not find that women with children exhibit a higher preference for part-time work as a way to combine earnings generation with family responsibilities. Instead, these results suggest that "unconstrained" women (without families) are more satisfied working less, while "constrained" women (married, and in particular when they have children) are more satisfied working longer hours. Is satisfaction with full-time jobs thus influenced by unobserved heterogeneity related to unmet needs? We now turn to this question.

4.4 Job Satisfaction, Gender and Poverty Status

[20] The authors find that even if labor force participation rates of mothers in Austria and Germany are similar, full-time employment rates are much higher among Austrian mothers.

The results presented in the last section suggest that there are important differences in preferences for part-time work between women with and without families (in particular women with children). Here we test whether this result is driven by the fact that 50 percent of women in the sample are poor (with 27 percent in extreme poverty), which may imply that they cannot afford the luxury of working few hours.

In order to test this hypothesis, the first specification we run (not reported) was based on Table 3 and included per capita household income as a control. As the results do not change substantially, we concluded that if income has an effect, it must be non-linear.

Therefore, our preferred specification in Table 6 shows results by poverty status.[21] Columns (1) and (2) show that, after controlling for individual earnings, individuals in poorer households have a stronger preference for full-time jobs. It also shows that while men always have a stronger preference for full-time work than women, poor women prefer working full time more than non-poor women. Notice that another way to interpret the results for poor women is that they are more constrained in the number of hours they work than non-poor women, perhaps due to lack of full-time work for these workers. Results are similar if controlling for selection bias (not reported).

4.5 Job Satisfaction, Gender and Work Category

In the previous results we find a strong preference for full-time jobs among both men and women, particularly for women with young children or who are poor. One possible explanation

[21] The number of observations in this table is lower as the information on per-capita household income was not available for the full sample of workers, however we also run the specifications as in Table 3 on this smaller sample, and the results remain unchanged.

for this pattern is that, unlike in more rigid and structured work settings in developed countries, women in developing countries have quite a lot of work flexibility even when working full time, which allows them to combine work with other activities such as child-rearing better than women in developed countries.[22] Such flexibility would be afforded by the much higher proportion of informal jobs, which would entail among other aspects, greater schedule freedom than other more formal activities. Furthermore, previous studies have characterized informality as a convenient option for workers when their corresponding job in the formal sector is less desirable, given the flexibility and non-pecuniary benefits of autonomous work (Perry et al., 2007; Pagés and Madrigal, 2008; IDB, 2008). To test this hypothesis we re-estimate our main equations adding a set of interaction variables to assess whether women in self-employment (Table 7, column 1) or in informal employment (Table 7, column 2)—defined as workers in either self-employment or employed in firms of fewer than 10 employees—exhibit a higher preference for full-time jobs than women employed in formal jobs (83 percent of women working part time are in the informal sector, suggesting that part-time jobs are almost a synonym of informality in this economy).[23] The first column shows that there are no significant differences in the preference for part-time jobs among salaried and self-employed workers, with none of the interaction terms with self-employment being statistically significant. The second column however, shows that a preference for full-time jobs is only found among those in informal jobs. This suggests a job satisfaction penalty for working part-time among those employed in very small firms. While this finding could be interpreted as evidence that women in informal jobs can better combine work with other activities and therefore have a lower relative preference for part time jobs, there is another plausible explanation for these results: women in informal jobs are

[22] Flexibility as an inherent characteristic of informality could be found in many papers such as Maloney (2004) and Perry et al. (2007), among others.
[23] The same is true for men, with 75 percent of men working part-time being informal by our definition.

more likely to live in poor households and therefore, even accounting for their earnings, unmet needs reduce their satisfaction when working part time.

5. Conclusions

This article examines the relationship between hours of work and job satisfaction. We find a significant gender satisfaction differential in terms of preferences for full-time jobs. Quite surprisingly—and unlike the results found for some European women—we do not find a preference for part-time work among women. Instead, we find that women working full time are more likely to report being satisfied at their work than women working part time. For their part, men exhibit an even stronger preference for full-time relative to part-time jobs than women.

Our results are suggestive of the fact that working full time is valued because it allows increasing per capita household income. Contrary to our expectations, married women with children exhibit a stronger preference for full-time jobs relative to single women or to married women without children. Poorer women are also more likely to value full-time jobs than non-poor women. Finally, women in informal jobs—particularly those employed in small firms—are also more likely to prefer full-time jobs than those employed in larger firms. These results suggest that many women are labor supply-constrained, working part time not by choice but rather because of the lack of more work. This has a bearing on child care policies, as poor parents may leave their children unattended while enduring long working days.

Finally, it is important to be mindful that workers' preferences and experiences can vary substantially not only across gender and poverty status, but also by race, age, location, and other dimensions. Therefore, data that document such differences should be collected and taken into

account in the design of policies. Such heterogeneity is difficult to reflect when working with samples as small as the ones discussed in this paper. These shortcomings notwithstanding, the analysis presented herein points to the many potential benefits of collecting and analyzing this type of data.

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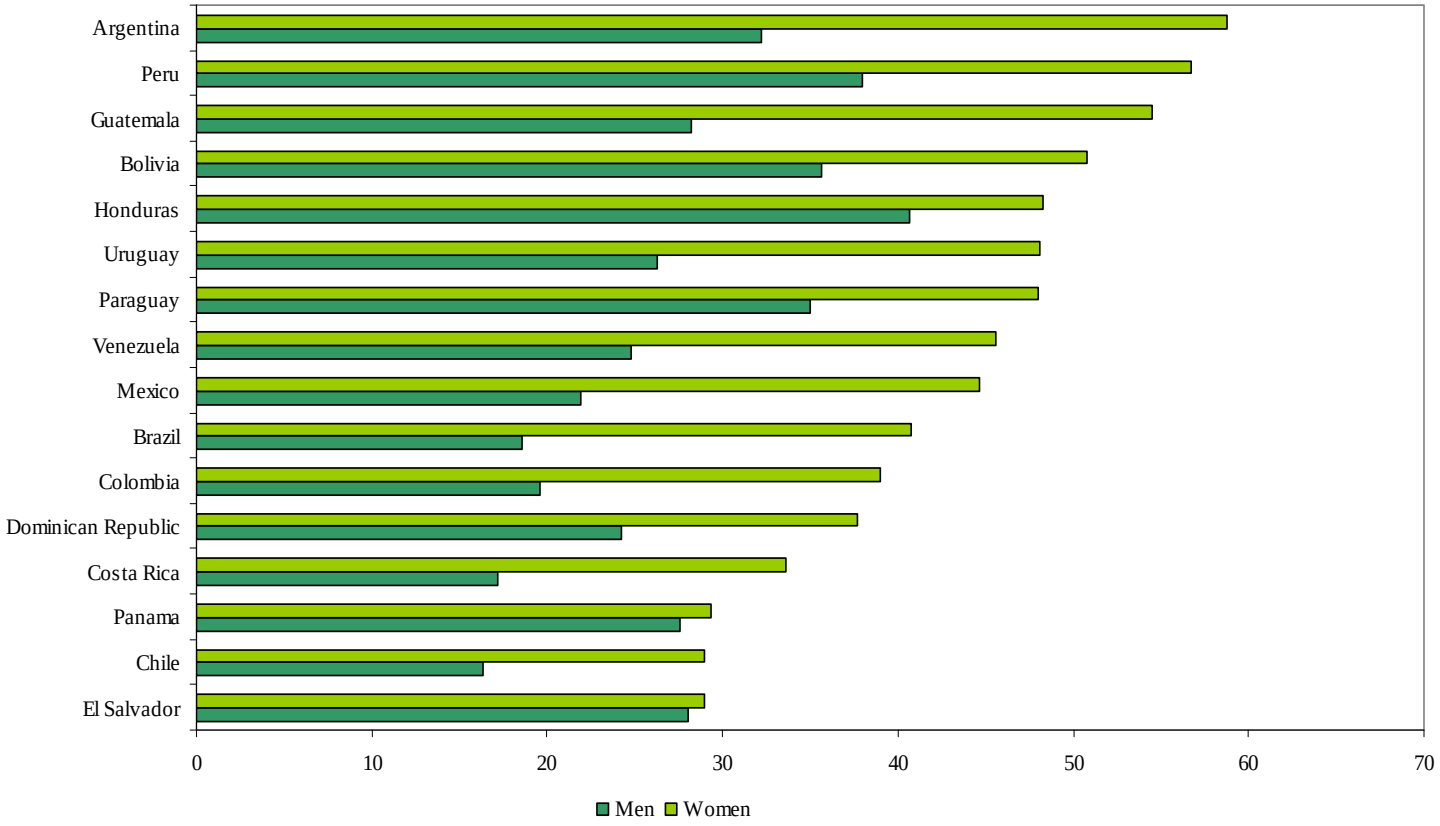
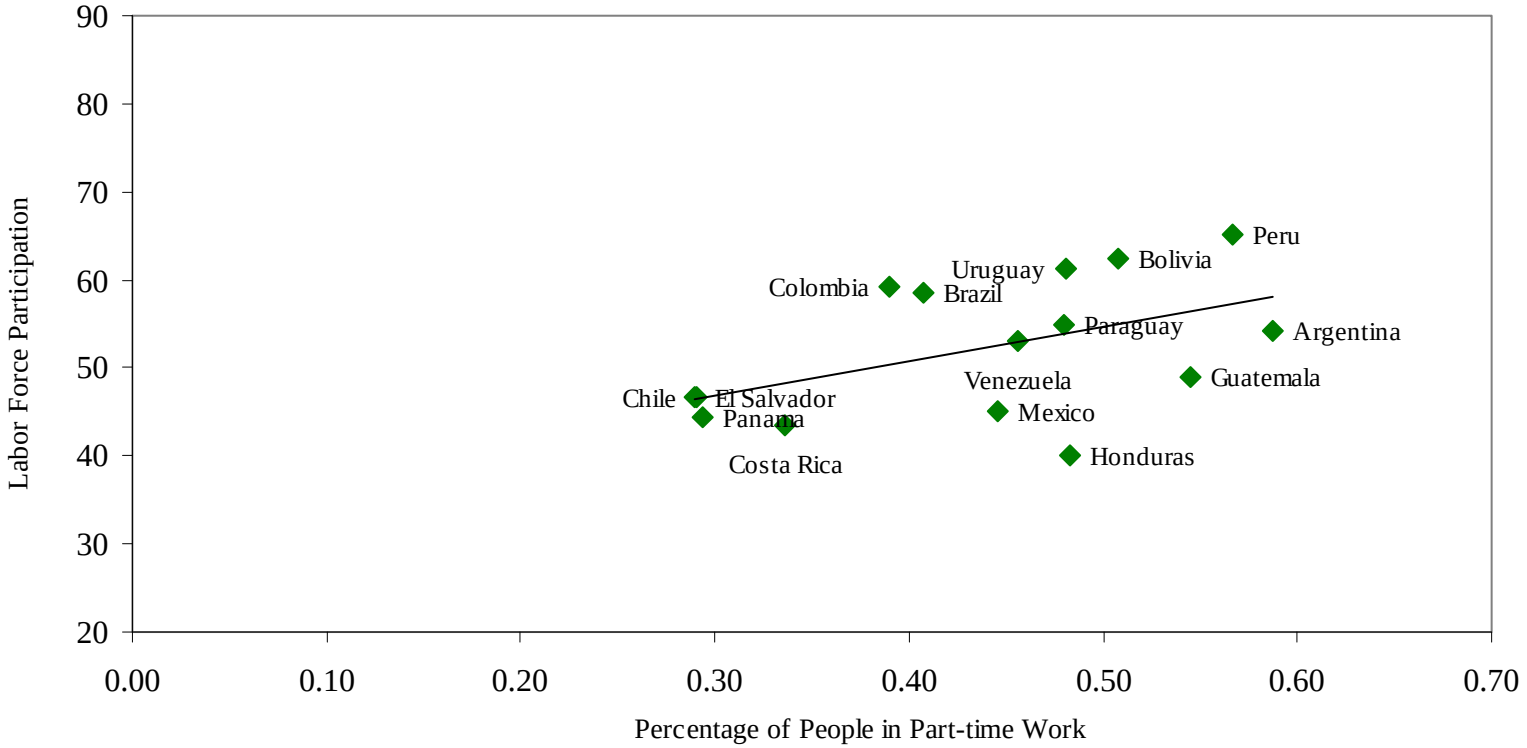
Figures

Figure 1. Part-time Workers in Latin American Countries by Gender, early 2000's



Source: IDB (2008) available at www.iadb.org/sociometro.
Note: Part-time work is defined as the percentage of people working less than 40 hours a week of the total employed people.

Figure 2. Labor Force Participation and Part-time Work, Female Workers



Source: IDB(2008), available at www.iadb.org/sociometro

Tables

Table 1
Honduras-Weighted Sample, Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old, by Gender

	Women	Men	Difference	Women (excluding those working at home)	
				Mean	Std. Dev.
Job Satisfaction	0.828	0.814	-0.014	0.826	0.379
Salaried	0.439	0.677	0.237***	0.667	0.472
Informal	0.696	0.614	-0.082***	0.539	0.499
Age (years)	37.21	34.43	-2.780***	35.369	11.180
Age Squared	1516.00	1328.37	-187.63***	1375.84	866.05
Married	0.556	0.667	0.110***	0.508	0.500
Urban	0.667	0.649	-0.017	0.736	0.441
Education 1	0.304	0.304	0.000	0.237	0.426
Education 2	0.499	0.527	0.028	0.496	0.500
Education 3	0.107	0.094	-0.013	0.136	0.343
Education 4	0.090	0.075	-0.015	0.131	0.337
Health Index	0.878	0.922	0.044***	0.884	0.193
Children in the household (%)	0.508	0.501	-0.007	0.496	0.500
Number of children less than 10 years old	0.879	0.855	-0.023	0.860	1.056
Hours (monthly)	160.53	178.36	17.828***	158.717	77.710
Part-time	0.382	0.195	-0.187***	0.334	0.472
Ind1	0.026	0.174	0.148***	0.039	0.194
Ind2	0.224	0.199	-0.025	0.150	0.357
Ind3	0.399	0.430	0.031	0.341	0.474
Ind4	0.352	0.197	-0.154***	0.469	0.499
Ocup1	0.464	0.302	-0.162***	0.482	0.500
Ocup2	0.161	0.036	-0.125***	0.166	0.372
Ocup3	0.005	0.035	0.03***	0.008	0.089
Ocup4	0.192	0.388	0.196***	0.108	0.311
Ocup5	0.178	0.239	0.061***	0.236	0.425
Stressful	0.474	0.512	0.038*	0.514	0.500
Dangerous	0.268	0.378	0.110***	0.269	0.444
Monotonous	0.181	0.155	-0.026*	0.166	0.372
Progress Opportunities	0.604	0.674	0.070***	0.633	0.482
Good Schedule	0.820	0.834	0.014	0.813	0.390
Well Remunerated	0.532	0.586	0.053***	0.532	0.499
Insecure Job	0.148	0.212	0.064***	0.174	0.379
Log Earnings (hourly)	2.736	3.059	0.322***	2.983	1.055
Non-labor Earnings	1938.193	749.954	-1188.238***	1966.287	6363.698
Number of observations	1472	997		960	

Note 1: Non-missing observations.

Note 2: Education 1 = 1 if no education; Education 2 = 1 if primary school completed; Education 3 = 1 if high school completed; Education 4 = 1 if college completed; Ind1= 1 if agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing; Ind2= 1 if manufacturing; Ind3 = 1 construction, retail, restaurants, transport and storage; Ind4 = 1 if electricity, gas, water, financial institutions, insurance and social services; Ocup1 = 1 if professionals, scientists, technicians and middle-level professionals; Ocup2 = 1 if clerks, service workers and sales person; Ocup3 = 1 if farmers and fishermen; Ocup4 = 1 if operators, artisans, plant operators; Ocup5 = 1 if unqualified workers.

Non-labor Earnings = monetary or non-monetary income from pensions, retirement, leasing, government programs, scholarships, remittances.

Informal jobs are defined as self-employment or workers employed in firms of less than 10 workers

Note 3: Significance *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 2
Honduras-Weighted Sample, Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old, by Type of Work and Gender

	Women			Men		
	Full-time	Part-time		Full-time	Part-time	
	Mean	Mean	Difference	Mean	Mean	Difference
Job Satisfaction	0.837	0.815	-0.021	0.831	0.742	-0.089**
Salaried	0.553	0.255	-0.297***	0.694	0.607	-0.087**
Informal	0.615	0.828	0.214***	0.581	0.754	0.173***
Age (years)	35.916	39.310	3.394***	34.177	35.485	1.308
Age Squared	1417.349	1675.600	258.25***	1305.151	1424.176	119.02
Married	0.519	0.617	0.098***	0.676	0.627	-0.049
Urban	0.724	0.575	-0.148***	0.668	0.569	-0.099**
Education 1	0.251	0.388	0.137***	0.302	0.313	0.011
Education 2	0.534	0.443	-0.090***	0.534	0.499	-0.036
Education 3	0.118	0.090	-0.027*	0.098	0.077	-0.021
Education 4	0.097	0.078	-0.019	0.066	0.112	0.046*
Health Index	0.883	0.869	-0.014	0.922	0.924	0.002
Children in the household (%)	0.481	0.552	0.072***	0.512	0.457	-0.055
Number of children less than 10 years old	0.829	0.960	0.131**	0.853	0.862	0.009
Hours (monthly)	215.802	71.126	-144.67***	202.142	80.231	-121.91***
Ind1	0.028	0.022	-0.005	0.157	0.246	0.089**
Ind2	0.186	0.286	0.100***	0.223	0.099	-0.124***
Ind3	0.448	0.318	-0.130***	0.431	0.424	-0.007
Ind4	0.338	0.373	0.035	0.189	0.231	0.043
Ocup1	0.528	0.361	-0.167***	0.285	0.372	0.087**
Ocup2	0.166	0.151	-0.015	0.034	0.045	0.011
Ocup3	0.007	0.002	-0.005	0.035	0.034	-0.001
Ocup4	0.145	0.267	0.122***	0.412	0.286	-0.127***
Ocup5	0.153	0.218	0.065***	0.234	0.263	0.030
Stressful	0.523	0.396	-0.127***	0.518	0.487	-0.031
Dangerous	0.259	0.283	0.024	0.400	0.288	-0.111***
Monotoous	0.196	0.157	-0.039*	0.165	0.113	-0.052*
Preogress opportunities	0.661	0.512	-0.149***	0.672	0.684	0.012
Good Schedule	0.800	0.853	0.053***	0.830	0.852	0.022
Well Remunerated	0.531	0.534	0.002	0.583	0.599	0.016
Insecure Job	0.167	0.118	-0.048***	0.213	0.208	-0.005
Log Earnings (hourly)	2.547759	3.041792	0.494***	2.944164	3.532677	0.589***
Non-labor Earnings	1803.979	2155.318	351.34	693.2822	983.8389	290.5
Number of observations	901	571		784	194	

Note 1: Non-missing observations.

Note 2: Education 1 = 1 if no education; Education 2 = 1 if primary school completed; Education 3 = 1 if high school completed; Education 4 = 1 if college completed. Ind1= 1 if agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing; Ind2= 1 if manufacturing; Ind3 = 1 construction, retail, restaurants, transport and storage; Ind4 = 1 if electricity, gas, water, financial institutions, insurance and social services; Ocup1 = 1 if professionals, scientists, technicians and middle-level professionals; Ocup2 = 1 if clerks, service workers and sales person; Ocup3 = 1 if farmers and fishermen; Ocup4 = 1 if operators, artisans, plant operators; Ocup5 = 1 if unqualified workers.

Non-labor Earnings = monetary or non-monetary income from pensions, retirement, leasing, government programs, scholarships, remittances.

Informal jobs are defined as self-employment or workers employed in firms of less than 10 workers

Note 3: Significance *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 3

Honduras-Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

	Probit-Mg Effects				Heckman-Mg Effects
	(1)	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**
Part-time	-0.0669***	-0.0607**	-0.0937***	-0.1071***	-0.1063***
	(0.0234)	(0.0301)	(0.0335)	(0.0325)	(0.0335)
Part-time and Female	0.0272	0.0508*	0.0766***	0.0888***	0.0777***
	(0.0244)	(0.0285)	(0.0247)	(0.0209)	(0.0184)
Female	-0.0108	0.0192	0.022	0.0201	0
	(0.0175)	(0.0199)	(0.0205)	(0.0204)	0.0000
Age (years)	-0.0007	-0.0036	-0.0012	-0.0003	0
	(0.0037)	(0.0044)	(0.0045)	(0.0044)	0.0000
Age Squared	0	0	0	0	0
	0.0000	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	0.0000
Urban	0.0211	0.0027	0.0123	0.0083	0
	(0.0157)	(0.0178)	(0.0190)	(0.0188)	0.0000
Education 2	0.0272*	0.0306*	-0.0089	-0.0115	-0.0112
	(0.0155)	(0.0182)	(0.0192)	(0.0186)	(0.0177)
Education 3	0.0460**	0.038	0.0112	0.0089	0.0077
	(0.0219)	(0.0259)	(0.0289)	(0.0283)	(0.0269)
Education 4	0.0506*	0.0427	0.0283	0.0225	0.0194
	(0.0293)	(0.0337)	(0.0357)	(0.0353)	(0.0337)
Health Index	0.1286***	0.1401***	0.0715*	0.0647	0.0638
	(0.0343)	(0.0399)	(0.0416)	(0.0413)	(0.0425)
Children in the household (%)	-0.0051	-0.0024	0.0046	-0.0044	-0.0045
	(0.0142)	(0.0164)	(0.0169)	(0.0157)	(0.0148)
Log Earnings (monthly)		0.0538***	0.0312***	0.0299***	0.0300***
		(0.0090)	(0.0094)	(0.0089)	(0.0098)
Stressful			-0.0343**	-0.0316*	-0.0301*
			(0.0165)	(0.0164)	(0.0159)
Dangerous			-0.0226	-0.0272	-0.0246
			(0.0182)	(0.0182)	(0.0166)
Monotonous			-0.0493**	-0.0483**	-0.0433**
			(0.0215)	(0.0214)	(0.0181)
Progress Opportunity			0.0883***	0.0855***	0.0769***
			(0.0190)	(0.0187)	(0.0176)
Well Remunerated			0.1443***	0.1428***	0.1306***
			(0.0181)	(0.0178)	(0.0195)
Insecure Job			-0.0760***	-0.0774***	-0.0671***
			(0.0227)	(0.0226)	(0.0189)
Optimism				0.0117**	0.0111**
				(0.0058)	(0.0057)
Observations	3599	2982	2464	2450	5873
Pseudo_R2	0.0596	0.0704	0.172	0.176	-
Rho	-	-	-	-	0.034
Wald test ch2	-	-	-	-	294.1
Prob>chi2	-	-	-	-	0.000
Log Likelihood	-	-	-	-	-2046400
F test (#)	4.20	3.82	8.78	14.55	12.14
Prob>chi2 (#)	0.0404	0.0506	0.0031	0.0001	0.0005

Note: Education 1 = 1 if no education; Education 2 = 1 if primary school completed; Education 3 = 1 if high school completed; Education 4 = 1 if college completed; Weighted regressions. Specifications control for occupation, industry, firm size, job category and benefit status. Exclusion variables are: number of children aged less than 10 years old, number of children interacted with female, and non-labor income. Omitted Education 1.

Note 2: Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

(#) F and P value of the test *Part Time+Part-time*Female* =0

Table 4

Honduras-Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old, by Gender

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

	Probit-Mg Effects			
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	(1)	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**
Part-time	0.0061	-0.1011***		
	(0.0203)	(0.0373)		
Substantial Part-time			0.0234	-0.1198**
			(0.0231)	(0.0477)
Marginal Part-time			-0.0159	-0.0437
			(0.0275)	(0.0510)
Ocup1	-0.9818***	0.0017	-0.9794***	0.0105
	(0.0229)	(0.0732)	(0.0261)	(0.0722)
Ocup2	-0.9847***	-0.079	-0.9841***	-0.078
	(0.0065)	(0.1180)	(0.0069)	(0.1172)
Ocup4	-0.9908***	0.0659	-0.9904***	0.074
	(0.0047)	(0.0695)	(0.0050)	(0.0696)
Ocup5	-0.9912***	-0.0401	-0.9908***	-0.0315
	(0.0045)	(0.0725)	(0.0048)	(0.0715)
Ind2	0.0325	-0.1433**	0.0335	-0.1461**
	(0.0732)	(0.0722)	(0.0729)	(0.0729)
Ind3	0.0769	-0.0618	0.0764	-0.0614
	(0.0782)	(0.0511)	(0.0780)	(0.0514)
Ind4	0.0548	0.0157	0.0559	0.0152
	(0.0698)	(0.0456)	(0.0694)	(0.0457)
Stress	0.0174	-0.0518**	0.0167	-0.0540**
	(0.0280)	(0.0244)	(0.0280)	(0.0244)
Danger	0.0124	-0.0427	0.0122	-0.0421
	(0.0320)	(0.0261)	(0.0320)	(0.0262)
Monotonous	-0.0905**	-0.0193	-0.0901**	-0.0178
	(0.0381)	(0.0313)	(0.0383)	(0.0311)
Progress	0.0678**	0.0767***	0.0674**	0.0748***
	(0.0303)	(0.0286)	(0.0303)	(0.0286)
Well Remunerated	0.1471***	0.1364***	0.1495***	0.1362***
	(0.0293)	(0.0267)	(0.0297)	(0.0268)
Insecure Job	-0.1188***	-0.0546*	-0.1186***	-0.0548*
	(0.0459)	(0.0305)	(0.0460)	(0.0306)
Log Earnings (monthly)	0.0075	0.0469***	0.0054	0.0492***
	(0.0156)	(0.0166)	(0.0160)	(0.0168)
Observations	1477	973	1477	973
Pseudo_R2	0.185	0.187	0.187	0.186

Note 1: Weighted regressions. Specifications control for individual characteristics, firm size, job category, benefit status and optimism.
Ind1= 1 if agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing; Ind2= 1 if manufacturing; Ind3 = 1 construction, retail, restaurants, transport and storage; Ind4 = 1 if electricity, gas, water, financial institutions, insurance and social services; Ocup1 = 1 if professionals, scientists, technicians and middle-level professionals; Ocup2 = 1 if clerks, service workers and sales person; Ocup3 = 1 if farmers and fishermen; Ocup4 = 1 if operators, artisans, plant operators; Ocup5 = 1 if no qualified workers. Omitted Ind1 and Ocup3.
Note 2: Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 5

Honduras-Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old, by Gender and Marital status

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

	Probit-Mg Effects					
	Unmarried Women	Married Women	Unmarried Men	Married Men	Unmarried Women	Married Women
	(1)	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**	**(6)**
Part-time	0.0583*	-0.0217	-0.0885	-0.0896**	0.0397	0.049
	(0.0310)	(0.0247)	(0.0617)	(0.0437)	(0.0413)	(0.0364)
Part-time and children					0.0478	-0.1273**
					(0.0503)	(0.0612)
Log Earnings (monthly)	0.0499***	0.0019	0.0249	0.0615***	0.0542***	0.0015
	(0.0178)	(0.0119)	(0.0270)	(0.0207)	(0.0185)	(0.0116)
Observations	653	829	294	677	652	825
Pseudo_R2	0.267	0.188	0.283	0.186	0.254	0.185

Note 1: Weighted regressions. Specifications control for individual characteristics, firm size, job category, benefit status, industry, occupation, job characteristics, and optimism.

Note 2: Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 6

Honduras-Employed workers from 18 to 64 years old, by Poverty Status

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

	Probit-Mg Effects	
	Poor	Non-poor
	(1)	(2)
Part-time	-0.1624**	-0.1021**
	(0.0697)	(0.0485)
Part-time and Female	0.1154**	0.0894***
	(0.0517)	(0.0236)
Log Earnings (monthly)	0.0368	0.0449***
	(0.0237)	(0.0163)
Observations	583	744
Pseudo_R2	0.181	0.213
F-test (1)	5.02	13.75
Prob>chi2	0.0251	0.0002

Note 1: Weighted regressions. Specifications control for individual, household and job characteristics, firm size, job category, benefit status, industry, occupation and degree of optimism

Note 2: Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Note 3: Poor are those whose household per capita income lies below the official poverty line of 1,626.67 Lempiras

Table 7
Honduras-Employed Workers from 18 to 64 years old
Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

	Probit-Mg Effects	
	Self-employed	Informal[b]
	(1)	**(2)**
Part-time	-0.0759*	0.0601
	(0.0416)	(0.0572)
Part-time and female	0.0832**	-0.0117
	(0.0357)	(0.0897)
Part-time, female and self-employed	0.0118	
	(0.0700)	
Female and self-employed	-0.0046	
	(0.0394)	
Part-time and self-employed	-0.0555	
	(0.0680)	
Female and informal		-0.016
		(0.0381)
Part-time, female and informal		0.0983*
		(0.0550)
Part-time and informal		-0.2346**
		(0.1099)
Self-employed	-0.0359	
	(0.0582)	
Informal		-0.0233
		(0.0527)
Female	0.0194	0.0314
	(0.0238)	(0.0283)
Stressful	-0.0320**	-0.0305*
	(0.0163)	(0.0163)
Dangerous	-0.0261	-0.0245
	(0.0181)	(0.0180)
Monotonous	-0.0482**	-0.0478**
	(0.0214)	(0.0213)
Progress opportunities	0.0888***	0.0878***
	(0.0189)	(0.0189)
Well remunerated	0.1417***	0.1440***
	(0.0179)	(0.0179)
Insecure job	-0.0754***	-0.0745***
	(0.0226)	(0.0226)
Log Earnings (monthly)	0.0303***	0.0303***
	(0.0095)	(0.0094)
Optimism	0.0116**	0.0110*
	(0.0058)	(0.0058)
Observations	2450	2450
Pseudo_R2	0.177	0.18

Note 1: Weighted regressions. Specifications control for occupation, industry, firm size, job category and benefit status

Note 2: Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

b. Informal jobs are defined as self-employment plus those workers employed in firms of less than 10 worke

Appendix

Table A1
Honduras- Women, excluding those working at home, from 18 to 64 years old, by Type of Work and Gender

	Full-time	Part-time		
	Mean	Mean	Difference	t
Ind1	0.039	0.039	-0.000	-0.006
Ind2	0.182	0.086	-0.096***	-4.355
Ind3	0.343	0.339	-0.004	-0.130
Ind4	0.436	0.536	0.100***	2.946
Ocup1	0.477	0.491	0.014	0.396
Ocup2	0.184	0.128	-0.056**	-2.315
Ocup3	0.010	0.004	-0.006	-1.198
Ocup4	0.125	0.075	-0.051**	-2.553
Ocup5	0.203	0.303	0.100***	3.304
Number of observations	633	327		

Note 1: Non-missing observations.
Ind1= 1 if agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing; Ind2= 1 if manufacturing; Ind3 = 1 construction, retail, restaurants, transport and storage; Ind4 = 1 if electricity, gas, water, financial institutions, insurance and social services; Ocup1 = 1 if professionals, scientists, technicians and middle-level professionals such as clerks, teachers and nurses; Ocup2 = 1 if service workers and sales person; Ocup3 = 1 if farmers and fishermen; Ocup4 = 1 if operators, artisans, plant operators; Ocup5 = 1 if unqualified workers.
Note 3: Significance *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1