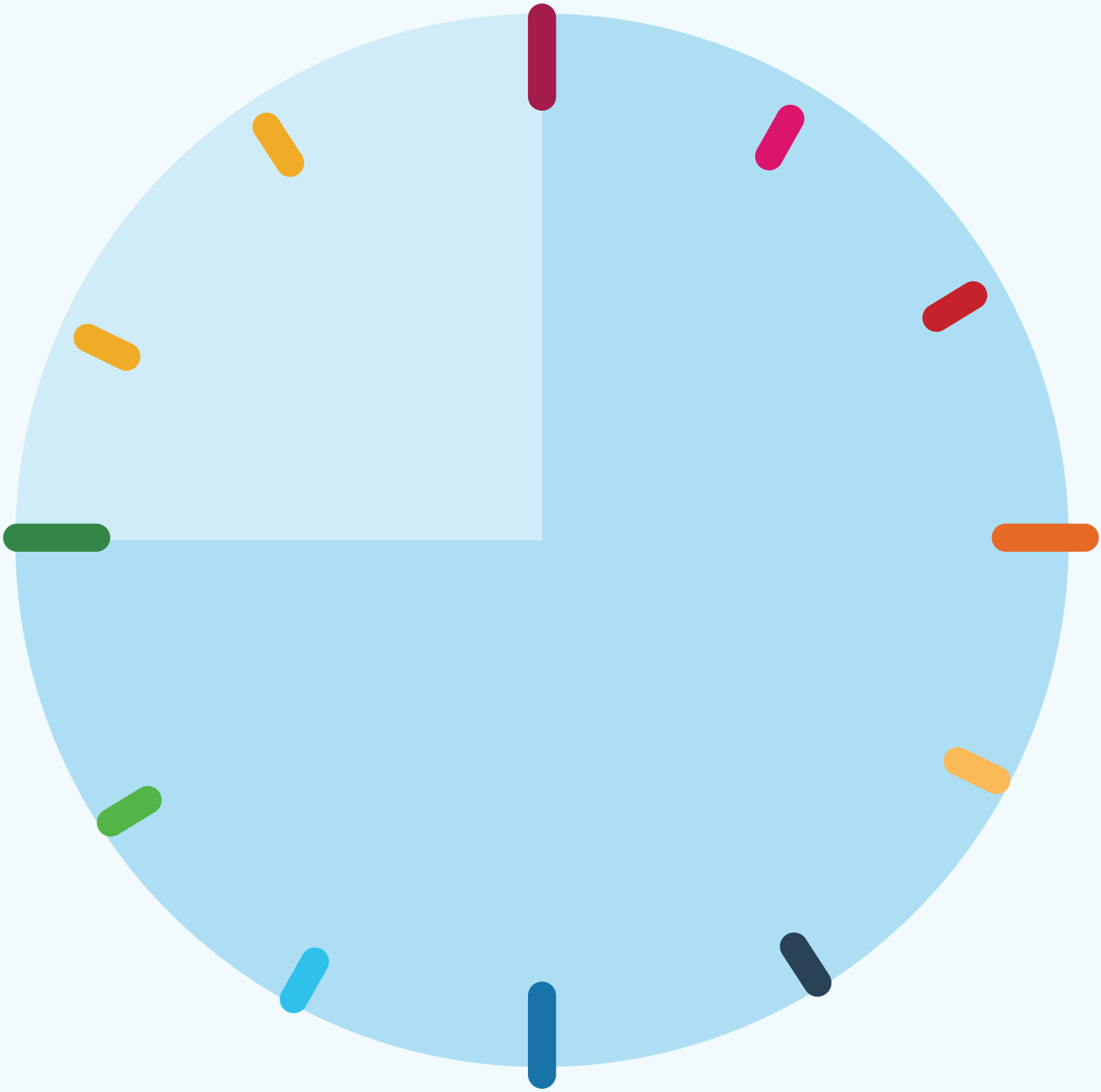
TIME USE AND SOCIAL INEQUALITY

A GENDERED PERSPECTIVE

A MULTI-COUNTRY ANALYSIS TO PRODUCE NEW INSIGHTS USING EXISTING TIME USE SURVEY DATA



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The report was prepared under the overall leadership of **Papa Seck**, Chief of UN Women's Research and Data Section, and **Jessamyn Encarnacion**, Inter-Regional Adviser on Gender Statistics and Technical Lead of the Women Count Programme. **Aurélie Acoca** provided overall coordination, serving as the primary focal point with the consultant, and led the consolidation of the report and companion guidelines, while also ensuring substantive technical input and quality assurance on behalf of UN Women. **Ala Negruta** and **Natia Mestvirishvili** from the Women Count project in the UN Women Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia, provided the initial conceptual direction for the analysis, ensuring that it delivered policy-relevant, country-level insights by drawing on existing national time-use survey data beyond globally standardized indicators.

The analytical work was carried out by J**oan García Román**, Demography Researcher at the Centre for Demographic Studies (CED) in Barcelona, who served as lead consultant. He was responsible for developing new policy-relevant time-use indicators, conducting the comparative analysis of national time-use survey microdata from 10 countries, and drafting both the report and the companion Guidelines to Produce New Insights Using Existing Time Use Survey Data.

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AI tools were used solely to assist with copy-editing and language refinement. All substantive content, analysis, and conclusions remain the responsibility of the authors.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Why is time use studied?

Time is a finite and valuable resource that each individual uses in ways shaped by their unique circumstances. While everyone has the same twenty-four hours in a day, the management and structuring of that time are heavily influenced by social, cultural, and economic factors. These influences are mediated by gender, social class, age, caregiving responsibilities, cultural background, and physical or cognitive abilities, among other variables.

A central focus of time-use research is the examination of gender differences in how time is allocated. Women, for example, often shoulder the primary responsibility for unpaid domestic and caregiving work—activities frequently excluded from economic analyses and policy debates. Men, in contrast, are typically positioned as the main earners, engaged primarily in paid employment. This division of labour generates significant disparities in how time is distributed and valued across women and men.

Understanding how individuals spend their time is essential for identifying and making visible inequalities between groups. From a policy perspective, what is not measured often remains undervalued. This is particularly true for unpaid care and domestic work, which has historically been invisible in national statistics and policy frameworks. In recognition of this gap, the fifth United Nations Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 5) explicitly calls for countries to "recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure, and social protection policies, as well as promoting shared responsibility within households and families, as nationally appropriate."

Gender differences in time use extend beyond paid and unpaid work to other dimensions of life, including leisure. Evidence shows that men, on average, spend more time on leisure than women, highlighting the broader implications of unequal time distribution for well-being, opportunities, and access to resources (García-Román and Gracia, 2022; Craig and Mullan, 2013).

In response, "time policies" have emerged as a critical instrument to address unequal time allocation. These policies aim to reorganize and restructure the social framework of time to improve public well-being, reduce time poverty, and protect the right to time. Equitable time allocation—where individuals are satisfied with how their time is spent—can foster better health outcomes, reduce inequalities, increase productivity, and contribute to a more sustainable society, both socially and environmentally (Mückenberger, 2011, Time Use Initiative, 2023).

1.2. Why the multi-country analysis?

Despite their potential to inform policy, Time Use Survey (TUS) data remain under-analyzed and underutilized. Based on an assessment of regional priorities, several emerging themes related to time use were identified for further exploration. To capture the evolving dynamics of time allocation, this study goes beyond conventional indicators—such as average time spent, participation rates, and population-wide averages—by incorporating new and non-traditional measures.

The multi-country analysis also revealed the need for a comprehensive **guidelines report** to support the effective use of TUS data in additional national contexts.

This study includes data from ten countries: Argentina, Bangladesh, Colombia, Georgia, Kenya, Mongolia, Morocco, Senegal, the United Kingdom, and Viet Nam. These countries were selected to reflect diverse cultural and social contexts across regions, as well as different levels of development and gender equality. **Table 1** presents general information on each survey included in the analysis. Further details on the selection process, variable availability, and methodological notes are provided in **Annex 1** (Technical Note).

TABLE 1:
Description of the surveys included in the Multi-Country Analysis

	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Country	AR	BG	CO	GE	KE	MN	MO	SN	UK	VN
Year	2021	2021	2020-21	2020-21	2021	2019	2011-12	2021-22	2014-15	2022
Total diaries	14,350	17,772	126,753	11,434	24,004	14,590	16,395	11,689	16,533	6,001
Minimum age	14	9	10	15	15	12	15	15	8	15
Diaries from respondents aged 15 years and older	14,181	17,752	116,110	11,434	24,004	13,888	16,395	11,689	14,958	6,001
Persons aged 15 years and older	14,181	17,752	116,110	5,730	24,004	6,009	16,395	11,689	7,485	6,001
Number of diaries completed by each respondent	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	2	1
Type of survey	Diary	Diary	Questions	Diary	Estimates diary	Diary	Estimates diary	Diary	Diary	Diary

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

1.3. Structure of the report

The report is organized thematically around the following topics:

- **Topic A:** General differences in time use between women and men
- **Topic B:** Unpaid domestic work by household members
- **Topic C:** Unpaid care work services by household members
- **Topic D:** Estimating total yearly hours of unpaid work
- **Topic E:** Task segregation
- **Topic F:** Time poverty
- **Topic G:** Transportation
- **Topic H:** Flexible work arrangements
- **Topic I:** Simultaneous activities and multitasking
- **Topic J:** Well-being

Each topic is described in detail, with an emphasis on its relevance from both a time-use and gender perspective. The Guidelines to produce new insights using existing TUS data, which accompany this report, provide further methodological details. Most indicators used in the analysis were newly developed for this framework. Their definitions, computational methods, and metadata—including formulas, assumptions, and sources—are fully documented in the Guidelines to ensure transparency and replicability.

For each thematic area, the report presents country-specific estimates that enable both cross-country comparisons and context-sensitive interpretations. Gender differences are a central focus, with all data disaggregated by sex. Estimates are also broken down by key demographic and socio-economic characteristics, including age, educational attainment, household composition (co-residence with a partner and children under 15), and employment status. Where possible, additional insights are provided on disability status and the age of the youngest child in the household.

This disaggregated approach supports a nuanced understanding of time-use patterns and inequalities across and within countries, forming the basis for evidence-based policy development.

The report concludes with a synthesis of key findings from the multi-country comparison.

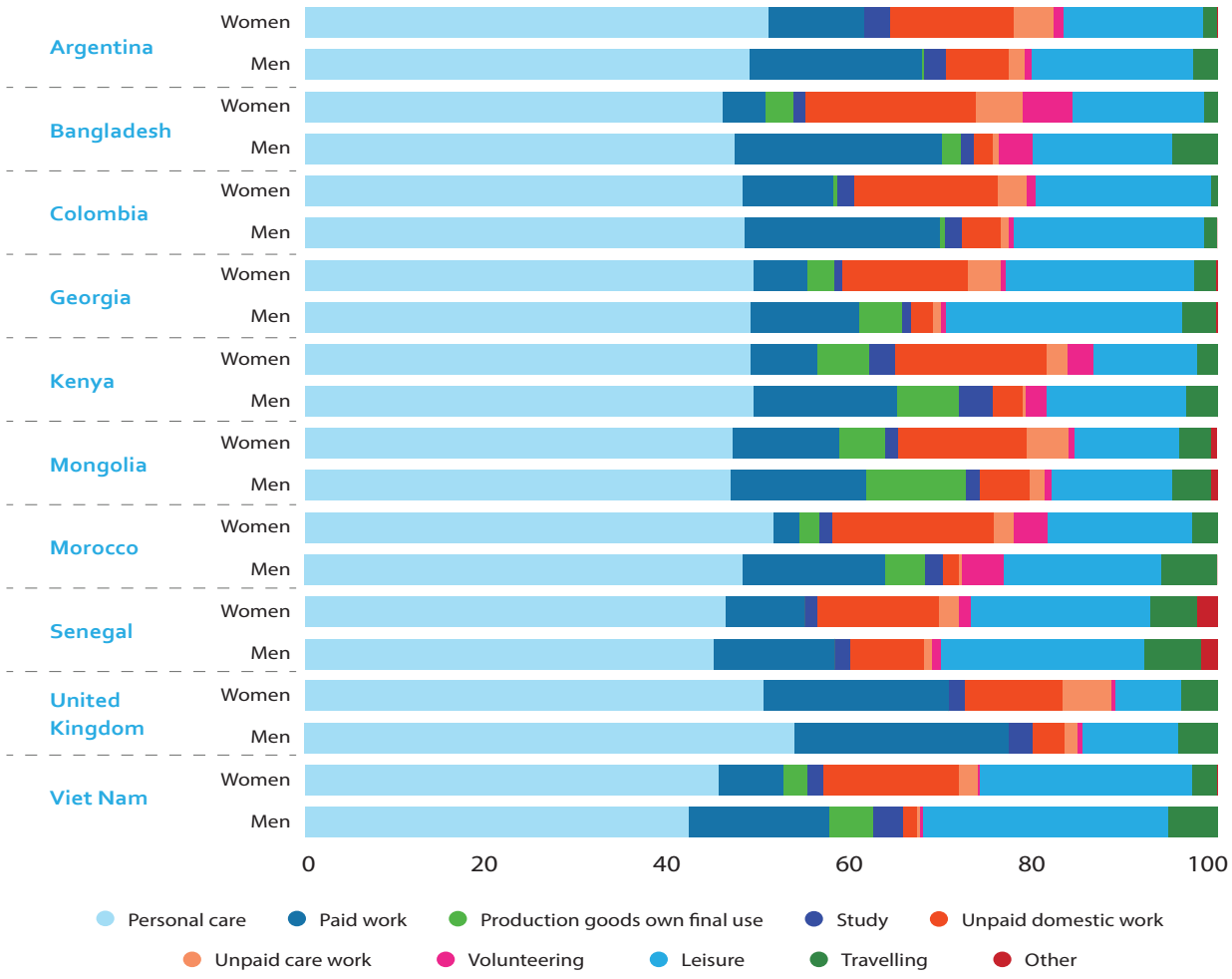
2. THE GENDER TIME GAP: EVIDENCE FROM TEN COUNTRIES

2.1. Dimensions of gendered time use

Topic A. General differences in time use between women and men

Although research shows some convergence in how women and men use their time, notable differences remain in its distribution (Hanna et al., 2023; Pailhé et al., 2021). **Figure 1** presents the average daily allocation of time between men and women across countries, with corresponding estimates available in **Table A3 in Annex 2**.

FIGURE 1:
Percentage of time for each activity in an average day, including weekdays and weekends



Note: The total time for all activities in Colombia does not sum to 1,440 minutes. In addition, the production of goods for own final use is not estimated for the United Kingdom and Viet Nam. Further details are provided in **Annex 1** (Technical Note).

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

The estimates in **Figure 1** highlight both gender differences and cross-country variation. In all countries, individuals spend nearly half the day on personal care activities (light blue), which include sleeping and eating. Men devote a considerable share of their time to paid work (blue). The largest gender gap in paid work appears in Bangladesh, where men spend more than four hours longer than women on this activity. Consistently, men spend more time on paid work and less on unpaid domestic duties (dark orange), while women spend equal or greater time on household duties than on paid work—Viet Nam being the sole exception.

Although other activities account for smaller shares of the day, leisure time is also significant. Senegal stands out for its high levels of leisure, particularly socializing: men report more than six hours of leisure daily, including nearly five hours of social interaction. Women's leisure is slightly lower, though still substantial. Georgia is the only other country displaying comparable levels of leisure.

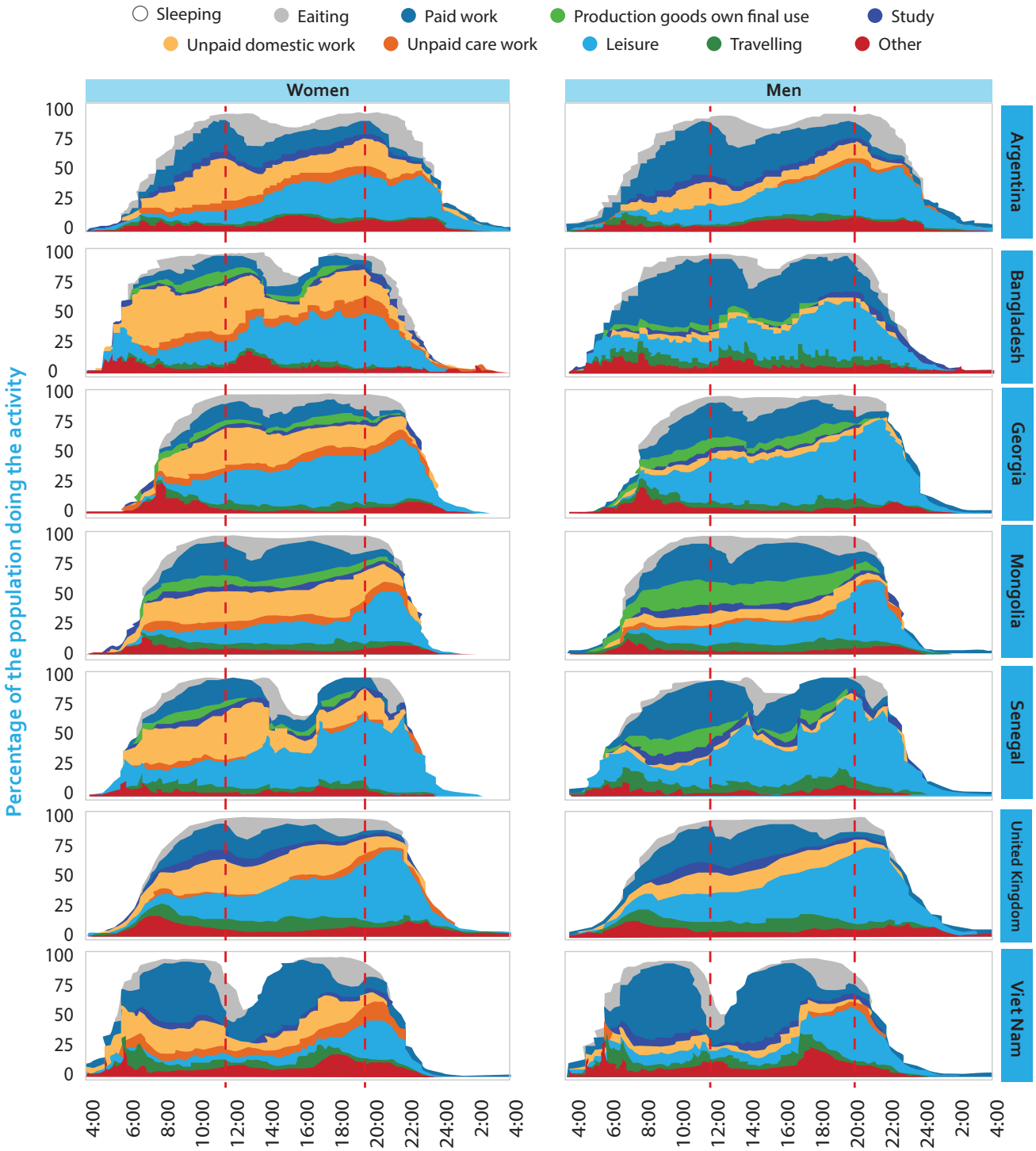
Where estimates for the production of goods for own final use[1] are available, this activity represents an important share of time. Mongolia is most notable: men spend an average of 158 minutes per day producing goods for their own use.

To explore not only how much time is devoted to activities but also when they occur, **Figure 2** shows their daily distribution in countries with detailed time-diary data. Tempo graphs provide a clearer picture of gender differences (see Guidelines**, Section 4.6)**. In these graphs, sleeping is separated from personal care for greater precision.

1 Production of goods for own final use refers to productive activities carried out by individuals for their own use or their household's use. These activities do not involve monetary transactions and are primarily done for self-consumption rather than the market.

FIGURE 2:

Tempo graphs of daily activities, by sex, for countries with detailed time-diary data available



Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Figure 2 shows that most individuals sleep during the early and late hours of the day. Starting around 4 a.m., daily activities gradually begin. Paid work becomes dominant in the middle of the day, alongside unpaid domestic work, which is reported more frequently by women.

In several countries, both women and men report napping in the middle of the day. This pattern is especially pronounced in Viet Nam, where nearly half of the population is asleep around 1 p.m. A 2015 survey found that 74 percent of Viet Namese individuals nap during lunch hours. This practice is deeply embedded in Viet Namese culture, with workplaces and educational institutions often accommodating midday rest. Some universities, for instance, provide siesta rooms equipped with hammocks and air conditioning for students (Q&Me Viet Nam Market Research, 2015). Similarly, in Senegal, afternoon napping is common, particularly among women later in the day. This may reflect both cultural traditions and practical adaptation to the hot climate and to their domestic and care workload. The 5 p.m. prayer time also provides a natural pause, reinforcing this rest period as part of the daily rhythm.

Eating takes place throughout the day, with peaks at main meals such as lunch and dinner. Leisure, particularly media consumption and television, is concentrated in the late evening. The tempo graphs also reveal differences in leisure distribution across countries. In Georgia, Senegal, and the United Kingdom, leisure is a predominant activity even during midday. By contrast, in Viet Nam, leisure is largely concentrated in the evening, which helps explain the lower total leisure time observed there.

A.1. General gender inequalities in time use

Figure 3 presents a general inequality indicator (left column, green) that captures the overall difference in how time is distributed between women and men across the population. The detailed methodology for calculating this indicator is provided in the Guidelines**, Section 4.1.**

FIGURE 3:

General indicator and activity-specific inequality indicators, by country

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

The results show that Bangladesh, Morocco, and Senegal record the highest gender disparities in time use, with values of 0.239, 0.211, and 0.184, respectively. Colombia, Georgia, and Kenya form a middle group with values around 0.15, while Argentina, Mongolia, and Viet Nam report moderately lower disparities (around 0.12). The United Kingdom has the lowest level of inequality, at 0.084.

As discussed in the previous section, gender differences in paid and unpaid work are the main drivers of these disparities. The inequality indicator can be interpreted as the share of time that would need to be reallocated between women and men to achieve equal distributions. For example, in Bangladesh, 23.9 percent of one gender's time (0.239 × 100) would need to change to reach parity. In the United Kingdom, this figure is only 8.4 percent.

This general indicator can also be disaggregated by subgroups defined by age, educational attainment, household composition, and employment status (see **Annex 2, Table A.4**).

Age

Disparities are highest among individuals aged 30–59, peaking at 0.274 in Bangladesh. Older adults show the lowest inequality levels, with the United Kingdom reporting a minimum of 0.062. Mongolia and Senegal are exceptions, where the youngest group (under 30) shows slightly higher disparities than the middle-aged group. In Kenya, the gap between the youngest group and the 30–59 group is minimal, suggesting broadly similar gendered time-use patterns across these age groups.

Educational attainment

Lower education levels are generally associated with greater inequality in time use. In most countries, the largest disparities are observed among those with less than secondary education. The United Kingdom stands out as an exception to this pattern. In Argentina, Bangladesh, Mongolia, and Senegal, the highest disparities are found in the "other education" category, which includes non-standard or unclassifiable degrees that do not fit conventional education levels.

Household composition

While variation across household types is somewhat smaller, clear patterns emerge. Couples with children show the highest disparities, reaching 0.283 in Bangladesh and 0.265 in Morocco. Senegal is notable for its high disparities among single parents living with children. In most countries, the gap between couples with children and other household types is substantial. Even in the United Kingdom—where overall disparities are low—parents stand out as the group with the highest inequality.

A distinct trend appears when comparing one-person households to couples without children. In Argentina, Morocco, and the United Kingdom, disparities are nearly the same across these two groups, suggesting that forming a couple without children does not substantially affect gendered time use. By contrast, in Bangladesh, Georgia, and, to a lesser extent, Colombia, forming a couple is associated with a marked increase in inequality.

Employment status

Finally, the lowest disparities are observed among individuals participating in the labour market, suggesting that employment may help narrow gender differences in time use.

A.2. Gender inequality index by activity

Following the analysis of overall gender disparities in time use, the report examines the specific activities that contribute to these inequalities. **Figure 3** displays inequality levels by activity for each country, ordered by overall gender disparity. In the chart, orange denotes activities where men spend more time, while blue denotes activities where women spend more time (see methodological details in **Section 4.2 of the** Guidelines).

Several consistent patterns emerge across countries. Men typically spend more time on paid work, own-use goods production (with the exception of Bangladesh), leisure, and travel (except in Viet Nam). Women, by contrast, devote significantly more time to unpaid domestic work and caregiving. Gender disparities are especially pronounced in activities dominated by women. In some cases, inequality values exceed 0.8—for example, unpaid domestic work in Bangladesh, Morocco, and Senegal. Bangladesh and Morocco also report the highest disparities in paid work, but in the opposite direction: women spend far less time on paid work, with inequality values below -0.6. These results highlight the persistence of strong gender specialization in labour.

Significant inequalities in unpaid activities are also evident in Kenya, Georgia, Colombia, and Viet Nam, where unpaid domestic or care work shows values above 0.5. At the other end of the spectrum, the United Kingdom records the lowest levels of inequality in unpaid domestic and care work (0.241 and 0.395, respectively), followed closely by Argentina (0.321 and 0.434).

In the domain of paid work, Viet Nam and Mongolia stand out for their relatively balanced gender patterns, with inequality estimates close to zero—lower even than those of the United Kingdom. By contrast, Kenya, Georgia, and Colombia show moderate but comparable levels of disparity.

Gender gaps in leisure time are smaller but consistently favor men. The largest inequalities are observed in Viet Nam (-0.183), followed by Georgia (-0.144) and Kenya (-0.142). Meanwhile, Colombia, Bangladesh, and Morocco display near-zero differences.

Personal care activities—such as sleeping, eating, and hygiene—are largely gender-neutral across all countries.

For study-related activities, men spend slightly more time in Senegal, Viet Nam, Morocco, and Kenya, as well as in Bangladesh and the United Kingdom, though the differences are minimal. In contrast, in Latin American countries such as Argentina and Colombia, women tend to devote more time to study.

Own-account work—such as informal agricultural or craft production—is mostly male-dominated, particularly in Mongolia, Morocco, Senegal, Georgia, and Argentina. Bangladesh (0.192) is a notable exception, where women spend more time on this activity.

Volunteering, including religious participation, is generally balanced. However, women spend more time on these activities in Colombia, Argentina, and Bangladesh, while men spend more time in Senegal, Viet Nam, and Morocco.

Finally, men consistently devote more time to travel, likely due to their greater participation in paid employment. This pattern is especially pronounced in Bangladesh, Morocco, and Colombia.

A.3. Probabilities of men spending more time than women

The next indicator used to examine gender differences in time use is the probability that men spend more time than women on a given activity. Estimates for all activities are presented in **Table 2,** with probabilities expressed as percentages for ease of interpretation. A value close to 50 percent indicates greater gender equality, while values approaching 100 percent reflect a higher likelihood that men spend more time. Further details on the construction and interpretation of this indicator are provided in **Section 4.5 of the** Guidelines**.**

TABLE 2:
Probability of men to outperform women by activity and country (percentages)

Activity	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Unpaid domestic work	29.3	8.6	18.2	15.1	12.5	23.3	7.7	14.4	32.2	19.0
Paid work	64.8	77.6	66.1	59.4	64.0	53.6	70.6	62.3	58.6	55.0
Production goods own final use	50.2	39.0	48.9	51.7	48.0	57.3	49.8	50.5		
Leisure	54.4	49.5	51.0	59.6	57.7	53.7	50.8	56.9	53.6	60.4
Unpaid care work	44.0	31.7	42.2	40.1	36.6	38.9	36.0	31.2	43.9	36.6
Study	48.9	50.4	50.0	49.8	51.2	50.1	51.2	52.7	50.3	51.9
Personal care	44.3	54.6	46.5	50.3	50.7	49.4	39.2	36.4	45.0	59.6
Travelling	59.9	81.9	63.3	61.9	59.3	51.5	76.4	69.6	53.0	51.8

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

The activity-based estimates closely align with the patterns discussed in the previous section. For unpaid domestic work, the probability that men spend more time than women is below 50 percent in every country—ranging from 7.7 percent in Morocco to 32.2 percent in the United Kingdom. In contrast, for paid work, the probability consistently exceeds 50 percent, confirming that men are more likely to devote more time to this activity. These probabilities range from 53.6 percent in Mongolia to 77.6 percent in Bangladesh.

Figure 4 plots these two activities against each other. All countries fall within the lower-right quadrant, showing that men are more likely to spend more time on paid work (x-axis) and less likely to do so for unpaid domestic work (y-axis). This confirms the persistence of a gendered division of labour across all countries. Bangladesh emerges as the most unequal case, while Morocco is somewhat closer to the rest of the group in terms of paid work. The United Kingdom remains the most gender-equal overall, although significant disparities remain, particularly in unpaid domestic work.

Figure 4 also highlights a cluster of countries—Colombia, Georgia, Senegal, Kenya, Mongolia, and Viet Nam—that exhibit low gender equality in unpaid domestic work but show a trend toward parity in paid work, similar to the United Kingdom. This pattern reflects a broader movement toward gender convergence in paid work, historically dominated by men. However, unpaid domestic work continues to fall disproportionately on women, resulting in a double burden: women engage in both paid and unpaid labour, while men's participation in unpaid tasks remains limited and only slowly increasing.

As shown in **Table 2**, the probabilities that men spend more time than women across different activities provide additional insights into cross-country differences in gendered time use.

For unpaid care work, probabilities remain below 50 percent in all countries, from 31.7 percent in Bangladesh to 44 percent in Argentina and the United Kingdom. In leisure, probabilities are closer to 50 percent in Bangladesh and Morocco, while Viet Nam and Georgia show the highest disparities, with values around 60 percent.

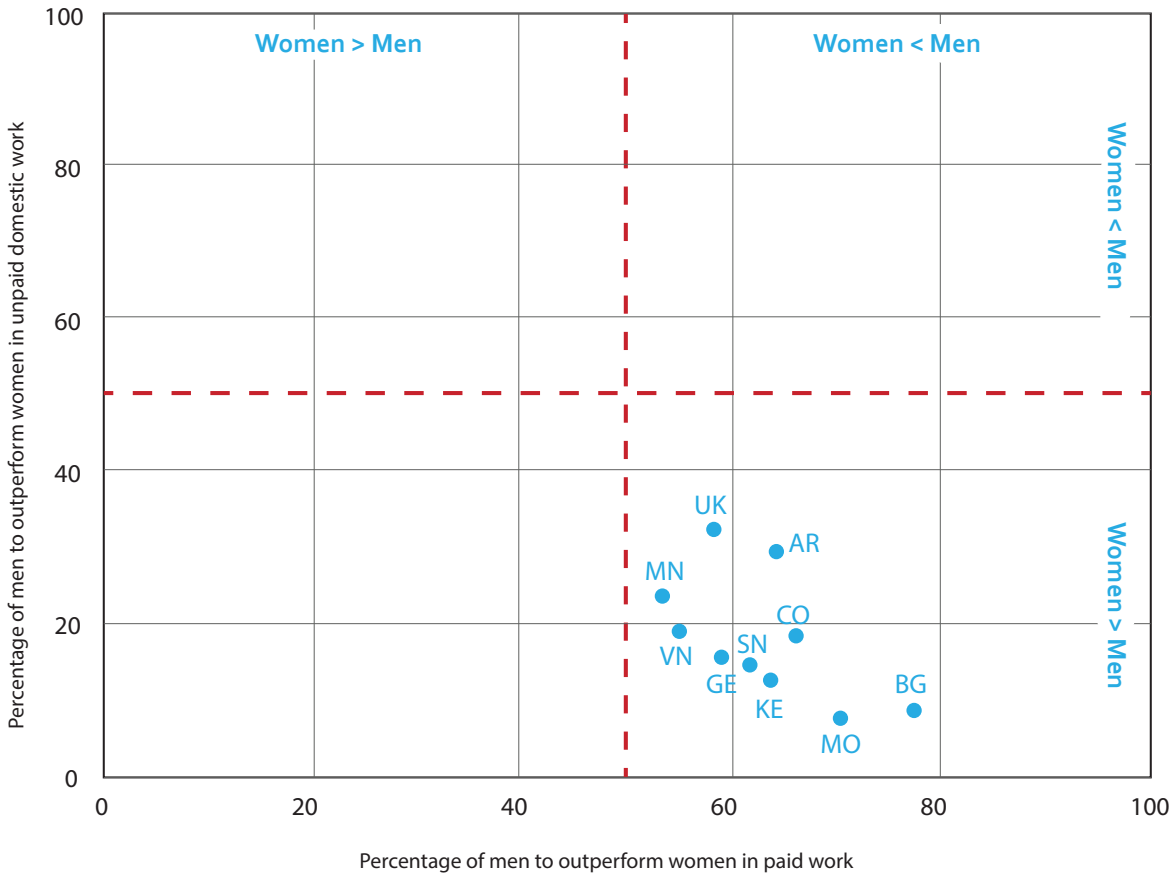
Studying is the most gender-balanced activity, with probabilities clustering tightly around 50 percent across all countries. Personal care, however, shows greater variation: in Viet Nam, men have a 59.6 percent probability of spending more time, compared to only 39.2 percent in Morocco.

For travel, men have a significantly higher probability of spending more time in Bangladesh (81.9 percent) and Morocco (76.4 percent), while probabilities fall near or below 50 percent in Mongolia, the United Kingdom, and Viet Nam.

Finally, in the production of goods for own final use, probabilities hover around 50 percent in most countries. Exceptions include Bangladesh, where women spend more time (39 percent probability of men outworking women), and Mongolia, where men spend more time (57.3 percent).

FIGURE 4:

Probability of men to outperform women in paid work and unpaid domestic work by country



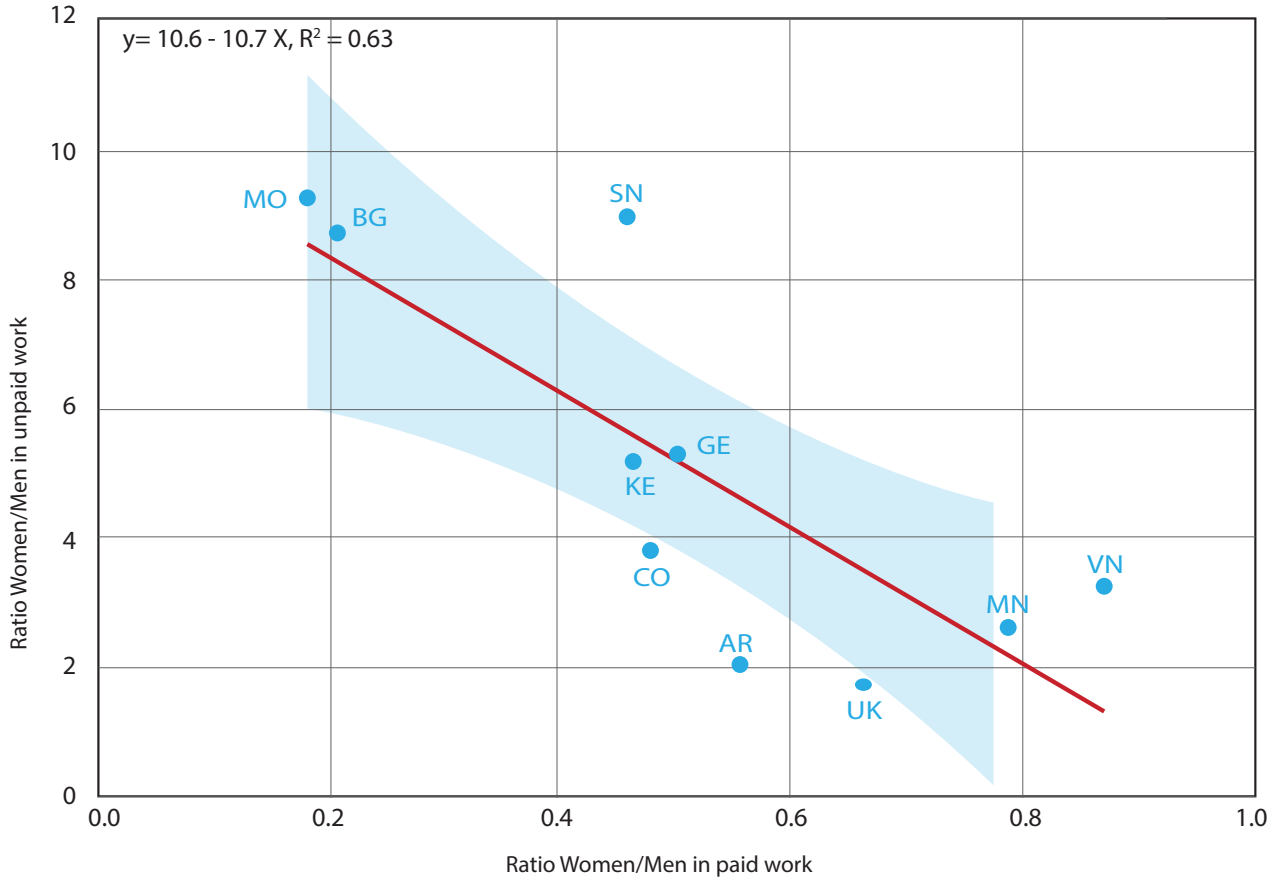
Note: AR: Argentina; BG: Bangladesh; CO: Colombia; GE: Georgia; KE: Kenya; MN: Mongolia; MO: Morocco; SN: Senegal; UK: United Kingdom; VN: Viet Nam.

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

A.4. Gender ratios

To further examine inequalities by activity, this report analyzes the ratios of time spent by women and men on different tasks (see Guidelines **Section 4.4** for details). This section focuses on paid and unpaid work (domestic and care combined), which exhibit the most pronounced gender differences. **Figure 5** illustrates the relationship between gender ratios in paid work and unpaid work across countries[2].

FIGURE 5:
Gender ratio (women/men) in paid work and unpaid work (domestic + care) by country



Note: AR: Argentina; BG: Bangladesh; CO: Colombia; GE: Georgia; KE: Kenya; MN: Mongolia; MO: Morocco; SN: Senegal; United Kingdom; VN: Viet Nam.

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

2 It is important to note the unambiguous contrast in magnitudes: the ratios for paid work are generally below 1, as men typically spend more time on paid work than women. In contrast, the ratios for unpaid work lack a theoretical upper limit, as women consistently devote more time to these tasks, with some countries showing particularly large imbalances.

As expected, the relationship between the two ratios—unpaid work and paid work—is negative and significant. Morocco and Bangladesh emerge as the most unequal countries. In both, women spend nearly 10 times more time on unpaid work than men, while men spend 5 times more on paid work than women. In the remaining countries, unpaid work ratios are generally lower. The United Kingdom is notable as the only country where the unpaid work ratio is below 2, indicating that women spend less than twice as much time as men on these tasks. Interestingly, while unpaid work inequality in Senegal aligns with that of the most unequal countries, its distribution of paid work resembles that of Georgia, Kenya, and Colombia, reflecting relatively lower inequality.

In terms of paid work, Viet Nam and Mongolia show the most balanced gender participation, with ratios close to 1. The United Kingdom also demonstrates relatively high gender equality in this area. In the other countries, gender ratios in paid work hover around 0.5, meaning men spend twice as much time on paid work as women.

Annex Table A.5 provides gender ratios in unpaid and paid work by individual characteristics. While most patterns are consistent across countries, some notable exceptions arise.

Age

Ratios for unpaid work decline with age, with the lowest values observed in the 60+ group. Ratios for the 15–29 and 30–59 age groups are more comparable, though they vary across countries. For paid work, the opposite trend emerges: the oldest group shows the highest levels of inequality, likely reflecting higher participation of younger individuals in the labour market.

Educational attainment

There is a positive relationship between education level and gender equality for both unpaid and paid work. Ratios are generally closer to 1 among individuals with more than secondary education. Differences between the "below secondary" and "secondary" groups are less pronounced, although inequality tends to be higher among the less educated. One exception is Georgia, where women with less than secondary education spend more time on paid work than men.

Household composition

Household composition affects gender ratios in unpaid and paid work. For unpaid work, couples with children show the most unequal patterns (e.g., ratios of 9.115 in Bangladesh and 9.567 in Morocco), reflecting traditional gender roles in family life. Individuals living with children but without a partner show similar patterns in some countries, such as Mongolia and Argentina, and even greater inequalities in Senegal and the United Kingdom. Those living alone tend to have the lowest ratios, likely reflecting reduced domestic responsibilities or more equal task-sharing standards, except in Senegal. In paid work, gender disparities are highest (closer to 0) among those living with a partner and children. However, variations exist: in Senegal, individuals living only with children are the least egalitarian and for women, it could be explained by the fact traditional gender roles are reinforced. In the contrary, in Bangladesh, Georgia, and Morocco, those living alone display the smallest gender gaps, though ratios still favor men.

Employment status

Paid work ratios are not reported for unemployed individuals due to interpretability concerns. For unpaid work, small differences are observed between employed and unemployed individuals.

A.5. Total work time measurement and gender differences

Total work time is measured as the sum of time spent on paid work, the production of goods for own final use, and unpaid work (such as housework and caregiving). Estimates by country and gender are presented in **Table 3**. The table also shows the gender gap (difference between women and men) and the ratio of women's to men's total work time, providing a comparative perspective across countries.

TABLE 3:
Total work time by sex. Minutes per day

Country	Women	Men	Gap (Women-Men)	Ratio (Women/Men)
Argentina	410	401	10	1.02
Bangladesh	456	396	59	1.15
Colombia	376	341	35	1.10
Georgia	375	286	89	1.31
Kenya	460	378	83	1.22
Mongolia	511	476	35	1.07
Morocco	358	318	40	1.13
Senegal	384	320	64	1.20
United Kingdom	348	322	27	1.08
Viet Nam	525	409	116	1.28

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Overall, women spend more total work time on activities than men in all countries surveyed. Total work time for women ranges from a minimum of 348 minutes per day in the United Kingdom to a maximum of 525 minutes in Viet Nam. Among men, the lowest total work time is observed in Georgia (286 minutes), while the highest is in Mongolia (476 minutes).

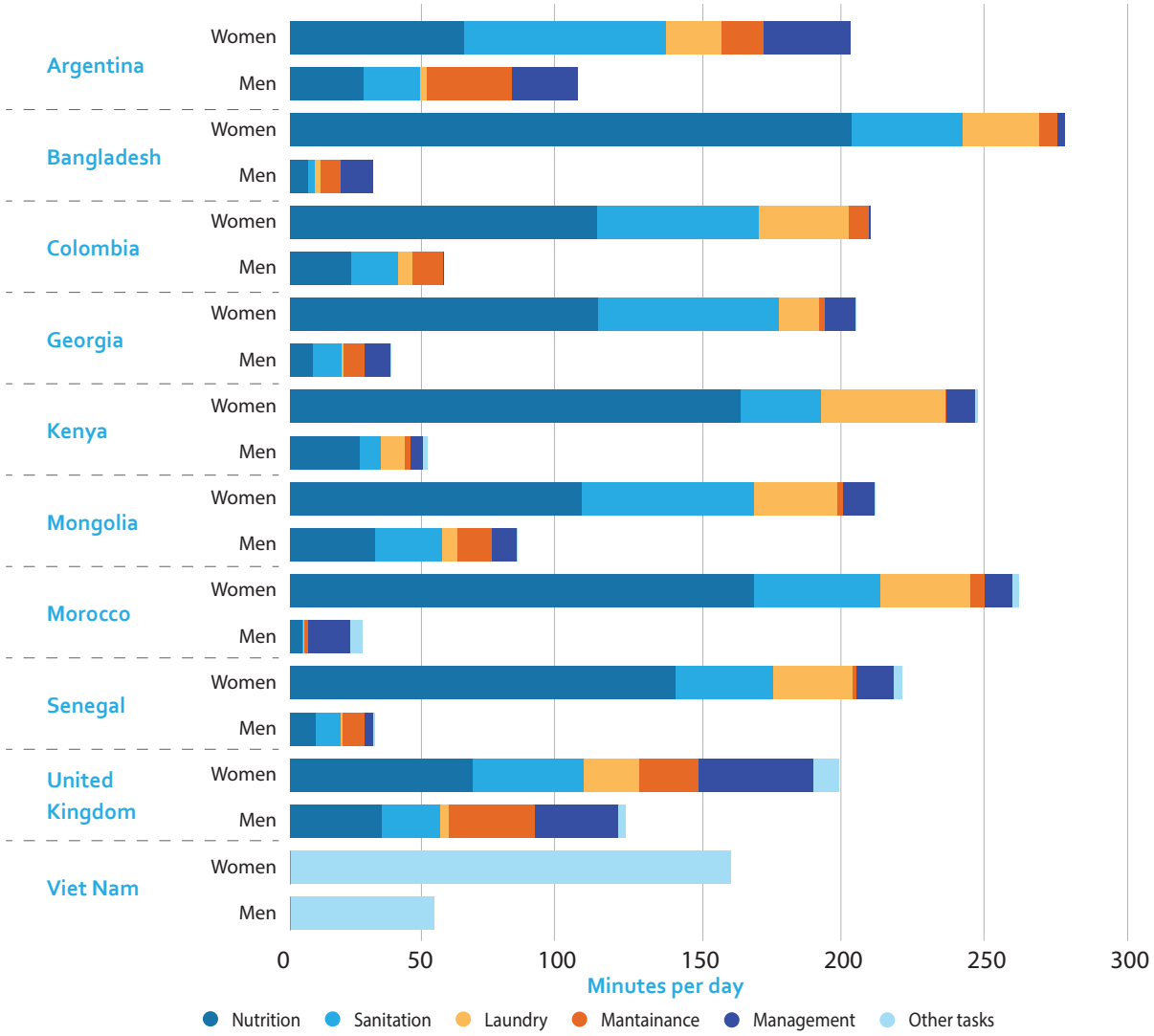
The largest gender gap is found in Viet Nam, where women spend nearly two hours more per day than men on total work time. Georgia and Kenya follow, with differences of 89 and 83 minutes, respectively. Although the absolute difference is higher in Viet Nam, the gender ratio in Georgia is slightly greater (1.31) due to lower overall time estimates—women in Georgia spend about 30 percent more time than men in total work time.

Conversely, the smallest gender gap is observed in Argentina, where women spend just 10 minutes more than men. The United Kingdom (27 minutes), along with Mongolia and Colombia (both 35 minutes), also show relatively smaller disparities.

Topic B. Unpaid domestic work by household members

As discussed in the previous section, gender differences in unpaid domestic work activities are significant across all countries, although the degree of inequality varies notably between them. This section provides an in-depth evaluation of unpaid domestic work time, identifying which specific tasks exhibit the greatest disparities. The analysis is based on average time spent on tasks, as shown in **Figure 6** and detailed in **Annex Table A.6**. The figure highlights substantial gender disparities across most tasks, alongside notable cross-country differences.

FIGURE 6:
Average time by unpaid domestic work task and country



Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

To better illustrate inequality by task and country, inequality indices have been calculated and are presented in **Figure 7.** These indicators can be interpreted in the same way as the activity-based inequality indices discussed earlier.

According to the indices, women spend significantly more time on tasks such as nutrition, sanitation, and laundry, while men dedicate more time to maintenance activities—except in Morocco. Among these, laundry is the most unequal task, followed by food preparation (nutrition) and cleaning (sanitation). For laundry, the lowest inequality levels are observed in Kenya and Mongolia (indices of 0.67). In contrast, Senegal, Georgia, and especially Morocco show very high inequality levels (above 0.9), indicating that women are almost exclusively responsible for these tasks.

There is greater variability in inequality for nutrition and sanitation tasks. Gender disparities in nutrition are most pronounced in Morocco, Bangladesh, Senegal, and Georgia (indices around 0.9). The United Kingdom exhibits the lowest inequality, with Argentina showing similar, though slightly higher, levels. For sanitation, Morocco, Senegal, and Bangladesh again display the highest inequality, while the United Kingdom remains the most egalitarian. Georgia ranks fourth in inequality, though its levels are markedly lower than the top three. Mongolia emerges as the second most egalitarian country after the United Kingdom.

In maintenance tasks, the largest gender gaps are observed in Senegal and Mongolia, followed by Georgia. In contrast, Bangladesh, the United Kingdom, and Colombia show the lowest levels of inequality. Morocco is an exception, with women spending more time on maintenance tasks than men, highlighting minimal male participation in the domestic sphere overall.

FIGURE 7:
Inequality by task and segregation index in unpaid domestic work by country

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Although household management and administration are generally female-dominated, men's participation is higher in Bangladesh and Morocco. Nevertheless, this task exhibits lower inequality levels compared to others, suggesting it is relatively more gender-neutral.

Figure 7 also presents the segregation index (on the left side), which quantifies both gender inequality and the relative importance of tasks within each country (see Guidelines **Section 4.3** for details). Morocco, Bangladesh, and Senegal exhibit the highest segregation indices. In Morocco, this reflects extremely low male participation across nearly all tasks. In Bangladesh, high inequality in routine tasks (nutrition, sanitation, laundry) is compounded by male dominance in management tasks. Finally, in Senegal, high inequality in routine tasks is further compounded by greater male involvement in maintenance-related tasks.

Georgia also shows considerable segregation, driven by pronounced inequality in both routine and maintenance tasks. At the other end of the spectrum, the United Kingdom has the lowest level of segregation, followed by Argentina. Mongolia ranks third in terms of low segregation, largely due to relatively low inequality in nutrition and sanitation—the tasks where most unpaid time is spent. Similar patterns are observed in Kenya and Colombia, though Kenya's slightly higher inequalities result in a correspondingly higher segregation score.

Annex Table A.7 summarizes the segregation indices for unpaid domestic work tasks across various population groups in each country. While overall country rankings remain relatively stable, some countries show more variation across subgroups than others. In Bangladesh, Morocco, and Senegal, segregation levels remain relatively consistent across groups—except for individuals living alone (Bangladesh and Morocco) or as a couple without children (in Senegal), who exhibit much lower gender differences. In the United Kingdom, although overall levels are low, variability by subgroup exists, with household composition again standing out as the most influential factor. Specifically, couples without children display much lower segregation levels than those living with co-resident children.

Looking across other characteristics:

Age

Segregation is highest among those aged 30–59, followed by those under 30. Older adults tend to show the lowest segregation, particularly in Georgia, Mongolia, and Senegal, where their levels are substantially lower than those of younger groups.

Education

A general negative gradient is observed—segregation is highest among the least educated. However, Georgia and the United Kingdom deviate from this pattern: both show the lowest segregation among individuals with less than secondary education and the highest among those with secondary education.

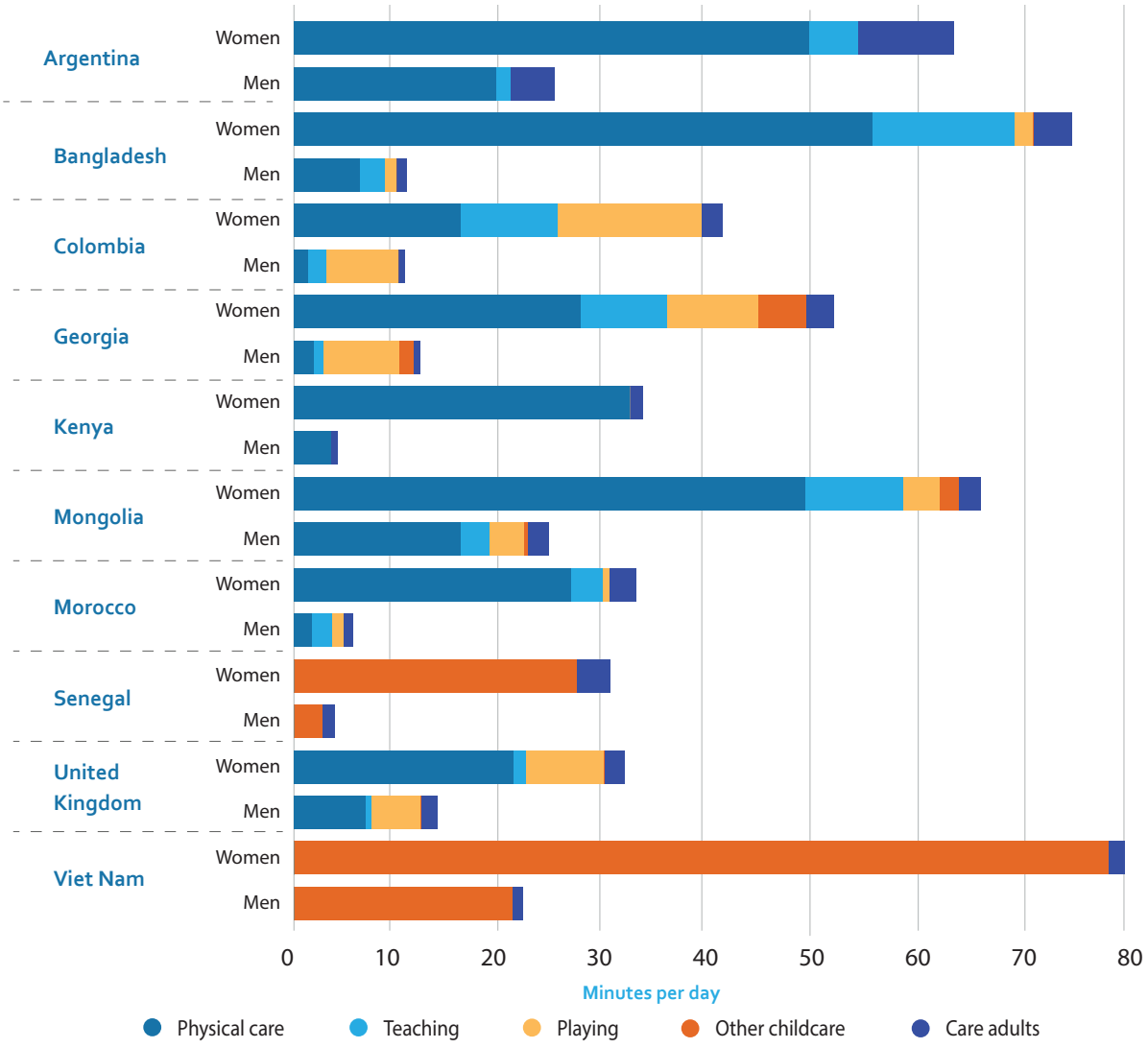
Employment status

With the exception of Mongolia—where segregation is significantly higher among employed individuals—employment status does not appear to have a strong influence on segregation levels.

Topic C. Unpaid care work services by household members

Unpaid care work is widely recognized as a female-dominated activity, a pattern clearly reflected in the average time women and men devote to these tasks. In line with the previous section on unpaid domestic work, this section explores gender differences in unpaid care work and the segregation of care-related tasks. **Figure 8** displays the average time spent by women and men on unpaid care activities, including childcare and care for other individuals[3]. It is important to note that task disaggregation is limited in some surveys—particularly for Argentina, Kenya, and Viet Nam—so caution is advised when interpreting task-specific results. Detailed information on task classifications in each survey can be found in **Table A.2 of Annex 1** (Technical Note).

FIGURE 8:
Average time by unpaid care task and country



Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

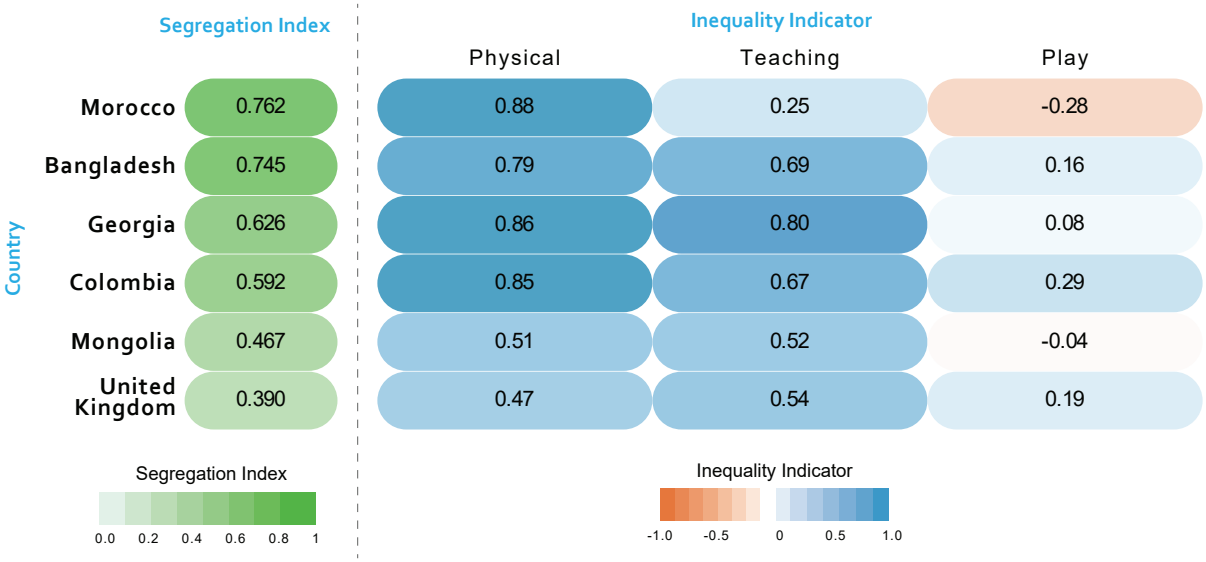
3 It is important to note that previous studies suggest unpaid care activities are often underestimated in time-use studies because they are frequently performed simultaneously with other activities, which are more commonly reported as the main activity.

This analysis primarily focuses on childcare within households that include children under the age of 15, using inequality indices presented in **Figure 9.** Although estimates for adult care are also provided, they should be interpreted with caution. Adult care receives significantly less attention in time-use surveys compared to childcare (Miranda, 2011), and estimates are based on population averages, with participation often underreported (Renteria et al., 2024; Urwin et al., 2021). Among the countries studied, Argentina reports the highest average time spent on adult care—4 minutes per day for men and 9 minutes for women **(Table A.8, Annex 2)**. As expected, adult care remains a gendered activity, with women spending more time than men.

Inequality across childcare tasks indicates that men are more likely to participate in more enjoyable activities, while women continue to bear the primary responsibility for routine and demanding tasks. High inequality levels (above 0.8) in supervisory care are observed in Morocco, Georgia, Bangladesh, and Colombia. In contrast, Mongolia and the United Kingdom show more moderate inequality in this area.

Variability is greater in teaching-related tasks, with Georgia displaying the highest levels of inequality. Interestingly, Morocco shows lower inequality in teaching tasks, suggesting more significant male involvement compared to other unpaid care activities. Notably, Moroccan men report spending more time than women on play activities. In other countries, play exhibits lower gender disparities, although women still spend more time than men—except in Mongolia, where participation is nearly gender-equal.

FIGURE 9:
Inequality by task and segregation index in unpaid care work by country



Notes: BG: Bangladesh; CO: Colombia; GE: Georgia; MN: Mongolia; MO: Morocco; UK: United Kingdom. Inequalities for Argentina, Kenya, Senegal and Viet Nam are not included due to insufficient task-specific data.

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

The segregation index for childcare tasks is largely driven by the dominance of supervisory care, which accounts for a substantial portion of total time. The ranking of countries by childcare segregation mirrors that of unpaid domestic work: Morocco and Bangladesh exhibit the highest segregation levels, while the United Kingdom has the lowest.

Table A.9 in Annex 2 presents segregation indices across different population groups. While overall country rankings remain relatively stable across characteristics, some groups show markedly higher segregation levels. Estimates are limited to individuals living with children under 15 years of age—typically their own children, although not always. Segregation is highest among the youngest adults, likely due to co-residence with younger children requiring intensive care and supervision. Interestingly, in the United Kingdom, individuals aged 60 and older also show relatively high segregation levels, possibly reflecting childcare for grandchildren. However, few individuals in this age group co-reside with children.

Educational attainment does not show a consistent pattern. In Morocco, Colombia, and Georgia, the least educated exhibit the highest segregation levels, while the most educated show the lowest. In contrast, in the United Kingdom and Argentina, individuals with secondary education report the highest segregation.

Employment status is more clearly associated with care segregation: the unemployed show higher levels, likely reflecting women's withdrawal from the labour market to care for children.

In terms of household composition, only groups living with children are included, which limits cross-group comparability. Generally, segregation is higher among individuals without a partner but living with children—likely due to the predominance of single mothers over single fathers in these households.

Topic D. Estimating total yearly hours of unpaid work

Time-use data presented in **Table A.3 in Annex 2** were used to estimate the total annual hours devoted to unpaid work by individuals aged 15 and older, disaggregated by gender. Unpaid work includes four components: production of goods for own final use, unpaid domestic work, unpaid care work, and volunteering. Daily average hours are multiplied by 365 to estimate annual time per person. These values are then scaled by population size (by gender and country), using United Nations World Population Prospects (UNDESA, 2024a) data, to calculate total yearly unpaid work hours. All time values are reported in thousands of hours.

TABLE 4:
Total unpaid work hours per year for population aged 15 years old and older, by sex

	Population 15+ (in 1000s)		Amount of unpaid work (in 1000s)			
Country	Women	Men	Women	Men	Total	% Women
Argentina	17,712	17,070	29,797,628	14,441,874	44,239,503	67.4
Bangladesh	53,036	57,416	150,370,793	42,808,336	193,179,129	77.8
Colombia	20,248	19,413	32,315,638	9,427,084	41,742,722	77.4
Georgia	1,642	1,357	2,989,227	1,024,487	4,013,714	74.5
Kenya	16,516	16,114	39,672,100	18,156,970	57,829,069	68.6
Mongolia	1,111	1,077	2,379,406	1,773,587	4,152,993	57.3
Morocco	11,884	11,882	26,685,445	11,481,561	38,167,006	69.9
Senegal	5,355	5,384	9,252,225	3,357,686	12,609,911	73.4
United Kingdom	27,778	26,287	40,682,925	22,938,749	63,621,674	63.9
Viet Nam	39,272	36,550	56,758,381	17,582,273	74,340,654	76.3

Sources: Population estimates from United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2024a)
Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Cross-country comparisons of total unpaid work hours are influenced by differences in adult population size. Bangladesh, the most populous country in the sample, reports the highest volume—approximately 193 billion hours of unpaid work annually—followed by Viet Nam (74 billion) and the United Kingdom (64 billion). Georgia and Mongolia report the lowest totals, around 4 billion hours each.

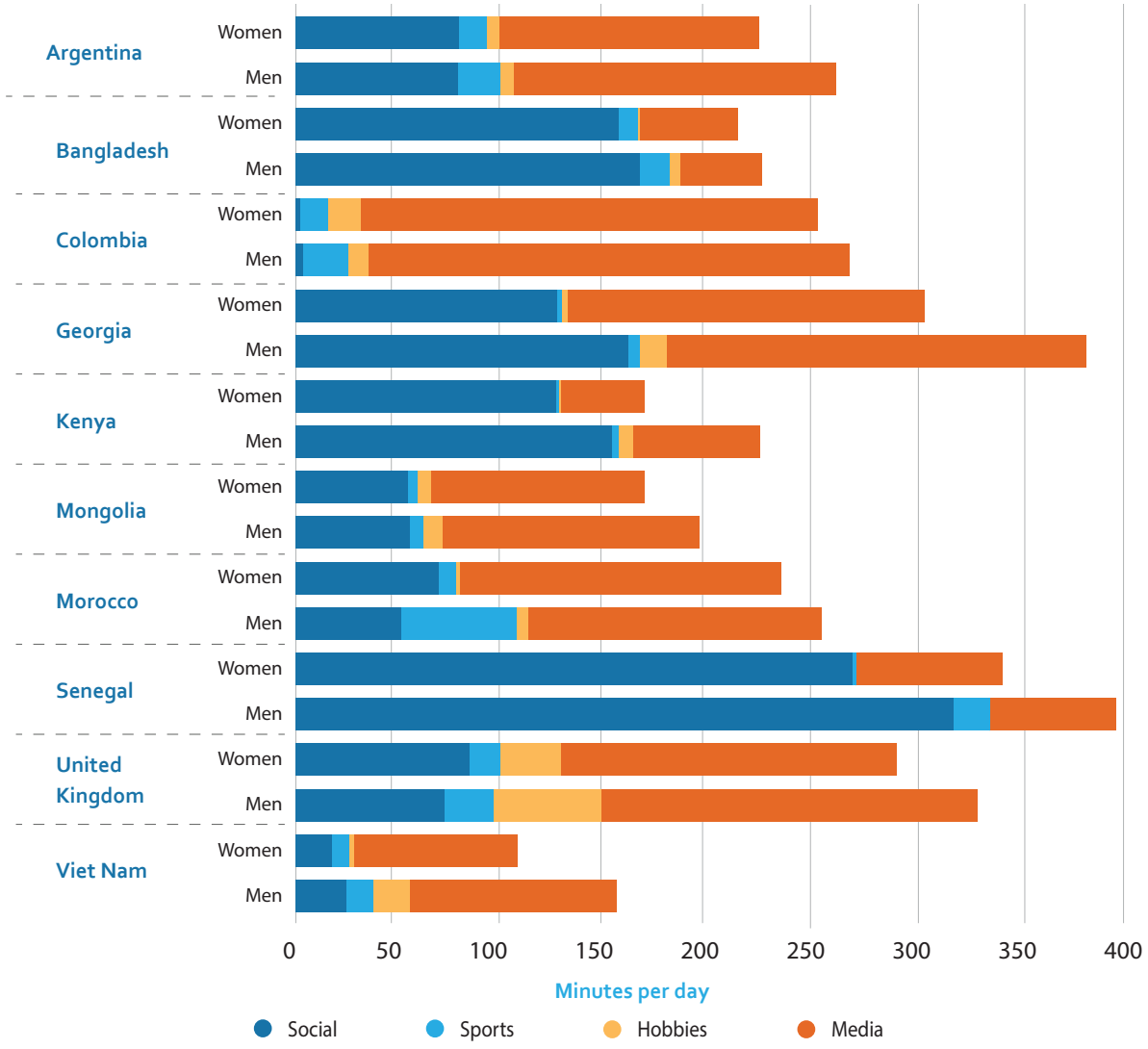
Across all countries, women contribute a significantly larger share of unpaid work than men. In most cases, women account for more than two-thirds of total unpaid work hours. Notable exceptions include Mongolia (57.3 percent) and the United Kingdom (63.9 percent), where women's contributions, although still predominant, are comparatively lower. In countries such as Bangladesh, Colombia, Georgia, Senegal, and Viet Nam, women's share reaches approximately three-quarters of the total, reinforcing persistent gender disparities in unpaid labour burdens.

Topic E. Task segregation

As discussed in Sections B (unpaid domestic work) and C (childcare), unpaid domestic and care work tend to be highly gendered. In this section, the analysis is extended to leisure activities, where gender differences persist in both the quantity and type of time spent. Women generally have less leisure time than men, a disparity linked to lower personal well-being (Mattingly and Sayer, 2006; Yerkes et al., 2020). Additionally, women's leisure tends to be more sedentary, while men engage more frequently in physically active pursuits, which are associated with greater health benefits.

Figure 10 presents the average daily time spent on different leisure activities by gender and country. The most common forms of leisure across all countries are socializing and media consumption, while sports and hobbies account for a smaller share of time. Colombia stands out for particularly low socializing time, with media-related activities making up 87 percent of total leisure time.

FIGURE 10:
Average time spent on leisure activities, by task and country



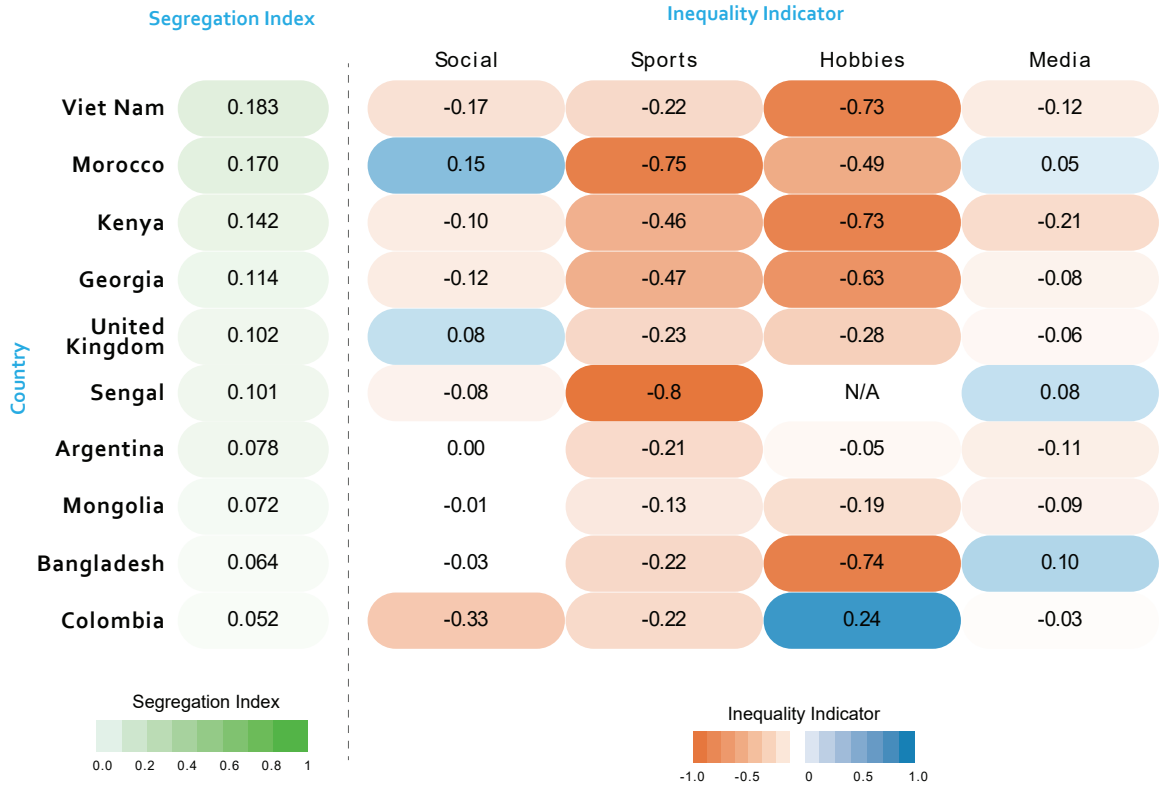
Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Gender inequality in leisure time is further explored in **Figure 11**, which shows the gender gap by task and a composite segregation index summarizing overall inequality. In all countries, men spend more time on sports, with Senegal and Morocco showing the largest gender gap, followed by Georgia and Kenya. Hobbies also show a consistent male advantage, with especially high disparities in Bangladesh, Kenya, and Viet Nam. Colombia is a notable exception, where women report more time on hobbies than men.

Gender gaps in socializing are generally smaller and more variable. In Argentina and Mongolia, they are nearly negligible. In Morocco and the United Kingdom, socializing is more feminized, while in Colombia and Viet Nam, it favors men. Media-related activities show relatively low levels of inequality overall, although Kenya reports the highest gender gap in this category.

The segregation index aggregates these task-specific inequalities by weighting each activity according to its share of total leisure time. Countries with low inequality in dominant activities (like media) tend to have lower overall segregation. For example, Colombia has the lowest segregation score, despite high inequality in certain tasks, due to minimal gender differences in media time. In contrast, Viet Nam exhibits the highest segregation score, as men consistently spend more time across all leisure categories. Morocco ranks second, though with a mixed pattern of masculinized and feminized tasks. Kenya and Georgia also report high segregation, with men dominating leisure time across the board.

FIGURE 11:
Inequality by task and segregation index in leisure, by country



Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Topic F. Time poverty

This section presents estimates of time poverty based on the concept of discretionary time—the portion of an individual's day not allocated to mandatory or essential activities. These include paid work, unpaid work (such as domestic tasks and caregiving), personal care (e.g., sleeping, eating, hygiene), and other obligations. Discretionary time represents the hours available for leisure, relaxation, socializing, or self-directed activities. Following established approaches (Kalenkoski et al., 2011; Vega-Rapun et al., 2020), individuals are considered time poor if their discretionary time falls below 60 percent of the national median.

Table 5 displays the time poverty thresholds and the percentage of individuals experiencing time poverty, disaggregated by gender and key demographic characteristics. Further methodological details are available in the Guidelines **Sections 3.F and 4.7.**

TABLE 5:
Prevalence of time poverty, by country

		Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Poverty limit (minutes)		126	170	142	192	120	114	201	216	216	102
All population		26.7	22.9	33.6	20.1	28.2	24.0	16.1	13.1	17.0	29.2
Gender											
Women		31.5	23.3	35.2	27.4	34.4	25.3	20.2	17.9	18.9	33.2
Men		21.6	22.3	31.8	12.2	21.6	22.1	11.7	7.8	15.1	21.6
Age group											
15-29	Women	25.4	28.5	34.7	22.4	34.2	21.5	21.6	21.4	19.3	29.3
	Men	14.6	18.8	26.7	9.8	21.6	20.1	10.3	7.8	16.0	18.0
30-59	Women	36.9	21.6	37.4	31.0	35.3	27.8	19.6	15.9	20.1	25.3
	Men	25.0	25.5	35.6	13.4	21.9	23.4	12.9	8.2	15.7	23.8
60+	Women	19.3	6.0	19.2	18.6	25.4	11.7	16.7	3.5	8.7	23.6
	Men	27.2	10.9	25.6	10.5	17.0	14.5	9.9	3.8	8.0	15.3
Educational attainment											
Below Secondary	Women	31.3	23.6	29	23.8	34.8	37.7	22.3	18.3	10.7	39.7
	Men	22.8	24.3	34.2	20	23.1	35.1	14.2	8.1	16.1	25.8
Secondary	Women	31.4	21.8	34.5	25.2	36.3	25.5	16.5	17.8	17.4	30
	Men	21.3	17.8	30.7	10.2	23.7	21.8	10.5	4.2	15.7	20.1
Above Secondary	Women	32.2	22.6	43.5	29.3	27.0	19.3	13.2	8.4	21.6	27.6
	Men	20.4	15.9	32.2	15.0	13.4	14.1	3.6	8.0	15.0	20.4
Other	Women	25.2	30.9			48.1	23.7			9.8	
	Men	6.1	19.0			12.5	16.8			13.8	

Household composition											
One person	Women	19.3	14.2	40.8	17.4		18.1	23.5	0.0	12.3	
	Men	21.8	20.0	49.8	6.5		28.2	21.3	3.9	11.4	
Couple alone	Women	22.7	9.0	33	25.2		27.5	14.9	2.6	17.4	
	Men	19.7	21.0	35.6	15.8		14.4	12.0	1.5	13.4	
Couple and children	Women	44.4	30.4	39.9	38.0		20.3	23.1	14.8	24.1	
	Men	28.2	26.6	36.9	17.2		18.1	13.6	7.2	18.6	
No partner, with children	Women	34.0	14.3	35.7	24.6		27.8	19.1	19.7	17.7	
	Men	12.8	15.7	23.1	13.7		22.4	8.6	8.0	8.0	
Other	Women	23.1	10.8	33.2	20.4		23.9	15.4	12.2	17.2	
	Men	19.7	14.1	28.1	7.7		21.5	10.2	12.4	15.8	
Employment status											
Not employed	**Women**	29.1	18.0	22.4	18.2	24.2	12.7	15.1	16.7	10.6	23.7
	Men	10.1	7.1	9.7	3.3	17.1	7.9	4.5	5.4	5.9	13.2
Employed	**Women**	33.1	33.5	58.3	39.9	40.6	34.0	32.9	20.2	23.5	36.9
	Men	24.3	25.5	41.5	18.2	22.8	26.5	14.0	9.6	18.3	23.0

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Colombia and Viet Nam report the highest overall rates of time poverty—33.6 percent and 29.2 percent, respectively. Senegal shows the lowest time poverty rate (13.1 percent), followed by Morocco (16.1 percent) and the United Kingdom (17.0 percent), likely due to relatively higher leisure time. In every country, women are more likely to experience time poverty than men. The widest gender gaps appear in Georgia (27.4 percent for women vs. 12.2 percent for men), Kenya (34.4 vs. 21.6 percent), Viet Nam (33.2 vs. 21.6 percent), and Senegal (17.9 vs. 7.8 percent). Notably, the time poverty rate for men in Senegal, Morocco, and Georgia is lower than that of men in the United Kingdom. Bangladesh displays a near-zero gender gap, and in Mongolia and Colombia, the gender gap (3.2 and 3.4 percentage points, respectively) is smaller than that of the United Kingdom (3.8 percentage points), although overall levels are higher.

Across age groups, the highest time poverty rates are observed among individuals in their prime working years (ages 30–59), especially women. The youngest group (15–29) generally exhibits lower rates, except for Bangladeshi, Moroccan, and Senegalese women, whose time poverty rates exceed those of the middle-aged group. Among older adults (60+), time poverty is generally less prevalent, though in Argentina, Bangladesh, and Colombia, older men report slightly higher time poverty than women, while the reverse is true in Morocco and Georgia.

Trends by educational attainment show a general decline in time poverty as education levels rise. Mongolia presents a particularly stark pattern, with a 20-point gap between the least and most educated for both women and men. However, in many countries, differences in time poverty by education level are more modest.

Household composition reveals more pronounced disparities. In nearly all categories, women report higher time poverty rates than men, with the exception of those living alone. In Bangladesh, Colombia, and Mongolia, men living alone have higher time poverty rates than their female counterparts. In Senegal, women living alone generally do not experience time poverty. Georgia is the only country where the gender gap among individuals living alone exceeds 10 points in favor of men. Couples with children exhibit the highest time poverty rates, especially among women, with levels almost reaching or surpassing 40 percent in Argentina, Colombia, and Georgia. In contrast, couples without children—particularly men—experience the lowest time poverty rates. Among single parents, women face particularly high rates, while in some cases, such as men in Morocco (8.6 percent) and Senegal and the United Kingdom (both 8.0 percent), time poverty rates are among the lowest observed, after the singular case of Senegal where both men and women living alone or as a couple without children report time poverty below 5 percent.

As expected, employment status strongly influences time poverty. Employed individuals, regardless of gender, consistently show higher rates of time poverty than those not in employment, reinforcing the impact of work-related time demands on discretionary time availability.

Topic G. Transportation

Table 6 presents transportation indicators for Georgia and the United Kingdom[4,5], highlighting distinct national patterns and notable gender differences. On average, individuals in the United Kingdom spend approximately 40 minutes more per day on travel than those in Georgia. This difference is partially explained by higher rates of labour force participation and longer commuting times in the United Kingdom.

Consistent with previous findings, men tend to spend more time traveling than women in both countries (Crane and Takahashi, 2009; McQuaid and Chen, 2012). The gender gap in total travel time is 14 minutes in the United Kingdom and 18 minutes in Georgia, reflecting broader gendered patterns in employment and mobility.

Further gender differences are observed in participation rates in travel-related activities. In the United Kingdom, participation is relatively balanced between women and men. In contrast, in Georgia, men are significantly more likely to travel, with a participation rate 16 percentage points higher than that of women.

4 Only Georgia and the United Kingdom provide sufficient data to be analyzed in this section. Argentina and Bangladesh do not include location information, while Viet Nam and Bangladesh lack details about the mode of transport. The rest of the countries do not have a diary.

5 There is a slight discrepancy in how location and transport mode data are collected between the two countries. In Georgia, the mode of transport is recorded only when the primary activity is traveling, whereas in the United Kingdom, transportation modes are also reported for episodes where travel occurs alongside other main activities. This difference results in variations between the estimates for travel time as a primary activity ("time traveling" in Table 6) and the total time across all modes of transport ("all traveling").

TABLE 6:
Prevalence of Travelling and Mode of Transportation

		Georgia		United Kingdom	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
All population	% travelling	59%	75%	83%	84%
	Time travelling	34	52	75	89
	% travel on foot	44%	45%	42%	38%
	% travel on private motor	12%	31%	60%	59%
	% travel on private other	0%	2%	3%	5%
	% public transport	12%	11%	16%	16%
	Time travel on foot	17	20	25	24
	Time travel on private motor	8	24	46	61
	Time travel on private other	0	1	1	4
	Time public transport	8	8	15	18
	All travelling	34	52	88	106

		Georgia		United Kingdom	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
Travellers	Time travelling	57	69	89	104
	% travel on foot	75%	60%	50%	46%
	% travel on private motor	21%	41%	72%	71%
	% travel on private other	1%	2%	3%	6%
	% public transport	20%	14%	20%	19%
	Time travel on foot	30	26	31	28
	Time travel on private motor	13	32	56	72
	Time travel on private other	0	1	2	5
	Time public transport	14	11	18	21
	All travelling	57	69	106	126

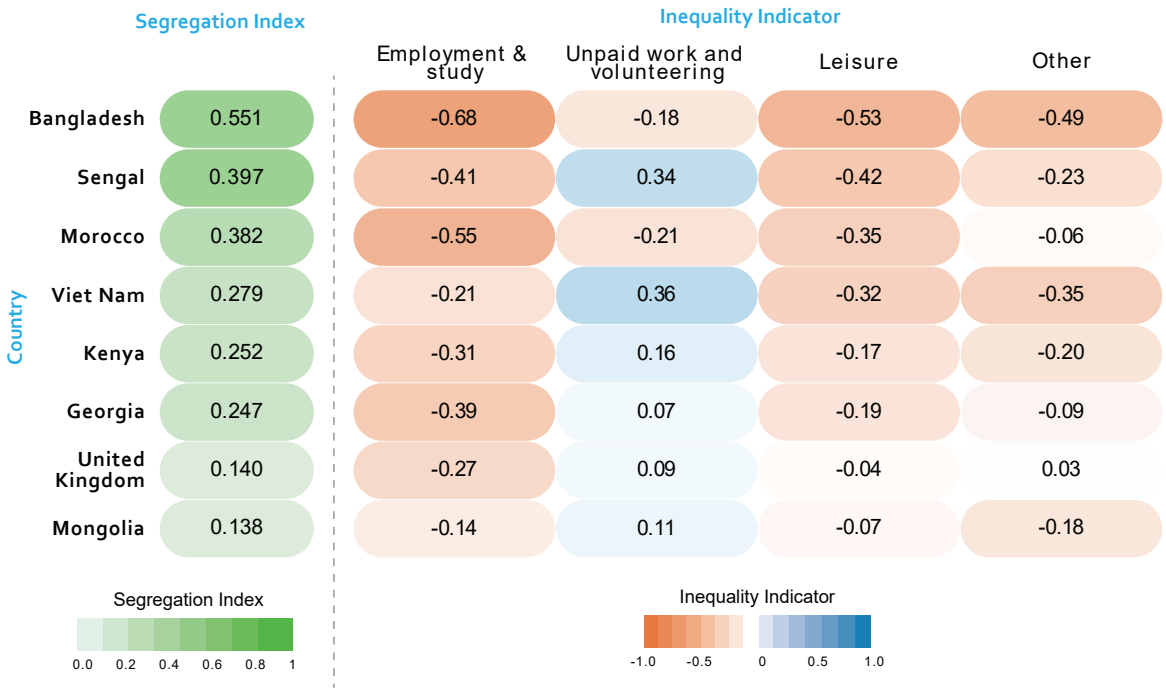
Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

In terms of transportation mode, both countries show similar overall patterns, except for private vehicle use, which is significantly higher in the United Kingdom (reported by 60 percent of respondents). In Georgia, stark gender disparities are evident in access to private transportation: 31 percent of men report using private vehicles, compared to only 12 percent of women. In the United Kingdom, private vehicle use is more evenly distributed across genders, but women typically make shorter trips, highlighting gendered differences in mobility patterns.

These patterns persist when focusing exclusively on individuals who report any travel activity. In Georgia, 75 percent of women report walking as a mode of transport, compared to 60 percent of men, suggesting lower access to private transport for women. Similar disparities are observed for private vehicle use: 41 percent of men who travel report using private transportation, compared to 21 percent of women. Conversely, public transport is more frequently used by women (20 percent) than men (14 percent) in Georgia.

Beyond duration and mode, understanding the purpose of travel is essential. **Figure 12** disaggregates time spent on transportation into four broad categories based on reason for travel, and presents a gender inequality indicator and a segregation index to capture the degree of gender-based differentiation in transportation purposes. Methodological details are available in the Guidelines **Sections 4.2 and 4.3.**

FIGURE 12:
Inequality and Segregation Index by Reason for Transportation, by Country



Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

The data reveal a clear trend: countries with higher overall gender inequalities in travel time also show greater segregation by travel purpose. Bangladesh exhibits the highest levels of both gender disparity and purpose-based segregation, while Mongolia shows the most balanced outcomes.

Gender disparities in transport are largely driven by travel related to employment and education, where male participation dominates. Across all countries, men also spend more time traveling for leisure. By contrast, time spent traveling for housework and volunteering varies: in Morocco and Bangladesh, men lead, whereas in most other countries, women spend more time on such travel, particularly in Viet Nam and Senegal. Volunteering includes religious activities, partially explaining higher male travel times in contexts where men are more engaged in these practices.

Topic H. Flexible work arrangements

Indicators used to assess working arrangements include the prevalence of home-based work[6] and the characteristics of work schedules (**see** Guidelines **Sections 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10** for details). Two indicators are used to measure home-based work: (1) the percentage of respondents reporting any time spent working from home, and (2) the share of total paid work time performed at home. These are summarized in **Table 7.**

TABLE 7:
Percentages of workers reporting paid work at home and share of total paid work time at home

	Sex	Georgia	Mongolia	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
% working from home	Women	14.1	25.1	56.7	4.8	59.2
	Men	5.0	19.9	37.7	4.7	43.0
% time of paid work at home	Women	7.1	7.7	27.5	1.1	41.0
	Men	1.9	3.5	8.3	1.6	28.0

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Estimates of home-based work differ substantially by country, reflecting broader economic contexts. In higher-income countries such as the United Kingdom, home-based work increasingly serves as a flexible arrangement, particularly after the COVID-19 pandemic. In contrast, in Viet Nam, Senegal, and Mongolia, working from home is often a longstanding feature of the labour market, particularly within certain occupations. Viet Nam shows the highest prevalence, both in the proportion of workers engaging in home-based paid work and in the share of total work time spent at home. This pattern reflects structural aspects of Viet Nam's labour market, where many home-based workshops are common (Cling, 2018). Senegal shows a similar pattern, reflecting a high proportion of informal work. In Mongolia, while a large share of respondents report home-based work, the proportion of total work time at home is lower, suggesting more sporadic engagement.

6 To assess home based home we consider two criteria: 1) The main activity is categorized as paid work; 2) The location of the activity is reported as home.

In comparison, Georgia and the United Kingdom display much lower rates of home-based work and smaller shares of paid work time conducted at home. Gender differences in home-based work indicate that it is more common among women in all countries except the United Kingdom, where men and women engage in paid work at home at similar rates.

Indicators of working arrangements are presented in **Table 8**. One key measure is the work continuity indicator, which captures the degree of fragmentation in the workday. Two distinct clusters emerge: in Argentina, Georgia, Mongolia, and the United Kingdom, paid work tends to be performed with relatively few interruptions, suggesting higher schedule continuity and minimal gender gaps. By contrast, Bangladesh and Viet Nam show lower work continuity, particularly among women in Bangladesh. This pattern is likely driven by the high prevalence of informal employment, which typically involves more flexible and fragmented work patterns (Davy et al., 2019; Walthery and Gershuny, 2019).

Informal employment constitutes a dominant part of Bangladesh's labour market. According to the Bangladesh Labour Force Survey (2022), approximately 85 percent of employed individuals—and 96.6 percent of employed women—are engaged in informal work (International Labour Organization, 2022).

TABLE 8:
Work schedule indicators

	Sex	Argentina	Bangladesh	Georgia	Mongolia	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Rate between paid work and time from starting and finishing the workday	Women	0.894	0.506	0.844	0.870	0.746	0.894	0.726
	Men	0.907	0.764	0.865	0.879	0.806	0.884	0.760
% of workers from 7pm to 10pm	Women	33.1	23.0	33.8	34.4	34.5	19.8	21.4
	Men	32.3	46.8	35.7	42.7	30.2	20.9	14.2
% of time of paid work between 7pm and 10pm	Women	9.6	7.6	7.3	7.2	8.2	4.9	5.7
	Men	7.7	11.3	6.7	9.0	5.6	5.1	3.8

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Late-hour work, defined as paid work performed between 7 PM and 10 PM, varies considerably across countries. Bangladesh and Mongolia report higher prevalence, particularly among men. In Bangladesh, nearly half of male workers report working during these hours, compared to about half that share among women. These patterns are closely linked to occupational gender segregation (Rubiano-Matulevich and Viollaz, 2019).

Argentina, Georgia, and the United Kingdom show relatively small gender gaps in late-hour work, though the overall proportion of workers engaging in such schedules is higher in Argentina and Georgia. Senegal and Viet Nam are the only countries in which a larger share of women than men report working during late hours. Differences in total time spent on late-hour work are less pronounced across countries and genders.

I. Simultaneous activities and multitasking

Table 9 presents estimates of time spent on unpaid domestic work, both as a main activity and when multitasking is considered (i.e., when unpaid domestic work is reported as a secondary activity)[7]. Across all countries, gender differences in unpaid domestic work persist when multitasking is included, though the extent of the gender gap varies.

- In Viet Nam, the gender gap widens by 11 minutes when simultaneous activities are included.
- In Senegal and the United Kingdom, the increase is more modest, at 7 minutes for both.
- In Georgia, multitasking has little impact on the gender gap, as secondary activities do not significantly alter time estimates.

Gender ratios (female-to-male time spent) for both measures—main activity only and combined main and secondary activities—remain relatively stable, indicating that while multitasking increases total unpaid domestic work, the proportional gender imbalance is largely unchanged.

TABLE 9:
Time spent on unpaid domestic work: main activity vs. combined main and secondary activities, in minutes and ratios

Sex	Item	Georgia	Mongolia	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Women	Housework as main activity	197	204	214	191	154
	Housework as a main or secondary activity	198	212	224	209	170
Men	Housework as main activity	35	79	23	117	50
	Housework as a main or secondary activity	35	85	26	128	55
Ratio women/men housework main		5.6	2.6	9.3	1.6	3.1
Ratio women/men housework main & secondary		5.6	2.5	8.6	1.6	3.1

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

7 This information can only be computed for surveys that collect secondary activities and specify with whom the activity is done. Viet Nam is excluded from the analysis of simultaneous childcare since the study is limited to households with children. In Bangladesh, simultaneous activity details are not provided, so it was not possible to compute the estimates for domestic work. Estimates for childcare in Bangladesh are based only on main activity and the presence of children.

Table 10 provides estimates of time spent on childcare[8], considering three dimensions: main activity, combined main and secondary activity, and presence of a child. Incorporating multitasking substantially increases reported childcare time, particularly for women, widening the gender gap, although gender ratios decrease slightly due to the large absolute differences in engagement between men and women.

- In the United Kingdom, multitasking has a relatively minor impact on childcare time for both genders.
- In other countries, multitasking substantially increases reported childcare time, especially for women.

TABLE 10:
Time spent on childcare: main activity, combined main and secondary activity, and with child present

Sex	Type of childcare	Bangladesh	Georgia	Mongolia	Senegal	United Kingdom
Women	Children as main activity	94	105	93	28	95
	Children as a main or secondary activity, and presence of children	507	296	470	200	124
Men	Childcare as main activity	14	25	34	3	42
	Childcare as a main or secondary activity, and presence of children	281	130	267	122	55
Ratio women/men childcare main		6.9	4.2	2.7	9.6	2.3
Ratio women/men childcare main or secondary activity, and presence of children		1.8	2.3	1.8	1.6	2.3

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

These findings should be interpreted with caution. Time diary data are subject to underreporting of secondary activities and presence of others. Completing diaries can be cognitively and logistically burdensome, leading respondents to focus primarily on main activities. Accuracy in reporting secondary activities and co-presence may vary across countries and respondent groups. Close monitoring, enumerator training, and regular quality checks are essential to improve data accuracy and representation of simultaneous activities.

8 For these estimates, it is important to consider that the diaries differ in the ages of children who are present (refer to Table 1 for the age ranges in each survey).

Topic J. Well-being

The time poverty indicators presented in **Section F** can be interpreted as proxies for well-being, reflecting individuals' ability to allocate time for themselves—a key aspect of personal well-being. Additionally, the surveys in Georgia and the United Kingdom included questions asking respondents whether they feel rushed[9]. Based on responses, individuals can be classified into two groups: those who feel rushed and those who do not. The proportion of respondents in each category and the average time spent on main activities for both groups are summarized in **Table 11.**

TABLE 11:
Percentage of respondents who feel rushed and average time for main activities by rushed status and sex

		Georgia			United Kingdom	
		How often do you feel rushed?			Whether felt rushed	
	Sex	Always	Only sometimes	Almost never	Yes	Not
	Women	31.9%	42.3%	25.8%	23.8%	76.2%
	Men	25.8%	45.2%	29.0%	19.4%	80.6%
Minutes by activity						
Personal care	Women	678	710	742	623	678
	Men	676	699	733	597	660
Paiwd work	Women	121	84	41	241	87
	Men	221	168	130	328	152
Production goods own final use	Women	45	40	39		
	Men	77	72	55		
Study	Women	11	17	12	23	19
	Men	16	14	10	33	21
Housework	Women	213	199	174	165	202
	Men	38	34	34	90	126
Care	Women	65	52	32	42	27
	Men	16	12	9	16	13
Volunteering	Women	11	9	6	19	18
	Men	8	10	5	14	13
Lesiure	Women	251	290	369	202	313
	Men	319	376	417	226	351
Travelling	Women	42	34	22	96	68
	Men	63	51	43	117	82
Other	Women	3	4	2	28	28
	Men	4	4	3	19	21

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

9 The original questions were not harmonized due to the lack of a clear method for creating common categories.

The proportion of individuals who feel rushed is higher in Georgia than in the United Kingdom and slightly greater among women than men. In the United Kingdom, 4.4 percentage points more women than men report feeling rushed, whereas in Georgia, the difference is 6.1 percentage points.

Regarding activities, patterns are generally consistent across genders and countries. Individuals who feel rushed spend less time on personal care, including sleep, and less time on leisure activities. Conversely, they dedicate more time to paid work and commuting, indicating that the sense of being rushed is particularly prevalent among employed individuals.

Unpaid domestic work shows distinct gendered patterns by country. In the United Kingdom, both women and men who feel rushed spend less time on unpaid domestic work. In Georgia, the opposite pattern is observed among women: those who feel rushed report more time spent on unpaid domestic work, while men show no notable differences.

2.2. Additional variables of analysis: Deepening the understanding

In addition to the demographic variables discussed earlier—age, educational attainment, household composition, and employment status—other characteristics reveal important differences in time use. These include urban or rural location, migrant status, disability status, and the age of the youngest child, all of which have been shown to influence time-use patterns in prior research. Harmonizing these variables for cross-country comparison presents significant challenges. This section focuses on two such variables: disability status and age of the youngest child.

2.2.1. Disability status

Table 12 presents gender differences in time use among individuals with and without disabilities. Data are available only for Georgia and the United Kingdom, and survey questions differ slightly between countries. Responses are based on subjective self-assessment and may be influenced by contextual stigma surrounding disability.

TABLE 12:
General indicator of gender differences in time use by disability status

	Georgia	United Kingdom
With disability	0.122	0.074
Without disability	0.153	0.089

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Estimates indicate smaller gender differences in time use among individuals with disabilities in both countries. Specifically, individuals with disabilities report reduced gender gaps in unpaid work (domestic and caregiving tasks), while inequalities in other activities are similar to those observed among individuals without disabilities.

Table 13 examines differences in time use between disabled and non-disabled individuals, regardless of gender. Slightly greater disparities are observed among men, though differences are modest, and patterns are consistent across countries.

TABLE 13:
General indicator of differences in time use between population with and without disability by sex

	Georgia	United Kingdom
Women	0.089	0.081
Men	0.107	0.102

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

2.2.2. Age of youngest child

Time-use differences by the age of the youngest child were analyzed using three overlapping categories. This analysis was limited to countries with a complete household roster. For reference, a general indicator is also reported for individuals in households without children under 15.

TABLE 14:
General indicator of gender differences in time use by age of the youngest child

Age of youngest child	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Mongolia	Senegal	United Kingdom
Youngest child 0-5	0.198	0.280	0.203	0.200	0.164	0.198	0.137
Youngest child 0-9	0.183	0.267	0.190	0.187	0.149	0.192	0.129
Youngest child 0-14	0.172	0.255	0.177	0.180	0.139	0.188	0.120
No children below 15	0.094	0.195	0.129	0.117	0.089	0.130	0.070

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Results indicate that gender inequality in time use is greatest when the youngest child is very young, reflecting the high care demands that disproportionately fall on women. As children grow older, the gender gap narrows but remains higher than in households without children. The highest gender inequalities are observed in Bangladesh, and the lowest in the United Kingdom. The ranking of countries is consistent across child age groups, suggesting similar effects of child age on gender disparities across the analyzed countries.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND REMARKS

Gender disparities in time use remain a significant issue worldwide. All indicators analyzed in this report reflect varying levels of inequality in how time is distributed between paid and unpaid activities, with notable differences across countries. These disparities are closely linked to demographic factors such as age, education, household composition, and employment status, reinforcing persistent traditional gender roles.

Men generally spend more time on paid work, leisure, travel, and the production of goods for own final use, while women dedicate more time to unpaid domestic labor and caregiving tasks (see **Sections B, C, and D, Tables 2–4**). Among the innovative indicators introduced in this report, the probability of men outworking women in unpaid domestic work remains below 50 percent in all countries, ranging from 7.7 percent in Morocco to 32.2 percent in the United Kingdom (see **Table 2**). Conversely, the probability of men outworking women in paid work exceeds 50 percent in every country, from 53.6 percent in Viet Nam to 77.6 percent in Bangladesh (see **Table 3**).

In cross-country comparisons, Bangladesh and Morocco emerge as the most unequal countries, particularly in terms of unpaid work (see **Tables 4 and 9**). Senegal also displays high inequality in unpaid work, though it aligns more closely with other countries in terms of paid work. The United Kingdom stands out as the most egalitarian, although unpaid domestic work disparities persist. Countries such as Viet Nam, Mongolia, Georgia, Kenya, and Colombia form a cluster where unpaid domestic work remains unequal, while gender parity in paid work is improving (see **Figure 5**).

However, these international comparisons must be interpreted with caution. Differences in survey methodologies and data collection periods affect comparability. For example, the Bangladesh survey is not comprehensive and does not account for seasonality, and because it was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, the findings may reflect unusual time-use patterns caused by lockdowns and mobility restrictions.

Demographically, the highest gender disparities are found among middle-aged adults (30–59) who live with children, have lower education levels, and are employed (see **Section C, Table A.9**). Household composition emerges as the most consistent variable influencing these inequalities. While in Argentina, Morocco, and the United Kingdom, gender disparities are similar for individuals living alone and those in couples, in Bangladesh, Georgia, and Colombia, cohabitation intensifies gender disparities, reinforcing traditional norms within households.

A more detailed analysis of domestic tasks reveals clear, consistent patterns (see **Figure 8, Section B**). Laundry is the most unequal task across all countries, followed by food preparation and cleaning. Household management is more balanced, with relatively higher male participation in countries like Bangladesh and Morocco. Overall, task segregation indices are highest in Morocco, Bangladesh, and Senegal, indicating minimal male involvement in domestic work. Georgia also shows high segregation, particularly in routine and maintenance tasks. In contrast, the United Kingdom, Argentina, and Mongolia report lower levels of task segregation (see **Figure 11**).

Gender segregation also appears in caregiving and leisure (see **Sections C and E, Figures 9 and 11**). Men tend to participate more in enjoyable childcare activities like teaching and playing, while women remain responsible for supervisory and routine tasks. Men also spend more time in leisure activities, although disparities are narrower in sports and hobbies. Patterns in socializing vary: in Morocco and the United Kingdom, women socialize more, whereas in Colombia and Viet Nam, men dominate. Media consumption, however, shows minimal gender imbalance.

A critical dimension of gender inequality is time poverty—defined as insufficient time for personal care and leisure (see **Section F, Table 5**). Time poverty disproportionately affects women in every country analyzed. The highest rates are in Colombia (33.6 percent) and Viet Nam (29.2 percent), while the lowest are in Senegal (13.1 percent), Morocco (16.1 percent), and the United Kingdom (17 percent). The largest gender gaps are seen in Georgia (27.4 percent for women vs. 12.2 percent for men), Viet Nam (35.2 percent vs. 25.5 percent), and Argentina (31.5 percent vs. 21.6 percent).

Time-use surveys also shed light on gender disparities in transportation and working arrangements (see **Sections G and H, Table 6–8**). Although transportation data are limited to two countries, it reveals significant differences: men spend more time traveling due to higher labor force participation. The gender gap in travel time is 14 minutes in the United Kingdom and 18 minutes in Georgia. Travel participation is nearly equal in the United Kingdom but significantly higher among men in Georgia. Furthermore, men are more likely to use private vehicles, while public transport usage is higher among women, especially in Georgia.

Regarding working arrangements, results vary by country. Remote work is more common among women in all countries except the United Kingdom, where men and women engage equally. Work schedule continuity is generally high, with few gender differences. The exception is Bangladesh, where women—likely those in informal jobs—report lower schedule continuity, probably due to frequent interruptions and multitasking at home (see **Table 8**).

In summary, this analysis confirms that gender disparities in time use persist across multiple domains—especially in unpaid domestic labor, caregiving, leisure, transportation, remote work, and time poverty. While progress is evident in paid work, unpaid responsibilities continue to fall disproportionately on women, reinforcing structural inequalities and contributing to elevated levels of time poverty.

Tackling these disparities will require targeted policies that promote shared domestic responsibilities, flexible work arrangements, and inclusive labor market participation. Additionally, addressing the root causes of inequality demands cultural change, education, and economic policies that empower both women and men to share responsibilities more equitably in both the public and private spheres.

4. ANNEXES

Annex 1. Technical note

Surveys Selection

The estimates reported are generated from the microdata of the national time-use surveys of each country included in the analysis. The files were obtained directly from the websites of the national statistical institutes or provided by them upon request. The study includes surveys from ten countries: Argentina, Bangladesh, Colombia, Georgia, Kenya, Mongolia, Morocco, Senegal, the United Kingdom, and Viet Nam. **Table A.1** shows the webpages from which the files were downloaded.

TABLE A.1:
Surveys included in the report

Country	Abbreviation	Year	Access	Conditions
Argentina	AR	2021	https://www.indec.gob.ar/indec/web/Institucional-Indec-BasesDeDatos-9	Free
Bangladesh	BG	2021	Provided by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics	Free
Colombia	CO	2020-21	https://microdatos.dane.gov.co/index.php/catalog/729	Free
Georgia	GE	2020-21	https://www.geostat.ge/en/modules/categories/858/database	Free
Kenya	KE	2021	https://statistics.knbs.or.ke/nada/index.php/catalog/127	Free
Mongolia	MN	2019	https://microdata.nso.mn/en/surveydetail/50	Free
Morocco	MO	2011-12	https://www.hcp.ma/s/?tag=Enqu%C3%AAte+nationale+sur+l%27emploi+du+temps	Free
Senegal	SN	2022	https://anads.ansd.sn/index.php/catalog/249	Free
United Kingdom	UK	2014-15	https://beta.ukdataservice.ac.uk/datacatalogue/studies/study?id=8128	Need to request access
Viet Nam	VN	2022	https://microdata.worldbank.org/index.php/catalog/5844	Free

The selected countries represent diverse cultural and social contexts across different regions of the world, as well as varying levels of development and gender equality.

Additional criteria for selecting the surveys included the use of different methodologies to collect time-use data and whether countries received support from UN Women's gender data programme, Women Count[10], for the production and use of time-use statistics. All surveys were conducted within a 10-year period, between 2012 (Morocco) and 2022 (Senegal and Viet Nam).

In addition to the countries included in the final report, others were also considered. However, some were excluded due to difficulties in accessing microdata. This was the case for India and Tanzania, where we were unable to apply for the necessary microdata, as well as Belgium and Italy, where the access process would have taken too long. For countries such as South Africa, South Korea, and Spain, the most recent available samples dated back to 2010, which we considered too outdated and less comparable to the more recent samples used in the study. In the cases of Morocco and Kenya, the available microdata files already had aggregated activity times, preventing access to the original activity diaries. For Kenya, some information about household composition was also missing from the available files.

Nevertheless, the goal of this project was not to conduct an exhaustive study of time-use surveys, but rather to compare countries from different regions and methodological approaches. Furthermore, the analysis can be replicated for other countries, as the provided guidelines and supplementary materials offer insights on how to apply the same methodology.

Harmonized Dataset

Although most of the surveys followed similar methodologies, a harmonization process was necessary to ensure the data was as comparable as possible. **Table A.2** shows detailed information and specificities for each survey, as well as which variables are included in the harmonized dataset

The harmonized dataset also contains microdata from ten countries. Additionally, a supplementary dataset for the countries where diary data were available was created. This file summarizes the diaries by recording the activities performed in each 10-minute interval, serving as the basis for generating the tempo-graphs. An additional harmonized file was also created to compile information related to travel.

The harmonized files are not publicly available, as permission to disseminate the microdata from the National Statistical Offices (NSOs) would be needed. However, the syntax used for harmonizing the original files is available, as well as the syntax developed for computing estimates and figures. These resources are available [here].

10 UN Women. Making Every Woman and Girl Count Programme. https://data.unwomen.org/women-count

TABLE A.2:

Description of the surveys and availability of harmonized variables

Variable	Label	Code_tempo	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
Country			AR	BG	CO	GE	KE	MN	MO	SN	UK	VN
Year			2021	2021	2020-21	2020-21	2021	2019	2011-12	2022	2014-15	2022
Cases			14,350	17,772	126,753	114,34	24,004	14,590	16,395	11,689	16,533	6,001
Minimum age			14	9	10	15	15	12	15	15	8	15
Case 15 and older			14,181	17,752	116,110	11,434	24,004	13,888	16,395	11,689	14,958	6,001
Persons 15 and older			14,181	17,752	116,110	5,730	24,004	6,009	16,395	11,689	7,485	6,001
Num diaries person			1	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	2	1
Type of survey			Diary	Diary	Questions	Diary	Estimates diary	Dairy	Estimates diary	Diary	Diary	Diary
weight			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
hid	Household ID		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
pid	Person ID		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
age			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
sex			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
education			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
employment			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
hh_size	Household size		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X
partner	Has a partner		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	
children	Children 14 and youngerin the hh		X	X	X	X	Yes or not	X	X	X	X	
dayweek	Day of the week		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
daynum			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
t_pers_care	Total personal care		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
sleep	Sleep	1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
eating	Eating	2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
other_pers	Other personal care	3	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
paid_work	Paid work	4	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
prod_goods	Production of goods for own final use	25	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
study	Study	5	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
t_unpaid_domestic	Total unpaid work		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
nutrition	Nutrition management	6	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
sanitation	Sanitation	7	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
laundry	Clothes and laundry	8	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
maintenance	Household maintenance, repairs and mascots	9	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
management	Household management	10	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
other_domest	Other domestic work	11		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
t_childcare	Total chilcare		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Variable	Label	Code_tempo	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
supervise_ physical_care	Supervision and physical care	12	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	
teaching	Teaching	13	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	
play	Play	14		X	X	X		X	X		X	
other_childcare	Other childcare	22		X		X		X			X	X
care_adults	Care for adults	15	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
other_care	Other care	23		X		X	X	X				X
volunteering	Volunteering and religion	16	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
t_leisure	Total leisure		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
social	Socializing and events	17	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
sports	Sports	18	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
hobbies	Hobbies and gaming	19	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
media	Media and books	20	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
travelling	Travelling	21	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
other	Other activities	24	X			X		X		X	X	X
home_work	Minutes Paid work from home					X		X		X	X	X
start_work	First episode of paid work		X	X		X		X		X	X	X
end_work	Last episode of paid work		X	X		X		X		X	X	X
work_19_22	Minutes of paid work between 7pm and 10pm		X	X		X		X		X	X	X
work_8_22	Minutes of paid work between 8am and 10pm		X	X		X		X		X	X	X
all_childcare	Includes with kid and secondary activity			X		X		X		X	X	
all_domest	Includes secondary activity					X		X		X	X	X
travelling_foot	Mniutes of travelling by foot					X					X	
travelling_private_ motor	Mniutes of travelling by private motor										X	
travelling_private_ other	Mniutes of travelling by other private					X					X	
travelling_public	Mniutes of travelling by foot					X					X	
rushed	Feel rushed					X					X	
disab	Disability					X					X	
youngest_child	Age youngest child		X	X	X	X		X		X	X	
Age with Kids to compute all_ childcare				Up to 9		Up to 10		Up to 12		Under 18	Up to 7	Under 6

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

Regarding survey methodology, **Colombia** is the only country with a survey based on stylized questions. As a result, the sum of all reported activities does not equal 24 hours (1440 minutes) per day. Obtaining estimates for each respondent in this survey posed a challenge, as the questions about time spent on different activities were distributed across several datasets. Only indicators based on the time spent on the activities were computed for Colombia, since no information is available on how activities are distributed throughout the day, or on additional variables such as location, secondary activity, or the presence of others during the activity.

For **Morocco** and **Kenya**, although the information was collected through time-use diaries, the microdata we accessed did not include the complete diaries—only the total time spent on each activity by the respondent was available.

Children under 15 have been excluded from the analysis, as their daily activities differ significantly from those of the adult population. In surveys with more than one diary per person, diaries were treated independently, although the sociodemographic information remains the same. Except for the estimates on time poverty (**Section F**) and the probabilities of men outworking women (**Section A.3**), all estimates are based on weekdays (Monday to Friday) and weekends combined, as the averages represent a global mean for the country across the entire year. All results are weighted using the diary-provided weights.

For **Senegal,** care activities are not disaggregated in a way that allows for distinguishing between childcare and other forms of care, which prevents the calculation of the segregation index for childcare tasks.

The **Viet Nam** dataset does not allow for the computation of variables related to partnership status or the number of children in the household. The Kenya dataset does not provide exact information on household size or the number of children.

Time-use information is first disaggregated into ten major categories of activities that broadly align with the ICATUS (International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics) and the United Nations guidelines for producing time-use statistics (UN DESA, 2024b).

Annex 2. Additional tables

TABLE A.3:
Average time spent on major activities by women and men (minutes per day)

Country	Sex	Personal care	Paid work	Production goods own final use	Study	Unpaid domestic work	Unpaid care work	Volunteering	Leisure	Travelling	Other
Argentina	Women	730	151	2	39	195	62	17	219	23	0
	Men	701	273	3	33	100	25	12	255	38	0
Bangladesh	Women	659	68	45	18	270	73	78	209	21	0
	Men	678	330	30	21	29	11	53	220	72	0
Colombia	Women	617	128	6	24	203	40	14	247	10	0
	Men	607	269	8	23	54	10	8	262	19	0
Georgia	Women	708	85	42	14	197	51	9	297	34	3
	Men	703	171	68	13	35	12	8	373	52	4
Kenya	Women	703	105	83	41	240	33	39	165	32	0
	Men	707	227	99	52	48	4	34	219	50	0
Mongolia	Women	674	169	73	20	204	65	10	165	50	11
	Men	670	219	158	21	79	24	10	190	62	11
Morocco	Women	739	41	30	21	254	32	52	229	40	0
	Men	691	224	63	28	25	6	65	249	89	0
Senegal	Women	652	103	37	26	214	31	3	334	41	1
	Men	604	222	70	46	23	4	5	387	78	0
United Kingdom	Women	663	126	0	20	191	31	18	284	75	32
	Men	644	191	0	24	117	14	13	322	89	26
Viet Nam	Women	723	293	0	25	154	78	5	105	57	0
	Men	772	337	0	38	50	22	7	152	62	0

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.4:

Global indicator of gender differences in time use

	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
All population	0.121	0.239	0.142	0.144	0.157	0.118	0.211	0.184	0.084	0.111
Age group										
15-29	0.104	0.247	0.128	0.145	0.162	0.134	0.200	0.207	0.073	0.099
30-59	0.142	0.274	0.159	0.165	0.163	0.121	0.239	0.185	0.098	0.114
60+	0.085	0.150	0.123	0.122	0.108	0.097	0.147	0.082	0.062	0.104
Educational attainment										
Below secondary	0.153	0.243	0.177	0.159	0.166	0.163	0.228	0.190	0.081	0.121
Secondary	0.113	0.229	0.152	0.144	0.159	0.113	0.191	0.157	0.104	0.110
Above secondary	0.095	0.230	0.081	0.149	0.127	0.105	0.152	0.111	0.073	0.103
Other	0.212	0.251			0.155	0.120	0.229	0.308	0.090	
Household composition										
One person	0.076	0.151	0.111	0.092		0.151	0.177	0.160	0.071	
Couple alone	0.079	0.203	0.146	0.169		0.071	0.187	0.111	0.064	
Couple and children	0.204	0.284	0.221	0.210		0.158	0.265	0.136	0.133	
No partner, with children	0.140	0.143	0.133	0.133		0.137	0.161	0.216	0.108	
Other	0.108	0.200	0.135	0.113		0.084	0.174	0.133	0.077	
Employment status										
Not employed	0.108	0.221	0.154	0.151	0.164	0.127	0.186	0.194	0.077	0.167
Employed	0.089	0.216	0.089	0.122	0.148	0.092	0.176	0.142	0.075	0.087

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.5:

Gender ratio (Women/Men) in unpaid work and paid work by country and individual characteristics

Ratios unpaid work	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom	Viet Nam
All population	2.061	8.696	3.784	5.268	5.224	2.607	9.311	8.990	1.706	3.212
Age group										
15-29	2.150	11.546	3.845	7.398	4.983	3.344	13.242	9.956	2.241	3.630
30-59	2.295	8.080	4.055	5.651	5.716	2.725	8.705	8.697	1.811	3.054
60+	1.529	5.049	2.974	3.949	4.083	1.817	5.008	4.010	1.363	2.491
Educational attainment										
Below secondary	2.357	9.194	4.365	3.556	6.140	3.699	9.344	9.533	1.413	3.175
Secondary	1.866	8.477	3.996	5.662	4.855	2.580	9.945	5.603	1.950	3.282
Above secondary	1.881	6.877	2.476	4.710	3.884	2.137	5.297	5.989	1.668	2.977
Other	11.377	7.947			5.414	2.323	2.766		1.603	
Household composition										
One person	1.393	2.191	1.508	1.853		2.054	2.089	8.309	1.551	
Couple alone	1.587	8.581	3.925	6.295		1.833	6.237	2.737	1.419	
Couple and children	2.474	9.115	5.534	6.258		3.237	9.567	6.402	2.078	
No partner, with children	3.072	6.961	4.121	5.991		2.958	11.122	10.998	3.354	
Other	1.943	8.381	3.922	5.255		2.085	8.836	4.793	1.658	
Employment status										
Not employed	2.014	7.216	3.405	5.313	4.540	2.123	9.081	8.063	1.631	3.589
Employed	1.896	8.347	3.204	4.772	5.311	2.627	8.275	8.841	1.686	2.797

Ratios paid work										
All population	0.553	0.206	0.474	0.497	0.463	0.773	0.185	0.463	0.658	0.870
Age group										
15-29	0.611	0.210	0.511	0.524	0.423	0.688	0.224	0.360	0.784	0.868
30-59	0.592	0.198	0.498	0.555	0.507	0.821	0.169	0.472	0.674	0.856
60+	0.322	0.185	0.271	0.411	0.416	0.461	0.171	0.728	0.450	0.759
Educational attainment										
Below secondary	0.362	0.206	0.287	1.232	0.428	0.472	0.139	0.440	0.525	0.834
Secondary	0.579	0.181	0.466	0.382	0.426	0.779	0.216	0.561	0.571	0.895
Above secondary	0.738	0.215	0.813	0.552	0.682	0.814	0.572	0.763	0.762	0.843
Other	0.181	0.171			0.700	0.668			0.408	
Household composition										
One person	0.618	0.490	0.534	0.623		0.653	0.310	0.444	0.559	
Couple alone	0.650	0.257	0.461	0.487		0.909	0.175	0.520	0.848	
Couple and children	0.380	0.168	0.328	0.364		0.583	0.109	0.536	0.479	
No partner, with children	0.896	0.341	0.807	0.518		0.722	0.367	0.412	1.148	
Other	0.588	0.239	0.497	0.673		0.949	0.292	0.557	0.729	

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.6:

Average time spent on unpaid domestic work tasks by women and men (minutes per day)

Country	Sex	Nutrition	Sanitation	Laundry	Mantainance	Management	Other
Argentina	Women	61	71	19	15	30	0
	Men	26	19	3	30	23	0
Bangladesh	Women	196	39	27	6	2	0
	Men	6	3	2	7	11	0
Colombia	Women	107	56	32	7	1	0
	Men	21	16	5	11	0	0
Georgia	Women	107	63	14	2	11	0
	Men	8	10	0	8	9	0
Kenya	Women	157	28	43	1	10	1
	Men	24	7	8	2	5	2
Mongolia	Women	102	60	29	2	11	0
	Men	30	23	6	12	9	0
Morocco	Women	162	44	31	5	10	2
	Men	4	1	0	1	15	4
Senegal	Women	134	34	28	1	13	3
	Men	9	2	1	8	3	1
United Kingdom	Women	64	39	20	21	40	9
	Men	32	20	3	30	29	2
Viet Nam	Women	0	0	0	0	0	154
	Men	0	0	0	0	0	50

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.7:

Segregation of unpaid domestic work tasks by individual characteristics

	Argentina	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Kenya	Mongolia	Morocco	Senegal	United Kingdom
All population	0.421	0.870	0.610	0.747	0.683	0.511	0.885	0.863	0.291
Age group									
15-29	0.392	0.879	0.567	0.803	0.649	0.517	0.897	0.860	0.302
30-59	0.466	0.869	0.648	0.772	0.726	0.555	0.884	0.878	0.302
60+	0.354	0.830	0.551	0.668	0.649	0.378	0.842	0.687	0.268
Educational attainment									
Below secondary	0.487	0.877	0.668	0.649	0.731	0.632	0.900	0.874	0.259
Secondary	0.391	0.855	0.625	0.769	0.648	0.525	0.856	0.792	0.319
Above secondary	0.318	0.859	0.435	0.716	0.600	0.367	0.794	0.760	0.263
Other	0.832	0.869			0.717	0.451	0.873	0.947	0.335
Household composition									
One person	0.170	0.372	0.203	0.303		0.365	0.360	0.804	0.212
Couple alone	0.377	0.856	0.640	0.788		0.388	0.849	0.492	0.281
Couple and children	0.552	0.889	0.781	0.821		0.614	0.913	0.787	0.379
No partner, with children	0.522	0.807	0.599	0.804		0.592	0.878	0.911	0.454
Other	0.410	0.852	0.629	0.748		0.446	0.845	0.768	0.278
Employment status									
Not employed	0.417	0.815	0.563	0.736	0.625	0.390	0.881	0.855	0.287
Employed	0.394	0.884	0.585	0.748	0.696	0.560	0.898	0.856	0.275

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.8:

Average time spent on caregiving tasks by women and men (minutes per day)

Country	Sex	Supervisions Physical care	Teaching	Playing	Other childcare	Care for adults
Argentina	Women	49	5	0	0	9
	Men	19	1	0	0	4
Bangladesh	Women	55	13	2	0	4
	Men	6	2	1	0	1
Colombia	Women	16	9	13	0	2
	Men	1	2	7	0	1
Georgia	Women	27	8	9	5	3
	Men	2	1	7	1	1
Kenya	Women	32	0	0	0	1
	Men	3	0	0	0	1
Mongolia	Women	48	9	3	2	2
	Men	16	3	3	0	2
Morocco	Women	26	3	1	0	3
	Men	2	2	1	0	1
United Kingdom	Women	21	1	7	0	2
	Men	7	0	5	0	2
Viet Nam	Women	0	0	0	77	2
	Men	0	0	0	21	1

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

TABLE A.9:

Segregation of childcare tasks by individual characteristics

	Bangladesh	Colombia	Georgia	Mongolia	Morocco	United Kingdom
All household with children	0.745	0.592	0.626	0.467	0.762	0.390
Age group						
15-29	0.816	0.703	0.756	0.572	0.910	0.669
30-59	0.665	0.499	0.633	0.447	0.693	0.313
60+	0.646	0.476	0.362	0.358	0.643	0.697
Educational attainment						
Below secondary	0.756	0.616	0.673	0.559	0.807	0.308
Secondary	0.787	0.594	0.631	0.436	0.788	0.459
Above secondary	0.703	0.511	0.602	0.482	0.523	0.345
Other	0.734			0.431	0.828	0.420
Household composition						
Couple and children	0.746	0.578	0.645	0.478	0.755	0.382
No partner, with children	0.780	0.721	0.662	0.459	0.821	0.759
Employment status						
Not employed	0.743	0.658	0.657	0.506	0.850	0.630
Employed	0.680	0.423	0.564	0.322	0.679	0.272

Source: Author's calculations based on the harmonized database created from the original national time use surveys (TUS) microdata.

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