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## THE FEMALE LABOR MARKET IN THE STATE OF HIDALGO

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**Abstract:** The article analyzes the female labor market in the state of Hidalgo. The expanded questionnaire from the 2020 Population and Housing Census (INEGI, 2021) was used. The main findings show that women predominate in the labor market from the ages of 21 to 50, they carry out some productive activity with less than 40 hours a week, many of them earn less than 5 thousand pesos a month and, they have better job benefits than men. The article is divided into five sections. The first section presents gender and work studies in the Mexican context. The second section presents the theory of Becker (1993), who maintains that the increase in women's participation is because they have invested more of their time and have prepared more for the labor market than for household activities. On the contrary, those women who are dedicated to household activities and childcare are unlikely to enter the labor market. The third section presents the methodology used to process and analyze the data from the 2020 Population and Housing Census. The fourth section presents the results obtained from the PEA by gender in the state of Hidalgo.

**Keywords:** Female labor market, state of Hidalgo, job insecurity.

## INTRODUCTION

Feminist studies of welfare state programs argue that the different interests of academia, the state, and the market have been obstacles to understanding the relationships between women and men. These studies propose the family as the link between state and market. Family units are the basis of society and the key element in the design of social policies. Women in charge of maintaining autonomous households represent a central gender factor in distinguishing state/market/family regimes. Likewise, these studies have been aimed at analyzing the impacts of social policies among women, the level of discourse

and the actions they have had to improve paid employment and the status of women as citizens (Bashevkin, 2002).

Even in developed countries, these inequalities are evident. 8.3% of women working in developed countries are in a vulnerable situation. Women prefer jobs that allow them to reconcile their professional life with family responsibilities. Such jobs are characterized by poor working conditions, low wages and poor promotion prospects. In most developed countries, women register high rates of temporary and part-time work and the wage gap between men and women is wide (Dueñas et. al., 2014).

The temporary care sector offers a very instructive case study to describe the nature and direction of employment change and its gender underpinnings. This sector is dominated by women. Its roots lie in the history of labor market intermediaries, specifically the private employment agents who operated in the labor market in the late 19th century. Temporary help agencies were configured for the first time as autonomous entities of the labor market in the period after the Second World War with the objective of attracting to the labor market a particular group of married women, displaced from their location in the division of the work in times of war. For three decades after its initial creation, this sector remained heavily dominated by women, providing administrative workers to companies requiring temporary assistance (Vosko, 2000).

Initially, companies used the services of temporary help agencies as a short-term measure to cover employees on vacation, maternity leave or sick leave. To this day, women continue to dominate this sector. The changing contours of the temporary help industry, especially its current expansion into new branches of the economy, make a historical investigation into the emergence

of the temporary employment relationship particularly instructive. There are few studies that investigate the transformation of female-dominated industries – or, more accurately, industries that initially emerged to attract women – into industries where sexual parity is emerging. In this sense, the temporary assistance sector is unique. Its post-World War II history illustrates how and why an employment relationship, one that was originally designed to meet a large demand for temporary and part-time white-collar workers, and to target a small group of women who face significant restrictions on their participation in the labor force may become a norm for a broader segment of the population (Vosko, 2000).

Spain's labor market has been marked in recent decades by the rise of women into the productive sphere. This country has high levels of labor segregation compared to other European countries. This trend has increased in the first decade of the 21st century. Segregation causes income inequality, mainly in women who are concentrated in low-paying jobs and sectors (Dueñas et. al., 2014).

For example, the employment rate for women has almost doubled in 20 years. In 1987, the employment rate for women represented only 23% and, by 2010, it reached 41.7%. This increase in the female employment participation rate is due to the growth of employment in the services sector and the decrease in agricultural and industrial production. Other factors that have driven this growth have been the development of new information and communication technologies, the anti-discrimination policies applied, better education for women and the decrease in the fertility rate (Dueñas et. al., 2014).

A similar phenomenon occurs in the United States. Women continue to have fewer children or decide not to have children or have

children at an older age. For example, in 1980 the average number of children each woman had was three, and by 2004 it had dropped to less than two. The number of women under 45 who had never had children doubled from 10% to 20%, and the figure doubled from 7 percent of women who had their first child when they were forty to 14% in that same period. In the early 1980s, nearly half of women with children one year old or younger were in the labor force. This figure increased to 59% in 1998 and decreased to 55% in 2001 (Skromme, 2010).

During the 1980s, the size of American organizations shrank and the number of levels from top to bottom decreased. Promotions were therefore more difficult to achieve for everyone. Although the number of women in professional and management occupations increased from 40.6% in 1980 to 51.1% in 2006 and women have appeared at increasingly higher levels of management in organizations, the same is not true. For the vast majority of them, they are presented with a glass ceiling that prevents them from reaching senior management (Skromme, 2010).

In South America, the importance of female employment among self-employed women and in other low-productivity sectors has been documented. These studies have shown that labor flexibility legitimizes processes of sexual discrimination because women find themselves in less qualified positions and with fewer opportunities to pursue a career in organizations. It has also been concluded that the female qualification and its powers are rejected. Very few studies have shown that the introduction of labor flexibility generates employment opportunities for women (De la Garza et. al., 2001).

## THE NATIONAL CONTEXT

During the 1990s, the gender approach was incorporated into studies on labor flexibility. These studies showed that women are the group most affected by labor flexibility in which low-skilled and poorly paid jobs prevail. In this period, companies have sought to obtain the variation in working time to meet the variation in demand, modulating the time. They have implemented alternating teams, night work or weekend work, without having any labor protection. Studies of these new forms of work organization have analyzed the physical and mental health of women and the impact on the family of these workers. (De la Garza et. al., 2001).

Female work identities involve subjective, social and personal factors of professions and occupations. Job segregation can also be considered the inequality of family resources. Many Mexican households are made up of extended families who carry out informal activities and precarious self-employment. Motherhood plays an important role. Determines the insertion of women in the labor market. Even women in unfavorable economic conditions can change the assigned roles of mother or wife to enter the labor market, which also incorporates personal aspirations, the compatibility of domestic and extra-domestic tasks, the segregation of labor markets and family conflicts. ” (Guadarrama, 2008, p. 328).

Although there is no consensus to economically value unpaid domestic work, there are various proposals for its analysis. One of them consists of calculating the income that would have been received for that work at market cost, considering the hours dedicated to certain activities. Under this form, it is estimated that domestic work would represent between 14% and 17% of GDP. These types of calculations consider domestic chores, family activities and other services and consider the

average salary of domestic workers, the costs of lodging and food received. Another proposal to economically value unpaid domestic work consists of identifying the 20 main activities carried out at home, the time dedicated to these activities, the total number of people participating, the occupations related to domestic work and the hourly income for specific activity. The domestic activities carried out by men are home repairs, carrying out banking procedures and carrying firewood. On the contrary, the domestic activities carried out by women are sewing, preparing food and cleaning the house (Pedrero, 2004).

Violence in the workplace is presented as a violation of rights under the law, regulation or collective contract. The occupation of domestic workers is the activity that presents the most recurrent and open violence. Many workers consider that this feeling is permanent and is expressed in job instability or the threat of dismissal. Violence in each occupation or profession presents itself in different ways. The working woman's body represents certain stereotypes; depending on the work sector she is in; an image is invented. Domestic workers are perceived as intruders in a home. Your body is a danger to employers. They can't paint their nails, dress or comb their hair the way they want. On the contrary, in the financial sector, women are required to wear makeup and, dress elegant and formal. Even the name of the occupation is a form of valorization and discrimination. Those who most resent this situation are domestic workers who are also called in a derogatory manner as “maids” or “maids” (Zúñiga, 2005).

Job insecurity is another symbolic form of violence that manifests itself in the fear of dismissal, scolding or retaliation from the immediate superior or employer. Likewise, it occurs in the distribution of workloads, the assignment of excessive work and, in the absence of solidarity and camaraderie at work.

Job insecurity occurs in all sectors, whether there is a union or not. In the educational sector, teachers point out that there are multiple abuses by directors. The expression “my teacher” indicates possession and control of the worker as if she were the property of her superior. In the industrial sector there is a lot of discrimination. In the educational sector, no one wants to report abuses from the immediate superior. When there is a verbal confrontation, he is marginalized, and the worker is isolated. You are assigned the worst commission, the worst room, or your calls are not passed on (Zúñiga, 2005). Middle class women, with education and less family burden, participate more in the labor market and can satisfy their fulfillment needs. On the contrary, although poor women work out of necessity, they feel satisfied working outside the home because they consider through their work that they can rebuild their self-esteem, economic and emotional autonomy (Guadarrama, 2008).

In the tram sector, for long-time women were excluded from union life and from accessing management positions. When the union representation was entirely male, any sign of displeasure or rebellion was grounds for termination of the contract or being relegated from certain activities such as denial of meal or rest time during the workday. Although there is support from the family or husband, they themselves are the ones who pressure the workers to resign (Zúñiga, 2005).

To analyze women as social subjects, it is necessary to identify the transitions in their lives which form and influence their identities. A key transition is represented by fertility. Fewer children could increase labor participation rates by age. Another transition is education. The higher the educational level, the greater the female economic participation. Poor women who do not have higher education have few options in the

labor market (Guadarrama, 2008). Another way to approach the study of female work is to consider the inequalities that occur in domestic work and family relationships, among other aspects. These inequalities have persisted over time and have changed very little (Meda, 2002).

The treatment of women and men by employers or the immediate boss is very different. Almost always favoring the latter. In most workplaces, men’s relationship with superiors is closer, because most bosses or superiors are men. On the contrary, women had to participate in the coexistence of these workspaces according to the stereotypes established by men. If a woman demanded to be respected because she is not a woman from the street, the retaliation against her was the stigmatization of her person in the sense that she is believed too much. It is thought that men can limit the work and ideas of women. When they present an idea, the men say it doesn’t work, but then they take it over. Managers make workers feel like they can’t handle the job, but it’s about not being able to finish the work in the times they set. Likewise, it is considered that women are accustomed to a certain degree of harassment as part of “normality” in the workplace and, when sexual harassment is recognized, it is considered as a fact related to certain workers and not as part of the structure of the organization. Furthermore, on many occasions, the woman’s behavior would be the reason for the harassment and not the institutions that reproduce such practices (Zúñiga, 2005).

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## **THE FEMALE LABOR MARKET AND THE FAMILY**

Academics and analysts are increasingly concerned with examining the changing nature of employment. Some scholars are concerned with delineating employment trends through in-depth statistical analyzes that examine the extent of change both cross-sector and within individual sectors. The emphasis of these studies is usually more descriptive than analytical; Still, they provide important evidence of changes in employment at the national and international levels, indicating that, while the rise in non-standard forms of employment is a global phenomenon, patterns and trends vary from region to region. Other scholars use existing data to explore the departure from the standard employment relationship, evaluating its causes and significance (Vosko, 2000).

Using Segmented Labor Market Theory and Regulation Theory, many scholars examine the relationship between prevailing labor trends and institutions such as the family, state, unions, and business to investigate changing patterns of employment. In contrast, scholars concerned with how gender relations operate in the labor market are searching for new understandings of the process of employment change. Many suggest that the feminization of employment is occurring on a global scale.

They focus attention on the emergence of a supply-side political-economic agenda and its gendered impacts on global employment patterns. However, the dominant explanatory frameworks lack a gender analysis. This absence is a notable deficiency (Vosko, 2000).

There are three theories that analyze male dominance and patriarchy in the female labor market (Hakim, 2004): Steven Goldberg’s theory based on psychophysiological processes; Heidi Hartmann’s theory based on the collective organization of men to promote their own interests against those of women through unions, the legal system and political organizations and; Gary Becker’s theory who points out that the specialization of the roles of husband and wife in the home would explain gender inequality in employment. These theories have several limitations: they present economic reductionism; They have a functionalist argument in the relationship between capitalism and domestic work; and they superficially deal with the domestic sphere to theorize the family context (Fine, 1992).

Traditionally, married women have devoted most of their time to having children and other domestic activities, while married men have devoted themselves to hunting, working as soldiers, farming, and other “market” activities. The various divisions of labor among family members are determined in part by biological differences and by different experiences and investments in human capital. Married women have specialized in motherhood and other domestic activities and have demanded long-term “contracts” from their husbands to protect them against abandonment and other adversities (Becker, 1993).

Optimal decisions for those in a multiperson household must consider the abilities of different household members and conflicts in their incentives. The theory of comparative

advantage implies that the resources of members of a household (or any other organization) should be allocated to various activities according to their comparative or relative efficiencies. Differences in efficiency are not determined by biological or other intrinsic differences. Variations in skills result from different experiences and other investments in human capital (Becker, 1993). However, in several European countries, 80% of domestic tasks such as washing dishes, shopping, cleaning the house or taking care of children are carried out by women (Meda, 2002).

Household members do not have to be supervised because they are willing to allocate their time and other resources to maximize their household's production of staples. Since all people are intrinsically identical, each member would receive an equal share of the household's output (if the market for members is competitive). Consequently, each member benefits from a cost-free increase in household production. Therefore, the effective time of different members would be a perfect proxy even if they accumulate different amounts of household capital. Goods supplied by different members would be perfect substitutes even if they accumulate different amounts of market capital. Consequently, without supervision costs and without fixed costs of time allocation between different sectors,

Marginal products in the household sector must exceed those in the market sector for members who devote all their time to the household and, conversely, for members who spend all their time in the market. If all members of an efficient household have different comparative advantages, no more than one member would allocate time to both the market and household sectors. All people with a greater comparative advantage in the market than this member would fully specialize in the market, and all people with

a greater comparative advantage in the home would fully specialize there (Becker, 1993).

Although women have a higher level of education and the processes of insertion into the labor market are the same as those of men, when they become pregnant and have a son or daughter, they fall into inequality. Women prefer to give up their jobs and give priority to their baby because they need emotional security. Subsequently, there is a disorder because society thinks that these tasks naturally involve women "because they do it better than men and because men work... (Meda, 2002, p. 29)".

Since the returns from investing in specialized capital depend on the hours spent in the sector using that capital, members who specialize entirely in the market sector have strong incentives to invest in market capital and no incentive to invest in domestic capital. If all members of a household have different comparative advantages, no more than one member would invest in both market and household capital. Members specializing in the market sector would invest only in market capital, and members specializing in the household sector would invest only in household capital. The division of labor in the accumulation of specialized capital is greater when the differences in the distribution of time are greater (Becker, 1993).

## **METHODOLOGY**

To study the female labor market in the state of Hidalgo, data from the Expanded Questionnaire of the 2020 Population Census of the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) were used. The observation units of the 2020 Population and Housing Census were the residents of the national territory and private and collective homes. The Census survey period was from March 2 to 27, 2020. To collect the information, direct interviews were used by

mobile devices with appropriate informants such as the head of the household, their spouse or a resident person 18 years of age and older. To collect data on inhabited homes and their occupants, the Basic Questionnaire was used for exhaustive enumeration, with 38 questions. The Expanded Questionnaire for a probabilistic sample of 4 million homes, with 103 questions, including the 38 questions of the Basic Questionnaire (INEGI, 2021).

The Locality Questionnaire with 45 questions was used in localities with less than 2,500 inhabitants. Here, he or the informant was a local authority. Another instrument was the Urban Environment Questionnaire, with 23 questions, applied in towns with 2,500 or more inhabitants. Finally, the Social Assistance Accommodation questionnaire, with 91 questions, was answered by an accommodation authority (INEGI, 2021).

The INEGI 2020 Census Expanded Questionnaire (2021) was applied to almost 4 million inhabited private homes. The sample used was probabilistic, stratified by conglomerates in a single stage in complete geographic areas, blocks or localities. Its objective was to know in detail the characteristics of private homes and their inhabitants. This questionnaire included all the questions from the Basic Questionnaire and other questions that allowed us to expand knowledge on certain topics. The information obtained can be disaggregated at the national, state and state levels with disaggregation into four locality sizes:

1. Towns with less than 2,500 inhabitants.
2. Population of 2,500 to 14,999 inhabitants.
3. Population from 15,000 to 49,999 inhabitants
4. Population of 50,000 or more inhabitants.

Likewise, it can be disaggregated into the 2,453 municipalities of the 31 states and each of the 16 territorial demarcations of Mexico

City (INEGI, 2021).

To identify the EAP of the female labor market in the state of Hidalgo, the cases of people who were working were selected. The selected cases only included the first nine categories, and the following cases were obtained: 130,325 cases of men and 70,592 cases of women.

## RESULTS

The labor market by gender in the state of Hidalgo can be divided into four cohorts. The first is made up of ages 12 to 21 and is very similar between men and women. The second cohort would include ages 22 to 50. In this cohort, the EAP is significantly predominantly female and highly predominantly female from 30 to 39 years of age. A third cohort begins at age 51, in which PEA becomes significantly male-dominated until age 84. Finally. A fourth cohort would include ages 85 to 101, according to INEGI data (2021).

In the first cohort, the largest decimal difference is 0.3 and occurs at the ages of 16, 17 and 26 years. In the rest of the ages, it is maintained with a decimal difference between 0.1 and 0.2%. In the second cohort, the largest decimal difference ranges from 0.3 to 0.5 tenths and is observed in the age range of 30 to 43 years. That is, the labor market in the state of Hidalgo has been predominantly female for 14 years. In the third cohort, the largest decimal difference is 0.3 and is observed in the population between 60 and 67 years of age. In the rest of the ages of this cohort, decimal differences of less than two tenths are maintained. The fourth cohort does not present significant decimal differences, and at all ages, the population comprises less than 0.1%. See graph 1.

Schooling by gender of the EAP in the state of Hidalgo shows important differences. While almost half of the working population (53.0%) has completed secondary education, two



thirds of the male population have the same education. The EAP of the female population has more levels of schooling than the female population. At the bachelor's level, it can be shown that there are 40% more women than men and there are twice as many women who have a master's degree as men (see graph 2).

The five municipalities with the highest rate of female EAP are mostly urban. The capital of the entity has the highest percentage of female EAP with 8.2%, while the male EAP represents 6.3%. A percentage difference of almost 2.0%, the largest PEA difference in the entire state. The percentages of female EAP in the municipalities of Actopan and Tulancingo are 3.6% and 4.0% respectively, while the male EAP are 2.2% and 2.9%, in the same municipalities respectively. The municipality with the highest male EAP is Tepehuacán de Guerrero with 1.4%, while the female EAP is 0.5%. Other municipalities with a greater male presence are Huazalingo, Yahualica with 0.8%, and San Felipe Orizatlán with 1.2%. The percentage differences with respect to the female population in these municipalities are observed in Table 1.

The 58.0% of Hidalgo's female workers are concentrated in three occupational categories: workers in elementary and support activities (21.4%), merchants, sales employees and sales agents (20.3%), and professionals and technicians (16.3%). Likewise, 57.3% of the entity's workers are concentrated in three occupational categories: workers in agricultural, livestock, forestry, hunting and fishing activities (20.3%), workers in elementary and support activities (18.6%) and artisanal workers, in construction and other trades (18.4%). It is striking that in the category of workers in elementary and support activities, both men and women converge in quantity. Another relevant occupational category is represented by industrial machinery operators, assemblers, drivers

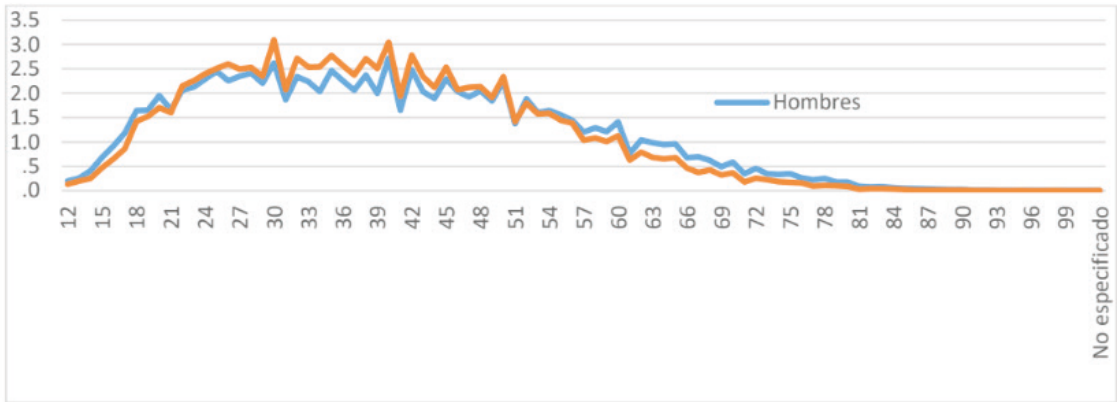
and transport drivers because it is the most masculinized occupational category. Women represent 27% of men in this category. It is even above workers in agricultural, livestock, forestry, hunting and fishing activities in which women represent 24% compared to men. See Chart 3.

While 81.1% of the female EAP in the state of Hidalgo are employees or self-employed workers, the male EAP only represents 66.9% in these occupational positions. There is a strong male EAP in the occupational category of day laborers. While men represent 12.3% of the EAP, women only represent 1.7%. That is, there are six times more male day laborers than female workers. The rest of the occupational categories present a minimal difference in the EAP between men and women. See graph 4.

The female EAP is concentrated in retail trade (24.1%), manufacturing industry (16.5%), government services (12.7%), temporary accommodation and food and beverage preparation services (11.8%), and educational services (9.5%). These five economic sectors concentrate 74.6% of the female EAP in the state of Hidalgo. On the contrary, the male EAP is concentrated in the agriculture, animal breeding and exploitation, forestry, fishing and hunting sectors (26.2%), in construction (15.7%), in the manufacturing industry (12.7%) and, to retail trade (10.8%). These four economic sectors concentrate 65.4% of the female EAP in the state of Hidalgo. See graph 5.

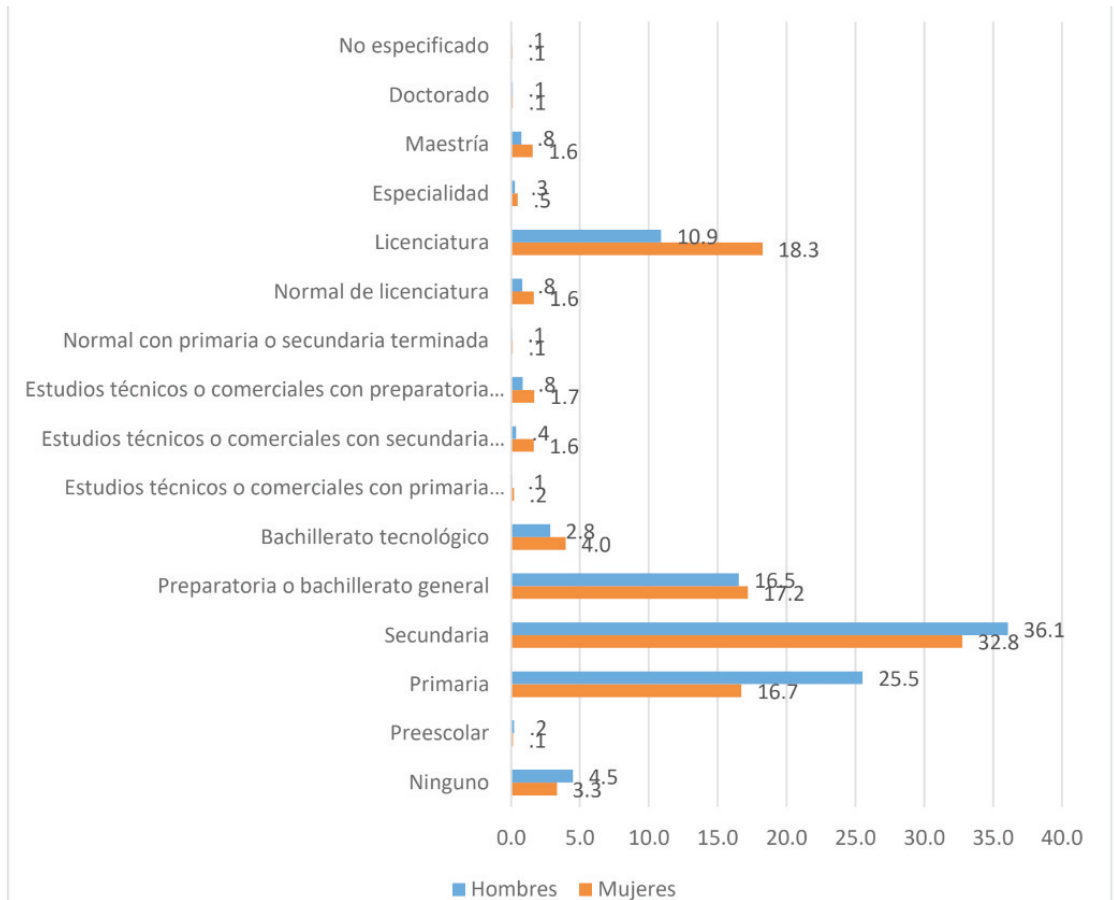
The labor market by hours worked per week by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo is segmented. A first segment is occupied by women whose working hours are predominantly less than 40 hours a week. The second segment is occupied by men whose working hours are predominantly more than 40 hours a week. See Chart 6.

The monthly income most frequently



Graph 1. Age by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo

Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)



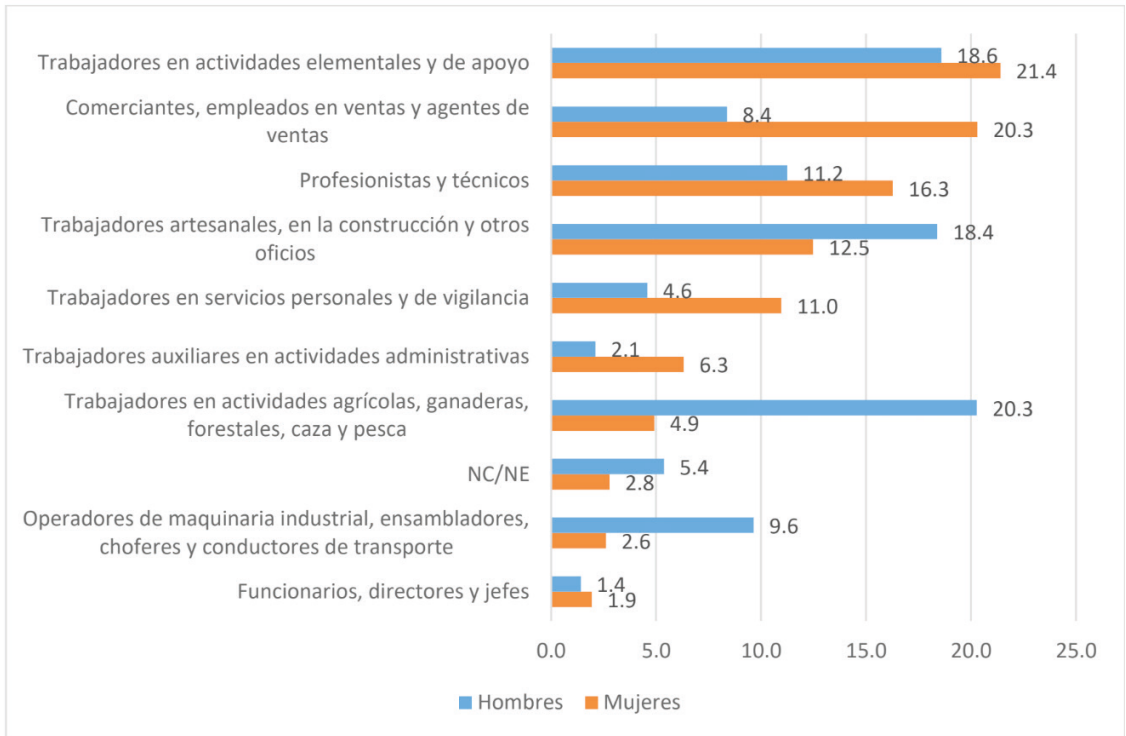
Graph 2. Schooling by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo

Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)

Municipality	Dif_ M-W	Municipality	Dif_ M-W	Municipality	Dif_ M-W
Pachuca de Soto	-1,9	El Arenal	-0,1	Eloxochitlán	0,1
Actopan	-1,4	Atotonilco el Grande	-0,1	Atitalaquia	0,1
Tulancingo de Bravo	-1,2	Santiago de Anaya	-0,1	Almoloya	0,1
Ixmiquilpan	-0,8	Tlaxcoapan	-0,1	Jaltocán	0,1
Tizayuca	-0,5	Tasquillo	-0,1	Acaxochitlán	0,1
Mixquiahuala de Juárez	-0,5	Cuautepec de Hinojosa	-0,1	Huasca de Ocampo	0,2
Tula de Allende	-0,5	Tetepango	-0,1	Alfajayucan	0,2
Apan	-0,5	Tenango de Doria	-0,1	Acatlán	0,2
Tepeji del Río de Ocampo	-0,5	Tlanalapa	-0,1	Metepec	0,2
San Agustín Tlaxiaca	-0,5	Chilcuautla	-0,1	Xochicoatlán	0,2
Mineral de la Reforma	-0,5	Zimapán	0,0	Huehuetla	0,2
Zacualtipán de Ángeles	-0,4	Atotonilco de Tula	0,0	Singuilucan	0,2
Huejutla de Reyes	-0,4	Tecoautla	0,0	Tlahuiltepa	0,3
Villa de Tezontepec	-0,4	Tepetitlán	0,0	Calnali	0,3
Zapotlán de Juárez	-0,4	Mineral del Monte	0,0	Huautla	0,3
Progreso de Obregón	-0,3	Tepeapulco	0,0	Lolotla	0,3
Tlahuelilpan	-0,3	Omitlán de Juárez	0,0	Pisaflores	0,3
Ajacuba	-0,3	Chapantongo	0,0	Juárez Hidalgo	0,4
Emiliano Zapata	-0,3	Epazoyucan	0,0	Chapulhuacán	0,4
Tolcayuca	-0,2	San Bartolo Tutotepec	0,1	Tlanchinol	0,4
Santiago Tulantepec de Lugo Guerrero	-0,2	Molango de Escamilla	0,1	La Misión	0,4
San Salvador	-0,2	Nicolás Flores	0,1	Tianguistengo	0,5
Francisco I. Madero	-0,2	Nopala de Villagrán	0,1	Atlapexco	0,5
Zempoala	-0,2	Pacula	0,1	Xochiatipan	0,5
Jacala de Ledezma	-0,2	San Agustín Metzquititlán	0,1	Huazalingo	0,5
Tezontepec de Aldama	-0,2	Metztitlán	0,1	Yahualica	0,5
Huichapan	-0,1	Agua Blanca de Iturbide	0,1	San Felipe Orizatlán	0,6
Mineral del Chico	-0,1	Cardonal	0,1	Tepehuacán de Guerrero	0,9

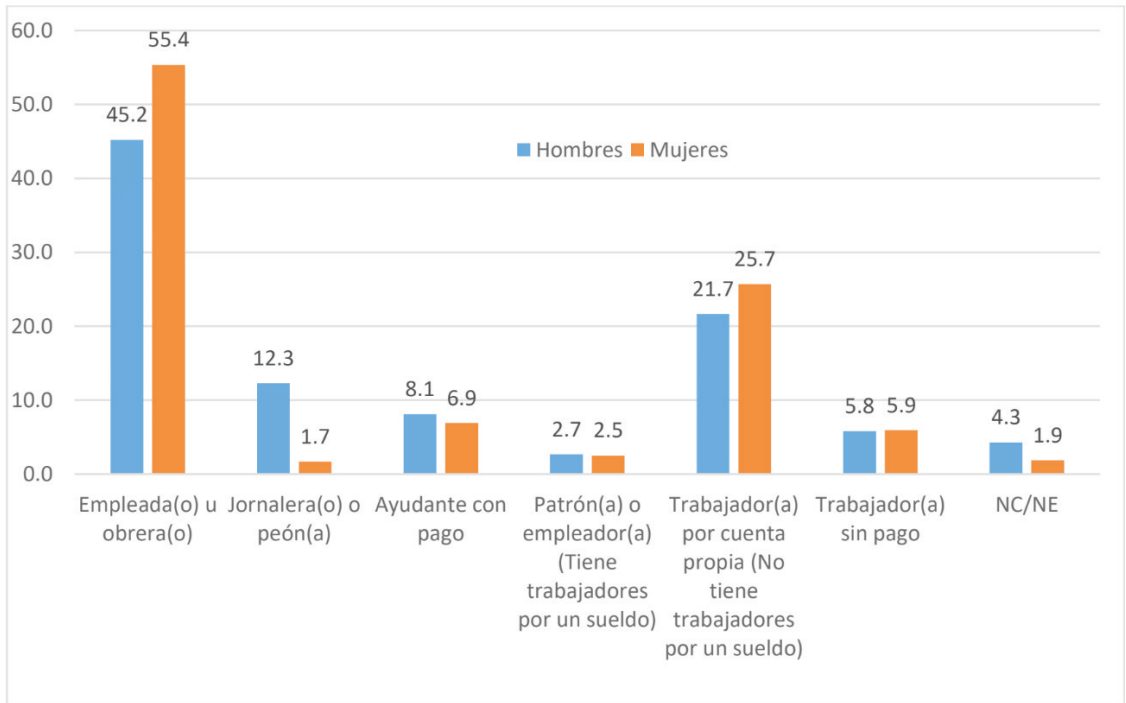
Table 1. Percentage difference between men and women of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo

Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)



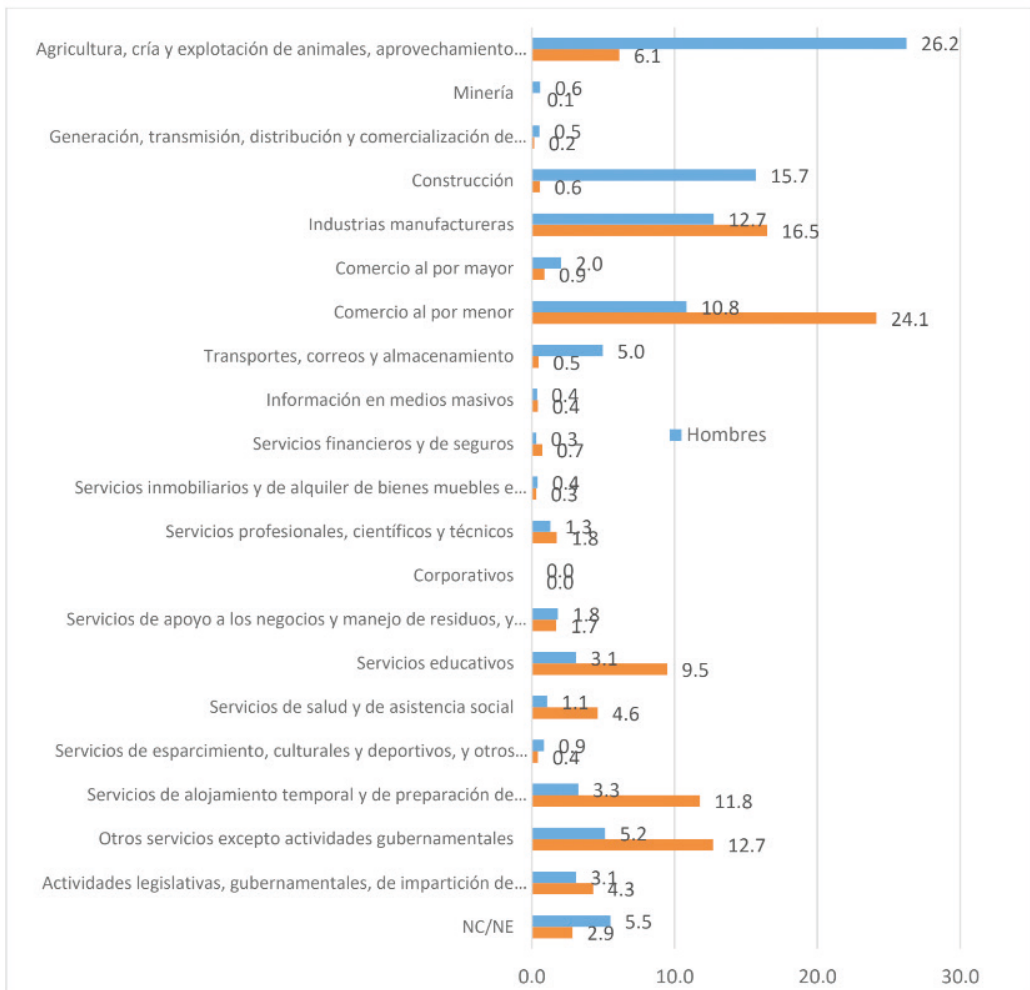
Graph 3. Occupational categories by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo

Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)

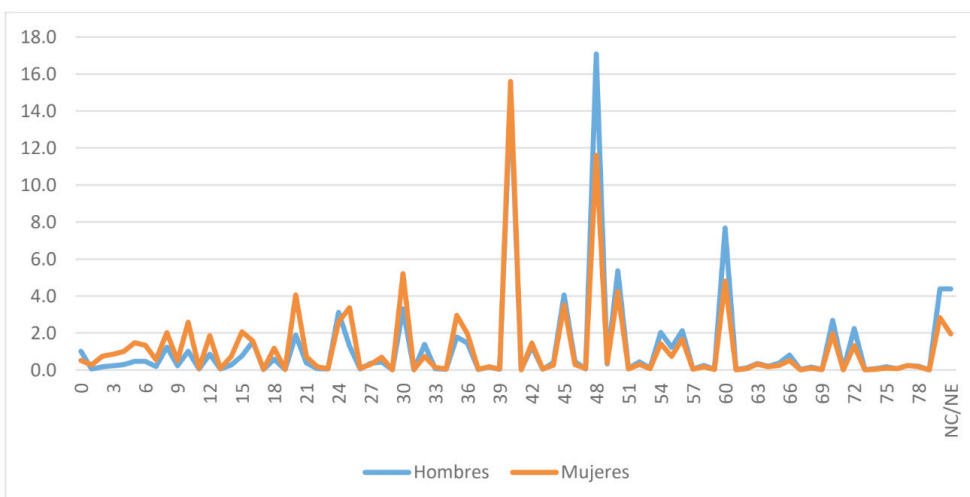


Graph 4. Occupational position by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo

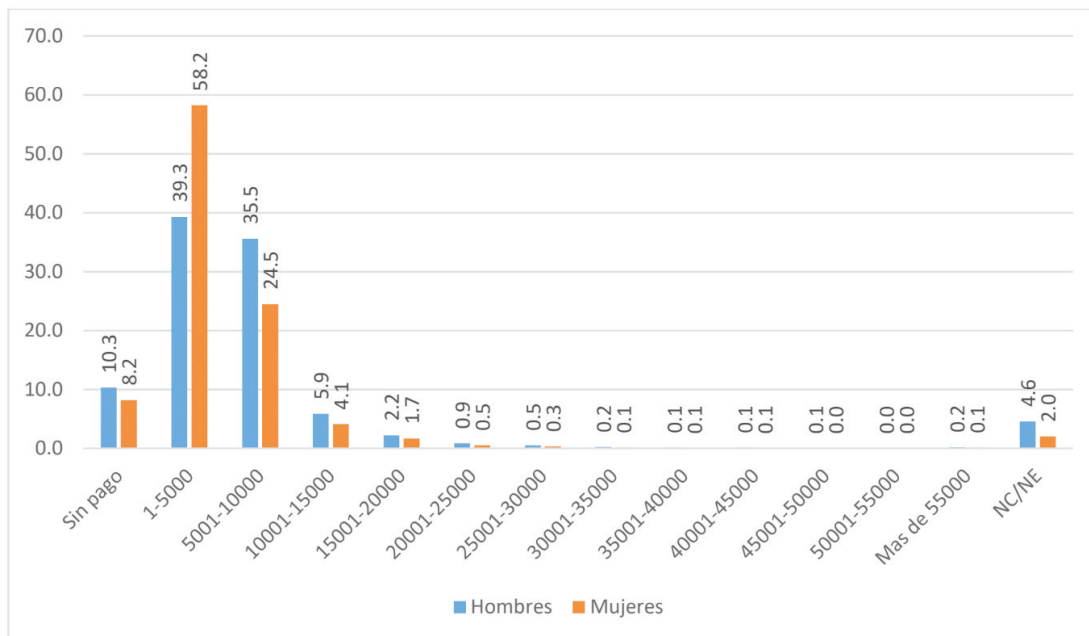
Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)



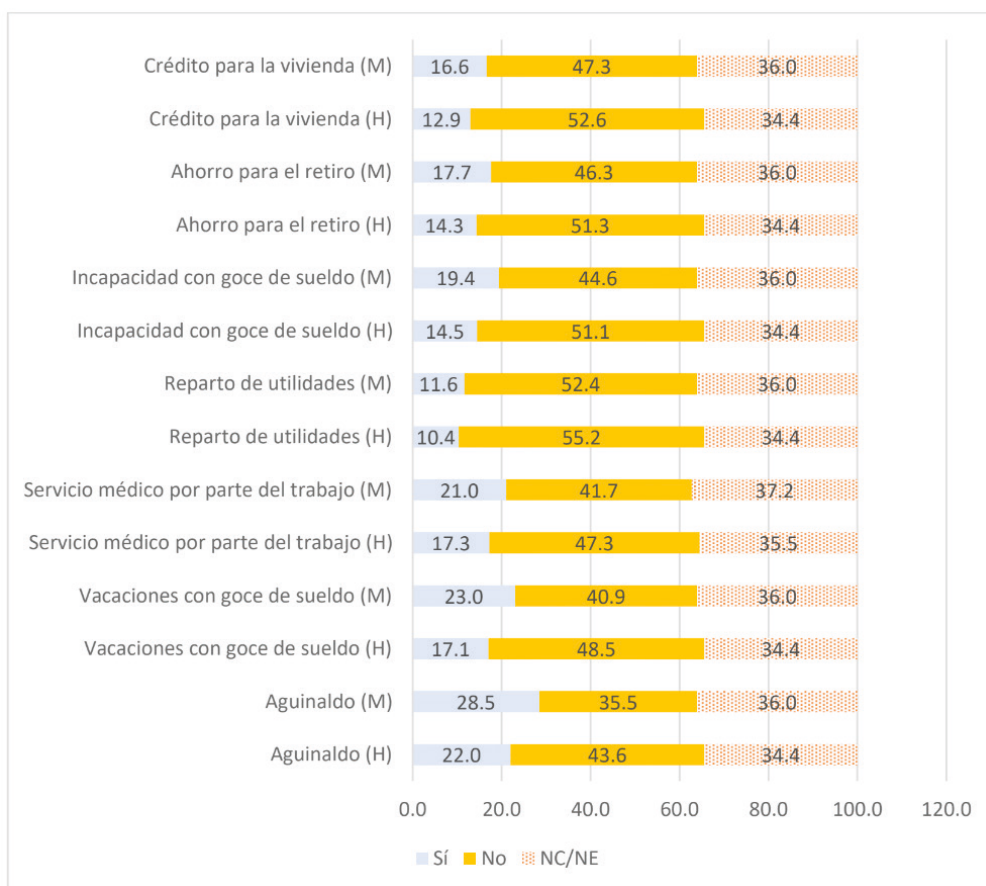
Graph 5. Economic sector by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo  
 Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021).



Graph 6. Hours worked per week by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo  
 Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)



Graph 7. Monthly income by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo  
Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)



Graph 8. Working conditions by gender of the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo  
Source: Own elaboration based on INEGI (2021)

earned by the Economically Active Population (EAP) in the state of Hidalgo is less than 5 thousand pesos. 58.2% of women earn this amount while only 39.3% of men earn it. The second income segment most frequently presented by the PEA in the state of Hidalgo is income ranging from 5 thousand to 10 thousand pesos per month. This segment is made up of 35.5% of the male EAP and 24.5% of the female EAP. If the segment of the EAP that does not receive any monthly income is added, it would be maintained that 90.9% of the EAP of women earn less than 10 thousand pesos per month, while 85.2% of men would earn the same. See Chart 7.

Better labor benefits prevail for the female EAP in the state of Hidalgo. The fact stands out, except for the bonus for women, less than 22% of the EAP in the state of Hidalgo has employment benefits. The benefits most often granted to workers are the bonus, medical service, paid disability, and housing credit. The benefits that are granted the least are profit sharing and retirement savings. See graph 8.

## CONCLUSIONS

The labor market has become central for both men and women at any age and, even more so, for women from the age of 21. From that age onwards, women predominate in the labor market significantly, either because they are looking for new sources of income for their home, they have finished their university studies, or they want to pursue an occupation or profession. Another important reason would be the family dynamics in which they live. Many of them marry at an early age and need to take care of their children. The jobs they work in range from starting their own business, usually a food stand, to working as an employee or merchant near their home to continue taking care of their children. The labor market in the state of Hidalgo has become feminized in this age period. For

nearly three decades,

At age 50, women begin to withdraw from the labor market, possibly because organizations limit their continuity in the labor market, or they themselves decide to retire. Instead, men continue to work and come to predominate over women. Although, after age 60, both men and women can retire, women are the ones who do so more frequently and many of them no longer return to the labor market. On the contrary, from that age onwards, men continue in the labor market.

Although it might be thought that the workforce of the PEA of the state of Hidalgo is poorly qualified because it is made up mostly of men and women who have education up to the secondary level, there is a large proportion of qualified workforce of the female PEA. A fifth of them have undergraduate and postgraduate studies.

Urban concentrations facilitate access to labor markets. There, subjects can look for employment through the different offers that may exist or become self-employed. In rural areas it could hardly happen because there are not many organizations that could demand a workforce. Likewise, opportunities for self-employed businesses are limited because the demand for services is limited to a very small sector.

The fact that women in the Hidalgo PEA have better benefits than men stand out. This fact may be because they are in the formal sector and, therefore, have access to these benefits. Most of them are found in the manufacturing industry, government services, temporary accommodation and food and beverage preparation services, and educational services (9.5%).

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