

## ANALYZE FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION, WAGES, AND WORKING CONDITIONS

---

**Dr. Suraj Kumar Gobhil**

**Asstt.Professor(Economics)**

**Govt.E.V.P.G.College Korba Distt - Korba (C.G)**

---

### **ABSTRACT**

*With the current development and increasing participation of women in work in developed countries, we find it important to study this issue in Jordan. The objective of this study was to explore the reasons behind the lacking representation of females and their work participation in the Jordanian public sector despite the high percentage of education attainment among them. In general around the world, the increase in women's labor force participation over the past few decades was the main driving force of economic growth. Engaging women into the work sphere as much as possible is considered part of the solution to economic problems and poverty. To achieve this, the researchers employed a comparative and experimental approach to explore the reasons behind the lacking representation of females and their work participation in the Jordanian public sector, based on the outputs and recommendations published from previous studies in this. The results reveal that economic conditions, legal frameworks that cover employment matters, social prejudices and norms towards females work outside of the house, the existence of, religious beliefs are the main specific reasons for women's participation in the labor market. The social view that females are homemakers, mother, and dependents has led to the development of public policies that while aimed at providing protection, have led to the raise in discrimination against them. It is vital to work on building awareness and attitude change about women and men's roles among the general population, in order to facilitate the increase of female work participation.*

**Keywords: Females, Work Participation, Work Performance, Jordan, Public Sector.**

### **1. Introduction**

Increased global attention on women's participation in the labor market and its social dimensions has been an incentive to increase studies on the gender and labor participation (Ackah, Ahiadeke and Fenny, 2009; Al-Abdallah and Bataineh, 2018) Where there is greater participation of women in the labor market in developed countries (Ackah, Ahiadeke and Fenny, 2009; Suhaida, Nurulhuda and Faizal, 2014). Certainly the participation of the labor force in the labor market is of great importance in the development of the economic and social aspect. Note that there is an increase in the rate of participation of women in the labor market, but we still note the division of some global markets by gender category where the number of women is few compared to men and can also be observed a large difference in wages between men and women, which indicates that the highest proportion of women participating in the work In the informal market or among the poor, many countries still impose

restrictions on women's employment and the development of their potential. A reference to the importance of equality of rights and opportunities between men and women as it is an important principle of human rights and a key condition for lasting development. It is considered both, a human rights principle and a precondition for sustainable, people-centered development. Inequality remains a major obstacle to the development of the human race. We still note that inequality between men and women is a major impediment to human development and there is difficulty in applying equality as many women are discriminated against in favor of men in the work areas and this is a negative motivation in the development of their potential (The Council of Europe., 2017). In the past years, developing countries in the Middle East and Africa have increased the participation of women in the labor market, especially in the health and education sector, and the proportion of female students in schools and universities has increased. (Tara, 2012) at present, the proportion of educated women in the Middle East and Africa has increased, but their participation in the labor market and in supporting the economy has not been significantly appreciated the percentage of their participation in these countries, according to the report of the organization (ILO) 26%, but globally reached 56%. The participation rate of men in the labor market reached 76% in these countries, higher than the world average of 74% (Al- Ghwell, 2015). The lack of participation of women in the practical sector will have a negative impact on the economic growth of any country, as there will be less productivity and operational

Given the prominence of this issue in the development process, a sizable literature has emerged over recent decades, addressing the different dimensions of this complex issue. Boserup's (1970) pioneering work on women's role in economic development reflected on the contribution of women to key economic sectors and also highlighted the biased nature of development policies and processes. Reducing gender discrimination in the labour market, thereby promoting women's participation in large numbers, is likely to positively affect the economic growth of a nation (Esteve-Volart, 2004; Tansel, 2001). Women's participation in employment can help reduce gender inequality, thereby empowering women and contributing to their capacity to exert choice and decision-making power and agency in key domains of their lives (Desai and Jain, 1994; Kabeer, 2012; Mammen and Paxson, 2000)

## **Explaining global trends in female labour force participation**

Globally, women's participation in the labour market has remained relatively stable from 1993 to 2013, whereas the participation rate for men has declined steadily over the same period. Though 345 million women have joined the labour force in the past 20 years, women still only account for approximately 40 per cent of the global labour force. In 2013, the regional estimates for the female labour force participation rate varied from 19.1 per cent in the Middle East to 65.5 per cent in SubSaharan Africa (figure 1). The participation rate in South Asia was just 30.5 per cent in 2013. The rate has increased the most over this two-decade period in the Middle East and Latin America and the Caribbean. In contrast, the rate has fallen in South Asia (driven by the situation in India) and in East Asia (but from a high initial condition).

Given the complexity of the factors driving female labour force participation (namely growth, education, fertility, and the cultural and normative context of society), an expansive literature has grown around the nature of female labour force participation and its connection with development and economic growth. Among the most discussed

phenomena is the U-shaped relationship between economic development and women's labour force participation rates (Boserup, 1970; Fatima and Sultana, 2009; Goldin, 1994; Mammen and Paxson, 2000; Pampel and Tanaka, 1986; Schultz, 1990; Tansel, 2001). However, the evidence for such a relationship has been widely debated (see, for example, Gaddis and Klasen, 2014) and the finding is more robust for cross-country (static) comparisons, while individual countries display great heterogeneity in how female labour force participation rates change over time, in response to both short and long-term movements in economic growth and other factors.

capabilities, where many scientific researchers have confirmed that economic aid recently working women in support of education and health for their children and this is a catalyst in overcoming Poverty in developing countries. For example, in the UAE, the GDP will rise to 12% if women participate in the labor market and in Egypt 34% (Al- Ghwell, 2015) Therefore, the participation of women in the labor sector has not yet been widespread (Ruth Eikhof, 2012). In addition, low-income jobs remain confined to women are (Marlow and McAdam, 2013) Even higher administrative positions also do not include women but are more restricted to men These signs show that there is still a distinction between men and women (Warhurst et al., 2009; Stefanović and Stošić, 2012) In spite of the development of the participation of women in the work sector, we find that we still need to support them, which shows that there is an inequality between men and women, therefore we find the need to deepen more in the social beliefs and skills and abilities possessed by both gender and explain the role of women and men in Countries and Communities (Banyard, 2010; Goodman, Smyth and Banyard, 2010)

## **Level of education and women's labour force participation**

A range of studies have cast light on how education is one of the most important elements influencing women's labour force participation. However, the relationship between women's participation rates and educational attainment is by no means straightforward, especially in a transitional economy like India. The human capital theory suggests that there exists a causal relationship between education and subsequent earnings through the rise in productivity, as education is said to enhance knowledge, skills and abilities. Spence (1973) adds to this by arguing that a person's educational qualifications act as a signalling device to employers regarding her quality as a worker, i.e. it helps to eliminate information asymmetry in the job market. The study by Klasen and Pieters (2012) reveals that women benefit from increased investment in their human capital, availing of remuneration

that is commensurate with the work and securing better working conditions. However, contrary to the strictly linear relationship suggested by the human capital theory, we find a strong U-shaped relationship between education and female labour force participation in India. This is well established in existing literature.

The premise for the U-shape is that women with poor education levels are usually a part of households facing economic distress, hence their participation in the labour force is high. On the other end of the spectrum are women with high levels of education, who have financially lucrative job opportunities due to their educational achievements, hence their

The U-shaped relationship is contested by alternative claims as well: most notably known as the substitution and income effect. Neoclassical labour supply theory suggests that the relationship between education and labour force participation should be positive since a rise in education should lead to higher wages, making the cost of

leisure relatively expensive— known as the substitution effect. On the other hand, education also impacts women's labour supply decision by affecting their income. The theory posits that a rise in education leads to higher wages for the same amount of work, which then incentivises women to spend more time on domestic work. This is commonly referred to as the income effect.

Several researchers have found a positive relationship (Bhalla and Kaur, 2011) while others have found a negative relationship (Das and Desai, 2003) between education and women's labour force participation. Some studies also suggest a stagnation in labour force participation despite higher educational achievements of women than ever before. Klasen and Pieters (2015) highlight that while the gender gap in educational attainment has declined in urban India, women's labour force participation remains stagnant.

## **Skill levels and their impact on women's labour force participation**

Apart from educational attainment, skill levels of women also play a central role in determining their participation in paid activities and increased income prospects. Unni (2017) finds India's performance in skill training of women to be dismal; only about 9 per cent of young females in 2011–12 reported that they had received some form of formal or informal training, which leaves a vast majority of women rendered unemployable for the job market. There are several other disadvantages that educated women face while seeking work. By the time women complete their education and fulfil their reproductive role, their age of entry into the labour market is much higher than that of men. Employers are less likely to invest in their skilling since they expect that women could leave the job due to their household obligations and other reasons. This exacerbates the problem of poor training of women, and reinforces the biases and barriers that women face. Besides, there are the dual problems of skill training: 'skill mismatch' and 'quality skill gap'.<sup>10</sup> Fletcher et al. (2017) find evidence for the phenomenon of skill mismatch— according to them, female non-workers, who are willing to work, face great difficulties matching jobs. The skill mismatch is also well recognised by the National Skill Development Policy of the government of India (2009) and has been highlighted in other studies.<sup>11</sup>

While it is expected that there will be a decline in female labour force participation as a greater share of the working age population is engaged in education, a recent worrying trend is the sharp decline in the non-student working age population, particularly women above the age of 30. Mahapatro (2013) attributes the decline in labour force participation (in the age group 35 to 54 years) to lack of technical skills among women, and also states that a lack of knowledge of new

## **METHODOLOGY**

The main datasets used in our analysis is household level data from India's Periodic Labour Force Surveys (PLFS), covering the years 2017–18 and 2018–19, and National Sample Survey Organization's (NSSO) Employment– Unemployment Surveys (EUS),<sup>21</sup> covering the years 1993–94 and 2011–12. To present longerterm trends, data has been used for all the survey years, including 1999–2000, 2004–5 and 2009–10, while the empirical estimation of the drivers of female labour force participation is conducted on the latest PLFS survey of 2018–19. his paper measures labour force participation using the usual status approach (considering both principal status and subsidiary status), which is more suitable for studying longerterm employment trends. Under

usual activity status, a person is classified as belonging to the labour force if she/he had been either working or looking for work during the longer part of the reference year. Further, data has only been used on the productive age group, i.e. for those aged 15 to 59 years. The model specification for empirical estimation is as follows: the decision to participate in the labour market is a binary choice. Therefore, the structure of the econometric model is:  $P = F(\alpha + \beta_i X_i)$ ; where P denotes the probability that an individual participates in the labour market, F is a logit-link function,  $\alpha$  is a constant,  $X_i$  is a vector of explanatory variables and  $\beta_i$  is a vector of coefficients.

## Conclusion

Women's labour force participation and access to decent work are important and necessary elements of an inclusive and sustainable development process. Considerable research has shown that investing in women's full economic potential is critical to increasing productivity and economic growth. Moreover, reducing gender barriers to decent work is fundamental to promoting women's economic empowerment. Gender inequalities are not only rooted in the sociocultural norms of countries, they are also entrenched in the policy and institutional frameworks that shape the employment opportunities of South Asia's female labour force. Yet it remains a persistent phenomenon, albeit to varying degrees depending on regional, national and local contexts. Women continue to face many barriers to entering the labour market and accessing decent work, including care responsibilities, lack of skills, limited mobility and safety issues, among others. Women experience a range of multiple challenges relating to access to employment, choice of work, working conditions, employment security, wage parity, discrimination, and balancing the competing burdens of work and family responsibilities. Labour market gender gaps are more pronounced in developing countries, and are often exacerbated by gendered patterns in occupational segregation, with the majority of women's work typically concentrated in a narrow range of sectors, many of which are vulnerable and insecure. In addition, women are heavily represented in the informal economy where their exposure to risk of exploitation is usually greatest and they have the least formal protection. The informal economy provides a vital source of livelihoods for masses of women in these countries. At the same time, their work is not captured accurately in national surveys and is subsequently under-reported.

## REFERENCES

- Abraham, V. 2009. "Employment growth in rural India: Distress driven?", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 44, No. 16, pp. 97–104.
- Anker, R. 1998. *Gender and jobs: Sex segregation of occupations in the World* (Geneva, ILO).
- Attanasio, O.; Low, H.; Sanchez-Marcos, V. 2005. "Female labour supply as insurance against idiosyncratic risk", *Journal of the European Economic Association*, Vol. 3, No. (2/3), pp. 755–764.
- Badgett, M.V.L.; Folbre, N. 1999. "Assigning care: Gender norms and economic outcomes", *International Labour Review*, Vol. 138, No. 3, pp. 311–326.
- Bardhan, P.K. 1979. "Labour supply functions in a poor agrarian economy", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 69, No.1, pp. 73–83.

- Becker, G.S. 1965. “A theory of the allocation of time”, *The Economic Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 299, pp. 493-517.
- Beneria, L. 1982. “Accounting for women’s work”, in Lourdes Beneria (ed.): *Women and development: The sexual division of labor in rural societies* (New York, Praeger), pp. 119–147.
- Bhalla, S.; Kaur, R. 2011. *Labour force participation of women in India: Some facts, some queries*, Working Paper No. 40 (London, Asia Research Centre, London School of Economics and Political Science).
- Bhalotra, S.; Umana-Aponte, M. 2010. *The Dynamics of women’s labour supply in developing countries*, IZA Discussion Paper Series, Working Paper No. 4879 (Bonn, Institute for the Study of Labor).
- Cagatay, N.; Ozler, S. 1995. “Feminization of the labor force: The effects of long-term development and structural adjustment”, *World Development*, Vol. 23, No. 11, pp. 1883–1894
- Cazes, S.; Verick, S. 2013. *The labour markets of emerging economies: Has growth translated into more and better jobs?* (Geneva and UK, ILO, Palgrave Macmillan)
- Chiappori, P.A. 1992. “Collective labour supply and welfare”, *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 100, No. 3, pp. 437-467.
- Cunningham, W.V. 2001. “Breadwinner versus caregiver: Labour force participation and sectoral choice over the Mexican business cycle”, in E.G. Katz and M.C. Correia (eds): *The economics of gender in Mexico: Work, family, state, and market* (Washington DC, World Bank), pp. 85–132.
- Das, M.B. 2006. *Do traditional axes of exclusion affect labour market outcomes in India?*, Social Development Papers, South Asia Series, No. 97 (Washington DC, World Bank).
- Das, M.B.; Desai, S. 2003. *Why are educated women less likely to be employed in India? Testing competing hypotheses*, Social Protection Discussion Paper Series, No. 313 (Washington DC, World Bank).
- Dasgupta, P.; Goldar, B. 2005. *Female labour supply in rural India: An econometric analysis*, Working Paper (New Delhi, Institute of Economic Growth).
- Desai, S.; Jain, D. 1994. “Maternal employment and changes in family dynamics: The social context of women's work in rural South India”, *Population and Development Review*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 115– 136.
- Donahoe, D.A. 1999. “Measuring women’s work in developing countries”, *Population and Development Review*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 543–576.

- Duflo, E.; Udry, C. 2004. Intra household resource allocation in Cote d'Ivoire: Social norms, separate accounts and consumption choices, NBER Working Paper Series, Working Paper No. 10498 (Cambridge, National Bureau of Economic Research)