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## Women's employment in Asia-Pacific

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#### Abstract

The study examines in detail various aspects of labour market inequality in the Asia-Pacific region. Economic development gauged in terms of per capita income and human development index does not necessarily mean that the gender gap disappears with increased development. In fact, an inverted U-shaped relationship tends to exist between development and gender gap. This study makes an attempt to examine the inequality in the labour market and poses the question as to what are the prospects for more equality in the labour markets contributing to economic and political equality, and wider equality in other spheres of life, at the household and at the macro level? Finally it argues that there is a need to pursue conscious efforts for promoting gender equality and for providing protection to women workers who are vulnerably placed in the labour market.


Key words: Employment, formal sector, human development, informal sector, unemployment, wages

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## Women's employment in Asia-Pacific

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Economic development gauged in terms of per capita income and human development index does not necessarily mean that gender gap disappears with development. In fact an inverted U-shaped relationship tends to exist between development and gender gap. This study makes an attempt to examine the inequality in the labour market and poses the question as to what are the prospects for more equality in the labour markets contributing to economic and political equality, and wider equality in other spheres of life, at the household and at the macro level? Finally it argues that there is a need to pursue conscious efforts for promoting gender equality and for providing protection to the women workers who are vulnerably placed in the labour market.

The study examines in detail various aspects of labour market inequality in the AsiaPacific region. An important dimension of the analysis is that labour market inequality aggravates inequalities in other spheres of life including the ability to participate in the decision making process. In particular it results in poor human capital formation which not only reduces the capabilities of the women workers and restricts their upward mobility but also tends to show deleterious effects in inter-generational sense. The existing situation tends to suggest that women's labor market participation is an outcome of their practical needs in search of a livelihood but hardly their strategic needs are met as gross inequalities often characterise their socio-economic and political life.

In assessing various aspects of labour market inequality the study looks into labour market participation, work force participation, employment growth in relation to value added growth, employment structure, unemployment rate, wage levels and wage growth and informal sector employment of women vis-à-vis men. There is indeed propelling evidence in favour of existing inequalities. Particularly in relation to the informal sector which accounts for a sizeable percentage of workers in the developing countries, and more so in the case of women, it is observed that with limited human capital endowment women often have to combine domestic work with earning opportunities outside home which results in suboptimal outcomes by reducing their accessibility to full-time and productive work opportunities. Other than being part timers they often face constraints like inability to travel long distances for work. Besides, the nature of job market channels which they access to draw information on the labour market lead to a low equilibrium situation by resulting in overcrowding in certain activities. Informal networks which are again highly limited in nature tend to result in information asymmetry leading to segmentation of the labour market, and the network concentration of a particular type give rise to excess supplies of labour in certain activities and in certain pockets. Thus, the wages for the women workers dwindle at a low level and tend to experience sluggish growth over time. Further, the wage inequalities are not only confined to informal sector activities but also many other non-traditional and modern activities. Based on the limited information on the wages in the manufacturing sector and the commonality of the base year wage differences have been studied. Notwithstanding the limitations of the data gender differences are quite perceptible. Based on the detailed occupational data, the female to male nominal wage ratio has been calculated to reflect on the gender discrimination in the labour market in terms of wage inequality. In a large number of countries and for a number of years and occupations female wages have been lower than the male wages.

The study noted that labour market inequality spills over to inequality in education, health, political involvement and results in other demographic vulnerabilities. On the other hand, improvement in labour market equality results in reduction in gender inequality in other areas by generating higher levels and better quality of human capital endowment and by enhancing the productive capacity of women. Hence, an important linkage exists between labour market and empowerment in terms of involvement in the decision making process. On the other hand, reduction in gender inequality, particularly in the labour market, results in higher economic growth as women's contribution to the production process increases with human capital formation.

Feminisation of poverty and ever-growing proportion of female population working as cheap labour, growing unemployment, decline in the social power of labour and an increase in temporary, part-time, casual and home-based work are some of the outcomes of the changes that are taking place in relation to globalization and economic reforms. While women increasingly participated in irregular forms of employment, they continued to be responsible for the domestic work. The other pattern which can be discerned in the context of globalization is rising wage inequality, particularly along the lines of skill and education. Women in general being less skilled and less educated, globalization is expected to have aggravated the wage inequality across gender.

Though the open unemployment rate is not expected to be very high in the developing countries (for, not too many can afford open unemployment for long), some of the countries like Indonesia, Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Philippines and Sri Lanka reported a very high open unemployment rate (either in double digit or close to that) among the females. The other striking pattern is that some of the countries experienced a decline in the female unemployment rate over time but later in the recent past the unemployment rate again seems to have shot up. Shrinkage in the overall employment opportunities because of recessionary tendencies are expected to have dampened the female labour demand.

The percentage of female work force engaged in agriculture has been larger than its male counterpart in several countries and in manufacturing it has been just the opposite. Limited spread of the industry, technological reasons and factor price distortions leading to limited demand for labour in the industrial sector are some of the reasons of sluggish labour absorption in the manufacturing sector. On the other hand, in several countries the share of services in female work force has been larger than that of males. Many countries are experiencing rapid tertiarization and hence, absorption of female workers in services has possibly been more spontaneous though, whether this pattern of transition will be able to contribute to growth in a sustainable fashion, is an unresolved question. Women's employment in the service sector is said to be vulnerable to and disadvantaged by the increased competition. The rapid spread of the IT sector has indeed generated employment opportunities in the services sector and both male and female job seekers seem to have benefited in the process. However, most of the benefits have reached only those who are in the higher echelons of the socio-economic ladder.

In the recent context of economic reforms several studies have argued in favour of the labour market deregulations. In other words, without labour market deregulations several other macro and trade reforms are expected to be ineffective in generating employment. However, the other pattern which can be discerned in the context of globalization is rising wage inequality, particularly along the lines of skill and education. Besides, the wage
premium for the skilled workers is on the rise. Since women in general are less skilled and less educated, globalization is expected to have aggravated the wage inequality across gender.

Much of the passion has been shown in deregulating the labour market. However, what is more important is the provision of social safety net and health and educational benefits to the informal sector workers who actually explain much of the poverty in the developing countries. Within the informal sector women are particularly more vulnerable than their male counterparts as their accessibility to resources is meager and their bargaining power in the labour market is poor. Hence, the policy focus cannot afford to ignore the gender dimension.
The study recommends certain policy initiatives for reducing the various forms and quantum of inequality in the labour market so as to generate greater human capital formation with which women's strategic needs can be met and they can be empowered to participate in the decision making process both at the macro and the household level. In the light of our analysis the following policy suggestions are made:
(1) Explicit policy interventions would be required to curb inequality in the labour market and make growth more equitable and pro-women.
(2) The complementary relation between female and male work participation rates is only marginal. Hence, policy interventions will be required for women's strategic needs to be met instead of leaving it to the market forces and waiting for demand to grow and bridge the gender gap.
(3) Labour intensive technology which will be in compliance with the available skill of women needs to be adopted in various components of the high productivity sector including the large scale manufacturing.
(4) Skill formation and entrepreneurial training facilities need to be provided to women workers including those who are outside the labour market. This can enhance the labour market participation rate among women and with enhanced capacities they will be able to access productive jobs.
(5) Health related support system for women has to be developed more efficiently.
(6) Biases of the employers against women workers need to be eliminated through legal measures so that with equal levels of skill and education women workers should be able to derive the benefits that their male counterparts are able to draw.
(7) Several supportive measures to encourage girl children to enroll in schools and for their continuation of studies need to be initiated on a large scale.
(8) Working women, particularly in the informal sector, should be able to receive benefits which are usually available only to the formal sector workers. For example, maternity leave and other health related support can secure them against pay loss.
(9) Availability of maternity benefits etc. which are accessible mainly by the regular women workers leaving aside a large proportion of women workers engaged in the informal sector are also not adequate to reduce the division of labour at home. What is, therefore, more important is initiation of policies which can sensitise the individuals and ensure involvement of males in child care. To begin with, collection of data on constraints at the home front which impinges on gender inequalities in the labour market is indeed essential.
(10) Our findings on women's employment in the informal sector have important policy implications. It would be useful and cost effective to evolve supportive measures rather than pursuing direct interventions, and in doing so the beneficiaries need to be involved in a big way. Urban specific employment programmes with minimum wage legislation need to be implemented, which would also raise the on-going wages for women workers in activities that they have already been pursuing. Information on job prospects in
different parts of the city can be consolidated and communicated to the seekers, and this can be expedited through the initiatives of NGOs. Institutions for skill formation are indeed important for enabling women to experience upward income mobility. Their entrepreneurial interest can be cultivated in terms of such efforts. Besides, the public transport network connecting different geographic locations in the city needs to consider the requirement, timing of travel and the places of destination and origin of these workers from low income households.
(11) Expansion of the rural non-farm sector and the involvement of women workers in this sector are indeed crucial for improvement in labour market equality. A shift in selfemployment to wage employment is endemic to enhanced access for higher income opportunities.
(12) Steps ensuring no discrimination against women in recruitments, wages or promotions and legislations and political commitment ensuring the rights of women to access education and health on equal terms with males. At times women chose to divert greater attention to the family and children but income penalties and adversities associated with interruptions in career can be reduced through favourable policy initiatives including gender specific leave.
(13) Since liberalisation policies seem to have adverse impact on women's employment special efforts need to be made to engender macroeconomic policies.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Women can be engaged directly in the development process and they can experience the benefits of growth more equitably by generating increasingly productive employment opportunities for women (Behrman and Zhang 1995). However, there is no country in the world in which women's quality of life is equal to that of men - quality of life being measured in terms of longevity, health status, educational opportunities, employment and political rights (UNDP human development report 1993). Further, in developing countries the situation is not only uneven but also distressing (Nussbaum and Glover, 1995). In several countries the work participation rates of women are substantially lower than that of men. Even when women are employed they face pervasive wage discrimination not to talk about the long hours of unpaid household labour. Besides, there are several other issues relating to intra-household inequality in terms of consumption, assets and even participation in the decision making process relating to the determination of the family size, education of children and the overall welfare of the household. Though the household head is expected to be an altruistic agent, often the male household head is neglectful of females, whether wives or children, and make decisions inimical to those interests (Nussbaum and Glover 1995).

Out of the many issues affecting women's quality of life in the developing world this study focuses on the employment aspect because it plays a pivotal role in relation to other capabilities of women such as health care and nutrition, self-respect and autonomy and full political functioning (Nussbaum and Glover 1995). Biases against girls/women lead to inaccessibility of girls/women to education and health which results in poor human capital development and a low labour force participation rate among women. This in turn adversely affects the future human capital formation, female labour productivity, individual welfare, health and participation in the decision-making process and also the overall economic growth (United Nations 2007). Other than skill differences between females and males, biases of employers against women employees also restrict their accessibility to high-income jobs. Patriarchy's gendered division of labour often does not allow women to participate in the labour market on full-time basis, which in turn adversely affects their job market experience and bargaining power (Mitra 2005). That some of these issues can be dealt with in terms of policy initiatives motivates us to undertake this study.

Countries under consideration are those within the Asia-Pacific region. Most of them still belong to the developing world and several have witnessed structural reforms and pursued industrialization and liberalization policies vigourously in the recent past. The AsiaPacific region has made good progress in reducing gender discrimination in recent years, but appalling disparities remain (United Nations 2007). The diversity of the Asian experience is not limited to rates and patterns of economic growth only. Unequal power and unequal voices and certain disadvantages faced by one gender relative to another are some of the primary concerns. Initial conditions, ongoing experience with government plans and policies, and governmental and non-governmental programmes, differences in the political environment, differences in commitment to poverty alleviation and gender equity within each country, traditional gender hierarchies and their impact on women's participation in work outside the home, the sexual division of labour, migration and control over income all tend to vary across countries and within a country across regions (Sen 1994). In response to globalization, some of these aspects are undergoing changes and new challenges are emerging. All this justifies an in-depth study of the existing inequalities across sexes in these countries.

This study takes the position that with improved equality between males and females in terms of work opportunities and other employment characteristics in the labour market, several positive outcomes in terms of economic equality, social equality, political equality, equality in education and health and improvements in demographic status of women will emerge in a significant way. All this would subsequently enhance the overall social status of women and their participation in the decision-making process. Going a step ahead, this paper further argues that labour market equality can lead to higher growth as well, which will indeed be sustainable in the long-run. All this however, must not make an impression that reverse causality is not possible: for example, reduction in inequality in the health sector between females and males can essentially lead to reduction in inequality in the labour market. However, in this analysis keeping in view the affordability issue we perceive the positive outcomes of reduction in inequality in various sectors and a greater voice for women at the household and macro levels being linked to labour market inequality.

Since equality is an abstract concept and can be contested endlessly, it is more meaningful to talk about equal opportunities for sexes. These opportunities relate to various aspects of economic, social, demographic, educational, health-related and political life and one must realize that these domains are not mutually exclusive of each other. Each impinges on the other and therefore inequality in one respect spills over to another. Keeping in view the objective of overall human development in an economy, inequalities - rather unequal opportunities - must be reduced substantially. Human development implies an expansion of human capabilities, a widening of choices, an enhancement of freedom and a fulfillment of human rights. In other words, people's well-being is the end of development while economic growth is a means (Fukuda-Parr and Kumar 2003).

So the first question that arises is whether economic growth is able to generate equal opportunities for both the sexes in the labour market? Second, as mentioned above, what are the prospects for more equality in the labour markets contributing to economic and political equality, and wider equality in other spheres of life, at the household and at the macro level? However, before moving on to these specific questions a central question that remains, relates to: should gender equality in employment be construed as gender parity? Gender disparity in occupations exists all over the world and at times it is deliberately chosen by women for a variety of reasons ranging from personal to attitudinal to gender-specific qualities. On the other hand, as indicated above, gender equality is a much larger concept, overlapping several dimensions of life. Thus, labour market disparities are not necessarily related to gender inequality manifested in terms of economic, social, cultural, demographic, health and educational aspects. With these limitations all that we can assess is if access to equal opportunities for both the sexes in the labour market can lead a society one step further towards gender parity in other areas and if it can enhance capabilities of the disadvantaged sex and help them voice their say in the decision making process.

There are various mechanisms by which economic inequality and other forms of inequality can be curbed and only one of them is accessibility to productive employment opportunity. One can talk about property rights which can also result in women's empowerment in the decision making process (Agarwal 1994). But ownership of property to women will not reduce gender inequality - it will only change its existing bias in favour of one gender (male) to another. That is the reason why the labour market approach is considered to be a more practical one. In fact, some of the studies while highlighting the importance of women employment, argued that it is better to be exploited in the labour market than at home (Mitra 2002), thereby implying that access to employment offers women
to speak against injustice and initiate steps against deprivation. Productive employment enhances the individual capabilities and, more importantly, empowers one to take part in the decision-making process. In the context of women employment, extensive citation has been made of the fact that arise in work accessibility of women improves the accessibility of children, particularly that of the girl children, to education and a nutritious diet. In fact, as the popular saying goes, by offering an opportunity to one woman, the welfare of two individuals can be enhanced - her own welfare and her child’s welfare. Moreover as we look into the composition of poor households, a sizeable number are women-headed households. Mitra 2006 noted that with the household head being woman the probability of being poor increases significantly. Work opportunities for women in poor households will, therefore, not only reduce poverty in the country but also help them contribute productively to the growth process. Critics may find fault with the employment approach being a basic means of human development and generating pro-poor growth: particularly if women are largely employed in the informal sector, it can hardly result in human capital formation. Therefore, we explicitly highlight the concept of productive employment, which can contribute to human development and curb inequalities not only in economic terms but also in other respects. In fact, Yu (2001) noted that in Taiwan, Province of China, many self-employed and family enterprise women workers in the informal sector possess human capital comparable to formal sector employees in private enterprises and self-employed women may even have more social capital and receive slightly higher earnings than formal sector employees. So distinctions need to be made between types of employment rather than between sectors.

The main objective of this paper is, therefore, to examine the extent to which women have been absorbed in productive employment opportunities relative to men, and this is analysed by critically assessing the labour and work participation rates, elasticity of employment, unemployment rates, employment structure, status of employment, sector of employment and wage inequalities and finally the contributions of increased equality in labour markets to overall gender equality.

With a somewhat different perspective, a woman's role in society can be divided into three main dimensions: (1) reproductive work, (2) productive work and (3) managing work (Moser and Levy 1986). The problem of triple burden in the case of women-headed, low income households are exacerbated, which in particular contexts may result in specific policy implications. As far as women's interests are concerned, Molyneux (1985) offered a three fold conceptualization, which when translated into planning terms can be identified as women's needs, strategic gender needs and practical gender needs. The analysis of women's subordination and identification of an alternative to those which exist at present enable one to derive the strategic gender interests and needs. Practical gender interests and needs on the other hand arise from the concrete conditions of women's positioning by virtue of their gender within the division of labour. Practical interests are usually a response to an immediate perceived need, which is identified by women within a specific context, and they relate to inadequacies in living conditions faced on a daily basis. So strategic gender needs are the ones which help attain equality. From this point of view, as we pursue labour market analysis and bring out the labour market disparities, they all help us frame policy dimensions that can change the existing conditions and usher in greater equality.

Policies for women in developing countries are not to be formulated in isolation but in relation to macro-level economic and social policy approaches to the overall development of these countries. Women’s policies have witnessed a major shift from a welfare approach to an equality approach, and finally to an anti-poverty approach. It is interesting to examine
whether each of these three approaches meet both the strategic needs and the practical needs of women. As Moser and Levy (1986) argued, the welfare approach covered the practical needs of women only; however, welfare programs are popular primarily because they are politically safe and do not question the traditionally accepted views on women. The equality approach, on the other hand, meets both needs; with greater equality between women and men it aims at increasing economic growth. The anti-poverty approach links economic inequality between men and women with poverty. Inequality between men and women is expected to get reduced "not only because the focus is specifically on low income women but also because of the tendency to encourage productivity projects in sex-specific occupations where women concentrate or which are particularly targeted at women-headed households" (Moser and Levy 1986).

Among the new challenges that countries are facing, one relates to many women and men who have become the victims of change that globalization has ushered in. Growing casualisation and informalisation of employment, much of which lies outside the purview of labour legislation, social protection and representation, are characterized by low incomes; and high levels of insecurity have affected both men and women. However, women appear to be more disadvantaged than men in certain situations due to withdrawal or denial of stateprovided social services, which in the face of an already heavy workload affects women adversely. By and large women appear to be at a greater disadvantage than men in the context of transition (Greve 2000). In a recessionary context when enterprises reduce their employment levels to cope with new situations women seem to be the first to be laid off and in greater numbers than what can be explained in terms of occupational segregation (Einhorn 1993). Once they enter the phase of unemployment it continues for a longer time than for men because their income is thought to be less vital for the family budget (ILO 1993). Though there have been improvements in terms of women's labour market participation, quality of the work they have access to is still poor. Discrimination and inequalities still persist, forcing women to concentrate in certain jobs and occupations, making their career progression more difficult, denying them equal remuneration, and hindering their access to training and to other resources vital to their advancement (Greve 2000). Keeping in view the gross inequalities which existed between sexes and given the socio-economic changes that are taking place at a rapid pace, the present study aims at undertaking a detailed analysis of women employment relative to their male counterparts. The organization of the study is as follows. Section 2 reviews some of the available literature relating to women employment. Section 3 focuses on the empirical analysis bringing out the discrepancies in the labour market. Section 4 based on the macro data at the cross-country level tries to demonstrate contributions of labour market equality to reductions in inequality in other spheres. Section 5 deals with the policy issues and the major conclusions are summarized in Section 6.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Western societies and developing societies are often kept at two extremes assuming that there is a linear relationship between economic development and reduction in gender inequalities. However, Boserup (1970) argues that there is a curvilinear relationship between economic growth and the status of women, implying that the gender gap starts declining only at higher stages of growth. Dutta and Panda (2000) noted that gender inequality gets manifested not only in terms of work and income but also in education, nutritional support and health care. Jalan (2000) supports a "Gender Kuznets Hypothesis" over a cross-section of developed and developing countries: for a number of health and education indicators the gender gap shows a tendency to increase with economic development up to a threshold level, and then decreases
with further economic progress, exhibiting an inverted U pattern. (Also, there is evidence to suggest that gender inequality reduces economic growth.)

Some of the recent evidence also suggests that higher human development index (HDI) does not necessarily ensure gender equality in terms of gender development index (GDI): In the Asia-Pacific context Japan and Korea have the highest HDI-GDI gap while Thailand and China whose HDI and GDI are both lower in absolute terms than Japan and Korea demonstrate lower gender gaps (Murayama, 2005). Gender norms and systems vary widely across cultures but they shape people's lives and interactions in all societies (Hayase 2005). In general as women's education improves, gender systems become more egalitarian (UN, 2001). And gender equality is not only a matter of social justice but also good economics: reduction in gender inequalities leads to significant productivity-gains, provides large societal benefits and enhances poverty reduction efforts (World Bank 1995). Therefore, consecrated efforts need to be made to heighten economic growth with reduction in gender inequality.

In the context of late industrialization (i.e., economic development under globalization), the development pattern tends to be uneven and telescoped because the country's modern sector absorbs advanced technology while the other sectors utilize traditional technologies. Since women are largely located in the sectors that do not have access to advanced technology, income differentials across sexes tend to increase (Nogami 2005). Under free market conditions gender differentials in terms of incomes are considerably high across most of the occupations. One explanation is usually offered in terms of skill or productivity differentials across sexes. But within the informal sector many activities do not require highly skilled workers, yet income differentials are high. This can partly be explained in terms of the employers’ bias against women, treating many of them as less productive. However, the actual reason might be somewhat different. Due to household responsibilities, many of the women workers are not able to take up jobs on a full time and regular basis which leaves ample scope for employers to exploit them: part timers possess weaker bargaining power compared to the full timers. Often they are hard pressed to combine multiple tasks on the home front with several jobs in the informal sector, as evidenced in a large number of studies (see Heyzer and Sen 1994; Kalpagam 2001, Kapadia 1992; and Mitra 2005) ${ }^{1}$. Consequently with greater intensity of work they continue to receive low wages, and at the same time by compensating others' consumption within the household they eventually remain unfed and undernourished. Mitra (2005) made an attempt to offer a profound explanation of such low earnings for women workers in the informal sector by linking their participation in the labour market to their constrained choice to work near their place of residence, the mechanisms they adopt to search jobs and the physical segmentation of the labour market.

[^0]Even in middle and high-income jobs, women who take career breaks interrupt their accumulation of human capital and end up paying a penalty in terms of lower earnings. Secondly, women who take child related career breaks could pay a further penalty because within the class of women who interrupt their careers, employers might discriminate against those who interrupt careers for family-related reasons. Besides, women who take childrelated career breaks might not be able to return to the same type of job and this could generate an income penalty (Arun, Arun and Borooah 2004).

Women in general suffer from two sets of discrimination in the labour markets: (a) pre-market discrimination involving lack of access to education, training, experience - factors which increase human capital and enhance the marginal product of labour, and (b) postmarket discrimination involving differential wages for a similar quantum of human capital. These constraints imply that a large proportion of the women job seekers land up working in the informal sector which does not require much education or skill (Moser 1989; Tinker 1990; National Institute of Urban Affairs 1991).

The study by Lim (1993) on women's participation in the labor force in Asia-Pacific countries suggests that the feminization of labor had contributed both to economic gains and to undesirable consequences. Women were engaged in insecure forms of economic activity, pursuing under poor working conditions. During the 1960s and 1970s, Asian countries grew economically faster than most other regions and female employment, particularly in the nonagricultural sector, grew rapidly during these years. Rapid economic growth coincided with fast industrial growth. Though women in export processing zones contributed more than 80 per cent of total labor in some countries, they received wages covering only the basic cost of living. During the 1970s, women's employment in manufacturing grew faster than that of males in all countries of the region, with the exception of the Philippines (Lim 1993). Female employment was attractive to multinationals and to the service sector as well, as female labour was cheap and the supply was steady. However, the oil crisis affected women more than men. During the structural adjustment, female employment shifted to the informal sector and also out-migration took place. Gradually, labor supply adjusted to the demands of laborintensive rapid industrialization and export-led development strategies. During the 1980s, the number of adolescent workers declined and older workers increased.

UNESCO (2002) confirmed that female workers in developing countries, particularly in Asia-Pacific and Africa, do not have wage jobs. Further, the lower the income level of the country, the higher the percentage of female workers engaged in agriculture. The study by ILO (2000) on Asia-Pacific countries suggests that women's share in total employment is generally lower than their share in total labour force in many countries because the unemployment rate tends to be higher for women than for men.

### 2.1 Views on Labour and Work Force Participation Rate of Women

An important way in which labour market analysis can be pursued at the aggregate level is to examine the labour force participation rate or LFPR (the proportion of labour force, i.e., work force plus the unemployed, to the total population) and the work participation rate or WPR (defined as the proportion of working persons to total population). Both these ratios are a function of a large number of variables falling into the domain of social, cultural, demographic and economic aspects of life. While some of the supply side variables such as the fast natural growth of population and immigration, raise the supplies of labour, some
others such as the rise in school enrolment and human capital formation tend to reduce the participation in the short run. On the other hand, demand side factors like rapid urbanization, industrialization and commercialization provide an impetus to work participation. In fact, it is one of the most complex outcomes of social, cultural, demographic and economic forces.

Work participation rate in general and more so in the case of women, can be at times largely an outcome of the supply side variables, and in such cases interpreting WPR as an indicator of availability of job opportunities can be erroneous. For example, poor households cannot afford to remain unemployed for long, and hence would prefer to join the entry-free low productivity informal sector in the absence of any better alternative. This would mean the coexistence of high work participation rate and poverty. Similarly, women are often burdened by the household responsibilities, which tend to reduce their explicit participation in the labour market. To interpret a low work participation rate in such a case in terms of the lack of demand for women labour can be completely faulty.

As economic growth takes place, gender inequalities in terms of access to employment opportunities, work conditions, nature of work, and earnings tend to decline as per the neo-classical approach (Forsythe, Korzeniewicz and Durrant 2000). This would mean a rise in the women work participation rate as the phenomenon of discouraged dropouts would tend to disappear - with improved and equal status in the job market women would be encouraged to participate in the labour market. However, in low income households too, the women participation rate is as high as their male counterparts as neither males nor females can afford to remain without work, and more importantly, work is an integral part of the survival strategies of these households (Mathur 1994). Cagatay and Ozler (1995) suggest the possibility of a U-shaped relationship between long-term development and women's share of the labour force. With urbanization and industrialization, female-dominated home-based production is expected to decline, as it would be largely replaced by male-dominated factory production, justifying the falling part of the U-curve (Boserup 1970). However, with further economic development, the women's labour force participation rate is expected to increase as enhanced industrialization, more education for women, commodification of domestic labour, and falling fertility rates help women workers participate in the labour market more explicitly (Oppenheimer 1970; Boserup 1970).

Among various socio-economic factors, fertility, cross-regional cultural norms, attitude towards manual work, the relative incidence of low caste and tribal population, the size of the agricultural sector, cultivation techniques, participation of males in the job market, the degree of industrialization, expansion of the government sector, and the increasing role of the government, to spread literacy are some of the determinants of female work participation rate (see Miller 1981; Rosenweig and Schultz 1982; Sen 1985; Agarwal 1989). Also, there may exist a positive association between work participation rate and the percentage of workers engaged in the tertiary sector as these activities provide greater employment opportunities for women and teenage workers (Warren and Gilory 1976). However, low productivity activities are mostly concentrated in the tertiary sector, and hence, as the share of the tertiary sector in total employment increases, dropouts from the labour market are expected to be high, thus reducing the work participation rate (see Nord 1989; Mitra 1992).

Keeping in view the issues mentioned earlier, this paper analyses the labour force participation rate, work force participation rate and the elasticity of employment with respect to growth, for female and male workers separately, informal sector employment,
unemployment rate, wage inequality and finally the links between labour market equality and equality in other aspects of life.

## 3. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

The database of the study is drawn mainly from ILO's Key Indicators of Labour Market (KILM) analysis. French Polynesia, Guam and New Caledonia are not included in the TOR of UNDP. However, they fall into the Asia-Pacific region, as given in the KILM dataset. Hence, they have been included in the analysis. All the countries in Table 1 and in other subsequent tables are designated as developing countries in ESCAP region (see, United Nations 2007). The developed countries in the ESCAP region include Australia, Japan and New Zealand, which are not included in the analysis as the focus is primarily on the developing countries. Other than the KILM dataset we have also used UNDP (2007) to derive information on GDP per capita and estimated earned income of females and males for the year 2005 in terms of US dollars adjusted for purchasing power parity. Life expectancy at birth for females and males over 2000-05, infant mortality rates (defined as deaths per 1000 live births) for the year 2004, maternal mortality rate (deaths per 100,000 live births) for the year 2000, total fertility rate (children per woman) during 2000-05, women wage employment in non-agricultural sector as a percentage share of total non-agricultural employees (2004), women in parliamentary seats as a percentage of total parliamentarians (2005), girls to boys ratio in primary education (2004), girls to boys ratio in secondary education (2004) and women to men ratio in tertiary level of education (2004) and urbanization level (2005) are taken from the Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific, 2007 (United Nations 2007). Information on labour force participation rate, work force participation rate and unemployment rate for Macao, China (SAR) and Hong Kong, China (SAR) have been made available for various years including the ones for which they had remained as a part of China; similarly for Timor-Leste, which had remained as a part of Indonesia.

### 3.1 Labour Force and Work Force Participation Rates

The study by ILO (2000) on Asia-Pacific countries argued that women's labour force participation was universally lower than that of men's in 1996. Level of development did not appear to be an important determinant of women's labour force participation while sociocultural context was. Further, it pointed out that the male-female differential in labour force participation was smallest in the transition economies and largest in South Asian and Pacific countries. The differential in the fast-growing economies of East and Southeast Asia and in the advanced industrialized countries was somewhere in between the two extremes; and, among the advanced industrialized countries, it was largest in Japan. The share of females in total labour force ranged from 26 to 42 per cent in South Asia, from 37 to 46 per cent in East and Southeast Asia, from 41 to 44 per cent in the advanced industrialized countries, and from 45 to 53 per cent in transition economies. At the same time, women predominated in those categories of the labour force that were not officially recorded in most countries, e.g. subsistence agriculture (ILO 2000).

Our analysis based on the KILM dataset of ILO shows that the female labour participation rate has considerable variations across countries (Table 1 and Figure 1). At two time points, for example 1980 and 2006, there are countries such as India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka that show a participation rate of less than 35 per cent while in countries such as like Cambodia, China, Papua New Guinea, Thailand and Viet Nam the rate has been nearly 70 per
cent or more. These wide variations are reflected in the coefficient of variations pertaining to the female labour force participation rate. The role of factors such as education, attitude towards female work and other socio-economic conditions which influence the female work participation rate cannot be ruled out in the context of these cross-country variations. However, what is interesting to note is that over time these variations are declining, indicating that some of the countries are experiencing a rise while some others experience a decline with an overall decline in the cross-country differences (Table 1). Though at this stage it is incorrect to suggest that there can be a unique participation rate around which many countries may tend to converge, the decline in the cross-country variations is a matter that needs further investigation. As regards variation within a sub-region we note that countries within shows wide variations with respect to female labour force participation rate. For example, within Northeast Asia, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea reported a figure of only 48 per cent, while Cambodia peaked as high as 75 per cent. These variations are expected to result in variations in other socio-economic profiles of women including human capital formation.

Figure 1: Labour Force Participation Rates of Females and Males (2006)


Note: Names of all the countries included in the analysis do not appear in the graph for want of space.
Source: Based on KILM dataset (see Table 1).
In contrast to female labour force participation rate, the male LFPR shows less variation across countries (Table 2). The ratio of female-to-male participation rate also shows wide variations: while the female-male differences are extremely high in the case of India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, countries such as Viet Nam, Vanuatu and Papua New Guinea, Macau, China (SAR), and Thailand show minimal differences between the sexes. The variations in the ratio of female-to-male participation seem to have declined over time. Since the variation in male labour force participation rate is not high and since the magnitude has not undergone any major change over time, the variations and the change in the variations in the female-male differences (measured in terms of the ratio of female-to-male participation rate) are largely
caused by the variations and the change in the variations in the female labour force participation rates respectively.

The differences between the female and male participation rates captured in terms of the ratio of female LFPR to male LFPR varies within a wide range (Table 3) - from 0.45 to 0.92 - implying that in some of the countries the women labour participation rate is less than half of its male counterpart, while in certain others it is as high as that of males. In fact, the extent of correlation between the female and male labour force participation is very low ( 0.18 for 2005), though positive. Secondly higher is the male labour force participation rate lower is the female to male participation ratio and also higher is the female labour force participation rate lower is the female to male participation ratio though the degree of association is extremely weak ( -0.17 and -0.20 respectively for 2005). This would again tend to suggest that female and male participation rates have a positive association between them possibly indicating that as opportunities grow both male and female labour supplies respond positively. In other words, the substitutability hypothesis between male and female labour does not seem to be consistently valid. However, the complementary relation is not too strong as the co-movement takes place only marginally. Hence, policy interventions will be required for women's strategic needs to be met instead of leaving it to the market forces and waiting for demand to grow and bridge the gender gap.

The other point relates to the change in the labour participation rate of women over time. Countries which experienced a decline in the female labour force participation rate between 1980 and 1990 to the extent of around three percentage points include Timor-Leste, Fiji, Maldives, and the Philippines. Countries that experienced a decline in the labour force participation rate between 1990 and 2006 are Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Thailand, China, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and Cambodia.

On the other hand, countries such as the Solomon Islands, French Polynesia, the Republic of Korea, Macau, China (SAR), Singapore, Sri Lanka, Guam, Indonesia and Brunei Darussalam experienced more than three percentage points increase in the labour force participation rates between 1980 and 1990. And, the following countries registered an increase of more than three percentage point in the female labour force participation rate between 1990 and 2006: the Republic of Korea, Pakistan, Timor Leste, Hong Kong, China (SAR), Tonga, the Philippines, Bhutan, Macau, China (SAR) and Maldives.

Why these countries have shown such large changes in women labour participation rates over time is an important issue. Whether the countries that recorded an increase in the female labour participation rate also witnessed improvements in human capital and whether a drop in the female labour participation rate in certain other countries was largely due to shrinkage in job opportunities leading to discouraged drop-outs are some of the interesting angles for further exploration.

Like labour force participation rate, work force participation rate also seems to have large cross-sectional variations in the case of females compared to the males. The other interesting point relating to the female work participation rate is the extent of the recent rise (2000 to 2006), which is greater than that during the period 1995 to 2000 (Table 4).

The youth and adult illiteracy rate among females is high though it does not appear to be abnormally high in comparison to males (Table 5). In some of the countries for which information is available for two time points, the rate seems to have declined considerably.

The school enrolment ratio is not impressive in many countries particularly at the primary level but it has improved over time (Table 6). Table 6 shows that expenditure per student particularly at the tertiary level is quite high and there is a strong possibility that after women complete higher levels of education, they tend to participate in the job market. All this would presumably support the view that education has played a crucial role in enhancing the work force participation rate of females, which in turn is contributing to human capital formation among the younger girl children.

In the process of growth, the women work participation rate may decline as women may not be required to participate in the job market. However, Behrman and Zhang (1995) noted that in Asia the labour force participation rate of females aged 15-64 did not show a U shaped relationship with respect to per capita income, which Goldin (1995) posited in the process of development. They noted that in some of the Asian countries it increased over time (Pakistan, Malaysia and Singapore) but in others it remained basically stable (Hong Kong, China (SAR) and Japan) or fallen (Sri Lanka, Thailand and Turkey). Above the regression line they found countries such as Bangladesh, China and Thailand, thus arguing that these countries utilized their adult females in a much better way, in contrast to and most other countries in Asia. Figure 2 showing the plot of female work force participation rate (2006) against GDP per capita (2005, US\$ adjusted for purchasing power parity) does not suggest any specific pattern. The regression of the ratio of female to male work participation rate on per capita GDP does not show any significant relationship, thus suggesting that growth alone cannot result in a reduction in inequality in the labour market by generating human capital formation for the disadvantaged sex. Explicit policy interventions would be required to curb inequality in the labour market and make growth more equitable and pro-women.

Figure 2: Female Work Participation Rate (2006) and GDP per capita (2005, PPP US\$)


Note: GDP per capita is taken in the horizontal axis and female work participation rate in the vertical axis. Source: Based on figures from KILM data and Human Development Report 2007/2008, UNDP.

### 3.2 Employment Elasticity

The next issue relates to the employment sensitivity of economic growth or the employment generating capacity of economic growth. Since most of the developing countries (and even some of the developed countries like Japan where sluggish employment growth has become a serious issue) are not merely interested in the magnitude of economic growth, but rather the employable capacity of growth, particularly keeping in view the issue of productive
absorption of the unskilled and semi-skilled work force, this paper focuses on the summary measure of employment elasticity. However, most of the studies have looked at this index in aggregative terms and not gender-wise. We, therefore, in this paper pose the question how employment and gender sensitive economic growth has been in countries in the Asia-Pacific region. In doing this it has not however been possible to decompose value added in terms of contribution made by female and male workers separately. We merely define it as the ratio of employment growth of female (male) workers to aggregate GDP growth.

## 1993-97

Female employment elasticity defined as the ratio of female employment growth to aggregate value added growth appears to be quite low in South and West Asia with a few exceptions such as Maldives and Nepal (Table 7). In Southeast Asia, with the exception of Brunei and the Philippines the elasticity is again on the low side. In Northeast Asia, Hong Kong, China (SAR) is an exception with female employment elasticity of 0.7 while in China it is pitiably low at 0.12 - in fact, lowest among all the 29 countries in the Asia-Pacific region. All three Pacific countries on the other hand seem to have a relatively higher estimate of elasticity of female employment.

## 1997-01

While most of the South and West Asian countries in Table 7 experienced a rise in the elasticity of female employment during 1997-2001 in comparison to that in 1992-97, Nepal observed a major decline from 0.82 to 0.39 over the same period. In Southeast Asia, Indonesia reported a negative figure during this period while in other countries the magnitude improved relative to the preceding period. (Though Brunei witnessed a mild decline it still persisted at a very high level.) The bright picture of the Pacific as observed between 1992 and 1997 seems to have undergone deterioration: the elasticity declined in Fiji, became negative in Solomon and only in Papua New Guinea it improved further. In countries in the Northeast region, the elasticity by and large improved though the magnitude of the rise in China was only nominal (from 0.09 to 0.12 )

## 2001-05

The Northeast Asian countries, however, experienced a decline in the female employment elasticity and some of them, in fact, became worse relative to the estimates for 1993-97. All three Pacific countries witnessed improvement relative to the preceding period and two, relative to the first sub-period as well. Although in four of the six countries in Southeast Asia the elasticity declined, the estimates are quite diverse in this region. Interestingly in South and West Asia, four of the seven countries show an estimate of unity or more than that, while Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka have lagged behind - in fact a marked deterioration in the case of Bangladesh and India while Sri Lanka has been dwindling at a low level.

Too high an employment growth rate (or employment elasticity going beyond unity) may imply sluggish labour productivity growth. Therefore, the interpretations drawn on the basis of employment elasticity need to be viewed carefully. Since employment elasticity is a ratio we need to examine separately, the employment growth rates. In spite of a high employment growth rate, employment elasticity can turn out to be low if the value added growth rate exceeds the employment growth rate substantially. On the other hand, the employment elasticity may turn out to be high, despite the fact that both employment growth and value added growth are unimpressive if the former exceeds the latter. In fact, Papua New Guinea in the Pacific sub-region is a good example of this situation, that is, with a sluggish female employment growth rate (less than two per cent per annum) it could record high female employment elasticity between 1993-97 and 1997-01. Other countries that recorded a
sluggish female employment growth rate (irrespective of the magnitude of employment elasticity) between 1993 and 1997 are China, Fiji, Thailand, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Between 1997-2001 while only India and Nepal from South and West Asia registered sluggish female employment growth rate, a considerable number of countries from other sub-regions joined this set: China, Hong Kong, China (SAR), the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Between 2001 and 2005 again several countries continued to experience sluggish female employment growth: China, Republic of Korea, Fiji, Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore, Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka. Besides, it may be noted that in many countries the female employment elasticity has been lower than its male counterpart implying that the female employment has been growing at a slower pace than the male employment even when both the growth rates are quite low (e.g., China). All this can be taken to conclude that while globalisation has affected employment adversely in many countries the female workers are possibly the worst sufferers. The growth process and technological progress seem to have become increasingly more capital and skill intensive, implying that employment opportunities for unskilled and semi-skilled workers are pitiably meager. Given the relatively low skill base of a large number of women workers they seem to be deprived more than males from accessing the benefits of productive employment opportunities. And this is obviously indicative of sluggish human capital formation among women relative to males, which aggravates gender inequality, thus reinforcing the need for policy interventions to meet women's strategic needs.

### 3.3 Unemployment Rate

One indicator of deprivation is the unemployment rate. However, the open unemployment rate, i.e., those remaining without work and searching for a job for a long time as a percentage of labour force, is not expected to be very high in the developing countries (for, not too many can afford open unemployment for long). But some of the countries like Indonesia, Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Myanmar, Pakistan, the Philippines and Sri Lanka reported a very high open unemployment rate (either in double digit or close to that) among the females. The other striking pattern is that some of the countries experienced a decline in the female unemployment rate over time but later in the recent past the unemployment rate again seems to have shot up. An increase in the female unemployment rate would mean shrinkage in the overall employment opportunities because recessionary tendencies are expected to have dampened the labour demand of which women are usually the victims in the first go.

As evident from Table 8 there are several countries that recorded a higher female unemployment rate than males. Though a sub-region generalization may not be appropriate, Southeast and partly South Asia are indicative of higher female unemployment rates. Since women have to engage themselves in the labor market while simultaneously pursuing the domestic work, their choice of jobs becomes highly limited. Besides, preoccupation in domestic work results in poor human capital formation not allowing them to enhance their capabilities and accept the available job opportunities. This results in a higher incidence of unemployment rate among the females.

The rural-urban differences in the unemployment rates are also quite substantial. Though we do not have this information for very many countries, in general urban unemployment rates are higher than the rural rates because urban females are relatively more educated and skilled than their rural counterparts and they can afford a higher search cost.

In reality, it is difficult to compare the unemployment rates across countries due to the differences in the concepts, and therefore, information based on country-specific studies are used extensively. In Bangladesh, the unemployment rates among the population aged 15 and above rose over the period 1990-91 to 1999-2000 in each region and for both the sexes except for a slight decrease in the rate for urban females in 1995-96. This slight decrease was mainly due to growth in ready-made garments industries. On an average about 3.3 per cent people of aged over 15 in Bangladesh were unemployed in 1999-2000. Taking unpaid family works into account according to the extended definition used by the labour force survey (LFS) it was 2.5 per cent in 1995-96, which increased from 1.5 per cent in1990-91. Moreover, estimates show that there has been a significant rural-urban variation in the unemployment rate over the period with a concentration of unemployment in the urban areas. This is mainly because of the transfer of rural poverty to the urban areas through migration. On the other hand, unemployment among females is still higher than their male counterparts across regions, particularly in the urban areas. However, the incidence of underemployment remains very high as people struggle to survive by engaging themselves in many informal activities, though the underemployment surveys are not always well-captured by conventional employment surveys ${ }^{2}$. Rahaman (1998) pointed out that the demand for wage employment is not sufficient to absorb the entire supply; employment expansion could progress without causing an upturn in the wage trend.

In Bhutan, poverty exists in the rural areas among subsistence farmers relying largely on crops, large families with a higher proportion of children and elderly, households with limited livestock, off-farm income including remittances and limited schooling. In the urban areas the poverty is more prevalent among migrants, households with higher dependency ratio, petty traders and casual labourers who do not have regular wage employment.

Acharya (1998) brings out interlinks between the labour market situation in India, as well as Nepal since its economy is integrated with some of the provincial towns of India. A depressed Indian labour market is likely to depress the labour market in Nepal as well and a blooming labour market in India would have a salutary effect on the labour market in Nepal. In India, the open unemployment rates are not high but the relative size of unorganized or informal sector employment in both rural and urban areas is dominant (Mitra 1994). Ghayur (1998) points to the declining ability of the labour market in Pakistan to absorb work force productively. Unemployment rates are high among females in general, children and senior citizens. Following the structural adjustment in Sri Lanka, a distinct bias is evident in the generation of employment outlets in favour of females (Rodrigo 1998).

In East Asia, the diffusion of primary education was possibly the single most important factor accounting for the reduction in poverty and income inequality. The East Asian countries in general allocated a much larger proportion of their public investment for agriculture and rural development than most other developing countries at comparable stages of their development. This, together with universal primary education made growth broadbased and labour intensive with skill intensity, resulting in higher growth and improved income distribution (Hashim 1998). Investment in physical and human capital with special emphasis on developing human resources and effective participation in international markets leading to expanding employment at higher productivity contributed to both the reduction in poverty and enhancement of growth.

[^1]
### 3.4 Employment Structure and Employment Status

As the study by ILO (2000) pointed out, the share of women employment in agriculture is high in countries with low per capita income. The percentage of the female work force engaged in agriculture has been larger than its male counterpart in Bangladesh, Cambodia, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and for some of the years in Thailand (Table 9). It is possible that in these countries, as males look for better employment opportunities in activities other than agriculture, women engage in agriculture in an attempt to pursue the activity in the family farms. This reason seems to be a strong possibility, particularly in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Thailand where the proportion of female agricultural workers to total female workers has been sizeable

Hong Kong, China (SAR), Macau, China (SAR), Maldives and Sri Lanka (two years) are countries where the female work force engaged in manufacturing has been larger than its male counterpart. In Hong Kong, China (SAR) and Macau, China (SAR), this may be explained in terms of rapid indusrialisation, which has generated demand for female labour. On the other hand, in several countries and for a number of years the share of services in the female work force has been larger than that of males (see Table 9 for positive differences between the female and male percentage of workers engaged in services; Figure 3 gives the differences in all three activities for nine countries in 2005). This is possibly because of the fact that females have a strong preference to work in the services sector and hence, the structural transformation away from agriculture to services in the case of females is much faster than in the case of males. With low human capital endowment, entry into the services sector is relatively easy compared to manufacturing as far as non-agricultural activities are concerned. Also, many of these countries are experiencing rapid tertiarization and hence, absorption of female workers in services has possibly been more spontaneous. In Bangladesh, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, Pakistan and the Philippines, where the pace of industrialization even in terms of male work force has been quite sluggish, it is understandable that the percentage of female workers engaged in manufacturing is also low. Though information on India has not been supplied by the KILM data of the ILO we have noted from the NSS data that the discrepancy between the structural change in terms of value added and that in terms of work force is sizeable (Mitra 2008). This is usually explained in terms of technological reasons and factor price distortions leading to sluggish demand for labour in the industrial sector. Manufacturing activity is more skill-intensive compared to agriculture and other tertiary sector activities such as community, social and personal services and retail trade. Women labour, as a result of possessing low human capital, is demanded usually after the available supplies of male labour are exhausted, and this would explain why the percentage of manufacturing in the female employment structure has been perceptibly low.

On the whole, limited spread of industry, technological reasons and factor price distortions leading to limited demand for labour in the industrial sector are some of the reasons for sluggish labour absorption in the manufacturing sector. On the other hand, many countries are experiencing rapid tertiarization and hence, absorption of female workers in services has possibly been more spontaneous though the question whether this pattern of transition will be able to contribute to growth in a sustainable fashion is left unresolved. Women's employment in the service sector has been vulnerable to and disadvantaged by the increased competition. With the rapid spread of the IT sector, both male and female job seekers seem to have benefited but most of the benefits have reached only those who are in
the higher echelons of the socio-economic ladder with higher levels of human capital endowments.

Figure 3: Female-Male Differences in Share of Agriculture, Manufacturing and Services (2005)


Note: Bars represent differences between the percentage share of total female workers and total male workers engaged in agriculture, manufacturing and services for the year 2005.
Source: Based on ILO's KILM Dataset.
Employment status is given in terms of wage and salaried jobs and self-employment (Table 10). Wage and salaried jobs include not only regular wage employment but also contractual and casual employment. The proportion of wage/salary employment among the male workers is higher than that among the females. Secondly, the proportion of wage/salary employment varies considerably across countries. Similarly, the relative size of selfemployment also varies widely corresponding to both male and female workers. Usually, one expects the share of wage/salary employment to increase in the process of development, particularly in an inter-temporal sense. For many countries, inter-temporal data are not available and hence, they could not be examined carefully. However, in the case of Maldives and Pakistan, a downward tendency is indicative. Sri Lanka also registered a slight decline, yet in Singapore where the relative size of wage employment has been on the high side, the decline is not taken seriously. Bangladesh, Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic and Viet Nam are some of the countries where the relative size of the wage/salaried employment has been quite small. The evidence on India (though not available from the same source) also points to the same direction if only the regular wage/salaried employment is considered, excluding the casual and contractual employment (Mitra 2008). On the whole, the low income countries seem to be experiencing sluggish labour absorption in wage/salaried jobs, which may explain why South Asia is characterized by a relatively small proportion of its work force engaged in this category. In the face of sluggishly growing demand for hired labour, inadequate human capital endowment of female labour compels them to engage themselves as self-employed workers, which further accentuates gender inequality in the labour market. Also, as male workers look for better-paying opportunities in the job market,
women workers in pursuance of their practical needs continue to work as home-based workers in order to augment family earnings.

In Table 10 the relative size of the category of employment outside self-employment and wage/salaried employment is quite large in some of the countries. This category possibly includes 'employment not adequately defined'. However, in a country like Bangladesh, it is difficult to believe that around 80 per cent of the female employment and 35 per cent of the male employment was not 'adequately defined'. Possibly there is a mix-up of the categories. Usually in countries like India, national surveys report three categories of employment: regular wage/salaried employment, self-employment and casual employment. For these countries, if regular wage/salaried employment is compared with wage/salaried employment for countries, which define duality in terms of wage employment and self employment, then naturally this kind of discrepancy is expected to occur.

### 3.5 Wages

An important manifestation of labour market inequality is wage inequality, which then spills over to human capabilities in other areas and impacts on various dimensions of gender inequality. Skill and human capital differences, productivity differences, biases of employers against women workers, weak bargaining power of women workers, constrained choice for jobs in the labour market, and inability to participate in the labour market and its adverse outcomes in terms of income and other kinds of penalties, translate themselves into femalemale earnings differentials. Of course, some of the wage differences are independent of the accessibility issue. For example, even when jobs in a specific activity may be available for both sexes, females and males tend to have preferences for certain specific activities and thus the all-activity wage rates of females and males can unfold significant differences. However, due to data limitation, we are not able to capture some of these finer points. ILO'S KILM dataset provides figures for male and female wages in manufacturing and certain other specific activities, which we have analysed below. Based on the figures of UNDP (2007) on estimated earned income of females and males (2005, in US \$ adjusted for purchasing power parity), Figure 4 has been presented giving the ratio of female to male income ratio, which is substantially less than 1 in the Asia-Pacific region.

Figure 4: Female to Male (F/M) Estimated Earned Income (2005, US\$ PPP)


Source: Based on figures from UNDP (2007).
Based on the limited information on the wages in the manufacturing sector and the commonality of the base year, female to male wage ratio and wage growth for female and male workers have been calculated presuming an exponential function. From Table 11 we may note that the wage ratio has been against the female workers in some of the years in Republic of Korea, Macau, China (SAR), Malaysia and Myanmar. The real wage growth varies widely across countries. Secondly, there is no uniformity in the male-female differences in the wage growth rate. The following are the countries which reported a reasonably high growth rate (at least three per cent) in female wages in manufacturing: Hong Kong, China (SAR) (1985-90), Republic of Korea (1980-85, 1985-90, 1995-2000, 20002005, 2005-06), Malaysia (1990-95), Philippines (2005-06), Singapore (1990-95, 2005-06) and Taiwan, Province of China (1990-95). On the whole, only a limited few seem to have experienced rapid growth in wages in recent years. The female-male wage growth differentials have been substantive. Though there are cases when female wages have grown faster than male wages, there are several cases showing higher growth of wages for male workers than their female counterparts in manufacturing. A lower base year wage for female workers is natural to estimate a higher growth rate of female wages. Besides, manufacturing is only one of the components of several activities and therefore other components must be looked at as well.

Based on detailed occupational data, the female-to-male nominal wage ratio has been calculated to reflect gender discrimination in the labour market in terms of wage inequality. Table 12(a) lists the activities, countries and years for which female wages in nominal terms have not been lower than male wages, and such cases are only few in number. On the other
hand, Table 12(b) which is inclusive of Table 12 (a) represents all possible cases of gender differences in wages across occupations. Figures show that in a large number of countries and for a number of years and occupations, female wages have been lower than male wages. And these inequalities are not only confined to informal sector activities such as field crop farm worker and refuse collector but also many other non-traditional activities such as computer programmer, accountant and primary school teachers. The average wage can be different for females from that of males as the activities/occupations carried out by both genders are not the same. Within the narrow range of a given activity or occupation, gender differences in terms of earnings still exist and this is certainly a matter of concern.

In the initial stages of industrialization in the first-tier East Asian newly industrialized economies rapid growth in female employment took place around the garment and the electronic sector. However, as manufacturing production has matured and diversified in the region, women's share of manufacturing employment has declined with the deceleration of industry and manufacturing export growth. In Taiwan, Province of China, South Korea, Hong Kong, China (SAR) and Singapore possibly because of gender ideologies and cultural prejudices the gender gap in wages as well as the degree of gendered occupation segregation remained substantially large (Sundaram, 2009).

On the whole, women employment in developing countries and also in many of the Asia-Pacific countries, where economic growth has already taken place, is characterized by low pay, no job security, long work hours and inadequate medical care (Aganon 2000). In subcontracting activities they have no negotiating power. They have no job security, no social security benefits, and receive pay less than the minimum wage. The lack of capital, lack of technology, low levels of productivity, excessive competition, harassment from police authorities, lack of help and child care facilities, lack of basic services and at times domestic violence are some of the predominant characteristics of women working as self-employed workers (Aganon 2000).

### 3.6 Informal Sector

The composition of rural unorganized sector activities shows that a large majority falls into the agricultural sector. Yet in some of the regions, the demand-induced component of the rural non-farm sector has gained momentum, in several regions it is a manifestation of the supply-push phenomenon. The urban informal sector comprises both manufacturing and tertiary activities though the latter would constitute about 70 per cent of the total informal sector activities conducted in urban areas (Mitra 2001). Earnings in the informal sector are meager, partly because supplies of labour exceed demand and partly because products manufactured in the informal sector are of poor quality and have a limited market. Some of the activities are purely of a residual type and self-employment is characterized by low productivity. Poor human capital endowment of the workers is an important reason of low productivity employment in the informal sector, be that in own-account enterprises and/or in casual jobs.

It may be desirable to provide estimates of the informal sector share across countries. The definition and estimate of the informal sector varies from country to country. Hence, note that the figures are not comparable across countries, while estimates for some countries are unavailable. Notwithstanding the limitations of data and information on the informal sector, there is a sizeable percentage of workers engaged in the informal sector (Table 13). The incidence of informal sector employment among female workers, particularly in the rural
areas, is higher than that among male workers. In the urban areas, both males and females show almost equal incidence of informal sector employment. Yet, this information is available only for a few countries. On the other hand, several studies have confirmed that certain segments of the informal sector, particularly the home-based activities are largely dominated by the women workers even in urban areas (ILO 2000). In fact, as men explore possibilities in wage labour, women work as home-based workers and as domestic maids in search of a livelihood. Other studies have also noted that the majority of South Asia's labour force is engaged in the informal sector, working as casual labourers and self-employed workers. The share of informal sector employment in India exceeds 90 per cent; in Sri Lanka it is estimated to account for about two-thirds of employment and in other South Asian countries it is large as well (World Bank 2004).

Other than informal sector employment, what has become increasingly evident is informal employment. The latter includes not only informal sector employment but also casual and contractual employment in the formal sector. In the era of globalization, several countries have pursued labour market reforms directly or indirectly and that has raised the incidence of informal employment in the formal sector substantially. In Bangladesh, women in 1980s and 1990s are faced with both new employment opportunities and vulnerability. Traditional gender-based restrictions on women's employment are being challenged and expansion in opportunities, particularly in the ready-made garments industry, has taken place (Salway, Jesmin and Rahman 2005). As Salway, Jesmin and Rahman (2003) highlight, intense informalisation is accompanied by high levels of morbidity, a large reserve labour supply and low job security. The growing demand of the middle class for higher quality standardized products is met through capital-intensive forms of production, thus excluding the low-skilled poor workers (Wood and Salway 2001).

The pattern of industrialization in Taiwan, Province of China, brought about a large and heterogeneous informal sector in which married women constitutes a significant part. In small family enterprises wives contribute their labour as unpaid workers (Lu 2001). Though industrialization has led to an increase in the women work participation rate women's economic status relative to men has not changed significantly.

In most of the countries a sexual division of labour reinforced by poverty exists within the informal sector. Home working has increased because the pressure on women to contribute to family incomes without neglecting their domestic responsibilities has increased (Bullock 1994 and ILO 1998). Home-workers in Asia who are mostly women produce garments, fashion accessories, toys and handicrafts for domestic and export markets. As selfemployed or sub-contracted workers they are exploited and impoverished and vulnerable to the uncertainties of subcontracting work and live in cramped quarters, with detrimental effects on their own and children's health (Joshi 1996).

At this point we may turn to some of the intricate issues relating to the informal sector employment, particularly for women. Mitra (2005), for example, hypothesized that the nature of networks that the women workers use to access jobs, and the unavailability of diverse activities in every part of the city coupled with the women workers' constrained choice of occupation earn them lower levels of income compared to male workers. The poor human capital endowment of the female workers compel them to use such informal networks in accessing sources of livelihood which in turn begets poor human capital/skill formation thus perpetuating their misery and reducing the possibility of upward income mobility.

Women workers' access to the urban labour market is greatly influenced by the contacts they develop through co-villagers, neighbours /co-residents of the same cluster, friends and members of the same caste group. Next to that in terms of statistical significance is 'networks through relatives'. Through these informal channels, operating mostly on the lines of ethnicity, information on jobs they acquire and get absorbed in activities largely within the informal sector. Secondly, findings tend to support the concentration of different activities in different areas within the city suggesting that the city structure is highly heterogeneous in terms of availability of jobs. In other words, an entrant into the job market would like to get absorbed in a particular activity simply because of its availability in the area in which she resides. Informal contacts through co-villagers, friends and relatives help them take up only a limited variety of jobs available in the vicinity, which in turn generates a low level of earnings. Alternately, they could have earned more if their choice of occupation would have been unconstrained, and contacts and mobility have been wider, exposing them to a variety of jobs. And these constrained choices of occupation have their origin in poor human capital endowment and unequal say in the decision-making process within the household. Inadequate scope to enhance productivity of the informal sector women workers reduces the possibility of meeting women's strategic needs and empowering them to voice their say.

On the whole, male workers seem to have access to both informal and formal contacts, the latter remaining statistically insignificant in the occupation choice function of the women workers. Secondly, the significance of the zone specific dummies appears to be infrequent in a number of occupation groups for male workers. All this tends to suggest that male workers' contacts as well as mobility are wider compared to women workers as a result of which they manage to broaden their occupation options, which in turn result in somewhat higher incomes. Thus, incomes differences translate themselves into human capital differences and with limited capabilities women continue to remain in the lower echelons and with limited say in the decision-making process.

## 4. ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LABOUR MARKET INEQUALITY AND INEQUALITY IN OTHER AREAS

In this section we focus on the association between gender inequality in the labour market and gender inequality in other aspects of life. However, as mentioned earlier, gender differences in the labour market are not necessarily reflections of gender inequality. Women at times prefer to stay at home when children are young, and with a rise in the income of the spouse, women decide to withdraw from the labour market as they prefer to look into other aspects of their family's well-being (Dasgupta and Goldar 2006). Hence, the association between labour market disparities and inequalities in other areas need to be interpreted carefully. Besides, the causality issue is another slippery area. The modernizationneoclassical approach would suggest that efforts to enhance human capital among women are often guided by the assumption that relative educational advances will be most effective in reducing the employment and earnings gap of women relative to men. In fact, improvement in education and health accessibility of women leads to higher participation in the labour market, and with better human capital formation GDP is expected to rise substantially (United Nations 2007). However, this paper argues that job market participation and accessibility to remunerative and productive work allow women to spend on their health by relaxing family budget constrains, which generally affect women adversely in terms of intrahousehold inequality of resources. Similarly, with job market participation, awareness increases and this enhances political participation as well. In this analysis, job market
participation is considered for women aged 15 and above and educational inequality is seen at the primary and secondary levels. If job market equality contributes to educational equality, we are then examining if mothers' involvement in the job market actually leads to improvements in the girl children's education. Similarly, women's accessibility to income can be seen as a strong motivating factor for them to exert their say in deciding the family size. Thus, fertility behaviour and other demographic improvements may follow as a consequence of income-accessibility and reduction in income inequality.

The regression of the female-to-male work participation rate (2006) on GDP per capita (2005, in terms of US dollar adjusted for purchasing power parity) yields highly insignificant results, suggesting that in the process of growth, labour market equality does not take place automatically. ${ }^{3}$ However, the effect of labour market equality on other variables shows interesting results. Critics may argue that the female work participation rate is too wide a concept and it may not necessarily mean any rise in the accessibility of income, particularly if participation rises in response to involvement in own-account enterprises. Therefore, by taking women wage employment in the non-agricultural sector as a percentage of total employment in the non-agricultural sector, we show its positive association with female to male work participation rate, confirming that labour market equality does have a positive association with women's accessibility to income (Table 14). This is further confirmed by the ratio of female-male estimated income, which is positively and significantly related to the female-to-male work participation rate. Further, maternal mortality tends to decline with a rise in the female-to-male work participation rate. Total fertility rate also shows a similar response. An improvement in the gender ratio at primary level of education and in the female-to-male life expectancy rate seem to be emanating from labour market equality, confirming that women's accessibility to income not only allows them to spend on their own well-being but also on their girl children.

In linking human capital formation to gender inequality in the labour market, one must recognize the problem of the causality issue as mentioned earlier. What we perceive at a particular point of time is only a cross-sectional profile of a long vicious circle, in which different dimensions mutually reinforce each other. Therefore, factor analysis has been pursued to bring out the inter-connections among demographic, economic, political health, education and labour market specific variables without going into the causality issue (Table 15). Results from factor 1 tend to indicate that women wage employment in the nonagricultural sector as a percentage of total employment in the non-agricultural sector is positively associated with the ratio of female life expectancy to male life expectancy and negatively associated with the infant mortality rate, maternal mortality rate and total fertility rate. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education and the percentage of women parliamentarians in the total are also positively associated with the women wage employment in the non-agricultural sector as a percentage of total non-agricultural employment. From factor 2 it is again evident that the ratio of female work participation to male work participation, women's wage employment in total non-agricultural employment and the female-to-male estimated income are positively correlated. On the other hand, the maternal mortality rate shows a negative relationship with these variables while the ratio of girls to boys in primary education shows a positive association, though mild, with labour market equality. In factor 3, women's wage employment in the non-agricultural sector and the gender ratio in primary and secondary education show a positive association while maternal

[^2]Figures in parentheses are t-ratios. GDP per capita is highly insignificant.
mortality, total fertility rate and infant mortality rate tend to decline with improvement in gender equality in labour market and education.

Several country-specific studies have also corroborated these results. The Philippines is the top country in Asia-Pacific for achieving gender balance and sixth in the world, revealing the fact that gender responsive legislation and affirmative action have improved women's employment conditions, income opportunities and access to micro-credit and employment assistance, which along with programmes promoting leadership and other gender responsive programmes, have encouraged women to enter politics with enhanced participation in decision-making (World Economic Forum 2006 and United Nations 2007).

Another example is Hong Kong, China (SAR), where many families maintained a patriarchal form of resource mobilization in which the husband's job preferences and consumption patterns dominated (Leung 2002). A more egalitarian pattern emerged when the wife earned an income. However, women mostly worked in the service sector, which offered unstable and short-term job offers. And the egalitarian relationship would often disintegrate when the wife's employment was terminated. All this again brings out close interconnections between economic inequality and inequality in other spheres. A large number of studies in sociology and labour economics documented that declines in fertility are accompanied by industrialization and this means that fewer and fewer of a woman's adult years are spent in intensive childrearing activity and this consequently frees up more of a woman's time for wage labour outside the home (Brinton 2001). This process of causality also suggests that as women tend to participate in the labour market, there are further declines in fertility. Studies also point out how gender differences in terms of earnings can further reinforce the gendered division of labour under patriarchal norms, thus binding women to activities like childrearing if the general standards of childrearing are high and if female earnings are substantially lower than their male counterparts (Yu 2001). Also, longer duration of work before marriage and absorption in full-time jobs, which tend to imply reduced gender inequality in the labour market, are associated with a higher likelihood of continuing work after marriage in Taiwan, Province of China, Japan and the Republic of Korea, suggesting that labour market equality has an important role in motivating women to remain in the labour market who otherwise fall prey to the phenomenon of "discouraged dropouts" (Lee and Hirata 2001). Basu's (1991) study of married women in the overseas Chinese family enterprise in Calcutta points to the possibility of the rise in women's informal power through their involvement in the family business. Work is a resource for women's informal power under the prescribed traditional Chinese culture: women are often in an indispensable position in the family business, which increases their bargaining power (Lu 2001). Mehrotra and Parish (2001) noted that young unmarried women working in the labour market in Taiwan, Province of China as paid employees do enjoy greater say over how their incomes are used. Even if much of their incomes go to the parents and other siblings, daughters reap many long term advantages.

The next question is whether the improvement in gender inequality in the labour market leads to higher economic growth. After controlling for total fertility rate, urbanization level and the ratio of female-to-male estimated income, a rise in the ratio of female-to-male work participation rate is seen to raise economic growth (Table 16). On the other hand, for a given ratio of female-to-male work participation rate, an increase in the female-to-male estimated income lowers GDP per capita, implying that gender inequality in income terms are substantive. In relating gender inequality in education to economic growth, Barro and Lee (1994) and Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1995) find a negative relationship between female
primary and secondary years of schooling and economic growth. However, Dollar and Gatti (1999) noted that an increase in female secondary education leads to an increase in output in developed countries. Hill and King (1995) and Knowles, Lorgelly and Owen (2002) also found that female education has a significant positive effect on growth. In our data set, the ratio of girls-to-boys at the primary level of education shows a positive correlation of 0.35 with GDP per capita in Asia-Pacific countries. All this can be taken to conclude that gender equality in the labour market has positive spill-over effects in other areas and gender equality and improvement in women's status contribute to overall growth by enhancing the pace and quantum of human capital formation.

## 5. POLICY ISSUES

Ever since the women's movement started in the $18^{\text {th }} / 19^{\text {th }}$ century, the debate on what is appropriate for women - protection or equality - has continued across the globe. In developing countries, inequalities and lack of protection lead to several undesirable outcomes, which are more serious than those in the developed world. As an analogy, extreme forms of gender inequality in a poor household can be worse for the women members than their counterparts in a non-poor household. Hence, gender issues require policy directions of a special kind in the developing world. Mere protective measures may not be adequate to improve the lot of women and on the other hand, mere anti-inequality measures cannot make women better off.

Policy should be directed to research on whether women are gaining control or are subjected to growing forms of control. Women's work conditions need to be monitored and evaluated in terms of equity with men in wages and level of skill. Legal changes are ineffective if the administrative mechanisms for implementation are missing. Monitoring of formal employment is necessary along with monitoring of women's access to credit, skill development, subsidies, or protection in work relationships. Under regimes of deregulation, the question is what role government will play in organizing women's unions, cooperatives, or self-help groups for vulnerable groups such as elderly women, young single migrants, international female migrants, or female heads of household. Structural adjustment practices must not sacrifice women's well-being for cost-cutting measures. Skill training and retraining for women will be the future need for overcoming inequalities. Policies must aim to support women in all of their interrelated roles in private human reproduction and public economic production.

In an attempt to solve the fiscal crises and indebtedness in the later part of the 1970s, international political economy began a transformation from one based on Keynesian economic principles of full-employment, large public sectors and government deficit financing, to one led by the neo-liberal philosophy of balanced budgets, tight monetary policy and the concentration of the public sector wage bill. Subsequently, global restructuring took place in the 1980s, and the transition from state to market in the 1990s. Feminisation of poverty and the ever-growing proportion of the female population working as cheap labour, growing unemployment, a decline in the social power of labour and an increase in temporary, part-time, casual and home-based work are some of the outcomes of these changes. While women increasingly participated in irregular forms of employment, they continued to be responsible for domestic work (Moghadam 2005).

In the recent context of economic reforms, several studies have argued in favour of labour market deregulations. In other words, without labour market deregulations, several
other macro and trade reforms are expected to be ineffective in generating employment (Hasan and Mitra 2003). However, the other pattern that can be discerned in the context of globalization is rising wage inequality, particularly along the lines of skill and education. For example, in the Indian context, employment has been growing at a reasonable pace for educated and skilled workers, whereas for those in the low income households, productive employment generation has been quite sluggish (Mitra 2008). Besides, the wage premium for skilled workers is on the rise. Since women in general are less skilled and less educated, globalization is expected to have not only aggravated the wage inequality across gender but also reduced the pay for women workers. As per UNIFEM-sponsored research, women's employment in the service sector is likely to be vulnerable to and disadvantaged by increased competition (Greve 2000).

Export processing zones had great potential to enhance women employment. However, as products move up the technological and skill ladders, the gender composition of the work force may change to the detriment of women workers (Greve 2000). With the intensification of international competition, changes in the organization of work place greater responsibility on workers for productivity, quality and innovation, shifting the emphasis from the absolute cost of labour to the capabilities and potential of labour, which may affect adversely women's employment (van Heerden 1999). Greve (2000) has discussed this issue in detail. Three problems associated with female employment in the export processing zones relate to the changing gender composition of the work force with changing products and technological advances; movement of investment away from mature zones as wages and working conditions improve and the growth of global production networks that enable companies to source goods and services all over the world and to reconfigure production chains quickly and easily (van Heerden 1999). In Mauritius, the Philippines and Taiwan, Province of China, zones have already been affected by declines in FDI inflows and employment declines though the second generation zones have arisen in China, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Sri Lanka and Tunisia. In the Indian context, it has been observed that imported technology has an adverse impact on the labour-to-value-added ratio, implying that imported technology is more capital-intensive in nature (Kato and Mitra 2008). It is feared that the displacement of labour is possibly executed through retrenchment of female labour in the industrial sector. Though sub-contracting has gone up in the recent past and might have raised female employment in sectors such as the garment industry, there is no strong evidence in favour of wage-increases (Murayama 2005).

The other important dimension of major economic changes relates to the IT sector. The integration of activities and economies across the globe has taken place in a big way with advancements in the IT sector; technological advancement has opened up unprecedented possibilities particularly in the manufacturing and services sectors. Dynamic and competitive business across national boundaries is possible with decreasing cost and increasing speed of communication, which the IT sector has delivered very promptly. In the manufacturing sector, the impact of technology on women employment has brought out mixed results. With the introduction of digital automation and robotics, women employment in the textile industry has been affected adversely in Argentina and Brazil (Mitter 1993). The increase in the level of automation is expected to have raised male employment at the expense of women employment as women do not have the adequate skills and training to operate delicate technology. On the other hand, where technology has regenerated enterprise or industry either directly or through outsourcing, women have gained in terms of employment (Greve 2000). However, all this would depend on the possibility of imparting skill and training to the women workers as per the new requirements of the occupational changes. Similarly in
relation to the services sector, telework offshore data processing and office administrative services comprise the relocation of clerical and data entry jobs to countries whose comparative advantage lies in a low-wage, well-educated work force - some of the beneficiaries are the Caribbean, India, mainland China, Singapore and the Philippines (Greve 2000).

On the whole, the employment scenario in the context of globalisation and technological advancement seem to be in favour of those who are endowed with skills and higher education. The informal sector workers are least expected to experience an improvement in terms of wages and/or work conditions. Since women workers are relatively less skilled and less educated, income inequality is expected to have worsened along the lines of gender. The rapid spread of the IT sector has indeed generated employment opportunities in the services sector and both male and female job seekers seem to have benefited in the process. However, most of the benefits have reached only those who are in the higher echelons of the socio-economic ladder. Much of the passion has been shown in deregulating the labour market. However, what is more important is the provision of a social safety net and health and educational benefits to the informal sector workers who actually explain much of the poverty in developing countries. Within the informal sector, women are particularly more vulnerable than their male counterparts as their accessibility to resources is meager and their bargaining power in the labour market is poor. Hence, the policy focus cannot afford to ignore the gender dimension.

On the whole, the employment scenario in the context of globalisation and technological advancement seem to be in favour of those who are endowed with skills and higher education. The informal sector workers are least expected to experience an improvement in terms of wages and/or work conditions. Since women workers are relatively less skilled and less educated, income inequality is expected to have worsened along the lines of gender. The rapid spread of the IT sector has indeed generated employment opportunities in the services sector and both male and female job seekers seem to have benefited in the process. However, most of the benefits have reached only those who are in the higher echelons of the socio-economic ladder. Much of the passion has been shown in deregulating the labour market. However, what is more important is the provision of a social safety net and health and educational benefits to the informal sector workers who actually explain much of the poverty in developing countries. Within the informal sector, women are particularly more vulnerable than their male counterparts as their accessibility to resources is meager and their bargaining power in the labour market is poor. Hence, the policy focus cannot afford to ignore the gender dimension.

In the light of our analysis the following policy suggestions are made:

1. Explicit policy interventions are required to curb inequality in the labour market and make growth more equitable and pro-women.
2. The complementary relation between female and male work participation rates is only marginal. Hence, policy interventions are required for women's strategic needs to be met instead of leaving it to the market forces and waiting for demand to grow and bridge the gender gap.
3. Labour intensive technology in compliance with the available skills of women should be adopted in various components of the high productivity sector including large-scale manufacturing.
4. Skill formation and entrepreneurial training facilities must be provided to women workers including those outside the labour market. This can enhance the labour market participation rate among women, and with enhanced capacities they will be able to access productive jobs.
5. A health related support system for women has to be developed more efficiently.
6. Employer bias against women workers must be eliminated through legal measures so that with equal levels of skill and education women workers can derive the same benefits as their male counterparts.
7. Several supportive measures to encourage girl children to enroll in schools and for their continuation of studies must be initiated on a large scale.
8. Working women, particularly in the informal sector, should be able to receive benefits that are usually available only to formal sector workers. For example, maternity leave and other health-related support can secure them against pay loss.
9. Availability of maternity benefits etc. which are accessible mainly by the regular women workers excluding a large proportion of women workers engaged in the informal sector are also not adequate to reduce the division of labour at home. What is, therefore, more important is initiation of policies which can sensitise the individuals and ensure involvement of males in child care. To begin with, the collection of data on constraints at the home front which impinge on gender inequalities in the labour market, is indeed essential.
10. Our findings on women's employment in the informal sector have important policy implications. It would be useful and cost-effective to evolve supportive measures rather than pursuing direct interventions, and in doing so the beneficiaries need to be involved in a big way. Urban specific employment programmes with minimum wage legislation must be implemented, which would also raise ongoing wages for women workers in activities that they have already been pursuing. Information on job prospects in different parts of the city can be consolidated and communicated for job seekers, and this can be expedited through NGOs. Institutions for skill formation are indeed important for enabling women to experience upward income mobility. Their entrepreneurial interest can be cultivated in terms of such efforts. Additionally, the public transport network should consider the travel requirements, timing, destinations and origins of these workers from low-income households.
11. Expansion of the rural non-farm sector and the involvement of women workers in this sector are indeed crucial for improvement in labour market equality. A shift in self-employment to wage-employment is endemic to enhanced access for higher income opportunities.
12. Steps must be taken to counter discrimination against women in recruitment, wages or promotions. Legislations and political commitment are necessary to ensure the rights of women to access education and health on equal terms with males. At times, women chose to divert greater attention to the family and children but income penalties and adversities associated with interruptions in career can be reduced through favourable policy initiatives including gender specific leave.
13. Since liberalization policies seem to have adverse impact on women's employment special efforts need to be made to engender macroeconomic policies.

## 6. CONCLUSION

Economic development gauged in terms of per capita income and the Human Development index does not necessarily mean that the gender gap disappears with greater development. In fact an inverted U-shaped relationship tends to exist between development and the gender gap, urging the need to pursue conscious efforts for promoting gender equality. This study examines in detail various aspects of labour market inequality and argues for protection to women workers who are vulnerably placed in the labour market. An important dimension of the analysis is that labour market inequality aggravates inequalities in other spheres of life including the ability to participate in the decision-making process. In particular, it results in poor human capital formation, which not only reduces the capabilities of women workers and restricts their upward mobility but also tends to show deleterious effects in inter-generational sense. The existing situation tends to suggest that women's labor market participation is an outcome of their practical needs in search of a livelihood but hardly their strategic needs are met as gross inequalities often characterise their socio-economic and political life.

In examining various aspects of labour market inequality, the study looks into labour market participation, work force participation, employment growth in relation to value added growth, unemployment rate, employment structure, wage levels and wage growth and informal sector employment of women vis-à-vis men. There is indeed propelling evidence in favour of existing inequalities. Particularly in relation to the informal sector, which accounts for a sizeable percentage of workers in the developing countries, and more so in the case of women, it is observed that with limited human capital endowment women often have to combine domestic work with earning opportunities outside the home, which results in suboptimal outcomes by reducing their accessibility to full-time and productive work opportunities. Other than being part-timers, they often face constraints such as the inability to travel long distances for work. Furthermore, the nature of the job market channels that they access to draw information on the labour market lead to a low equilibrium situation by resulting in overcrowding in certain activities. Informal networks that are again highly limited in nature tend to result in information asymmetry leading to segmentation of the labour market, and the network concentration of a particular type gives rise to excess supplies of labour in certain activities and in certain pockets. Thus, the wages for women workers dwindle at a low level and tend to experience sluggish growth over time. Further, the wage inequalities are not only confined to informal sector activities but also many other nontraditional and modern activities.

This study noted that labour market inequality spills over to inequality in education, health, political involvement and results in other demographic vulnerabilities. On the other hand, improvement in labour market equality results in reduction in gender inequality in other areas by generating higher levels and better quality of human capital endowment and by enhancing the productive capacity of women. Hence, an important linkage exists between labour market and empowerment in terms of involvement in the decision making process. On the other hand, reduction in gender inequality, particularly in the labour market, results in higher economic growth as women's contribution to the production process increases with human capital formation.

The feminisation of poverty and the ever-growing proportion of the female population working as cheap labour, growing unemployment, decline in the social power of labour and an increase in temporary, part-time, casual and home-based work are some of the outcomes of the changes that are taking place in relation to globalization and economic reforms. While
women increasingly participated in irregular forms of employment, they continued to be responsible for domestic work. The other pattern which can be discerned in the context of globalization is rising wage inequality, particularly along the lines of skill and education. As women are generally less skilled and less educated, globalization is expected to have aggravated the wage inequality across gender. The rapid spread of the IT sector has indeed generated employment opportunities in the services sector and both male and female job seekers seem to have benefited in the process. However, most of the benefits have reached only those who are in the higher echelons of the socio-economic ladder. As recommended earlier, a number of policy initiatives for reducing inequality in the labour market can be implemented to generate greater human capital formation, and to empower women's participation in the decision-making process both at the macro and household levels.

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## TABLES

Table 1: Labour Force Participation Rate for Females (Age 15+)

| Country | Region | LFPR1980 | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1985 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1990 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1995 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 2000 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2005 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 2006 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Change: } \\ & \text { 1980-90 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Change: } \\ & \text { 1990-06 } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cambodia | northeast | 79 | 78.5 | 77.9 | 77.2 | 75.4 | 74.7 | 74.7 | -1.1 | -3.2 |
| China | northeast | 71.1 | 71.8 | 73.2 | 72.8 | 71.3 | 68.9 | 68.5 | 2.1 | -4.7 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | northeast | 45.5 | 48.8 | 47.2 | 47.4 | 49.6 | 53.2 | 53.8 | 1.7 | 6.6 |
| Korea, Democratic People's Republic of | northeast | 52.9 | 52.7 | 52.2 | 50.1 | 49.2 | 48.3 | 48.2 | -0.7 | -4.0 |
| Korea, Republic of | northeast | 43.6 | 42.8 | 47.1 | 48.5 | 48.6 | 50.2 | 50.3 | 3.5 | 3.2 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | northeast | 51.5 | 54.5 | 53.3 | 54.2 | 53.8 | 54 | 54.1 | 1.8 | 0.8 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | northeast | 39.4 | 41 | 44.8 | 48.7 | 55.2 | 60.7 | 61.8 | 5.4 | 17.0 |
| Mongolia | northeast | 53.1 | 53.3 | 55.5 | 54.6 | 54.3 | 53.9 | 53.9 | 2.4 | -1.6 |
| Viet Nam | northeast | 73.3 | 73.9 | 73.8 | 73.5 | 72.9 | 72.1 | 72 | 0.5 | -1.8 |
| Fiji | Pacific | 54.7 | 52.6 | 48.8 | 48.9 | 49.9 | 51.3 | 51.6 | -5.9 | 2.8 |
| Papua New Guinea | Pacific | 70.6 | 71 | 71.6 | 70.7 | 71.3 | 71.7 | 71.7 | 1.0 | 0.1 |
| Samoa | Pacific | 38.6 | 39.8 | 39.4 | 40.6 | 40.5 | 39.4 | 39.3 | 0.8 | -0.1 |
| Solomon Islands | Pacific | 52.3 | 54.2 | 55.6 | 55.1 | 54.7 | 54.1 | 54.1 | 3.3 | -1.5 |
| Tonga | Pacific | 38 | 36.4 | 36.8 | 45.7 | 44.7 | 44.9 | 44.9 | -1.2 | 8.1 |
| Vanuatu | Pacific | 78.3 | 78.5 | 79.6 | 78.4 | 78.7 | 79.4 | 79.5 | 1.3 | -0.1 |
| Brunei Darussalam | southeast | 32.4 | 36.2 | 44.9 | 46.1 | 46.1 | 44 | 43.7 | 12.5 | -1.2 |
| Timor-Leste | southeast | 56.8 | 54.1 | 49.5 | 48.1 | 50.6 | 55.1 | 55.8 | -7.3 | 6.3 |
| Indonesia | southeast | 44 | 43.4 | 50.3 | 49.4 | 50.7 | 51 | 51.2 | 6.3 | 0.9 |
| Malaysia | southeast | 42.2 | 42.1 | 44.1 | 43.8 | 45.5 | 46.5 | 46.9 | 1.9 | 2.8 |
| Myanmar | southeast | 69.7 | 69.5 | 68.8 | 68.3 | 68.2 | 68.2 | 68.3 | -0.9 | -0.5 |
| Philippines | southeast | 50.2 | 48 | 47.4 | 49.1 | 48.5 | 54.7 | 55.7 | -2.8 | 8.3 |
| Singapore | southeast | 44.9 | 44.9 | 50.3 | 49.8 | 52.3 | 50.6 | 50.4 | 5.4 | 0.1 |
| Thailand | southeast | 75.6 | 75.1 | 74.5 | 66.1 | 65.4 | 65.8 | 66 | -1.1 | -8.5 |
| Afghanistan | South \&west | 37.5 | 37.4 | 37.4 | 37.1 | 37.5 | 38.9 | 39.5 | -0.1 | 2.1 |
| Bangladesh | South \&west | 64.8 | 65.9 | 63.4 | 56.6 | 54.8 | 52.6 | 52.4 | -1.4 | -11.0 |


| Country | Region | LFPR1980 | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1985 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1990 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1995 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2000 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2005 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2006 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Change: 1980-90 | Change: 1990-06 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bhutan | South \&west | 36.6 | 36.1 | 35 | 33.1 | 37.3 | 46.9 | 49.4 | -1.6 | 14.4 |
| India | South \&west | 36.1 | 36.5 | 36.5 | 35.5 | 34.1 | 34 | 34 | 0.4 | -2.5 |
| Maldives | South \&west | 24.2 | 23.7 | 20.1 | 28 | 37.4 | 48 | 49.8 | -4.1 | 29.7 |
| Nepal | South \&west | 45.3 | 46.4 | 48.1 | 48.3 | 49.4 | 49.9 | 50.1 | 2.8 | 2.0 |
| Pakistan | South \&west | 27 | 27.2 | 27.9 | 28.7 | 29.4 | 32.6 | 33.3 | 0.9 | 5.4 |
| Sri Lanka | South \&west | 39.6 | 37.5 | 45.1 | 36.4 | 37.1 | 35.2 | 35 | 5.5 | -10.1 |
| French Polynesia | Na | 45 | 45.6 | 48.5 | 49.1 | 47.8 | 46.9 | 46.9 | 3.5 | -1.6 |
| Guam | Na | 45.8 | 50.4 | 52.1 | 52.5 | 52.1 | 51.8 | 51.9 | 6.3 | -0.2 |
| New Caledonia | Na | 43.1 | 45.5 | 45.6 | 45.1 | 44.5 | 43.5 | 43.3 | 2.5 | -2.3 |
| Average |  | 50.61 | 50.77 | 51.62 | 51.32 | 52.08 | 53.25 | 53.55 |  |  |
| Std Dev |  | 15.42 | 15.39 | 14.98 | 13.74 | 12.81 | 12.08 | 12.00 |  |  |
| Coeff of Variation |  | 30.47 | 30.30 | 29.02 | 26.77 | 24.60 | 22.69 | 22.41 |  |  |

Note: (1) French Polynesia, Guam and New Caledonia are not included in the TOR. However, they fall into the Asia Pacific Region as given in the KILM data set. Hence, they have been included in the analysis. However, the figures on average, standard deviation and the coefficient of variation do not include these countries. (2) All these countries in Table 1 are termed as developing countries in ESCAP region; see ESCAP Report, 2007. The developed countries in the ESCAP region include Australia, Japan and New Zealand, which are not included in the analysis as the focus is primarily on the developing countries.
Source: KILM Data, Fifth Edition, ILO

Table 2: Labour Force Participation Rate for Males (Age 15+)

| Country | Region | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1980 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1985 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1990 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 1995 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2000 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2005 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2006 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cambodia | Northeast | 86 | 85.6 | 85.2 | 85 | 81 | 80.2 | 80.2 |
| China | Northeast | 87.5 | 86 | 85.1 | 85.2 | 84.1 | 82.2 | 81.9 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Northeast | 81.5 | 80.6 | 79.5 | 76.3 | 73.4 | 70.8 | 70.2 |
| Korea, Democratic People's Republic of | Northeast | 81.7 | 81.5 | 82 | 81.5 | 79 | 78.5 | 78.2 |
| Korea, Republic of | Northeast | 75.2 | 72.3 | 73.4 | 75.2 | 73.1 | 73.9 | 73.7 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | Northeast | 79.1 | 79.4 | 79.5 | 80.1 | 80.4 | 80.3 | 80.3 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Northeast | 71.4 | 72.4 | 72.3 | 72.8 | 75.4 | 75.3 | 75.2 |
| Mongolia | Northeast | 80.9 | 81 | 81.5 | 81.8 | 81.8 | 81.4 | 81.6 |
| Viet Nam | Northeast | 81.7 | 81.9 | 81.1 | 80.2 | 79 | 78 | 77.9 |
| Fiji | Pacific | 81.8 | 81.5 | 79.7 | 79.6 | 80 | 80.3 | 80.3 |
| Papua New Guinea | Pacific | 73.9 | 74.3 | 75.1 | 72.9 | 73.7 | 74.8 | 74.9 |
| Samoa | Pacific | 81.4 | 82 | 76.9 | 78.7 | 78.8 | 77.4 | 77.1 |
| Solomon Islands | Pacific | 79.3 | 80.2 | 80.8 | 81.9 | 81.9 | 82.1 | 82.2 |
| Tonga | Pacific | 78.7 | 75.8 | 77.6 | 75.4 | 73.6 | 73.2 | 73 |
| Vanuatu | Pacific | 87.3 | 87.5 | 88.9 | 87.3 | 87.5 | 88.2 | 88.3 |
| Brunei Darussalam | Southeast | 83.1 | 82.9 | 82.6 | 81.6 | 80.8 | 79.2 | 78.8 |
| Timor-Leste | Southeast | 84.1 | 83.3 | 79.2 | 78.3 | 78.1 | 82.5 | 83.1 |
| Indonesia | Southeast | 82.9 | 80.7 | 81.4 | 82.2 | 84.8 | 85 | 85.1 |
| Malaysia | Southeast | 78.4 | 78.2 | 81.2 | 81.9 | 81.6 | 81.4 | 81.3 |
| Myanmar | Southeast | 89.2 | 88.7 | 87.5 | 86.6 | 86.4 | 86.2 | 86.2 |
| Philippines | Southeast | 80.4 | 81.1 | 82.6 | 83.2 | 81.5 | 83.1 | 83 |
| Singapore | Southeast | 81.5 | 80.6 | 79.9 | 78.9 | 78.7 | 76.2 | 75.5 |
| Thailand | Southeast | 87.4 | 88 | 87.9 | 84.4 | 82.1 | 81.1 | 80.8 |
| Afghanistan | South\&west | 87.2 | 87.3 | 87.6 | 87.9 | 87.9 | 87.8 | 87.8 |
| Bangladesh | South\&west | 89.3 | 89.4 | 88.8 | 88.6 | 86.8 | 86.2 | 86.1 |
| Bhutan | South\&west | 86.4 | 86 | 85.3 | 85.3 | 83 | 81.3 | 80.9 |
| India | South\&west | 86.3 | 85.6 | 84.7 | 83.8 | 82.9 | 81.8 | 81.6 |


| Country | Region | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1980 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1985 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1990 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 1995 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2000 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { LFPR } \\ 2005 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { LFPR } \\ 2006 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maldives | South\&west | 74.5 | 78.5 | 77.6 | 74.2 | 72.4 | 71.7 | 71.8 |
| Nepal | South\&west | 87 | 84.3 | 80.4 | 79.5 | 78.7 | 78.3 | 78.2 |
| Pakistan | South\&west | 86.9 | 88.1 | 86.1 | 83.8 | 84.1 | 83.2 | 83.1 |
| Sri Lanka | South\&west | 81.4 | 81.2 | 78.8 | 74.7 | 76.4 | 76.5 | 76.4 |
| French Polynesia | Na | 78.3 | 76.3 | 74.3 | 75.1 | 73.9 | 72.4 | 72.3 |
| Guam | Na | 73.3 | 77.2 | 80.4 | 80.4 | 80.3 | 79.7 | 79.4 |
| New Caledonia | Na | 67.5 | 70.8 | 72.8 | 72.6 | 71.9 | 70.5 | 70.3 |
| Average |  | 82.37 | 82.13 | 81.62 | 80.93 | 80.29 | 79.94 | 79.83 |
| Std Dev |  | 4.58 | 4.49 | 4.28 | 4.37 | 4.29 | 4.42 | 4.51 |
| Coeff of Variation |  | 5.56 | 5.47 | 5.24 | 5.41 | 5.34 | 5.53 | 5.65 |

Notes: The figures on average, standard deviation and the coefficient of variation do not include French Polynesia, Guam and New Caledonia.
For other Notes and Source See Table 1.

Table 3: Ratio of Female to Male LFPR

| Country | $\begin{gathered} \text { f/m19 } \\ 80 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { f/m19 } \\ 85 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathbf{f} / \mathrm{m} 19 \\ 90 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathbf{f} / \mathrm{m} 19 \\ 95 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { f/m20 } \\ 00 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{f} / \mathbf{m} 20 \\ 05 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{f} / \mathrm{m} 20 \\ 06 \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Afghanistan | 0.43 | 0.43 | 0.43 | 0.42 | 0.43 | 0.44 | 0.45 |
| Bangladesh | 0.73 | 0.74 | 0.71 | 0.64 | 0.63 | 0.61 | 0.61 |
| Bhutan | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.41 | 0.39 | 0.45 | 0.58 | 0.61 |
| Brunei Darussalam | 0.39 | 0.44 | 0.54 | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.56 | 0.55 |
| Cambodia | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.93 | 0.93 | 0.93 |
| China | 0.81 | 0.83 | 0.86 | 0.85 | 0.85 | 0.84 | 0.84 |
| Timor-Leste | 0.68 | 0.65 | 0.63 | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.67 | 0.67 |
| Fiji | 0.67 | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.64 | 0.64 |
| French Polynesia | 0.57 | 0.60 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 |
| Guam | 0.62 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.65 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 0.56 | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.62 | 0.68 | 0.75 | 0.77 |
| India | 0.42 | 0.43 | 0.43 | 0.42 | 0.41 | 0.42 | 0.42 |
| Indonesia | 0.53 | 0.54 | 0.62 | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.60 |
| Korea, Democratic People's Republic of | 0.65 | 0.65 | 0.64 | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.62 | 0.62 |
| Korea, Republic of | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.66 | 0.68 | 0.68 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 0.65 | 0.69 | 0.67 | 0.68 | 0.67 | 0.67 | 0.67 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 0.55 | 0.57 | 0.62 | 0.67 | 0.73 | 0.81 | 0.82 |
| Malaysia | 0.54 | 0.54 | 0.54 | 0.53 | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.58 |
| Maldives | 0.32 | 0.30 | 0.26 | 0.38 | 0.52 | 0.67 | 0.69 |
| Mongolia | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.68 | 0.67 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.66 |
| Myanmar | 0.78 | 0.78 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.79 |
| Nepal | 0.52 | 0.55 | 0.60 | 0.61 | 0.63 | 0.64 | 0.64 |
| New Caledonia | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.63 | 0.62 | 0.62 | 0.62 | 0.62 |
| Pakistan | 0.31 | 0.31 | 0.32 | 0.34 | 0.35 | 0.39 | 0.40 |
| Papua New Guinea | 0.96 | 0.96 | 0.95 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.96 | 0.96 |
| Philippines | 0.62 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.60 | 0.66 | 0.67 |
| Samoa | 0.47 | 0.49 | 0.51 | 0.52 | 0.51 | 0.51 | 0.51 |
| Singapore | 0.55 | 0.56 | 0.63 | 0.63 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.67 |
| Solomon Islands | 0.66 | 0.68 | 0.69 | 0.67 | 0.67 | 0.66 | 0.66 |
| Sri Lanka | 0.49 | 0.46 | 0.57 | 0.49 | 0.49 | 0.46 | 0.46 |
| Thailand | 0.86 | 0.85 | 0.85 | 0.78 | 0.80 | 0.81 | 0.82 |
| Tonga | 0.48 | 0.48 | 0.47 | 0.61 | 0.61 | 0.61 | 0.62 |
| Vanuatu | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.90 |
| Viet Nam | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.91 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.92 |
| Average | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.63 | 0.63 | 0.65 | 0.67 | 0.67 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.18 | 0.18 | 0.17 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 0.15 | 0.15 |
| Coeff. Of Variation | 29.13 | 28.67 | 27.48 | 25.76 | 23.99 | 22.33 | 22.09 |

[^3]Table 4(a): Worker to Population Ratio of Females and Males Aged 15 and Above

|  | Female |  |  | Male |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Country | $\mathbf{1 9 9 5}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 0}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 6}$ | $\mathbf{1 9 9 5}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 0}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 6}$ |
| Afghanistan | 30 | 30.2 | 33.8 | 79.9 | 79.9 | 81.1 |
| Bangladesh | 55.2 | 53 | 50 | 85.9 | 83.9 | 82.6 |
| Bhutan | 27.8 | 31.5 | 43.4 | 78.9 | 76.7 | 75.4 |
| Brunei Darussalam | 43.8 | 43.8 | 41.6 | 78.1 | 77.2 | 75.5 |
| Cambodia | 74.2 | 73.3 | 73.2 | 82.1 | 79.2 | 78.8 |
| China | 71 | 69.4 | 66.8 | 81.8 | 80.6 | 78.9 |
| Timor-Leste | 46.3 | 48.7 | 53.4 | 75.6 | 75.4 | 79.7 |
| Fiji | 46.2 | 46.8 | 48.8 | 75.4 | 75.2 | 76 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 46 | 47.5 | 51.4 | 73.7 | 69.3 | 66.1 |
| India | 33.7 | 32.7 | 32.2 | 79.8 | 79.3 | 77.7 |
| Indonesia | 46.7 | 47.1 | 44.3 | 78.5 | 80.1 | 77.5 |
| Korea, Democratic People's | 49 | 47.2 | 46.2 | 79 | 74.6 | 73.8 |
| Republic of |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Korea, Republic of | 47.7 | 46.9 | 48.8 | 73.4 | 69.4 | 70.8 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 53.1 | 52.9 | 53.5 | 77.8 | 78.6 | 79 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 47.1 | 52.8 | 59.5 | 69.9 | 69.1 | 72 |
| Malaysia | 42.4 | 44.1 | 45.2 | 79.4 | 79.2 | 78.4 |
| Maldives | 27.6 | 36.4 | 48.6 | 73.7 | 71.2 | 70.6 |
| Mongolia | 46.4 | 45.2 | 46.9 | 69.8 | 67.1 | 71.3 |
| Myanmar | 65.7 | 66 | 66 | 83.4 | 83.5 | 83.2 |
| Nepal | 42.8 | 43.9 | 43.7 | 74.8 | 73.8 | 72.8 |
| Pakistan | 25.5 | 25.2 | 30.2 | 81.3 | 80 | 79 |
| Papua New Guinea | 68.2 | 69.3 | 69.8 | 70.4 | 71.6 | 72.9 |
| Philippines | 44.4 | 43.6 | 51.6 | 76.8 | 73.3 | 76.9 |
| Singapore | 48.4 | 49.9 | 48 | 76.8 | 75 | 72.7 |
| Solomon Islands | 52.7 | 51.8 | 51.9 | 78.7 | 77.8 | 79 |
| Sri Lanka | 29.2 | 32.9 | 31.6 | 68.2 | 72.2 | 72.7 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 43 | 43.3 | 46.5 | 70.2 | 65.5 | 62.3 |
| Thailand | 65.3 | 63.9 | 65.2 | 83.6 | 80.1 | 79.7 |
| Viet Nam | 71.9 | 71.2 | 70.3 | 78.4 | 77.2 | 76.6 |
| Average | 47.97586 | 48.63793 | 50.42759 | 77.08 | 75.72 | 75.62 |
| Std. Deviation | 13.69308 | 12.75381 | 11.63876 | 4.56 | 4.80 | 4.73 |
| Coeff. Of Var. | 28.5416 | 26.22193 | 23.08014 | 5.92 | 6.34 | 6.26 |

Table 4 (b): Change in the Worker to Population Ratio of Females and Males

| Country | Female |  | Male |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | Between 1995 <br> and 2000 | Between 2000 <br> and 2006 | Between 1995 <br> and 2000 | Between <br> 2000 and <br> $\mathbf{2 0 0 6}$ |
| Afghanistan | 0.20 | 3.60 | 0 | 1.20 |
| Bangladesh | -2.20 | -3.00 | -2 | -1.3 |
| Bhutan | 3.70 | 11.90 | -2.2 | -1.3 |
| Brunei Darussalam | 0.00 | -2.20 | -0.9 | -1.7 |
| Cambodia | -0.90 | -0.10 | -2.9 | -0.40 |
| China | -1.60 | -2.60 | -1.2 | -1.7 |
| Timor-Leste | 2.40 | 4.70 | -0.2 | 4.30 |
| Fiji | 0.60 | 2.00 | -0.2 | 0.80 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1.50 | 3.90 | -4.40 | -3.2 |
| India | -1.00 | -0.50 | -0.5 | -1.60 |
| Indonesia | 0.40 | -2.80 | 1.60 | -2.6 |
| Korea, Democratic People's | -1.80 | -1.00 | -4.4 | -0.8 |
| Republic of | -0.80 |  | 1.90 | -4 |
| Korea, Republic of | -0.20 | 0.60 | 0.80 | 1.40 |
| Lao People's Democratic |  |  |  | 0.40 |
| Republic | 5.70 | 6.70 | -0.8 | 2.90 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 1.70 | 1.10 | -0.2 | -0.8 |
| Malaysia | 8.80 | 12.20 | -2.5 | -0.6 |
| Maldives | -1.20 | 1.70 | -2.7 | 4.20 |
| Mongolia | 0.30 | 0.00 | 0.10 | -0.3 |
| Myanmar | 1.10 | -0.20 | -1 | -1 |
| Nepal | -0.30 | 5.00 | -1.3 | -1 |
| Pakistan | 1.10 | -0.80 | 0.50 | 1.20 |

[^4]Table 5: Illiteracy Rate

| Country | Year | Female |  | Male |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  | Youth <br> illiteracy <br> rate (\%) | Adult <br> illiteracy <br> rate (\%) | Youth <br> illiteracy <br> rate (\%) | Adult <br> illiteracy <br> rate (\%) |
| Afghanistan | 2000 | 81.6 | 87.4 | 49.2 | 56.9 |
| China | 1990 | 8.5 | 31.9 | 3 | 13 |
| China | 2000 | 1.5 | 13.5 | 0.8 | 4.9 |
| Indonesia | 1990 | 4.9 | 24.7 | 2.6 | 12 |
| Lao People's <br> Democratic Republic | 1995 | 35.9 | 52.1 | 21.2 | 26.5 |
| Malaysia | 2000 | 2.7 | 14.6 | 2.8 | 8 |
| Maldives | 1985 | 3.8 | 7.6 | 5.1 | 7.9 |
| Maldives | 1990 | 1.7 | 3.9 | 1.9 | 4.1 |
| Maldives | 1995 | 1.7 | 3.6 | 2 | 3.8 |
| Maldives | 2000 | 1.7 | 3.6 | 2 | 3.8 |
| Mongolia | 2000 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 3 | 2 |
| Myanmar | 2000 | 6.6 | 13.6 | 4.3 | 6.1 |
| Pakistan | 2005 | 46.9 | 64.6 | 23.3 | 35.9 |
| Papua New Guinea | 2000 | 35.9 | 49.1 | 30.9 | 36.6 |
| Philippines | 1990 | 3.1 | 6.8 | 3.7 | 6 |
| Philippines | 2000 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 5.5 | 7.5 |
| Singapore | 1990 | 0.9 | 17 | 1.1 | 4.9 |
| Thailand | 2000 | 2.2 | 9.5 | 1.9 | 5.1 |

Table 6: Enrolment and Expenditure on Education

| Country | Year | Expenditure per student: primary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: secondary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: tertiary (\% of GDP per capita) | Pupil- teacher ratio (primary,\%) | School enrolment: primary (\% gross) | School enrolment: secondary (\% gross) | School enrolment: tertiary (\% gross) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Afghanistan | 2000 |  |  |  | 64 | 19.2 |  |  |
| Afghanistan | 2005 |  |  |  | 83.4 | 86.5 | 16.2 |  |
| Bangladesh | 2000 | 8.2 | 11.4 | 43.5 | 57.1 | 108.9 | 50.3 | 5.8 |
| Bangladesh | 2005 | 7.7 | 14.7 | 49.7 |  |  |  | 6.5 |
| Bhutan | 2000 | 14.4 | 103.2 | 574 | 41.1 |  |  |  |
| Bhutan | 2005 |  |  |  | 31.1 |  |  |  |
| Brunei Darussalam | 2000 |  |  |  | 13.5 | 109.7 | 85.5 | 12.6 |
| Brunei Darussalam | 2005 |  |  |  | 10.1 | 107.5 | 95.6 | 15 |
| Cambodia | 2000 | 5.9 |  |  | 50.1 | 106.3 | 17 | 2.2 |
| Cambodia | 2005 |  |  |  | 53.2 | 134.1 |  | 3.3 |
| China | 2000 |  |  |  |  |  | 62.9 | 7.6 |
| China | 2005 |  |  |  | 18.6 | 112.8 | 74.3 | 20.3 |
| Cook Islands | 2000 | 0.9 | 1 |  | 17.8 | 87.9 | 66.1 |  |
| Timor-Leste | 2005 |  |  |  | 34.2 | 151.1 | 51.8 |  |
| Fiji | 2000 |  |  |  | 28.1 | 109.1 | 80.8 |  |
| Fiji | 2005 |  |  |  | 28.2 | 106 | 87.8 | 15.3 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 |  |  |  | 21.3 | 106.2 |  |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2005 | 14.9 | 19.9 | 60.6 | 18.3 | 104.7 | 87.2 | 31.4 |
| India | 2000 | 14.5 | 24.3 | 90.5 | 40 | 98.8 | 47.9 | 10.2 |
| India | 2005 |  |  |  |  | 119.2 | 56.6 | 11.4 |
| Indonesia | 2000 | 3.7 | 7.3 | 21.3 | 22.4 | 110.9 | 54.9 |  |
| Indonesia | 2005 |  |  |  | 20.4 | 117.3 | 63.1 | 17.1 |
| Kiribati | 2000 | 37.3 |  |  | 31.7 | 109.5 | 98.7 |  |
| Kiribati | 2005 |  |  |  | 24.7 | 112.2 | 87.1 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 |  |  |  | 32.2 | 98 | 97.6 | 72.6 |


| Country | Year | Expenditure per student: primary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: secondary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: tertiary (\% of GDP per capita) | Pupilteacher ratio (primary,\%) | School enrolment: primary (\% gross) | School enrolment: secondary (\% gross) | School enrolment: tertiary (\% gross) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Korea, Republic of | 2005 |  |  |  | 29 | 104.8 | 92.9 | 89.9 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2006 |  |  |  | 27.9 | 104.5 | 95.7 | 91 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 2000 | 3.9 | 5.6 | 69 | 30.1 | 115.3 | 35.6 | 2.8 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 2005 | 9.7 | 4.9 | 26.8 | 31.5 | 115.8 | 46.7 | 7.9 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 8.4 | 11.3 | 61 | 30 | 102.9 | 78.9 | 26.4 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2005 |  |  |  | 23.2 | 106.3 | 97.3 | 61.4 |
| Malaysia | 2000 | 12.8 | 22.3 | 83.3 | 19.6 | 97.1 | 69.3 | 26.3 |
| Maldives | 2000 |  |  |  | 22.7 | 127.3 | 55.6 |  |
| Maldives | 2005 | 22 |  |  | 20.1 | 93.7 |  |  |
| Marshall Islands | 2000 |  |  |  |  | 100.6 |  |  |
| Marshall Islands | 2005 |  |  |  |  | 102.7 | 76.5 |  |
| Mongolia | 2000 |  |  |  | 32.6 | 100 | 62.6 | 28.8 |
| Mongolia | 2005 |  |  |  | 34.2 | 93.3 | 91.8 | 43.2 |
| Myanmar | 2000 |  |  |  | 32.8 | 89.4 | 37.6 | 11.3 |
| Myanmar | 2005 |  |  |  | 30.9 | 99.6 | 40.3 |  |
| Nauru | 2000 |  |  |  | 21.5 | 75.6 | 45.4 |  |
| Nepal | 2000 | 10.3 | 11.6 | 141.7 | 42.6 | 116.5 | 35.3 | 4.1 |
| Nepal | 2005 |  |  |  | 39.7 | 113.3 | 45.7 |  |
| Nepal | 2006 |  |  |  | 39.7 | 126 | 43.1 |  |
| Niue | 2000 |  |  |  | 14.7 | 93.3 | 95.9 |  |
| Niue | 2005 |  |  |  | 11.9 | 86.4 | 99 |  |
| Pakistan | 2000 |  |  |  | 33 | 71.2 |  |  |
| Pakistan | 2005 |  |  |  | 38.3 | 87.3 | 26.9 | 4.6 |
| Papua New Guinea | 2000 |  |  |  | 35.9 | 78.9 | 22.8 |  |
| Philippines | 2000 | 12.5 | 10.7 | 15 |  |  |  |  |
| Philippines | 2005 |  |  |  | 35.1 | 112.5 | 85.2 | 28.1 |


| Country | Year | Expenditure per student: primary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: secondary (\% of GDP per capita) | Expenditure per student: tertiary (\% of GDP per capita) | Pupilteacher ratio (primary,\%) | School enrolment: primary (\% gross) | School enrolment: secondary (\% gross) | School enrolment: tertiary (\% gross) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Samoa | 2000 | 8.2 | 9.6 | 137.5 | 24 | 99.2 | 77.9 | 7.4 |
| Samoa | 2005 |  |  |  |  | 99.8 | 80.3 |  |
| Solomon Islands | 2000 |  |  |  |  | 85.6 | 19.2 |  |
| Solomon Islands | 2005 |  |  |  |  | 96.5 | 29.5 |  |
| Thailand | 2000 | 17.6 |  | 35.5 | 20.8 | 94.7 |  | 34.2 |
| Thailand | 2005 |  |  | 24.9 |  | 97.1 | 70.3 | 43 |
| Thailand | 2006 |  |  |  | 18.7 | 95.7 | 70.6 | 42.7 |
| Tokelau | 2000 |  |  |  | 9.9 | 101.2 | 94.7 |  |
| Tonga | 2000 |  |  |  | 22.1 | 110.6 | 101.1 | 4.7 |
| Tonga | 2005 |  |  |  | 20.3 | 114.7 |  |  |
| Tuvalu | 2000 |  |  |  | 19.7 | 108.7 |  |  |
| Vanuatu | 2000 | 15.3 | 70.6 | 167.9 | 22.5 | 112.9 | 33.8 | 4 |
| Vanuatu | 2005 |  |  |  | 20 | 118 |  |  |
| Viet Nam | 2000 |  |  |  | 29.5 | 106.6 | 64.6 | 9.5 |
| Viet Nam | 2005 |  |  |  | 21.6 | 94.5 | 75.8 | 16 |

Note: In some of the countries expenditure as a percentage of GDP per capita exceeds 100 per cent precisely because the per capita income is too low.
Source: See Table 1.

Table 7: Female Employment Elasticity

| Country | Region | Female Employment Elasticity |  |  | Female Employment Growth |  |  | Difference between Female and Male Employment Elasticity |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline 93-97 \mathrm{~F} \\ \text { Elasticity } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline 97-01 F \\ \text { Elasticity } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 01-05F <br> Elasticity | 93-97Fempgr | 97-01 Fempgr | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 01-05 \\ & \text { Fempgr } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 93-97 \\ & \text { elasf-m } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 97-01 \\ & \text { elasf-m } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 01-05 \\ & \text { elasf-m } \end{aligned}$ |
| Cambodia | Northeast | 0.36 | 0.43 | 0.31 | 2.41 | 3.61 | 2.95 | -0.08 | 0 | -0.04 |
| China | Northeast | 0.09 | 0.12 | 0.1 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.98 | 0 | -0.02 | -0.03 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Northeast | 0.86 | 0.71 | 0.53 | 4.04 | 1.56 | 2.76 | 0.76 | 0.64 | 0.37 |
| Korea, Republic of | Northeast | 0.43 | 0.4 | 0.34 | 3.14 | 1.40 | 1.60 | 0.16 | 0.19 | 0.02 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | Northeast | 0.37 | 0.45 | 0.5 | 2.70 | 2.61 | 3.15 | 0.01 | -0.02 | 0.04 |
| Mongolia | Northeast | 0.34 | 0.71 | 0.46 | 2.89 | 1.56 | 2.99 | -0.04 | 0.12 | -0.03 |
| Viet Nam | Northeast | 0.31 | 0.38 | 0.35 | 2.76 | 2.32 | 2.66 | 0.05 | -0.06 | 0.01 |
| Fiji | Pacific | 0.63 | 0.48 | 0.78 | 1.64 | 1.20 | 1.87 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.33 |
| Papua New Guinea | Pacific | 0.87 | 0.95 | 1.3 | 1.22 | 0.57 | 2.47 | 0.19 | 0.13 | 0.04 |
| Solomon Islands | Pacific | 0.73 | -0.35 | 0.58 | 2.63 | 2.03 | 2.55 | -0.06 | 0.02 | -0.04 |
| Brunei Darussalam | Southeast | 1.41 | 0.93 | 0.86 | 3.38 | 1.02 | 1.89 | 0.32 | 0.04 | -0.03 |
| Indonesia | Southeast | 0.3 | -0.16 | 0.2 | 2.13 | 0.21 | 1.00 | -0.09 | -0.08 | -0.1 |
| Malaysia | Southeast | 0.34 | 0.93 | 0.56 | 3.09 | 1.67 | 3.02 | -0.05 | 0.37 | 0.14 |
| Philippines | Southeast | 0.81 | 0.97 | 0.85 | 4.05 | 2.52 | 4.34 | 0.17 | 0.4 | 0.28 |
| Singapore | Southeast | 0.37 | 0.5 | 0.31 | 3.29 | 1.65 | 1.67 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.09 |
| Thailand | Southeast | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 1.92 | 0.00 | 2.06 | 0.17 | 0.08 | 0.21 |
| Bangladesh | South \& west | 0.17 | 0.44 | 0.21 | 0.80 | 2.33 | 1.15 | -0.38 | 0.04 | -0.2 |
| Bhutan | South \& west | 0.26 | 1.05 | 1.28 | 1.43 | 7.03 | 9.47 | 0.4 | 0.39 | 0.49 |
| India | South \& west | 0.24 | 0.33 | 0.25 | 1.63 | 1.82 | 1.85 | -0.06 | -0.03 | 0 |
| Maldives | South \& west | 1.23 | 1.37 | 1.46 | 10.21 | 8.49 | 6.86 | 0.88 | 0.93 | 0.92 |
| Nepal | South \& west | 0.82 | 0.39 | 0.99 | 4.59 | 1.87 | 2.28 | 0.27 | 0.03 | -0.03 |
| Pakistan | South \& west | 0.48 | 1.15 | 1.08 | 1.73 | 3.56 | 6.05 | -0.17 | 0.26 | 0.55 |
| Sri Lanka | South \& west | 0.11 | 0.7 | 0.11 | 0.57 | 2.38 | 0.57 | -0.25 | 0.28 | -0.09 |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 8: Unemployment Rate

| Country | Year | Female Unemployment Rate (\%) | Male Unemployment Rate (\%) | Female-Male Diff. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Afghanistan | 2005 | 9.5 | 7.6 | 1.9 |
| Bangladesh | 1985 | 5.6 | 1.4 | 4.2 |
| Bangladesh | 2000 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 0.1 |
| Cambodia | 2000 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 0.6 |
| Guam | 1980 | 12.1 | 8.4 | 3.7 |
| Guam | 1985 | 8.8 | 5.6 | 3.2 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1980 | 4 | 4.5 | -0.5 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1985 | 2.6 | 3.5 | -0.9 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1990 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 0 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1995 | 2.9 | 3.4 | -0.5 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 4 | 5.6 | -1.6 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2005 | 4.4 | 6.5 | -2.1 |
| India | 2000 | 4.1 | 4.4 | -0.3 |
| Indonesia | 1985 | 2.1 | 2.2 | -0.1 |
| Indonesia | 2005 | 13.6 | 8.3 | 5.3 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1980 | 3.5 | 6.2 | -2.7 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1985 | 2.4 | 5 | -2.6 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1990 | 1.8 | 2.9 | -1.1 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1995 | 1.7 | 2.3 | -0.6 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 3.6 | 5 | -1.4 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2005 | 3.4 | 4 | -0.6 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 1995 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 0 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 2005 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 0.1 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 1990 | 4 | 2.5 | 1.5 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 1995 | 3 | 4.1 | -1.1 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 4.4 | 8.6 | -4.2 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2005 | 3.8 | 4.4 | -0.6 |
| Malaysia | 1995 | 3.8 | 2.8 | 1 |
| Malaysia | 2000 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 0.2 |
| Maldives | 1995 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 0.7 |
| Maldives | 2000 | 2.7 | 1.6 | 1.1 |
| Marshall Islands | 1980 | 11.3 | 9 | 2.3 |
| Marshall Islands | 2005 | 24.3 | 26.4 | -2.1 |
| Mongolia | 2000 | 16.6 | 18.2 | -1.6 |
| Myanmar | 1990 | 8.8 | 4.7 | 4.1 |
| Pakistan | 1980 | 14 | 2.9 | 11.1 |
| Pakistan | 1985 | 1.4 | 3.8 | -2.4 |
| Pakistan | 1990 | 0.7 | 2.8 | -2.1 |
| Pakistan | 1995 | 14 | 3.7 | 10.3 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | 15.8 | 5.5 | 10.3 |
| Pakistan | 2005 | 12.8 | 6.6 | 6.2 |
| Papua New Guinea | 1990 | 5.9 | 9 | -3.1 |


| Country | Year | Female Unemployment Rate (\%) | Male Unemployment Rate (\%) | Female-Male Diff. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Papua New Guinea | 2000 | 1.3 | 4.3 | -3 |
| Philippines | 1980 | 7.5 | 3.2 | 4.3 |
| Philippines | 1985 | 8.2 | 4.8 | 3.4 |
| Philippines | 1990 | 9.8 | 7.1 | 2.7 |
| Philippines | 1995 | 9.4 | 7.7 | 1.7 |
| Philippines | 2000 | 9.9 | 10.3 | -0.4 |
| Philippines | 2005 | 7.3 | 7.4 | -0.1 |
| Singapore | 1980 | 3.4 | 2.9 | 0.5 |
| Singapore | 1985 | 4.4 | 4.5 | -0.1 |
| Singapore | 1990 | 1.4 | 1.9 | -0.5 |
| Singapore | 1995 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 0.2 |
| Singapore | 2005 | 5 | 3.7 | 1.3 |
| Sri Lanka | 1985 | 20.3 | 9.8 | 10.5 |
| Sri Lanka | 1990 | 23.5 | 9.1 | 14.4 |
| Sri Lanka | 1995 | 19.9 | 8.7 | 11.2 |
| Sri Lanka | 2000 | 11.1 | 5.4 | 5.7 |
| Sri Lanka | 2005 | 11.9 | 5.5 | 6.4 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 1980 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 0.4 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 1985 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 0 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 1990 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 0 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 1995 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 0 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2000 | 2.4 | 3.4 | -1 |
| Thailand | 1980 | 0.8 | 1 | -0.2 |
| Thailand | 1985 | 4.4 | 3.2 | 1.2 |
| Thailand | 1990 | 2.4 | 2 | 0.4 |
| Thailand | 1995 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 0.5 |
| Thailand | 2000 | 2.3 | 2.4 | -0.1 |
| Thailand | 2005 | 1.2 | 1.5 | -0.3 |
| Viet Nam | 2000 | 2.1 | 2.4 | -0.3 |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 9: Employment Structure

|  |  | Female |  |  | Male |  |  | Female-Male Difference |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Country | Year | Agriculture (\%) | Industry (\%) | Services (\%) | Agri (\%) | Industry (\%) | Services (\%) | Ag. | Ind. | Ser. |
| Bangladesh | 1990 | 84.9 | 8.8 | 2.1 | 54.4 | 15.7 | 25.3 | 30.5 | -6.9 | -23.2 |
| Bangladesh | 2000 | 76.9 | 9 | 12.1 | 53.3 | 11 | 30.3 | 23.6 | -2 | -18.2 |
| Cambodia | 2000 | 74.9 | 9.6 | 15.4 | 72.4 | 7.1 | 20.2 | 2.5 | 2.5 | -4.8 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1980 | 1.2 | 56.2 | 42.6 | 1.5 | 46.9 | 51.5 | -0.3 | 9.30 | -8.9 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1985 | 1.5 | 47 | 51.4 | 1.7 | 42.8 | 55.5 | -0.2 | 4.20 | -4.1 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1990 | 0.7 | 33 | 66.2 | 1 | 38.9 | 60.2 | -0.3 | -5.9 | 6.00 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1995 | 0.4 | 18.7 | 80.9 | 0.7 | 32.2 | 67.1 | -0.3 | -13.5 | 13.8 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 0.2 | 10.4 | 89.3 | 0.3 | 27.6 | 72.1 | -0.1 | -17.2 | 17.2 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2005 | 0.2 | 6.6 | 93.2 | 0.4 | 22.3 | 77.3 | -0.2 | -15.7 | 15.90 |
| Indonesia | 1980 | 54.2 | 13.1 | 32.7 | 57.5 | 13.1 | 29.4 | -3.3 | 0 | 3.30 |
| Indonesia | 1985 | 53.6 | 12.2 | 34 | 55.3 | 14.1 | 30.6 | -1.7 | -1.9 | 3.4 |
| Indonesia | 1990 | 56.3 | 12.4 | 31.1 | 55.6 | 14.6 | 29.7 | 0.70 | -2.2 | 1.4 |
| Indonesia | 1995 | 43.8 | 16 | 40.1 | 44.1 | 19.7 | 36.2 | -0.3 | -3.7 | 3.90 |
| Indonesia | 2000 | 46.6 | 14.9 | 38.5 | 44.2 | 19.1 | 36.6 | 2.40 | -4.2 | 1.90 |
| Indonesia | 2005 | 45.2 | 14.7 | 40.1 | 43.4 | 19.8 | 36.8 | 1.80 | -5.1 | 3.30 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1980 | 39 | 23.8 | 37.2 | 31 | 32.2 | 36.9 | 8 | -8.4 | 0.30 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1985 | 27.8 | 24.4 | 47.8 | 23.1 | 34.9 | 42 | 4.70 | -10.5 | 5.80 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1990 | 20.3 | 30.2 | 49.6 | 16.3 | 39 | 44.7 | 4 | -8.8 | 4.90 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1995 | 14.6 | 23.7 | 61.6 | 10.9 | 39.8 | 49.2 | 3.70 | -16.1 | 12.4 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 12.2 | 19.2 | 68.6 | 9.5 | 34.5 | 55.9 | 2.7 | -15.3 | 12.7 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2005 | 8.9 | 16.6 | 74.4 | 7.2 | 34.1 | 58.5 | 1.7 | -17.5 | 15.9 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 1995 | 89.3 | 2.7 | 7.9 | 81.2 | 4.4 | 14.4 | 8.10 | -1.7 | -6.5 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 1990 | 0.1 | 50.4 | 49 | 0.2 | 36.7 | 62.8 | -0.1 | 13.7 | -13.8 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 1995 | 0.1 | 34.4 | 65.1 | 0.3 | 30.1 | 69.5 | -0.2 | 4.30 | -4.4 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 0.1 | 30.2 | 69.6 | 0.2 | 26.5 | 73.3 | -0.1 | 3.70 | -3.7 |


| Macao, China (SAR) | 2005 | 0.2 | 23.1 | 76.6 | 0.2 | 27.1 | 72.7 | 0 | -4 | 3.90 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Malaysia | 1980 | 43.8 | 20 | 36.3 | 33.9 | 25.6 | 39.9 | 9.90 | -5.6 | -3.6 |
| Malaysia | 1985 | 33.8 | 20.5 | 45.7 | 28.6 | 25.6 | 45.9 | 5.20 | -5.1 | -0.2 |
| Malaysia | 1990 | 25.3 | 28 | 46.8 | 26.4 | 27.3 | 46.3 | -1.1 | 0.70 | 0.5 |
| Malaysia | 1995 | 16.9 | 31.4 | 51.8 | 21.6 | 32.8 | 45.6 | -4.7 | -1.4 | 6.20 |
| Malaysia | 2000 | 14 | 28.9 | 57 | 20.7 | 33.9 | 45.4 | -6.7 | -5 | 11.6 |
| Maldives | 1995 | 9 | 42.9 | 44.2 | 27 | 16.9 | 52.7 | -18 | 26 | -8.5 |
| Maldives | 2000 | 5.4 | 24.1 | 39 | 17.9 | 16.4 | 55.8 | -12.5 | 7.70 | -16.8 |
| Mongolia | 1995 | 45 | 16.1 | 38.9 | 47.1 | 19.6 | 33.3 | -2.1 | -3.5 | 5.60 |
| Mongolia | 2000 | 46.5 | 11.3 | 42.2 | 50.6 | 16.8 | 32.6 | -4.1 | -5.5 | 9.60 |
| Mongolia | 2005 | 36.8 | 14.8 | 48.4 | 43 | 18.9 | 38.1 | -6.2 | -4.1 | 10.3 |
| Pakistan | 1985 | 75.1 | 11.8 | 13.1 | 47.9 | 21 | 30.4 | 27.2 | -9.2 | -17.3 |
| Pakistan | 1990 | 72.2 | 14.1 | 13.5 | 48.4 | 20.6 | 30.9 | 23.8 | -6.5 | -17.4 |
| Pakistan | 1995 | 67.4 | 10.7 | 21.9 | 43.9 | 19.6 | 36.4 | 23.5 | -8.9 | -14.5 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | 72.9 | 9 | 18.1 | 44.4 | 19.5 | 36.1 | 28.5 | -10.5 | -18 |
| Pakistan | 2005 | 67.3 | 15 | 17.6 | 38.1 | 21.4 | 40.5 | 29.2 | -6.4 | -22.9 |
| Philippines | 1980 | 37.3 | 14.9 | 47.8 | 59.8 | 15.6 | 24.6 | -22.5 | -0.7 | 23.2 |
| Philippines | 1985 | 35 | 12.8 | 52.2 | 58.3 | 14.5 | 27.3 | -23.3 | -1.7 | 24.9 |
| Philippines | 1990 | 31.3 | 12.8 | 55.8 | 53.1 | 16.3 | 30.5 | -21.8 | -3.5 | 25.3 |
| Philippines | 1995 | 31.1 | 13.2 | 55.6 | 51.7 | 17 | 31.2 | -20.6 | -3.8 | 24.4 |
| Philippines | 2000 | 24.5 | 13.2 | 62.3 | 45.3 | 17.7 | 37 | -20.8 | -4.5 | 25.3 |
| Philippines | 2005 | 24.8 | 11.7 | 63.5 | 44.7 | 16.9 | 38.5 | -19.9 | -5.2 | 25 |
| Singapore | 1980 | 0.9 | 40.3 | 58.8 | 1.5 | 33.3 | 64.6 | -0.6 | 7 | -5.8 |
| Singapore | 1985 | 0.4 | 33.4 | 66 | 0.8 | 36.3 | 62.4 | -0.4 | -2.9 | 3.60 |
| Singapore | 1995 | 0.1 | 25 | 74.5 | 0.3 | 34.7 | 63.8 | -0.2 | -9.7 | 10.7 |
| Singapore | 2000 | 0 | 20.9 | 78.8 | 0 | 42.2 | 56.9 | 0 | -21.3 | 21.9 |
| Singapore | 2005 | 0 | 20.5 | 79.1 | 0 | 36 | 62.9 | 0 | -15.5 | 16.2 |
| Sri Lanka | 1985 | 54.2 | 19.9 | 24.4 | 47.2 | 18.3 | 29.4 | 7 | 1.6 | -5 |
| Sri Lanka | 1995 | 41.5 | 28.7 | 27.6 | 35.5 | 21 | 36.3 | 6 | 7.70 | -8.7 |
| Thailand | 1980 | 74.1 | 7.8 | 18.1 | 67.8 | 12.6 | 19.6 | 6.30 | -4.8 | -1.5 |


| Thailand | 1985 | 64.1 | 10.7 | 25.2 | 67.2 | 12.6 | 20.2 | -3.1 | -1.9 | 5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thailand | 1990 | 65 | 12.3 | 22.7 | 63.1 | 15.5 | 21.3 | 1.90 | -3.2 | 1.40 |
| Thailand | 1995 | 53.4 | 17.1 | 29.4 | 50.8 | 22 | 27.3 | 2.60 | -4.9 | 2.1 |
| Thailand | 2000 | 47.5 | 17.3 | 35.2 | 49.8 | 20.4 | 29.7 | -2.3 | -3.1 | 5.5 |
| Thailand | 2005 | 40.7 | 18.7 | 40.5 | 44.2 | 21.6 | 34.1 | -3.5 | -2.9 | 6.40 |
| Viet Nam | 2000 | 66.3 | 10.1 | 23.6 | 64.2 | 14.7 | 21 | 2.10 | -4.6 | 2.6 |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 10: Status of Employment

| Country | Year | Female: Wage \& salaried workers (employees) (\%) | Female: Total self-employed workers (\%) | Female: <br> The Rest | Male: Wage \& salaried workers (employees) (\%) | Male: Total selfemployed workers (\%) | Male: The Rest |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bangladesh | 2000 | 8.3 | 11 | 80.7 | 15.2 | 49.8 | 35 |
| Cambodia | 2000 | 12.1 | 28.9 | 59 | 18.6 | 54.6 | 26.8 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1995 | 94.8 | 3.8 | 1.40 | 85.7 | 14.2 | 0.10 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 95 | 3.8 | 1.2 | 85.5 | 14.4 | 0.1 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2006 | 93.5 | 5.3 | 1.2 | 83 | 16.9 | 0.1 |
| Indonesia | 2006 | 33.8 | 29.2 | 37 | 40.1 | 51.7 | 8.20 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1980 | 39.2 | 23.3 | 37.5 | 52.2 | 40.6 | 7.20 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1985 | 48.2 | 21.3 | 30.5 | 58 | 37.6 | 4.40 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1990 | 56.8 | 18.7 | 24.5 | 63.1 | 34.4 | 2.5 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1995 | 59.1 | 19.6 | 21.3 | 64.9 | 33.5 | 1.60 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 61.5 | 19.2 | 19.3 | 64.3 | 33.8 | 1.90 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2006 | 67.7 | 18.8 | 13.5 | 66.8 | 32 | 1.20 |
| Lao People's Democratic Republic | 1995 | 5.4 | 57.1 | 37.5 | 14.3 | 56.6 | 29.1 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 92 | 5.1 | 2.9 | 84.8 | 14.9 | 0.30 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2006 | 93.8 | 4.5 | 1.70 | 88.1 | 11.7 | 0.20 |
| Malaysia | 1995 | 72.9 | 13.9 | 13.2 | 72.5 | 24.2 | 3.30 |
| Malaysia | 2000 | 77.9 | 12.7 | 9.40 | 71.7 | 23.8 | 4.50 |
| Maldives | 1995 | 43.9 | 38.6 | 17.5 | 33.9 | 57.5 | 8.60 |
| Maldives | 2000 | 28.8 | 37.4 | 33.8 | 21.3 | 69.4 | 9.30 |
| Mongolia | 2000 | 43.6 | 17.6 | 38.8 | 39.3 | 46.1 | 14.6 |
| Pakistan | 1995 | 24.8 | 13.5 | 61.7 | 35.4 | 47.4 | 17.2 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | 33.1 | 16.8 | 50.1 | 36 | 47.3 | 16.7 |
| Pakistan | 2006 | 25.7 | 15.1 | 59.2 | 40 | 40.8 | 19.2 |
| Philippines | 2006 | 49.7 | 31.1 | 19.2 | 51 | 39.8 | 9.20 |
| Singapore | 1995 | 93.5 | 4.7 | 1.8 | 85.3 | 14 | 0.70 |


| Country | Year | Female: Wage <br> \& salaried <br> workers <br> (employees) | Female: Total <br> self-employed <br> workers (\%) | Female: <br> The Rest | Male: Wage <br> \& salaried <br> workers <br> (employees) <br> $(\%)$ | Male: Total <br> self- <br> employed <br> workers <br> (\%) | Male: <br> The Rest |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Singapore | 2000 | 94.2 | 5.1 | 0.70 | 86.5 | 13.3 | 0.2 |
| Singapore | 2006 | 89 | 9 | 1.10 | 81.3 | 18.4 | 0.30 |
| Sri Lanka | 2000 | 55.5 | 18 | 26.5 | 56.6 | 36.9 | 6.5 |
| Sri Lanka | 2006 | 54.5 | 23.9 | 21.6 | 56 | 39.6 | 4.40 |
| Thailand | 1990 | 25.6 | 18.3 | 56.1 | 31 | 42 | 27 |
| Thailand | 1995 | 32.4 | 21 | 46.6 | 38.3 | 43.2 | 18.5 |
| Thailand | 200 | 38.8 | 21.4 | 39.8 | 40.2 | 43.3 | 16.5 |
| Thailand | 2006 | 42.9 | 26.6 | 30.5 | 44.3 | 41.8 | 13.9 |
| Viet Nam | 2000 | 15.1 | 30.3 | 54.6 | 21.7 | 56 | 22.3 |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 11: Wages in Manufacturing

| Country | Base year | Year | Real manufacturi ng wage indices (Female) | growth rate (Female) | Real manufacturi ng wage indices (Male) | growth rate (Male) | Ratio of Female to Male Wage | Diff. in female-male growth rates |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| French Polynesia | 2000 | 1995 | 90.9 |  | 93 |  | 0.98 |  |
| French Polynesia | 2000 | 2000 | 100 | 1.91 | 100 | 1.45 | 1.00 | 0.46 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1999 | 1985 | 85.2 |  | 68.3 |  | 1.25 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1999 | 1990 | 101.2 | 3.44 | 92.8 | 6.13 | 1.09 | -2.69 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 1999 | 1995 | 96.4 | -0.97 | 94 | 0.26 | 1.03 | -1.23 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2000 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2005 | 105.2 | 1.01 | 70.4 | -7.02 | 1.49 | 8.03 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2006 | 96.8 | -8.32 | 102.7 | 37.76 | 0.94 | -46.08 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1992 | 1980 | 37.9 |  | 43.4 |  | 0.87 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | 1992 | 1985 | 49.4 | 5.30 | 54.4 | 4.52 | 0.91 | 0.78 |
| Korea, Republic of | 1992 | 1990 | 85 | 10.85 | 87.3 | 9.46 | 0.97 | 1.39 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 1995 | 81.9 |  | 87.5 |  | 0.94 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 2000 | 100 | 3.99 | 100 | 2.67 | 1.00 | 1.32 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 2005 | 125.1 | 4.48 | 130.1 | 5.26 | 0.96 | -0.78 |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 2006 | 131.8 | 5.22 | 133.4 | 2.50 | 0.99 | 2.72 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2000 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2005 | 108.1 | 1.56 | 102.6 | 0.51 | 1.05 | 1.05 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | 2000 | 2006 | 99.2 | -8.59 | 111.9 | 8.68 | 0.89 | -17.27 |
| Malaysia | 1997 | 1985 | 63.4 |  | 80.8 |  | 0.78 |  |
| Malaysia | 1997 | 1990 | 62.7 | -0.22 | 78.8 | -0.50 | 0.80 | 0.28 |
| Malaysia | 1997 | 1995 | 83.7 | 5.78 | 91.1 | 2.90 | 0.92 | 2.88 |
| Myanmar | 2000 | 2000 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |
| Myanmar | 2000 | 2005 | 45.9 | -15.57 | 79.4 | -4.61 | 0.58 | -10.96 |
| Philippines | 1995 | 1995 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |
| Philippines | 2001 | 2005 | 92.9 |  | 88.3 |  | 1.05 |  |


| Country | Base <br> year | Year | Real manufacturi ng wage indices (Female) | growth rate (Female) | Real manufacturi ng wage indices (Male) | growth rate (Male) | Ratio of Female to Male Wage | Diff. in female-male growth rates |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Philippines | 2001 | 2006 | 97.4 | 4.73 | 89.2 | 1.01 | 1.09 | 3.72 |
| Singapore | 1997 | 1990 | 63.8 |  | 70.4 |  | 0.91 |  |
| Singapore | 1997 | 1995 | 88 | 6.43 | 91.1 | 5.16 | 0.97 | 1.27 |
| Singapore | 2000 | 2000 | 100 | 2.56 | 100 | 1.86 | 1.00 | 0.7 |
| Singapore | 2000 | 2005 | 113.9 | 2.60 | 109 | 1.72 | 1.04 | 0.88 |
| Singapore | 2000 | 2006 | 118 | 3.54 | 110.8 | 1.64 | 1.06 | 1.9 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2000 | 1990 | 70.7 |  | 76.4 |  | 0.93 |  |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2000 | 1995 | 86.4 | 4.01 | 92.3 | 3.78 | 0.94 | 0.23 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2000 | 2000 | 100 | 2.92 | 100 | 1.60 | 1.00 | 1.32 |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2005 | 2005 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |
| Taiwan, Province of China | 2005 | 2006 | 101.2 | 1.19 | 100.5 | 0.50 | 1.01 | 0.69 |
| Thailand | 1995 | 1995 | 100 |  | 100 |  | 1.00 |  |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 12(a): Ratio of Female to Male Wages
(Nominal Terms in National Currency) across Occupations: Selected Cases (female wages not being less than the male wages)

| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/Male Wage |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Philippines | Field crop farm worker | 1985 | 1.000 |
| China | Stenographer-typist | 2000 | 1.000 |
| China | Salesperson (093) | 2000 | 1.002 |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 1995 | 1.003 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 2000 | 1.005 |
| Thailand | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.016 |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.017 |
| China | Accountant | 1990 | 1.018 |
| Singapore | Labourer | 2000 | 1.018 |
| Thailand | Accountant | 1985 | 1.022 |
| Korea, Republic of | Motor bus driver | 1990 | 1.027 |
| Korea, Republic of | Urban motor truck driver | 1990 | 1.027 |
| Singapore | Accountant | 2000 | 1.035 |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 1.052 |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 2000 | 1.055 |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 1995 | 1.064 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 2000 | 1.066 |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 1990 | 1.071 |
| China | Salesperson (096) | 1995 | 1.085 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.091 |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 1990 | 1.092 |
| Thailand | Computer programmer | 1985 | 1.105 |
| China | First-level education teacher | 1995 | 1.108 |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 1.113 |
| Thailand | Hotel receptionist | 1985 | 1.114 |
| Thailand | Sewing-machine operator | 1985 | 1.122 |
| Thailand | Professional nurse (general) | 1995 | 1.141 |
| Singapore | First-level education teacher | 1985 | 1.188 |
| Thailand | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 1.190 |
| Thailand | Stenographer-typist | 1985 | 1.199 |
| China | First-level education teacher | 1990 | 1.443 |
|  |  |  |  |

Table 12(b): Ratio of Female to Male Wages (Nominal Terms in National Currency) across Occupations: All Cases (female wages being less or not less than male wages)

| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/male <br> nominal <br> wage | Coefficient <br> of <br> variation |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| China | Accountant | 1990 | 1.018 |  |
| China | Accountant | 1995 | 0.848 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Accountant | 1985 | 0.630 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Accountant | 1990 | 0.617 | 16.46 |
| Korea, Republic of | Accountant | 2000 | 0.810 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Accountant | 1995 | 0.840 |  |
| Singapore | Accountant | 1985 | 0.813 |  |
| Singapore | Accountant | 1990 | 0.754 |  |
| Singapore | Accountant | 1995 | 0.804 |  |
| Singapore | Accountant | 2000 | 1.035 |  |
| Thailand | Accountant | 1985 | 1.022 |  |
| Thailand | Accountant | 1995 | 0.897 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Computer programmer | 1985 | 0.806 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Computer programmer | 1990 | 0.744 | 11.93 |
| Korea, Republic of | Computer programmer | 2000 | 0.901 |  |
| Singapore | Computer programmer | 1985 | 0.873 |  |
| Singapore | Computer programmer | 1990 | 0.883 |  |
| Singapore | Computer programmer | 1995 | 0.942 |  |
| Singapore | Computer programmer | 2000 | 0.818 |  |
| Thailand | Computer programmer | 1985 | 1.105 |  |
| Thailand | Computer programmer | 1995 | 0.982 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Field crop farm worker | 2000 | 0.607 | 34.54 |
| Philippines | Field crop farm worker | 1985 | 1.000 |  |
| China | First-level education teacher | 1990 | 1.443 |  |
| China | First-level education teacher | 1995 | 1.108 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | First-level education teacher | 1985 | 0.838 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | First-level education teacher | 1990 | 0.816 | 25.31 |
| Korea, Republic of | First-level education teacher | 2000 | 0.663 |  |
| Singapore | First-level education teacher | 1985 | 1.188 |  |
| Singapore | First-level education teacher | 1990 | 0.659 |  |
| Singapore | First-level education teacher | 1995 | 0.918 |  |
| Thailand | First-level education teacher | 1985 | 0.986 |  |
| Thailand | First-level education teacher | 1995 | 0.924 |  |
| China | Garment cutter | 2000 | 0.892 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Garment cutter | 1985 | 0.720 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Garment cutter | 1990 | 0.648 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Garment cutter | 1990 | 0.681 | 14.40 |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Garment cutter | 0.906 |  |  |
| Singapore | Singapore | 2000 |  |  |
| Singapore | 1995 | 0.686 |  |  |
|  |  |  | 0.746 |  |


| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/male nominal wage | Coefficient of variation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thailand | Garment cutter | 1985 | 0.629 |  |
| Thailand | Garment cutter | 1995 | 0.840 |  |
| China | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 0.487 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 1990 | 0.962 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 0.995 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 2000 | 1.005 | 18.29 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 2005 | 0.994 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Hotel receptionist | 1985 | 0.663 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Hotel receptionist | 2000 | 0.791 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 0.976 |  |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 1985 | 0.912 |  |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 1990 | 0.987 |  |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 1.052 |  |
| Singapore | Hotel receptionist | 2000 | 1.055 |  |
| Thailand | Hotel receptionist | 1985 | 1.114 |  |
| Thailand | Hotel receptionist | 1995 | 0.958 |  |
| China | Labourer | 1990 | 0.833 |  |
| China | Labourer | 1995 | 0.887 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Labourer | 1995 | 0.853 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Labourer | 2000 | 0.912 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Labourer | 1985 | 0.645 | 16.79 |
| Korea, Republic of | Labourer | 1990 | 0.486 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Labourer | 2000 | 0.706 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Labourer | 1990 | 0.940 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Labourer | 2000 | 0.989 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Labourer | 2005 | 0.888 |  |
| Singapore | Labourer | 1985 | 0.922 |  |
| Singapore | Labourer | 1990 | 0.838 |  |
| Singapore | Labourer | 1995 | 0.935 |  |
| Singapore | Labourer | 2000 | 1.018 |  |
| Thailand | Labourer | 1995 | 0.752 |  |
| China | Motor bus driver | 2000 | 0.976 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Motor bus driver | 1985 | 0.670 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Motor bus driver | 1990 | 1.027 | 16.79 |
| Korea, Republic of | Motor bus driver | 2000 | 0.801 |  |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 1985 | 0.933 |  |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 1990 | 1.071 |  |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 1995 | 1.003 |  |
| Singapore | Motor bus driver | 2000 | 0.998 |  |
| Thailand | Motor bus driver | 1985 | 0.671 |  |
| Thailand | Motor bus driver | 1995 | 0.777 |  |
| China | Office clerk | 1990 | 0.932 |  |
| China | Office clerk | 1995 | 0.895 |  |


| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/male <br> nominal <br> wage | Coefficient <br> of <br> variation |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Office clerk | 1985 | 0.857 | 12.92 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Office clerk | 1990 | 0.870 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Office clerk | 1995 | 0.909 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Office clerk | 2000 | 0.983 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Office clerk | 1985 | 0.601 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Office clerk | 1990 | 0.650 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Office clerk | 2000 | 0.698 |  |
| Singapore | Office clerk | 1985 | 0.814 |  |
| Singapore | Office clerk | 1990 | 0.822 |  |
| Singapore | Office clerk | 1995 | 0.878 |  |
| Singapore | Office clerk | 2000 | 0.905 |  |
| Thailand | Office clerk | 1985 | 0.785 |  |
| Thailand | Office clerk | 1995 | 0.879 |  |
| China | Power distribution and <br> transmission engineer | 2000 | 0.858 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Power distribution and <br> transmission engineer | 2000 | 0.756 | 9.33 |
| Thailand | Power distribution and |  |  |  |
| transmission engineer | 1985 | 0.910 |  |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Professional nurse (general) | 1990 | 0.849 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Professional nurse (general) | 2000 | 0.425 |  |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 1985 | 0.785 |  |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 1990 | 1.092 | 25.35 |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 1995 | 1.064 |  |
| Singapore | Professional nurse (general) | 2000 | 0.940 |  |
| Thailand | Professional nurse (general) | 1985 | 0.911 |  |
| Thailand | Professional nurse (general) | 1995 | 1.141 |  |
| China | Refuse collector | 2000 | 0.873 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Refuse collector | 1985 | 0.601 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Refuse collector | 1990 | 0.707 | 21.90 |
| Korea, Republic of | Refuse collector | 2000 | 0.584 |  |
| Singapore | Refuse collector | 1985 | 0.922 |  |
| Singapore | Refuse collector | 1990 | 0.982 |  |
| China | Room attendant or chambermaid | 2000 | 0.959 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 0.728 | 14.62 |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1990 | 0.978 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 0.956 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 2000 | 0.968 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 2005 | 0.927 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 0.663 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Roomaid | 1990 | 0.831 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | 2000 | 0.793 |  |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.091 |  |


| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/male nominal wage | Coefficient of variation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 1.113 |  |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1990 | 0.981 |  |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.017 |  |
| Singapore | Room attendant or chambermaid | 2000 | 0.919 |  |
| Thailand | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1985 | 1.190 |  |
| Thailand | Room attendant or chambermaid | 1995 | 1.016 |  |
| China | Salesperson (093) | 2000 | 1.002 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (093) | 2000 | 0.896 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (093) | 2005 | 0.653 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (093) | 1985 | 0.677 | 16.48 |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (093) | 1990 | 0.679 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (093) | 2000 | 0.755 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (093) | 1985 | 0.702 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (093) | 1990 | 0.746 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (093) | 1995 | 0.955 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (093) | 2000 | 0.804 |  |
| Thailand | Salesperson (093) | 1985 | 0.638 |  |
| Thailand | Salesperson (093) | 1995 | 0.696 |  |
| China | Salesperson (096) | 1990 | 0.955 |  |
| China | Salesperson (096) | 1995 | 1.085 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 1985 | 0.871 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 1990 | 0.961 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 1995 | 0.986 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 2000 | 1.066 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Salesperson (096) | 2005 | 0.980 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (096) | 1985 | 0.677 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (096) | 1990 | 0.679 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Salesperson (096) | 2000 | 0.755 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (096) | 1985 | 0.702 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (096) | 1990 | 0.845 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (096) | 1995 | 0.955 |  |
| Singapore | Salesperson (096) | 2000 | 0.804 |  |
| Thailand | Salesperson (096) | 1985 | 0.929 |  |
| Thailand | Salesperson (096) | 1995 | 0.844 |  |
| China | Sewing-machine operator | 1990 | 0.825 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Sewing-machine operator | 1985 | 0.941 |  |
| Hong Kong, China (SAR) | Sewing-machine operator | 1990 | 0.966 | 14.75 |
| Korea, Republic of | Sewing-machine operator | 1985 | 0.806 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Sewing-machine operator | 1990 | 0.768 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Sewing-machine operator | 2000 | 0.681 |  |
| Macao, China (SAR) | Sewing-machine operator | 1995 | 0.950 |  |
| Thailand | Sewing-machine operator | 1985 | 1.122 |  |
| Thailand | Sewing-machine operator | 1995 | 0.930 |  |


| Country | Occupation | Year | Female/male <br> nominal <br> wage | Coefficient <br> of <br> variation |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| China | Stenographer-typist | 2000 | 1.000 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Stenographer-typist | 1985 | 0.589 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Stenographer-typist | 1990 | 0.854 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Stenographer-typist | 2000 | 0.689 | 24.72 |
| Singapore | Stenographer-typist | 1985 | 0.795 |  |
| Thailand | Stenographer-typist | 1985 | 1.199 |  |
| Thailand | Stenographer-typist | 1995 | 0.723 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Urban motor truck driver | 1985 | 0.670 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Urban motor truck driver | 1990 | 1.027 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Urban motor truck driver | 2000 | 0.801 | 18.31 |
| Thailand | Urban motor truck driver | 1995 | 0.777 |  |
| China | Welder | 2000 | 0.863 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Welder | 1985 | 0.614 | 14.29 |
| Korea, Republic of | Welder | 1990 | 0.762 |  |
| Korea, Republic of | Welder | 2000 | 0.666 |  |
| Thailand | Welder | 1985 | 0.835 |  |

Source: See Table 1.

Table 13: Informal Sector Employment

| Country | Year | Coverage | Sex | Informal sector employment as a percentage of total employment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| India | 2000 | National | M | 55.4 |
| India | 2000 | National | F | 57 |
| India | 2000 | Urban | M | 53.7 |
| India | 2000 | Urban | F | 40.6 |
| India | 2000 | Rural | M | 57.5 |
| India | 2000 | Rural | F | 73.2 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | National | M | 65.8 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | National | F | 65.6 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | Urban | M | 64.1 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | Urban | F | 60.7 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | Rural | M | 67.7 |
| Pakistan | 2000 | Rural | F | 73 |
| Philippines | 1995 | Urban | M | 15.8 |
| Philippines | 1995 | Urban | F | 19.4 |
| Fiji | 1990 | National | M | In absolute terms ('000) 42.198 |
| Fiji | 1990 | National | F | In absolute terms ('000) 24.624 |
| Thailand | 1995 | National | M | In absolute terms ('000) 698.8 |
| Thailand | 1995 | National | F | In absolute terms ('000) 1241.9 |

[^5]Table 14: Labour Market Inequality and Inequality in Other Areas:
Results from Regression Analysis

| Explanatory <br> Var. | Dependent Variables |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | WOMWAG | F/MINCOM | PRIMG/B | LIFEF/M | MATMORT | TFR |
| F/MWPR | 46.06 | 0.70 | 0.24 | 0.08 | -860.44 | -2.97 |
|  | $(3.90)^{* * *}$ | $(11.12)^{* * *}$ | $(1.60)^{*}$ | $(1.95)^{* *}$ | $(-1.76)^{* *}$ | $(-1.42)^{*}$ |
| INTER | 6.75 | 0.39 | 0.77 | 1.0 | 881.73 | 5.14 |
|  | $(0.82)$ | $(0.91)$ | $(7.45)^{* * *}$ | $(34.78)^{* * *}$ | $(2.69)^{* * *}$ | $(3.62)^{* * *}$ |
| Adj. R ${ }^{2}$ | 0.43 | 0.87 | 0.06 | 0.09 | 0.07 | 0.04 |
| No. of <br> Observation | 20 | 20 | 24 | 28 | 26 | 28 |

Note: ***,** and * denote significance at 5, 10 and 20 per cent respectively.
F/MWPR is the ratio of female work participation rate to that of males (2006), WOMWAG is women wage employment in non-agricultural sector as a percentage share of total non-agricultural employees (2004), F/MINCOM is estimated earned income of female and male for the year 2005 in terms of US dollar adjusted for purchasing power parity, LIFEF/M is the ratio of life expectancy at birth for females to males over 2000-05, MATMORT is maternal mortality rate (deaths per 100,000 live births) for the year 2000, TFR is total fertility rate (children per woman) during 2000-05, IMR is infant mortality rates (defined as deaths per 1000 live births) for the year 2004, PRIMG/B is girls to boys ratio in primary education (2004)SECG/B is girls to boys ratio in secondary education (2004) and WOMPARL is women in parliamentary seats as a percentage of total parliamentarians (2005)
Source: Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific, 2007 (United Nations, 2007) and KILM data, ILO.

Table 15: Labour Market Inequality and Inequality in Other Areas:
Results from Factor Analysis

| VARIABLES | FACTOR1 | FACTOR2 | FACTOR3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| F/MWPR | 0.05 | 0.95 | 0.05 |
| WOMWAG | 0.42 | 0.55 | 0.33 |
| F/MINCOM | 0.019 | 0.96 | 0.02 |
| LIFEF/M | 0.92 | 0.02 | 0.05 |
| MATMORT | -0.34 | -0.31 | -0.38 |
| TFR | -0.89 | -0.09 | -0.28 |
| IMR | -0.53 | -0.07 | -0.38 |
| PRIMG/B | 0.34 | 0.10 | 0.86 |
| SECG/B | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.83 |
| WOMPARL | 0.12 | 0.08 | -0.25 |
| Eigen Value | 2.35 | 2.27 | 1.98 |

Note: For variables' name see Table 14. Number of observation used is 14.
Source: See Table 14.

Table 16: Growth and Labour Market Inequality: Results from Regression Analysis Dependent Variable: GDP per capita (for the year 2005 in terms of US dollar adjusted for purchasing power parity)

| EXP. VAR. | Equ. 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| F/MWPR | 51512.76 |
|  | $(2.22)^{* * *}$ |
| URBAN | 185.93 |
|  | $(3.49)^{* * *}$ |
| F/MINCOM | -66138.64 |
|  | $(-2.16)^{* * *}$ |
| TFR | -3353.23 |
|  | $(-2.70)^{* * *}$ |
| INTER | 9850.77 |
|  | $(1.25)$ |
| Adj. R $^{2}$ | 0.73 |

Note: ***,** and * denote significance at 5,10 and 20 per cent respectively. Total number of observations used is 18 . GDP per capita for the year 2005 is in terms of US dollar adjusted for purchasing power parity and URBAN is the level of urbanization in 2005. For variables’ name see Table 14.
Source: See Table 14.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also see Chen 1991; Agarwal 1994; Sen 1994; and Jhabwala 1997. Besides, Jain and Banerjee 1985; Sharma and Singh 1993; Standing 1991; Banerjee 1997; and Bhatt 2001 bring out several interesting aspects of women employment in the informal sector. Deshpande (2001) confirms that women workers entered the labour market they preferred to be engaged in occupations where the nature of work was more or less an extension of the work they carried out as housewives.Based on the case study of sales women in Ernakulam, (India) Patrik (2001) confirms both occupational segregation and wage discrimination that women workers face in the labour market. Even within the informal sector, which offers lower wages compared to the formal sector, women workers get a bad deal (Mitra and Mukhapadhyaya 1989; Mukhopadhyay 1999; Institute of Social Studies Trust 1997; Kalpagam 2001). Also see Moser and Levy 1986; Chen 1989; SEWA 1989; Sen 1994; Breman 1996; Jhabwala 1997; Unni 1997; Bhatt 2001 and Kalpagam 2001.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Poverty Profile 2004: Bangladesh.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Female to Male Work Participation Rate $=0.67+1.40 \mathrm{e}-06$ GDP per capita

[^3]:    Notes: The figures on average, standard deviation and the coefficient of variation do not include French Polynesia, Guam and New Caledonia.
    For other Notes and Source See Table 1.

[^4]:    Source: See Table 1.

[^5]:    Source: See Table 1

