

SEPTEMBER 2014
Labour Economic Series No.16

Female Employment for Inclusive Growth: Trends, Issues and Concerns of Female Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka

SUNIMALEE MADURAWALA

INSTITUTE OF POLICY STUDIES OF SRI LANKA

Copyright © September 2014
Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka

ISBN 978-955-8708-83-5

National Library of Sri Lanka-Cataloguing-In-Publication Data

Female employment for inclusive growth: trends, issues and concerns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka
Sunimalee Madurawala.- Colombo
Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka, 2014
40p. ; 30cm..- (Labour economic series; No.16)

ISBN 978-955-8708-83-5

i. 331.082 DDC 23

1. Labour Economics - Women
2. Labour Economics

Please address orders to:
Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka
100/20, Independence Avenue, Colombo 7, Sri Lanka
Tel: +94 11 2143100 Fax: +94 11 2665065
Email: ips@ips.lk
Website: www.ips.lk
Blog: 'Talking Economics' - http://ipslk.blogspot.com
Twitter: www.twitter.com/TalkEconomicsSL



Sunimalee Madurawala is currently working in the capacity of a Research Officer for the Health Economic Policy Unit. Her research interests include health economics, gender and population studies. Sunimalee holds a BA (Economics Special) degree with a first class and a Masters in Economics (MEcon) degree from the University of Colombo, Sri Lanka. She was selected as a Fellow for the Asia-Pacific Capacity Development on Gender and Macroeconomic Issues, held in Japan in 2011.



INSTITUTE OF POLICY STUDIES OF SRI LANKA

Labour Economic Series

No. 16

Female Employment for Inclusive Growth: Trends, Issues and Concerns of Female Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka

SUNIMALEE MADURAWALA

Table of Contents

Acronyms	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Executive Summary	v
1. Introduction	1
2. Objectives and Methodology	2
3. Review of Literature	3
3.1 Inclusive Growth and Gender Dimension of Inclusive Growth	3
3.2 Gender Gap in Development in Sri Lanka	5
3.3 Female Labour Force Participation	5
4. Female Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka	11
4.1 Women for Development	11
4.2 Trends in Female Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka	13
5. Access to Labour Force	17
6. Constraints to Female Labour Force Participation	19
6.1 Gender Issues in the Labour Market	19
6.2 Being Unemployed	20
6.3 Getting In	21
6.4 Staying In	23
7. Conclusions and Policy Implications	27
8. Bibliography	29
Annex	33

List of Figures

Figure 3 1:	Trends in Total Fertility Rate and Female Labour Force Participation Rate	11
Figure 4 1:	Percentage Distribution of Working Age Population by Economic Position and Gender - 2012	12
Figure 4 2:	Reasons for being Economically Inactive - 2012	12
Figure 4 3:	Annual Labour Force Participation Rates 1993-2012	13
Figure 4 4:	Labour Force Participation Rates by Age Groups	14
Figure 4 5:	Employed Population by Employment Status and Gender- 2012	15
Figure 4 6:	Employed Persons by Level of Education	15
Figure 4 7:	Percentage Contribution of Females to Total Employment	16
Figure 5 1:	Opportunity Curves for Access to Labour Force by Expenditure Deciles (Females)	17
Figure 5 2:	Opportunity Curves for Access to Labour Force by Expenditure Deciles (Males)	18
Figure 6 1:	Employment Process	20
Figure 6 2:	Unemployment Rates	21
Figure 6 3:	Gender Based Perception of Labour Market Choice	23

List of Tables

Table 2 1:	Methodology	2
Table 3 1:	Selected Indicators for Economic Growth, Employment and Gender Equality and Opportunity	4
Table 3 2:	Response of the Labour Force Participation Rate to Selected Tax Cuts	8
Table 3 3:	Drivers and Constraints	9
Table 4 1:	Percentage of Women Employees to Total Employees by Major Occupational Categories	16
Table 5 1:	Opportunity Index and Equity Index of Opportunity for Accessing Labour Force	19
Table 6 1:	Research Evidence on Gender Based Violence (GBV) in Sri Lanka	25
Table 6 2:	Percentage Distribution of Job Advertisements of Main Occupational Category	26

Annex Annex 1: High Demand Jobs by Gender - 1st half 2013 30

Acronyms

CCB	Child Care Benefit
DCS	Department of Census and Statistics
EIO	Equity Index of Opportunity
FLFPR	Female Labour Force Participation Rate
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey
IDRC	International Development Research Centre.
LFS	Labour Force Survey
NAI	Net Actual Income
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OI	Opportunity Index
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UCCB	Universal Child Care Benefit
WAP	Working Age Population
WRC	Work Related Costs

Acknowledgement

This report would not have been possible without the assistance, support and coordination from various individuals and organizations.

This study was made possible thanks to the financial support from the Think Tank Initiative (TTI) of the International Development Research Centre (IDRC).

Dr. Nisha Arunatilake, Research Fellow, Head, Labour, Employment and Human Resources Development Unit, Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka (IPS), is mentioned with thanks for encouraging the author to submit the proposal for this study within a very short period of time, providing technical inputs in developing the study proposal and reviewing the report.

The author wishes to extend her sincere gratitude to Ms. Priyanka Jayawardene, Research Officer at IPS for her valuable support and guidance in analyzing Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) data. The support extended by Mr. Wimal Nannayakara, Senior Visiting Fellow, IPS is also acknowledged thankfully.

Research Committee of the IPS is greatly acknowledged for reviewing the draft of the report and providing very constructive comments to improve the quality of the report.

Department of Census and Statistics of Sri Lanka (DCS) should be mentioned here with appreciations for giving approval to using the HIES micro data.

The Publication Unit of the IPS is mentioned with thanks for their support in editing, formatting and printing.

Last but not least, all research and support staff members of the IPS, who helped in various ways are also acknowledged with gratitude.

Executive Summary

Growth is inclusive when it allows all members of a society to participate in, and contribute to, the growth process on an equal basis regardless of their individual circumstances. However, the available data and indicators show that the economic potentials of the Sri Lankan women are not fully utilized for the process of economic development. Out of the total 'economically inactive population' of the country, 70.3 per cent are females, and out of the total 'economically active population' (i.e. labour force), females account for only 33.4 per cent, implying that there is a large untapped reservoir of manpower that could be utilized for the development of the country, while empowering the individuals and benefitting the entire society as a whole. In this backdrop and given the importance of making women more participatory in the process of inclusive growth, it is of utmost importance to have a closer look at the issues and concerns related to females in Sri Lanka in participating labour market activities and to assess whether growth has improved access to the labour force for females over time.

This study is carried out with the objectives of studying the trends, issues and concerns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka in order for the growth of the country to be inclusive and to assess whether the growth has improved the opportunities to access the labour force for females across different income groups over time. A literature review was carried out to understand the main concepts on which this study is based on. The method adopted by Ali and Son (2007) in their paper 'Measuring Inclusive Growth' is followed to assess whether growth has improved females' access to labour force over time. Published data mainly by DCS were used in identifying the trends and patterns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka and descriptive statistics are presented in graphical and tabular formats.

Substantial amount of literature support the fact that women's labour market activities are highly dependent on non-economic factors, particularly their familial responsibilities and child care being the biggest challenge for them. Social structure and social environment, marriage and children as well as state policy and economic development are some of the crucial factors that affect female labour force participation. Further, female labour force participation is linked with fertility and children's cognitive development.

Almost from the very beginning, women have played an important role in the labour force in Sri Lanka. Much of the early expansion (until late 1970s) in female labour force participation was attributed to female labour supply factors of rising literacy and educational attainment as well as to the expansion of the services sector dominated by teaching, health care, clerical and finance related occupations which provided more and new types of employment considered acceptable to women. With the introduction of policy liberalization in the latter part of the 1970s, female participation in the labour force increased significantly especially in manufacturing and service sectors. However, from the latter years of the 1990s onwards, the Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) has stagnated in the range of 30 to 36 per cent. While showing a declining trend in overall female labour force participation rate over the last ten years, the age specific labour force participation rates for females are also decreasing for all age categories. The change is more prominent for the age groups of (15-19) and (20-24). Further, data on female labour force participation imply that an M-shaped curve is emerging for Sri Lanka, with the age groups 20 to 24 and 30 to 39 being the two peaks. Out of the total employed women, a higher per cent fall into the category of 'contributing family worker,' where their labour is more or less unremunerated. The educational status of both female employees has increased during the last few years significantly compared to their male counterparts. The increase in female labour force participation is most striking in the high skilled occupational categories, which in turn match with the increase in the level of education of female employees.

Construction of Opportunity Curves reveals that opportunities for women in accessing the labour force have declined over time across all expenditure groups. Although the deterioration in opportunities is common phenomena for women in all expenditure deciles, it is more remarkable for women in the lower expenditure deciles. Similar to the case for females, a reduction could be observed in opportunities for men

in accessing the labour force across all deciles, except for men's in the 3rd expenditure decile, which is also a very marginal increase. Regardless of the gender, both the Opportunity Index (average opportunities available to the population) and Equity Index of Opportunity (how opportunities are shared or distributed among the population) have deteriorated over the time period considered and the opportunity to access labour force is low for females compared to males.

The consequences of gender inequalities in the labour market include women being "crowded" into a narrow range of occupations where there is a less responsibility and/or lower pay, or having to work part time, where there are fewer opportunities for advancement. Females may also face adverse treatment due to pregnancy and their job security may be affected due to their tendency to getting more leave from work in order to cope with family responsibilities (reproductive responsibilities). Sexual harassment of females at the work place is also a form of gender based discrimination in the labour market. Females, if they want to enter the labour force have to forgo the utility from reproductive/ social reproductive activities and personal leisure activities. 'Leisure' then encompasses two components for females; reproductive/social reproductive activities and personal leisure activities. If the Net Actual Income (NAI) is not sufficient to cover the forgone leisure (reproductive/ social reproductive activities and personal leisure), females would prefer to be unemployed. Females are often discriminated in the process of job recruitment, mainly because of the employers' perceptions of female employees being costly to business organizations due to maternity and child care benefits and perceived characteristics of the females. Weaker job networks of females from which they may face discrimination in the labour market is another problem that women face when entering the labour market. Managing work-family balance, the issue of 'glass ceiling', sexual harassments at the work place, occupational segregation and gender wage gap are some critical concerns that have to be faced by employed females.

As women's labour market activities are highly dependent on non-economic factors, particularly on their familial responsibilities and child care being the biggest challenge for them, policy measures focused on this aspect would help immensely in easing the tension faced by the working mothers and attracting more females into the labour force.

Providing a child care allowance at institutional level and/or at the national level to reduce the WRC or through providing day care or crèche facilities to employees and reducing the tax burden on individuals, are some of the policy measures that can be taken in this regard. Re-entering the labour force should be encouraged by providing suitable avenues for females to re-enter the labour market, since this would optimize available labour usage and prevent education and training investments being wasted. Further, creation of more job opportunities targeting the poor should be done and it has to be made sure that the distribution of job opportunities is done in a more equitable manner. Promoting working options like 'flexi-hours', 'working-from-home', 'part-time' for females would be helpful immensely to female participation in the labour force. Provision of alternative child care and geriatric care options should be done while regularizing and monitoring those alternatives.

විධායක සාරාංශය

සියල්ලන් ඇතුළත් කර ගත් වර්ධනය වන්නේ එක් එක් පුද්ගලයාගේ ස්වභාවය නොසලකා සමාන පදනමක් යටතේ වර්ධන ක්‍රියාවලියට සමාජයක සියලු සාමාජිකයන්ට සහභාගිවීමට හා දායකවීමට ඉඩ සැලසෙන විටය. එසේ වුවත් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ ආර්ථික විභවයන් ආර්ථික සංවර්ධන ක්‍රියාවලියට සම්පූර්ණයෙන් යොදා ගෙන නොමැති බව පවතින දත්ත හා දර්ශක වලින් පෙන්නුම් කරයි. රටේ ආර්ථික වශයෙන් සක්‍රීය නොවන ජන සංඛ්‍යාවෙන් සියයට 70.3ක් ස්ත්‍රීන් වන අතර, ආර්ථික වශයෙන් සක්‍රීය මුළු ජන සංඛ්‍යාවට (ශ්‍රම බලකාය) ස්ත්‍රී දායකත්වය වන්නේ සියයට 33.4කින් පමණි. ඉන් අදහස් වන්නේ පුද්ගලයන් බලගන්වන සහ සමස්තයක් වශයෙන් මුළු මහත් සමාජයටම ප්‍රයෝජනයක් වන අතර රටේ සංවර්ධනයට යොදා ගත හැකි විශාල මිනිස් බල සංචිතයක් භාවිතයට නොගෙන පැවතීමය. මෙවැනි පසුබිමක් තුළ ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ස්ත්‍රීන් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ ක්‍රියාකාරකම්වලට සහභාගිවීමට අදාල ගැටලු සහ වුවමනා ගැඹුරු ලෙස සැලකිල්ලට ගැනීමත්, කාලයත් සමග වර්ධනය ස්ත්‍රීන් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළට පිවිසීම වැඩි දියුණු කෙළේද යන්නත් තක්සේරු කිරීමත් අතිශයෙන් වැදගත් වෙයි.

මෙම අධ්‍යයනය කරන ලද්දේ රටේ වර්ධනය සියල්ලන් ඇතුළත් කර ගැනීම සඳහා ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයේ ගැටලු සහ වුවමනාවන් අධ්‍යයනය කිරීමේ අරමුණෙන් සහ කාලයත් සමග වර්ධනය විවිධ ආදායම් ලබන ස්ත්‍රී කණ්ඩායම් හරහා ශ්‍රම බලකායට පිවිසීමේ අවස්ථා වැඩි දියුණු වූයේද යන්න තක්සේරු කිරීම සඳහාය. මෙම අධ්‍යයනයට පදනම් වූ ප්‍රධාන සංකල්ප අවබෝධ කර ගැනීම සඳහා ලිපි ලේඛන නිරීක්ෂණයක්ද සිදු කරන ලදී. අලි සහ සන් විසින් ප්‍රකාශයට පත් කළ (2007) 'සියල්ලන් ඇතුළත් කර ගන්නා වර්ධනය මැනීම' (Measuring Inclusive Growth) නම් පත්‍රිකාවේ යොදා ගත් ක්‍රමවේදය වර්ධනය කාලයත් සමග ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළට ස්ත්‍රී පිවිසීම වැඩි දියුණු කෙළේද යන්න තක්සේරු කිරීමට භාවිතා කරන ලදී. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයේ ප්‍රවනතා සහ රටාවන් හඳුනා ගැනීමට මූලික වශයෙන් ඣ ප්‍රකාශයට පත් කළ දත්ත යොදා ගත් අතර ඒවා, විස්තරාත්මක සංඛ්‍යාත ප්‍රස්තාර සහ වගු ආකාරයෙන් ඉදිරිපත් කර ඇත.

මේ සම්බන්ධයෙන් සිදු කර ඇති පර්යේෂණ ගණනාවක්ම තහවුරු කරන්නේ ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ ක්‍රියාකාරකම් වැඩි වශයෙන්ම ආර්ථික නොවන සාධක මත, විශේෂයෙන්ම ඔවුන්ගේ පවුල වගකීම් මත රැඳී ඇති බව බවයි. ඔවුන්ගේ බරපතළම අභියෝගය වන්නේ ළමයින් රැක බලා ගැනීමයි. සමාජ ව්‍යුහය සහ සමාජ පරිසරය, විවාහය සහ ළමයින් සහ රාජ්‍ය ප්‍රතිපත්තිය සහ ආර්ථික සංවර්ධනය ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයට බලපාන තීරණාත්මක සාධකවලින් සමහරකි. ස්ත්‍රී සේවා නියුක්තිය, සළුලතාවය සහ ළමුන්ගේ බුද්ධි වර්ධනය හා බැඳී ඇත.
ආරම්භයේ සිටම ස්ත්‍රී පාර්ශ්වය ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ශ්‍රම බලකායේ වැදගත් භූමිකාවක් ඉටු කළහ. ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයේ මුල් කාලීන වර්ධනයට වැඩි වශයෙන් හේතු වූයේ ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ ඉහළ සාක්ෂරතාවයත් ඉහළ අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමත්ය. එමෙන්ම ස්ත්‍රීන්ට රැකියා නියුක්ත වීමට සුදුසු යැයි පිළිගැනුන ගුරු වෘත්තිය, සෞඛ්‍ය හා මූල්‍ය වැනි ක්ෂේත්‍රයන්ගේ සිදුවූ ව්‍යාප්තිය හා වර්ධනයත් මෙයට හේතු විය. 1970 අග භාගයේදී ආර්ථික ලිහිල්කරණ ප්‍රතිපත්ති හඳුන්වාදීමත් සමග ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වය, විශේෂයෙන් නිෂ්පාදන සහ සේවා අංශවල කැපී පෙනෙන ලෙස වැඩි විය. කෙසේ වුවත් 1990 දශකයේ අග වසරවල සිට ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්ව අනුපාතය සියයට 30 ත් 36 ත් අතර නොවෙනස්ව පැවතිණ. පසුගිය වසර දහය ඇතුළත ශ්‍රම බලකායේ සමස්ත ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වය පහත වැටීමේ ප්‍රවනතාවයක් පෙන්නුම් කළ අතර වයස් කාණ්ඩ අනුව ස්ත්‍රීන් ගේ ශ්‍රම බලකායේ සහභාගිත්වය සියලුම වයස් කාණ්ඩ වල පහත වැටිණ. මෙම වෙනස වඩාත් කැපී පෙනෙන්නේ 1519 හා 2024 යන වයස් කාණ්ඩවලය. තවද මෑත කාලීන දත්ත මගින් පෙන්නුම් කරන්නේ වයස් කාණ්ඩ අනුව ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ ශ්‍රම බලකායේ සහභාගිත්වය 'ඒ' හැඩයක් ගන්නා බවයි. වයස අවුරුදු 2024 දක්වා වයස් කාණ්ඩය සහ අවුරුදු 30 සිට 39 දක්වා වයස් කාණ්ඩය වැඩිම ශ්‍රම සහභාගිත්වයක් පෙන්නුම් කරයි. සේවා නියුක්ත ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ වැඩි ප්‍රතිශතයක් අයත්වන්නේ 'දායකත්වයක් ලබා දෙන පවුලේ සේවක' යන කාණ්ඩයට වන අතර ඔවුන් බොහෝ විට වැටුප් නොලබයි. පසුගිය වසර කීපය තුළ සේවා නියුක්ත ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම සේවා නියුක්ත පුරුෂයන් හා සසඳන විට කැපී පෙනෙන ලෙස වැඩි වී ඇත. ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයේ වැඩිවීම උසස් පුහුණුවකින් යුත් වෘත්තීය කාණ්ඩයේ පැහැදිලිවම දක්නට ඇත. එය ස්ත්‍රී සේවිකාවන්ගේ අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමේ වැඩිවීම හා සැසඳේ.

ආවස්ථික චක්‍ර නිර්මාණය කිරීමෙන් ශ්‍රම බලකායට ස්ත්‍රී පිවිසීමේ අවස්ථා කාලයත් සමග සියලු වියදම් කාණ්ඩ සඳහා පහත වැටී ඇති බව හෙළිවේ. සියලු වියදම් දශමක සඳහා ස්ත්‍රී රැකියා අවස්ථා පිරිහීම පොදු ලක්ෂණයක් වුවද පහළ වියදම් දශමකයේ ස්ත්‍රීන් සඳහා වඩාත් කැපී පෙනෙන තත්වයක් පවතී. ස්ත්‍රීන් සම්බන්ධයෙන් මෙන්ම සියලු දශමකවල ශ්‍රම බලකායට පිවිසීමේ දී පුරුෂයන්ගේ රැකියා අවස්ථාවල පහත වැටීමක් නිරීක්ෂණය කළ හැකිය. මෙය වෙනස් වන්නේ තෙවන වියදම් දශමකය සඳහා පමණි. එයද ඉතා සුළු ආන්තික වැඩිවීමකි. ස්ත්‍රී පුරුෂ වෙනසක් නැතිව ආවස්ථික දර්ශකය (ජනතාවට ඇති අවස්ථා සාමාන්‍යය) හා සමානාත්මතා ආවස්ථික දර්ශකය (ජන සංඛ්‍යාව අතර රැකියා අවස්ථා බෙදී යන්නේ හෝ හුවමාරු වන්නේ කෙසේද) යන දෙකම සැලකිල්ලට ගත් කාල සීමාව තුළ පිරිහීමට ලක්ව ඇත. පුරුෂයන් හා සසඳන විට ස්ත්‍රීන්ට ශ්‍රම බලකායට පිවිසීමට ඇති අවස්ථා අඩුය.

කාන්තාවන් වගකීම් අඩු සහ/හෝ වැටුප් අඩු ඉතා පටු වෘත්තීන් පරාසයකට එක් රැස් වීමත් උසස්වීම් සඳහා අවස්ථාවන් සීමිත අර්ධ කාලීන රැකියා සඳහා යොමු වීමත් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ තුළ දක්නට ලැබෙන ස්ත්‍රී පුරුෂ අසමානතාවයේ ප්‍රතිඵල වෙයි. ගැබ් ගැනීම් නිසා ස්ත්‍රීන්ට අවාසි සහගත ලෙස සලකනු ලැබීමට ඉඩ ඇත. ස්ත්‍රීන්ට පවුලේ වගකීම් ඉටු කිරීමට (ප්‍රජනන වගකීම්) මාතෘ නිවාඩු සහ මාතෘ දීමනා ස්ත්‍රීන්ට ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ තුළ අවාසි සහගත ලෙස ක්‍රියාත්මක වීමට ඉඩ ඇති අතර කාන්තාවන්ට පැවරී ඇති

පවුලේ වගකීම් ඉටු කිරීම සඳහා රැකියා නිවාඩු වැඩියෙන් අවශ්‍ය වීම තුලින් ඔවුන්ගේ රැකියා සුරක්ෂිතභාවය සම්බන්ධයෙන් ද ගැටලු ඇති වෙයි. සේවා ස්ථානයේදී ස්ත්‍රීන්ට ලිංගික අතවරවලට මුහුණ දීමට සිදුවීම ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ ස්ත්‍රී පුරුෂ භාවය පදනම් වෙනස්කොට සැලකීමකි. ස්ත්‍රීන්ට ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළට පිවිසීමට අවශ්‍ය නම් ප්‍රජනන/ සමාජ ඵලදායි ක්‍රියාකාරකම් භාවිතය සහ පුද්ගලික විවේකී ක්‍රියාකාරකම් අත්හැරීමට සිදුවේ. ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ 'විවේකය' ලක්ෂණ දෙකකින් යුතුය. එනම් ප්‍රජනන/සමාජ ඵලදායි ක්‍රියාකාරකම් සහ පුද්ගලික විවේකී ක්‍රියාකාරකම් යනුවෙනි. රැකියාවෙන් ලබන ශුද්ධ ආදායම (NAI) අත්හරින ලද විවේකය ආවරණය කිරීමට තරම් ප්‍රමාණවත් නොවේ නම් ස්ත්‍රීන් සේවා වියුක්තව සිටීමට වඩාත් පෙළඹෙනු ඇත. රැකියාවට බඳවා ගැනීමේදී ස්ත්‍රීන්ට බොහෝවිට වෙනස්කොට සැලකීමට ලක්වේ. ඒ මූලික වශයෙන්ම මාතෘදාරකත්වය හා ළමා රැකවරණ ප්‍රතිලාභ හා ස්ත්‍රී චරිත ලක්ෂණයැයි සිතා ගන්නා දේ වැනි කරුණු නිසා ව්‍යාපාරික ආයතනවලට ස්ත්‍රී සේවිකාවන් බඳවා ගැනීම වඩාත් වියදම්කාරීයැයි හැඟීමක් සේව්‍යයන් තුළ තිබීම නිසාය. ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ රැකියා ජාලයන්ගේ පවතින දුර්වලතාවය ද ශ්‍රම වෙළෙඳ පොළට පිවිසීමේදී ඔවුන්ට මුහුණ දීමට ඇති තවත් ප්‍රශ්නයකි. සේවයේ නියුක්ත ස්ත්‍රීන් මුහුණ දීමට ඇති තීරණාත්මක කරුණුවලින් සමහරක් වන්නේ පවුල හා රැකියාව අතර ඇති සමබරතාවය කළමනාකරණය, වෘත්තීමය වශයෙන් උසස් වීමට ඇති විවිධවූ බාධාවන් (glass ceiling) ගැටලුව, සේවා ස්ථානයේ ලිංගික අතවර, වෘත්තීය වශයෙන් වෙන් කොට තැබීම හා ස්ත්‍රී පුරුෂ භාවය මත ඇති වැටුප් පරතරය වැනි කරුණුය.

ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළ ස්ත්‍රීන්ගේ ක්‍රියාකාරකම් විශාල වශයෙන් ආර්ථික නොවන සාධක, බලපාන බැවින් මෙම අංශ කෙරේ යොමු වූ ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර වැඩ කරන මවුවරු මුහුණ දී ඇති පීඩණය ලිහිල් කිරීමටත් ශ්‍රම බලකායට ස්ත්‍රීන් වඩාත් ආකර්ෂණය කිරීමටත් ඉමහත් ලෙස හේතු වනු ඇත.

මේ සම්බන්ධයෙන් ගත හැකි ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර සමහරක් වන්නේ රැකියාව හා සම්බන්ධ පිරිවැය (Work Related Cost) අඩු කිරීමට ආයතනික මට්ටමෙන් සහ/හෝ ජාතික මට්ටමෙන් ළමා රැකවරණ දීමනාවක් ලබාදීම හෝ සේවකයන්ට දිවා ළමා සුරැකුම් පහසුකම් සැලසීම හා එක් එක් පුද්ගලයාගේ බදු බර අඩු කිරීම වැනි ඒවාය. ස්ත්‍රීන් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළට නැවත පැමිණීමෙන් පවතින ශ්‍රම භාවිතය ප්‍රශස්ත මට්ටමට පැමිණෙන නිසා සහ අධ්‍යාපනය සහ පුහුණුව සඳහා කරන ලද ආයෝජනය අපතේ යෑම වැළැක්වෙන නිසා ස්ත්‍රීන්ට ශ්‍රම වෙළඳ පොළට නැවත ඇතුළුවීමට සුදුසු මාර්ග සැපයීමෙන් ඔවුන් දිරිමත් කළ යුතුය. වැඩි දුරටත් දුප්පතුන් ඉලක්කර ගත් රැකියා අවස්ථා වඩාත් නිර්මාණය කළ යුතු අතර රැකියා අවස්ථා බෙදා හැරීම වඩාත් සාධාරණ ආකාරයෙන් සිදුවන බව තහවුරු කළ යුතුය. ස්ත්‍රීන් සඳහා 'නම්‍යශීලී වැඩ කරන කාලය', 'නිවසේ සිට වැඩ කිරීම' 'අර්ධ කාලීන වැඩ ' වැනි සේවය කිරීමේ විකල්ප මාර්ග ප්‍රවර්ධනය ශ්‍රම බලකායේ ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වයට ඉමහත් සේ ඉවහල් වනු ඇත. විකල්ප ළමා රැකවරණය සහ වයස්ගත අය රැකබලා ගැනීම වැනි තේරීම් යොදා ගත යුත්තේ මෙම විකල්ප නියාමනය සහ අධීක්ෂණය සමගය.

நிறைவேற்றுச் சுருக்கம்

ஒரு சமூகத்தின் அனைத்து உறுப்பினர்களும் தமது தனிப்பட்ட சூழ்நிலைகளைக் கருத்திற்கொள்ளாது, வளர்ச்சிக்கான செயன்முறையில் பங்கேற்று, அதற்கான தத்தமது பங்களிப்புக்களை சமத்துவ அடிப்படையில் வழங்கும் பட்சத்தில் வளர்ச்சியானது முழுமையோடு எம்முடன் இணைந்துகொள்கிறது. இருப்பினும் இலங்கைப் பெண்களின் பொருளாதார ரீதியான எதிர்கால வாய்ப்புகள் பொருளாதார அபிவிருத்திச் செயன்முறைகளில் முழுமையாக உபயோகிக்கப்படுவதில்லை என்பதையே கிடைக்கத்தகு தரவுகளும் சுட்டிகளும் எடுத்துக் காட்டுகின்றன. நாட்டின் மொத்த 'பொருளாதார ரீதியில் ஊக்கமற்ற மக்கள்' தொகையில் 70.3 சதவீதமானோர் பெண்களாகவுள்ளதோடு, மொத்த 'பொருளாதார ரீதியில் ஊக்கமுள்ள மக்கள்' தொகையில் (அதாவது ஊழியப் படையில்) பெண்கள் 33.4 சதவீதமாகவுள்ளனர். இது மொத்தத்தில் தனிநபர்களை வலுவூட்டி முழுச் சமூகத்திற்குமான நலனை வழங்கும் வகையிலும், நாட்டின் அபிவிருத்திப் பயணத்தில் ஈடுபடுத்தப்படக் கூடிய, ஆனால் இன்னும் பயன்படுத்தப்படாத பாரிய மனித வள ஊற்று ஒன்று இருப்பதனையே குறித்துநிற்கிறது. இந்தப் பின்னணியில், வளர்ச்சியை உள்ளடக்கிய செயன்முறையில் பெண்களை அதிகம் ஈடுபடுத்துவதன் முக்கியத்துவத்தை கருத்திற்கொண்டு, இலங்கையிலுள்ள பெண்கள் தொழிற் சந்தை தொடர்பான நடவடிக்கைகளில் ஈடுபடுவதில் அவர்கள் எதிர்கொள்ளும் பிரச்சினைகள் மற்றும் அவர்களது அக்கறைகள் போன்றவற்றில் நெருக்கிய அவதானம் செலுத்துவதும் மற்றும் குறித்த வளர்ச்சியானது பெண்களின் தொழிற் சந்தைக்கான வழிமுறையை காலத்தால் மேம்படுத்தியுள்ளதா என்பதை மதிப்பிடுதலும் மிகவும் முக்கியத்துவமிக்க அம்சங்களாகவுள்ளன.

இவ் ஆய்வானது, நாட்டின் வளர்ச்சி மக்களோடு இணைந்ததாகவிருக்கும் வகையில், இலங்கையில் பெண் ஊழியப் படையினரின் பங்கேற்பு தொடர்பில் அதன் போக்கு, பிரச்சினைகள் மற்றும் அக்கறைகள் ஆகியவற்றை ஆய்வு செய்வதையும், மற்றும் குறித்த வளர்ச்சியானது பல்வேறு வருமான மட்டங்களிலுள்ள பெண்கள் தமக்கான ஊழியப் படையினை பெற்றுக்கொள்வதற்கான வாய்ப்புக்களை காலத்திற்குக் காலம் மேம்படுத்தியுள்ளதா என்பதைக் கணிப்பிடுவதையும் குறிக்கோளாகக் கொண்டே மேற்கொள்ளப்படுகிறது. இவ் ஆய்வானது எந்த பிரதான எண்ணக்கருக்களை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்டது என்பதனை அறிந்து கொள்வதற்கானதொரு கல்வி சார் மீளாய்வும் மேற்கொள்ளப்பட்டது. பெண்கள் ஊழியப் படைக்குச் செல்வதில் வளர்ச்சியானது மேம்பட்ட பங்களிப்பை வழங்கியுள்ளதா என்பதை மதிப்பிடுவதில், அலி அன் சன் நிறுவனத்தினால் 'முழுமையான வளர்ச்சியை அளவிடல்' எனும் அவர்களது வெளியீட்டில் (2007) பொருந்திக்கொள்ளப்பட்டுள்ள முறைமை பின்பற்றப்பட்டது. இலங்கையில் பெண் ஊழியப் படையினரின் போக்குகள் மற்றும் அதன் தன்மைகள் ஆகியவற்றை இனங்காண்பதில் தொகைமதிப்பீடு மற்றும் புள்ளிவிபரவியல் திணைக்களத்தினால் வெளியிடப்பட்ட தரவுகளும் பிரதானமாக பயன்படுத்தப்பட்டதோடு, விளக்கங்களுடனான புள்ளிவிபரங்கள், வரைபடங்கள் மற்றும் அட்டவணை உருக்கள் போன்ற வடிவங்களில் வழங்கப்பட்டன.

பெண்களின் தொழிற்சந்தை தொடர்பான செயற்பாடானது பொருளாதாரம் சாராத காரணிகளிலேயே பெருமளவு தங்கியிருப்பதனை கணிசமான கல்வி சார்ந்த ஆய்வுகள் எடுத்துக்காட்டுவதோடு, குறிப்பாக அவர்களது குடும்பப் பொறுப்புகள் மற்றும் குழந்தை பராமரிப்பு ஆகியனவே அவர்கள் எதிர்கொள்கின்ற பாரிய சவால்களாகவும் காணப்படுகின்றன. சமூகக் கட்டமைப்பு, சமூகச் சூழல், திருமணம், பிள்ளைகள், அரச கொள்கைகள் மற்றும் பொருளாதார அபிவிருத்தி ஆகியன பெண்களின் ஊழியப் படையிலான அவர்களின் பங்களிப்பினை வெகுவாகப் பாதிக்கின்ற சில முக்கிய காரணிகளாகவுள்ளன. மேலும், பெண் ஊழியப் படையின் பங்களிப்பானது கர்ப்பமடைதல் மற்றும் அவர்களது பிள்ளைகளின் புலனுணர்விலான விருத்தி ஆகியவற்றுடனும் சார்ந்துள்ளது.

இலங்கையில் பெண்கள் பெரும்பாலும் மிகவும் தொடக்கக் காலத்திலிருந்தே ஊழியப் படையில் ஒரு முக்கியமான பங்களிப்பை வழங்கியுள்ளனர். பெண் ஊழியப்படையின் பங்களிப்பிலான அனேக ஆரம்பகால (1970 களின் பிற்பகுதி வரை) வளர்ச்சியானது, படிப்பறிவு விருத்தி மற்றும் கல்வித் தேர்ச்சி குறித்தான பெண் ஊழிய விநியோகப் போக்கிற்கும் அதேபோல் கற்பித்தல், சுகாதார பராமரிப்பு, முகாமைத்துவம் மற்றும் நிதி போன்ற அதிகம் வழங்கப்பட்ட தொழிற்துறைகளினால் ஆதிக்கம் செலுத்தப்பட்ட சேவைத் துறையினது விருத்திக்கும் மற்றும் பெண்களுக்குப் பொருத்தமானதெனக் கருதப்பட்ட புதிய வகைத் தொழில்வாய்ப்புகளுக்கும் வழிவகுத்தது. 1970 களின் பிந்திய காலப்பகுதியில் அறிமுகம் செய்யப்பட்ட கொள்கை தாராளமயமாக்கத்தோடு, ஊழியப்படையில் பெண்களின் பங்களிப்பு கணிசமானளவு அதிகரித்ததோடு, குறிப்பாக அது உற்பத்தி மற்றும் சேவை போன்ற துறைகளிலேயே இடம்பெற்றது. இருப்பினும், 1990 ஆம் ஆண்டுகளின் பின்னரான காலத்திலிருந்து பெண் ஊழியப்படையின் பங்களிப்பு வீதமானது 30 முதல் 36 வரையான சதவீதத்திற்கு மந்தப் போக்கைக் காட்டியுள்ளது. கடந்த பத்து வருட காலமாக ஒட்டுமொத்த பெண் ஊழியப்படையின் பங்களிப்பு வீதமானது ஒரு வீழ்ச்சிப் போக்கைக் காட்டி வருகின்ற அதேவேளை, பெண்களுக்கான வயது அடிப்படையிலான ஊழியப் படையின் பங்களிப்பு வீதமும் அனைத்து வயதுக்குழுவினர் தொடர்பிலும் குறைவடைந்து வருகிறது. 15-19 மற்றும் 20-24 ஆகிய வயதுக் குழுவினர் தொடர்பிலேயே இம்மாற்றம் அதிக பரீட்சயம் மிக்கதாகவுள்ளது. மேலும், வரைபின் M – வடிவ வளைவானது இலங்கை தொடர்பில் 20-24 மற்றும் 30-39 ஆகிய வயதுக் குழுக்களுக்கான யர்வுகளோடு எழுச்சி பெற்று வருவதை பெண் ஊழியப்படையின் பங்களிப்பு குறித்தான தரவுகள் சுட்டிக்காட்டுகின்றன.

வேலைக்கமர்த்தப்பட்டுள்ள மொத்தப் பெண் தொழிலாளர்களில், ஒரு கூடிய சதவீதத்தினர் 'பங்களிப்புச் செய்யும் குடும்ப பணியாளர்' எனும் குழுவில் இடம்பெறுகின்றனர். இக்குழுவில் அவர்களது தொழிலுக்கான ஊதியம் வழங்கப்படாமைக்கான வாய்ப்பு அதிகமாகும் அல்லது குறைவாகும். இவ்விரு குழுவையும் சேர்ந்த பெண்

ஊழியர்களின் கல்வித் தகைமையானது தொடர்புபட்ட ஆண்கள் குழுவுடன் ஒப்பிடுகையில் கடந்த சில ஆண்டுக் காலமாக கணிசமானளவு அதிகரித்துள்ளது. பெண் ஊழியப்படைக்கான பங்களிப்பில் ஏற்படும் அதிகரிப்பானது உயர் தகைமைத் தொழிலாளர் குழுவில் அனேக வேலைநிறுத்தப் போராட்டங்களுக்கு வழிவகுப்பதாகவுள்ளது. இதனால் பெண் தொழிலாளர்களின் கல்வி மட்ட அதிகரிப்புடன் இது பொருந்துகிறது.

பெண்கள் ஊழியப்படையினை அணுகுவதற்கான வாய்ப்பானது அனைத்து செலவினக் குழுக்கள் தொடர்பிலும் காலத்தால் வீழ்ச்சியடைந்துள்ளதை வாய்ப்புக்கான வளைவுகள் சுட்டிக்காட்டுகின்றன. வாய்ப்புக் குறித்தான வீழ்ச்சியானது அனைத்து செலவினக் குழுக்களிலும் பெண்கள் தொடர்பில் பொதுவான விடயமாகவுள்ள போதிலும், குறைந்த செலவினக் குழுக்களிலுள்ள பெண்கள் தொடர்பில் இது மிகவும் குறிப்பிடத்தக்க விடயமாகும். மிகவும் எல்லையோர அதிகரிப்பைக் கொண்ட 3ஆம் செலவினக் குழுவிலுள்ள ஆண்களைத் தவிர, பெண்களுக்கான மேற்படி நிலைமையை ஒத்ததாகவே, ஊழியப் படையை அணுகுவதற்கான அனைத்துக் குழுக்களிலுமான ஆண்களுக்கான வாய்ப்புக்களிலும் ஒரு வீழ்ச்சியை அவதானிக்க முடிந்தது. வாய்ப்புச் சுட்டியும் (மக்களுக்கான கிடைக்கத்தகு சராசரி வாய்ப்புகள்) வாய்ப்பின் சமவுடமைச் சுட்டியும் (வாய்ப்புகள் எவ்வாறு மக்கள் மத்தியில் பங்கிடப்படுகின்றன அல்லது வழங்கப்படுகின்றன) பாலின வேறுபாடின்றி கருதப்பட்ட காலத்தில் சீர்குலைந்த போக்கை காட்டியுள்ளதோடு, ஊழியப்படையை அணுகுவதற்கான வாய்ப்பானது ஆண்களை விட பெண்களுக்கு குறைவாகவுள்ளது.

ஊழியச் சந்தையில் பாலினச் சமத்துவமின்மையின் காரணமாக, பெண்கள் குறைந்த பொறுப்பைக் கொண்ட "அதிகம் பேசப்பட்டவர்கள்" எனும் எல்லையோர தொழில்வாய்ப்பினை மற்றும்/ அல்லது முன்னேற்றத்திற்கான சிறியளவிலாதொரு வாய்ப்பினைக் கொண்ட குறைந்த ஊதிய அல்லது பகுதி நேர தொழிலைக் கொண்டிருக்க வழியமைத்தது. பெண்கள் தமது கர்ப்பகாலத்தில் பாதகமான விளைவினை எதிர்நோக்கக் கூடுமென்பதோடு, தமது குடும்ப பொறுப்புக்களையும் (இன விருத்தி சார் பொறுப்புகள்) அவர்கள் சமாளிக்கும் நோக்கில் தொழிலிலிருந்து அனேக விடுமுறைகளையும் பெறவேண்டியதன் காரணமாக அவர்களது தொழில் தொடர்பான பாதுகாப்பும் பாதிக்கப்படலாம். தொழில் புரியும் இடங்களில் பெண்களுக்கான பாலியல் துன்புறுத்தல்களும் கூட ஊழியச் சந்தையிலுள்ள பாலினம் அடிப்படையிலான பாகுபாடின் ஒரு வடிவமாகவுள்ளது. பெண்கள் ஊழியப் படையில் நுழைய வேண்டுமாயின், அவர்கள் இனவிருத்தி/ சமூக இனவிருத்திச் செயற்பாடுகள் மற்றும் தனிப்பட்ட ஓய்வுநேர நடவடிக்கைகள் போன்றவற்றிலிருந்தான உபயோகங்களை விட்டுக்கொடுக்க வேண்டியுள்ளது. 'ஓய்வுநேரம்' என்பது பெண்களுக்கான இரண்டு அம்சங்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது, அவையாவன இனவிருத்தி/ சமூக இனவிருத்திச் செயற்பாடுகள் மற்றும் தனிப்பட்ட ஓய்வுநேர நடவடிக்கைகள் ஆகியனவாகும். நிகர உண்மை வருமானம் விட்டுக்கொடுத்த ஓய்வுநேர (இனவிருத்தி/ சமூக இனவிருத்திச் செயற்பாடுகள் மற்றும் தனிப்பட்ட ஓய்வுநேர நடவடிக்கைகள்) விளைவை எதிர்கொள்வதற்கு போதாத பட்சத்தில், பெண்கள் வேலையின்றி இருப்பதை தெரிவுசெய்ய முடியும். வேலைவாய்ப்பிற்கு ஆட்சேர்க்கும் செயன்முறையில் பெண்கள் அடிக்கடி பாகுபாடு காட்டப்படுகின்றனர். தொழில் வழங்குநரின் பார்வையில் பெண்களை வேலைக்கமர்த்துவதனால் மகப்பேறு, குழந்தை பராமரிப்பு போன்றவற்றால் வியாபார நிறுவனங்களுக்கு செலவு மிக்கதாகவிருப்பதும் மற்றும் பெண்களின் புரிந்துகொள்ளும் பண்புகள் போன்றனவுமே இதற்குப் பிரதான காரணமாகவுள்ளன. பெண்கள் ஊழியச் சந்தையில் காலடி வைத்ததும், அதில் அவர்கள் எதிர்கொள்ளக்கூடிய பாகுபாட்டைக் காட்டும் வகையிலான உறுதியற்ற தொழில் வலையமைப்பும் பெண்கள் முகங்கொடுக்கின்ற மற்றுமொரு பிரச்சினையாகவுள்ளது. தொழில் - குடும்ப சமநிலையினை முகாமை செய்தல், மறைவான பிரச்சினைகள், தொழில் புரியுமிடத்தல் பாலியல் துன்புறுத்தல்கள், தொழில் ரீதியான வேறுபாடு மற்றும் பாலின ஊதிய வேறுபாடு போன்றன பெண் தொழிலாளர்கள் எதிர்கொள்ளத்தக்க சில கடுமையான அக்கறைமிகு விடயங்களாகவுள்ளன.

பெண்களுக்கான ஊழியச் சந்தை தொடர்பான செயற்பாடுகள், குறிப்பாக அவர்களுக்கான சவாலாக விளங்குகின்ற குடும்பப் பொறுப்புகள் மற்றும் குழந்தை பராமரிப்பு போன்ற பொருளாதாரம் சாராத காரணிகளிலேயே பெரும்பாலும் தங்கியிருப்பதனால், இத்தகைய விடயங்கள் குறித்தான மைய அவதானத்தைக் கொண்ட கொள்கை சார் நடவடிக்கைகள் தொழில் புரியும் தாய்மார்கள் எதிர்கொள்ளும் பதட்டத்தை குறைப்பதிலும் மற்றும் ஊழியப்படையில் பெண்களை அதிகம் கவர்வதிலும் பெருமளவு உதவக்கூடும்.

WRC ஐக் குறைக்கும் நோக்கில் நிறுவன மட்டத்தில் மற்றும்/ அல்லது தேசிய மட்டத்தில் குழந்தைபராமரிப்புக்கான கொடுப்பனவொன்றை வழங்குதல் அல்லது பகல் பராமரிப்பினை அல்லது குழந்தை காப்பக வசதிகளை தொழிலாளர்களுக்கு வழங்குதல் மற்றும் தனி நபர்கள் மீதான வரிச் சுமையினைக் குறைத்தல் ஆகியன இது தொடர்பில் மேற்கொள்ளப்படத்தக்க சில கொள்கை சார் நடவடிக்கைகளாகும். ஊழியச் சந்தையில் பெண்கள் மீள-நுழைவதற்குப் பொருத்தமான வழிமுறைகளை வழங்கி அவர்கள் ஊழியப் படையினுள் மீள-நுழைவதற்கு ஊக்குவிக்கப்படல் வேண்டும். இது கிடைக்கத்தகு ஊழிய பயன்பாட்டினை அறிந்துகொள்வதற்கும் மற்றும் வீணாக்கப்படுகின்ற கல்வி மற்றும் பயிற்சியளிப்பு தொடர்பிலான முதலீடுகளைத் தவிர்ப்பதற்கும் வழிவகுக்கக்கூடும். மேலும், வறிய மக்களை இலக்குப்படுத்தியதாக அனேக தொழில் வாய்ப்புக்களை உருவாக்குவதற்கான நடவடிக்கைகள் மேற்கொள்ளப்படுதல் வேண்டுமென்பதோடு, அத்தகைய தொழில் வாய்ப்புகள் கூடியவரை சமத்துவ அடிப்படையில் இடம்பெறுவதை உறுதிப்படுத்தவும் வேண்டியுள்ளது. பெண்களுக்கான தொழில்களை 'நெகிழ்வு-நேர தொழில்', 'வீட்டிலிருந்துகொண்டு தொழில் புரிதல்', 'பகுநேர தொழில்' போன்ற விருப்பத்தெரிவுகளின் அடிப்படையில் அவர்களை ஊக்குவிப்பதன் மூலம் ஊழியப் படையில் பெண்களின் பங்களிப்பை பெருமளவு இணைத்துக்கொள்வதற்கு வழிவகுக்கக்கூடும். மாற்று முறையில் சிறுவர் பராமரிப்பு மற்றும் முதியோர் பராமரிப்பு போன்றவற்றுக்கான விருப்பத்தெரிவுகள் இடம்பெறச் செய்ய வேண்டிய அதேவேளை, இத்தகைய மாற்று முறைகள் ஒழுங்கமைக்கப்பட்டு கண்காணிக்கப்படுதல் வருதல் வேண்டும்.

1. Introduction

'Inclusive Growth' has become a widely used term in the recent past especially among the global organizations, donor agencies, academics and policy makers. Growth is inclusive when it allows all members of a society to participate in, and contribute to, the growth process on an equal basis regardless of their individual circumstances. In other words, to achieve an inclusive growth, an economy should get the contribution of all its members to the process of economic growth regardless of the differential socio-economic characteristics of the individuals.

Accordingly, we cannot think of an 'inclusive growth' by holding back half the nation. Women represent a half of the Sri Lankan population and they should be considered as a crucial partner in the process of inclusive growth of the country. The current government's development framework "*Mahinda Chintana – Vision for the Future*" also recognizes the importance of empowering women with the development.

However, most of the latest available data and indicators reveal that women's status in Sri Lanka is not as satisfactory as its achievements in other human development indicators. This is despite the fact that the indicators related to health and education for Sri Lanka are as good as countries with 'very high' and 'high' human development. Women's low engagement in labour market activities and limited political participation by women are the malefactors which bring the Sri Lankan women's status down and this study would focus on the first.

Ensuring gender equality, matters in many ways to the development process of a country. Gender equality matters in its own right and has been recognized as 'smart economics' (The World Bank, 2011). Experiences from various countries confirm that gender equality enhances economic efficiency, and improves other development outcomes. For example, it has been estimated that raising female employment levels to that of male levels could increase the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 5 per cent in the US, 9 per cent in Japan, 12 per cent in the UAE, and 34 per cent in Egypt and a slight increase in the opportunities available to women would lead to significant economic and social benefits (Aguirre, Hoteit, & Rupp, 2012). Participating in formal regular waged work has the greatest transformative potential although paid work outside the domestic domain can also have positive impacts on women's lives (Kabeer, 2012). However, the available data for Sri Lanka indicates that out of the total 'economically inactive population'[1] of the country, 70.3 per cent are females, and out of the total 'economically active population' (i.e. labour force) females account for only 33.4 per cent (Department of Census and Statistics , 2013), implying that there is a large untapped reservoir of manpower that could be utilized for the development of the country, while empowering the individuals (i.e. females) and benefitting the entire society as a whole.

We cannot think of an 'inclusive growth' by holding back half the nation. Women represent a half of the Sri Lankan population and they should be considered as a crucial partner in the process of inclusive growth of the country.

[1] The "economically active population" is defined broadly as comprising of all persons above a specific age (10 years and above) of either gender who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services during a specified time (reference period). The "economically active population or the labour force" is usually recognized as the sum of "employed" and "unemployed" populations. (DCS 2013).

In this backdrop and given the importance of making women more participatory in the process of inclusive growth, it is of utmost importance to have a closer look at the issues and concerns related to females in Sri Lanka in participating labour market activities and to assess whether growth has improved access to the labour force for females over time.

Chapter one of this report gives the introduction to the report and it sets the background for the research topic by providing a brief overview of and introduction to the study topic. Objectives and the study methodology are discussed in the second Chapter, followed by Chapter three which provides the literature review. Trends and patterns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka are discussed in Chapter four. Assessment of access to employment and equity in labour force opportunities are presented in the Chapter five. Chapter six addresses the issues and concerns for females in getting in and staying in the labour force. Chapter seven gives the conclusions and policy implications stemming from the study.

2. Objectives and Methodology

General Objective:

The general objective of this paper is to study the trends, issues and concerns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka in order for the growth of the country to be inclusive.

Specific Objective:

1. To identify trends and patterns of female labour force participation
2. To assess whether growth has improved the opportunities to access the labour force for females across different income groups over time.

Methodology

Initially a literature review was carried out to understand the main concepts on which this study is based on (i.e. inclusive growth, female labour force participation). Journal articles, books, research reports, other reports by authorized agencies and certain web based publications on the subject matter were reviewed for the literature review. Manual search as well as online search was used as searching methodology for the literature.

Published data mainly by DCS were used in identifying the trends and patterns of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka and descriptive statistics are presented in graphical and tabular formats.

The method adopted by Ali and Son (2007) in their paper 'Measuring Inclusive Growth' is followed to assess whether growth has improved females' access to labour force over time. Opportunity curves were constructed and Opportunity Index (OI) and Equity Index of Opportunity (EIO) were calculated using HIES data for 2006/07 and 2009/10 by DCS. Methodology is summarized in Table 2-1 below.

Table 2.1
Methodology

Objective	Methodology
To identify trends and patterns of female labour force participation	• Literature Review • Labour Force Survey (LFS) data by the Department of Census and Statistics (DCS)
To identify issues and concerns of females in entering and staying in the labour force	• Literature review
To assess whether growth has improved access to labour force for females over time.	• Analysis of Household Income and Expenditure Survey data. Following (Ali & Son, 2007) the study constructs opportunity curves for the population for the periods of 2006/07 and 2009/10 using Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) by DCS to assess equity-impacts of access to labour force for females.

3. Review of Literature

3.1 Inclusive Growth and Gender Dimension of Inclusive Growth

Inclusive growth refers to "creating economic opportunities through sustainable growth and making the opportunities available to all including the poor" (Ali, 2007, p. 1). Hence, growth is inclusive when it allows all members of a society to participate in, and contribute to, the growth process on an equal basis regardless of their individual circumstances (Ali & Zhuang, 2007). The usage of the term 'inclusive' in the characterization of growth episodes can be traced back at least to the turn of the century, when Kakwani and Pernia (2000) as cited in (Rafael & Ramos, 2013) employed it to highlight the nature of what they considered to constitute pro-poor growth. Defining pro-poor growth as "one that enables the poor to actively participate in and significantly benefit from economic activity" (Kakwani and Pernia, 2000: 3), the reference to it as "inclusive economic growth" (Kakwani and Pernia, 2000: 3) intended to stress the particular attributes that make pro-poor growth distinct. Yet, inclusive growth "remains an intuitively straightforward and yet elusive concept" (Rafael & Ramos, 2013). However, a few core features of the 'inclusive growth' concept can be summarized as follows (i) inclusive growth is intimately related to pro-poor growth, particularly with its relative conceptualization that requires that both poverty and inequality be reduced for growth to be pro-poor, (ii) inclusive growth is growth that reduces the disadvantages of the most disadvantaged while benefitting everyone; (iii) inclusive growth can be thought of as entailing the expansion of opportunities for participation, which can include both engagement in productive economic activities and having a say on the orientation of the growth process; and (iv) inclusive growth has been thought of as growth that promotes development, with development understood as comprehensive improvements in multiple dimensions contemplating both living conditions and empowerment (Ranieri & Ramos, 2013).

Given that the inclusion of all segments of the society in the process of development is a fundamental condition for inclusive growth, there is no question about partnering females who count for half of the population into the process of development. Inclusive growth, as defined by IDRC, is growth which ensures opportunities for all sections of the population, with a special emphasis on the poor, particularly women and young people, who are most likely to be, marginalized, (Kabeer, 2012, p. 4). There is fairly strong empirical support for the positive relationship between the gender equality and economic growth (Kabeer, 2012). The relationship is most consistent with regard to education and employment. Gender equality matters in its own right and has been recognized as 'smart economics' (The World Bank, 2011). Gender equality enhances economic efficiency, and improves other development outcomes. This can be mainly achieved in three ways:

Given that the inclusion of all segments of the society in the process of development is a fundamental condition for inclusive growth, there is no question about partnering females who count for half of the population into the process of development.

firstly, greater productivity gains by removing barriers that prevent women from having the same access as men to education, economic opportunities, and productive inputs; secondly, through improved development outcomes for women and for their next generations by enhancing women's absolute and relative status; and thirdly, by empowering women as economic, political, and social actors through the creation of

more opportunities for representation in decision making (The World Bank, 2011). Empirical evidence suggest that women's access to employment and education opportunities and access to resources would reduce the likelihood of household poverty as well as have a range of positive outcomes for human capital and capabilities with in the household (Kabeer, 2012).

According to Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), women's economic empowerment[2] is a prerequisite for sustainable development and pro-poor growth (The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), 2012). "Women's economic empowerment [2]is a prerequisite for sustainable development and pro-poor growth.

Women must have more equitable access to assets and services; infrastructure programmes should be designed to benefit the poor, both men and women, and employment opportunities must be improved while increasing recognition of women's vast unpaid work" (The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), 2012, p. 1).

Table 3.1
Selected Indicators for Economic Growth, Employment and Gender Equality and Opportunity

Country/ Region/ Income Category	Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita at PPP[a] (constant 2011 PPP$)		Employment-to-Population Ratio (Population aged 15 years and over) 2012		Gender in Education[b] 2012			Antenatal Care Coverage at Least One Visit (per cent of live births)	Gender Parity in Labour force Participation, Aged 15 years and over[c]		Percentage of Seats held Women in National Parliament
	2002-2007	2007 2012	Female	Male	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Latest Available	2000	2012	2014
Singapore	5.4	2.3	55.3	73.5	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	100.0 (2006)	0.67	0.76	25.3
Malaysia	3.9	2.8	48.0	78.1	0.94 (2005)	0.97 (2011)	1.20 (2011)	97.4 (2011)	0.55	0.59	10.4
Republic of Korea	4.5	3.0	48.4	70.8	0.99	0.99	0.75	N.A.	0.67	0.69	15.7
China	10.6	9.5	N.A.	N.A.	1.00	1.02	1.13	93.7 (2011)	0.85	0.82	23.4
Thailand	4.8	3.2	63.5	79.8	0.95 (2013)	1.06	1.34 (2013)	98.1 (2012)	0.81	0.80	15.8
Philippines	3.3	3.2	46.7	72.8	0.98 (2009)	1.08 (2009)	1.24 (2009)	91.1 (2008)	0.60	0.64	27.3
Indonesia	3.8	4.6	46.7 (2009)	77.4 (2009)	1.00	1.03	1.03	95.7 (2012)	0.59	0.61	18.6
Maldives	6.8	3.6	40.3	69.5	0.97 (2009)	1.13 (2004)	1.13 (2008)	99.1 (2009)	0.53	0.73	6.8
India	6.4	5.9	26.1	76.1	1.02 (2011)	0.94 (2011	0.78 (2011)	74.2 (2006)	0.41	0.36	11.4
Pakistan											
Bangladesh	4.4	5.1	27.1	83.9	1.06 (2011)	1.14	0.69 (2011)	54.6 (2011)	0.63	0.68	19.8
Nepal	1.6	3.3	93.0 (2003)	90.0 (2003)	1.08 (2013)	1.05 (2013)	0.64 (2011)	58.3 (2011)	0.90	0.92	29.9
Bhutan	6.5	7.0	61.8	64.4	1.02	1.06	0.69	97.3 (2010)	0.67	0.86	8.5
Sri Lanka	4.9	6.1	30.9	72.8	1.00	1.06	1.66	99.4 (2007)	0.49	0.46	5.8

Note: a: Purchasing Power Parity.
b: Measured as the ratio of females gross enrolment ratio to male gross enrolment ratio.
c: Gender parity is measured as the ratio of female labour force participation rate to male labour force participation rate.

Source: (Asain Development Bank, 2014).

[2] Economic empowerment is the capacity of women and men to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes in ways which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth ' (Eyben et al., 2008 as cited in (The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), 2012).

3.2 Gender Gap and Development in Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka has managed to have a continuous improvement in economic as well as social indicators despite the 30 year prolonged conflict that prevailed in the country. However, some of the indicators related to gender equality have failed to march forward along with the others. This failure is prominently visible in two fronts; women's participation in labour market and politics. Further, Sri Lanka's performance in these areas is low compared with other countries in the region (Table 3-1)

3.3 Female Labour Force Participation

The major cause of increased participation of married women during the twentieth century appears to be their increased earning power as Western economies developed, including the rapid expansion of the service sector (Becker, 1991). The growth in the earning power of married women raised the forgone value of their time spent in child care and other household activities, which in turn reduced the demand for children and encouraged substitution away from parental, especially mothers' time. Both of these changes raised labour force participation of married women.

Female labour force participation is not purely determined by economic factors as in the case of males (Malhotra & DeGraff, 1997); (Psacharopoulos & Tzannatos, 1989) and (Lawanson, 2008). It appears that non-economic factors play an influencing role in determining labour market activities of females than of males as labour force participation for women depends much more on the social context than it does for men. The social context would dictate that women are expected to play many roles in their day to day lives.

Social Structure and Social Environment

Female labour force participation depends much more on the social environment than it does in the case of men. Factors that appear to have no effect on male participation in the labour force do affect the level and trend of female employment (i.e. factors such as size and structure of the economy, education, fertility, religion and other demographic and socio-political factors). Other than the standard economic variables such as education, experience, wages and income many non-economic variables like marital status and fertility influence the female labour supply function. Women's participation during the age of bearing and rearing children should be lower than that of women outside this age and, this has been the broad pattern of age-specific female participation rates in Western Economies (Psacharopoulos & Tzannatos, 1989). Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos further conclude regarding female labour force participation that; female employment is more dependent on the country's non-economic characteristics than male employment, the relationship between female participation and education stands out as a significant determinant and to the extent thatwomen are not allowed to

Sri Lanka has managed to have a continuous improvement in economic as well as social indicators despite the 30 year prolonged conflict that prevailed in the country. However, some of the indicators related to gender equality have failed to march forward along with the others. This failure is prominently visible in two fronts; women's participation in labour market and politics.

compete with men, women's abilities', half the country's intelligence, is being under-utilized.

The relevance of familial and cultural contexts for women's employment behaviour has been studied (Malhotra & DeGraff, 1997), using a combination of quantitative and semi-qualitative methodologies to assess the importance of individual marketability, cultural acceptability and family resources and expectations in determining young women's labour force behaviour. The results emphasized the importance of differentiating between labour force entry and job acquisition when modelling labour force behaviour of women in developing countries. Further findings indicated that family and gender roles are fundamental to women's labour market entry and success, and thus, it is vital to consider factors reflecting familial expectations and social norms, in addition to individual abilities and preferences.

Female labour force participation is positively related to economic development and divorce rate and negatively related to fertility and income inequality (Semyonov, 1980). By analyzing economic development, familial composition, and the shape of the stratification system[3], Semyonov concluded that stratification has the most significant effect on women's labour force participation and the shape of the stratification system has consequences for the incorporation of females into the labour force. Further, Semyonov argued that women's labour force participation should be considered a characteristic of the social structure in its own right. Occupational discrimination against females is determined by the proportion of women in the labour force. The smaller the number of women, the better their relative odds of joining high-status well paid occupations. This is an alternative approach to theories of economic discrimination such as the "crowding hypothesis"[4]. According to Semyonov, discrimination is determined by the social structural variables and specifically, the shape of the stratification system influences the integration of women into the labour market, and this integration results in occupational discrimination.

(Cunningham, 2001) used on whether sex was a primary determinant of labour participation. Using panel data from the Mexican economy she examined the patterns of labour force entry among adult men and women who had different household responsibilities and found that labour supply patterns were driven more by household role than by gender, where heads of households, regardless of sex, tended to behave similarly. Household structure influenced the entry of wives to the labour force, but not that of single mothers. Wives with young children were less likely to enter the labour force, and when they did, they tended to go for more flexible informal sector jobs that

Female labour force participation depends much more on the social environment than it does in the case of men. Factors that appear to have no effect on male participation in the labour force do affect the level and trend of female employment (i.e. factors such as size and structure of the economy, education, fertility, religion and other demographic and socio-political factors).

[3] Two types of stratification systems had been considered here; gaps or glissandos. The gap system is characterized by "discrete classes having fairly uniform economic rewards available within each, but substantial economic differences between them". The glissando system characterizes societies where "social graduations from the top to the bottom are small and numerous, each one being nearly indistinguishable, yet, when taken together, covering a substantial distance" (Semyonov, 1980) .

[4] These economic theories argue that the marginal productivity of a subordinate group is lowered by the enforced abundance of labour in a certain occupation because employers are reluctant to hire the group (women or blacks) for other occupations. (Semyonov 1980).

allowed them to combine homecare and paid work. On the other hand, single mothers did not adjust either labour force entry or sector of entry to the presence of young children. This finding suggests that economic survival and income maximization are the major motivations for single mothers. Further, this study revealed that wives' choice of sector during downturns is subject to the households' earning needs and that single mothers do not select the informal sector over the formal sector in response to either expected or realized negative income shocks.

Marriage and Children

Differences in earnings in the labour market and the marital status of women are directly related (Becker, 1991). Becker argued that the responsibility of married women for child care and other housework has major implications for earnings and occupational differences between men and women. Earnings of women are adversely affected by household responsibilities even when they want to participate in the labour force as many hours as men, because they become tired, must stay home to tend to sick children or other emergencies, and are less able to work odd hours or take jobs requiring much travel.

Child birth is a critical milestone of a woman's life that affects many aspects of her life including the decision of labour force participation. The continuing decision of being employed or not by the mothers of infant and young children involves diverse ways of negotiating (Hynes & Clarkberg, 2005). Hynes and Clarkberg analyzed women's employment trajectories in the period surrounding both first and second births by using the group-based trajectory method in the USA. Their results suggested that there are six typical employment trajectories around the birth of a child. Consistent with the models employed in traditional studies of employment, they found a substantial group of women who leave employment before or at the birth of a child, and groups who remain stably employed or stably out of the labour force. In addition, they found that other employment trajectories across the transition to motherhood include patterns marked by both decrease and increases in employment. Hynes and Clarkberg have put forward two important implications for research and theory based on the wide variety of employment patterns existing during early parenthood. Firstly, although research has shown that cumulative employment experience influences long-term wages and occupational attainment and suggests that even one break in employment can have negative consequences on women's wages; it seems improbable that all employment breaks at any point in the life course result in equivalent costs. Hence Hynes and Clarkberg suggest that employment trajectories might be fruitfully used in the study of women's earnings and occupational attainment. And secondly, research on women's employment has focused more on transitions out of the labour force than on transitions into the labour force, and women moving into the labour force differ in important ways from those moving out. Both these issues are of importance in the Sri Lankan context.

Labour force participation by women in child bearing age in the USA has been analyzed by examining the interaction of three types of concerns; the employment concerns, health concerns for the woman and her child, and the woman's economic concerns (Queneau & Marmo, 2001), and found that a tension exists between these three concerns, stemming from their divergent impacts on labour supply and income generation. The study comes up with two important policy recommendations; all women should be provided paid pregnancy and maternity leave for 12 weeks, and such leave should be financed through joint employer-employee contributions and paid leave should not be mandatory but rather at the discretion of the woman and her family.

State Policy and Economic Development

State's philosophical orientation toward family policy and macro level economic conditions are of overriding importance in determining female labour force participation (Brewster & Rindfuss, 2001). According to Brewster and Rindfuss, individuals may be less willing to bear children when the economy is uncertain, even where family policies and childcare availability reduce the work-family conflict and encourage gender equity. The effects of institutional factors on rates of labour force participation and fertility are

manifested through their influence on individual behaviour. However, due to this confounding it is difficult to assess adequately the effects of structural factors, such as family benefits, without specifying the mechanisms by which these variables influence individual behaviours. These influences depend on social, economic, and institutional forces.

Callan, Soest, and Walsh (2007) analyzed the effect of tax cuts on labour force participation by married women (Table 3-2) and the relationship between child benefits and labour force participation by married women. In both cases, positive relationships could be observed (Callan, Soest, & Walsh, 2007). Provision of an allowance to working mothers in order to cover child care costs (for example Child Care Benefit (CCB) payment in Australia and Universal Child Care Benefit (UCCB) in Canada) would be beneficial to employees as well as to the economy as a whole, as it would bring down the WRC of working mothers and thus encourage them to remain in employment (Madurawala, 2009).

Though there are economic and non-economic barriers to women being employed particularly after child birth, their contribution towards the economic development of a country is of vital importance, particularly in countries facing demographic transition. There is a strong relationship between the economic development and women's participation in the labour force (Mammen & Paxon, 2000). Women's participation in the labour force first declines and then rises with development; women move from work in family enterprises to work as employees as national income rises; fertility declines with income; and gender gaps in education narrow with development. Further, women's education levels and the education levels of their spouses, appear to be important determinants of women's labour market activities. Though women constitute around half of a country's population in most countries, they contribute much less than men towards value recorded production both quantitatively in labour force participation and qualitatively in educational achievement and skilled manpower (Lawanson, 2008). The double burden of reproductive and socially reproductive activities is unrecorded and unvalued though of significant welfare importance, and these roles in turn limit women's contribution to recorded productive activities, partly since even those females seeking employment do so in the informal sector. Gunatilake (2013) based on the Household Income and Expenditure Survey and Labour Force Survey data in Sri Lanka has identified the drivers and constraints of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka (Table 3-3).

In contrast to many theories and arguments on female employment, Hakim (1995) discussed five 'myths' about women's employment: firstly, the myth of rising female employment; secondly, the myth of no sex differential in work commitment and work orientations; thirdly, the myth of childcare problems as the main barrier to women's employment; fourthly, the myth of exploited part-time workers and finally, the myth of employment stability among women and part-time workers (Hakim, 1995). Discussing the 'myth of childcare problems as the main barrier to women's employment', Hakim concluded that the argument by the dominant feminists that part-time

Table 3.2
Response of the Labour Force Participation Rate to Selected Tax Cuts

Tax Cut Option	Husbands' Participation Rate	Wifes' Participation Rate
Standard rate cut by 2.8 percentage points	+0.5	+0.6
Top rate cut by 6.3 percentage point	+0.1	+1.0
Standard rate band up by Ir£2400 from Ir£8200	+0.2	+1.1
Personal allowance increased by Ir£465 from Ir£2350	+0.5	+0.5

Note: All options had an Exchequer cost of about Ir£200m per annum, including the impact on single persons.

Source: Callan, et al. (2007).

Table 3.3
Drivers and Constraints

Status	Drivers	Constraints
Married women	Age; educational attainment from GCE Advanced Level and beyond; higher per capita household consumption; availability of domestic help; a higher share of employed females relative to males with the same educational attainment as the individual in the district; living in estates and having children later rather than earlier	Remittances from abroad, Islamic Moor ethno-religious identity and disability; education up to Ordinary Level; having children below 5 years; the employment and education characteristics of male household members and male head of household; more people employed in manufacturing and services, relative to agriculture in district; residence in Central, Eastern and North Western Province.
Single women	Age; all levels of education above primary level; the presence of other adult women in the household; a higher share of employed females in the district, relative to males in the same education category as the individual; and living in estate	Relatively higher status of household consumption; greater rate of unemployment
Female heads of household	Age; a university education, a large informal sector in the district, and whether living in estates.	Remittances from abroad earning; having children below 5 years; more people employed in manufacturing and services, relative to agriculture in district; residing all provinces outside Western Province

Source: (Gunatilaka, 2013).

work is an unwilling 'choice' forced on women by the need to cope with children's responsibilities, is an unpersuasive argument. She argued that it fails to take into account part-timers having the highest levels of job satisfaction despite being restricted to the least attractive jobs, nor the fact that childcare problems do not prevent large numbers of mothers from working full-time, while others insist childcare must be a full-time activity. Hakim's study shows that women with dependent children have the highest rates of part-time work, and they are also very likely to be out of the work force. Further, Hakim concluded that women in Britain make 'freer' choices in that they are less constrained by fiscal, social security and national health service policies that shape or even dictate the labour market behaviour of women as in the USA, and that given the choice, a large proportion of women actively choose part-time jobs concentrated towards the bottom end of the occupational hierarchy.

The aptness of Hakim's reference Theory[5] was examined for the British labour market by providing an empirical examination of women's work histories following a first birth, their sex-role attitudes, and the relationship between attitudes and work history (McRae, 2003). Although support was found for Hakim's argument that employment was centrally important only for a minority of women, little evidence was adduced that it is preferences that distinguishes the minority from the majority. The central argument of Preference Theory, that women have genuine, unconstrained choices about how they wish to live their live was not supported by McRae's analysis of the UK. Instead, it was argued that a complete explanation of women's labour market choices after childbirth, and of the outcomes of those choices, depends as much on understanding the constraints that differentially affect women as it does on understanding their personal preferences.

[5] Hakim's Preference Theory argues that the main determinant of women's heterogeneous employment patterns and work histories is heterogeneity in their preferences for differing combinations of family work and paid employment.

Female Labour Force Participation and Fertility Rate

A decline in population growth associated with a decrease in fertility can produce economic growth. However, if slow rates of population growth are due to ill health and high mortality, positive growth effects do not yield (Bloom, Canning, Fink, & Finlay, 2007). A decline in fertility reduces population growth, and increases the capital-labour ratio At the same time, the shift in fertility increases the ratio of working–age population; compounding this is the positive behavioural response of female labour force participation, which further increases labour supply per capita. Thus, the effects of fertility reduction on income levels can be large – significantly more than steady-state level of output per capita. In Sri Lanka, Total Fertility Rate (TFR)[6] as well as the age-specific fertility rates in all ages has recorded a steady decline over the last twenty five years (Department of Health Services, Sri Lanka, (2008). TFR has declined from 5 in 1963 to 2.3 in 2006/07. The improvement of the social status of women due to exposure to prolonged education, increased participation in the labour force and employment is the major contributory factor to this steady decline in the fertility (Amarabandu, 2000). However, another study by Weerasinghe and Parr (2002) found that in the case of Sri Lanka, marital fertility has decreased mainly due to the increase in accumulated household wealth indicating that over time, rising levels of wealth would reduce maternal fertility in Sri Lanka (Weerasinghe & Parr, 2002).

The fertility-reducing effect of higher wealth may be explained in terms of a greater preference of wealthier people for a higher quality as opposed to a higher quantity of children, the rising opportunity costs of parental time, and the reduced reliance on children for support in old age by wealthier parents (Weerasinghe & Parr, 2002). In the case of Sri Lanka, a negative relationship can be observed between TFR and female labour force participation rates over the last few decades (Figure 3-1).

As explained by Bloom, et al. (2007), Sri Lanka should be able to reap the benefits of the demographic dividend[7] that it experiences presently due to the decline in fertility. “The decline in fertility reduces population growth, and increases the capital-labour ratio. At the same time, the shift in fertility increases the ratio of working-age to total population; compounding this is the positive behavioural response of female labour force participation, which further increases labour supply per capita” (Bloom, Canning, Fink, & Finlay, 2007, p. 24). This stress on ‘high quality children’ and the reduction in ‘child quantity’ (reducing the need for higher incomes to support families) has a bearing on women’s decision to work; this decision however, is crucial in the national context as reflected by the arguments of Bloom et al. (2007) in the context of the ‘demographic dividend’.

Effects of Mother’s Employment on her Children

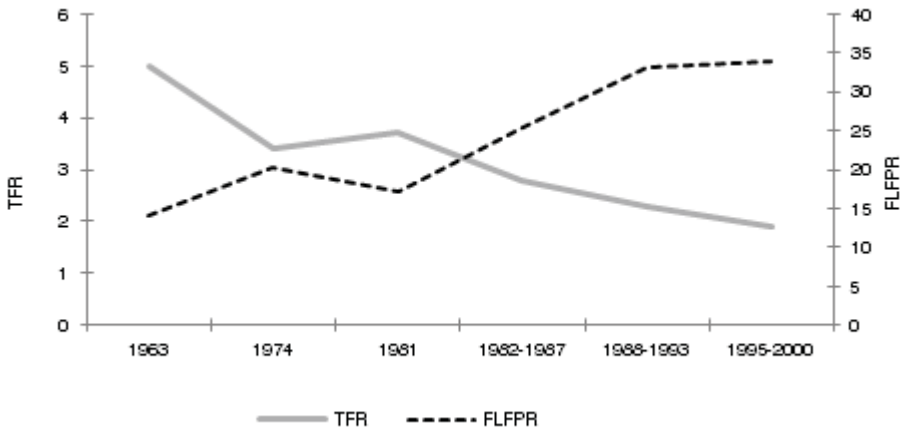
Studies done on mother’s employment and its effects on child’s cognitive development emphasize the importance of having the mother with the child in the first year of the child. Waldfogel, Han and Brooks-Gunn (2002) found persistent adverse effects of first-year maternal employment and some positive effects of second- and third-year maternal employment on cognitive outcomes (Waldfogel, Han, & Brooks-Gunn, 2002). Substantial associations between early returns to work and reductions in breastfeeding and immunisations, as well as increases in ‘externalising behaviour problems’ (Berger, Hill, & Waldfogel, 2005, p. F29). With this backdrop, provision of paid maternity leave plays an important role. If the mother can’t afford being out of the labour force, despite the adverse effects on child’s development, mother is compelled to continue her work with stress.

It should be noted that literature based on analytical work on female labour force participation in the Sri Lankan context is limited. Gunaltilake (2013) also noted the limited availability of literature for Sri Lanka relevant to female labour force particaption. “There have been periodic surveys of the employment situation faced by Sri Lanka women in the past, for example, Rodrigo and Dareniyagla (1990) and Jayaweera (2011). But as far as we are aware, there is little published analytical work devoted to the issue of women labour force participation in Sri Lanka, with the exceptions of Malhotra and DeGraff 1997; Malhotra & DeGraff 2000; and Madurawala (2009)” (Gunatilaka, 2013, p. 3).

[6] Total Fertility Rate is the sum of the age-specific birth rates (5-year age groups between 10 and 49) for female residents of a specified geographic area (nation, state, country, etc.) during a specified time period (usually a calendar year) multiplied by 5.

[7] The demographic dividend is the rise in the rate of economic growth as a result of the rising share of working age people in the population. Thisusually occurs late in demographic transition when the fertility rate falls and the youth dependency rate declines.

Figure 3.1
Trends in Total Fertility Rate and Female Labour Force Participation Rate



Sources: Department of Health Services (2008;, Central Bank of Sri Lanka (1998) ; and Annual Force Surveys (various issues), Department of Census and Statistics.

4. Female Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka

4.1 Women for Development

Despite the fact that the economy of Sri Lanka has remained heavily dependent on females throughout the modern history (Lakshman, 1998), the latest available data indicates that out of the total 'economically inactive population'[8] of the country, 70.3 per cent are females, and out of the total 'economically active population' (i.e. labour force), females account for only 33.4 per cent (Department of Census and Statistics , 2013).

This implies that there is a large untapped reservoir of manpower that could be utilized for the development of the country, while empowering the individuals (i.e. females) and benefitting the entire society as a whole. Given the fact that Sri Lanka is looking to boost GDP growth and ensure that development outcomes are more equitable in the process, making all the possible avenues and resources more productive is of utmost importance. For higher growth, a productive labour force is critical, especially in view of the country's demographics. One major option to ensure adequate labour supply is getting more women to participate in majority of the population in Sri Lanka is female.

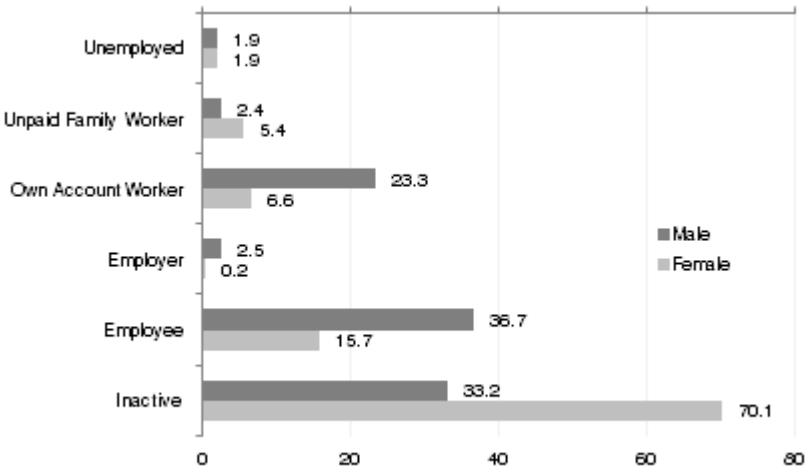
Indications from the Figure 4-1 make it quite clear that females are in a less favourable position in the labour market activities. Apart from the fact that the majority of the females of working age are 'economically inactive', and the majority of the economically inactive population is female, those females who are 'economically active' are also in a less favourable situation compared with their male counterparts. For instance, there is a lesser percentage of females in the categories of 'employee', 'own account worker', and 'employer'. The only category in which female representation is higher than male representation, is the category of 'unpaid family workers/ contributing family workers'. But then again, contributing family workers are those who make their contribution to

[8] The "economically active population" is defined broadly as comprising of all persons above a specific age (10 years and above) of either gender who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services during a specified time (reference period). The economically active population or the labour force is usually recognized as the sum of "employed" and "unemployed" populations. (DCS 2013).

the economic activities carried out by their own household, without wages/salaries (Department of Census and Statistics , 2013) and it is quite clear that the chances of becoming economically empowered are less for those who are in this category.

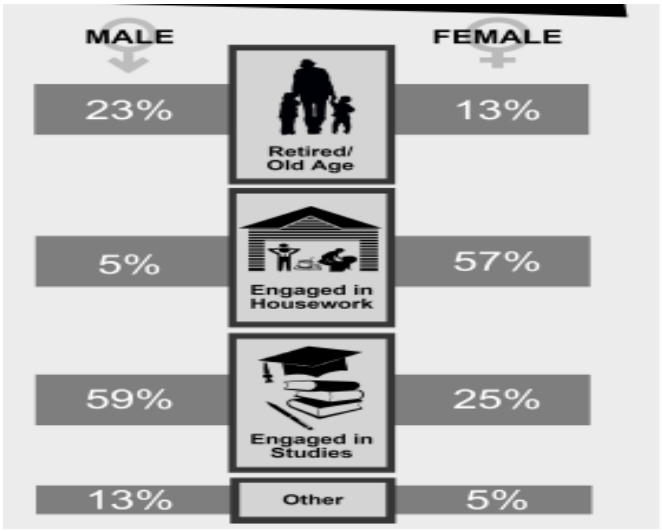
Further, the country has a greater potential in getting more females into the labour force as the majority (57 per cent) of the economically inactive females are economically inactive just because they are engaged in household work (Figure 4.2). Properly targeted and designed policy measures can easily transform these 'economically inactive' females into 'economically active' females thus benefitting the whole country in many ways.

Figure 4.1
Percentage Distribution of Working Age Population by Economic Position and Gender - 2012



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, 2013.

Figure 4.2
Reasons for being Economically Inactive - 2012



Source: Department of Census and Statistics , 2013.

Despite the fact that the economy of Sri Lanka has remained heavily dependent on females throughout the modern history (Lakshman, 1998), the latest available data indicates that out of the total 'economically inactive population' of the country, 70.3 per cent are females, and out of the total'economically active population' (i.e. labour force), females account for only 33.4 per cent (Department of Census and Statistics, 2013).

4.2 Trends in Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka

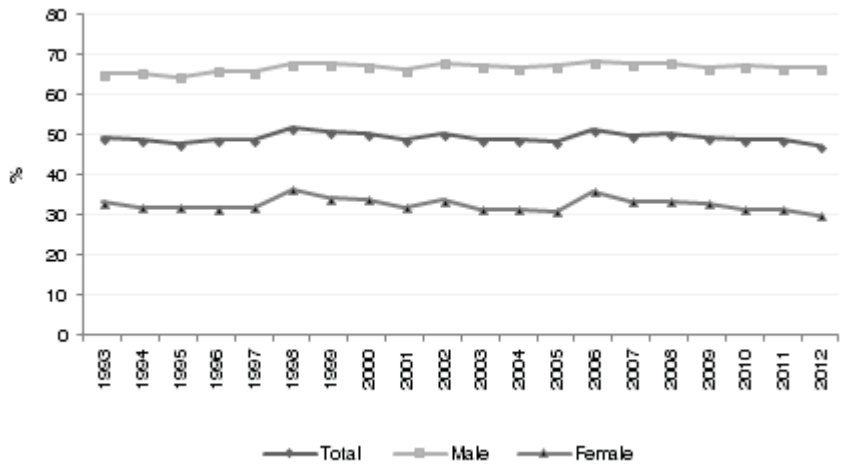
Almost from the very beginning, women have played an important role in the labour force in Sri Lanka (Gunatilaka, 1999). Much of the early expansion (until late 1970s) in female labour force participation was attributed to female labour supply factors of rising literacy and educational attainment (Kiribanda, 1981 as cited in (Gunawardena, 2006) as well as to the expansion of the services sector dominated by teaching, health care, clerical and finance related occupations which provided more and new types of employment considered acceptable to women (Kiribanda, 1997 cited in Gunewardena 2006).

With the introduction of policy liberalization in the latter part of the 1970s, female participation in the labour force increased significantly especially in manufacturing and service sectors and the degree of importance of women as members of the labour force has continued to remain high. Apart from the traditional areas of female dominance that persist new windows were opened up for females in new areas (e.g. export-oriented garment and other industries, foreign employments, tourism, information technology related services and banking and finance) (Lakshman, 1998). However, it is also noticed that though women played a vital role in the economy, they were getting only a raw deal (Lakshman, 1998).

When we observe the historical trend of female labour force participation, we could see that, from the latter years of the 1990s onwards, the FLFPR has stagnated in the range of 30 to 36 per cent (Figure 4-3). Two factors are attributed for this prolonged stagnation of female labour force participation in Sri Lanka (Gunatilaka, 2013). Firstly, finding employment has been difficult even for those women who want to work due to many reasons (job opportunities for women are limited to only a few sectors, whereas males have a wider range to choose from including the rapidly growing sectors such as construction, trade) and issues related to transport, social attitudes, personal safety, transport and housing. Secondly, the gender wage gap (on average, women are paid less than men, even when they share the same productive characteristics) in the labour market. This would discourage the women who seek an employment opportunity (Gunatilaka, 2013). With a male labour force participation rate of more than 65 per cent, female labour force participation in Sri Lanka lags significantly behind – a characteristic that appears to be persisting over time.

Currently, Sri Lanka is in the third phase of the demographic transition model[9] where the population moves towards stability through decline in the birth rate. In 1960, the crude death rate and crude birth rate stood at 8.6 and 36.6 per 1000 population and by 2008 both the indicators dropped up to 5.9 and 18.8, respectively (Department of Health Serivces , 2008). If this decreasing trend in the crude death rate and crude birth rate persist, the total

Figure 4. 3
Annual Labour Force Participation Rates 1993-2012



Source: Department of Census and Statistics of Sri Lanka, Labour Force Survey, Various Issues.

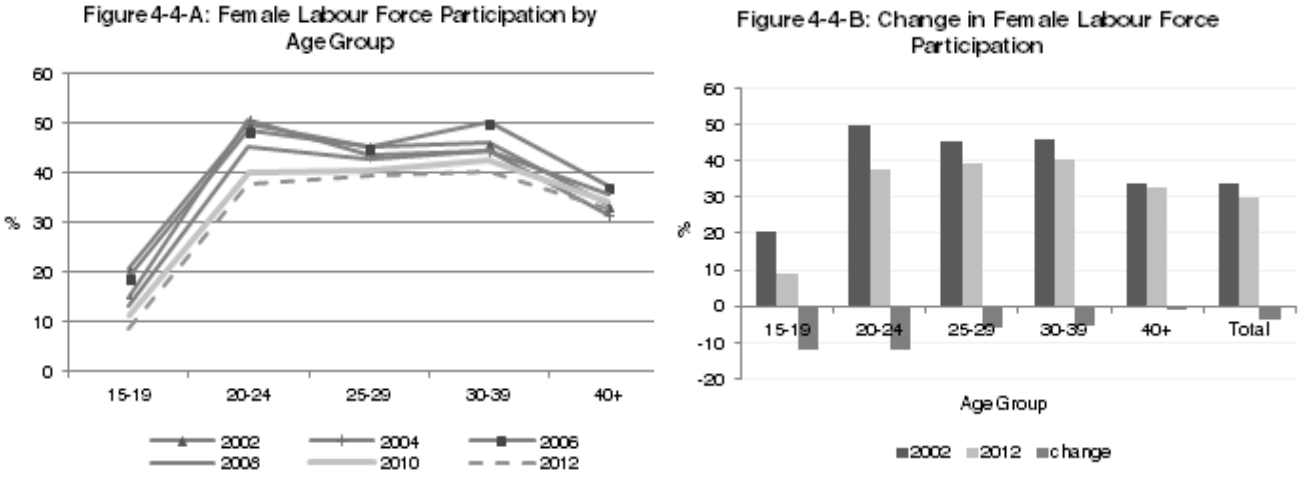
[9] The Demographic Transition Model is a model used to explain the process of shift from high birth rates and high death rates to low birth rates and low death rates as part of the economic development of a country that results from its switching from a pre-industrial to an industrial economy.

population as well as the Working Age Population (WAP)[10] will decline over time. Annual growth rate of the total population and the working age population would take a negative value after year 2031 (De Silva W. I., 2007) and this negative growth will continue thereafter. Currently, Sri Lanka is experiencing a declining trend in its WAP growth rate. Presently, Sri Lanka utilizes only 50 per cent of its WAP[11] (Figure 4-3) indicating that there is a huge pool of unutilized human resources. In the case of males, nearly 65 per cent of the male WAP are participating in the labour force. However, in the case of females, the labour force participation has stagnated around 30 percent for a considerable period of time. This may suggest that given the current socio-economic and institutional environment and growth levels in the economy that a point of saturation in female labour force participation has been reached. However, given the experiences of developed countries and the views postulated by the growth theories, policy interventions to stimulate female labour force participation may well be crucial in Sri Lanka now, particularly in the context of demographic transition.

While showing a declining trend in overall female labour force participation rate over the last ten years, the age specific labour force participation rates for females are also decreasing for all age categories (Figure 4.4.A and Figure 4.4.B). The change is more prominent for the age groups of (15-19) and (20-24).This is mainly because of more females staying out of the labour force for education for longer time periods (Figure 4-6). Further, data on female labour force participation imply that an M-shaped curve is emerging for Sri Lanka (similar to Japan and Korea) (Lee, Cho, Park, & Seung-yoon, 2013), with the age groups 20 to 24 and 30 to 39 being the two peaks. This implies that a majority of women in the age group of 25-29 quit their jobs due to their familial responsibilities (basically child caring) and re-enter the labour market when their children have grown up. Work related costs also tend to rise with marriage and children, thus affecting negatively the balance of benefits and costs for female employees forcing them to leave the labour force.

Out of the total employed women, a higher per cent fall into the category of 'contributing family worker,' where their labour is more or less unremunerated. In the case of males, however, it is a lesser per cent (Figure 4-5).

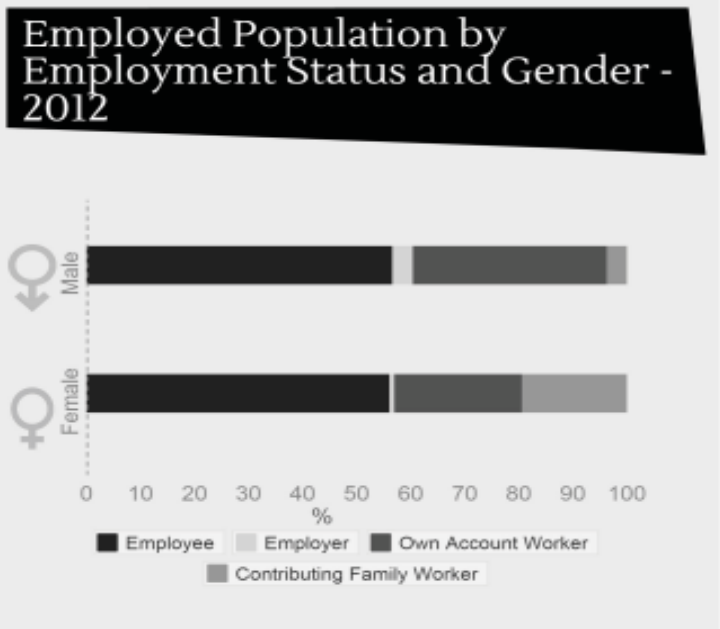
Figure 4.4
Labour Force Participation Rates by Age Groups



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey, Various Issues.

[10] Generally, all persons of age 15 years and over are considered to be in the working age.
[11] The labour force participation rate is defined by the Department of Census and Statistics as the persons in the labour force as a percentage of working-age population.

Figure 4.5
Employed Population by Employment Status and Gender - 2012



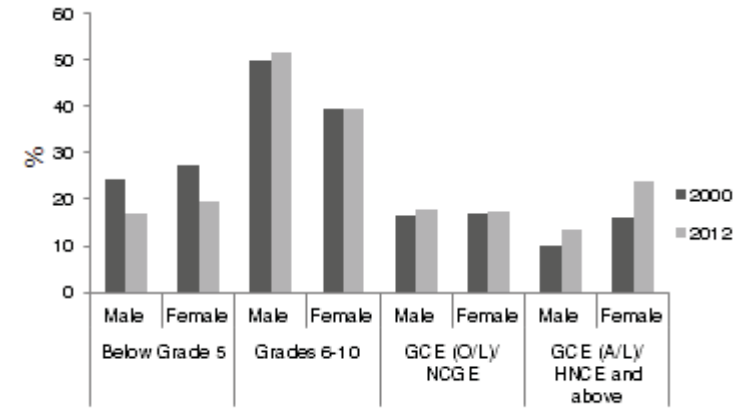
Source: DCS (2012), Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey Annual Report 2012.

The educational status of both male and female employees has increased during the last few years (see Figure 4-6). However, this is more prominent for female employees. In 2000, only 16.1 per cent of the female labour force was in the education category of 'GCE (A/L)/ HNCE and above but by year 2012, 23.7 per cent of females were in that education category. On the other hand, females who have attained below grade 5 were 27.3per cent in 2000 and decreased up to 19.4 per cent by 2012.

The increase in female labour force participation is most striking in the high skilled occupational categories, which in turn match with the increase in the level of education of female employees. In 1975 only 6.6 per cent were women in the Administrative and Managerial Worker category, whereas in 2002, 23.6 per cent were women in this occupational category. Similar changes in pattern can be observed in all other occupational categories with the unskilled worker category showing the smallest increment, only a 4.7 per cent points increment from 1975 to 2002 (Table 4-1). More prominent increase in high skilled occupation categories could be due to the rise in education level of the females over the decades.

More recent data with different categorization of occupational groups also affirm a greater visibility of women in the occupation category of 'professionals' (Figure 4-7). However, on the other hand for certain types of occupation categories clear gender bias against females could be observed for some types of occupational categories (e.g. 'plant and machinery operators and assemblers', 'proprietors and mangers of enterprises' and 'senior officials and mangers'). This occupational segregation is closely linked with the generally accepted gender norms and roles of the Sri Lankan society.

Figure 4.6
Employed Persons by Level of Education



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey, Various Issues.

Table 4.1

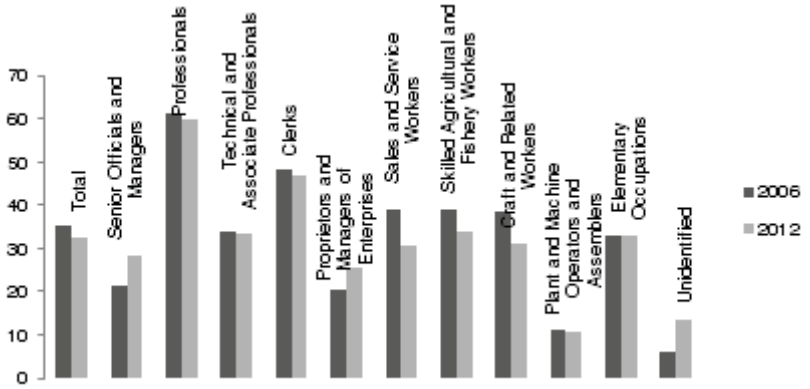
Percent of Women Employees to Total Employees by Major Occupational Categories

Major Occupational Categories	Percentage of women						
	1975	1980	1985	1990	1993	1998	2002
Administrative & Managerial Workers	6.6	9.6	12.8	16.9	16.4	20.6	23.6
Professional, Technical & Related Workers	11.1	18.1	18.2	25.3	23.9	29.0	28.4
Clerical & Related Workers	17.1	22.7	28.3	38.8	40.5	39.0	37.5
Sales Workers	13.2	21.1	28.9	32.3	35.4	29.1	27.1
Foreman & Supervisors	12.9	12.5	13.6	19.9	24.6	21.2	20.5
Skilled & Semi Skilled Workers	34.9	26.3	34.2	48.2	56.6	52.4	48.4
Un-skilled Workers	41.0	40.7	44.0	48.8	51.9	48.6	45.7
Total	34.8	33.7	36.6	44.3	48.3	44.8	41.2

Note: Data compiled from Employment Survey 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990, 1993, 1998, 2002.
Source: Department of Census and Statistics, 2012.

Figure 4.7

Percentage Contribution of Females to Total Employment 2006-2010



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey, Various Issues.

Women Labour Migrations in Sri Lanka

It is estimated that a stock of 1.7 million Sri Lankans were working overseas as migrants by 2009 and every year more than 200,000 people leave the country seeking foreign employment (Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka, 2013). The foreign employment market for Sri Lankan workers was highly biased towards women until very recently and it has been dominated by women over several decades. This is mainly because of the high demand for housemaids in the Middle East region. 45 per cent of the total labour migration in 2012 were accounted as 'housemaids' (Tertiary and Vocational Education Commision , 2013) and out of the female migrant workers, 88.2 per cent are employed as housemaids with 94 per cent of them working in Middle East countries (Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka, 2013). It is erroneously argued that female labour force participation rate in Sri Lanka is underestimated as the LFS does not account for migrant workers. Technically, when estimating the labour force for a country, only the persons who live within the country are considered and migrants are not taken into account for. Even if the migrant workers are considered when estimating labour force participation rate of the country, we cannot expect a significant increase in the labour force participation rate as the number of migrants would be included into the labour force as well as to the WAP[12]. On the other hand, if the returning female migrants do not get employed or seek employment, the FLFPR would further decrease as the WAP (the denominator) would increase without increasing the labour force (the numerator).

[12] Labour Force Participation Rate is calculated by using the following formula;
Labour force Participation Rate = [Labour force (Employed + Unemployed) ÷WAP]*100

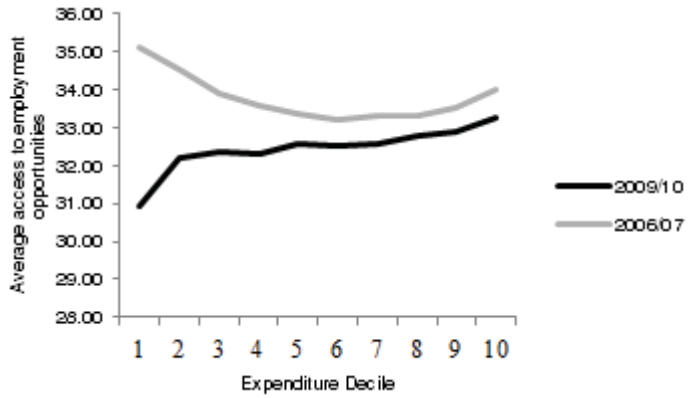
5. Access to Labour Force

Growth is defined as inclusive if it increases the social opportunity function, which depends on two factors; (i) average opportunities available to the population, and (ii) how opportunities are shared among the population (Ali & Son, 2007, p. 11). The concept of equity assumes that despite the socio-economic conditions of the households, they have the same opportunities for resources, access and outcomes. Following Ali and Son (2007), Opportunity Curves were constructed for the female and male populations separately to assess the equity-impacts of access opportunities to be in the labour force across different income groups. Opportunity Index (OI) and the Equity Index of Opportunity (EIO)[13]were also calculated following the same study by Ali and Son (2007) for both groups (females and males) with the intention of quantifying the precise magnitude of the change. Being in the labour force (employed or unemployed) was used as the outcome indicators and persons aged 15 and above were considered for the analysis. HIES data by DCS were used to construct the opportunity curves. In order to do a dynamic analysis (to assess how the opportunities have changed over time), HIES data for two time periods were used (HIES 2006/07 and HIES 2009/10) and examined how the opportunity curves shifted between the two periods. Household expenditure deciles[14] were used in constructing the opportunity curves.

Figure 5-1 below demonstrates the opportunity curve for access to labour force for females.

Results indicate that opportunities for women in accessing labour force have declined over time despite their economic status. The Annual Labour Force Survey Data by the DCS also affirm the overall decline in the female labour force participation rate from 2006 to 2010. In 2006 female labour force participation rate was 35.7 per cent which declined up to 32.1 by 2010 (Department of Census and Statistics , 2013). Although the

Figure 5.1
Opportunity Curves for Access to Labour Force by Expenditure Deciles (Females)



Opportunities for women in accessing labour force have declined over time despite their economic status.

Source: Author's calculations based on HIES data by DCS for 2006/07 and 2009/10.

[13] When everyone in the population enjoys the same opportunity OI (average opportunities available to the population) should equal to the mean. The equality of the distribution of opportunities is the ratio between OI for a particular opportunity curve and the mean. In the ideal situation EIO should equal to 1 (opportunities are equally distributed among the population).

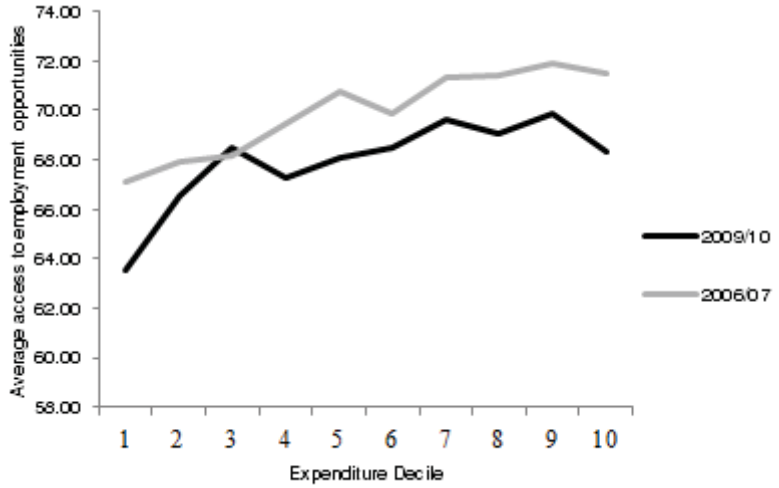
[14] Expenditure deciles are expenditure groups whose boundaries are defined as to get 10 per cent of the total number of households fallen into each group.

deterioration in opportunities is common phenomena for women in all expenditure deciles, it is more remarkable for women in the lower expenditure deciles. Main factors that could have contributed to this decline are unavailability of employment opportunities, reduction of poverty level and higher cost of child care and house-keeping. Firstly, it could be due to drop in opportunities in the labour force for females in the lower expenditure deciles. The other reason is the decrease in poverty from 2006/07 to 2009/10. DCS reports the Poverty Headcount Ratio[15] as 15.2 per cent and 8.9 per cent for 2006/07 and 2009/10, respectively. Given the negative relationship between rise in the income level and labour force participation of females in the lower income groups, we can expect a decrease in labour force participation by females in lower expenditure deciles. The lower participation in the labour force can also be due to higher costs of child care and housekeeping, relative to the expected earnings from the market. The upward slope of the opportunity curve for most recent data, 2009/10 implies that the females from lower income groups have lower access to the labour force or that their remuneration relative to the costs of child care and housekeeping is not attractive. Further, it should be noted that even the females in the higher expenditure deciles do not have a significant prospects to be in the labour force over the females in lower expenditure deciles. The results suggest that there is a tendency of excluding the marginalized groups (women and poorest) from the process of economic development despite the fact that the country is recording positive GDP growth rates for the time period considered (Central Bank of Sri Lanka , 2014), thus violating an important requirement for inclusive growth.

Opportunity Curves for males are presented in the Figure 5-2 below.

Similar to the case for females, a reduction could be observed in opportunities for men in accessing labour force across all deciles, except for men's in the 3rd expenditure decile, which is also a very marginal increase. Toning with the finding, the overall labour force participation rates for males has dropped down from 68.1 per cent in 2006 to 67.3 per cent in 2010, according to DCS. Males in the lowest expenditure decile have been affected severely during the two time periods, followed by the males in the richest decile.

Figure 5. 2
Opportunity Curves for Access to Labour Force by Expenditure Deciles (Males)



Source: Author's calculations based on HIES data by DCS for 2006/07 and 2009/10.

[15] Poverty Headcount Ratio is the percentage of population below the poverty line.

Table 5.1

Opportunity Index and Equity Index of Opportunity for Accessing Labour Force

	Female		Male	
	2006/07	2009/10	2006/07	2009/10
Opportunity Index	33.78	32.44	68.67	66.6
Equity Index of Opportunity (EIO)	0.9934	0.9760	0.9816	0.9803
Comment	Not equitable	Not equitable	Not equitable	Not equitable

Source: Author's calculations based on HIES data by DCS for 2006/07 and 2009/10.

Table 5.1 above clearly shows that regardless of the gender, both the OI (average opportunities available to the population) and EIO (how opportunities are shared or distributed among the population) have deteriorated over the time period considered and the opportunity to access labour force is low for females compared to males. Further, sharing of opportunities in participating in the labour force among the population is not equitable across expenditure groups for both the genders. Actually, the inequality has increased for both genders over the time period considered. The increase of inequality (reduction in EIO) is greater for females. Inclusive growth should not only expand average opportunities, but also improve the distribution of opportunities across the population. However, the study findings indicate that the country's economy has failed to make the growth inclusive for both females and males in accessing the labour force.

6. Constraints to Female Labour Force Participation

6.1 Gender Issues in the Labour Market

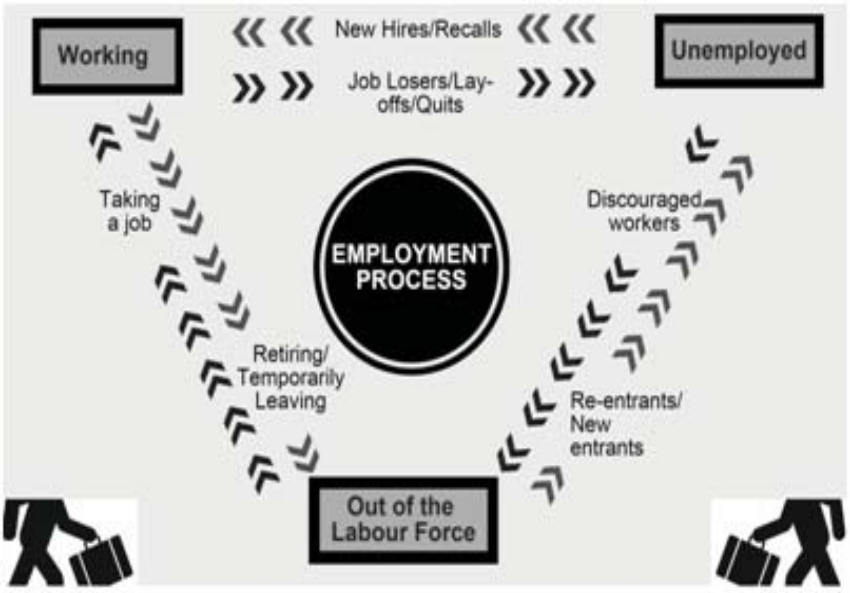
Gender based discrimination in the labour market can take various forms. Employers may deny a job opportunity to a female simply because of her gender or females may not get paid equal wages as their male colleagues who perform the same job. Females may also face adverse treatment due to pregnancy and their job security may be affected due to their tendency to getting need more leave from work in order to cope with family responsibilities (reproductive responsibilities). Sexual harassment of females at the work place is also a form of gender based discrimination in the labour market. A major source of discrimination stems from strongly held attitudes towards women's and men's social roles and behaviour (Wirth, 2001). "If one compares the effective roles played by women and men rather than looking at women as an isolated group, it becomes apparent that each has different access to resources, work opportunities and status. The consequences of gender inequalities include women being "crowed" into a narrow range of occupations where there is a less responsibility and/or lower pay, or having to work parttime, where there are fewer opportunities for advancement. While this situation can be explained to some extent by men's and women's perceptions of their respective social roles, these have in fact been under-going substantial changes in recent decades" (Wirth, 2001) p.1.

6.2 Being Unemployed

The WAP of a country consists of the economically active population (employed and unemployed) and the economically inactive population (those who are out of the labour force: full time students, persons engaged in household activities, retired, ill, and disabled). In the process of economic development what matters most is the magnitude of the economically active population in the country. Those who are currently employed may get unemployed due to job losses, lay-offs and quits or leave the labour force permanently due to retirement or temporarily due to child birth or for gaining further education (see Figure 6-1).

On the other hand, those who are unemployed become employed due to new hires and recalls. Those who are out of the labour force can take jobs and become employed or be unemployed when they enter the labour market as new entrants or re-entrants. Unemployed workers in the labour force may get discouraged and move out of the labour force. Unemployment may occur voluntarily (where a worker is not willing to work at the going market wage rate) or involuntarily (where a worker is willing to work at the going market wage but cannot find a job) but both forms of unemployment have a cost. The cost of unemployment has two aspects; private cost of unemployment and social cost of unemployment. In the case of voluntary unemployment, the private cost of unemployment, that is the wage being foregone by not working is clearly less than the private benefits of being unemployed. Those unemployed involuntarily face high private costs of unemployment due to unemployment resulting in a loss of wages with no counter-balancing benefits. Social costs of unemployment arise where transfer payments to the unemployed by the government exist which have a high opportunity cost since the funds could be used for productive purposes rather than as a transfer payment. At a macro level, even involuntary unemployment has a cost, since it results in the under-utilization of existing labour resources and has a negative effect on economic growth. Reducing unemployment is important from a household perspective and a macroeconomic perspective. Unemployment unfavourably affects

Figure 6.1
Employment Process



Source: (Begg, Fischer, & Dornbusch, 2005).

Female unemployment rate in Sri Lanka indicate a decreasing trend, but are always at a higher rate than the male unemployment rate (i.e. almost double) during the last ten years (Department of Census and Statistics, 2013).

the household level in many ways. Adverse effect on health, nutrition and education due to reduced consumption, low level of savings, indebtedness are some of those effects and ultimately, the households may fall below the poverty line. The economic burden faced by females who 'voluntarily' leave the labour force after childbirth is also an issue worth investigating.

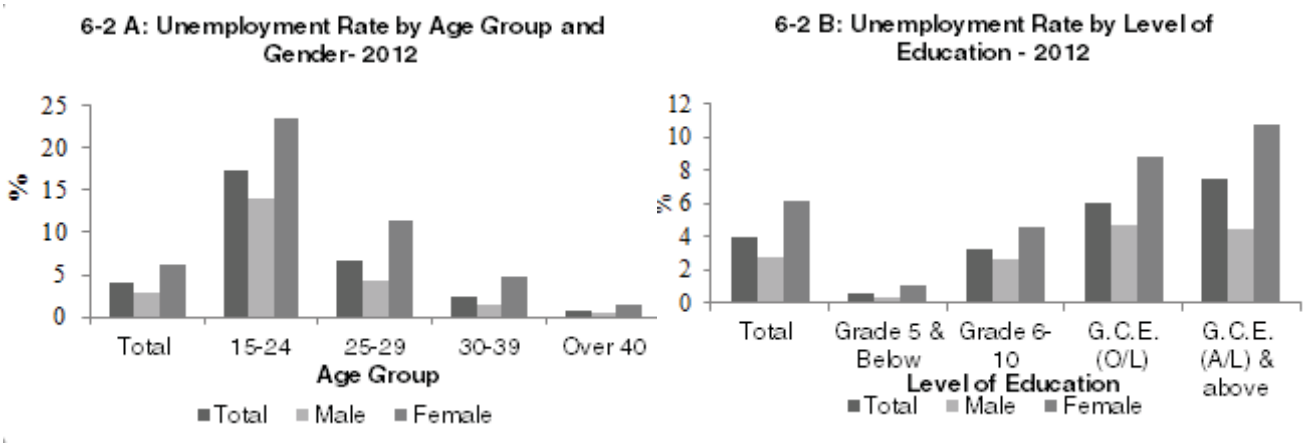
Female unemployment rate in Sri Lanka indicate a decreasing trend, but are always at a higher rate than the male unemployment rate (i.e. almost double) during the last ten years (Department of Census and Statistics , 2013. Female unemployment that had historically been high, reduced significantly post-liberalization due to the rapid expansion of the garment industry and large numbers of women migrating particularly to the Middle East as housemaids (Jayaweera S. , 2000). Unemployment rate is particularly high among the females in the age groups of (15-24) and (25-29) (Figure 6-2). Further, unemployment rate is rising with the level of education regardless of the gender. However, it should be noted that more educated females are unemployed than their male counterparts.

6.3 Getting In

Females are often discriminated in the process of job recruitment, mainly because of the employers' perceptions of female employees being costly to business organizations due to maternity and child care benefits and perceived characteristics (such as 'being too tender', 'too sensitive') of females (Madurawala, 2009).

Females are often discriminated in the process of job recruitment, mainly because of the employers' perceptions of female employees being costly to business oganizations due to maternity and child care benefits and perceived characteristics (such as 'being too tender', 'too sensitive') of females (Madurawala, 2009).

Figure 6.2
Unemployment Rates



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, 2013.

From the employer's point of view, providing maternity and child care benefits is an additional cost burden in a profit maximizing environment. Employees who are on leave for long periods of time in certain industries would adversely affect not only their own productivity but that of their co-workers as well. This would in turn, have a negative impact on the company's productivity and efficiency as a whole. Most of the time, when an employee is on maternity leave, they are not replaced but their work is shared out among the existing staff instead. This increases the burden of their colleagues and results in negative perceptions regarding female employment. Females may also get discriminated against in employment due to the perception that females tend to take more leave and that they lack job commitment.

Labour supply is mainly determined by the real wage. Individuals take their labour supply decisions by comparing the utilities they get from work and leisure. Indifference curves that represent their preference patterns regarding labour and leisure are used in making this decision. The indifference curve indicates that individuals can trade-off the utility they get from labour income (wage) and the utility from leisure. Labour and leisure acts as two alternatives. Once the gender triple burden issue is explicitly brought in however, this traditional labour supply model, the trade-off between labour and leisure becomes more complicated for females than for males. 'Leisure' then encompasses two components for females; reproductive/social reproductive activities (i.e. child care is a reproductive activity and helping out at an alms-giving is a socially reproductive activity) and personal leisure activities (going for a film or reading a book). So in the case of females, if they want to enter the labour force they have to forgo the utility from reproductive/social reproductive activities and personal leisure activities. If the utility from labour is greater than the utility from 'leisure', the decision is made according to the model to supply labour and vice versa. Given the greater sacrifice now demanded in the context of females, since leisure is a more complex component than for males, is greater, it would argue that high wages are needed to encourage employment. However in general, female wage rates are less than the male wage rates (International Labour Organization , 2014) and this wage- gap discourages females to take the decision of entering the labour force.

Net Actual Income (NAI) from being employed is a crucial factor in taking the decision to become employed. NAI is the amount of money that a person is finally left with to spend on goods and services (which is the source of utility achieved through working). NAI is determined as Income from the employment (Y), Tax (T) and Work Related Costs (WRC) (Where NAI = Y – T- WRC). WRC includes costs that a person incurs on transport, clothing and food due to being employed. For an individual to be employed his/her NIA should be higher than the utility that he/she gets from his/her leisure time. After child birth, WRC increases significantly due to the costs related to child care (may even rise at marriage if a separate home involves greater housework than living on ones' own or living in the parental home) and this decreases NAI in turn. Although child care costs like any other costs are supposed to be borne by the household collectively, they are attributed to females if they are employed. This is because child caring and raring are traditionally seen as a females' responsibility and division of labour within the family is structured in such manner. Under these circumstances, any negative effect on NAI due to costs related to child care encourages females to leave their jobs or remain unemployed. If their NAI is not sufficient to cover their forgone leisure (reproductive/social reproductive activities and personal leisure), females would prefer to be unemployed. The shape of their indifference curve too may shift after child birth, as a reflection of their change in preference between labour and 'leisure'. To keep females in the labour force after child birth, the NAI should be increased sufficiently to cover child care costs.

From the employees' perspective, due to differences in their ability to access information and network, asymmetric opportunities in the labour market arise (Madurawala, 2009). The problem of asymmetric opportunities acts as a major barrier in getting a suitable job as a new entrant to the labour force. However, males overcome the problem of asymmetric opportunities more easily and faster than females as males are better in networking (Gupta, Kemelgor, Fuchs, & Etzkowitz, 2005) and they have better access to the labour market information than females. 'Weaker job networks' of females from which they may face discrimination in the labour market is one of the major contributing factors for the low FLFPR in Sri Lanka (The World Bank, 2013). Having weaker job networks is one reason for longer unemployment period for women.

6.4 Staying In

It has being observed that historically, men have dominated organizational structures and management positions in the workplace and current institutional mechanisms are being, by and large, patriarchal in nature and work practices are androcentric (Wickramasinghe & Jayatilka, 2006). As a result, policies, regulations and practices at workplaces would reflect the dominant needs, values and interests of men in most of the times. Obliging to these androcentric work practices is undoubtedly stressful for women.

Work Family-Balance

Apart from the role as an employee, females are expected to take greater responsibility for household tasks and child care due to the traditional division of domestic labour. This creates a double burden for female employees, which becomes further intensified to a triple burden when they are required to perform social/community activities. A working mother has to face the problem of working in a hostile working environment (mainly due to her familial responsibilities), resulting in career related stress. On the other hand, because of the issues of the triple burden, women workers are compelled to work harder than their male counterparts in order to prove themselves at their working places to ensure job security. The triple burden of women has many effects on her labour market decision: whether to enter the labour market, the type of employment sought, the level of remuneration desired, permanent versus casual work, part-time or full time work, ability to do over-time, training, and finally, whether to remain in the labour market when other elements of the burden become more pervasive than her productive role. This triple burden also impinges on her decisions through the negative perceptions of employers and fellow employees. Further, the necessities arise for females to take leave from work more frequently than their male counterparts (mainly due to child care issues) which create a negative perception on female employees. This also negatively affected their training opportunities and career development.

The traditional two-dimensional labour-leisure model is not realistic in the case of female labour force participants. As discussed above, the decision for labour force participation by females is based on three main factors; labour (productive activities), reproductive/social reproductive activities and personal leisure. These three aspects necessitate a three dimensional labour-leisure model in the context of females in the labour market (Figure 6-3).

This diagram throws up a large number of issues: such as the trade-off between earning and child care (which has repercussions for companies and their wages as discussed above) and at a household and national level, would force the necessary valuation of housewife activities that are currently unmeasured and uncompensated. The trade-off between personal leisure and productive activities as well as that of reproductive/social reproductive activities could have a bearing on issues such as working over-time, part time versus full time work etc. The most contagious issue however, may be the trade-offs between reproductive/social reproductive activities and personal leisure that would argue for compensating females for the additional housework and child care they do, at the cost of their own personal leisure that would necessitate either redistribution of income within the household through compensating for lost leisure or a redefining of the division of labour within the household.

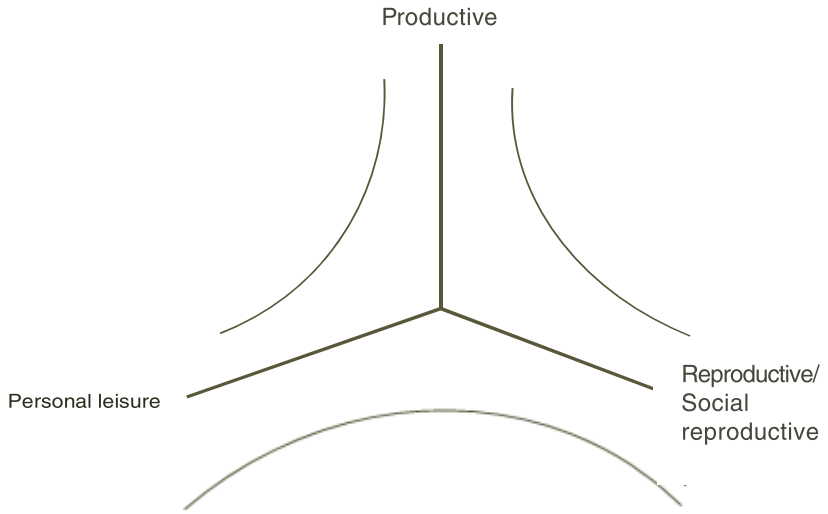
Apart from the role as an employee, females are expected to take greater responsibility for household tasks and child care due to the traditional division of domestic labour. This creates a double burden for female employees, which becomes further intensified to a triple burden when they are required to perform social /community activities.

Glass Ceiling

The glass ceiling is a term which symbolizes a variety of barriers faced by women and by minorities as they seek to improve their employment status (Akpinar-Sposito, 2012). A glass ceiling is characterized by a gender or racial difference that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). The effects of 'glass ceiling' is greater at higher levels of an outcome than at lower levels of an outcome and is present in the chances of advancement into higher levels, not merely the proportion of each gender or race currently at those higher levels; and increases over the course of a career (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). Women in their early lives experienced a number of barriers during their decision of their career path (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997 as cited in (Akpinar-Sposito, 2012); and also invisible barriers, which continued to prevent women from moving up to a higher position in organizations (Adair, 1999; Baxter & Wright, 2000; Lyness & Thompson, 2000 as cited in (Akpinar-Sposito, 2012). Glass ceilings are a function of numerous phenomena including: recruitment shortcomings, selection inequities, occupational segregation, training disparities, retention failures, and promotion inequalities (Baldwin, 1996). The glass ceiling issue is most commonly associated with barriers to upward mobility for women, although ethnic minorities may face the same impediments (Morrison & VonGlinow, 1990 as cited in Bartol, Martin, & Kromkowski, 2003).

In Sri Lanka too, data on representation of women at management levels confirm that they have yet to penetrate the barrier of 'glass ceiling' (Jayaweera, Gunawardene, & Edirisinghe, 2009). Three major impediments against upward career mobility of women are (i) adverse factors in work environment, negative attitudes of superior officials and political interference, (ii) problems in combining family and work responsibilities and absence of adequate family friendly policies in the workplace, and (iii) gender specific factors and gender based discrimination creating frustrations and barriers to upward mobility (Jayaweera, Gunawardene, & Edirisinghe, 2009). There are significant effects of the Glass Ceiling on Women Career Development of Executive level female employees working in private sector organizations in Sri Lanka (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013) . However, the Glass Ceiling and women career development have a moderate negative relationship, and also shows that individual factors, organizational factors and cultural factors have a significant effect on women's career development whereas family factor has effects on the Glass Ceiling.

Figure 6. 3
Gender Based Perception of Labour Market Choice



Source: De Silva A., Forthcoming.

Sexual Harassments at the Work Place

Sexual harassment is generally defined as unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of a sexual nature (Wirth, 2001). A variety of behaviour is designated as sexual harassment in the different measures which proscribe it. These range from some of the most egregious behaviour prohibited by the criminal law — rape, sexual assault — to conduct which can, in certain circumstances, be an innocuous part of day-to-day interaction — comments, jokes, physical contact (McCann, 2005).

The available research indicates that the vast majority of workers subjected to sexual harassment are women. However, these findings demonstrate that harassment does not impact on women in a uniform way, but is more prevalent against the more vulnerable (McCann, 2005).

Even though Sri Lanka has ratified four major international instruments, which have relevance to rape and other forms of gender based violence[16], it has been observed that women are subjected to sexual harassments in various working environments at different levels (Table 6-1).

Exposure to sexual harassments at the work place hinders the productivity of the worker, while also resulting in the discontinuation of the job and her eventual withdrawal from the labour force. Other potential female entrants to the labour market would also get discouraged and withdraw their decisions of joining the labour force due to the negative signal they get from the victims. This in turn, means lower income levels on a household level, and lower female labour force participation on a national level.

Occupational Segregation and Gender Wage Gap

Allocating jobs based on the gender is a common phenomenon in many societies. Gender segregation affects both women and men, but the consequences are often more serious for women (International Labour Organization , 2012). Cross-country research points to significant inequality between men and women in career prospects and access to managerial positions (European Commission, 2009 as cited in International Labour Organization , 2012). Some jobs are regarded as more suitable for males (jobs that involve heavy manual work or are highly technical in nature) while females are preferred for some jobs (e.g. teaching, nursing). Women are excluded from certain occupational categories due to formal as well as informal barriers to entry (Lawanson, 2008). The informal barriers which continue to hinder the entry of women into such occupational categories include customs and religious practices and difficulties in combining domestic and labour market activities. Networking and mobility are two major factors that contribute to job segmentation by gender. On the other hand, unlike male labour force participation, female labour force participation, is greatly affected by social perceptions especially in Eastern countries like Sri Lanka (Malhotra & DeGraff, 1997). Traditionally, women are not expected to play the role of bread winner of the family and this is regarded as a males' responsibility. This argument is often adopted in the determination of wages and overtime distribution. In general, females are preferred for certain job categories (e.g., clerical support workers and elementary occupations) and males are preferred for certain job categories (e.g., jobs related to technical work). This segregation of job types (i.e., 'masculinization' or 'feminization' of specific jobs), is evident from the job

Table 6.1
Research Evidence on Gender Based Violence (GBV) in Sri Lanka

Sector	Findings	Study
Industrial sector	It was found that 62.3 % of respondents had experienced unwanted and unwelcome sexual behaviours at the workplace at some point in their lives. Further, 37.4 % of respondents had experienced this more than once.	Adikaram, (2005)
Estate sector	83 per cent of females in the estate sector are victims of gender based violence at their workplace irrespective of their civil status	(UNFPA, 2003)
Migrant Workers	11 per cent of returnee migrant women were sexually abused	(Munasinghe et al,. 2004)
Garment Workers	57 per cent of female garment workers experience sexual harassment at the work place	(Perera, 1997)

Source: Sri Lanka Medical Association, 2011.

[16] International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights-1966, Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)-1979, Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) -1989 and the Convention on Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment -1984.

vacancy advertisements appearing in national newspapers (Table 6-2). More detailed breakdown of job advertisements clearly manifests the gender segregation of job types in the labour market (Annex 1).

It has been observed that women's wages typically represent between 70 and 90 per cent of men's wages, entry level wages tend to be lower for women than for men, and there appears to be a persistent pay gap between men and women engaged in similar work, especially in professional and executive-level jobs and skilled trades (International Labour Organization , 2008, p. 29). Wage differences between males and females could arise from two sources: the same job at different salaries (discrimination) or different jobs at different wage levels (gender based segmentation of the market). Different wage levels as a result of different jobs by gender could stem from differences in education levels between males and females or from the 'masculinization' and 'feminization' of jobs. Iversen and Rosenbluth (2006) argue that some of the largest variance in income, labour market status, and the division of labour is gender based and that women tend to be less paid than men when they do work, and often they occupy jobs with lower job security, fewer prospects of advancement, and less responsibility (Iversen & Rosenbluth, 2006). Occupational segregation contributes significantly to wage gaps between men and women. Evidence from the United States and Spain suggests that the horizontal occupation component of the gender pay gap explains up to 53 per cent of the total net wage gap (Bayard et al., 2003; Amuedo-Dorantes and De la Rica, 2006 as cited in International Labour Organization, 2012). In Bangladesh, the "segregation effect" accounts for almost one-third of the total gender wage gap (Kapsos, 2008 as cited in International Labour Organization, 2012).

Various studies done based on Sri Lankan labour market data affirm that there is a gender disparity in wage rates in Sri Lanka (Rodrigo, 2000); (Ajwad & Kurukulasuriya, 2002). The magnitude of this disparity varies depending on the ethnicity of the worker and much of the gender disparity is not explained by productive characteristics, implying that discrimination against women may be playing a role (Ajwad & Kurukulasuriya, 2002). Gunewardena (2002) found that the gender wage gap did narrow between 1985 and 1991, and that returns to education increased over the period for both men and women but returns to education are greater for women than for men (Gunewardena, 2002). The study further reveals that in the absence of discrimination, women would earn more than men and although returns to education are higher for women than men, initial disadvantages are so great that favourable returns are insufficient to eliminate the gender gap.

Table 6.2
Percentage Distribution of Job Advertisements of Main Occupational Category (Based on ISCO 88) and Gender – 1st Half 2013

Main Occupation Catagory	Gender			Total	
	Male	Female	Not Specified	%	0
Technicians & Associate Professionals	15.7	7.3	77.0	100	11,479
Elementary Occupations	28.7	32.2	39.2	100	8,787
Service Workers & Shop & Market Sales Workers	29.7	11.2	59.2	100	8,701
Craft & related Workers	43.2	2.6	54.2	100	7,596
Clerks	12.7	23.5	63.8	100	6,509
Professionals	6.7	10.7	82.6	100	5,965
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	51.3	4.0	44.8	100	5,679
Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers	12.9	2.0	85.2	100	2,630
Skilled Agricultural & Fishery Workers	27.5	2.6	69.8	100	305
Armed Forces	33.3	0.0	66.7	100	9
Total	25.6	12.6	61.8	100	57,660

Source: Tertiary and Vocational Education Commision , 2013

Legislative measures, general recommendations, monitoring procedures and support for low-paid occupations (Fapohunda, 2013) , unionizing women, comparable worth[17], pay secrecy legislation[18], affirmative action, stronger non-discrimination legislation, and family-friendly policies (Kim, 2013) are some of the remedies proposed to close the gender wage gap.

Female entrepreneurship is an alternative often suggested for females dropping out of employment due to unsatisfying, frustrating, demanding and inflexible work environments, failure to break through the 'glass ceiling' to higher-paid managerial positions, etc. (Winn, 2005). In the Sri Lankan context, there is a great potential to attract females into the labour force by promoting and fostering female entrepreneurship especially for the micro, small and medium sectors (Attygalle, et al., 2014) . But still there are financial and non-financial barriers which hinder women entrepreneurship in the country (Attygalle, et al., 2014). However, it should also be noted that entrepreneurship requires individuals to be multi-talented (good knowledge and practice of some production process or service, as well as knowledge of marketing, financing, human resource management etc.) and thus imposing a limit to the number that we can have as entrepreneurs.

Sri Lanka has ratified and is a signatory to many international conventions on women's rights and labour rights (e.g. UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women – CEDAW, ILO Convention No. 100 of 1951(Equal Remuneration), ILO Convention No.C111 of 1958 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), ILO Convention No. 103 of 1952 of 1952 of 1983 and the revisions of 1983 Maternity Benefits and Vienna Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (Wickramasinghe, 2012). Further, policies like Sri Lanka Women's Charter, Sri Lanka- The Emerging Wonder of Asia- Mahinda Chinthana Vision for the Future (2010) and National Policy for Decent Work in Sri Lanka and a number of constitutional provisions and civil and criminal laws (Wickramasinghe, 2012). However, assessing the effectiveness of these conventions, policies and laws is somewhat problematic (Wickramasinghe, 2012). A context of poor law enforcement and the gap between the law and practices have been observed (Jayaweera S. , 2007) and active legal processes, sensitive law enforcement personnel, and public awareness on legal literacy are some of the strategies proposed to overcome these issues (Jayaweera S. , 2007).

7. Conclusions and Policy Implications

Female labour force participation rate in Sri Lanka has stagnated for a considerable period of time, signifying that current policies, programmes and institutional set-ups are not adequate to address the issues and concerns of female labour force participation in the country. It is clear that female labour force participation is important in empowering females, mainly in economic terms. Female labour force participation is beneficial at the individual level, community level and at the national level.

Substantial amount of literature support the fact that women's labour market activities are highly dependent on non-economic factors, particularly on their familial responsibilities and child care being the biggest challenge for them. Hence, policy measures focused on this aspect would help immensely in easing the tension faced by the working mothers and attracting more females into the labour force.

As emerged from the study, NAI of a woman would decrease with marriage and child bearing and if this decreases to a level up to a breakeven point, most probably she

[17] Concept that jobs which require comparable abilities, knowledge, and skills, should be paid the same wage/salary rate irrespective of the employee's age, race, sex or any other difference.

[18] Pay secrecy includes rules, policies, and practices that forbid workers from sharing information on their earnings.

would quit her job. In order to deter that, NAI should increase. One option for increasing the NAI is to increase income (Y). This can be done through giving a child care allowance (as part of the salary) at institutional level. Alternatively, measures can be taken to reduce the WRC through providing day care or crèche facilities to employees. Higher wages create more efficient workers and efficient workers yield higher productivity, which in turn is beneficial to the company. In addition to retaining the worker in the company, such measures could also increase the efficiency of the employee. However, these measures should not be an additional cost burden to the employers. At the national level, the government can increase the NAI by reducing the tax burden on individuals.

Further, provision of an allowance to working mothers can be introduced in order to cover child care costs and is another policy measurement that would help to increase the labour force participation by married women.

Data on female labour force participation by age group imply that an M-shaped curve is emerging for Sri Lanka. This is mainly due to lower participation by females in the 25-29 age group. As discussed in the study, this exit from the labour force is attributed to child care requirements. Females who leave the labour force when their children are small may want to rejoin the labour force once their children are old enough to take care of themselves. Re-entering the labour force should be encouraged by providing suitable avenues for females to re-enter the labour market, since this would optimize available labour usage and prevent education and training investments being wasted.

The study reveals that for both the genders, average opportunities available-OI and distribution of opportunities-EIO have deteriorated over the time period considered for the study. Additionally, it also discloses that the poorest and women are more vulnerable for this unfavourable change. As a whole, this gives a clear signal to policy makers to create more job opportunities targeting the poor and to make sure the distribution of job opportunities is done in a more equitable manner. On the other hand, women are deprived than men in accessing labour force opportunities. Job creation for women is needed to be done along with other policy measures that address the issues and concerns of females in participating in labour force activities.

It was evident that managing work-family balance is really stressful for a working mother; with the concerns that arise due to 'triple burden'. Though it is not very frequently practised in Sri Lanka, promoting working options like 'flexi-hours'[19], 'working-from-home'[20] and part–time jobs would be helpful immensely to female participation in the labour force.

Provision of alternative child care and geriatric care options is another important policy intervention that would support to increase female labour force participation. Due to many reasons (i.e. nuclear family structures, increased female labour force participation) in today's context, child care and elderly care options that were available in the past are no longer available. In the case of child care, day care centres, crèches, domestic helpers, extended family support are the main alternative child care options. However, daycare centres and crèches are not regularized and the standard of these facilities are not monitored by any authority. Domestic helpers mainly come from informal agencies which are not regularized or monitored and there are several anecdotal evidences of the unreliability of these domestic servants who come through such the agencies. Given this backdrop, mothers are reluctant to use the presently available child care options. Encouraging the private sector to provide day care/ crèche facilities should be done with the government taking the responsibility of maintaining the standards and monitoring authority. Further, measures should be taken to regularize the local domestic servant supplying agencies.

[19] "Under flextime, there is typically a core period (of approximately 50% of total working time / working day) of the day, when employees are expected to be at work (for example, between 11 a.m. and 3 p.m.), while the rest of the working day is "flexible time", in which employees can choose when they work, subject to achieving total daily, weekly or monthly hours in the region of what the employer expects, and subject to the necessary work being done" (Wikipedia, 2014).

[20] "Telecommuting, remote work, or telework is a work arrangement in which employees do not commute to a central place of work. A person who telecommutes is known as a "telecommuter", "teleworker", and sometimes as a "home-sourced," or "work-at-home" employee" (Wikipedia, 2014).

References

Aguirre, D. A., L. Hoteit, & S.K. Rupp, (2012), *Empowering the Third Billion: Women and the World of Work in 2012,* New York : Booz & Company Inc. .

Ajwad, M. I., & P. Kurukulasuriya, (2002), *Ethnic and Gender Wage Disparities in Sri Lanka,* The World Bank . Retrieved August 6, 2014, from http://elibrary.worldbank.org/doi/pdf/10.1596/1813-9450-2859

Akpinar-Sposito, C. (2012), "Career Barriers for Women Executives and the Glass Ceiling Syndrome: the Case Study Comparison betgween French and Turkish Women Executives", *Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Retrieved June 4, 2014, from http://halshs.archives-ouvertes.fr/docs/00/73/85/19/PDF/Paper_for_conference_Ist.for_HAL.pdf

Ali, I. (2007), *Pro-Poor to Inclusive Growth: Asian Prescriptions,* Asian Development Bank. Retrieved June 23, 2014, from http://www.adb.org/Documents/EDRC/Policy_Briefs/PB048.pdf

Ali, I., & Son, H. (2007), "Measuring Inclusive Growth", *Asian Development Review, 24 (1)*, 11-31.

Ali, I., & Zhuang, J. (2007), "Inclusive Growth towards a Prosperous Asia: Policy Implications". *ERD Working Paper No.97*. Manila: Asian Development Bank.

Amarabandu, W. (2000), "Fertility and Employed Women in Sri Lanka". In *Demography of Sri Lanka: Issues and Challenges,* Colombo: Department of Demography, University of Colombo.

Asian Development Bank (2014), *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2014: Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators Special Supplement.* Mandaluyong City: Asian Development Bank.

Attygalle, K. D., Hirimuthugodage, S. Madurawala, A. Seneratne, A., Wijesinha, & A. C. Edirisinghe, (2014), *Female Entrepreneurship and the Role of Business Development Serivces in Promoting Small and Medium Women Entrepreneurship in Sri Lanka,* Colombo: Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka, Oxfam GB, Sri Lanka.

Baldwin, N. (1996), " Female Promotions in Male-dominant Organizations: The case of the United Sates Military", *The Journal of Politics, 58*(4), 1184-1197.

Bartol, K. M. D.C. Martin, & J.A. Kromkowski, J. A. (2003), "Leadership and the Glass Ceiling: Gender and Ethnic Group Influences on Leader Behaviours at Middle and Executive Managerial Levels". *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9*(3), 8-20.

Becker, G. (1991), *A Treatise on the Family, Enlarged edition.* USA: Harvard University Press.

Begg, D. S., Fischer, & R. Dornbusch, R. (2005), *Economics - Eighth Edition,* Berkshire: McGraw-Hill Education .

Berger, L. M., J. Hill, & J. Waldfogel (2005), " Maternity Leave, Early Maternal Employment and Child Health and Development in the US", *The Economic Journal , 115*, F29-F47.

Bloom, D., D. Canning, D., G. Fink, & J. Finlay, (2007), *Fertility, Female Labour Force Participation and the Demographic Dividend.* Program on the Global Demography of Aging, Harvard School of Public Health.

Bombuwela, P., & A. C. De Alwis, A. C. (2013, June), "Effects of Glass Ceiling on Women Career Development in Private Sector Organizations", *Journal of Competitiveness, 5*(2), 3-19. doi:10.7441/joc.2013.02.01

Brewster, K., & R. Rindfuss, (2001), "Fertility and Women's Employment in Industrialized Nation", *Annual Review of Sociology, 26*, 271-296.

Callan, T., A. Soest, & J.R. Walsh (2007), *Tax Structure and Female Labour Market Participation: Evidence from Ireland*. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour . Retrieved August 12, 2014, from http://ftp.iza.org/dp3090.pdf

Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2014), *Annual Report 2013.* Colombo: Central Bank of Sri Lanka.

Cotter, D., J.M. Hermsen, S. Ovadia & R. Vanneman (2001), "The Glass Ceiling Effect", *Social Forces, 80*(2), 655-681.

Cunningham, W. V. (2001), "Breadwinner or Caregiver?: How Household Role Affects Labour Choices in Mexico". *Policy Research Working Paper 2743*. Washington D.C.: The World Bank .

De Silva, A. (Forthcoming). *Macroeconomic issues of Gender: A theoretical Analysis.*

De Silva, W. I. (2007), *Beyond Twenty Million: Projecting the Population of Sri Lanka 2001-2081,* Colombo, Sri Lanka: Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka.

Department of Census and Statistics (2012, March 2), *Health: For a Review of Social Conditions of Sri Lanka.* Retrieved July 2, 2014, from Department of Census and Statistics Web Site: http://www.statistics.gov.lk/social/social%20conditions.pdf

Department of Census and Statistics (2013), *Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey Annual Report 2012.* Colombo: Department of Census and Statistics .

Department of Health Serivces (2008), *Annual Health Bulletin 2008 Sri Lanka,* Colombo: Ministry of Health .

Fapohunda, T. M. (2013), "The Gender Pay Gap in Nigeria: Causes and Remedies", *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 4*(2), 211-220. doi:Doi:10.5901/mjss.2013.v4n2p211

Gunatilaka, R. (1999), *Labour Legislation and Female Employment in Sri Lanka's Manufacturing Sector.* Colombo: Institute of Polciy Studies of Sri Lanka.

Gunatilaka, R. (2013), *Women's Participation in Sri Lanka's Labour Force: Trends, Drivers and Constraints.* Geneva: Internaltional Labour Organization.

Gunawardena, D. (2006), *Exploring Gender Wage Gap in Sri Lanka: A Quantile Regression Approach.* PMMA Network Series Paper .

Gunewardena, D. (2002), *Reducing the Gender Wage Gap in Sri Lanka: Is education enough?* Retrieved August 6, 2014, from http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/APCITY/UNPAN027229.pdf

Gupta, N., C. Kemelgor, S. Fuchs, & H. Etzkowitz (2005, October), "Triple Burden on Women in Science: A Cross Cultural Analysis", *Current Science, 89*(8), 1382-1386. Retrieved July 3, 2014, from http://www.iisc.ernet.in/currsci/oct252005/1382.pdf

Hakim, C. (1995, September), "Five Feminist Myths about Women's Employment", *British Journal of Sociology, 46*(1), 429-455.

Hynes, K., & M. Clarkberg, M. (2005, February), "Women's Employment Patterns During Early Parenthood: A Group-based Trajectory Analysis," *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*, 222-239.

Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka (2013), *Migration Profile Sri Lanka,* Colombo: Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka.

International Labour Organization (2008), *Global Wage Report 2008/09. Minimum Wages and Collective Bargaining:Towards Policy Coherence.* Geneva: International Labour Organization .

International Labour Organization (2012), *Global Employment Trends for Women.* Geneva: International Labour Organization . Retrieved June 26, 2014, from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/—dgreports/—dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_195447.pdf

International Labour Organization (2014), *Global Employment Trends 2014: Risk of a Jobless Recovery? .* Geneva: International Labour Office.

Iversen, T., & F. Rosenbluth (2006), "The Political Economy of Gender: Explaining Cross-National Variation in the Gender Division of Labour and the Gender Voting Gap", *American Journal of Political Science, 50*(1), 1-19.

Jayaweera, S. (2007), " Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women", In C. f. Research, *Gender Dimensions of the Millennium Development Goals in Sri Lanka* (pp. 27-48). Colombo: United Nations Development Programme.

Jayaweera, S. (2000), "Gender Dimensions of Change: A Micro-level Analysis, In *Structural Adjustments, Gender and Employment:The Sri Lankan Experience* (pp. 143-155). Geneva: Internaltional Labour Organization.

Jayaweera, S., C. Gunawardene, & I. Edirisinghe, (2009, October), "Beyond the Glass Ceiling: Women Participation in Decision Making in the Public Domain", *Sri Lankan Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 1*(2).

Kabeer, N. (1999), "Resources, Agency, Achievements: Selections on the Measurement of Women Empowerment," *Development and Change, 30*, 435-464.

Kabeer, N. (2012), *Women's Economic Empowerment and Inclusive Growth: Labour Markets and Enterprise Development.* Retrieved August 7, 2013, from International Development Research Centre (IDRC): http://www.idrc.ca/EN/Documents/NK-WEE-Concept-Paper.pdf

Kim, M. (2013), "Policies to End the Gender Wage Gap in the United States", *Review of Radical Political Economics, 45*(3), 278-283 . doi:DOI: 10.1177/0486613413487159

Lakshman, W. (1998), " Twenty Years of Liberalisation in Sri Lanka: Implications for Women", In C. f. Research, *Women in the Economy* (pp. 1-15). Colombo: Centre for Women's Research .

Lawanson, K. (2008), "Female Labour Force Participation in Nigeria: Determinants and Trends Nigeria": Department of Economics, University of Lagos. Retrieved June 18, 2014, from www.gcbe.us/2008_OBEC/data/Olukemi%20I.%20Lawanson.doc

Lee, S.-a., J. E. Cho, S. Park, & L.S. Seung-yoon, (2013), "It's More than an M-shape: The Political Economy of Female non-Standard Workers in the Republic of Korea, *Asian Social Work and Policy Review* (7), 1-17. doi:10.1111/aswp.12003

Lucas, R. (1988, July), "On the Mechanics of Economic Development, "*Journal of Monetary Economics", 22*(1), 3-42.

Madurawala, S. (2009), "Labour Force Participation of Women in Child Bearing Ages, Sri Lanka", *Sri Lanka Journal of Population Studies, 11*, 01-38.

Malhotra, A., & D. DeGraff, (1997), "Entry Versus Success in the Labour Force: Young Women's Employment in Sri Lanka", *World Development, 25*(33), 379-394.

Mammen, K., & C. Paxon, (2000), "Women's Work and Economic Development," *The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 14*(4), 141-164.

McCann, D. (2005), *Sexual Harassment at Work: National and International Responses.* Conditions of Work and Employment Programme. Geneva: International Labour Organization. Retrieved July 7, 2014, from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/—ed_protect/—protrav/—travail/documents/publication/wcms_travail_pub_2.pdf

McRae, S. (2003, September), "Constraints and Choices in Mothers' Employment Careers: A Consideration of Hakim's Preference Theory," *British Journal of Sociology, 54*(3), 317-338

Psacharopoulos, G., & Z. Tzannatos (1989, July), "Female Labour Force Participation: An International Perspective", *World Bank Research Observer, 4*(2), 187-201.

Queneau, H., & M. Marmo, (2001), "Tension between Employment and Pregnancy: A Workable Balance", *Family Relations, 50*, 59-66.

Rafael, R., & R. A. Ramos (2013), *Inclusive Growth: Building up a Concept , Working Paper No. 104.* Brasilia, DF: International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth (IPC-IG). Retrieved June 23, 2014, from http://www.ipc-undp.org/pub/IPCWorkingPaper104.pdf

Ranieri, R., & R. A. Ramos, (2013, May 22), *After All, What is Inclusive Growth?* Retrieved June 23, 2014, from World We Want 2015, Thematic Consultation , Growth and Employment: http://www.worldwewant2015.org/node/350379

Rodrigo, C. (2000), "Impact of Structural Adjustment Policies on Employment: An Overview". In I. L. Office, *Structural Adjustment, Gender and Employment: The Sri Lankan Experience .* International Labour Organization .

Romer, P. (1986, October), "Increasing Returns and Long-run Growth", *Journal of Political Economy, 94*(5), 1002-37.

Semyonov, M. (1980, November)," The Social Context of Women's Labour Force Participation: A Comparative Analysis", *The American Journal of Sociology, 86*(3), 534-550.

Sri Lanka Medical Association (2011), *Review of Research Evidence on Gender Based Violence (GBV) in Sri Lanka* (2nd ed.). (J. Perera, N. Gunawardane, & V. Jayasuriya, Eds.) Colombo: Sri Lanka Medical Association. Retrieved July 4, 2014, from http://whosrilanka.healthrepository.org/bitstream/123456789/434/1/GBV.pdf

Tertiary and Vocational Education Commision . (2013, June), *Labour Market Information Bulletin Volume* 01/'13. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Tertiary and Vocational Education Commision.

The OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), (2012), Retrieved August 14, 2014, from Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development: http://www.oecd.org/dac/povertyreduction/50157530.pdf

The World Bank (2011), *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development.* Washington D.C.: World Bank.

The World Bank (2013, May 3), Consultive Workshop on "Improving Women's Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka," *Getting In and Staying In: Increasing Women's Labour Force Participation in Sri Lanka,* Colombo, Sri Lanka.

United Nations Development Programme (2014), *Human Development Report 2014 Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience .* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

Waldfogel, J., W. J. Han & J. Brooks-Gunn, (2002), "The Effects of Early Maternal Employment on Child Cognitive Development", *Demography, 39*(2), 369-392.

Weerasinghe, D. P., & N. Parr (2002, June), "Effects of Wealth on Marital Fertiltiy in Sri Lanka", *J Health Popul Nutr., 20*(2), 112-119.

Wickramasinghe, M. (2012), *Towards Gender Equity/ Equality: A Scan of Gender Sensitive Laws, Policies and Programs in Sri Lanka,* Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Wickramasinghe, M., & W. Jayatilka (2006), *Beyond Glass Ceilings and Brick Walls; Gender at Workplace.* Colombo: International Labour Organization .

Wikipedia (2014, August 13), *Flextime*. Retrieved from Wekipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flextime

Wikipedia (2014, August 13), *Telecommuting*. Retrieved from Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Working_from_home

Winn, J. (2005), " Women Entrepreneurs: can we Remove the Barriers?" *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 1*(3), 381-397.

Wirth, L. (2001), *Breaking through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management .* Geneva: International Labour Organization. Retrieved July 2, 2014, from http://dspace.africaportal.org/jspui/bitstream/123456789/21576/1/Breaking%20through%20the%20glass%20ceiling%20Women%20in%20management.pdf?1

World Economic Forum (2013), *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013,* Geneva : World Economic Forum. *International Entrepreneurship and Managment Journal, 1*(3), 381-397.

Annex

Annex 1

High Demand Jobs by Gender – 1st half 2013

Occupation	Gender			Total
	Male	Female	Not Specified	
Legislators- Senior Officials and Managers				
Manager- Sales	18	3	201	222
Manager- Hotel/ restaurant	71	4	134	209
Manager- Project	4	0	132	136
Manager- Marketing	19	4	101	124
Manager- Branch	15	1	90	106
Professionals				
Accountant	34	24	454	512
Nurse	9	155	197	361
Webpage Designer	29	4	325	358
Teacher- Sinhala/ Tamil/ English	20	51	276	347
Surveyor Quantity	27	5	281	313
Technicians & Associate Professionals				
Sales Executive	159	28	866	1,053
Graphic Designer	81	23	822	926
Marketing Officer	111	48	670	829
Computer Operator	43	290	489	822
Dealer (Retail/ Wholesale)	4	152	406	562
Pant and Machine Operator (Industrial)				
Driver- Other Light Motor Vehicle	1,051	29	400	1,480
Driver- Heavy Vehicle	541	0	302	843
Driver- Private Car	226	13	347	586
Sewing Machine Operator (Industrial)	11	141	156	308
Driver- Lorry	172	0	117	289
Service Workers & Shop & Market Sales Workers				
Cook 309	72	899		1,280
Salesman (Shop)	266	204	538	1,008
Sales Assistant	142	162	577	881
Sales Representative	442	24	412	878
Security Officer	67	28	685	780
Craft and Related Workers				
Mason	509	0	334	843
Carpenter (General)	261	0	285	546
Welder	252	0	267	519
Kotthumaker	178	4	250	432
Baker- General	165	3	174	342

Source: Tertiary and Vocational Education Commision, 2013.



Institute of Policy Studies of Sri Lanka
100/20, Independence Avenue, Colombo 7, Sri Lanka
Tel: +94 11 2143100 Fax: +94 11 2665065
Email: ips@ips.lk; Website: www.ips.lk
Blog: 'Talking Economics' - http://ipslk.blogspot.com
Twitter: www.twitter.com/TalkEconomicsSL

ISBN 978-955-8708-83-5