

บทบาทและการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้หญิงในตลาดแรงงาน:

รูปแบบการเปลี่ยนแปลง ปัจจัยที่มีอิทธิพล และ

สิ่งที่เกี่ยวข้องของทางด้านเศรษฐกิจและสังคม

The Pattern, Influencing Factors and Socio-economic Implications of Women's Participation in Labor Force

สมชาติ วิศิษฐ์ชัยชา-
Somchat Visitchaichan¹

บทคัดย่อ

ในปัจจุบันนี้มีการศึกษาในเชิงวิเคราะห์ และการประมวลผลจากงานวิจัยเกี่ยวกับสถานการณ์ของผู้หญิงในตลาดแรงงานในประเทศตะวันตก และการเปลี่ยนแปลงที่เกิดขึ้นหลังจากสงครามโลกครั้งที่ 2 อยู่เป็นจำนวนมากมาพอสมควร โดยเฉพาะงานวิจัยเชิงสำรวจจำนวนมาก ที่ได้รายงานถึงการเพิ่มขึ้นของจำนวนการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้หญิงในตลาดแรงงาน ประกอบไปด้วย แม็คเคนซี (1962), เคน (1966), โบเวิน และ ฟายเกิน (1969), ฮอฟแมน และ นายอิ (1974), ฟายเกิน (1975), ยังก์ (1975) (1978), กลีคแมน (1982), ทอดเดโร (1996), แทน และ ทอร์ริงตัน (1998) ชาร์ปเป (2000), แบบคอกค และ ลาสเซฟเฟอร์ (2003), และ เอิร์ลวิซ และ บร็อคแบงค์ (2005) อย่างไรก็ตามมีรายงานการวิจัย จำนวนไม่มากนักที่สามารถวิเคราะห์ได้อย่างลึกซึ้งในหลายแง่มุมที่เน้นเจาะจงเกี่ยวกับบทบาทและการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้หญิงในตลาดแรงงาน ความเข้าใจในเชิงลึกเกี่ยวกับบทบาทของผู้หญิง ทั้งด้านสังคมและเศรษฐกิจ มีความจำเป็นอย่างยิ่งในขั้นพื้นฐาน สำหรับการวางกรอบของนโยบายที่จะช่วย

¹ Dr. Somchat Visitchaichan is currently a lecturer at ABAC Graduate School of Business, Assumption University of Thailand.

ในการส่งเสริม และผลักดันให้สถานภาพทางสังคมและเศรษฐกิจของผู้หญิงมีมากขึ้น และเพื่อบรรลุเป้าหมายในการพัฒนาของประเทศต่างๆ ดังนั้นวัตถุประสงค์หลักของการศึกษาค้นคว้าครั้งนี้ ก็เพื่อที่จะรับรู้ และมีความเข้าใจที่มากขึ้นเกี่ยวกับบทบาทของผู้หญิงในการพัฒนาประเทศ ทั้งในด้านสังคมและเศรษฐกิจ โดยในบทความฉบับนี้ จะมีการวิเคราะห์ปัจจัยต่างๆ ที่มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจของผู้หญิงในการที่จะมีส่วนร่วมในตลาดแรงงาน ซึ่งรวมถึงปัจจัยด้าน สถานภาพสมรส อายุ การมีลูกที่ยังเล็ก ระดับการศึกษา ประเภทของอาชีพ รายได้ส่วนตัว รูปแบบของเวลาในการทำงาน และรายได้ของครอบครัว โดยที่การวิเคราะห์ปัจจัย เหล่านี้ จะเป็นประเด็นหลักของบทความฉบับนี้ ในส่วนท้ายของบทความ ผู้เขียนได้นำเสนอข้อโต้แย้งโดยสรุปเป็นประเด็นต่างๆ ที่สำคัญ- เพื่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับบทบาทของผู้หญิงที่มีต่อการพัฒนาประเทศ โดยทำการวิเคราะห์สิ่งที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ การเปลี่ยนแปลงขึ้นพื้นฐานที่เกิดขึ้นนี้ ทั้งด้านสังคมและเศรษฐกิจ ผู้เขียนหวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่างานวิจัยฉบับนี้ จะมีประโยชน์ทั้งในทางทฤษฎีและวิชาการ และช่วยส่งเสริมให้เกิดการศึกษาและอภิปรายเชิงสร้างสรรค์ ในสังคมมากขึ้น และที่สำคัญ- ไปกว่านั้น ผู้เขียนหวังว่าบทความชิ้นนี้ จะให้ข้อมูลพื้นฐานที่มีประโยชน์อย่างยิ่ง ต่อการค้นคว้าและวิจัยในอนาคต

Abstract

Empirical studies and general overviews of the labor market status of women in Western countries, and of the changes that have occurred since World War II, are quite numerous. Many surveys have been undertaken by Mackenzie (1962), Cain (1966), Bowen and Finegan (1969), Hoffman and Nye (1974), Finegan (1975), Young (1975) (1978), Glickman (1982), Todaro (1996), Tan and Torrington (1998), Sharpe (2000), Babcock and Laschever (2003), and Ulrich and Brockbank (2005) to account for the rise of female participation in the labor force. However,

they are only few rigorous analyses of specific aspects of women's workforce experience. A greater understanding of the social and economic role of women is a prerequisite for the formulation of policies directed towards raising the relative socio-economic status of women and achieving developmental goal of any country. The primary objective of this study is therefore to offer a greater awareness and understanding of the social and economic role of women in national development. This will then be achieved by analyzing several factors influencing the decision of women to enter the labor force which include marital status, age, presence of young children, education level, occupation, earnings, patterns in working time and family income. A succinct exploration of these issues will be the main thrust of this paper. The final section then summarizes the arguments and a number of important gaps in our understanding of the role of women in country's development. This will be done by looking at both social and economic implications of this fundamental change. It is therefore expected that this research would contribute both theoretical and empirical evidence and produce some valuable material for discussions on the society. More significantly, it is strongly hoped that this piece of work would provide much fertile ground for further research.

Introduction

Throughout the course of this century, perceptions of working 'At home' in most Western countries have tremendously changed. The development of women in the past 50 years, especially married women, in the labor force is accounted for one of the most dramatic changes. This change has had some important implications on the way we all live and the way we organize ourselves into and within families. Hence this has affected the society.

The increasing prominence of women in the labor force has generated a research effort designated to investigate various aspects of women's development. Recently, there has been an upsurge of interest in women's issues which has prompted an intensification of research into the role of women in the society. The purpose of this paper is thus to survey and analyze the available evidence on the pronounced change of married women in the labor force. Thus, the Western literature on the labor market involvement of women will also be reviewed and a critical analysis of socio-economic implications for women's development in labor market will be made.

This paper is divided into three major sections. The first part of the paper elucidates the development of married women in labor market. In the second part, an attempt to isolate the primary factors influencing the rise in participation over time and the relative importance of various factors influencing the decision of women to enter the labor force is the main focus of our discussion. The final part of the paper questions the role of women in the labor market and examines some important implications of such development in our society.

It is worth noting here that in this paper, Australia, America and Canada are used only as examples of countries attempting to raise the role and the importance of women in national development. By drawing data from Western countries, particularly the pattern of labor force participation of women, this study hopes to establish a comparative framework for the study of women's issue. Having established such a framework, the potential effects of women's increase participation for national development in Thailand will briefly be discussed. Nevertheless, there are of course some limitations associated with this paper. First, the data is mainly drawn from Western countries, thus limiting the relevancy and applicability to non-western country like Thailand. Second, several studies were based on different sets of data and samples collected at different times, thus limiting the generalizability of the results. Third, it is almost impossible to examine in this paper all factors influencing the rise of female participation in the labor force, thus some political subjects or controversial concepts will not be included in the study. For instance, discussion on such topics as women rights, globalization and changes in social structure would go beyond the scope of this paper and therefore such attempts will not be made. Let's now look at development of married women in labor market first.

Women's Development in Labor Market

We will begin our discussion by briefly looking at one piece of work that gives evidence of the needs of American industry for the services of married women. Oppenheimer (1973: 948) argues that

"Continued economic development in our society has increased the

Demand for female labor, which, combined with demographically induced shifts in the supply of women, has resulted in the considerable post-World War II rise in women's labor force participation."

One can put the same point in another way. After World War II, there has been an enormous expansion of the economy as well as a rapid increase in demand for women workers. In the last few decades, a dramatic and seemingly fundamental change has occurred in the incorporation of a large number of married women into the labor force. The numbers of women in paid employment and their participation rate in the workforce have consistently increased. Only 34 per cent of American women were employed in 1950 (representing 30 per cent of the labor force), 43 per cent were employed in 1970 (38 per cent of the labor force), and 52 per cent were working by 1980 (43 per cent of the workforce). In 1990, these numbers rose to 58 per cent and 45 per cent respectively. (Fagensom and Jackson, 1994: 388) In addition to this, as women make up a greater proportion of the total workforce, their role and importance in organizations become clearer at managerial level. In 1995, 8.7 percent of Fortune 500 corporate officers were women. Currently, that number has risen approximately 64 percent. The U.S. Labor Department has reported that women hold 45 percent of managerial positions. (Sharpe, 2000:74-81)

The pattern of labor force participation of married women is somewhat similar in other Western countries. In Australia, the labor force participation of married women has grown remarkably since the mid-1960s. Their participation rate has risen from 6.5 per cent in June 1947 to 26.6 per cent in June 1966. And by June 1981, these percentages had increased to 42.3 per cent. In this period, married women represented about 60 per cent of the female labor force, and about 22 per cent of the entire labor force. Since World War II, rapid

growth has particularly occurred in the labor force participation rate of married women, in the 25-34 age groups, that is to say, amongst women of child-bearing age. (ABS, 1981: 37-40). Similarly, women's labor force participation rates in Canada increased from 36 per cent in 1970 to 60 per cent in 1991. The increase was greater among married women, growing from 31 per cent in 1971 to 63 per cent in 1991 (Andrew, Coderre and Denis, 1994: 377)

The above pattern of female participation in the labor force is pretty much similar to many developing countries. Although most women were employed in a very limited range of low-productivity jobs where hours worked were long and pay was low, female participation in the Third World labor forces had increased dramatically by 1990, rising to 43% in East Asia, 32% in Latin America, and 13% in the Arab world (Todaro, 1996: 241-242). In Thailand, empirical evidence on employment of married women in the labor force is not available and more importantly studies on female participation in Thai labor force have been spotty, most of them being based on scanty data or relatively small surveys. However, the information from the National Statistical Office can be seen useful and used as a guide to understand the pattern of female labor force participation in Thailand. Tonguthai's study in 1987 has attempted to provide a general background of women in the labor force and the trends and patterns of their participation in the past couple decades. Based on the report of the labor force survey in 1971, 1981 and 1983 by the National Statistical Office in Bangkok, she suggested that female labor force participation rates in Thailand has always been high and stable, remaining at around 66 per cent (77 percent for male) since 1971. A comparison between participation rates of females in urban and rural areas shows a sharp rise in urban areas, up from 39 per cent to 51 per cent during the period 1971-1983, whereas in rural

areas the participation rates remained at the same level (about 70 per cent) for both 1971 and 1983 (Tonguthai, 1987: 191-196).

It should be noted here that direct comparison of female labor force participation rates between Western countries and Thailand using national sources may be misleading simply because of the differences in data collection methods and definition. Nevertheless, this section is not without its merit, basically, it provides us with a comparative framework to look at the general trends of women entering into the labor force during the past 50 years. It is quite conceivable that the pattern of labor force participation of married women noted earlier has implications, not only for married women but also for their families and society at large. Before really delve into a number of socio-economic implications, let's look at key factors influencing the decision of women to enter the labor force first.

Socio-Economic Factors

Education: It has been reported by the U.S. Department of Education that in America the number of bachelor's degrees awarded to women has steadily increased in 1970 and the number of women awarded bachelor's degrees and master's degrees began to exceed that of men in 1982 and 1986 respectively (Fagenson and Jackson, 1994 : 389-391). The situation is somewhat similar to that of Thailand. It has also been reported that education of women in Thailand has increased at all levels. Literacy rates among women increased from 71 per cent in 1960 to 90 per cent in 1980. During the 1970s, the improvement was higher for women than for men, in both rural and urban areas. Figures for educational enrolment indicate that female enrolment (mostly in tertiary education) has been rising more rapidly than that of men (Tonguthai,

1987: 201). At present, Thai women have more opportunities to educate themselves at all levels and in all subjects. Particularly, in certain fields of studies, such as the social sciences and humanities, female students outnumber males (Prasith-rathsint, 1989: 74). Obviously, the dynamic influence of society is clearly apparent in the tendency for women to prolong their years in tertiary institute and postpone entrance into the labor force. Women, whether married or unmarried, do not automatically enter the labor force. As has been argued by Long (1958: 96) that

“their decision to work doubtless depends partly on how abundant and attractive are the jobs open to them and these opportunities appear to increase rapidly with education, especially at high school or above.”

Basically, there seems to be an association between level of education and labor force participation.

Several studies tend to confirm that education is one of the most crucial factors influencing the decision of women to enter the labor force. Recently, in Canada, Andrew, Coderre, and Denis (1994) have attempted to study the relationship between level of education and participation rate. They found that over the last two decades, the increase in participation rates in Canada has been considerably greater among the most educated women. Their basic argument is that educated women are more likely to join the labor market than are uneducated women. To be more specific, as level of education increases, so does participation. (Andrew, Coderre, and Denis, 1994: 377-378) Although, there is considerable evidence that the more highly educated women is more likely to seek a return on her educational investment by resuming work later in the life cycle. Nevertheless, it would be quite misleading to stress that

the rise in participation is in fact the direct effect of education. It can also be argued that, other things being equal, those women with higher education are more likely to have fewer children and therefore tend to stay in the labor market.

Another interesting aspect of education is to recognize the differences between those with trade certificates and those with other certificates. In Thailand, the majority of females with trade certificates obtained those qualifications in the field of hairdressing, whilst the other certificates category is dominated by those with secretarial and nursing qualifications. In essence, this highlights the possible importance of type, as opposed to level, of education, and its concomitant of occupational attainment. Unlike many other Western countries, Thai educational system did not provide opportunities for women in such professional careers as natural scientists, engineering and the like. It has been notably been argued by Prasith-rathsint (1989: 75) that

“vocational training courses for women offered by the government and the private sector mostly aim at training them in the various functions of a housewife, such as cooking, dress-making and making imitation flowers, and overlook the importance of increasing women’s skills in economic production, particularly among rural women who play as significant a role as men do.”

It seems true that social values and attitudes towards the traditional role of women in Thai society and the conflict between preparing a woman to take on an occupation or to be a good wife supporting her husband, have decreased women’s

Opportunities for development and perhaps obstructed them from being fully participated in social, economic and political development. If one could ask here what is the implication of Thai educational system to national development in Thailand? It's worth referring to the argument by Thonguthai that education should be seen as a necessary requirement for economic participation in the modern sector, for the process of industrialization and for the general development of the country. Suffice it to say, the better the woman's education, the more likely she is to be committed to the labor market in order to try and recoup her investment (Tonguthai, 1987: 202-203). This in turn will bring about women's socio-economic contribution to national development in Thailand.

Children: In talking about the relationship between number of children and female participation rate in American labor market, Hoffman and Nye (1974: 21) points out that

"Married women with no children and mothers with only one or two children are more likely to be employed than are mothers with more children."

Both the number and age of children are important determinants of the Decision of female to participate in the labor force. There is no shortage of evidence to support the suggestion that the number of children is negatively associated with the likelihood of participation, while age of children is positively associated with participation. As Finegan (1975: 31) said that

“The presence of young children, especially those of preschool age, greatly increases the amount of work to be done at home, but it also increases the family’s need for money income”.

Suffice it to say, the larger the number produced, the greater the cost, which provides added incentive to the wife to participate in the labor market, in order to help finance the investment or consumption. Such participation is often deferred until the children mature, for example, when they reach high school age, and participation after this point is even greater than in otherwise would have been.

Several empirical studies have done and tend to confirm the significance of the number and age of children as important factors of female participation in labor force. The study by Miller and Volker (1984) which analyses married female participation for different age groups indicates that presence of children is extremely important for married women 25-34 years of age, but of much less significance for older married females. (Miller and Volker, 1984: 85) Furthermore, Ross (1986) estimated that the presence of one child aged less than five years decreased the probability of a married women participating in the workforce by 44 per cent points, though the marginal effects of additional young children were found to be much smaller. (Ross, 1986: 335) Hence, it is no exaggeration to say that both number and age are important influences, especially for children who have not reached a certain level of independence.

Earning: An increase in the hourly wage rate has two possible effects on female participation in the labor force. If the women are not currently in the workforce, it seems to be that the higher earnings on offer will make employment more attractive, and thus induce her to enter the workforce. If, on the other hand, she is already in employment, it seems unlikely that the

higher wages will lead her to withdraw her labor entirely. In fact, it can be both argued that an increase in the wage rate will encourage an already working woman to work more hours, and hence take advantage of the higher rates on offer, and also encourage her to work less hours, earn a similar amount due to the hourly increase in wages, and then enjoy more time for other activities, for example, leisure and domestic work.

British literature suggests that, on balance, increases in wage rates induce women to seek to supply more hours of their labor and moreover labor supply responses of females to changes in their wage rate is greater than that for males. (Killingsworth, 1983: 125) Nevertheless, Miller and Volker (1984), whilst finding a statistically significant positive relationship between earnings and participation, did not regard earnings as being among the most important determinants of variations in female participation. Stated in the simplest possible terms, the data they represent indicate that earnings may be a more important encouragement to participation of married women past the prime child-bearing ages than for younger married women. (Miller and Volker, 1984: 81)

Other Income: There are two sources of other income for women namely the family income and other non-wage income of the women. Thus, it is not surprising to expect that, other things being equal, an increase in other sources of income will discourage workforce participation of females, if we assume that workforce activity is undertaken largely in order to finance family consumption, and leisure yields more enjoyment than does work.

Although most studies confirm that other income tend to discourage workforce participation particularly of married women, difficulties in estimation, due to other income being correlated with other determinants of labor supply, such as earnings and education, preclude any definitive assessment of the

magnitude of the discouragement effect. It has been suggested that other income represent only a minor quantitative impact on female participation. To state more explicitly, this factor does not explain the large increase in female participation throughout the course of this century, but it is, at least, possible that, to the extent that real wages of particularly married males have tended to increase, the observed increase in female participation may have been slightly less than would otherwise have been the case. (Ross, 1984: 127)

Pattern in working time: Several Australian researches on sex differences in work patterns have been undertaken and mainly focused on part-time employment. For example, Haig and Wood (1976) found that the most important

Cause of female participation increases between 1961 and 1972 was growth in demand for labor generated by a rapidly expanding economy. They pointed out that insufficient additional male labor was available to meet this demand and thus employers moved to substitute female labor for unavailable male labor. In the wake of lacking additional male labor in Australia, it seems to be that employers would create part-time jobs if they perceived that potential female workers may only enter employment under these conditions. (Haig and Wood, 1976: 180)

On the other hand, never-married women who have possibly higher levels of educational attainment and career commitment are far more likely to work full-time than part-time. Married women are also more likely to work full-time, but the difference is much smaller. Part-time employment seems to be the most popular for married women particularly with children of infant and primary school age. This is simply because women at that age find that part-time employment is most attractive, since it seems to be the most compatible with their domestic roles. One can put the same point in another way. Part-

time employment tends to be dominated by married women, who may have reasons connected with their lifestyles and family commitments to prefer such employment.

Occupation: Many studies on the changing image of women managers in ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) countries had indicated that rapid economic development in the past two decades has increased the managerial career opportunities for women and a new breed of ASEAN women managers is assuming greater responsibilities in the once male-dominated business world. (Chan, 1988; Crockett, 1988; Chau, 1989 and Tan and Torrington, 1998) Notwithstanding this, there is strong evidence to support the suggestion that women are still concentrated in a narrow range of occupations and industries and that their pattern of employment across all occupations is quite different from men's. (Lewis, 1985: 719) Women in most Western and ASEAN countries tend to be concentrated in such areas as teaching, nursing, clerical, sales and some service sector occupations, and tend to be under-represented in areas such as mining, transportation, skilled trades, administration, and many of the professions. Accordingly, the narrow range of occupational opportunities available to women on their workforce participation has some implications to our community. As Richmond (1974: 294) states that

“...women make decisions about commencing a job partly, at least, on the basis of what jobs are open to them.”

There is no doubt that the socialization influences on both women and men affects their choice of job, education and training. In addition, assumptions of higher turnover and absenteeism, and lesser physical strength of women, as

well as beliefs that males are the proper breadwinners still have some influence in the labor market and the community.

It is worth noting here that occupational opportunity is partly associated with educational attainment, and may suggest that women with higher education may

Participate more fully in part because of a better range of occupations available to them. Hence, women's greater labor force participation and higher levels of education, in turn, appear to have enabled them to raise the femininity of industry.

Several authors have dealt with the significance of occupation with regard to the workforce female participation. For example, such writer as Lewis and Shorten (1986) found that female participation was significantly discouraged in regions characterized by relatively high levels of occupational segregation by sex. However, there was no such discouragement for males. In contrast to that of males, this implies that high levels of occupational segregation primarily reflect a relatively narrow range of occupational opportunities available to women and discourage many women from participating. (Lewis and Shorten, 1986: 28)

Other influences: Haig and Wood (1976) found that high growth rates of the Australian economy during 1961 and 1972 generated high labor demand and would have led to shortages of labor if women had not entered the workforce in large numbers. Therefore, they further argued that the substitution, but not replacement, of women for men has been an important factor in the demand for married women. (Haig and Wood, 1976: 184) On the other hand, Lewis (1985) has argued that this proposition is not supported by the fact that high levels of occupational segregation by sex failed to decline appreciably

over the period indicating that few women were entering non-traditional areas as a substitute for scarce male labor. (Lewis, 1985: 719)

It seems appropriate to refer to the work of Gregory, McMahon and Whittingham which focuses on the demand-side influence on the growth of female participation. They concluded that participation increases by age during 1966 and 1980 could not be satisfactorily explained in terms of supply side influences such as potential earnings, other income, presence of children, education, and marital status and so on. Rather these increases were more satisfactorily explained by demand-side explanations, which emphasized growth in demand in female-intensive industries, which stimulated female labor demand even in the face of the increased cost (relative to males) with respect to female labor after the equal pay decisions of the late 1960s and early 1970s, due to rigid job segregation by sex. (Gregory, McMahon and Whittingham, 1985: 301) Hence, it seems logical to say that demand-side influences are also crucial in explaining increases in female participation.

Socio-Economic Implications

The increase of female participation in the labor force affects the composition of output both directly and indirectly through the income effect. That is, the increased participation of women results in higher incomes and thus leisure becomes more affordable due to higher wages. Suffice it to say, working women have a greater demand for household capital goods. Such goods include take-away food, restaurants and domestic services which are close substitutes for goods produced in the household. Moreover, they have a greater demand for work-related goods and services, for instance, business suits and dresses, and dry-cleaning. These, in turn, result in the expectation

that their demand for household goods which require large amounts of time in their consumption, such as sewing machines and knitting materials, would have been decreased. To be more precise, the increase in female participation also leads to increased household income and thus increase demand for such goods as expensive automobiles, designer clothes and overseas tourism.

As indicated previously, education is one of the most important factors influencing the female participation. However, increases in the participation rate can also influence the amount and type of education women pursue. Therefore, it seems appropriate to perceive that substantial increases in participation of women in secondary and tertiary education are partly attributable to increased in anticipated workforce participation.

In talking about the importance of education and female participation in Thai labor force, Thomson and Bhongsvej (1995: 29) strongly suggests that

“With the increasing participation of women in the labor force, it is necessary to make sure that the quality of education and the skills they receive, match those that are required for employment. Moreover, in order to eliminate gender stereotyping of roles, attempts should also be made to induct women in technical, scientific and other non-traditional fields of study”.

In other words, Thai government should ensure better linkage between women’s employment and education.

One further point can be mentioned here is that there are numerous policy implications which are suggested by empirical findings and other results from overseas studies. It is important that young people realize the effect that interruptions can have on wages and lifetime earnings. For example, interruptions

which are part of a strategic process for securing a better job can enhance earnings for both males and females. So too can interruptions for such reasons as family commitments or travel and relaxation may seriously erode wage growth, particularly of females and those over 21 years of age. As a consequence, longer and more frequent interruption are likely to have a high opportunity cost in terms of foregone lifetime earnings. (Lewis and Shorten, 1992: 16)

In most Western countries, many married women tend to leave the labor force to have children and to look after them when they are young. After their children are older they re-enter the labor force. Such intermittent participation has several

Consequences, for example, while women drop out of the labor force they often tend to stop acquiring new skills and knowledge. In other words, the process of human capital formation is halted. It has been notably argued by Cox (1984: 402) that

“Work interruptions have a significant impact on the earnings profiles of women. These interruptions affect the lifetime earnings development in a variety of ways. The growth rate of earnings in each life cycle stage and the depreciation rate of human capital all depend upon prior and future labor market experience.”

By the same token, the knowledge and skills they have already acquired diminish from the lack of use and because some of them have become outdated as well. Therefore, one can put the same point in another way, that is, the appreciation of human capital is interrupted and the depreciation of human capital begins. As a result of these and other factors, women who re-enter the labor force tend to earn less than when they left their last job. In

particular, this is true when the interruption is in the longer period, for instance, more than one year.

Furthermore, the increase in female participation particularly of married women has several other implications for the family. For example, children of working mothers are likely to become more independent and capable of looking after themselves and their younger brothers and sisters. Husbands may also involve with the household work. As a matter of fact, women who make a direct financial contribution to the family may take a greater part in decision making of the household. There are many potential effects of the increased participation of women which seem to be virtually endless. There is no doubt that such effects have long been concerned with our community. It is very important to stress here that we should not attribute all that is good or bad in society to the increased participation of women. Nevertheless, one further explanation can be mentioned here is that the changing attitudes of women (and perhaps men as well) towards the role of women in our society.

References

- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). 1981. *The labor force, Australia*. Canberra: AGPS.
- Andrew, C., Coderre, C., and Denis, A. 1994. "Women in management: The Canadian experience." Pp. 377-387 in *Competitive frontiers: Women managers in a global economy*, ed. N. J. Adler, D.N. Izraeli. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers.
- Babcock, L., and Laschever, S. 2003. *Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Bowen, W., and Finegan, T, A. 1969. *The Economics of labor force participation*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Cain, G, G. 1966. *Married women in the labor force: An economic analysis*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Chan, A. 1988. "Women managers in Singapore: Citizens for tomorrow's economy." Pp. 54-73 in *Women in Management Worldwide*, eds. Adler, N. and Izraeli, D.N. New York: M.E.Sharpe Inc.
- Chua, T, T. 1989. "Changing image of women executives in Singapore and other ASEAN countries." *Singapore Management Review* (January): 25-36.
- Cox, D. 1984. "Panel estimates of the effects of career interruption on the earnings of women." *Economic Inquiry* (July): 386-403.
- Crockett, V. 1988. "Women managers in Indonesia." Pp. 74-102 in *Women in Management Worldwide*, eds. Adler, N. and Izraeli, D.N. New York: M.E. Sharpe Inc.

References

- Fagenson, E., and Jackson, J. J. 1994. "The status of women managers in the United States." Pp. 388-404 in *Competitive frontiers: Women managers in a global economy*, ed. N. J. Adler, D. N. Izraeli. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers.
- Finegan, T. A. 1975. "Participation of married women in the labor force." in *Sex, discrimination, and the division of labor*, ed. C.B. Lloyd. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Glickman, A. S. 1982. *The changing composition of the workforce: Implications for future research and its application*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Gregory, R. G., McMahon, P., and Whittingham B. 1985. "Women in the Australian labor force: Trends causes and consequences." *Journal of labor economics* 3(2): s293-s309.
- Haig, B. D., and Wood, M. P. 1976. "A simulation study of married women in the Australian workforce 1961-1972." *Australian Economic Paper* 15: 171-185.
- Hoffman, L. W., and Nye, F. I. 1974. *Working mothers: An evaluative review of the consequences for wife, husband, and child*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Killingsworth, M. 1983. *Labor supply*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lewis, D. 1985. "The sources of changes in the occupational segregation of Australian women." *Economic Record* (December): 719-736.
- Lewis, D. E., and Shorten, B. 1986. *Labor force participation, relative wages and occupational egregation*. Monograph.

References

- Lewis, D, E, and Shorten, B. 1992. "The effects of career, interruptions on young men and women." *Australian Bulletin of Labor* (January): 1-19.
- Long, C, D. 1958. *The Labor force under changing income and employment*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Mackenzie, N. 1962. *Women in Australia*. Melbourne: F, W, Cheshire.
- Miller, P, W., and Volker, P, A. 1984. "Married women and the labor force : aspects of supply analysis." Pp. 75-87 in *Labor force participation in Australia*, ed. A., J., Kaspura. Canberra Bureau of labor market research, AGPS.
- Oppenheimer, V, K. 1973. "Demographic influence on female employment and the status of women." *American Journal of Sociology*, no. 78 (January).
- Prasith-rathsint, S. 1989. "Status of Women in Thailand." Pp. 19-63 in *Women and Population Dynamics : Perspectives from Asian Countries*, ed. K., Mahadevan. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Richmond, K. 1974. "The workforce participation of married women in Australia." Pp. 267-305 in *Social change in Australia Readings in Sociology*, ed. D, E, Edgar. Melbourne: Cheshire.
- Ross, R, T. 1984. "Disaggregate labor supply functions : some evidence from the 1980 surveys of married women in Sydney." Pp. 121-128 in *Labor force participation in Australia*, ed. A, J, Kaspura. Canberra: Bureau of Labor Market Research, AGPS.
- Ross, P, T. 1986. "Analysis of the 1980 Sydney surveys of work patterns of married women: further results." *Economic Record*, 62: 325-327.

References

- Sharpe, R. 2000. "As Leaders, Women Rule." *BusinessWeek* (November): 74-81.
- Tan, C, H., and Torrington, D. 1998. *Human Resource Management for Southeast Asia and Hong Kong*. Singapore: Simon & Schuster (Asia) Pte., Ltd.
- Thomson, S., and Bhongsvej, M. 1995. *Women Reshaping the Society: A Challenge for the Remaining Decade*. Gender and Development Research Institute, Bangkok.
- Todaro, M, P. 1996. *Economic Development*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.
- Tonguthai, P. 1987. "Women and work in Thailand and the Philippines" Pp.191-220 in *Women's Economic Participation in Asia and the Pacific*. United Nations, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok.
- Ulrich, D., and Brockbank, W.2005. *The HR Value Proposition*. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Press.
- Young, C, M. 1975. "A note on Demographic influences on the economic contribution of wives and children during the family life cycle." *Economic Record* (March): 84-92.
- Young, C, M. 1978. "Work sequences of women during the family life cycle." *Journal of Marriage and the family* (May): 401-411.