



GENDER INEQUALITY IN THE LABOR MARKET: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN BANGLADESH AND THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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Abstract: Gender inequality in the labor market is a common occurrence across the developed or least developed countries. The objective of the study was to explore how the nature and extent of gender inequality in the labor market vary between a developed and a least developed country. In this regard, the Czech Republic as a developed and Bangladesh as a least developed country were selected purposively considering their socioeconomic status. A quantitative content analysis was done to compare the gender inequality in labor market using key databases including Labor Force Survey 2010 of Bangladesh, Labor Force Survey 2013 of Czech Republic, Eurostat 2014, ILO 2013, and World Bank 2012. The findings reveal that for the labor force participation, the number of Bangladeshi women (36 percent) is found less than half of men (82.5 percent) whereas, in Czech, the difference between men (68.1 percent) and women (59.5 percent) is much lower in this sector. While women in both countries failed to keep pace with men in employment, this gap is broader in Bangladesh. Moreover, in two countries, women's appearance in higher level positions such as administrative, managerial and technical remain negligible and gender pay gap is found 21 percent for the Czech Republic and 25 percent for Bangladesh. In general, although gender inequality persists in the labor market of both countries, the ratio of inequalities is minor in the Czech labor market than that of Bangladesh. Attending of women in technical and vocational education and promoting gender blind mindset during recruitment can ensure gender equality in the labor market to a great extent. This study calls for integrating new dimensions of gender inequality such as underemployment, parenting and unemployment, and comparing more than two countries to have a holistic picture, which could stimulate dialogue of social research.

Keywords: Gender inequality, Labor market, Comparison, Bangladesh, The Czech Republic

Introduction

It is now the universal truth that women face inequality in the labor market than their men counterpart globally. This issue is related to gender structure approach as labor market works as a social institution which is external to the individual that includes power, the legal system, and an organizational barrier that promotes gender inequality (Eitzen & Baca-Zinn, 2000). However, the inequality varies from country to country based on norms, values, culture and so forth. So, this

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conception is validated by vertical inequalities, with cross-cultural data. Triventi et al. (2015) points out that while women go into more high-status jobs than men in the majority countries, there is a female difficulty in financial returns among the participant of current labor market. Women in developing countries are comparatively more lagging behind in labor market than that of developed countries. Women have less access to resources, lower income and even few opportunities in job markets. In developing areas such as South Asia- women on average have income around half of the men's income whereas, in industrialized countries like North America, women earn above 60 percent of their male counterpart (Ahmed & Maitra, 2010).

An example of the findings from a cross-country analysis on gender inequality in labor market can be the work of Susan Horton. Horton (1996) in a seven-country study of women in East Asian labor markets found that differences in returns to male and female characteristics account for at least half the gap between male and female earnings.

Akter (1999) focusing Bangladesh, found that 70 percent of the total wage gap is due to within-job discrimination in rural labor market. Kapsos (2008) found that women in non-agricultural sectors in Bangladesh earn 21 percent less per hour than men. The labor market in Bangladesh is gender segregated, with the bulk of women's work taking place in non-market activities in the home or in the informal sector. Those in the formal sector (both public and private) are generally employed in 'female-intensive industries' such as the ready-made garments (RMG) sector, shrimp processing and pharmaceuticals (Ahmed & Maitra, 2010).

On the contrary, Czech Republic - a developed country with an outstanding economic growth and high living standard is not free from gender inequality in the job market. The employment rate of women (60.7 percent) in the Czech Republic is slightly more than the EU-27 average (59.6 percent) in the year 2014 (Eurostat, 2014a). Also, women still do not participate to the same degree as men in the labor market (European Commission, 2013). Discrimination of women is reflected in lower salaries obtained by women for work of the same or of similar quality in the Czech Republic (Lisowska, 2007).

Question may arise why such a comparative analysis on gender inequality in labor market is needed. A stream of orthodox development theories suggests that least developed countries should follow the path of developed countries for being developed by adopting strategies such as increased investment in technology, human capital and most importantly labor migration from traditional sector to modern sector (Todaro & Smith, 2015). Specifically, labor has always been and is being perceived as a major surplus generating factor of production (Selwyn, 2016). Therefore, a comparative analysis between a developed and a least developed country in terms of labor force mobilization opens up two windows of opportunity. First, it provides a comprehensive understanding on the state of labor market of two distinct countries. Second, it would show probable policy responses on the part of the government for the least developed country. A major concern for understanding the dynamics of labor market is gender. While a large majority of adult men is serving as paid jobs across the world, this is not the case for the women. There exists gender gap in labor force participation across countries (Antecol, 2000). Taking the context into account, this study, therefore, comes up with a comparative analysis between two countries i.e. Bangladesh and Czech Republic on gender inequality in labor market. There exists a knowledge gap in this regard and this study attempts to address this. The aim of the study is to explore whether or not gender inequality exists in the labor market in both developed and least developed countries; and to investigate the extent to which gender inequality prevails between a least and a highly developed country. Therefore, the guiding question that dictates this research is: how does gender inequality vary by labor force

participation, employment, income and unemployment in the labor market of developed and least developed countries?

Theoretical Framework

Sex segregation in the labor market: It is apparently opined that cross-country differences in earning inequality are associated to variation in sex segregation (Jacobs & Lim, 1988; Steinberg & Cook, 1988). The lowest differences of earning by sex in the countries are observed where female have made gains in obtaining access to the same jobs as their counterpart male (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). Moreover, they did not observe any direct relationship between the status of women in the labor market and their economic well-being over the world. So, the sense of occupational sex segregation or integration depends on the nature of the occupational structure and the level of economic development. Many developing countries look as though they have relatively sex-integrated occupational structures because a large proportion of the labor force is in agriculture or garments sector (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). Ward (1990) found two contradictory future of women with modern development, such as on the one side, women may be exempted fully from few 'modern' positions like managers, and the other side they may be incorporated in low-wage earning sectors like worker that is mainly flexible labor force.

Corporatism and the power of labor: If it is tried to depict wage comparison between countries, it is likely to find relatively small relationship between sex segregation and gender earnings inequalities (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). Goldthorpe (1984) discussed a few of these differences under the term 'corporatism' that can be used here to focus on the industrial relations and political planning. Additionally, he claims that differences among capitalist industrial relations systems sharpened with declining efficiency of the market and slow economic growth of the last more than a few decades. European countries, such as Sweden or Czech Republic with strong labor union and democratic government, 'corporatism', which involves an institutionalization of centralized bargaining power among the state, employers and labors increased (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). It is contended that one of the values of these strategies was a lessening in labor market segmentation and interest group bargaining and a subsequent increased standardization of wages (Kalleberg & Colbjornsen, 1991).

Contrary, it is not observed any stable plan for laborers in the countries like Bangladesh. Rosenfeld & Kalleberg (1991) identified it a strategy of dualism due to having weak unions and weak political parties, mostly leftist and employers were the crucial actors, who attempted to counter the power of labor unions by expanding the areas in which market forces would be free to operate, while linking 'valued' workers to their firms through internal labor markets and benefits structures. Hence, few problems in such countries always are: (i) inconsistent employment conditions, (ii) significant economic inequality, and (iii) close relation of earnings with the power of employers as well as the position of workers within industries (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991).

The human capital model: It is possible to explain the gender inequality between countries as a part by sex differences in human capital (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). According to the human capital model, every human possesses several types of human capital which includes the abilities and skills people have and achieved through three processes: (i) training, (ii) education and (iii) experience, which are the basis of the earnings they receive (Grybaite, 2006). Basically, women are less likely be productive than men in some countries than in others (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991). This analysis supports that determinants including education or experience may account for part of any cross-national differences in gender earnings gaps. Engagement of women with work to minimize losses associated with their more irregular attachment to the labor force (Mincer & Polachek, 1974). Women compared with men lean towards to accumulate less labor market experience and it is true since the traditional formation of division of labor by gender in the family of world civilization. Moreover, it is observed that women expect shorter and more irregular work live because they get

poor incentives to invest in labor market oriented formal education and on the job training that resulting smaller human capital investments which in turn will lower their earnings than male (Grybaite, 2006). Mincer & Polachek (1974) found that the longer hours that women devote on housework may also lessen the effort put into formal jobs compared to men. The longer hours in housework reduce the formal work hours that reduces productivity and wages. So, the employers hesitate to employ women fearing that the training cost invested by the firms will not be recovered (Grybaite, 2006). The central argument of the model is that women having less experience than the men will earn less than the men (Blau et al., 2000).

In the explanation of human capital and gender earning gaps, Nobel laureate economist Gary S. played a decisive role. Traditionally, women are more likely to engage in part-time and irregular jobs than men as they usually withdrew themselves from the labor market for a while after having children that reduce the incentives to further invest behind education and training to improve earning and skill for the job (Becker, 1985). He found a changing trend with family size declined, divorce rate and service sectors increased, large women were employed where the economic development raised the income of both women and men. Based on the analysis of several previous studies, Grybaite (2006) stated that human capital factors, particularly lack of women's experience about labor market is important in explaining labor market inequality. But others criticized that human capital theory is based on a broad assumption and fails to take into account the real scenario for labor market inequality. To them, social norms play a vital role about what women and men ought to do beyond their skills. Furthermore, human capital differences may not explain the entire wage gap. Variables such as education or work experience can be used to explain merely a limited part of the wage gaps (Grybaite, 2006). Countries with greater access of women in education and training ensure gender equality in the labor market (Rosenfeld & Kalleberg, 1991).

Materials and methods

This is a quantitative study and content analysis was followed to conduct the study. This study made a comparison about gender inequality in the labor market between highly developed and least developed country (LDC) country. As an LDC, Bangladesh and as a highly developed country, the Czech Republic were purposively chosen for this study due to accessibility of data. Bangladesh, an LDC with a market-based mixed economy, is one of the next eleven emerging markets. Its per-capita income was US\$1,190 in 2014, with a GDP of \$209 billion (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2014). The Czech Republic is a developed country with an advanced, high income export-oriented social market economy based on services, manufacturing and innovation (Velinger, 2006). In human development report, Czech Republic ranked 17th in the category of gender inequality index (United Nations Development Programme, 2011).

To conduct the quantitative content analysis, the study used mainly Labor Force Survey 2010 conducted by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) in 2011 and Labor Force Survey 2013 conducted by Czech Statistical Organization (CZSO) in 2014. Besides, Eurostat 2014, International Labor Organization 2013, World Bank 2012 and other published reports, book chapters, journals related to labor market were used.

Most of the secondary texts were retrieved from the official websites of Bangladesh and Czech governments and the rest of the articles were from official websites in 2014. All updated reports and articles were gathered during the study period of 2014. Reports and journal-related information was extracted from online publications. This information included the title of articles, time of publication, keywords, number of authors, a specialty of authors, authors' institution affiliation, study designs, and the sampling methods. The abstract of each piece of writing was carefully read and if necessary, the full-text of the article was investigated.

Mainly five aspects such as labor force participation, employment rate, nature of work, income and unemployment were included to analyze gender inequality in the labor market. Descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages and means for all variables were computed to analyze data. To show a comparison of variables, the bivariate analysis is used, and data were mostly presented in tables and graphs in accordance with the research questions of the present study. Extracted data from downloaded texts was entered in Microsoft Excel spreadsheets to draw the graphs. Moreover, data were computed and merged in many cases from original sources for the advantage of writing report.

Results

Labor force participation by gender: Figure 1 presents the information about the total number of labor force participation of men and women in Bangladesh and Czech Republic. In Bangladesh, the participation of men (82.5 percent) in labor force was more than double in comparison with women (36 percent) in 2010. In 2013, in the Czech Republic, though men’s participation is still higher (17 percentage points more compared to women), it is not counted too much difference like Bangladesh. However, though gender difference in labor force participation was observed in both Bangladesh and the Czech Republic, the average rate of participation was almost same.

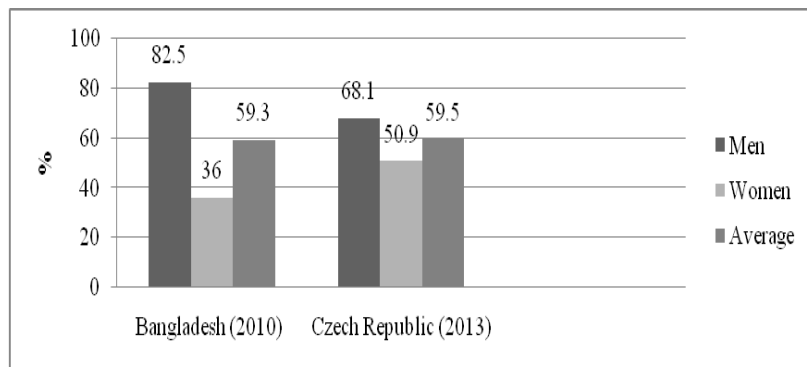


Fig. 01. Labor force participation rate by gender (Age 15+) (BBS, 2011; Czech Statistical Office, 2014a)

Labor force by age group and gender: Data in table 1 represents the labor force participation rate of Bangladesh and the Czech Republic in different age groups and gender. In 2010, in Bangladesh, women as compared with men played a dominant role in labor force till the age group of 30 to 44. But this tendency of labor force participation of Bangladeshi women declined and reached to the half (11.9 percent) of men’s (22.3 percent) participation in the age group of 45 to 59 and it drastically fell down in the age group 60+ that was counted one-quarter of men’s participation as the RMGs and other export processing industry that demands young and active personnel.

In the Czech Republic (2013), men and women had around the same rate of participation at the first two age groups. In the third age group (45 to 59), women had around 5 percent more participation than men and, in final age group (60+), men compared to women had 2 percent more participation.

Both in Bangladesh and the Czech Republic, the highest number of overall participation was roughly observed in the age group 30 to 44 and the lowest was observed in the age group of 60+.

Conversely, the highest flow of participation in the labor market of Bangladeshi men and women was observed in the first two age groups (15-29 and 30-44), whereas in the age brackets of 30-44 and 45-59, Czech men and women highly participated in the labor force. Again, in the 60+, the decline of labor force participation of women in the Czech Republic was not so unexpected like Bangladeshi women in the same age group. So, the lower presence of Bangladeshi women compared with their men counterpart in labor market starts from the age group of 45 to 59 in contrast to 60+ for the Czech women.

Table 1. Labor force aged 15 years and over by age group and gender (BBS, 2011; Czech Statistical Office, 2014a)

Age Group	Bangladesh (2010)		The Czech Republic (2013)	
	Men (percent)	Women (percent)	Men (percent)	Women (percent)
15 to 29	33.2	45.4	18.5	16.6
30 to 44	36.2	40.8	42.1	41.4
45 to 59	22.3	11.9	32.3	37.2
60 or more	8.3	1.9	7.0	4.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Employment by gender: Data in figure 2 provides an indication of unambiguous disparities between male and female in employment. In Bangladesh, while 79.2 percent of men of working age were employed in 2010, the corresponding figure for women was just 33.9 per cent – a difference of 45.2 percentage points. Such sharp differences, although shrinking (the gap was almost 60 percentage points in year 1999-2000), point to persistent barriers to employment among Bangladeshi women, the origins of which can be found, inter alia, in society’s prevailing view of women as family and household managers rather than employed persons (International Labor Organization, 2013).

In the Czech Republic, 75.7 percent men were employed whereas women were counted 59.6 percent in the same figure, a difference of 16 percentage points. Though in both countries, inequality is observed between male and female in employment rate, the rate is still approximately 26 percent lower in the Czech Republic than Bangladesh.

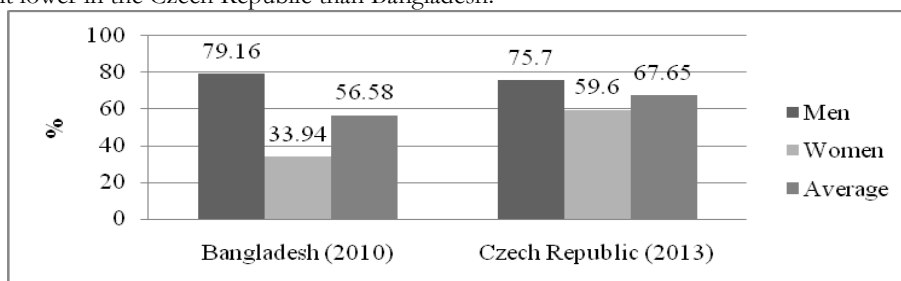


Fig. 02. Employment rate by gender (ILO, 2013; Eurostat, 2014)

Employment by occupations and gender: In Bangladesh, men and women are occupied in eight major occupational categories, presented in figure 3, identified in labor force survey conducted by BBS in 2011. For men, it was observed that 40 percent were engaged in agriculture, forestry and fisheries occupation followed by production and transport laborer (26.7 percent) and sales worker (18.1 percent). Among the women, the highest 64.8 percent were engaged in agriculture, forestry,

fisheries occupation followed by production & transport laborers (14 percent) and service worker (8.1 percent).

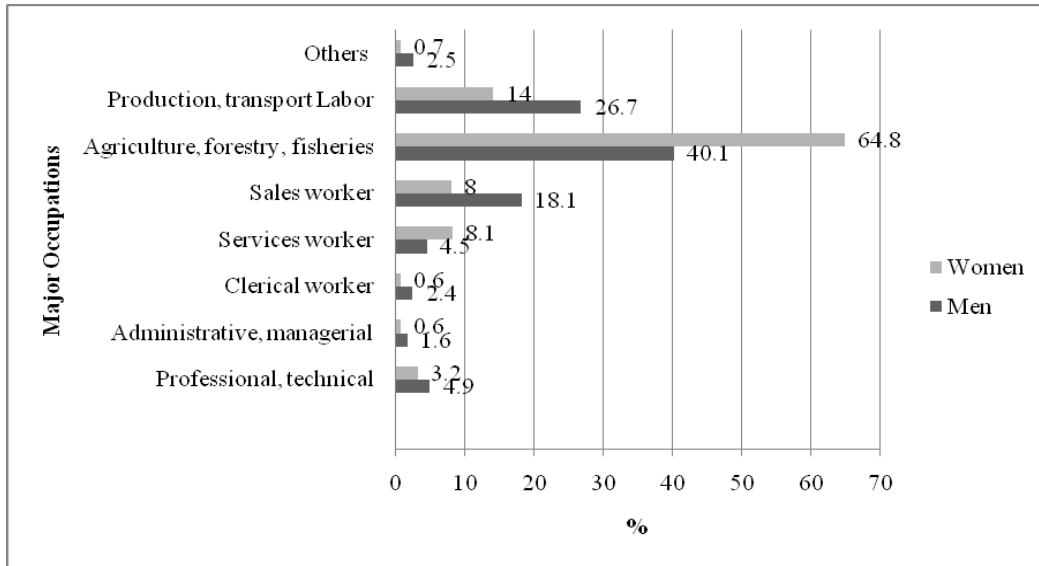


Fig. 03. Employed persons by major occupations and gender in Bangladesh (BBS, 2011)

Again, in the Czech Republic, figure 4 represents ten categories of occupations designed by CZ-ISCO-08, the Czech methodological center for classification of employment. Men in 2013 were occupied in craft and related forestry and fishery workers that were counted the highest 27.3 percent, followed by technicians and associate (18.3 percent) and professional (11.4 percent). For women, the highest rate was counted 22.9 percent for service and sales workers, followed by professionals (18.5 percent) and technician and associate (17.2 percent).

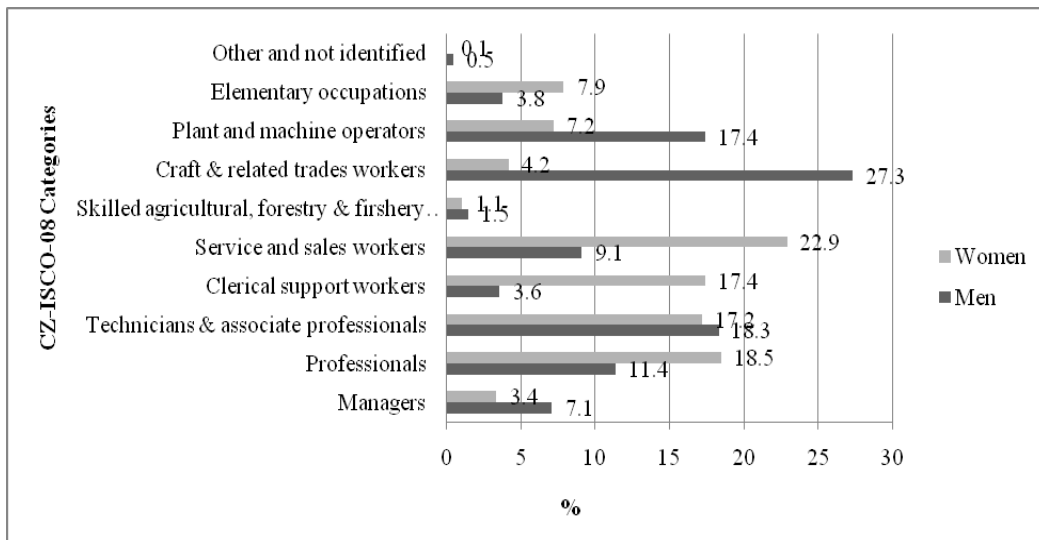


Fig. 04. Employed persons by major occupations and gender in the Czech Republic (Czech Statistical Office, 2014b)

In comparison, in the topmost prestigious levels i.e. administrative, managerial and professional positions the gender difference in both Bangladesh and the Czech Republic was observed. In Bangladesh, 1.6 percent men hold the position as administrative, manager whereas women had only 0.6 percent that is practically 63 percentages lower than men in this case. Again, 4.9 percent men had the job as a professional while women in the same category were counted for 3.2 percent that represents 21 percentage points more men's dominance in this specific job category. On the contrary, 24 percentages more women compared with men were engaged as professionals in the Czech labor market. But as a manager, the difference of more than 50 percentages between men (7.1 percent) and women (3.4 percent) were found in the same country. It means that women have a lower level of decision making positions in offices than their men counterpart.

Employment by nature of work: The flexibility of work to some extent depends on the nature of work. In table 2, data give information about two types of work i.e. permanent and temporary. Male are more dominant especially in Bangladesh than the Czech Republic in permanent work category, whereas female of Bangladesh (11.3 percent) compared to male (1.9 percent) showed significantly higher involvement in the temporary jobs with a difference of 9.4 percentage points than the female of the Czech Republic with 3.6 percent points of difference.

Table 2. Employment by nature of work and gender (BBS, 2011; Czech Statistical Office, 2014c)

Nature of Work	Bangladesh (2010)				The Czech Republic (2013)			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Number (Thousand)	%	Number (Thousand)	%	Number (Thousand)	%	Number (Thousand)	%
Permanent	37399	98.1	14385	88.7	2616.7	93.65	1928.8	90.03
Temporary	702	1.9	1824	11.3	177.1	6.35	213.7	9.97
Total	38101	100.0	16209	100.0	2793.8	100.0	2142.5	100.0

Income by gender: Data in table 3 provide information about the monthly earnings of different age groups, average and gender wage gap between male and female in Bangladesh and the Czech Republic. For Bangladesh, the highest (50 percent) male had income in the earning band EUR16-51, followed by 35.2 percent and 10.5 percent in bands EUR52-102 and EUR103-206 respectively. Like the male, female showed their highest three incomes in the earnings bands EUR16-51 (41 percent), EUR52-102 (41.8 percent) and EUR103-206 (11.2 percent). But male had almost double representations compared with the female for the top two earnings bands such as EUR 207-362 and EUR 363+. Again, the average income of Bangladeshi people is EUR 126 and among them, the average of the male is EUR 144 and EUR 109 is for female.

For the Czech Republic, both male (53.15 percent) and female (45.43 percent) have the highest earnings when their earning band is EUR 725-1449, followed by band EUR 362-724 (male 28.25 percent & female 43.33 percent) and EUR 1450-2174 (male 9.46 percent and female 4.83 percent).

In comparison, when the earning bands increase, females' representation decreases up to 50 percent in both countries, even one-third female compared to male in the Czech Republic for the highest earning band 2900+. But in the Czech Republic (21 percent) compared with Bangladesh (25 percent), though the difference is not substantial, represented 4 percentage points lower in overall gender pay gap in 2014. So it can be said that gender pay gap is higher in Bangladesh than the Czech Republic.

Table 3. Salaried persons aged 15 years and over by monthly income and sex (BBS, 2011 & 2013; Czech Statistical Office, 2014d)

Bangladesh (2010)			The Czech Republic (2013)		
Earnings Bands ¹ (EUR)	Men (percent)	Women (percent)	Earnings Bands (EUR)	Men (percent)	Women (percent)
<16	1.1	3.9	<362	3.83	4.56
16-51	50.1	41.3	362-724	28.25	43.33
52-102	35.2	41.8	725-1449	53.15	45.43
103-206	10.5	11.2	1450-2174	9.46	4.83
207-362	2.1	1.3	2175-2895	2.60	1.07
363+	1.0	0.5	2900+	2.71	0.78
Total	100.0	100.0	Total	100.0	100.0
Average 126	144	109	Average 958	1060	833
Gender Pay Gap ² (percent)	25.0		21.0		

Unemployment by gender: Figure 5 shows that the average unemployment rate of Bangladesh in 2012 was 4.6, in which men represented 4 percent and women 5.2 percent. In the Czech Republic, in 2014, the rate of unemployment of the men was counted as 4.8 percent whereas female was 6.7 percent and the average was 5.75. In Bangladesh the unemployment rate of men and women is lower than that of the Czech Republic. The gap of unemployment between men and women in Bangladesh and the Czech Republic is 1.2 and 1.9 percent respectively.

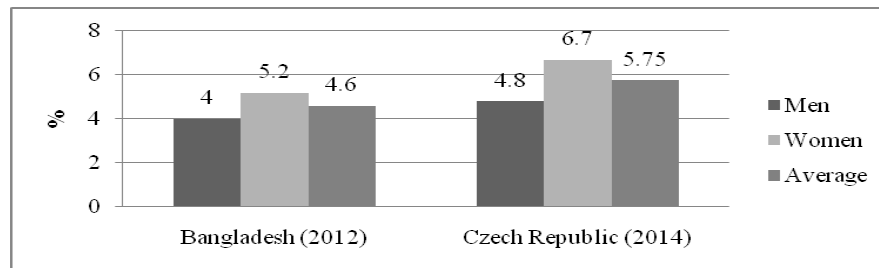


Fig. 05. Unemployment rate by gender (World Bank, 2012; Eurostat, 2014b)

Discussion

Gender inequality exists in labor markets in both the Czech Republic and Bangladesh, but the nature and extent of the inequality are different. Inequalities in the labor market can occur in different ways, such as by gender, sexual orientation, age, race, disabilities, religion, language, etc. Women in least developed countries like Bangladesh are lagging behind men in terms of labor force participation and occupational positions in the labor market. Participation of women labor force in Bangladesh is less than half of men while minimal differences in labor force participation exist between women and men in the Czech Republic. Though the average rate of labor force participation in these two countries are almost same, but the participation rate of women labor is higher in the Czech Republic than in Bangladesh due to traditional patriarchal social structure that sets constraints to mobility of women outside the home. Because women in the patriarchal social structure cannot take this decision of her own and male members dictate her (Kabeer, 2004, 2012; Rahman & Islam, 2013).

¹ Currency for both countries (BDT & CZK) were converted to Euro using XE Currency converter, retrieved on November 30, 2014 (<http://www.xe.com/currencyconverter/>)

² Gender Pay Gap is *the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees*(European Commission, 2011, p.2).

Traditional society like Bangladesh perceives that the primary role of women is to fulfill reproductive and domestic functions, rather than fully participate in education, training, and paid work (International Labor Organization, 2006). Participation of young aged women is higher in Bangladesh due to increasing the female-intensive industries like ready-made garments (RMG) and shrimp processing which attracts younger than aged (Ahmed & Maitra, 2010) that demand lower level of education and vocational training. On the other hand, the young women aged 15-24 years have higher participation in education and training (67 percent) that keeps them outside from the labor force participation in the Czech Republic. Therefore, the middle-aged women are higher in the labor market of the Czech Republic with the opportunity of part-time jobs or flexible work time due to family reasons (Czech Statistical Office, 2014a) along with the availability and affordability of the formal childcare centers which are almost absent in Bangladesh.

Women encounter difficulty in terms of their position and hierarchy within occupations than men in the labor market of Bangladesh and the Czech Republic. Men are in better paid, prestigious and managerial occupational positions but women are in clerical and lower paid services, as well as the overwhelmingly large number is engaged in agricultural sectors in Bangladesh because women are given the 'secondary earner' status within the household (International Labor Organization and Asian Development Bank, 2011) while better paid prestigious occupations and professional and technical positions are almost equally shared by both women and men in the Czech Republic. Relatively Czech women have an equal access to education and employment that shows better professional positions (Koenig, 1999) than the women in Bangladesh. Still, women in Bangladesh get married at a lower age and it is evident that 59 percent married before at the age of 18 years (National Institute of Population Research and Training et al., 2016) and get less opportunity to take education to have a better skill in spite of restless efforts of the government and non-government organizations, whereas in Czech Republic the mean age at which women first get married is 30 (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2016). That explains a portion of why the rate of women employment in Bangladesh is about half of the women employment in the Czech Republic.

Majority of women in the labor market of Bangladesh is engaged in informal job sectors like agriculture, forestry and fisheries, whereas in the Czech Republic women mostly work in the formal jobs sectors like service and sales workers. Besides, most of the women in Bangladesh work in the temporary jobs as these jobs require fewer skills and educational attainment but permanent jobs are done by many of the women in the Czech Republic due to their higher level of education and skills. Besides, early marriage and higher fertility compel women to involve in temporary jobs in Bangladesh. Professional and technical assistance positions are high among the women in the Czech Republic while few women in Bangladesh are holding these positions. Another factor that affects the women's lower position and lower pay in labor market of Bangladesh is the prevailing traditional social attitudes that man's job is to earn money and women's job is to look after the home and family, but in the Czech Republic both women and men think that contribution to household income is also a part of women's responsibility (Ferber & Raabe, 2003).

The unemployment rate is slightly higher among the Czech women as compared to the women of Bangladesh. Majority of the women in Bangladesh are restricted to non-monetized domestic chores. To some extent they are also engaged in some selected agricultural activities of family that are not recognized as paid jobs (Hossain & Tisdell, 2005). But majority of the women in the Czech society are involved in formal economic activities.

Conclusion

Gender inequality in the labor market is observed regardless the country is developed or not. Five major aspects are incorporated to measure gender inequality including labor force participation, employment, income, major occupations and unemployment. Considering gender inequality in labor market, representation of women is always lower as compared to men. Moreover, in cross-country observation, the rate of gender inequality in labor market of the Czech Republic is lower in every dimension except the unemployment rate compared with Bangladesh. If Bangladesh wants to be developed, labor force participation of women must be increased by promoting technical education like the Czech Republic. Besides, equity should be maintained for employment and payment by ensuring safe and secured working environment, provision of same salary or wage of same jobs for both men and women, reducing girl's early marriage, decreasing early pregnancy and child birth, lowering fertility rate of women, increasing women participation in higher education and vocational training, freeing women from the household chores and promoting gender blind mindset of both men and women etc.

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