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Globalization and Gender Gaps in Employment
and Occupational Opportunities

Yoav Roll, Moshe Semyonov, Hadas Mandel

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Yoav Roll[1], Moshe Semyonov[2], Hadas Mandel[3]

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Abstract

Despite the steady increase in the number of women who join the labor force, there are still substantial cross-country variations in both women's labor force participation and gender-linked occupational inequality. Utilizing micro-data from 47 countries (circa 2013) obtained from the Luxembourg Income Study, we examine the extent to which globalization and each of its three components (economic, social and political) affect gender-based economic inequality. In particular, we investigate the effect of globalization on two outcomes: women's labor force participation and women's relative odds of obtaining high-income, high-status jobs. The findings show, first, that social globalization is more consequential for gender inequality in the labor market than either economic or political globalization. Second, while social globalization increases women's labor force participation, it reduces women's relative odds of obtaining lucrative, high-status jobs. The findings are discussed in light of the comparative literature on gender-based inequality.

1 Department of Sociology, University of Oxford, Nuffield College, yoav.roll@nuffield.ox.ac.uk, ORCID: 0000-0001-9979-0943

2 Department of Sociology and Anthropology, and Department of Labor Studies, Tel Aviv University, and Department of Sociology, University of Illinois at Chicago, moshes@tauex.tau.ac.il, ORCID: 0000-0001-8794-6322

3 Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Tel Aviv University, hadasm@tauex.tau.ac.il, ORCID: 0000-0002-2521-0069

Introduction

The comparative literature on female labor force participation has reached three conclusions. First, since the middle of the previous century, the number of women who have joined the economically active labor force and the range of jobs in which women find employment have steadily increased and widened in almost all countries (e.g., Charles, 2011). Second, despite the steady rise in female labor force participation, women's share of the economically active labor force is less than that of men (e.g., Ortiz-Ospina, Tzvetkova, and Roser, 2018). Third, in most developed countries women are less likely than men to find employment in lucrative managerial jobs and are more likely to have jobs traditionally associated with women (e.g., Cohen, Huffman, and Knauer, 2009; Mandel and Semyonov, 2006). The literature also reveals that female employment opportunities, specifically, participation rates and occupational attainments, are affected by institutional factors such as levels of economic development (e.g., Boserup, 1970; Charles, 1992; Eastin and Prakash, 2013; Goldin, 1994, 2006), economic dependency (e.g., Clark, Ramsbey, and Adler, 1991; Jacobs and Lim, 1992; Semyonov and Shenhav, 1988) and welfare-state policies (e.g., Charles, 1992; Mandel and Semyonov, 2006).

Recently, more and more researchers have begun examining the effect of globalization – a powerful driving force for employment opportunities – on women's labor force participation and gender-based occupational attainments (e.g., Akhter and Ward, 2009; Black and Brainerd, 2004; Bussmann, 2009; Eastin and Prakash, 2013; Gray, Kittilson, and Sandholtz, 2006; Meyer, 2003; Oostendorp, 2009; Semyonov, 2018). Curiously, however, these studies arrived at inconsistent and even conflicting findings and conclusions. Whereas several researchers maintain that globalization increases women's labor force participation (e.g., Semyonov, 2018), others argue to the contrary (e.g., Akhter and Ward, 2009). Likewise, while some researchers suggest that globalization reduces gender-based occupational inequality (e.g., Meyer, 2003), others find the opposite (e.g., Bussmann, 2009; Semyonov, 2018). Indeed, research on the impact of globalization on female employment opportunities is neither consistent nor conclusive.

A possible explanation as to why different studies reached divergent conclusions relates to differences in the measures of globalization used by previous researchers. For instance, Akhter and Ward (2009) utilized the percentage of foreign direct investment as

part of the gross domestic product [GDP], commodity concentration, and position within the world system as indicators of globalization. Meyer (2003) relied on measures of trade openness (based on exports as a percentage of GDP and the sum of all exports and imports divided by the GDP) and a measure of trade risk (defined as commodity concentration and "the ratio of a country's index of average export price to the average import price index" (Meyer, 2003, p. 362) as proxies of globalization. Likewise, Bussmann (2009) employed the sum of trade as part of the GDP to measure globalization, while Semyonov (2018) adopted Dreher's (2006) KOF globalization index. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the varying definitions of globalization may ultimately lead to different results, and hence, to different conclusions.

We contribute to the comparative study of women's employment opportunities by providing a systematic examination of the impact of globalization – as well as its components – on women's labor force participation and on gender-based occupational attainments. Our first goal is to resolve the controversies in the literature regarding the effect of globalization on both outcomes. Our second goal is to examine the extent to which each of the various components of globalization – economic, social, and political – differentially affect women's employment opportunities. The focus on the distinct impact of each of the three components of globalization on women's employment opportunities, countered most previous studies of globalization, which dealt almost exclusively with the economic dimension of globalization, disregarding its social and political dimensions. The use of the distinct components of globalization separately allows us to trace and compare their impact individually.

Note, too, that previous cross-country comparative studies on the topic have relied on a contextual analysis of country-level data to arrive at conclusions regarding the impact of globalization on women's employment opportunities. Unlike past studies, we combine both individual- and country-level data to estimate a series of bi-level regression models predicting the effect of globalization on women's labor force participation and differences in occupations based on gender. Such an analytical strategy provides more reliable and accurate estimates of the impact of globalization, and each component of globalization separately, on women's employment opportunities, while controlling for both variations in the composition of the populations across national labor markets and the contextual characteristics of nations. Thus, the analysis and findings improve our understanding of the

role played by globalization and its components in shaping women's employment opportunities and economic inequality in contemporary societies.

Theoretical Considerations and Previous Research

Social scientists have long argued that women's employment opportunities tend to increase with economic development (e.g., Boserup, 1970; Clark et al., 1991; Eastin and Prakash, 2013; Forsythe, Korzeniewicz, and Durrant, 2000; Goldin, 1994; Semyonov, 1980). According to modernization theory, economic development increases both the supply of and demand for women workers due to the expansion of service jobs, increased educational opportunities, and changes in the size and function of the family (from a production unit to a consumption unit; e.g., Boserup, 1970; Goldin, 1994, 2006; Semyonov, 1980). In addition to changes in the supply of and demand for female workers, economic development is associated with a rational allocation of people to occupational positions according to merit and universal criteria. This perspective holds that "*to survive and thrive in modern, knowledge-based economies, employers and organizations must disregard ascribed traits, such as gender...*" (Charles, 2011, p. 356). Indeed, the logic embodied in this view contends that economic development leads to intense labor market competition, which reduces labor market discrimination, and increases women's labor force participation. (e.g., Clark et al., 1991; Eastin and Prakash, 2013; Goldin, 1994; Semyonov, 1980; However, see Charles, 2011).

Nevertheless, students of gender-based occupational segregation have noted complicated patterns of gender-based occupational inequality in contemporary societies. More specifically, researchers suggest that, at the same time that economic development enables more women to join the economically active labor force, it may also lead to an increase in gender-based occupational segregation (e.g., Blackburn et al., 2000; Charles, 1992; Charles and Grusky, 2004; Jacobs and Lim, 1992; Semyonov, 1980, 2018). Development reduces vertical segregation, but increases horizontal segregation (e.g., Charles, 2011; Semyonov and Jones, 1999). Horizontal segregation refers to the distinction between manual and non-manual labor, with men dominating the former and women the latter. Vertical segregation refers to hierarchical segregation within the two sectors, with men dominating the jobs with higher status and wages (Charles and Grusky, 2004).

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Charles (2011) has shown that horizontal segregation is more pronounced in more economically developed countries. She maintains that post-industrial processes in developed countries, primarily the growing service sector, have opened up attractive employment opportunities for women in traditionally female domestic tasks, as well as in professional jobs. In contrast, vertical segregation tends to be less severe in developed countries. Explanations for this difference include a more gender egalitarian culture in addition to increased rationalization and bureaucratization in these economics. Both factors help mitigate discrimination against women at the bottom and top of the white-collar hierarchy. Indeed, in these countries women tend to reach higher levels in professional and managerial jobs.

What role does globalization play in these interactions? According to students of globalization, nations are tied together in one global economic system dominated by the free flow of capital, labor, and goods across national borders (e.g., Dreher, 2006; Guillén, 2001; Gygli et al., 2019). As a result, nations become economically, socially, and politically interconnected and interdependent. Gygli et al. (2019, p. 6) noted that, *"Globalization is a process that erodes national boundaries, integrates national economies, cultures, technologies and governance, and produces complex relations of mutual interdependence."*

According to the World Bank (2011), globalization should be viewed as a liberating process that allows more intense economic competition both between and within nations (also Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2017). Intense economic competition, in turn, motivates labor market institutions to maximize efficiency by including formerly excluded groups such as women in the public sphere and in labor market activities (e.g., Black and Brainerd, 2004; Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2017; World Bank, 2011). Furthermore, globalization is associated not only with economic processes and intense economic competition, caused by increased trade and cross-border investment, but also with social and political effects such as greater cross-border cultural, scientific, and interpersonal connectivity (Dreher, 2006; Guillén, 2001; Gygli et al., 2019). These effects are likely to stimulate institutional changes due to pressure to conform to international standards that emphasize respect for human rights, including norms that promote and advance gender equality (e.g., Gray et al., 2006; Potrafke, 2015; Potrafke and Ursprung, 2012; True and Mintrom, 2001). Based on this logic, researchers agree that women's employment

opportunities are influenced not only by economic forces, but also by social and political changes generated by globalization. Nevertheless, they do not fully agree on the impact of globalization on patterns of gender economic inequality. Nor do they agree on the differential impact of each dimension of globalization (the economic, social or political) on gender inequality in the labor market.

Thus, studies that focused on the association between globalization and gender-based occupational segregation and occupational inequality have arrived at inconsistent and even conflicting findings and conclusions (e.g., Braunstein, 2012; Bussmann, 2009; Meyer, 2003; Semyonov, 2018). Meyer (2003), for example, maintained that globalization has led to a reduction in gender-based occupational segregation and occupational inequality, particularly in developing countries. By contrast, Semyonov (2018) demonstrated that at the same time that globalization has reduced gender-based occupational segregation, it has also reduced women's relative odds of obtaining high-status jobs. Thus, the impact of globalization on gender-based occupational inequality is complicated, and varies with regard to horizontal and vertical segregation. As a result, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions about its effect.

Generally speaking, then, whereas several researchers have suggested that globalization has had beneficial effects on women's economic independence by facilitating their entry into paid employment and increasing their political activity (e.g., Gray et al., 2006; Potrafke and Ursprung, 2012; True and Mintrom, 2001), others have contended that increased global competition can also have some harmful effects on women's labor market outcomes, mainly though the retrenchment of welfare policies and the demise of stable employment (e.g., Acker, 2004; Beneria et al., 2016). In other words, whereas scholars seem to agree that economic, social, and political processes associated with globalization increase women's labor force participation, they do not agree on the effects of globalization on gender-based occupational segregation and inequality.

We seek to contribute to this ongoing debate regarding the impact of globalization on women's employment opportunities by examining the impact of all three elements of globalization—economic, social, and political. To achieve this goal we utilized micro-level data obtained from the Luxembourg Income Survey for 47 national samples to estimate the effect of globalization – and each one of its three components – first, on women's labor force participation, and second, on the relative odds of women's obtaining high-status

professional and managerial jobs. By so doing we will be in a position to delineate the mechanisms and processes through which each of the three components of globalization impacts women's employment opportunities and patterns of gender inequality in national labor markets and to resolve ongoing controversies in the literature.

Data Source and Variables

We obtained our data from the Luxembourg Income Study (hereafter: LIS, 2021). We utilized the 9th wave (circa 2013), which provides the largest source of available micro-data from 47 national representative samples (see Appendix Table 1A for a list of countries and years). Given that the study focuses on the effects of globalization on labor market activity, we limited the analysis to non-military working-age respondents (ages 25 through 64).[4] The individual-level variables we chose for the analysis as *predictors* of economic activity are those traditionally employed in labor market research. They include age (in years); gender (women = 1); marital status (married or in a partnership = 1); education (completed primary education or less, completed secondary education [the reference category], and completed tertiary education, as a set of three dummy variables); and the presence of children under 13 within the household (yes = 1). The *dependent variables* at the individual-level are: a) employment status (employed = 1), and b) employment in lucrative, high-status jobs (professional or managerial jobs with income in the upper 10% = 1). Table 1 lists the means and definitions of the individual-level variables.

[Table 1 about here]

The key country-level independent variables include level of globalization as a summary index, and the three distinct components of globalization--economic, social and political. We measured the level of globalization using the KOF globalization index (Dreher, 2006), which has become one of the most commonly used measures of globalization (see Potrafke, 2015). We used the 2018 version of the index, created by Gygli et al. (2019). The index ranges between 0 and 100, although the actual range varies

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4 The full study sample contains 1,876,954 respondents (out of 3,050,765, without restrictions on age or military employment). However, due to limitations imposed on any intensive analysis done on the LIS server, all countries are included in the two-level hierarchical logistic regression analysis as random sub-samples of a maximum of 5,000 observations (see Table 1A for the full list of sample sizes for each country in each stage of the analysis). This sub-sampling maintains the proportions of all dependent and independent variables for each analysis as they were in the entire sample, keeping it fully representative. Moreover, each analysis was repeated on two more sub-samples using different randomly created randomization seeds to ensure the robustness of the results.

from 52.67 (Ivory Coast) to 90.40 (Switzerland). It is a time-weighted index, based on an aggregation of 43 variables, computed by three component indices using factor analysis: economic globalization (constructed from 15 variables), social globalization (constructed from 22 variables) and political globalization (constructed from 6 variables). Appendix Table 1A displays the aggregated scores of the index and the scores of its three components (economic, social and political), by country.

We calculated the indicators of gender-based employment and occupational inequality directly from the LIS individual-level data set for each country. They include the:

1. Percentage of men and women who are in gainful employment (hereafter MRATE and FRATE, respectively).

2. Rates of men and women in gainful employment, holding high-income, high-status (professional and managerial) jobs (hereafter MPM and FPM, respectively).

3. Relative odds of women participating in the labor force (hereafter: EOR).

4. Relative odds of women being employed in lucrative, high-status jobs (hereafter: PMOR).

We defined the odds ratios according to a coding scheme[5] in which the higher the value, the greater the odds of women, compared with men, being in the paid labor force or being employed in lucrative, high-status jobs (with 1 indicating equal odds, values below 1 indicating lower odds of employment for women relative to men, and values higher than 1 meaning greater employment odds for men). Lastly, we included population size (obtained from the World Bank, 2021) in the analysis for control purposes. Appendix Table 1A lists the estimated values of all of the variables by country. Appendix Table 2A presents a correlation matrix of all country-level variables.

Method of Analysis

[5] All odds ratios (hereafter OR; i.e. EOR, PMOR) were defined thusly: for every country j, $OR_j = (Fe_j/Fn_j)/(Me_j/Mn_j)$, such that:
Fe_j = the number of women in the labor force/in a lucrative professional and managerial occupation in country j;
Fn_j = number of women **not** in the labor force/in a lucrative professional and managerial occupation in country j;
Me_j = number of men in the labor force/in a lucrative professional and managerial occupation in country j;
Mn_j = number of men **not** in the labor force/in a lucrative professional and managerial occupation in country j.

The analytical strategy we adopted was conducted in two stages. In the first stage we estimated the bivariate correlations between the measured indicators of globalization and a set of country-level indicators of labor force participation and gender-based occupational differentiation for a descriptive overview. In the second stage, we conducted a multivariate analysis by estimating a series of two-level hierarchical logistic regression equations. They contained a random intercept for country and a random slope for gender predicting the impact of globalization and each of its components on women's relative odds of labor force participation and employment in lucrative jobs, net of the composition of national populations (i.e., individual-level) and net of population size (i.e., country-level). This procedure allowed us to utilize the layered nature of the data (individuals nested within countries) to arrive at accurate estimates of the net impact of globalization on women's employment opportunities, after controlling for cross-country variations in the composition of the population in each country and the contextual attributes of the national labor markets.

In the two-level regression models we let the log-odds of labor force participation or attainment of lucrative jobs to be a function of globalization and gender, net of individual- and country-level controls. The regression equations are formally expressed by the following four equations, which we estimated simultaneously:

$$logit(y_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(FEM)_{ij} + \overline{\beta}_2 \overline{X}_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} \tag{1}$$

Equation 1 represents the first level. For every respondent i in country j, let β_{0j} be the intercept for country j; β_{1j} the gender coefficient for country j; FEM_{ij} the gender variable (0 for man, 1 for woman) for person i in country j; $\overline{\beta}_2$ a vector of the coefficients of four individual-level controls (age, level of education, marital status, and dependent children), which remain constant between countries; $\overline{X}_{ij}$ a vector of the variables related to the same four individual-level controls for person i in country j; and ε_{ij} the error term for person i in country j, assuming that $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_{ij})$. Equations 2, 3, and 4 represent the second level of the analysis:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(GLOB)_j + \gamma_{02}\overline{Z}_j + u_{0j} \tag{2}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(GLOB)_j + \gamma_{12}\overline{Z}_j + u_{1j} \tag{3}$$

$$\beta_2 = (\gamma_{210}, \gamma_{220}, \gamma_{230}, \gamma_{240}) \tag{4}$$

Equation 2 represents the intercept for country j. γ_{00} is the grand average intercept of all sampled countries; $\overline{\gamma}_{01}$ the vector of average coefficient of globalization; $\overline{GLOB}_j$ the vector of the globalization variables (either the summary index, or economic, social, and political globalization) in country j; $\overline{\gamma}_{02}$ the country-level vector of coefficients for population size and EOR; $\overline{Z}_j$ the country-level vector of the variables; and u_{0j} the error term for country j, which assumes $u_{0j} \sim N\left(0, \sigma_{0j}\right)$. Equation 3 represents the gender coefficient for country j, with γ_{10} being the average effect of being a woman; $\overline{\gamma}_{11}$ is the vector of the cross-level interaction coefficients between gender and globalization; $\overline{\gamma}_{12}$ is the vector of the cross-level interaction coefficients between gender and population size and EOR; and u_{1j} is the error term for the effect of gender in country j, assuming $u_{1j} \sim N\left(0, \sigma_{1j}\right)$. Finally, Equation 4 represents the vector of individual-level coefficients except gender, representing the average effect across all countries.[6]

Findings

Globalization and Labor Force Participation

Estimating bivariate associations

The first question we seek to answer is whether and to what extent women's employment opportunities correlate with the level of globalization. Figure 1 shows a scatter plot of the rate of labor force participation for each gender by globalization (the summary index [Figure 1(a)], economic [Figure 1(b)], social [Figure 1(c)] and political [Figure 1(d)] globalization) along with trend lines.

As Figure 1(a) illustrates, the gender gap in labor force participation rates tends to decrease with the level of globalization. In other words, the participation of men in the economically active labor force tends to decline with the level of globalization ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$), while the opposite is true for women's rate of participation ($r = .36$, $p < .05$). For instance, while in the United Kingdom, a country with a high globalization score, the gender gaps in participation rates are rather small (70% of women and 81% of men), in India, with a low globalization score, the gender gaps are substantial (26% of women, 92% of men) (see Appendix Table 1A). The same pattern holds true for economic globalization

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[6] The models are fit using maximum likelihood, are weighted, and use robust standard errors clustered for countries to account for the hierarchical survey design.

(Figure 1(b)) and social globalization (Figure 1(c)). However, with regard to political globalization, it seems that the relationship between globalization and labor force participation, whether for men or women, is not significant (Figure 1(d)).

[Figure 1 about here]

The relative size of the labor force and the gender composition of the population can influence the relationship between globalization and the rate of male (MRATE) and female (FRATE) labor force participation. Therefore, in Figures 2 we controlled for this possible influence by replacing MRATE and FRATE with the relative odds of women's labor force participation (EOR). In other words, we measured the association between the relative odds of the two genders becoming economically active (EOR) with globalization. Figure 2(a) pertains to the relationship between EOR and the globalization summary index. Figures 2(b), 2(c) and 2(d) illustrate the relationships between EOR and each of the three components of the globalization index (economic, social and political, respectively).

Figure 2(a) reveals that in all countries, without exception, the odds of men being in paid labor are greater than those of women. In an average country, the EOR is less than half that of men (X = 0.43; see Table 1A). Nevertheless, there is considerable variation across countries in the odds of the two genders becoming economically active (SD = 0.22). Consistent with expectations, the figure shows that women's relative odds of employment are positively associated with the summary index of globalization (r = .66, p < .01), lending firm support to the thesis that women's employment opportunities tend to increase with the level of globalization. Women's odds of labor force participation are the lowest in countries that rank low on the index, such as India and Egypt (where they reach only 6% of the odds of men) and the highest in countries that rank high on the index, like the Nordic countries (e.g., Finland and Denmark), and the Baltic countries (e.g., Estonia and Lithuania), where women's odds of employment almost reach parity with men. Countries such as the United States, Germany, and Israel are placed in the middle of the EOR distribution, where women's odds of employment are about half those of men.

[Figure 2 about here]

The results in Figures 2(b) and 2(c) and 2 (d) are in line with those in Figure 1(a). Both economic globalization and social globalization are positively associated with EOR (r = .67, p < .01 and r = .68, p < .01, respectively), but political globalization is not

significantly associated with women's employment opportunities (r = .17, statistically insignificant).

The results displayed in Figures 1 and 2 also indicate that the participation of women in the economically active labor force tends to rise with the level of globalization. In addition, economic factors such as increased trade and cross-border investment, and social processes such as greater cross-border cultural, scientific, and interpersonal connectivity tend to reduce gender gaps in economic activity. Finally, political globalization such as involvement in international bodies, treaties and diplomatic activity appears to be inconsequential for increasing women's absolute and relative presence in the labor force.

Estimating two-level logistic equations models predicting employment

In Table 2 we list the estimated coefficients of bi-level logit regression equations predicting the odds of labor force participation by gender and level of globalization, while controlling for individuals' attributes and population size. Equation 1 predicts the odds of gainful employment using the summary index of globalization as the main independent variable at the country level. In Equations 2, 3, and 4, we replaced the globalization index with measures of economic, social and political globalization, correspondingly. In Equation 5 we included all three components of globalization as the set of independent variables at the country level to estimate the net effect of each component on the odds of employment.

[Table 2 about here]

The negative coefficients for gender in all of the equations imply that women are less likely than men to join the economically active labor force, after controlling for individual level attributes (i.e., age, education, marital status, the presence of children in the household) and population size. The positive interaction term between gender and globalization in Equation 1 (b = 4.45, p < .01) lends firm support to the expectation that women's odds of joining paid work, compared with men, tend to increase with globalization. Furthermore, the findings also reveal that greater globalization is linked to a decline in the odds of men participating in the labor force (b = -3.95, p < .01).

Equations 2, 3 and 4 estimate the distinct effect of each of the three dimensions of globalization on the odds of labor force participation when controlling for individual-level

variations across countries. The positive and significant interaction terms between gender and economic globalization (b = 3.53, *p* < .01) and gender and social globalization (b = 3.85, *p* < .01) imply that the social and economic conditions associated with globalization are likely to increase women's relative odds of joining the economically active labor force. However, and consistent with the descriptive statistics, women's relative odds of participating in the economically active labor force are not significantly related to the political components of globalization. Lastly, the results of Equation 5, in which we included all three components of globalization as predictors of labor force activity, reveal that only social globalization exerts a positive and significant effect on the odds of labor force participation (b = 3.68, *p* < .01). Apparently, the social processes associated with globalization are first and foremost those that enhance women's opportunities of engaging in economic activities, more than economic or political globalization.

Globalization and Occupational Inequality

The findings presented thus far lead to the conclusion that globalization, particularly economic and social globalization increases women's opportunities for participation in the labor force. Nevertheless, such increased participation does not mean greater occupational equality. Women may join the economically active labor force, but can still find themselves out of the most powerful and lucrative occupational positions. Therefore, in order to examine such a possibility, we focused on the association between globalization and women's access to lucrative professional and managerial jobs.

Estimating bivariate associations

In Figures 3 we display the differential representation of men and women in lucrative professional and managerial jobs under different levels of globalization for 41 countries. Figure 3(a) presents a scatter plot of the proportion, among those employed, of men and women in lucrative professional and managerial jobs (MPM and FPM, respectively), by the globalization summary index. Figure 3(b), 3(c) and 3(d) display the association between economic, social, and political globalization, correspondingly, with MPM and FPM. It is evident from Figure 3(a) that, while working men's representation in lucrative professional and managerial jobs is likely to increase (*r* = .59, *p* < .01) with the level of globalization, women's representation in such jobs is likely to decrease with the

level of globalization ($r = -.33$, $p < .05$). Similar results are observed for the social and economic components of globalization (Figures 3(b) and 3(c)). In the case of political globalization (Figure 3(d)), the association is negative and significant only in the case of women. In all of the figures, it is apparent that working women are more likely, on average, to find employment in lucrative professional and managerial jobs in countries with low levels of globalization than in countries with high levels of globalization. Apparently, in highly globalized economies women are likely to lose their relative advantage in obtaining lucrative, high-status jobs. For instance, in Brazil, a country with low levels of globalization, about 6% of working women are employed in lucrative professional and managerial jobs. In contrast, in Switzerland, the most globalized country in the sample, women's representation in professional and managerial jobs reaches only 2.5%.

[Figure 3 about here]

Note, however, that cross-country differences in the gender composition of the labor force and the size of the professional and managerial sector may have a strong influence on the relationship between globalization and gender-based occupational inequality. Thus, in order to better determine the association between globalization and gender-based occupational inequality we used (margin-free) adjusted odds ratios of women, compared to men, being employed in lucrative professional and managerial jobs (PMOR). The use of adjusted relative odds ratios yields an inequality measure that controls for both the relative size of the professional and managerial sector, and the proportion of men and women in gainful employment.

Examination of the cross-country odds ratios reveals that, on average, women's odds of obtaining lucrative professional and managerial jobs are almost half those of men (x = 0.63; see Table 1A). There is, however, considerable cross-country variation (SD = 0.34) in the odds of men and women being employed in lucrative professional and managerial jobs. For example, in Germany and Switzerland, where both globalization and the rate of female labor force participation are quite high, women's odds of working in lucrative professional and managerial are only 22% and 21% (respectively) those of men. On the other hand, in Egypt, where very few women are economically active and where globalization is quite limited, women's odds of employment in lucrative professional and managerial jobs are very similar to men's (PMOR = 0.94).

Figures 4(a) through 4(d) provide a visual illustration of the association between globalization as well as each component of the globalization index and PMOR across countries. The figures provide support for the argument that PMOR tends to decline, not increase, with the level of globalization. The negative correlation between globalization and PMOR is the strongest for both the summary index ($r = -.63$, $p < .01$) and social globalization ($r = -.65$, $p < .01$).[7] However, the correlations are also substantial, negative and statistically significant for economic globalization ($r = -.53$, $p < .01$) and for political globalization ($r = -.35$, $p < .05$). Importantly, in contrast to the findings that pertain to women's labor force participation, political globalization is significantly associated with a decline in the odds of women being employed in lucrative, high-status jobs. Hence, the data suggest that the impact of globalization on women's opportunities of attaining high-status jobs can be attributed to a combination of the economic, social and political processes associated with globalization. The results lead to the conclusion that higher levels of globalization reduce women's opportunities for attaining lucrative, high-status jobs.

[Figure 4 about here]

Given that globalization is associated with a decline in the odds of women holding lucrative, high-status jobs, on one hand, and an increase in their participation in the labor force on the other, it is possible that changes in the selective nature and composition of the female labor force affect the association between globalization and gender-based occupational inequality. Goldin (2006) articulated the logic behind this explanation by pointing to the role played by labor force selectivity across countries in producing economic inequality based on gender. According to Goldin (2006), in countries where a large portion of the labor force is composed of women, disproportional numbers of less educated women join the economically active labor force, taking on low-status jobs. While a large proportion of women in the labor force reduces the selective nature of economically active women, it increases the potential supply of women for lower status jobs. Thus, in the multivariate analysis predicting the odds of obtaining lucrative, high-status jobs, we also controlled for the relative odds of the two genders becoming economically active (EOR) to capture the selective nature of women in the economically active labor force.

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7 Without the Ivory Coast, an extreme outlier (dfbeta = 1.44), the globalization summary index correlation increases to $r = -.73$ ($p < .01$); economic globalization increases to $r = -.59$ ($p < .01$); social globalization increases to $r = -.77$ ($p < .01$); and political globalization is $r = -.37$ ($p < .05$).

Estimating two-level logistic equations models predicting occupational inequality

In Table 3 we display the estimated coefficients of bi-level logistic equations predicting the effects of globalization on the odds of employment in lucrative professional and managerial jobs, net of variations in individual-level characteristics and net of a series of country-level indicators of globalization. In Equation 1a in Table 3 we include the KOF globalization summary index as the country-level predictor of obtaining professional and managerial jobs. In Equations 2a, 3a, and 4a we replaced the summary index with the economic, social, and political components of the KOF globalization index. In Equation 5a, we included all three components of globalization as predictors of obtaining professional and managerial jobs. To examine whether the selectivity of the female work force mediates the association between globalization and women's representation in lucrative professional and managerial jobs, we also added the EOR to the country-level variables in Equations 1b through 5b.

[Table 3 about here]

The results presented in Table 3 are consistent with the bi-variate analysis. The findings demonstrate that higher levels of globalization (in Equation 1a: $b = -3.30$, $p < .01$), as well as higher levels of each of its component (economic [in Equation 2a: $b = -2.17$, $p < .01$], social [in Equation 3a: $b = -3.13$, $p < .01$] or political [in Equation 4a: $b = -1.67$, $p < .01$]), are likely to reduce the relative odds of women being employed in lucrative professional and managerial jobs, after controlling for individual-level variables and population size. However, similar to the findings regarding labor force participation, when introducing all components of globalization together, only social globalization (in Equation 5a: $b = -3.93$, $p < .01$) exerts a negative and significant effect on the differential odds of men and women being employed in lucrative, high-status jobs.

Testing for the impact of labor force selectivity, as measured by EOR, reveals a mediating effect for economic and political globalization. The coefficients of both components remain negative and significant, but the magnitude of the coefficients declines substantially (Equation 2b and 4b). Thus, EOR only partly explains the effect of both economic and political globalization on women's (lower) odds of employment in high-status jobs. The effect of social globalization (Equation 3b), however, is not mediated by EOR. Similarly, when controlling for all components of globalization combined, EOR does not mediate the effects of social globalization (Equation 5b) on women's relative odds of

employment in high-status jobs. Therefore, the results indicate that it is social globalization that accounts for women's lower odds of obtaining lucrative jobs, and this outcome is unrelated to the selectivity of the workforce.

Conclusions

We embarked on this study to examine the effects of globalization and its components, first, on women's relative odds of becoming economically active and second, on gender-linked occupational inequality, as demonstrated by employment in lucrative professional and managerial jobs. We did so in order to resolve controversies in the literature and to better understand and delineate the mechanisms through which globalization impacts women's employment opportunities. Unlike previous studies on the topic, we utilized micro-data from 47 countries (obtained from LIS) to estimate a series of bi-level logistic regression models predicting labor force participation and occupational attainment. In each model we included both individual-level characteristics and country-level indicators of globalization as predictors of the relative odds of participating in the economically active labor force and obtaining lucrative professional and managerial jobs. By so doing, we arrived at more accurate estimates of the net impact of globalization and each of its three components (economic, social and political globalization) on female employment opportunities and occupational inequality.

Similar to previous studies on the topic (e.g., Gray et al., 2006; Semyonov, 2018; Standing, 1989, 1999), we theorize that the global forces of economic competition on one hand, and the diffusion of international progressive gender norms on the other remove many obstacles to women's gainful employment. More specifically, whereas social globalization ameliorates the influence of traditional institutions on women's position in society, economic globalization leads to industrial transformations and greater economic competition that promote the entrance of women into the labor force. Thus, we expected globalization to increase women's relative odds of participating in the economically active labor force. However, we also expected that increased women's labor force participation would reduce their relative odds of obtaining lucrative, high-status jobs due to the increase in the supply of women in the workforce and the reduction in their selectiveness when joining the workforce (e.g., Goldin, 2006).

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The data support the expectation that globalization, particularly, the social and economic processes associated with globalization, create conditions that bring more women into the economically active labor force. However, our multivariate analysis shows that the social component of globalization is exclusively responsible for the positive effects of globalization on the increase in women's employment. The data also lend support to the expectation that globalization (and each one of its components) reduces women's relative odds of finding lucrative, high-status jobs. Although the economic, social and political transformations associated with globalization lead to the creation of new professional and managerial jobs, more men than women are able to find and hold them, and thus to benefit from the newly created high-status jobs. Similar to the findings that focus on labor force participation, the multivariate analysis reveals that the social component of globalization, not its economic or political components, is associated with women's relative (and negative) odds of employment in lucrative, high-status jobs.

As expected, the high rates of female labor participation mediate some of the relationships between globalization and the differential odds of men and women being employed in high-status jobs. However, contrary to our hypothesis, the unique effect of social globalization is not mediated by the rate of female labor participation. Therefore, we must conclude that the social processes associated with globalization – but not the larger supply of female workers or the selective nature of economically active women – are likely to increase men's over-representation in high-status professional and managerial jobs.

In sum, then, using individual-level and country-level data, the study delineates, for the first time, the impact of globalization on women's opportunities of entering the labor market and finding lucrative jobs. The analysis detects complex patterns of gender inequality associated with globalization. Whereas globalization increases women's opportunities to join the economically active labor force, it also opens up women's opportunities for lucrative high-status employment at a slower rate than for men. Apparently, in the era of globalization women are still lagging behind men in their attainment of higher-earning, higher-status jobs.

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Table 1 : Means and standard deviation (SD) or proportions of the individual-level and country-level variables included in the analysis

Variables	Definition	Mean/Proportion	SD	Source
Individual-Level				
age	Age in years	43.18	11.24	
gender	Woman = 1	0.51		
married	Married = 1	0.64		
highest completed education level (3-category recode)	Primary: less than secondary education completed	0.39		LIS (2021)
	Secondary: secondary education completed	0.34		
	Tertiary: tertiary education completed	0.27		
children under 13	Children below 13 within household = 1	0.46		
employed	Currently employed = 1	0.71		
occupations	Top decile in income, and working in professional and managerial occupations = 1	0.07		
Country-level				
Globalization Summary Index		77.02	9.75	
Economic Globalization	KOF index of globalization	68.56	13.17	Gygli, Haelg & Sturm (2019)
Social Globalization		76.53	12.81	
Political Globalization		85.94	9.89	
Population	In millions	95.33	264.56	The World Bank (2021)
GDP	GDP per capita, PPP (constant 2017 international $), in thousands	27.82	24.04	
EOR	Gender employment odds ratios	0.63	0.34	
PMOR	Gender odds-ratios of employment in professional or managerial occupations	0.45	0.22	
FRATE	% women in labor force	0.62	0.12	
MRATE	% men in labor force	0.81	0.08	LIS (2021)
FPM	Proportion women from respondents who are employed in lucrative occupations (top decile income and in professional or managerial occupations).	0.05	0.02	
MPM	% of lucrative occupations which are men	0.08	0.03	

Table 2 : Coefficients (t-values) of a Hierarchical Logistic Regression Predicting Odds of Employment in 47 Countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Individual-level effects:					
Intercept	1.48 **	1.48 **	1.48 **	1.42 **	1.48 **
	(16.75)	(15.74)	(16.68)	(14.38)	(16.84)
Gender (Woman = 1)	-1.06 **	-1.06 **	-1.06 **	-1.13 **	-1.06 **
	(-13.06)	(-12.6)	(-13.63)	(-14.89)	(-13.84)
Country-level effects: On the intercept					
Globalization	-3.95 **				
	(-4.33)				
Economic Globalization		-2.79 **			-0.35
		(-4.32)			(-0.33)
Social Globalization			-3.22 **		-2.52 *
			(-4.01)		(-2.14)
Political Globalization				-3.53 **	-0.83
				(-3.01)	(-0.61)
Country-level effects: On the gender coefficient					
Globalization	4.45 **				
	(4.03)				
Economic Globalization		3.53 **			0.92
		(4.46)			(0.81)
Social Globalization			3.85 **		3.68 *
			(3.65)		(2.39)
Political Globalization				2.20	-0.89
				(1.89)	(-0.68)
Variance components:					
Country random effect (u1)	0.25	0.29	0.25	0.36	0.25
Gender random effect (u2)	0.30	0.32	0.28	0.36	0.27
ICC	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.10	0.07
AIC	242196.1	242206.8	242192.1	242200	242198.2
N			47		
n			229,549		

NOTE: t-values are based on robust standard-errors; all models control for log of population size on both the intercept and gender; individual-level controls are age (centered around the grand mean), level of education, marriage, presence of pre-adolescent children. All country-level variables are centered around the countries' mean; The summary index is the general KOF globalization index; Globalization coefficient is multiplied by 100; Intraclass correlation coefficient for intercept-only model = 0.05.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed tests)

Table 3 : Coefficients (t-values) of a Hierarchical Logistic Regression Predicting Odds of being Employed in Lucrative Professional and Managerial Occupations, Compared with all Other, in 41 Countries

	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
Individual-level effects:										
Intercept	-3.82 **	-3.82 **	-3.81 **	-3.81 **	-3.83 **	-3.83 **	-3.82 **	-3.81 **	-3.83 **	-3.82 **
	(-41.35)	(-41.61)	(-40.35)	(-40.75)	(-42.08)	(-42.4)	(-39.45)	(-40.51)	(-42.22)	(-42.56)
Gender (Woman = 1)	-0.87 **	-0.87 **	-0.85 **	-0.85 **	-0.88 **	-0.88 **	-0.86 **	-0.86 **	-0.88 **	-0.88 **
	(-14.84)	(-14.95)	(-12.99)	(-13.47)	(-17.13)	(-17.19)	(-12.38)	(-13.24)	(-17.67)	(-17.72)
Country-level effects: On the intercept										
Globalization	-2.53 **	-2.23 **								
	(-3.94)	(-2.9)								
Economic Globalization			-1.98 **	-1.60 *					-0.70	-0.64
			(-3.6)	(-2.39)					(-0.9)	(-0.81)
Social Globalization					-2.12 **	-1.90 **			-1.50	-1.36
					(-3.8)	(-2.92)			(-1.33)	(-1.17)
Political Globalization							-1.75 *	-1.19	-0.12	-0.13
							(-2.43)	(-1.57)	(-0.13)	(-0.14)
EOR		-0.22		-0.35		-0.20		-0.63		-0.16
		(-0.67)		(-1)		(-0.61)		(-1.99)		(-0.47)
Country-level effects: On the gender coefficient										
Globalization	-3.30 **	-2.87 **								
	(-5.44)	(-4.01)								
Economic Globalization			-2.17 **	-1.47 *					0.80	0.85
			(-3.55)	(-1.99)					(1.27)	(1.3)
Social Globalization					-3.13 **	-3.03 **			-3.93 **	-3.80 **
					(-5.63)	(-4.24)			(-4.27)	(-3.85)
Political Globalization							-2.30 **	-1.59 **	0.28	0.28
							(-4.35)	(-3.2)	(0.45)	(0.44)
EOR		-0.31		-0.66 *		-0.09		-0.81 **		-0.14
		(-1.22)		(-2.13)		(-0.33)		(-3.38)		(-0.49)
Variance components:										
Country random effect (u1)	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.19	0.17	0.15	0.15
Gender random effect (u2)	0.11	0.11	0.15	0.14	0.08	0.08	0.16	0.14	0.08	0.08
ICC	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04
AIC	71937.5	71940.33	71949.88	71949.83	71928.33	71931.99	71956.75	71951.84	71934.58	71938.22
N					41					
n					189,785					

NOTE: *t-values are based on robust standard-errors; all models control for log of population size on both the intercept and gender; individual-level controls are age (centered around the grand mean), level of education, marriage, presence of pre-adolescent children. All country-level variables are centered around the countries' mean; The summary index is the general KOF globalization index; Globalization coefficient is multiplied by 100; Canada, China, Italy, Japan, and Norway have been removed from analysis as they do not contain data regarding PM occupations; Intraclass correlation coefficient for the intercept-only model = 0.02.*

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01 (two-tailed tests)
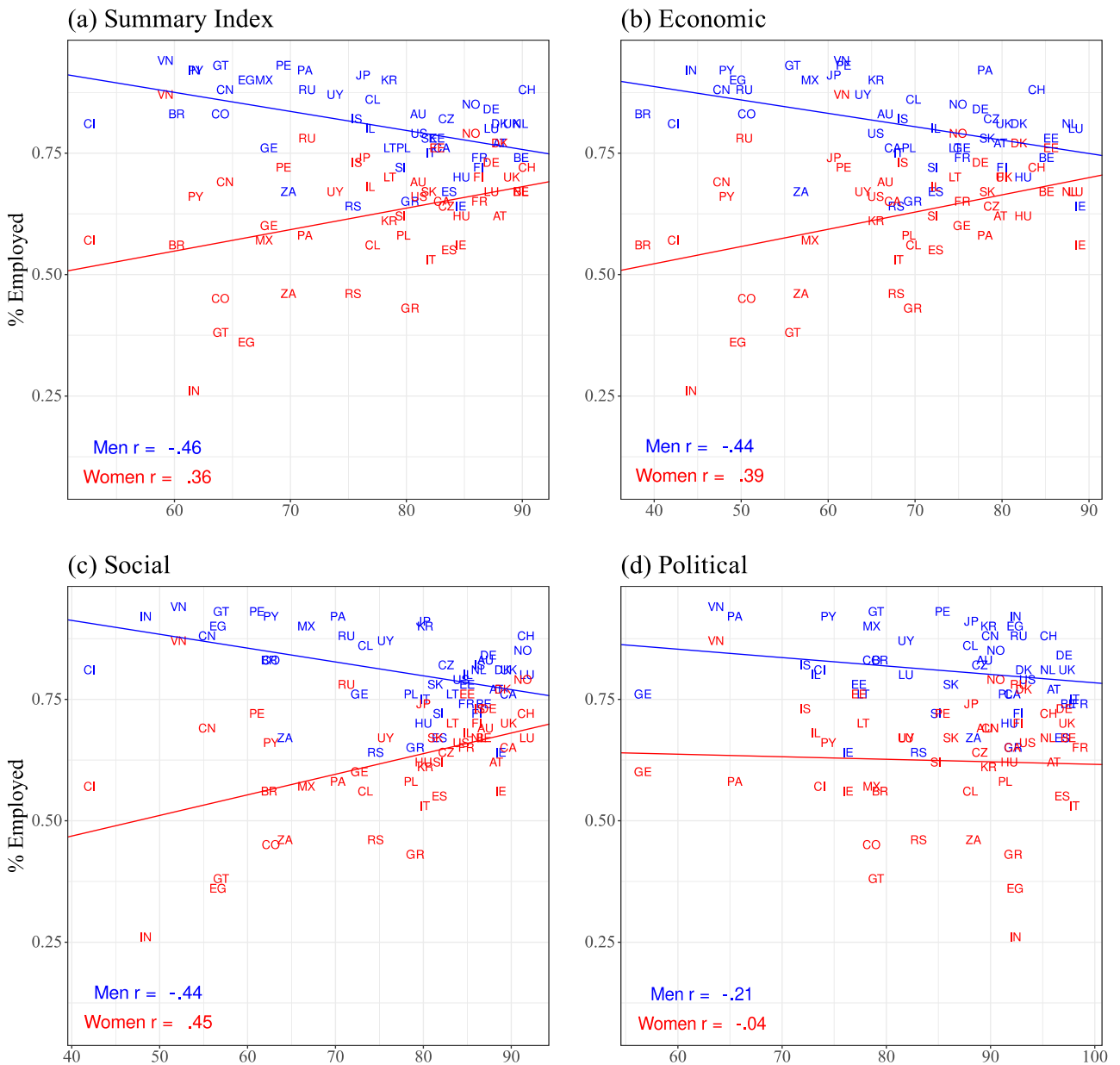
Figure 1: Country-level scatter plot of rate of labor force participation by gender and (a) the globalization summary index, (b) economic globalization, (c) social globalization, (d) political globalization.

Figure 2: Country-level scatter plot of EOR and (a) the globalization summary index, (b) economic globalization, (c) social globalization, (d) political globalization.

Figure 3: Country-level scatter plot of participation rate in lucrative PM occupations and (a) the globalization summary index, (b) economic globalization, (c) social globalization, and (d) political globalization.

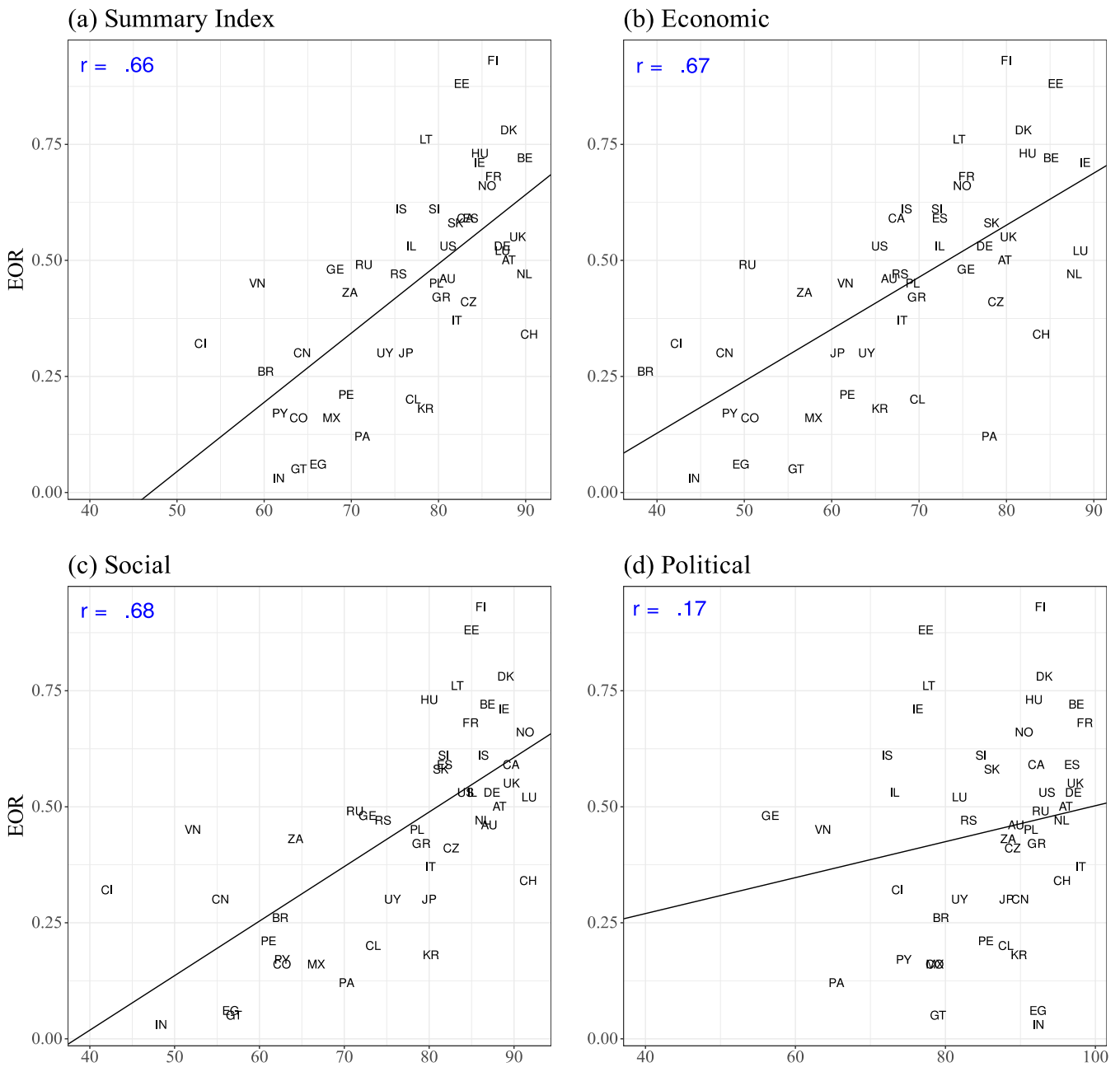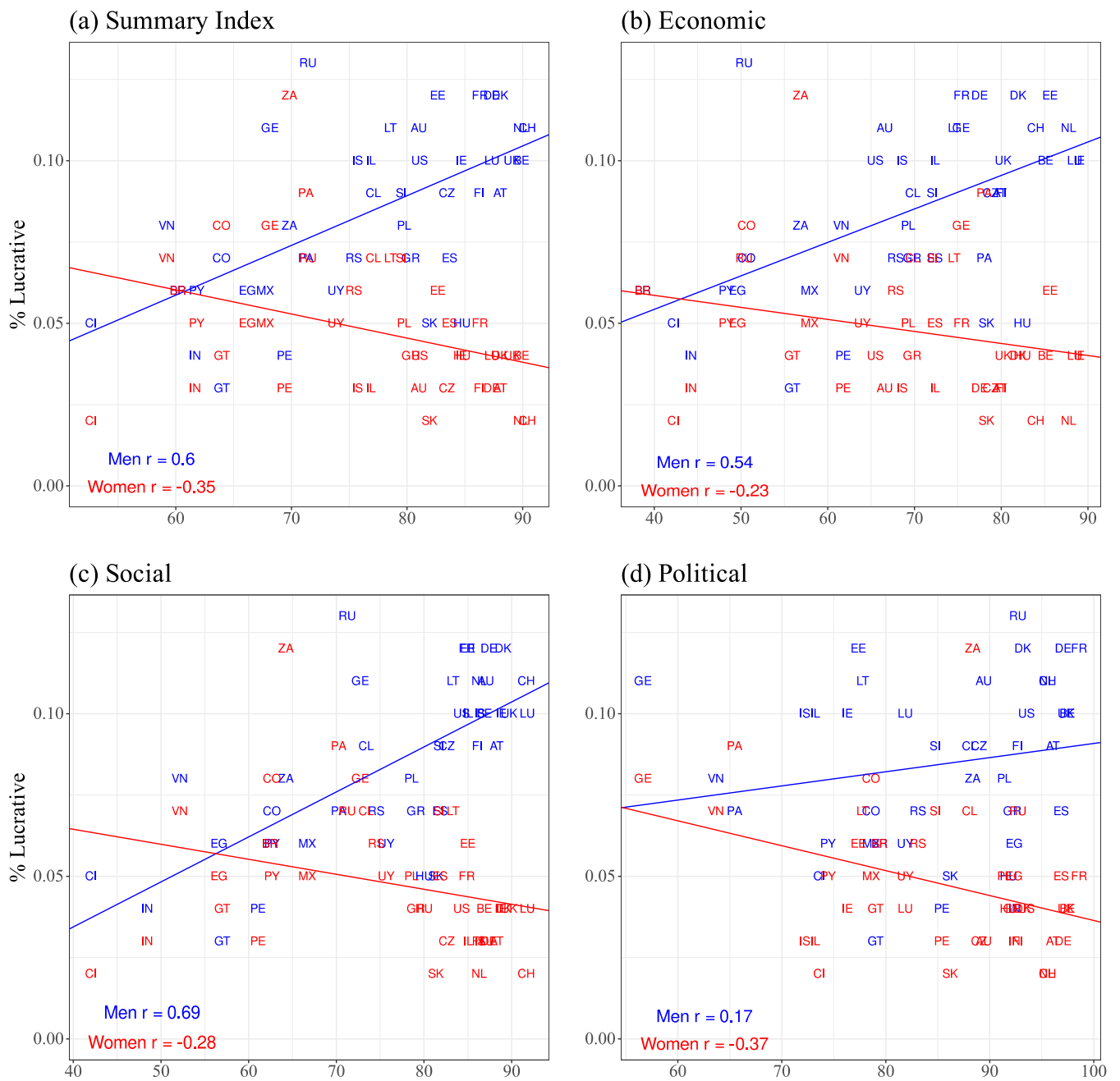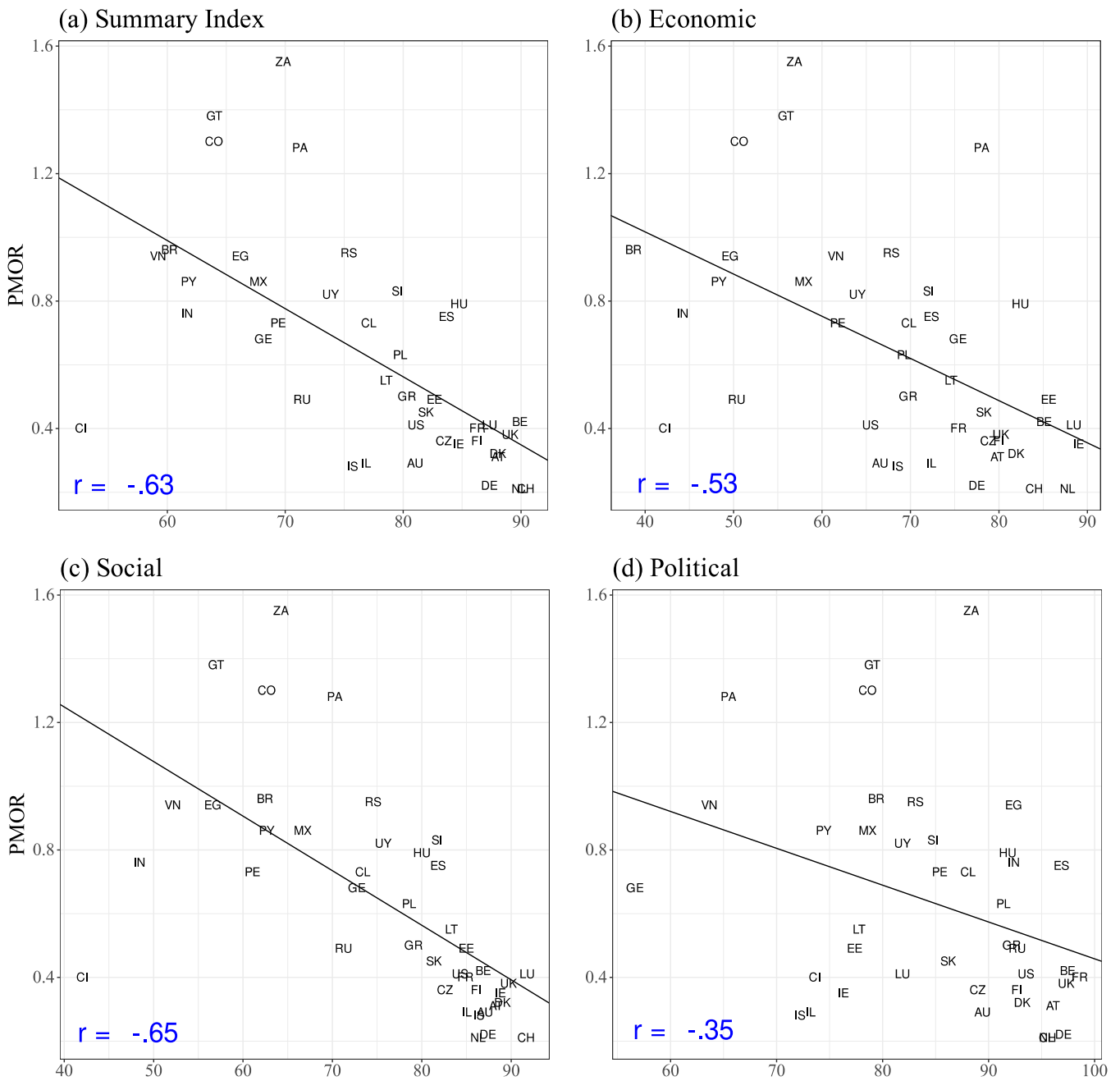*Figure 4: The link between PMOR and (a) the globalization summary index, (b) economic globalization, (c) social globalization, and (d) political globalization.*

Table 1A : Means of country-level variables used in the analysis

Country		Year	Glob.	Economic	Social	Political	Pop.	GDP	EOR	PMOR	FRATE	MRATE	MPM	FPM	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4
Australia	AU	2014	81.02	66.57	87.06	89.42	23.48	54.71	0.46	0.29	0.69	0.83	0.11	0.03	18166	5000	13340	5000
Austria	AT	2013	88.07	79.83	88.30	96.08	8.48	47.90	0.50	0.31	0.62	0.77	0.09	0.03	7034	5000	4844	4844
Belgium	BE	2013	89.89	85.09	86.85	97.44	11.16	41.01	0.72	0.42	0.67	0.74	0.10	0.04	7357	5000	4936	4936
Brazil	BR	2013	60.18	38.68	62.45	79.40	201.04	11.99	0.26	0.96	0.56	0.83	0.06	0.06	169874	5000	114301	5000
Canada	CA	2010	83.04	67.39	89.63	92.08	34.00	47.45	0.59		0.65	0.76			32268	5000	0	0
Chile	CL	2013	77.08	69.80	73.39	88.05	17.57	14.46	0.20	0.73	0.56	0.86	0.09	0.07	107391	5000	71426	5000
China	CN	2013	64.36	47.74	55.39	89.96	1357.38	5.71	0.30		0.69	0.88			37541	5000	0	0
Colombia	CO	2013	63.97	50.66	62.67	78.60	46.50	7.18	0.16	1.30	0.45	0.83	0.07	0.08	378044	5000	229213	5000
Czech Rep.	CZ	2013	83.45	78.79	82.60	88.97	10.51	19.83	0.41	0.36	0.64	0.82	0.09	0.03	9741	5000	6983	5000
Denmark	DK	2013	88.02	81.91	88.99	93.15	5.61	58.79	0.78	0.32	0.77	0.81	0.12	0.04	91170	5000	60888	5000
Egypt, Arab Rep.	EG	2012	66.21	49.62	56.63	92.37	86.42	2.63	0.06	0.94	0.36	0.90	0.06	0.05	20966	5000	8556	5000
Estonia	EE	2013	82.64	85.60	84.96	77.35	1.32	16.92	0.88	0.49	0.76	0.78	0.12	0.06	7695	5000	5388	5000
Finland	FI	2013	86.23	79.97	86.08	92.65	5.44	45.72	0.93	0.36	0.70	0.72	0.09	0.03	14298	5000	10583	5000
France	FR	2010	86.30	75.43	84.88	98.59	65.03	40.64	0.68	0.40	0.65	0.74	0.12	0.05	19813	5000	12237	5000
Georgia	GE	2013	68.13	75.35	72.71	56.63	3.72	3.69	0.48	0.68	0.60	0.76	0.11	0.08	5037	5000	2027	2027
Germany	DE	2013	87.30	77.48	87.37	97.04	80.65	44.35	0.53	0.22	0.73	0.84	0.12	0.03	19004	5000	13620	5000
Greece	GR	2013	80.32	69.73	79.07	92.17	10.97	22.25	0.42	0.50	0.43	0.65	0.07	0.04	10850	5000	5295	5000
Guatemala	GT	2014	64.00	55.94	57.01	79.04	15.92	3.01	0.05	1.38	0.38	0.93	0.03	0.04	20291	5000	12293	5000
Hungary	HU	2012	84.75	82.43	80.01	91.80	9.92	13.20	0.73	0.79	0.62	0.70	0.05	0.04	2659	2659	1470	1470
Iceland	IS	2010	75.69	68.54	86.35	72.19	0.32	43.02	0.61	0.28	0.73	0.82	0.10	0.03	4441	4441	3487	3487
India	IN	2011	61.67	44.23	48.41	92.38	1250.29	1.41	0.03	0.76	0.26	0.92	0.04	0.03	93729	5000	36111	5000
Ireland	IE	2010	84.68	88.97	88.77	76.29	4.56	48.72	0.71	0.35	0.56	0.64	0.10	0.04	5160	5000	2976	2976
Israel	IL	2012	76.86	72.35	85.03	73.21	7.91	31.67	0.53	0.29	0.68	0.80	0.10	0.03	13042	5000	9351	5000
Italy	IT	2014	82.10	68.09	80.17	98.05	60.79	33.62	0.37		0.53	0.75			9777	5000	0	0
Ivory Coast	CI	2015	52.67	42.20	42.02	73.60	23.23	1.46	0.32	0.40	0.57	0.81	0.05	0.02	18485	5000	9431	5000
Japan	JP	2013	76.26	60.65	79.99	88.14	127.44	46.25	0.30		0.74	0.91			2449	2449	0	0
Korea, Rep.	KR	2012	78.51	65.51	80.21	89.81	50.20	23.12	0.18		0.61	0.90			19129	5000	0	0
Lithuania	LT	2013	78.58	74.60	83.33	77.80	2.96	14.30	0.76	0.55	0.70	0.76	0.11	0.07	6220	5000	4249	4249
Luxembourg	LU	2013	87.34	88.47	91.78	81.88	0.54	103.72	0.52	0.41	0.67	0.80	0.10	0.04	5634	5000	3885	3885
Mexico	MX	2012	67.71	57.89	66.66	78.57	117.27	9.69	0.16	0.86	0.57	0.90	0.06	0.05	15108	5000	10084	5000
Netherlands	NL	2013	89.84	87.75	86.28	95.48	16.80	50.57	0.47	0.21	0.67	0.81	0.11	0.02	13346	5000	10054	5000
Norway	NO	2013	85.60	74.96	91.33	90.52	5.08	88.54	0.66		0.79	0.85			256778	5000	0	0
Panama	PA	2013	71.23	78.01	70.24	65.44	3.84	10.03	0.12	1.28	0.58	0.92	0.07	0.09	19379	5000	13455	5000
Paraguay	PY	2013	61.79	48.30	62.63	74.42	6.51	4.70	0.17	0.86	0.66	0.92	0.06	0.05	9185	5000	6882	5000
Peru	PE	2013	69.39	61.76	61.04	85.37	29.77	5.92	0.21	0.73	0.72	0.93	0.04	0.03	52130	5000	37069	5000
Poland	PL	2013	79.74	69.26	78.56	91.39	38.04	13.63	0.45	0.63	0.58	0.76	0.08	0.05	56830	5000	32433	5000
Russian Fed.	RU	2013	71.43	50.35	71.24	92.70	143.51	11.70	0.49	0.49	0.78	0.88	0.13	0.07	62002	5000	42680	5000
Serbia	RS	2013	75.38	67.80	74.53	83.07	7.16	6.09	0.47	0.95	0.46	0.64	0.07	0.06	7098	5000	3061	3061
Slovak Rep.	SK	2013	81.92	78.27	81.33	86.17	5.41	17.54	0.58	0.45	0.67	0.78	0.05	0.02	8834	5000	6090	5000
Slovenia	SI	2012	79.49	72.03	81.69	84.74	2.06	22.86	0.61	0.83	0.62	0.72	0.09	0.07	6208	5000	3850	3850
South Africa	ZA	2012	69.81	56.85	64.23	88.34	52.83	7.50	0.43	1.55	0.46	0.67	0.08	0.12	12482	5000	5696	5000
Spain	ES	2013	83.66	72.34	81.80	96.85	46.62	29.01	0.59	0.75	0.55	0.67	0.07	0.05	16980	5000	9868	5000
Switzerland	CH	2013	90.40	83.98	91.66	95.56	8.09	75.50	0.34	0.21	0.72	0.88	0.11	0.02	8210	5000	6265	5000
United Kingdom	UK	2013	89.06	80.19	89.67	97.30	64.13	40.25	0.55	0.38	0.70	0.81	0.10	0.04	23262	5000	17004	5000
United States	US	2013	81.07	65.45	84.26	93.51	316.06	50.16	0.53	0.41	0.66	0.79	0.10	0.04	71435	5000	50095	5000
Uruguay	UY	2013	73.83	63.97	75.66	81.86	3.39	13.54	0.30	0.82	0.67	0.87	0.06	0.05	61788	5000	46039	5000
Vietnam	VN	2013	59.21	61.55	52.13	63.65	90.75	1.51	0.45	0.94	0.87	0.94	0.08	0.07	18634	5000	8135	5000

NOTES: See Table 1 for all data sources; Glob. = the summary KOF globalization index; Pop. = population in millions; GDP = per Capita, PPP (Constant 2017 International $), in thousands; EOR = gender employment odds ratios; PMOR = gender odds-ratios of employment in professional or managerial occupations; FRATE = % women in labor force. MRATE = % men in labor force; FPM = % of lucrative occupations which are women; MPM % of lucrative occupations which are men. Sample 1 = the sample size for the entire sample of this country, including only people aged 25 to 64, who have complete employment and demographic variables (less than 2% of observations lost when making sure to include only full demographic and employment variables) . Sample 2 = the sample size for labor force participation analysis, taken from Sample 1; Sample 3 = the same as Sample 1, but only employed people who have occupational data. Sample 4 = the sample size for the occupational attainment analysis, taken from Sample 3.

Table 2A : Correlation matrix of country-level variables (n = 47)

	Glob.	Economic	Social	Political	Pop.	EOR	PMOR	FRATE	MRATE	MPM	FPM
Glob.	1.00										
Economic	0.87	1.00									
Social	0.94	0.83	1.00								
Political	0.58	0.18	0.38	1.00							
Pop.	-0.34	-0.45	-0.44	0.15	1.00						
EOR	0.66	0.67	0.68	0.17	-0.30	1.00					
PMOR	-0.63	-0.53	-0.65	-0.35	0.08	-0.55	1.00				
FRATE	0.36	0.39	0.45	-0.04	-0.24	0.54	-0.54	1.00			
MRATE	-0.46	-0.44	-0.44	-0.21	0.27	-0.65	0.17	0.16	1.00		
MPM	0.60	0.54	0.69	0.17	-0.25	0.62	-0.60	0.59	-0.23	1.00	
FPM	-0.35	-0.23	-0.28	-0.37	-0.09	-0.12	0.72	-0.17	-0.09	0.04	1.00

NOTES: n is 41 for PMOR, MPM and FPM, due to lack of occupational data is some countries; Glob. = the summary KOF globalization index; Pop. = population in millions; GDP = per Capita, PPP (Constant 2017 International $), in thousands; EOR = gender employment odds ratios; PMOR = gender odds-ratios of employment in professional or managerial occupations; FRATE = % women in labor force. MRATE = % men in labor force; FPM = % of lucrative occupations which are women; MPM % of lucrative occupations which are men.