

A Comparative Analysis of the Factors Influencing Job Expectations among Unemployed Men and Women in Sri Lanka

A.P.Y.G.V. Gunawardena^{1*} and G.R.S.R.C. Samaraweera¹

¹Department of Economics and Statistics, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities
Volume 4 Issue 1, February 2024: 35-50
ISSN: 2773 692X (Online), 2773 6911 (Print)
Copyright: © 2024 The Author(s)
Published by the Faculty of Social Sciences and Languages, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka
Website: <https://www.sab.ac.lk/sljssh>
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4038/sljssh.v4i1.117>



Received: 19 October 2023, **Revised:** 19 September 2024, **Accepted:** 23 August 2024

How to Cite this Article: Gunawardena, A.P.Y.G.V. & Samaraweera, G.R.S.R.C. (2024). A comparative analysis of the factors influencing job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka, *Sri Lanka Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 4(1), 35-50.

Abstract

In Sri Lanka, persistent gender differences in unemployment rates exist, with women enduring greater rates of unemployment despite having a higher average educational attainment than men. Gender differences in job search intensity vary with attitudes toward employment or unemployment as attitudes play a significant role in employment decision-making. These differences are intimately linked to people's expectations and mindsets regarding their work, which are strongly influenced by societal and cultural gender roles. This study looks at how job expectations differ between unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. This study relies on data from the Department of Census and Statistics Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey (2021) and a multinomial logistic model to analyse the total unemployed, male unemployed, and female unemployed separately while taking two dependent variables; job sector expectations and occupational expectations. The study's findings emphasise the pivotal role of gender in sharpening job expectations among the unemployed. Regarding job sector expectations, unemployed women are more inclined towards jobs in the public sector than those in the private sector because of the government's reputation for offering standardized working hours and a work-life balance conducive environment. Furthermore, there are noteworthy differences in occupational expectations as unemployed women are more likely to expect professional and managerial level jobs with the increase in higher education enrolment. This study offers a groundbreaking contribution to the literature by unveiling unique, gender-specific determinants of job expectations among Sri Lanka's unemployed, highlighting the influence of unemployment duration, and employing distinct analytical models to bridge significant theoretical, empirical and methodological gaps. Finally, this study puts forth the broader discourse on gender, unemployment, and labour market dynamics in Sri Lanka, offering gender-specific policy recommendations aimed at bridging the expectation gap between unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.

Keywords: Gender Differences, Job Expectations, Occupational Expectations, Unemployment, Unemployment Duration

INTRODUCTION


Unemployment has historically been a significant and sensitive macroeconomic issue in Sri Lanka and the problem has received considerable attention. It has been revealed by the latest official data released by the Labor Force Survey (2021) that Sri Lanka's unemployment rate has risen substantially compared to previous years. This is due primarily to the COVID-19 pandemic and the current economic downturn, where the country has experienced unprecedented economic and labour market crises, which have exacerbated the worst economic crisis ever experienced.

In comparing the unemployment rate by gender, there is also a consistent gender gap, as female unemployment remains higher than male unemployment. In line with the Global Gender Gap Report (2021), Sri Lanka has the 17th largest labour force participation gap globally. Furthermore, the National Labour Statistics indicate that two-thirds of

working-age women do not participate in the labour force annually, primarily because they choose to stay at home or cannot work due to age, disability, or illness. Despite higher levels of female education and low fertility rates contributing to other human development outcomes, Sri Lanka still ranks low in female labour force participation compared to other South Asian countries (Solotaroff, Joseph, Kuriakose, & Sethi, 2020).

Female labour force participation is crucial for economic development and household well-being, necessitating an analysis of why many women remain outside the labour force. So, from that point of view also, the gender gap in unemployment in Sri Lanka could exist. In Sri Lanka, widespread beliefs concerning the sociological and cultural factors significantly influence employment and unemployment outcomes among men and women.

* Corresponding author: Tel.: +94 (76) 3491703; Email: yashoragayashi@gmail.com

 <https://orcid.org/0009-0009-4951-8621>



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A prevalent belief is that women should primarily engage in household activities, contributing to the gender gap in labour force participation. To explore the behaviour of young Sri Lankan women in developing societies at the household level, Malhotra and DeGraff (1997) conducted a study on 'Entry versus success in the labour force,' focusing on job opportunities for young women in Sri Lanka. Their findings revealed that higher education levels lead to greater labour force participation, but women with higher levels of education are more prone to unemployment than employment. Women's outcomes in Sri Lanka's labour market are hindered by household responsibilities, a mismatch between their skills and labour market demands, and gender bias in job searches, recruitment, and promotions (Vithanagama, 2020).

The high percentage of unemployment in Sri Lanka is ascribed to unrealistic expectations, skill mismatches, long waits for public sector employment, and stringent job security regulations. Over the years, numerous explanations for Sri Lanka's high unemployment rate have been put forth. International Labour Organization (ILO) defines the "skills mismatch" hypothesis as a key factor, highlighting that the education system produces skills not valued by employers, leading to high unemployment among educated youth (Seers, 1971). This hypothesis remains relevant in Sri Lanka as the education system continues to produce skills not valued by employers, thus boosting employee expectations and unemployment among educated youth. This mismatch creates a situation where unemployed individuals are not interested in the available jobs, and employers are unwilling to hire them due to the lack of requisite skills. Recent studies indicate that the skills mismatch remains a persistent issue. According to the World Bank (2019), a considerable gap remains between the skills generated by the education system and those required by employers in Sri Lanka.

The COVID-19 pandemic has also accelerated the need for digital skills, which are still underrepresented in the current education curriculum. The second explanation, put forth by Dickens and Lang (1996), focuses on employment and pay policies in the public sector in more detail. In Sri Lanka, public sector jobs are typically better paid, more stable, offer greater benefits, are less labour-intensive, and carry more prestige than private sector roles. Consequently, new labour market entrants often wait for public sector openings. According to Dickens and Lang (1996), Sri Lanka's government deliberately creates jobs in the public sector to address the country's unemployment issue. In compliance with this second explanation, implementing credible reforms in public sector recruitment and wage policies could be the most effective approach to reducing unemployment, as it would deter the tendency to "queue" for public sector jobs (Rama, 1996). Aligning with past studies, a more recent analysis by Gunatilaka (2021) shows that the preference for public sector employment persists, largely due to the job security and benefits it offers, but there is also increasing recognition of the need to diversify employment opportunities and reform public sector policies to make the private sector more attractive. Policy initiatives such as vocational training programs and public-private educational partnerships have been introduced to address these issues, but their effectiveness is still under review.

Meanwhile, the Sri Lankan economy has undergone significant changes in the past couple of decades, requiring updated explanations for persistent unemployment. Issues such as labour laws, particularly regarding maternity leave and child-care support, also negatively impact women's employment opportunities. The absence of sufficient childcare services and supportive maternity leave policies limits women's ability to participate in the labour force fully. It is generally true that women are responsible for more childcare responsibilities than men, so the lack of employer-sponsored childcare can make it difficult for them to participate in paid employment. The benefits of investing in childcare are widely recognized by global research. Providing childcare support can improve labour force quality by improving women's employability (IFC, 2018).

According to the World Bank (2020), improvements in these areas could lead to increased female labour force participation and economic growth. The emotional toll is heightened by a lack of trust in childcare centres and the scarcity of high-quality, affordable options. These pressures are often compounded by spousal expectations and deeply ingrained cultural beliefs about 'good motherhood,' which elevate the socio-psychological importance of personally caring for one's child. Consequently, this burden frequently pushes women out of the workforce or prevents them from entering it altogether. (Verite Research, 2022). So, these factors need to be addressed in contemporary discussions on unemployment to provide a comprehensive understanding of the current labour market dynamics in Sri Lanka.

In view of the current economic condition in Sri Lanka, economic stability profoundly influences job expectations by providing a foundation for secure and predictable employment. Moreover, it allows individuals to confidently pursue their career goals, while businesses can create stable, long-term employment opportunities (Jayathilake, Hewage, & Nanayakkara, 2018; Gunawardana & Liyanage, 2020). On the other hand, assortative mating affects female employment by reinforcing traditional gender roles within households. Couples with similar socioeconomic backgrounds may have traditional expectations, which can limit women's employment opportunities. Conversely, in households where both partners are highly educated and have high incomes, women are more likely to pursue careers (IPS, 2021).

Gender differences in job search intensity vary with the attitudes toward employment or unemployment, as attitudes play a significant role in employment decision-making. These views are a result of the disparities in the perceptions of male and female unemployment. On the other hand, expectations are reflected in attitudes. Female attitudes affect unemployment. For instance, attitudes toward work-life balance conflicts and a lack of job benefits make women more inclined to reject jobs. Female unemployment and labour force inactivity are significantly affected by household chores and caregiving responsibilities, which fall disproportionately on women. This limits the time they can dedicate to employment and thus contributes to female unemployment. Despite having higher education levels, women still queue for limited jobs in the public sector, which raises their unemployment rate as they expect that government jobs are considered to offer more flexible hours, job security (Elizur, 2001), an implicit reputation, and status attached to

government jobs by society and financial security than private sector jobs.

Most people place greater value on a civil service position than on a formal private sector job that offers EPF/ETF coverage, a two-year contract, bonuses, and opportunities for advancement. As a result of the non-wage benefits and social status that come with government work, youth are likely to be attracted to government work. Despite the quasi-formal private sector offering 50% higher pay than civil service roles, young women are more likely to prefer government jobs (Dissanayake, 2020). This scenario was also explained by the International Labour Organization (2016) in such a way that the preference and the queuing hypothesis for public sector employment leads to a situation where women in well-paid, prestigious private sector roles voluntarily leave or hold out for public sector jobs. When jobs seem unattainable, job seekers become discouraged and may continue to be unemployed as they look for work that fits their ideal position expectations.

Men and women usually have different expectations and preferences for their jobs, as well as different approaches to problem-solving. For example, women tend to expect and prefer jobs that are simpler and easier to access than those held by men because of low self-esteem (Elizur, 2001). Low self-esteem in women is believed to be a result of cultural, traditional, and social values that have shaped female thinking. From various perspectives, both men and women prefer and anticipate working for a living. Nonetheless, they typically view it as a subordinate responsibility to their household duties. Furthermore, the high unemployment rate among women is a result of cultural misconceptions about women, which lead society and businesses to believe that men do better than women in the workplace. As a society, women are still viewed as having low self-esteem, being less confident, and being less productive than men. Some female bosses prefer to hire male employees over female employees. This proves that women themselves underrate other women's performance potential. Such societal and organizational beliefs and expectations lead to men's expectations and preference for better, more challenging professions that pay more. This inversely affects women's expectations and preferences.

So, these expectations caused unemployment to rise which led to a continuous unemployment rate with gender differences for a long period in Sri Lanka. Therefore, paying attention to job expectations among unemployed men and women in a recessionary period in Sri Lanka is crucial.

The main objective of this study is to compare the demographic, socio-economic, and geographical factors influencing job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. This research paper begins by providing background information, using the economics of gender and the labour market to define the gender market, particularly concerning employment expectations. Then, after reviewing the relevant empirical literature, the methodology is presented, followed by an analysis of the results and policy implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical background

Unemployed is defined as an individual who has been without a job for more than four weeks and is actively seeking employment, available to work, and willing to accept a job offer within two weeks if one becomes available (Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey: 2021). In general terms, "expectation" refers to a temporary belief in what is likely to occur in the future or what is expected to occur in a given situation (Vroom, 1964). In the view of Woods (1993), pre-entry job expectations arise from the perspective of the employee when they begin working based on their achievements and personal characteristics.

The theoretical, empirical, and methodological literature that relates to the present research are derived from the following aspects: There is a growing importance given to the Job Search Theory in the current stage of economic analysis. As a substitute for the "standard" neoclassical labour supply theory, the Job Search Theory has gained popularity since the 1970s. As a result of the assumptions behind the neoclassical framework, which was based on the assumption that perfect information existed, the neoclassical framework does not account for those actively seeking employment but not being able to find it. Nevertheless, it has been demonstrated that unemployment and unemployment duration cannot be ignored. A group of scholars developed the "Job Search Theory" as an alternate theory of unemployment as a result of this (Faggian, 2014). Theoretical arguments based on search theory suggest that unemployed individuals must make significant concessions to acquire new jobs. Furthermore, expectations of either employment or unemployment are related to the duration of the job search.

The Social Cognitive Career Theory highlights the role of self-efficacy beliefs that possess a significant impact on determining career-related behaviours and outcomes. Unemployed individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to set ambitious job expectations and engage in proactive job search behaviours. The Social Cognitive Career Theory can shed light on how self-beliefs, social support and contextual factors influence job expectations and subsequent job search efforts. Heineck (2011) examined how cognitive abilities affect unemployment entry and exit rates in a dynamic setting. It was found by Heineck that cognitive skills have a rather small impact on unemployment propensity and contribute very little to individual heterogeneity. Despite this, they can provide the males with the tools to stay out of unemployment (Bandara, 2019).

According to the social cognitive model of career self-management proposed by Lend & Brown (2013) and supported by prior empirical evidence from Empson, Warner, and Krahn (1992), young adults tend to adjust their career aspirations and expectations in response to negative job search experiences. As a consequence, Monika Mühlböck, Kalleitner, Steiber & and Kittel (2022) emphasized that individuals who have been unemployed for a longer period will experience a more significant reduction in aspirations and expectations than those who have been unemployed for a shorter period.

Empirical background

Job expectations among males and females

Unemployment gender differences are relevant for our objective because previous literature explains these gender differences in terms of expectations about jobs. Many researchers have supported that gender impacts intentions and actions regarding employment choices. Previous studies have shown that job expectations among males and females are different (Mellado & Scherman, 2017; Tulu, 2017; Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Sagan, & Wang, 2011; Chullen & Bello, 2015).

In the Sri Lankan context, gender differences in job expectations have also been explored. De Silva (2016) identified that female employees often prioritize work-life balance and job stability more than their male counterparts, who tend to focus more on salary and career progression. Therefore, factors related to job expectations are categorized into two main sub-sectors, with corresponding hypotheses developed for each.

Demographic determinants on job expectations

Gender is one of the most important determinants of job expectations. Tulu (2017); Bandara (2019); Mellado and Scherman (2017); Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Sagan, and Wang (2011); Simões, Tosun, & Rocca, 2022 have expressed that gender is positively associated with job expectations. According to Tulu (2017), there is a gender disparity in job expectations and preferences among psychology graduates. While newly graduated men often seek challenging roles with high salaries and prefer jobs related to their field of specialization, newly graduated women generally expect fewer demanding jobs with moderate to low salaries and are more inclined to accept simpler positions regardless of the salary.

The reason males desire the most difficult and highest-paying jobs is to gain social respect and value, while females want jobs that offer social acceptance. Social values, culture and tradition affect female job expectations and preferences. In comparison to women, men placed higher job expectations for pay, responsibility, independence and influence at work and inside the organization. In comparison to males, women placed a higher value on meaningful work, respect, supervision, co-workers, social interaction, convenient work hours, job security and benefits (Elizur, 2001). Similar findings were indicated by Mellado and Scherman (2017) who stated that there are different job expectations among male and female students. Furthermore, they have explained that the job expectations of students are linked to their gender, with a clear relationship between gender and job expectations. Female students are more likely to be drawn to communication fields other than journalism, such as public relations, teaching, and research. This finding aligns with previous research on Chilean students. Gender has a significant impact primarily on the field of public relations, which falls under advertising, while it does not significantly affect other areas like teaching, research, and other non-communication fields. However, opposite findings were revealed by Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Sagan, and Wang (2011).

According to their findings, job characteristics valued by both male and female students are similar, with no significant differences between the genders regarding either intrinsic or extrinsic job variables. Most of the scholars found

that, as an explanatory variable, age is a significant determinant of job expectations. A study conducted by Kowske, Rasch, and Wiley (2010) revealed that age is an important factor in predicting the degree of satisfaction with pay and benefits. A comparison of sales managers' job expectations at different career stages and at various ages does not reveal any significant differences (Malik & Subramanian, 2015). However, the literature on psychological contract breaches suggests that older employees tend to view breaches less negatively than younger employees, who typically have higher job expectations (Vantilborgh, Dries, De Vos, & Bal, 2015). The positive impact of age and marriage often occurring later in life on job expectations and satisfaction can be attributed to the more advanced positions held by individuals in fields such as science and higher education. Studies by Saner and Eyüpoglu (2013) and Sharma and Jyoti (2009) have shown that married life positively influences job satisfaction and expectations.

Considering ethnicity as an explanatory variable, according to Brenner and Tomkiewicz (1982), black and white graduates with business college degrees have different job expectations. Compared with White respondents, Black respondents valued the job characteristics that are strongly related to long-term career objectives and structure. There was a significant difference by gender for white females, who placed a greater emphasis on encouraging continued knowledge and skills development when compared to black females, and for black males, who placed a greater emphasis on this same characteristic. Additionally, Black males rated "rewarding good performance with recognition" as more important than White males, whereas White females valued this characteristic more than Black females. Tomkiewicz, Johnson, and Brenner (1997) revisited the job expectations of White and Black business students and identified five differences in job expectations between Black and White males and females compared to the 1982 study.

In line with this strand of literature, the study can hypothesize that: *H1: Demographic factors affecting job expectations differ for unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.*

Socio-economic determinants on job expectations

Education is another important determinant of job expectations. Bandara (2019); Simões, Tosun, & Rocca (2022); Mellado & Scherman (2017); Calvès, Kobiané & N'Bouké (2013); Minchna, Kmiecik & Burzyn'ska-Ptaszek (2017) and Muller et al. (2020) have expressed that education is an influential factor in job expectations. Bandara (2019) found that educated youth are more likely to expect and secure better jobs, particularly in technical and professional fields, whereas those with lower educational levels, such as primary education or less, are more inclined to expect employment in less complex occupations. When using education as the sole criterion, fewer than 10% of job expectations align with the required skills, while 55% and 34% of individuals are either under or over-educated for the jobs they expect, respectively.

Conversely, having a low level of education, such as below secondary or no formal education, significantly lowers job expectations. In contrast, secondary education generally has a stronger positive effect on job expectations across most sectors, except in administrative and technical roles. Post-secondary education positively influences job expectations

in high-complexity occupations but negatively impacts expectations in low-complexity jobs, although these differences are not statistically significant. Based on the findings of Bandara (2019), there is sufficient evidence to conclude that youth education significantly impacts both employment expectations and outcomes, with higher levels of education exerting a stronger influence on job expectations. Similarly, Mellado and Scherman (2017) also revealed that the job expectations of the students are linked to their levels of education. The length of unemployment varies depending on its type, and as it lasts longer, it could put more bias into people's expectations about their future employment. The study conducted by Kamyar (2019) mainly focused on discussing how the duration of unemployment affects one's expectations of the short-term possibility of employment. Extended periods of unemployment typically lower an individual's expectations of finding and accepting a job within the next three months. According to Marcel Garz's article "Unemployment Expectations, Excessive Pessimism, and News Coverage," it is anticipated that the longer someone remains unemployed, the more their expectations about job prospects will diminish on average.

According to the above existing literature, the study can postulate that; *H2: Socio-economic factors affecting job expectations differ for unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.*

Residential determinants of job expectations

Generally, urban males and females find employment shortly after completing their education, whereas rural females tend to experience longer periods of unemployment, mainly due to limited access to job opportunities and insufficient information about available positions and how to locate them. Additionally, parental expectations and cultural norms about what constitutes "acceptable" work in rural areas further contribute to this extended unemployment. As a result of parental pressure and cultural influences regarding what is considered "acceptable" work in rural areas, rural females experience relatively longer periods of unemployment (Dissanayake, 2020). Bandara (2019), Tulu (2017), and Muller et al. (2020) have all discussed the connection between the residual sector and job expectations in their research. Bandara (2019) highlighted that urban residency has a significant positive impact on job match quality in technical, clerical, and operational sectors, but a negative effect in agriculture. For example, job match quality improves by 0.003–0.023% with a 01% increase in the likelihood of residing in urban areas. This suggests that individuals living in urban areas are better positioned to meet the skill requirements of higher-complexity jobs due to their greater access to quality education, economic knowledge, and employment opportunities.

According to Tulu (2017), the job expectations and preferences of fresh psychology graduates are also impacted by their residence. Therefore, it can be concluded that the residence of recent graduates is another factor influencing their job expectations and preferences. The findings of Tulu (2017) indicated that, regardless of the educational achievements of men and women, the majority of graduates in rural areas expect that those people will face difficulties in obtaining employment. They prefer to begin with local jobs offering a moderate salary before eventually leaving their family to seek work elsewhere. However, one highly educated female graduate from a rural area feels that while her location

may influence her job prospects, it won't stop her from finding employment. According to Theodori & Theodori (2015), young women from multicultural or economically challenged backgrounds who reside in rural or peri-urban areas are less likely to think about moving abroad to improve their career and employment chances (Weiss, Ferrante, & Soler-Porta, 2021).

Thus, this study can assume that; *H3: Residential factors affecting job expectations differ for unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.*

Some researchers have studied gender differences in job expectations (Chullen & Bello, 2015; Bandara, 2019; Mellado & Scherman, 2017; Muller, et al., 2020). Nevertheless, there are surprisingly few studies that compare the unemployment rates of men and women and demonstrate the influence of demographic, socioeconomic, and geographical factors on job expectancies. Up to now, the literature includes only one study (Wickramasinghe & Wickramanayake, 2013) that has previously explored job expectations in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, no studies focus on job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. As noted in the introduction, given the significant increase in the gender gap in unemployment in Sri Lanka, which is considered an increasingly problematic labour market, a study examining gender differences in job expectations is quite relevant at this moment.

Thereupon, this study is expected to satisfy these gaps by contributing new knowledge to the field.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study attempts to identify the demographic, socio-economic and geographical factors of job expectations and to compare the job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka by testing the hypothesized relationship given in the literature review. To accomplish this objective, hypotheses were developed with sufficient justification based on the literature review. An explanatory type of research was conducted by the researcher to test the hypotheses.

This study is classified as applied research because it tackles the practical issue of the substantial gender unemployment gap in Sri Lanka. It seeks to explore how job expectations impact this gender disparity in unemployment. Following the viewpoint of the mode of thinking, this research uses a deductive approach as this study seeks to examine existing theories, such as Job Search Theory, rather than developing new ones. This research study was conducted under a positivist view, assuming that the determinants that affect job expectations among unemployed men and women were measured using quantitative techniques. This study utilizes secondary sources to collect the necessary data from the Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey 2021, which is widely accepted as a reliable source of secondary data and covers the whole country, including all nine provinces in Sri Lanka, from 2013 onward.

The study targets a population of 439,784 unemployed individuals in Sri Lanka, comprising 206,943 males and 232,840 females. A two-stage stratified sampling method was used

to select a sample from 25,750 housing units, focusing exclusively on residents of these units and excluding institutional populations. The sample frame was derived from the 2021 Census of Population and Housing. The final sample for the Labor Force Survey (LFS) in 2021 included 1,567 unemployed individuals aged 15 and over, covering all provinces in Sri Lanka.

According to questions 54 and 56 in the SLLFS schedule for 2021, job sector expectations and occupational expectations were identified as the job expectations for three separate dependent variables, respectively. Furthermore, 1,000 unemployed people, including 465 male unemployed people and 535 female unemployed people, were selected as the sample for job sector expectations, while 1,092 unemployed people, including 464 male unemployed workers and 628 female unemployed workers were chosen as the sample for occupational expectations. As the total sample size of the unemployed is 1,567, the job sector expectations and occupational expectation variables consist of only 1,000 and 1,092 observations, respectively, because the model dropped 567 and 475 cases as missing values generated by non-responders in those cases.

Six models were prepared for job sector expectations and occupational expectations separately. As all the selected dependent variables were qualitative and categorical, all the models were analysed using a multinomial logistic regression method. Here, the categorical variable of job sector expectation consists of the public sector, which consists of both government and semi-government sector expectations, the private sector and the unemployed, who are expecting employment in any sector. Occupation expectations are categorized based on the Sri Lanka Standard Classification of Occupation (2008) (SLCO 2008), which is based on the International Standard Classification of Occupation (2008) (ISCO 2008), and three types of expectations are generated: professional and managerial level jobs (professional and managerial), skilled jobs (technicians, clerks, service, agricultural and production), and non-skilled jobs (elementary).

Based on the literature review, the explanatory variables for all models were selected to include demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, and ethnicity; socio-economic factors like years of schooling and duration of unemployment; as well as geographical factors, including the residential sector as outlined in the SLLFS 2021. Tables and text were used to present the results of the study in such a way that the reader could understand them clearly and easily.

Table 1: Operationalization of the variables: job expectations

Variable	Operationalisation of variable	Source
Dependent variable	Job Sector Expectations (Y ₁)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Private Sector=1 Public Sector=2 Any Sector=3 	
Job Expectations	Occupational Expectations (Y ₂)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional and Managerial=1 Skilled=2 Non-Skilled=3 	
Independent variables		
Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male =0 Female=1 	
Age	Age as at the last birthday (Continuous Variable)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> age15_24=1 age25_34=2 age35_44=3 age45_55=4 age55plus=5 	
Marital Status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Married=0 Never Married=1 	LFS (2021), Data
Ethnicity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sinhalese=0 Non-Sinhalese=1 	
Years of Schooling	Continuous Variable	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No Schooling=16 Studying/Studied Grade 1=0 Passed Grade 2=1 Grade 3=2 Grade 4 =3 Grade 5=4 Grade 6=5 Grade 7=6 Grade 8 =7 	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grade 9=8 • Grade 10=9 • Passed G.C.E O/L / N.C.G. E=10 • Passed Grade 12=11 • Passed G.C.E.(A/L) / H.N.C. E=12 • Passed G.A.Q./G.S. Q=13 • Degree=14 • Post Graduate Degree / Diploma=15
Unemployment Duration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less than one year=0 • More than 1 year=1
Residential Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban=0 • Non-urban=1

Source: Developed by the researcher, 2023

The general equation for the multinomial logistic regression applied to six models of job sector expectations and occupational expectations is formulated as follows:

$$MLogit(Y_i) = \alpha + \beta_i D_i + \gamma_i X_i + U_i \quad (1)$$

For Occupational Expectations:

$$MLogit(Y_2) = \alpha + \beta_i D_i + \gamma_i X_i + U_i \quad (2)$$

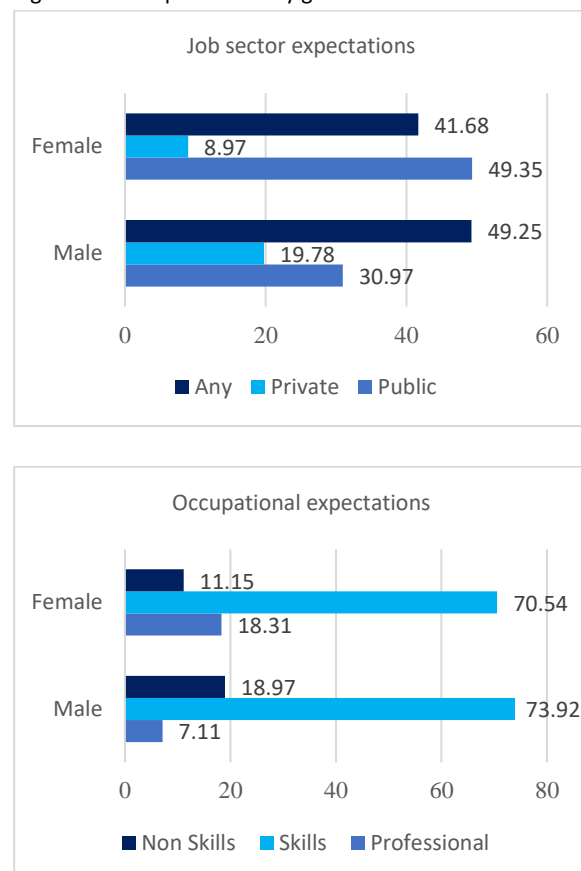
In equations 1 and 2, Y1 and Y2 indicate job expectations for the job sector and occupational expectations respectively, for total unemployed men and women separately. α signifies the constant. β_i signifies the coefficients of dummy variables and γ_i denotes the coefficients of continuous variables while U_i denotes the error term. The same independent variables are used in both equations. Demographic, socioeconomic and geographical factors are represented by Dummy variables (D_i - gender, marital status, ethnicity, unemployment duration and residential sector) and continuous variables (X_i - age and years of schooling). Details of those variables are given in Table 2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Sri Lanka, there is a notable disparity between genders in terms of job sector and occupational expectations. (Figure 1). Accordingly, unemployed women's job expectations in the public sector are higher than those of unemployed men, while unemployed women's job expectations in the private sector are lower than those of unemployed men in Sri Lanka.

On the other hand, occupational expectations for professional and managerial levels are higher for women than for men. This is mainly because of the increase in higher education among women, as their higher education enrolment is higher than that of men. For instance, according to the GPI for gross tertiary education enrolment in Sri Lanka in 2020, there were 1.38 women for every man enrolled at the tertiary level, whether in a public or private institution. This surge in female higher education has significantly narrowed the gender gap in occupational expectations, as more women attain the qualifications needed for professional and managerial roles. The higher educational attainment among women justifies their elevated occupational expectations, aligning them with or even exceeding those of their male counterparts.

Figure 1: Job expectations by gender



Source: Developed by the researcher using LFS data, 2021

Descriptive statistics, including the mean or proportion and standard deviation, were calculated for each selected dependent and explanatory variable to compare job expectations between unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. Table 2 presents these descriptive results for three models: the overall model, the male model, and the female model. It includes several observations (No. of Obs.), the mean or proportion (Mean/Prop.), and the standard deviation (Std. Dev.). It is crucial to keep in mind that before discussing the results of the multinomial regression analysis, out of the total sample size of 1,567 unemployed, the two variables of job sector and occupational expectation had only 1,000 and 1,092 observations respectively, because the model dropped 567 and 475 cases as missing values generated by non-responders in those cases.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for job expectations of total, male and female models

Name of the model	Total		Male		Female	
Number of Observations						
Job Sector Expectations(Y1)	1,000		465		535	
Occupational Expect: (Y2)	1,092		464		628	
Variable	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
Dependent Variable						
Job Sector Expectations(Y1)	2.044	0.927	2.183	0.878	1.923	0.952
Occupational Expect: (Y2)	2.009	0.530	2.119	0.497	1.928	0.538
Explanatory Variables						
Demographic Factors						
Gender						
Female (D1)	0.528	0.499	–	–	–	–
Age (X1)	27.322	9.291	26.666	9.728	27.908	8.848
Ethnicity						
Non-Sinhalese (D2)	0.244	0.429	0.240	0.427	0.248	0.432
Marital Status						
Unmarried (D3)	0.728	0.445	0.812	0.391	0.653	0.476
Socio-economic Factors						
Educational Attainment(X2)	11.754	2.193	11.340	2.043	12.123	2.257
Unemployment Duration						
More than 1 year (D4)	0.411	0.492	0.356	0.479	0.460	0.499
Geographic Factors						
Residual Sector						
Non-Urban (D5)	0.854	0.353	0.853	0.355	0.855	0.352

Source: Author's calculations using LFS microdata, 2021

Notes:

- All numbers are rounded to three decimals.
- (D) and (X) indicate the dummy and continuous variables respectively.
- For the dummy variables, proportions are presented only for the categories that are equal to one.
- Out of the overall sample size of 1,567 unemployed, the models for the two variables of employment sector and occupational expectation only contained 1,000 and 1,092 observations respectively, because the model excluded 567 and 475 cases due to missing values produced by non-responders.

Additionally, multinomial logistic regression models were used to analyse the factors influencing job sector and occupational expectations among unemployed men and women. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 3 and 4. Tables 5 (Annex A) and 6 (Annex B) provide the multinomial logit coefficients (Coe.), probability values (Prob. Value), and marginal effect coefficients (Marg. Effect).

I. Job sector expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.

- **Demographic factors on job sector expectations between unemployed men and women**

As presented in Table 3, in the demographic aspect, firstly this study marked that gender affects job sector expectations. Tulu (2017); Bandara (2019); Mellado and Scherman (2017) have expressed that gender is a determinant of job expectations. Gender is significant in government and private job expectations. Regarding job expectations for any sector, government sector job expectations are higher and private job expectations are lower for unemployed women (Dickens & Lang, 1986).

This is mainly because government sector jobs often come with standardized working hours (Elizur, 2001), social acceptance (Tulu, 2017) and a better work-life balance compared to the private sector. This can be attractive to women who prioritize family responsibilities and desire more flexibility to manage their personal and professional lives as government sector jobs are often seen as providing more stability and job security (Elizur, 2001) compared to private sector

jobs. Age has a significant negative impact on public sector job expectations and a significant positive impact on private sector expectations of unemployed persons concerning the base categories. When assessing the influence of age on government job expectations of unemployed men and women, the age of both has a negative impact and is significant for only unemployed men on government job expectations. However, the age of both unemployed men and women positively and significantly impacts private-sector job expectations. Being an unemployed non-Sinhalese has no impact on government and private job expectations concerning any sector. When comparing unemployed men and women individually, it was observed that being a non-Sinhalese unemployed woman hurts government job expectations. This is mainly because government jobs often require proficiency in the official language of the country, which may be the majority language (for example, Sinhala in Sri Lanka). In the absence of fluency in the majority language, non-Sinhalese men may have difficulty getting government jobs, which may negatively impact their expectations. However, being a non-Sinhalese unemployed woman has a positive impact on government job expectations while being insignificant on private job expectations for both men and women. Further, findings indicated that being an unemployed unmarried person is positive and insignificant on government job expectations while insignificantly negative on private job expectations, and the same results are also revealed both for unmarried unemployed men and women.

- ***Socio-economic factors on job sector expectations between unemployed men and women***

In this study, the second hypothesis is to examine the impact of socioeconomic factors on job expectations. Bandara (2019); Mellado and Scherman (2017); Minchna et al., (2017); and Muller et al., (2020) have expressed that the level of education is an influential factor in job expectations. Out of them, years of schooling significantly positively impact job sector expectations for both unemployed men and women, which is aligned with results obtained by Minchna et al., (2017) and Muller et al., (2020). It is not a significant factor in private job expectations of the common sample and men separately, while it is significant for unemployed women concerning any sector. It is common for government jobs to have specific educational and eligibility requirements.

As a result, acquiring higher levels of education can enhance an individual's qualifications and increase their eligibility for a wide range of government positions. So, unemployed individuals with higher education tend to have greater expectations of securing government jobs due to their enhanced educational background. The level of education and the field of study have been found to affect job expectations. Jayasinghe and Gunawardena (2019) emphasized that graduates from prestigious universities have higher job expectations in terms of salary and career advancement compared to those from lesser-known institutions. The study disclosed that

more than one year of unemployment duration has a significant positive impact on government job sector expectations while having a significant negative impact on private job sector expectations of the common sample. The results show that an unemployed person with more than one year of unemployment duration is less likely to expect private jobs. As the private sector expands throughout Sri Lanka, there are more employment opportunities in the country.

Therefore, when an unemployed person has more than one year of unemployment duration, the probability of having private job expectations will decrease by 11.9%. On the other hand, an unemployed person with more than one year of unemployment duration is more likely to expect government jobs. As there are fewer government job opportunities in the country, people have to wait a long period for a job opportunity.

When explaining how unemployment duration influences private job expectations, the study confirmed that being unemployed for men and women with more than one year of unemployment duration has a negative and significant impact. Kamyar (2019) and Monika Mühlböck, Kalleitner, Steiber and Kittel (2022) also reached similar conclusions that job expectations will be significantly lower for those who have been unemployed for a more extended period. Regarding the impact of unemployment duration on government job expectations with reference to the base category, it is only significant for unemployed women.

- ***Geographical factors on job sector expectations between unemployed men and women***

When it comes to the geographical factors that make up the model, there is a positive relationship between all sector expectations for all three models in the study. Only being an unemployed person and being an unemployed female living in the non-urban sector has a significant impact on government job expectations.

This is because government-funded infrastructure and public services are often crucial to non-urban areas. As a result of this reliance on government initiatives, there is an expectation that job opportunities will be available in fields such as construction, transportation, healthcare, education and public administration in the non-urban sector. Non-urban unemployed individuals naturally gravitate toward government jobs, because they expect to find work in fields directly related to social welfare and public services. The empirical literature provides opposite evidence as a negative relationship between job expectations and the non-urban sector which has been investigated by Bandara (2019); Tulu (2017); Muller et al., (2020).

Table 3: Multinomial-logistic regression models for job sector expectations of unemployed by gender

Model Name of the model	Multinomial logistic model 1				Multinomial logistic model 2				Multinomial logistic model 3			
	Total				Male				Female			
	Public		Private		Public		Private		Public		Private	
	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P
Independent Variable												
Demographic Factors												
Gender												
Female (D1)	0.397	0.009***	-0.575	0.007***	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Age (X1)	-0.039	0.004***	0.032	0.013*	-0.048	0.034**	0.029	0.088*	-0.029	0.109	0.036	0.091*
Ethnicity												
Non-Sinhalese (D2)	-0.031	0.872	0.353	0.153	-0.793	0.026**	0.316	0.194	0.449	0.062*	0.155	0.701
Marital Status												
Unmarried (D3)	0.014	0.950	-0.270	0.363	0.194	0.691	-0.310	0.482	0.026	0.119	-0.040	0.923
Socio-Economic Factors												
Years of Schooling (X2)	0.283	0.000***	-0.043	0.382	0.299	0.000***	0.063	0.131	0.287	0.000***	-0.257	0.001***
Unemployment Duration												
More than 1 year	0.470	0.002***	-0.927	0.000***	0.126	0.587	0.305	0.001***	0.688	0.001***	-1.021	0.009**
Residential Sector												
Non-Urban (D4)	0.557	0.006***	0.428	0.127	0.332	0.288	0.567	0.127	0.671	0.014**	0.146	0.741
Constant	-3.519	0.000***	-1.264	0.132	-3.181	0.007***	-2.867	0.014**	-3.730	0.000***	0.689	0.595
Sample Size	1,000				465				535			
LR chi2(12)	185.46				75.56				94.40			
Prob > chi2	0.0000				0.0000				0.0000			
Pseudo R2	0.0927				0.0787				0.0949			

Source: Author's calculations using LFS microdata, 2021

Notes:

- (D) and (X) indicate the dummy and continuous variables respectively.
- (Coe:) and (P) indicate the coefficient and probability value.
- ***, **, and * designate statistical significance at 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively.
- Reference Category for Y: Expecting a job from any sector, either the public sector or the private sector.
- Reference category for Total: Being an unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese male living in the urban sector with less than 1-year unemployment duration.
- Reference category for Male: Being a male unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese, living in the urban sector with less than 1 year unemployment duration.
- Reference category for Female: Being a female unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese, living in the urban sector with less than 1-year unemployment duration.

II. Occupational expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.

- **Demographic factors on occupational expectations between unemployed men and women**

Job expectations under occupational expectations comprise professional and managerial, skilled and non-skilled jobs.

The base category for the total model is an unemployed person who is married, a Sinhalese male living in the urban sector with less than one year of unemployment duration, and non-skilled for the dependent variable. In line with this, as presented in Table 4, gender has a highly significant impact on professional and managerial expectations.

Concerning the base categories, unemployed women are more likely to expect professional and managerial jobs than men. As, being an unemployed person who is female, the probability of having professional and managerial expectations will increase by 8.6%. Increased participation of women in higher education has resulted in more women attaining advanced degrees and qualifications, which has caused them to have higher expectations for professional and managerial roles that require specific skills and knowledge gained through education and training. Women tend to anticipate securing professional and managerial positions, as higher levels of education significantly influence their job expectations and ability to obtain better employment, particularly in technical and professional sectors. This aligns with previous research by Bandara (2019). Additionally, female students are often more drawn to fields like public relations, teaching, and research, rather than journalism, as noted by Mellado and Scherman (2017).

Consequently, unemployed women tend to have higher expectations of securing skilled positions compared to men. Regarding the influence of age, older unemployed men and women are more likely to expect both professional-level and skilled jobs, excluding unemployed females' expectations for professional and managerial jobs. Only the age of unemployed men is positive and significant for professional and managerial job expectations. Malik and Subramanian (2015) discovered contrasting findings: job expectations of sales managers are not significantly influenced by career stage or age. Ethnicity can also be identified as one of the influential factors in occupational expectations.

Concerning the base category, being a non-Sinhalese unemployed person has a positive and significant impact on both professional and managerial level and skilled level job expectations. When compared gender-wise, being a non-Sinhalese unemployed male and being a non-Sinhalese unemployed female have a positive and significant impact on professional and managerial level expectations, while being a non-Sinhalese unemployed female has a significant impact on skilled job expectations, except for being a non-Sinhalese unemployed male, which is aligned with results obtained by Tomkiewicz (1982) and Tomkiewicz et al. (1997), as black and white graduates have different job expectations.

The results for marital status revealed that the influence of being an unmarried person, concerning base categories, has a notably positive effect exclusively on expectations for skilled jobs. That implies that unmarried unemployed men and women are more likely to expect skilled jobs. This is because if a person is expected to work in skilled jobs, they always try to gain the necessary qualifications relevant to their career path, as they do not have the same family responsibilities and commitments as married individuals. So, they are more inclined to invest time and effort into acquiring the necessary skills and qualifications for skilled jobs.

Socioeconomic factors on occupational expectations between unemployed men and women

Years of schooling can be identified as a significant factor in occupational expectations in the common sample and for men and women separately. When being an unemployed person with higher education, the probability of having professional and managerial-level jobs and skilled job expectations will increase by 3.9% and 1.02%, respectively (Table 6).

However, the findings of Bandara (2019), contrary to the results of this study, exhibit a negative impact on high-complexity roles, such as those in administrative, professional,

and technical fields. Although unemployment duration is not a significant factor in professional and managerial jobs and skilled job expectations in the common sample and only for men, being a female unemployed person who has had more than one year of unemployment duration is significant for occupational expectations while being less likely to be expected relating to the base category.

Societal expectations and pressures, particularly regarding gender roles and responsibilities, influence the career decisions and expectations of female individuals. As the duration of unemployment increases, societal pressures become more influential, resulting in lower expectations for higher-level roles. The observation is confirmed by Kamyar (2019) and Monika Mühlböck, Kalleitner, Steiber and Kittel (2022), who noticed that job expectations will be significantly lower for those who have been unemployed for a longer period.

- ***Geographical factors on occupational expectations between unemployed men and women***

The residential sector was exposed by this study with reference to the base category, being unemployed, being male unemployed and being female unemployed who live in the non-urban sector do not have a significant influence on occupational job expectations.

Finally, the results and findings of this study indicate that various demographic, socio-economic and geographical factors significantly influence job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka.

Table 4: Multinomial-logistic regression models for occupational expectations of unemployed by gender

Model	Multinomial logistic model 1				Multinomial logistic model 2				Multinomial logistic model 3			
Name of the model	Total				Male				Female			
	Prof. & Mang:		Skilled		Prof. & Mang:		Skilled		Prof. & Mang:		Skilled	
	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P	Coe:	P
Independent Variable												
Demographic Factors												
Gender												
Female (D1)	1.208	0.000***	0.411	0.041**		—				—		
Age (X1)	0.017	0.361	0.024	0.040**	0.080	0.016**	0.024	0.161	-0.006	0.810	0.022	0.191
Ethnicity												
Non-Sinhalese (D2)	0.947	0.003***	0.536	0.032**	1.379	0.015**	0.548	0.123	0.893	0.036**	0.612	0.091*
Marital Status												
Unmarried (D3)	0.830	0.026**	0.268	0.156	1.756	0.063*	0.261	0.564	0.755	0.081*	0.415	0.223
Socio-Economic Factors												
Years of Schooling (X2)	0.768	0.000***	0.427	0.000***	0.963	0.000***	0.430	0.000***	0.710	0.000***	0.425	0.000***
Unemployment Duration												
More than 1 year	-0.246	0.343	-0.437	0.020**	0.545	0.234	-0.159	0.551	-0.648	0.060*	-0.692	0.015**
Residential Sector												
Non-Urban (D4)	0.191	0.574	0.174	0.486	0.943	0.138	0.512	0.110	-0.338	0.485	-0.257	0.534
Constant	-11.230	0.000	-4.377	0.000	-17.250	0.000	-4.688	0.000	-7.901	0.000	-3.415	0.005
Sample Size		1,092					464				628	
LR chi2(12)		214.31					84.29				109.60	
Prob > chi2		0.0000					0.0000				0.0000	
Pseudo R2		0.1246					0.1250				0.1089	

Source: Author's calculations using LFS microdata, 2021

Notes:

- (D) and (X) indicate the dummy and continuous variables respectively.
- (Coe:) and (P) indicate the coefficient and probability value.
- ***, **, and * designate statistical significance at 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively.
- Reference Category for Y: Expecting a non-skilled job.
- Reference category for Total: Being an unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese male living in the urban sector with less than 1-year unemployment duration.
- Reference category for Male: Being a male unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese, living in the urban sector with less than 1-year unemployment duration.
- Reference category for Female: Being a female unemployed person who is married, Sinhalese, living in the urban sector with less than 1-year unemployment duration.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study reveal that demographic, socio-economic, and geographical factors have various positive and negative effects on job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. When considering the two dependent variables that have been taken to represent

job expectations, it is clear that gender significantly affects job expectations. Regarding the first dependent variable, job sector expectations, the findings of the study revealed that, under the demographic aspect, gender significantly affects job sector expectations.

It implies that more females preferred government job expectations while giving less preference to private job expectations than men. While confirming the queuing hypothesis of females for government sector jobs rather than private job expectations, unemployed women are more likely to expect professional and managerial jobs than men, with reference to the reference category. In comparing the effect of age on government job expectations of unemployed men and women, the age of both is negatively significant for only unemployed men and positively significant for private job expectations. Being non-Sinhalese, unemployed men and women have an impact on government job expectations while being insignificant on private job expectations.

Interestingly, ethnicity can be identified as one of the influential factors in occupational expectations for both unemployed men and women. On the other hand, concerning the base categories of these two dependent variables, years of

schooling are also an important determinant of job expectations for both unemployed men and women. The years of education of unemployed females concerning the base categories have a more considerable influence on job expectations, mainly because they are enrolled in higher education more than males.

Being unemployed men and women with more than one year of unemployment duration have a significant negative impact on private job expectations, while government job expectations and unemployment duration are only significant for unemployed women. Being a female unemployed person and having more than one year of unemployment duration is significant for occupational expectations, but less likely to be expected concerning the base category. When considering the residential sector, being non-urban unemployed is a significant positive factor in job sector expectations for the common sample and unemployed women.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that demographic, socio-economic, and geographical factors influence job expectations differently for unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. Overall, the study reveals a gender disparity in the job sector and occupational expectations between unemployed men and women in the country.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Based on an in-depth examination of job expectations among unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka, along with a review of current policies and recommendations, several key policy suggestions are put forward to address the gender disparities in job expectations. To support women's participation in private companies, the Minister of Women and Child Affairs can provide childcare support centres or subsidies that can ease female family responsibilities. Both private companies and industry associations can adopt gender diversity initiatives, such as implementing flexible work arrangements, diversity training, mentorship programs, and inclusive hiring practices, which can create a more welcoming environment for women seeking private-sector employment.

Awareness programs should be implemented through Divisional Secretariat offices to improve understanding, social interactions, and attitudes of non-Sinhalese individuals regarding job expectations, with a particular focus on women. This initiative aims to reduce ethnic-related disparities in labour force participation. The Central Bank can collaborate with financial institutions to develop tailored financial products and services for rural job seekers. This can include microfinance and microcredit programs with favourable terms and conditions.

The Ministry of Education, along with relevant educational and vocational training authorities, can establish comprehensive career counselling and guidance programs at educational institutions and job centres to help unmarried males and females explore various career paths and set ambitious professional goals. Unmarried individuals can enhance their qualifications and readiness for higher-level positions by having access to skills development and training programs tailored to their needs.

Regarding the contribution of this research to the literature, as the unemployment rate is a key issue in Sri Lanka during the economic downturn, it must be focused on the effect of expectations on unemployment. On the other hand, the gap between gender-wise unemployment rates in Sri Lanka has also widened. In this context, a gender-specific study on job expectations is necessary. This research contributes to the literature by addressing a gap, as most economic theories tend to discuss job expectations in a more general context.

Few theories examine how job expectations vary between unemployed men and women, making this study a valuable extension of existing theories. In terms of empirical contributions, while recent research often relies on common determinants to analyze job expectations, this study identifies unique and less frequently explored factors. For instance, it highlights the impact of the duration of unemployment on job expectations, which has been less emphasized in both local and international studies.

The job expectations of the unemployed are analysed by job sector expectations and occupational expectations, which are identified as unique variables of job expectations compared to existing literature. Thus, this study offers a novel empirical contribution to understanding the job expectations of unemployed men and women in the country. Further, a separate multinomial logistic regression model is used in this study to account for the job expectations of unemployed men and women in the country.

Although most researchers have employed logit regression and correlation analysis to identify the determinants of job expectations, no studies have applied separate models for unemployed men and women in Sri Lanka. This study addresses this methodological gap by introducing new insights and approaches.

This research was successfully and methodically executed by drawing on the secondary microdata obtained from the Annual Labour Force Survey 2021. However, it has several limitations that can potentially be alleviated through future research directions. This study uses a unique and comprehensive data set from the SLLFS 2021, which focuses mainly on the economic downturn period in Sri Lanka, further increasing the study's importance. Certain variables should have been included in the examination of the determinants of job expectations, such as the impact of promotions, the condition of the working environment, work security, and so on. Due to insufficient data requirements in the survey data set, certain variables were not considered in this study. However, scholars could examine these aspects in the future using primary data.

Therefore, future research could complement survey questionnaires with in-depth interviews to validate, enhance, or challenge self-reported perceptions. In this regard, future studies of a longitudinal nature could provide an in-depth understanding of this topic. Additionally, case studies can be used with interviews with unemployed men and women to apply a qualitative method to get in-depth practical knowledge of limitations against job expectations to produce more suitable results.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The study gratefully acknowledges the Department of Census and Statistics in Sri Lanka for providing the microdata from the Sri Lankan Labour Force Survey, 2021, which was instrumental in this study.

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ANNEXES

Annex A

Table 5: Marginal effects of multinomial-logistic models for job sector expectations of unemployed by gender

Model	Multinomial logistic model 1			Multinomial logistic model 2			Multinomial logistic model 3		
Name of the model	Total			Male			Female		
	Marginal Effect			Marginal Effect			Marginal Effect		
	Public	Private	Any	Public	Private	Any	Public	Private	Any
Independent Variable									
Demographic Factors									
Gender									
Female (D1)	0.107	-0.078	-0.028	-	-	-	-	-	-
Age (X1)	-0.010	0.005	0.004	-0.011	0.007	0.004	0.007	0.003	0.004
Ethnicity									
Non-Sinhalese (D2)	-0.008	0.037	-0.028	-0.174	0.010	0.074	0.094	-0.002	-0.091
Marital Status									
Unmarried (D3)	0.014	-0.030	0.016	0.053	-0.055	0.002	0.006	-0.004	-0.003
Socio-Economic Factors									
Educational Attainment (X2)	0.061	-0.016	-0.045	0.053	-0.001	-0.051	0.071	-0.027	-0.043
Unemployment Duration									
More than 1 year (D4)	0.137	-0.120	-0.017	0.073	-0.149	0.075	0.181	-0.098	-0.087
Residential Sector									
Non-Urban (D4)	0.099	0.023	-0.122	0.035	0.065	-0.101	0.142	-0.009	-0.132
Sample Size	1,000			465			535		

Source: Author's calculations using LFS microdata, 2021

Notes:

- (D) and (X) indicate the dummy and continuous variables respectively.
- (Coe:) and (P) indicate the coefficient and probability value.

Annex B

Table 6: Marginal effects of multinomial-logistic regression models for occupational expectations of unemployed by gender

Model	Multinomial logistic model 1			Multinomial logistic model 2			Multinomial logistic model 3		
Name of the model	Total			Male			Female		
	Marginal Effect			Marginal Effect			Marginal Effect		
	Prof. & Mang:	Skilled	Non-Skilled	Prof. & Mang:	Skilled	Non-Skilled	Prof. & Mang:	Skilled	Non-Skilled
Independent Variable									
Demographic Factors									
Gender									
Female (D1)	0.086	-0.033	-0.052	-	-	-	-	-	-
Age (X1)	-.0005	0.003	-0.003	0.003	0.0003	-0.003	-0.003	0.005	-0.001
Ethnicity									
Non-Sinhalese (D2)	0.047	0.014	-0.062	0.051	0.028	-0.079	0.045	0.010	-0.056
Marital Status									
Unmarried (D3)	0.050	-0.004	-0.045	0.087	-0.042	-0.045	0.051	-0.011	-0.039
Socio-Economic Factors									
Educational Attainment (X2)	0.039	0.010	-0.049	0.033	0.028	-0.062	0.043	-0.003	-0.040
Unemployment Duration									
More than 1 year (D4)	0.015	-0.060	0.045	0.039	-0.056	0.016	-0.002	-0.057	0.059
Residential Sector									
Non-Urban (D4)	0.003	0.015	-0.018	0.028	0.044	-0.072	-0.013	-0.009	0.023
Sample Size	1,092			464			628		

Source: Author's calculations using LFS microdata, 2021

Notes:

- (D) and (X) indicate the dummy and continuous variables respectively.

- (Coe:) and (P) indicate the coefficient and probability value.