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The Effect of Average Years of Schooling and Per Capita Expenditure on Female Labor Force Participation Rate in South Kalimantan Province

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ABSTRACT

The number of female workers in South Kalimantan Province is far below the number of male workers, even though the data on the working-age population shows that they are almost equal. Increasing female participation in the workforce is crucial for reducing the gender gap in employment and brings numerous benefits. Increasing women's participation in the workforce can accelerate economic growth and increase family welfare through income. Average years of schooling and per capita expenditure are among the factors influencing the female Labor Force Participation Rate. This study collected data from 13 districts/cities in South Kalimantan Province during 2020-2024. The results show that simultaneously, the average years of schooling and per capita expenditure influence the female Labor Force Participation Rate. Partially, the average years of schooling influence the female Labor Force Participation Rate, and per capita expenditure also influences the female Labor Force Participation Rate. This study is expected to provide a basis for policymaking for the government to increase the female Labor Force Participation Rate.

INTRODUCTION

Population growth is closely related to an increase in the workforce. These two variables generally have a positive impact on driving economic growth. In theory, a larger workforce will boost labor productivity, and a larger population will increase domestic market potential. However, in developing countries, there is doubt as to whether a large population can drive economic growth or, conversely, become a burden on development (Sukarniati et al., 2021).

Throughout the development process, the population plays a crucial role in implementing and determining the success of development. Rapid population growth can pose various challenges to development efforts because it is not matched by job creation. Unemployment results from a rapid labor force growth rate and relatively slow job growth. While the workforce is growing more rapidly, developing countries are severely limited in their ability to create new jobs (Wahed et al., 2021).

As one of the provinces in Indonesia, South Kalimantan has a population that continues to increase every year. The population of South Kalimantan Province in 2023 was 4,222,330 people, consisting of 2,135,700 men and 2,086,630 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2024). The population in 2024 was 4,273,400 people, consisting of 2,160,690 men and 2,112,710 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2025). Based on these data, the number of male and female residents is almost balanced.

The working-age population of South Kalimantan Province in 2023 was 3,115,509 people, consisting of 1,569,651 men and 1,545,858 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2024). The working-age population in 2024 was 3,165,076 people, consisting of 1,593,846 men and 1,571,212 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2025). Based on these data, it can be seen that the working-age population between men and women is also almost the same.

If we look at the number of the workforce population of South Kalimantan Province in 2023, it is 2,173,257 people, consisting of 1,342,314 men and 830,943 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2024). The number of the workforce population in 2024 is 2,222,532 people, consisting of 1,350,169 men and 872,363 women (BPS Kalimantan Selatan, 2025). Based on these data, it can be seen that the number of female workforce is far below the number of male workforce, even though if we look at the data above, the number of working-age population between men and women is almost balanced. This is because many of the working-age female population are included in the non-labor force population because they take care of the household.

The female Labor Force Participation Rate (LFPR) in South Kalimantan Province is significantly lower than the male LFPR. The data can be seen in figure 1 below:

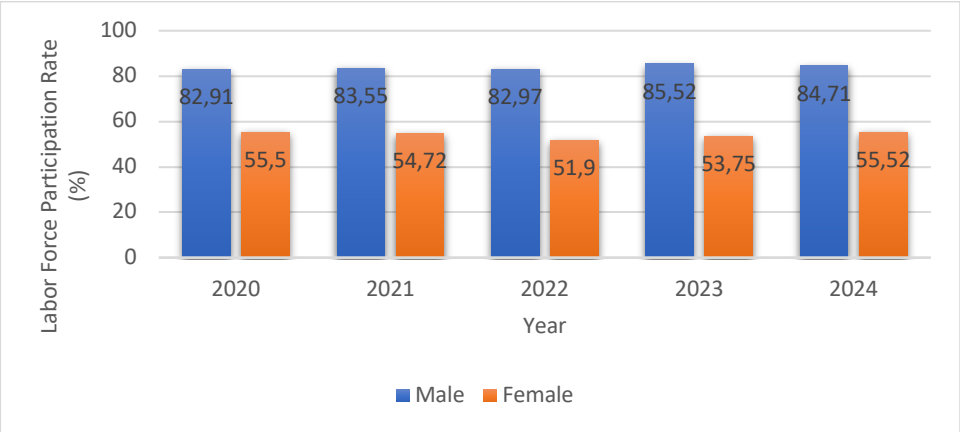

Figure 1. Labor Force Participation Rate by Gender in South Kalimantan Province, 2020-2024
Source: Statistics Indonesia (BPS) of South Kalimantan Province, processed data

Women who are housewives have broader responsibilities. They have a dual role in household activities: as wives and mothers responsible for the growth and development of their children, and as housewives responsible for their own household activities. However, with increasing educational opportunities, they are gradually starting to work outside the home. They shoulder the dual burden of outside work and household chores (Kamara, 2020).

Increasing women's participation in the workforce is crucial for reducing the gender gap in employment and brings numerous benefits. Increasing women's participation in the workforce can accelerate economic growth and improve family well-being through increased income. Additional household income improves family health and education, as well as reducing poverty (Rahman & Putrie, 2020).

The female LFPR is influenced by many factors. The challenge for today's workforce is being able to compete effectively in a rapidly evolving global market. Experts agree that to maintain a relatively high standard of living, we must improve the education and skills levels of the workforce. Continuity of education and training will be crucial to keeping the workforce fully employed (NS Hidayati, 2022).

Women's education is a crucial factor contributing to female labor force participation. Improving women's education has been a key factor in increasing female labor force participation, particularly in relatively high-paying jobs. This is because educated workers are a valuable resource for a country. Education also provides better employment opportunities for women and, therefore, increases their income. In many countries, women's education levels have increased substantially over the past few decades. Education improves women's status both in society and within the family and increases productivity at home and in the workplace. Women with higher levels of education are more likely to be active in the labor market. Therefore, education is a key determinant of female labor force participation (Nazah et al., 2021). Higher levels of education increase female LFPR opportunities (Mutiya Zulfa & Helma, 2024). Education has a positive effect on LFPR. Higher education leads to higher employment opportunities (Letizia Denisha & Kamila, 2022).

In theory, the ability to meet needs is reflected in the expenditure/purchasing power index. The higher this index, the better the community's purchasing power to meet its needs. Increased per capita expenditure also impacts demand for goods and services, which can impact labor force participation (Nurul Cholifah, 2024).

According to the Statistics Indonesia, per capita expenditure for women refers to the average expenditure of individual women in a region or country during a specific period, divided by the total female population during that period. Per capita expenditure for women is one of the indicators used by statistical agencies to analyze women's economic well-being and can also be used as a measure of gender equality in the economic sector (Setiani et al., 2024).

The research questions that can be addressed in this study are as follows:

1. Do women's average years of schooling and per capita expenditure simultaneously affect the female Labor Force Participation Rate in South Kalimantan Province?
2. Do women's average years of schooling and per capita expenditure partially affect the female Labor Force Participation Rate in South Kalimantan Province?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Education and training are the most important investments in human capital. Becker demonstrated, and many other studies at the time also demonstrated, that high school and college education in the United States significantly increased an individual's earnings, even after deducting the direct and indirect costs of schooling, and after adjusting for better family backgrounds and the higher abilities of more educated individuals. Similar evidence is now available for over one hundred countries with diverse cultures and economic systems. The earnings of more educated individuals are almost always significantly above average, although the increases are generally larger in less developed countries (Becker, 1993).

Human resources, or labor, are a crucial factor of production, alongside natural resources, capital, and technology. The general definition of labor is humans capable of working to produce goods or services with economic value that can be useful to society. Physically, work capacity is measured by age, meaning that people of working age are considered capable of working (Rizal et al., 2018).

According to Statistics Indonesia, the labor force is the working-age population (15 years and older) who are employed, have a job but are temporarily unemployed, and are unemployed. This indicator is useful for determining the number of people with the potential for employment. A higher labor force means a greater number of people with the potential for employment (Kementrian Ketenagakerjaan Republik Indonesia, 2023).

The Labor Force Participation Rate indicates the percentage of the working-age population that is economically active in a country/region. A higher LFPR indicates a higher labor supply available to produce goods and services in an economy (Kementrian Ketenagakerjaan Republik Indonesia, 2023).

The female LFPR, although increasing, is consistently lower than the male LFPR. This is thought to reflect a paternalistic culture where there is a sexual division of labor, with men working to earn a living while women take care of the household

and raise children. However, modern understanding suggests that women tend to have a choice, whether they choose to work or stay at home to raise children. The participation rate tends to be static from year to year because not everyone is willing to spend time in the labor market, which is generally found in women. For women, there are two options: working while participating in the labor market or spending time with their household or family. Overall, data shows that women spend half their time on household and family and half participate in the labor market, as indicated by the Labor Force Participation Rate, which has not moved far from the fifties (Kementrian Ketenagakerjaan Republik Indonesia, 2023).

Women's participation in the workforce will increase their contribution to household income and their control over resource allocation. This can lead to economic independence and the ability to make their own choices, both of which are crucial for women's empowerment (Kementrian Ketenagakerjaan Republik Indonesia, 2023).

Women's participation in the workforce will have a significant impact on societal welfare and economic growth. Women entering the labor market have the potential to increase household income from their wages. This will help households escape poverty. Furthermore, household consumption of goods and services can increase with increasing income (Kementrian Ketenagakerjaan Republik Indonesia, 2023).

In general, the type and level of education are considered to be a proxy for the quality of the workforce. Education is a process aimed at enhancing skills and knowledge, enhancing independence, and developing a person's personality. The inherent qualities of a person constitute the basic capital needed to perform work. The higher the value of assets, the greater their ability to work (Lilimantik, 2016).

Education can be an effective means of improving the quality of life, enabling people to achieve prosperity. Higher levels of education can encourage increased labor force participation in the labor market, particularly among women. Education is an effort to improve the quality of human resources and is capable of contributing to social development, ensuring social and economic development. Good educational attainment will improve the quality and develop individual abilities, both in terms of thought and action. Education can improve a woman's status, abilities, and expertise (Murialti et al., 2022).

In general, per capita household expenditure reflects economic well-being, but it does not always encourage women to enter the workforce. One of the main reasons is dependence on family income. When a household's per capita expenditure covers basic and consumptive needs, family members, especially women, may not feel a strong economic incentive to work. In many cases, if other family members (such as husbands or parents) already meet household needs, women feel no need to supplement the family income through work outside the home (Ariansyah & Satria, 2024).

METHODOLOGY

The scope of this research focuses on the problem of the female Labor Force Participation Rate in South Kalimantan Province by examining the influence of the women's average length of schooling and women's per capita expenditure on the female Labor Force Participation Rate in South Kalimantan Province in the period 2020-2024.

The data used in this study is secondary data released by Statistics Indonesia of South Kalimantan Province. The data collected comprises panel data on female labor force participation rates, women's average years of schooling, and women's per capita expenditure in 13 regencies/cities in South Kalimantan Province from 2020 to 2024.

This study employed a library research approach, collecting secondary data from relevant agencies.

To analyze the factors influencing the female LFPR in 13 districts/cities in South Kalimantan Province, panel data regression was used. The resulting function resembles a regression equation, with the female LFPR in the 13 districts/cities suspected to be influenced by the variables of the average length of schooling for women and per capita expenditure for women in each district/city. The general form of the equation is as follows:

$$TPAK\text{-}P_{it} = \alpha_{it} + \beta_1 RLS\text{-}P_{it} + \beta_2 PPK\text{-}P_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Description:

TPAK-P = Female Labor Force Participation Rate (%)
RLS-P = Women's Average Years of Schooling (years)
PPK-P = Women's Per Capita Expenditure (Thousands of Rupiah)
i = Regency/City of South Kalimantan Province
t = Time (2020 – 2024)
α = Constant
ε = Error Term

Regression model estimation methods using panel data can be conducted using three approaches, including:

1. Common Effect Model

This is the simplest panel data model approach because it only combines time series and cross-section data. This model does not consider the time or individual dimensions, so it is assumed that company data behavior is the same across time periods. This method can use the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) approach or the least squares technique to estimate panel data models.

2. Fixed Effects Model

This model assumes that differences between individuals can be accommodated by differences in their intercepts. To estimate panel data, the Fixed Effects model uses a dummy variable technique to capture differences in intercepts between companies. Intercept differences can occur due to differences in work culture, management, and incentives. However, the slope is the same across companies. This estimation model is often referred to as the Least Squares Dummy Variable (LSDV) technique.

3. Random Effects Model

This model estimates panel data where disturbance variables may be interrelated over time and between individuals. In the Random Effects model, differences in intercepts are accommodated by error terms for each company. The advantage of using the Random Effects model is that it eliminates heteroscedasticity. This model is also called the Error Component Model (ECM) or the Generalized Least Squares (GLS) technique (Basuki & Prawoto, 2019).

Selecting Panel Data Testing Methods

1. Chow Test (Likelihood Test)

The Chow test is used to determine the best model between the Fixed Effect Model and the Common/Pool Effect Model. If the results indicate acceptance of the null hypothesis, the best model to use is the Common Effect Model. However, if the results indicate rejection of the null hypothesis, the best model to use is the Fixed Effect Model, and the test proceeds to the Hausman test. The Chow test is used to determine the most appropriate Common Effect or Fixed Effect model to use in estimating panel data. The hypotheses in the Chow test are:

H_0: Common Effects Model or Pooled OLS

H_1: Fixed Effects Model

If the Chow test results show a cross-sectional probability F statistic below 0.05, then H_0 is rejected and the fixed effects model is more appropriate. Conversely, if the Chow test results show a cross-sectional probability F statistic above 0.05, then Ho is accepted and the common effects model is more appropriate.

2. Hausman Test

The Hausman test is used to determine the most appropriate fixed effect or random effect model for estimating panel data. The hypotheses in the Hausman test are:

H_0: Random Effect Model

H_1: Fixed Effect Model

If the Hausman test results show a Chi-Sq. Statistic probability value below 0.05, then Ho is rejected and the fixed effect model is more appropriate. Conversely, if the Hausman test results show a Chi-Sq. Statistic probability value above 0.05, then H_0 is accepted and the random effect model is more appropriate.

If the Hausman test results accept the null hypothesis, then the best model to use is the random effect model. However, if the results reject the null hypothesis, then the best model to use is the fixed effect model (Basuki & Prawoto, 2019).

3. Lagrange Multiplier Test

The Lagrange Multiplier test is performed if the Chow test selects a common effect and the Hausman test selects a random effect. However, if the Chow and Hausman tests consistently accept the fixed effect model as the best model, then the LM test is unnecessary. To determine whether the Random Effect model is better than the Common Effect method, the Lagrange Multiplier test is used.

The hypotheses in the LM test are as follows:

H_0: Common Effect Model

H_n: Random Effect Model

If the Breusch-Pagan Prob. (BP) value is less than 0.05, then H0 is rejected; in other words, the Random Effect Model is the most suitable model (Basuki, 2021).

Classical Assumption Tests

Classical assumption tests used in linear regression using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) approach include linearity, normality, multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, and autocorrelation. However, not all classical assumption tests must be performed on every linear regression model using the OLS approach.

a. Linearity tests are rarely performed on every linear regression model. This is because the model is assumed to be linear. If they are performed, they are performed solely to assess the degree of linearity.
b. Normality tests are not a prerequisite for the Best Linear Unbias Estimator (BLUE), and some argue that this requirement is not mandatory.
c. Multicollinearity testing is necessary when linear regression uses more than one independent variable. If there is only one independent variable, multicollinearity is unlikely.
d. Heteroscedasticity usually occurs in cross-sectional data, where panel data is more closely characterized by cross-sectional data than time series data.
e. Autocorrelation only occurs in time series data. Testing for autocorrelation on non-time series data (cross-section or panel) will be futile or meaningless. Therefore, in panel data, multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity testing are sufficient (Basuki & Prawoto, 2019).

Hypothesis Testing

1. Simultaneous Test (F-Test)

According to (Mubarak, 2021) regression coefficients are tested simultaneously using ANOVA to determine whether they collectively have a significant effect on the model. The hypotheses for this test are:

H_0: $\beta_1=\beta_2=\ldots=\beta_p = 0$

H_1: There is at least one $\beta j \neq 0$, j= 1,2,3,…,p

p is the number of parameters in the regression model.

The F test can be performed by comparing the calculated F value with the F table. The basis for making the decision is as follows: 1) If the calculated F < F table, it means that the independent variables together (simultaneously) do not affect the dependent variable. 2) If the calculated F > F table, it means that the independent variables together (simultaneously) affect the dependent variable. The F statistical test can also be performed based on the probability of significance of F contained in the regression output: 1) If the probability (significance) < 0.05 (α), then the independent variables together (simultaneously) affect the dependent variable. 2) If the probability (significance) > 0.05 (α), then the independent variables together (simultaneously) do not affect the dependent variable.

2. Individual Test (t-Test)

According to (Mubarak, 2021), an individual test is used to determine whether the regression coefficient has a significant effect. The hypotheses for the individual test are:

H_0: $\beta_i = 0$

H_1: $\beta_i \neq 0$, i = 1, 2, ..., p

The t-test can be performed by comparing the calculated t-value with the t-table. The basis for making the decision is as follows: 1) If the calculated t-value < t-table, it means that the independent variable individually does not affect the dependent variable. 2) If the calculated t-value > t-table, it means that the independent variable individually affects the dependent variable. The t-statistical test can also be performed by examining the t-significance value of each variable in the regression output: 1) If the t-significance value < α (0.05), it can be concluded that there is a strong influence between the independent and dependent variables. 2) If the t- significance value > α (0.05), then it can be said that there is no strong influence between the independent variable and the dependent variable.

Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is used to determine the accuracy or fit of the regression line formed in representing a group of observed data. The coefficient of determination describes the portion of the total variation that can be explained by the model. The larger the R^2 value (closer to 1), the better the model is said to be. The properties of the coefficient of determination are: (a) The R^2 value is always positive because it is derived from the Sum of Squares (b). A value of $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$. $R^2 = 0$ means there is no relationship between X and Y, or the regression model formed is not appropriate for predicting Y. $R^2 = 1$, the regression line formed can perfectly predict Y (Mubarak, 2021).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Table 1
Panel Data Regression Results

Variable	CEM	FEM	REM
	coefficient	coefficient	coefficient
constant	68.77237	100.0302	79.89800
RLS-P	-2.948852	-12.23568	-5.674121
PPK-P	0.001051	0.005517	0.002158
Chow Test	Probablitas cross section F statistic = 0,0000		
Hausman Test	Probabilitas Chi-Sq. Statistic = 0.0137		

Source : Eviews

Chow Test Results

If the Chow test results show a cross-sectional probability F statistic below 0.05, then H_0 is rejected and the fixed effects model is more appropriate. Conversely, if the Chow test results show a cross-sectional probability F statistic above 0.05, then H_0 is accepted and the common effects model is more appropriate. Based on the Chow test

calculation results, if the cross-sectional probability F statistic is below 0.05, then H_0 is rejected and the fixed effects model is more appropriate.

Hausman Test Results

If the Hausman test results show a Chi-Sq. Statistic probability value is below 0.05, then H_0 is rejected and the fixed effects model is more appropriate. Conversely, if the Hausman test results show Chi-Sq. Statistic probability value is above 0.05, then H_0 is accepted, and the random effects model is more appropriate. Based on the Hausman test results, the null hypothesis is rejected, so the Fixed Effects Model is more appropriate than the Common Effects Model.

Selected Regression Test Results

Based on the results of the Chow and Hausman tests, it can be concluded that the Fixed Effects Model (FEM) is the most appropriate model to use to estimate the panel data in this study.

Table 2
Fixed Effects Model

TPAK-P = 100,0302 – 12,23568 RLS-P + 0,005517 PPK-P		
(0,0000)*	(0,0001)*	(0,0003)*
R^2=0,882456;	F-Stat = 26,81225;	Sig.F-Stat = 0,000000

Note: *significant for α (0.05)
Source: Eviews

Classical Assumption Test

1. Multicollinearity Test

One of the assumptions of classical linear regression is the absence of perfect multicollinearity, the absence of a linear relationship between the explanatory variables in a regression model. The term "multicollinearity" was first introduced by Ragner Frisch in 1934. According to Frisch, a regression model is said to be affected by multicollinearity if there is a perfect or exact linear relationship between some or all of the independent variables in a regression model. This results in difficulty in determining the effect of the explanatory variables on the variables being explained (Basuki, 2021).

Table 3
Multicollinearity Test Results

	RLS-P	PPK-P
RLS-P	1	0.6092493417654096
PPK-P	0.6092493417654096	1

Source: Eviews

Multicollinearity using the Pairwise Correlation method, with a correlation coefficient value of <0.80. The correlation value of RLS-P and PPK-P is 0.6092493417654096 <0.80. Therefore, it can be concluded that this independent variable is free from multicollinearity tests.

2. Heteroscedasticity Test

Table 4
Heteroscedasticity Test Results

Variable	Prob
RLS-P	0.1897
PPK-P	0.3661

Source: Eviews

Based on the table above, the probability values of RLS-P and PPK-P > 0.05, so they are free from the heteroscedasticity test.

Simultaneous Significance Test of the Effect of Independent Variables (F-Test)

The F test was conducted to determine whether the independent and dependent variables have a simultaneous or concurrent effect, whether the variables of the women's average length of schooling and women's per capita expenditure have a simultaneous effect on female LFPR. H_0 is rejected if the probability of F-statistics < α. Based on table 2, it is known that the probability value of F-statistics is 0.000000 < α (0.05) which means H_0 is rejected, so it can be concluded that the variables of the women's average length of schooling and women's per capita expenditure have a simultaneous effect on female LFPR.

Partial Significance Test of the Effect of Independent Variables (t-Test)

Table 5
t-Test Results

Variable	Coefficient	Sig. t	Information	Conclusion
RLS-P	-12.23568	0.0001	α = 0.05	β_1 significant
PPK-P	0.005517	0.0003	α = 0.05	β_2 significant

Source : Eviews

Based on Table 5, it is known that the t-probability value of each independent variable, it shows that the women's average length of schooling and women's per capita expenditure influence the female LFPR. Meanwhile, based on the coefficient value of each variable, it shows that the women's average length of schooling (β1) influences the female LFPR and women's per capita expenditure (β2) also influences the female LFPR. Thus, the coefficients of the women's average length of schooling and women's per capita expenditure can be interpreted.

The RLS-P coefficient (β_1) is -12.23568, which means that an increase in the women's average length of schooling by 1 year will reduce the female LFPR by 12.23568 percent. Meanwhile, the PPK-P coefficient (β_2) is 0.005517, which means that an increase in the women's per capita expenditure level of Rp 1,000,000 will increase the female LFPR by 5.517 percent.

Interpretation of the Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is used to measure the extent to which data variation can be explained by the regression model used in the study. Based on Table 2, the R^2 value is 0.882456. Thus, 88.25% of the variation in the female LFPR is

explained by variations in the women's average years of schooling and women's per capita expenditure, while the remaining 11.75% is explained by other variations outside the model.

Discussion

The Effect of Women's Average Years of Schooling on Female LFPR

The t-test results indicate that women's average years of schooling significantly influenced female LFPR in South Kalimantan Province during 2020-2024. Therefore, the results of this study align with the research hypothesis, but the relationship shows an inverse direction.

This is inconsistent with human capital theory, which states that women's education will improve their skills, enabling them to become skilled workers and find jobs more easily. However, the t-test showed the opposite result, where education, as measured by women's average years of schooling, continued to increase, while female LFPR declined. The continued decline in female LFPR can be influenced by factors beyond education, such as regulations protecting female workers, wage differences between female and male workers, and sociocultural factors that can influence women's decisions about working (Pal & Chaudhuri, 2020). Therefore, even though women's education levels are high, this does not necessarily mean that women choose to work for factors other than education. Furthermore, women's high education levels can also influence women's decisions and timing in choosing jobs, where higher education levels lead to higher job standards, while the availability of job offers remains low.

In reality, after completing one level of higher education, women may choose to continue to a higher level or pursue specialized training. This will lower female LFPR because they are still students. Furthermore, some choose to marry and focus on their families first before or without planning to work in the formal sector, especially if their family's economic situation is relatively stable. Women with higher levels of education will seek jobs that match their expertise, but in reality, there are more job seekers than job openings, so they are not included in the category of actively employed or seeking work for a certain period (Sajati et al., 2025).

The Effect of Women's Per Capita Expenditure on Female LFPR

The t-test results indicate that women's per capita expenditure significantly influenced female LFPR in South Kalimantan Province during 2020-2024, thus supporting the research hypothesis. Increasing per capita expenditure encourages women to enter the workforce, thereby increasing their LFPR. This is consistent with research by (Yulianti et al., 2013), which states that the higher the per capita expenditure percentage, the greater the probability that a region falls within the female LFPR category.

This is also consistent with research (Setiani et al., 2024) which states that women's adjusted per capita expenditure has a significant positive effect on the gender development index. Any increase in women's adjusted per capita expenditure significantly impacts the gender development index. Women's adjusted per capita

expenditure can significantly improve the gender development index because per capita expenditure is a proxy for calculating the decent living standard indicator in the gender development index. Furthermore, it also indicates the extent to which women have access to and control over economic resources. This is important in the context of gender development because women's adjusted per capita expenditure reflects the level of women's economic autonomy. When women have control over economic resources, they have the freedom and power to make decisions related to their lives, including education, health, employment, and investment. Women's adjusted per capita expenditure can also provide an overview of the extent to which women have access to and investment in education and health. When women have the opportunity to obtain a quality education and access to adequate health services, they tend to have a better life overall.

CONCLUSION

The variables of women's average years of schooling and women's per capita expenditure simultaneously influence the female LFPR. Meanwhile, partial analysis shows that women's average years of schooling (β1) influences the female LFPR, and women's per capita expenditure (β2) also influences the female LFPR. This research is expected to provide a basis for government policymaking to increase the female LFPR.

Because the relationship between women's average years of schooling and the female LFPR shows a negative relationship, it is recommended that future researchers use other data for this variable, not just women's average years of schooling, but also data on the highest level of education completed by women

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