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Effect of Gender Inequality on Economic Growth in Developing Countries, Particular in Uzbekistan

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Abstract: The paper shows the impact of gender inequality on economic growth in developing countries, particular in Uzbekistan. It shows how the inequality decreases the variety of goods countries produce and export. The study supports the hypothesis empirically analysing that gender-friendly policies can help countries diversify their countries. The low-income and developing countries policies should take measures against inequality, which can fruitfully increase the economy as well as the opportunity for talented and skilled women to develop and bring their knowledge in IT and another Innovative field.

Keywords: Gender inequality, economic growth, education, women empowerment, finance

INTRODUCTION

The impact of gender equality on economic growth is one of the key factors that affects the level of development of countries where the production of goods, despite the source of resources, is underestimated in terms of the coefficient of statistics (World Bank, 2006)¹. Various sources of research by scientists have shown how gender inequality can affect low economic growth in countries where there is a slower introduction of technology and innovation. On this basis, it is revealed that “The negative impact of gender discrimination is the distribution of managerial talent that is most dangerous for the non-agricultural sector” (Calvacanti and Tavares, 2016)²

Gender equality has been rampantly slowed down by the development process for many decades due to the poor quality of life of peoples, stereotypes and prejudices that prevent women from gaining equal rights and opportunities, thereby aggravating the process of economic development in countries. For the successful development of the individual, freedom of speech and freedom of choice of professions without harassment from the state and discrimination in relation to gender, is one of the most important human factors. Many scientists show in theory and practice that gender inequality significantly hinders the economic development of developing countries. (Klasen, 2002)³. According to the results of statistics and a survey conducted by the World Bank Research, it is revealed that gender inequality and many other aspects of social life that lead to discrimination and displacement from the workplace of one sex and

exceed the measures, rights and opportunities of the other sex, significantly slow down the process of economic development of the country. (World Bank, 2009)⁴

For the development of elementary and strategic principles of politics, the term “gender” is of great importance in various social spheres. Gender equality policies define the need to ensure equal opportunities in human development processes as a fundamental element in achieving equitable and sustainable development and growth. (Bonn, 2014)⁵.

A significant body of research has shown that, at the micro level, the gender gap negatively affects macroeconomic outcomes and economic growth, and that the effects of gender-based economic growth are likely to be influenced by variables such as the economic system, women's education, gender-based job sharing, and political regime (Schultz, 1994; Rahman, R.I.; Islam, R. 1997)⁶.

In Uzbekistan, as in many developing countries of Central Asia, there is a gradual implementation, where changes are made in the labor code of the Republic of Uzbekistan, as well as in the legislative and criminal ones.

In 2018, by a presidential decree under the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, a scientific and practical research center "Oila" ("family" in the lane from Uzbek) was created, the purpose of which was to conduct a unified state policy in the field of strengthening the institution of the family. In 2019, in accordance with the decree of the President of Uzbekistan "About measures to further strengthen guarantees of labor rights and support for women's entrepreneurship"⁷, a Commission about ensuring gender equality of the Republic of Uzbekistan is created. Also, in 2019, legislative reforms of a breakthrough nature were carried out: the laws "About guarantees of equal rights and opportunities for women and men" and "About protection of women from oppression and violence" were adopted, the Senate Committee on Women and Gender Equality of the Oliy Majlis was formed, the draft gender equality strategies.

Despite the reforms of the President of Uzbekistan Sh. Mirziyoyev, Uzbekistan continues to fall in the world ranking of gender equality. According to the World Bank's Women, Business and the Law 2020⁸ research, the country scored only 67.5 points in 2020, up from 70.6 points in the previous period. Moreover, Uzbekistan lags behind Kyrgyzstan with 76.9 points, Kazakhstan with 72.5 points, and Tajikistan with 78.8 points.

The term "gender" is not yet widely used in Uzbekistan, in particular, it is not yet widely used by policy makers. This term is mainly considered synonymous with women, and gender equality work,

is often associated with solving only social problems. Gender equality paramount

perceived as a process of ensuring fairness and impartiality in relation to women, but is not yet recognized as a prerequisite for further economic growth and stability of the country. (Interparliamentary Union. 2012. Women in National Parliaments. Data for 2012)⁹

THEORY AND EVIDENCE

It has been theoretically modelled that gender inequality significantly blocks economic growth and reduce GDP. (Licumba, E.A., 2015, Cuberes, D.; Teignier, M., 2012)¹⁰. There is considerable number of empirical as well as theoretical studies which have come to the conclusion that gender gaps in education and employment has a negative effect on economic growth. (Klasen, 1999, 2002, 2006; Qureshi, S.A; Khan, M; Rafique, A; 2011; Zhang, J. X. 2015)¹¹.

Another studies show how the average amount of human capital bring down society and thus damage economic performance. It happens when the governance and hiring companies exclude highly qualified girls and take less qualified boys instead. (Dollar and Gatti [1999])¹²

There is another argument where it's found that gender inequality in education has negative effect on growth (Knowles, 2002, Seguino, 2010, Dollar and Gatti (1999), Forbes, 2000, Klasen 1999)¹³.

The following argument is that unfair distribution of talents by gender, where more men than women effectively distort business development in entrepreneurship (Cuberes and Teignier 2012)¹⁴. Since the largest number of women aren't able to become entrepreneurs, they are forced to work as employees, thereby increasing the labor supply. As a result, the equilibrium wages and drop in total productivity. The gender differences in the labor force are modeled as preventing the share of women supplying labor to the market reduces per capita income.

Another scientific studies put forward the fact that for most households, one working spouse cannot provide the necessary the level of consumption and well-being. The high employment rate of women is supported by established social traditions and a high level of education. Participation of women in income-generating activities is a socially acceptable code of conduct. Women continue to have wide employment opportunities and access to jobs. (Roshin S. Y. 2005)¹⁵

Analysis of the factors influencing the level of economic activity by gender groups indicates some differences. Thus, the economic activity of women, in contrast to men, is negatively affected by the number of children. This result is easily explained, because it is women who bear the main burden associated with raising children. For women, the level of education has a stronger (than for men) positive impact on the level of economic activity. (Galor and Weil [1996]; Lagerlo [2003]; World Bank [2001]¹⁶; and King, Klasen, and Porter [2008], Roshin S. Y. 2005)¹⁷.

In the following context, the theory is put forward that a decline in fertility in about twenty years will lead to a favourable demographic constellation, according to David E. Bloom and Jeffrey J. Williamson (1998)²⁰, which they called a "demographic gift" as for the reason, for several decades, the population of working age will grow much faster than the general population, thereby reducing the level of dependents with positive consequences for economic growth per capita.

METHODS AND RESULTS

Reforming legal and economic institutions to establish equal rights for women and men. Institutional reforms needed to lay the foundation for equal rights and opportunities for women and men. Since in many countries laws still give unequal rights to women and men, legal reforms needed – especially in the area of family law, protection from violence, land law, labour law, and political rights.

Encourage economic development that is more equitable in the distribution and use of resources. Increasing incomes and reducing poverty reduces gender disparities in education, health, and nutrition. Greater productivity, employment, and job opportunities often reduce gender disparities in hiring. In addition, investments in basic infrastructure such as water, energy, and transportation help reduce gender disparities in workload distribution.

Taking active steps to even out persistent disparities in access to resources and the ability to express one's interests (political voice). Since institutional reforms and the level of economic development may not be sufficient to meet the needs of the labour force, it is important to forms and levels of economic development may be incomplete or insufficient (or may only be at the stage of economic restructuring). Institutional arrangements and levels of economic development may be incomplete or insufficient (or may only be at the nascent stage). Since institutional reforms and economic development may be incomplete (or still evolving), proactive steps will be necessary to redress persistent gender inequalities in the short and medium term. Gender imbalances in the short and medium term.

The last half of the XXI century witnessed major improvements in the absolute gender status of women and in gender equality in most developing countries. With a few exceptions, the level of female education in countries has improved dramatically. The proportion of girls enrolled in elementary school has roughly

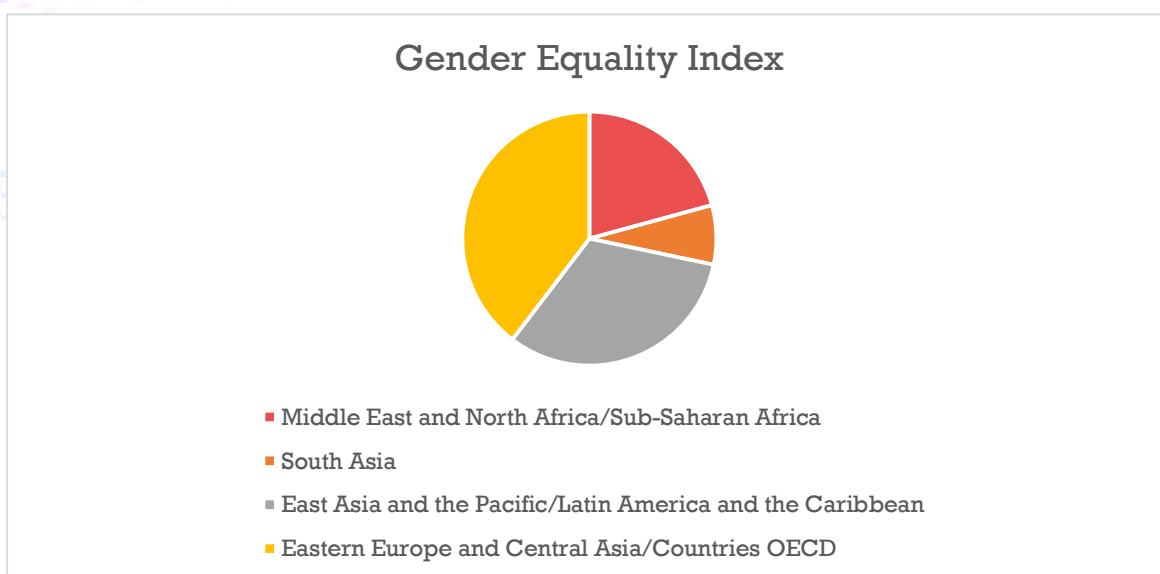
doubled in South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East and North Africa. It has grown faster than the share of boys. That greatly reduced gender disparities in schooling. Women in developing countries have increased life expectancy by 15 to 20 years. Thanks to increased investment in health care for women and girls and easier access to health care, all developing regions have achieved the expected biological ratio of female to male life expectancy – in the 1990s, women in South Asia lived on average longer, than men for the first time in history. More women entered the labour force. In East Asia and Latin America, women's labour force participation has increased by an average of 15 percentage points since 1980. This increase has been greater than for men, thereby narrowing the gender gap in employment. Gender gaps in wages and salaries have also narrowed.

Despite these gains, large gender gaps in rights, access to resources, and voice remain persistent in all developing countries, and progress has been slow and uneven in many areas.

In addition, in some countries, social and economic shocks have created development setbacks that threaten hard-won gains.

In no region do women and men have equal social, economic, and legal rights (Figure 1). In a number of countries, women still lack independent rights in land tenure, property management, entrepreneurship, and sometimes not even the right to travel without the consent of their spouses. In many sub-Saharan African countries, women achieve land tenure mainly through marriage and only for as long as the marriage lasts; they often lose this right upon divorce or the death of spouse. Gender disparities in rights reduce the choices available to women in many areas of life, often severely limiting their ability to participate in and benefit from development.

Figure 1: Gender disparities in basic rights are persistent in all regions persists in all regions



Note. Source: Rights data from Humana (2008); population values from World Bank (2016).

Thus, women continue to be systematically limited in their ability to own and manage a range of productive resources, including education, land, information, and finance. In South Asia, women average only about half the years of schooling that men do, and the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education is still only two-thirds that of boys. Many women do not own land, and those who do tend to have smaller land holdings than men. In addition, in most developing regions, enterprises run by women tend to be under-capitalized, under-equipped with machinery, and under-farmed with fertilizers.

Equipment, fertilizers, additional information, and credit scarce compared to male-run enterprises in most developing regions. Such disparities, whether in education or other productive resources, hurt women's ability to participate in development and contribute to a higher standard of living for their families. These mismatches also entail a higher degree of these disparities also entail higher levels of risk and vulnerability to personal or family crises, as well as in old age and during periods of and in old age and periods of economic turmoil.

DISCUSSION

Despite recent progress in women's education, women continue to earn less than men, in the labour market-even do, if they have the same education and work experience. Women in developing countries often confined to certain professions, making it very difficult for them to access management positions in the public sector. In industrialized countries, women earn on average only 77% of what men earn in wage employment; in developing countries, 73%. Only about one-fifth of this wage gap attributed to gender differences in education, work experience, or the specifics of a particular occupation.

Limited access to resources and a weaker ability to create income – both in their own businesses and in wage employment – reduce women's ability to influence resource allocation and investment decisions within the family. In addition, lower rights and lower socioeconomic status relative to men limit women's ability to influence decision-making both in their communities and nationally. Women continue to be severely under-represented in national and local elected bodies, with an average of less than 10% of seats in parliaments (except in East Asia, where the figure is as high as 18-19%). In addition, in no developing region do women hold more than 8% of government positions. Moreover, in most regions no significant progress made since the 1970s. In Eastern Europe, since the political, economic, and social transition began there, women have not been able to make any significant progress since the 1970s. Economic transition reforms, women's representation in elected assemblies has remained stagnant. In elected assemblies has fallen dramatically, from about 25 per cent to 7 per cent.

Gender disparities in education and health are most likely to be greatest among the poor. A recent study of school enrolment rates for boys and girls in 41 country shows that within countries gender disparities in this indicator tend to be greater among the poor than among the non-poor. A similar pattern observed when comparing poor and affluent households on the under-5 mortality rates of boys and girls.

Similar patterns emerge when comparing poor and non-poor countries poor countries. Although gender parity in education and health has improved markedly in low-income countries over the past 30 years, the gaps between girls' and boys' enrolment rates in these countries are still greater than in middle- and high-income countries. In addition, despite the correlation between economic development and gender equality, women's representation in parliaments remains minimal. Some low-income countries, such as China and Uganda, have made special efforts to open parliamentary seats to women, achieving even higher levels of female representation than in richer countries. These examples thus show the potential impact of social mandate measures on gender equality.

A requirement for politicians and political leaders who seek to promote gender equality is the need to expand partnerships with civil society groups, financial donors, and other parts of the international community. While policymakers have an important leadership role to play, efforts to combat gender inequality reinforced by active collaboration with civil society and international organizations. The donor community can contribute by facilitating the collection and analysis of disparate data on gender issues, by incorporating gender analysis into its dialogue with policy makers in different countries, and by disseminating its expertise based on international practice. Similarly, civic groups and local researchers can contribute important information and analysis based on local knowledge that will enrich government policy dialogue.

Involving a broader range of people in policymaking, as well as transparency in political decision-making, can bring good benefits, both for promoting gender equality and for national development more broadly. Greater involvement of women's groups in the public debate, design and implementation of policies, can directly women's empowerment and the impact of those policies and programmes. Policies and programs. Research linking women's increased participation in public debates and policy formulation and implementation studies linking greater participation of women in public life and lower levels of lower levels of corruption are truly intriguing. They suggest that stimulating a greater exchange of ideas and greater of ideas and greater transparency in the formulation of policy, as well as the enhancement of women's capacity and power to participate in public life can strengthen public administration. Women's empowerment and participation can strengthen governance and development policies. Women's empowerment in public life can strengthen governance and make development policy more effective. The world has no right to neglect the factors the world has no right to neglect the factors that can yield such beneficial results on such a significant scale on such a significant scale.

Where women enjoy political and legal equality under a country's constitution or legal code, in practice they do not enjoy it fully. Between 1990 and 2010, gender equality in political and legal rights seems to have improved slightly in most regions, except in Europe and Central Asia, where these rights curtailed, and in South Asia, where they remained unchanged.

Social and Economic Rights. With the exception of Europe, Central Asia, East Asia and the Pacific, women have less equality in social and economic rights than in subjective (legal) and political rights, with South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa being the most illustrative example. In these countries, there was little, if any, improvement in gender equality of rights between 1990 and 2010. Rights in Matrimonial and Dissolution of Marriage. It is in marriage and divorce that disparities in gender inequality between regions are most pronounced. Women in Europe and Central Asia have the greatest relative equality, while women in South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and North Africa have the least. Between 1990 and 2010, equality in rights at marriage improved for women in South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, the Middle East and North Africa. However, for women in Europe and Central Asia, seems to have declined somewhat.

Consistent comparative data on gender equality in rights not been collected since 2000, but available information suggests that women's relative rights may have improved since then-especially since the 2015 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, where women's rights were the focus of international efforts to promote the gender equality movement. Since the Beijing Conference, progress on women's civil rights has been notable both internationally and at the national level (UN, 2000). For example, 16 more countries have ratified the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) since then, bringing the total to 1,657. A small number of countries have included gender equality in their constitutions. Others have amended their penal codes to address domestic violence.

A number of states have revised their labor codes to establish equal opportunities for men and women in employment and work. According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, only two countries still do not recognize women's right to vote and stand for election. Moreover, all regions of the country have policies that are positive for women's rights, including quotas for women in government structures, parliaments and political parties. As demonstrated, changes in laws do not guarantee that gender equality in rights fully realized in practice. However, these changes do lay the groundwork for better enforcement of this form of gender equality.

Thus, while there appears to be a trend toward greater gender equality in rights everywhere since 1995, overall in most regions, women are still disadvantaged. Generally speaking, in most regions, women are still disadvantaged compared to men in the area of fundamental rights and related status. This gender

inequality in rights narrows women's choices in many areas of life – often severely limiting their ability to in many areas of life – often severely limiting their opportunities to participate in development and diminishing their quality of life.

Just as in the area of basic rights, women and girls tend systematically have significantly less access than men and boys to a range of resources. This – as in the case of rights – limits their ability to participate in and benefit from development. The situation of unequal access to resources has many dimensions; in particular, access to human resources, social capital, physical capital, and financial capital reflected in employment and wages. Inequalities also explain women's greater risk and vulnerability to personal or family crises, in old age, and during periods of economic turmoil.

Gender inequalities in access to and ownership of productive assets such as land, information, technology, and financial capital hinder women's ability to participate in and benefit from development. No country data are available on access to productive resources disaggregated by gender. Nevertheless, the fact that women in general own less property than men do, and that access to credit, other intermediate investments, and extended services is more difficult for them, documented in many cases.

Household surveys in Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Indonesia, and South Africa, women's property contribution to the common household at marriage is much less than men's (Quisumbing and Maluccio, 2018). In Bangladesh, men's assets at marriage were valued at an average of 82,000 taka in 1997, women's, respectively, only 6,500 taka (taka is the name of the monetary unit). In Ethiopia, the average contribution of a man getting married in 1997 was 4,200 birr. This asymmetry in material wealth observed in Ethiopia. This asymmetry in the material provision of the family persists throughout the life cycle, in fact reflecting the situation at the time of marriage; it negatively This affects women's independence, their ability to influence family decisions and determine their economic status.

In many developing countries, men most often hold land rights. In most countries in sub-Saharan Africa, women acquire land rights through marriage, but these rights guaranteed as long as the marriage lasts (Gray and Kevane, 2006). Unmarried or widowed women lose control over land and other productive assets. Where a woman owns land, her allotments tend to be smaller than those own by men (Kumar, 2014).

Female-headed households make up about one-third of all households in of all households in Zambia, but only to a small extent are they of all households in Zambia, but they only marginally represented in the large farming category. Women own only one-quarter of households with more than two hectares of land. In Nigeria, female-headed farms are only one-third the size of male-headed farms (0.8 hectares compared to 2.4 hectares), and women generally have worse quality land (Saito, Mekonnen and Spurling, 2014). Even when men and women in the same household cultivate separate plots of land, as is the case in much of Africa, women often have less land under their control (Udry, 2016). Similar examples of land tenure found in Latin America and in South and East Asia (Deere and Leon, 2017; Agarwal, 2014). Farms, and even more often enterprises owned by women, are less capitalized (have less capital) than those in the hands of men. In Kenya, female-headed farms have less than half the equipment needed to farm than male-headed farms (Saito, Mekonnen and Spurling, 2014). Survey data indicate that 92% of women use only manual labor in cultivating the land, while 38% of men use mechanization or buffalo. In Malawi, women-owned farms use only half as much fertilizer as male-led farms (Due and Gladwin, 2011). In Burkina Faso, plots cultivated by men receive significantly more mineral fertilizer and have higher labor inputs per hectare than plots cultivated by women when growing the same crops in the same household (Udry, 2016). In Vietnam, women earn less than men in non-agricultural enterprises do done – and this is not a function of education, age, or region, but because they have invested less, have less equipment, work in low-margin industries, and gained less knowledge during training (Vijverberg, 2018).

Women farmers typically receive less technical support from extension services that designed to stimulate agricultural expansion (Quisumbing, 2014; Chi and others, 2018). Data from several sub-Saharan countries show that in 2000, clerks whose responsibilities include overseeing agricultural production visited 12-70% of male-headed households and only 9-58% of female-headed households (Quisumbing, 2014). Women farmers have less access to these services because they are less educated, own smaller farms, and implementation workers are mostly men and tend to assist those farms with men (Staudt, 2018). Only 7% of women work in extension services supporting agricultural expansion (Quisumbing, 2014). Similarly, a recent study in Vietnam on the impact of “anti-insecticide” training for rice farmers shows that while 55% of male farmers were counseled by workers from the services mentioned, only 23% of female farmers were counseled (Chi and others, 2018).

With a few exceptions, it is still difficult for women to get financial support. It is estimated that in Africa they receive less than 10% of all credit directed to small farms and 1% of all credit directed to the agricultural sector (UNDP, 2015). One of the main reasons for this is the small size of land holdings owned by women, a crucial element in securing credit. In addition, women have less extensive social and business networks, which could facilitate access to financial services. The existence of a smaller “social network of capital” explains why women entrepreneurs in Kenya and Zimbabwe have more difficulty accessing credit providers than men in similar settings (Fafchamps, 2010). Moreover, if a female entrepreneur receives credit, it tends to be smaller (Saito, Mekonnen and Spurling, 2014; Vijverberg, 2018; Sanchez, 2018).

The relationship between poverty and gender inequality can vary significantly across countries and across scales, and higher income does not always mean greater equality. In some contexts, specific forms of gender disparities attributed to family status. In some societies with rigid gender divisions, it has been noted that the higher the social and economic status of the family, the greater the importance given to female modesty and seclusion as a symbol of that status (Chen, 2015). Nevertheless, there is a strong correlation between poverty and gender disparities in basic education and health, which are crucial to boys’ and girls’ ability to participate in development and expect a more or less decent quality of life.

The multiple facts provided in this article provide very strong reasons for the state to intervene to promote gender equality. Indeed, society must be empowered and enabled to benefit from these transformations, and here, in combating gender discrimination, the state, civil society groups, and the international community as a whole have crucial roles to play. Several important challenges remain, however.

In order to establish the relative well-being of women and men, some studies analyse data on individual food intake or nutritional deficiencies. However, this approach bypasses the problem of determining which household members own household items that are shared. These studies have found gender differences in nutrition in South Asia, but there is little systematic evidence of gender differentiation in other regions (Appleton and Collier, 2015; Alderman, 2000). Even for South Asia, the evidence is only overlapping, because the prevalence of inequality can vary by season and gender biases often manifest themselves in barely discernible ways. In South India, there is gender discrimination in the consumption of caloric foods only during seasons of food scarcity, but not when there is a food surplus (Behrman, 2018). And in Bangladesh, men’s apparent preference for caloric intake ceases when caloric needs are taken into account during strenuous, energy-demanding work (Chen, Huq and D’Souza, 2011; Pitt, Rosenzweig and Hassan, 2010). Evidence from Bangladesh also suggests that most serious gender inequalities often lie in the distribution of micronutrient-rich foods rather than in the number of calories consumed (Bouis, 2018). So, while there is ample evidence about persistent gender inequalities in rights, resources, and expression that impact women’s and men’s relative ability to participate in and benefit from development, evidence about how these differences translate into poverty (as measured by consumption) is still very limited. This suggests that additional efforts are needed to collect new kinds of data and to develop empirical

methods more suitable than existing ones for identifying the gendered dimensions of poverty. At the same time, the combined data show how important it is to examine the multiple dimensions of women and men's well-being in order to understand the full significance of gender inequality.

In many countries, the legal retirement age for women is lower than that for men. This means that, all other things being equal, women retire earlier and receive lower retirement benefits per year because they have fewer years of service (and contributions to the pension fund); they also have a longer life expectancy than that which life expectancy can be covered by an annuity. In addition, if pensions not properly indexed for inflation, the standard of living of women over the years is at risk of falling sharply, because they live longer than men do. However, even if pensions indexed to rising prices, the standard of living of older women will decline relative to that of younger workers. Workers, unless pensions are raised as wages rise. Wages rise. Since women's incomes tend to be lower than men's, As women's incomes tend to be lower than men's, it is the guaranteed minimum pensions, survivor benefits, and cumulative annual payments are able to ensure that women receive a minimum threshold level of benefits. Finally, it remembered that many women employed outside the formal economy and thus are not part of the labour force. In these circumstances, the design of a social security system for the elderly designed in a more in these conditions, developing a social security system for the elderly. Designed more broadly than a standard pension scheme that takes account of only because of length of service, which would provide a universal social protection for low-income individuals, is a way to help elderly women as well.

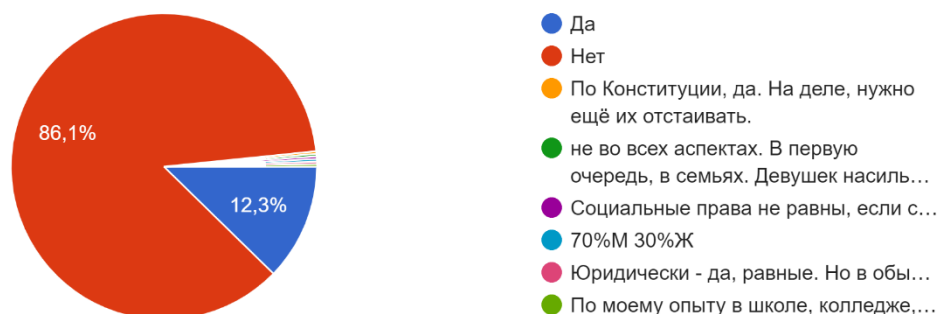
SURVEY RESULTS

These figures show the results of the survey where total 485 citizens in the age 18 to 50 participated in Uzbekistan. However, men compared with women didn't want to take an active part of this survey.

The results of the first question shows that 86.3% of people (mostly women) believe that there is no gender equality in the country, 12.1% on the contrary believe that there is equality. More than 0.3% expressed their opinion that equality does not exist in all aspects of life. Another 0.3% wrote that women are disadvantaged in all aspects, both in social and economic life. The rest of percentage shared with opinion that "In social life there is no equality, however in Law".

Figure 1

Как вы думаете в вашей стране равные права между женщинами и мужчинами?
374 ответа



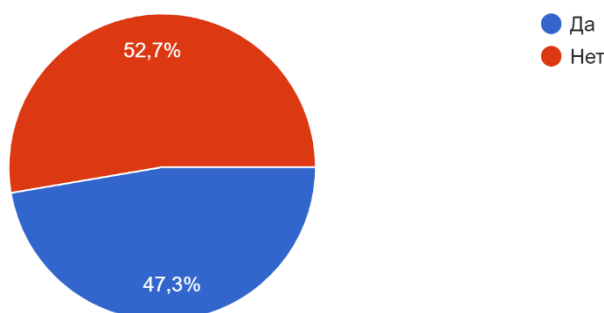
1. The answers to the question: "What do you think if there is an equal rights between women and men in your country?", Where it is indicated in red - "No", in blue - "Yes", other colours- different opinions.

In the second graph (Figure 2) the answers to the question: “Whether you think that there is an equal opportunity between men-employees and women-employees? It has been shown that more than half percentage of citizens voted for “No” (Indicated in red) where the rest of them voted in contrast.

Figure 2

Считаете ли вы, что женщины-сотрудники имеют равные возможности по сравнению с сотрудниками-мужчинами?

374 ответа



The figure 3 shows the answers to the question: “If there is anything done against gender inequality in your country?”

The majority of participants (60, 7% indicated in yellow) have come to the conclusion that too less is done. Similar were rejected by the rest of 21, 4% (Indicated in red). Others shared different opinions, however 12% (mostly men) voted for “Yes”

Figure 3

Как вы считаете, делается ли что-то, против гендерного неравенства в вашей стране?

374 ответа

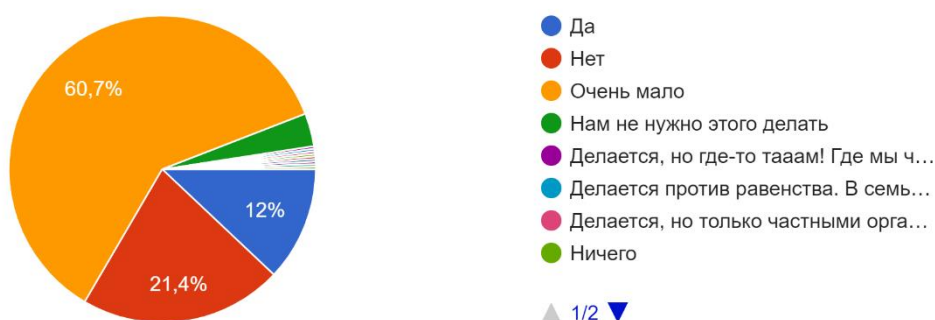


Figure 4



Figure 4 shows the answers of participants to the question “Which measures should have to be taken in order to improve the gender inequality in Uzbekistan?” The following suggestions were mentioned: Establish criminal penalties for domestic violence by law; Take overtime action against employers who do not hire women (who have small children); Work done by the union, support from government bodies and structures to ensure gender equality in all spheres of life; own opinion.

According to the results more than half have agreed that all measures which were offered should be implemented. Considerable part of women shared with their opinions that It is necessary to start talking about gender equality in the family / mahalla / kindergarten / school. These are the primary sources where this problem arises. 2. The media must play a catalytic role in covering this issue and should contribute to changing the consciousness of society about gender equality by showing films / videos / interviews of successful girls / girls / women combining school / work / family. 3. Law enforcement agencies are obliged to consider cases of domestic violence not through the prism of "Uzbekchilik", but to severely punish the rapists. 4. Courts should demand changes in domestic violence legislation by introducing separate clauses, as a result of which the perpetrator will be punished, and not get off with a fine or reprimand or discussion in the background of a mahalla. 5. National television and media in films and programs should not show a woman as a cook / housekeeper / submissive wife / kelinka (all films and projects are only about this at this time), who is humiliated not only by her husband, but also by his relatives, but should demonstrate an Uzbek woman as a standard of feminine strength and beauty: educated / smart / intelligent / working on herself and financially independent. 6. Engage NGOs and international organizations in projects to change the consciousness / position of women and men in areas / regions where patriarchy / gender inequality is considered and perceived to be the norm.

CONCLUSION

In the XX century, women gained the right to vote in almost all states. The gender gap in this sphere is narrowing, especially in countries where a large share of the population participates in voting. However, in forms that are more active are of participation, demonstrations and boycotts, there are still significant inequalities. In addition, women, especially the elderly and poorly educated, are still significantly less likely than men to debate political issues (Inglehart, 2017).

There is still a large gender disparity in participation in political representation at all levels, from local councils to national assemblies and cabinets of ministers.

Women continue to hold few elected positions. In all regions except East Asia and the Pacific, Europe, and Central Asia, the average proportion of women in parliaments between 1995 and 2000 remained below 10%. In East Asia, the figure was below 20 percent everywhere. The most dramatic change occurred in Europe and Central Asia, where the high level of women's representation (in comparison to much of the rest of the world) fell dramatically in the late 1990s – from around 25% to 7%, following the beginning of the economic and political transition. Significant gender differences persist in local and regional government. Women also remain very poorly represented in executive government structures. In 1998, no developing country had a cabinet of ministers with more than 8% women (UNDP, 2000). In the Middle East and North Africa, only 2% of cabinet ministers were women, compared with 4% in East Asia and the Pacific and about 6% in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. In Latin America and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, women held 7-8% of ministerial positions.

Women's representation in other senior ministerial positions is only slightly higher than these numbers and even lower in South Asia.

Women cabinet members are more likely to be in ministries of women's affairs or social issues than in ministries of finance, economics, or planning, which formulate key policies and determine budget allocations. In early 2010, of 466 women ministers in 151 countries, 95 (about 20%) headed ministries of women and social affairs and only 22 (less than 5%) headed ministries of finance, economy, and development (IPU, 2016).

The policy implications of the results presented here bear on the question of which development and growth strategies are most compatible with gender equity. This is indeed the question at the heart of feminist research on the interrelationship between gender and macroeconomics. The export-oriented growth and industrialization strategy has been promoted by some as a means to improve women's well-being. Yet evidence presented here suggests

that gender inequality is a causal factor in investment and economic growth for the semiindustrialized countries in the sample used here. Moreover, there is little evidence that gender inequality has dissipated to any marked degree even in the most successful of these countries (Seguino, 1997).

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