

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN STRATEGY AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

DIFERENȚE STRATEGICE DE GEN ȘI MANAGEMENTUL RESURSELOR UMANE

Elvira NICA

Lecturer Ph.D., Administration and Public
Management Faculty, Bucharest University of
Economic Studies

E-mail: popescu_elvira@yahoo.com

Gheorghe H. POPESCU

Lecturer Ph.D., Christian University "Dimitrie
Cantemir", Bucharest

E-mail: popescu_ucdc@yahoo.com

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to gain a deeper understanding of the long-run impact of globalization on gender equality, the women's opportunity to engage in social participation, the influence of globalization on the formal and informal norms of behavior which shape gender roles and women's opportunities in social life, and the globalization-induced changes in the socio-economic status of women. This research makes conceptual and methodological contributions to China's gender and law initiatives, the huge gender gaps in the literacy rate and educational attainment, the mobilization of women's groups to work together towards shared goals and catalyze action, and the high levels of social stigma attached to transgressing norms of gender presentation. I am specifically interested in how previous research investigated the effects of globalization on gender equality, the commitment of the social-democratic welfare regime to promoting women's labor force participation, women's advance in the labor market, the labor market as a means of attaining gender equality, and the foundation of gender inequality in market economies.

Keywords: gender, equality, globalization, socio-economic status

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Rezumat

Țelul acestui articol este de a dobândi o înțelegere mai profundă a impactului pe termen lung al globalizării asupra egalității de gen, oportunitatea femeilor de a se implica social, influența globalizării asupra normelor formale și informale ale comportamentului ce formează rolurile de gen și oportunitățile în viața socială, și schimbările induse de globalizare în statutul socio-economic al femeilor. Această cercetare aduce contribuții conceptuale și metodologice la inițiativele ce vizează legislația asupra genului în China, fracturile majore de gen în nivelul de alfabetizare și asimilare educațională, mobilizarea grupurilor de femei în a activa împreună în vederea unor scopuri comune și acțiune catalizată, și niveluri ridicate de stigmat social asociat cu depășirea normelor de prezentare socială. Suntem interesați îndeosebi de modul în care cercetări anterioare au investigat efectele globalizării asupra egalității de gen, implicarea sistemului socio-democratic de asistență socială în promovarea participării forței de lucru a femeilor, avansarea femeilor pe piața muncii, piața muncii ca mijloc de obținere a egalității de gen, și fundamentarea inegalității de gen în economiile de piață.

Cuvinte cheie: gen, egalitate, globalizare, statut socio-economic



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1. INTRODUCTION

Scholarly research reveals strong correlations between tensions in the relationship between class inequality and gender inequality, socio-economic selectivity in women's probabilities to join the labor force, major tradeoffs between family policies and gender inequalities, the globalization-induced increase in gender equality, and current gender-class inequality in paid work hours, wages, and housework. Although researchers have discovered some important findings regarding the relationship between deepening globalization and the gender wage gap in developing countries, the labor market prospects of women, the institutional environment that governs women's choice options, and the influence of gender inequality on socioeconomic outcomes, there is still a great deal that is unknown and that requires further empirical inquiry. Our analysis complements the growing literature on the link between gender violence and economic development, the complexity of how planning engages gender violence in different environments, women's spatial mobility, and the interlink age of gender roles, food security and employment.

2. THE GLOBALIZATION-INDUCED CHANGES IN THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN

The constitutional democracy brought the question of gender equality in the forefront of public attention in Nepal: democracy requires the empowerment of women so that they can establish new knowledge and means to assert their rights, voice, and participation in the equal world. Legal equality would be useless if actual inequalities in practice continue to discriminate women in everyday life (Banskota, 2012). Certain cultural habits are transformed depending on one's own identity, class and gender through the body-space. Memory creates and consists of a sense of belonging, going back to the past and consisting of an accumulation of little events from the past. The "boundaries of belonging" may change according to the needs and goals of the hegemony. Women's and men's narratives reveal the connection between daily walking practices and a sense of belonging. Women's efforts to achieve full "political citizenship" tackle issues of equality and difference, referring also to equality in earning and in access to welfare services (Fenster, 2005a; 2005b). A rigid adherence to a dichotomous view of gender has resulted in a silencing of transgendered voices. Queer spaces may provide some form of a psychologically protective umbrella for transgendered people. The queer communities provide some support to transgendered individuals in the early phases of exploration and transition (Doan, 2007).

The rational choice models explain little of the observed gender differences in paid and unpaid work, the divisions of paid and unpaid work among adults reflect gender-class differences in human capital that have accumulated across the life course, the gendered division of paid and unpaid labor has narrowed among educated couples, and greater gender equality in unpaid work has significant benefits for families. Persistent gender differences in skills and subjects translate into later gender career differences. The gender differences in education and work experience contribute to a gender wage gap. Gender differences in education and employment have narrowed over time. The gender differences in the impact of education on employment vary considerably across institutional contexts. The social context and our gender category contribute to gender differences in labor supply. Our gender identity and power relations evolve from thousands of interactions across our lives. The assignment of care work to women reflects gender social hierarchies. Current social investment strategies will not result in gender equality (Cooke, 2011).

Some of the female work force is working out of necessity. Poverty is a major factor driving women's labor force participation rates, women's labor force participation rises in response to economic distress, and part of the rise in female labor force participation may be a response to long-term processes of impoverishment. Women's paid work constitutes an economic pathway to changes in their lives that goes beyond the economic domain. gender stratifies entrepreneurial activity along all points of the continuum (including both survival and accumulation ends), intensifies many of the constraints associated with poverty and other forms of inequality, and is one of the more durable forms of disadvantage in the economy (Popescu, 2012a), but is not immutable. Inequalities, particularly in the distribution of assets, influence growth outcomes. Education has a positive effect on women's labor force participation and on job opportunities. Gender inequality in wages in contexts of high female education is conducive to growth in early stages of export-oriented industrialization. Feedback mechanisms reinforce and perpetuate gender inequality over time. Gender equality has a positive impact on economic growth. There may be a gendered pattern to labor market behavior. Economic growth on its own is not always sufficient to promote gender equality. Those who enter the market without assets must rely on their physical labor to meet their daily needs, whereas those with considerable assets at their disposal are better able to determine the price at which they will engage in market transactions, to take advantage of any new opportunities that may emerge, and to close off such opportunities to less fortunate groups (labor regulations are among those most frequently violated) (Kabeer, 2012; Popescu, 2013a). Women are faced with accommodating the conflicting demands of their roles as women and their roles as leaders (female leaders encounter difficulties in masculine settings), are vulnerable to becoming targets of prejudice, appear to lead in styles that recommend them

for leadership, face some disadvantage in obtaining promotions at all levels in organizations, have a discriminatory wage and promotion disadvantage compared with men, have achieved many more leadership positions than in the past, and will continue their ascent toward greater power and authority (Eagly, 2007).

3. THE FOUNDATION OF GENDER INEQUALITY IN MARKET ECONOMIES

Corruption is a major problem in almost all of the transition countries, leading to increased transactions costs and uncertainty in the economy. The level of corruption is the decisive indicator of institutional quality. Corruption is an offspring of bad governance (Ionescu, 2013a), and is an endemic and historical phenomenon in transition countries. An increase in women representation in parliament has a positive effect for a country through its negative (linear) relationship to corruption (Michailova and Melnykovska, 2009). Explicitly gendered job ads are commonplace in the broader Chinese labor market. Firms in a legal environment (Paraschiv, 2013) where they are allowed to engage in explicit gender discrimination when advertising their jobs will use the option to discriminate much more often when hiring for positions requiring lower levels of skill. There is a strong interaction between employers' preferences for gender and for workers' age, height and physical attractiveness. Like gender-targeting, the incidence of age-targeting declines strongly with jobs' education requirements. There is no strong relationship between a firm's size and its propensity to gender target its job ads. A majority of the variation in advertised discrimination occurs within firms. Firms' relative valuation of older workers rises with experience requirements and the offered wage. Firms' tendencies to request beauty and height decline with education requirements, experience requirements, and the offered wage. The strong effect of experience is an artifact of how firms' gender preferences vary with the worker's age. Foreign-owned firms' preferences lean towards women, while SOEs lean towards men. A greater expected supply response from targeting raises the likelihood of gender targeting. Higher skill requirements should reduce the incidence of targeting. There is no stigma attached to posting a gendered job at in China (Kuhn and Shen, 2013; Berna, 2013c).

In Costa Rica, any women find heading their own households a positive alternative. Female household heads are popularly identified as the "poorest of the poor." Enhanced social and legal resources have encouraged some women to take radical steps to change their domestic situations. Female headship tends to eliminate the problems of inequitable labor and uneven resource inputs and outcomes. "Objective" indicators of women's poverty together with "subjective" views of poverty and gender at the grassroots indicate limited achievements to date. Female household heads continue to stand a disproportionate risk of poverty (women are a disproportionate share of the poor) (Chant, 2009;

Manolache, 2013). The earner-carer dimension is associated with increasing probability for female employment. Earner-carer policies have erected the highest barriers for women's access to high wages and powerful jobs. Earner-carer countries employ significantly higher proportions of women with low and medium levels of formal education. Women's access to boards of large corporations is better in earner-carer countries than in prototypical market-oriented ones. Women in public sectors of earner-carer countries are relegated to "female-typed jobs." public-private sector wage differences are greater among men than among women. Wage setting in the public sector is a result of decision-making in the context of political democracy. Gender differences in earnings are affected by forms of wage setting. Claim rights have a more immediate impact than liberties on women's realized choices. The traditional-family dimension is reflected in somewhat decreasing female employment (Korpi et al., 2013).

Democratic managers are perceived to be much higher performers, and superior leaders when compared to autocratic managers. The autocratic female managers were perceived to be higher performers than autocratic male managers (Luthar, 1996). The association between gender and corruption is spurious and mainly caused by liberal democracy (Lăzăroiu, 2012a) (a political system that promotes gender equality and better governance) (Sung, 2003). In some states in Mexico a high number of women elected is related to low levels of corruption (there is considerable variation between the Mexican states in levels of corruption). Corruption is about deep structures in society (the issue of corruption has to be connected to the wider question on how societies progress) (Wängnerud, 2010). In China, once a girl has been born into a household and is the only child in the household, the parents may fully invest in her. Parents of only-child girls value education higher and thus invest more in the education of their child. The emergence of only children may not be totally due to the one-child policy, whereas the emergence of the majority of one-child households occurred because of the one-child policy. The one-child policy has eliminated the opportunities for parents to display a preference for male children and discriminate against female children, and produces more one-child households, removing the opportunities for parents to display gender bias. The gender bias has led to inferior intra-household status for daughters (Ming-Hsuan, 2012; Berna, 2013c). Gender considerations can be mainstreamed into spatial planning policy areas. Local authority planning officers are mostly addressing women's disadvantage in terms of issues of access, transport and safety. The reliance on legislation to progress gender inequalities must be supported by changes in policies and practices to address gendered disadvantage (Burgess, 2008).

Social institutions related to gender inequality lead to low female education and to higher fertility levels and higher child mortality, influence household behavior and determine the place women have in society, and matter for governance inhibiting the rule of law (Lăzăroiu, 2012b) (women's power in a

society contributes to improve the rule of law). Girls and women are discriminated on the labor market in the form of entry restrictions and wage gaps. Gender inequalities affect the whole society, and are rooted in gender roles that evolve from institutions that shape everyday life and form role models that people try to fulfill and satisfy. Social institutions related to gender inequality matter, higher inequality in social institutions being associated with lower development outcomes (Branisa, et al., 2010). Corruption is a major stumbling block for achieving good governance and thus for sustainable development (Popescu, 2012b), and is addressed by the international community, governments, and development assistance. Gender may play a role in explaining corrupt behavior. Gender policies may be undermined by certain types of corruption. Corrupt transactions require trust among the criminal partners (Frank et al., 2011). The opportunity structures of corruption can be engendered. The female gender role can prevent a woman from engaging in corruption in contexts where moral integrity forms part of culturally defined female traits. In Nicaragua, corruption has become systemic (it is deeply ingrained in Nicaraguan society). Corruption supports, stabilizes and deepens inequality within societies: it is a mechanism that produces and perpetuates social and economic inequality, constituting a regressive redistribution of resources from the poor to the non-poor. In Nicaragua, political corruption is manifested in the clientelistic political culture (bribes are demanded from men more frequently than from women in municipal administration and in the judicial system). Inequality creates incentives for corruption at different levels. Corruption at the level of the political system (Popescu, 2013b) is a larger problem in Nicaragua than the everyday petty corruption. The nucleus of the clientelistic political system is the cause of systemic corruption. Corruption generates interests, networks, operators, intermediates, and solidarity and collaboration among its actors. The local "semiautonomous social fields" are often penetrated by corrupt networks which benefit from the prevailing code of intra-group solidarity. Corruption is almost unanimously experienced as evil and condemnable, whereas is sometimes used to reinforce intra-group cohesion. Political corruption affecting public expenditure has an indirect impact on the provision of basic services. Corruption and non-delivery of services in key sectors have gender-specific poverty consequences. Corruption diverts public resources from the development of crucial infrastructure and social services, skews public investment choices away from service delivery toward more lucrative areas, and is linked with a crisis of the state, which has produced a culture of corruption with a tendency to permanence (Seppänen and Virtanen, 2008; Ionescu, 2012).

4. GENDER-CLASS DIFFERENCES IN THE EDUCATIONAL AND WORK-EXPERIENCE COMPONENTS OF HUMAN CAPITAL

Chinese women have much lower levels of education accomplishments than Chinese men do. The favoritism of men compared to women in low income settings is mainly a community level rather than individual level effect. Community income level has an effect independent of that of family income. Communities or villages are important social and economic entities that have important collective impact on their residents. Chinese villages are close-knit communities and residents inherit and preserve the same culture. Education is a very strong predictor of cognition, explaining part of the gender difference in cognition. Mortality selection in cognition could contribute to a cognitive differential in favor of men, and do not play a critical role in either the observed age patterns or gender disparities in cognitive ability. In rural China families may emphasize the development of human capital skills in favor of their sons at the expense of their daughters. [Lei et al., 2012; Berna, 2013c]. In The Gambia, young women face even more barriers to international immigration than their male counterparts, and may have less access to economic resources than their male peers. Short-term financial returns and the incentive to find a desirable spouse motivate intimate relations among youth. Men's financial insecurity jeopardizes premarital dating and their marriage prospects. The economic dynamics of relationships are usually played down in favor of caring and emotional discourses (Chant and Evans, 2010). The organization is replete with an instrumentalism that is representative of a masculine ethic. Narratives that make assumptions about gender are a vital component of and a potential trigger for organizational change. Gendered practices structure organizational life to the extent that they are present but not noticed. In its attempts to provide a way of integrating different social sectors and levels, systems theory reveals a distinctive bias against women. Gender is enacted in organizational discourse (Lăzăroiu, 2012c) and embedded in managerial practices: the concept of rationality that is elaborated in western society and enacted in organizational discourse¹ and which informs practices is masculine (rationality keeps on gendering organizational discourses and practices) (Ross-Smith and Kornberger, 2004, p. 288).

Women may not prove less corrupt in the public sector if corrupt opportunities and networks are not restrained: the gender system, which is used to justify women's proclivity to less corrupt behavior and subsequent integration into the public sector (Popescu, 2013c), could be the source of corruption as women attempt to fulfill their gender roles (Alhassan-Alolo, 2007). Democratic governance and corruption are based on networks of social capital (Nicolăescu, 2013) in the form of trust and reciprocity. Corruption is one of the mechanisms which support and contribute to the maintenance of the dominant inequality in Nicaragua. In the networks of corrupt exchanges, women have less social capital and less

negotiation power. The differences between men and women in their attitudes and behavior towards corruption reflect their social roles, powers and positions. Corruption is a field where gender roles are performed and gender role expectations fulfilled (Seppänen, 2008). Women's rights advocates in China has adapted women's human rights norms to the local context. The Chinese government has created a tension between the rhetoric of women's human rights and the actual application of those norms. There is a tension between protecting the special needs of women and achieving equality of employment between men and women. Women must often sacrifice employment opportunities at the expense of family responsibility. In the workplace, family needs are the shared duty of both sexes. Many Chinese women work part-time or in the informal sector, and the result is an increase in the feminization of part-time work opportunities, and limited access to full-time work opportunities. International human rights norms can support domestic women's rights claims and provide a forum for the enforcement of international instruments. International women's rights frameworks can mobilize national and grassroots organizations (Berna, 2013a), giving voice to lived experiences of discrimination and disadvantage. The dynamics of the rights discourse have energized incipient women's rights movements in China. The invocation of international norms in judicial decision-making may transform the women's international human rights movement, facilitating the internationalization of human rights norms through the mutually reinforcing processes of internal persuasion and international pressure (De Alwis, 2010; Berna, 2013c).

Global competition restricts gender-based employer discrimination. Globalization impacts on the design of institutions (Berna, 2013b) that influence gender equality outcomes in the long run. Overall globalization is positively associated with gender equality, political globalization is hardly associated with gender equality, and social globalization is an important driving force of gender equality (the institutional setup gives rise to sustainable progress in actually observed gender equality). The social aspect of globalization drives gender equality. Social globalization potentially undermines the traditional political-economic order, invigorates the fundamental driving forces of gender equality, and will eventually give rise to more gender equality (Potrafke and Ursprung, 2011). Political parties have rarely promoted women as candidates for office without being formally obliged to do so, parties the world over appear hostile to women's engagement in decision-making, and women's movements are the most promising candidates to further the project of "engendering democracy" (Cornwall and Goetz, 2005, p. 788). Most urban women experience profound disadvantages compared to men in their daily lives. Gender relations are transformed by the economic, social and political changes linked to urbanization. Women increasingly play a key role in urban poor movements (Tacoli and Satterthwaite, 2013).

Bureaucracies do not have to be gendered. The gender division of labor can be connected to cultural meanings in a particular bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is a particular form of organization with a specialized

division of labor (it is government by formalized impersonal rules) (Due Billing, 2005). The negative effect of women's representation in government on corruption is spurious, and center on the effect of discrimination against women on corruption. A stable and liberal democracy is related to lower levels of corruption. Society's attitude towards gender inequality influences corruption (Nicolăescu, 2012) by affecting the way political institutions function. Social institutions related to gender inequality are an important factor for the study of corruption. Gender-related social institutions are associated with corruption (Branisa and Ziegler, 2010). The Chinese government should reduce entry barriers and enhance female labor mobility across sectors. Females have been discriminated against for a long time in China. Education has a positive effect (Lăzăroiu, 2013) on earnings in all sectors for both females and males. Females are treated unfavorably in terms of employment opportunities as well as wage rate. (Wang and Cai, 2008). Changing the composition of the labor force to include more females would have a positive effect on growth. Female education is likely to lead to lower fertility and child mortality of the off-spring. Education and gender bias in education can influence population growth, investment and growth in the working age population. The governance externality applies solely to female employment. Gender inequality in education and employment has a significant negative impact on reductions in fertility, child mortality, and undernutrition. Reducing existing gender inequality in education and employment will promote growth. Gender inequality may affect economic growth through effects it has on investment rates, overall population growth, and growth in the working age population. Gender gaps in education reduce economic growth, and might automatically lead to gender gaps in employment (gender gaps in education and employment are likely to reduce economic performance). Gender gaps in labor force participation have a negative impact on economic growth (Klasen and Lamanna, 2009; Popescu, 2013a).

Gender shapes opportunities for corruption. Corrupt practices may function differently (Ionescu, 2013b) by gender. Women are demonstrating less corrupt behavior when in public office (Goetz, 2007). Monogamy reduces the gender differences in reproductive capacity (not all partnering is between people who are married to each other, whereas monogamy is rarely strict). The number of men and women who are married at any given point in time will balance under monogamy. The location of skilled jobs in urban areas can result in more female than male rural-to-urban migration. Urban areas offer skilled workers of either gender better paying jobs (Edlund, 2005) the representation of women in American politics necessitates representation by parties, women's representation is related to the role of parties as representative institutions, and the political representation of women need not conflict with party goals (women's descriptive representation can strengthen the party). Party leaders may fear that women legislators will behave as the substantive representatives of women (Sanbonmatsu, 2008).

Women and men justify their proclivity to corrupt behavior on the basis of an ethic of care and an ethic of justice. Conflicting codes of ethics may lead male and female officials towards corrupt behavior. The social cost of defying the gender system is more profound for women than men: the presence of women fails to reduce public sector corruption in collectivist cultures (Alolo, 2006). The gender wage gap is highest for individuals from families where there is a strong demand for household production. The gender roles may extend to the undertaking of strategic measures to mitigate the risk of food shortage (Floro and Bali Swain, 2013). A numerical assessment is a crucial first step for understanding legislative behavior (women can begin the process of representing substantive interests when they are present). The municipal level of government is more accessible to women, the relationship between level of government and women's representation is not necessarily straightforward (women face an uphill climb in terms of achieving gender parity, regardless of level of government), and plurality electoral systems may disadvantage women because they tend to be more candidate-centered (Tolley, 2011).

Women's disproportionate share of the "altruistic burden" within low-income households is increasing. The notion of female altruism within the family has remained steadfast. Developmental understandings of altruism have remained largely concentrated on the individual and/or household (Brickell and Chant, 2010). Women benefit from the social rights associated with employment in an increasingly independent manner. In social-democratic countries, the attempt to introduce women into the labor market does not come at the expense of attaching rights to women as mothers. Women's high rates of participation coincide with a relatively high wage floor and publicly subsidized care services. The different models of gender equality underlie different patterns of state intervention and correlate with the diverse patterns of gender stratification found in rich democracies. The continuous access of women to an independent income reduces their economic dependency on their partners. The restricted access of women to sources of independent income in the conservative countries increases women's economic dependence on their partners. In all welfare regimes women are overrepresented at lower wage levels (there are significant differences in women's access to top wage levels) (Mandel, 2009). A full understanding of women's political representation requires both deep knowledge of individual cases and broad knowledge comparing women's participation across countries (Paxton et al., 2007). Democracies remain the best arena for women's citizenship, women in movements struggle in civil society to respond to globalization and democratization, integrating women into existing political systems may deepen existing democracies and implement feminist agendas, the institutions of formal politics have great power over women's lives, and women must organize in movements, participate in formal politics, and change political systems (Vickers, 2006).

CONCLUSION

The implications of the developments outlined in the preceding sections of this paper suggest a growing need for a research agenda on the significant narrowing of education differences by gender in China, the relationship between gender violence and planning, the practicalities of gendered belonging, and the transitory and fluid nature of gendered spaces. The paper generates insights about gender-class differences in the educational and work-experience components of human capital, the diversity in gender-class equality frames, the institutional frame undergirding gender employment inequalities, and the gender economic gap associated with women's responsibility for unpaid care work. The overall results provide strong evidence for the nature of gender stratification, the contrasting impacts of women's employment on their economic wellbeing in the liberal and social-democratic regimes, substantive change in gender roles and power relations, the protected labor markets of social-democratic welfare regimes women, and the gendered division of labor.

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