

GENDER EQUALITY AND GLOBAL ECONOMIC GOVERNANCE

EGALITATEA DE GEN ȘI ADMINISTRAREA ECONOMICĂ GLOBALĂ

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Abstract

Considerable research attention has focused on the relationship between globalization and gender equality, gender differences in labor supply and demand, the social relations of gender, the opportunities for gender-class equality, and the structuring of gender-class differences in paid and unpaid work. Applying new conceptual and methodological approaches, this study advances to the next level research on the new and emerging gender-based developments in Chinese law, the impact of the one-child policy on gender equality in education, the relationship between gender and space, and the translation of women's human rights rhetoric into concrete action. The main objective of this paper is to explore and describe the pervasiveness of gender-based violence, the underlying reasons for gender differences in cognition in the Chinese context, and the narrowing of the gender gap in educational attainment.

Keywords: gender, equality, economic governance, social relation

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Rezumat

Cercetări substanțiale au vizat raportul dintre globalizare și egalitate de gen, diferențe de gen în cererea și oferta de pe piața muncii, relațiile sociale de gen, oportunități pentru egalitatea gen-clasă, și structurarea diferențelor gen-clasă în muncă plătită și neplătită. Aplicând noi abordări conceptuale și metodologice, acest articol avansează spre următorul nivel de cercetare asupra dezvoltărilor recente și emergente bazate pe gen în dreptul chinez, impactul politicii unui copil asupra egalității de gen în educație, relația dintre gen și spațiu, și transpunerea retoricii drepturilor femeilor în acțiune concretă. Obiectivul principal al acestui articol este de a explora și descrie violența generalizată bazată pe gen, motivele fundamentale pentru diferențele de gen în înțelegerea contextului chinez, și reducerea clivajului de gen în achizițiile educaționale.

Cuvinte cheie: gen, egalitate, administrare economică, relație socială



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1. INTRODUCTION

The material gathered in this study provides a rich and diverse context for understanding the implementation of China's gender sensitive laws, the legal changes that have granted women greater entitlements to conjugal assets and protection from domestic violence, gendered patterns in the use of space, and fears on the part of transgender populations about safety in urban areas. Although researchers have discovered some important findings regarding the role of Chinese women's groups in strengthening the rule of law and human rights, the salience of ethnicity and citizenship status in gender violence, the multilayered nature of gendered belonging in the city, and the nature and social consequences of gender variance, there is still a great deal that is unknown and that requires further empirical inquiry. These findings highlight the importance of examining the political discourse on gender equality, the economic and social importance of the labor market, the protection of women's economic independence, gender-class differences in the effect of human capital on wages, and the array of policies that structure gender-class inequality in paid and unpaid work.

2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GLOBALIZATION AND GENDER EQUALITY

Conceptual reflections of transition need to integrate a gender-sensitive perspective. A gender-sensitive approach requires to take the pluralism and heterogeneity of "women" and "men" into account (Derichs, 2013). Law and policy reform in China must provide corresponding safety nets and mechanisms, and reforms must be wary of reinforcing traditional gender stereotypes. Workplace regulations that support both fathers and mothers in taking more responsibility for caring for children is a key component in achieving gender equality. The transnational flow of ideas is rapidly transforming Chinese women's activism. Human rights discourse has created a legitimate space for the articulation of deeply felt needs. There is a complex mix of legal and social transformation (Popescu, 2012a) based on a growing rights discourse. International human rights norms have to be read directly into lawmaking or judicial decision-making in China. Human rights norms are necessary building blocks of the emerging and ongoing reform processes on behalf of women in China. Transnational legal processes are a bridging exercise between international theory and practice. China's globalization and state transformation have spurred a new wave of activism by women's groups ("globalization from below") (De Alwis, 2010; Berna, 2013a). If the marriage market is asymmetric, high paying jobs in a locality may imply that it can support more women than men. Marriage is a contract through which men transfer resources to women in exchange for parental rights. A surplus of women in cities may be a geographic manifestation of hypergyny. Many

societies mandate monogamy, adding institutional constraints on a man's ability to father children (Edlund, 2005).

The labor market, culture, and policies contribute to the institutional frame that determines total household hours in paid and unpaid labor, and gender and class differences in these. Mapping the gender-class intersections requires consideration of both paid and unpaid labor. Focusing on just class or just gender policies cannot capture the complex structure of group inequalities in paid and unpaid work. Institutional arrangements affecting relative class equality cannot be disentangled from those affecting relative gender equality. Class and gender predict systematic educational differences (Popescu, 2012b), either in the years of education or in the subjects studied (gender and class inequality persist in the most liberal markets). Defining gender equality around market parameters inhibits the ability to achieve gender equality in unpaid work as it becomes increasingly devalued (gender reflects power) (Cooke, 2011). According to Weber, the increasing bureaucratization of the modern world and the triumph of instrumental rationality are inevitable (conflict between formal and substantive rationality are inevitable). Scientific management is the embodiment (Popescu, 2013b) of instrumental rationality. Those particular ends or absolute values associated with the achievement of substantive rationality decline as modernization occurs. The concept of rationality is gendered in its core assumptions. The dominant masculine rationality informs and genders organizational realities. Rationality was from its philosophical beginnings linked to masculinity and that this masculine rationality still shapes organizational discourse and managerial practices (Ross-Smith and Kornberger, 2004).

Everyday corruption has declined since the worst years of economic crisis, but is the form of corruption felt directly by the majority of Tanzanians. Budget support can become a strong anticorruption instrument. Donors are key actors in anticorruption activities. Support to anticorruption activities is one of the main focus areas in international development cooperation. Everyday corruption is the form of corruption felt directly by the majority of Tanzanians. Corruption is a symptom of bad governance (Popescu, 2013c) and the lack of a closed network of social capital on the national level. Corruption culture is characterized by strong internal reciprocal relations which are not checked by the mechanisms of transparency and accountability. Development aid has in some cases strengthened corruption by inducing an inflow of assistantship and clientelism favorable to corruption. Systemic corruption relies on open networks of social capital. Attention given by donors to corruption is rather volatile on the country level. Some donors consider corruption to lie within the sphere of national sovereignty. Corruption is a gender-specific phenomenon (women and men are subjects and objects of different corrupt practices and behavior). Increasing the number of women in political office provides an efficient means for fighting corruption, but accountability mechanisms within the political system are more important in fighting

corruption than the number of women decision-makers (increasing the number of women in public office alone does not resolve the problem of corruption). Political and bureaucratic corruption should not be viewed as independent from each other. Bribes and illegal payments directly affect women and the poor (the end result of the corruption affecting public expenditure for provision of services has a similar effect on women and the poor). The corruption affecting public expenditure has an indirect impact on household economies and poverty (Seppänen and Virtanen, 2008; Ionescu, 2012).

3. THE SOCIAL RELATIONS OF GENDER

Women's organizations have established advocacy units and women's shelters in Indonesia, promoting a nation-wide campaign against domestic violence (Schröter, 2013). In urban China, the difference in human capital (Nicolăescu, 2013) underlies gaps in sectoral attainment and earnings between females and males. The gender earnings gap is caused mainly by within-sectoral earnings differentials in urban China (it is overwhelmingly generated within sectors). Inter-sector or intra-sector earnings differentials contribute to the overall earnings differences in China's urban labor market (males and females are treated differently in the urban labor market) (Wang and Cai, 2008). An "unbearable heaviness of being" attaches to women through altruism. Altruism can deny women the full exercise of their personhood and human rights, and can prevent them from taking any decision in their own interests in the first place (their altruistic practices can be capitalized upon to further other agendas) (Brickell and Chant, 2010). Women cannot achieve their objectives in the presence of social institutions that restrict their power in limiting the number of children born. The freedom of women to participate in public life increases the quality of governance of a society. Women tend to be more socially oriented than men and are a group that cross-cuts cleavages in general. Social institutions related to gender inequality are at the bottom of gender roles and the distribution of power between men and women, building a basis of people's behavior and interaction in all spheres of life social institutions related to gender inequality shape gender roles related to the division of labor and the opportunity costs of educating girls, and can affect the returns to education and the supply of schooling which might reduce incentives to send girls to school (Branisa et al., 2010, p. 50).

Opportunities and networks of corruption (Ionescu, 2013a) are critical for both male and female likelihoods of engaging in corruption. Gender informs male and female attitudes towards corruption (both men and women support corrupt behaviors). Understanding gendered motivations will be key to reducing corrupt behavior in the public sector (Alolo, 2007, p. 216). Women have slowly emerged in top executive positions: women bring to the exercise of leadership an arsenal of strengths. Women in top corporate positions have redefined the rules of business and leadership (the increase of female leaders

has produced new approaches to the exercise of leadership) (Chandler, 2011). Chinese employers' preference for men relative to women increases strongly with a job's experience requirements. Differences in offered wages across education groups account for a substantial share of the negative effect of education on gender targeting. explicitly discriminatory actions, such as posting a job ad which states that a particular race or gender is preferred, is both legal and accepted in many of the world's labor markets (Berna, 2013b) (explicit advertised gender discrimination is commonplace). Skill-upgrading may have a powerful, negative effect on the amount of explicit discrimination that is observed in labor markets. Firms will choose to abandon coarse demographic screens in thin labor markets, extending their recruiting to groups they expect to be less suitable for the job on average. A job's skill level does not have a robust effect on firms' preferences for men relative to women. Some of the occupations with the highest revealed preferences for female workers have high unexplained propensities to request youth, beauty and height. Customer and supervisor tastes for interacting with attractive women play a significant role in firm's explicit requests for female workers. The share of ads favoring men versus women is roughly equal: when it is legal to express gender preferences in job ads, a significant share of employers uses gendered ads to solicit women as often as men (Kuhn and Shen, 2013; Berna, 2013a).

Costa Rica possesses long-term sex-disaggregated data for income and other relevant variables such as household headship and age. Gender policy initiatives have assisted some poor women to negotiate new ways of coping with poverty. Gender is a major axis of inequality in the country. The increase in female household headship has contributed to the lack of national income poverty decline in the last decade. The increase in the relative share of female-headed households in the extremely poor category is accounted for by the overall growth in numbers of female-headed households (the growth in households headed by women is ongoing). Female-headed households have less capacity to generate income than their male-headed counterparts (Chant, 2009; Manolache, 2013). The prediction of gendered outcomes from patterns of state intervention (Lăzăroiu, 2012a) depends on the dimension of gender inequality in focus. Analyzing configurations of gender inequality opens a wider perspective on gender stratification. Labor market attainments are the most important determinant of life chances. Labor market activity has become a necessary condition for equality. Care services that facilitate women's employment are mostly purchased in the market. The absence of employment-supportive policies and moderate levels of financial support for stay-at-home mothers have contributed to lower women's participation rates and to a distinctive pattern of gendered outcomes inside the labor market. Economic support for non-working mothers may have the potential to advance women's economic

independence (cash benefits for mothers that are not conditional on employment are provided on a flat-rate basis), its aim being to strengthen the traditional household division of labor (Mandel, 2009).

Liberal feminism has a bureaucratic case (Nicolăescu, 2012) for equality, whereas radical feminism has a case against bureaucracy. Bureaucracies may have some features which promote gender equity, and may benefit professional women more than low-level male bureaucrats (they are characterized by formal rationality) (Due Billing, 2005). The one-child policy implemented in China in 1979 to slow down the country's explosive population growth (Paraschiv, 2013) has inadvertently improved the intra-household status of female children and enhanced their share of intra-household resources (the one-child policy has created a large number of one-child households in China). For girls, the number of years of schooling is more dependent on the educational attainments of their parents, whereas, for boys, the number of years of schooling is less dependent on the educational attainments of the parents. Only children have enjoyed significantly improved opportunities for education compared to children inside multiple-child households. The continuing breakdown of gender boundaries in various areas of the labor market will improve the status of women. The son preference has caused a few parents eager to have a male child to use extreme methods to ensure a male descendant (Ming-Hsuan, 2012; Berna, 2013a).

4. THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL IMPORTANCE OF THE LABOR MARKET

Gender variant individuals express their identities in ways that contravene expectations based on their biological sex. Individuals who transgress gender norms may experience profound social consequences. The appearance of gender is not protected by most anti-discrimination ordinances. Society has rigid expectations of appropriately gendered behavior (Doan, 2007). The organizational capacity of working women can help to transform women's access to paid work into an economic pathway to empowerment and citizenship. Women's access to economic resources improves distributional dynamics within the household. Resources in women's hands have a range of positive outcomes for human capital and capabilities within the household. Gender-related constraints underpin many of the gender inequalities in relation to labor market processes and outcomes, operating invisibly and routinely through institutionalized forms of discrimination, more overtly through the actions of powerful individuals and groups (Lăzăroiu, 2012b), or as feed-back mechanisms that represent rational responses to pre-existing constraints (gender differentials in constraints and capacity might be greater at the survival end of the spectrum compared to the accumulation end). Women's access to employment and education opportunities reduce the likelihood of household poverty, the outcomes of growth are more positive where it is accompanied by an expansion in women's employment and education, and

wage labor can be as much a product of distress as many forms of self-employment (along with education, women's employment has a positive impact on growth and helps to translate economic growth into greater gender equality variously defined, contributing to women's capacity to exercise choice and agency in key areas of their lives). Markets of various kinds occupy center stage in current strategies for economic growth. Market inequalities are manifestations of underlying inequalities of power. Historically established inequalities in resources and opportunities are reinforced by the actions of those who hold power within a society (Kabeer, 2012; Popescu, 2013a).

Women's organizations are rarely integrated into state systems, the international sphere is available to organized women as an arena for political activity (Lăzăroiu, 2012c), whereas global women's networks work to insert gender justice issues in many areas of international debate. "Women" as the central concept of feminist politics has been replaced by "gender," constructing gender differences through discourse is part of the process of regulating male/female relationships, and the differences between men and women are socially constructed (Vickers, 2006). Cognitive skills are important in the context of the older population in China (intermediary market institutions do not help make financial decisions related to income security or health care provision). Traditional Chinese parents treat sons and daughters differently in educational opportunities. In traditional poor Chinese communities, there are strong economic incentives to favor boys at the expense of girls in their education outcomes, in their nutrition, and in their adult height. There is a female deficit in cognitive skills that grows with age. At low levels of economic resources Chinese communities invest in the cognitive skills of boys at the expense of girls. China has experienced rapid economic development during the last thirty years with outstanding increases in schooling for each new generation (Lei et al., 2012; Berna, 2013a). Gender relations permeate all social relations: gender relations are fundamental for the ways in which the process of migration develops and how it is experienced, being critical for our understanding of the consequences migration brings about (Bastia and Busse, 2011). Women mainly work in the agricultural sector which in most developing countries does not play a major role in international trade. The whole build-up of economic and social global integration has had a positive influence on the contemporary relative status of women. Deepening globalization is good for the women living in developing countries, giving rise to more gender equality, and implying that international integration will improve the wellbeing of women (Potrafke and Ursprung, 2011).

Low levels of female labor force participation contribute to female underrepresentation in democratic polities. Electoral systems have a systematic effect on the extent to which women's workforce participation boosts female political representation (Iversen and Rosenbluth, 2008). Global urban spaces (Berna, 2013c) become more and more diversified in terms of their citizens' identities. Space is

culturally constructed as an entity in which women and men feel a sense of belonging or dis-belonging (Fenster, 2005a; 2005b). Family policies are multi-dimensional in ways likely to interact with class to differentiate women's labor force attachment, affecting the extent to which women join the labor force. Multidimensional structures and inequality outcomes of family policies are resultants of pressures by political forces with partially differing values and goals, tradeoffs are serious in family policies attempting to decrease gender inequalities by transferring social care work to the public sector, sharing market-oriented family policies differ considerably from the above prototypical market-oriented countries, major effects of family policies are visible among women without university-level education (Lăzăroi, 2013) (the situation for women lacking higher education can be improved without major negative consequences for better-off women), whereas positive family policy effects appear in with respect to fertility and child poverty (Korpi et al., 2013).

Male subjects tended to evaluate other male managers higher while female subjects were partial to female managers in their evaluations, whereas the female subjects gave female autocratic managers substantially higher evaluations in terms of both performance and leadership ability (Luthar, 1996). Both physical and social planning must be engaged to address gender violence. The consistent separation of the public and private spheres has stifled planning responses to gender violence, rendering violence that takes place in private spaces outside the planning realm. Gender violence is based on unequal relationships between men and women in social, cultural, economic and political spheres. The powerful social connotations of certain environments induce fear in women (Sweet and Ortiz Escalante, 2010). Excluding women from the pool of talent is particularly damaging formal sector employment (using the gender gap in formal sector employment might be most appropriate). Higher female education lowers population growth which helps improve economic growth. Current barriers to female employment are disadvantageous to females and reduce economic growth in developing countries. In sum, there is considerable theoretical support for the notion that the challenge of increasing the economic growth of a country (Ionescu, 2013b) is linked to the role played by women in the society. The costs of discrimination toward women in education and employment harm the women concerned and impose a cost for the entire society. Gender inequality in education and gaps in educational growth have a significant negative impact on growth. Employment gaps have a particularly large impact on economic performance. In countries that are strongly exposed to international trade, lower gender gaps in labor force participation are beneficial to economic growth. (Klasen and Lamanna, 2009; Popescu, 2013a).

Large numbers of women in public office may perform an important role-modeling effect (the numbers of women in politics increase in many parts of the world), and there is no shortage of women's activity in

civil society and community activism (Cornwall and Goetz, 2005, p. 788). Women and men use public space differently and have different concerns about how it meets their needs. The built environment plays a role in shaping gendered identities, practices and power relations. A consideration of gender can help make regeneration and planning more successful for the communities involved (Burgess, 2008). In The Gambia, young love is negotiated in the context of urban poverty, and it is differentiated on the basis of gender. Young women tend to sideline poor young men for reasons pertaining to social respect and economic security. Gendered socialization influences men's as well as women's sexual subjectivities and behaviors. International and inter-generational sexual relationships are highly desirable (Chant and Evans, 2010). Gender is a potential threat to party discipline at the level of mass politics, gender gaps occur in party identification and voting behavior, and the lack of alignment between gender and party and the status of women as a majority group provide women with opportunities for leverage in the party system (Sanbonmatsu, 2008).

CONCLUSION

The current study has extended past research by elucidating policy structures mediating effects of actors on gender inequality outcomes, transformations of social care and gender inequalities, women's collective mobilization to change social norms on gender relations, and the necessity to recognize the multi-dimensionality of family policies. The results of the current study converge with prior research on interaction effects of family policy dimensions on women's labor force participation, interactions between class and gender in inequality outcomes, the influence of globalization on the women in the developing countries, and the channels of influence that connect progressing globalization with the evolution of gender equality. This paper seeks to fill a gap in the current literature by examining different aspects of the massive entry of women into the labor market, the impact of welfare policy on various forms of gender inequality, the role of the state in reproducing gender stratification, and the increase of women's labor force participation.

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