

GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC AND OTHER VISEGRAD COUNTRIES ACCORDING TO GGGI

Libuše Macáková

Abstract

This paper deals with gender discrimination in selected European countries (Visegrad group) according to Global Gender Gap Report with respect to the position of the Czech Republic and changes from 2006 to 2015. Various ranking of Visegrad countries from this point of view are explained by comparing scores of overall Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) and four separate sub-indexes: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational attainment, Health and Survival and Political Empowerment. The highest total GGGI equality between men and women is in Poland, the Czech Republic ranked the worst level among the V4 countries in 2014 but improved its place in 2015. Since 2006 there is a decrease of the difference between men and women in the individual sub-indexes, which affects the overall outcome GGGI. Although there are improvements on the value score indicator, placing in rankings may indicate a decline compared to previous years: in 2006 the Czech Republic placed in its prior 53rd place, the decline in 2014 caused that the Czech Republic's position dropped to the 96th place. This decrease is in most cases due to the growing number of reporting countries throughout the world that have achieved the same or better value GGGI.

Key words: Discrimination – Gender – Visegrad countries – Global Gender Gap Index

JEL Code: J71, J78

Introduction

Over the last decades the attention paid to issues of gender equality has greatly increased. Especially after the accession of the Czech Republic into the EU, the discussion about the degree of gender inequality developed in public media as well as on a professional level. The Czech Republic and other new EU countries had to implement numbers of directives adopted by the EU and engaged in promoting equality of men and women in various fields. As a result of upholding the principle of equal opportunities and gender equality was in each of the

countries adopted anti-discrimination law. Yet, consequences of inequalities between women and men are still evident in many spheres of public life.

Different approaches of individual countries to gender discrimination in the labour market cannot be objectively assessed on the basis of statistical data developed by the country itself: these data cannot be used as source data to assess the level of gender discrimination among countries. To do this it is necessary to gather information and statistics that will be designed on the same basics, respectively will be tied to a specific determinant. This paper is focused on gender discrimination in selected European countries (Visegrad group) according to Global Gender Gap Report (hereinafter GGGR) with respect to the position of the Czech Republic and changes from 2006 to 2014. Through the Global Gender Gap Report, we have learned about the size of inequalities based on gender and their evolution over time. GGGR is being published by The World Economic Forum from 2006. Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI), which uses GGGR, tries to measure gender equality over the relative difference between men and women in four key areas: the economy, education, health and the politics. Thanks to GGGR it is possible to identify those countries that are successful in the pursuit of equitable allocation of their resources between men and women, regardless of the total amount of the resource. GGGR is widely used as an important tool for effective comparison of regions [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, p. 3].

In this paper they are verbally and graphically processed GGGI of the Czech Republic and Visegrad countries (hereinafter V4) for their comparison. All values are derived from Global Gender Gap Report and subsequently supplemented by some other statistical data to clarify and explain the final score recorded in GGGI. These countries have been chosen because of their common recent history, respectively for the same period of development in the labour market after the collapse of the totalitarian regime. According to the Gender Gap Index in countries that allows combining work and family, there is a higher fertility rates and higher female employment. Women who are economically independent represent a significant consumer of goods and services and invest more in health and education of their entire family. In this paper we investigate the relationship between the economic level of V4 countries measured by GDP and placing the country in terms of the Global Gender Gap Index.

Because this is a considerable applied contribution to the topic, there is not a separate part of the theoretical analysis. Anyway we have to specify the term 'gender' as it is understood herein. Simone de Beauvoir, the French writer and philosopher, was the first who distinguished gender and sex. With this distinction she strongly contributed to the

introduction and development of the thesis that identities of women and men are primarily a result of a strong cultural imprint rather than a result of biological predestination. Jacobsen (2007) speaks about biological or sex-linked differences on one hand and variously construed psychological, social and cultural differences on the other hand. The biological characteristic is clear, identifying women as adult persons having two X chromosomes and men as adults having both an X and a Y chromosome. Gender characteristics are culturally associated with being female and male. Blau et al. (2006) note that the term gender traditionally referred as has sex, to the biological differences between men and women. Recently a movement has arisen in social science writings and in public discourse to expand this definition to encompass also distinctions which society has erected in this biological base and further to use the word gender in preference to sex to this broader definition. Some natural and social scientists still argue that the terms may be interchanged. In this text, we choose to use the term gender as defined by Blau (2006).

1 Main demographic and economic indicators V4

For better representation of the situation in selected countries (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and the Slovak Republic) it is helpful to show the main demographic and economic indicators. The total population is given in millions and is based on the definition of population, which counts all residents regardless of legal status or citizenship (except for refugees not permanently established in the country of asylum). The largest population has Poland followed by the Czech Republic with 10 512 419 [European Union, 2015].

All V4 countries have greater representation of women in the population; the smallest difference is in the CR, where the male to female ratio reaches a value of 0.97. The most recent data provided by the World Bank on its website is the percentage of women in the total population living in the Czech Republic in 2014 50.9 %. In Hungary, this ratio was calculated at 52.4 %, which is the lowest figure for the population sex ratio of men and women (0.90) of selected countries [The World Bank, 2015].

GDP is given in billion US dollars and is defined as the sum of gross values added of all producers in the economy who are residents of that State. There are also added taxes on products and deducted any subsidies not included in the product price. GDP is calculated at purchasing prices and is used in macroeconomics for determining the economic performance of the state.

Table 1 shows the main demographic and economic indicators for better representation of the situation in selected countries. All data are from 2014 and GDP and GDP per capita also from 2015. These years were in terms of real GDP growth for countries V4 successful.

Tab. 1: Demographic and economic indicators V4

Countries	Total population (millions)	Overall population sex ratio (male/female)	GDP (US\$ billions)		GDP (PPP) per capita (constant 2011, international \$)	
			2014	2015	2014	2015
year	2014	2014	2014	2015	2014	2015
CR	10.52	0.97	148.22	157.08	26.733	28.695
Hungary	9.90	0.90	109.13	117.24	22.146	23.609
Poland	38.53	0.93	414.31	429.52	22.162	23.952
Slovakia	5.41	0.95	80.63	85.22	25.537	26.355

Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2014, 2015; Key Demographic and Economic Indicators. Own processing.

2 Global Gender Gap Index and its sub-indexes in V4

The Global Gender Gap Index examines differences between men and women in four basic categories (sub-indexes) measured in rank and score (on a 0-to-1 scale): Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational attainment, Health and Survival and Political Empowerment. For all variables except the health variables, the degree of equivalence is considered to be the number 1. Table 2 shows overall GGGI and all four sub-indexes for V4 countries in 2014 and 2015 (in brackets), both years of economic growth in all countries V4.

Tab. 2: Overall GGGI and sub-indexes GGGI in V4 countries in 2014 and in 2015
(in brackets)

Countries	Overall GGGI		Economic Participation		Educational Attainment		Health and Survival		Political Mandate	
	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
CR	0.6737 (0.687)	96 (81)	0.6216 (0.636)	100 (94)	1.000 (1.000)	1 (1)	0.9791 (0.979)	37 (42)	0.0940 (0.134)	109 (83)
Hungary	0.6759 (0.672)	93 (99)	0.6689 (0.685)	69 (62)	0.9924	71 (76)	0.9791 (0.979)	37 (42)	0.0636 (0.035)	128 (139)
Poland	0.7051 (0.715)	57 (51)	0.6808 (0.667)	61 (75)	0.9995 (1.000)	36 (38)	0.9791 (0.979)	37 (42)	0.1609 (0.213)	68 (52)
Slovakia	0.6806 (0.675)	90 (97)	0.6431 (0.638)	88 (93)	1.000 (1.000)	1 (1)	0.9730 (0.973)	74 (79)	0.1061 (0.087)	100 (115)

Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2014, 2015; Key Demographic and Economic Indicators. Own processing.

2.1 Comparison based on the index of Economic Participation

This sub-index contains three basic concepts: the participation gap, the remuneration gap and the advancement gap. The participation gap represents the difference between women and men in the ratio participation workforce. The remuneration gap is captured through a ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income and wage equality for similar work. The gap between the advancement of women and men is captured through the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers.

Table 2 shows values of the index of economic participation in selected countries in 2014. The highest score achieved in Poland with a value of 0.6808 when it reached the sub-index Labour force participation score of 0.82 and was placed on the 65 place out of 142 countries [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, s.304]. Hungary is placed in the second place with a score of 0.6683 and Slovakia ranked the third place (0.6431). With a score of 0.6216, the Czech Republic ranked the worst position of compared countries (ranked at 100th place out of 142 countries). One of the causes of this placement was the worst ratio of women to the labour force (score 0.80). According to statistics published by the European Commission, the Czech Republic in a given year had the smallest percentage of women among the countries surveyed in the position of members of the highest decision-making bodies. The best score was recorded first year of GGGI (2006) even though it was at the 52nd place out of 115 countries [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, p. 165]. The Czech Republic was at the worse rank of V4 also in 2015 with the score of economic participation 0.636 (rank 94).

2.2 Comparison based on the index of Educational Attainment

The second index includes the difference between female and male access to education, taking into account the ratio of women to men with respect to the level of education and long-term view on the country's ability to educate women and men in equal numbers. The resulting state of the sub-index shows several indicators: the rate of literacy and the enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education. In 2014, 25 countries achieved equality between men and women in the index of educational attainment. For the EU it was the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic, Austria, Latvia, the Netherlands and Malta [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, p. 10].

The Czech Republic achieved gender equality on the basis of educational attainment index in 2008 and maintains the state until today. GGGI value of educational attainment for the

Czech Republic in 2014 and 2015 is 1,000. This figure is based only on indicators of overall literacy rate and tertiary education therefore it is questionable, what is the real position of the country. Proportional representation of women and men in school attendance rates at primary and secondary level, the country did not. [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, p. 164].

2.3 Comparison based on the index of Health and Survival

This sub-index provides an overview of the differences between women's and men's health through the use of two variables. The first variable is the sex ratio at birth, which aims specifically to capture the phenomenon of "missing women" prevalent in many countries with a strong son preference. (Worldwide, the ratio between boys and girls at birth is estimated at 105 or 106 boys to 100 girls.) Secondly, we use the gap between women's and men's healthy life expectancy. The EU must constantly deal with the problem of aging populations and reducing the birth rate. Various surveys show that EU citizens would like more offspring, but only provided that they will be rich enough [European parliament, 2008, p.2]; women see the biggest problem of high costs of child and fears about their future and [European parliament, 2008, p. 4]. Other causes of low fertility rates in the EU are the fact that women are more dedicated career concludes with fewer marriages and a growing number of divorces, new patterns of coexistence etc.

Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland have the same score 0.979 and they were placed at the 37th place in 2014 and 42nd place in 2015. With a score of 0.973 Slovakia was ranked at the 74th place in 2014 [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, pp. 164, 203, 304, 324] and at 79th place in 2015.

2.4 Comparison based on the index of Political Mandate

European Commission monitors the gender balance of men and women in the politics, public administration, judiciary, trade and finance, NGOs, environmental and media [European Commission, 2014]. Employment of women in political positions can be viewed at the level of European, national and regional. According to available information, it is possible to observe gender balance of individual countries in individual countries' parliaments, the European Commission, but also the representation of women in positions of leaders.

Poland exhibits the highest values of all observed countries in both years (0,1609 in 2014 and 0.213 in 2015). As well as shows the highest value of women in ministerial positions. Specifically, in 2014, it achieved perfect men to women ratio (45 % women and 55 % men). The data for the ratio of employed women and men in positions of national

parliaments of Poland shows that 24 % of jobs are occupied by women, which is slightly below the average of all EU countries (28 %) [European Commission, 2014]. Low women representation is also in ministerial positions where Poland represents 17 % of women in 2014 and 28 % in 2015. The Czech Republic moves in the period from 59th (2010) to 109th place in 2014: the position is due to the lower proportion of women than in national parliaments (20 %) as well as in ministerial positions [European Commission, 2014]. In 2014 only 7 % of ministerial posts were occupied by women [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, p. 164]. The lowest value recorded Hungary with the score 0.636 in 2014 (rank 128) and 0.035 in 2015 (rank 139).

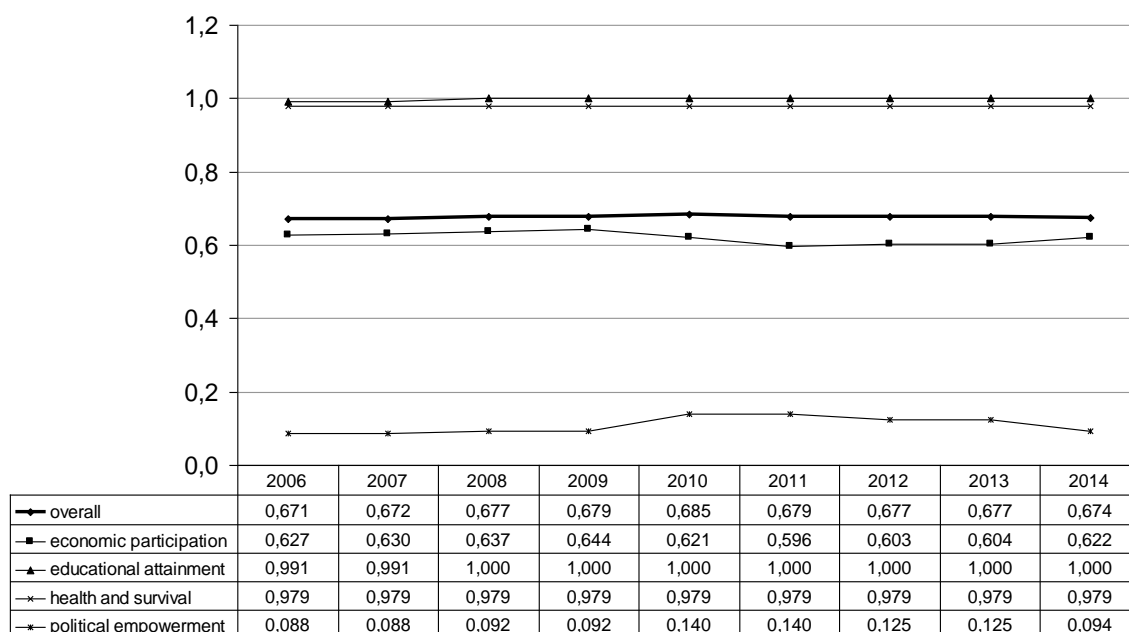
3 Overall Global Gender Gap Index

Development of Global Gender Gap Index is determined by all 4 sub-indexes. For a final interpretation is important every single change in sub-indexes of GGGI. Data in table 1 shows the highest total GGGI equality between men and women in Poland with a score of 0.7051. The Slovak Republic ranked with a score of 0.6806 and Hungary 0.6759. The Czech Republic ranked the worst level among the V4 countries with a score of 0.6737, which is only about 22 hundredths less than the score of Hungary.

The difference between Poland and other V4 countries is not large, but GGGR rank is significantly different. Throughout the period, Poland failed to get in top positions in the position of countries: best overall location recorded in 2008, which ranked 39th out of 130 countries. The biggest impact on the overall Polish GGGI in a given year should increase political mandate sub-index, which was largely influenced by the introduction of gender quotas in Poland, which brought the obligation to include a number of candidates on the electoral list. This step should bring increased women representation in national parliaments [Górecki, Kukołowicz, 2014, p.29].

In the first year (2006), the Czech Republic placed in its prior best place in the ranking 115 countries around the world (53rd place). Over the years the ranking and overall score GGGI changed and the decline in 2014 to 0.6737 caused that the Czech Republic's position dropped to the 96th place. Sub-indexes of economic participation, education, health and life expectancy compared to 2013 haven't been significantly deteriorated, unlike the sub-index of a political mandate: the rate of deterioration indicates a drop from 0.125 to 0.094. Figure 1 presents the evolution of the Czech Republic overall performance in the Global Gender Gap Index from 2006 to 2014 and in the four sub-indexes.

Fig. 1: Changes in GGGI of the CR from 2006 to 2014



Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2014, Gender Gap Index (2006-2014). Own processing.

Conclusion

Since 2006 there is a decrease of the difference between men and women in the individual sub-indices, which affects the overall outcome GGGI of the V4 countries. Although there are improvements which are visible on the value score indicator, placing in the rankings may indicate a decline compared to the previous years. This decrease is in most cases due to the growing number of reporting countries throughout the world that have achieved the same or better value GGGI. Anyway according to the Global Gender Gap Index is near the top Nordic countries: Iceland, Finland, Norway and Sweden in 2014 as well as in 2015.

The Czech Republic gained 15 places in 2015 compared to 2014, mostly due to improvements on the Economic Participation and Opportunity and Political Empowerment sub-indices: the percentage of women in ministerial positions improved from 7 % to 19 %. Despite these improvements the Czech Republic (with the 96th place in 2014 and the 81st place in 2015) ranked far behind Latvia (the 15th place in 2014 and the 20th in 2015) and Slovenia (the 23rd place in 2014 and the 9th in 2015). Based on the comparison of the individual sub-indices, it is possible to evaluate the V4 countries, so that the highest score in the index of economic participation and in the index of political mandate achieved Poland, the Czech and Slovak Republic achieved gender equality in index of educational attainment.

In the index of health and survival the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland have the same score. The percentage of women in middle, senior and top management is still low in all V4 countries, as well as the speed of transformation of the state. In contrast, the rate of changes in the representation of women in decision-making bodies (boards of directors, etc.) is higher - mostly thanks to the control measures introduced in recent years.

If we compare the economic level of the V4 countries measured by GDP and placing the country in terms of the Global Gender Gap Index, we can see that the highest GDP per capita has the Czech Republic in both years, but the best GGGI rank achieved Poland. The Czech Republic ranked even the worst level among the V4 countries in 2014. It is evident that there is not the strong correlation between a country's gender gap and its economic performance. Because women account for one-half of a country's potential talent base, a nation's competitiveness in the long term depends significantly on the ability of educates and utilizes its women, should give women the same rights, responsibilities and opportunities as men [The Global Gender Gap Report, 2015, p. 45]. This point of view looks promising for the Czech Republic and all V4 countries, the Czech Republic, Poland and Hungary especially, as they reached the excellence score 1.000 in 2015.

Acknowledgment

This article is provided as one of the outputs of the research project of the Faculty of Business Administration „Resources and prospects of development of European economies in the context of contemporary globalization at the beginning of the 21st century“, the number IP307052.

This article is provided as one of the outputs of the research project of the Faculty of Business Administration IP 307055 „National and corporate competitiveness from the perspective of endogenous growth models“.

References

- Blau F. et al. (2006) “The Economics of Women, Men and Work”, 5th edition, Pearson, Prentice Hall
- Daly, K. (2007) “Gender Inequality, Growth and Global Ageing”, Goldman Sachs Global Economics Paper No. 154.
- Duflo, E. (2005) “Gender Equality in Development”. BREAD Policy Paper No. 001, December 2005. <http://econ-www.mit.edu/files/799>

European Commission: Justice, Database, 2014 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from:
http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/index_en.htm

European Commission: Justice, Gender Equality, 2014 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from
http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm

European Parliament, 2008 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from
<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+IM-PRESS+20080414FCS26499+0+DOC+XML+V0//SK#title2>

European Union, 2015 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from
<http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/member-countries>

Górecki, M. A., Kukołowicz, P.: Polish elections demonstrate the limitations of gender quotas as a tool for increasing female representation. The London School of Economics and Political Science, 2014 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from

<http://blogs.lse.ac.uk/euoppblog/2014/09/23/polish-elections-demonstrate-the-limitations-of-gender-quotas-as-a-tool-for-increasing-female-representation/>

Jacobsen, J. P. (2007) “The Economics of Gender”, Blackwell Publishing

The Global Gender Gap Report, 2014. Switzerland: World Economic Forum, 2014. ISBN 978-92-95044-38-8. [cit. 2015-10-28] Retrieved from

http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR14/GGGR_CompleteReport_2014.pdf

The Global Gender Gap Report, 2015. Switzerland: World Economic Forum, 2015. ISBN 978-92-95044-41-8. [cit. 2015-10-28] Retrieved from

<http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR2015/cover.pdf>

Parrotta, Pierpaolo, Pozzoli, Dario and Pytlikova, Mariola (2011) “The Nexus between Labor Diversity and Firm’s Innovation”. NORFACE MIGRATION Discussion Paper No. 2011-5.

http://www.norface-migration.org/publ_uploads/NDP_05_11.pdf

The World Bank, 2015 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL.FE.ZS/countries>

The World Bank: GDP (current US\$), 2015 [cit. 2015-10-28]. Retrieved from

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD>

Contact

Libuše Macáková

Faculty of Business Administration, University of economics, Prague

W. Churchill Sq. 1938/4,130 67 Prague 3, Czech Republic

macakova@vse.cz