
GENDER INEQUALITY INDICES FOR THE EUROPEAN PARTNERSHIP COUNTRIES COMPARISON

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Overcoming gender inequality is a serious challenge for many countries all over the world. Different reforms aiming at reduction of gender inequality are often a necessary condition for joining international alliances and associations. The article presents an example of comparative analysis of gender statuses in European partnership countries: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine and Russian Federation (1) on the one hand, and Iceland — on the other hand due to the latter leading position in the Global Gender Gap ranking. This ranking as well as the results of the comparative analysis can be useful for lecturers in the courses on gender inequality, international comparative studies and others. The author provides a definition of the concept “gender inequality”, an overview of existing methodological approaches to the international gender inequality measurement and interpretation. Based on the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) author describes men and women positions in the countries mentioned above in such socially important fields as politics, economy, education, and life expectancy; provides her own explanations of the current situation and perspectives for its development. The study shows that for all the countries under consideration the most problematic are (1) political sphere in the terms of women’s empowerment and (2) the sphere of healthcare from the point of quality and duration of men’s lives. The most unproblematic field from the comparative gender analysis point of view is educational sphere. According to the results of the comparative analysis, the most egalitarian country seems to be Moldova, while the least egalitarian — Azerbaijan. This article is based on the data of the International project ReSET «European visions and divisions: comparative studies in improving of teaching sociology” (supported by OSI HESP in 2010—2012).

Key words: gender; gender inequality; gender empowerment; measurement; comparative analysis; Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI); European partnership countries.

Today gender equality is considered as the humanist ideal and one of the keys to successful development of the world. A lot of countries and international associations declared gender equality one of their basic life principles, for example European Union (EU). Many countries, especially the eastern neighbors of the EU that aim to join European Union, understand that for a quick and successful integration it is necessary to achieve not only the specified standards of living, but also the gender equality. To monitor the global gender inequality situation, and the results of national attempts to overcome it many measuring instruments were developed. The article provides an overview of such instruments, proposes some ways for gender indices improvement, presents an example of using Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) to compare the gender inequality situation in the European partnership countries: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine and Russia on the one hand, and Iceland (as a leader of the ranking and the member of EU) — on the other, and outlines the results of the current reforms that aim to guarantee gender equality and are a necessary step for joining EU. In order to estimate the reforms’ priorities and outcomes, as well as of different gender programs

and projects effectiveness, the author proposes two approaches — synchronic and diachronic — on the basis of comparative studies and international indices of gender inequality.

Thus, *gender inequality* — is a kind of inequality that reveals itself in the impossibility of full realization of one's rights due to his gender and gender discrimination practices. The cross-national perspective of gender analysis allows to assess both — gender equality (World Bank indices, International Economic Forum, etc.) and mechanisms of its production and reproduction in various spheres of public life.

There are two main sources of gender inequality: institutional (legal restrictions for representatives of either sex in rights, such as prohibition for women to drive cars in Saudi Arabia) and cultural (normative gender roles, occupations, and social positions). Gender differences are usually measured by international indices based on indicators of gender equality in various spheres of social life (2):

- ◆ *Gender Inequality Index (GII)* reflects women's limited opportunities in three 'dimensions' — reproductive health, empowerment and at the labor market [7] (3);
- ◆ *Gender-related Development Index (GDI)* is quite similar to Human Development Index (HDI) (4), but it takes into account gender inequality in men and women achievements. Its methodology imposes penalties for inequality, for instance, if GDI falls, i.e. the gender gap in achievements increases. The greater the gender disparity in basic opportunities, the lower is country's GDI compared to its HDI. GDI is actually a version of HDI adapted for measuring gender inequality [2];
- ◆ *Relative Status of Women (RSW)* consists of the same components as GDI except for the comparison of absolute levels of gender achievements. It takes into account average levels of three indicators: the ratio of female and male involvement in education, the ratio of female and male life expectancy according to the European Gender Equality Index, and the relative female and male returns to labor [3];
- ◆ *European Union Gender Equality Index* combines different gender indicators in one resulting index — six core measures (work, money, knowledge, time, power and health) and two satellite ones (intersecting inequalities and violence). This index measures gender gaps taking into account differences in gender achievements to ensure that gender gaps are not perceived as normal and positive (only for European Union Members) [1];
- ◆ *Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)* as a measure of agency evaluates advances in women's positions at political and economic forums; examines the extent to which women and men can participate in economic and political life and in decision-making; while GDI focuses on the expansion of capabilities, GEM considers how these capabilities are used to take advantages of life [2] (5);
- ◆ *Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)* captures inequalities based on social institutions (inequality outcomes such as educational restrictions, health status, economic and political participation) and measures 'inputs' for such inequalities in 102 non-OECD countries; social institutions are defined as long-lasting codes of

conduct, norms, traditions, informal and formal laws that determine the gender equality [10];

- ◆ *Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)* takes into account not only the average achievements of the country (health, education and income), but also how these achievements are distributed among its population (level of inequality) [8];
- ◆ *Gender Equality Index (GEI)* measures the gap between women and men in education, economic and political empowerment [4];
- ◆ *Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI)* estimates how countries distribute resources and opportunities among men and women regardless the overall amount of the resources; shows the scale of the gender inequality gap in four areas [5]: 1) economic participation — salaries, access to high-skilled employment, etc.; 2) educational opportunities — access to basic and higher levels of education; 3) health and survival — life expectancy and gender balance; 4) political empowerment — genders' roles in decision-making structures. The more equal are positions of men and women, the higher place in ranking the country occupies (table 1).

To estimate the increase/decrease of the gender gap we can analyze two figures: the rank of the country in the international rating, and GGGI value. The place in ranking shows that the country manages to meet the global criteria of gender equality. For instance, despite the fact that the index of gender development in Ukraine in 2006—2007 did not change, the country's rank fell by 9 points, while Armenia in 2007—2008 increased its index by 0,003, but lost 7 points. To prove that the world keeps on approaching gender equality we have to compare indices of gender inequality and countries' positions in ranking. For example, Moldova in 2006 with the index of 0,712 occupied the 17th place, while in 2010 with the index of 0,716 — only 34th.

In general, none of the countries (except Iceland) kept up stable positive (gender gap decreasing) or negative (gender gap increasing) dynamics in GGGI. To understand what leads to increase or decrease of the index we have to consider its sub-indices (table 2).

The size of the article does not allow to analyze each subindex for the period of 2006—2014, so we will consider only 4 key subindices in 2013—2014 (table 3). For instance, Moldova from 2012 to 2013 fell by 7 points in the ranking due to GGGI decrease by 0,007 (from 0,710 to 0,703). One of the reasons is the decrease of women economic participation — reduction of the number of women who had jobs (compared to men), decrease in women salaries and opportunities to occupy top positions (Table 4).

One possible explanation of the situation is that 2012 was a hard year for the national economy of Moldova: GDP fell by 0,8%, exports — by 2,5%, industrial production — by 3.1%, and the number of registered enterprises was lowest since 2003. In other words, there is deterioration in economics and decline in business activities — they usually worsen the position of women due to the gender stereotype that «a man is the breadwinner of the family». Secondly, there is a decrease of educational attainment subindex by 0,006 due to the reduction of number of women receiving primary education (as compared to men), probably because of changes in demographic pyramid and chances to enroll on primary school.

Table 1

Global Gender Gap Index ranking: 2006—2014

Country	2006 rank	2006 score	2007 rank	2007 score	2008 rank	2008 score	2009 rank	2009 score	2010 rank	2010 score	2011 rank	2011 score	2012 rank	2012 score	2013 rank	2013 score	2014 rank	2014 score
Iceland	4	0,781	4	0,783	4	0,799	1	0,827	1	0,849	1	0,853	1	0,864	1	0,873	1	0,859
Moldova	17	0,712	21	0,717	20	0,724	36	0,71	34	0,716	39	0,708	45	0,71	52	0,703	25	0,7405
Ukraine	48	0,679	57	0,679	62	0,685	61	0,689	63	0,687	64	0,6861	65	0,689	64	0,692	56	0,705
Russian Federation	49	0,677	45	0,686	42	0,699	51	0,698	45	0,704	43	0,703	59	0,698	61	0,6983	75	0,693
Georgia	54	0,67	67	0,666	82	0,665	83	0,668	88	0,659	86	0,662	85	0,669	86	0,675	85	0,6855
Azerbaijan	n/a	n/a	59	0,6781	61	0,685	89	0,662	100	0,644	91	0,657	99	0,654	99	0,658	94	0,675
Armenia	n/a	n/a	71	0,665	78	0,667	90	0,661	84	0,667	84	0,665	92	0,663	94	0,663	103	0,622

Table 2

Gender Gap Index subindices

Economic Participation and Opportunities Subindex	
	Ratio: Female and male labor force participation
	Gender wage equality for similar work (turned into female-over-male ratio)
	Ratio: Estimated female earned income over male income
	Ratio: Female legislators, senior officials and managers as compared to male
	Ratio: Female professional and technical workers as compared to male
Educational Attainment Subindex	
	Ratio: Female literacy rate as compared to male
	Ratio: Female primary enrolment as compared to male
	Ratio: Female secondary level enrolment as compared to male
	Ratio: Female tertiary enrolment as compared to male
Health and Survival Subindex	
	Ratio: Female life expectancy as compared to male
	Sex ratio at birth
Political Empowerment Subindex	
	Ratio: Number of women in parliament as compared to male
	Ratio: Number of women at ministerial level as compared to male
	Ratio: Number of years of a female as a head of the state (in the last 50 years)

Table 3

Detailed Global Gender Gap Index (2012–2014)

Country	2012 overall rank	score	2013 overall rank	score	2014 overall rank	score	2012 economic rank	score	2013 economic rank	score	2014 economic rank	score	2012 education rank	score	2013 education rank	score	2014 education rank	score	2012 health rank	score	2013 health rank	score	2014 health rank	score	2012 political rank	score	2013 political rank	score	2014 political rank	score
Iceland	1	0,864	1	0,873	1	0,8594	27	0,754	22	0,768	7	0,8169	1	1	1	1	1	1	98	0,969	97	0,969	128	0,9654	1	0,732	1	0,754	1	0,6554
Moldova	45	0,71	52	0,703	25	0,7405	21	0,76	32	0,74	11	0,8077	42	0,996	74	0,9949	34	0,979	34	0,979	34	0,979	37	0,9791	85	0,104	87	0,104	59	0,1802
Russian Federation	59	0,698	61	0,698	75	0,6927	39	0,719	42	0,72	42	0,7257	35	0,998	36	0,9998	28	0,9998	34	0,979	34	0,979	37	0,9791	90	0,095	94	0,095	125	0,0662
Ukraine	64	0,689	64	0,693	56	0,7056	34	0,725	30	0,742	31	0,7483	22	0,999	27	0,9998	29	0,9998	34	0,979	75	0,973	74	0,973	119	0,053	119	0,058	105	0,1012
Georgia	85	0,669	86	0,675	85	0,6855	57	0,676	64	0,674	66	0,6751	89	0,979	89	0,9887	80	0,9887	129	0,949	126	0,955	115	0,967	109	0,071	97	0,091	94	0,1111
Armenia	92	0,663	94	0,663	103	0,6622	76	0,644	82	0,638	82	0,6478	25	0,999	29	0,9996	31	0,9996	130	0,944	131	0,949	142	0,9332	114	0,066	115	0,066	123	0,068
Azerbaijan	99	0,654	99	0,658	94	0,6753	74	0,648	72	0,659	52	0,7087	84	0,983	85	0,982	92	0,9840	135	0,920	136	0,925	137	0,9441	113	0,066	114	0,066	127	0,0642

Table 4

Indices of economic participation and opportunities in Moldova (2012–2013)

Indices	2012	2013
Labour force participation	0,92	0,91
Wage equality for similar work	0,71	0,67
Estimated earned income (US\$)	0,66	0,66
Legislators, senior officials and managers	0,61	0,57
Professional and technical workers	1,00	1,00

Table 5

Educational Attainment in Moldova (female to male ratio, 2012–2013)

Educational Attainment	2012	2013
Literacy	0,99	0,99
Enrolment in primary education	1	0,98
Enrolment in secondary education	1	1
Enrolment in tertiary education	1	10

It should be mentioned that education is one of the spheres where gender gap is minimal, while politics is one of the most unequal spheres: the world's highest political empowerment subindex reaches 0,7544 (2013), while educational attainment — around 1. The struggle of women for voting rights began in 1870s, by 1930s in most European countries women won the right to vote and be elected. However, the number of women in politics is still small (table 6—7).

Table 6

Percentage of seats held by women in national parliaments [11]

Country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
European Union	22,2	23	24,7	25,2	25,7	25,5	26,3	27,5	30	30	30
Iceland	33,3	33,3	33,3	33,3	42,9	42,9	39,7	39,7	39,7	40	41
Ukraine	5,3	8,7	8,2	8,2	8	8	8	9,4	9,4	12	12
Russian Federation	9,8	9,8	14	14	14	14	13,6	13,6	13,6	14	14
Belarus	29,1	29,1	29,1	31,8	31,8	31,8	31,8	26,6	26,6	27	27
Moldova	21,8	21,8	21,8	21,8	23,8	18,8	19,8	19,8	19,8	18	22
Armenia	5,3	5,3	9,2	8,4	9,2	9,2	8,4	10,7	10,7	11	11
Georgia	9,4	9,4	9,4	6	5,1	6,5	6,6	12	12	12	11
Azerbaijan	13,0	11,3	11,4	11,4	11,4	16	16	16	16	16	16

Table 7

Political Empowerment Subindex in 2014 (female to male ratio)

Country	Rank	Women in parliament	Women in ministerial positions	Years with female head of the state (in last 50 years)
Iceland	1	0,66	0,6	0,68
Moldova	59	0,23	0,38	0,03
Russian Federation	125	0,16	0,07	0
Georgia	94	0,14	0,27	0,01
Azerbaijan	127	0,18	0,03	0
Ukraine	105	0,11	0,17	0,06
Armenia	123	0,12	0,13	0

Some authors suggest suggests that a variety of factors contributes to this phenomenon: such *structural barriers* as level of socioeconomic development and the proportion of women in professional and managerial positions; such *political institutions* as proportional electoral system and gender quotas in party recruitment; and the impact of *po-*

litical culture, including the predominance of traditional attitudes toward women in decision-making roles [9. P. 130]. Studies of the role of the political recruitment system in establishing democracies such as Britain, Finland, and the Netherlands show that these attitudes influence both — whether women are ready to become candidates for the office (*supply* side of the equation) and the criteria used by ‘gatekeepers’ (party members and leaders, media, financial circles, and electorate) to evaluate ‘suitability’ of candidates (*demand* side).

In societies with traditional interpretation of gender roles women are reluctant to run for an office and even if they do, they fail to attract sufficient support to win. Recent studies show that female politicians mention hostile attitudes toward women’s political participation as one of the most important barriers for running for parliamentary positions [9. P. 133]. “Egalitarian attitudes toward women in office are more widespread in postindustrial societies, reflecting broad patterns of socioeconomic development and cultural modernization. Moreover, these attitudes are not simply interesting in themselves. They seem to have a powerful impact on political reality, since egalitarian values are significantly associated with women being successfully elected to office. Culture matters... The more egalitarian attitudes among the younger generation in postindustrial societies, especially among younger women, suggest that over time we can expect to see continued progress in female representation in these societies” [9. P. 144].

However, this is unlikely to happen in Ukraine in the nearest future due to the persistent prejudices against women’s political leadership: see the distribution of answers to the question “Does ability to get a position in the state governing bodies depend on gender?” [14. P. 35] (Figure 1). 40% of men and every second woman in Ukraine believe that it is harder for females to occupy a decision-making position, which represents a strong psychological barrier for political participation.

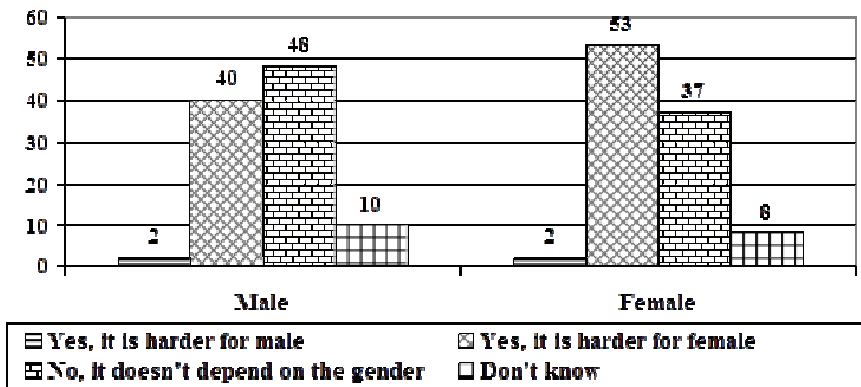


Figure 1. “Does ability to get a place in the state governing bodies depend on gender?” (%)

To maximize its competitiveness and development potential, each country should strive for gender equality in the economic sphere too, i.e. guarantee women the same rights, responsibilities and opportunities as men possess (table 8).

Table 8

Economic Participation and Opportunity, 2014

Country	Rank	Sex ratio (male/female)	Labour force participation (female to male ratio)	Wage equality (ratio)	Legislators, senior officials, and managers (ratio)	Professional and technical workers (ratio)	Female adult unemployment (%)	Male adult unemployment (%)	Women chances to head an enterprise*
Moldova	32	0,9	0,91	0,67	0,57	2,16	6	8	5
Iceland	7	0,95	0,95	0,74	0,67	1,00	6	8	6
Russian Federation	42	0,86	0,87	0,68	0,64	1,81	5,1	5,8	4,9
Azerbaijan	72	0,98	0,92	0,73	0,08	1,59	6	5	5
Ukraine	31	0,85	0,85	0,69	0,66	1,74	6,4	8,5	4,7
Georgia	64	0,89	0,77	0,76	0,51	1,62	13	17	5
Armenia	82	0,87	0,74	0,66	0,31	1,88	35	22	5

*Survey data, responses on a 1-to-7 scale (1 = worst score, 7 = best score).

Unfortunately, GGGI does not take into account horizontal segregation that would help to understanding the situation better and to see the leading spheres of gender inequality. Unlike previous years, there is no such record as “female teachers, primary/secondary/higher education (%)” in 2014 report. After graduation, women face barriers that prevent them from taking positions that correspond to their level of education: thus, despite the fact that women more often have higher education diploma (table 9), they are less likely to occupy senior positions.

Table 9

Indicators of educational involvement, 2014

Country	Rank	Literacy rate (female to male ratio)	Enrolment in primary education (ratio)	Enrolment in secondary education (ratio)	Enrolment in higher education (ratio)	Female teachers, primary education, % (2013)	Female teachers, secondary education, % (2013)	Female teachers, higher education, % (2013)
Armenia	31	1	1,1	1,19	1,57	100	84	56
Azerbaijan	92	1	0,98	0,98	1,05	88	n/a	52
Moldova	56	0,99	0,99	1,01	1,32	97	77	57
Georgia	80	1	1,01	0,95	1,27	86	59	39
Russian Federation	28	1	1	n/a	1,35	98	81	56
Ukraine	29	1	1,02	1	1,15	99	76	n/a
Iceland	1	1	1,01	1,01	1,70	n/a	n/a	47

In the process of self-realization in social and political spheres, women face discrimination that makes them feel unsure of their chances and understand that they have to overcome hidden and obvious resistance from colleagues and managers (‘glass ceiling’, ‘sticky floor’). In the study conducted by Institute of Sociology of Ukraine, respondents were asked about the circumstances that prevent men and women from building successful careers [14. P. 42]. The major obstacle — “lack of professionalism” — was mentioned by both sexes, while other were different for women and men: women more often chose “having a family and children” (the problem of ‘double workload, see ta-

ble 10), men — “lack of education”. Another obstacle is that managers do not want to hire a woman because of her possible maternity leave. General attitudes towards female entrepreneurs are rather neutral, but there is a clear trend: the smaller the business, the more positive is an attitude to the woman that runs it [14. P. 58].

Table 10

**Mean age of marriage for women
(Global Gender Gap Report 2014)**

Country	Age, years
Moldova	22
Armenia	24
Ukraine	23
Azerbaijan	24
Russian Federation	24
Iceland	28
Georgia	23

Still another problem is that women receive less salary than man for the same work in private enterprises (in state budgetary organizations salaries are fixed). There are several explanations of this fact: women have lower salary requirements than men; women are more conservative when changing jobs, so even being aware of salary differences they continue to work in the organization.

The last subindex that we have to consider is health and survival subindex, particularly life expectancy (table 11).

Table 11

Life expectancy (male, female) [11]

Country	Year																	
	2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Iceland	79,6	83,5	79,5	82,9	79,6	83,4	80	83,3	78,8	83,8	79,8	84,1	80,7	84,1	81,6	84,3	82	85
Ukraine	62,2	74	62,4	74,1	62,5	74,2	62,5	74,3	63,8	74,9	65,3	75,5	66	75,9	66,1	76	66	76
Russian Federation	64	71,9	64,2	72	64,3	72,1	64,5	72,1	64,6	72,3	64,7	72,4	64,8	72,6	64,9	72,7	66	76
Moldova	64	71,9	64,2	72	64,3	72,1	64,5	72,1	64,6	72,3	64,7	72,4	64,8	72,6	64,9	72,7	65	73
Armenia	70	76,8	70,2	77	70,5	77,2	70,7	77,4	70,8	77,5	70,9	77,7	71,1	77,8	71,2	77,9	71	78
Georgia	69,4	76,6	69,9	76,8	69,7	77	69,8	77,1	70	77,3	70,1	77,4	70,3	77,5	70,4	77,7	71	78
Azerbaijan	66,2	71,8	66,6	72,3	66,9	72,8	67,1	73,1	67,3	73,4	67,4	73,6	67,5	73,7	67,6	73,8	68	74

Despite the general trend of life expectancy increase, male life expectancy lags behind female. In the Eastern European partners of EU, deaths from external causes (accidental alcohol poisoning, homicides and suicides) and social diseases are quite frequent, especially among men. For instance, male mortality from accidental alcohol poisoning in 2009 amounted to 0,1 per 100 000 in Armenia, 0,2 — in Azerbaijan, while deaths of women from the same causes — 0 in both countries. There are stable high mortality

rates from accidental alcohol poisoning in Russia (25 deaths per 100 000 for men and 6,5 for women) and Ukraine (23,4 and 4,5 respectively) [15] (6). Alcohol consumption increases the risk of death from cirrhosis, pancreatitis, and cancer, as well as from external causes (alcohol poisoning, homicides, suicides, accidents, injuries, etc.) [13]. Mortality rates from suicide in CIS are about twice as large as in EU: in 2009 the death rate from suicide and self-inflicted injuries in the EU countries was about 17 cases per 100 000, while in CIS — 34,6 (see also tables 12—13).

Table 12

Mortality from self-harm per 100 000, 2012 [12]

Country	Male	Female
Moldova	29,34	5,87
Armenia	5,27	1,18
Ukraine	35,61	6,89
Azerbaijan	2,3	1,02
Russian Federation	39,67	7,5
Georgia	6,44	1,4

Table 13

Mortality from violence per 100 000, 2012 [12]

Country	Male	Female
Moldova	12,9	6,2
Armenia	4,9	1,1
Ukraine	8,0	2,9
Azerbaijan	8,7	2,2
Russian Federation	17	4,8
Georgia	4,3	0,8

It is hard to compare Ukraine with other countries by the rates of mortality due to the “Revolution of dignity” events and the ATO (antiterrorist operation) that begun in 2014 (the level death from external factors grew up to 374 per 100 000).

The quality of life and lifestyle influence not only mortality from external causes, but the mortality from so-called ‘social diseases’. High male mortality from tuberculosis is largely due to the untimely treatment in hospitals, as well as irresponsible attitude to one’s health and specific lifestyle (smoking, alcoholism and drug addiction). Tuberculosis remains one of the most common diseases among infectious diseases, especially among men (table 14).

Table 14

Mortality from tuberculosis per 100 000, 2012 [12]

Country	Male	Female
Moldova	22,6	3,2
Armenia	10,9	1
Ukraine	25,2	4,1
Azerbaijan	6,8	1,7
Russian Federation	24,5	4,5
Georgia	7,2	1,2

Thus, gender inequality is a form of social inequality that has been the feature of the whole world since ancient times. Before the industrial revolution, gender inequality was justified by the unequal physical abilities of men and women. Nowadays gender inequality is mostly culturally conditioned — social positions of men and women in different countries are not the same due to the dominant interpretations of gender roles and responsibilities in private and public life. To measure the distance between genders, a large number of indices were developed (GDI, GGGI, GEM, SIGI, GII, etc). These indices take into account data on various social spheres such as politics, economy, education, health care and others. According to these indices, five countries considered in the article (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Russia and Ukraine), which are included in the European Partnership program, occupy middle positions in the international gender ranking (based on Gender Gap Index) and lag far behind the EU countries due to the female underrepresentation in politics and business activities, while at the same time men lag far behind women in life expectancy. To understand the roots of gender inequality and the ways to change the situation, we have to analyze different countries' values, traditions and lifestyles as well as political initiatives and sociological projects that aim to 'measure' the gender inequality patterns (7).

NOTES

- (1) Russia is not a partner of the European partnership program, but has a great influence on the countries mentioned.
- (2) For further information about differences, limitations, etc. of these indices see: "Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs) about the Gender Inequality Index (GII)" UNDP. Human Development Reports // URL: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/faq>; *Suman S.* The Gender Inequality Index alongside alternative Gender Measures: Pros & Cons and the Debate // Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative Department of International Development Queen Elizabeth House, University of Oxford // URL: <http://www.ophi.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/GII-Presentation-Week2-Dr2.pdf>.
- (3) For more details on GII see: Technical Notes. UNDP. Human Development Reports // URL: http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_2010_EN_TechNotes_reprint.pdf.
- (4) Human Development Index (HDI) is a generalized indicator of human development that measures the average achievements of the country in three basic dimensions: long and healthy life, access to knowledge and decent standards of living.
- (5) For more details on GDI and GEM see: Technical Note 1 HDR 2007/2008. UNDP. Human Development Reports // URL: http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_Tech_Note_1.pdf.
- (6) The article is based on the year 2009 data, for more recent data see World Health Organization website.
- (7) For more political initiatives of the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) see: URL: <http://eige.europa.eu>.

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ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ИНДЕКСОВ ГЕНДЕРНОГО НЕРАВЕНСТВА ДЛЯ СРАВНИТЕЛЬНОЙ ОЦЕНКИ СИТУАЦИИ В СТРАНАХ ЕВРОПЕЙСКОГО ПАРТНЕРСТВА

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Преодоление гендерного неравенства — серьезнейший вызов для многих стран мира. Кроме того, разработка и реализация мер по сокращению гендерного разрыва часто выступают обязательными условиями для вступления страны в международные союзы и организации. В статье представлен пример проведения сопоставительного гендерного анализа в странах Европейского партнерства: Армении, Азербайджане, Грузии, Молдове, Украине и Российской Федерации (1) — с одной стороны, и Исландии — с другой, поскольку данная страна занимает лидирующие позиции во всех международных гендерных индексах, демонстрируя высочайшие показатели гендерного равенства во всех сферах общественной жизни. Глобальный рейтинг гендерного разрыва сам по себе, а также

результаты его использования в сравнительном межстрановом анализе могут быть полезны для исследователей и преподавателей, читающих курсы по гендерной социологии, сравнительным исследованиям и т.д. Автор приводит определение понятия «гендерное неравенство» и предлагает краткий обзор методологических подходов к сопоставительной оценке гендерного неравенства в международном контексте и интерпретации ее результатов. На основе Индекса глобального гендерного разрыва автор характеризует положение мужчин и женщин в перечисленных выше странах в таких социально значимых областях, как политическая и экономическая деятельность, образование и продолжительность жизни; обосновывает собственные интерпретации нынешней ситуации и перспектив ее развития. Проведенное исследование показало, что наиболее явный гендерный дисбаланс в рассматриваемых странах наблюдается в (1) политике (с точки зрения вовлеченности женщин) и (2) здравоохранении (с позиций качества и продолжительности жизни мужчин). Наименьшие гендерные различия по результатам сопоставительного анализа были выявлены в образовательной сфере. Кроме того, по итогам исследования наиболее эгалитарной страной среди рассмотренных оказалась Молдова, наименее — Азербайджан. Такие выводы позволили сделать данные международного проекта «European visions and divisions: comparative studies in improving of teaching sociology» (при поддержке OSI HESP, 2010—2012), в котором принимал участие автор статьи.

Ключевые слова: гендер; гендерное неравенство; расширение возможностей женщин; измерение; сравнительный анализ; Индекс глобального гендерного разрыва; страны Европейского партнерства.