IRSTI 06.56.02
UDC 308
JEL D19, M12, J16

https://doi.org/10.46914/1562-2959-2023-1-1-130-144

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF GENDER STEREOTYPES IN CENTRAL ASIA AND CENTRAL EUROPE

Abstract

Despite the fight against gender inequality, this problem is still relevant in countries with economies in transition and requires further efforts. Conventional traditional gender stereotypes in the minds of people hinder the gender equality in almost all areas. At the same time, the consequences of gender bias on the economy and society remain insufficiently studied. The purpose of the study is to compare gender stereotypes in relation to the traditional distribution of responsibilities between men and women in the countries of Central Europe (CE) and Central Asia (CA). Two hypotheses were put forward, which were confirmed by the results of a regression-correlation analysis of secondary information on the Life in Transition Survey project, carried out by the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development in cooperation with the World Bank. The study's results will contribute to the pool of research on gender inequality and develop recommendations for adjusting social policies in states with transformational economies. The research methodology includes general scientific methods (positive and normative approaches) and applied methods (quantitative analysis). Based on the responses of three thousand four hundred five (3405) respondents from Central Asia and three thousand four hundred and sixty four (3464) respondents from Central Europe, a regression analysis was performed. The study results showed female respondents from Central Europe have weaker gender stereotypes than participants from Central Asia. The study's results will contribute to the challenge of generating employment growth, reducing vulnerable employment, and improving decent work opportunities in Central Asia.

Key words: gender inequality, regression-correlation analysis, gender stereotypes, transitional economy, social policy, employment growth.

Introduction

The Gender Social Norms Index (GSNI), published in the media as "Tackling Social Norms: A game changer for gender inequalities," measures the phenomenon of impeding gender equality in four areas: politics, education, economics, and physical integrity. An index based on a survey showed that almost 90% of the world's population is "biased to some extent against women". At the same time, half of the population believes that men are the best political leaders, which is reflected in the ratio of men to women in parliaments around the world [1].

In general, the GSNI found that countries with higher social norm biases tend to have higher levels of gender inequality, especially for countries in transition. It is important to note that gender stereotypes formed from childhood do not disappear; they remain in people's minds and, as a result, hinder gender equality in almost all areas. The consequences of gender bias on the economy and society of countries with transitional economies remain insufficiently studied.

International organizations, as a rule, consider Kazakhstan as part of an extended geographical region, consisting of quite different states, but with significant similarities – these are the regions of Central Europe and Central Asia (CE-CA).

The grouping of countries into the CE-CA regions is dictated by a common socialist past, a high proportion of women in the labor force and graduates of higher educational institutions. These regions have one of the highest levels of female education in the world.

In order to obtain more information that is objective and form a clear understanding of the achievements and problems of our country, we will analyze the position of the Republic of Kazakhstan in the context of the CE-CA regions.

The study aims to compare gender stereotypes regarding the traditional distribution of responsibilities between men and women in CE and CA. The object of the study was a survey conducted as part of the Life in Transition Survey (LiTS) project, which the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development carried out in cooperation with the World Bank [2].

Under the research two hypotheses were put forward, which then were tested by the regression-correlation analysis:

H1: Women in CA have stronger gender stereotypes concerning the traditional distribution of responsibilities between a man and a woman (who earns money and who takes care of the house and children) compared to women in CE.

H2: In families where women make sole or equal decisions with their husbands, females share more egalitarian (believing in that all people are equal) views compared to women lacking decision-making power.

Materials and methods

To test the first hypothesis, we used secondary data from the LiTS, a longitudinal study of socioeconomic issues based on respondents' perceptions of economic, political, and social issues. The first round of LiTS I was held in 29 countries in 2006; the second round of LiTS II was held in 35 countries in 2010. The third phase of the LiTS III study was conducted between 2015 and 2016 in 34 countries. The results of the LiTS III study demonstrate the continuing gender gap in labor markets and business [2]. Traditional gender roles remain deeply ingrained. Thus, even though the men and females who participated in the survey had the same level of education, LiTS III revealed a persistent gender gap in employment and access to entrepreneurial opportunities. Often females working part-time are less involved in operational processes and earn less than men working similar jobs. Regarding unpaid work, females bear a disproportionate share of housework and caring for their families.

We reviewed raw data from four Central Asian countries (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan) except for Turkmenistan, for which there are no data (Table 1. p. 132).

According to Table 1, the total number of respondents from the Central Asian countries was 3405, of which 28.6% were females from Kazakhstan, whose average age at the time of the survey was 45 years. In the context of the Central Asian countries, females in Kazakhstan demonstrate higher work experience rates (75.49%). In second place is Uzbekistan (63.18%), and in third is Kyrgyzstan (51.30%). The indicator of work for the last year in Kazakhstan (56.62%) also exceeds the average

indicator for Central Asia (36.94%). The religious factor demonstrates Islam as the dominant faith in Central Asia, with a deviation in Kazakhstan, where more than 1/3 of the survey participants profess Christianity.

Table 1 – Characteristics of the sample by Asian countries

№	Country	Respondents, persons	Respondents, %	Mean age (years)	Ever or currently working, %	Working during the past 12 months, %	Religion, %
1	Kazakhstan	975	28.6	44.82	75.49	56.62	Muslim 55.79; Christian 35.28
2	Kyrgyzstan	805	23.6	41.60	51.30	34.41	Muslim 88.20
3	Tajikistan	813	23.9	39.51	46.74	30.26	Muslim 99.14
4	Uzbekistan	812	23.8	44.26	63.18	26.48	Muslim 94.95
Total		3405	100	42.5	59.18	36.94	
Note: Elaborated by authors based on [2].							

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The main features of the European sample for Central Europe (Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia) are summarized below (Table 2).

Table 2 – Characteristics of the sample by European countries

№	Country	Respondents, persons	Respondents, %	Mean age (years)	Ever or currently working, %	Working during the past 12 months, %	Religion, %
1	Czech Rep.	845	24.39	50.6	92.07	58.58	Christian 29.23; agnostic 66.39
2	Hungary	837	24.16	55.6	87.81	40.98	Christian 80.76
3	Poland	887	25.61	49.3	87.37	50.51	Christian 93
4	Slovak Rep.	895	25.84	54.04	85.47	44.58	Christian 86.82
Total		3464	100	52.39	88.18	48.66	
Note: Elaborated by authors based on [2].							

According to Table 2, the total number of female respondents from CE countries was 3464, with an average age of 52 at the time of the survey. European females show higher work experience rates (88.18%) than those from Central Asia (59.18). The indicator of work for the last year in the countries of Central Europe (48.66%) also exceeds the average indicator for Central Asia (36.94%). It is noteworthy that the Kazakh indicator is closer to the indicators of the CE countries. The dominant faith in the CE countries is Christianity.

Their opinion regarding the division of roles was used to measure the level of gender stereotypes of females. Responses to the statement “It’s better for everyone if a man earns money and a woman takes care of the house and children” were used to create a dependent variable, where “Agree” and “Strongly agree” = 1; “Strongly disagree,” “Disagree,” “Refused” and “Don’t know” = 0.

The region (CE and CA) and decision-making power were independent variables. First, the models were calculated for all eight states, then the region variable was added to the regressors, where 1 is the CA countries, and 2 is the CE states.

Females' decision-making power was measured by responses to the question: "Who makes decisions about the following issues in your household?":

1. Manage daily expenses and pay bills;
2. Making large purchases for the household (for example, cars and large household appliances);
3. Savings, investments, and loans;
4. Babysitting;
5. Way of raising children;
6. Social life and leisure.

The alternative answers were as follows:

a) Decisions are divided equally between me and my husband;
b) Mainly, my husband decides;
c) Decisions are shared equally between me and someone else in the household;
d) Basically, someone else in the house decides;
e) Mostly, someone else who is not currently living in the household decides.

The sub-questions were converted to dummy variables for each response category. A strict linearity or multicollinearity effect was avoided as the responses included -97, -98, and -99, which were replaced with zeros. Further regression models were calculated for each question statement. The regression model was run in eleven logical steps, each adding a new statistically significant variable. The IBM Social Sciences Statistical Package (SPSS) was used as the leading software and the SPSS introduced an automatic stepwise method for selecting statistically significant variables.

Main provisions

The CE and CA countries have a common past associated with life in the USSR or its influence, which still has a noticeable impact on the people living in these territories.

The socialist system has ensured large-scale educational enrollment and the inclusion of women in the labor force through affordable public childcare services. The socialist system positioned women as working mothers, mainly involved in the lower-paid sectors of the economy compared to men. It led to a concentration of women in education, catering, and medicine, where wages were always low.

The transition period to a market economy in the late 1980s and early 1990s was characterized by new challenges that affected the situation of women: rising unemployment, prolonged occupational horizontal and vertical labor segregation, and the further strengthening of traditional gender roles. The revival of patriarchal traditions in CE-CA through the revival of religious values harmed the economic role of women.

After 30 years of transition, the problem of the representation of women in CE-CA in high management positions remains unresolved. Women aiming for career growth and professional development may face gender stereotypes and intrapersonal conflicts between career building and family interests.

Among 189 countries, Kazakhstan ranks 56th in the Human Development Index and 41st in the UNDP Gender Inequality Index [3]. Table 1 presents the indicators of the gender inequality index for the countries of Central Europe and Central Asia. It is important to note that Kazakhstan is in the group of countries with very high human development and progressing towards gender equality.

Major achievements of Kazakhstan in the implementation of National Gender Strategy are:

- Official membership in global coalitions: (1) action to combat gender-based violence and (2) advance economic justice and law [3].
- Introduction of a mandatory quota of 30% for women in electoral party lists and deputy mandates [3].
- Termination of the list of jobs limiting the work of women.
- Presence of 31 Family Support Centers and Women's Entrepreneurship Development Centers in Kazakhstani regions [3].

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) is an indicator that reflects the level of inequality between men and women in three dimensions: empowerment, reproductive health, and labor market. This index has been used in the UN Human Development Report since 2010. A higher GII means a lower social, economic, and political position of women in the country (Table 3).

Table 3 – Gender Inequality Index 2021

Country	Gender Inequality Index	
	Rank	Value
Very high human development countries:	-	0.155
Poland	31	0.109
Czech Republic	34	0.120
Kazakhstan	41	0.161
Slovak Republic	45	0.180
Hungary	55	0.221
High Human Development countries:	-	0.329
Turkmenistan	43	0.177
Uzbekistan	56	0.227
Medium Human Development countries:	-	0.494
Tajikistan	68	0.285
Kyrgyz Republic	87	0.370
Note: Elaborated by the authors based on the source [3].		

According to Table 3, the indicators of gender inequality in Kazakhstan are more satisfactory compared to some European countries such as Slovakia and Hungary.

It is notable to pay closer attention to the countries with high and medium human development indices. Considering GII data, Kyrgyzstan demonstrates less favorable conditions for women's empowerment than other CA countries.

UNDP and independent international experts calculate GII indicators based on statistical data from national institutions and international organizations. In the case of inequality in health, education, and income distribution, the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index becomes less than the Human Development Index. The greater the inequality in society, the more significant the difference between the indicators. Table 2 demonstrates HDI losses in human development due to inequalities in health, education, and income (Table 4).

Table 4 – Human Development Index and Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index, 2021

Rating	Country	Human Development Index	Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index	Percentage difference
32	Czechia	0.889	0.850	- 3.90%
34	Poland	0.876	0.816	- 6.00%
45	Slovakia	0.848	0.803	- 4.50%
46	Hungary	0.846	0.792	- 5.40%
56	Kazakhstan	0.811	0.755	- 5.60%
91	Turkmenistan	0.745	0.619	- 12.60%
101	Uzbekistan	0.727	not available	-
118	Kyrgyzstan	0.692	0.627	- 6.50%
122	Tajikistan	0.685	0.599	- 8.60%
Note: Elaborated by the authors based on the source [3].				

According to Table 4, health, education, and income losses vary across countries, from a few percent (Czech Republic, Slovakia) to over 6-12% (Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan).

Table 5 represents a comparison of gender indicators in the countries of Central Europe and Central Asia. In general, Kazakhstan has a satisfactory level of education, employment and seats in parliament, but a high adolescent birth rate compared to the Central Asian countries and some CE countries.

Table 5 – Selected indicators of gender equality (women) in Central Europe and Central Asia countries, 2021

Country	Adolescent birth rate	Share of seats in parliament	Population with at least some secondary education	Labor force participation rate
	(births per 1,000 women ages 15–19)	(% held by women)	(% ages 25 and older)	(% ages 15 and older)
Very high human development countries:				
Czechia	9.71	22.06	99.84	51.67
Poland	9.65	27.55	86.52	49.2
Slovak Rep.	26.3	22.7	98.9	54.7
Hungary	22.1	13.1	97.6	52.1
Kazakhstan	21.9	24.5	99.82	63.27
High Human Development countries:				
Turkmenistan	21.77	25	93.47	36.54
Uzbekistan	15.86	28.74	99.88	44.9
Medium Human Development countries:				
Kyrgyz Rep.	34.7	20.45	100	42.14
Tajikistan	45.43	23.40	93.50	30.21
Note: Elaborated by authors based on [3].				

According to Table 5, Kazakhstan leads in labor force participation rate of women among CA and CE countries. Then Kazakhstan has one of the highest rates of women with at least some secondary education, exceeding the rates of Poland, Hungary, and Slovakia. At the same time, the share of seats in parliament by women is lower in Kazakhstan than in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan.

Literature review

Hermes argues that combating gender stereotypes should be done through education and the media [4]. Presently, access to education and the media depend on access to the Internet. Gender equality in Internet access is increasingly recognized as a development goal [5]. Access alone is not enough, and females need freedom of action and the ability to use access [6]. If the vicious circle is not interrupted by social change, adherence to typical social roles will continually reproduce existing stereotypes [7]. The reproduction of a vicious circle is doomed in societies with an advanced innovative culture to which men and females should contribute. The development of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) requires qualified professionals in these areas, although, in some areas, the representation of females hardly reaches 30% of the total [8]. The more females are involved in STEM – the more innovation is expected. It is important to note that females and men approach innovation differently, and there are many recipes for effective innovation [9]. A study by Mendonça & Reis sheds light on gender differences in the use of innovation and concludes that while men innovate more, female innovators are no different from male innovators [10]. The gender diversity of managers in organizations has a "double positive effect" as females prefer to build connections with females, and men tend to collaborate with men [10]. Therefore, STEM education for females has the potential to revolutionize both employment and performance.

A civil service leadership study showed that women in Central Asia face high gender stereotypes that narrow their social roles to caring for family members [11]. Women leaders in Kazakhstan are heavily influenced by traditional gender stereotypes that portray women's role as homemakers. Patriarchal traditions put family interests first and require women leaders to be mothers, which is

a major stress in choosing a career. Under the pressure of gender stereotypes, women leaders have to do much more work so that their productivity is evaluated on an equal footing with their male counterparts [11]. Traditional values impose a double burden on women leaders – a combination of the critical social role of a homemaker and a leadership position, which creates psychological problems and career difficulties. Search engines (SE) can perpetuate known gender stereotypes and have been found to influence users accordingly [12]. The fact that formed gender stereotypes have a powerful impact on human life is confirmed by experiments using artificial intelligence [13]. Despite the availability of new technologies, there continue to be socio-cultural norms that limit access for females [6]. Even the gender gap in prestigious scientific awards is essentially the result of demographic inertia and other factors that merit further study [14]. The results of a survey of 287 Spanish females and men analyzed using multivariate regression show that the perception of a lack of equality increases the gender gap, even if the country has policies aimed at closing the gender gap regarding females' role in the family [15].

Gender stereotypes formed in early childhood continue to influence people's decisions in school, college, university, and the workplace. Thus, the family and social institutions determine the views of women and men, which ultimately has many consequences both for the individuals themselves and for society as a whole.

Teelken et al. found "micro-political practices" associated with hiring and promotion, and the authors explain this by unconscious stereotypes that permeate micro-political practices [16]. According to Ólafsdóttir, females in Europe have less access to economic assets: they possess less property than men do, often occupy precarious and low-paid jobs, and continue to suffer disproportionately from poverty and poverty employment discrimination [14]. Nevertheless, Medina-Claros et al. find no evidence of a gender gap in promotions [18].

Meanwhile, Evans et al. argue that empirical evidence does not support the hypothesis that a reduction in the gender gap in school education consistently results in a reduction in the gender gap in labor force participation [19]. We believe a close correlation between school education and the gender gap is difficult to identify, and more research is needed here. However, Evans et al. failed to record five facts:

1. Females are more educated in all countries today than 50 years ago.
2. In most countries, females remain less educated.
3. In many countries with low levels of education, the gender gap widened as the number of boys in school increased and then narrowed as girls enrolled.
4. The gender gap rarely persists in countries where boys achieve a high level of education.
5. Fifth, in the youngest cohorts in some regions of the world, females are more educated than males [19].

The first, third, fourth, and fifth statements are promising and indicate positive trends in the field of gender.

Francesconi & Parey, using data from six cohorts of German university graduates, estimated "the extent of gender gaps in college and labor market performance twelve to eighteen months after graduation": the gender gap in full-time monthly earnings was about 20 log points [20]. In most European countries, females earn only 60 to 75% of men's wages, and the average gender gap in pensions in the 28 member states of the European Union (EU) is as high as 39% [17].

Based on a sample of 42,638 respondents from Central and Southern Europe and North and South America, Merten found a significant relationship between culture and gender and a positive correlation between the indicator of gender empowerment and gender differences [21]. Ólafsdóttir Ó.T. believes equality is far from reality despite improving women's legal status in Europe [17].

Results and discussion

A multivariate linear regression model was calculated to test H1.

For H1 testing, we first analyzed the descriptive statistics of CE and CA females agreeing with the statement, "Everyone is better off if the man earns money and the woman takes care of the home and children" (Figure 1, p. 137).

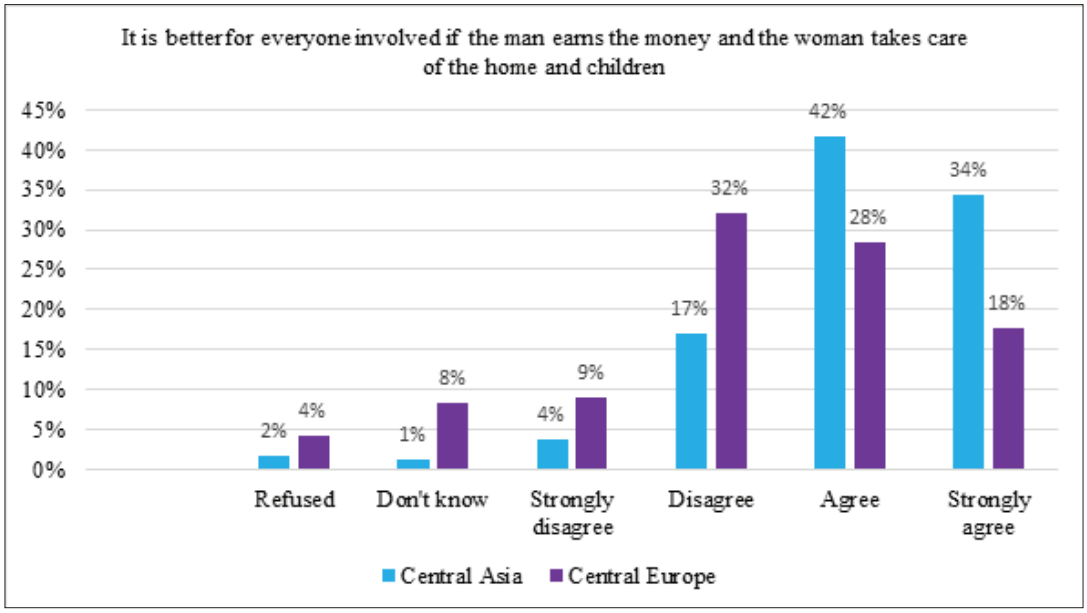

Figure 1 – Descriptive statistics of women's agreement with the statement by region

Note: Elaborated by authors based on [2].

According to Figure 1, CE female respondents have weaker gender stereotypes than CA participants. The discrepancy in agreement with the statement was 30% in favor of females in Central Asia, while the same indicator in case of disagreement with the statement was 20% in favor of respondents from Central Asia. The most crucial difference lies in the intensity of responses: strong agreement among females from CA is almost twice as high as among European participants, and agreement is higher by 14%. In contrast, strong disagreement and disagreement among respondents from CE is almost twice as high compared to their peers from Central Asia. To better understand the fluctuations in stereotypes between countries, Figure 2 was compiled.

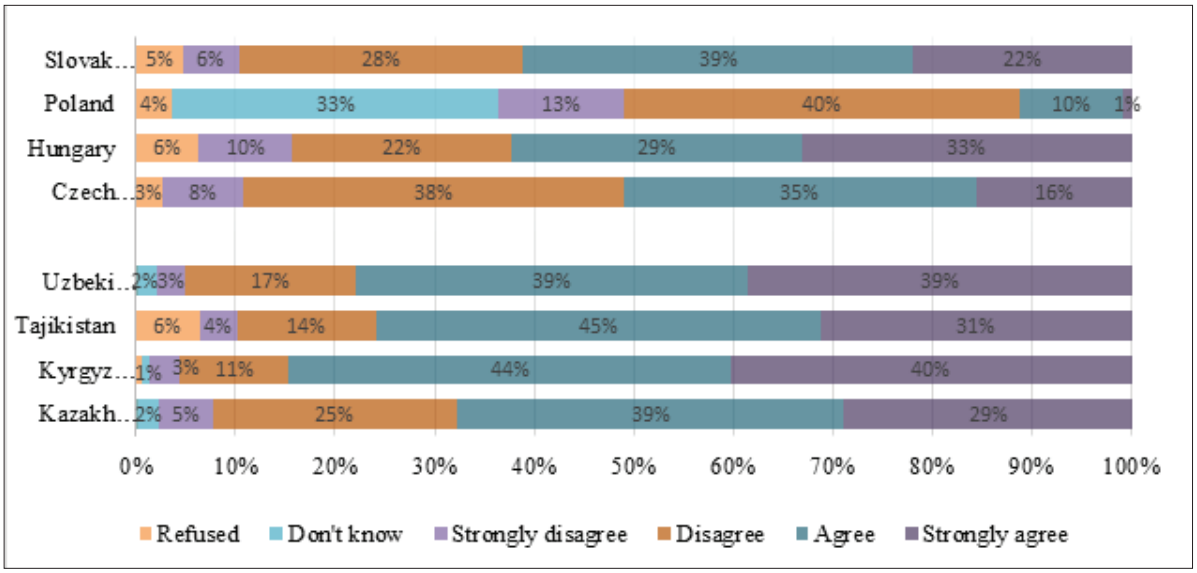

Figure 2 – Descriptive statistics of women's agreement with the statement by the country

Note: Elaborated by authors based on [2].

According to Figure 2, the consent of females from Central and Central Asia varies considerably. Respondents from Poland show the lowest level of general agreement with the statement (11%) and the highest level of disagreement (52%); conversely, Czechs (51%), Hungarians (62%), and Slovaks (61%) show a high level of agreement with the statement versus disagreeing 46%, 31%, 34% respectively.

In the CA sample, Kyrgyz females expressed the most substantial gender bias about the division of roles in the family (85% of the general agreement) of the entire CA sample. Tajikistan and Uzbekistan showed almost equal levels of general agreement (76% and 78%) versus 18% and 20% disagreement. Among the Central Asian countries, Kazakhstan shows the lowest level of agreement (68%) and the closest views with the CE pool.

A linear regression model was compiled to support the first hypothesis further (Table 6).

Table 6 – Linear regression model illustrating the significance of the region for women's stereotypes

Independent variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Student's t-test	Significance level
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.614	0.050		91.882	0.000
Region	-0.728	0.032	-0.274	-22.632	0.000
Note: Elaborated by authors.					

According to Table 6, the regression coefficient for the variable "region" is negative, which means that European women are less likely to agree with the statement, "It is better for all participants if the man earns money and the woman takes care of the house and children. "The added variable "region" showed a statistically significant result, indicating the significance of differences in opinion between CE and CA respondents. Therefore, H1 is fully confirmed.

Next, we calculated a multivariate linear regression model for testing H2, a fragment of which is presented in Table 7.

Table 7 – The fragment of regression model of decision-making power for gender stereotypes

Independent variables B		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Student's t-test	Significance level
		Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	4,614	0.050		91.882	0.000
	Region	-0.728	0.032	-0.274	-22.632	0.000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0.754	0.158	0.058	4.769	0.000
2	(Constant)	4.564	0.052		88.425	0.000
	Region	-0.710	0.033	-0.267	-21.857	0.000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0.770	0.158	0.059	4.874	0.000
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly my partner)	0.191	0.060	0.039	3.180	0.001

Table 7 continued

3	(Constant)	4.519	0.054		83.967	0.000
	Region	-0.700	0.033	-0.263	-21.417	0.000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0.791	0.158	0.060	5.004	0.000
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly my partner)	0.186	0.060	0.038	3.094	0.002
	Looking after the children (Shared equally between me and my partner)	0.106	0.036	0.036	2.953	0.003
4	(Constant)	4,534	0,054		84,115	0,000
	Region	-0,694	0,033	-0,261	-21,235	0,000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0,768	0,158	0,059	4,859	0,000
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly my partner)	0,169	0,060	0,034	2,801	0,005
	Looking after the children (Shared equally between me and my partner)	0,184	0,041	0,062	4,461	0,000
	Managing day-to-day spending and paying bills (Shared equally between me and my partner)	-0,158	0,041	-0,053	-3,832	0,000
5	(Constant)	4,532	0,054		84,085	0,000
	Region	-0,695	0,033	-0,261	-21,263	0,000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0,487	0,200	0,037	2,440	0,015
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly my partner)	0,171	0,060	0,035	2,843	0,004
	Looking after the children (Shared equally between me and my partner)	0,185	0,041	0,063	4,488	0,000
	Managing day-to-day spending and paying bills (Shared equally between me and my partner)	-0,156	0,041	-0,053	-3,798	0,000
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0,407	0,177	0,035	2,298	0,022
…						

Table 7 continued

11	(Constant)	4.373	0.066		66.332	0.000
	Region	-0.669	0.034	-0.251	-19.889	0.000
	Savings, investment and borrowing (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0.553	0.201	0.042	2.755	0.006
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly my husband)	0.284	0.071	0.058	3.969	0.000
	Looking after the children (Shared equally between me and my husband)	0.237	0.043	0.080	5.474	0.000
	Making large household purchases (e.g. cars, major appliances) (Mostly someone else not currently living in the household)	0.442	0.177	0.038	2.494	0.013
	The way the children are raised (Mostly my husband)	0.217	0.078	0.035	2.780	0.005
	Social life and leisure activities (Shared equally between me and someone else in the household)	0.194	0.057	0.046	3.413	0.001
	Social life and leisure activities (Mostly someone else in the household)	0.240	0.083	0.038	2.911	0.004
Note: Elaborated by authors.						

Following table 7, the "region" variable shows a statistically significant result, which indicates its critical significance and the strong influence of decision-making powers in CA families on gender stereotypes of female respondents. The other essential variables are saving, investment, and borrowing decisions and making large purchases for the household (e.g., cars, large appliances) by those who do not currently live in the household positively affects gender stereotypes. Other decision-making variables have little effect on women's gender stereotypes.

Spearman's non-parametric rank correlations (Rho Spearman coefficients) were calculated to examine other statements about decision-making ability not reflected in the multivariate linear regression model. Table 8 below presents the correlation matrix of independent variables.

Table 8 – Correlation matrix for women's decision-making power and their gender stereotypes

Independent variables	Mostly me		Shared equally btw me and my husband		Mostly my husband		Shared equally btw me and someone else in the household		Mostly someone else in the household		Mostly someone else not currently living in the household	
	rho	Sig.	rho	Sig.	rho	Sig.	rho	Sig.	rho	Sig.	rho	Sig.
Managing day-to-day spending and paying bills	-0.027*	0.030	-0.027*	0.033	0.054**	0.000	0.041**	0.001	0.019	0.121	0.042**	0.001

Table 8 continued

Making large household purchases	-0.051**	0.000	-0.024	0.056	0.069**	0.000	0.032**	0.010	0.032**	0.010	0.061**	0.000
The way the children are raised	-0.025*	0.043	0.058**	0.000	0.067**	0.000	0.055**	0.000	0.024	0.058	0.015	0.233
Social life and leisure activities	-0.065**	0.000	-0.009	0.450	0.050**	0.000	0.042**	0.001	0.055**	0.000	0.054**	0.000
Savings, investment and borrowing	-0.038**	0.002	-0.014	0.282	0.026*	0.042	0.027*	0.030	0.039**	0.002	0.067**	0.000
Looking after the children	-0.023	0.065	0.065**	0.000	0.053**	0.000	0.047**	0.000	0.034**	0.007	0.020	0.109

Note: Elaborated by authors.
** Statistically significant at α =0.01 (2-tailed); * statistically significant at α= 0.05 (2-tailed)

According to Table 8, women's independent decisions on almost all issues, except for childcare, have a negative relationship with the statement: "It is better for everyone involved if the man earns money and the woman takes care of the home and children." In the case of decision-making mainly by the husband or someone else from the household, there is a positive correlation with the traditional division of labor in the family.

Conclusion

Despite the similar characteristics and problems of the regions, there are two main differences between CE and CA: geographical location and religion. Firstly, CE and CA are separated by thousands of kilometers and are located in different parts of Eurasia. Secondly, the overwhelming majority of the CE population professes Christianity, while the main religion in CA is Islam.

Thus, according to the first hypothesis, it can be said that, compared to females in Central Europe, women in Central Asia demonstrate stronger gender stereotypes regarding the traditional distribution of responsibilities between a man (earning money) and a woman (taking care of the house and raising children). These gender stereotypes, in turn, are formed due to women's certain rights to make decisions in family life.

Women's right to make decisions regarding everyday spending, large purchases, issues of education, social and leisure life, and investments significantly impact gender stereotypes regarding the distribution of gender roles in the family. It is important to note that the decisions made by husbands equally are most significant in daily spending and paying bills. In turn, the sole decision-making on childcare does not severely affect women's gender stereotypes regarding the distribution of roles. In contrast, men's unilateral decisions regarding all issues significantly influence the support of the stereotype regarding the distribution of roles. Sharing decision-making power with someone else in the household (not a husband) also feeds women's gender stereotypes about who earns and who looks after the home and children.

Summing up the results it should be noted that the hypothesis is fully confirmed since there is a negative correlation between equal decisions of females with a husband and weaker gender stereotypes of females. There is a significant positive correlation between the predominant powers of the husband

to make decisions on all issues, which also supports the stated hypothesis H2. Thus, we conclude that unilateral partnership decisions are associated with stronger female gender stereotypes.

Acknowledgments. The Committee of Science of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan funds the research. The targeted funding program is BR18574168 'The role of Kazakhstan in deepening regional integration of CA countries and its sustainable development goals within modern global trends'.

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ОРТАЛЫҚ АЗИЯ ЖӘНЕ ОРТАЛЫҚ ЕУРОПАДАҒЫ ГЕНДЕРЛІК СТЕРЕОТИПТЕРДІҢ САЛЫСТЫРМАЛЫ ТАЛДАУЫ

Аңдатпа

Гендерлік теңсіздікке қарсы күреске қарамастан, бұл мәселе өтпелі экономикасы бар елдерде әлі де өзекті болып табылады және одан әрі күш салуды талап етеді. Адамдардың санасында қалыптасқан дәстүрлі гендерлік стереотиптер барлық салалардағы гендерлік теңдікке кедергі келтіреді. Сонымен бірге, гендерлік біржақтылықтың экономика мен қоғам үшін салдары жеткілікті зерттелмеген. Зерттеудің мақсаты – Орталық Еуропа мен Орталық Азия елдеріндегі ерлер мен әйелдер арасындағы міндеттердің дәстүрлі бөлінуіне қатысты гендерлік стереотиптерді салыстыру. Еуропалық қайта құру және даму банкі (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development) Дүниежүзілік банкпен (World Bank) бірлесіп жүргізген «Өтпелі кезеңдегі өмір сауалнамасы» (Life in Transition Survey) жобасы бойынша қайталама ақпараттың регрессиялық-корреляциялық талдауының нәтижелерімен расталған екі гипотеза ұсынылды. Зерттеу нәтижелері гендерлік теңсіздік бойынша зерттеулер пулына ықпал етеді және трансформациялық экономикасы бар мемлекеттерде әлеуметтік саясатты түзету бойынша ұсыныстар әзірлейді. Зерттеу әдіснамасы жалпы ғылыми әдістерді (позитивті және нормативтік тәсілдер) және қолданбалы әдістерді (сандық талдау) қамтиды. Орталық Азиядан үш мың төрт жүз бес (3405) респонденттің және Орталық Еуропадан үш мың төрт жүз алпыс төрт (3464) респонденттің жауаптары негізінде айнымалылар арасындағы корреляцияны бағалау үшін статистикалық процестер жиынтығын пайдалана отырып, регрессиялық талдау жүргізілді. Зерттеу нәтижелері Орталық Еуропадағы әйел респонденттердің Орталық Азиядан келген қатысушыларға қарағанда гендерлік стереотиптері әлсіз екенін көрсетті. Зерттеу нәтижелері Орталық Азиядағы жұмыспен қамтудың өсуін қамтамасыз ету, осал жұмыспен қамтуды азайту және лайықты жұмыс мүмкіндіктерін жақсарту мәселелеріне ықпал етеді.

Тірек сөздер: гендерлік теңсіздік, регрессиялық-корреляциялық талдау, гендерлік стереотиптер, транзиттік экономика, әлеуметтік саясат, жұмыспен қамтуды арттыру.

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СРАВНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ ГЕНДЕРНЫХ СТЕРЕОТИПОВ В ЦЕНТРАЛЬНОЙ АЗИИ И ЦЕНТРАЛЬНОЙ ЕВРОПЕ

Аннотация

Несмотря на борьбу с гендерным неравенством, эта проблема по-прежнему актуальна в странах с переходной экономикой и требует дальнейших усилий по ее решению. Укоренившиеся традиционные гендерные стереотипы в сознании людей препятствуют гендерному равенству практически во всех сферах. В то же время последствия гендерных предубеждений для экономики и социума остаются недостаточно изученными. Цель исследования – сравнить гендерные стереотипы в отношении традиционного распределения обязанностей между мужчиной и женщиной в странах Центральной Европы и Центральной Азии. Выдвинуты две гипотезы, которые нашли свое подтверждение результатами регрессионно-корреляционного анализа вторичной информации по проекту «Жизнь в переходный период» (LiTS), осуществленного Европейским банком реконструкции и развития (ЕБРР) в сотрудничестве со Всемирным банком. Результаты исследования позволят внести определенный вклад в пул исследований по гендерному неравенству и выработать рекомендации для корректировки социальной политики в государствах с трансформационной экономикой. Дизайн исследования включает общенаучные методы (позитивный и нормативный подходы) и специальные методы исследования (количественный анализ). На основе ответов трех тысяч четырехсот пяти (3405) респонденток из Центральной Азии и трех тысяч четырехсот шестидесяти четырех (3464) респонденток из Центральной Европы был проведен регрессионный анализ с помощью набора статистических процессов, чтобы оценить взаимосвязь между переменными. Результаты исследования показали, что женщины-респонденты Центральной Европы имеют более слабые гендерные стереотипы по сравнению с участницами из Центральной Азии. Результаты исследования внесут вклад в решение задачи обеспечения роста занятости, сокращения незащищенной занятости и улучшения возможностей достойной работы в странах Центральной Азии.

Ключевые слова: гендерное неравенство, регрессионно-корреляционный анализ, гендерные стереотипы, транзитная экономика, социальная политика, рост занятости.