

## GENDER INEQUALITY IN INDIA: AN OVERVIEW

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### ABSTRACT

*Gender equality theory, idea, and politics can be seen as part of a long-running historical battle for equality and democracy, but with a particular focus on equality and democracy between women and men, and genders in general. The term "democracy" is frequently used in the context of equal political representation, despite the fact that it is commonly understood in many communities and historical eras to refer solely to adult men. Men and women each are equal and play a paramount position in the introduction and development in their households in a specific and the society in trendy. Indeed, the warfare for equality has been one of the essential concerns of the ladies's motion everywhere in the international level. The difference in sex and bodily form denotes no distinction in popularity. Woman is the complement of guy, and there is no inferior complex anymore. In India, since lengthy lower back, ladies had been considered as an oppressed section of the society and that they were ignored for hundreds of years. Gender inequality in India is a vital truth.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Developing Countries, Gender Inequality, National Cultures, Organizations, Workplace.*

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1. Gender Inequality:

Gender equality encompasses not only political representation and leadership, such as through parliamentary elections, but also rights and opportunities in all aspects of society, such as economic participation, decision-making, behaviour evaluation, aspirations and needs of women, men, and other genders, and violence-free living. Gender equality is therefore strongly linked to the creation of gendered citizenship, which is defined as a set of rights and duties that includes political and economic entitlements, access, and belonging. Full inclusion of women citizens requires addressing basic structures of gender inequality throughout societies, such as questions of care, dependency, and interdependency in and across public and private spheres, and their interrelationships, in light of historical exclusions and marginalization's of women [1].

In education, health, personal autonomy, and other areas, gender disparities favoring men are consistently greater in impoverished nations than in wealthy ones. The underlying reasons of gender disparity in impoverished nations are examined in this article. Is underdevelopment to

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blame for the greater degree of gender inequality .Gender disparity is not only a problem in poor nations? In almost every society, males earn more than women. In nations with low GDP per capita, however, inequalities in health, education, and negotiating power within marriage are more pronounced [2].

## 2. *Gender inequality in impoverished nations:*

Education and health shows the ratio of the male and female college enrollment rates plotted against GDP per capita for the several countries included in the World Bank's World Development Indicators (WDI) data set. The relationship is downward-sloping: The male bias in college-going falls (and in fact evaporates) as GDP increases. Although the correlation cannot be interpreted as a causal relationship, it is strong: In a univariate regression of the college gender ratio on log GDP per capita, the R<sup>2</sup> is 0.44, equivalent to a correlation of 0.66. A negative relationship between the schooling gender gap and GDP is also seen for primary and secondary school enrollment The male to female ratio of college enrollment in the United States has declined steadily since 1950, falling below parity by 1980 and continuing to decline since the data points for China and India are labeled. These two countries are given special attention both because they are large together they are home to over one third of the world population and because they are infamous for their strong son preference. Interestingly, in terms of school enrollment, neither China nor India is an outlier. Turning to health, in general women have a longer life expectancy than men, but this female advantage is somewhat smaller in poor countries. The pattern is not explained by the disease composition varying with the level of development; even for a given cause of death, women have higher age-adjusted mortality relative to men in poor countries than in rich ones .Most sub-Saharan African countries are above the best-fit line, the HIV/AIDS epidemic has hit Africa hard and decreased female life expectancy disproportionately[3]–[6].

Gender (or sex) inequality is a common human rights violation that takes many forms, including sexual humiliation, uneven compensation for women who do the same occupations as men, and even discrimination at the level of pregnancy. Despite the fact that the Indian constitution provides equal rights and advantages for men and women, as well as similar provisions to improve the status of girls in society, the majority of women are still unable to enjoy the rights and opportunities guaranteed to them. Despite the fact that the Indian constitution provides equal rights and benefits to men and women, and makes parallel commitments to improve the social status of women, the rights and opportunities guaranteed to women by the constitution are still some distance away from being realized [7], [8].

## 3. *Factors responsible for gender inequality:*

Although females have identical legal rights to personal property and inherit the same rights as boys, in practice, women are at a disadvantage. The Hindu Succession Act of 2005 gives ancestral and owned property the same succession rights; nevertheless, the legislation is not well implemented [9].

## 4. *Gender Inequality and Economic Performance:*

Gender inequality in schooling decreases the average quantity of human capital in a society, therefore harming economic performance. It accomplishes this by artificially limiting the pool of talent from which to draw for educational purposes, therefore eliminating highly qualified

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individuals. Furthermore, if marginal returns to education are falling, limiting girls' education to lower levels while raising boys' education to greater levels means that the marginal return to educating females is larger than that of boys, boosting overall economic performance [10].

Gender is a social construct and consists of a set of behaviors and expectations. The two most common genders are male and female and there are also non-binary genders, such as that of the hijra, an iconic gender figure (usually male-bodied self-identified female) in South Asian culture. Hijra have been recently legally recognized as third gender in several South Asian countries, including India. Gender used to be 3 associated with biological sex but these are now regarded as distinct concepts. Behaviors expected from males and females vary between cultures and have changed over time. A hundred years ago, females were not expected to become highly educated. Gender-based disparities of power and influence over the corporation are not uncommon inequities that occur inside the administrative center. In comparison to males, women have a harder time moving up into higher-paying professions. Gender-based completely imbalances of individuals in electricity and control over the organizational management are two typical workplace inequalities. In comparison to males, women are less capable of quickly moving up into better-paying professions. In Sweden, Erik et al. investigated whether women are discriminated against due to sticky floor or glass ceiling effects. They discovered via their research that sticky floor effects affect women in Sweden more than glass ceilings. Their research also revealed that women with small children experience the greatest professional disadvantage. Younger and older women face a greater gender penalty, whereas middle-aged women face a lower penalty. In their analysis, there was no evidence that women had less job prospects in the private sector than in the public sector, compared to males. Susan and her colleagues focused on the logical prejudice hypothesis of workplace gender discrimination.

We examine change in multiple indicators of gender inequality for the period of 1970 to 2018. The percentage of women (age 25 to 54) who are employed rose continuously until ~2000 when it reached its highest point to date of 75%; it was slightly lower at 73% in 2018. Women have surpassed men in receipt of baccalaureate and doctoral degrees. The degree of segregation of fields of study declined dramatically in the 1970s and 1980s, but little since then. The desegregation of occupations continues but has slowed its pace. Examining the hourly pay of those aged 25 to 54 who are employed full-time, we found that the ratio of women's to men's pay increased from 0.61 to 0.83 between 1970 and 2018, rising especially fast in the 1980s, but much slower since 1990. In sum, there has been dramatic progress in movement toward gender equality, but, in recent decades, change has slowed and on some indicators stalled entirely.

Men have a higher level of employment than women at each year, and their employment has gone up and down more than women's with business cycles, including the Great Recession. Unlike for women, the long-term trend for men has been slowly downward, from 91% in 1970 to 84% in 2018. The percent employed fell more dramatically for men than for women in the Great Recession, from 84 to 79% between 2008 and 2009, with a larger rebound as well, back to 84% after 2010. To assess the trend in the gender gap in employment, Fig. 2 shows the ratio of women's percent employed to men's percent employed. The ratio rises continuously from 0.53 in 1970 to 0.85 in 1995. The progress toward equality was steepest from 1970 to 1995 as women's employment went up dramatically and men's employment went down some. Thereafter, the ratio was quite flat except for a rise and then decline of several points, reflecting,

as discussed, that the recession and recovery both affected men more than women. The ratio was 0.86 in 2018.

Using cross-country and panel regressions, we investigate to what extent gender gaps in education and employment reduce economic growth. Using most recent data and investigating a long time period (1960-2000), we update the results of previous studies on education gaps on growth and extend the analysis to employment gaps using panel data. the combined ‘costs’ of education and employment gaps in Middle East and North Africa and South Asia amount respectively to 0.9-1.7 and 0.1-1.6 percentage point differences in growth compared to East Asia. Gender gaps in employment appear to have an increasing effect on economic growth differences between regions, with the Middle East and North Africa and South Asia suffering from slower growth in female employment.

## 2. DISCUSSION

According to this theory, decision makers may choose to discriminate if they believe their superiors or others with power over their careers expect or favor it. Their research found that entrepreneurs discriminate against women, with those at the top of the organization being more biased than those at the bottom. Their research also discovered that management encourages prejudice, albeit the level of discrimination was lower than in prior studies, indicating that equal opportunity is becoming more common. Their studies also indicated that external forces had a greater impact on bias than internal constraints. The influence of the Brick Wall and the Glass Ceiling on Bangladeshi governmental administration was examined by Habib. His research indicated that women in the Bangladeshi government face discrimination in terms of promotion and admittance to higher posts (Glass Ceiling). Social and cultural concerns are the most significant stumbling blocks and hurdles to women entering the public sector. Their professional advancement was hindered by structural and attitudinal reasons. Government laws and regulations have been ineffective in this regard. Women from higher social classes, on the other hand, were not discriminated against. The uneven treatment of women has an impact on their morale, motivation, and performance.

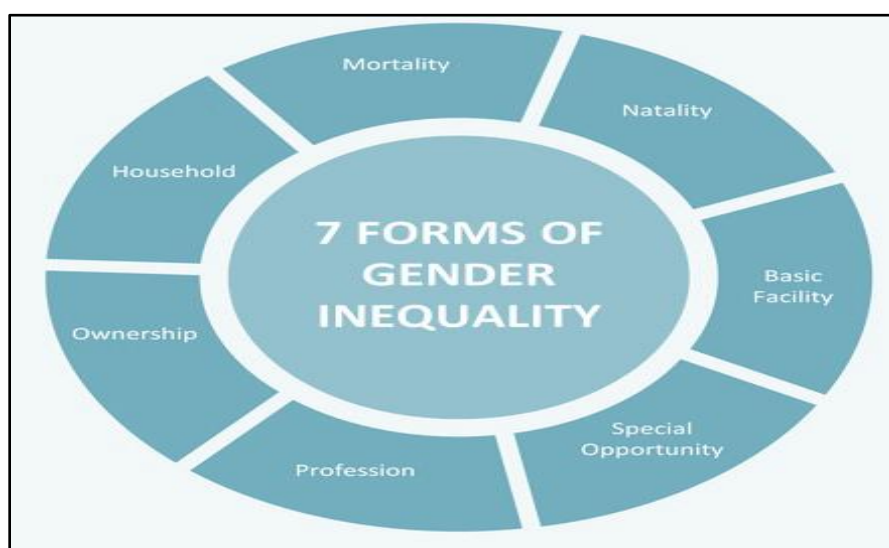


Figure 1: Illustrates the 7 forms of the gender inequality.

According to Uzma (identity is formed through society, environment, and parents. It's a two-way street: how others see you and how you see yourself. Parents attitudes toward their children shape their identities. Parents frequently regard their daughters as weak, timid, and overly susceptible, needing to be safeguarded by society's male members. As a result, females are unable to suggest or oppose. This is the initial stage of oppression and enslavement. Even educated women, she claims, have a dual identity - professional and personal. Another conclusion of her research was that women's earnings are not seen as the primary financial source for their families, but rather as a complement to the earnings of their male partners. She also discovered that such findings were not applicable for higher and advanced households, where women are allowed total autonomy[11]. Figure 1 illustrates the 7 forms of the gender inequality.

There are many reasons to be concerned about existing gender inequalities in important well-being related dimensions such as education, health, employment, or pay. From a well-being as well as an equity perspective, such gender inequalities are problematic as they lower well-being and are a form of injustice in most conceptions of equity of justice.<sup>2</sup> While such a view would argue for reducing gender inequalities in these dimensions of well-being on intrinsic grounds, recently a literature has developed that has investigated the instrumental effects of gender inequality on other important development outcomes with a particular focus on economic growth. Without denying the importance of reducing gender inequality on intrinsic grounds, this paper is a contribution to that latter literature. A significant focus of that literature has been to examine the impact of gender inequality in education on economic growth. A number of theoretical contributions have suggested a negative link between gender inequality and economic growth (e.g. Oded Galor and David Weil 1996; Nils-Petter Lagerlöf 2003). This literature shows that, largely due to the impact of female education on fertility and the creation of human capital of the next generation, a lower gender gap will spur economic development. The next section will briefly summarize the main findings from that literature. In parallel, an empirical literature has also examined these effects.

While some earlier studies had suggested that gender inequality in education might actually increase economic growth (Robert Barro and Jong-Wha Lee 1994; Barro and Xavier Sala-i-Martin 1995), more recent work has shown that the opposite appears to be the case (Anne Hill and Elizabeth King 1995; David Dollar and Roberta Gatti 1999; Kristin Forbes 2000; Stephen Knowles, Paula Lorgelly and Dorian Owen 2002; Stephan Klasen 2002; Steven Yamarik and Sucharita Ghosh 2003; Dina Abu-Ghaida and Klasen 2004). These studies not only differed from previous analyses in their findings of the impact of gender inequality on economic growth, but also were able to explain why earlier studies had found the opposite effect and why more careful econometric techniques yielded the new finding that gender inequality in education reduces economic growth.<sup>3</sup> These macro studies are also consistent with findings using micro data showing that girls have a higher marginal return to education, and even more so, if the impact of female education on fertility and education of the next generation is included (Hill and King 1995; World Bank 2001; King, Klasen, and Maria Porter 2008).

While these results are instructive, they are based on information on education and economic performance until 1990. Recently, new data on education achievement and economic performance have become available that now stretch to 2000 so that one purpose of the paper is to update the findings of the impact of gender inequality on economic growth. We will do this by

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using an updated and extended data set and the same econometric specification that was used in Klasen (2002). For some regions (including the MENA region), an update is particularly germane as the gender gaps in education have been closing more rapidly recently so that one would expect smaller but still remarkable costs for the existing gender gap in education.

A subject that has not been investigated in great detail is the impact of gender inequality in employment and pay on economic growth. The relatively small theoretical literature on the subject yields conflicting results (e.g. Robert Blecker and Stephanie Seguino 2002; Berta Esteve-Volart 2004; Tiago de Cavalcanti and Jose Tavares 2007). While there is some empirical literature suggesting that high earnings gaps, combined with high female labour force participation rates, helped spur export-oriented economic growth in some Asian countries (e.g. Stephanie Seguino 2000a, b; Matthias Busse and Christian Spielmann 2006), there has not been a thorough empirical investigation of the role of gender gaps in employment on economic growth and the few studies existing have to be treated with caution due to problems of endogeneity, unobserved heterogeneity and poor data availability and quality

### 3. CONCLUSION

In order to eliminate gender disparity, India must take tangible actions. As long as gender disparities remain, it is necessary to reassess the concepts and tactics used to promote women's dignity and rights. There is a need for new forms of institutions that incorporate new norms and rules that support equal and simple family members for both men and women. A man and a woman are like two wagon wheels. Without the other, one's lifestyle is unbalanced. The most foolproof way to reduce gender inequity is to alter people's minds. This problem will not be remedied by a few individuals; rather, everyone should work together to eliminate inequality.

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