
ECONOMICS

Sociology

Ilona Kiaušienė

*Department of Business Economics
and Management
Kaunas Faculty of Humanities
Vilnius University
E-mail: ilona.kiausiene@vuk.bf.lt*

Dalia Štreimikienė

*Department of Business Economics
and Management
Kaunas Faculty of Humanities
Vilnius University
E-mail: dalia@mail.lei.lt*

Dainora Grundey

*Department of Management
Faculty of Politics and Management
Mykolas Romeris University
E-mail: dainora.grundey@mruni.eu*

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ON GENDER STEREOTYPING AND EMPLOYMENT ASSIMETRIES

ABSTRACT. Every day women face obstacles which do not allow them to reveal their possibilities in payable workplaces. There exists a preconception and women's discrimination that defines and activities different and most frequently narrower possibilities for their existence related to their participation in labour market. Women are most often valued not according to their personal abilities, but following the settled stereotypes that they possess poorer abilities and they are not able to perform work that requires responsibility or that women are less creative, etc. In the scientific literature, stereotypes of gender roles are defined as a cultural and social approach towards the very thing that is traditionally considered being 'masculine' and 'feminine' roles and functions. It is stated in the article that the stereotypes, formed in the society might influence women's and men's work choice as well as create the labour market that is divided under genders, and 'what is more the stability' of woman's social status iniquity necessarily fosters addressing to the culture as one of the most significant reasons, those restrict the confirmation of woman's and man's equality in the society. The purpose of the article is to review the gender stereotypes and their impact on women and men in the labour market. Women experience pressure due to the necessity of their social and economic status; women's career development is more complicated and problematic than men's. The analysis of statistic data, performed in the article revealed that the formed level of women's employment is lower than men's. There is noticed powerful segregation of labour market and undervaluation of women's work. Men and women are spread in different professional groups, and there are delegated less responsible and lower qualification works for women. Thus in order to perform the implementation of gender equality in labour market, it is needed to change traditional gender roles, despite the fact that their change or elimination is always related to the change of collective beliefs and that is a result of collective actions determining qualitative changes of the entire social life.

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J21, J24

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Introduction

During different life stages, there differ women's and men's possibilities to participate in labour market and they depend on many factors. Women and men face versatile problems when they overcome first difficulties towards their professional activities, obtain some experience, entrench successfully (or not) in labour market and climb (or not) heady career ladder. Although one of the most significant targets of the modern society, securing its advanced social, cultural and economic evolution, is to guarantee the equality of all society members, women's and men's possibilities concerning the participation in labour market differ.

Historical experience reveals that neither economical welfare nor advanced political decisions, do not secure equal possibilities for women and men unconsciously. The greatest obstacle turns to be human beings' stereotype attitudes concerning man's and woman's role in the society (Jankauskaitė and Mackevičiūtė, 2005). In the scientific literature it is highlighted that in the society there is still predominant approach that a woman's performance is associated with private life – home and family, and public field is assigned to a man, firstly realizing it as a professional performance (Jankauskaitė, 1999).

In every society, the women's and men's behaviour is perceived and stereotyped differently, and that is determined under the certain cultural level. The concept of culture is defined differently, however, in the scientific literature it is sought to find out how much and in what ways culture impacts individuals' or their group activities. In terms of economic development, it is important that culture, including values, norms of behaviour and material products, impacts lifestyle and behaviour (Čiburienė and Guščinskienė, 2007). It is considered that there exists a tendency to teach and learn the corresponding behaviour related to a gender role. Nevertheless, curriculum depends on the certain society. In the society there women are less dependent economically; there is less stereotypical differentiation of gender roles.

The purpose of the article is to review the gender stereotypes and their impact on women and men in the labour market.

Research tasks are formulated as follows:

- to define the concept of gender stereotypes;
- to analyse women's and men's employment rate gap;
- to identify the relationship between cultural factors and gender equality in the labour market.

The research methods are the survey and analysis of the scientific literature, scientific literature systemization, and mathematical statistics methods.

1. Literature Overview: The Perception of Gender Stereotypes

Human beings reside in the world of cultural stereotypes, superstitions and naturalized attitudes; those cannot be eliminated under any legal acts currently. According to Tereškinas's (2004) point of view, there are especially many attitudes like those, related to women and men, their roles in family and society. Since the very childhood, human beings are brought up and educated in the surroundings of versatile stereotypes, e.g. 'a woman's job is in the family', 'a man has to support family and a woman has to look after children and educate them', 'men do not cry as they are powerful', 'a man is a defender, a courageous and fearless fighter, and a woman is dependent on a man, passive and full of fear'.

Gender stereotypes are cultural and social attitudes towards what is traditionally considered 'male' or 'female' roles and functions (European Commission, 2009). According to Valackienė and Krašenkienė (2007), gender role stereotypes are 'internal attitudes related to women's and men's favourable places in the society in terms of their functions and social

assignments. Such stereotypes are obstacles those are overcome in a most difficult way through the creation of basically new relationship in society and qualitatively new society; precisely stiff stereotypes are an origin of women's discrimination'. There is predominant a belief among ordinary members of the society that gender role differences, naturalized in the society, are necessary and constant as they are determined biologically. It is considered that natural gender differences are much deeper than evident physiological ones and they involve the entire spectrum of psychical characteristics those are different for men and women (Šimanskienė, 2006).

A gender stereotype consists of beliefs about the psychological traits and characteristics of, as well as the activities appropriate to, men or women. Gender roles are defined by behaviours, but gender stereotypes are beliefs and attitudes about masculinity and femininity. The concepts of gender role and gender stereotype tend to be related. Gender stereotypes are very influential; they affect conceptualizations of women and men and establish social categories for gender. These categories represent what people think, and even when beliefs vary from reality, the beliefs can be very powerful forces (Brannon, 2000).

Stereotypes are ubiquitous and continue to influence behaviour, but it is not easy to pinpoint how far they stand for genuine preferences, how far they express social norms or how far they are used to surrogate information (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2009). Gender stereotypes may influence women's and men's choices of studies and jobs, and may lead to a gender-segregated labour market. These stereotypes influence the unequal sharing between women and men of working time, income and family responsibilities; they also constitute barriers to women's career advancement and appointment to decision-making positions (European Commission, 2009).

According to Guščinskienė and Čiburienė (2009), in the labour market there exists a vivid principal of asymmetry for evaluation of men's and women's possibilities, and traditionally there is settled a stereotype of a man – businessman. Reingardienė (2004) claims that since an old time there is extant stereotypical thinking concerning woman's career. According to her assertion, a career concept has been reserved for men for a long time. If a woman performed a payable job, it was thought that it was her extra activities, i.e. work but not career as a consistent orientation towards achievements in the hierarchy of professional career. Working in a public sector, women have historically held and are still holding positions of a lower level and status; those are not highly valued and acknowledged. Besides, some women decline professional performance and choose a housewife's role (Melnikienė, 2005). Therefore a traditional approach towards a woman's role in the family determines not only poorer woman's possibilities in labour market, but it also creates presumptions for poorer women's economical activeness. 'Stereotypical approach towards a woman's role in the family that prevents women from the integration into labour market', has remained heretofore (Daukantienė, 2006). Men and women are spread in different professional groups (horizontal segregation), men and women are spread differently even in the same activity groups: for women there are delegated less responsible and lower qualification work (vertical segregation) (Kanopienė, 2005). Thus persisting gender stereotypes restrict women's and men's study and career choices, leading to a gender-segregated labour market.

Gender segregation is referring to the tendency of women and men to work in different sectors and occupations. The situation on the labour market is such as one of the genders is dominating a given professional category. Two types of segregation can be distinguished (Meulders *et al.*, 2010):

- horizontal segregation.
- vertical segregation.

Horizontal segregation is understood as under (over) representation of a certain group in occupations or sectors not ordered by any criterion (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2009;

Meulders *et al.*, 2010). Horizontal segregation refers to the concentration of women and men in professions or sectors of economic activity. According to Anker (1998) horizontal segregation is a nearly immutable and universal characteristic of contemporary socio-economic systems.

Vertical segregation referred to the under (over) representation of a clearly identifiable group of workers in occupations or sectors at the top of an ordering based on ‘desirable’ attributes – income, prestige, job stability etc., independently of the sector of activity. Under-representation at the top of occupation-specific ladders was subsumed under the heading of ‘vertical segregation’, whereas it is now more commonly termed ‘hierarchical segregation’ (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2009).

Vertical professional segregation is related to the certain barriers those prevent the certain group of individuals to promote in career in case when due to the indirect discrimination there forms ‘glass ceiling’. According to Grybaitė’s (2006) approach, i.e. there are formed obstacles for the certain gender (most frequently women) to strive for higher positions and they cannot overcome a career stage in the certain profession. ‘Glass ceiling’ effect highly impacts the progress and development of women’s professional career.

In the literature there might be found versatile metaphors which describe the possibility boundaries in women’s professional career (*Table 1*).

Table 1. Metaphors, explaining gender assimetries

<i>Source</i>	<i>Metaphor</i>	<i>Explanation</i>
Šidlauskienė (2007)	Glass ceiling, glass barriers – glass fences	Structural, false and invisible barriers those prevent skilled women from climbing the career ladder, holding managerial positions in the organization, i.e. invisible ceiling that women cannot overcome due to biased attitudes, wrong women’s abilities, evaluation of aspirations and social superstitions.
Meulders, Plasman, Rigo, O’Dorchai (2010)	Glass ceiling	This concept indicates towards the existence of visible or invisible obstacles that lead to a certain rarity of women in power and decision positions in public organization, enterprises but also in associations and trade unions.
	Sticky floor	This concept describes the forces that tend to maintain women at the lowest levels in the organizational pyramid.
Wallace (2003)	Glass ceiling, glass elevator	A ceiling based on attitudinal or organizational bias in the work force that prevents minorities and women from advancing to leadership positions.
Wirth (2004)	Glass ceiling	This is a situation when a competitive person’s advance inside the organizational hierarchy is suspended in a lower level due to a few forms of discrimination. I.e. an unofficial and invisible barrier that does not allow women and minorities to climb career ladder.
Vandzinskaitė (2008)	Glass ceiling, glass wall, sticky floor	It is a social and economic phenomenon, related to the gender discrimination under which there are expressed characteristics of modern and invisible discrimination, those can neither be easily eliminated by declared values nor by linguistic innovation and legal determinations.
Rimaševskaja (2006)	Glass ceiling	A woman can see her professional career possibilities of vertical mobility, but she cannot realize them, and if she is willing to achieve her goal, she has to ‘knock’ on this ‘glass ceiling’ (that is very difficult to be done).
	Glass wall	This describes differences of women’s and men’s workplaces. Women occupy less significant and non-prestigious workplaces and they more frequently work in flexible and non-fundamental labour markets.

Source: compiled by the authors.

Summarizing the metaphors enumerated in *Table 1*, it can be stated that the essential characteristic is related to the fact that all enlisted formulations reflect gender inequality and mean artificial barriers for a woman seeking for a professional career – subjective prejudice and different obstacles. Following this it can be considered that women and men possess different accessibility to economic resources and different employment and self-realization possibilities.

The stability of woman's social status iniquity necessarily fosters addressing to the culture as one of the most significant reasons, restricting the entrenching of woman's and men's equality in the society even at the beginning of the 21st century. Culture is perceived as spiritual and material values, customs and traditions those usually reflect in social praxis of humanitarian social discourse. Culture might be perceived as a symbolic structure, and it consists of meanings those a human being applies during communication with other people (Žvinklienė, 2009).

Čiburienė and Guščinskienė (2007) state that culture unites characteristically mastered norms, beliefs and values, developed in every country. Hofstede (1991) defined culture as programming of collective mind that distinguishes one group members from another. Collective programming of mind is described as a process that starts from the family, its attitudes, education, etc. Cultural fundament consists of values those describe what people are striving for and what they consider as being probable. According to Mockaitis and Šalčiuvienė (2003), culture is a whole of unnatural, but obtained values that is general for a group of people and impacts the lifestyle and behaviour of the following group and under which one group differs from others.

Regional, ethnic, and religious cultures account for differences within countries. Regional, ethnic, and religious cultures can be described in the same terms as national cultures. Gender differences are not usually described in terms of cultures. If we recognize that within each society there is a men's culture which differs from a women's culture, this helps to explain why it is so difficult to change traditional gender roles (Hofstede, 1991).

Consequently it can be stated that social gender roles reflect social expectations: how women and men have to behave and think, what employment division has to be among genders considering social, economic and cultural traditions. The acknowledgement and takeover of social gender differences and peculiarities form stereotypes in the society. Entrenched stereotypes of woman's role in the employment field, independently on the woman's qualification and readiness for labour market often determine a poorer women's condition in labour market. Negative stereotypes – naming a woman as a 'weaker' gender prevent from a successful women's professional performance – induce a phenomenon of 'glass ceiling' and entrench a lower woman's social status.

2. Gender Employment Gap: Situational Analysis in EU-27

Under traditionally developing employment relationship, formed gender stereotypes are one of the obstacles that are overcome in a most difficult way for the ensuring of gender equality in the employment field. One of fundamental strategic aims in order to achieve welfare, competitiveness and growth of knowledge economics is the employment increase of all social groups in the European Union. The European Commission highlights that the application of equal conditions for men and women is an economic necessity, thus, 'the strengthening of women's role in labor market is one of the basic EU aims – economic growth and gender equality – presumptions of implementation' (Gečienė, 2008).

However, employment differs in versatile labour market segments. The data of Eurostat (2010) prove that in the year 2006 the highest women's employment was in Denmark and it totalled to 73.4%, and in the same year the lowest employment level was

recorded in Malta – in the year 2006, women’s employment level was lower by 38.5% than in Denmark and by 22.3% lower than average of the EU. During the years 2007–2010, situation did not change, and Denmark remained a country with the highest women’s employment level (although in 2010 in comparison with 2008, women’s employment level decreased by 3.1%), and Malta – a country where the women’s employment level is the lowest (although in 2010 in comparison with 2008, women’s employment level increased by 1.9%).

The women’s employment level changed unequally in different countries and years. For example, in the year 2009, the highest women’s employment was registered in Denmark (75.7%), Netherlands (71.5%), Sweden (70.2%) and Finland (67.9%). Meanwhile there was recorded the lowest women’s employment in Malta (37.7%), Italy (46.4%), Greece (48.9%) and Hungary (49.9%). Despite employment changes, the women’s employment level remained relatively low, and in all EU countries-members (apart from Lithuania, 2009) it was lower than men’s employment level (*Figure 1*).

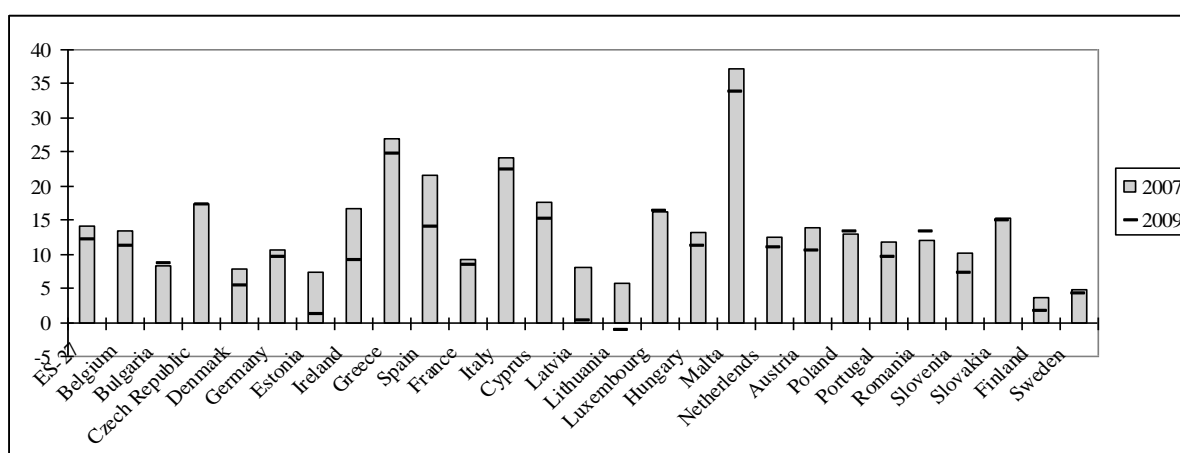


Figure 1. Gender employment gap, 2007 and 2009

Source: created by the authors, based on EUROSTAT (2010), Population and social conditions, Labor market.

As it can be seen from the data provided in *Figure 1*, the gender gap almost in all EU countries lowered slightly (of them mostly in Ireland (from 16.8% in 2007 to 8.9% in 2009), in Spain (accordingly from 21.5% to 13.8%). Gender gap increased slightly in Poland (0.3%) and Bulgaria (0.2%). Examining the 2007 situation, three country groups can be detected: differences between the feminine and masculine employment rates appear to be lowest (less than 10% difference) in the Scandinavian and Baltic countries, Bulgaria and France, and highest (over 20%) in the Mediterranean Member States Greece, Spain, Italy and especially Malta. The remaining countries show differences between 10% and 20%, Malta stands out with the highest gender gap (37.2%), as it has by far the lowest feminine employment rate (36.9% in 2007, compared to an average 58.3% of the EU-27 level) (Ramb, 2008). In 2009, the men’s employment rate in all EU members was higher than women’s apart from Lithuania, where women’s employment was by 1.2% higher than men’s; and in Latvia, where men’s and women’s employment rates were almost equal. In 2009, except for these EU members, the least employment gap between men and women was recorded in Estonia (1.1%) and Finland (1.6%), meanwhile in Malta (33.8%), Greece (24.6%) and Italy (22.2%) there was recorded the highest employment gap between men and women.

Analysing differences of women’s and men’s status in the labour market, it is necessary to pay attention to the fact that for the labour market there is characteristic division into ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ work. The gender stereotypes secure the belief continuation

concerning the certain gender role and foster the professional separation of genders as well as professional segregation. It was determined that stereotypical evaluation of masculinity and femininity impacts gender segregation in different professions (Urbonienė, 2009).

According to Daukantienė (2006), women are predominant in the fields of *service and social service* in Lithuania (*education, health service, etc*); meanwhile men are predominant in *construction, transport and some other industrial fields*. According to the data of the Lithuanian Department of Statistics (Statistics Lithuania) under the Government of the Republic of Lithuania, in 2009, the main men's economic activity field remained constructional sector where men made 87.5% of all employees, transport and security activity – 73.2%, activities of electricity, gas, steam supply and air conditioning – 70.3% of employees. The main women's economic activity field remained human health care and social work, in the year 2009, women made 87% of employees, then the accommodation and catering service activities – 84%, and education – 80.9% of employees (Lithuanian Statistic Annual, 2010).

The analysis of the situation in other EU countries reveals that in 2007, the highest professional segregation was in Estonia (32.2%), Slovakia (30.3%), Latvia (30.2%), Finland (29.5%) and Bulgaria (29.4%), and in the same year the least professional segregation was in Greece (22.4%), Romania (23.2%), Malta (23.6%), Italy (23.6%) and the Netherlands (25%), and the employment gap between the countries those have the highest and lowest segregation 9.8% (Table 2).

From Table 2 data, it can be seen that in 2007 the highest segregation in economic sectors was in the Baltic States (Estonia – 26.1%, Latvia – 23.5%, Lithuania – 23.4%) and Ireland (23.3%) and Slovakia (23.2%). There was a bit better situation Malta (14.9%), Greece (15.9%), Romania (16.1%), Slovenia (17.2%) and Italy (17.8%). In the year 2009, after the worsening of the situation in labour market, the segregation increased in many EU countries. In 2009 comparing with 2007, the professional segregation increased in Slovenia by 4.1%. Increase in Italy, Portugal, Poland, Sweden and Cyprus was not so significant. In 2009 (compared to 2007), the professional segregation in Italy increased by 0.8%, in Portugal – 0.6%, Poland – 0.4%, Sweden and Cyprus – 0.1%. The situation did not change in Bulgaria and Lithuania; and in the rest countries professional segregation decreased (the highest decrease in Slovakia (–4.3%), Luxembourg and the Czech Republic (–3.5%). In 2009 (compared to 2007), it is not very complicated to notice that analysing the segregation in economic sectors, it increased almost in all EU countries apart from Luxembourg (decreased 2.5%), Ireland (1.2%), Estonia and Lithuania (it decreased in both countries equally – 0.7%), Cyprus (0.4%) and Spain (0.1%).

Table 2. Gender segregation by occupations and by economic sectors in the EU Member States, 2007 and 2009

EU-27	Gender segregation in 2007		Gender segregation in 2009	
	by occupations	by economic sectors	by occupations	by economic sectors
Belgium	25.7	18.6	25.5	19.6↑
Bulgaria	29.4	20.8	29.4	21.6↑
Czech Republic	28.5	19.7	25.0	20.7↑
Denmark	25.7	18.9	25.5	19.7↑
Germany	26.5	18.4	26.2	19.5↑
Estonia	32.2	26.1	31.8	25.4
Ireland	27.9	23.3	27.0	22.1
Greece	22.4	15.9	22.0	16.0↑
Spain	27.4	20.7	26.1	20.6

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France	26.7	18.3	26.0	19.0↑
Italy	23.6	17.8	24.4↑	19.6↑
Cyprus	28.9	20.1	29.0↑	19.7
Latvia	30.2	23.5	28.5	23.6↑
Lithuania	29.2	23.4	29.2	22.7
Luxembourg	27.2	19.0	23.7	16.5
Hungary	28.8	20.1	28.4	20.8↑
Malta	23.6	14.9	23.4	16.4↑
Netherlands	25.0	17.9	24.9	18.7↑
Austria	26.2	18.3	26.1	19.5↑
Poland	25.8	19.2	26.2↑	20.6↑
Portugal	26.5	20.6	27.1↑	21.6↑
Romania	23.2	16.1	23.0	17.3↑
Slovenia	26.3	17.2	30.4↑	18.5↑
Slovakia	30.3	23.2	26.0	24.6↑
Finland	29.5	22.9	29.3	24.1↑
Sweden	26.9	21.3	27.0↑	21.9↑
United Kingdom	25.3	18.6	24.7	19.5↑

Source: created by the authors. based on European Commission (2009b), Report on equality between women and men – 2009; European Commission (2011), Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2010.

Hence, although women's employment increased, difference among genders remains evident: in 2009 women's employment level was by 12.9% lower than men's. Women and men involve different professional groups and even in the same activity groups women and men are spread unequally. Stereotypes are often reasons related to 'masculine' and 'feminine' roles in the society. As a result social and economic women's status is lower due to the fact that according to Kanopienė (2005). 'There are collected the most significant material and managerial tools those are in men's disposition and those entrench men's instrumental role (striving for the target and win)' (Kanopienė, 2005).

3. Impact of Cultural Factors on Gender Equality in the Labour Market

According to Urbonienė (2009), in many societies both masculine and feminine categories are associated with the certain dichotomic characteristics, which form expectations for men and women's reciprocal communication and particular behaviour. Masculinity is historically associated not only with rationalism and physical power, but also with critical thinking, self-confidence; and men are usually likely to dominate be more persistent, energetic and active. Femininity concept embodies peculiarities opposite for masculinity, i.e. nursing tendency, dependence on others, cooperation, precaution; such characteristics as obedience. Weakness, emotionality are attributed to women (Blau *et al.*, 2010; Urbonienė, 2009; Šimanskienė, 2006).

Cultural dimensions excluded by Hofstede enable the description and comparison of separate cultures: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism/Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity/Femininity (MAS), and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). Power distance reflects the degree to which a culture believes how institutional and organizational power should be distributed (equally or unequally) and how the decision of the power holders should be viewed (challenged or accepted). Cultures with a high power distance tend to be more collectivistic whereas cultures with low power distance are normally more individualistic

(Baltrimienė, 2005). According to Hofstede (2009), masculinity versus its opposite femininity refers to the distribution of roles between the genders which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found. Uncertainty Avoidance Index deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it ultimately refers to man's search for Truth. It indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations. In *Table 3*, cultural indexes of the EU countries are delivered.

As it can be seen in *Table 3*, the greatest position of authority (power) is in Slovakia (104). In the following country there are predominant high differences of wages and statuses, thus gender inequality is expected. The least meaning is in the state of Austria (11) where there is predominant less hierarchy, lower wage differences and great attention is paid to the entrenchment of equality. Individualism is very predominant in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Hungary.

Table 3. Cultural Indicators of Selected Countries

	Power Distance Index (PDI)	Individualism/ Collectivism (IDV)	Masculinity/ Femininity (MAS)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)
Belgium	65	75	54	94
Bulgaria	70	30	40	85
Czech Republic	57	58	57	74
Denmark	18	74	16	23
Germany	35	67	66	65
Estonia	40	60	30	60
Ireland	28	70	68	35
Greece	60	35	57	112
Spain	57	51	86	42
France	68	71	43	86
Italy	50	76	70	75
Latvia	44	70	9	63
Lithuania	45	50	65	67
Luxembourg	40	60	50	70
Hungary	46	80	88	82
Malta	56	59	47	96
Netherlands	38	80	14	53
Austria	11	55	79	70
Poland	68	60	64	93
Portugal	63	27	31	104
Romania	90	30	42	90
Slovakia	104	52	110	51
Finland	33	63	26	59
Sweden	31	71	5	29
United Kingdom	35	89	66	35

Source: compiled by the authors, based on Hofstede (2009) Cultural Dimensions.

Lithuania's ranking on the Individualism is about average for this dimension (rank 28/70, IDV score 50). PDI score in Lithuania is 45. According to Baltrimienė, there is hierarchy in the work in the society. Similar to many other countries, feminization of certain branches of economy is observed in Lithuania as well. However, horizontal and vertical

gender segregation remains unchanged. Women are more employed in non-productive sphere of economy and less in industries.

According to the data in *Table 3*, it is not very complicated to notice that masculine values are mostly predominant in Slovakia, where MAS index is higher than 100. In a Scandinavian country such as Sweden (MAS index is 5). Here masculine values are predominantly of very low domination, i.e. Sweden has achieved a lot in the field of gender equality. In Lithuania, traditional masculine norms predominate, e.g., the ability to foresee own family's situation. Lithuanian position concerning predominance of masculine dimension is quite high (MAS index is 65). Evaluating the index of uncertainty avoidance, Greece and Portugal characterise most as their UAI indexes are very high (accordingly 112 and 104). According to Baltrimienė (2005), high uncertainty avoidance means these cultures have low tolerance for ambiguity and a culture with less uncertainty avoidance believe in accepting and encouraging dissenting views among cultural members and in taking risks and trying new things.

Consequently, summarizing it can be stated that in the countries which usually are described as hierarchical and less economically developed, the number of women with obtained higher education is not high and gender stereotypes are more entrenched. In the countries where there are predominant gender equality tendencies, differences between masculine and feminine characteristics are expressed much poorer. The executor correlative analysis proves that. During the statistic dependence research of gender equality index on the masculine one there was noticed average intensity connection (*Figure 2*).

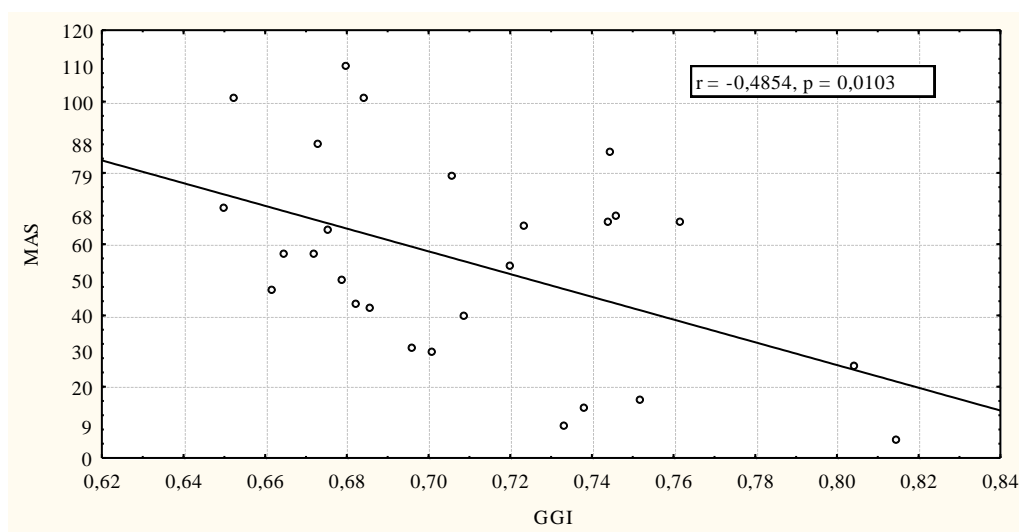


Figure 2. Correlation between GGI and MAS index

Source: authors' calculations.

According to the data delivered in *Figure 2*, there can be drawn a conclusion that there exists average negative connection between GGI and MAS index (correlation coefficient $r = -0.4854$). The determination coefficient ($r^2 = 0.2356$) indicates that 23.56% of achievements in the field of gender equality can be interpreted under low domination of masculine values. A little bit stronger correlation is expressed between GGI and PDV index (*Figure 3*).

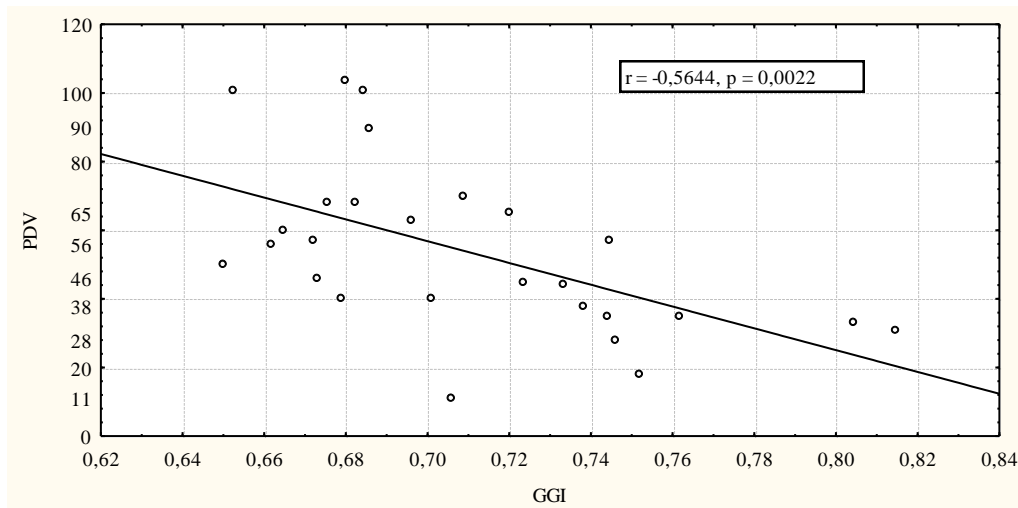


Figure 3. Correlation between GGI and PDV index
Source: authors' calculations.

According to data in *Figure 3*, there can be drawn a conclusion that there exists an average negative connection between GGI and PDV index (correlation coefficient $r = -0.5644$) – in predominance of less hierarchy there might be expected greater attention to women's and men's problems in both labour market and other living fields. Determination coefficient ($r^2 = 0.3186$) indicates that 31.86% of achievements in the gender equality field might be interpreted under less hierarchy.

The strongest reverse connection is indicated between GGI and UAI (*Figure 4*).

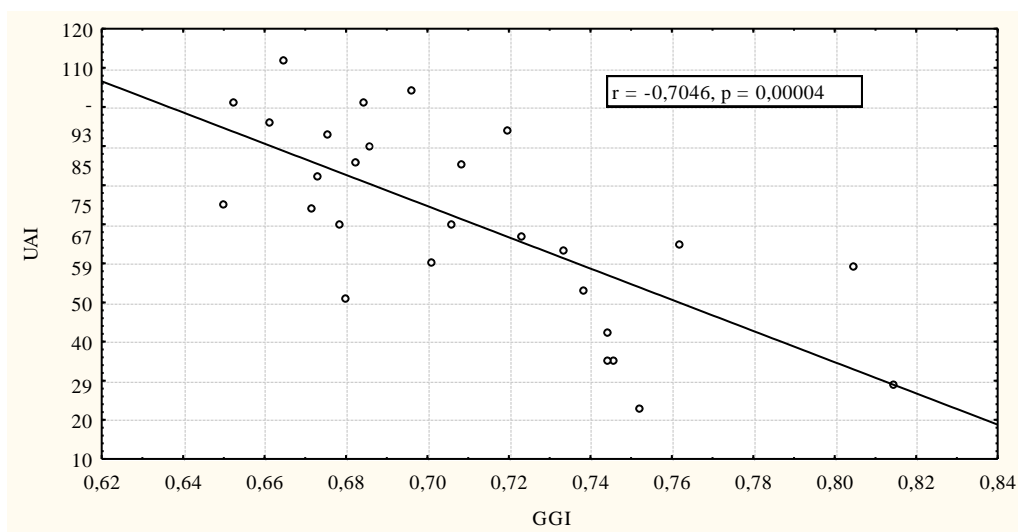


Figure 4. Correlation between GGI and UAI index
Source: authors' calculations.

As it can be seen in *Figure 4*, the estimated correlation coefficient r is -0.7046 and 49.65% of achievement in the gender equality field can be interpreted under humans' abilities not to avoid responsibility and willing to accept changes. Thus, UAI is one of the most impacting indexes of gender equality.

By summarising, it can be stated that an individual obtains from his/her national culture plenty of attitudes those impact all individual's activity fields. In the countries where people value freedom, leisure and challenges, there are high indexes of individualism and in the countries where there is high index of masculinity, there are predominant such values as

material success and acknowledgement. The countries, where there are predominant high differences of wages and status, value the aspect of inequality and they distinguish for a high index of authority (power). A high index of uncertainty and uncertainty avoidance is existent in countries as people are likely to avoid responsibility and as a result they accept changes with difficulties. They try to avoid everything that they do not know and they prefer the planned situations, creation of rules, procedure and standards those aid at understanding of the unknown world and overcoming of the uncertainty. Nevertheless, it is necessary to indicate that although stereotypes are very entrenched and long-term; however, they change in the society. Their change and elimination is always related to the change of collective beliefs that is an outcome of collective actions, conditioning qualitative changes of the entire social life.

Conclusions

Gender stereotypes are cultural and social attitudes towards what is traditionally considered 'masculine' or 'feminine' roles and functions. Persisting gender stereotypes may influence women's and men's choices of studies and jobs and may lead to a gender-segregated labour market.

When employment relationships develop traditionally, the formed stereotypes are one of the most difficultly overcome obstacles in order to secure gender equality in the field of employment. Although women's employment increased, the difference between genders remains evident: in 2009, women's employment level was by 12.9% lower than men's. As a result social and economic women's status is still lower.

Gender stereotypes secure the belief continuation of the certain gender role and foster professional gender separation and professional segregation. The analysis of statistic data reveals that women and men are spread in different professional groups and even women and men in the same professional groups are spread unequally.

Attitudes impact all individual's activity fields those he/she obtains from his/her national culture; and culture might be one of the reasons restricting entrenchment of woman's and man's equality in the society. The countries in those there is very low predominance of masculine values. have achieved quite a lot in the field of gender equality and the performed correlative analysis revealed that one of the most influencing cultural factors on the gender equality is UAI as 50% of achievements in the field of gender equality can be interpreted under humans' abilities not to avoid responsibility and willing to accept changes.

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