GENDER DISPARITIES IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND ASSOCIATED FACTORS IN LOW, MEDIUM, HIGH AND VERY HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

REHAN AHMAD KHAN SHERWANI, KAMRAN ABBAS, MUHAMMAD FAROOQ, SHUMAILA ABBAS, MUHAMMAD ALI RAZA AND MUHAMMAD ABID*

Abstract. The welfare of human-beings serves as a catalyst for laying down the foundation of an egalitarian social order where the fruits of development are distributed evenly. Sadly, Women have always been at the receiving end and stark disparities have been witnessed in their access to socio-economic indicators. This state of affairs has stimulated the interest of researchers in the respective area. The current research aims to highlight the gendered patterns of development and associated discrepancies in low to highly developed countries. The findings of the research will offer an insight to the policymakers and those at the helm of affairs an insight to adopt gender-responsive policies boosting the human capital of the society. The growing interdependence globalization of the world economies has alerted the countries to utilize the women's potential and

^{*}The authors are respectively Assistant Professor at College of Statistical and Actuarial Science, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Assistant Professor at Department of Statistics, University of Azad Jammu and Kashmir, Muzaffarabad, Assistant Professor at Department of Statistics, University of Gujrat, Gujrat, Assistant Professor at College of Statistical and Actuarial Science, University of the Punjab, Lahore and Assistant Professors at Department of Statistics, Govt. College University Faisalabad – Pakistan.

Corresponding author's e-mail: rehan.stat@pu.edu.pk

Millennium Development Goals and Short Term Development Goals are current manifestations of this awareness. Countries are getting their hands on policies that minimize the gender gap as it hinders the country from treading over the path of progress and prosperity. However, despite all the endeavors, gender discrimination still prevails and a little higher in less developed countries. The results of the study indicate comparatively better human development indices for men than women in less developed as well as in highly developed countries.

Keywords: Gender, Disparities, Human Development, Human Development Index

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning, gender disparities examination has been the subject matter of various researches because of insufficient data on the matter in public and private spheres. The division of labor within the premises of households and incentives associated with it may offer an insight into the underlying factors of gender discrimination. Mainstreaming the gendered power relations within and without the familial units will pave the way for better future prospects for women in social and economic spheres. A gender-based examination is in this manner a method for expanding the quality and viability of activities and additionally supporting gender correspondence (Cooray et al., 2014; Sunde and Vischer, 2015).

Men and women are the two pillars of society and no exclusive progress paradigm can guarantee social progress. Gender disparity is the magnitude of tenacious discrimination between women and men in all areas of life. Gender disparity obstructs financial and human advancement: a one standard deviation change in the Gender Inequality Index (GII) will increment long haul salary per capita by 9.1% and the Human Development Index (HDI) by 4%. Gender disparity might be a clarification of monetary improvement contrasts: 16% of the long haul salary distinction between South Asia and East Asia and Pacific can be represented by the distinction in gender imbalance (Ferrant, 2011). In barring a large portion of their populaces by segregation, a few nations strip them of their capacity to take advantage of physical and human capital. Gender discriminatory practices restraints women from contributing to national GDP and being a productive citizen of society (Klasen, 2002).

To ascertain the provision of fundamental human rights and privileges granted to women in comparison to men, it is imperative to consider the dimensions associated with gender and to highlight the gender disparity in human development. To capture the aspects of human development not covered by income alone, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP-1990) introduced the concept of human development index (HDI). This measure consolidates different measurements of human improvement other than income, for example, life span and education as income is just a part of human life and does not span the whole life of an individual.

Most of the times women are rewarded with less remuneration and are deprived of their due share of incentives, despite being equally capable of men. In Asian countries, women constitute a major share of people grappling with entrenched poverty. However, even with the best monetary advancement approaches, most poor families would not have the capacity to get by without the commitment of the female members. Women normally receive low wages for their work and have poor access to economic and social assets such as credit, land, innovation, and opportunities. The burdens of dual roles of women and divergent rewards for the same pastimes have attracted the attention of the researchers for so long (Bayeh 2016). Commonly there is a prerequisite for taking a gander at the quantifiable pointers that demonstrate the proof of imbalance so that appropriate arrangements and policies can be conceived. Understanding the significance, in recent years, UNDP began ascertaining gender-related indices in its reports.

In March 1995, verbal confrontation on gender orientation and advancement was at all important focal points in the global field on account of UN's Fourth International Conference of Women in Beijing and additionally at UN's Social Summit Conference at Copenhagen (Recci and Ganzeboom, 2015). These occasions have produced discussions among analysts, approach creators, organizers and grassroots activists on advancement, human improvement, and gender orientation improvement. The United Nations classifies countries as having a low, medium, high or very high human development index (UNDP 2014). These countries have different infrastructure, political systems, social development and many other factors that might affect directly or indirectly human development in the country. In the present study, we explore the possible associated factors of HDI among highly developed nations to low developed nations. The outcomes of the study will be helpful for the low developed nations to identify the shortcomings in their policies that obstacle them to be among the highly developed nations. By concentrating on the factors associated with higher HDI low developed nations can improve the human development index.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The data used in the present research was secondary data obtained from the United Nations Development Report published in 2015 (UNDP 2015). The primary variable of interest was HDI that quantifies human development by taking literacy rate and school enlistment as a measure of knowledge, life expectancy as a tool of a long and healthy life, furthermore, per capita GDP in view of buying force equality as a measure of material richness level. So HDI was comprised of three components; longevity, education level and a decent standard of living. These three components were computed as:

Longevity = Life Expectancy Index (LEI) =
$$\frac{\text{Life Expectancy - Life Expectancy}_{min}}{\text{Life Expectancy}_{max} - \text{Life Expectancy}_{min}}$$
(2.1)
Education Index (EI) =
$$\frac{2}{3} * \left(\frac{\text{A dult Literacy} - \text{A dult Literacy}_{max} - \text{A dult Literacy}_{min}}{\text{A dult Literacy}_{max} - \text{A dult Literacy}_{min}} \right) + \frac{2}{3} * \left(\frac{\text{Enrollment} - \text{Enrollment}_{min}}{\text{Enrollment}_{max} - \text{Enrollment}_{min}} \right)$$
(2.2)

$$GDP Index (GDPI) = \frac{\ln (GDP) - \ln (minimum GDP)}{\ln (maximum GDP) - \ln (minimum GDP)}$$
(2.3)

HDI is simply the average of (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3) i.e.,

$$HDI = \frac{LEI + EI + GDPI}{3}$$
(2.4)

In present data, HDI was calculated from 188 countries (very high 49, high 56, medium 39 & low 44) and the classifications of HDI were based on the quartiles of the HDI distribution. For low human

224

development countries, HDI was below 0.550; medium human development 0.550-0.699; high human development 0.700-0.799 and for very high human development countries value of HDI was at least 0.800. Pearson and Spearman's correlation coefficient were used to measure the relationship between HDI and other factors in low human development countries – very high human development countries. All the data were analyzed in SPSS v 24.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Results presented in Table 1 depict the mean values of the human development index and associated factors both for females and males in very high, high, medium and low human developed countries. Parametric and non-parametric tests for two independent samples were used wherever standard assumptions held or did not meet respectively.

TABLE 1

Gender Differences in the Human Development Index and Associated Factors in very High, High, Medium and Low Human Developed Countries

		HDI Countries					
	Gender	Very High	High	Medium	Low		
Human development index	Female	0.825	0.614	0.490	0.336		
	Male	0.847	0.638	.0535	0.399		
Life expectancy at birth (years)	Female	79.001	73.273*	70.859***	60.925**		
	Male	74.100	67.548	65.974	58.284		
Expected years of schooling	Female	16.167	13.454	10.497	7.509		
	Male	15.447	12.754	10.608	8.727		
Mean years of schooling	Female	10.569	7.916	5.759	2.904***		
	Male	10.884	8.280	6.744	4.382		
Youth literacy rate	Female	48.669	81.112	85.269	58.732*		
	Male	48.561	80.989	87.174	68.496		
Population with at least some secondary education	Female	80.388	56.834	35.054	10.296***		
	Male	82.633	59.845	40.069	18.743		
Adult mortality rate	Female	52.020***	95.304***	159.077***	276.546**		
	Male	101.306	173.214	232.744	321.227		
Estimated gross national income per capita	Female	27655.4***	8369.8***	4721.6***	1592.6***		
	Male	48823.9	16205.1	8783.4	2833.4		

		HDI Countries					
	Gender	Very High	High	Medium	Low		
Domestic workers (% of total employment)	Female	6.963***	4.700***	2.956***	1.957*		
	Male	0.806	0.500	0.513	0.284		
Labor force participation rate	Female	49.708***	42.148***	48.020***	60.932***		
	Male	67.045	65.595	72.513	77.891		
Suicide rate	Female	4.351***	2.962***	4.626***	6.836***		
	Male	15.776	10.455	11.992	8.948		

*p<0.10; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

GENDER AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX

The basic rule of human advancement is for individuals to expand their decisions, to understand their potential, and to appreciate the opportunity to lead lives they esteem or have the motivation to esteem. Level with circumstances in all circles, for all individuals, ladies and men alike, are at the heart of human improvement. In any case, those alternatives remain unequally conveyed inside and crosswise over social orders and tragically many are still to a great extent inaccessible to ladies. Detriment and segregation, absence of bits of knowledge into what especially influences females' lives, including wellbeing (physical and enthusiastic), fortified by social standards and qualities, organizations, and open strategies, exist in each circle of ladies' lives, showed distinctively in various nation settings. They point of confinement ladies' abilities, openings, and decisions, bringing about fewer advances than men as far as wellbeing, instruction, and way of life, strengthening, and other basic measurements individual security of human improvement. Subsequently, the maximum capacity of many ladies' lives can't achieve the ideal level and mankind overall does not procure its possibilities (Vepa, 2007; Folbre 2006).

From the earliest starting point, the Human Development Report has been worried about imbalances in the open doors and issues of females and males. In spite of the fact that this point of view has gotten some consideration in past Reports, there is a solid case right now for focusing particularly on that issue for a more far-reaching examination of gender imbalance in monetary and social game plans in the contemporary world.

Gender segregation in work has turned into a principle issue in which strategy producers are anxious to unravel. Of note, because of the noteworthy decrease in the support rate of female work as of late, gender separation in business has appeared as a heightened incline. No ifs and or buts, it negatively affects business shield and even individuals' expectations for everyday comforts (Chen et al., 2017).

Among very high HDI countries; Saudi Arabia had the minimum HDI (0.778), Norway had the maximum HDI (0.940) among females with 0.82±0.18 whereas human development among males, Latvia had the minimum HDI (0.805) and Switzerland had the maximum HDI (0.945) value with 0.85±0.18. Among high HDI countries; Algeria had the lowest HDI (0.637), Belarus had the highest HDI (0.806) with 0.61±0.27 in females whereas in male Samoa & Dominican Republic had the highest HDI (0.713) with 0.64±0.24. Among medium HDI countries; Cambodia had the lowest HDI (0.519), Botswana had the highest HDI (0.691) with 0.49±0.24 in females whereas in male Cambodia had the lowest HDI (0.584), and Egypt had the highest HDI (0.729) with 0.54±0.26. Among low HDI countries; Niger had the lowest HDI (0.287), Kenya had the highest HDI (0.527) with 0.34 ± 0.18 in females whereas in the male the Central African Republic had the lowest HDI (0.392), and Pakistan had the highest HDI (0.601) with 0.40±0.21. Although, no significant differences were observed in the human development index between women and men comparatively men had more human development than women in very high, high, medium and low human development countries.

GENDER, LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH AND ADULT MORTALITY RATE (AMR)

Life expectancy and adult mortality rate are key components of health outcomes and the resultant human development of a country. Life expectancy represents the mean period of time an individual is required to live if winning mortality conditions hold on all through the individual's life. It can be computed for people at the season of birth or in any ensuing age bunch. The future at birth ascertained for guys and females is widely utilized as a measure of gender differentials in prosperity by national governments and additionally the World Bank and the UNDP (UNDP, 2015). Life expectancy, once an extravagance of rich populaces, is progressing quickly in the creating scene. The setting of advancement makes one of a kind examples and difficulties for populace maturing, for example, endless imbalance crosswise over areas and associates that go through phases of improvement at various circumstances (Weir et al., 2014).

So far the investigation has been limited to accomplishments in which the "possibilities" of females furthermore, men vary the circumstance is distinctive, be that as it may, with regards to mortality rates and life expectancy where the proof of organic contrasts in survival rates favoring women. Organic variables appear to guarantee higher female survival than males, ideal from the fetal stage and early stages onwards. Amid the earliest stages, females have a higher imperviousness to irresistible illness. Sometime down the road, contrasts in gender hormones bringing on expanded demise rates in men by mishaps and other rough causes and security in ladies to ischaemic heart sicknesses, consolidate to guarantee that female survival is higher than a male given comparable care (Mallick 2014). Women's part being developed is reflected in diminished maternal mortality and enhanced maternal care, better training and sustenance of youngsters, lessened richness, and increment in the normal age at first marriage (Arora 2012). In addition, the enhanced status of ladies as a rule, and better training of the mother specifically impacts general mentalities, including inclinations of ladies towards the young lady youngster. Regularly, it is this oppression the young lady kid from the minute she is conceived, or even before her introduction to the world, which comes full circle in the long run in the low status of ladies, and prompts to numerous other poor monetary and social results.

Among very high HDI countries; Saudi Arabia had the minimum life expectancy (75.7), China had the maximum life expectancy (86.8) among female with 79.0 \pm 16.7 whereas life expectancy among male, Lithuania had the minimum life expectancy (67.7) and China had the maximum life expectancy (81.2) with 74.1 \pm 15.8. Although no significant differences were found in life expectancy between females and males comparatively females had more life span than males in very high human development countries. Among high HDI countries; Belize had the minimum life expectancy (72.9), Cost Rica had the maximum life expectancy (81.9) among female with 73.3 \pm 17.7 whereas life expectancy among male, Russian Federation had the minimum life expectancy (64.4) and Lebanon had the maximum life expectancy (77.6) value with 67.6 \pm 16.5. Among medium HDI countries; Equatorial Guinea had the minimum life expectancy (59.0), Viet Nam had the maximum life expectancy (80.5) among female with 70.9 \pm 5.0 whereas life expectancy among male, South Africa had the minimum life expectancy (55.2) and Nicaragua had the maximum life expectancy (71.9) value with 66.0 \pm 4.3. Among low HDI countries; Swaziland had the minimum life expectancy (48.2), Nepal had the maximum life expectancy (71.1) among female with 60.9 \pm 5.7 whereas life expectancy among male, Central African Republic had the minimum life expectancy (48.8) and Nepal had the maximum life expectancy (68.2) value with 58.3 \pm 5.0. Furthermore, in high, medium and low human development index countries females had a significantly higher life span than males.

Among very high HDI countries; Cyprus had minimum (36.0), Hungary had maximum (91.0) AMR for a female with 52.0±17.8 whereas among males, Kuwait had minimum (59.0) and Lithuania had the maximum (254.0) AMR with 101.3±48.9. Among high HDI countries; Lebanon had minimum (46.0), Tonga had maximum (245.0) AMR for a female with 95.3±31.4 whereas among males, Lebanon had the minimum (70.0) and Russian Federation had the maximum (339.0)AMR with 173.2±57.1. Among medium HDI countries; Cabo Verde had minimum (68.0), South Africa had maximum (320) AMR for a female with 159.1±71.6 whereas among males, the Syrian Arab Republic had the minimum (116.0) and South Africa had the maximum (441.0) AMR with 232.7±83.1. Among low HDI countries; Pakistan had minimum (155), Swaziland had maximum (496) AMR for a female with 276.5±85.0 whereas among males, Pakistan had the minimum (189.0) and Lesotho had the maximum (577.0) AMR with 321.2±83.7. The adult mortality rate for females was significantly lower than males in all the HDI countries groups.

GENDER AND EDUCATION

Education is one of the components that determines human development that reflects the growth of a country and the literature is evident that larger the gap between gender inequality in education the slower the growth of the economy and development in all (Knowles and Lorgelly, 2002). In the current decades, the proficiency rate among the ladies are expanding steadily, the gender gap in essential and optional level enlistment rate diminished strikingly (Behrman et al., 1999). Low education rates among the ladies of age gathering (15-49) improve the proportion of tyke marriage and juvenile parenthood (Klasen and Lamanna, 2009).

Among very high HDI countries; UAE had minimum (13.9), Australia had maximum (20.7) expected years of schooling for a female with 16.2±2.8 whereas among males, UAE had the minimum (12.9) and Australia had the maximum (19.7) expected years of schooling with 15.4±2.7. Among high HDI countries; Azerbaijan had minimum (11.8), Barbados had maximum (17.2) expected years of schooling for females with 13.4 ± 3.4 whereas among males, Armenia had the minimum (11.2) and Fiji had the maximum (15.5) expected years of schooling with 12.8±3.2. Among medium HDI countries; Iraq had minimum (8.7), Cabo Verde had maximum (13.9) expected years of schooling for females with 10.5±3.8 whereas among males, Guyana had the minimum (9.4) and Zambia had the maximum (13.9) expected years of schooling with 10.6±3.8. Among low HDI countries; Niger had minimum (4.8), Nepal had maximum (12.5) expected years of schooling for females with 7.5 ± 3.4 whereas among male, Niger had the minimum (6.1) and Angola had the maximum (14.0) expected years of schooling with 8.7 ± 3.9 . Although, no significant differences were found in expected years of schooling between females and males but comparatively females had higher expected schooling than males in very high and high human development countries while slightly lower in medium and low HDI countries.

Among very high HDI countries; Kuwait had minimum (7.3), Australia had maximum (13.1) mean years of schooling for females with 10.6 ± 2.6 whereas among males, Kuwait had the minimum (7.1) and Germany had the maximum (13.8) mean years of schooling with 10.9 ± 2.7 . Among high HDI countries; Algeria had minimum (4.8), Georgia had maximum (12.0) mean years of schooling for females with 7.9 ± 3.4 whereas among males, Maldives had the minimum (6.0) and Georgia had the maximum (12.3) mean years of schooling with 8.3 ± 3.5 . Among medium HDI countries; Bhutan had minimum (2.0), Moldova had maximum (11.1) mean years of schooling for females with 5.8 ± 3.0 whereas among males, Bhutan had the minimum (4.1) and Moldova had the maximum (11.3) mean years of schooling with 6.7 ± 3.9 . Among low HDI countries; Chad had minimum (1.0), Swaziland had maximum (7.4) mean years of schooling for females with 2.9 ± 2.0 whereas among male, Burkina Faso had the minimum (1.9) and Zimbabwe had the maximum (7.7) mean years of schooling with 4.4 ± 2.1 . No significant differences were found in mean years of schooling between females and males in very high, high and medium human development countries whereas this was significant in low HDI countries. In addition, females had comparatively lower mean years of schooling than males in all HDI countries groups.

Among very high HDI countries; Portugal had minimum (47.7), Estonia had maximum (100.0) population with atleast some secondary education for females with 80.4±19.4 whereas among male, Portugal had the minimum (48.2) and Estonia had the maximum (100.0) population with atleast some secondary education with 82.6±19.5. Among high HDI countries; Algeria had minimum (26.7), Kazakhstan had maximum (95.3) population with atleast some secondary education for females with 56.8 ± 27.4 whereas among male, Dominica had the minimum (23.2) and Kazakhstan had the maximum (98.8) population with atleast some secondary education with 59.8±28.0. Among medium HDI countries; Cambodia had minimum (9.9), Tajikistan had maximum (95.1) population with atleast some secondary education for females with 35.1±27.8 whereas among male, Cambodia had the minimum (22.9) and Kyrgyzstan had the maximum (96.8) population with atleast some secondary education with 40.1±28.6. Among low HDI countries; Mozambique had minimum (1.4), Zimbabwe had maximum (48.7)population with atleast some secondary education for females with 10.3 ± 10.0 whereas among male, Burkina Faso had the minimum (3.2) and Zimbabwe had the maximum (62.0) population with atleast some secondary education with 18.7±15.3. No significant differences were found in a population with atleast some secondary education between females and males in very high, high and medium human development countries whereas this was significant in low HDI countries. In addition, females had a comparatively lower population with atleast some secondary education than males in all HDI countries groups.

Among very high HDI countries; UAE had lowest (97.0), Estonia & Poland had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate for females with

48.7±50.2 whereas among males, UAE had the lowest (93.6) and Poland had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate with 48.6±50.0. Among high HDI countries; Algeria had the lowest (89.1), Cuba had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate for females with 81.1±38.2 whereas among males, Jamaica had the lowest (93.3) and Cuba had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate with 81.0±38.1. Among medium HDI countries; Zambia had the lowest (58.5), Moldova had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate for females with 85.3±22.6 whereas among males, Zambia had the lowest (70.3) and Moldova had the highest (100.0) youth literacy rate with 87.2±21.8. Among low HDI countries; Niger had the lowest (15.1), Myanmar had the highest (95.8) youth literacy rate for female with 58.7±26.6 whereas among males, Niger had the lowest (34.5) and Yemen had the highest (96.7) youth literacy rate with 68.5 ± 24.0 . No significant differences were found in the youth literacy rate between females and males in very high, high and medium human development countries whereas significant in low HDI countries. In addition, females had a comparatively higher youth literacy rate than males in very high & high HDI countries while lower in medium & low HDI groups.

Literacy rate differential alone is not an all-encompassing pointer of the gender crevice, particularly if what is measured is not useful proficiency. Notwithstanding when the wage crevice is lower for instructed than ignorant, separation in business and developing unemployment of ladies contrasted with men at more elevated amounts of proficiency augment the gender crevice in normal income. Combined with speedier wage development of men at all levels of education on one hand, what's more, the expanded work weight of utilized ladies on the other gender crevice in welfare augments. It could be for the most part because of the school enlistments and school participation of young ladies, the crevice between grown-up females and guys is still high, however, the hole has been diminishing. This plainly indicates the gender separation in sending young ladies to class and holding them in school until they get to be distinctly proficient. The proficiency hole is much higher among the different levels of instructive accomplishments of the grown-up populace and twofold the quantity of guys exists for the number of females who achieved training levels above the essential level. All the more request-driven training with cutting edge aptitudes presumably would put young ladies comparable to young men as found in the diminishing winning hole. It is important to focus on practical instruction instead of the unimportant proficiency of females.

GENDER, WORK AND GROSS NATIONAL INCOME (GNI) PER CAPITA

Work compel support measures the extent of men and women who will draw in themselves in the monetary exercises which are incorporated into the arrangement of national salary book keeping (add to the national Income). Work drive comprises of the individuals who are utilized and the individuals who are unemployed yet searching for work. The individuals who are not willing to work and the individuals who are in the instructive foundations are excluded in the work drive. The work cooperation proportion or laborer populace proportion demonstrates just the individuals who are utilized as the extent of the aggregate populace (Tzannatos, 2010). In the late decades, ladies' interest in labor constrains higher than at any other time over the world. It was contended that numerous females envision short and intruded on spells of market business in light of their customarily more noteworthy responsibility to home-related exercises. Guys, then again, expect long haul inclusion in labor advertise work and, as needs be, put resources into qualitatively and quantitatively extraordinary human capital and development (Vella 1994). In 2015 the worldwide work constrains support rate was 50 percent for ladies however 77 percent for men (UNDP, 2015).

The exchange of ladies' work from the family to business is a standout amongst the most outstanding components of financial advancement. It is not by all methods all pickup, rather the pick up is considered in light of the fact what ladies generally do in the family unit should in truth be possible much better and inexpensively outside, because of the scale economies and specialization and furthermore utilization of capital and drudgery lessening hardware. One of the surest methods for expanding national wages in this way is to make new wellsprings of work for ladies outside the home (Lewis, 2003). Facilitate the decrease in fruitfulness rates and the decrease in reliance proportions were a consequence of ladies' support in the work constrains. The support of ladies in wage work outside the house prompted many components that decidedly affected the monetary development of the countries. The decrease in fruitfulness rates and reliance proportions have

appeared as wellsprings of immense reserve funds and speculation by family units that prompt to financial development in the East Asian nations (Braunstein, 2007).

Work empowers individuals to acquire an occupation and be monetarily secure. It is basic for impartial monetary development, neediness diminishment, and gender correspondence. It likewise permits individuals to completely partake in the public eye while bearing them a feeling of poise and worth. Work can contribute to general society greatly, and work that includes watching over others fabricates attachment and bonds inside families and groups (UNDP, 2015). Work measurement mirrors the financial force of every gender and creates twisting similar to gender disparities in education. Without a doubt, women who are more gainful than men are rejected from the work advertise. In this manner, the pool of ability from which firms can pick their workers is lessened by gender separation, so that the allotment of ability is not ideal (Barta, 2004). Besides, rise to access to work prompts to lower fertility rates also, lessens the reliance rate (Langerlof, 2003).

Among very high HDI countries; Montenegro had minimum (0.10), Kuwait had maximum (53.3) DW for females with 6.96 ± 14.0 whereas among males, Montenegro had minimum (0.10) and Kuwait had the maximum (11.3) DW with 0.81±2.0. Among high HDI countries; Russian Federation had minimum (0.10), Oman had maximum (59.3) DW for females with 4.70±9.2 whereas among males, Yugoslav Republic had the minimum (0.10) and Bahamas had the maximum (3.0) DW with 0.50±0.71. Among medium HDI countries; Tajikistan had minimum (0.10), Namibia had maximum (19.4) DW for females with 2.96±5.0 whereas among males, Sao Tome and Principe had the minimum (0.10)and Namibia had the maximum (4.2) DW with 0.51±1.0. Among low HDI countries; Nepal had minimum (0.30), Djibouti had maximum (41.6) DW for females with 1.96±6.5 whereas among males, Ethiopia had the minimum (0.10) and Djibouti had the maximum (1.9) DW with 0.28±0.5. Percent of domestic workers for females was significantly higher than males in all the HDI countries groups.

Among very high HDI countries; Saudi Arabia had minimum (20.2), Iceland had a maximum (70.5) labor force participation rate for females with 49.7 ± 13.1 whereas among males, Montenegro had minimum (57.3)

and Qatar had the maximum (95.5) labor force participation rate with 67.1±16.0. Among high HDI countries; Algeria had minimum (15.2), the Bahamas had a maximum (69.3) labor force participation rate for females with 42.2±19.9 whereas among male, Bosnia & Herzegovina had the minimum (57.3) and Peru had the maximum (84.4) labor force participation rate with 65.6±23.8. Among medium HDI countries; the Syrian Arab Republic had minimum (13.5), Equatorial Guinea had maximum (80.7) labor force participation rate for females with 48.0 ± 21.1 whereas among male, Moldova had the minimum (44.2) and Equatorial Guinea had the maximum (92.2) labor force participation rate with 72.5±19.6. Among low HDI countries; Afghanistan had minimum (15.8), Tanzania had maximum (88.1) labor force participation rate for females with 60.9 ± 21.3 whereas among males. Nigeria had the minimum (63.7) and Madagascar had the maximum (90.5) labor force participation rate with 77.9±13.9. The labor force participation rate for females was significantly lower than males in all the HDI countries groups.

Gender imbalance overruns the world. In considering the measurements of financial gender imbalance, ladies still make not as much as men in the formal work division, will probably live in destitution, are more averse to partake in the formal work division, and do a bigger share of work in the family area.

Among very high HDI countries; Montenegro had minimum (11106), Singapore had maximum (59994) estimated GNI per capita for females with 27655.4 \pm 13218.7 whereas among males, Montenegro had minimum (18094) and Qatar had the maximum (143979) estimated GNI per capita with 48823.9 \pm 25856.5. Among high HDI countries; Samoa had minimum (3416), the Bahamas had maximum (17868) estimated GNI per capita for females with 8369.8 \pm 4823.4 whereas among males, Tonga had the minimum (6336) and Oman had the maximum (46400) estimated GNI per capita with 16205.1 \pm 9144.6. Among medium HDI countries; the Syrian Arab Republic had minimum (864), Equatorial Guinea had maximum (17073) estimated GNI per capita for females with 4721.6 \pm 3709.8 whereas among male, Tajikistan had the minimum (3017) and Equatorial Guinea had the maximum (24850) estimated GNI per capita with 8783.4 \pm 5869.4. Among low HDI countries; the Central African Republic had minimum (476), Angola had maximum (5497)

estimated GNI per capita for females with 1592.6 ± 1067.1 whereas among male, Central African Republic had the minimum (689) and Angola had the maximum (8169) estimated GNI per capita with 2833.4 ±2037.9 . The estimated gross national income for females was significantly lower than males in all the HDI countries groups.

GENDER AND SUICIDE RATE

Females are regularly under a considerable measure of stress and weight to perform well in schools and colleges. The individuals who can't adapt to high scholastic execution regularly feel detached and confer suicide. Women all in all show inclinations for work in the general population part where they confront less segregation and experience more noteworthy vocation versatility. Ladies with next to zero training are additionally inclined to high suicide rates. Huge numbers of the uneducated ladies are utilized in minor occupations where they are abused with minimal money related pay (Mitra and Singh, 2007).

Among very high HDI countries; Saudi Arabia had minimum (0.20), Korea had a maximum (18.0) suicide rate for females with 4.35 ± 3.06 whereas among males, Saudi Arabia had minimum (0.6) and Lithuania had the maximum (51.0) suicide rate with 15.78±10.32. Among high HDI countries; Belize had minimum (0.50), Sri Lanka had a maximum (12.8) suicide rate for females with 2.96±2.96 whereas among males, Lebanon had the minimum (1.2) and Sri Lanka had the maximum (46.4) suicide rate with 10.46±11.69. Among medium HDI countries; the Syrian Arab Republic had minimum (0.20), Guyana had a maximum (22.1) suicide rate for females with 4.63±4.64 whereas among males, the Syrian Arab Republic had the minimum (0.7) and Guyana had the maximum (70.8)suicide rate with 11.99±12.81. Among low HDI countries; Mauritania had minimum (1.5), Mozambique had maximum (21.1) suicide rate for females with 6.84±4.89 whereas among males, Haiti had the minimum (3.3) and Mozambique had the maximum (34.2) suicide rate with 15.20±8.95. The suicide rate among females was significantly lower than males in all the HDI countries groups.

IV. CONCLUSION

Gender discrimination is a multidimensional issue that is profoundly implanted in the ad-libbed and conventional social settings around the globe, and it is considered as a noteworthy imperative towards the improvement procedure in the nation. We, therefore, made an attempt to determine the root causes of pervasive gender gap persist in the developed and under-developed countries. The gender correspondence implies that both men and ladies, as an individual, have measured up to rights and openings regardless of gender. It likewise alludes that all individuals (men and ladies) must have a level with appropriate to build up their own capacities and allowed them to settle on individual decisions. State or society won't segregate amongst men and ladies on the premise of gender. Additionally, gender correspondence accentuation that characteristic or natural distinction amongst males and females won't prompt to contrast in status and rights in all circles of life amongst males and females. The measurement and level of oppression females show itself in various cultures, legislative issues, races, districts, nations, and economies in an unexpected way. Be that as it may, gender segregation is considered an enormous requirement towards the advancement procedure and it is found as a causal component of brutality against ladies. Gender fairness, thusly, is the present subject of worry among the arrangement creators of the world in view of upgrading monetary development and keeping up the progression of the improvement procedure too.

In spite of impressive advances in diminishing gender crevice, there still exists enormous oppression ladies in various parts, for example, ladies have less access than men to assets and financial open doors. Moreover, they have constrained access to an extensive variety of administrations and the development of ladies is still confined in numerous social orders. Strategies that support women's empowerment can contribute to women's ability to formulate and advocate their own visions for their society - including interpretations and changes to cultural and gender norms. Albeit huge advance has been made in the course of recent decades, gender disparity remains a noteworthy obstruction to human improvement. Ladies in each general public still face different inconveniences and separations. Such disservices and separations have changed shape after some time and crosswise over social orders. For instance, between 1990-2012 meeting towards gender correspondence in training at the sum total of what levels has been occurring. Nonetheless, ladies' advance in limit has not made an interpretation of consistently into monetary open doors and results. Wage

holes and word related isolation amongst ladies and men keep on persisting, with the correct degree shifting crosswise over nations.

This study demonstrates that the human capital model, which highlights the significance of instruction and aptitudes in adding to the strengthening of ladies, is only one a player in the story. Social and social variables ought to be joined too so as to test into issues of gender relations, which, combined with high instructive fulfillment, will decide the social, economic, and individual prosperity of ladies in any nation. High instructive fulfillment alone won't advance gender strengthening unless the social and social standards of a nation or state guarantee correspondence of ladies in every aspect of life. In short, it is recognized that gender equity is a complex and long-term project. It can only be achieved through a variety of initiatives and a process of trial and error and will be more effective if women's organizations have the support of governments and international organizations.

238

REFERENCES

- Arora, R.U. (2012). Gender inequality, economic development, and globalization: a state level analysis of India. The Journal of Developing Areas, 46(1), 147-164.
- Bayeh, E. (2016). The role of empowering women and achieving gender equality to the sustainable development of Ethiopia. Pacific Science Review B: Humanities and Social Sciences, 2, 37-42.
- Behrman, J.R., Foster, A.D., Rosenzweig, M.R., & Vashishtha, P. (1999). Women's schooling, home teaching, and economic growth. Journal of Political Economy, 107(4), 682-714.
- Berta, E.V. (2004). Gender discrimination and growth: theory and evidence from India.
- Braunstein, E. (2007). The efficiency of gender equity in economic growth: neoclassical and feminist approaches. International Working group on Gender, Macroeconomics, and International economics, (GEM-IWG), Working Paper. Available from: genderandmacro.org.
- Chen, H., Zhao, C., & Yu, W. (2017). Continued export trade, screeningmatching and gender
- discrimination in employment. China Economic Review, 42, 88-100.
- Cooray, A., Mallick, S., & Dutta, N. (2014). Gender-specific human capital, openness and growth: exploring the linkages for South Asia. Rev. Dev. Econ. 18, 107-122.
- Ferrant, G. (2011). How gender inequalities hinder development: cross-country evidence. documents de travail du Centre d'Economie de la Sorbonne. ISSN: 1955-611X.
- Folbre, N. (2006). Measuring care: gender, empowerment, and the care economy. Journal of Human Development, 7(2), 183-199.
- Klasen, S. (2002). Low schooling for girls, slower growth for all? Cross country evidence on the effect of gender inequality in education on economic development. World Bank Economic Review, 16(3), 345-373.
- Klasen, S. & Lamanna, F. (2009). The impact of gender inequality in education and employment on economic growth: new evidence for a panel of countries, Feminist Economics, 15(3), 91-132.

- Knowles, S., & Lorgelly, P.K. (2002). Are educational gender gaps a brake on economic development? Some cross-country empirical evidence. Oxford Economic Papers, 54(1), 18-149.
- Lagerlof, N.P. (2003). Gender equality and long-run growth. Journal of Economic Growth, 8(4), 403-426.
- Lewis, W.A. (2003). Theory of economic growth. Routledge.
- Mallick, S.K. (2014). Disentangling the poverty effects of sectoral output, prices, and policies in India. Rev. Income Wealth, 60, 773-801.
- Mitra, A., & Singh, P. (2007). Human capital attainment and gender empowerment: The Kerala paradox. Social Science Quarterly, 88(5), Special Issue on Women in Global Society, 1227-1242.
- Recci, I.M., & Ganzeboom, H.B. (2015). Unemployment scarring by gender: Human capital depreciation or stigmatization? Longitudinal evidence from the Netherlands, 1980–2000. Social Science Research, 52, 642-658.
- Sunde, U., & Vischer, T. (2015). Human capital and growth: specification matters. Economica, 82, 368-390.
- Tzannatos, Z. (2010). Decreasing the gender gap in employment and pay in the Arab world: Measuring the gains for women, youth, and society. Paper presented at the International conference on women and youth in Arab development, Cairo, 22-24 March.
- UNDP (1990). United Nations Development Programme. Human development indicators. Human Development Report 1990; 0-19-506481-X.
- UNDP (2014). United Nations Development Programme. Sustaining human progress: reducing vulnerabilities and building resilience. Human Development Report 2014; 978-92-1-126340-4.
- UNDP (2015). United Nations Development Programme. Work for human development. Human Development Report 2015; 978-92-1-126398-5.
- Vella, F. (1994). Gender roles and human capital investment: The relationship between traditional attitudes and female labour market performance. Economica, New Series, 61(242), 191-211.
- Vepa, S.S. (2007). Gender equity & human development. Indian J Med Res, 126, 328-340.
- Weir, D., Lay, M., & Langa, K. (2014). Economic development and gender inequality in cognition: A comparison of China and India, and of SAGE and the HRS sister studies. The Journal of the Economics of Ageing, 4, 114-125.