

Female Entrepreneurship in Serbia*

Radmila Grozdanić¹, Mirjana Radović-Marković², Milanka Vučić³

ABSTRACT – Gender equality is a fundamental right, a common value of the EU, and a necessary condition for Serbia in achieving the EU's objectives of growth, employment and social cohesion. Equal participation of women and men in decision-making symbolises the level of political maturity of societies. The work analysis of the situation and trends contributes to the implementation of the Commission's Roadmap for Gender Equality (2006-2010), which has amongst its priorities promoting equal participation of women in decision-making, aiming to raise awareness of the situation. The majority of the data used in the work comes from the database on women which is managed by Serbian national statistics and UNDP's research data.

The work shows that even if the Serbia's efforts to increase women's participation in decision-making have been consistent and certain progress has been achieved, women are still under-represented in all spheres of power in Serbian Institutions, and in entrepreneurial activity. This remains a major challenge for democracy. If we believe in the values of democracy based on the representation and participation of citizens, then we cannot leave half of the population outside the structures of power. Gender equality is also an asset for business. Serbian economy must reap the potential of all human talent at our disposal if we are to be competitive in the face of globalization.

Alongside active policy measures, one of the actions could be identified as to support activities to raise awareness of equality issues in the decision-making process in Serbia and promote research based on comparable European data, and data on countries in transition process. There is a particular focus on indicators introduced by the Council of the European Union in 1999 and 2003 as a follow-up to the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995, which was adopted by 189 states and is considered as a milestone for the enforcement of women's rights across the world.

The work presents facts and figures covering education level of women /background characteristics/, decision-making in politics, economy and public service in Serbia.

KEY WORDS: women, entrepreneurs, employment, unemployment, self-employment, literacy, transition countries, Serbia

Introduction

Entrepreneurship can be read as a cultural and economic phenomenon. In recent times, gender has become an increasing influence on entrepreneurship. This groundbreaking new study considers both gender and entrepreneurship as symbolic forms, looking at their diverse patterns and social representation

The analysis of the World Economic Forum (WEF) by means of the Global Competitiveness Index over the past three years (85th ranking in 2007; 96th ranking in 2004; 85th in 2005; 87th in 2006) indicates a low level of competitiveness of the Serbian economy, due to worsening of the sub-index of basic market conditions – the Serbian economy is facing problems in the area of institutions, infrastructure, macroeconomics, health care, and primary education. Apart from obvious progress, the SME

* This paper is a part of researching project no. 159004, financed by the Ministry of Science and Technological Development of Republic of Serbia, named: "The Integration of Serbian Economy into the EU - Planning and Financing of Regional and Rural Development and Enterprise Development Policy"

¹ Prof. Radmila Grozdanić, PhD, Technical Faculty Čacak, University of Kragujevac, Serbia

² Prof. Mirjana Radović-Marković, Ph.D, Institute for Economic Sciences, Serbia

³ Milanka Vučić M.A, Serbian Chamber of Commerce

sector and female entrepreneurship is still not the mainstay of economic and overall development of the Republic

Rate of female literacy

Illiteracy as a problem of female inequality in Serbian society is indicated by the fact that in Serbia eight women out of ten are illiterate. According to the 1971 census, the share of illiterate women in female population aged above 10 stood at as much as 24.6% and of illiterate men at 6.7%, while in 2002 the share of illiterate women stood at 5.7% and of men at 1.1%. The tendency towards increasing relative risks is noticeable. While 30 years ago in Serbia there was four times as many illiterate women as men, in 2002 there were five times more illiterate women than men. This can be accounted for by still present traditional principles related to the position of women, but also by longer life expectancy of women and their prevalence among elderly population, in which the illiteracy of women is most prominent.

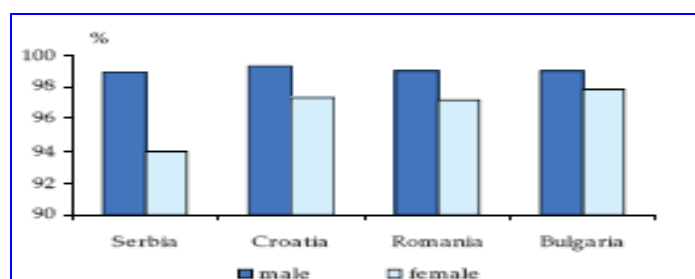
86.8% of all the illiterate accounted for by women. Despite an absolute decrease, the number of illiterate women in Serbia is five times larger than the number of illiterate men. In Serbia in all census years gender differences over the past 20 years they have been increasing in the direction of an increasing share of illiterate women.

By comparing Serbian data with the data on literacy in neighboring countries, it is noticeable that the proportion of illiterate population in Serbia in 2002 was still high. This primarily refers to the female population of Serbia, the rate of illiteracy of which (2002) was two and a half times larger than in Romania and Croatia and even three times as the one in Bulgaria. Although over the past 20 years the trend towards a declining illiteracy rate has been recorded, both in Serbia and neighboring countries, and the rates in these countries have continually been lower than in Serbia, the result is a substantially higher share of illiterate female population in Serbia in 2002. This especially refers to the illiteracy of female population of Central Serbia.

It is important to mention that in neither of the given European countries is the illiteracy of female population five times as that of male, as was the case of Serbia in 2002. Namely, in Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia the illiteracy rate of women is two to three times larger than that of men.

Illiteracy rate of women in Serbia substantially surpasses the European average

Chart 1. Adult literacy rate by gender, 2002



Employment of women

Accomplishing the highest possible employment rate has a special importance from the aspect of the achievement of the Lisbon Agenda (an overall employment rate of 70%, i.e. the rate of employment of women higher than 60%) that member countries must archive by 2010.

Table 1. Unemployment rate, 2004-2006, men/women

	Total			Women			Men		
	2004	2005	2006	2004	2005	2006	2004	2005	2006
EU-27	9.1	8.7	7.9	10.1	9.7	8.8	8.2	7.9	7.1
EU-25	9.1	8.7	7.9	10.3	9.8	8.9	8.1	7.9	7.0
EU-15	8.1	7.9	7.3	9.3	8.9	8.4	7.2	7.0	6.5
Euro-zone-13	8.8	8.6	7.8	10.5	10.0	9.2	7.6	7.4	6.7
Belgium	8.4	8.4	8.3	9.5	9.6	9.2	7.5	7.6	7.5
Czech Republic	8.3	7.9	7.2	9.9	9.8	9.0	7.1	6.5	5.8
Denmark	5.5	4.9	3.9	6.0	5.5	4.5	5.1	4.4	3.3
Germany	9.5	9.5	8.4	10.5	10.3	9.1	8.7	8.8	7.7
Estonia	9.7	7.8	5.6	8.9	7.0	5.4	10.4	8.8	5.7
Greece	10.5	10.0	-	16.2	15.5	-	6.6	6.2	-
Spain	11.0	9.2	8.6	14.3	12.2	11.6	8.1	7.1	6.4
France	9.6	9.5	9.0	10.6	10.6	10.0	8.7	8.8	8.2
Ireland	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.9	4.6	4.6
Italy	8.0	7.6	-	10.5	9.8	-	6.4	6.1	-
Latvia	10.4	8.9	6.8	10.2	8.7	6.2	10.6	9.1	7.4
Lithuania	11.4	8.3	5.9	11.8	8.3	5.6	11.0	8.2	6.2
Luxembourg	5.1	4.5	4.8	7.1	5.8	6.4	3.7	3.5	3.6
Hungary	6.1	7.2	7.5	6.1	7.4	7.8	6.1	7.0	7.2
Malta	7.4	7.3	7.4	9.0	9.8	9.2	6.6	6.5	6.5
The Netherlands	4.6	4.7	3.9	4.8	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.4	3.5
Austria	4.8	5.2	4.8	5.3	5.5	5.2	4.4	4.9	4.4
Poland	19.0	17.7	14.0	19.9	19.1	15.1	18.2	16.6	13.1
Portugal	6.7	7.6	7.7	7.6	8.7	9.0	5.9	6.7	6.5
Slovenia	6.3	6.5	6.0	6.8	7.0	7.2	5.8	6.1	5.0
Slovakia	18.2	16.3	13.3	19.2	17.2	14.7	17.4	15.5	12.3
Finland	8.8	8.4	7.7	8.9	8.6	8.1	8.7	8.2	7.4
Sweden	6.3	7.5	7.1	6.1	7.4	7.3	6.5	7.5	6.9
United Kingdom	4.7	4.8	5.3	4.2	4.3	4.9	5.0	5.1	5.7
Bulgaria	12.0	10.1	8.9	11.5	9.8	9.3	12.5	10.3	8.6
Croatia	13.6	12.6	-	15.6	13.8	-	12.0	11.6	-
Romania	8.1	7.2	7.4	6.9	6.4	6.3	9.1	7.8	8.3
Norway	4.4	4.6	3.5	4.0	4.4	3.4	4.8	4.8	3.6
Serbia	18.5	20.8	20.9	22.9	26.2	24.7	15.1	16.8	17.9

Source: Eurostat (data from Labor Force Survey), for Serbia RDB and RSO

The employment rate in Serbia in 2006 fell by 3.6% (49.9%) in relation to 2004 (53.5%), which was substantially below the Lisbon standard of 70%. Viewed by gender, the rate of female employment stood at 40.6% (2006) and was by 18.6% lower than the rate of male employment.

The ratio between the employment rate of men and women in working age is best illustrated by deviations from the regression line, on the 'diffusion diagram'. The largest deviation from the regression line is recorded with Bulgaria, which is caused by the smallest gap between the employment rate of men and that of women (8.2%) in relation to other given countries, while, on the other side, the largest gap is present in Serbia (18.6%). By comparing countries of the EU-15 and EU-27, one can notice that the deviation is at approximately the same level. On the basis of the determination coefficient, as an indicator of representation of the regression model ($R^2 = 0.72$), 72% of variations is explained through the given model ($0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$), from which justification of the model arises, i.e. the presence of the correlation of variables.

Serbia records the greatest gap between employment rates of men and women in the group of neighboring countries and the EU

In line with this, a high level of correlation between rates of employment of men and women is shown with the value of Pearson's correlation coefficient of 0.85. According to a UNDP study, women feel negatively discriminated when it comes to employment or career pursuit. Women are one of vulnerable groups (especially lone mothers) and are at risk of poverty. Unlike neighboring countries, rights related to maternity leave, child care leave and retirement are preserved in Serbia and positive policies to be implemented within these areas are defined.

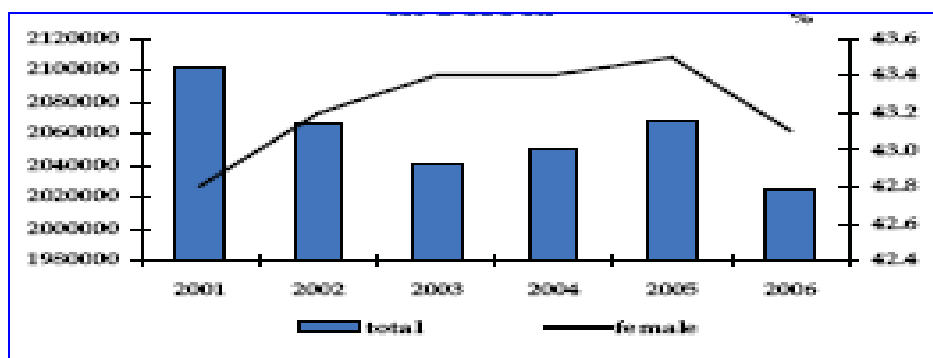
Some strategic documents are adopted (Poverty Reduction Strategy, Millennium Goals, National Employment Action Plan* for 2006-2008) that foster gender equality at the labor market and envisage positive actions.

Analyses show that in transition countries the economic position of women deteriorates, which is the consequence of coexistence of various factors: tradition and patriarchy being a general trend in soci-

ety; the fall in purchasing power, diminished role of the country, narrowing of the public sector, budget restrictions that affects women in particular since health care, education and other benefits decrease and their rights to maternity leave, child care and pensions shrink; the decrease in employment rates and the rise in unemployment rates; the rise in the share of women among the poor (feminization of poverty); growth of black economy, which stimulates exploitation and discrimination of women; insufficient transparency of the privatization process which shuts out most women; absence of the practice of gender budgeting that makes economic discrimination of women at a macroeconomic level invisible, conflict of roles (family and work) the burden of which is still dominantly on female shoulders.

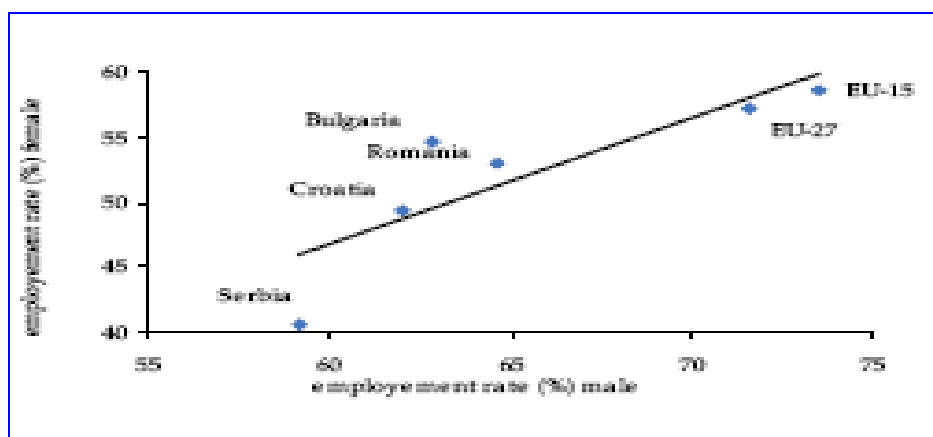
Macro- and micro-economic policies, including structural adjustment, most often do not take given factors and their negative impacts on women into account, especially on those that belong to marginal groups or those that are exposed to a larger poverty risk. The problem of employing women aged over 45 is especially marked, and women housewives, agriculture producers, young women and women from multiply discriminated groups. Major problems with employing women are as follows: inadequate qualification structure, age discrimination, pressures to delay marriage and parenthood.

Chart 2. Dynamics of the number of employees in Serbia



Obstacles to self-employment are: a lack of start-up capital, insecure economic environment, loan insolvency (a lack of real estate ownership), lack of knowledge and skills to undertake business, lack of self-confidence. Problems of employed women are reflected through: discrimination in performing managerial and best-paid jobs, segregation of professions to 'male', better paid and more prestigious and 'female', less paid and less prestigious, massive female 'black economy' work, a high concentration of female labour performing low-paid jobs, sexual harassment.

Chart 3. Employment rate by gender, 2006



Unionization lags behind market changes and women do not participate enough in the process of collective bargaining. Unemployment, low wages and job insecurity affect their adverse negotiating positions as well as delaying starting a family and childbearing, which extremely adversely. The value of

Pearson's correlation coefficient ranging from 0.71 to 0.90 represents a high correlation and extreme relatedness of variables.*

GDI, Gender-related Development Index

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) is the HDI adjusted for gender inequality.

GDI 2004. The value of the GDI index in 2004 (0.800) does not deviate much from the value of the HDI index (0.810), which indicates the fact that in Serbia in 2004 the disparity between levels of human development of genders was not high. In 2004 the growth of GDI index continued, largely caused by the growth of GDP (PPP \$), while other parameters did not change significantly. GDI index value varies of 0.800 ranks Serbia 51st in the world.

Table 2. GDI in neighboring countries, 2004

Country	Life expectancy at birth (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Gross Enrolment Ratio (%)		Estimation of income per capita (PPP \$)		GDI	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	Value	Rank
Serbia	75.1	69.7	94.3	98.9	83	77	5,525	9,874	0.800	51
Albania	76.9	71.1	98.3	99.2	67	69	3,487	6,492	0.780	59
Bulgaria	75.8	69.1	97.7	98.7	81	81	6,406	9,855	0.814	44
Croatia	78.6	71.6	97.1	99.3	75	72	9,872	14,690	0.844	40
Greece	81.0	75.7	94.2	97.8	96	91	15,728	28,837	0.917	23
FYR Macedonia	76.5	71.5	94.1	98.2	71	69	4,286	8,943	0.791	54
Romania	75.2	68.0	96.3	98.4	77	73	6,723	10,325	0.804	49
Slovenia	80.2	79.2	-	-	100	91	15,992	26,129	0.908	24
B and H	77.0	71.5	94.4	99.0	-	-	5,568	8,582	-	-

Source: Report, UNDP 2007

Table 3. GDI structure in Serbia

	Life expectancy at birth (years)		Adult literacy rate (%)		Gross Enrolment Ratio (%)		Estimation of income per capita (PPP \$)		GDI	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	Value	Rank
2000	73.5	69.3	94.3	98.9	77	74	2,814	4,901	0.758	61
2001	74.2	70.1	94.3	98.9	79	76	2,853	5,285	0.766	61
2002	75.1	70.1	94.3	98.9	82	78	2,994	5,465	0.772	58
2003	75.1	69.7	94.3	98.9	81	76	4,478	8,235	0.792	50
2004	75.1	69.7	94.3	98.9	83	77	5,525	9,874	0.800	51
2005	75.4	70.0	94.3	98.9	81	76	5,766	10,722	0.808	-

Table 4. Comparison of GDI and HDI indexes, 2004

GDI as % of HDI	Life expectancy at birth (years) women/men (%)	Gross Enrolment Ratio women/men (%)	Estimation of income per capita and gender (PPP US\$) women/men (%)
1. Luxembourg (100.4)	1. Russia (122.4)	1. United Arab Emirates (126.0)	1. Kenya (83.5)
90. Mexico (98.9)	53. Chile (108.0)	27. Armenia (108.4)	71. Niger (56.6)
91. Cape Verde (98.89)	54. Italia (107.9)	28. Portugal (108.1)	72. Panama (56.1)
92. Serbia (98.89)	55. Serbia (107.7)	29. Serbia (107.8)	73. Serbia (56)
93. Nigeria (98.87)	56. B and H (107.7)	30. Libya (107.7)	74. Uruguay (55.3)
94. Bangladesh (98.87)	57. Germany (107.6)	31. Moldavia (107.4)	75. Zambia (55.1)
136. Yemen (94)	191. Kenya (95.8)	189. Afghanistan (40.9)	161. Saudi Arabia (15.4)

It is important to note that one of the items of the GDI index is the estimation of income (PPP US\$) per capita between genders, done in the Republic Development Bureau on the basis of a clearly defined UNDP methodology that is compatible with the estimation of the overall GDP (PPP US\$).

Serbia ranks 55 in the world according to the size of disparities in anticipated life expectancy between genders in favor of female sex and is at the same level as Chile, Italy, BiH, and Germany.

When it comes to combined measurement unit of school enrollment (primary school, secondary school and university enrollment), it can be inferred that Serbia ranks 29 in the world with the disproportion in favor of women (107.8%). A particularly interesting indicator of gender inequality is also the estimation of salary per capita. None of the countries in the world displays the ratio in favor of women, i.e. women earning on average more than men. Although almost all other indicators display the ratio in favor of the female gender, to a smaller or larger degree, this indicator is characterized by most drastic disproportions to the benefit of the male gender. It seems that countries with the lowest differences between salaries of women and men are the poorest ones.

In Serbia salaries of men are on average twice as the salaries of women. If the ratio of GDI as a % of HDI is closer to one, it can be inferred that the equality of achieved human development between genders is more balanced.

Table 5. GDI disparities, 2004

<i>Life expectancy at birth (years) women/men (%)</i>	<i>Gross Enrolment Ratio women/men (%)</i>	<i>Estimation of income per capita and gender (PPP US\$) women/men (%)</i>
1. Ukraine (120.0)	1. Latvia (115.5)	1. Sweden (80.7)
19. Albania (108.2)	9. Denmark (109.3)	26. Slovakia (58.3)
20. Italia (107.9)	10. Portugal (108.1)	27. Germany (57.7)
21. Serbia (107.7)	11. Serbia (107.8)	28. Serbia (56.0)
21. B and H (107.7)	12. Moldavia (107.4)	29. Greece (54.5)
22. Germany (107.6)	13. Finland (107.2)	30. Albania (53.7)
36. Iceland (104.6)	39. Turkey (84.0)	40. Turkey (35.4)

This indicator is based on determining the following indicators: the percentage of women in the parliament, percentage of women at leadership, managerial positions, percentage of women in overall employment and gender disparity in realized income.

GEM Gender Empowerment Measure

Women in decision making in 2007, Political Participation Index

In Republican Parliament of Serbia, out of 250 parliamentary seats, 35 of them were held by women (14.0% parliamentary share)* / just in 2008. there are 18% woman among ministries of new Serbian government/

$$I1 = (0.514 * (14,0) - 1 + 0,486 * (86,0) - 1) - 1 = 0,245$$

Then this initial result is indexed to an ideal value of 50%.

$$I1 = 0,245 / 0,50 = 0,489$$

Other national parliaments, some comparison:

The European Union performs better than average with the proportion of women members of parliament (single/lower house) rising from 16% in 1997 to 24% in 2007, though this is still well below the so-called critical mass of 30%, deemed to be the minimum necessary for women to exert meaningful influence on politics. The six priority areas for EU action on gender equality set out in the Roadmap are: equal economic independence for women and men; reconciling

professional life with private and family life; equal participation in decision-making; eradication of all forms of gender-based violence and trafficking; elimination of gender stereotypes; promotion of gender equality in external and development policies

Of the 20 countries worldwide • that have achieved the critical mass of 30%, eight are from within the EU - Sweden, Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, Belgium, Germany, and Austria. The European Parliament (31% women) would also just make it into this select group

On the other hand, there remains a further seven EU countries where women account for less than 15% of members of parliament – the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Ireland, Slovenia, Hungary, Romania and Malta

Belgium showed the greatest improvement in the parliamentary gender balance over the last ten years (from 12% to 35% women) - a direct result of positive intervention by the government through legislation enforcing parity amongst candidates and equal visibility on ballot papers. International IDEA4 notes that most of the countries that have achieved the critical mass have an electoral system based on proportional representation and some form of quota system to proactively reduce the obstacles to women entering politics at national level

Turkey and Malta remain the only countries covered by the database where more than 90% of the members of parliament are men

At the time the Beijing Platform • for Action was launched in 1995, women accounted for only just over 10% of members of parliament worldwide. Since that time, there has been a steady, if slow, improvement so that by July 2007 women accounted for over 17% of members of national parliaments globally.

Regional assemblies. At regional level, women have a stronger political voice than at national level, with an average of 30% representation in regional assemblies. There is, however, significant variation between countries, from 48% women in both Sweden and France to below 15% in Slovakia, Hungary and Italy.

National governments. On average, men outnumber women in the cabinets of EU governments by around three to one (24% women, 76% men). • Although a commitment to balanced representation is evident in some countries - Spain (41% women), Sweden (46%), Norway (53%) and Finland (60%) – the cabinets of Slovakia, Greece and Turkey include just one woman each and that of Romania has no women members at all.

Only eight of the current twenty-seven EU Member States have ever had a woman prime minister (or equivalent position) - the United Kingdom, Portugal, Lithuania (twice), France, Poland, Bulgaria, Finland and Germany (current).

Central Banks. The central banks of all twenty-seven EU Member States are led by a male overnorn.

On average, the highest decision-making bodies of EU central banks include five men for every woman. Sweden and Norway lead the way, but they are the only two European central banks with more than one in three women in such senior positions

In seven EU Member States (Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Portugal, and Slovenia) and in Turkey, the highest decision-making body of the central bank is comprised solely of men

At European level where all three of the financial institutions (European Central Bank, European Investment Bank and European Investment Fund) are led by men and there is an average of just below 16% women in positions of influence.

Amongst the central banks of EU Member States there is not a single woman governor – all 27 are men – and the proportion of female representatives in the highest decision-making body of the banks is also low at just 15%. Indeed, seven Member States have no women members of these powerful decision-making bodies and only in Sweden is the gender balance close to parity. The situation is even worse in the three European Financial institutions where there are again only male leaders and just 5% women members of the most senior bodies.

In the supreme courts of Member States the gender balance is better than in the central banks, with an average of 30% female and 70% male judges but the European courts again lag behind with just 22% women members.

Public administrations. There has been significant progress in promoting women within the central administrations of EU member states where they currently fill nearly 33% of positions in the top two levels of the hierarchy compared to around 17% in 1995. The proportion of women in similar positions within the European institutions has also improved from 14% to just under 20% over the same period but there remains much room for improvement.

The judiciary. Across Europe, the groups of judges presiding over each of the national supreme courts comprise an average of 70% men and 30% women but this balance is significantly influenced by high numbers of women in the courts of some of the countries that joined the EU in the last two accessions – in particular Bulgaria (76% women) and Romania (74%). In the EU-15 countries only 18% of judges are female – only a slight improvement from 15% in 1999.

Economic activity index

Of the total number of administrator and manager position, 27.9% are held by women. Likewise,

59.4% of women are professional or technical workers.

$$I211 = (0.504 * (27,9) - 1 + 0,496 * (72,1) - 1) - 1 = 40,000$$

$$I221 = (0.504 * (59,4) - 1 + 0,496 * (40,6) - 1) - 1 = 48,309$$

$$I21 = 40,000 / 50 = 0,800$$

$$I22 = 48,309 / 50 = 0,966$$

$$I2 = (0,800 + 0,966) / 2 = 0,883$$

Business leaders. Across Europe, women account for just over 44% of all workers but they are more likely to be employed in junior positions such that they comprise only 32% of those considered as heads of businesses (chief executives, directors and managers of small businesses), and only 11 percent of the membership of governing bodies such as boards of directors and supervisory boards, our research has found.

The under-representation of women at the top level is heightened in big business where men account for nearly 90% of the board members of leading companies (constituents of the blue-chip index in each country) and there has been very little improvement over recent years

A noteworthy exception is Norway, where the government has taken positive action to redress the imbalance by imposing gender parity on the board membership of both public and private companies (minimum 40% women). With sanctions possible in case of non-compliance, the legislation has already resulted in the level of female representation in the boardroom rising to 34%, which is 10 percentage points ahead of any other European country

In the United States, fewer than a third of the leading 1,500 companies had even a single woman among their top executives in 2006, according to research from Columbia University and the University of Maryland. The numbers are even more discouraging elsewhere: in South Korea, for example, 74 percent of the companies surveyed in 2007 had no female senior executives. We believe that such underrepresentation is untenable in the longer term—and not only because it's unfair

GDP Share Index

Women and men created per capita GDP to the amount of 3638 PPP US\$ and 6330 PPP

US\$ respectively, $GEM = (0,489 + 0,883 + 0,112) / 3 = 0,495$

Comparing GEM values for the group of selected developed and transition countries, it can be seen that Serbia lags behind in this index of human development as well, but less than with GDI.

Table 6. Value of GEM index

Sweden	0.854
Austria	0.770
Slovenia	0.584
Croatia	0.560
Hungary	0.529
Greece	0.523
Serbia	0.495
Romania	0.465

Table 7. GEM structure in Southeast Europe countries, 2004

Country	Seats in parliament held by women (%)	Female senior officials and managers (%)	Share of female employe in total employment (%)	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	GEM	GEM. rank
Bulgaria	22.1	33	61	0.65	0.595	37
Croatia	21.7	23	52	0.67	0.602	33
Greece	13	27	49	0.55	0.614	29
FYR Macedonia	19.2	28	53	0.48	0.554	43
Romania	10.7	29	57	0.65	0.492	59
Slovenia	10.8	34	57	0.61	0.603	32
Serbia	19.6	25	43	0.56	0.556	43

Results presented quantitatively in the form of the GEM index are the extension of discussion of gender equality, partly presented in the form of the GDI index. On the basis of the GEM index, which differs from the GDI index since it measures various relevant dimensions in the social life only for the female sex, it is possible to arrive at several conclusions.

Firstly, Serbia ranks 5 in the Southeast Europe region, ahead of Macedonia and Romania. Compared to the GEM in 2003 (0.485), 2004 saw a substantial growth in the first place conditioned by the growth of the percentage of women in the parliament and income (PPP US\$) per capita, so that the value of the index is markedly increased (0.556).

When we talk about the percentage of women in the parliament, Serbia ranks third, behind Bulgaria and Croatia.

The indicator of percentage of women at leadership positions ranks Serbia at an ultimate position ahead of Croatia, while the indicator of women's share in overall employment (43%) ranks Serbia definitely last, which can partly be put down to adverse trends of the process of economic restructuring. The ratio of income disproportion (PPP US\$) per capita, which is in all countries in favor of men, ranks Serbia 5th, ahead of Greece and Macedonia.

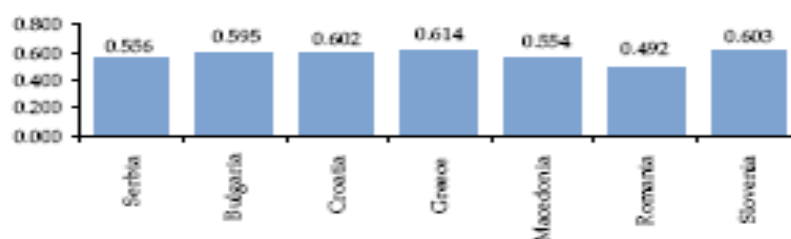
Chart 4. GEM in SEE, 2004

Table 8. GEM structure in European countries and Serbia, 2004

<i>Seats in parliament held by women (%)</i>	<i>Female senior officials and managers (%)</i>	<i>Share of female employe in total employment (%)</i>	<i>Per capita wages gender disparity (PPP LIS\$) women/men (%)</i>
1.Sweden (45.3)	1. Ukraine (43)	1. Lithuania (68)	1. Sweden (80.7)
17. Portugal (21.3)	25. Greece (27)	2. Estonia (67)	26. Slovakia (58.3)
18. Latvia (21.0)	26. Holland (26)	29. Italy(45)	27. Germany (57.7)
19. Serbia (0.556)	27. Serbia (26)	30. Cyprus (45)	28. Serbia (56.0)
20. FYR Macedonia (19.2)	28. Denmark (25)	31. Serbia (43)	29. Greece (54.5)
21.Poland (19.1)	29. Croatia(23)	32. Malta (39)	30. Albania (53.7)
38. Turkey (4.4)	33. Turkey (7)	33. Turkey (31)	40. Turkey (35.4)

By calculating Pearson's coefficients, it is possible to arrive at several conclusions:

Rankings of countries by GEM index values is highly correlated with the rankings by HDI index value, which is indicative of the fact that countries with a high level of human development boast marked and larger gender equality.

A close relation between the level of income (PPP US\$) and the GEM index also indicates that in countries where the standard of living is high, the role of female population in all segments of the social life is larger. This is exemplified by Scandinavian countries that all have high values of the GEM index, but also the standard of living measured with the income of purchasing power parity (PPP US\$). Finally, strong relations between the GEM index and enrollment rate of female population should be noted, which can be a road sign, but also leads to a conclusion that a higher degree of education of male and female gender creates solid basis for development of gender equality.

The low rate of business ownership among women permeates around the world.

Aggregate data from the OECD indicate that female self-employment rates are substantially lower than male rates in almost every reported country with an average ratio of 0.543 (OECD 2002). In the United States, the female business ownership rate is 6.6 percent, which is only 60 percent of the male rate (Fairlie 2006). In general, previous studies on differences in firm performance by gender have revealed that women-owned firms were more likely to close, and had lower levels of sales, profits, and employment (Rosa, Carter and Hamilton 1996; Robb 2002; Robb and Wolken 2002, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991). These studies find that financial capital, education, and work experience are important factors. Another line of research investigates whether women access different business and investment social networks than men, which could affect outcomes (Brush, et al. 2004). See Gatewood, et al. 2003 for a comprehensive review of the literature and Coleman (2001) for a discussion of constraints faced by women-owned firms.

Conclusions

Although gender mainstreaming—the “systematic incorporation of gender issues through all governmental institutions and policies in Serbia”¹—, its impact is difficult to measure. How much must gender-related programs, policies, and projects be gender-related to be considered in furtherance of gender mainstreaming? International organizations have focused more on their internal processes than on their operational outputs regarding gender issues. Indeed, international organizations favored an integrationist approach to gender mainstreaming instead of an “agenda-setting” framework. Their aim was to integrate “women and gender issues into specific policies rather than rethinking the fundamental aims of the organization from a gender perspective.”

The wide diversity of indices and datasets given in the work highlights underlying debate about the essence of gender and gender disparities in Serbia, and focus on issues concerning education, employment, income, and political participation.

According to new measures which have been developed to shift the focus to gender inequality, future studies in Serbia would have to consult them more to point out the level of improvement. This means first, activities of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base (GID-DB) which does so by incorporating variables such as norms, laws, and traditions into the quantitative analysis of women's participation in the labor force. The World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report focuses on measuring gaps (instead of mere levels) between men and women, and captures such gaps in outcome variables (instead of in means or input variables).

References

UNDP Report, 2007

National Report on SME Serbia 2006

http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/gender_equality/gender_mainstreaming/roadmap_en.html

http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/women_men_stats/index_en.htm

Allen, S. & Truman, C. (1993). Women and men entrepreneurs: Life strategies, business strategies. In S. Allen & C. Truman (Eds.), *Women in business: Perspectives on women entrepreneurs* (pp. 1-13). London: Routledge.

Association of Women in International Trade (WIIT). (1998). *Second annual survey of public opinion on international trade*. Washington, DC: Author.

Babaeva L. & Chirikova, A. (1997). Women in business. *Russian social science review*, 38(3), 81-91.

Moghadam (Ed.), *Democratic reform and the position of women in transitional economies* (pp. 181-196). Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Brush, C. (1998). A resource perspective on women's entrepreneurship: Research, relevance and recognition. *OECD's Women entrepreneurs in small and medium enterprises*, pp. 155-168. Paris: OECD.

Chun, J. (1995, August). Equal access: women business owners find their place in the world. *Entrepreneur* 23, 84-87.

Engel, B. A. (1991). Transformation versus tradition. In B. Clements, B. Engel, & C. Worobec (Eds.), *Russia's women* (pp. 135-147). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Estes, V. (1999, November 18). *Women & business development: promoting economic growth and job creation*. USAID/Europe & Eurasia Bureau: author.