

**UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS**

DIPLOMA THESIS

**THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN BUSINESS: THE CASE OF
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA**

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STATEMENT

Student Lidija Džanić hereby states that I am the author of this diploma thesis, which was written under the mentorship of prof. Dr. Irena Vida. I herewith agree this thesis to be published on the website pages of the Faculty of Economics.

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1 INTRODUCTION

The status of women in society is a longstanding issue that continues to affect the world today. In politics, organizations or in any other segment of business, at a local or an international level, women are underrepresented. This is especially the case in top management where negligible number of women hold positions. Various studies show that advancing to the top management positions is much harder for women than it is for men. Women have to work harder and prove themselves more in order to be promoted to top management. Reasons for this are prejudice, stereotypes, and gender differences which exist in favor of men.

Worldwide, there is a tendency to favor men over women in promoting them to the high level management. This, of course, differs from country to country and from one to another part of the world. One of the reasons are cultural differences, which are related to economic development of the country, the political system and religion. There is a significant difference in the position of women between Western countries and developing countries (ILO, 2004, p. 17 and 19).

Companies are changing because of an increasing number of women in the workplace, especially those in managerial positions. Today, men and women are learning to work together under a traditional hierarchical structure. It is a male dominated structure since men greatly outnumber women in upper level management positions. Women are seen as unqualified for power positions as “feminine qualities” are associated with low level positions (DeMatteo, 1994, p. 23).

For the purpose of this thesis I decided to research and explore the position of women in business and top management functions in Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H). Why is this country interesting? Ever since the war in the early 90's (1992-1995), B&H has been facing problems which have been considered much more “important” than the problem of women in high level management positions. In this geographical area three religions intertwine and tradition is highly valued.

In my opinion, the position of women in Bosnia and Herzegovina tends to be more like that in Western than in developing countries. It is still uncertain how much time Bosnia and Herzegovina will need to be comparable with European countries in many spheres, as well as in gender egalitarianism. I will use the globe gender gap index to depict and explain women's position worldwide.

The purpose of my thesis is, through a thorough study of the existing literature to examine the role of women in the business world today. Furthermore, to examine what problems occur within the initial hiring process, working process and promotion among women in an organization. The secondary aim was to provide effective suggestions for resolving

existing problems. The goal was to portray how women in B&H perceive their position in their working environments.

The thesis is divided into five chapters. A short overview of the thesis is as follows:

The second chapter presents the relevant theoretical background of working women today. This chapter is divided into seven sections where issues concerning women will be further examined. I will explain gender equality and equity in cultural, business and political environments along with the differences in advancing to the top. In chapter three I will apply PEST analysis through which I will describe the macro environmental factors of B&H. Furthermore, I will focus on women's position and rights in B&H society as well as in the work place.

The theoretical chapters described above provide the foundation for the fourth and fifth chapters, in which I will present the empirical part of my thesis. They include survey research that I have conducted among a number of employed women who live and work in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Initially, I define the problem and the goals that I wished to achieve in the research, followed by the research plan, the data analysis and the findings. Finally, in the conclusion I will summarize the key theoretical and empirical elements and offer recommendations for gender equality.

2 WOMEN IN BUSINESS

Throughout the history, the role of women in the business world has been changing. Different background, biological and psychological differences put women in a special place in the business world.

2.1 WOMEN RIGHTS

The official battle for women rights began in 1946 when the UN established a commission to monitor and promote women's rights. The first UN Women's Conference took place in Mexico in 1975, leading to the well known event the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) held in 1979 (Wach & Reeves, 2000, p. 30). The purpose of the Women's Convention was to assure certain measures by which women can enjoy all their human rights and fundamental freedoms (UN, 1997-2007). Different countries committed themselves to end discrimination against women in all forms. The main goals were:

- to achieve equality of men and women in their legal system by suppressing all discriminatory laws and adopting laws which prohibit discrimination against women;
- to create tribunals and other public institutions for the protection of women against discrimination;
- to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women by persons, organizations or enterprises.

In 1981 the Women’s Convention was ratified by twenty countries. Ten years after almost one hundred nations decided to participate to put an end to discrimination against women. The Convention is handling women’ situation in three dimensions:

- civil rights,
- legal status of women and
- human rights.

The legal status of women draws the most attention. It includes all appropriate measures to abolish discrimination against women in political and public life. Those actions consist of education, employment, economic and social activities, equality of women in civil and business matters, issue of marriage and family relations with equal rights and obligations. The appropriate legal status of women achieves equality between women and men on the political and social level.

Along with other civil rights, the Convention deals with reproductive rights emphasizing proper understanding of maternity as a social function, a woman’s reproductive choice, shared responsibility for child-care by both sexes, social services for child-care, integration of maternity protection and child-care. The above mentioned apply to all areas of the Convention, whether dealing with employment, family law, health care or education. The third main part of the Convention addresses culture and tradition in the form of stereotypes, customs and norms which interfere with women’s professional advancement and equality in economic and political fields.

Worldwide, 89 percent of countries have ratified the Women’s Convention. Ratification of the Women’s Convention differs between regions and more so among countries which are depicted in the Table 1 (Wach & Reeves, 2000, p. 32).

Table 1: Response to the Women’s Convention

Region	Ratified	Ratified with reservation	Not ratified
Europe and N. America	<i>Canada</i>	<i>United Kingdom</i>	<i>USA</i>
	<i>Japan</i>	<i>Netherlands</i>	<i>Monaco</i>
L.America and Caribbean	<i>Colombia</i>	<i>Argentina</i>	
	<i>Mexico</i>	<i>Brazil</i>	
Africa	<i>Chad</i>	<i>Morocco</i>	<i>Sudan</i>
	<i>Mali</i>	<i>Lesotho</i>	<i>Niger</i>
Asia and Pacific	<i>Cambodia</i>	<i>India</i>	<i>Korea (Rep)</i>
	<i>Kazakhstan</i>	<i>China</i>	<i>Afghanistan</i>
Middle East		<i>Iraq</i>	<i>Saudi Arabia</i>
		<i>Israel</i>	<i>Iran</i>

Source: Wach & Reeves, Gender and Development: Facts and Figures, 2000, p. 34.

2.2 GENDER EQUALITY

Gender equality represents equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men, girls and boys. Gender equality concerns both women and men. Equality means that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend whether they are born male or female. It does not mean that women and men will become the same (Ghinararu & Petrovic, 2005, p. 22). People working in the formal economy, self-employed, casual and workers in the informal economy as well as care workers and private households' workers, who are mainly women, have a right to decent work (ILO, 2006, p. 3). Women as well as men need economic, social and political equality.

Gender mainstreaming is a globally accepted strategy for promoting and achieving gender equality. Inequality keeps women poor, financially dependent, illiterate and unhealthy. Gender mainstreaming is one way of reducing poverty, improving education and lowering maternal mortality. The purpose is to deal with discrimination through programs and strategies that increase the abilities and opportunities of the inferior gender and better understanding of their rights through education and training (Cook, 2000, p. 39).

Numerous studies during the last decade have confirmed that reducing gender inequality increases productivity and economic growth. Gender equality improves the quality of life. Women represent half of the world's population and half of its talent. The costs of not developing and using this talent are huge. As an example, the Asia and Pacific region, because of reducing job opportunities for women, experiences the costs of \$42 to \$46 billion annually. Growing number of business, political and societal leaders around the world implement gender equality as a policy priority. However, according to the latest studies, only about one-third of women participate in the workforce (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2007, p. 20).

2.3 CULTURE

People live in different environments with different cultural values. These different values and behavior should be accepted, recognized, and not threatened as negative stereotypes. Different authors present distinctive cultural dimensions with which almost every country can identify itself. "Culture is a shared system of meaning, ideas, and thought" (Rosenzweig, 1994, p. 2). Culture describes beliefs and practices of the society, which are closely associated with tradition and religion.

National culture plays important role in establishing the role of women and their social standing. It is necessary to point out the difference between the terms "sex" and "gender". The term sex describes the biological division of individuals into male and female groups, while gender explains cultural, social and psychological qualities of individuals as masculine or feminine (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002, p. 122). Gender is an awareness of the cultural and geographic specificity of gender identities, roles and relations. Gender role is a

set of culturally defined behavioral norms. Gender roles were traditionally divided into feminine and masculine gender roles, which differ from one country or culture to another, and can differ even within country or culture (An & Kim, 2007, p. 183). There have been cultural changes in the expectations relating to work for women and men.

Geert Hofstede, one of the most influential cultural researchers, conducted his research among over 116.000 IBM employers in 50 countries. Hofstede's cultural dimension masculinity/femininity illustrates to which degree a country culture is masculine or feminine. He claims that if in one country more people held masculine values then fewer people held feminine values. Hofstede identified differences among countries, by gathering the data about culturally determined values and designing four work-related value dimensions (Deresky, 2006, p. 94; Hofstede, 2005, p. 125):

- power distance,
- uncertainty avoidance,
- individualism/collectivism,
- masculinity/femininity.

In masculine countries, men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, while women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Femininity stands for a society in which both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life (Hofstede, 2005, p. 120). Differences between feminine and masculine societies are depicted in Table 2.

Table 2: Key differences between feminine and masculine societies: gender roles

<i>Feminine societies</i>	<i>Masculine societies</i>
Small gender culture gap	Large gender culture gap
More equal job and education opportunity	Less equal job and education opportunity
Larger share of women in professional and technical jobs	Smaller share of women in professional and technical jobs
Socialization toward nontraditional gender roles	Socialization toward traditional gender roles
Women describes themselves as more competitive than men do	Men describes themselves as more competitive than women do
Gender stereotypes rooted in universal biological differences	Gender stereotypes country specific
Characteristics freely attributed to one or the other gender	Attribution of characteristics less easily differentiated
Women describe themselves in their own terms	Women describe themselves in same terms as men
Men allowed to be gentle, feminine, and weak	Women should be gentle and feminine; nobody should be weak
Men claim suppressing joy and sadness	Men claim showing joy and sadness
Women's liberation means that men and women should take equal share both at home and at work	Women's liberation means that women should be admitted to positions hitherto occupied only by men

Source: An & Kim, Hofstede's masculinity dimension to gender role portrayals in advertising: A cross-cultural comparison of web advertisements.2007, p. 186.

The masculinity/femininity value dimension explains differences between feminine and masculine cultures. In countries with high masculinity, religion is very important as well as tradition, by which, mostly, women are inferior to men. Family structure is traditional, women are expected to stay home and raise families. Also in these societies there is a larger gender wage gap and fewer women in management positions. Organizations in masculine societies provide unequal opportunities for women and men in career advancement (Hofstede, 2005, p. 132, 147 and 157).

Gender egalitarianisms, a cultural dimension of the GLOBE Project, measures the degree to which an organization or society tries to minimize inequality and discrimination between women and men. It was measured at both societal and organizational level. The more gender egalitarian a society, the greater the belief that women and men are suited for similar roles and the greater is women's participation in the economy, government and politics. Cultural drivers of gender egalitarianism are: parental investment, climate or geographic latitude, religion, economic development, social structure and resource control, mode of production and political system. Members of stronger egalitarian societies enjoy greater economic prosperity, knowledge, longevity, satisfaction. Organizational cultures reflect the practices and values in society in which they are implanted (Emrich, Denmark & Den Hartog, 2004, p. 351 and 388).

2.4 WOMEN WORLDWIDE (GENDER GAP)

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO) research data from 41 countries (2004, p. 19), women held between 20 and 30 percent of legislative, senior official and managerial positions. In 16 of 41 countries women held 30 to 39 percent of such jobs. Women's share of the labor market and of managerial jobs was highest in countries of Eastern and Central Europe. In general, countries in North America, South America, and Eastern Europe have a higher share of women in managerial jobs than countries in East Asia, South Asia, and the Middle East.

The global gender gap index for 2007 confirms that no country in the world has reached gender equality, since the highest ranking country has closed about 80% of its gender gap. The gender gap index ranks countries by examining the gap between women and men in four essential categories (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2007, p. 4):

- Economic participation and opportunity
- Educational attainment
- Political empowerment
- Health and survival

The globe gender gap index included 128 countries around the world. The Nordic countries are ranked the best among 128 countries. Sweden holds the first place, followed by

Norway, Finland, and Iceland. European countries hold 14 places among top 20 positions¹. Greece (72), Malta (76), Cyprus (82) and Italy (84) hold the lowest places among the European Union countries. The explanation for low positions of these countries can be seen in low income ratios scores, low percentage of women professional and technical workers, senior officials and managers and low number of women in political bodies. The worst ranked European country is Turkey, holding very low 121st place (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2007, p. 9).

Canada holds 18th place, whilst the United States is ranked 31st, which is a drop according to results from 2006, when it was 23rd. The highest ranked country in Latin America and the Caribbean is Cuba with the 22nd place. Brazil (74) shares the top spot in the health category in the region. According to results from 2006 Brazil has improved on income and wage equality, in contrast to a poor performance on educational attainment and political empowerment. Guatemala, ranked 106th, is the country with the largest gender gaps in the region. In the Middle East and the North Africa region, Israel has the best rating of all in the 36th position. However, Arabic countries perform significantly below the global average, holding places above 100. Yemen holds the last place in the overall rankings, since it has closed only 45% of its gender gap. In the Asia and Oceania region, New Zealand is the country with the best ranking (5). Australia is 17th and has improved women's economic participation compared to results from 2006. Because of very poor performance on economic participation and political empowerment, Japan holds only 91st place. Although Bangladesh, India and Pakistan perform relatively well on political empowerment, because of very poor performances in other categories, they hold the bottom places on the overall ladder. Sub-Saharan Africa has one country in top 20 which is South Africa holding 20th place, mostly because of strong performance on political empowerment. Most of other countries in this region are at the bottom, with Chad holding 127th place (Appendix 1).

2.5 THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN

According to Hofstede, education is a factor created by a society that preserves and strengthens cultural values. In the knowledge-based environment and globalizing economies, education appears as a critical element of the growth process. Knowledge and competencies are necessary for developing a competitive advantage. In recent years women have attained an educational level comparable to men in many countries and they are more hired in jobs that used to be reserved for men (Wirth, 2001, p. 25).

Through out the history, when only privileged people could be educated, women and peasants were not expected to have education since they already had the knowledge they needed to fulfill their life roles (Lobodzinska, 1996, p. 520). If the country is wealthy, men and women follow the same educational path. Even now in poor countries girls do not have

¹ Sweden(1), Norway(2), Finland(3), Iceland(4), Germany(7), Denmark(8), Ireland(9), Spain(19), UK(11), Netherlands(12), Latvia(13), Lithuania(14), Croatia(16), Belgium(19).

access to school. Poor families almost always give priority to boys in educational opportunities and prepare daughters to their future traditional role, projected from the society (Hofstede, 2005, p. 139). Culture plays an important role in determining the number of women in education. In some Islamic countries women are not allowed to participate in the public life and most of the time they spend at home (Blättel-Mink, 2001, p. 11). Research demonstrates that investment in girls' education reduces female fertility rates, increases women's labor force participation rates and earnings and promotes educational investment in children (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2007, p. 20).

Globally, there are 860 million illiterate adults, and about two thirds are women. Illiteracy affects mostly the rural population, especially women from rural areas. In Arab countries and North Africa, and South and West Asia, there is a significant difference in illiteracy rate between women and men (UNESCO, 2000).

In developed countries, nevertheless, there was inequality between men and women in tertiary education. Universities were male-dominated and women were discriminated against. This varies from country to country, for example the percentage of women in higher education has been higher in Eastern Europe than in Western Europe (Mischau, 2001, p. 20). Over the past few decades, both developed and developing countries have made significant progress in educating women. In many developed countries, women now account for more than half of the college and university graduates and many developing countries have dramatically reduced gender gaps in literacy and primary/secondary education (Hausmann et al, 2007, p. 20).

Nowadays, the situation of women in higher education is improving almost in all countries. Since the 1970's, the women's share in higher education worldwide has been increasing. In 1975, the number of female undergraduates was 36 percent, in 1985 it was 42 percent and in 1995 it was 48 percent. Though, as a consequence of subject segregation, women tended to study the fields of humanities and social sciences, and men tended to predominate in engineering and sciences (McDonald, 2004, p. 316).

One of the key solutions to gender equality is education. Education is one of the most important components of human capital, and provides a range of skills valuable for employers. Education for women is the way to emancipation and to finding a better job. Women's equal access to higher education makes it easier for them to be a part of the competitive labor market and to be paid more equally (Garcia-Ramon & Monk, 1996, p. 205).

2.6 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN ADVANCING TO THE TOP

Nowadays, women around the world represent 40 % of global work force, and only 5 % of them held top management positions (The Glass Ceiling: Will We Ever Break Through, 2007, p. 11 and 13). Thanks to the many actions taken to promote gender equality, the

number of female managers grows. According to Catalyst (2007), over the last decade the level of women in management roles has trebled, and women account for 14.8 % of board directors of the Fortune 500, which has grown slightly compared to 2006, when this share was 14.6%, but only 6.7% of the women in Fortune 500 are top earners.

Many studies have tried to answer why there are such wide gender differences in top management positions. Researchers tried to answer this by theories of human and social capital. Advanced education, company tenure, management development, experiences, job changes and mobility, are investments in human capital and activities necessary for individuals to develop knowledge and skills. Women can not work the long hours, attend late meetings or travel for high-level jobs, due to motherhood. In order to advance, women move to other, mostly smaller companies. Women executives believe that they have to work harder and be more effective than men to advance to top management positions. Men believe that human capital is the major reason why women do not advance to the top. On the contrary, studies have shown that the lack of social capital is the major barrier to advancement to high management level. Stereotypes, discrimination, male dominated cultures, exclusion from mentoring and networks have been critical obstacles for women's advancement. Since upper management jobs are male sex-typed jobs, female attributes do not fit the executive roles. Women executives work in female jobs, since in male dominated jobs, men are not comfortable to be supervised by women. Women generally find that it is of huge importance to have access to mentors and informal networks, from which they are excluded (Tharenou, 1999, p. 113-123).

2.6.1 GLASS CEILING

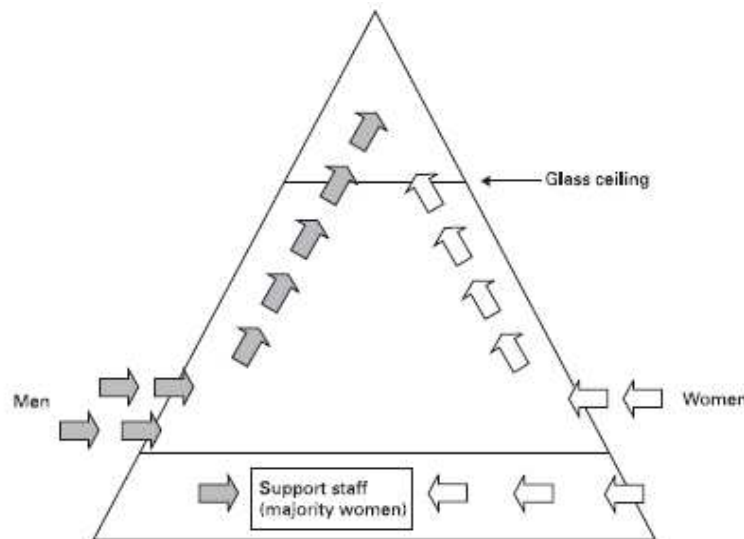
One of the main reasons for the small percentage of women in high-level management positions is the glass ceiling, which can be explained as a hidden labor market discrimination. The term "glass ceiling", when it was first used in 1986, described a corporate world in which access to the top for women was blocked by the corporate tradition and prejudice (Jackson, 2001, p. 30). The glass ceiling is invisible, but it exists and operates to prevent minorities and women to the top management positions.

The glass ceiling as an invisible barrier, is the tendency to favor men over women in promoting people to high-level positions. It exists between middle and upper management and limits women's access to management positions which involve more responsibilities and higher pay. There are several causes for the glass ceiling in organizations, which could be explained by the lack of human and social capital concept. Skills, knowledge and expertise are necessary for women to advance to the top. The social capital concept is explained by stereotypes, lack of support and exclusion from networks (Tharenou, 1999, p. 112).

Men, especially those who come from masculine societies, have negative and stereotyped views toward women's advancement to executive levels. History, prejudices and tradition

are also important causes for the existence of the glass ceiling. It involves competent, skilled, expert, highly educated women, who move constantly upwards until the ceiling point where only men can move up. These positions are intended for their male colleagues, who have the equal or poorer opportunities for advancing. The glass ceiling may exist at different levels in organizational structures, as it is shown in figure 1 (Wirth, 2001, p. 25).

Figure 1: The glass ceiling in organizational pyramid



Source: Wirth, *Breaking through the glass ceiling: Women in management*, 2001, p. 26.

2.6.2 GLASS CLIFF

The glass cliff as another obstacle in women's advancement in management, explains that women tend to be appointed to leadership positions under very different circumstances than men do. More specifically, women are more likely to be appointed by the boards of companies that had experienced constantly poor performance, and are brought in to 'save the ship from sinking'. In this environment, weakened by previous mishandling and mismanagement, women's leadership positions tend to be associated with an increased risk of criticism and failure (Ryan & Haslam, 2006, p. 3). In this situation, women are held responsible for negative actions which were taken before they came to leadership position. The glass cliff is an invisible barrier which women experience after breaking through the glass ceiling (Ryan, Haslam & Postmes, 2007, p. 183).

2.6.3 BARRIERS TO WOMEN'S PROMOTION WITHIN MANAGEMENT

According to Cai and Kleiner (1999, p. 51), there are five major factors that may repress women's career progression:

1. Stereotypes and perceptions
2. Mentorship and networking

3. Discrimination in the workplace
4. Family issues
5. Becoming ones' own boss

In the following section I will explain each of those factors.

2.6.3.1 STEREOTYPING

People use stereotyping almost intuitively to save energy and time in order to make judgments about distinctive categories or groups of people. One's behavior and thinking are often automatically influenced by stereotypes, although a person commonly does not recognize or consider it. Gender stereotypes explain how women and men differ (Catalyst, 2005, p. 6).

Stereotypes are based on opinions and perceptions and not on facts, and this is also a common case of gender stereotyping. Gender stereotypes are general beliefs about gender roles and gender traits. Even now, in the twenty first century, gender stereotyping is an open issue for women. The fundamental stereotype concerning women is that their primary task is to raise children and take care of households. Then again, men are expected to go out to work and to provide for the family (Wilson, 2003, p. 395).

Gender stereotyping in business can manifest itself as a great disadvantage to women's promotion, since stereotypes describe women as characters without necessary qualities for successful leadership. The fact is that women think and act differently than men, but it does not mean that men think and act in a better way than women or vice versa (Catalyst, 2005, p. 6).

Male traits, such as aggression, competitiveness, decisiveness and forcefulness, are qualities necessary for effective leadership. On the other hand, stereotypical female traits are integrity, diligence, cooperativeness and sincerity. Traditional gender stereotyping in the workplace hierarchy places women as passive and shy, in contrary to typical stereotypes believed to be a requirement for success. These success stereotypes have been formed through the observation of successful leadership role models who have historically been men (ILO, 2004, p. 59).

One of the most common stereotypes is that women managers are less career-oriented and less ambitious than their male colleagues (Brochbank & Traves, 1996, p. 91). Problem-solving abilities are one of the main objectives of successful managers, which based on stereotypes, women do not have. Stereotypically, dissimilarity between women and man is that women "take care" and men "take charge". Some employers that have hired women to lead will not follow them on the job; consequently many of those women are likely to fail (Bible & Hill, 2007, p. 66).

2.6.3.2 MENTORSHIP AND NETWORKING

One of the important factors of male managers' successful careers is a company mentor who helps them with their professional development and supports their interests. Women do not enjoy this privilege which is significant for moving up the corporate ladder (Brochbank & Traves, 1995, p. 95). The majority of mentors are male, given that senior executive women are rare in male-dominated companies. Therefore women managers have few female role models and also hardly any skilled mentors willing to guide them. Male mentors tend to choose men over women as a protégé (Linehan, 2000, p. 70).

Mentoring is a relationship in which a more experienced person is committed to providing developmental assistance and guidance to a less experienced protégé. Mentors help protégés with career development and psychosocial support. Mentors help build the social capital of protégés by introducing them to influential individuals within or outside the organization. Challenging work, coaching, sponsorship, exposure and visibility, protection and guidance, confirmation, acceptance, friendship, counseling, and others, are important elements for career advancement and job satisfaction. Employees who have not received mentoring are at disadvantage, and as a result they suffer from a lack of opportunities. Since mentoring is of great importance for advancement, a growing number of organizations provide formal mentoring programs which have been made available to employees who do not have access to mentors. Those employees are usually women and minorities (Forret & Janasz, 2005, p. 479).

According to Vinnicombe & Singh (2002), women believe that one of the difficulties for advancing was that they had less information than men, as a consequence of the lack of informal connections and access to mentors. Mentoring in organizations is a common concept, but the novelty is women serving as mentors to other women. People with mentors are more satisfied and successful in their jobs than employees without mentors. Women who do not have access to informal networks may not be able to be seen as organizational decision makers, as this can be caused by their limited chances for leadership roles (Jackson, 2001, p. 33).

Networking is important for women who have not had mentor's assistance. Mentors are useful in the early stages of career development, while networking is a helpful factor of career development at all stages. Networks are the key element for mutual work benefit among colleagues. On the whole, women are excluded from important organizational networks, traditionally united by individuals, who represent organizational authority. The "old boy" system consists of respectable associations, external or internal, where women are not allowed to join. This type of networking relies on informal connections involving favors, persuasions and connections to people who already have influence (Linehan, 2000, p. 73).

European women's management development (EWMD) was founded in 1984 with the purpose to establish networks for women in management in countries where they had not formerly existed. EMWD provides opportunities for women in management to share information, views and experiences. Men and women can be members of the organization, which has three key objectives (Linehan, 2000, p. 74):

1. to promote and develop the knowledge and performance of women in management;
2. to encourage women to move into powerful positions in the workplace and the community;
3. to aspire to a more evenly balanced mix of men and women in senior management roles and in that way help to improve the quality of management internationally.

2.6.3.3 DISCRIMINATION

Even though many countries adopted the law on gender equality, which prohibits any type of gender and sexual discrimination, gender discrimination exists in the business area as much as in any other area. The business environment accepts women as part of the population who do not own the characteristics required for success (Bible & Hill, 2007, p. 68).

Discrimination could be direct or indirect. Direct gender discrimination occurs when a person has been, is, or may be treated less favorably on the grounds of gender than another person in the same or a similar situation. Indirect gender discrimination occurs when apparently neutral legal standards, criteria or practices that are equal for all have the effect of leaving a person of one sex disadvantaged compared with a person of the other sex (Inclusion Group, 2007, p. 5).

Joshi & Paci (1998) suggest different types of discrimination in the workplace. They divide discrimination between pre-entry and post-entry discrimination. Pre-entry discrimination includes a different approach to the labor market such as education and general training. Post-entry discrimination results in employment, occupation, job or wage discrimination. If female employment probability differs across groups then that is due to employment discrimination. Job or occupational discrimination takes place when women have no opportunities to enter particular occupations and they fill up other occupations, predictably less paid and with not as much responsibility. There is wage discrimination in a workplace, if gender pay gap is systematically greater than gender differences in productivity.

According to the taste-based theory of discrimination, men may receive preferential treatment because (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 24):

- employers prefer male workers over female,
- male workers do not like working alongside women, especially further up the hierarchy and
- consumers prefer to do business with men rather than women.

The theory of statistical discrimination explains how an employer with no intention to discriminate against a woman, might discriminate her in favor of a man. Employers in most situations do not receive information on individual workers' productivity, so they can not evaluate the productivity of each respective worker. However, employers would rather hire men and pay them higher wages, because women's marginal product is expected to be lower. Better information flow could improve this (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 24).

2.6.3.4 FAMILY ISSUES

The feminine role is to be a housewife, who manages the affairs of the household. The housewife is a wife and a mother. Housework is underestimated as is the amount of time women spend doing it. It is a real job, only without trade unions, with no professional associations to define performance criteria, and no organizations to defend their interests, and most importantly without payment (McDowell & Pringle, 1992, p. 136). Women's housework often is not recognized as work and it is unpaid labor. Worldwide, even two thirds of women's work, which mostly consist of childcare, household tasks and agricultural work, is unpaid (Grumm, 2008).

The traditional role for women has been to work at home without pay, although the times have changed and men do not earn enough now to support their families. The negative side of this is that traditional roles have remained in the minds of men and women, and working women are expected to perform both roles. There are exceptions, especially in the modern world, and with younger generations where household tasks are equally distributed between women and men. Some families decide to employ waged domestic help, in order to spend more quality time for themselves, with partners or children (Haas, 1998, p. 2).

Even though both employed women and employed men have families, more often than not it is a woman who takes responsibility for the family. For this reason, many times women have to choose between having a family and a top management position (Bible & Hill, 2007, p. 68). Therefore women and even executive women with young children increasingly leave their careers or start to work half time to become full-time mothers. Family role models, where women play a leading role, have not changed, although women's career prospects have. Married women, especially those with children, live in two worlds, one at work and one at home (Winn, 2004, p. 147).

Due to the fact that nowadays women care more about their educational and career development, the fertility rate has declined in Western countries. Educational accomplishment, cultural and religious factors influence the proportion of women who decide to remain childless (Wood & Newton, 2006, p. 11). Working women carry the burden of two full time jobs. For women, success and influence on the job are associated with failure and dissatisfaction in their private life. They feel guilty about compromising the quality of their work and the relationship with their family. On the other hand, there are women, yet not so many of them, not willing to renounce family life and personal

happiness, and successfully manage to combine their two roles. Single mothers, especially parent mothers, do not have the option to choose between children or work, so they are even more motivated to work hard and be promoted since their children's future depend just on them. The Family life of female and male executives differs, which is depicted in table 3.

Table 3: Family life of women and men executives

<i>Delayed marriage</i>	18 %	9%
<i>Currently married</i>	79%	94%
<i>Partner with a full-time job</i>	74%	25%
<i>Delayed having children</i>	35%	12%
<i>Decided not to have children</i>	12%	1%
<i>Having children</i>	65%	90%

Source: ILO, Breaking through glass ceiling: Women in management, 2004, p. 47.

2.6.3.5 WOMEN BUSINESS OWNERS

In recent years, in some countries, there has been a significant growth in the share of self employed women. Reasons for this can be explained by “push” and “pull” factors. Because of restructuring and downsizing in the public and private sectors women have been pushed into self-employment, because of insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with a salaried job, the need for a flexible work schedule prior to family responsibilities. Women have been pulled to run their own business because of a desire for more autonomy, flexibility, independence, entrepreneurial drive and their drive to avoid the glass ceiling and lack of opportunities to advance to top management (ILO, 2004, p. 33).

Women are forced to start their own business if they want to avoid the glass ceiling, particularly when working in male-dominated corporations. According to the Catalyst study, one of the decisive aspects for women to become entrepreneurs is they can become their own boss. Fifty eight percent of women business owners responded, that there is nothing that would attract them back to corporate jobs (Mattis, 2004, p. 160). According to the Census Bureau in 2002, in the U.S. women owned 28% of all private businesses. Women-owned businesses are privately held firms in which 51 percent or more of the firms are owned by women (High Beam research, 2006).

The key problem for achieving independence via entrepreneurial activities is of a financial nature. Because of inequality, funds are also inaccessible to women. Starting a business is risky, costly and there is no guarantee of success. Venture capital funds are mostly reserved for male entrepreneurs, so women have to use their personal assets to start a

business, such as savings and credit cards. Businesses owned by women are mostly small and tend to grow more quickly than those headed by men (Mattis, 2004, p. 154)

2.6.4 OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Gender inequality results in occupational segregation by which men and women perform different jobs. Female’s jobs require less skills and knowledge and for that reason, these are less paid jobs than male’s jobs are (Wirth, 2001, p. 10).

Table 4 illustrates traditional stereotype occupations by gender.

Table 4: Stereotype occupations

<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>	
construction worker	surgeon	midwife	wages clerk
electrician	dentist	housekeeper	dietician
mechanic	scientist	home help	health visitor
farmer	doctor	clerk	personnel officer
bus driver	accountant	shop assistant	librarian
chef	investment analyst	beautician	teacher
pilot	lawyer	hairdresser	nurse
programmer	company Director	waitress	counselor
astronaut	bank manager	secretary	social worker
architect	politician	receptionist	supervisor

Source: Alexander, Career Planning for Women: How to Make a Positive Impact on Your Working Life, 1996, p. 63-64.

If jobs are mainly done by women, then these occupations become feminized occupations, which have more than 50 percent females of one profession. Given that women occupy these professions, those are not as valued as male professions are. This traditional segregation between male and female jobs is called horizontal occupational segregation within levels of the vertical hierarchy (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 74).

Qualified women are likely to be placed in lower value jobs, with low skill requirements and with no adequate financial reward. That is why they find themselves in non strategic jobs and not in vertical line and management jobs leading to the top of the hierarchy. Consequently, these women, despite their skills and quality, end up as a support staff for their strategically positioned male colleagues. Senior management positions are predominantly occupied by men. For instance, in the health sector men predominate as doctors and administrators along with the educational sector, where teachers are mostly women and administrators are men. The judiciary, the information and communications technology sector are new untraditional areas where women are making progression (ILO, 2004, p. 8)

2.6.5 WAGE GAP

Persons of equal skills and productivity, in a free market economy, should have equal payment. Wages should be different among people with different skills. But in reality, different skills and productivity are not the only reasons why wages differ. Age, race or gender cause inequity in the labor market and consequently wage inequality. After 1951 when ILO recognized the necessity of equal pay for work of equal value by women and men, individual countries started to bring different types of legislation referring to the wage equality in different periods of time (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 1-7). However, pay disparity still exists.

Wage discrimination means that women as one population group are paid less than men as people in the rest of population with equal productivity associated characteristics (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 23). There are various explanations why men are paid more than women:

- Human capital theory points out the importance of education, training, and work experience on individual labor productivity. Since men are given preference over human capital investments, differences in human capital are strongly linked to gender based earnings gap (Huang, 1999, p. 362).
- Sector concentration means that women and men are sorted into two sectors where women are concentrated in a crowded female sector which is different in terms of pay, security, advancement opportunities and working conditions (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 25).
- Occupational segregation is considered as the principal reason for gaps between women's and men's wages. Even though men and women work in the same job categories, men have jobs with more responsibilities, are consequently better paid, which causes earning gaps between equally qualified female and male employees (ILO, 2004, p. 29).
- Working time also can explain the existence of the gender pay gap. Part timers are paid less, as the productivity of full timers is higher. Mostly women decide to be employed in part time jobs due to domestic and family responsibilities (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 27).
- The private sector is mostly occupied by men and part timer women, female full timers are less likely to be in the private sector. Women employed in the private sector are mostly part timers, who are paid less. The sector of employment gives another explanation of gender pay gaps. The number of women working in the public sector is considerably higher in many countries than the number of men. In the public sector, women are more equally paid relative to men, since it is easier for government policy to fix wages (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 80).
- As unions are male dominated, men prevent women from joining in the uncrowded higher paid male sector (Joshi & Paci, 1998, p. 25).

Worldwide, women earn on average 23.7 percent less than men for the same job (Meulders, Plasman & Rycx, 2004, p. 247). Gaps in job opportunities for women and in the wages paid to women compared to male colleagues are still considerable even in developed countries, where dependence on knowledge industries and knowledge workers is large and growing, in contrast to the even larger gaps in the majority of developing countries (Hausmann et al, 2007, p. 20).

2.6.6 MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

There is an assumption that women pursue different leadership styles than men, mostly because of gender differences. Many authors try to answer this question by applying various theories and then studying the differences between male and female leadership styles.

A common belief is that the managerial environment is a male one, and only men can and do understand tradition, culture and rules, because of their male experiences. The differences concerning female and male leaders could be reflected in behavior, motivation, stress and relationship to subordinates. Stereotypically, female leaders who have adopted male characteristics are seen as good and successful ones (Kanjuo Mrčela, 1996, p. 84). Leaders are seen as dominant and ambitious, which are characteristics men possess, whereas those feminine stereotypes, friendliness and sensitivity, insignificant qualities unnecessary for leadership. The traditional leadership style of women is about women's interpersonal, communication and people-management skills (Catalyst, 2005, p. 7). While men are seen as leaders, women are seen as the supportive followers. Women who describe themselves as predominately "feminine" or "gender-neutral" are followers (Rosner, 1990, 5). Table 5 illustrates some typical female and male characteristics.

Table 5: List of "female" and "male" characteristics

<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Gender-neutral</i>
Gentle	Dominant	Adaptive
Submissive	Independent	Tactful
Excitable	Aggressive	Sincere
Sentimental	Tough	Conscientious
Understanding	Assertive	Conventional
Compassionate	Autocratic	Reliable
Dependent	Competitive	Predictable
Emotional	Analytic	Systematic
Sensitive	Decisive	Efficient

Source: Rosner, Ways Women Lead, 1990, p. 5.

Leaders are expected to possess male characteristics. Women lead more democratically, while men's leadership style is more autocratic. Transformational leadership style, by which subordinates transform their own self-interest into the interest of the organization for

a broader goal, is a characteristic of female leaders. It is associated with interpersonal relationships and the sharing of power and information. Male leaders tend to use a series of transactions, exchange rewards and punishment to influence the performance of subordinates, what is called a transactional leadership. Female characteristics make women more communicative, since they are good listeners and empathic. Women are also people orientated with an understanding of emotional needs of their employees and handle them with a softer approach (Appelbaum, Audet & Miller, 2003, p. 48; Rosner, 1990, p. 4).

An androgynous leadership style is the combination of male and female leadership behaviors. This style should be the most effective one since it includes the most significant characteristics of both, feminine and masculine leadership styles. Therefore, it is more appropriate for numerous situations. It is the best possible style for both sexes at the present time (Kanjuo Mrčela, 1996, p. 90). Since androgynous leadership style is the most effective approach for achieving high performance, it means that also men should learn and adopt female characteristics if they want to become top leaders and not only women to be learners and followers as mentioned before.

2.7 WOMEN IN POLITICS

Women won the right to vote in uneven stages. The first country to gain equal voting rights was New Zealand in 1893 and the first country to allow woman to stand for elections was United States in 1788. Then, slowly, other countries gained this right (Appendix 2). The most recent countries to grant women's voting rights was Kuwait in 2005 and United Arab Emirates in 2006 where for the first time in that country's history both men and women stood for election and voted. However, there are still countries where women are not allowed to vote such as Saudi Arabia (Women in History, 2007).

After World War I, the first woman became a minister, and Denmark was the country where this happened. In 1960 Sri Lanka had the first female Prime Minister, after that Argentina in 1974 had the first woman President. By the end of 2007 there were 9 female presidents, 6 female Prime ministers and 3 Queens in the world. At the present there are the only two countries which never had a female member of the government, Monaco and Saudi Arabia. In 1999, Sweden became the first country to have more female ministers than male and in 2007, the Finish government consisted of 60 percent of women (Guide to women leaders, 2007).

Women in political leadership are poorly represented, just in the same way as in executive ranks. Whenever women's leadership appears, women have to deal with the same differences. By 31st October 2007, the world average for women representatives in national parliaments has been 17.4 percent, with 17.5 percent of these in the single or lower house and 16.6 percent in the upper house or senate (IPU, 2007). Since 1997 women's representation in national parliaments has increased by 30 percent when these numbers

were, in the same order as before: 11.3 %, 11.7% and 9.8% (IPU, 1997). Women's government representation differs strongly among regions, which is depicted in table 6.

Table 6: Women in national parliaments by region

	Single House or lower House	Upper House or Senate	Both Houses combined
Nordic countries	41.6%	---	41.6%
Europe - OSCE member countries including Nordic countries	21.1%	17.4%	20.3%
Americas	19.4%	17.3%	19.1%
Europe - OSCE member countries excluding Nordic countries	19.0%	17.4%	18.6%
Sub-Saharan Africa	17.0%	20.7%	17.5%
Asia	16.6%	16.5%	16.6%
Pacific	12.6%	31.8%	14.7%
Arab States	9.5%	6.3%	9.0%

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), 2007.

It is assumed that women are more conservative, more moralistic and less interested in politics than men are (McDowell & Pringle, 1992, p. 195). In political life, women are concentrated in certain sections. Women mostly do not hold higher responsibilities in the fields of finance and foreign affairs, security and defense, but women are highly represented in social, family, health and labor affairs, areas which are considered to be more appropriate for women. It is not necessary that the wealth of the country is related to the representation of women in governments (Wirth, 2001, p. 48).

Many governments in the world have introduced quota systems as a way to endorse gender equality in all sectors of society. The aim of a quota system is to ensure that women form at least 30 to 40 percent of decision making bodies. Implementation of such a quota system has succeeded mostly in countries in Europe, especially in the Nordic countries (ILO, 2004, p. 25).

Women politicians' main concern is to combine political and family life. In Nordic countries, as the example which other countries in the world should follow concerning women representatives, day care for small children is available to women parliamentarians. The women generally believe that female representation in politics is changing society for the better (ILO, 2004, p. 24).

3 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN BUSINESS IN B&H

Over time, the role of women in Bosnia and Herzegovina has been changing. Still, for most of them, it is very difficult to reach top managers positions, which theory and research will show.

3.1 PEST ANALYSIS

In this chapter, I decided to do a PEST analysis for B&H as it can provide a view of the country and its situation, and should establish a basis for my thesis work. PEST analysis stands for political, economic, social, and technological analysis. It is an external analysis that describes macro environmental factors, which are useful for doing market research or strategic analysis (Wikipedia, 2008).

3.1.1 DEMOGRAPHIC AND PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Bosnia and Herzegovina has a population of 4,590,310 and population growth rate about 0.666 percent. The country consists of two regions—Bosnia in the north, with Sarajevo as its chief city; and Herzegovina in the south, with Mostar as its chief city. The ethnically diverse population speaks Bosnian-Serbo-Croatian. In B&H live three constituent nationalities based on ethnic principle: Bosniaks, Serbs and Croats (CIA Factbook, 2008). “Bosniak” is a relatively new term for Bosnian Muslims, and many would rather say that they are Muslims. Many B&H people would like to declare themselves just as the Bosnians or the Herzegovinians, but formally it is not possible (Bringa, 1995, p. 11). The country's Bosniaks (about 48 percent), Serbs (about 37.1 percent of the population, largely Eastern Orthodox) and Croats (about 14.3 percent, mostly Roman Catholics) formerly formed a complex patchwork, but the war and the flight of refugees forcibly segregated much of the population. According to data from the CIA World Factbook 40 percent of the population in B&H are Muslims, 31 percent Orthodox, 15 percent Catholics, 4 percent Protestant and 10 percent other religions (CIA Factbook, 2008).

The age structure of the inhabitants is as follows: 14.7 percent of the population are 14 years or less (male 347,679; female 326,091), 70.6 percent are 15 to 64 years (male 1,634,053; female 1,606,341) and 14.7 percent are 65 years and over (male 277,504; female 398,642) (CIA Factbook, 2008).

The rural population decreased significantly as the result of the war in the 1990's. Most of the rural population moved to urban areas or went to other countries as refugees and have been slow to return. The number of single households has not increased significantly because many young people live with their parents. People are also waiting longer than previous generations to have children (IFAD, 2007).

3.1.2 POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

Bosnia and Herzegovina combines two entities: the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (F BH) (about 51% of the territory), where the majority of the population are ethnic Bosniaks (predominantly Muslims) and Croats (Catholics), and Republic of Srpska (RS) (about 49% of the territory), which is predominantly inhabited by ethnic Serbs (Eastern Orthodox Christians). The district around the town of Brčko belongs to neither entity and instead it is under international supervision. Entities control their own budgets, spending on infrastructure, health care, and education. The central state has comparatively few powers and is responsible for foreign affairs, customs and foreign trade, monetary policy and a few other areas: decision-making on all other areas is devolved to the two entities. B&H's central institutions are organized on the principle of ethnic parity. The chair of presidency of Bosnia and Herzegovina rotates among three members, Bosniak, Serb and Croat. The office of the High Representative - OHR is organized to supervise implementation of civilian aspects. The High Representative is the international executive officer who is the highest political authority in the country (Blagojević, 2004, p. 27-28).

The Government's development strategy includes the following goals (EURED, 2004):

- to create conditions for sustainable and balanced economic development, and achieve partial creditworthiness in the international capital markets,
- to reduce poverty by one fifth,
- to become a full member of EU,
- job creation and enterprise development.

3.1.3 ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

According to CIA factbook, GDP per capita in 2007 has been estimated at approximately US\$6,600 with an estimated real growth rate of 5.5 percent. B&H has run high trade deficits because with its low domestic production, imports have to complement demand for goods. However, the gap between imports and exports has been narrowing steadily. In B&H the main economic activity is trade, not production. The currency board mechanism minimizes inflation, since the national currency, convertible mark (BAM) has a fixed exchange rate to the Euro. In the past decade, inflation was moderate and it remained below 3 percent in 2007 even though VAT was introduced in 2006.

B&H has a highly educated workforce with relatively low labor wage costs. However, tax rates on labor are high, discouraging hiring of new workers and increasing incentives for grey market employment. In addition, a rigid wage determination system stands in the way of job creation and worker mobility. This is a result of a collective bargaining system that retains most of its socialist era characteristics. Many employers underreport their labor force in order to avoid paying taxes and benefits. While official unemployment is approximately 40 percent, the grey economy actually reduces unemployment rate to 25-30 percent. The country receives substantial amounts of reconstruction assistance and

humanitarian aid from the international community but will have to prepare for an era of declining assistance (CIA Factbook, 2004).

3.1.4 SOCIOCULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

B&H has 8 years of primary school and 4 years of secondary school education. In Bosnia and Herzegovina there are five universities in the major cities (Sarajevo, Tuzla, Mostar, Banjaluka, and Bihać) and 6 academies: 4 pedagogic and 2 art academies. Universities and academies last for 4 years. There were 65 institutions of higher education, where in 2002, 4319 students have graduated, 60 percent of those are females and 40 percent are males (Gender Bilten, 2005, p. 46). The adult literacy rate was estimated for male 99 percent and female 94.4 percent. The total work force was estimated at about 2 million (WBG, 2004).

Cultural life of Bosnia and Herzegovina is a unique mixture of Mediterranean, western European, and Turkish influences. Through the history of B&H, many civilizations have lived and have left their trails in today's culture, which is strongly connected to the three major religions in the regions. There are considerable variations between traditional and modern and between rural and urban culture as well. Family ties are strong, and friendship and neighborhood networks are well-developed. Great value is placed on hospitality, spontaneity, and the gifts of storytelling and humor (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2008).

3.1.5 TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT

During the past years usage of modern technology in B&H has increased, with a reduction in the costs of telephony and offering broadband internet to the B&H population. In 2007, 20.7 percent of population was using Internet, approximately 50 percent of population owned mobile phones and 25 percent used main telephone lines. However, Internet service providers still do not offer such a strong and affordable Internet connection, which is offered to Western countries' citizens. In B&H internet cafes are popular, and are used by the domestic population and tourists as well. Due to the improvement in telecommunication services, the government intends to privatize International Communication Technology (ICT) companies (CIA Factbook, 2007; FIPA, 2005, p. 17).

3.2 WOMEN IN ECONOMICAL, POLITICAL AND SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Significant changes in gender equality were made in B&H from 1999 till today. The legal institutions under government and entity levels formed commissions for gender equality. Gender centers were created as independent government organizations which named personnel responsible for gender focal points. A gender statistics work group at government level ensures that all data collected from statistical institutions are divided by gender. The mission was introduction and implementation of the gender equality concept to all aspects of life, through laws, policies and programs in cooperation with domestic and

international institutions and organizations. The main event happened in May 2003 when the law on gender equality was adopted, making B&H the first state in the region which approved such a comprehensive law (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 2).

On May 21st 2003, the Parliamentary Assembly of Bosnia and Herzegovina enacted the law on gender equality. The law consists of 31 articles, among other, regulating gender equality of education, employment and work, social welfare, health care, public life, participation in sports and culture. Any form of direct or indirect gender discrimination is prohibited in all aspects of life, as well as in educational institutions and also in employment and at work. Article 8 amplifies as follows (Law on Gender Equality, B&H, 2003):

- for the same work or work of equal value, equal wages and other benefits must be ensured;
- promotion at work must be ensured on equal terms;
- equal opportunities for education, training and professional qualifications must be provided;
- there must not be different treatment on the grounds of pregnancy, childbirth or exercising the right to maternity leave;
- an employee must be enabled to return to the same job or another job of the same seniority with equal pay after the expiry of maternity leave;
- work must be organized so that on the grounds of gender or marital status an employee is not left in a less favorable position than other employees.

Even though B&H made an effort to achieve the main goals from the Women Convention, female discrimination is still present in all spheres of life. One of the main discrimination acts at all government levels is that economic and financial planning was never made with gender sensibility (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 5). CEDAW presents a part of statute of B&H. Statute regulations, besides equality and equal possibilities, should also demand equal results and outcome considering specific needs and situations for women and men. The B&H law overlooked specific needs of women to achieve gender equality (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 19).

In most countries of the Balkan region there are intensive processes which promote a societal mechanism to achieve gender equality in all aspects, which is a huge step towards joining the EU. Even though gender equality is clear from the macro perspective, for most countries of the Balkan region it continues to be a painful and slow political and legislative change. Women's representatives in parliament in most countries in the region are fewer than 20%, only B&H and Kosovo have close to 30% (Blagojević, 2004, p. 208). In February 2007 current president Borjana Krišto was elected as the president of The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, being the first woman to hold the presidential position in B&H. The B&H female president takes a significant position in a very poor list of current women political leaders (Garza, 2008).

3.2.1 B&H WOMEN IN ECONOMICAL AND POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

Throughout the history of B&H, women never had a major political role, not even in times of communism. The consequences of the past are still present, including limited possibilities for women in political life (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 18). Without a solid economic base, governments find it difficult to provide the social services of a peaceful, stable society, often growing dependent on foreign funding. The difficulty of restoring a viable political infrastructure is compounded by the fact that countries' human capital is often severely depleted by conflict. Women's position is a central issue of post-war reconstruction in the way of rebuilding political and economic institutions. Revitalizing an economy means tapping into all of the economic resources available, including women's productivity, inventiveness, and commitment (Tzemach, 2007, p. 2).

The process of economic transformation for transition countries as well as transformation to a market economy brings aggravation of women's social role and increase in discrimination as a consequence. B&H is not an exception. Economical discrimination of women in B&H lies deep in patriarchal, socialist and communist heritage and devastating post war consequences on all sectors of economy. Political power in B&H is securing economic power which is the reason that political domination of men is in direct relationship with male domination in the economy (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 11).

3.2.2 SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Many women became heads of households for the first time in the wake of war; a solution for reducing poverty is the integration of women into the economy as women are often the main providers of support for their families. Women were left as the only providers for a quarter of B&H's households, where unemployment was rated to be 77 percent higher comparing to those led by men. Taking into consideration that women are both poorer and less likely to work outside the home, their economic independence means greater productivity and a higher standard of living for the entire country (Tzemach, 2007, p. 3).

As much as 75 percent of B&H women surveyed by the Star Network² were not satisfied with their position in society. Most of the respondents identified the source of their dissatisfaction in the "patriarchal tradition and customs that set down the position of women." Although women enjoy legal protection under the B&H law, traditional culture determines the economic climate. A major obstacle, especially for rural women, is the lack of knowledge about the legal framework protecting human and therefore women's rights (Tzemach, 2007, p. 5).

Despite the fact that women possess full legal rights to share and inherit property, property in B&H is typically registered under the name of a man in the household. This leads to complications related to financial services more generally. Forty percent of women

² A non-governmental organization (NGO) in Bosnia and Herzegovina

entrepreneurs surveyed in a STAR Network study believed that this lack of registered property makes obtaining credit more difficult (Tzemach, 2007, p. 5).

The traditional concept of gender roles in the former Yugoslavia has been dominant, and still is more dominant in B&H and the region than in Western countries. Since women take primary responsibility for the household and childcare, they do not have a real chance to get leadership positions. It is expected that managers have to be available for more than the standard number of working hours. Communist ideology promoted equality of the sexes. In the former communist countries, vertical mobility depended on loyalty to the Communist party, which meant one was also available for party work outside normal working hours (Dijkstra & Plantenga, 1997, p. 127).

3.3 WOMEN IN THE LABOUR MARKET IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

According to ILO (2006), the female activity rate for B&H was 30.8 %. The employment rate for women was 20.0% which was lower than for men (39.9%) and the female unemployment rate was 34.9% which was slightly higher than that for men (28.9%).

The majority of B&H women have only primary school education or less (58.8%), 36.2% have finished secondary school and only 5% have higher education. The majority of employed women in B&H have at least secondary education (55.0%). As much as 28.2% of employed women have finished only primary school or less and 16.8% employed B&H women hold a college, university, masters or doctoral degree (ILO, 2006).

Only 15.8% of B&H women have self-employment status, 10.9% are unpaid family workers and all other have an employee status. Significant difference between women and men is shown through the self-employment rate which for men was estimated 24.9% and also through unpaid family workers rate which for men was only 3.0%. In B&H women work 41.8 hours weekly hours on average, which is less than men who work 44.3 average hours weekly (ILO, 2006).

Due to educational and professional segregation B&H women are more represented in the following fields of studies: law, economics, mathematics and medicine while men study mostly at technical universities: electrical engineering, mechanical engineering and civil engineering. Women and men are approximately equally sharing places in other fields of study. Due to occupational segregation, B&H women are employed in textile or tobacco industry while men occupy positions in mining and steel production industry (Blagojević, 2004, p. 77).

As the Millennium Development Report argues: “A key indicator for a successful reduction of poverty will be improved conditions in the labor market for women, especially an increase in the female share of the labor market,” which is currently among the lowest

in the region. Women in B&H are initiating business activities to create a brighter economic future, as periodic surveys point to a small but growing network of women entrepreneurs. The number of women who said they would start their own business jumped from 18 to 60 percent between 1998 and 2002, according to a survey by STAR Network, a B&H NGO (Tzemach, 2007, p. 3).

3.4 WOMEN IN BUSINESS IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

When starting an enterprise, B&H women also have family factors to consider. The percentage of B&H women available for employment is reduced as a consequence of a lack of access to child care and the persistence of a traditional preference for women to stay at home. Women more often are more trusted in post-conflict situations given their status as either witness or victim in the recent violence. Additionally, the postwar period provides an opportunity for women to expand the boundaries of their traditional roles. For example, following the 1994 genocide in Rwanda, the new government adopted legislation that gave women inheritance and property rights for the first time. In Afghanistan, women who were protected away from society under the Taliban regime have now guaranteed seats in Parliament (Tzemach, 2007, p. 3-5).

During the past few years, a significant amount of B&H women have been promoted to managerial jobs, but only few of them have succeeded in reaching top management positions. Even now equality among men and women in management has not been achieved. In B&H there is the presence of a thick glass ceiling, which manifests itself in countless impenetrable barriers, which do not allow women to be equal to men in holding managers' positions. Very strong causes for not having so many women in top management in Bosnia and Herzegovina, are the importance of political networks and traditional family structure (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 11).

Access to senior management positions has always been strongly influenced by political connections. Women did not have a real opportunity to develop such connections. The most essential obstacle for having women as senior managers in B&H is their traditional mother role. Unmarried women feel great pressure to get married and consequently have children, because otherwise they would be seen as failures, as women who do not fulfill their natural role. In B&H it is harder to avoid the female traditional role than in some other countries, especially in Western countries. Children are in the first place for B&H women, so mostly they have part time jobs or positions with flexible working hours. Employers are not prepared to employ part-time managers, as it is possible for some others positions. Younger, educated women increasingly try to modify their family plans and career paths, by delaying marriage and planning their families more rationally. Nowadays B&H women, when they start working for company, they already have one or even two university degrees, consequently women have a clear vision of wanting to move up the hierarchy. Even though there is a huge progress in moving women to higher position in management, B&H women still find themselves responsible for managing family life.

4 RESEARCH ON B&H WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT

This chapter represents the empirical part of the thesis. A research survey among business women from Bosnia and Herzegovina was conducted. Since I have not come across similar research for B&H, I thought it would be interesting to see the role and perception of B&H women in doing business. I will begin by defining the research problem and the research objectives, followed by the research hypothesis, research plan and the data analysis. I will conclude with explanation of the research results and implications of the findings.

According to Zikmund (1999, p. 45) there are six stages in the research process:

- Identifying the problem
- Planning a research design
- Sampling
- Gathering the data
- Processing and analyzing
- Formulating the conclusions.

In my research process I have included all six stages mentioned above. This will be presented in this and the next chapter.

4.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Formulation of a research problem is the most difficult and at the same time the most important part of any research. The research strategy, data collection and analysis techniques can be effectively selected, only after a research problem is defined (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003, p. 13).

The objective of this research is to analyze the position and experience of B&H women in high-level jobs, based on data collected from both entities, Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina Republic of Srpska, including Brčko district. I wanted to find out how women perceive their position and their role in the business world in Bosnia and Herzegovina. I have taken interest in women managers' business environment and their relationship with female or male coworkers, as well as barriers women encounter in acquiring their jobs. I was also interested in female managers' family life, what their families expect from them and how women combine their two roles. Demographic data such as the highest education level, income, religion and nationality, age or marital status, have also been important elements in exploring the role of B&H women in business.

4.2 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

“Theory is formulation regarding the cause and effect relationships between two or more variables, which may or may not be tested” (Saunders et al, 2003, p. 26). On the basis of

secondary data presented in the theoretical part and the informal conversations with women employed in Bosnia and Herzegovina, I developed six hypotheses, which also helped me in designing the questionnaire.

H1: Women in top management positions have a tertiary education.

With this hypothesis, I want to find out if women in high management positions have university education. One of the main reasons why women were excluded from business in the past, and are still excluded from top management positions, is not having access to educational institutions. Earlier education was reserved for men and, women coped with a lot of difficulties accessing education. Nowadays, education is equally available to men and women, and it is a requirement for advancement (Wirth, 2001, p. 61). According to Hofstede (2005, p. 139), equal education is basic for equal job opportunities.

H2: B&H women feel discriminated at work.

Even though B&H adopted the law on gender equality which prohibits any form of direct or indirect gender discrimination in all aspects of life, including work life, there are evidences that gender discrimination still exists (Izvještaj u sjeni, 2004, p. 5). There are different types of discrimination, which make women feel discriminated at a workplace. According to Joshi & Paci (1998, p. 24), reasons why women are discriminated include that male employers do not like to work alongside women, employees prefer male employers and consumers prefer to do business with men.

H3: Overall, B&H business women believe that one of the obstacles for promotion is the lack of career related informal connections.

Women managers' experiences and the literature states that lack of informal connections is one of the difficulties for advancement in a company. Networks are the key element for mutual work benefit among colleagues. Women are excluded from important organizational networks, traditionally united by individuals who represent organizational authority. "Old boys" system consists of respectable associations, external or internal where women are not allowed to join. This type of networking relies on informal connections involving favors, persuasions and connections to people who already have influence (Linehan, 2000, p. 73).

H4: I assume there is connection between age and society's expectation of women's traditional role in the household.

Many women in B&H feel dissatisfaction because of the patriarchal tradition and customs which are present in B&H environment. Traditional concept in B&H has been dominant and has stayed in the minds of men and women, and working women are expected to perform both roles. There are exceptions especially in the modern world and with younger generations where household tasks are equally distributed between women and men. Some families decide to employ waged domestic help, in order to spend more quality time for themselves, with partners or children (Haas, 1998, p. 2).

H5: Marital status influence hours spent on work and on household tasks.

H5a: Marital status influence hours spent on household tasks.

H5b: Marital status influence hours spent on work.

Even though both employed women and employed men have families, more often the woman takes care of the family responsibility. For this reason, many women have to choose between having a family or top management position (Bible & Hill, 2007, p. 68). The feminine family role is important in a female manager's life. Women are expected to have two full time jobs, to combine two roles, to be successful both at home and at work. Married women, especially those with children, live in two worlds, one at work and one at home (Winn, 2004, p. 147). There are women, yet not so many of them, not willing to renounce family life and personal happiness and successfully manage to combine both roles.

4.3 RESEARCH PLAN

Designing a research plan requests following steps (Kotler, 2003, p. 131):

- Data sources
- Research approaches
- Research instruments
- Sampling plan
- Contact methods.

4.3.1 DATA SOURCES

For the purposes of the research, gathering secondary and primary data was required. Both were used as a source for the research developed by the hypotheses. I began by gathering secondary data from books, articles, class notes and related material from databases such as Emerald, EBSCOhost, Proquest. These sources were used in the theoretical part of the subject and served as the foundation of my empirical work. Spending some period of time in B&H, I personally had conversations with women and men from B&H who were familiar with the topic, professionally or privately. Primary data in the empirical part of the study were obtained by the questionnaire which was answered by 218 working women in B&H.

4.3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The most appropriate method for my research is a survey which is the most common method of gathering primary data. A survey gathers information through a questionnaire (Zikmund, 1999, p. 53). I find this method the most suitable one because it allowed various question forms to be used, enabling me to gather more information in a shorter time. Time was an important factor in this research, since working women at top managerial positions who are usually short of time, represented a sampling frame.

Since I could not find an existing questionnaire to cover all elements I needed for my research of the role of women in business, I developed it myself. The structure of the questionnaire was designed according to the hypotheses and research objectives. The questions and answers were formed using the theoretical basis and with my mentor's assistance. Even though I am aware of the advantages of personal interaction with the respondents, I tried to create understandable and simple questions, so respondents could answer it without my assistance. Since the target population consists of women who hold managerial positions, who consider their time especially valuable, my goal was to make a short questionnaire, to attain the data needed for my research. The questionnaire was originally created in English, so I translated it into Bosnian. Translation to Bosnian was not an easy task, as important details could easily get lost in translation. I was careful with translating the questionnaire, trying to avoid misinterpretation of the questions. To start the survey, I tested the questionnaire on seven employed women, mostly friends or acquaintances. After their feedback I changed some details, by eliminating and adding some parts of the questions. After their suggestions, I made the final version of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire (Appendix 3) contains 21 questions, which follow in a logical order. Most questions are closed ones, whereby the respondents had to choose one answer. Only the fifth question was an open one, since I wanted that respondents to feel free in answering it and I did not want to limit their response. In the sixth question I used a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 means that the respondent strongly disagreed with the statement and five means, the respondent strongly agreed with the statement. The questionnaire contains the following sets of questions:

- Questions about the respondent's employment: position within the company, sector of employment, work history, working hours, earnings.
- Questions about the respondents' career experiences: discrimination, wage gap, number of female colleagues.
- Questions about the respondents' opinions regarding men's and women's leadership skills, their opportunities in business.
- Questions about the respondents family obligations: household tasks, number of family members.
- Questions about personal details: age, marital status, educational level, religion, nationality.

At the end of the questionnaire, respondents had an option to write a comment about how they feel about the situation concerning women in management in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

4.3.3 SAMPLING PLAN AND CONTACT METHODS

The sampling frame of this research consisted of B&H's women in managerial positions from both entities, Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Republic of Srpska, and Brčko district. My sample consisted of 218 selected businesswomen living and working in

Bosnia and Herzegovina. The convenience sample of businesswomen included a variety of women, in terms of age, academic achievement, business experience, marital status. At the beginning of the survey I was personally present while respondents were answering. I personally collected the first 43 questionnaires via face to face interviews in Tuzla and Sarajevo. This process of collecting questionnaires was slow, costly and did not satisfy the need of covering population from both B&H entities. Given that the questionnaires were understandable and respondents did not need any assistance in answering them, I decided to place the questionnaire on a web page, which I created by HTML. The advantages of this Internet survey was the anonymity of the respondents, and in my opinion, it increased the honesty of the responses. The contact details of potential respondents were obtained from the Gender center in Tuzla where I had access to a database with the list of women employed in high positions coming from different cities of B&H. The gender center in Tuzla cooperates with gender centers from other larger cities on a national level. From the list I had access to, I chose 260 women managers. I contacted them by emailing them the web page and the necessary guidelines (Appendix 3). They replied through the web page in the period from 5th of November 2007 until 18th of February 2008. The response rate was 71 % since 184 filled questionnaires were sent back to me and 175 of those were appropriate for analysis. These women were from Tuzla, Sarajevo, Banja Luka, Mostar, Zenica, Brčko, Bihać, Travnik, and some other smaller towns.

5 DATA AND RESULTS

After gathering the data I analyzed them using Microsoft Excel 2003 and a statistical software package for statistics data analysis SPSS 15.0 for Windows for the analysis.

5.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

A convenience sample of 218 female employees working and living in Bosnia and Herzegovina were subjects for the study. The job titles included in this research were those of top, middle and first-line management level. Besides their management level, the respondents varied in education level, age, nationality, religion and marital status. Figure 2 illustrates that top management positions were held by 39.7 percent of the respondents, 17 percent were executives and 19.7 percent senior managers. In middle management level there were 37.6 percent of respondents and 25.7 percent in lower management level. Respondents were between 25 and 60 years of age. As expected, the group of respondents younger than 25 years of age is the smallest one, with just four persons or 1.83 percent, as it is illustrated in Figure 3. It is followed the respondents' group of women older than 55 years, holding only 5.5 percents. The largest group consists of women between 25 and 35 years of age with 37.61 percent of the total sample. The remaining sample is distributed between women who are 35 to 55 years old with 55.06 percent of the sample.

Figure 2: The share of respondents by management level

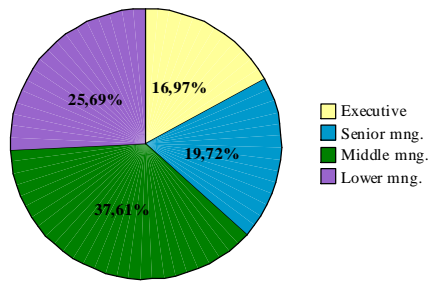
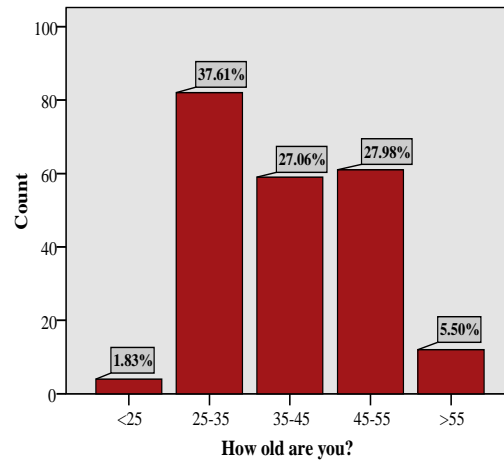


Figure 3: The age structure of respondents



Source: The results of the research, 2008.

5.2 UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY DATA

Women in my sample also differ by the sectors they work in. The public sector occupies 32.6 percent of the respondents, similar to the nonprofit sector with 32.1 percent. In my sample there were 22.9 percent of women employed in the private sector. Nowadays several international organizations are present in B&H to support post-war stabilization and EU reforms. For this reason 12.4 percent of respondents are employed in other sectors, which includes employment in UN, diplomatic missions and some other foreign organizations and institutions. Respondents are highly educated, as 73.2 percent of them had earned at least a bachelor's degree. Only 8.7 percent had only finished high school (Appendix 5, Tables 2, 3, 24).

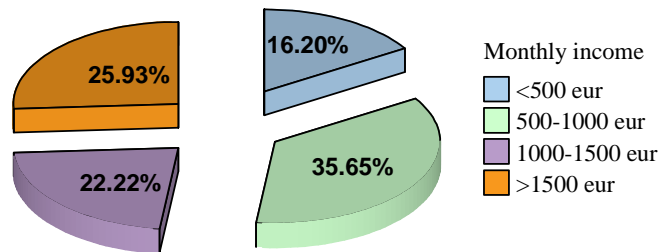
Most of the respondents (51.8%) have held their current positions for less than 5 years, 25.2% have the same position for 6 to 10 years. The other 33% are employed for more than 11 years. Only 22.5 percent of respondents spend up to 40 hours per week on work, 61 percent work up to 50 hours weekly and 16.6 percent of respondents work more than 50 hours per week. The results of the survey research indicate that 64.2 percent of the surveyed women spend less than 20 hours weekly on domestic work. As much as 9.2 percent of employed women who participated in the research spend more than 40 hours on household tasks (Appendix 5, Tables 4, 5, 6).

As it has been mentioned before, different nationalities and cultures are present in B&H. National and religious structure of the respondents is similar to the B&H's national and religious structure. Mostly respondents are Bosniaks (45.4%), 19.7% are Serbs and 15.4% are Croats. As much as 19.7% of the respondents could not say that they consider themselves as one of the nationalities in the survey and they marked the "other" option. At this point, B&H national problem appears, since some people in B&H would rather say

they are B&H or Bosnian nationality than one of the above mentioned. The results of the survey research show that there are 9.5% of respondents who feel like this. The religious structure of the respondents is comparable to the national structure, since all Bosniaks included in research, are of Islamic religion (45.4%), 17.9% of respondents are orthodox and 14.2% are Catholics. The remaining 11.5% of respondents regard themselves as atheists or agnostics (Appendix 5, Tables 24, 25, 26, 27).

The results of the survey research based on the 218 women employed in B&H, presumably employed in the higher positions, show that respondents' monthly incomes are mostly higher than the average, as it is shown in Figure 4. I assume that women managers in B&H are paid well, since, according to the Agency for statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, average net earnings for the first quarter of year 2008 were estimated to be 355 Euros (Prosječne isplaćene neto plaće zaposlenih u 2008, 2008). As much as 48.15 percent of the respondents earn more than 1000 Euros per month (Appendix 5, Table 30).

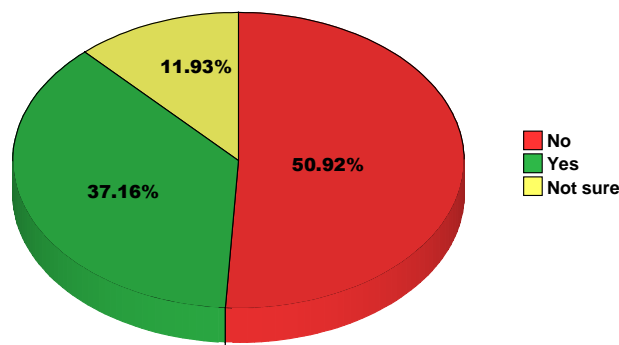
Figure 4: Respondents' monthly income



Source: The results of the research, 2008.

Figure 5 shows that only 37.2% of women respondents believe that men earn more. Less than one-third of those (28.9%) believe that men's earnings are up to 10% higher, 42.2 percent of the respondents think that men earn from 10% to 20% more and 28.9 percent believe that men earn at least 20% more than women. There are 61.5% of respondents who are married or are part of an informal partnership. Even 59.3 % of them earn more than their partner (Appendix 5, Tables 17, 18, 31, and 32).

Figure 5: Respondents' perception of pay gap in B&H



Source: The results of the research, 2008.

When examining women’s perception of their status at work, family and in society, I used Likert-type statements. The respondents were asked to rate each statement on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) response scale. The results of analysis are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Perception of women’ B&H managers about their status at work and in society

	% agreed	% disagreed	Mean	Std. Deviation
My career has negative influence on my family life.	39,0	53.7	2.55	1.500
My family encourages my professional success.	84.4	8.3	4.36	1.136
I’m expected to attend to all the tasks in my household.	38.1	54.6	2.69	1.500
I get household help from my family members.	77.1	17.0	3.94	1.301
My religion and nationality played an important role in acquiring my present position.	11.5	82.6	1.54	1.132
In my experience, men receive more organizational support with their professional prospects than women.	68.3	26.6	3.61	1.562
Women are less inclined to taking risks than men are.	44.9	41.7	2.96	1.524
Women suffer from discrimination in employment.	55.5	31.2	3.32	1.452
Women suffer from discrimination in wages and promotion.	56.5	35.3	3.24	1.548
Women establish smaller number of career related informal connections.	49.6	33.0	3.26	1.520

Source: The results of the research, 2008.

As Table 7 shows, the sample means range between 1.54 and 4.36. The first and second columns illustrate to what extent respondents agree or disagree with a statement. Columns “% agreed” includes percentage of respondents who rated statements with 4) or 5) on the 5-point Likert scale. In contrast, column “% disagreed” includes the percentage of respondents who were disagreeing with the statements and marked 1) or 2) on the response scale. The standard deviation of the sample range between 1.132 and 1.562 and indicates that respondents are rather undecided about answers (Appendix 5, Tables 7-16).

From the sample of 218 women employed in B&H, 10 women (4.6%) do not have an immediate superior. Just over half of the respondents (53.7%) have male bosses as a superior and 43.8 percent have a female superior. Only 10.6 percent of respondents would prefer to have women as a boss and 30.7 percent would prefer to have male boss. Immediate superiors’ gender is not important to 58.7 percent of respondents (Appendix 5, Tables 19 and 20).

The majority of the respondents (49.1%) have more female colleagues at the same professional level. Just less than on-third (28.2%) of the respondents have more male

colleagues and 22.7 percent have the same number of female and male colleagues. Only 12.8 percent believe that opportunities are not equal for men and women and 57.3 percent of the respondents believe that they do have the same opportunities for promotion as male colleagues. The rest (29.8%) are not sure if gender affects on opportunities for promotion (Appendix 5, Tables 21 and 22).

About half of respondents (50.4%) see women leaders as equally good as men. However, 22 percent believe that women as leaders are better than men and 7.3 percent think that women are worse than men as leaders. Uncertainty about whether gender is directly connected to leaders' abilities was stated by 31 women or 14.2 percent (Appendix 5, Table 23).

5.3 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis 1

With the first hypothesis, I wanted to find out if women with a higher level of education hold higher management positions. I used the results of question 1, from which I made two new groups named top management and middle management, and question 14, from which I made groups tertiary and non-tertiary education. The group "top management" stands for executives and senior management women, who were involved in the research and "middle management" for women from middle and lower management. Women with "tertiary education" are women who have at least a bachelor's degree; where as the group of respondents with "non tertiary education" are women who have less than a bachelor's degree education.

I used the chi-square test to measure the association of these two variables. Since the P value ($P=0.03$) is lower than 0.05 differences are statistically significant. Based on the sample data I reject a null hypothesis and accept the fact that education influences the higher positions within the company, additionally, women from top management have a tertiary education (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 1).

Hypothesis 2

I assumed that B&H women would believe that gender discrimination is part of doing business in B&H. To find out if this is true, I used results from the question 6, statements h) and i). I made a new variable "discrimination at work" by combining the mean scores of statements 6h and 6i. I used one sample t-test to test if mean scores are significantly different from 3. Based on the sample data, differences are statistically significant with $P=0.02$ which brings me to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative that women from Bosnia and Herzegovina feel discriminated at work (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 2).

Hypothesis 3

In hypothesis 3, I assumed that B&H business women believe that the lack of career related informal connections affect their promotion. As for the previous hypothesis, I once more used one sample t-test to test if mean scores are significantly different from 3, for the results of question 6j. The sample data shows differences are statistically significant with a P value of less than 0.05 ($P=0.013$). The mean score at 3.26 already illustrates that respondents involved in the research do agree with the statement. As a result, I can confirm that working women from Bosnia and Herzegovina perceive that informal connections have an effect on promotion and advancement (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 3).

Hypothesis 4

With this hypothesis I wanted to find out if younger women receive more support from their families. Questions 6c and 17 were used for this analysis, as sources to test if there is a connection between age and expected traditional role of taking the full household responsibility. Question 6c is a statement, answered by 5-point Likert scale, where respondents agreed or disagreed with the statement "I'm expected to attend to all the tasks in my household. I divided the question 17 into two groups, where the first group includes women up to 35 years old and the second one of women older than 35 years. The mean score of group of younger respondents is 2.44 and the mean score of older women group is 2.86.

Given that I tested two independent groups, a group of younger and a group of older women, and one variable, I used an independent sample t-test. P-score higher than 0.05, in this case $P=0.08$, did not show a statistical significance so I failed to confirm my research hypothesis and based on a sample data, I can not assume there is a connection between women's age and the traditional role of doing household tasks (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 4).

Hypothesis 5: H5a, H5b

With hypothesis 5 I wanted to determine whether marital status influenced the time spent on household tasks and the time spent on paid work. Question 19 helped me to create a new variable named marital status where married women are women who are married and women who live in informal partnership. Women that did not fit in the above mentioned category I characterized as unmarried women. For testing I also used questions 4 and 5. Question 5 was an open question from which I made 7 classes.

For these hypotheses I used a chi-square test to determine if there is any relationship between the two groups. For the hours spent on household tasks that are given 5% level of significance, the sample data shows that there are statistically significant differences between the groups at $P=0.015$, therefore I reject the null hypothesis and based on the

sample data, I accept the alternative hypothesis that marital status influences hours spent on household tasks (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 5a).

On the other hand, for the hours spent on work, I failed to confirm my research hypothesis at P-score 0.231 finding no significant difference between the groups, so sample data shows that there is no connection between marital status and hours spent on work (Appendix 5, Hypothesis 5b).

5.4 THE FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

In this section I will briefly summarize the most important findings that I obtained in my survey research. I want to emphasize that the findings of the survey research should not be generalized, since I have a small sample size of only 218 women who live and work in B&H. The findings could be completely different if the sample was larger or respondents came from different cities, with different backgrounds, habits and behaviors. It should be taken into consideration that some respondents might have provided distorted answers by being insincere in their answers.

Based on the results of sample data, I summarize that women from B&H are aware that they are in a subordinate position in society and their workplace compared to men. Women stated that they feel discriminated in employment and at the workplace, by agreeing to statements with sample means 3.32 (SD=1.452) and 3.24 (SD=1.548). Respondents agree that women as leaders are equally good or better than men, since 78.4 percent of respondents share this opinion. While respondents believe women to be equally qualified as men to hold high level management positions, only 10.6 percent of respondents would rather have women as their superiors. I assume that results would be different if men answered this question.

According to the results obtained in this research, I claim that women holding upper management positions are adequately educated, since 73.9 percent of respondents have a tertiary education. Married women spend more time on household tasks than unmarried women, which brings me to the assumption that traditional role is closely related to marriage. Even though 59.3 percent of women who are married or are in informal partnerships earn more than their partners, they still are responsible for family and household duties. Only 37.2 percent of respondents believe that men earn more than women.

Some of the respondents felt they needed to put the comments at the end of the questionnaire. I found many of these comments very interesting and motivating. Four of the respondents pointed out that nationality and religion are barriers in employment and promotion. One of the respondents said (free translation from Bosnian by the author with the consent of the respondent): “Everything depends of the national key; non-Muslim population in Sarajevo, Zenica or Tuzla, non-Croat population in Mostar and Livno as well

as non-Serb population in Banja Luka or Bijeljina are facing difficulties in employment and promotion. Even if one finds suitable employment, it is very hard to keep it as the status depends on an affiliation to a political party, religious group or a national commitment.” One can assume that B&H women feel that B&H is nationally divided, and problems in business relate to ethnicity rather than to gender. Some of the respondents indicated they had bad personal experience with their employers because of a maternity leave. These problems occurred when coming back to work after the maternity leave. They pointed out that women are discriminated in employment, since employers, supposing that women will get pregnant, would rather employ men in order to avoid costs. One of respondent stated (free translation from Bosnian by the author with consent of the respondent):” High-level jobs are reserved for men, women are placed where work has to be done.”

Several women put comments about women being subordinate to men in business and personal life. One of the respondents from Sarajevo, employed at the executive level, perceives the role of women in B&H business as follows (free translation from Bosnian by the author with the consent of the respondent): ”The entry of women in the labor market is manifested in their effort to demonstrate they are equally valued as men at a workplace. To accomplish this they need to double their effort and yet are paid substantially lower. A woman tries to stand out in care for family; she needs to be a great mother, housewife and wife, otherwise she would feel guilty for family on account of her career. Men’s explanation of women’s two full time jobs is: You wanted equality, now you got it. Changing conditions for equality is the next step where men comprehend that women’s effort to be successful in both areas, means they have to share household and parental duties.”

6 CONCLUSION

It is difficult to believe in this day and age women are still not equal to men in social as well as in business worlds. Theory and praxis prove that gender inequality is a fact, although some women and most men do not perceive it. It differs from country to country, where on one hand women feel strong and powerful and then on the other hand feel subordinated and discriminated. An illustration of such circumstances mentioned above, could be seen in Scandinavian and Islamic-Arab countries.

Throughout the history, women struggled for equal rights and waited for a long time to become equal to men. In the past, women were not meant to be educated, they did not have the right to vote or any kind of right where women’s decision would be considered. Women’s role was to have children, stay at home, obey her husband and take care of domestic work and family. Despite the fact that women nowadays are equally educated as men, there is still an expectation that women besides having and executing a responsible full time job, also take care of household and family responsibilities. Traditionally, men would be providers for the family and women would be caretakers of domestic

responsibilities. In many cases it came to pass that tradition stood in the way of living and women got the privilege of having two full time jobs instead of one. It puts women in an unequal position in relation to men, since men can devote more independent time to their careers. Gender equality, as it is known today, brought to women a double responsibility. In the future I hope gender equality becomes a human right where women and men would equally share not only opportunities but also responsibilities.

When entering the business world women at the beginning of their careers face discrimination. It starts with employment, since many employers favor men over women, based on stereotypes, believing men are more competent for many types of positions. Another barrier for employment is that employers do not want to hire women because they might take maternity leave. Once women are employed they feel subjected to discrimination from their male colleagues. Women at this stage face a lack of opportunities for promotion. This is the time when women face the glass ceiling and get outrun by their male colleagues. Barriers such as a lack of informal relationships and access to a mentor, stereotypes and discrimination must be overcome to destroy the glass ceiling.

I concur with authors who propose that an androgynous leadership style is the most effective one, since significant characteristics of both genders are combined. Besides its effectiveness, this style also brings equality to women and men in top management, as women learn from men and men learn from women. In this way, both genders play roles as both followers and leaders.

Women in Bosnia and Herzegovina are close to their Western European colleagues in their beliefs and behaviors and then again some of them are much closer to women from Arabic countries. In the same way as it is geographically, the role of women in B&H is positioned somewhere in the middle between these two worlds and it is leaning more towards the Western countries. In my opinion, B&H women are much closer to their Western colleagues, since laws, regulations and opportunities of B&H are heading that way. The position of B&H women in society is lagging behind as a consequence of the war in the early 1990's. Consequences of the war are visible in country's stagnation and it will take a few years more to obtain the same economic level as most Western countries already have. I believe Bosnia and Herzegovina is prepared to leave traditional customs behind and to continue moving forward towards the equality of genders.

I have always been interested in the role of women in society and I have always felt that society puts men in a superior position to women. I was growing up in a belief that gender is not and should not be a barrier to success. I have always thought that intelligence, inherited or gained skills, effort and diligence are fundamental for happiness and success in private or business life. Every woman should have the opportunities and choices regardless of her religion, rural or urban environment, or the part of the world she happens to live in.

7 ABSTRACT IN SLOVENE LANGUAGE

1 Uvod

Namen mojega diplomskega dela je raziskati in analizirati položaj žensk v poslovnem svetu in na vodilnih managerskih položajih. Cilj mojega diplomskega dela je prikazati kako ženske v Bosni in Hercegovini dojemajo svoj položaj v poslovnem okolju. Uvodu sledi poglavje, ki zajema teoretično ozadje o zaposlenih ženskah. Drugo poglavje je razdeljeno na sedem delov. V njem so predstavljene težave, s katerimi se ženske soočajo v družbi in poslovnem okolju. V tretjem poglavju je predstavljena PEST analiza, ki opisuje makro okolje Bosne in Hercegovine. V istem poglavju se bom osredotočila na položaj in pravice žensk v Bosni in Hercegovini. Omenjena teoretična poglavja predstavljajo osnovo za četrto in peto poglavje, ki predstavljata empirični del diplomske naloge. Četrto poglavje zajema opredelitev problema in ciljev raziskave ter predstavitev izhodiščnih hipotez. Temu sledijo načrt raziskave, viri podatkov, raziskovalna metoda in inštrument, načrt vzorčenja ter oblike komuniciranja. V petem poglavju predstavljajo analiza za raziskavo ključnih podatkov in dobljene rezultate ter povzela pomembne ugotovitve, do katerih sem prišla tekom raziskave. Nalogo zaključim s sklepom, v katerem povzamem ključna spoznanja teoretičnega in empiričnega dela.

2 Ženske v poslovnem svetu

Položaj in vloga žensk v poslovnem svetu se spreminja. Ženske zavzemajo pomembno in posebno mesto v poslovnem svetu.

2.1 Pravice žensk

Uradna bitka za ženske pravice se je začela leta 1946, ko so Združeni narodi ustanovili komisijo, ki bo podpirala in nadzirala ženske pravice. Prva konferenca Združenih narodov v zvezi z pravicami žensk se je zgodila v Mehiki leta 1975, posledično leta 1979 prihaja do konvencije o eliminaciji vseh oblik diskriminacije žensk (CEDAW) (Wach & Reeves, 2000, str. 30). Namen konvencije je, da ustvari določene pogoje, ki bodo omogočili ženskam vse njihove človeške pravice in temeljne svoboščine (UN, 1997-2007). Do zdaj je 89 % držav ratificiralo CEDAW.

2.2 Enakopravnost spolov

Enakopravnost spolov pomeni enake pravice, odgovornosti, in priložnosti za žensko in moškega. Ne pomeni pa, da ženska in moški postaneta isto. Uresničenje enakopravnosti med spoloma zahteva prizadevanje tako žensk kot tudi moških (Ghinararu & Petrovic, 2005, str. 22). Integracija načela enakosti spolov je globalno sprejeta strategija za spodbujanje in doseganje enakopravnosti spolov (Cook, 2000, str. 39).

2.3 Kultura

Na status žensk v družbi v veliki meri vpliva kultura narodov. Spolne vloge predstavljajo niz kulturno opredeljenih vedenjskih norm. Spolne vloge so tradicionalno razdeljene na ženske in moške, kar se razlikuje od ene države do druge ali pa so celo razdeljene znotraj ene države ali kulture (An & Kim, 2007, str. 183). Hofstede (2005, str. 125) v svoji raziskavi deli države na moške in ženske ter pojasnjuje značilnosti teh dveh skupin.

2.4 Ženske v svetu

Raziskava Mednarodne organizacije za delo (2004, str. 19) narejena v 41-h državah je ugotovila, da ženske zavzemajo 20 do 30 odstotkov zakonodajnih in vodilnih managerskih položajev. Praviloma je bil delež žensk na managerskih položajih višji v državah Vzhodne Evrope, Severne Amerike in Južne Amerike kot v državah Vzhodne in Južne Azije ter Bližnjega Vzhoda.

2.5 Izobrazba žensk

V veliko držav so ženske v zadnjih letih pridobile stopnjo izobrazbe, ki je primerljiva s stopnjo izobrazbe moških. Tako so ženske sedaj zaposlene na položajih kateri so nekoč bili rezervirani samo za moške (Wirth, 2001, str. 25). Ena od ključnih rešitev enakopravnosti spolov je izobrazba. Enakopravno dostopna visoka izobrazba za ženske pomeni, da so lahko kompetitivna delovna sila in da so lahko enakopravno plačane (Garcia-Ramon & Monk, 1996, str. 205).

2.6 Razlike med spoloma pri napredovanju na vodilne položaje

Ženske po vsem svetu predstavljajo 40 odstotkov delovne sile, samo 5 odstotkov pa imajo vodilne položaje v managementu (The Glass Ceiling: Will We Ever Break Through, 2007, str. 11 in 13). Pomanjkanje socialnega kapitala predstavlja glavno oviro ženskam da napredujejo do vodilnih managerskih položajev (Tharenou, 1999, str. 113-123).

2.6.1 Stekleni strop

Izraz »stekleni strop« predstavlja nevidno pregrado v organizacijah kjer je ženskam pristop na vodilne položaje onemogočen zaradi tradicij in predsodkov podjetij (Jackson, 2001, str. 30). Pojav steklenega stropa je lahko prisoten na različnih ravneh organizacijskih struktur (Wirth, 2001, str. 25).

2.6.2 Steklana skala

Steklana skala je dodatna ovira za ženske pri napredovanju na vodilne položaje. Steklana skala pomeni, da ženske pridejo na vodilne položaje v podjetjih, ki imajo slabe poslovne rezultate in se jih na ta način ovira pri njihovi uspešnosti. Ženske se srečujejo s stekleno skalo potem, ko so se prebile skozi stekleni strop (Ryan, Haslam & Postmes, 2007, str. 183).

2.6.3 Ovire pri napredovanju žensk

Cai in Kleiner (1999, str. 51) govorita o pet glavnih dejavnikov, ki lahko ovirajo ženske v njihovi karieri:

1. Stereotipi – temeljijo na mnenjih in dojemanju, in ne na dejstvih. Stereotipizacija spolov v podjetništvu lahko pomeni veliko oviro za ženske pri njihovem napredovanju (Catalyst, 2005, str. 6).
2. Mentorstvo in mreže poznanstev – uspešni manageri moškega spola v podjetjih ponavadi imajo mentorje ki podpirajo njihove interese in poklicni razvoj. Ženske pa nimajo tovrstnih privilegij, zaradi česar imajo manj priložnosti za napredovanje (Brochbank in Traves, 1995, str. 95). Mentorstvo je pomemben dejavnik za napredovanje v samem začetku poklicne poti, medtem ko je mreža poznanstev pomembna v vseh razdobjih poklicnega razvoja. Ženske so omejene pri dostopu v organizacijsko mrežo, tradicionalno sestavljeno iz posameznikov, ki imajo organizacijska pooblastila (Linehan, 2000, str. 73).
3. Diskriminacija – Čeprav je veliko držav sprejelo zakon o enakopravnosti spolov, ki prepoveduje katerikoli tip diskriminacije, spolna diskriminacija še vedno obstaja tako na podjetniškem kakor tudi na drugih področjih (Bible & Hill, 2007, str. 68).
4. Ženske in družina – na svetu celo dve tretjini dela, ki ga opravljajo ženske, kot so delo v gospodinjstvih, skrb za otroke in agrikultura, predstavlja neplačano delo (Grumm, 2008). Velikokrat so ženske prisiljene izbirati med družino in vodilnih položajev (Bible & Hill, 2007, str. 68).
5. Ženske kot lastnice podjetij – Značilna rast deleža žensk, ki vodijo svoje posle je opazen v veliko držav. Ženske se odločajo za vodenje svojih podjetij na podlagi steklenega stropa, neodvisnosti, nezadostnih zaslužkov, nezadovoljstva v službi in manj prilagodljivega delovnega časa (ILO, 2004, str. 33).

2.6.4 Poklicna segregacija

Poklicna segregacija nastane zaradi neenakopravnosti spolov zaradi česar ženske in moški opravljajo različne poklice (Wirth, 2001, str. 10). Feminizirani poklici se manj vrednotijo kot poklici, ki jih večinoma opravljajo moški. Tradicionalna delitev poklicev na moške in ženske se imenuje horizontalna poklicna segregacija z nivoji vertikalne hierarhije (Joshi & Paci, 1998, str. 74). Vodilni položaji v managementu so večinoma rezervirani za moške (ILO, 2004, str. 8).

2.6.5 Razlike v plačah

Starost, rasa ali spol povzročajo neenakopravnost pri delu in posledično tudi neenakomerno plačilo. Diskriminacija v plačah govori o eni skupini populacije, oziroma ženskah, ki so z enako produktivnostjo, manj plačane kot moški (Joshi & Paci, 1998, str. 23). V svetu ženske, za isto delo, povprečno zaslužijo 23.7 odstotkov manj kot moški (Meulders, Plasman & Rycx, 2004, str. 247).

2.6.6 Stili vodenja

Splošno prepričanje je, da so managerske pozicije namenjene moškim. Sposobne ženske managerke so tiste, ki imajo moške značilnosti (Kanjuo Mrčela, 1996, str. 84). Moške značilnosti so del transformacijskega in transakcijskega vodenja. Najbolj učinkovit je androgeni stil vodenja, v katerem so vključene ženske kot tudi moške lastnosti.

2.7 Ženske in politika

Ženske so dolgo čakale, da so dobile pravico do glasovanja. Na splošno so ženske v politiki, enako kot ženske na vodilnih položajih, manj prisotne. Zaradi tega so mnoge države uvedle "kvota sistem", s katerim naj bi bil delež žensk v politiki bil enakopraven z moškimi. Takšen sistem je najbolj uspešen v Nordijskih državah.

3 Vloga žensk v poslovnem svetu v Bosni in Hercegovini

Vloga žensk v Bosni in Hercegovini se je sčasoma spreminjala. Še vedno je ženskam zelo težko priti na vodilne položaje, kar literatura in raziskava potrjujeta.

3.1 PEST analiza

V naslednjem poglavju sem predstavila PEST analizo, ki opisuje makro okolje Bosne in Hercegovine. Najprej sem opisala demografsko-fizično okolje Bosne in Hercegovine, temu je sledila analiza političnega, ekonomskega, socialnega in tehnološkega okolja.

3.2 Ženske v ekonomskem, političnem in družbenem okolju v Bosni in Hercegovini

Najpomembnejši dogodek za enakopravnost med spoloma se je zgodil maja 2003, ko je sprejet Zakon o enakih možnostih. Vendar kljub načelni enakosti in zakonskim pravicam, družbene ovire preprečujejo ženskam, da bi dosegle enak položaj, kot ga imajo moški. Politično in ekonomsko moč v državi imajo moški, ki držijo vodilne položaje. V Bosni in Hercegovini je tradicionalni koncept vloge spolov bolj ohranjen v primerjavi z Zahodnimi državami.

3.3 Ženske na trgu delovne sile v Bosni in Hercegovini

Zaradi poklicne segregacije so ženske bolj prisotne na področjih prava, ekonomije in medicine, medtem ko so moški dominantni v tehničnih poklicih (Blagojević, 2004, str. 77). V Bosni in Hercegovini je zanimanje žensk za podjetništvo vse bolj v vzponu (Tzemach, 2007, str. 3).

3.4 Ženske v poslovnem svetu v Bosni in Hercegovini

Bistveno oviro ženskam v Bosni in Hercegovini, pri napredovanju na vodilne položaje, predstavlja njihova tradicionalna materinska vloga. V poslovnem okolju Bosne in

Hercegovine je prisoten trd stekleni strop, ki onemogoča ženskam, da bi na vodilnih položajih bile enakopravne z moškimi.

4 Raziskava o ženskah na vodilnih položajih v Bosni in Hercegovini

Naslednje poglavje predstavlja empirični del diplomske naloge. Raziskavo sem izvedla med ženskami, ki živijo in delajo v Bosni in Hercegovini.

4.1 Opredelitev raziskovalnega problema in ciljev raziskave

Cilj raziskave je bil ugotoviti vlogo in položaj žensk iz Bosne in Hercegovine na vodilnih položajih, na osnovi podatkov zbranih iz Federacije Bosne in Hercegovine, Republike Srpske in Brčko distrikta.

4.2 Raziskovalne hipoteze

H1: Ženske na vodilnih položajih imajo univerzitetno izobrazbo.

H2: Ženske se na delovnem mestu počutijo diskriminirano.

H3: Ženske menijo, da so neformalne mreže poznanstev ovira pri napredovanju.

H4: Predpostavljam, da sta starost in pričakovanje družbe, da ženska izpolni svojo tradicionalno vlogo, povezana.

H5: Zakonski stan vpliva na čas porabljen na delovnem mestu in v gospodinjstvu.

4.3 Načrt raziskave

Zasnovo raziskave sestavlja naslednjih pet postavk (Kotler, 2009, str.131):

- Viri podatkov
- Raziskovalne metode
- Raziskovalni instrument
- Načrt vzorčenja
- Oblike komuniciranja

4.3.1 Viri podatkov

Pri raziskavi so mi bili v pomoč tako primarni kot sekundarni podatki. Oboje sem uporabila kot osnovo za raziskavo in postavljanje hipotez. Začela sem s preučevanjem sekundarnih podatkov, v katere so bili vključeni pregledi knjig, člankov, zapiskov predavanj in drugih materialov, katere sem pridobila s pomočjo internetnih strani in podatkovnih baz Emerald, EBSCOhost ter Proquest. Osrednji vir primarnih podatkov predstavlja anketiranje 218 zaposlenih žensk v Bosni in Hercegovini.

4.3.2 Raziskovalna metoda in raziskovalni inštrument

Primarne podatke sem zbrala z raziskovalno metodo anketiranja, kjer sem uporabila anketni vprašalnik (Priloga 3). Anketni vprašalnik sem sama oblikovala za potrebe raziskave. Vprašalnik obsega sklop 21-ih vprašanj, ki si sledijo v logičnem zaporedju.

Vprašanja so sestavljena iz sklopov vprašanj, ki se nanašajo na zaposlitev in poklicne izkušnje anketirancev, razlike v stilu vodenja med moškimi in ženskami, družinska in gospodinjska opravila ter sklop vprašanj s katerimi sem pridobila demografske podatke.

4.3.3 Načrt vzorčenja in oblike komuniciranja

Priložnostni vzorec je zajemal 218 izbranih poslovnih žensk, ki so se razlikovale po starosti, izobrazbi, izkušnjah ter zakonskemu stanu. Anketiranke sem zbrala na osnovi podatkov, ki sem jih pridobila v Gender centru v Tuzli. Osebno sem bila prisotna pri izpolnjevanju prvih 43 vprašalnikov. Zaradi stroškov in pomanjkanja časa sem se odločila, da bodo ostale ženske vprašalnik izpolnjevale na internetni strani. Po e-pošti sem 260-im ženskam poslala navodila in internetno stran. Dobila sem 175 izpolnjenih vprašalnikov. Anketiranke so bile iz vseh večjih mest v Bosni in Hercegovini, kot tudi iz nekaterih manjših mest.

5 Analiza podatkov

Zbrani podatki so bili obdelani s paketom Microsoft Excel 2003 ter s statističnim program SPSS 15.0 za Windows.

5.1 Opis vzorca

Priložnosti vzorec 218-ih zaposlenih ženskah v Bosni in Hercegovini se je razlikoval po ravni managementa na kateri so zaposlene, izobrazbi, starosti, nacionalnosti ter verski pripadnosti.

5.2 Univariantne statistike po vprašanjih

Rezultati vseh anket po posameznih vprašanjih so prikazani v Prilogi 4.

5.3 Analiza povezav med spremenljivkami – preizkušanje domnev

Hipoteza 1: Hipotezo sem preverjala s testom asociacije (Hi kvadrat). Na podlagi vzorčnih podatkov ugotavljam, da lahko zavrnem ničelno domnevo pri stopnji značilnosti $P=0.03$ in sprejemem alternativo, da ženske na vodilnih položajih imajo univerzitetno izobrazbo.

Hipoteza 2: Hipotezo sem preverjala s pomočjo t-testa, torej preizkusa domneve o vrednosti ene aritmetične sredine, pri čemer sem preverjala, če je povprečna ocena trditve večja od 3. Na podlagi vzorčnih podatkov sem ugotovila, da so razlike statistično značilne ter sem zavrnila ničelno domnevo in sprejela sklep, da se zaposlene ženske v Bosni in Hercegovini počutijo diskriminirano.

Hipoteza 3: Hipotezo sem preverjala s pomočjo t-testa. Na podlagi vzorčnih podatkov lahko ugotovim da so razlike statistično značilne ter zavrnem ničelno domnevo, pri zanemarljivi stopnji značilnosti ($P=0.013$) in sprejemem alternativo, da so neformalne mreže poznanstev ključne pri napredovanju.

Hipoteza 4: Hipotezo sem preverila s t-testom – preizkus domneve o razliki med dvema aritmičnima sredinama za neodvisna vzorca. Na podlagi vzorčnih podatkov sem ugotovila,

da razlike niso statistično značilne ker stopnja značilnosti ($P=0.08$) je višja od 0.05. Na podlagi tega ne morem zavrniti ničelne domneve, torej ne morem trditi, da obstaja povezanost med starostjo in tradicionalno vlogo ženske v gospodinjstvu.

Hipoteza 5: *H5a, H5b*: Hipotezi sem preverjala s Hi kvadratom. Stopnja značilnosti P je enaka 0.015 in je manjša od stopnje tveganja pri 0.05, zato lahko na podlagi vzorčnih podatkov zavrnem ničelno domnevo in sprejemem alternativno domnevo, da zakonski stan vpliva na čas porabljen v gospodinjstvu. Nisem pa mogla trditi da zakonski stan vpliva na delovni čas, saj $P=0.231$ je višja od 0.05, torej nisem mogla zavrniti ničelne domneve.

5.4 Ugotovitve raziskave

Na podlagi dobljenih rezultatov lahko povzamem, da se zaposlene ženske v Bosni in Hercegovini, v družbi in na delovnem mestu, počutijo v podrejenem položaju v primerjavi z moškimi. Predvidevam, da bi rezultati bili drugačni, če bi moški odgovarjali na ista vprašanja. Rezultati so predstavljeni v Prilogah 4 in 5.

6 Sklep

Težo je verjeti, da ženske v današnjem modernem okolju, še vedno niso enakopravne z moškimi, tako kot v družbi tudi v poslovnem svetu. Položaj žensk se razlikuje od države do države. V nekaterih državah se ženske počutijo močne in sprejemljive v nekaterih pa podrejene in diskriminirane. Skozi zgodovino so se ženske borile za svojo enakopravnost, saj v preteklosti niso imele pravice do glasovanja niti priložnosti izobraževati se. Čeprav je danes enako izobraženih žensk kot moških, se od žensk še vedno pričakuje, da izpolnjujejo svojo tradicionalno vlogo, da skrbijo za gospodinjstvo, moža in otroke. Na začetku svoje poklicne poti se ženske soočajo z diskriminacijo pri zaposlovanju. Delodajalci upoštevajoč stereotipe rajši zaposlujejo moške zaradi različnih razlogov. Namreč, mnogi so prepričani, da so moški bolj primerni in sposobni za delo. Enkrat, ko se ženske zaposlijo, se soočajo s pomanjkanjem priložnosti za napredovanje. Takrat se pojavi stekleni strop, ko ženske pridejo pod vrh, prav na vrh pa lahko pridejo le njihovi moški kolegi. Strinjam se z avtorji, ki zagovarjajo androgeni stil vodenja, ker znanje in izkušnje žensk tako kot tudi moških so pomembne. Ženske v Bosni in Hercegovini so s svojim prepričanju in vedenju primerljive z ženskami iz zahodnih držav. Verjamem, da je Bosna in Hercegovina pripravljena opustiti tradicionalne običaje, in še naprej napredovati proti enakopravnosti spolov.

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APPENDIX 1: Gap index report

Table 1: The Global Gender Gap Index 2007 Rankings and 2006 Comparisons

Gender Gap Index							Gender Gap Index						
Country	2007 rank	2006 score (0.00 = parity; 1.00 = equality)	2007 rank among 2006 countries	2006 rank	2006 score	Change in score (2007-2006)	Country	2007 rank	2006 score (0.00 = parity; 1.00 = equality)	2007 rank among 2006 countries	2006 rank	2006 score	Change in score (2007-2006)
Sweden	1	0.8146	1	1	0.8133	0.0014	Georgia	67	0.6665	61	54	0.6700	-0.0035
Norway	2	0.8059	2	2	0.7994	0.0065	Honduras	68	0.6661	62	74	0.6483	0.0178
Finland	3	0.8044	3	3	0.7950	0.0095	Paraguay	69	0.6659	63	64	0.6556	0.0103
Iceland	4	0.7836	4	4	0.7813	0.0023	Kyrgyz Republic	70	0.6653	64	52	0.6742	-0.0088
New Zealand	5	0.7649	5	7	0.7509	0.0140	Armenia*	71	0.6651	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Philippines	6	0.7629	6	6	0.7516	0.0113	Greece	72	0.6640	65	69	0.6540	0.0107
Germany	7	0.7618	7	5	0.7524	0.0094	China	73	0.6643	66	63	0.6561	0.0082
Denmark	8	0.7519	8	8	0.7462	0.0057	Brazil	74	0.6637	67	67	0.6543	0.0094
Ireland	9	0.7457	9	10	0.7335	0.0122	Peru	75	0.6624	68	60	0.6619	0.0005
Spain	10	0.7444	10	11	0.7319	0.0125	Malta	76	0.6615	69	71	0.6518	0.0097
United Kingdom	11	0.7441	11	9	0.7365	0.0076	Singapore	77	0.6609	70	65	0.6550	0.0059
Netherlands	12	0.7383	12	12	0.7250	0.0133	Uruguay	78	0.6608	71	66	0.6549	0.0058
Latvia	13	0.7333	13	19	0.7091	0.0242	Tajikistan*	79	0.6578	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Lithuania	14	0.7234	14	21	0.7077	0.0157	Bolivia	80	0.6574	72	87	0.6335	0.0239
Sri Lanka	15	0.7230	15	13	0.7199	0.0031	Indonesia	81	0.6550	73	68	0.6541	0.0009
Croatia	16	0.7210	16	16	0.7145	0.0066	Cyprus	82	0.6522	74	83	0.6430	0.0092
Australia	17	0.7204	17	15	0.7163	0.0040	Kenya	83	0.6508	75	73	0.6486	0.0023
Canada	18	0.7198	18	14	0.7165	0.0034	Italy	84	0.6498	76	77	0.6456	0.0042
Belgium	19	0.7198	19	20	0.7078	0.0120	Mauritius	85	0.6487	77	86	0.6328	0.0160
South Africa	20	0.7194	20	18	0.7125	0.0069	Chile	86	0.6482	78	78	0.6455	0.0027
Moldova	21	0.7172	21	17	0.7128	0.0044	Malawi	87	0.6480	79	81	0.6437	0.0044
Cuba*	22	0.7169	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Zimbabwe	88	0.6464	80	76	0.6461	0.0004
Belarus*	23	0.7113	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Madagascar	89	0.6461	81	84	0.6385	0.0076
Colombia	24	0.7090	22	22	0.7049	0.0041	Nicaragua	90	0.6458	82	82	0.6506	-0.0108
Bulgaria	25	0.7065	23	37	0.6870	0.0215	Japan	91	0.6455	83	80	0.6447	0.0008
Lesotho	26	0.7078	24	43	0.6807	0.0271	Malaysia	92	0.6444	84	72	0.6509	-0.0065
Austria	27	0.7060	25	27	0.6986	0.0074	Mexico	93	0.6441	85	75	0.6462	-0.0021
Costa Rica	28	0.7014	26	30	0.6936	0.0078	Belize*	94	0.6426	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Namibia	29	0.7012	27	38	0.6864	0.0147	Gambia, The	95	0.6421	86	79	0.6448	-0.0027
Estonia	30	0.7008	28	29	0.6944	0.0064	Kuwait	96	0.6409	87	86	0.6341	0.0068
United States	31	0.7002	29	23	0.7042	-0.0039	Korea, Rep.	97	0.6409	88	92	0.6157	0.0251
Kazakhstan	32	0.6983	30	32	0.6928	0.0054	Cambodia	98	0.6353	89	89	0.6291	0.0062
Argentina	33	0.6982	31	41	0.6829	0.0153	Maldives*	99	0.6350	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Tanzania	34	0.6969	32	24	0.7008	-0.0069	Bangladesh	100	0.6314	90	91	0.6270	0.0044
Macedonia, FYR	35	0.6967	33	28	0.6983	-0.0015	Zambia	101	0.6288	91	85	0.6360	-0.0071
Israel	36	0.6955	34	35	0.6889	0.0076	Tunisia	102	0.6283	92	90	0.6288	-0.0006
Portugal	37	0.6959	35	33	0.6922	0.0037	Syria*	103	0.6216	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Panama	38	0.6954	36	31	0.6935	0.0019	Jordan	104	0.6203	93	93	0.6109	0.0094
Jamaica	39	0.6925	37	25	0.7014	-0.0089	United Arab Emirates	105	0.6184	94	101	0.5919	0.0265
Switzerland	40	0.6924	38	26	0.6997	-0.0073	Guatemala	106	0.6144	95	95	0.6067	0.0077
Uzbekistan	41	0.6921	39	36	0.6886	0.0035	Nigeria	107	0.6122	96	94	0.6104	0.0018
Vietnam*	42	0.6889	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Algeria	108	0.6068	97	97	0.6018	0.0050
Mozambique*	43	0.6883	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Qatar*	109	0.6041	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Ecuador	44	0.6881	40	82	0.6433	0.0448	Angola	110	0.6034	98	96	0.6039	-0.0005
Russian Federation	45	0.6866	41	49	0.6770	0.0096	Mauritania	111	0.6022	99	106	0.5835	0.0187
Trinidad and Tobago	46	0.6859	42	45	0.6797	0.0062	Mali	112	0.6019	100	99	0.5986	0.0022
Romania	47	0.6858	43	46	0.6797	0.0062	Ethiopia	113	0.5991	101	100	0.5946	0.0045
El Salvador	48	0.6853	44	39	0.6837	0.0016	India	114	0.5936	102	98	0.6011	-0.0075
Slovenia	49	0.6842	45	51	0.6745	0.0097	Bahrain	115	0.5931	103	102	0.5894	0.0037
Uganda	50	0.6833	46	47	0.6797	0.0036	Cameroon	116	0.5819	104	103	0.5865	0.0053
France	51	0.6824	47	70	0.6520	0.0303	Burkina Faso	117	0.5812	105	104	0.5854	0.0059
Thailand	52	0.6815	48	48	0.6831	-0.0016	Iran	118	0.5803	106	108	0.5803	0.0101
Botswana	53	0.6797	49	34	0.6897	-0.0100	Oman*	119	0.5803	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Slovak Republic	54	0.6797	50	50	0.6757	0.0040	Egypt	120	0.5809	107	109	0.5786	0.0023
Venezuela	55	0.6797	51	57	0.6664	0.0133	Turkey	121	0.5768	108	105	0.5850	-0.0082
Suriname*	56	0.6794	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Morocco	122	0.5676	109	107	0.5827	-0.0151
Ukraine	57	0.6790	52	48	0.6797	-0.0006	Benin	123	0.5656	110	110	0.5780	-0.0123
Luxembourg	58	0.6786	53	56	0.6671	0.0115	Saudi Arabia	124	0.5647	111	114	0.5242	0.0405
Azerbaijan*	59	0.6781	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Nepal	125	0.5575	112	111	0.5478	0.0097
Poland	60	0.6756	54	44	0.6802	-0.0046	Pakistan	126	0.5509	113	112	0.5434	0.0075
Hungary	61	0.6731	55	55	0.6698	0.0033	Chad	127	0.5381	114	113	0.5247	0.0134
Mongolia	62	0.6731	56	42	0.6821	-0.0090	Yemen	128	0.4510	115	115	0.4595	-0.0085
Ghana	63	0.6725	57	58	0.6653	0.0072							
Czech Republic	64	0.6718	58	53	0.6712	0.0006							
Dominican Republic	65	0.6705	59	59	0.6639	0.0065							
Albania	66	0.6685	60	61	0.6607	0.0078							

(cont'd)

*new countries

APPENDIX 3: The questionnaire

Cover letter to survey respondents

Poštovana gospodo/gospodice,

Moje ime je Lidija Džanić i apsolvant sam na Ekonomskom fakultetu u Ljubljani, gdje radim diplomski rad na temu "Položaj žena u međunarodnom managementu sa osvrtom na Bosnu i Hercegovinu" (The role of women in business: The case of Bosnia and Herzegovina). Moja tema zahtjeva istraživački rad, zato vas molim da ispunite priloženu anketu.

Anketa je jednostavna, zahtjeva približno 3 do 5 minuta vašeg vremena. Potrebno je samo da na odgovarajući odgovor kliknete mišem, a u pitanju pod rednim brojem šest u kvadratiću označite broj koji odgovara vašem odgovoru. Na pitanja gdje je ponuđen prazan prostor sami upišite svoj odgovor.

Anketa je potpuno anonimna jer u anketu ne unosite nikakve podatke koji bi otkrili vaš identitet. Vaši odgovori će se koristiti samo u svrhu statističke obrade podataka u programu SPSS. Zato vas molim da odgovorite na sva pitanja. Ako želite da otkrijete vaš identitet, onda vaše ime ili kontaktne podatke možete napisati u prostor za dodatne komentare.

Nadam se da će te udovoljiti mojoj molbi i odgovoriti na anketu. Molim vas anketu ispunite na sljedećem linku:

<http://pub.owcka.com/anketa/>

Username: anketa

Password: diploma

Molim vas u prostoru za dodatne komentare napišite u kojem gradu živite i radite.

Ako vas budu zanimali rezultati istraživanja, možete me kontaktirati na email: lidijamail@gmail.com

Unaprijed zahvalna,

Lidija Džanić

1. What is your position within the company?

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Executive/managing directorb. Senior managementc. Middle managementd. Lower management |
|--|

2. The organization you work for belongs to under which of the following category?

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Public sectorb. Private sectorc. Nonprofit sectord. Other _____ |
|---|

3. How long have you held your current position?

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. 0-5 yearsb. 6-10 yearsc. 11-20 yearsd. 21-30 yearse. 30 years or more |
|--|

4. Approximately how many hours per week do you spend working?

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Less than 30b. 30-40c. 40-50d. 50-60e. 60-70f. 70 and more |
|--|

5. How many hours per week do you spend on households tasks?

6. Please read the following statements and circle the answer that best represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement, using the following scale:

- 1 – Strongly disagree
- 2 – Somewhat disagree
- 3 – Neither disagrees nor agrees
- 4 – Somewhat agree
- 5 – Strongly agree

a) My career has negative influence on my family life.	1	2	3	4	5
b) My family encourages my professional success.	1	2	3	4	5
c) I'm expected to attend to all the tasks in my household.	1	2	3	4	5
d) I get household help from my family members.	1	2	3	4	5
e) My religion and nationality played an important role in acquiring my present position.	1	2	3	4	5
f) In my experience, men receive more organizational support with their professional prospects than women.	1	2	3	4	5
g) Women are less inclined to taking risks than men are.	1	2	3	4	5
h) Women suffer from discrimination in employment.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Women suffer from discrimination in wages and promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
j) Women establish smaller number of career related informal connections.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Do you believe your male colleagues in the comparable position earn more than you?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. I do not know

8. If yes, how much more do they earn, in your opinion?

- a. Less than 5%
- b. 5-10 %
- c. 10-15%
- d. 15-20%
- e. 20-25%
- f. 25% and more

9. What is the gender of your immediate superior?

- a. Female
- b. Male

10. Would you prefer to have a female or a male superior?

- a. Female
- b. Male
- c. It does not make any difference

11. Do you have more female or male colleagues at your professional level?

- a. Female
- b. Male
- c. About the same

12. Do you and your male colleagues at the same professional level, have the same opportunities for promotion?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. I'm not sure

13. In your opinion, what is the effectiveness of women as leaders compared to men?

- a. Equally good as men
- b. Better than men
- c. Worse than men
- d. I'm not sure

14. Please indicate the highest level of education that you completed:

- a. High school
- b. Vocational college
- c. Bachelor's degree
- d. Master's degree
- e. PhD

15. What is your nationality?

- a. Bosniak
- b. Serb
- c. Croat
- d. Other _____

16. What is your religion?

- a. Islam
- b. Orthodox
- c. Catholic
- d. Other _____

17. How old are you?

- a. Under 25
- b. 25-35
- c. 35-45
- d. 45-55
- e. 55 or older

18. What is your monthly net income?

- a. Less than 250 euros
- b. 250-500 euros
- c. 500-750 euros
- d. 750-1000 euros
- e. 1000-1250 euros
- f. 1250-1500 euros
- g. 1500 euros and more

19. What is your marital status?

- a. Single
- b. Informal partnership
- c. Married
- d. Divorced
- e. Widowed

20. If you have answered b or c., do you earn more than your partner?

- a. Yes
- b. No

21. How many dependent children live in your household?

- a. 0
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4 or more

If you would like to comment some of the previous answers, or if you think there is something important you would like to share concerning this matter, please add your comment in the free space:

Thank you for your time and cooperation!

The questionnaire in Bosnian language, which was delivered to respondents

1. Vaša funkcija je na nivou:

- a. Direktorica/Predsjednica
- b. Glavnog managementa
- c. Srednjeg managementa
- d. Nižeg managementa

2. Organizacija za koju radite spada u koji organizacioni oblik?

- a. Državni sektor
- b. Privatni sektor
- c. Nefitabilna organizacija
- d. Drugo _____

3. Koliko godina ste već zaposleni na trenutnom radnom mjestu?

- a. 0-5
- b. 6-10
- c. 11-20
- d. 21-30
- e. 30 i više

4. Koliko sati sedmično provedete na svom radnom mjestu?

- a. do 30
- b. 30-40
- c. 40-50
- d. 50-60
- e. 60-70
- f. 70 i više

5. Koliko sati približno sedmično potrošite na kućanske poslove?

6. Pozorno pročitatite sljedeće izjave i zaokružite odgovor koji najbolje pokazuje u kojoj mjeri se slažete ili ne slažete sa određenom izjavom, koristeći sljedeću ljestvicu:

- 1 – U potpunosti se ne slažem
- 2 – Djelimično se ne slažem
- 3 – Ne mogu se odlučiti
- 4 – Djelimično se slažem
- 5 – U potpunosti se slažem

a) Moja karijera ima negativan uticaj na kvalitetu mog porodičnog života.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Moja porodica podržava moj poslovni uspjeh.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Od mene se očekuje da obavljam sve kućanske poslove u svom porodičnom domaćinstvu.	1	2	3	4	5
d) U domaćinstvu mi ukućani pomažu u obavljanju kućanskih poslova.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Moja vjerska i nacionalna pripadnost bili su važni faktori prilikom pridobivanja trenutnog radnog mjesta.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Prema mom iskustvu, muškarci imaju više organizacijske potpore pri profesionalnom razvoju nego žene.	1	2	3	4	5
g) Žene su manje sklone preuzimanju rizika nego muškarci.	1	2	3	4	5
h) Žene su izložene diskriminaciji prilikom zapošljavanja.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Diskriminacija žena se odražava u visini plata i unapređenju	1	2	3	4	5
j) Žene uspostavljaju manje neformalnih veza u poslovnoj sferi nego muškarci.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Da li mislite da vaše muške kolege na sličnim radnim pozicijama zarađuju više od vas?

- a. Da
- b. Ne
- c. Ne znam

8. Ako ste odgovorili sa DA, za koliko više mislite da oni zarađuju od vas?

- a. Manje od 5%
- b. 5-10 %
- c. 10-15%
- d. 15-20%
- e. 20-25%
- f. 25% i više

9. Vaš nadređeni je:

- a. Žena
- b. Muškarac

10. Koga bi ste radije imali kao nadređenog?

- a. Ženu
- b. Muškarca
- c. Svejedno

11. Da li poznajete više ženskih ili muških kolega koji rade na istoj poslovnoj razini kao i vi?

- a. Žene
- b. Muškarci
- c. Isto

12. Da li vi i vaše muške kolege na istoj radnoj poziciji imate jednake mogućnosti za napredovanje?

- a. Da
- b. Ne
- c. Nisam sigurna

13. Prema vašem mišljenju, kakve vođe su žene u poređenju sa muškarcima?

- a. Jednako dobre kao i muškarci
- b. Bolje nego muškarci
- c. Gore od muškaraca
- d. Nisam sigurna

14. Molim vas označite koji je vaš stepen obrazovanja:

- a. srednja škola
- b. viša škola
- c. univerzitet
- d. magisterij
- e. doktorat

15. Koje ste nacionalnosti?

- a. Bošnjakinja
- b. Hrvatica
- c. Srpkinja
- d. Drugo _____

16. Koje ste vjeroispovjesti?

- a. Islamska
- b. Pravoslavna
- c. Katolička
- d. Drugo _____

17. Koliko imate godina?

- a. Manje od 25
- b. 25-35
- c. 35-45
- d. 45-55
- e. 55 i više

18. Koji je iznos vaše mjesečne neto plate (KM)?

- a. Do 500
- b. 500-1000
- c. 1000-1500
- d. 1500-2000
- e. 2000-2500

- f. 2500-3000
- g. 3000 i više

19. Koje je vaše bračno stanje?

- a. neudata
- b. neformalno partnerstvo
- c. udata
- d. razvedena
- e. udovica

20. U slučaju da je vaš odgovor b ili c, da li zarađujete više od svog bračnog druga / partnera?

- a. Da
- b. Ne

21. Koliko imate uzdržanih članova porodice?

- a. 0
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4 i više

Ako biste željeli dodatno komentirati neki od prijašnjih odgovora ili mislite da je važno još nešto izjaviti u duhu ankete, molim vas svoja razmišljanja dopišite u sljedeći prostor:

Hvala na vašem sudjelovanju!

APPENDIX 4: Univariate analysis of the survey data

Table 1: What is your position within the company?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Executive	37	17,0	17,0	17,0
	Senior mng.	43	19,7	19,7	36,7
	Middle mng.	82	37,6	37,6	74,3
	Lower mng.	56	25,7	25,7	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 2: The organization you work for belongs to under which of the following category?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Public	71	32,6	32,6	32,6
	Private	50	22,9	22,9	55,5
	Nonprofit	70	32,1	32,1	87,6
	Other	27	12,4	12,4	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 3: The organization you work for belongs to under which of the following category?
(other)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	195	89,4	89,4	89,4
Diplomatic mission	2	,9	,9	90,4
EU project	2	,9	,9	91,3
Foreign government	1	,5	,5	91,7
Government organization	1	,5	,5	92,2
Humanitarian Institution	1	,5	,5	92,7
International organization	12	5,5	5,5	98,2
NGO	1	,5	,5	98,6
Political organization	1	,5	,5	99,1
UN	2	,9	,9	100,0
Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 4: How long have you held your current position?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0-5	113	51,8	51,8	51,8
6-10	55	25,2	25,2	77,1
11-20	33	15,1	15,1	92,2
21-30	15	6,9	6,9	99,1
>30	2	,9	,9	100,0
Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 5: How many hours per week do you spend working?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid <30	10	4,6	4,6	4,6
30-40	39	17,9	17,9	22,5
40-50	133	61,0	61,0	83,5
50-60	30	13,8	13,8	97,2
60-70	5	2,3	2,3	99,5
>70	1	,5	,5	100,0
Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 6: Approximately how many hours per week do you spend on household tasks?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-6	52	23,9	23,9	23,9
	7-13	61	28,0	28,0	51,8
	14-19	27	12,4	12,4	64,2
	20-26	37	17,0	17,0	81,2
	27-34	16	7,3	7,3	88,5
	35-39	5	2,3	2,3	90,8
	40 or more	20	9,2	9,2	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 7: My career has negative influence on my family life.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	88	40,4	40,4	40,4
	somewhat disagree	29	13,3	13,3	53,7
	neither agree nor disagree	16	7,3	7,3	61,0
	somewhat agree	63	28,9	28,9	89,9
	strongly agree	22	10,1	10,1	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 8: My family encourages my professional success.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	15	6,9	6,9	6,9
	somewhat disagree	3	1,4	1,4	8,3
	neither agree nor disagree	16	7,3	7,3	15,6
	somewhat agree	39	17,9	17,9	33,5
	strongly agree	145	66,5	66,5	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 9: I'm expected to attend to all the tasks in my household.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	68	31,2	31,2	31,2
	somewhat disagree	51	23,4	23,4	54,6
	neither agree nor disagree	16	7,3	7,3	61,9
	somewhat agree	46	21,1	21,1	83,0
	strongly agree	37	17,0	17,0	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 10: I get household help from my family members.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	22	10,1	10,1	10,1
	somewhat disagree	15	6,9	6,9	17,0
	neither agree nor disagree	13	6,0	6,0	22,9
	somewhat agree	71	32,6	32,6	55,5
	strongly agree	97	44,5	44,5	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 11: My religion and nationality played an important role in acquiring my present position.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	172	78,9	78,9	78,9
	somewhat disagree	8	3,7	3,7	82,6
	neither agree nor disagree	13	6,0	6,0	88,5
	somewhat agree	17	7,8	7,8	96,3
	strongly agree	8	3,7	3,7	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 12: In my experience, men receive more organizational support with their professional prospects than women.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	46	21,1	21,1	21,1
	somewhat disagree	12	5,5	5,5	26,6
	neither agree nor disagree	11	5,0	5,0	31,7
	somewhat agree	60	27,5	27,5	59,2
	strongly agree	89	40,8	40,8	100,0
	Total		218	100,0	100,0

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 13: Women are less inclined to taking risks than men are.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	60	27,5	27,5	27,5
	somewhat disagree	31	14,2	14,2	41,7
	neither agree nor disagree	29	13,3	13,3	55,0
	somewhat agree	53	24,3	24,3	79,4
	strongly agree	45	20,6	20,6	100,0
	Total		218	100,0	100,0

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 14: Women suffer from discrimination in employment.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	40	18,3	18,3	18,3
	somewhat disagree	28	12,8	12,8	31,2
	neither agree nor disagree	29	13,3	13,3	44,5
	somewhat agree	64	29,4	29,4	73,9
	strongly agree	57	26,1	26,1	100,0
	Total		218	100,0	100,0

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 15: Women suffer from discrimination in wages and promotion.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	52	23,9	23,9	23,9
	somewhat disagree	25	11,5	11,5	35,3
	neither agree nor disagree	18	8,3	8,3	43,6
	somewhat agree	64	29,4	29,4	72,9
	strongly agree	59	27,1	27,1	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 16: Women establish smaller number of career related informal connections.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	46	21,1	21,1	21,1
	somewhat disagree	26	11,9	11,9	33,0
	neither agree nor disagree	38	17,4	17,4	50,5
	somewhat agree	42	19,3	19,3	69,7
	strongly agree	66	30,3	30,3	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 17: Do you believe your male colleagues in the comparable position earn more than you?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	111	50,9	50,9	50,9
	Yes	81	37,2	37,2	88,1
	do not know	26	11,9	11,9	100,0
Total		218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 18: What is your monthly net income?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<5%	9	4,1	10,8	10,8
	5-10%	15	6,9	18,1	28,9
	10-15%	13	6,0	15,7	44,6
	15-20%	22	10,1	26,5	71,1
	20-25%	7	3,2	8,4	79,5
	>25%	17	7,8	20,5	100,0
	Total	83	38,1	100,0	
Missing	unknown	135	61,9		
Total		218	100,0		

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 19: What is the gender of your immediate superior?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	91	41,7	43,8	43,8
	Male	117	53,7	56,3	100,0
	Total	208	95,4	100,0	
Missing	unknown	10	4,6		
Total		218	100,0		

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 20: Would you prefer to have a female or a male superior?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	23	10,6	10,6	10,6
	Male	67	30,7	30,7	41,3
	The same	128	58,7	58,7	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 21: Do you have more female or male colleagues at your professional level?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	106	48,6	49,1	49,1
	Male	61	28,0	28,2	77,3
	the same	49	22,5	22,7	100,0
	Total	216	99,1	100,0	
Missing	System	2	,9		
Total		218	100,0		

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 22: Do you have the same opportunities for promotion, as your male colleagues, at the same professional level?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	28	12,8	12,8	12,8
	Yes	125	57,3	57,3	70,2
	Not sure	65	29,8	29,8	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 23: In your opinion, what is the effectiveness of women as leaders compared to men?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Equally good as men	123	56,4	56,4	56,4
	Better than men	48	22,0	22,0	78,4
	Worse than men	16	7,3	7,3	85,8
	Not sure	31	14,2	14,2	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 24: Please indicate the highest level of education that you completed:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school	19	8,7	8,7	8,7
	Vocational college	22	10,1	10,1	18,8
	Bachelor's degree	120	55,0	55,0	73,9
	Master's degree	47	21,6	21,6	95,4
	PhD	10	4,6	4,6	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 25: What is your nationality?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bosniak	99	45,4	45,4	45,4
	Serb	43	19,7	19,7	65,1
	Croat	33	15,1	15,1	80,3
	Other	43	19,7	19,7	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 26: What is your nationality? (other)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		186	85,3	85,3	85,3
	BiH	7	3,2	3,2	88,5
	Bosnian	18	8,3	8,3	96,8
	Croatian and Bosnian	1	,5	,5	97,2
	Mixed	1	,5	,5	97,7
	Montenegrian	1	,5	,5	98,2
	Portugese	1	,5	,5	98,6
	Undefined	3	1,4	1,4	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 27: What is your religion?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Islam	99	45,4	45,4	45,4
	Orthodox	39	17,9	17,9	63,3
	Chatolic	31	14,2	14,2	77,5
	Other	49	22,5	22,5	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 28: What is your religion? (other)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		190	87,2	87,2	87,2
	Agnostic	6	2,8	2,8	89,9
	Atheist	19	8,7	8,7	98,6
	Bogumil/Pataren	1	,5	,5	99,1
	Protestant	1	,5	,5	99,5
	Undefined	1	,5	,5	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 29: How old are you?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<25	4	1,8	1,8	1,8
	25-35	82	37,6	37,6	39,4
	35-45	59	27,1	27,1	66,5
	45-55	61	28,0	28,0	94,5
	>55	12	5,5	5,5	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 30: How much do you earn per month?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<250 eur	6	2,8	2,8	2,8
	250-500 eur	29	13,3	13,4	16,2
	500-750 eur	34	15,6	15,7	31,9
	750-1000 eur	42	19,3	19,4	51,4
	1000-1250 eur	22	10,1	10,2	61,6
	1250-1500 eur	27	12,4	12,5	74,1
	>1500 eur	56	25,7	25,9	100,0
	Total	216	99,1	100,0	
Missing	System	2	,9		
Total		218	100,0		

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 31: What is your marital status?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	53	24,3	24,3	24,3
	Informal partnership	23	10,6	10,6	34,9
	Married	111	50,9	50,9	85,8
	Divorced	25	11,5	11,5	97,2
	Widowed	6	2,8	2,8	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 32: Do you earn more than your partner?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	57	26,1	40,7	40,7
	Yes	83	38,1	59,3	100,0
	Total	140	64,2	100,0	
Missing	unknown	78	35,8		
Total		218	100,0		

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Table 33: How many dependent children live in your household?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	52	23,9	23,9	23,9
	1	65	29,8	29,8	53,7
	2	71	32,6	32,6	86,2
	3	15	6,9	6,9	93,1
	4=<	15	6,9	6,9	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

APPENDIX 5: Research hypothesis

Hypothesis 1

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Level of education * Management level	218	100,0%	0	,0%	218	100,0%

Level of education * Management level Crosstabulation

			Management level		Total
			Top management	Middle management	
Level of education	Tertiary	Count	73	103	176
		% within Level of education	41,5%	58,5%	100,0%
		% within Management level	91,3%	74,6%	80,7%
		% of Total	33,5%	47,2%	80,7%
	Non tertiary	Count	7	35	42
		% within Level of education	16,7%	83,3%	100,0%
		% within Management level	8,8%	25,4%	19,3%
Total	Count	80	138	218	
	% within Level of education	36,7%	63,3%	100,0%	
	% within Management level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	36,7%	63,3%	100,0%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,985 ^b	1	,003		
Continuity Correction ^a	7,949	1	,005		
Likelihood Ratio	9,897	1	,002		
Fisher's Exact Test				,002	,002
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,944	1	,003		
N of Valid Cases	218				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,41.

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Hypothesis 2

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Discrimination at work	218	3,2821	1,33700	,09055

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Discrimination at work	3,115	217	,002	,28211	,1036	,4606

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Hypothesis 3

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Women establish smaller number of career related informal connections.	218	3,26	1,520	,103

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Women establish smaller number of career related informal connections.	2,495	217	,013	,257	,05	,46

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Hypothesis 4

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Age of respondents	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Expected traditional role	Younger	87	2,44	1,444	,155
	Older	131	2,86	1,538	,134

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Expected traditional role	3,087	,080	-2,051	216	,042	-,426	,208	-,835	-,017	
			-2,077	192,198	,039	-,426	,205	-,830	-,021	

Source: The results of the research, 2008

Hypothesis 5

➤ H5a

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Household task hours* Marital status	218	100,0%	0	,0%	218	100,0%

Household task hours * Marital status Crosstabulation

Count

		Marital status		Total
		Married	Not married	
Household task hours	1-6	25	27	52
	7-13	32	29	61
	14-19	22	5	27
	20-26	24	13	37
	27-34	11	5	16
	35-39	5	0	5
	40 or more	15	5	20
Total		134	84	218

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15,812 ^a	6	,015
Likelihood Ratio	17,999	6	,006
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,973	1	,003
N of Valid Cases	218		

a. 2 cells (14,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,93.

Source: The results of the research, 2008

➤ **H5b**

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Working hours * Marital status	218	100,0%	0	,0%	218	100,0%

Working hours* Marital status Crosstabulation

Count

		Marital status		Total
		Married	Not married	
Working hours	<30	8	2	10
	30-40	18	21	39
	40-50	84	49	133
	50-60	19	11	30
	60-70	4	1	5
	>70	1	0	1
Total		134	84	218

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,868 ^a	5	,231
Likelihood Ratio	7,308	5	,199
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,046	1	,306
N of Valid Cases	218		

a. 5 cells (41,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,39.