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# Promoting Female Sustainable Livelihoods (Employment and Entrepreneurship) in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) Region

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# Promoting Female Sustainable Livelihoods (Employment and Entrepreneurship) in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) Region

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## ABSTRACT:

Women throughout the world are a significant but *underutilized force* in their respective economies. Within the context of eight focus countries in the E&E region - Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), Georgia, Kosovo, Macedonia, Serbia, Russia, and Ukraine – this paper explores the challenges and opportunities women face with regard to employment and entrepreneurship. It reviews key government policies and programs that promote sustainable livelihoods for women in the region, as well as explores business constraints that women face.

This paper is written with the following development hypothesis in mind:

***Households are better off when women-focused employment/entrepreneur strategies and policies are developed and implemented.***

This hypothesis is based on the theory that women worldwide are more likely than men to use the influence and financial resources under their control to take care of daily household needs (food, health care, childcare, education, etc.). Thus, when countries promote increased female livelihoods (employment and entrepreneurship), there is a positive impact on households' general standard of living.

In the E&E region's post-socialist societies, despite the fact that *both* men and women have experienced economic setbacks since the collapse of state run economies in 1989, there are indications that women have been disproportionately affected due to greater inequalities in the job market. Millions of women lost their jobs in the transition process as many state industries were privatized or closed down altogether. Many others have been relegated to low-paid work and endure a high degree of job segregation. Only a small number of women in the region have been able to take advantage of new opportunities provided by their changing economies. As a result, female representation in the region's labor market is being threatened. As a subset, women in post-conflict Balkans also have experienced significant constraints that limit their employment prospects, leaving them to play a reduced role in the region's economic and political development.

According to the Millennium Development Goals, strategies to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women include advocating women's empowerment in employment. An enabling policy environment and legislative measures are needed in order to prohibit discriminatory practices against women in the E&E region and, as a result, promote sustainable livelihoods. This includes government- and employer-based equal opportunity initiatives such as entrepreneurial training and development for women, as well as personnel policies that incorporate diversity and equal opportunity priorities. Promoting gender empowerment vis-à-vis women's organizations will also encourage enterprise development.

Across the region, efforts have been made to increase women's employability. In many E&E countries, legislation that ensures equal pay, grants childcare benefits and parental leave, and offers anti-discrimination protections have been strengthened. Schemes to stimulate female entrepreneurship have been introduced, as well. Focus countries that are members of the Stability Pact have undertaken employment policy reviews by the International Labor Organization (ILO), which as part of EU enlargement, provides guidance in establishing common objectives articulated around three areas: (1) to attract and retain more people in employment, increase labor supply, and modernize social protection systems; 2) improve adaptability of workers and enterprises; and 3) increase investment in human capital through better education and skills.

A review of quantitative and qualitative factors yields a series of key points (pages 63-65) that, when examined as a group, help define the main conclusion of this paper – ***while each focus country has made certain progress in promoting an environment that promotes sustainable female livelihoods, a number of constraints remain – more for some countries than others.***

Generally speaking, it is difficult to ascertain which one focus country is more positively positioned over another in terms of its enabling environment for sustainable female livelihoods, because (for the most part) each country has its own set of pros and cons in terms of the quantitative and qualitative factors, which are presented in this paper. ***A cursory look reveals that women in Russia and Ukraine appear to have a slight advantage over women in the other focus countries. Conversely, women in Georgia and Macedonia may be experiencing the greatest challenges in terms of sustainable livelihoods.*** A more detailed discussion begins on page 59.

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## Introduction<sup>a</sup>

Women throughout the world are a significant but *underutilized force* in their respective economies. Notwithstanding the existence of legislation to promote gender equality, as well as political advances, women often are economically disadvantaged and contribute less to their countries' GDPs than do men. On the whole, female participation in the formal labor market is low, and women's share of unemployment is high. The International Labor Organization (ILO) (2010) highlights a significant gap between women and men in terms of job opportunities and quality of employment, as well, despite signs of progress in gender equality over the past 15 years.<sup>1</sup> The present economic crisis is increasing the level and the number of economic challenges faced by women. In the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region, there is a general lack of gender-sensitive response in government responses to the crisis.

## Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis

Within the context of eight focus countries in the E&E region,<sup>b</sup> this paper explores the challenges and opportunities women face with regard to employment and entrepreneurship. It reviews key government policies and programs that promote sustainable livelihoods for women in the region, as well as explores business constraints that women face. The paper also attempts to identify countries as "leaders" – i.e., those with an enabling environment that promotes sustainable livelihoods for women – and those countries lagging behind.

This paper is written with the following development hypothesis in mind:

***Households are better off when women-focused employment/entrepreneur strategies and policies are developed and implemented.***

This is based on the theory that women worldwide are more likely than men to use the influence and financial resources under their control to take care of daily household needs (food, health care, childcare, education, etc.). Thus, when countries promote increased female livelihoods (employment

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<sup>a</sup> *Caveat:* Much of the research available on gender issues in developing and transitional countries is incomplete and data not entirely reliable. Specific to employment and entrepreneurship, there is a limited focus on women. This gap translates into a lack of recognition of the challenges and contributions of female employees and entrepreneurs.

<sup>b</sup> Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), Georgia, Kosovo, Macedonia, Serbia, Russia, and Ukraine.

and entrepreneurship), there is a positive impact on households' general standard of living.

## Principle Findings

In the E&E region's post-socialist societies, despite the fact that *both* men and women have experienced economic setbacks since the collapse of state run economies in 1989, there are indications that women have been disproportionately affected due to greater inequalities in the job market. Millions of women lost their jobs in the transition process as many state industries were privatized or closed down altogether. Many others have been relegated to low-paid work and endure a high degree of job segregation. Only a small number of women in the region have been able to take advantage of new opportunities provided by their changing economies. As a result, female representation in the region's labor market is being threatened. As a subset, women in post-conflict Balkans<sup>c</sup> also have experienced significant constraints that limit their employment prospects, leaving them to play a reduced role in the region's economic and political development.

A review of quantitative and qualitative information yields a series of key points, provided below on pages 63-65. When examined as a group, these findings help define the main conclusion of this paper – that is, ***while each focus country has made some progress in promoting sustainable female livelihoods, a number of constraints remain – more for some countries than others.***

Generally speaking, it is difficult to ascertain which one focus country is more positively positioned over another in terms of its enabling environment, because (for the most part) each country has its own set of pros and cons in terms of quantitative and qualitative factors, which are presented in the sections below. ***A cursory look reveals that women in Russia and Ukraine appear to have a slight advantage over women in the other focus countries. Conversely, women in Georgia and Macedonia may be experiencing the greatest challenges in terms of sustainable livelihoods.*** A detailed analysis is available beginning on page 59.

For all of the focus countries, employment is no longer guaranteed; as a result, poverty has increased, especially for women. High unemployment

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<sup>c</sup> Of the eight focus countries, this includes BiH, Kosovo, Macedonia, and Serbia.

afflicts both women and men in these countries, but women suffer to a greater extent because of growing gender disparities. In many of the focus countries, a return to traditional values has intensified the inequities of female participation in the economy. In addition, because women generally have more limited access to professional associations or informal networks that could help them strengthen their careers, many are unemployed, underemployed or relegated to doing domestic chores. Gender disparities are evident in average female-to-male earnings, and women tend to be concentrated in low-paid sectors, or in rapidly growing informal employment, which brings with it reduced labor rights and fewer social benefits. They have lost ground in political representation, which further limits their influence on social and economic policies that impact their lives.

Thus, there remains ample room for each of the focus countries to create more and better opportunities for women in their labor markets. This includes establishing policies that address the occurrence of occupational segregation and discrimination, as well as launching strategies that would enable a more balanced approach to work and family life.

### *Next Steps*

According to the Millennium Development Goals, strategies to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women include advocating women's empowerment in employment. An enabling policy environment and legislative measures are needed in order to prohibit discriminatory practices against women in the E&E region and, as a result, promote sustainable livelihoods. This includes government- and employer-based equal opportunity initiatives such as entrepreneurial training and development for women, as well as personnel policies that incorporate diversity and equal opportunity priorities. Promoting gender empowerment vis-à-vis women's organizations will also encourage enterprise development.

Across the region, efforts have been made to increase women's employability. In many E&E countries, legislation that ensures equal pay, grants childcare benefits and parental leave, and offers anti-discrimination protections have been strengthened. Schemes to stimulate female entrepreneurship have been introduced, as well. Focus countries that are members of the Stability Pact<sup>d</sup> have undertaken employment policy reviews

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<sup>d</sup> The Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe was created in 1999 as a conflict prevention strategy that provides a framework to stimulate regional cooperation and expedite integration into European and Euro-

by the International Labor Organization (ILO), which as part of EU enlargement, provides guidance in establishing common objectives articulated around three areas: (1) to attract and retain more people in employment, increase labor supply, and modernize social protection systems; 2) improve adaptability of workers and enterprises; and 3) increase investment in human capital through better education and skills.

### *Impacts on the Household*

A number of studies report that women, in both developing and developed nations, have a significant impact on overall household welfare and consumption. This is a traditional area of decision-making for women.<sup>2</sup> Evidence suggests that women worldwide are more likely than men to use the influence and financial resources under their control to take care of

#### *Box 1. Economic Empowerment of Women has Considerable Benefits*

“The literature is rich with accumulated evidence that the economic empowerment of women has considerable benefits for their children and families. Increased bargaining power and decision making ability in the household as well as increased status and income of women has led to a number of ‘positive externalities’ such as enhanced nutritional status of families, lowered infant mortality rates and less child labour, increased educational access for children, and lowered fertility for women. But it is not just at the household that such changes can be seen. Supporting [female labor market participation] can lead to profound changes in social and economic life of a community by tapping into the productive power and creativity of at least half of the population. At a higher level equality is essential to achieving national and global development goals such as pro-poor economic growth strategies and the Millennium Development Goals.”

Source: ILO. 2009. Guidelines on Gender in Employment Policies. Information Resource Book.

[http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_emp/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms\\_103611.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_103611.pdf) (page 11)

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Atlantic structures. Its successor organization, launched in 2008, is the Regional Co-operation Council (RCC). Focus countries that are members include: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, and Serbia. Other members are Albania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Moldova, Montenegro, and Romania. See <http://www.stabilitypact.org> for more information.

daily household needs – including the purchase of food, health care, childcare, education, etc. Thus, increased female employment (and incomes) is viewed as having a positive impact on children and, more generally, the household. (World Bank 1995; ILO 2009; OECD 2009; Nichter and Goldmark 2009; UNDP 2010)<sup>3</sup>

The International Labor Organization (ILO) (2009) reports that “Accumulated evidence suggests that increased earning power of women has a greater and more immediate effect on family welfare than increased earnings for men. Although indirect, these benefits have a very significant impact on economic growth by enhancing human capital formation for the next generation.”<sup>4</sup>

The general argument revolves around the theory that women’s economic engagement contributes significantly to economic growth. At the household level, women tend to reinvest their income in improved nutrition, health and education for family members, thus increasing living standards and reducing “non-income poverty” in the long term.<sup>5</sup>

The ILO (2009) highlights the following empirical studies that show how sustainable female employment has positive effects at the household level:

- “Women who brought more assets into a marriage increased their spending on children’s education in Bangladesh and South Africa;<sup>6</sup>
- In the United Kingdom, child support payments made directly to mothers resulted in increased expenditures on children’s clothing;<sup>7</sup>
- In the Ivory Coast and Ghana, it was revealed that when women’s income increased for whatever reason, they spent the extra on more food for the family, whereas an increase in men’s income made no significant difference;<sup>8</sup>
- Children in Brazil experienced improved health when women controlled increased income in households;<sup>9</sup>
- According to projections by UNICEF, gender equality in family decision-making in South Asia would lead to 13.4 [million] fewer malnourished children, a 13 percent reduction;<sup>10</sup>
- A study of pensions in South Africa showed that when grandmothers received pensions, the nutritional status of grandchildren living with them improved in ways that were not evident for grandfathers;<sup>11</sup>
- A study of women who had access to free child care in the shanty towns of Rio de Janeiro showed that they increased their incomes by as much as 20 percent;<sup>12</sup>

- One study estimated that one year of extra education nationally reduces child mortality rates by 8 percent, with female education being particularly powerful;<sup>13</sup>
- In Kenya, reducing the price of childcare significantly increased mother's wage employment and older girl's schooling;<sup>14</sup>
- The links between girl's education and reduced fertility are strong. The economic benefits of having fewer children are considerable. It lowers the dependency burden and increases the labour force as a proportion of the population; this in turn boosts per capita income. The estimates of the positive effect on economic growth can be significant. For example some estimates suggest that up to 2 percent in annual per capital income growth in East and South-East Asian countries was due to the effect of this declining fertility.<sup>15</sup>

An often-cited World Bank report (1995) agrees: "Case study material from anthropological and sociological studies indicates that men spend more of the income they control for their own consumption than do women. Alcohol, cigarettes, status consumer goods, even "female companionship" are noted in these studies. By contrast, women are more likely than men to purchase goods for children and for general household consumption."<sup>16</sup> This same report highlights a study by Hoddinott and Haddadd, who found that when the share of cash income received by wives in Cote d'Ivoire is increased, expenditures for food rise and expenditures on alcohol and cigarettes decrease.<sup>17</sup>

Consequently, gender discrimination in the labor market can have a significant cost at the household level. Legislation that increases female labor force participation and income has the potential to benefit children's health and education. OECD (2009) recommends that female economic empowerment be placed "more prominently on the agenda in high-level policy dialogue with Governments and in implementation instruments related to the Paris Declaration and the MDGs."<sup>18</sup>

## **Historical Underpinnings**

A central feature of communist ideology was social, political, and economic equality for all citizens. In theory, women were given an equal role in economic production alongside men. They were viewed as an economic unit that supported state objectives, and as a result opportunities for paid employment for women increased rapidly after World War II. In reality, there is strong evidence that the institutionalized 'gender-neutral' policy

was actually based on patriarchal principles. Gender-based labor segmentation was rampant during communist times, with men given first preference for the most esteemed and highest paid positions and women primarily working in lesser paid public sector fields like health and education. Despite this inequity, women still enjoyed a significant economic advantage as compared to other industrialized societies at the time. Prior to the fall of communism, women's labor force participation in E&E countries was supported by state policies that offered extensive childcare entitlements, including maternity and leave allowances and flexible working arrangements. In effect, such policies enabled women to balance employment with home life.

After the fall of communism in 1989, various governments in the region appear to have opted for a male breadwinner model. As pointed out by Cerami (2005), Saxonberg and Sirovátka (2006), and Rostgaard (2004), the general trend across the region is toward reserving a larger role for the family, or, in other words, shifting the responsibility of childcare from the government to the parents – mothers, in particular.

A number of authors note that the transition from centrally planned to market economies left many women in a more vulnerable position than men, not only in the labor market but also in the home (Schnepf 2010; Robila 2009; Motiejunaite 2009; Pascall and Manning 2000). Broadly speaking, they note, women have become more “familialized,” meaning more economically dependent on a male earner and more focused on family care than before 1989. Robila and others associate this with the dismantling of many childcare programs throughout the region, which resulted in a number of childcare centers being closed, and the withdrawal of financial support (i.e., childcare allowances and benefits).<sup>19</sup> For instance, Schmitt and Trappe (2010) note that “with the downsizing of public childcare, the model of the female full-time worker was undermined substantially, although to differing degrees across the Central and Eastern European countries.”<sup>20</sup>

It is important to note that the details of women's status in the E&E region does differ from country to country with respect to the gravity of consequences that labor market restructuring has had on female employment, as well as on women's ability to enter into positions of power and decision-making, such as parliamentary representation. Yet, there is evidence that discriminatory recruitment and retention practices have evolved in the region's labor markets, as well as worsening gender pay

differentials (the wage gap) based on occupational segregation. Plomien (2004), for instance, points out that new labor market conditions have made women more vulnerable to different forms of gender discrimination, especially in the private sector. As a result, in many of these transition countries, there has been a striking feminization of poverty.

### **Policy Positions Needed to Promote Female Employment**

It is evident from this review that a number of the focus countries are taking the issue of gender equality in the labor market seriously. Gender-related ILO conventions have been ratified, national action plans and committees have been created to improve the status of women, and national employment policies aimed at mainstreaming gender equality. However, still more needs to be done. There is ample room for each of the focus countries to create more and better opportunities for women in their labor markets. This includes establishing policies that address the occurrence of occupational segregation and discrimination, as well as launching strategies that would enable a more balanced approach to work and family life.

The European Training Foundation (ETF) highlights two policy positions necessary to promote female employment in the E&E region:

- 1) Increase female labor force participation rates: i.e., by (re)implementing childcare/preschool options that create more opportunities for women to enter the workforce; and
- 2) Ensure employability of women – i.e., through skills training, employment counseling, job mediation, etc.

Additional efforts identified by ETF as needed to promote women's employment in the region (and which are applicable to other countries) include "rigorous targeting of scarce resources, development of equal opportunities' monitoring and compliance systems, as well as general awareness and capacity development measures addressing the various parts of the [governments] involved. As well, social partner organisations, which will increasingly have a role in ensuring that equal opportunity policy ... is effectively implemented, will need support in this process."<sup>21</sup>

However, a more innovative gender approach is needed – one that goes beyond the usual and customary labor market interventions that only promote equal employment opportunities and equal pay for equal work. The ILO recommends introducing policies that:

1. “Encourage men to share family responsibilities through behaviour-changing measures (such as paternity leave);
2. Quantify the value of unpaid care work;
3. Develop educational systems that challenge stereotypical gender roles;
4. Challenge tendencies toward a discrimination- or exploitation based definition of “women’s work” (for example, by broadening access for women to employment in an enlarged scope of industries and occupations while also encouraging male employment in sectors traditionally defined as “female” as a means of raising both the average pay and status of the occupation); and finally,
5. Focus on raising the quality of work in all sectors, extending social protection, benefits and security to those in non-standard forms of work.”<sup>22</sup>

### **Labor Market Inequality**

In general, experts and policymakers disagree on whether women in the E&E region have suffered more economic setbacks than men since the collapse of state run economies. This is partially due to lack of sufficient data, but also because existing figures are interpreted in different ways. UNIFEM (2006) warns, for instance, that it is difficult to assess women’s economic position in the region, because “quantitative measures of gender inequality presented without sufficient detail and outside the broader social and economic context may lead to inaccurate conclusions about the situation of women.”<sup>23</sup>

On the one hand, the literature reports that women have not suffered increased labor market inequality relative to men, primarily because a significant number of *both* sexes have lost jobs, became unemployed, and as a result are impoverished at a greater rate. A 2002 World Bank study, *Gender in Transition*, reports “no empirical evidence that the treatment of women in the labour market has systematically deteriorated across the region.” Most recently, as a result of the global economic crisis, ILO (2010) reports that in 2009 E&E countries experienced some of the world’s largest increases in unemployment for both women and men.<sup>24</sup>

On the other hand, evidence clearly shows that inequality in the job market continues to be prevalent in the region. UNIFEM (2006) acknowledges that both male and female labor market positions in CEE and CIS countries have declined in the short term, but that there is concern over longer term, negative consequences for women that stem from greater inequality in the job market – including the gender wage gap and outright discrimination in

hiring and firing – the end result being higher levels of female poverty and reliance on state benefits later in life.<sup>25</sup>

### *Labor Force Participation in the Focus Countries*

At the start of transition, women in the E&E region had relatively high rates of participation in the labor force as compared to other women around the world. In 1990, two focus countries had more than 60 percent of women economically active (Armenia and Russia), with Georgia and Ukraine not far behind.<sup>26</sup> By 1995, with the exception of Serbia, these rates began to drop, due to the impact of privatization and restructuring. In 2009, however, most of the focus countries have been able to maintain an economically active female population that is comparable or better than the global labor force participation rate for women (51.7 percent).<sup>27</sup> Armenia and Russia have the highest economically active female population (59.6 and 57.5 percent, respectively). Macedonia and Serbia are still falling somewhat

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008	2009
Armenia	60.9	56.4	57.1	58.6	59.0	59.6
BiH	53.1	52.7	56.1	55.1	54.8	54.9
Georgia	59.9	56.3	54.7	55.4	55.4	55.1
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	46.3	43.2	40.8	42.1	42.7	42.9
Russia	60.0	54.6	53.9	55.5	57.1	57.5
Serbia	43.9	44.2	44.6	45.2	45.1	45.9
Ukraine	56.0	53.8	51.8	51.7	51.8	52.0

Source: ILO Statistics Division – LABORSTA <http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest>

behind, with 42.9 and 45.9 percent. As is the case throughout much of the world, most economically active women in the focus countries are between the ages of 25 and 49.<sup>e</sup>

### *Unemployment*

Unemployment rates remain higher for women than for men in much of the E&E region, including five of the eight focus countries – Kosovo, Armenia, Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), and Serbia. Women in Kosovo

<sup>e</sup> ILO Statistics Division – LABORSTA. Economically Active Population Estimates and Projections, 1980 – 2020. <http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest>

and Armenia have substantially higher unemployment rates. In Georgia, Russia, and Ukraine, on the other hand, unemployment rates for men are slightly higher than for women. In Russia and Ukraine, female unemployment rates are more in line with global levels - the ILO estimates that the global female unemployment rate was 6 percent in 2007 and 7 percent in 2009.<sup>28</sup>

Unemployed female youth (ages 15-24) make up a significant cohort, particularly in BiH, Georgia, Macedonia, and Serbia (see Table 3 on next page).

Unemployed women in the region are generally exposed to a greater risk of remaining unemployed for a longer time. Women are also impacted by hidden unemployment and by work in the informal sector. Both are growing problems in the region's countries, but gender-specific data and analysis are still lacking. Unemployment and underemployment remain serious problems in E&E countries, especially for women. The United Nations reports that "where formal employment opportunities are not accessible, women often seek livelihoods for themselves and their dependents in the informal sector, some becoming self-employed or owners of small-scale enterprises."<sup>29</sup>

Some of the eight focus countries are seeing some improvements in overall unemployment rates since 2009, most likely due to a combination of labor market reforms and global economic recovery. Whereas Russia's average annual unemployment rates for both men and women increased between 2008 and 2009 – up from 6.6 and 6.1 percent, respectively, to 9.0 and 7.9 percent – there has been some progress in 2010. Russian men's unemployment has decreased to 8 percent, and women's to 7 percent.<sup>f</sup> However, these figures still remain higher than 2008 levels.

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<sup>f</sup> ILO Statistics Division – LABORSTA. Short-term Indicators of the Labor Market. [http://laborsta.ilo.org/sti/sti\\_E.html](http://laborsta.ilo.org/sti/sti_E.html)

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Armenia	21.90 *	35.00 *
BiH	21.40	26.80
Georgia	16.80	16.10
Kosovo	38.50 *	55.20 *
Macedonia	33.51	34.16
Russia	6.60	6.10
Serbia	11.89	15.84
Ukraine	6.60	6.10

\* 2007 figures. Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>
Armenia	..	56.4	..	..	..
BiH	..	..	..	65.6	62.3
Georgia	20.5	19.8	30.6	..	36.8
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	62.4	..	62.1	61	58.2
Russia	..	..	17.2	17.3	14.7
Serbia	..	..	.	55.5	48.3
Ukraine	..	..	14.4	..	..

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

## **Challenges to Sustainable Livelihoods**

Throughout the E&E region, women experience a higher poverty risk, which is associated with their greater share of unpaid work and family care, lower participation in the labor market and, when they are employed, over-representation in low paid employment. The transition from centralized to market economies in the region has added to women's double burden of earning an income and filling their caretaking role in the household. This has been made worse by a reduction in the number of social services available for working mothers, after state financing dried up. The lack of recognition women receive for the work they do at home contributes to their economic marginalization. As women's economic contributions decline,

they lose bargaining power and currently have a diminished role in decision-making.

Myriad labor market issues that reflect ongoing challenges for women and girls in the E&E region include:

- Occupational Segregation, Discrimination in Employment, and Gender Wage Gap
- Education and Skills Underdevelopment
- Lagging Entrepreneurship Opportunities
- Informal Economy
- Unequal Poverty Rates
- Family Responsibilities

### *Occupational Segregation, Discrimination in the Workplace, and Gender Wage Gap*<sup>9</sup>

Today, men and women in the E&E region often are segregated by occupation, due to structural changes in their economies. According to a United Nations report (2010), women in the region are employed primarily as service workers, shop and market sales workers, and technicians and associate professionals. This is compared to men, who typically work as craft and related trade workers, and plant and machine operators and assemblers.<sup>30</sup> The UN lists “stereotypes, education and vocational training, the structure of the labor market and discrimination at entry and in work” as some of the causes often cited for gender segregation of occupations.<sup>31</sup>

As is the case throughout much of the world, gender discrimination in the E&E region intersects with other forms of discrimination including disability, ethnicity, class, and age. This results in many layers of disadvantage in the labor market. In some of the eight focus countries, gender specifications are a customary feature of job advertising and hiring, as are preferences based on marital status. Such gendered practices exclude women from some occupations, concentrate them in others, and contribute to high poverty rates and unemployment for women. In Russia, for instance, the labor code lists 460 occupations as being legally off-limits to women, such as train operator, chimney sweep, blacksmith, steel worker, and firefighter.<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>9</sup> Gender wage gap typically is defined as the difference between men’s and women’s average earnings from employment, shown as a percentage of men’s average earnings.

In Serbia, for instance, even though employment law currently makes it illegal for prospective employers to ask a female job applicant about their intentions to have children, it is a common occurrence. Some employers go so far as to ask young women to promise that they will put off having children for a specified number of years.<sup>33</sup> In previous years, it has been reported that a number of Serbian women (in many cases single mothers and women in difficult economic and social circumstances) were dismissed from their jobs following the overthrow of Milosevic in 2000. All total, 80 percent of employees who lost their jobs in the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia were women.<sup>34</sup> In response to this, a telephone hotline (called the SOS Hotline) was established, with help from a Swedish women's organization, to provide free legal advice to women in the workforce.

Horizontal and vertical job segregation has resulted in a persistent gender wage gap in all regions of the world,<sup>35</sup> which translates into women being employed in jobs that commonly pay less than those dominated by men.<sup>36</sup> Whereas men have greater access to better paying private sector jobs, many women are being relegated to less prestigious, underpaid public sector jobs. Despite being better educated than men (on average), women in the eight focus countries continue to earn less for equal or similar work. Consequently, as a result of pay gaps, women tend to receive smaller pensions when they retire.

Apostolova (2010) draws attention to the gender wage gap in Macedonia and Serbia, reporting that women in these countries (and Croatia) are over-represented in certain occupations, such as sales, catering, nursing, teaching, and social services. This is known as horizontal segregation. In addition to being over-represented in lower paying jobs, Apostolova reports that they are also under-represented in higher level, better-paid managerial and senior positions – a.k.a. vertical segregation.<sup>37</sup> Angel-Urdinola (2008) finds evidence that roughly 80 percent of the gender wage gap in Macedonia is unexplained, which points to high discrimination against female workers.<sup>38</sup> In Russia, it is reported that women working two or three jobs at the same time has become a typical phenomenon,<sup>39</sup> as a result of being relegated to low-paid jobs. A World Bank analysis (2005) reveals that Russian women with the same level of education receive 1.5 to 1.8 lower salaries than men, and women with a higher education receive about the same salaries as men without the same educational credentials.<sup>40</sup>

	Female (\$)	Male (\$)	Ratio
Armenia	4,215	7,386	0.57
BiH	5,910	9,721	0.61
Georgia	2,639	6,921	0.38
Kosovo	..	..	..
Macedonia	5,956	12,247	0.49
Russia	11,675	18,171	0.64
Serbia	7,654	12,900	0.59
Ukraine	5,249	8,854	0.59

Source: UNDP. 2009b

Notes to Table 4:

1) Gender pay gap indicates how many percentage points the earnings of women have to increase in order to be equal to those of men.

2) While official figures are unavailable for Kosovo, a 2006 report from the Open Society Institute reports that even though “Kosovo’s legal order embraces the equal pay principle, women are at a disadvantage in the country’s labor market, where they receive lower average pay than men.”<sup>41</sup> It goes on to note: In 2002 average private sector pay was EUR 220.17 per month compared with EUR 167.95 per month in the public sector. Women’s pay was about 14 percent lower than men’s. This is not due to salary disparity for same positions, but to a higher ratio of men in better paid positions.”<sup>42</sup>

In a number of countries throughout the world, persistent gender wage gaps have initiated a range of policy measures. In other countries, however, the gap is not placed very high on the national policy agenda and, as a result, few concrete programs or policy measures are pursued. While legal frameworks do exist in the eight focus countries to prohibit such discrimination, they often are fragmented and inefficient.<sup>43</sup> Seven of the eight focus countries studied here have ratified the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention (C100), yet the gender wage gap remains evident, as shown in Table 5 below. In Georgia, for instance, women earn as little as 38 percent of a man’s income.

Labor force distribution among agriculture, industry and the service sectors is unequal between men and women. More E&E women work in the public sector, for instance, versus more men working in the higher paying private sector. This contributes to the pay gap, since jobs in certain sectors – such as agriculture and public service – are likely to pay less.

<b>Table 5. Dynamics of Female Employment, 2006</b> (% by Sector)			
	<b>Agriculture</b>	<b>Industry</b>	<b>Services</b>
Armenia	46.1	9.5	44.5
BiH	.	.	.
Georgia	57.4	3.9	38.5
Kosovo	.	.	.
Macedonia	20.3	29.3	50.1
Russia	7.8	20.7	71.6
Serbia	19.2	18.7	62.1
Ukraine	.	.	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

### *Education and Skills Underdevelopment*

Education is a powerful tool for reducing inequalities in the labor market, and beyond. Workforce benefits of education accrue both from the fact that education promotes a person's entry into lucrative occupations and, conditional on occupation, raises earnings. Education is an asset that, all things being equal, should pay off equally for men and women in the E&E transition countries. The ILO reports that "upgrading skills for women brings together the equity, efficiency and anti-poverty rationales thus making full use of a country's human capital." Yet, "women [tend to] miss out on training opportunities because of lack of information, lack of time due to household responsibilities/ childcare, gender stereotypes, and cultural barriers."<sup>44</sup> Thus, it is imperative that E&E countries implement policies to ensure training for women – ranging from employment and training policies, to institutional strengthening, down to curricula, training materials, training delivery, training of trainers, training venue and facilities.

A theory introduced by Fodor (1997) generalizes that women in the E&E region are considered to be more flexible than men when it comes to updating their skills and qualifications for the changing job market. Fodor maintains that, while communist-era occupational segregation did direct women in the region into less prestigious, lower paying professions and jobs, primarily in the service sector, it actually may have helped them

develop and maintain the higher levels of education and skill sets that are more highly valued in a market economy. During the socialist period, women were better educated than men, on average, yet men earned higher salaries for work in manual jobs. Fodor maintains that women’s advanced education and skills (i.e., communication and customer service, knowledge of foreign languages), in addition to their experience in the service sector, have evolved into essential skills (so-called “revalued resources”) in the region’s new market economies, whereas many men have had to struggle for jobs in the declining industrial or agricultural sectors.<sup>45</sup>

In some E&E countries, as is the case in other developing nations, economics – as well as legislation – has a direct bearing on a woman’s chances of getting an education. If a family cannot afford to send all of its children to school, it is often the girls who are kept behind. In rural areas, this problem can be made worse. Mirlinda Kusari, from the women’s business association SHE-ERA in Kosovo, reports that many rural Kosovar girls get through elementary and secondary school, but seldom advance to higher education. In poor families, she notes, boys often are given priority.<sup>46</sup>

Lower literacy rates, lack of information, and cultural barriers can also be obstacles to upgrading skills for women. In three of the focus countries, there is evidence of a slightly larger illiterate female population (versus males) – BiH, Macedonia, and Serbia. To some small degree, this will hinder efforts to promote skill development.

**Table 6. Adult Literacy Rate - Females as a Percent of Males**

	2000	2000-2004	2000-2006	2003-2007	2005-2008
Armenia	99	99	99	100	100
BiH	91	95	95	95	96
Georgia	99	..	..	..	100
Macedonia	97	96	96	97	97
Russia	99	99	99	100	100
Serbia	..	..	95	..	97
Ukraine	100	99	99	100	100

Source: UNICEF, State of the World's Children

In the E&E region, there is a high degree of segregation in the subjects studied by men and women at the tertiary level, with the latter clustering in

so-called “soft” subjects (i.e., education and health), where job prospects are poorest. The tables below show that, in the eight focus countries, more women are enrolled in higher education, but are concentrated in health and welfare, and humanities and arts – versus men’s enrollment in engineering, manufacturing and construction, and science. A recent study of the process of engendering education in Serbia found that, while female participation rates at the university level are elevated, males tend to obtain a greater number of advanced degrees.<sup>47</sup>

	<b>2000</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>
Armenia	109	122	118	120	..
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	96	103	112	110	119
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	128	138	138	127	120
Russia	..	136	136	136	136
Serbia	..	..	..	129	129
Ukraine	114	123	123	124	125

SOURCE: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	26.4	47.4	37.7	38.2
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	33.5	45.6	27	21.4	.
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	42.2	44.1	39.3	44.9	43.3
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	49.4	43.9
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

<b>Table 9. Female tertiary graduates - % of all graduates in Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction</b>					
	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	21.3	32.1	31	36.8
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	28.9	29.6	30.5	22.3	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	32.8	27.7	34.9	30.7	38
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	38.2	38.8
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

<b>Table 10. Female tertiary graduates - % of all graduates in Health and Welfare</b>					
	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	51.4	35.6	71.1	78.2
BiH	..	..	..	..	.
Georgia	72.9	77.2	70	77.9	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	73.8	74	77.2	77.9	69.4
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	73.2	75.3
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

<b>Table 11. Female tertiary graduates % of all graduates in Science</b>					
	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	48	21.8	34.8	40.6
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	72.4	70.5	61.3	53.2	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	67.9	61.8	66.7	54.4	48.4
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	65.1	48.9
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	9.8	20	26.9	21.4
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	24.4	31.5	19.1	20.7	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	47.8	40	43.9	44.4	40.4
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	30.4	40.4
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

	2000	2001	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	72.3	57.6	57.2	64
BiH	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	77.4	79.5	57.9	57.2	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	76.3	64.8	70.4	66.2	67.4
Russia	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	76.2	74.7
Ukraine	.	..	..	..	..

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Education Database

Skill requirements have risen for a number of new job categories found in the E&E region. Cerami (2008) maintains that vocational training (a.k.a. “life long learning”) is key to the region’s process of economic and social transformation. Countries in the region are fast becoming “post-industrial, knowledge-based, service economies,” which in and of itself is leading to new risk factors, including different patterns of poverty and income inequality. Despite the fact that individuals throughout the region are highly educated, however, Cerami highlights that they are “less involved in vocational training.”<sup>48</sup>

Vocational education and training (VET) in several of the E&E focus countries is still in the process of reform. In BiH, for instance, modernization of the VET framework has been slow. While outcomes for VET in the country’s labor market have been mixed, an ILO review of its employment

policy (2009) reports that “employment rates of workers with secondary and higher education are almost three times those of workers with primary or lower education (74 versus 25 percent, respectively), [which] gives a strong argument to policy-makers for investing in education and training.”<sup>49</sup> However, this review also finds a high skills mismatch in BiH, with low employment returns on VET. Training delivery to the female unemployed population in Kosovo fell from 50 percent in 2002 to 30 percent in 2005, even though there were increasing numbers of women seeking support for employment from the public services during the same period. To resolve this, Kosovo’s Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare implemented a vocational training strategy (2005-2008) that identifies women’s training as a priority.<sup>50</sup>

A 2007 ILO review of Kosovo’s Employment Policy reports that “women’s participation in labour market training programmes is hampered by male-dominated occupational profiles, limited information on non-traditional occupations and rigid training schedules that do not match with family responsibilities.”<sup>51</sup> An ILO report (2009) reminds policymakers that “vocational training and skill development institutions need to address issues of childcare and re-schedule training at times suitable for women to ensure their participation.”<sup>52</sup> As well, policies should address the constraints that women’s unpaid work in the private (informal) sphere has on opportunities to upgrade skills and training.

### *Informal Economy*

Socio-economic tendencies, such as growth of the informal sector<sup>h</sup> within labor markets, increased migration,<sup>i</sup> and jobless growth, are leading to greater insecurity for workers throughout the world. These trends and the resulting changing labor market have an impact on major social groups, in particular women. In many countries, women make up the bulk of informal work and are concentrated at the low end of the spectrum – often in low paying, irregular and unrecognized forms of work. More often than not,

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<sup>h</sup> The international definitions on informal sector, adopted in 1993, include small and unregistered enterprises, paid and unpaid workers in these enterprises, and casual workers without fixed employers. Having a definition, however, does not make the process of collecting accurate statistics on the sector easier. Due to its diversity and the wide range of activities it encompasses, informal sector data continues to be difficult to collect. As a result, official statistics often underestimate the size and economic contribution of the sector, and especially women’s roles in it. Source: Esim, Semil. 2001.

<sup>i</sup> With a lack of employment opportunities, women in the region are leaving their home countries in ever-increasing numbers. This has made them more vulnerable to human trafficking.

informal workers lack basic rights and are not well organized. They are largely invisible and unprotected, and endure poor working conditions, irregular hours, and little to no representation.

As a result of high unemployment rates, a number of individuals in the E&E region are pushed into the informal sector – either as a form of self-employment or informal wage employment.<sup>j</sup> Serbia, for instance, saw an increase in its informal sector, from nearly 28 percent in 2002 to 35 percent in 2007 (total, aged 15-64).<sup>53</sup> In 2007, Serbia women made up 40.6 percent of total informal workers.<sup>54</sup> It is reported that women in the region often are heavily involved in the informal economy,<sup>55</sup> which does provide needed employment and income in the short term, but brings with it reduced labor rights and problems later in life because these women do not contribute to pension funds or other social protection programs. A higher percentage of people working informally are poor compared to those in the formal sector.<sup>56</sup>

Semil Esim (2001) describes the E&E region's informal sector as “a large segment of the population that works informally, including those who are:

- Self-employed without registration of their businesses – at home/outside the home;
- workers of small enterprises without employment contracts;
- itinerant or seasonal or temporary jobs on building sites or road works;
- second jobs or plural activities undertaken by the working poor;
- street vendors selling vegetables, fruits, processed foods or other home-products;
- street vendors trading purchased goods;
- home-based workers in industrial subcontracting arrangements;
- cross border traders of goods;

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<sup>j</sup> The literature describes two different types of informal employment:

a) self-employment - includes employers in informal enterprises; own account workers in informal enterprises; unpaid family workers and members of informal producers' cooperatives ; and

b) Informal wage employment - employees without formal contracts, worker benefits or social protection who are employed either in formal or informal enterprises.

Source: Asian Development Bank. 2009.

- temporary migrant workers providing personal and social services across borders.”<sup>57</sup>

Esim points out that, of these categories, women in the E&E region primarily are involved as informal cross-border traders (of consumer goods), craft workers (i.e., handicrafts, carpet weavers), food processing, piece-rate home workers, and home-based service providers (catering, childcare, eldercare).<sup>58</sup>

The informal sector plays an important role in many of the focus countries, in particular as it relates to household agricultural activities.

### *Box 2. Informal Employment Status Categories*

Self-employment includes persons who during the reference period were either (a) “at work”: that is, performed some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind, or (b) “with an enterprise but not at work”: that is, with an enterprise that may be a business enterprise, a farm or a service undertaking, but were temporarily not at work for any specific reason.

Employers are those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, are self-employed and have engaged on a continuous basis one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Own-account workers are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, are self-employed and have not engaged any employees on a continuous basis.

Members of producers’ cooperatives are workers who are self-employed in a cooperative producing goods and services, in which each member takes part on an equal footing with other members in all decisions relating to production, sales, investments and the distribution of proceeds.

Contributing family workers (referred to in the previous classification as unpaid family workers) are workers who are self-employed in a market-oriented establishment operated by a relative living in the same household, who cannot be regarded as partners because their degree of commitment to the operation of the establishment is not at a level comparable to that of the head of the establishment.

Source: Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 2004 (Geneva, International Labour Office, 2004).

[http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/ilo-bookstore/order-online/books/WCMS\\_PUBL\\_9220165473\\_EN/lang-en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/ilo-bookstore/order-online/books/WCMS_PUBL_9220165473_EN/lang-en/index.htm)

- In Russia, Seeth et al. (1998) found that an important aspect of households' responses to economic stress during the transition was home gardening and subsistence agriculture in urban and rural areas. It was estimated that this aspect of the informal sector provided almost 40 percent of Russia's agricultural output.<sup>59</sup> In Georgia, Bernabe (2002) notes that such agricultural plots, which have existed since the Soviet era when they were allocated by the State, represent a primary source of employment for one seventh of the urban employed population.<sup>60</sup>
- In Kosovo, the World Bank (2003) reports that half of all employment is informal.<sup>61</sup> The most common informal activity, based on a labor force survey, was growing crops in a garden or private plot—11 percent of households reported this activity.<sup>62</sup> But many respondents do not consider this “real work” because income is unpredictable.<sup>63</sup>
- In BiH, the majority of new jobs are being created in the informal sector (mostly labor intensive activities), which accounted for 42 percent of employment in 2004. While the general incidence of informal work is lower for women than for men in BiH, women are more likely to work informally in agriculture.<sup>64</sup>
- In Armenia more women (23 percent) than men (15 percent) work in informally, with half of those working informally in agriculture being women.<sup>65</sup> Agricultural work, however, tends to be unpaid, undervalued and often confined to informal market activities.<sup>66</sup>

A recent report from the World Bank, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), and Institute for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2009) maintains that “access and control are critical to inclusion and equity.”<sup>67</sup> The reality for informal agricultural workers in the E&E region, however, is that they often are denied the basic human right to freedom of association, are poorly remunerated, and discriminated against. Women working informally in agriculture typically experience even lower wages, poorer employment conditions, and higher rates of poverty than men.<sup>68</sup> In response to this, a trend in the literature calls for an increase in the number of informal organizations that promote the rights of female informal agricultural workers. These organizations – such as women’s and extension groups, producer and/or credit associations, and trade unions – not only improve solidarity, but also can provide special services to informal workers; for instance, distributing information about legal rights, implementing educational and advocacy projects, providing legal aid, as well as medical insurance, credit and loan schemes, and helping to

establish cooperatives.<sup>69</sup> This kind of initiative in the E&E region is still limited, and further research and action are needed in order to foster institutional arrangements that are conducive to the effective and comprehensive realization of labor standards in rural areas for *both* women and men.

The term ‘informal employment’ encompasses a number of different status descriptors in the literature. For analytical purposes, two informal employment status categories - ‘employers’ and ‘own-account workers’ - are sometimes combined and referred to as ‘self-employed.’ See text box below for definitions of each category.

As Table 14 below indicates, when looking at the category ‘own-account workers,’ women in Armenia and Georgia rank the highest – with 18 and 12 percent of the total labor force. UNECE defines own-account workers as “those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, are self-employed and have not engaged any employees on a continuous basis.” Table 15 also indicates the percentage of female ‘employers,’ which defined as “ those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, are self-employed and have engaged on a continuous basis one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.” Women in Serbia and Macedonia are ahead of their counterparts in the other focus countries, with 1.3 and 1.2 percent, respectively. See Table 16 below for an expanded representation of *Total Employment, by Status of Employment*.

<b>Table 14. Own-account Workers, Female</b> (2008, % of total labor force)	
	<b>Own-account Workers, Female</b>
Armenia	18 (2007)
BiH	..
Georgia	12
Kosovo	..
Macedonia	2.1
Russia	2.6
Serbia	5.8
Ukraine	..

Source: ILO LABORSTA

<b>Table 15. Employers, Female</b> (2008, % of total labor force)	
	<b>Employers, Female</b>
Armenia	.05 (2007)
BiH	..
Georgia	.3
Kosovo	..
Macedonia	1.2
Russia	.5
Serbia	1.3
Ukraine	..

Source: ILO LABORSTA

Note: Ukraine's statistics for these two categories are combined.

For 2008, women made up 9 percent of own-account workers and employers – also called 'self-employed.'

Bernabe indicates that, although Georgian women are only slightly overrepresented amongst the country's informal workers, there is a larger gender imbalance between different types of informal employment. Sixty-four percent of Georgia's 'contributing family workers' are women, whereas 67 percent of self-employed and 65 percent of informal employees are men. Bernabe explains this difference by the fact that both male and female household members may work for an equivalent number of hours in the same household enterprise, but the man, as head of the household, may be considered 'self-employed' (i.e. own-account worker or employer), while the woman will be classified as a 'contributing family member.'<sup>70</sup>

**Table 16. Total Employment, by Status in Employment**

		<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>
<b>Armenia</b>	Labor force, both sexes	1,101,500	1,117,600
	Own-account workers, both sexes (% of total)	546,000 (50%)	..
	Labor force, female (% total)	533,900 (48%)	..
	Employers, female (% total labor force)	600 (.05%)	..
	Own-account workers, female (% total labor force)	203,700 ( <b>18%</b> )	..
<b>BiH</b>	Labor force, both sexes	..	..
	Own-account workers, both sexes (% of total)	..	..
	Labor force, female (%of total)	..	..
	Employers, female (% total labor force)	..	..
	Own-account workers, female (% total labor force)	..	..
<b>Georgia</b>	Labor force, both sexes	1,704,300	1,601,900
	Employers, both sexes (% total)	19,400 (1.1%)	16800 (1.1%)
	Own-account workers, both sexes	575,800 (34%)	561,000 (35%)
	Labor force, female (% total)	..	746,300 (47%)
	Employers, female (% of total labor force)	..	5,200 (.3%)
	Own-account workers, female (% of total labor force)	..	199,200 ( <b>12%</b> )
<b>Macedonia</b>	Labor force, both sexes	590,234	609,015
	Employers, both sexes (% of total)	32,655 (5.5%)	30,084 (3%)
	Own-account workers, both sexes (% of total)	71,245 (12%)	78,824 (13%)
	Labor force, female (% of total)	231,399 (39%)	235,532 (39%)
	Employers, female (% total labor force)	7,683 (1.3%)	7,205 (1.2%)
	Own-account workers, female (% total labor force)	11,212 ( <b>1.9%</b> )	12,977 ( <b>2.1%</b> )
<b>Russia</b>	Labor force, both sexes	70,570,000	70,965,000
	Employers, both sexes (% of total)	980,000 (1.4%)	1,057,000 (1.5%)
	Own-account workers, both sexes (% of total)	4033000 (5.7%)	3941000 (5.5%)
	Labor force, female (% of total)	34,920,000 (50%)	34,826,000 (49%)
	Employers, female (% of total labor force)	382,000 (.5%)	390,000 (.5%)
	Own-account workers, female (% of total labor force)	1,890,000 ( <b>2.7%</b> )	1,862,000 ( <b>2.6%</b> )
<b>Serbia</b>	Labor force, both sexes	2,655,736	2,821,720
	Employers, both sexes (% of total)	111,091 (4%)	125,722 (4%)
	Own-account workers, both sexes (% of total)	423,733 (16%)	574,488 (20%)
	Labor force, female (% of total)	1,109,979 (42%)	1,210,400 (43%)
	Employers, female (% of total labor force)	32,527 (1.2%)	36,126 (1.3%)
	Own-account workers, female (% total labor force)	92,516 ( <b>3.5%</b> )	163,194 ( <b>5.8%</b> )
<b>Ukraine</b>	Labor force, both sexes	20,904,700	20,972,300
	Employers/own account workers, both sexes (% total)	3,957,900 (19%)	3,701,900 (18%)
	Labor force, female (% of total)	10,139,900 (49%)	10,122,600 (48%)
	Employers/own account workers, female (% total)	2,047,500 (10%)	1,915,300 ( <b>9%</b> )

Source: ILO Department of Statistics (LABORSTA) <http://laborsta.ilo.org>

## *Lagging Entrepreneurship Opportunities*

Note: In the literature, there is overlap between what is described as informal self-employment. The distinction between informal and formal self-employment is based on the size of an enterprise and whether it is registered with a government.

The need to support female entrepreneurship and self-employment throughout the developing and transitioning world is a common theme in the literature, since entrepreneurship plays such a significant role in countries' economic growth. Due to fewer work opportunities – a result of informalization<sup>k</sup> of the labor market – the number of female entrepreneurs throughout the world continues to grow each year. Women are starting new businesses on average at about two thirds the rate observed for men.<sup>71</sup> This increase is due, in part, to the recognition that private enterprise is important to a country's economic growth.<sup>72</sup> More self-employed women are involved in the small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) sector

### *Box 3. Enabling Policies*

Establishing gender sensitive policies that support SME development is an important priority of economic policies in E&E countries. Throughout the region, enabling policies are needed to promote female entrepreneurship, because a number of obstacles exist, including:

- cultural norms that attach a lower value to women's work,
- uneven family responsibilities that hamper women's mobility, and
- limited access to productive resources, such as land, credit, skills, technology, networks, and information.

These, in addition to insufficient institutional support, reduce the productivity and output of women-owned enterprises.

Note: See Annex 2 for a more comprehensive list of obstacles to female entrepreneurship worldwide.

creating new jobs and contributing to poverty reduction. Thus, promoting women as small business owners is a good way to boost female employment overall, especially in the E&E region where many women lost their public sector jobs as a result of privatization.

Evidence indicates that economic factors do not fully explain the above observed gender patterns in entrepreneurship. In some cases, entrepreneurship is motivated by opportunity. More often than not, though, 'own-account' workers become self-employed out of necessity, often due to

<sup>k</sup> The spread of the informal economy is a worldwide phenomenon, including in industrialized countries. The nature of the process – often called "informalization" – varies between a range of different situations.

unemployment.<sup>73</sup> The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor reports that women are more likely than men to become entrepreneurs out of necessity (versus opportunity), and they typically run smaller businesses than men, mainly due to capital and other constraints.<sup>74</sup>

One of the major changes for all post-Soviet countries has been the development of legalized entrepreneurship in the form of private business ownership. Entrepreneurship is viewed as an important way to improve women's employability in the context of the region's declining job security. UNECE (2004) reports that many E&E women turn to self-employment and entrepreneurship as means of survival.<sup>75</sup>

Welter, et al. (2004) suggest that female-owned enterprises are of special significance in a transition context for a number of reasons: 1) they tend to more frequently employ other women, which helps reduce the effect of discrimination against women in the labor market; 2) by reducing female unemployment, women-owned SMEs can assist in fighting the trafficking of women; 3) female business owners can serve as role models for younger generations demonstrating new opportunities for employment; and 4) by encouraging potential female entrepreneurs to start businesses, it could result in a more successful if not more rapid transition process through increased innovative capacities and private sector development.<sup>76</sup>

Note: while women entrepreneurs in the region share many common features and problems, there are important differences between each country. This indicates a need to recognize the diversity that exists between transition countries, reflecting different inheritances from the Soviet past, as well as differences in the pace of change during the transition period.

Even though SMEs are an important source of growth and new jobs in market economies worldwide, in most transition countries their potential remains untapped, especially with regards to women.<sup>77</sup> As shown in Table 17 below, while none of the focus countries has female participation in firm ownership greater than 50 percent, several are well above the global average of 33.74 percent - Ukraine (47.12 percent) and Georgia (40.84). Kosovo (10.9 percent), Serbia (28.76), and Armenia are below the world's average. Enterprises with a "top" female manager are lacking in Kosovo, but all other focus countries are doing well in this respect – in particular, Ukraine, with 27.91 percent.

	Firms With Female Participation in Ownership	Full Time Female Workers	Female Permanent Full-time Non-production Workers	Firms With Female Top Manager
<i>All countries</i>	33.74	29.07	9.38	17.55
Armenia (2009)	31.78	36.89	12.78	13.49
BiH (2009)	32.78	32.24	13.79	13.50
Georgia (2008)	40.84	42.76	11.26	19.77
Kosovo (2009)	10.92	18.51	4.65	0.32
Macedonia(2009)	36.40	32.41	8.56	19.13
Russia (2009)	33.05	41.58	14.51	14.33
Serbia (2009)	28.76	33.93	17.67	15.87
Ukraine (2008)	47.12	46.96	12.63	27.91

Source: Enterprise Surveys. <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/ExploreTopics/?topicid=6>

In the aftermath of conflict in BiH, necessity and altered family circumstances have led to a growing number of female business owners. According to World Bank data, nearly 27 percent of Bosnian women were unemployed in 2008. In 2007, it was reported that 63 percent of Bosnian girls graduating from high school were likely to be unemployed. The same year, the overall unemployment rate for young women in BiH reached as high as 66 percent.<sup>78</sup> Within this context of poor employment prospects, more and more Bosnian women are opting to become entrepreneurs as a source of income to support their families. In 2005, women made up 49 percent of total entrepreneurs (26,299 out of 53,598),<sup>79</sup> and today that number probably larger. In 2004, a survey by the World Learning STAR Network, a Bosnian non-governmental organization, found a significant increase in the number of women interested in starting their own businesses, up from 18 percent in 1998 to 60 percent in 2002.<sup>80</sup>

BiH, in addition to Kosovo, Russia, and Ukraine, however, remains a difficult place to do business: the World Bank Group's annual survey of business environments ranks BiH 110<sup>th</sup> out of 178 countries on its *Ease of Doing Business* score. These countries' business environments can be especially difficult for women, whose firms are often smaller and less well equipped to deal with bureaucratic hurdles.<sup>81</sup>

<b>Table 18. World Bank 'Ease of Doing Business' Rank</b>		
<b>Overall Score</b>	2011	2010
Armenia	48	44
BiH	110	110
Georgia	12	13
Kosovo	119	118
Macedonia	38	36
Russia	123	116
Serbia	89	90
Ukraine	145	147
<b>Getting Credit</b>		
Armenia	46	44
BiH	65	61
Georgia	15	30
Kosovo	32	30
Macedonia	46	44
Russia	89	87
Serbia	15	14
Ukraine	32	30

Source: World Bank. Doing Business. <http://www.doingbusiness.org/>

Next to Russia, BiH has the worst score in terms of its 'ease of getting credit' score. To increase Bosnian women's access to finance, towards the end of the war the World Bank launched the pilot project, MI-BOSPO as a way to help women generate income to send their children to school and rebuild what was lost in the conflict. MI-BOSPO has grown into a micro-lending operation that helps finance women entrepreneurs nationwide. It targets low-income women, many of whom are the family's sole breadwinner.<sup>1</sup>

In Armenia, the number of female entrepreneurs is growing, but not as much as men. Only 32 percent of Armenian enterprises officially have some female participation in ownership,<sup>82</sup> but the data is considered unreliable. A recent USAID gender assessment of Armenia (2010) notes

<sup>1</sup> For more information on MI-BOSPO, see the IFC's program description at: <http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/spiwebsite1.nsf/1ca07340e47a35cd85256efb00700cee/9EA10E50BA201E6E852576BA000E2D0F>

that “the portrait of a female entrepreneur in Armenia is quite specific. Most ...are primarily motivated to go into business in order to provide for their families and not out of “entrepreneurial drive or interest.” A study of women entrepreneurs in the North of Armenia found that 33 percent had non-working husbands, 31 percent had husbands who had migrated for work and 21 percent had no husbands; only 15 percent had working husbands. Women’s decision to enter business primarily out of necessity to support the family explains some of the obstacles they identify, such as lack of preparedness, lack of business skills and training, feelings of uncertainty and an unwillingness to take risks.”<sup>83</sup>

In Kosovo, due to lack of a level playing field, women are lagging behind men in education and economic status. Female unemployment in Kosovo is 25 to 30 percent higher than for men. Business ownership is still heavily male-dominated, with only 6 percent of the country’s businesses owned by women.<sup>84</sup>

A lack of robust networks and pervasive cultural barriers tend to discourage women from entrepreneurship in the CEE and CIS regions. Women in the BiH private sector, for instance, remain largely unorganized, and professional organizations tend to be male-dominated. MI-BOSPO reports that “the lack of strong women’s business associations means that women do not have a network of other businesswomen to turn to for sharing ideas and knowledge, which impacts their access to resources, training and information that could increase their business success.”<sup>85</sup>

CIPE notes the existence of myriad women’s business associations in the region, which have the objective of creating “favorable conditions for the economic development, social inclusion, and strengthening of women’s influence on economic and social policy. Women’s business associations also seek to increase the competitiveness of business women, promote and protect their interests, and form effective partnerships and cooperation between women owned businesses.”<sup>86</sup>

- In Armenia, the Association of Businesswomen of Armenia is non-governmental organization (NGO) that aims to develop women-owned businesses in the country.
- In Russia, the Association of Women and Business has national and international activities aimed at promoting women’s entrepreneurship and reinforcing national associations of women business owners;

- Georgia's Women in Business association provides business education and professional training, highlights employment opportunities for women, and provides support for women entrepreneurs. WiB also works with women-owned businesses and government officials to improve the business climate for innovation and entrepreneurship through regulatory reform in Georgia.
- In Ukraine, Women's Perspectives (WP) is a regional NGO that provides social, economic and psychological assistance to women. It supports women's initiatives, professional groups, business persons, scientists and students. WP has united women professionals in the fields of economics, law, psychology, and social welfare, and has undertaken initiatives to raise public awareness about gender issues and women's rights.
- As well, the Ukrainian Women's Fund (UWF) seeks to expand economic opportunities for women, enabling the development of businesses run by women, and reducing unemployment among women.

There are a number of donor and governmental programs in place throughout the E&E region to promote female entrepreneurship. For instance, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development's (EBRD) BAS Women in Business Programme, which focuses on Armenia and Georgia.<sup>m</sup>

### Policy Response

UNECE (2002) concludes that support for female entrepreneurship ought to be placed in the broader context of labor market policies, which need to address anti-discrimination measures and welfare reforms. Development of entrepreneurship in E&E countries, it reports, requires more than liberalization and privatization. Policies and adequate institutions are necessary in education and training, access to credit and financing, information, business networks and new technologies. UNECE maintains that E&E governments, in partnership with other stakeholders, must take the lead and responsibility for establishing gender-sensitive institutions and policies aimed at developing SMEs and, particularly, addressing specific barriers in entrepreneurial activities.<sup>87</sup>

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<sup>m</sup> See EBRD/BAS program brochure at: <http://www.ebrd.com/downloads/research/brochures/wib.pdf>

Along these same lines, in 2008 the European Training Foundation (ETF) drafted a framework of recommendations to boost women's entrepreneurship and business start-ups, with a focus on four areas:

- 1) gender-sensitive policies to promote female entrepreneurship;
- 2) entrepreneurship training;
- 3) improved access to finance for women entrepreneurs; and
- 4) an international network of women entrepreneurs, in order to exchange good practices.<sup>88</sup>

### *Unequal Poverty*

Globally, women are disproportionately affected by poverty and limited economic options. This is the case in much of the E&E region, which is a result of economic transition. The recent financial crisis is a compounding factor, as well. High poverty rates for children, higher rates and duration of unemployment among women, and a growing number of households headed by women in this region suggest that women account for a large share of those living in poverty, especially those in rural areas.

The risk of poverty is increased through single parenthood. A number of E&E countries have a higher incidence of female-headed households, which is thought to be a result of more men migrating abroad in search of employment. In Armenia, for instance, male migration leaves women alone to shoulder family and household burdens; one out of three households is headed by a woman. This trend is on the rise, especially in rural parts of the country. Overall, households headed by Armenian women are likely to be the poorest.<sup>89</sup> Based on household surveys, the poverty situation for female-headed households in two other focus countries, in addition to Armenia, remains fragile – namely, Georgia and Kosovo. Based on World Bank poverty assessments, despite overall increases in poverty, there does not appear to be a high incidence of *female* poverty in Macedonia, Serbia, Russia, and Ukraine. See brief descriptions below.

Government policies aimed at reducing the gender poverty gap are needed, with a specific focus on encouraging women to enter the labor market and improving their qualifications through training. According to the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), a number of E&E countries have incorporated a gender perspective into their respective poverty reduction strategies, which highlights the fact that these governments acknowledge the specific vulnerability of women to poverty (these include Armenia, Georgia, and Serbia).<sup>90</sup>

- Armenia - the National Statistical Service reports no statistical gender difference in poverty in Armenia – in 2009, 34.2 percent of women were deemed poor versus 34 percent of men. However, taken as a percentage of total population, *more women are poor than men* (54.4 percent versus 45.6 percent). As well, ArmSTAT states that female-headed households are more likely to be poor as compared to male-headed households (36.9 percent vs. 33.1 percent in 2009).<sup>91</sup>
- Georgia - a recent World Bank poverty assessment (2009) reports that “female-headed households do not face a significantly higher incidence of total poverty, but do face a higher risk of extreme poverty. In terms of total poverty, the incidence of poverty among female-headed households (25 percent) is just slightly higher than among male-headed households (23.1 percent). However, female-headed households face a statistically significantly higher risk of extreme poverty -11.3 percent compared to 8.6 percent among male-headed households.”<sup>92</sup>
- Kosovo – has the highest poverty rate of all the western Balkan countries, with 15 percent of its population listed as extremely poor (i.e., having difficulty meeting basic nutritional needs), and roughly 45 percent with a consumption level below the poverty line (43 Euros per adult/month). The poverty incidence is estimated to be higher by 4 percentage points for female-headed households compared to male heads of households (49 percent versus 44.8 percent in 2005-2006).<sup>93</sup>
- Macedonia – uncertain conclusion re: female- versus male-headed households. A World Bank poverty assessment (2005) recommends looking beyond only income in order to better understand the relationship between gender and poverty, since women and girls are “especially disadvantaged in intra-household distribution of goods or investment in human capital.” Twenty-one percent of the population living in male-headed households is likely poor, versus 7 percent of female-headed households. The Bank warns that “this should not be taken to imply that poverty is lower among the female population. ... Controlling for other household characteristics, women-headed households appear to have slightly lower per capita consumption than men.”<sup>94</sup>
- Russia – women reportedly fared well between 1997-2002, according to the World Bank (2005), with a 4.3 percent decline in poverty incidence (versus a 4.1 percent decline for men). Working families account for the largest proportion of the poor, but statistics are not available to

determine the difference, if any, between female- versus male-headed households.<sup>95</sup>

- Serbia – World Bank poverty assessment (2003) finds that, on the surface, female-headed households face a slightly higher poverty rate than male-headed households (by 14 percent). However, after controlling for human capital characteristics, demographics (such as age and education), employment status, and location, this disadvantage disappears. Ultimately, the report finds that “similar households headed by males also have much higher poverty risks than average. Therefore, women are over-represented in households with unfavorable demographic structure (e.g., high dependency rate) located in depressed [rural] regions ... Thus, the observed higher rate of poverty among female headed households is in some part due to their specific demographic composition and unfavorable location.”<sup>96</sup>
- Ukraine – research conducted recently in Ukraine finds that there is a relatively small gender-poverty gap, with female headed households only slightly over-represented among poor households.<sup>97</sup>

### *Family Responsibilities*

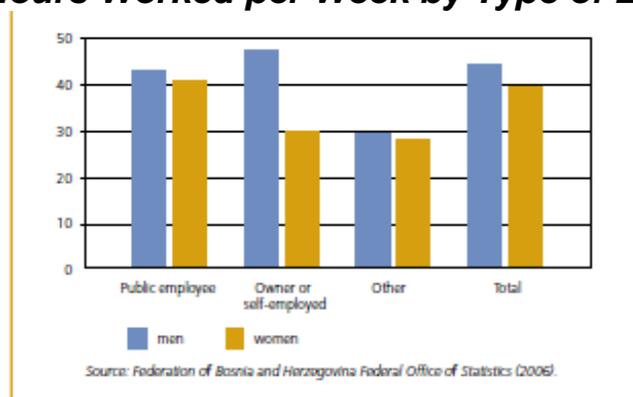
Ideological shifts and budget constraints have limited social protection schemes since the fall of communism; as a result, it is more difficult these days for *all* employees in the E&E region to balance family, work, and social responsibilities. This shift away from governmental responsibility for its citizens to a more traditional division of tasks and responsibilities, however, has hit women harder than men. Governments in the region seemingly are unable to reconcile labor market flexibility with social and economic security, which has resulted in an imbalance of work and family responsibilities. Whereas social policy during the communist era enabled women to balance workforce and family/household responsibilities,<sup>98</sup> current policies reinforce a traditional division of labor. Metcalfe and Afanassieva (2005), for instance, show that women's high representation in management and professional occupations in the E&E region, once the hallmark of socialist employment structures, is now threatened by the erosion of state childcare services and the increasing level of discriminatory practices in recruitment, selection and development. They suggest that the formal state structures have acted to foster neo-traditionalism and a traditional gender identity.<sup>99</sup> Setbacks in reproductive rights, which have

taken place throughout the region, also tend to strengthen traditional gender roles.<sup>n</sup>

Throughout much of the region, significant differences persist in the roles and status of women and men, which are influenced by a patriarchal culture and traditions. Despite the fact that women are well-educated, active workforce participants (including being well-represented in small business and self-employment), and active in civil society, predominant customs still prescribe women as principal caretakers of household duties and childcare. The emphasis on family responsibilities encumbers women's abilities to advance in their careers, and translates into a more restricted role within the public sphere, especially formal decision-making. This situation is even more severe in rural areas, where domestic and unpaid labor is more time-consuming and there are less support mechanisms in place for women.

In BiH, for instance, it is reported that female entrepreneurs spend an average of 29.2 hours per week tending their businesses, compared to male counterparts' 46.9 hours (Figure 1 below).<sup>100</sup> This is likely the result of women's double burden.

Figure 1: **Hours Worked per Week by Type of Employment**



Glick (2002) outlines the following policies that are necessary to reduce the conflict between women's dual roles in the labor market and at home (Note: Glick stresses that any "improvements made in labor market opportunities for women [need to be] accompanied by measures that address the concomitant increase in the need for childcare.")<sup>101</sup>

<sup>n</sup> For more information on this topic, see UNFPA. 2009. Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls: The Status of CEDAW Legislative Compliance in Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

<http://eeca.unfpa.org/public/cache/offonce/pid/4548;jsessionid=95D681485751B8351EC8172B47314765>

- Improve access to decent and affordable childcare. Glick views this as central to the policy discussion, because it enables women to reduce domestic work obligations and make a freer choice about work and career;
- Family-friendly policies that create flexibility in work schedules, including “flexitime” arrangements,<sup>o</sup> parental leave, and part-time options;
- Improve the gender balance of power, such as guaranteeing women’s rights to own and inherit property, making divorce and child support easier to obtain, and providing social assistance to female-headed households – all ways to increase bargaining power.
- Reduce forms of labor market discrimination, such as gender differentials in earnings.

## **Opportunities for Improving Female Employment**

It is important to review specific legal regulations on employment opportunities in the eight focus countries, with an aim to answering the question: are current laws or regulations, government measures, and/or local and international efforts creating employment opportunities for women?

### *Institutional Factors*

Policy makers throughout the world, and especially in developing countries, face myriad challenges with respect to achieving productive employment for all citizens. Policies and strategies devised to promote and generate sustainable employment and decent work need to address the economic, social and political inequalities that exist – for instance, the growth of households headed by single women, the increase in the number of youth and older people, etc.

A range of institutional factors explain gender differences in work patterns.<sup>102</sup> These vary from soft institutions, such as values, beliefs, ideals and expectations, to harder, more material or structuring forms, including institutionalized norms and practices like labor force composition, industrial technologies, and government laws and policies. Nichter and Goldmark (2009) identify four types of institutions that shape women's economic participation:<sup>103</sup>

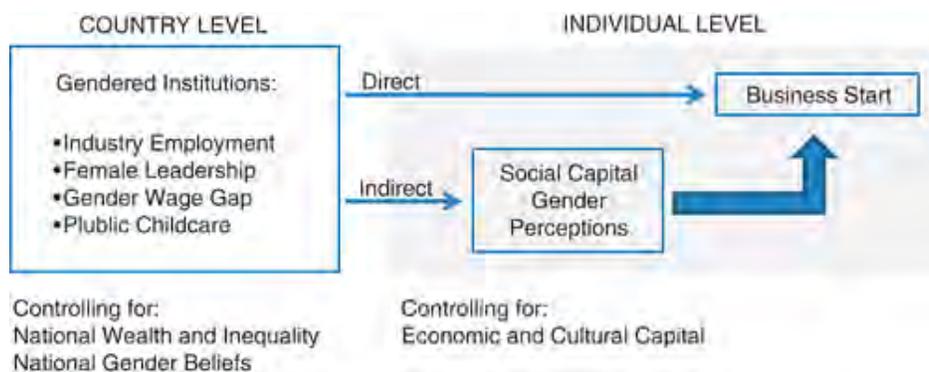
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<sup>o</sup> Flexitime (also called flex-time) is described as an employee’s ability to choose a work schedule that works best for her– i.e., instead of working the traditional 9 a.m. to 5 p.m., they might instead work 7 a.m. to 3 p.m.

- female proportion of sectoral employment
- gender wage inequality
- presence of female business leadership
- public expenditures on childcare

These factors are believed to influence gendered rates of business creation either directly or indirectly (see Figure 2). These factors further reflect aspects of both occupational segregation and the valuation of women's economic contributions.

**Figure 2. Gendered Rates of Business Creation**



Source: <http://www.palgrave-journals.com/ejdr/journal/v22/n3/full/ejdr201019a.html>

## *Institutional Support for Female Sustainable Livelihoods in E&E Region*

### Women, Power, and Decision-making

Throughout the world, improvements in women's gaining access to high-level positions of power and decision-making have been slow and uneven. Although there are no legal barriers for women to vote and stand for elections in the E&E region, their significant under-representation in positions of power across the region implies that significant challenges to women's empowerment persist.

The percentage of women in top decision-making posts differs widely between countries. In E&E as a whole, 17 percent of parliamentary seats were occupied by women in 2009, which is up from 10 percent in 1999. Compared with Western Europe and Southern Africa (29 and 24 percent, respectively, in 2009), this is low; but it is more than Northern Africa (10 percent) and Eastern and Western Asia (14 and 9 percent).<sup>p[1]</sup> Of

the eight focus countries, only Armenia, BiH, Macedonia, and Serbia have quota systems<sup>q[2]</sup> in place to ensure that women constitute a minimum 'critical mass' of 30 percent in national parliament, as stipulated in the Beijing Platform for Action.<sup>r</sup> This is considered the minimum necessary for women to have a tangible impact on public decision-making. While levels of women's presence in elected public office in these countries are not negligible, only one meets the 30 percent minimum - Macedonia at 32.5 percent. Bosnia and Herzegovina, with 19 percent in 2010, is lower than its 2000 level (28.6 percent). Despite its quota system, Armenia's female representation in parliament lags at 9.2 percent, which is significantly less than its 1990 level of 35.6 percent. In some countries where legislated quotas do not exist at all, there is a dearth of women in public life – Ukraine, for instance, which has only 8 percent of its parliament seats filled by women, and Georgia with the weakest representation (5.1 percent in 2010). Data points are unavailable for Kosovo, but the country's first woman president – Atifete Jahjaga – was voted into office this year.<sup>104</sup> Kosovo also has the second highest number of women in ministerial positions (17 percent).

The following table highlights women in national parliament in the eight focus countries:

**Table 19. Seats Held by Women in National Parliament, % of Total**

Country	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Armenia	35.6	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	4.6	5.3	5.3	5.3	9.2	8.4	9.2
BiH	.	28.6	.	7.1	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.7	14.3	11.9	11.9	19.0
Georgia	.	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.4	6.0	5.1
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	7.5	6.7	6.7	18.3	18.3	19.2	19.2	28.3	29.2	31.7	32.5
Russia	.	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.6	9.8	9.8	9.8	9.8	14.0	14.0	14.0
Serbia	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	20.4	20.4	21.6	21.6
Ukraine	.	7.8	7.8	7.8	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	8.7	8.2	8.2	8.0

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals Indicators

<sup>r</sup> In Macedonia, in 2002 and 2004 respectively, the Law on Election of Members of Parliament and the Law on Local Elections, was adopted in order to ensure that both sexes are represented with a quota of at least 30 per cent in the list of nominated candidates for elections to the Parliament, the municipal councils or the Council of the City of Skopje.

In all countries of the E&E region, men outnumber women as ministers in national government. Female ministers are instead concentrated in social-cultural functions and rarely head the ministries responsible for the economy, infrastructure, home affairs, foreign affairs, and defense. UNIFEM (2008) notes that “this concentration in the social sectors can inhibit women’s potential contribution to other critical decision-making areas, notably security, the budget, and foreign policy.”<sup>105</sup> What Georgia lacks in female parliamentary representation it makes up for in ministerial positions (18 percent), as compared to Ukraine’s 4 percent.

**Table 20. Women in Ministerial Positions,<sup>106</sup> (% of total)**

<b>Country</b>	<b>1999-2007 % of total</b>	<b>Current (Total female ministers)</b>
Armenia	6	2 (of 18) = 11% Culture Diaspora
BiH	0	1 (of 16) = 6% Education and Science
Georgia	18	3 (of 19) = 16% State Minister for Reintegration, Vice Prime Minister Economic and Sustainable Development Corrections and Legal
Kosovo	.	3 (of 18) = 17% European Integration Deputy Prime Minister (2)
Macedonia	14	2 (of 14) = 14% Internal Affairs Culture
Russia	10	3 (of 17) = 18% Economic Development Healthcare and Social Development Agriculture
Serbia	17	3 (of 20) = 15% Deputy Prime Minister Justice Youth and Sport)
Ukraine	4	0 (of 12) = 0

Source: individual country ministerial web pages.

Judiciaries throughout the world are predominantly male, except in Eastern Europe. Between 2003 and 2009, for instance, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 68 percent of the country's judges were women. This is not the case, however, for supreme court judges, which are the apex of judicial power within a country's judiciary – in BiH, only 25 percent of supreme court judges were women during the same time period. The UNDP reports, “the further up the judicial hierarchy, the smaller the representation of women.”<sup>107</sup>

### International Labor Organization (ILO) Conventions

The ILO sets standards for international labor rights, and monitors how they are implemented. Several of the focus countries have yet to ratify specific ILO Labor Conventions that are of special relevance to women. These Conventions concern decent work and equal opportunities for men and women in the labor force.

Table 21 below is a snapshot of which focus countries have ratified International Labor Organization (ILO) Conventions related to gender. While Russia, Ukraine, and Serbia have ratified all of the pertinent conventions, they have yet to endorse the most recent version of C183 (maternity protection), which ensures the health and well-being of a woman and her child during maternity, e.g. by providing health protection at work, maternity leave, social benefits, protection against dismissal and discrimination based on maternity, and breast-feeding breaks. Armenia and Georgia have not yet signed several key agreements (C156 for workers with family responsibilities, which protects workers with family responsibilities, and C183 Maternity Protection. Information is unavailable for Kosovo and Macedonia. All of the countries have ratified C122, which is the convention that promotes full, productive and freely chosen employment.

**Table 21. ILO Conventions Relevant to Gender Equality**

	ILO C100	ILO C111	ILO C156	ILO C183	ILO C122
<b>Armenia</b>	√	√	<b>NO</b>	<b>NO</b>	√
<b>BiH</b>	√	√	√	<b>NO</b> *	√
<b>Georgia</b>	√	√	<b>NO</b>	<b>NO</b>	√
<b>Kosovo</b>	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>Macedonia</b>	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	√
<b>Russia</b>	√	√	√	C103 only	√
<b>Serbia</b>	√	√	√	C103 only	√
<b>Ukraine</b>	√	√	√	C103 only	√

\* Denounced C103 on 1-18-10

Source: ILOLEX <http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/subjlst.htm>

Notes for Table 21:

[C100 on equal remuneration for work for equal value, 1951](#);

[C111 against discrimination in employment and occupation, 1958](#);

[C156 for workers with family responsibilities, 1981](#); and

[C183 maternity protection convention, 2000](#)

([C103 maternity protection convention, 1952](#) - earlier version)

Other ILO Convention that promotes full, productive and freely chosen employment: [C122 employment policy, 1964](#)

*Gender Equality Legislation*

Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)<sup>s</sup>

In addition to committing to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), including MDG 3: to promote gender equality and empower women, all eight focus countries have signed CEDAW, which in terms of labor laws

<sup>s</sup> The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly, is often described as an international bill of rights for women. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/>

and regulations means they must adhere to Article 11, giving women the right to equal employment opportunities; equality in hiring, promotion and job security including benefits and conditions of service; equal pay for equal work; social security; equal retirement policies; and equal vocational training and retraining opportunities.<sup>108</sup>

**Table 22. CEDAW Status<sup>109</sup>**

	<b>Ratification, Accession (a)</b>
Armenia	1993, Sept. 2006 (a)
BiH	Sept 2002
Georgia	Aug 2002 (a)
Kosovo	<b>Unknown</b>
Macedonia	Oct 2003
Russia	July 2004
Serbia	July 2003 (a)
Ukraine	Sept 2003

E&E countries that have ratified or acceded to CEDAW are legally bound to transform laws into practice and to move beyond providing *de jure* equality (equality in the law) to ensuring *de facto* equality (equality in action). CEDAW provides for the dismantling of all discriminatory laws, the adoption of appropriate laws prohibiting discrimination against women and for strong accountability and enforcement mechanisms to ensure the effective protection of women against discrimination.”<sup>110</sup>

Special measures for women that have been established in the region, however, largely play a protective function and do not necessarily facilitate equal participation of men and women. Moreover, since most of these laws are not fully implemented, provisions may reinforce negative stereotypes of women as being in need of protection, which in turn can greatly restrict access to certain types of work. This is a significant concern. In BiH, for instance, a decree was implemented in 2000 barring women from employment in “hazardous” jobs.<sup>111</sup>

A number of gender equality laws have been enacted in the eight focus countries, as a result of CEDAW (see Table 23 below).

<b>Table 23. Gender Equality Legislation in Place</b>	
Armenia	N/A
BiH	<a href="#"><u>Law on Gender Equality in Bosnia and Herzegovina</u></a> (2003)
Georgia	<a href="#"><u>Law of Georgia on Gender Equality</u></a> (2010)
Kosovo	<a href="#"><u>Law on Gender Equality in Kosovo</u></a> (2004)
Macedonia	<a href="#"><u>Law on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men</u></a> (2006)
Russia	N/A
Serbia	Law on Gender Equality (2010)
Ukraine	<a href="#"><u>Law of Ukraine on Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men</u></a> (2006)

Russia and Armenia are the only two focus countries without a specific gender equality law in place. In terms of protective legal mechanisms, the other focus countries have enacted progressive gender equality laws. For example:

- BiH has one of the more progressive equality laws in place within the region, as well as a comprehensive and far reaching government system for gender integration. The *Law on Gender Equality in Bosnia and Herzegovina*<sup>112</sup> was enacted in May 2003; in addition to employment issues, it covers education; social welfare, health care, sport and culture, public life, media, prohibition of violence, and statistical records.
- Georgia’s Parliament adopted its *Law of Georgia on Gender Equality* in March 2010,<sup>113</sup> which is part of a 5-year campaign by the United Nations to help empower women in the Caucasus region.
- The *Law on Gender Equality in Kosovo*, enacted in 2004,<sup>114</sup> “creates the conditions and opportunities for gender equality through policies that support overall development, especially for the improvement of the females’ status, so that they are entitled to authority in the family and society.”
- Macedonia’s *Law on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men* (2006) promotes equal opportunities in the political, economic, social, educational and other fields of social life. It forbids any kind of gender discrimination in the public and private sector.
- Serbia’s *Law on Gender Equality* came into effect in December 2010. It provides for the establishment of equal opportunities employment,

social and health protection, family relations, education, culture and sports, and political and public life. The Law also provides special measures to eliminate gender-based discrimination and for the legal protection of persons subject to discrimination.<sup>115</sup> The new law requires all employers with more than 50 permanent employees to adopt an annual plan on gender equality, or face a fine.<sup>116</sup>

- The *Law of Ukraine on Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men*, enacted in 2006, seeks to ensure parity of women and men in all vital areas of society through the provision of legal support for equal rights and opportunities. The goal is to eliminate sexual discrimination and the imbalance of opportunities, per the Constitution of Ukraine and Ukrainian laws.

Although Armenian law has many declarations of equality for all people, it does not have any antidiscrimination laws that specifically prohibit discrimination against women.<sup>117</sup> In the case of Russia, this legislation is expected soon, according to a statement made recently by the nation's health and social development minister, Tatyana Golikova.<sup>118</sup> "We are now revising the present-day legislation to draw up a new unified legal act that would defend the interests of women," Minister Golikova told a United Nations Commissioner on February 16, 2011.<sup>t</sup>

While legal provisions are in place to ensure equality of women and men in most of the eight focus countries, as yet there do not appear to be inspection, compliance or support systems that ensure follow through. In Georgia, for example, early governmental reform efforts to improve the status of women were viewed as "declarative" in nature, rather than affirmative actions to remove barriers to equality.<sup>u</sup> Similarly, in BiH, the Gender Equality Law (2003) provides for affirmative action, but as of 2009 no provisions had been made to operationalize the law.

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<sup>t</sup> This is presumably in response to protests by Russian women in late January 2011 against a proposed system of maternity leave payments. Instead of being based on one year's salary, the new law would base payments on the previous two years, which would likely lower leave payments because salary levels dropped as a result of the economic crisis in Russia in 2009. Prime Minister Vladimir Putin subsequently ordered a revision of the law, and women are now permitted to choose the time period on which payments will be calculated. Source: Equality Law. February 17, 2011.

<sup>u</sup> This may be changing, however. In March 2010, Georgia adopted the *Law on Gender Equality*, in conjunction with a National Action Plan on a State Gender Equality Policy. A 2010 USAID gender assessment on Georgia reports that both "may well create a more comprehensive system of specific initiatives to advance gender equality, revision of discriminatory laws and policies, the creation of obligations to undertake such tasks and a system of monitoring implementation." Source: USAID. June 2010.

Therefore, it is vital that E&E governments create compliance systems that ensure performance targets for women (and other priority groups) are met, in addition to assembling the human capacity needed. Governments need to establish a systematic tracking of their gender equality legislation, which should include the creation of policy performance targets and measures to ensure their achievement.

### Government Commissions and Agencies for the Advancement of Women

Several of the focus countries have established government commissions/entities, such as a gender equality ombudsman or an equal opportunities office, which are given quasi-judicial responsibilities, or a gender equality attorney who can prosecute gender-based violations. However, it is important to note that these offices are only effective if they are given proper enforcement capabilities. Several examples include:

- Georgia – the *State Commission on Elaboration of State Policy for Women's Advancement* was established in 1998.<sup>119</sup>
- Macedonia – the *Department for Equal Opportunities* was established to promote improvement in women's status, as well as to create equal opportunities for women and men at the national and local levels.<sup>120</sup> In addition, a Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men at the Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia has been founded.<sup>v</sup>
- BiH - the concept of gender was introduced into BiH institutions in 2000, primarily through the establishment of the *Gender Center of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina*<sup>121</sup> within the Ministry of Social Issues, Displaced Persons and Refugees. This created an environment that enabled the process of building institutional and legal frameworks for gender mainstreaming. In February 2004, the *Agency for Gender Equality in Bosnia-Herzegovina*<sup>w</sup> was established by the Council of Ministers. A requirement that one third of candidates on party lists during elections must be female helped strengthen women's participation in politics. A significant network of gender machinery has been devised to promote BiH legislation and advance

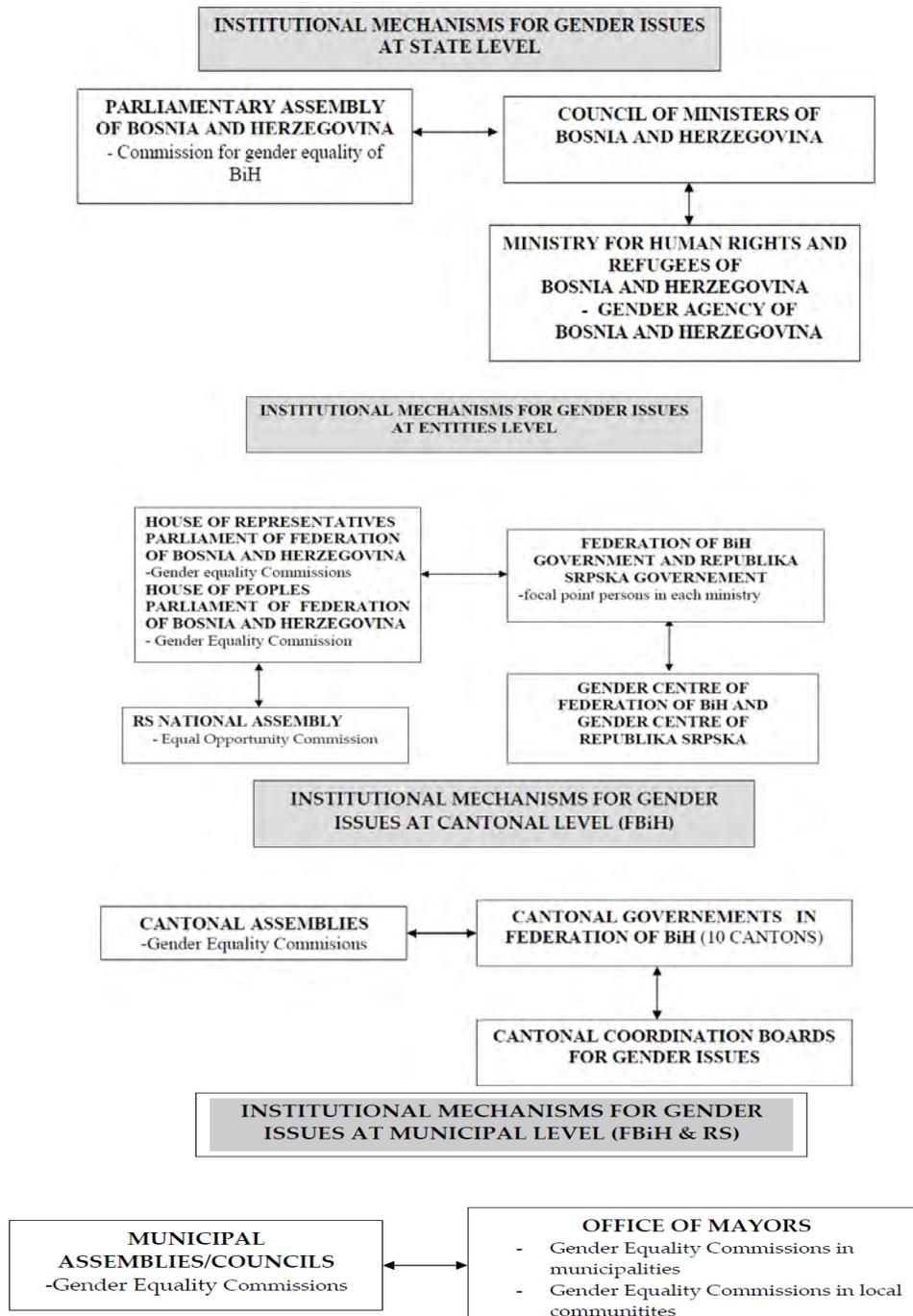
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<sup>v</sup> See <http://www.sobranie.mk/en/default-en.asp?ItemID=0C44743B65A48C4B87AEED79025A936A>

<sup>w</sup> <http://www.arsbih.gov.ba/> (inactive site)

gender considerations, including the following institutional mechanisms at the state, entity, cantonal, and municipal levels:<sup>122</sup>

**Figure 3. Institutional Mechanisms for Gender Issues at State, Entity, Cantonal, and Municipal Levels**



## National Action Plans

- Armenia - In 2004, Armenia's Interagency Commission developed the *National Action Plan on Improving the Status of Women and Enhancing Their Role in the Society for the Period 2004 -2010*,<sup>123</sup> which is based on country's constitution and is targeted at fulfilling CEDAW, recommendations of the Fourth Beijing Conference (1995), documents of the Council of Europe Committee for the Equality of Rights of Women and Men, United Nations Millennium Declaration requirements, and Armenia's commitments under other international instruments.
- Macedonia – this country's *2007-2012 National Action Plan on Gender Equality*<sup>124</sup> seeks to increase the female employment rate, as well as advance and strengthen the economic status of women, vis-à-vis four special objectives. The four objectives of this *Plan* include: 1) Supporting female entrepreneurship by making access to financing easier, improving women's access to management training and managerial counseling, and developing solidarity schemes; 2) Improving, Promoting and Empowering the Economic Status of Women; 3) Supporting of the Process of Transition from Informal into Formal Economy in the Service Sector (Care for Children, Care for Elderly People, Hygiene, etc.); and 4) Increasing the Level of Rural Female Employment.<sup>125</sup>
- Georgia – in June 1998, the President of Georgia approved a National Plan of Action for improving the condition of women. A joint project on Women in Development; sponsored by the government of Georgia and the United Nations Development Programme, has been operating in Georgia since 1997.<sup>126</sup>

## *Employment Policy*

Creating sustainable and well-remunerated employment opportunities for women in the E&E region is a major challenge for policymakers. Policies are needed that would ignite labor-intensive economic growth, in particular in the private sector, as well as political and macroeconomic stability and rightsizing the public sector. An enabling environment also needs to focus on facilitating competition, creating a skilled workforce and flexible labor market, as well as ensuring equity, adequate protection of property rights, development of financial markets, and a predictable business environment that has a low cost of starting and running businesses.

In terms of improving women's employment prospects, Glover (2005) concludes that E&E countries slated for accession into the European Union – with an emphasis on 'mainstreaming' of equal opportunities – may have the best hope.<sup>127</sup> One focus country, Macedonia, is a candidate country for the EU enlargement. As such it is also a candidate for the European Employment Strategy (EES) of the European Union.<sup>x</sup> As part of the EES process, Macedonia is involved in the Joint Assessment of Employment Policy Priorities (JAP) activity, which will provide crucial learning experience to prepare it for full EES application. The ultimate goal of ESS and JAP is to create more and better jobs throughout the EU. Member countries are guided in establishing common objectives articulated around three areas: (1) to attract and retain more people in employment, increase labor supply, and modernize social protection systems; 2) improve adaptability of workers and enterprises; and 3) increase investment in human capital through better education and skills.

Note: BiH, Kosovo, and Serbia are *potential candidates* for the EES.

### ILO Employment Policy Review Process

The South-East European Ministerial Conference on Employment, held in October 2003, acknowledged the serious employment challenges faced by the Stability Pact countries. As such, ILO and the Council of Europe were tasked with providing guidance and support in improving SP national employment policies, including 4 of the focus countries (BiH, Kosovo, Macedonia, and Serbia). These countries have undergone an ILO employment review process, which is a major outcome of the Bucharest Declaration that was adopted at the 2003 conference. A part of the EU accession process (and abovementioned EES convergence), the employment reviews are also part of the ILO's Global Employment Agenda (GEA), which is consistent with the Millennium Development Goals. In general, the process places decent employment at the heart of economic and social policies. *Particular emphasis is placed on gender equality issues, and especially on developing strategies designed to mainstream gender in SP country employment policies and to promote gender equality in follow-up activities.*

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<sup>x</sup> European Employment Strategy (EES) <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=101&langId=en>

The review process is contributing towards promoting full, productive and freely chosen employment of men and women in the SP countries by assisting the policy makers and the social partners in the assessment of their national employment and labor market policies and in the improvement of their labor market impact and effectiveness. The Bucharest Process has become a significant reference point for employment policy development in South-East Europe. In 2005, the Sophia Conclusions were adopted, which places even more emphasis on employment policy coherency and social dialogue.

#### BiH Employment Policy Review (2009)

[http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/eurpro/budapest/download/empl/crep\\_bosnia.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/eurpro/budapest/download/empl/crep_bosnia.pdf)

This review recommends efforts to “ensure a gender-sensitive education and training system at all levels. Core messages on gender equality and human rights should be included in the curriculum and in teacher training programmes. Gender stereotyping, which encourages young women to train in traditional occupations – and prevents them from taking part in training programmes that could lead them to higher long-term earnings and better-quality jobs – should be avoided.” (page 39)

#### Kosovo Employment Policy Review (2008)

[http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2008/108B09\\_360\\_engl.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2008/108B09_360_engl.pdf)

Kosovo’s employment policy is viewed as liberal in terms of its protection mechanisms. For instance, its taxation of labor is modest in order to stimulate demand for labor.<sup>128</sup> However, according to an ILO review of Kosovo’s Employment Policy, there is a “need for a more gender-balanced approach in the administration of [active labor market programs], but also ... the introduction of positive action to reduce inactivity among women.”

#### Macedonia Employment Policy Review (2007)

<http://www.coe.int/t/dg3/socialpolicies/socialrights/source/EmploymentPolicyReviewThe%20formerYugoslavRepublicofMacedonia.pdf>

Includes similar recommendations to BiH review, specific to training and skills development programs that target vulnerable groups, including older women, Roma, rural women, and those women with young children, etc. (page 35)

#### Serbia Employment Review (2007)

<http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/igo/2007/410625.pdf>

Calls for the protection of flexible forms of work. “In particular, these forms of work should be introduced in ways that will not place women at a

disadvantage in the labor market, so that the existing gender inequalities in pay and employment patterns are not worsened as a result.” (page 24)

### *Gender Empowerment Indexes*

In addition to the constraints and opportunities listed above, another way to measure enabling environments for sustainable female livelihoods in the eight focus countries is to consider three gender index scores. These indexes rank each country’s women according to a range of basic outcomes, including economic participation, education attainment; political empowerment; social causes of inequality; and health.

Note: these indexes provide a general overview of female empowerment in the focus countries; they do not focus primarily on female livelihoods promotion. However, it can be argued that using them as a supplemental indicator to show how well each country is doing with respect to female empowerment adds value to the overall discussion.

Ultimately, reducing gender inequality in employment is critical to the survival and security of poor households and an important route by which households escape poverty. Thus, paid employment is critical to women’s empowerment.

The three gender indexes reviewed include (see Table 24 below):

- 1) Global Gender Gap (GGG)
- 2) Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)
- 3) Gender Inequality Index (GII)

Overall, it is important to note that the difference in scoring amongst the focus countries is very slight (index scores are unavailable for BiH, Kosovo, and Serbia). Nevertheless, there are countries that come out ahead. For instance, Russia ranks best on all three index scores, and Georgia scores lowest across the board.

**Table 24. Gender Empowerment Indexes**

	<b>Global Gender Gap Index 2010 (Overall)</b>	<b>Global Gender Gap Index 2010 (Economic Participation and Opportunity)</b>	<b>SIGI Value, 2009</b>	<b>Gender Inequality Index, 2008</b>
Armenia	0.6669	0.669	0.03012	0.57
BiH	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Georgia	0.6598	0.6751	0.03069	0.597
Kosovo	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Macedonia	0.6996	0.695	0.01787	N/A
Russia	0.7036	0.6987	0.00725	0.442
Serbia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ukraine	0.6869	0.6896	0.00969	0.463

√ = ratified/in place NO = not ratified N/A = information not available.

Global Gender Gap 0 = inequality 1 = equality  
 SIGI rank: 0 = low/no discrimination 1 = high discrimination  
 GII rank: 0 = women/men equal 1 = men or women fare poorly compared to each other in health, labor, empowerment

Brief Description of each index:

**Global Gender Gap Index:** measures gender-based inequalities vis-à-vis four fundamental categories – economic participation and opportunity; educational attainment; political empowerment; and health and survival. Global Gender Gap Report 2010: [http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GenderGap\\_Report\\_2010.pdf](http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GenderGap_Report_2010.pdf)

**Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI):** measures gender equality based on OECD's Gender, Institutions and Development Database. Focuses on the root causes behind inequalities by looking at: family code (i.e., early marriage, inheritance); civil liberties (i.e., freedom of movement); physical integrity (i.e., violence against women, female genital mutilation); son preference (describes the difference between the number of women that should be alive (assuming no son preference) and the actual number of women in a country); and ownership rights (i.e., access to land and other property, bank loans). SIGI Rankings: <http://my.genderindex.org/>. OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Database: [http://www.oecd.org/document/16/0,3746,en\\_2649\\_33935\\_39323280\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/16/0,3746,en_2649_33935_39323280_1_1_1_1,00.html)

**Gender Inequality Index:** measures inequality in achievements between women and men in: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market (participation). GII replaces the Gender Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure. [http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR\\_2010\\_EN\\_Table4\\_reprint.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_2010_EN_Table4_reprint.pdf)

## Analysis of Focus Country Enabling Environments

According to the Governance and Social Development Resource Centre (GSDRC), “it is generally accepted ... that efforts to measure women’s empowerment need to consider different levels (micro/macro, individual/collective), different spheres (economic, political, social), different temporal scales (often beyond the lifetime of a single programme) and must be sensitive to social context.”<sup>129</sup> However, Malhotra et al. (2002) warn that measuring gender empowerment is a difficult task, due to “variation in the nature and importance of empowerment across contexts.” Behaviors and attributes that are considered empowering in one country may not be in another. These authors report that, generally speaking, economic empowerment can be measured at three levels:

Household: including women’s control over income; relative contribution to family support; and access to and control of family resources.

Community: access to employment; ownership of assets and land; access to credit; involvement and/or representation in local trade associations; and access to markets.

Broader access: representation in high paying jobs; female CEOs; and representation of women’s economic interests in macroeconomic policies, state, and federal budgets.<sup>130</sup>

For this study, in order to conclude how each of the eight focus countries measures up with regard to enabling environments that promote female sustainable livelihoods, two spheres are reviewed – the quantitative outcomes presented in previous sections of this paper (including female labor force participation, unemployment rates, female-to-male earned income, participation in firm ownership, number of female managers, etc.), and qualitative factors that describe institutions and policies/strategies in place to empower women economically.

A review of this information highlights the *Key Quantitative and Qualitative Points* below, starting on page 63. When examined as a group, these findings help define the main conclusion of this paper – that is, ***while each focus country has taken steps forward to promote sustainable female livelihoods, a number of constraints remain – more for some countries than others.***

Because employment is no longer guaranteed, poverty has increased in the focus countries – especially for women. High unemployment afflicts both women and men, but women suffer to a greater extent because of

growing gender disparities. In some of the focus countries, a return to traditional values has intensified the inequities of women's participation in the economy. In addition, because women generally have more limited access to professional associations or informal networks that could help them strengthen their careers, many are unemployed, underemployed or relegated to doing domestic chores. Gender disparities are also evident in average female-to-male earnings, and women tend to be concentrated in low-paid sectors, or in rapidly growing informal employment, which brings with it reduced labor rights and fewer social benefits. They have lost ground in political representation, which further limits their influence on social and economic policies that impact their lives.

### *Creating More and Better Opportunities in the Labor Market*

It is evident from this review that a number of the focus country governments have taken the issue of gender equality in the labor market seriously. ILO conventions have been ratified, national action plans and committees created to improve the status of women, and national employment policies aimed at mainstreaming gender equality. However, still more needs to be done. There is ample room for each of the focus countries to create more and better opportunities for women in their labor markets. This includes establishing policies that address the occurrence of occupational segregation and discrimination, as well as launching strategies that would enable a more balanced approach to work and family life.

However, a more innovative gender approach is needed – one that goes beyond the usual and customary labor market interventions that only promote equal employment opportunities and equal pay for equal work. The ILO recommends introducing policies that:

1. “Encourage men to share family responsibilities through behaviour-changing measures (such as paternity leave);
2. Quantify the value of unpaid care work;
3. Develop educational systems that challenge stereotypical gender roles;
4. Challenge tendencies toward a discrimination- or exploitation based definition of “women’s work” (for example, by broadening access for women to employment in an enlarged scope of industries and occupations while also encouraging male employment in sectors traditionally defined as “female” as a means of raising both the average pay and status of the occupation); and finally,

5. Focus on raising the quality of work in all sectors, extending social protection, benefits and security to those in non-standard forms of work.”<sup>131</sup>

### *Measuring Up*

Generally speaking, it is difficult to ascertain which one focus country is more positively positioned over another in terms of its enabling environment, because (for the most part) each country has its own set of pros and cons in terms of the quantitative and qualitative factors, as presented above. That being said, women in Russia and Ukraine appear to have a slight advantage over women in the other focus countries. On the other hand, women in Georgia and Macedonia may be experiencing the greatest challenges in terms of sustainable livelihoods.

Women in Russia and Ukraine enjoy higher labor force participation rates, lower unemployment, a more equitable female-to-male income variance, and decent female participation in firm ownership. Whereas Ukrainian women are not well represented in government, Russia has a decent number of female ministers, one of which heads up the Ministry of Economic Development. Despite these seemingly positive outcomes, however, it is reported that Russian women work two or three jobs simultaneously, as a result of being relegated to low-paid jobs. As well, a World Bank study (2005) indicates that Russian women with the same level of education receive almost two times lower salaries than men. Despite Russia's scoring highest of all focus countries on the three gender empowerment indexes outlined above, its gains in sustainable female livelihoods also could be challenged due to lack of gender equality legislation, low female representation in parliament, and poor 'getting credit' score from the World Bank's *Doing Business* ranking. Both countries have reported a decline in poverty incidence for women. But only Ukraine has both a gender equality law and gender-related ILO conventions in place.

Alternatively, women in Georgia and Macedonia appear to have a smaller advantage when it comes to sustainable livelihoods. For instance, Georgia scores lowest on the gender index scores and, despite its encouraging female labor force participation rate, maintains the lowest female-to-male earned income ratio of the focus country group. More than half of the country's women are employed in agriculture, and the poverty situation for female-headed households remains precarious. The country has not yet signed several key ILO labor conventions (C156 for workers with family

responsibilities, which protects workers with family responsibilities, and C183 Maternity Protection). While it does have a law on gender equality in place, this is seen more as declarative in nature. Georgia has a high number of female tertiary graduates in the field of Science, above average representation in female firm ownership and management, and ministerial positions (one of which heads up the Economic and Sustainable Development ministry). It also has a national plan of action to improve the condition of women. Macedonia has the lowest female labor force participation rate of all the focus countries, and a significant female unemployment rate – particularly as it relates to female youth. Its high female representation in parliament is likely the result of a quota system. Regarding its employment policy, Macedonia is a Stability Pact member slated for EU accession and, as a result, is anticipated to mainstream equal economic opportunities for women.

Similarly, the other focus countries experience both pros and cons in terms of their enabling environments. For instance, Armenia has the highest female economic activity rate, but also one of the highest female unemployment rates. A significant portion of its female population is involved in the informal economy. Armenia is also one of the two focus countries without gender equality legislation, but does have a national action plan in place which is targeted to fulfill CEDAW. Kosovo has the highest female (and male) unemployment, and the lowest female-to-male earned income ratio. It also has one of the region's highest informal employment and poverty rates, and the least female representation in firm ownership and management. Kosovo is a Stability Pact member and thus has implemented a fairly liberal national employment policy, but an ILO review of this policy states that a more gender-balanced approach is needed. Many data points are missing for Kosovo, so it is difficult to measure its overall success. The same is true for BiH, although it is known that the majority of this country's new jobs are being created in the informal sector, which may impede women's advancement in the labor market. BiH has also established several government entities that are working towards gender equality. Serbia has good female representation in parliament, also the result of a quota system. Despite a relatively low female unemployment rate, it has the second lowest female labor force participation and a significant number of unemployed female youth. Serbian women are heavily involved in the informal sector. A high number of them also are employed in the low-paying services sector. As is the case in many of the

focus countries, even though Serbia has more women enrolled in education at the tertiary level, males still tend to get more advanced degrees.

### ***Key Quantitative and Qualitative Points:***

As noted earlier, despite the fact that both men and women in the E&E region have experienced economic setbacks since the collapse of state run economies in 1989, there are indications that women have been disproportionately affected due to the inequalities highlighted above.

- Armenia and Russia have the highest economically active female population (59.6 and 57.5 percent), whereas Macedonia and Serbia have the lowest (42.9 and 45.9 percent);
- Kosovo, Armenia, and Macedonia have the highest female unemployment rates (55.20, 35.00 and 34.16 percent), as compared to Russia and Ukraine (both 6.10 percent);
- More female youth (ages 15-24) in BiH and Macedonia are unemployed (62.3 and 58.2 percent). In Russia, only 14.7 of female youth are unemployed;
- Occupational segregation is evident, which has resulted in a persistent gender wage gap. Georgia's wage gap is most significant, with a female-to-male earned income ratio of .38. Russia's and BiH's female wages, while certainly not stellar, are most equal to men's – at .64 and .61, respectively.
- Gender discrimination in the workplace is experienced in all eight focus countries, and it intersects with other forms of discrimination (disability, ethnicity, class, and age);
- Labor force distribution among agriculture, industry and service sectors is unequal between men and women, and workers in these sectors often earn less. In Georgia, more women work in agriculture (57.4 percent); in Russia, more women are concentrated in services (71.6 percent). Macedonia has a fairly high female representation in industry (29.3 percent), whereas Georgia's is very small (3.9 percent);
- Regarding education, female literacy rates are comparable to men (100 percent), with only BiH, Macedonia, and Serbia falling slightly behind (96 and 97 percent).
- More women than men are enrolled in higher education, but there is a high degree of segregation in subjects studied. Women are clustered in "soft" themes (education and health), where job prospects are lowest,

- and men generally are enrolled in engineering, manufacturing and construction, and science;
- E&E women are heavily involved in the informal economy (23 percent in Armenia, for example), and typically experience reduced labor rights and access to pension funds and other social protection programs.
    - Female own-account workers in Armenia and Georgia rank highest (18 and 12 percent of total workforce).
    - Gender imbalance exists between different types of informal employment.
    - Informal female workers are primarily cross-border traders, craft workers, food processors, piece-rate home workers, and home-based service providers.
    - Home gardening and subsistence agriculture is an important aspect of household responses to economic stress in the region
  - Female participation in firm ownership: Ukraine and Georgia are above the global average (47.12 and 40.84 percent); Kosovo is well below (10.9 percent).
    - Many women start a business in order to provide for their families, not necessarily out of entrepreneurial drive or interest.
    - The private sector has a number of women's business associations, but they are largely unorganized, and professional organizations tend to be male-dominated;
  - More Ukrainian women are top female managers (27.91 percent), versus Kosovo (0.32 percent);
  - BiH, Kosovo, Russia, and Ukraine remain difficult countries in which to do business, according to World Bank's Ease of Doing Business scores. Georgia ranks high - 13<sup>th</sup> out of 178 countries, with Macedonia in 36<sup>th</sup> and Armenia in 44<sup>th</sup>. Russia and BiH have the worst "getting credit" scores (87 and 61, respectively);
  - Generally speaking, there are more poor female-headed households in the focus countries;
  - Balancing work and family responsibilities is more difficult since the fall of Communism, with the lion's share of domestic duties falling on women in the focus countries;
  - On the whole, 17 percent of parliamentary seats were occupied by E&E women in 2009. Macedonia and Serbia, with quota systems, have the most seats held by women (32.5 and 21.6 percent), versus Georgia and Ukraine with the lowest (5.1 and 8 percent);

- Russia and Kosovo have the most female ministers (18 and 17 percent), with Georgia and Serbia not far behind (16 and 15 percent). Kosovo just voted in a female president;
- All focus countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (no information for Kosovo);
- Russia and Armenia are the only two focus countries *without* gender equality legislation. BiH has one of the more progressive equality laws in place. However, most of these legal provisions are viewed as “declarative;” none of the countries appears to have inspection, compliance or support systems in place to ensure follow-through;
- Several focus countries have government commissions and/or national action plans in place to promote improvement in women’s status – i.e., Armenia, Georgia, Macedonia, and BiH;
- Regarding employment policies, countries slated for EU accession – i.e., Stability Pact countries: BiH, Kosovo, Macedonia, and Serbia – may have the best hope for mainstreaming equal opportunities.

## Annex 1 – Additional Statistics

### *Female Unemployment (% of female labor force)*

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	.	15.7	40.2	14.4	13.9	13.8	.	.	.	.
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	34.8	33.0	.
Georgia	.	10.5	10.7	11.0	11.5	11.8	12.7	.	12.6	.
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	34.9	32.0	32.3	36.3	37.8	38.4	37.2	35.5	34.2
Russia	9.5	9.4	8.5	7.7	7.7	7.5	7.0	6.8	5.8	.
Serbia	.	.	.	.	.	22.9	26.2	24.7	21.0	15.8
Ukraine	4.9	11.6	10.8	9.5	8.7	8.3	6.8	6.6	6.0	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

### *Share of Women Employed in the Nonagricultural Sector (% of total nonagricultural employment)*

	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Armenia	.	.	47.30	47.80	49.60	49.70	47.90	45.40	45.70	45.70
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	35.20	34.70
Georgia	.	.	.	.	49.60	48.90	50.40	48.60	49.30	48.70
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	38.30	38.50	41.60	41.90	42.20	44.10	43.20	42.60	42.60	42.40
Russia	.	50.20	50.40	50.40	50.60	51.00	50.90	50.90	51.20	51.00
Serbia	.	.	.	.	.	.	43.90	41.60	43.50	43.90
Ukraine	.	50.70	52.90	.	54.40	54.40	55.10	54.90	54.60	54.70

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

### *Female Employees, Agriculture (% of female employment)*

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	.	3.9	42.6	43.4	44.6	46.4	46.1	.	.
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Georgia	57.5	52.8	55.3	56.8	56.5	57.2	57.4	56.6	.
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	.	24.7	22.2	15.0	19.2	20.3	17.3	.
Russia	11.7	9.3	8.9	8.2	7.9	8.0	7.8	6.9	.
Serbia	.	.	.	.	24.1	23.3	19.2	19.5	26.0
Ukraine	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Female Employees, Industry (% of female employment)**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	.	10.0	11.3	10.6	10.4	9.8	9.5	.	.
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Georgia	4.1	5.9	3.5	4.2	4.0	4.4	3.9	3.7	.
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	.	29.6	30.7	29.9	29.9	29.3	28.7	.
Russia	21.7	22.8	22.6	22.3	21.7	21.2	20.7	20.2	.
Serbia	.	.	.	.	18.5	17.5	18.7	19.6	16.1
Ukraine	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Female Employees, Services (% of female employment)**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	.	85.0	46.1	46.6	45.0	43.8	44.5	.	.
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Georgia	38.1	41.1	41.2	38.8	39.3	38.4	38.5	39.4	.
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	.	45.4	46.7	54.7	50.7	50.1	53.6	.
Russia	66.5	67.9	68.4	69.4	70.4	70.7	71.6	72.9	.
Serbia	.	.	.	.	57.2	59.1	62.1	60.8	57.9
Ukraine	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Female Professional and Technical Workers (as % of total)**

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Armenia	.	.	.	.	65	65
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.
Georgia	64	63	63	62	62	62
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	51	51	53	52	51	53
Russia	64	64	64	65	64	64
Serbia	.	.	.	.	56	55
Ukraine	64	63	60	64	64	64

Source: United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Human Development Report

**Seats held by Women in National Parliament, % of total**

	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Armenia	35.6	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	4.6	5.3	5.3	5.3	9.2	8.4	9.2
BiH	.	28.6	.	7.1	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.7	14.3	11.9	11.9	19.0
Georgia	.	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.4	6.0	5.1
Kosovo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Macedonia	.	7.5	6.7	6.7	18.3	18.3	19.2	19.2	28.3	29.2	31.7	32.5
Russia	.	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.6	9.8	9.8	9.8	9.8	14.0	14.0	14.0
Serbia	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	20.4	20.4	21.6	21.6
Ukraine	.	7.8	7.8	7.8	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	8.7	8.2	8.2	8.0

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals Indicators

**Unemployment, Youth Female (% of female labor force ages 15-24)**

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Armenia	.	.	56.40	.	.	.	.	.	.
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	65.60	62.30
Georgia	.	20.50	19.80	27.30	31.70	33.30	30.60	.	36.80
Macedonia	.	62.40	.	59.00	66.40	64.80	62.10	61.00	58.20
Russia	21.60	.	.	17.30	15.40	18.50	17.20	17.30	14.70
Serbia	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	55.50	48.30
Ukraine	.	.	.	.	.	15.40	14.40	.	.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Ratio of Female to Male Primary Enrollment (%)**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	.	101	102	102	103	104	104	103	102
BiH	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	94	101
Georgia	98	101	102	100	97	98	102	96	98
Macedonia	99	100	101	100	100	100	100	100	.
Russia	99	99	99	99	.	100	100	100	100
Serbia	99	99	99	100	100	101	101	100	100
Ukraine	99	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Ratio of Female to Male Secondary Enrollment (%)**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	..	106	106	104	102	103	104	105	105
BiH	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	104	102
Georgia	99	99	98	97	98	96	99	95	96
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..
Macedonia	97	97	98	98	98	98	..	98	97
Russia	..	..	..	100	99	99	98	98	97
Serbia	102	102	103	103	103	103	103	103	103
Ukraine	101	99	100	100	99	92	98	99	98

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

**Ratio of Female to Male Tertiary Enrollment (%)**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Armenia	109	114	111	112	121	122	118	120	..
BiH	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	96	95	99	95	103	103	112	110	119
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia	128	133	130	135	140	138	138	127	120
Russia	..	..	..	135	136	136	136	136	136
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	129	129
Ukraine	114	117	119	121	122	123	123	124	125

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

# Focus Country Gender Profiles

## Gender Profile for ARMENIA

	1985	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>								
Population, total	3,339,147	3,544,695	3,075,811	3,064,925	3,068,475	3,072,450	3,077,087	3,082,951
Population, female (% total)	51.1	51.49	52.98	53.3	53.33	53.36	53.38	53.39
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	2.5	2.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	72.2	70.8	74.4	76.3	76.5	76.7	76.9	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	66.9	64.9	67.8	69.6	69.9	70.1	70.4	.
<b>Education</b>								
Primary completion rate, female (% relevant age group)	.	.	.	95.1	95	99.9	.	.
Primary completion rate, male (% relevant age group)	.	.	.	91.9	91.1	96.2	.	.
Ratio of young literate females to males (% , 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of ages 15 +)	.	.	.	.	.	.	99.4	.
<b>Employment</b>								
Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	45.93	46.3	48.72	49.46	49.51	49.64	49.6	.
Employees, agriculture, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	46.4	46.1	.	.	.
Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	9.8	9.5	.	.	.
Employees, services, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	43.8	44.5	.	.	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	15.7	.	.	.	.	.
<b>Governance</b>								
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	5	5	9	8	8
<b>Rankings and Ratings</b>								
UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender-related Development Index (GDI) Rank	.	.	.	75	73	68	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GDI Value	.	.	.	0.772	0.773	0.794	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	.	95	93	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Value	.	.	.	.	0.405	0.412	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Rank	.	.	.	.	.	.	66	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Value	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.57	.

## Gender Profile for Bosnia and Herzegovina

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>									
Population, total	3,748,354	3,776,053	3,783,067	3,781,764	3,781,274	3,781,488	3,778,410	3,773,100	3,766,579
Population, female (% of total)	51.82	51.84	51.86	51.88	51.89	51.89	51.89	51.89	51.88
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	76.9	77.1	77.3	77.4	77.5	77.6	77.7	77.8	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	72.3	72.2	72.1	72.1	72.1	72.2	72.4	72.5	.
<b>Education</b>									
Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	99	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 and above)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	95.9	.
<b>Employment</b>									
Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	47.25	47.31	47.3	47.29	47.19	47.17	47.15	47.12	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	.	.	.	34.8	33	.	.
<b>Governance</b>									
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	12	12	12	14	12	12

## Gender Profile for Georgia

	1985	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>								
Population, total	5,287,002	5,459,999	4,744,750	4,464,543	4,410,860	4,357,857	4,307,011	4,260,333
Pop. female (% of total)	52.77	52.47	52.66	52.78	52.82	52.87	52.92	52.96
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	2.3	2.2	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	73.6	74.2	74.8	75	75	75	75.1	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	66.1	66.5	67.7	68	68	68.1	68.2	.
<b>Education</b>								
Primary completion rate, female (%)	.	.	98.1	83.2	83.1	89.5	96.7	.
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	.	.	98.31	96.82	100.18	95.54	96.46	.
Primary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	.	0.98	0.98	1.02	0.96	0.98	1
Secondary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	.	0.987	0.958	0.993	0.952	0.958	.
Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GPI)	.	.	0.957	1.032	1.123	1.103	1.192	1.224
Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 +)	.	.	.	.	.	.	99.7	.
<b>Employment</b>								
Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	47.53	46.89	46.21	46.8	46.93	46.92	47	.
Employees, agriculture, female (% of female employment)	.	.	57.5	57.2	57.4	56.6	.	.
Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)	.	.	4.1	4.4	3.9	3.7	.	.
Employees, services, female (% of female employment)	.	.	38.1	38.4	38.5	39.4	.	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	10.5	12.7	.	12.6	.	.
<b>Governance</b>								
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	9	9	9	6	6
<b>Rankings and Ratings</b>								
UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	79	96	95	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GEM Value	.	.	.	0.414	0.399	0.408	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Rank	.	.	.	.	.	.	71	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Value	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.597	.

## ***Gender Profile for Kosovo***

**N/A**

## Gender Profile for Macedonia

	1985	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>								
Population, total	1,828,152	1,909,349	2,011,614	2,035,312	2,037,863	2,039,838	2,041,342	2,042,484
Pop., female (% of total)	49.7	49.8	49.94	50.02	50.03	50.04	50.05	50.06
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	2.2	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	72.1	73.5	75.3	76.3	76.4	76.5	76.7	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	68.2	69.2	70.8	71.4	71.6	71.7	71.9	.
<b>Education</b>								
Primary completion rate, female (% of relevant age group)	.	.	99	97.5	92.3	92.2	.	.
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	.	.	97.74	98.7	.	98.41	.	.
Primary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	.	0.99	1	1	1	1.01	.
Secondary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	.	0.968	0.98	.	0.975	0.967	.
Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GPI)	.	.	1.284	1.382	1.382	1.267	1.203	.
Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 +)	.	.	.	.	.	.	95.4	.
<b>Employment</b>								
Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	40.74	40.66	38.79	40.07	39.07	39.64	39.7	.
Employees, agriculture, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	19.2	20.3	17.3	.	.
Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	29.9	29.3	28.7	.	.
Employees, services, female (% of female employment)	.	.	.	50.7	50.1	53.6	.	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	34.9	38.4	37.2	35.5	34.2	.
<b>Governance</b>								
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	19	19	28	32	28
<b>Rankings and Ratings</b>								
UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender-related Development Index (GDI) Rank	.	.	.	64	65	62	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GDI Value	.	.	.	0.795	0.803	0.812	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	35	32	35	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GEM Value	.	.	.	0.625	0.644	0.641	.	.

## Gender Profile for Russia

	1985	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>								
Population, total	143,858,000	148,292,000	146,303,000	143,150,000	142,500,000	142,100,000	141,950,000	141,850,000
Pop., female (% of total)	53.6	53.19	53.27	53.62	53.68	53.72	53.76	53.79
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	2.1	1.9	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	73.2	74.3	72	72.4	73.2	73.9	74.2	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	62.7	63.8	59	58.9	60.4	61.4	61.8	.
<b>Education</b>								
Primary completion rate, female (% of relevant age group)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	.	101.49	.	98.89	98.63	98.34	98.04	.
Primary Gross enrolment ratio	.	.	0.99	1	1	1	1	.
Secondary Gross enrolment ratio	.	.	.	0.986	0.98	0.976	0.97	.
Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio	.	.	.	1.364	1.359	1.355	1.356	.
Ratio of young literate females to males (% age 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 +)	.	.	.	.	.	.	99.4	.
<b>Employment</b>								
Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	48.7	48.58	48.41	49.4	49.59	49.53	49.66	.
Employees, agriculture, female (% of female employment)	.	.	11.7	8	7.8	6.9	.	.
Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)	.	.	21.7	21.2	20.7	20.2	.	.
Employees, services, female (% of female employment)	.	.	66.5	70.7	71.6	72.9	.	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	9.4	7	6.8	5.8	.	.
<b>Governance</b>								
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	8	8	8	11	11

## **Country Profile for Russia (cont'd)**

### **Rankings and Ratings**

UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender-related Development Index (GDI) Rank	.	.	.	59	62	59	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GDI Value	.	.	.	0.801	0.805	0.816	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	71	65	60	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GEM Value	.	.	.	0.489	0.544	0.556	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Rank	.	.	.	.	.	.	41	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index Value	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.442	.

## Gender Profile for Serbia

	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>							
Population, total	7,586,000	7,516,346	7,440,769	7,411,569	7,381,579	7,350,221	7,319,712
Pop., female (% of total)	50.31	50.46	50.55	50.55	50.54	50.54	50.53
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	.	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (years)	.	74.8	75.4	75.9	76.2	76.3	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (years)	.	69.6	70	70.6	70.7	71.1	.
<b>Education</b>							
Primary completion rate, female (% of relevant age group)	.	.	.	.	96.1	100.8	.
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	.	101.13	102.13	102.47	101.89	101.92	.
Primary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	0.99	1.01	1	1	1	0.99
Secondary Gross enrolment ratio (GPI)	.	1.022	1.029	1.036	1.029	1.027	1.026
Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GPI)	.	.	.	.	1.289	1.298	1.293
Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
<b>Employment</b>							
Employees, agriculture, female (% of female employment)	.	.	23.3	19.2	19.5	26	.
Employees, industry, female (% of female employment)	.	.	17.5	18.7	19.6	16.1	.
Employees, services, female (% of female employment)	.	.	59.1	62.1	60.8	57.9	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	26.2	24.7	21	15.8	.
<b>Governance</b>							
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	.	.	22	22
<b>Rankings and Ratings</b>							
UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender-related Development Index (GDI) Rank	.	.	.	56	.	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GDI Value	.	.	.	0.818	.	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	56	42	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GEM Value	.	.	.	0.584	0.621	.	.

## Gender Profile for Ukraine

Series	1985	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Population and Health</b>								
Population, total	50,917,000	51,892,000	49,175,848	47,105,150	46,787,750	46,509,350	46,258,200	46,008,406
Population, female (% of total)	54.03	53.75	53.69	53.82	53.84	53.86	53.88	53.89
Fertility rate, total (births per woman)	2.1	1.8	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	.
Life expectancy at birth, female (yrs)	74.4	74.9	73.6	74	74.1	74.2	74.3	.
Life expectancy at birth, male (yrs)	65.9	65.6	62.4	62.2	62.4	62.5	62.5	.
<b>Education</b>								
Primary completion rate, female (%)	.	.	92	116.3	104.6	101.7	99.4	.
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	.	101.79	100.2	94.49	98.69	99.58	98.81	.
Primary Gross enrolment ratio	.	.	0.99	1	1	1	1	1
Secondary Gross enrolment ratio	.	.	1.006	0.921	0.982	0.994	0.981	.
Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio	.	.	1.144	1.228	1.234	1.241	1.248	.
Ratio of young literate females to males (% age 15-24)	.	.	.	.	.	.	100	.
Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 +)	.	.	.	.	.	.	99.6	.
<b>Employment</b>								
Labor force, female (% of total)	49.18	49.24	49.13	48.92	48.93	48.93	48.87	.
Unemployment, female (% of female labor force)	.	.	11.6	6.8	6.6	6	.	.
<b>Governance</b>								
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	.	.	.	5	7	9	8	8
<b>Rankings and Ratings</b>								
UNDP, Human Development Report (HDR): Gender-related Development Index (GDI) Rank	.	.	.	69	70	69	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GDI Value	.	.	.	0.785	0.783	0.793	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) Rank	.	.	.	75	86	86	.	.
UNDP, HDR: GEM Value	.	.	.	0.462	0.453	0.461	.	.
UNDP, HDR: Gender Inequality Index (GII) Rank	.	.	.	.	.	.	44	.
UNDP, HDR: GII Value	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.463	.

## Annex 2

### Constraints to Female Entrepreneurship Worldwide

#### Socio-Cultural:

- Patriarchal culture and traditions. Women throughout the world contend with gender inequality, primarily a result of patriarchal heritage.
- Female poverty. A gendered division of labor in the household, low value attached to women's work, together with simultaneous clustering of women in low-paid jobs, contribute to female poverty.
- Family caregiver burden. Based on traditional values, norms, and life roles, women often are forced to reconcile business with domestic activities. A larger share of domestic responsibilities can hamper mobility – i.e., when women run businesses out of the home, they may experience limited direct interaction with customers.<sup>y</sup>
- Low female representation in parliament and ministries. Representation is necessary to ensure women's participation in decision-making that impacts gender equality. Low participation is often the case, despite laws promoting women's political involvement.

#### *Limited Enabling Environments:*

- Restrictive regulatory and legal environments. This includes labor laws that relegate women (and other vulnerable groups) to the informal sector; high taxes; unequal property rights; and male-biased and nontransparent procurement procedures.
  - Reforms are needed in business registration in some countries to allow for joint registration so that women are equal owners of household enterprises. Because joint registration is often not practiced in many parts of Africa, for instance, in time of divorce or death of spouses, women lose the businesses they help grow.
  - Lack of strategic orientation in government policy and donor-support programs towards growing enterprises. Most resources are concentrated at the lowest end of the SME scale as a way to ease poverty, rather than contributing to the development of sustainable enterprises.
  - Generally, laws recognize and favor the large-scale trade sector, which is dominated by men as individual traders or corporations.
  - Female traders in a number of countries cite government inspections and police/customs roadblocks as two important obstacles to cross-border trade.

#### *Economic:*

- Low productivity of sectors in which women entrepreneurs operate (i.e., handicrafts, horticulture, etc.). Because there are low barriers to entry in these sectors, they tend to become crowded (market saturation) and there is little room for growth.
- Difficult to remain competitive in a globalized, competitive market place. This can include poor product design, not understanding the trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights, etc.

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<sup>y</sup> A recent review of African MSEs indicated that 45% of female-headed micro and small enterprises were home-based, compared to 19% of male-headed micro and small enterprises.

- Lack of capacity to fulfill large orders from new markets. Includes lack of credit, technical skills, as well as understanding and complying with international specifications for their products.

#### *Skills:*

- Lack of skills-based training. This includes recordkeeping, basic management experience and skills, market research), technical training, and relevant education. All constrain the growth potential of female entrepreneurs. Girls' and women's participation in technical vocational education remains low in many countries.
  - A gender segregated approach to vocational and technical training exists in some cases, in which girls and women are trained in traditional occupations such as knitting, cooking, etc. Skills training programs are not necessarily developed in conjunction with the labor market.

#### *Access to Financial and Other Resources:*

- Lack of access to credit. Obtaining capital, collateral, and fair lending terms is often difficult for women, who tend to apply for smaller loans that banks consider non-profitable and show little interest in.
- Lack of access to technology. This includes the Internet, agricultural resources, etc.
  - Improved technology for preserving and storage facilities close to market areas are also constraints related to marketing of goods.
- Lack of access to resources constrains productivity – i.e., fertilizer, chemicals for batik work, and other inputs.
- Lack of information about markets, suppliers, export opportunities, and training programs. Some women entrepreneurs become dependent on middle traders who buy their products at relatively lower than market prices.

#### *Weak Infrastructure:*

- Gender differentiated impacts of poor infrastructure on income generating activities - i.e., electricity, telecommunications, roads and transportation, water and sanitation. Collecting firewood is a predominantly female activity, as is fetching water. Women's time burden is greatly impacted, which greatly affects their livelihoods disproportionately.

#### *Weak Business Organizations:*

- Limited access to networks and associations that serve as a forum through which women entrepreneurs can engage in dialogue with their governments on trade policy and practice, and that can provide technical assistance to support the women in capacity building.

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