

**EMPOWERING WOMEN FROM ETHNIC MINORITIES THROUGH SOCIAL
ENTERPRISE
LITERATURE REVIEW**

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Introduction

A social enterprise (SE) has a different reason for existence. Social enterprise organizations are trying to produce innovative policies in the fields of poverty, unemployment, hunger, housing, health, education, and human rights - the main social problem areas of today, which are broad social policy issues. Social enterprise organizations could be voluntary community organizations and are expressed in many ways as non-profit organizations or NGOs. Social entrepreneurship emerged with the idea of creating solutions to social problems from the perspective of entrepreneurship. In particular, it includes practices for creating innovative and creative solutions to social problems related to poverty, education, environmental problems, ecological agriculture, disadvantaged groups, children, the elderly, people with disabilities, street animals, etc. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in social enterprises by different organizations, groups, and individuals.

This report seeks to understand how women from ethnic minorities could be empowered through social enterprises. To do so four key areas will be explored. Firstly, to lay the foundations, this report will address the wide range of Social Enterprise and Ethnic Minority definitions to identify the specific definition relevant to the project objectives regarding social enterprises for women from ethnic minorities. Secondly, this report will look at female empowerment globally by individual regions to understand the conditions necessary for the emergence of a Social Enterprise sector. Thirdly, it will examine women in professional life to understand the current situation of female employees in the business market. Fourthly, and most importantly, this report will examine the challenges experienced by ethnic minority women in the workforce market, possible barriers for the access to the labour market, business skills for women from ethnic minorities, possible support strategies and policies for the empowerment of ethnic minority women and training needs for women from ethnic minorities in social enterprises.

Social Enterprise

Social entrepreneurs and social enterprises have been in existence for many centuries, but have come into prominence in recent decades when the particular label of “social entrepreneur” has been intentionally used to identify them (Poon, 2011). A social enterprise, essentially, is a process in which individuals “create or transform institutions to develop solutions for social problems” (Bornstein & Davis, 2010, p.10). Mair and Marti (2006, p. 37) define social enterprise as “a process that contains the combination and innovative use of resources with a view to facilitating social change and/or pursuing opportunities to address social needs”. They suggest that the process has three elements:

- (a) creating value by combining the resources in new ways,
- (b) encouraging social change or searching for and using opportunities to meet social needs,
- and (c) offering services and products and creating new organizations.

The main purpose of Social Entrepreneurship (SE) and Social Business (SB) is to shrink vulnerabilities and search for social equalities worldwide. The main question is to find opportunities and innovative sustainable business models that help to solve societal needs. (Barki, Comini, Cunliffe, Hart & Rai, 2015). Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector by (Sivathanu & Bhise, 2013):

- Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value),

- Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission,
- Engaging in the process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning,
- Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand,
- Exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created.

Social enterprises have emerged as an effective tool to deliver policy objectives in two key areas of social and economic policy: service delivery and social inclusion.

Service delivery. Social enterprises may operate in the provision of welfare services to specific groups of individuals or within a spatially defined community. The participatory nature of social enterprises presents distinctive advantages in its capacity to engage stakeholders in the design and delivery of services, contribute non-monetary resources, identify gaps in service provision and pioneer new services leading to social cohesion.

Social inclusion. Recent forms of social enterprises facilitate social inclusion through workforce integration of marginalized people (eg. long term unemployed, disabled, minorities, etc) by combining training and skills development through temporary and/or permanent employment in business with the social dimension that trades in the market (OECD, 2019).

London and Morfopoulos (2010), on the other hand, argue that social enterprise emerges when individuals take action to ensure social welfare, and state that social entrepreneurs who carry out this process serve as a bridge between social needs and available resources. According to the authors, some examples of social enterprise activities can be as follows (London & Morfopoulos, 2010):

- Doing protests to draw attention to environmental pollution,
- Opening meal center for the homeless and poor,
- Marching to draw attention to the ever-spreading diseases in the society,
- Creating a group of volunteer doctors to help countries experiencing doctor shortage,
- Creating a group of volunteer teachers to help countries that have poor educational activities,
- Organizing book-reading events to establish school libraries,

Encouraging an innovative society requires a change in the dominant mentality in society and social entrepreneurs play a key role in carrying such changes into effect. Members of a society have a lot of pre-existing beliefs and maintain established behavioral patterns that are no longer relevant to today's global society and hinder the progress of some groups (e.g. the poor, disabled) according to their perceived disadvantages. Social entrepreneurs strive to change the existing mentality by raising awareness about our world's interconnectedness and helping society realize their hidden potential. Similarly, social entrepreneurs help change the perspective of the society from me to you and then to all of us (Bornstein & Davis, 2010, tp.14). Sijabat (2015) states that, the important roles of social entrepreneurs in enabling economic opportunities include:

1. the creation of access to financial resources;
2. the use of social innovation;
3. empowerment and social inclusion; and
4. job creation.

This report will now outline social entrepreneurship skills.

Social Entrepreneurship Skills

Today, social enterprise is an answer the global citizen has to the changes occurring and happening on a global scale (Bornstein & Davis, 2010, p. 11) Social entrepreneurs assume the role of change agents in the social sector (Dees, 1998).

1. They adopt a mission to create and maintain a social value.
2. They relentlessly pursue new opportunities to serve this mission.
3. They are always in the process of continuous innovation, harmony and learning.
4. They don't allow the existing resources to limit themselves.
5. They feel highly responsible for people serviced and results attained.

Social entrepreneurs are required to have various skills to achieve the above-mentioned roles. Social entrepreneurs, like corporate entrepreneurs, use effective communication, impression management and policy to create social pressures and attract adherents. Undoubtedly, social entrepreneurs need strong basic interpersonal skills, too. They need to express their ideas openly in writing and verbally, listen to people with patience and accurately, interpret verbal and non-verbal clues accurately, express their own feelings, realize others' feelings, respect others and gain the trust of others. Also, they need to understand the expectations of the people and understand how the expectations influence their behaviors, as well. Social entrepreneurs, therefore, must develop respectful, friendly and sympathetic relationships with volunteers, donors, policymakers, partners and those who benefit from the initiatives. This requires more than interpersonal skills i.e. interpersonal sensitivity and emotional intelligence, cultural sensitivity, self-regulation skills and emotional control (London & Morfopoulos, 2010). Miller, Wesley and William (2012) suggest that the five most important competencies social entrepreneurs must have are

1. Problem-solving skills,
2. Creating effective teams,
3. Management of the financial capital,
4. Skill of managing and improving others, and
5. Ability to communicate with customers, suppliers and other stakeholders.

For social entrepreneurs to be a self-confident, transformational entrepreneur, they must have both transformational skills (foresight, being inspirational, being innovative, self-regulation, participation-openness-sharing) and functional leadership skills (organizing, planning, managing, controlling, empowering). For them to be successful social entrepreneurs, they are expected to be good at observing the role models, participating in trial and error initiatives, requesting feedback and volunteering for tasks that require new skills (London & Morfopoulos, 2010). Wronka-Pośpiech (2016) lists the social entrepreneurship competencies as follows:

1. Creative use of scarce resources,
2. Correlating/evaluating the feasibility/implementation of the business plan.
3. Conflict resolution skills,
4. Ability to communicate with customers, suppliers and other stakeholders,

5. Identifying with the activities, actors and idea of the social economy,
6. Self-confidence to succeed in challenging tasks,
7. Ability to manage the administrative works,
8. Optimism,
9. Ability to define social problems, and
10. Ability to lead others and ensure their development.

This report will now examine the definitions of ethnic minorities in order to outline their potential roles in social enterprises.

Ethnic Minorities

The concept of ethnicity is associated with the Greek “ethos” meaning the people of a nation or tribe and “ethnikos” meaning national. Therefore, ethnic origin means the ethnic characteristics or membership of a group described culturally as normal. This also explains why the term is often used interchangeably with culture to some degree. The historical and contemporary discussions on ethnic origin as a cultural or social variable are based on the assumption that the concept is important primarily because it is related to the members of a minority group. Therefore, ethnic origin is a structure used mostly to define minority people with respect to their values, belief systems, and psychological phenomena (English, 2006).

What is understood from the term “Ethnic minority” is groups that have different cultural preferences or different cultural and social origins than the majority of the population (Kahanec, Zaiceva & Zimmermann, 2010). Li and Heath (2017), suggest that ethnic minorities can be divided into four main types:

1. The first type encompasses immigrants and children who immigrate from developing countries to developed countries. This is the typical immigrant group that receives the greatest attention in ethnic studies.
2. The second type refers to ethnic minorities who do not have a migration background but have a minority status in local/national societies.
3. The third type, on the other hand, is about people who have minority status but are not necessarily visible by society. In the last decade, many people have relocated between the EU countries and faced the problem of in-betweenness, as well as barriers to being socially visible since they have often been perceived or treated as “quasi-ethnic other”, and have been able to fully integrate into neither their homes nor their target countries.
4. The fourth type refers to those who are not qualified as a minority but not called a charter population, such as immigrant workers and are treated as a minority.

These examples illustrate the complexity and overlap of these identifying terms. In the next section of the report, female empowerment will be discussed in order to outline their potential roles in social enterprises.

Female Empowerment

Empowerment can be described as a process that helps people exert their control over the factors that affect their life (Mokta, 2014). Empowerment is a process of positive change that improves

women's positions and powers in a patriarchal structure. In short, empowerment is a process of improving awareness and capacity that leads to more participation, more decision-making power, and control, or transformative activity (Rahman, 2013). Empowerment, as a concept, has a long tradition in social change studies. This concept is regarded as a process of changing the distribution of powers in both interpersonal relations and institutions in society (Stromquist, 1995).

Female empowerment can be described as a process of personal and social change in which women gain power over their lives, make meaningful choices, and take control (O'Neil, Domingo & Valters, 2014). In other words, empowerment is a process in which a person gains the ability to make strategic life choices. This process can be individual or collective and take place in the following different areas of life (O'Neil, Domingo & Valters, 2014):

1. *Psychological empowerment*: It occurs when women believe that they need to make or influence the decisions that affect their lives and gain confidence in acting on this matter.
2. *Political empowerment*: It occurs when women gain the ability to influence the rules and norms guiding the society as well as the decisions on who to make what decisions, and when and how.
3. *Social empowerment*: It occurs when women gain the ability to make, or influence, decisions on their social interactions, health, having a child and their education.
4. *Economic empowerment*: It occurs when women gain the ability to make, or influence, the decisions on participating in workforce markets, unpaid work share as well as the allocation and use of the property of the household.

The characteristic features of the women's empowerment can be listed as follows (Mokta, 2014):

- Increasing women's self-confidence and self-respect,
- Eliminating discrimination and all kinds of violence against women and girls,
- Establishing and strengthening partnerships with civil societies, particularly women's organizations,
- Applying constitutional and legal provisions and protecting women's rights,
- Creating a positive image of women in the society and recognizing their contributions in social, economic and political areas,
- Developing critical thinking ability among women,
- Encouraging decision making and collective action,
- Enabling women to make informed choices,
- Enabling women to participate in all walks of life,
- Providing information and knowledge and skills for self-employment.

In the past few years, there has been an exponential increase in social entrepreneurship in the business sector including female entrepreneurs. Female empowerment is gaining business skills such as social entrepreneurial skills.

Women in Professional Life

Although industrialization played a part in women's participation in the workforce, the role of World War II is far greater. In that period, the participation of women in the workforce was debated heavily (Kıral & Karlılar, 2017). The 1940s marked a significant increase in the employment of women in many OECD countries. Women's share in total employment is seen to have increased in the 1980s (Yılmaz, Bozkurt & Izci, 2008). The development of female labour market participation in most European countries dates back to the 1970s. The image, however, of working women improved in the 1980s and especially in the 1990s (Thevenon, 2009). Women's employment rates vary across European countries. Table 1 shows the percentage of employed women in a number of countries.

Table 1

Percentage of Employed Women

<i>Country</i>	<i>Percentage of Women in the Workforce (2018)</i>	<i>Percentage of female in early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity</i>
European Union	45.9%	12%
Ireland	55%	9%
Germany	46.5%	5.7%
Greece	43.9%	7.6%
Italy	42.2%	2.1%
Lithuania	50.6%	6.3% (2012)
Turkey	32.7%	8.4% (2018)
United Kingdom	46.7%	7%

Source: World Bank, 2019 and Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2012, 2018, 2019)

As can be seen in Table 1, the percentage of women in the workplace in the European Union in 2018 is 45.9%, and 12% are involved in early-stage entrepreneurial activities. The available data indicates that among the most common occupational categories for women in EU countries are: shop salespeople, cleaners, personal care workers, pre-primary and primary school teachers and secretaries (European Union, 2018).

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO) “World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends for Women 2018” report, women's participation in the workforce is still 26.5 points below that of their male colleagues on a global scale. In addition, women's global unemployment rate is about 0.8 points higher than that of men. This means that only six women are employed versus every ten men. The EU's aim is to reach a 75 % employment rate for men and women by 2020 (European Union, 2018). Women, however, can experience challenges or barriers to fully participating in the labour market.

Possible Barriers for Women in Accessing the Labour Market.

In comparison to men, women still tend to be employed less, are employed in lower-paid sectors, work on average 6 hours longer per week (paid and unpaid) but have fewer paid hours, take more career breaks and face fewer and slower promotions (European Union, 2018). The same is valid for self-employment and business, where men traditionally are more likely to start businesses compared to women. Thanks to new initiatives and policies, like for instance women's entrepreneurship initiative in Germany, women's participation in entrepreneurship is increasing (GEM, 2019, p.55). Women's participation in the workforce depends on various elements. Developments in economic and social fields affect women's employment (Kıral &

Karlılar, 2017). Schooling, age, marital status and number of children are the important determinants of women's participation in the workforce (Dayıoğlu & Kırdar, 2010). While women across the EU have better educational outcomes than men, this does not prevent them from being underrepresented in well-paid sectors and overrepresented in low-wage sectors. A report on gender segregation shows that in all EU Member States, men dominate specific areas such as engineering and technology, but are much less involved in sectors such as teaching and care work. Some professions, such as pre-primary education, nursing or midwifery and, secretarial are still widely dominated by women. Indeed, 80% of the employees in the health and social services sector are women. (European Union, 2018). The unemployment rates by gender in EU between January 2000-October 2019 are presented in Figure 1 below.

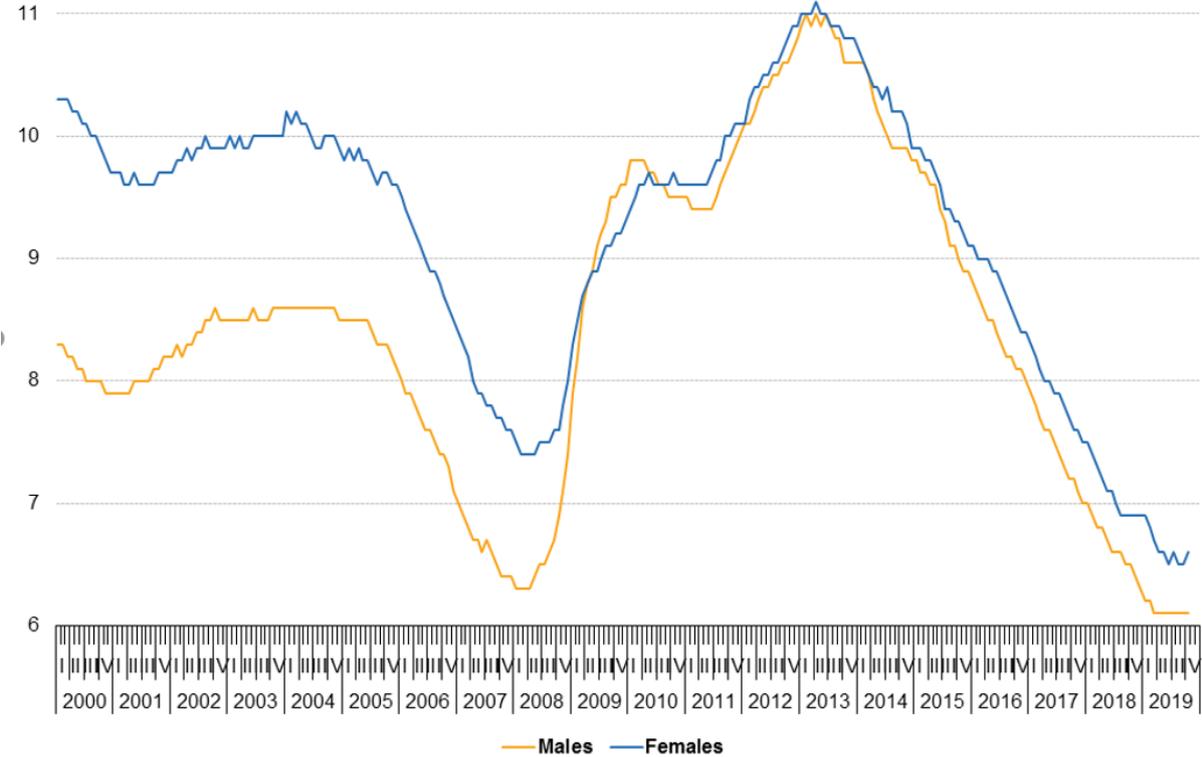


Figure 1: Unemployment rates by gender-EU, seasonally adjusted, January 2000-October 2019. Source: Eurostat (online data code: une_rt_m)

Women’s experiences of barriers to employment and progression are complex and often interconnected. According to Green, Moore, Easton, and Heggie (2004), the following represents some of the main barriers to employment and progression:

1. Childcare/caring for others: Childcare and caring for others featured strongly in the lives of women and their perceptions of these issues as barriers to their employment or progression were multifaceted and influenced decisions regarding work (Green, Moore, Easton & Heggie, 2004). In 2016 more than 19% of the inactive women in the EU were inactive because of looking after children or incapacitated adults. On average, the employment rate of women with a child under 6 is 9 percentage points less than the employment rate of women without children (European Union, 2018).

2. Flexible hours and time: lack of flexible working hours has been a barrier to women’s employment or progression (Green, Moore, Easton & Heggie, 2004). Insufficient availability of flexible working arrangements — such as telework and flexitime — and of reduced working hours (part-time work) can lead people with caring responsibilities, particularly women, to exit the labour market (European Union, 2017). In countries with a more widespread culture of flexible working arrangements in terms of part-time employment, such as Germany, Netherlands and United Kingdom, female employment rates are higher (above the EU average) (European Union, 2018).
3. Lack of support: Training opportunities are also related to women’s position in the labour market. Their qualifications/training can be a barrier to their employment or progression (Green, Moore, Easton & Heggie, 2004). There are two main types of support. The first type of support is an intangible type of support, expressed as emotional support, which includes caring, acceptance and respect. The second is instrumental (or behavioral) support. This support means tangible assistance in the form of financial aid, knowledge, information, and advice (Drach-Zahavy, 2004).
4. Expectations for progression – self-esteem, confidence and self-efficacy: Some women feel that they had held themselves back through their own lack of confidence, low expectations and inability to see the progression for themselves (Green, Moore, Easton & Heggie, 2004).
5. Suitable employment opportunities and training: The desire to remain in an area with which they feel a sense of community or the decision to work part-time, led to a lack of suitable job opportunities for some women. Lack of available work can also be considered locally as an obstacle to employment or progress (Green, Moore, Easton & Heggie, 2004)

There can be various challenges for female entrepreneurs. Finance is usually offered as one of the systemic or structural barriers to women who want to start or grow their business (Harding, 2007). For this reason, female entrepreneurs often participate in smaller and less-finance orientated sectors (Carter & Shaw, 2006). Women are about 10% more likely than men to perceive finance as the only obstacle to entrepreneurship (Kwong, Jones-Evans & Thompson, 2012).

As can be seen in Table 2 the barriers and potential challenges for women from ethnic minorities can be categorized under (1) Access to Work, (2) Financial, (3) Communication and Language), (4) Social), (5) Institutional, (6) Cultural), and (7) Psychological (Harding, 2007, Carter & Shaw, 2006; & Kwong, Jones-Evans & Thompson, 2012).

Table 2 *The Potential Challenges Women From Ethnic Minorities*

Main Domains	Sub-Domains
<i>Access to Work:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entry into market • Bullying, discrimination at workplaces • Seen as a cheap labour force • Segregation on the job market
<i>Financial:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial Experience • Lack of knowledge about the financing strategies • Involve a financial expert • Business plan/model • General financial knowledge

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial literacy • Economic barriers (such as cost advantages for extant ventures) • Difficulties in accessing finance
<i>Communication and Language</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not being fluent in the primary language • Having difficulty expressing their needs or responding to requests • Having difficulty understanding a customer inquiry
<i>Social</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socialization • The feeling of social competence • Social barriers (such as limited access to extant networks) • Low public awareness • Social integration into the community • Marriage and family
<i>Institutional:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional barriers (such as not knowing or being able to accommodate extant norms) • Lack of personnel with commercial acumen • A narrow initial motivation for starting the enterprise • The scarcity of viable business models
<i>Cultural:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural barriers (such as not being able to align with market attitudes, beliefs and expectations)
<i>Psychological:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of self-confidence • Lack of self-esteem • Self-image • Lack of awareness of their personal qualities • Undervalued social identity • Learned helplessness • Attribution of achievements

As can be seen from Table 2 there are many barriers for women in accessing the labour market. According to Süssmuth (2007): the most important barriers from the experts' view fall under the categories of education and (formal) skills. These include the lack of language skills, but also of professional skills and vocational qualifications. Further Süssmuth (2007) identified the following as the main barriers;

1. Lack of Education and Training
2. Lack of Language Skills
3. Lack of Recognition of Skills and Qualifications
4. Lack of Access to Professions
5. Lack of Access to Citizenship
6. Lack of Integration Policy
7. Prejudices, Stereotypes and Negative Attitudes
8. Lack of Mobility and Concentration in Certain Areas
9. Industrial Change
10. Disincentives through Welfare Systems

Socio-cultural factors, as well as the above-mentioned factors, are also obstacles to women's participation in social enterprise activities. Factors such as stereotyping, family and peer perceptions, as well as the prevalence of male entrepreneurial models, continue to have a strong

and often limiting impact on women's career choices and lack of effectiveness in engaging in business activities (European Training Foundation [ETF], 2014).

Entry into the business sector, financial (business plan/model, financial literacy etc.), social (low public awareness, social integration etc.), institutional (lack of personnel with commercial acumen), cultural (market attitudes, beliefs and expectations etc, psychological (lack of self-confidence, lack of self-esteem etc.) are among the barriers faced by women. Other challenges include the undervaluation of work performed predominantly by women and the lack of a work-family infrastructure.

In the literature, scarce financial resources, not enough employees and having no networks or contacts to start Social Enterprises are among the main problems and barriers for social entrepreneurs. Family and tax policies can also discourage labour market participation and entrepreneurship and can develop negative social attitudes towards female entrepreneurship. There are also market failures that make it more difficult for women to be successful in business creation and self-employment. For example, there may be failures in financial markets or public policy initiatives and they may not be effective at reaching potential female entrepreneurs. It is, however, important not to overlook the element of personal choice since women often have different motivations and intentions in entrepreneurship. Policymakers should, therefore, not aim to eliminate all differences between male and female entrepreneurs, but instead attempt to remove institutional influences that affect motivations and intentions and correct market failures that constrain female entrepreneurship (OECD, 2016). Below are some examples of how female entrepreneurs in social enterprises can be hindered:

- Culture and society are often unsupportive of women's entrepreneurship
- Women tend to perceive that they lack entrepreneurship skills
- Female entrepreneurs have greater difficulty accessing finance than men
- Women tend to have smaller and less effective entrepreneurial networks
- Family and tax policies can discourage female labour market participation, including entrepreneurship

This report will now examine the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs from ethnic minorities in social enterprises.

Challenges Experienced by Ethnic Minority Women in the Workforce Market

Ethnic minorities are at a disadvantage in the workforce market. Members of ethnic minorities have a higher rate of unemployment, or earn less if they are employed. Also, the likelihood of ethnic minorities being employed for less-skilled work is higher, while that of their making progress in the workforce market is lower (Glasgow Works, 2011). Barrett (2010) reports that unemployment and self-employment rates are higher for ethnic minority groups. Therefore, women from ethnic minority societies can be particularly at a disadvantage in the workforce market (Glasgow Works, 2011). Ethnic minority women are more likely to find jobs in low-skilled, temporary or part-time and low-wage sectors (Harding, 2007). In addition to the disadvantageous position of ethnic minorities in accessing the workforce, they are likely to face maltreatment.

The Race at Work Report (Ashe & Nazroo, 2017) noted that 32% of all ethnic minority employees reported that they have witnessed or experienced racist harassment or bullying from colleagues in the last five years. Also, 17% of ethnic minority workers have witnessed and 16% have directly experienced racist bullying and harassment from clients, customers and service

users. In addition, according to Berdahl and Moore (2006) minorities experienced more ethnic harassment than whites, and minority women experienced more harassment overall than majority men, minority men, and majority women. In a study of black, Asian and ethnic minority female business owners, Davidson, Fielden and Omar (2010) used qualitative data collection (in-depth interviews) to examine discrimination and social support. Their findings show that most of the respondents had experienced discrimination because of their gender and ethnic background and that this led to difficulty obtaining business and financial support. In a more recent study, however, Carter et al. (2015) did not find any discriminatory barriers to accessing business and financial support.

Wang (2013) investigated ethnic minority women who owned businesses in the United States by employing multivariate statistical analyses. This study evaluated the relationship between gender and ethnicity with overall business performance. The findings show that ethnic minority female entrepreneurs have different niche concentrations compared to other entrepreneurs in general. Additionally, most of the female ethnic entrepreneurs operated within smaller operations in terms of the size of firms. Correspondingly, they produce only marginal profits compared to the general entrepreneur population (Wang, 2013). Despite the comparison, ethnic female entrepreneurs have generated adequate performance compared to the whole population of entrepreneurs.

People from ethnic minority groups are often at a disadvantage in the labour market. They are more likely to be overrepresented in poorly paid and unstable jobs and are less able to secure opportunities for job progression or employment which matches their skills and abilities (Wood and Wybron 2015). According to Grimshaw and Rubery (2007), under-valuation of women's economic activities may be summarised under five Vs:

1. *Visibility*: Limited sectoral diversity;
2. *Valuation*: Endemic cultural deprecation of women's work;
3. *Vocation*: The association of women's work with 'natural talents' as well as socialized or affective dimensions as mothers and carers rather than professional skills;
4. *Value-added*: Women are more likely to work in low value-added and high labor-intensive areas (e.g. care for children and the elderly) with little scope for the use of technology to enhance productivity and
5. *Variance*: The perception of women's work and work patterns (due to household demands) as fundamentally different from men's.

Ethnic minority women may be disadvantaged by factors ((Stiell & Tang, 2006) such as:

1. Migration history, language, qualifications, skills and experience,
2. Aspirations/confidence (this depended on both personal and family circumstances, levels of qualification and skill, and on experiences in the labour market),
3. Local area (weaknesses in the local support infrastructure, including childcare, public transport and other services),
4. Suitable job opportunities,
5. Cultural/family circumstances,
6. Discrimination and racism.

The following issues are challenges that a woman of an ethnic minority group faces when working in the business.

- Cultural barriers
- Childcare provision
- Financing issues
- Housing issues
- Communication problems/language barriers

Additional challenges include limited majority language proficiency and, for those who are undocumented, lack of access to legal status (Hess, Henrici, and Williams 2011; Hess and Henrici 2013) Another barrier faced by ethnic minority women is cultural obligations. As reported by Ceci et al. (2011), ethnic minority women who have and raise children are less likely to have and keep higher hierarchical positions. However, women who do not desire to have children apply for higher ranking positions. Felicitas Hilmann's (1998) study on self-employed Turkish men and women in Berlin has shown that men are more likely to rely on family members' help in supporting their business, while women display other strategies and do not have the same chances within migrant communities.

Hierarchical progress in a linear career path is less likely for ethnic minority women compared to other women. Ethnic minority women have to deal with additional barriers in career opportunities and progress due to the racist attitudes and stereotypes in their organization (Kamenou, 2002). Ethnic minority women suffer double discrimination in the workplace because of their gender and race (ILO, 2013). Women face workforce market barriers in accessing managerial positions. Hence, when we look at women employed in the business world, they are four times less likely to be an employer than a man. (ILO, 2018). Therefore, it can be suggested that ethnic minority female managers face a stronger barrier than the 'glass ceiling' syndrome faced by their other colleagues (Kamenou, 2002).

In entrepreneurship, ethnic minorities face various challenges. Rahman, Ullah and Thompson (2018) state that ethnic entrepreneurs face several challenges, such as (1) access to finance, (2) communication skills (language skills and shared cultural understanding) and the labour market, (3) regulations (tax laws, rules, and regulations) and lack of management skills. Marlow (1997) found that while entrepreneurs from both genders felt that women were being discriminated against when starting their business, a greater proportion of women believed that discrimination existed. Also, Hisrich and Brush (1984) showed that the obstacles faced by female entrepreneurs included finance and credit, lack of business and financial planning training. There are also some challenges for BAME (Black, Asian and minority ethnic) women to participate in social entrepreneurship activities. These challenges are expressed as follows (Government Equalities Office, 2008);

1. Lower social entrepreneurship awareness of ethnic minorities,
2. Time constraints and family obligations,
3. Finance (how to identify potential funders; how to apply for and secure funding; how to identify what resources they need funding for, etc.),
4. Skills gap (or lack of knowledge of business development and finance),
5. Low confidence and motivation,
6. Multiple disadvantages (cultural stereotyping, language, isolation etc.).

Carter et al. (2015) concurs with Wong's (2013) study that most ethnic minority women focus on low-cost businesses such as small-scale retailing and catering, food service businesses and others. Unfortunately, these types of niche markets have become highly saturated in the industry and are associated with intense competition. This has resulted in female entrepreneurs from ethnic minority backgrounds producing only marginal and squeezed profits within competitive markets. Accordingly, this phenomenon explains why some businesses owned by ethnic minority women have comparatively lower survival rates than the population of entrepreneurs in general. However, these rates are arguably caused by other external factors. For example, Carter et al. (2015) highlighted that ethnic minority women entrepreneurs are faced with financial barriers because of inherent risk factors such as relatively low business acumen and a lack of a robust financial track record; this includes debt aversion as an indicator of low performance among ethnic minority women. Ethnic minority women who have limited resources are often motivated by labour market disadvantages (Inman, 1999). They tend to locate their businesses in areas populated by minorities, depending on them as clientele (Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2004). Many of these women are achievement-oriented but their businesses usually have limited growth potential due to a reliance on social capital from friends and family (Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2004).

In relation to entrepreneurial performance, Gyapong, Monem and Hu (2016) investigated whether there is an impact with female and ethnic minority directors on a firm's entrepreneurial performance. Their study produced mixed results in that whilst the entrepreneur's value is greater when boards have more female directors, ethnic minority directors contribute less to firm values when there are more on the board. Gyapong, Monem and Hu (2016) suggest that successful entrepreneurial performance is more closely associated with greater ethnic diversity than with gender diversity.

The above literature (e.g. Carter et al., 2015) indicates that some studies on enterprises owned by ethnic minority women produce mixed results, particularly when comparing their performance with the performance of entrepreneurs in general. Consequently, it may not be possible to generalise the findings. Arguably, further research should be undertaken in the inconclusive areas around ethnic minority female entrepreneurs such as discrimination, capabilities (answering a question: why the performance of ethnic minority women has been considered marginal?), and productivity (answering a question why there has been some difficulty in obtaining financial and other entrepreneurial supports?). Apart from these areas, it could be argued that small-business ethnic minority women need to re-design their competitive strategy to enhance their unique selling points to support their growth. In the current literature, these areas of study are still under-researched.

As can be seen, ethnic minority women especially face many difficulties in both the workplace and in participation in social entrepreneurship activities. However, the most common challenges faced by female entrepreneurs are a lack of access to lifelong learning education and training opportunities for the development of entrepreneurship key competences and business skills, lack of business support systems, access to capital and access to support networks (ETF, 2014).

Business Skills for Women from Ethnic Minorities

Providing business skills training is a key step in empowering female entrepreneurs, but to ensure a truly transformative change, training programmes need to address the deeper psychological and social constraints that women face (Siba, 2019). In the literature, some skills are considered as essential for entrepreneurship/business. These skills are described by Smith, Schallenkamp and Eichholz (2006) in four dimensions: technical, managerial, entrepreneurial, and personal maturity. Table 3 describes these skills.

Table 3 *Essential Entrepreneurship Skills*

Categories	Skills
Technical Skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Operational (the skills necessary to produce the product or service) 2. Supplies/Raw Materials (the skills to obtain them, as necessary) 3. Office or Production Space (the skills to match needs and availability) 4. Equipment/Plant/Technology (the skills to identify and obtain them)
Managerial Skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Management (planning, organizing, supervising, directing, networking) 2. Marketing (identifying customers, distribution channels, supply chain) 3. Financial (managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting) 4. Legal (organization form, risk management, privacy and security) 5. Administrative (people relations, advisory board relations) 6. Higher-order – learning, problem-solving
Entrepreneurial Skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Business Concept (business plan, presentation skills) 2. Environmental Scanning (recognize market gap, exploit a market opportunity) 3. Advisory Board and Networking (balance independence with seeking assistance)
Personal Maturity Skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-Awareness (ability to reflect and be introspective) 2. Accountability (ability to take responsibility for resolving a problem) 3. Emotional Coping (emotional ability to cope with a problem) 4. Creativity (ability to produce a creative solution to a problem)

Source: Smith, Schallenkamp & Eichholz, 2006.

As seen in Table 3 there are many skills that female entrepreneurs need to be successful. Moreover, in today's business environment, women need meta-competencies ranging from technical skills to problem-solving, initiative and institutional skills, teamwork, learning, and self-management as well as communication and digital economy skills such as new business models, understanding the use of technology, interactive communication and social networking (Braun, 2008).

Adeyemo (2009) states that entrepreneurial skills are the basic skills necessary to enable Social Entrepreneurs to start, develop, finance and succeed in their home enterprise. He classified these skills under four categories:

- 1) Personal characteristics (optimism, vision, initiative, desire for control, drive and persistence, risk tolerance, resilience);
- 2) Interpersonal skills (leadership and motivation, communication skills, listening, personal relations, negotiation, and ethics);
- 3) Critical and creative thinking skills (Creative thinking, problem-solving, recognizing opportunities) and

4) Practical skills (conducting research, data collection and analysis).

Possible Support Strategies and Policies for the Empowerment of Ethnic Minority Women

Women have a central role in the development of communities and economies around the world. Therefore, nations see entrepreneurship as a way of involving women in the process of economic development (Harding, 2007). Moreover, women's entrepreneurship is seen as an important component of economic development, especially in developing countries. Women help their countries reduce the unemployment rate by creating their own companies and increase the country's employment rates when they employ others in their companies (Alexandre-Leclair, 2014).

There are various social policies being implemented across the world to increase women's participation in the workforce. They usually focus on childcare services, time of for caring purposes, developing flexible working conditions and active workforce policies. Formal care services are an important tool for removing barriers to employment (European Union, 2017). Good quality, accessible and affordable formal care services are important in enabling men and women with care responsibilities to take up employment. However, the availability of quality and affordable childcare facilities continues to be a challenge in a significant number of member states, such as Germany, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Malta, Slovakia and the United Kingdom (European Union, 2018).

Leave policies for employees have a significant impact on women's access and their staying in the workforce market and their decision to leave the workforce market. In addition, active workforce policies are quite important for increasing women's participation in the workforce. Active workforce policies have been established on such principles as eliminating the challenges faced by the unemployed in finding a job, creating new employment opportunities, making it easier to access the workforce market by bringing the labor supply and demand with institutional structuring together. These policies contain professional training policies, the government's creating new employment areas, employment-increasing subsidies, employment consultancy services, subsidies for entrepreneurs, a generalization of flexible work schedules, information, consultancy and job-placement services, employment creation programs, and programs for the young people, women, elderly and the disabled. Examples of policies implemented for women who have low participation in the workforce are eliminating the financial barriers making participation in employment more difficult for women regarding wages and taxes, enabling them to acquire a job and offering training for it, practices regulating the working time, encouraging women's entrepreneurship and granting subsidies to women (Sümer, 2015). In fact, it is quite important to discuss gender and social entrepreneurship in the same context because women are the fundamental elements of a successful approach to fighting poverty. These enterprises, can be achieved best by including women directly in the development of social enterprise. Therefore, while researching how female entrepreneurship can help reduce poverty and encourage socio-economic development, social entrepreneurship must be included as a factor (Boateng, 2018).

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2018), encouraging women's enrollment in formal education and professional training and entrepreneurship programs are very important for supporting women's transition to better jobs. Education and training are powerful tools against poverty, hunger, and for women's empowerment (FAO, IFAD & ILO, 2010). A study in Turkey found that the most important factor for an increased female workforce was an increased educational level (Akgeyik, 2017). Below are the specific policy

recommendations (ILO, 2018; EU, 2017; & EU, 2018)) and strategies to support social enterprises and women from ethnic minorities;

- Promote the concept of social enterprise widely
- Improve coordination among public entities at different levels
- Design a consistent legal and regulatory environment
- Improve access to finance
- Use of EU Structural funds
- Access to public and private markets
- Business support structures for social enterprises
- Networks and business support structures for social enterprises
- Develop social entrepreneurial skills and support research
- Social entrepreneurship education and research
- Discussion on current barriers and enabling factors for social enterprise development
- Building awareness and visibility of SE (promotional campaigns)
- Developing a business idea (incubators...)
- Business planning and development (general skill development)
- Social entrepreneurship and leadership development (skill development, advisory, mentoring and coaching).
- Positive discrimination to improve diversity in the business sector
- Start-Up loans to tackle inequality in society
- Access to finance for women from ethnic minorities to make their businesses grow and succeed
- Open cultural centers for women from ethnic minorities
- Teaching the dominant language of the country to women (refugees, migrants) from ethnic minorities
- Provide vocational training
- Make it easier to join private and public services.

It is important for women working in social enterprises to build cooperation and create networks in the business market with different actors such as support networks, other social enterprises, local authorities/institutions and the private sector. In the literature, social entrepreneurs have been offered support in funding and developing social enterprises from the Local Authorities, business sector, government, European Union, and banking sector.

Summary

Without a strategy and qualified employees, an organization is rudderless and will not survive long in today's changing and demanding world. Without providing potential workers, trainers and business advisors of adequate tools to manage and/or coach, no sustainable entrepreneurship is possible. This report seeks to understand how women from ethnic minorities could be empowered through social enterprises.

Social enterprises have emerged as an effective tool to deliver policy objectives in two key areas of social and economic policy: service delivery and social inclusion. In the literature, the term "Ethnic minority" focuses on the groups that have different cultural preferences or different cultural and social origins than the majority of the population (Kahanec, Zaiceva & Zimmermann, 2010).

The focus of the report was about empowering women from ethnic minorities through social enterprise. Therefore, it is important to look at the female workforce globally to understand the

conditions necessary for the emergence of a Social Enterprise Sector. Female employment rates differ for the specific sectors. For instance, a report (EU, 2018) on gender segregation shows that in all EU Member States, men dominate specific areas such as engineering and technology, but are much less involved in sectors such as teaching and care work. Women are mostly employed in the education and health sector when compared with the male employment rates.

This report examined the challenges experienced by ethnic minority women in the workforce market, possible barriers for the access to the labour market, business skills needed for women from ethnic minorities, and possible support strategies and policies for the empowerment of ethnic minority women. Green, Moore, Easton, and Heggie (2004) summarise the main barriers to employment and progression for women from ethnic minorities as

1. Childcare/caring for others,
2. Flexible working hours and time,
3. Lack of support,
4. Expectations for progression – self-esteem, confidence and self-efficacy, and
5. Suitable employment opportunities and training.

There are also challenges for women from ethnic minorities in the business sector, including access to work, financial issues, barriers such as communication and language, social, institutional, cultural and psychological.

In order to empower women from ethnic minorities, it necessary to equip them with the necessary skills needed in social enterprise. Therefore, providing business skills training is a key step in empowering female entrepreneurs in Social Enterprises. In the literature, the essential entrepreneurship skills are grouped under four main themes, including 1) technical skills, 2) managerial skills, 3) entrepreneurial skills, and 4) personal maturity skills. Adeyemo, (2009) states that entrepreneurial skills are the basic skills necessary to enable social entrepreneurs to start, develop, finance and succeed in their home enterprise.

It is also very important to develop possible support strategies and policies for the empowerment of ethnic minority women at a global level. There are various social policies being implemented across the world to increase women's participation in the workforce. They usually focus on childcare services, time off for caring, developing flexible working conditions and active workforce policies. Good quality, accessible and affordable formal care services are important in enabling men and women with care responsibilities. These are important tools for removing barriers to employment (European Union, 2017; 2018). In addition, designing and developing training programmes based on the training needs of women from ethnic minorities in social enterprises is highly important.

Providing women from ethnic minorities with the necessary skills and tools relevant to developing Social Enterprises will empower women and ensure the improvement of their inclusion in the business market. At-work training opportunities and engagement in non-traditional roles have the potential to increase women's access to new and higher-level positions and to increase their leadership and decision-making skills. Having increased income and increased control over how income will be spent also gives women increased purchasing power. These empowered women may now be more likely to purchase the social enterprises' services and become part of the social enterprise context to amplify social impacts. Guidance and counseling are key strategic elements for operating lifelong learning and employability strategies at regional and national levels.

From the literature review, the key elements have been identified to involve and engage women from ethnic minorities in the social enterprise context and in developing and implementing innovative training material and tools at different stages and levels.

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