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TREATMENT OF YOUNG WOMEN AT THE WORKPLACE

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U skladu sa članom 54. Pravila studiranja za I, II ciklus studija, integrisani, stručni i specijalistički studij na Univerzitetu u Sarajevu, daje se

IZJAVA O AUTENTIČNOSTI RADA

Ja, Lejla Prguda, studentica drugog (II) ciklusa studija, broj index-a 2024 na programu Ekonomija,

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ABSTRACT

Research shows that young women in Bosnia and Herzegovina face several challenges in the workplace, including discrimination, lack of opportunity, and unequal division of labor. Similarly, the understanding is that young women are often passed over for promotions, paid less than men, or subjected to sexual harassment. Therefore, I conduct a survey to perform a quantitative analysis of the problem at hand. The survey included 443 young women from a wide range of professions. As expected, the responses varied from positive to negative experiences. However, a clear lack of opportunity has been experienced by most of the survey respondents. Gender stereotypes, lack of childcare support, and cultural expectations can all contribute to this. Young women in Bosnia and Herzegovina face various challenges that result in negative consequences, such as lower levels of job satisfaction, decreased motivation, and increased turnover. Furthermore, the limited opportunities for young women have a detrimental impact on the economy as a whole. A case study is provided in the thesis, addressing differences between leaders in the field (i.e. Nordic countries) and the rest of the world. The case study suggests that there are several actions that can be performed to address these challenges. These include enacting stronger anti-discrimination laws, providing more childcare support, challenging gender stereotypes, and educating employers about the benefits of hiring and promoting women. Dealing with these changes, will result in a more inclusive and equitable workplace.

Keywords: Workplace Equity, Human Potential Utilization, Young Women Empowerment, ROI, Social Wellbeing Improvement, Diversity & Inclusion, Change Management Strategies, Economic Growth Impact, Gender Equality Initiatives

SAŽETAK

Istraživanje pokazuje da se mlade žene u Bosni i Hercegovini susreću sa nekoliko izazova na radnom mjestu, uključujući diskriminaciju, nedostatak prilika i nejednakost u raspodjeli poslova. Također se vjeruje da se mlade žene često zaobilaze prilikom procesa unapređenja, za isti posao primaju manju plaću od muškaraca ili su izložene seksualnom uznemiravanju. Stoga, odlučila sam se da uradim istraživanje kako bih izvršila kvantitativnu analizu ovog problema. Istraživanje je uključilo 443 mlade žene iz različitih profesija. Kao što se očekivalo, odgovori su varirali od pozitivnih do negativnih iskustava. Međutim, većina ispitanica je potvrdila hipotezu nedostatka prilika. Stereotipi, nedostatak podrške za čuvanje djece i očekivanja bazirana na tradicionalnim, te nacionalnim vrijednostima, svi doprinose ovom problemu. Izazovi s kojima se suočavaju mlade žene u BiH imaju nekoliko negativnih posljedica, uključujući niži nivo zadovoljstva poslom, smanjenje motivacije i povećanje fluktuacije zaposlenih. Dodatno, nedostatak prilika za mlade žene ima negativan utjecaj na ekonomiju u cjelini. U radu je izvršena studija slučaja koja se bavi razlikama između lidera u ovom području (npr.

nordijske zemlje) i ostatka svijeta. Studija slučaja sugerše da se može poduzeti nekoliko akcija kako bi se suočili s ovim izazovima. To uključuje donošenje strožijih zakona protiv diskriminacije, pružanje veće podrške za čuvanje djece i educiranje poslodavaca o prednostima zapošljavanja i promoviranja žena. Suočavanje s ovim promjenama rezultirat će inkluzivnijim i pravednijim radnim mjestima.

Ključne riječi: Jednakost i ravnopravnost na radnom mjestu, Iskorištavanje ljudskog potencijala, Osnaživanje mladih žena, Povrat investicija, Unapređenje društvenog blagostanja, Raznolikost i inkluzija, Strategije upravljanja promjenama, Ekonomski rast, Inicijative za rodnu ravnopravnost, Uloga investicija u ljudski razvoj

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Appendix 1: Survey questions 1

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EU - European Union

EIB - European Investment Bank

ILO - International Labor Organization

STEM - Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics

B.Sc. - Bachelor of Sciences

M.Sc. - Master of Science

Ph.D. - Doctor of Philosophy

ROI - Return on investment

1. INTRODUCTION

The motivation behind this research lies in the substantial number of young women who fail to harness their human potential in the professional sphere. This research is your guide to the factors that catapult women to success in the workplace. It provides deep dive into the critical elements such as partner support, family support, and the overall environmental factors that propel women to fulfil their professional potential. Consider this a backstage pass to the untold stories of what truly empowers women in their careers.

This thesis takes you on a deep dive into the effects of national culture and unfolds action plans on how to ensure young women receive equal treatment at work, mirroring the treatment extended to their male counterparts. It introduces a fresh perspective—equity, inclusion, and belonging. The author argues that rules can't be a one-size-fits-all. The treatment of young women in the workplace must be tailored on an equity basis to guarantee equality at work. Imagine, for instance, supporting young pregnant women with maternity benefits, regardless of their tenure in the company. It's about creating a workplace environment where the cost of career interruptions is minimized.

The first part of the thesis will systemize existing empirical literature about the treatment of young women at the workplace. Then, we will show a Case study that presents both, positive and negative examples. Lastly, the third part will present an analytical review of my survey about the treatment of young women at workplace collected in Bosnia and Herzegovina. It's a peek into the real experiences, challenges, and triumphs of young women navigating the professional landscape in a specific cultural context.

Existing gender equality laws in Bosnia and Herzegovina are clear about topics like discrimination, equal opportunities, equal treatment, employment, social protection, health care and the gender action plan (Agency for Gender Equality, 2021). However, the political environment is still not supporting women in the workplace. When it comes to achieving gender equality in the economic environment of B&H there are still challenges related to discrimination, a high pay gap of 9%, women in rural areas still suffering due to not having resources and control over their property, land, financial resources, education, available information, digital skills, and technology. Laws and regulations for in vitro fertilization are not defined on the state level. The long-term measures and acts related to this topic in Bosnia and Herzegovina require the council of ministers to : 1. Implement quotas of 40% women on election lists; 2. Ensure programs for empowering women; 3. Actively work with media to promote the importance of women in leadership positions; 4. Implement strategies for family planning and achieving a proper balance between work and private life; 5. Change gender segregation for occupations that are dominated by men; 6. Actively work on including unemployed women to the workforce. Law on gender equality in B&H was passed in 2003 and modified in 2009. The implementation of the new laws on paternity leave already promoted the importance of father figures and encourage more men to use it (UN Women Bosnia and Herzegovina

Report, 2022). Numerous countries, among them the Nordic nations, boast progressive childcare and parental leave policies. These measures have empowered women to excel in their careers without the fear of facing workplace penalties for starting a family. Unfortunately, that is not the case with all countries around the world, putting women at risk even in developed economies like the United States. This is why the existing legislation in the Nordic countries—Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden—has been at the forefront of promoting gender equality. Across the Nordic countries, nearly three out of every four working-age women, on average, are engaged in paid employment, and the gender employment gaps in the Nordic region are among the smallest within the OECD. The Nordic approach towards the workplace is adjusted for women, including family support, childcare, paid leave to help men and women to find and stay in paid work after becoming parents (OECD, 2018).

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

- “Society depends on females. All those people who were unlucky to keep them closed were not social” (Voltaire,1694-1778)

The primary objective of this section of the thesis is to organize and categorize the current research on the role of young women in society, with a focus on their impact on economic growth and development. Furthermore, the thesis aims to examine the theoretical background for suggestions to improve the experience of young women in the workplace. Additionally, this section will analyze problems related to gender inequality, inclusion, discrimination, burnout, forced choices and cultural influences faced by young women.

The thesis will examine and present 7 elements that influence young women and their professional paths. These 7 elements include the following: 1. *Total number of high performing young women*; 2. *Impact of education, family, marital status, parenting and national culture on women’s professional progress*; 3. *Impact of motherhood on women’s professional progress*; 4. *Discrepancies between young women’s education and success in career*; 5. *Importance and impact of young women on society*; 6. *Importance and impact of young women on the economy*; 7. *Problems with biased statistics*. Overall, these 7 elements will allow us to identify the main issues that young women face at the workplace in today’s business environment. Most of the research will try to reveal the barriers that qualified women are unnecessarily facing. This study aims to address the following inquiries: What are the major reasons causing young women in Bosnia and Herzegovina to not use, or not get opportunity for professional growth? How important is for economic growth and social wellbeing for society in general to have women fulfilling their potential? What are the main differences in terms of laws and practices when it comes to treating young women at work in the United States, Europe, and Nordic countries? What are possible ways of improving the implementation of existing laws and implementing Nordic practices of work-life balance in Bosnia and Herzegovina? Additionally, thesis will examine the following: What are the reasons for a small number of high performing women in leadership positions? What’s the influence of education, family and national culture on young women and their decisions? Looking at the macro aspect, can women have both, possibilities for professional progress and motherhood at same time, and if not, why? Examining research papers from the last 50 years, what is believed to be the main cause of bigger discrepancies between the level of education and success in later career for young women? What is the impact of young women on society? What is causing the withdrawal of women from the workplaces? What is the impact on the economy? What is the economic and social value of young women? What is happening with biased statistics? Additionally, the Case study will examine the comparison between Nordic countries and the rest of the world. From now on, the term ‘young women’ will be used to describe women between 21 and 50 years of age. Lastly, the results of the survey will be presented with the aim to provide more details on the treatment of women at the workplace in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Research questions:

1. How important is it for economic growth and society in general to have all young women working?
2. What are the main differences in terms of laws and practices when it comes to treating young women at work in the US, Europe, and Nordic countries?
3. What are the major reasons causing young women in Bosnia and Herzegovina to not use or not get the opportunity for professional growth?
4. What are the possible ways of improving the implementation of existing laws and implementing Nordic practices of work-life balance in Bosnia and Herzegovina?

2.1 Total number of high performing young women

Given that 49.58% of the global population comprises women (World Bank, 2021), it is anticipated that the proportion of females in the workforce will continue to rise in the coming decade. As highlighted by (ILO, 2020), the number of unemployed people worldwide between 2019 and 2020 was equal to 220.3 million. Interestingly, women were less utilized in the labor force compared to men, 85 million compared to 55 million (ILO, 2020). Overall, 35.8 million young women are unemployed (ILO, 2020). In every region, the unemployment rates for youth, regardless of gender, surpass the unemployment rates for adults. According to the national statistics institute: “326.000 women will lose their jobs in 2020, compared to 141.000 men in the United States” (ILO, 2020). This leads us to the conclusion that either current laws must be changed for young women and society needs to rethink the importance of young females, as workforce, as contributors for economic growth, or half of the worldwide population will not be economically efficient.

Another interesting question that this research will try to address is the position of young women on top of large organizations and their role in society. As an illustration, young women frequently find themselves compelled to make a choice between family and career. How does this affect the choices that those women make when it comes to applying for leadership positions. Further, this research will try to understand why women that are performing well during their education often do not accomplish their career goals afterwards? Or why women give up on their professional progress and prioritize family instead. Which mechanisms could be used to ensure that women fulfill their professional potential? This research should be conducted all around the world to gather information about this subject in different regions. A comparison between Europe and the US would be of interest due to the differences in culture and opportunities provided by the governments. Although Nordic countries admirably reached an exceptional level of equality, surveys and research papers show that even though the laws are there, the real-world experience is different. Often women choose a less challenging professional path,

a career in health and service, or education. For example, unproportionally more women in those countries choose art instead of engineering. (Partanen, 2018). Since the 1960s, the Nordic countries have been widely renowned for their commitment to gender equality. They have one of the highest employment and education rates for women worldwide. However, the Nordic countries also have the greatest horizontal segregation by sex compared to other countries in Europe. In other words, there is a strong separation in terms of male and females' occupations. This gender segregation is the main reason behind the gender wage gap and why certain talents go undetected. This causes a higher female unemployment rate (Soercen, 2019).

If most women stay out of the job market, it means that half of the world's population will be unemployed. This leads to the question "What did we get as an economy?" In different organizations, most successful young women are implementing strategies, but rarely participating in defining them (Forbes 500, 2020). In simpler terms, the participation of women in decision-making remains limited in comparison to men (EFSA, 2021). Women face limitations in reaching the most senior leadership positions: "Only 5% of Fortune 500 CEOs are Women" (ILO, 2019). Is it because the number of women and men is different inside one organization, or is it because men are considered better at defining strategies, or are the women themselves avoiding leadership positions?

For centuries, there have been broad, cultural biases against women, and we can see stereotypes slowly disappearing. Thinking about feminist ancestors, what they had done, society can't afford just to stay where it is right now. We must push forward, for organizations, society, and for utilization of human capital in the global economy. While moving forward, we must ask ourselves what the right way is of creating an **era of women**, which will allow us to achieve sustainable 50-50 opportunities for both genders. (De Beauvoir, 1949)

The authors (Charmaz, 2004; Strauss and Corbin, 1998 in Felicia W.) have found that: 1. Job crafting, which involves performing tasks in a personalized manner; 2. Self-confidence; 3. Being the "good girl", in a way of satisfying certain society norms; 4. Grit, ambition and determination; 5. Work engagement, in a way going "the extra mile" at work; 5. Being proactive leads to higher positions in companies and successfully reaching high professional positions.

While research indicates that women can be just as effective as men in leadership roles (Bass et al., 1996), there remains a notable scarcity of women at the highest echelons of organizations. This disparity results in a significant squandering and underutilization of talent due to unnecessary barriers faced by qualified women. It is crucial for leaders within organizations to acknowledge the valuable resource represented by young women and ensure the efficient utilization of human capital. Managers at various levels must cultivate the attitudes and expertise required to harness the full potential of female talent. Implementing best practices, such as cross-organizational mentoring, enables individuals to learn **success strategies** for improving organizational human resource management

outcomes, similar to how they learn business improvement strategies from their mentors. The key element is to have variety in your talent pool. As a society we will have women and men, deciding to leave careers because of families. However, some women (and men) will make such choices and some women (and men) will not. Not doing this is a luxury that contemporary societies can no longer afford, especially considering the number of fast-growing businesses (Bruke, 2005). The logical question would be: What motivates organizations to foster and leverage the skills of women? Schwartz (1992) concisely articulates the reasoning behind endorsing the career goals of talented women, underscoring the solid business rationale for such encouragement. This includes the advantage of having the most qualified individuals in leadership roles and the provision of role models for upcoming high-potential women. Additionally, Schwartz (1992) defines the "glass ceiling" faced by young women as a subtle yet pervasive barrier preventing their ascent to senior positions. Are young women opting out of corporate careers for family reasons, and if so, does this choice contribute to long-term benefits for women, men, and businesses? Is human resource management adequately promoting women's career advancement? What organizational initiatives have proven effective in advancing women's careers, and do business schools play a significant role in this trajectory? If not, what changes are needed? What barriers hinder women's career progression, and what measures can be taken to eliminate them? According to Catalyst (1996), insights from 325 CEOs and 461 women at vice-president levels and above shed light on how women attribute their success. Factors such as "consistently exceeding performance expectations" (77%), "developing a managerial style that resonated with male counterparts" (61%), and "actively pursuing challenging or high-visibility assignments" (50%) were recognized by women as essential factors facilitating their advancement (Catalyst, 1996).

Numerous explicit and underlying factors influence the representation of women in key decision-making roles. There are societal, organizational, and individual factors. Those factors include lack of skills such as networking, assertiveness, self-confidence, self-esteem. In addition, women may opt out of top positions due to family responsibilities and the preference to minimize personal sacrifices (Bruke, 2002).

As per clinical psychotherapy experience, research, and practice (Clance, 1978) it's been found that: "**imposter phenomenon** occurs with much less frequency in men than women, and when it occurs with men it happens with much less intensity". The clinical symptoms reported most frequently include generalized anxiety, low self-esteem, a lack of confidence, depression, and frustration linked to the inability to meet self-imposed standards of achievement (Clance, 1978). The jarring statement, the assertion that the cost of employing women in top management is higher than employing men is largely accurate, yet it underscores an area that requires attention—a call to leverage the untapped potential of the other half of the world's population wisely. In fact, **career interruptions and turnover are expensive**, but how to reduce that cost? Not many have managed or bothered to answer this important question. It's understood that women are more likely to

interrupt their careers in a manner that hinders their growth and development. The financial investments that corporations make in training and development are less likely to yield top executives among women when compared to men. *Implementing hybrid and flexible working hours can save the money that corporations invested, and in practice reduce the number of turnovers in top management positions for women.* In that way women would be able to work from home and make their career interruptions less harmful for their professional progress. This, in turn would reduce the cost of maternity leave for the companies. Analyzing the cost of employment and making it work for corporations is necessary in today's fast paced environment. Corporations should cease squandering investments made in talented women and instead, strive to become more responsive to their needs. It is imperative to retain the best talent within their pool. Overall, 90% of male executives and 35% of female executives have children by the age of 40. The secret for the benefits of corporations while dealing with those women is to clear all barriers from their path to the top. *After all, the best of those women is also the best of all talents you have.* There is such a shortage of **the best people in the talent pool**, that gender can't be a factor anymore. The urge to understand women's needs and to keep them productive should be the goal of every corporation who wants to grow, because they can't afford loss on investments all the time in future (Clance, 1978). The COVID-19 crisis made remote work necessary for both the private and public sector. Moreover, modifications to working policies, such as flexible working hours, hybrid and remote work options, and paternity leave, can contribute significantly to fostering **greater inclusivity and work-life balance for all people**. Indeed, society can use this crisis in a way that helps inclusivity in decision making positions for young women.

A business culture that embraces inclusivity begins with a workforce that maintains gender balance, incorporating a critical mass of women in management and senior leadership positions. During the last 10 years there was no significant change happening to women in managerial positions. "Over 50% of women are in health and social work activities, and education" (ILO,2020). According to ILOSTAT 2020: "the share of women in middle and senior management position is 42% in the Russian Federation, 40.9% in the United States, 38.6% in Brazil, 37.1% in Singapore, 35.5% in Australia, 35.5% in Mexico, 34.9% in the United Kingdom, 34.2% in France, 33.7% in Spain, 33.3% in South Africa, 33.3% in Rwanda, 33.1% in Argentina, 32.2% in Switzerland, 28.6% in Germany, 23.3% in Italy, 19.4% in Indonesia, 17.5% in Turkey, 15.8% in United Arab Emirates, 14.5% in Japan, 13.7% in India, while the average is 29.9%" (ILOSTAT, 2020). When it comes to Europe, even though most Sustainable Development Goals are reached, advancements in gender equality have come to slowdown, particularly concerning the representation of women in decision-making roles. Currently, only 6.3% of CEO positions at major publicly listed companies are held by women. According to the available statistics, 44% of Europeans think women should take care of their homes and families. While European women are better educated than men — "44% of women under the age of 30, compared to 34% of men, obtained university degrees in 2016" — they still find themselves predominantly under-represented in

decision-making positions. Yet, women in Europe still earn 16% less than men on average across the EU. Women are also being under-represented in politics. In Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, and Malta women represent less than 20% of parliament members. A wealth of data and statistics indicates that women, constituting half of our population, lack adequate representation in decision-making positions within politics and business (European Commission, 2019). According to recent research (Selimovic *et al.*, 2021), they identify barriers for women at committees and management positions in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Those top 5 barriers include a small number of opportunities for higher positions, hardly managing to balance between families and business responsibilities, people preferring men in higher positions rather than women, lack of mentoring and lack of support from higher management. Research has been done in 42 companies in the public sector. Results show that CEO positions are dominated by men (70% men compared to 12% women, 18% missing data). Nevertheless, the authors of (Selimović *et al.*, 2021) emphasize that there are definitely more women than men who have higher education at leading positions. Therefore, B.Sc. (48% men, 64 % women), M.Sc. (21% men, 14% women), Ph.D. (5% men, 5% women). In the past 10 years, there is a growing trend of women in leading positions in Bosnia, however it's still less than 18%. (Selimović *et al.*, 2021). Obviously, for professional progress there are other things that are crucial, like networking, soft skills, and connections. In her work (Wolontis, 2016) explained which main characteristics women should have to succeed in the workplace: *proactive work behavior, work engagement, grit, ambition, determination, perfectionism, self-confidence, high performance*. Additionally, she examined 15 high performing women, who were personally connected to her, about their path to success. The conclusions drawn encompass the following aspects: “the visibility of their performance to external observers; the ease with which the performance could be assessed as either high or low level; and the objectivity of quantifying the performance”. Additionally, being identified as high performers through information on their LinkedIn profiles and feedback from their company contributed to their visibility and recognition (Wolontis, 2016).

2.2 Education, Family, Marriage, Parenting and National Culture –important determinants of the research context

“According to the laws women were absolutely free, yet they were stopped by customs” (Baron de Montesquieu, 1749).

Indeed, the lives of women and men, the relationships that they established, and their work have dramatically changed in the past 50 years. Progress is inevitable. Nevertheless, classical theories of gender roles persist and are passed down through generations. The disparity in the time allocated to childcare and household tasks between men and women has diminished over the past two decades, and experts anticipate that it will soon reach a convergence (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). **National culture** encompasses the overall attitudes, belief systems, values, and traditions of a society. In recent decades, there has

been a broader metaphorical interpretation of "culture" to denote the collective ways of acting, thinking, and feeling. It represents a collective programming of the mind that sets apart the members of one group or category of people from others. Divergences in national cultures stem from values acquired before the age of 10, as children inherit them from parents who, too, learned these values before reaching the age of ten. So, they are quite stable, and it takes generations to change them (Hofstede 1980; Hofstede *et al.*, 1990). Therefore, the influence of national culture on young women can't be avoided and denied. Tajfel and Turner (1986) define social identity as the way individuals choose to associate themselves with others who share similar demographic profiles, perspectives, and values. This also involves defining one's self based on membership in specific groups, such as gender, race, class, and occupation. Individuals are more likely to provide higher evaluations of members inside the group, compared to outsiders. This theoretical framework has been applied to delineate the exclusion of women from social networks. For example, in her work, Kanter (1977) elucidates homosocial reproduction by examining how individuals in influential positions perpetuate male-dominant power structures within companies. Furthermore, (Daily and Dalton, 1995) in their work describe how CEO's, who are mostly men, are more likely to choose male board members who share similar values, the same gender, same age, same background, and same experience. This will be further investigated in Chapter 7- Problems with biased statistics, by addressing issues related to biased statistics.

The authors (Erkut *et al.*, 2008) focus on the concept of tokenism, that refers to the fact that increasing female representation will lead to "normal society", where gender will no longer be a barrier for communication and where women directors are more likely to feel comfortable and supported. This research in (Charmaz, 2004; Strauss and Corbin, 1998) emphasizes that a particular type of woman, who is "superwoman" is the one who has successfully reached their professional potential. These women are defined as someone who: 1. "Does things in her own way, by working independently and taking the road less travelled"; 2. "She believes in herself, she is confident and she remains strong"; 3. "She is a "good girl", a perfectionist who has very high internal standards, and she has a hard time saying no to things"; 4. "She is gritty, ambitious, and determined when reaching her goals"; 5. "She goes the extra mile at work, and she is dedicated to her work, she is the one who repeatedly goes beyond what is expected of her"; 6. "She makes things happen, by working proactively and moving others forward too". The women who had been interviewed in this study; they all have this superwomen persona in themselves. They indicated having this persona either their whole life, or for a part of their life. According to the study, all of them identified more; or less having personally chosen that path because of the positive results they have been able to achieve. However, due to their choices, they suffer some negative consequences such as- having to make various sacrifices, experience stress, anxiety, loneliness, tiredness, or exhaustion.

The background and socio-economic conditions in which we are all raised has a significant influence on how certain people will behave in future. As highlighted by

(Adda *et al.*, 2017; Kleven *et al.*, 2019), this related to the so called ‘motherhood penalty’ that majority of women experience during their careers. This penalty results in mothers earning less than women without children. The authors (Koch *et al.*, 2011) noticed, while knowing that the minds of men and women are equal, who could doubt that women can do anything in this world. Let’s have a look at an example from the Harvard Business School. In the mid-1970s a meeting would be attended exclusively by men, while today around 25% of that audience would be female (Schwarz, 1989). The increasing returns from specialized human capital contribute to a division of labor in the allocation of time and investments in human capital between married men and married women (Becker, 1964). Furthermore, childcare and household activities demand significant effort, causing married women to allocate less effort to the labor market compared to married men. As a result, married women earn less than their male counterparts with similar market human capital, and *they often pursue less demanding job roles*. The domestic duties undertaken by married women significantly impact the earnings and occupational disparities between men and women (Becker, 1964). Divorce rates, fertility, and women's workforce participation rates interact in complex ways. For example, fertility tends to decrease when the likelihood of divorce becomes more prominent, and divorce rates increases because of the sex division of work within the household and the work market. Childcare becomes more difficult, and so does the fertility decline over time. The work force participation of women is affected by the divorce rates, not just because divorced women participated more fully, however married women will participate more as a protection against the financial adversity of a subsequent divorce (Becker, 1964). The nature of maternity is unchangeable, *however we can significantly minimize its impact on the workplace and, in many instances, lessen the adverse effects on employee development*. Businesses must tackle the task of mitigating gender disparities due to their requirement for diverse talents and the necessity of minimizing costs per employee. To achieve this, an analysis of factors such as behaviors, leadership styles, expectations, stereotypes, preconceptions, sexual tension and harassment, female mentoring, lateral mobility, relocation, compensation, and the early identification of top performers is imperative for sustained growth. The persistent distinction between men and women lies in maternity. Maternity is not merely the act of giving birth; rather, it represents a continuum that commences with an awareness of the biological clock. Then it proceeds to anticipation of motherhood, including pregnancy, childbirth, physical recuperation, psychological adjustment, and leads to nursing, bonding, and child rearing (Schwartz, 1989). The essential responsibility of companies in handling maternity leave is to acknowledge the importance of high-performing women and the pressing requirement to retain talent. For women who aspire to balance career and family, particularly those actively engaged in raising their children, *the key lies in offering the necessary flexibility and family support to enable them to function effectively* (Schwartz, 1989). Academics realized that flexibility and family support is necessary as early as 1989, however, still today the practice is way different. Nowadays, we see change happening in IT industry, through the introduction of flexibility and hybrid working models. Additionally, those companies are providing full family support. This allows them to create flourishing working environment and more

importantly it allows them to retain talents within their organizations. At its core, flexibility provides the liberty to take time off, whether for a few hours, a day, or a week, and enables the option to work from both home and the office through the use of communication technology. Part-time employment is seen as the best incentive for women to return to work quickly, as it offers them the opportunity to keep up with their job responsibilities, stay informed of workplace changes. Engaging in a temporarily reduced schedule has demonstrated a reduction in stress and fatigue among employees, and it often obviates the necessity for paid maternity leave by enabling them to resume work immediately after their disability leave concludes. This type of work arrangement is particularly effective when a workload can be reduced for one person in a department or when a full-time job can be divided among two individuals with different skill levels and pay rates. Shared employment is seen as the most promising and is likely to become the most common form of flexible scheduling in the future (Schwartz, 1989). When we consider that there are two types of women in the organization, those who are primarily career oriented and those who are career and family oriented, it's asserted that in order to retain their competitive advantage they must recognize the value of both types of women. Also, companies must provide a more flexible environment for both types of women to get the return of the investments from their human capital. The question is, is the cost of employing women higher compared to employing men? Yes, but what can be done to reduce the cost? What kind of mechanisms can be implemented to reduce the costs? Moreover, having in mind inclusion and improving diversity to increase the ROI- Return on investment, the workforce of the next decade will be increasingly based on women, minorities, and immigrants.

There is a shortage of excellent performers at top management positions, therefore gender cannot be limiting factor. There is huge potential for employing career and family-oriented women in middle management (Schwarz, 1989). When it comes to **education and family**, according to the Sustainable Development Goals Index, 11 of the EU members are in the worldwide top 20 (European Commission, 2019). While the gender gap in education is being closed and even reversed, this doesn't mean that true gender equality has been achieved. And the gender gap in employment, hours worked and pay still exist. "On average, women are paid approximately 16% less compared to men" (European Commission, 2019). Compassion, honesty, and authenticity are key characteristics of today's leaders and once they were considered a weakness in business, Courage, honesty, connection, compassion, energy, lifelong learning, tenacity, reinvention, generosity, and authenticity are key attributes of a new leadership style. No matter the organization, to reach their goals, leaders have to ad hoc problems in today's fast changing environment and to do so they must learn to accept diversity of perspectives, expertise, and insight. Without that, they will never move forward as fast or go as far. According to a recent University of British Columbia study, as an A-grade female high school student, you have as much access to leadership positions in your future employment as a boy with failing grades. The study also found that fathers are more likely to have supervising roles than mothers, even if mothers had higher grades in high school

and university. In fact, the study dove into whether women and men showed indication of future leadership potential earlier in adolescence and discovered that there is widespread underutilization of women's potential in the workforce when it comes to these leadership opportunities. The study also revealed the disparity that occurs after men and women become parents. *In fact, before parenthood, the relationship between high school grades and leadership is similar. Yet, after this milestone experiences vastly diverge for men and women. After they become parents, men fulfil their potential, women somehow don't.* This study is based on 5,000 participants from the U.S. born between 1957 to 1964 (Kovacevic, 2021). According to research done in Croatia, even though pre-school, primary and secondary school **education** attendance is similar for both genders, the majority of those who graduate (58,6%) are women (Ljubičić, 2014). Additionally, after graduation: "women make up 55,6% of master's degrees and 51% of doctorate degrees" (Ljubičić, 2014). It's similar in the rest of Europe. These numbers show that **education** has become gender equal, but when it comes to opportunities for high performing, decision making positions, women do not have equal opportunities. It appears that young women, upon reaching the age of 25 after graduation, are faced with the decision of either pursuing further education/career or starting a family. In fact, women don't have equal opportunity at the workplace. When it comes to men, they are not obliged to make the same choices. Men can decide to start a family much later, giving them the time to focus only on their career. Now, is it the fact that young women are forced to make a choice between **family and career** so early on, or the traditional burden of childcare and household (which is mainly left to the woman), or something else that results in a high percentage of highly educated women just disappearing from the job market, we don't know for sure. However, studies have shown that the treatment of women at the workplace led women to leave the job market. Of course, there are exceptions, like in the Nordic countries, and therefore we must study the differences to understand why they are doing so well. For example, quite often young women are asked during job interviews about their marital status and whether they plan to have children. Inappropriate questions are more often given to women (84%), while the same questions about marital status and family planning are faced by 73% of men (Nacional, 2010).

According to (Šestić et al., 2015) in the United States, the growth rate of female-owned small businesses in 2002 was twice the national average, with almost half of all American companies being owned by women. In Canada, from 1981 to 2001, the number of women entrepreneurs increased by 208%, a significant contrast to the 38% increase in male entrepreneurs. Within the European Union, 70% of women entrepreneurs not only founded but also led their own companies. In the transition countries of Central and Eastern Europe, women's economic status faces additional challenges due to reductions in the public sector, rising unemployment rates, increased employment insecurity, and a precarious state of social protection (Šestić et al., 2015). The positive side of the work from home concept during the COVID-19 pandemic has forced both men and women to be better at time management and maintaining life-work balance. In a way, they became more agile, proactive, dedicated, and committed. Due to the impact of COVID-19, all

family members stayed at home, which made working from home difficult. One of the biggest advantages for women is that it removes commuting time, meaning that the time that would be spent on commuting could be invested in additional work, health, or family time. Technological advancements made working from home possible and women could easily connect with their work. A home-based workforce saves company resources as well. From a macroeconomic perspective fewer people commuting means reductions of fossil fuels. Advantages also encompass increased productivity. The experiment conducted by Adam Grant and Nick Bloom illustrates that allowing call centers to work from home results in a 13% boost in productivity. This is due to the increased *flexibility* and lack of *micromanagement*. As the pandemic influenced an enormously large number of people, and pushed companies to *rethink flexibility*, now, more than ever, companies will need to explore the concept of a geographically dispersed workforce and reconsider how to implement it successfully (Kaushik and Guleria, 2020).

In Denmark, more than 60% of the workforce is engaged in professions where their gender constitutes 75% or more. Essentially, women are predominantly employed in the public sector, particularly in education, care, or the health sector. On the other hand, the private sector is largely dominated by men, especially in roles related to production and engineering. Gender segregation is evident across all levels of employment. Even when individuals, regardless of gender, possess similar educational backgrounds, research indicates that women are more inclined to secure employment in the public sector, while men tend to choose the private sector. Indeed, women's educational level has evolved enormously over the last 50 years. However, there are several root causes of gender segregation. *Gender segregation is partly maintained by women*, because of their preferences. The question, however, is whether these preferences are due to biology or socialization, or the place where these women grew up. Employers and employees hold preconceived notions about which gender performs certain jobs better, contributing to *discriminatory practices and stereotypes*. Undoubtedly, *different roles in the family still exist in every society* (Soercen, 2019).

2.3 Possibility for progress vs motherhood - macro aspect

Now, let's do a deep dive into the viewpoint of women aiming to balance their careers and motherhood. Researchers emphasize the significance of institutional factors, including occupational sex discrimination, childcare responsibilities, stereotypes, and gender schemes that impact the representation of women on boards in high-potential companies. The importance to acknowledge the institutionalized expectation that women should fulfil caring responsibilities represent a major barrier for women (Nelson and Levesque, 2007).

When it comes to skills and knowledge, as per (Sheridan and Milgate, 2005) the *board is losing the benefits of diversity* by not having females in board meetings. Even though women are usually praised for their emotional intelligence, we are seeing that both men

and women can exhibit this trait. However, similarly, men are praised for leadership, decision making, and rational skill, but women possess them equally. According to (Burgess and Tharenou, 2002) the analysis of Australian, US and Canadian studies finds that between 65-71% of women directors are married. Compared to the earliest years (Burke and Kurucz, 1998) just 47% of women directors were married. This example is just the beginning, and it results in much bigger problems for society. Recent research indicates that working under fixed-term contracts and facing job insecurity has a discouraging impact on **fertility** (Esping-Andersen study, 2009). Looking for a way of improvement and implementing changes, like Nordic countries did, based on previous research that it was true that the cost of employing women is greater than the cost of employing and keeping men (Schwarz,1989). Career interruptions and turnovers are truly expensive, however companies in fast paced environments, must think forward, rethink the way they treat young women. In Google in 2007, when they did research on why they have high turnover of mothers who just gave birth, they realized it's because they *ignored young women's biological needs*. Afterwards, they reduced the turnover by 50% just by adding 5 months maternity leave with all benefits included (in the United States), yet 7 weeks of paid maternity leave in the rest of the world, where they have offices (Google diversity annual report, 2021). Before 2010, companies didn't even do research on turnover of women, they did not record the issues related to maternity leave, or how many women took it and why they didn't come back (Google diversity annual report, 2021). Access to the most talented human resources is not a luxury in this age of explosive international competition, it is rather a necessity that results in retaining best talents. To do that it is essential to conduct a cost-benefit analysis, gather qualitative data on the experience of women, correlate it with their age, marital status, and presence and age of children. By accessing all these information and measuring the performance of those mothers who came back, we can make sure to create an environment in which all employees have equal opportunities. The freedom to choose either career or family, or a combination of both shouldn't be a question, yet a norm where corporations are in the long run benefiting from it (Schwarz,1989). As the pandemic hit the world, digitalization has become necessary for both the public and private sector globally. In the long term as the adoption of digital technologies will improve and become more sophisticated based on artificial intelligence, the global trends will be shifting towards more *flexibility at work*. In the work market it is preferable to offer a combination of digital and traditional face-to-face contact at the workplace (ILO, 2021).

Motherhood and family responsibilities are making a huge impact on the career development of young women. Even women with full time jobs spend more time on household work and childcare than men do (Hoyt, 2010). Society may think globally that women should take initiative to solve these logistical issues and devote some of their energy to managing their family-life balance. However, the numbers show that women who are successful in their careers are more likely to be single or childless compared to their male counterparts (Ellemers *et al.*, 2004). Women working in male dominated jobs

are often seen as “masculine”, and less likely to be chosen as potential partners (Badgett and Folbre, 2003).

The author of (Schwarz, 1989) also highlights that because some women put their career first, they make the decision to put in extra hours, to make sacrifices in their personal lives, to make the most of every opportunity for professional development. This decision also comes with the consequence of either remaining single or at least childless, or if they do have children, they must be satisfied to have others raise them. Moreover, after securing employment, young women may not assertively advocate for their accomplishments or seek higher remuneration. Studies examining gender and salaries found that men requested salary increases at a rate eight times higher than women (ILOSTAT, 2020). Women who continue to work after giving birth are often labelled as “cold” and less attractive employees than men who became fathers (Cuddy *et al.*, 2004).

Why are women less motivated for progress in their career than they are for becoming a mother? Becoming a parent is something that naturally comes to both men and women, and if women are not encouraged at work for their development, they will probably prioritize motherhood. Nevertheless, an extensive survey involving 5000 women aged over 35 years unveiled that the impact of having children is only transient. As children mature, women often return to work and make up for delays in their career development, underscoring their commitment to career advancement (Khan *et al.*, 2014). As stated in (Ellemers, 2014) there are several approaches to attain equal career opportunities for women. Hence, women can cultivate the skill of recognizing implicit biases, inquire about specific performance criteria, seek support from individuals who endorse their ambitions, and emphasize the advantages of harmonizing work and family roles. Conversely, organizations can recognize and rectify implicit bias, maintain statistics to track gender representation, promote women to articulate their ambitions, and embrace diversity as a valuable organizational asset (Ellemers, 2014). In fact, people still don't put gender equality high on their list of priorities. Problems like national or racial discrimination or financial problems are always higher on the list of priorities compared to gender equality. Therefore, women will more often than men, and further in the future be exposed to gender-based discrimination, sexual harassment by words or actions, discrimination based on pregnancy and maternity status. This leads to young women finding difficulties to fulfil their potential in the work environment.

In contrast to men, women are driven by distinct motivations. They seek support in a different manner, define success in their own unique way, perceive responsibilities and relationships differently, and approach business decisions with a distinct perspective (De Beauvoir, 1949). When it comes to career planning, biologically men and women are different. While young women, if they want a family, need to give up 2 years in the early years of their career, men have more years to focus on it. The biological differences go further. Instead of blaming the corporate world for not creating an environment for young mothers to achieve their progression in their careers, there are ways behavioral *science* can help them understand each other better and how both can contribute to each other in

different new ways. The research shows that implementing changes, trials, and new ways of working, will help on a macro level to leveraging the talent pool as well as making it possible for mothers with flexible and hybrid working strategies.

2.4 Discrepancy between the level of education and success in the career

The idea to educate women comes from the necessity for civil motherhood, where women have an important role for elevating a society. As Hutton Olwen said, “women in lower class have always been working, however division of work required different jobs for women, in sitting positions, and lower pay than men” (Hutton Olwen, 1975; Offen K., 2000). Further comments from Condorcet confirm the statements above: “You should have in mind that we are here speaking about the human rights of almost half of the earth's population” (Condorcet, 1700-1950; Offen K., 2000) In the middle of the 18th century, Madam de Montanklo raised the subject of motherhood, and she insisted that women can be both mothers and work on their careers (Madame de Montanclos, 1700-1950, Offen K., 2000). In recent decades, work markets across the world have been characterized by decreasing gender gaps as in legal regulation, as well as in practice (Stotsky *et al.*, 2016).

The functionalist, psychoanalytic, and evolutionary psychology theories presume the existence of significant gender differences in personality, ability, and **social behaviors**. Results from (Eagly and Crowley, 1986) have suggested that numerous gender differences are shaped by the social context. In essence, the assertion that women are inherently more nurturing than men. It suggests that women are more inclined to assist in certain situations, while men are more likely to help in others. For instance, women are more prone to help in the context of a long-term relationship, like a mother helping a child, but they are less likely to assist in dangerous situations, such as aiding a stranded motorist. As stated in (Barnett and Hyde, 2001), psychological gender differences are not immutable but rather they shift depending on situations. **The abilities and personality** traits necessary for specific roles are linked to historical periods and cultural norms; hence, they are subject to change with evolving experiences, expectations, and social norms. For example, involving fathers to be actively present is a central aspect of the role of a man (Christiansen and Palkovitz, 2001). When it comes to benefits of multiple roles, the first principle is that multiple roles are not harmful and are beneficial for both men and women in terms of mental health, physical health, and relationship health (Thoits, 1983). The author of (Thoits, 1983) framed it as a similar principle to the multiple identities and the identity accumulation hypothesis. When we have men involved in childcare and household activities, it would be easier for women to fulfil their potential and to have fulfilling careers.

Women who complete **higher levels of education** have a greater possibility for getting married than those who do not (Oppenheimer, 1997). Marital dissolution was the highest in couples in which the wife had no earnings (Ono, 1998). Positive experiences in the

workplace, particularly those linked to challenging tasks, counterbalance the adverse impact of child-care responsibilities on the mental health of women (Barnett *et al.*, 1992).

Research has also indicated that men experience mental health benefits when occupying multiple roles. Several studies (Farrell and Rosenberg, 1981; Lein *et al.*, 1974) have concluded that men also seek their primary emotional, personal, and spiritual gratification in their family setting (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). Data concerning fathers supports the perspective that men's family roles are pivotal for their mental and physical well-being, potentially being more crucial to their psychological state than their roles as employees (Pleck, 1985). Other research found that equal roles in the sense of sharing breadwinning offered benefits to marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives, however the benefits were slightly higher for husbands (Wilkie *et al.*, 1998). Excluding fathers from nurturing roles, by the cultural norms, not only affects working women, but it also affects all working men and denies their paternity experience. If both sexes start nurturing the existence of multiple roles, we will start seeing change withing a single generation, and both women and men would have additional roles enriching to their lives.

When it comes to trust (Bigelow and Parks, 2006) report that investors are willing to invest 300% more in men led companies compared to companies led by women. Also, the social psychology literature shows an important dimension of interpersonal influence. It introduces behaviors that enhance attractiveness for high management positions. The work in (Westphal and Stern, 2000) linked ingratiate behaviors towards their CEO, which included a survey of 1012 top managers of Forbes 500, indirectly connecting it to having more chances on joining the boards of those firms. These behaviors can help overcome barriers of a demographic minority status such as gender. Women hold fewer directorships, also have less powerful job titles, and earn less than men (Zelchowski and Bilimoria, 2004). According to (Singh *et al.*, 2008) profile human capital of FTSE 100 board appointments, finds women more likely to have MBAs and have minor board experience, and somewhat more international experience on boards. Men are more likely to have experience in CEO/COO/ MD roles and women are way less likely to be Executive Directors (3,6%), but not less likely to be business experts. As per (Hillman *et al.*, 2007) women are more likely to be influential in their community. As per (Zelchowski and Bilimoria, 2004) there are no sex differences in experience-based qualifications of boards. Executive Directors, which are mainly roles that women in managing positions get, hold less powerful corporate titles, as well as fewer multiple directorships, they occupy more staff functions, implying that women are both undervalued and underutilized on corporate boards. Additionally, women's roles have been broadened. Whilst human resource and company secretary roles continue to dominate, there is increasing varied of other roles for women, including divisional/regional CEO, MD, CFO and COO (Sealy *et al.*, 2007).

2.5 The Importance and impact of young women on society

The expansionist theory studies issues related to gender, work, men, women, and family based on several principles. First, engaging in **multiple roles** tends to be advantageous for both women and men, contributing positively to mental health, physical well-being, and the health of relationships. For women, incorporating a professional role is beneficial, while for men, including household and childcare responsibilities is also advantageous. Secondly, several mechanisms contribute to the positive effects of engaging in multiple roles, such as buffering, additional income, opportunities for success, social support, broadened frames of reference, increased self-complexity, and shared experiences. All these benefit individuals and therefore society. While multiple roles provide avenues for success, they also present opportunities for failure and frustration. This is particularly noticeable in the realms of low-wage employment, workplace discrimination, and incidents of sexual harassment. Fourth, psychological gender differences are not large. Men and women don't need to be forced into differentiated roles. Cultural norms (what is acceptable behavior and what's not) can affect the role men and women are playing. Therefore, cultural norms can stop one or another from fulfilling those experiences mentioned above. If cultural norms were to change, those principles might change as well (Barnett and Hyde, 2001).

Let's first examine the evidence on the **mental health** of women and men. An early review of American and British research in the 1980's (Warr and Parry, 1982) found that there is *no difference between employed women and homemakers on measures of psychological well-being and distress*. The authors focused on the other variables that needed to be considered, including role quality as it was explained above. The findings from Repetti et al. (1989) suggest that employment was linked to enhanced health for both single and married women who maintained a positive attitude toward work. Moreover, they observed that the effects were more consistent for physical health than for mental health. Several studies (see Aneshensel, 1984; Kandel, Davies, and Raveis, 1985) found that *employed women are less depressed than those who are unemployed*, whereas there were no significant differences between the groups in other studies (Baruch and Barnett, 1966; Repetti and Crosby, 1984). Neither study included results were employed women were more stressed than unemployed. On top of that, the author of (Crosby, 1991) concluded that women who juggle multiple roles are less depressed than other women. In a study that was conducted by the authors of (Ozer *et al.*, 1998) 300 primarily white and middle-class, full-time employed dual-earner American couples were interviewed three times in a 2-year period. The authors were mainly interested in the question of how the father's involvement in childcare was associated with either partner's **marital-role quality or psychological distress**. The predictions derived from psychoanalytic or sociobiological/evolutionary theories would suggest that men would only engage in childcare tasks under specific conditions (e.g., when the wife is ill), or that higher involvement would have negative effects because it was deemed unnatural and therefore stressful. Contrary to these predictions, the results revealed that husbands who

became more involved in childcare-related tasks reported lower psychological distress. Interestingly, on the other hand, the relative participation of husbands was not linked to their reports of their own marital quality. However, when compared with wives whose husbands participated less, *wives whose husbands were highly participatory reported higher marital quality and less distress* (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). Wethington and Kessler, 1989 (as stated in Barnett and Hyde, 2001) examined changes in the work force and effects on depression long term. Over a span of three years, *women who reduced their hours of paid employment from full-time to low part-time (i.e., between 10-19 hours per week) or transitioned to homemaking reported an increase in symptoms of depression.* (Barnett and Hyde, 2001). Generally, the comparison between different countries is difficult because of different sets of measures. In other words, different culture and different economic regulations and laws can have unpredictable effects on the overall situation (see Kang *et al.*, 2007, Joy, 2008, and Burgess and Tharenou 2002).

Women as **role models in society** are crucial for further development and improvement of diversity inside large organizations. According to the authors of (Sealy and Singh, 2006) women directors are an important part of others work identity development. When it comes to boards made up of only men, the problem is in the homogeneity of their thought process (Mazneviski, 1994). Women have a different experience at the workplace, market, public services, and society, and therefore women directors bring different voices to debates and decision-making issues (Zelechowski and Bilimoria, 2004). When examining behaviors inside the boards in the engineering and IT sector, directors say that male groups tend to miss a lot of details that women would pick up. Other comments were that in the presence of women, men directors change their language, they become more civilized, and somehow more moderate with their masculinity. In their view, this leads to a more effective performance (Singh, 2008).

A consistent finding is showing that the bigger the organization is, the greater is the number of female directors (Sealy *et al.*, 2007; Hayland and Marcellino, 2002; Brammer *et al.*, 2007; Singh, 2008). “Moving forward, the examination of 353 Fortune 500 companies between 1996-2000 indicates that the 88 with the highest representation of women on top management teams experienced *significantly higher return on equity* and total return to shareholders, compared to the 89 companies with the lowest women’s representation” (Catalyst, 2004). This is exploring the connection between the **positive influence of gender diversity** inside the companies and profit growth. Furthermore, several theories about social identity explore how individuals seek to surround themselves with people who share similar demographic profiles, perspectives, and values (Terjesen *et al.*, 2009). Hence, social identity theory describes how individuals define themselves according to their membership in certain groups such as gender, race, class, and occupation (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). In the theory of intergroup conflict or “realistic group conflict theory”, the authors contend that individuals derive a sense of self-worth and social belonging from their affiliations with groups. Therefore, they are motivated to establish positive comparisons between their own group and others. In this sense, the

theoretical explanation is to add towards understanding of the psychological aspects of social change, to understand that **social change** can't be achieved without a proper analysis of the social psychology.

2.6 The Importance and impact of young women on the economy

Nowadays, more studies are starting to examine this topic, such as (Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009; Lyness and Judiesch, 2014), and it's creating unconscious biases at the workplace. By introducing **diversity and inclusion**, this barrier will be removed among certain groups, and it will benefit the corporate world by **increasing return on equity**. Recognizing the importance of a diverse workforce is becoming increasingly instrumental in enhancing company performance, and it is an imperative that organizations can no longer afford to overlook. Diversity is leveraged through inclusion, hence, central to the discourse on diversity is in the principle of fairness and justice. Arguably, when organizations and corporations invest in diversity, they gain economically (Nair N.,Vohra., 2015). Hence, behavioral science consistently reveals that people's conclusions about gender differences in career ambitions due to family obligations reflect biased expectations. In a study of (Lyness and Judiesch, 2014), the authors examined over 40,000 men and women in 36 countries. The results of this research suggest that men and women reported similar experiences in achieving a work-life balance, and these findings were consistent across various countries. However, supervisors tended to perceive women as less capable of effectively juggling work and family responsibilities, particularly in societies with low gender equality. This perspective is thought to significantly influence performance assessments and decisions related to promotions. When women perceive that their career advancement is hindered by family responsibilities, it tends to influence their choices, causing them to prioritize family over their careers. Therefore, the continuation of gender biases leads to the loss of motivation for a lot of women. In conclusion, the expectations of others affect the priorities that people set for themselves. This may not necessarily indicate enduring personal preferences, an inherent conflict between work and family life, or biologically predetermined gender distinctions. Through time **situational influences** can have an impact on people's career choices and their motivation. It is therefore important to keep in mind that changing the way we approach people might cause them to reevaluate their priorities. Indeed, this can have a real effect on people's lives and organizational performances.

A recent study by (Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009) considered situational influences on people, by examining nearly 20.000 employees in one international financial-service institution in the United States. It showed that employees predominantly perceived the blending of work and family roles as a means of personal enrichment and mutual support. Employees reported being more satisfied and more committed to work. In addition, all those employees who experienced both roles objectively improved their work performance (reduced absenteeism, and increased sales volume). Physical health

was also shown to improve (body mass index, and cardio-fitness). In this study, after adjusting for pertinent background variables like working hours, the number of children, or childcare arrangements, women were more inclined to express that the integration of work and family roles enriches their life experience. The beneficial effects of work–family support on well-being, physical health, and work performance were more evident among women than men. Consequently, men may not feel obligated to make an exclusive choice between their professional careers and family lives. Now the question is whether others have a role in how women perceive the combination of work and family roles?

*The support provided by supervisors played a crucial role in shaping whether the intersection of work and family life was perceived as conflicting or mutually enriching, as noted by Van Steenbergen and Ellemers in 2009. Moreover, the significance of support from supervisors surpassed that of support from partners at home. The research indicates that when colleagues at the workplace highlight the challenges linked to balancing work and family responsibilities, it triggers negative thoughts and emotions, diminishing the perceived capability to manage these dual roles. Nevertheless, when individuals emphasize the advantages of integrating work and family life, employees express more positive thoughts and emotions, and feel capable of managing the challenges associated with balancing their professional careers and family lives (Van Steenbergen *et al.*, 2008).*

There are different forms of “invisible barriers” that women can encounter at work, such as “sticky floor”, “leaky pipeline”, or “maternal wall” with “glass ceiling” representing the most widely used term (Bruckmüller *et al.*, 2013). These “invisible” barriers might stem from organizational cultures, expectations, and daily practices that inadvertently prioritize men over women. Even systems that appear to prioritize individual performance above everything else can exhibit such effects (Teelken and Deem, 2013).

When considering the impact of young women on the economy, diversity scholars use resource dependency theory to argue that in increasingly complex and uncertain environments it is crucial to include prestige, legitimacy, financing, industrial/functional/geographic knowledge, and diversity. As per (Hilman *et al.*, 2007), women’s representation on boards is connected to organization size, industry type, firm diversification strategy and networking. To achieve economic growth and prosperity, society needs improvement, meaning it needs change, i.e., change in practice, change in developing and using human capital. As per the European Human Capital Index, Italy and Germany are confronting significant challenges as they permit their human capital to stagnate due to high workforce exclusion and persistent underinvestment in education and training, leading to potential serious consequences. That, in turn, will have devastating consequences on citizens of those countries. Citizens of Italy and Germany could find themselves with up to 50% lower gross domestic product per head, than people in Sweden, Ireland, and the UK by 2030 (Peer E. 2020).

Reducing differences in salaries between sexes will also reduce poverty. In other words, equal salaries are not just a question of justice, as salaries are affecting opportunities for

investing, spending, and improving the social system, as well as the GDP (European Commission, 2019). Despite the improvement, women are still receiving less money for the same effort and more women are unemployed than men (EFSA, 2021). Gender equality is a concern for every society. It represents fundamental rights, as well as an internationally agreed Sustainable Development Goals. Ensuring gender balance in politics and the workplace is a fundamental aspect of fostering stable and transparent democracies. This not only spurs economic development but also enhances overall well-being, fostering a more inclusive and equitable system. Ultimately this leads to more egalitarian society (European Commission, 2019).

The study about “high-performing systems”; is a phrase used to describe and refer to human systems that perform at a higher level of excellence. In a way that will lead to better efficiency and productivity of a human capital for the long term. Now, what is an excellently performing human system? The simplest example can be a team, for example in the car manufacturing industry. A team is high performing if, in a certain period of time, they can produce faster and better than others in the same field. The development criteria are that they are performing better in relation to where they were earlier. Also, they are judged on their performance to do substantially better than others. Yet, they are doing whatever they are doing with significantly less resources, in less time. They are the individuals who have managed to accomplish their tasks, even though their actions might appear uncomplicated or seem mysterious to others. Delightful thing about high-performing systems, that they can be compared to humans, therefore women. There are firm beliefs of a “right organizational form”, and obviously a noticeable amount of effort is devoted to attaining and maintaining this form, unconditionally. Such a way of doing business doesn’t allow faster changes inside the organization. For humans to perform like an excellent system, certain needs must be fulfilled. As a comparison, leaders as high performing systems, as highlighted by the author Peter B.Vaill, express the importance of time and focus with feeling that only the best ones have managed to mix it all in. If a young professional woman has her basic needs fulfilled, she can give herself 100% to her work. She can put her time, focus and feelings into the work (Peter B. Vaill, 1982).

2.7 Problems with biased statistics

In research about turnover in failing firms, authors emphasize that CEO’s who are mostly men due to **social networking and social cohesion** are more likely to choose mainly male board members who are the same age, with the same background and same experience (Daily and Dalton, 1995). This kind of **unconscious bias** affects women at the workplace and creates unconscious mistakes towards women.

Research shows that during the COVID-19 pandemic, the number of women who claimed that they had to do more household and family duties was much larger compared to male respondents (45% women and 28% men). However, both men and women felt more stress during COVID-19 (Selimović *et al.*, 2021). The pandemic is taught companies that the

McGregor Theory Y model is the right model to use. This model operates on the belief that by recruiting the appropriate individuals and providing them with the necessary tools, they will consistently make the right decisions. The Style Y reflects a **culture of trust**, emphasizing that trust is the essential element for success in the present circumstances. On the other hand, the model X is based on the belief of managers and supervisors that nothing can be done without micromanaging and always watching the employees closely (Kaushik and Guleria, 2020).

As shown in the study by Castillo and Bernard (Castilla and Bernard, 2010), men are more likely to receive rewards. It appears that mostly men are the ones who are being recommended for bonuses, promotions, and it happens despite equal performance. The discrimination against women is not alleviated when there is reduced emphasis on individual merit. However, surveys in the United States reveal that around 90% of companies use a merit system for promotion (Heneman and Werner, 2005). This leads to unintentionally making biases by following guidelines that emphasize individual merit. Contemporary society grapples with pervasive **gender stereotypes** that prove difficult to escape. Remarkably, this extends into the realm of entrepreneurship, where investors seemingly favor pitches from men over identical proposals put forth by women. The prevalence of such biases underscores the ongoing challenges in achieving gender equality in various professional spheres (Brooks *et al.*, 2014). Scientists too are unable to judge objectively among their workers mostly due to **unconscious biases**. When the identical candidate was presented as John instead of Jennifer, both male and female senior scientists exhibited a greater inclination to hire, mentor, and propose higher pay. This suggests a bias in favor of male candidates in the evaluation process (Moss-Racusin *et al.*, 2012). Nevertheless (Bigelow and Parks, 2006) report that investors are willing to invest 300% more in men-led firms than female-led firms.

By regularly observing prevalent societal patterns, individuals form implicit associations about the expected behaviors of women and men. For example, women are often more readily associated with family, whereas men are more easily linked to careers (Ellemers, 2015). More and more big tech companies recognize the importance of unconscious biases as they are introducing techniques on informing people about those implicit biases and providing them with training and learning on how to prevent unconscious biases at the workplace (Google, 2021). As elucidated by Ellemers in 2014, meticulous consideration of unintentional unconscious biases is essential at every stage when formulating procedures and policies for Human Resources, strategic management, or labor legislation. It underscores the importance of a comprehensive approach to minimize the impact of biases on decision-making processes within these frameworks. Addressing unconscious biases becomes crucial for promoting fairness and equity in organizational practices. Accordingly, men and women are expected to meet identical performance standards. Nevertheless, women face additional challenges on their career path, requiring greater determination than their male counterparts to attain their professional objectives. Therefore mentoring, guidance and other support can be crucial in maintaining their

ambition (Ellemers,2014).

3. CASE STUDY – NORDIC COUNTRIES VS UNITED STATES, EUROPE, AND THE REST OF THE WORLD - POSITIVE VS NEGATIVE EXAMPLES

The Case Study will be based on an instrumental case study methodology in which the comparison of Nordic countries will be presented as positive examples and compared with negative examples mainly from the United States, Europe, and the rest of the world. The case study will provide insights into the subject. The treatment of young women at the workplace via this instrumental case study method will be explored in depth, comparing cases in different countries, identifying patterns of behaviors based on other research studies. This case study does not permit generalization; however, it does attempt to identify patterns and themes and compare these with other cases. In this way, the case study will explore in the treatment of young women at workplace in depth. The purpose of this case study is for readers to see transferability of behaviors, situations, certain implementations of changes at the workplace and the results achieved from those changes. It is based on a qualitative analysis.

Generally, when it comes to the treatment of young women at work, we can talk about three different interpretations of equality (Saunders ,1990):

1. Legal or formal equality.
2. Equality of opportunity.
3. Equality of outcome.

These three factors will be elaborated through examples of Nordic countries, the United States, Europe, and the rest of the world throughout the rest of the thesis.

When it comes to differences between how the Nordic countries are treating people at the workplace and how the rest of the world is doing it, the relevant variables in this case study are going to be examined. Specifically, we will examine new perspectives of long-term orientations of countries, referring to differences of group (rather than individuals) behaviors. We will focus on different variables, such as **working hours, number of children, paternity and maternity leaves, childcare arrangements, elderly care, job security, stress caused because of uncertainty at the workplace, paid leave, training and development, overall legal differences, and implementation of those laws in practice**. Above all, the impact of these factors on private life, and crucially the understanding that human capital requires a different approach from the corporate world. Elaborating quality of life, benefits the workplace in different countries. Combining proper work-life balance leads to beneficial effects in terms of productivity in the long run and improves the well-being and mental health. Thus, support must be mutual for

both companies and women to not necessarily have to make a choice between family and career.

3.1 Legal or formal equality

Establishing **gender-inclusive policies and practices** is crucial to provide equal opportunities and counteract any form of discrimination or bias against both men and women. These measures contribute to fostering a more equitable and inclusive environment in various settings. Implementing such policies is key to promoting diversity and ensuring fairness in opportunity distribution. There are countries that implemented quotas to increase the number of women in decision making positions. For instance, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Norway were quite successful in it. Therefore, in the United Kingdom, the former trade minister Lord Davies, set a target of 25% women in the 100 largest companies listed by the London Stock Exchange. Legislation was enacted by the government, mandating companies to publicly disclose on an annual basis the figures for female and male board directors, senior managers, and total employees within their organization. This objective was largely attained by 2016. The government set a target of 33% representation of women on board by 2020 for the 350 largest businesses on the FTSE. Compared to 2011 when the representation of women on boards of FTSE was 12,5% this is a major success when it comes to inclusivity. In Australia, women represented 19.4% of board members among 200 largest companies listed by Australian Securities Exchange in 2015. Yet, the government set the target to increase that number to 30%, by the end of 2018. Furthermore, the Australian Council of Superannuation Investors, a collective body representing institutional investors and global asset owners, instituted a strategy to cast dissenting votes for companies lacking female directors in their boards. As a result, in December 2019 Australia reached their goal of 30% female board members. Also, Australia is one of the few countries that has made considerable progress in including women in decision making positions. Both government and non-government bodies were working towards this target. Another bright example is Kenya. Since 2012, the Kenyan Constitution mandates that businesses ensure their boards consist of no more than two-thirds of members from a single gender. This legal provision aims to promote gender diversity and equity within corporate governance structures. According to a Nairobi Securities Exchange report, the proportion of female representation in boardrooms was 21% in 2017, compared to 14% in 2012.

Discussions on gender quotas for company boards are widespread. Advocates contend that quotas serve as an effective measure to enhance the equitable distribution of talent in the labor market. Especially in confronting systemic issues of discrimination and inequalities that have led to the under-representation of women in crucial decision-making positions, quotas can play a significant role. Moreover, **quotas may generate positive externalities**, with female leaders serving as role models, inspiring and motivating more women to pursue education, careers, and leadership opportunities. Past instances demonstrated that, from an equity standpoint, quotas can effectively boost the

representation of women on corporate boards. Detractors contend that such affirmative action undermines meritocracy and may result in less efficient outcomes. Quotas may imply that women can be less qualified than potential male candidates when joining boards on the decision-making positions which can lead to bad decisions. Alternatively, considering equity, quotas may overshadow other minority groups, recognizing that gender is just one aspect of diversity.

Norway delivered a noticeable increase of women on boards from approximately 6% in 2002 to 40% in 2008. Norway was the first country globally to adopt gender quotas (ILO, 2021). Legislated quotas have been implemented in European nations like Belgium, France, Germany, Iceland, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, and Sweden, as well as in other regions globally, including Israel and India. Quotas have also been adopted in Quebec, Canada, and the State of California, USA. Research indicates that the introduction of quotas did not necessarily result in more women occupying directorship roles but rather led to an increase in women serving on multiple boards, a phenomenon often referred to as "golden skirts" (Huse, 2011). Research also shows that shortly after the quota was implemented in Norway, several companies delisted from the stock exchange. During the same period, research also shows that Norwegian companies choose to register in the UK rather than Norway.

In 2007, Spain was the first country in the European Union to introduce quotas. However, unlike Norway and Australia, Spain introduced "soft" quotas. This means that the government recommends to all large public and private companies to designate at least 40% of each gender on company boards by 2015. As a result of that 9% of all companies complied with these quotas. Overall, increasing efforts and raising awareness in terms of gender discrimination leads to improving the number of women on decision-making positions. Spain opposed quotas, emphasizing that the selection of board members should be grounded in merit, capacity, and the competitive interest of the company. Nonetheless, Spain has been actively advocating for the advancement of women's careers (ILO, 2021).

"Voluntary targets didn't work in France, misogyny in business is just like racism and sometimes this is very difficult to realize" - (Branson, 2018). "Improvement without a law is so slow that we cannot stay doing nothing" (Parisot, 2011) France's push to increase the number of women in decision-making positions has transformed its boardrooms. In 2018, the leading French companies listed on the stock exchange boasted an average board composition with 44% female representation. Compared to 2010, when this figure was approximately 10%. Implementing the law quotas in Italy, the government said that they don't want to waste female talent anymore. The implementation of mandated quotas in these countries has demonstrated the effectiveness of legislation, fines, and sanctions in rapidly elevating the representation of women in decision-making positions. The results underscore the impact of proactive measures in fostering gender diversity. Such initiatives serve as valuable lessons for promoting equal opportunities in leadership roles.

Research papers like (Kirsch, 2018; Hughes, 2017; Terjesen *et al.*, 2015; Seierstad *et al.*, 2017; Sweigart Anne, 2012; Comi S., Grasseni M., Origo F., and Pagani L., 2019; Pande, Rohini and Ford D., 2011; Buckley F., Mariani M., 2021; Teigen, 2012) revealed inconclusive outcome results of quotas. Furthermore, results showed that there are positive effects on firm's profit. Until today more and more countries followed Norway's way of implementing quotas. The Norwegian government implemented quotas of required 40% women on decision making positions (Hoel, 2008), as well as Spain government, followed with India, China, Tunisia, and Jordan who started to recognize the importance of developing female talent up to board level (Gheaus, 2008). "Therefore, some of the EU countries have adopted national mandatory gender quotas for listed companies (Belgium, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, Portugal, Greece, the Netherlands). Ten have taken a softer approach, using a range of measures and initiatives (Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Spain, Luxembourg, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden). The remaining nine countries have not taken substantial action (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia)" (Siebold, 2022).

At first in 2003 Norway implementing quotas was considered controversial, then by the beginning of 2018, ten European countries had introduced them as well. This had positive cultural consequences and provided a new perspective on long versus short-term orientation for one country as explained in (Hofstede, 1991; Minkov, 2007). Despite all cons, the boardroom quotas that Norway has enforced since 2008, raised the presence of women in the boardrooms of publicly listed companies dramatically and that led these firms to develop new institutional capacities. Also, an international comparison reveals that in Europe the gender gap is closing, and many factors indicate that female participation in the labor force is very strong. The overall participation of women in the workforce is 45% (Sweigart, 2012). Interestingly countries with more women on their corporate boards such as Norway, Sweden and Iceland have also more women in senior management positions (Terjesen *et al.*, 2009). This implies that societies with more egalitarian attitudes toward placing women in higher position will have more women on boards in the future. Finland also has non mandatory, however popularly supported government targets for women board membership (Sweigart, 2012).

In the United States quotas on women are not implemented despite a large amount of research that has been done. Therefore, the number of women on boards is stagnating or changing imperceptibly. As (Sweigart, 2012) concluded the United States have similar potential to benefit from quotas, even though they do not have formal mechanisms like Norway to implement quotas. Considering the experience of Norway, Finland and Germany *quotas are the only proven method of advancing women into boardrooms in large numbers*. The introduction of quotas can create a perception of tokenism, making it challenging to dispel these expectations even in subsequent years. Over time, the lingering impact of such perceptions may persist, affecting the perception of genuine equality. Eradicating these expectations becomes particularly difficult as they become

ingrained over the years following the implementation of quotas. There will always be a question in people's mind if a certain person got the position only because of quotas. However, there is a chance that once the quotas are in place and more women fill the high management positions, the "visibility" factor from tokenism will be removed and stereotypes that surround perceptions of female managers may disappear. Despite the recent research, the exact effects of implementing quotas will be known only after several generations (Sweigart, 2012).

When it comes to the environment and industries, several studies present correlations between specific industries and the increased number of female directors. For example, retail, media, health care, banking, and finance (Hayland and Marcellino, 2002; Brammer *et al.*, 2007; Sealy *et al.*, 2007; Hillman *et al.*, 2007) are positive examples. In New Zealand for instance, there are only 1600 companies with more than 100 employees, and the number of women in decision making positions is only 7 %. On top of that 63 of the top 100 companies don't have any women on their boards (Terjesen *et al.*, 2009). However, in the public sector in New Zealand, women hold over 35% of board positions. In such an environment quota may help to reduce unconscious biases at the workplace. As it was presented above, women's representation in leadership positions is an important issue for policy makers.

3.2 Equal opportunity

When it comes to women in Nordic countries, they do have a **social safety net**. As Paul Krugman suggested, both equality of opportunity and equality of outcome are linked together. Society should be created by hard working and talented humans, and they should get rewarded for their efforts, however there should be a "social safety net" created by taxes to help the less fortunate (Krugman, 2011). Surely it is hard to argue that a person should be held responsible for the consequences of growing up in a home of poorly educated parents. Therefore, the equal opportunity approach is the right one when it comes to creating social policy, and it corresponds to what most individuals intuitively believe. In other words, a person should be compensated for certain kinds of bad luck (Roemer, 2002). John Rawls in his Theory of justice in 1971 (Rawls, 1973) explains that all economically and socially privileged positions must be open to all people equally. As Rawls further explains, the only reason for inequality between doctors' salaries and grocery clerks is only acceptable if this is the only way to encourage the training of sufficient number of doctors, to prevent unacceptable decline in the availability of medical care (Rawls, 1973).

On the other hand, Milton Friedman (Cole, 2008) tends to see equality of outcome negatively, as he argues that any effort to cause equal outcomes would necessarily and unfortunately involve coercion by the government. Concluding that striving for equality leads to leaving society without equality and opportunity. That evidence of benefits from utilitarianism is neither simple nor self-evident. We can see the benefits in today's Nordic

countries, as well as in Canada as they followed and implemented social policies of Nordic countries.

When it comes to **core social values** Nordic countries are not strange and different. On the contrary, they are leading the way. All other advanced nations are slowly moving in the same direction. Studies have been conducted about Sweden since the 1980's and the whole world is moving in the same direction as Sweden (Partanen, 2018). Statistics indicate that parents in Sweden with children born before 2014 are entitled to share and utilize 480 days of paid parental leave (approximately 16 months) in flexible increments until the child reaches the age of eight (Partanen, 2018). In Norway paid parental leave is 12 months with additional one year of leave for each birth. However, if one parent oversees children, then that parent is getting both years. Other people who care for the child may also be entitled for parental leave. In Finland paid parental leave is for 5 months for each parent. According to the UNICEF report, countries that have the best benefits of maternity leave are Sweden, Norway, Iceland, Estonia, and Portugal. In Portugal maternity leave is 4 months and it's fully paid (UNICEF, 2019). In the United States people have 3 months of unpaid parental leave (US Department of Labor, 2022).

Finland is also experimenting with **working hours**. As per the law regulation, nowadays they are working on implementing a 4-day work week or a 6-hour workday as standard for all firms in the private and public sector. Working hours in Norway are not exceeding 37,5 per week, because of the Working Environment Act that everything above 40 hours per week is considered as overtime. According to ILO 2021 the typical working week in Europe is 40 hours per week. However, some countries are exceeding it, with Romania and Bulgaria reaching 40.5 hours (EUROSTAT, 2022). The United States are completely different. Data reveals that in the late 19th century, the average workweek in the United States was estimated to be over 60 hours. In contrast, today, the average hours worked in the United States have reduced to around 33 hours (US Department of Labor, 2022). The New Economics Foundation suggests transitioning to a 21-hour workweek to tackle various issues such as unemployment, high carbon emissions, low well-being, entrenched inequalities, overworking, family care challenges, and the overall shortage of free time. In the United States, numerous professional workers exceed the standard 33-hour workweek. Particularly in industries like investment banking and large law firms, a 33-hour workweek is viewed as insufficient and may lead to job loss or hinder career advancement (US Department of Labor, 2022).

When it comes to **childcare arrangements** in the Nordic countries, it is universal, high quality and government subsidized. Conversely in the United States and the rest parts of Europe, it's not universal, leading to segregation among children from their early age. This creates a smaller pool of educated talents, comparing to Nordic countries where all children have an equal start, no matter who their parents are and what they are doing. The government is taking that burden off the parents' shoulders. The line between work and family has become blurred. Childcare becomes a huge challenge for parents in some parts of Europe, and the United States.

Job security in the Nordic countries is also very specific. The current Covid-19 pandemic and accompanying health and economic crisis had severe effects on job security in Europe. For sure it accelerated digitalization and automation and increased the use of artificial intelligence. Many of these changes will outlive the current crisis. However, in the future it may generate new challenges.

When it comes to Europe atypical work patterns were progressively replacing traditional full time work contracts. The Eurostat figures shows the proportion of temporary employment, freelancers and part time workers increased progressively. Economic and demographic changes, such as rising life expectancy and falling fertility rates in Europe were already impacting healthcare, social services, and pensions, also implying problems for financial sustainability of social protection provisions. In Finland, since the pandemic started, 60% of the population was **working from home**, which ensured continuity for many sectors and saved many people's jobs. As for the rest of Europe approximately 37% of population were working from home (European Parliament, 2021). Furthermore, reports from the World Economic Forum state that globally 84% of employers are set to move quickly to digitalize working processes, including moving their 44% workforce to remote work (World Economic Formu, 2020).

As per **demographic changes** in Europe according to forecasts and the past 20 years, the workforce is getting smaller, and the changing age structure of the population is putting pension system under pressure. This leads to the conclusion that many women in Europe are deciding not to have children. Also, in August 2019 the European Parliament introduced a set of legislative measures to foster better work-life balance for both parents, and to make more equal sharing of parental leave to ensure that women are able to continually pursue their careers (European Parliament, 2021).

3.3 Equality of outcome

Equality of outcomes matters in terms of personal well-being and wealth as it has a strong impact on the average life expectancy. This means that wealthier people tend to live longer than poorer people. As previously highlighted, in egalitarian societies, like in the Nordic countries' nations have fewer problems with societal issues such as mental health, teen pregnancy, violence, and other social problems. Implementing quotas today in Norway, Australia, France, Spain, and other countries in one way also creates equality of outcome. As we already pointed out in this research, human capital requires special attention and a different approach, compared to managing other types of resources. Therefore, what the Nordic countries already managed to learn and implement in practice in terms of removing barriers for women and ensuring that they fulfill their potential, leads to practical presentations of equality of outcome. Additionally, by removing all kinds of barriers that are somehow preventing women from pursuing the same kind of opportunities and careers as men, countries will reach equality of outcome.

Overall, opening all sectors of employment to women in the last 50 years doesn't mean equality is reached. For example, not offering women or denying them paid pregnancy leave, immediately doesn't mean equality of opportunity is there for women. In case of gender, as Anne Phillips emphasizes, advocating for the intrinsic desirability of equality of outcome, it is posited that our lives would experience enrichment and increased freedom in a scenario where there are minimal differences between the sexes in the distribution of income, time, or roles. The researcher contends that striving for such parity can lead to a more fulfilling and liberated societal existence (Phillips, 2004). Nordic executives, despite earning less than their global counterparts, exhibit a lack of urgency in seeking employment abroad. Many prioritize a superior quality of life over the prospect of a higher income, reflecting a distinct preference for lifestyle considerations in their career choices. Of course, there are notable exceptions (Anu Partanen, 2018). Klettner stated that the discussion about quotas and targets revolves around this question: "Is it best to prescribe outcomes and force compliance or suggest outcomes and permit flexibility around their achievement?" The research in (Klettner *et al.*, 2016) shows that the key factor is to assure companies are working towards cultural change.

When it comes to *transparency* in Norway, since 2002 the income of every single taxpayer has been publicly displayed and it is searchable online. This tolerance for transparency and spirit of openness may never be possible in the United States. Looking back, Norway has a history of social inclusion via the use of quotas. "Norway was among the first countries to enfranchise women in 1913. Also in 1981, Norway elected its first women prime minister, who promptly filled eight of her eighteen cabinets posts with women." Norway averages approximately 36% women in its parliament, which is more than double the worldwide average. By the 1980s, Norway enacted the Act of Equal Opportunity which required 40% of both genders to be present in public boards. Therefore, all these pioneering advancements through history set Norway into the place to be first to implement gender quotas in the world.

As the author of (Khaushik, 2020) recommended, adjusting to the new work from home in the corporate world after Covid-19 requires that people get updated on technology, design thinking, analytics, storytelling, artificial intelligence etc. Furthermore, availability of technology at home is crucial to fulfill jobs which include the need of a laptop, desktop, helpful software, a good internet connection, webcams for video conferencing and the knowledge to use all that. Additionally, humans need a separate working environment at home which allows them to work without disturbance. One of the recommendations is to follow working schedules, without overworking, and having effective time management. Looking back to the time of the industrial revolution when humans were considered just as any other resource, today's firm's perspectives and therefore strategies are moving further into understanding specific personal needs and treating humans as humans and not machines. When we make division between private and professional life, it psychologically tires humans by making them **surface acting** every day. Faking emotions at work tires people. While expressing positive emotions in

service interactions contributes to customer satisfaction, employees may not always genuinely feel positive. Consequently, to adhere to display rules and avoid incongruence, they may engage in surface acting (modifying facial expressions) and deep acting (modifying inner feelings), which have been identified as reliable predictors of stress (Grandey, 2017).

4. SURVEY IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

This chapter provides an analytical overview of the survey conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The survey investigates the macro aspects related to possibilities for progress in terms of career and motherhood and its effects on the world economy.

4.1 Methodology

The goal of this research is to identify the key factors affecting the professional progress of young women in B&H. The survey itself represents the third part of the master thesis, with an internal goal to collect data about the treatment of young women at the workplace in Bosnia and Herzegovina. To reach the goal of the survey, empirical research was focus on collecting data about work experience, ambition, opportunities, the causes of the absence of opportunities, support from family, support from organization, as well to find out possible mechanisms for creating better work-life balance. Survey was conducted as third part of thesis. Major goal of the survey is to collect information about treatment of young women at work in Bosnia and Herzegovina. When determining questions for this survey, major goal was to dive deep and get data on why young women leave the workplace and never come back. When it comes to data and research on retention, we can see clearly that women are those who don't come back to workplace. Considering major shift in education, this question is even more interesting today, why educated women choose not to work. Through this survey we wanted to get data on how women are treated at workplace. When forming questionnaire every question was specifically designed to dive deep and get the real answers. Additionally, via survey we wanted to get feedback and learn where companies and governments are failing, therefore extracted data can be potentially used for change.

The research was conducted in the period from March-May 2022, and in that process 443 answers was collected. The study involved female participants aged 20 to 60, who had at least one year of work experience, employed in different industries and in different positions. The preference was on participants who are mothers, but it was not a mandatory requirement.

4.2 Methods for data collections

The research used a cross-sectional design. Surveys were sent out through various social media platforms (LinkedIn, Facebook, Instagram) and a certain number of responses were obtained using the snowball technique. Participation was voluntary and all questions were compulsory. The respondents came from across the country.

4.3 Data processing methods

All the data collected in the survey were entered in electronic data bases (including Excel, Google Sheet, and Numbers). The analysis was conducted through various data processing techniques by leveraging functions available in these three applications. Depending on the variable types, different approaches have been taken to understand the main causes of the analyzed processes. This further resulted in a detailed analysis of various statistical parameters that are imported to the topic at hand. For all discrete variables the average values and trends were captured. At the same time all categorical variables were analyzed by presenting the percentages of the available options. The analysis of open-ended questions was performed by encoding the answers and categorizing them, which allowed for a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the provided answers. This approach allowed us to study the statistics relevant to the research question related to the main causes resulting in the fact that young women in B&H lack the opportunities or decide not to take advantage of the opportunities for professional development. The analysis includes the whole collected dataset, which includes 443 surveyed women. The analysis focused on quantifying the frequency of all provided answers from the whole dataset. The frequencies for discrete variables were presented as histograms and numeric values. A word cloud generator was used to study the answers provided to the open-ended questions. Pie charts were used to depict the distribution of answers per category.

4.4 Limitations

A certain statistical bias is always expected during the data collection process. The data was collected through Google forms, by sharing the link on social media. The respondents needed basic digital skills and technology literacy to complete the survey, which would skew the statistics towards educated and employed women.

4.5 Results

Before we start analyzing the results of the survey it is important to understand the structure of the survey respondents (i.e., age, background, education, occupation).

Table 1 Age of respondents

How old are you?	Percentages	Number of answers
20-30	23.5%	104
31-40	51.2%	227
41-50	19.4%	86
51-60	5.2%	23
60 and above	0.7%	3
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

Table 1 shows the age of the survey respondents. The table clearly shows that 51.1% of surveyed woman are between 31-40 years old, 23.6% are between 20-30 years old, 19.4% are in a range of 41-50 years old, and 5.2% are aged between 51-60. Only 0.7% are older than 60.

Table 2 Current Employment Status of respondents

Current Employment Status	Percentages	Number of answers
Unemployed	6.3%	28
Employed	91.4%	405
Self-employed	2.3%	10
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

As shown in Table 2, 91.4% of the 443 surveyed women are employed. Only 6.3% of them are unemployed, and only 2.3% of them are self-employed.

Furthermore, the occupation of all surveyed women is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Occupation of respondents

Occupation	Percentages	Number of answers
Economist	34.6%	153

Administrative Officer	11.5%	51
Professor	9.7%	43
Lawyer	6.1%	27
IT	5.4%	24
Nurse	2.9%	13
Doctor of medicine	2.7%	12
Teacher	2.5%	11
Pharmacist	2.0%	9
Journalist	2.0%	9
Social worker	1.4%	6
Chief cook	1.1%	5
Chemical engineer	1.1%	5
Architect	1.1%	5
Dentist	1.1%	5
Others	14.7%	65
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

The open-ended answers were categorized into 58 groups for analysis. Then a quantitative analysis of each group was performed, and the results are displayed in Chart 3. The chart also shows the respondents' occupations by size and frequency. The rest of the occupations 'Others' were specified individually below.

The categorization includes all major categories that involve more than 5 respondents with the same answer, and occupations that accounted for less than 5 responses are categorized under the "other" label. The "other" label in Table 3, includes professions like: Site manager, Director of travel agency, Geodesy engineer, Project assistant, Copywriter, Security guard, Physiotherapist, Academic assistant, Chemist, Housewife, Technician, Confectioner, Film maker, Waiter, Arranger, Tourist technician, Public Affair worker, General director, Biologist, Piano professor, Telecommunication engineer, Laboratory assistant, Consultant, Supervisor, Geneticist, Professional trainer,

Defectologist, Tailor, Civil engineer, Mechanical engineer, Support agent, Nutritionist, Translator, Call agent, Hairdresser, Student, Food technologist, Customer support, Psychologist, Criminologist.

When it comes to the Economist section the following occupations are involved: Economists, Financial manager, Managers, Tax Advisors, Management Specialists, Talent Acquisition Specialists, Financial Accountant, Bankers, Sales Advisors, HR Specialist, Sales Development Specialist, IT/ Marketing, Digital Managers, Marketing Managers, Brand Managers, Project Managers, Associates, Credit Analysts, Operations Manager, HR Managers, PR Managers, Analyst. Out of all the surveyed women, all of them that fall into this category hold a bachelor's or master's degree, except for 1 Marketing Manager, 1 Banker, and 1 Sales Manager which hold a high school degree. The IT category includes Engineers, Program managers, Software developers, Software engineers, Programmers. Additionally, besides a Doctor of Medicine, and a Doctor of Dental Medicine, one of the surveyed women is a scientist/researcher.

The authors of (Čaušević and Zlotrg, 2011) highlighted that generic usage of masculine nouns is very common and that most people believe that masculine nouns are neutral in society (however this is not necessarily true). These nouns are considered to include women, even though they violate gender equality. If masculine and feminine nouns already exist in certain language (meaning feminine nouns, suffixes etc.) there is no reason (except ideologically) for women to stay invisible. In the case of the survey conducted as part of this chapter (it was conducted in Bosnian), the language allows the usage of gender-neutral language or feminine nouns. With that in mind, it is easy to avoid discrimination and include all people. However, it still requires a bit of creativity and mindful talking, which can be changed over time if we pay attention to it. Considering all this, it is interesting to notice that in the survey conducted here only 41 out of the 443 surveyed women used *gender sensitive language* to describe their occupation. It is important to say that Bosnian language allows usage of female gender nouns, and it is also allowed (and recommended) to use either gender-neutral language or female when necessary. However, a huge majority, 402 women responded in male gender nouns. Out of the 41 women that used female nouns, there were 10 nurses, 4 journalists, 5 teachers, 2 hairdressers, 2 chief cooks, 1 housewife. In total, that means that 24 feminine nouns were used for occupations that are commonly referred to as female dominated occupations.

Table 4 Educational attainment

Educational Attainment:	Percentage	Number of answers
High school	21.4%	95
Higher education	4.3%	19

BSc Bachelor	40.9%	181
Master's degree or MBA	31.8%	141
Doctorate	1.6%	7
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

When it comes to education, Table 4 clearly shows that 41% of women have a bachelor's degree and 31.8% of surveyed women have a master's degree or an MBA. 21.4% of surveyed women have a high school degree, while only 4.3% women have higher education. This 4.3% refers to women with a degree higher than a high school degree, but lower than an actual college degree. 1.6% of the respondents have a doctorate degree.

Table 5 Number of women having children

Do you have children?	Percentages	Number of answers
No	28.4%	126
Yes	71.6%	317
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

Table 5 shows the percentage of women with children. From Table 5 the numbers are clearly in favor of women with children with 71.4% of women having children, while 28.6% don't have children. Table 6 provides an age breakdown of the children for all surveyed women.

Table 6 Specified age for each child

Age for each child	First child	Second child	Third child	Fourth child
0-5	110	67	20	3
6-11	102	66	8	2
12-17	56	31	7	0
18-23	27	21	1	0
24-29	14	6	0	0

30-35	4	3	1	0
36 and above	0	0	0	0
Total answers:	313	194	37	5
Percentages:	98.74%	61.20%	11.67%	1.58%

Source: Author of master's thesis

Table 7 Level of work position

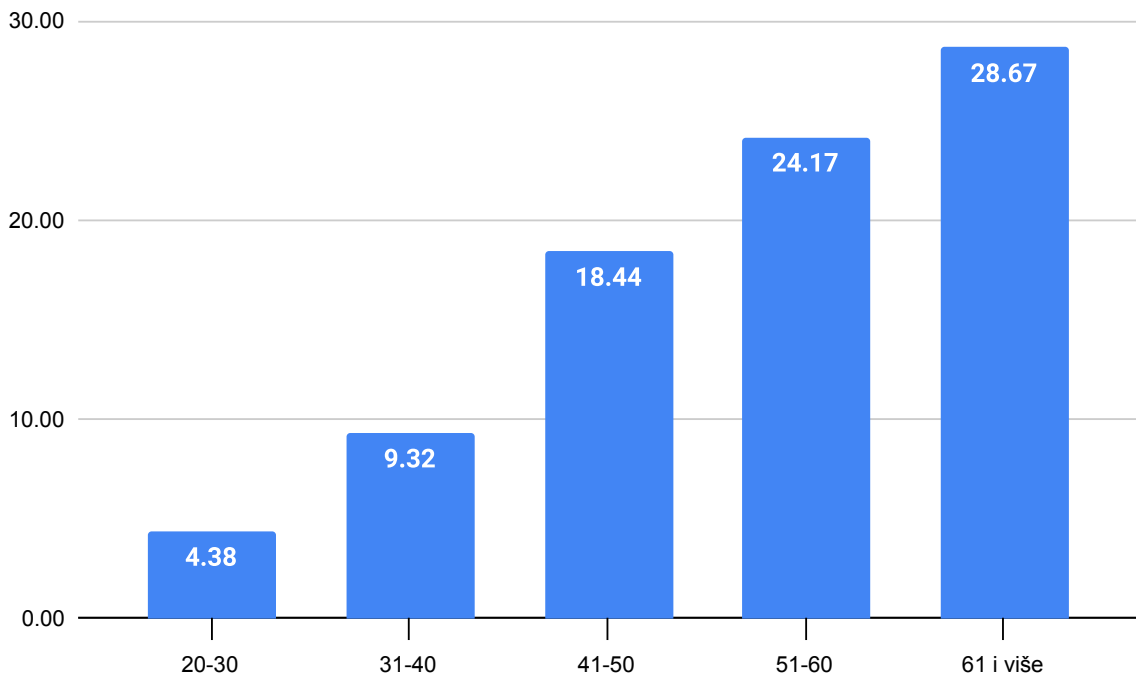
Please select which level describe your job position?	Percentages	Number of answers
Administrative and technical support	25.73%	114
Lower level of management	15.58%	69
Middle level of management	32.51%	144
Top level of management	16.48%	73
Academic, Teaching or Research Staff	7.45%	33
Doctors	2.26%	10
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

Table 7 provides information on the type of position that our respondents hold. It clearly illustrates that from the total number of respondents 114 (25.73%) women fall into the category of administrative and technical support. Also, 69 (15.58%) women fall into the category of Lower-level management. On the other hand, 144 (32.51%) women fall into the category of Middle-level management, and 73 (16.48%) women into the category of Top-level management. The Academic, Teaching or Research Staff category includes 33 (7.45%) women. The Doctors category includes 10 (2.26%) women, from which 6 Doctors of Medicine, 3 Dentists, and 1 Veterinarian.

In addition to the information on the positions that the respondents hold it is important to get a better overview of the years of experience. Figure 1 depicts the amount of total work experience for each age group.

Figure 1 Total years of experience as per respondents age

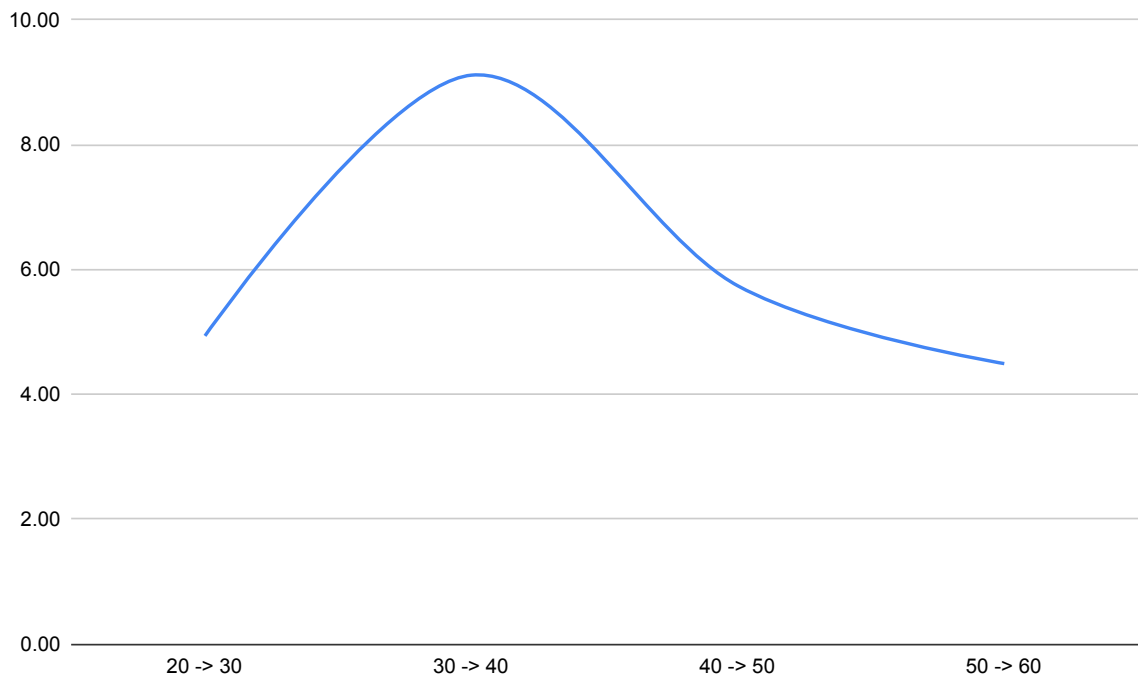


Source: Author of master's thesis

According to Figure 1 on average women aged between 20-30 years have 4.38 years of work experience, women between 31-40 years of age have on average 9.32 years of total work experience. As expected, the number of years of work experience grows with age, so women aged between 41-50 years have on average 18.44 years of total work experience, and women between 51-60 years of age have on average 24.17 years of total work experience. Lastly, women older than 61 have on average 28.68 years of total work experience.

Figure 2 provides a different look at the same data related to the number of years of experience in relation to the age. A closer look at the figure raises the question of what is happening with the growing work experience between the age 41 to 50. Within that age group, because of different reasons, the growth slows down and even declines. In other words, women in that age group didn't fulfill their professional potential. Reasons for this can be late education because of the war that hit that specific age group, impossibility for employment, loss of years of work experience, withdrawing from the market because of family duties, not coming back to the work market after taking on family responsibilities, or completely withdrawing from the workplace.

Figure 2 Display of the average function of total work experience regarding to their age



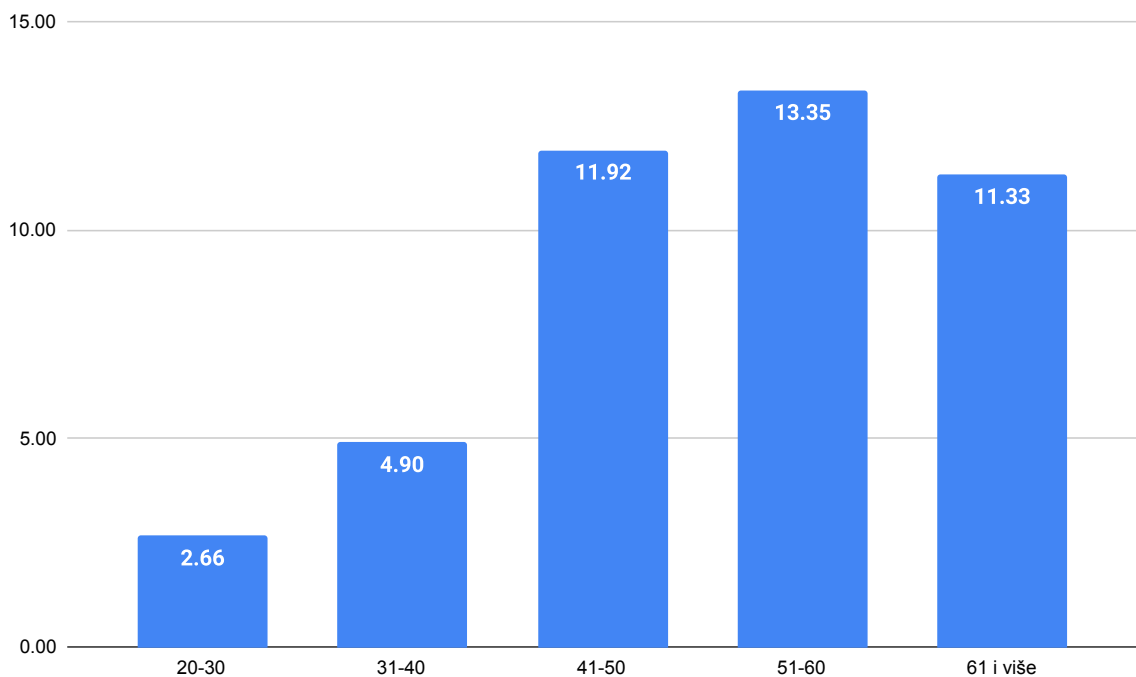
Source: Author of master's thesis

Furthermore, when it comes to the total years of work experience, out of 443 women in the survey, 3.6% or 16 women in total have only 1 year of work experience. While 2.9% or 13 women in total have 2 years of work experience, 6.8% or 30 women have 3 years of work experience. 21 women or 4.7% out of surveyed women have 4 years of work experience, 10.6% or 47 women in total have 5 years of work experience. 6 years of work experience was reported by 6.5% or 29 women, and 7 years of work experience by 5.2% or 23 women. The total of 8 years of work experience was reported by 6.1% or 27 women, 9 years of work experience by 4.5% or 20 women, 10 years of work experience by 6.8% or 30 women, 11 years of work experience by 3.6% or 16 women, 12 years of work experience by 5.2% or 23 women, 13 years of work experience by 2.3% or 10 women, 14 years of work experience by 3.4% or 15 women, 15 years of work experience by 7.7% or 30 women, 16 years of work experience by 1.4% or 6 women, 17 years of work experience by 2% or 9 women, 18 years of work experience by 1.1% or 5 women, 19 years of work experience by 0.9% or 4 women, 20 years of work experience by 3.2% or 14 women, and 21 years of work experience was reported by 1.4% or 6 women. A total of 22 years of experience was reported by 1.1% or 5 women, 23 years of experience by 0.9% or 4 women, 24 years of work experience by 1.1% or 5 women, 25 years of work experience by 2.9% or 13 women, 27 years of work experience by 1.4% or 6 women, a total of 28 years of work experience by 0.7% or 3 women, 29 years of work experience by 0.5% or 2 women, and 30 years of work experience was reported by 0.9% or 4 women.

Only 1 woman reported 31 years of work experience, and 1 more 35 years of work experience. In total we have 1 woman with 40 years of work experience.

Figure 3 shows the number of years that the women examined in the survey have spent in their current positions. The answers are again categorized according to the previously mentioned age groups.

Figure 3 Average years of work experience within current position with regards to their age



Source: Author of master's thesis

A detailed analysis of the collected data shows that 95 women (21.4% from all examined) are one year in their current work position, 56 women (12.6%) are 2 years in their current work position, 49 women (11%) are 3 years, and 40 women (9 % of all examined) are 4 years in their current work position. Also, 30 women (6.8%) are 5 years in their current work position, while 31 women (7%) are 6 years in their current work position. 3.6% out of all examined or 16 women in total are 7 years in their current work position. Furthermore, 12 women (2.7%) are 8 years in their current work position, 11 women (2.5%) are 9 years in their current work position, 17 women (3.8%) are 10 years in their current work position, 11 women (2.5%) are 11 years in their current work position, and 12 women (2.7%) are 12 years in their current work position. Further, 5 women (1.1%) are 13 years in their current work position, 7 women (1.6%) are 14 years in their current work position, and 13 women (2.9%) are 15 years in their current work position. Also, 4 women (0.9%) are 16 years in their current work position, 5 women (1.1%) are 17 years in their current work position, 3 women (0.7%) are 18 years in their current work position, 10 women (2.3%) are 20 years in their current work position, 4 women (0.9%) are 21

years in their current work position, 1 woman (0.2%) is 22 years in her current work position. Lastly, 3 women (0.7%) are 25 years on their current work position, 2 women (0.5%) are 27 years in their current work position, 3 women (0.7%) are 29 years in their current work position.

From total 443 women that participated in the survey, 437 women provided answers about the sector they work in. These sectors are divided into public, private, or non-governmental. The results are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8 Sector of work

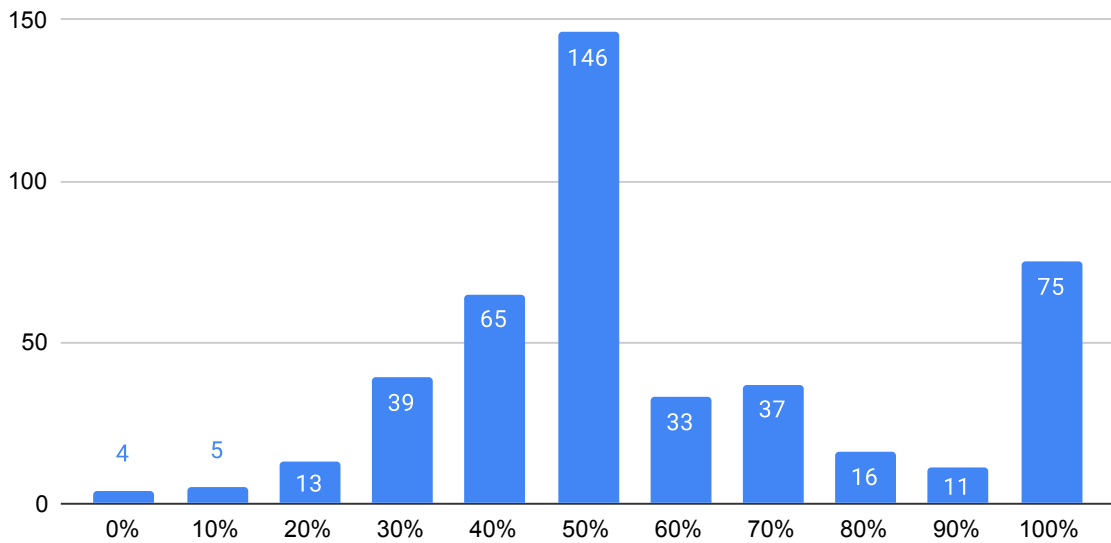
Are you working in public, private or non-governmental sector?	Percentages	Number of answers
Private sector	62.7%	274
Public sector	33%	144
Non-governmental	4.3%	19
Total:	100%	437

Source: Author of master's thesis

Table 8 shows that 274 women (62.6% of all surveyed participants) works in the private sector. Another 144 women (32.9%) work in the public sector. Lastly, 19 women (4.6%) are working the non-governmental sector.

Figure 4 provides information about the share of the household income that is generated by the woman's salary.

Figure 4 Income participation of surveyed women in total household income



Source: Author of master's thesis

A closer look at Figure 4 reveals that a small percentage of the participants does not contribute to the household income at all. To be more precisely, only 4 women, which is 0.90% of all participants does not contribute to the household income. At the same time, there is a significant number of participants that contribute less than 50%: 5 women (or 1.13% of all women interviewed) participate with 10 %, 13 women (or 2.93%) participate with 20%, 39 women (or 8.80%) participate with 30%, and 65 women (or 14.67%) participate with 40% in total household income. A significantly higher percentage of the interviewed women participate with 50% or more to the total household income. As shown above, 146 women (or 32.96%) participate with 50%, 33 women (or 7.45%) participate with 60%, 37 women (or 8.35%) participate with 70%, 16 women (or 3.61%) participate with 80%, 11 women (or 2.48%) participate 90% in total household income. Lastly, 75 women (or 16.93%) are the solely contributor to the total household income.

Considering the bias involved in the collection of this survey, especially the fact that mainly educated women with at least basic technological knowledge were involved, the numbers above are quite concerning. The number of women that participate with less than 50% in the total household income is still too large.

Table 9 summarizes the question related to professional progress opportunities. As shown in Table 9, the surveyed women had a wide range of answers to pick from.

Table 9 Opportunities for professional progress

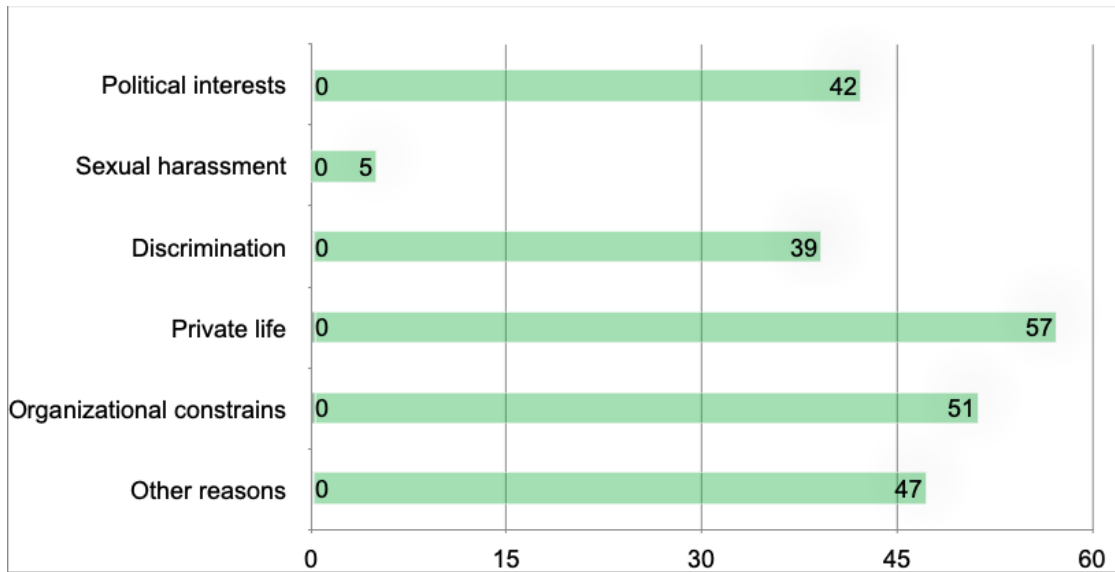
Did you have any opportunity for professional progress during your career?	Percentage	Number of answers
I had a lot of opportunities	12%	54
I had opportunity; however, I wasn't interested	7%	29
I was creating opportunities for myself	24%	107
I got one opportunity, and I used it	23%	101
I never got opportunity	22%	100
There was a lot of opportunities, however I never got one	12%	52
Total:	100%	443

Source: Author of master's thesis

Let us have a closer look at the chosen answers from Table 9. From the total 443 surveyed women, 54 women (or 12 %) said that they had a lot of opportunities for progress in their life. Comparatively, 29 women (or 7%) said they had a lot of opportunities but that they weren't interested. In contrast, 107 women (or 24%) said that they were creating opportunities for themselves. A large number, or more precisely 101 women (23%) said that they got only one opportunity, and they used it. A concerning number of 100 women (or 22%) said they never got an opportunity, and 52 of them (or 12%) reported that there was a lot of opportunities, however they never got one.

A further analysis was conducted to understand the reasons for the lack of opportunity of the respondents that chose this response from Table 9. The surveyed women elaborated circumstances that they believe were reasons for the absence of opportunity and their responses are shown in Figure 5. This question in the survey was an open-ended question allowing the respondents to list the reasons that they believe had the biggest effect on the lack of opportunity. For analytical purposes all the answers were categorized into 6 categories. A quantitative analysis of all those categories was performed and the results are presented in Figure 5. A total of 241 answers was provided for this question.

Figure 5 Reasons for not having opportunity for professional progress



Source: Author of master's thesis

The figure clearly shows that more than half of the responses can be labeled with Political interests, sexual harassment, discrimination, private life, and organizational constraints. Nevertheless, 42 women (or 20.50% of all respondents) reported that political interests were the main reason for the lack of opportunities. An encouraging small number of respondents, 5 women (or 2.4%) reported sexual harassment as the main reason. Additionally, 39 women (or 19%) reported discrimination, 57 women (or 27.80%) reported private life, 51 women (or 24.9%) reported organizational constraints, such as stagnation inside the organization, absenteeism, stealing, sabotages, physical or verbal aggression, or something similar as the main reason for the lack of opportunities. Besides that, 47 women (or 22.9%) reported various other reasons for the lack of opportunity for progress. The answers that were categorized under the “other” category are presented in Table 10. For analytical purposes all the answers were categorized into 6 categories. Respondents were able to give multiple answers. For higher accuracy coding was conducted by 2 persons. Therefore, via coding process answers were summarized and presented below. A quantitative and qualitative analysis of all those categories is presented in Table 10.

Table 10 Overview of coding certain categories in the process of qualitative analysis of open-ended answers

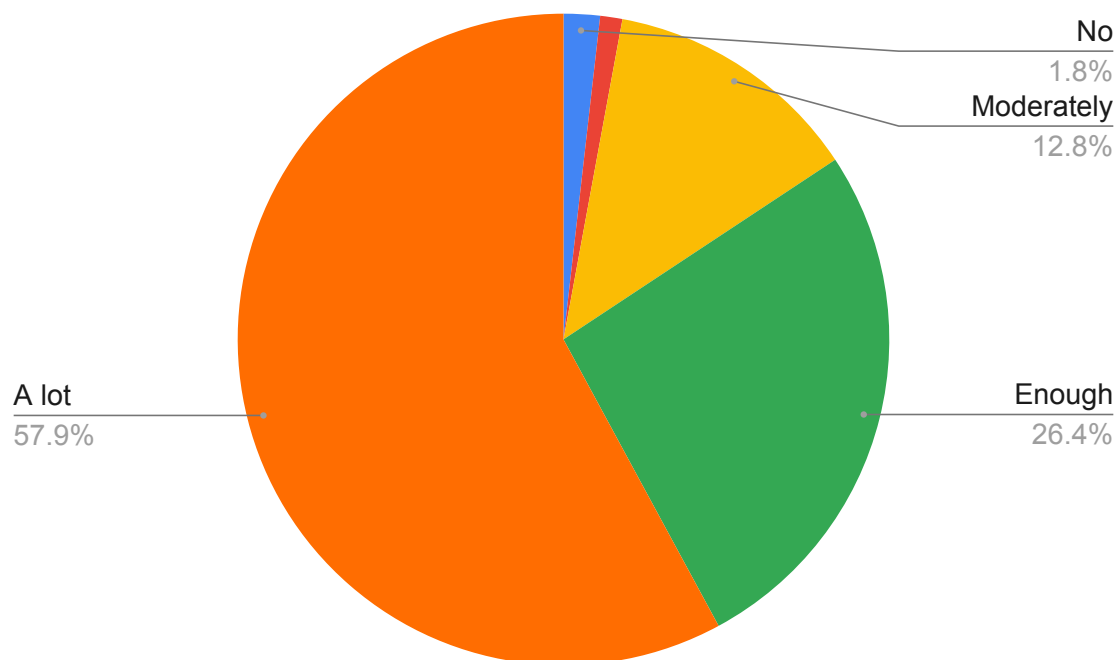
Category	DESCRIPTION OF CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION OF SUB-CATEGORY	Number of answers
1	Organizational constraints	1.1.	Lack of mechanisms that supports work-life balance	11
		1.2.	Lack of quotas	3
		1.3.	Lack of training and development programs	8
		1.4.	There is no space for improvement, company is not growing	30
2	Reasons connected to workplace	2.1.	Lack of support from colleagues	17
		2.2.	Toxic environment	10
3	Private responsibilities	3.1.	Childcare	11
		3.2.	Other family duties	8
		3.3.	Lack of partner support towards women career/ professional development	15
4	Discrimination	4.1.	Social norms	35
		4.2.	Mobbing	2
		4.3.	Stereotypes – division on male and female jobs	5
		4.4.	Sexism	28
		4.5.	Sexual harassment	3
		4.6.	Stereotypical belief that women will give up of their	6

			career because of motherhood	
		4.7.	Pregnancy followed by dismissal	5
		4.8.	Treating pregnant women as cost of the company	8
5	Systemic problems	5.1.	Lack of legal regulation	15
		5.2.	Implementing mandatory paternity leave	6
		5.3.	Corruption	15
		5.4.	Awareness of existing women rights	7
		5.5.	Nepotism	19
6	Lack of interest	6.1.	Lack of interest	5
			Total number of women who answered on this question	47

Source: Author of master's thesis

Figure 6 provides information on the family support that the respondents received in relation to their professional development.

Figure 6 Family support towards professional development

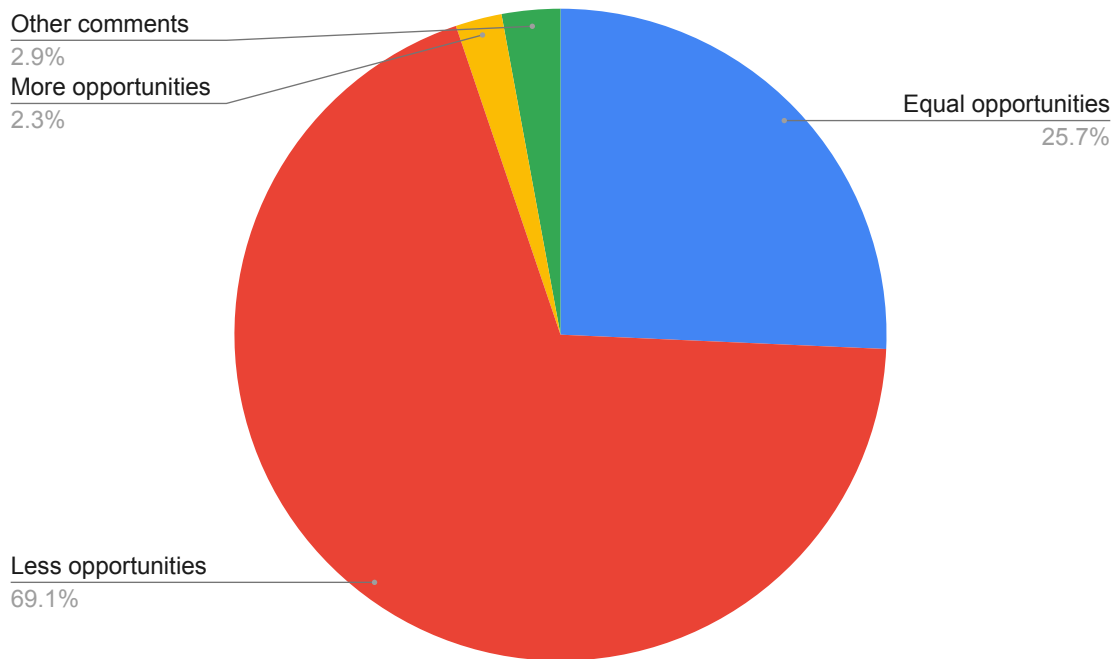


Source: Author of master's thesis

The numbers in Figure 6 are very encouraging. 257 women (or 57.9% of all interviewed women) reported that their family was supportive a lot with their professional achievements. Also, 117 women (or 26.4%) consider their families were supportive enough with their professional achievements. Additionally, 57 women (or 12.8%) consider their families were moderately supportive with their professional achievements. Only 5 women (or 1.8%) reported that their families were minimally supportive with their professional achievements. Also, 8 women (or 2%) women consider their family was not supportive with their professional achievements.

Furthermore, in relation to the opportunities, the women were asked whether they believe they have equal work opportunities like men. The results are presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7 Do women consider having equal work opportunities like men



Source: Author of master's thesis

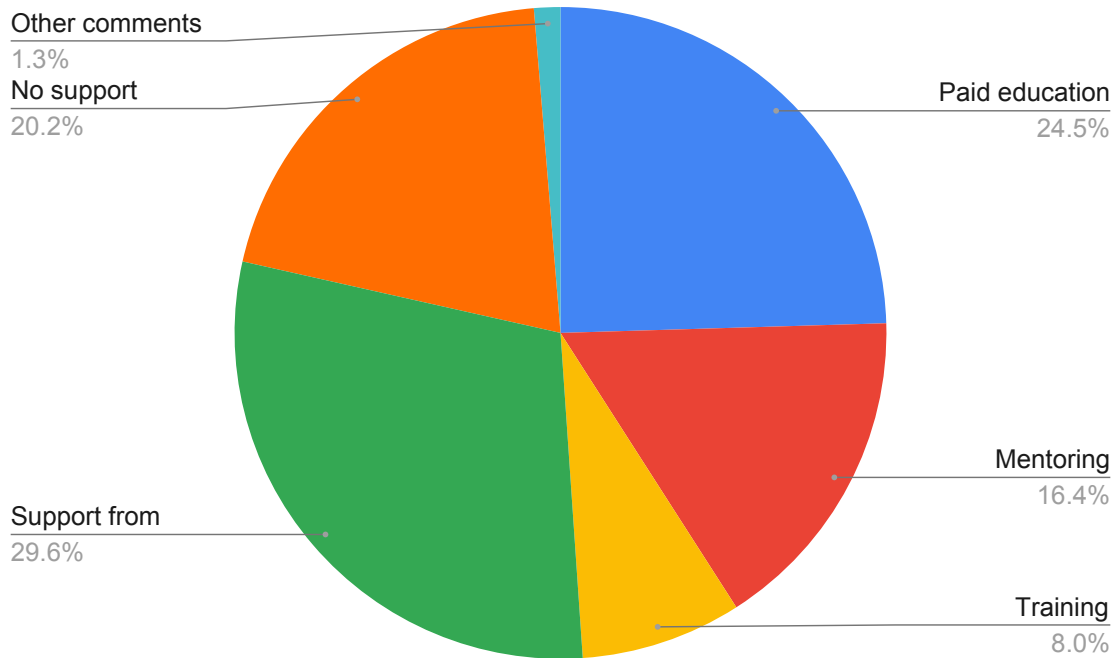
Interestingly, according to Figure 7 69.1% of surveyed women believe that women have less opportunities than men. In contrast, 114 women (or 25.7%) believe that women have equal opportunities like men. Only, 10 women (or 2.3%) believe that women have more opportunities than men. Another 13 women (or 2.9%) expressed their beliefs with additional comments. Those comments are summarized below:

«Women in IT have equal opportunities; however, I am not sure about other sectors; Women today have opportunity to learn and upskill themselves via internet. Knowledge is there for everyone on tip of your fingers, support groups, volunteering, and internship programs. Also, plenty of work can be found remotely; It depends in which environments one works; If we want to grow professionally mainly based on our effort, there is less opportunities; It depends on the job positions itself, also sector and company that one work for; Considering where we live, culturally and stereotypically, majority people believe women place is in the house still. Because of that even though women and men have equal opportunities, not all women have support from their family, spouses, and surroundings. When men are developing in his career, everyone will encourage his work. While women are having careers, household work and childcare as well. Quite often in society, if woman is not taking care of household and children she would often be considered as bad mother. «

Figure 8 emphasizes the support from companies in the development of their female employees. Women could choose more options and add other kind of support they had.

Again, we categorized the answers and performed a quantitative analysis for visualization purposes.

Figure 8 Support from companies in women professional development



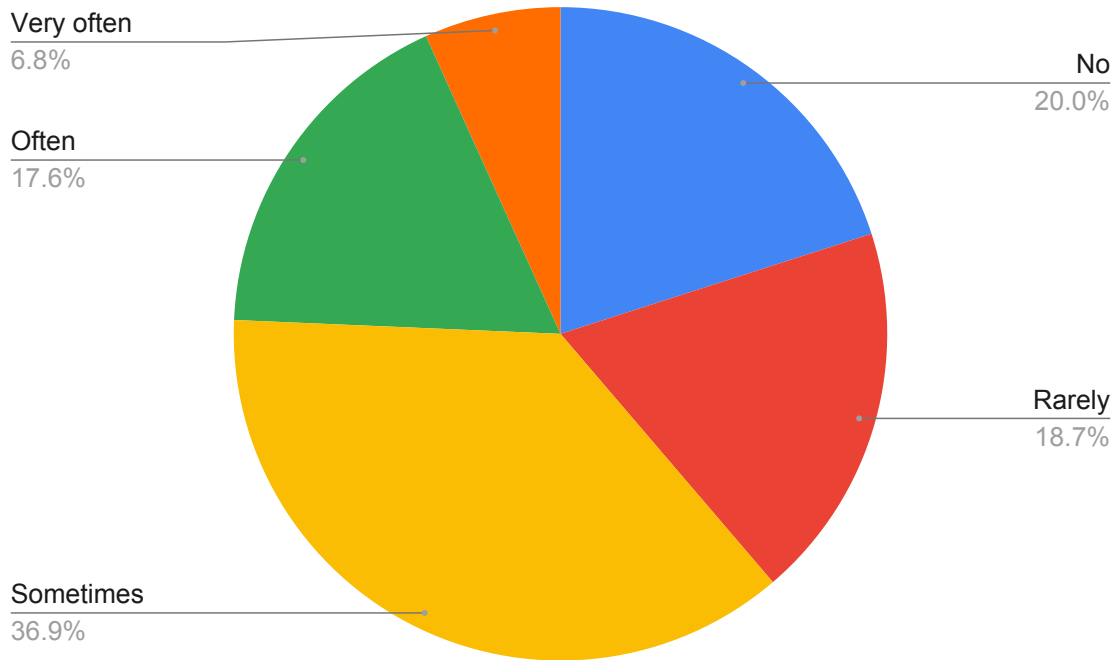
Source: Author of master's thesis

Figure 8 shows that from the total 443 respondents 169 women (or 24.5%) received support through paid education. Also, 113 women (16.4%) reported that they had mentoring support. While 55 women (8%) reported that they had support from their companies for training, 204 women (29.6%) reported that they had only support from their colleagues and supervisors. Shockingly, 139 women (or 20.2%) reported that they had no support at all from the companies that they work for. Lastly, 9 women (1.3%) provided additional comments, expressing the ways companies supported their professional development. These comments are summarized below:

“In some companies that I worked for I had played educations; however, those education certificates could only be used in that company. Those certificates couldn't help me or be mentioned as a reference. Also, my job description was different that the one I had in agreement with company. In practice I did more and much important duties, than that was written in papers. And my employer had that kind of “agreement” in one copy only for himself just in case something went wrong. Another woman said she now has mentor and education programs; however, she didn't have that in companies that she worked for before; I had support only from my closest colleagues, the rest were only sabotaging me; They believed in me, I never misused their trust, I worked hard; I had several paid educations; Company paid for my specialization; I am my own boss.”

Figure 9 reports the statistics on the obstructions experienced from colleagues and supervisors as experienced by the surveyed women.

Figure 9 Obstructions from colleagues and supervisors during career development

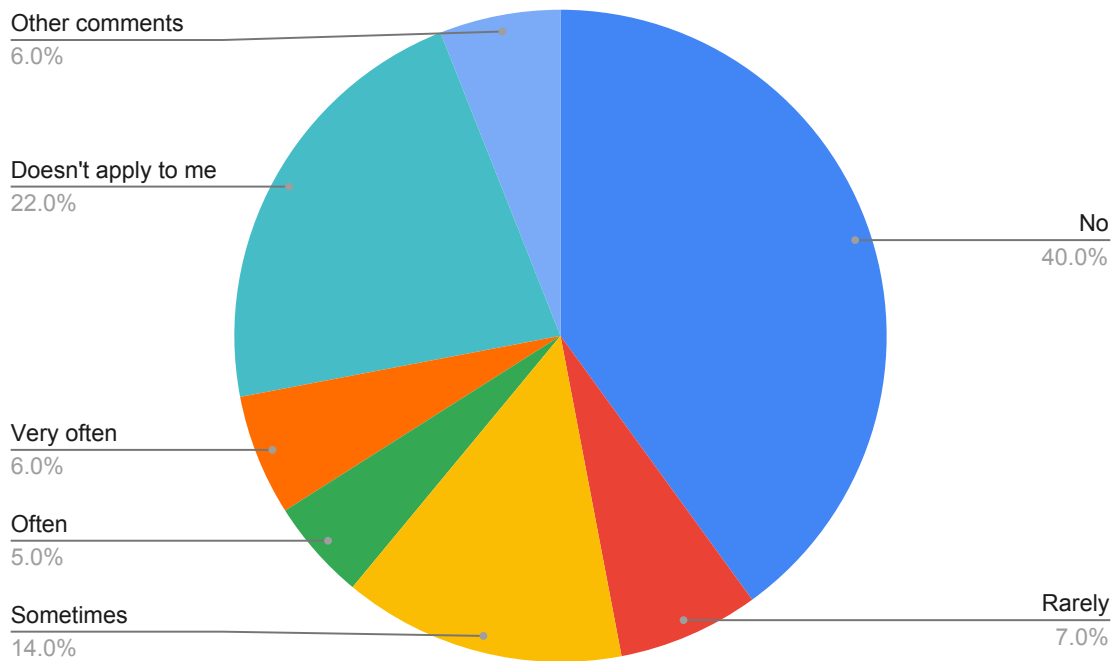


Source: Author of master's thesis

As shown in Figure 9, 89 women (or 20%) reported that they didn't experience any obstructions from their colleagues or supervisors related to their career progress. Also, 83 women (or 18.7%) reported that the obstructions are rare, 164 women (or 36.9%) reported that they faced obstructions sometimes, while 78 women (or 17.6%) reported that they had to deal with obstructions more often. Lastly, worryingly 30 women (or 6.8%) reported that they had to deal with obstructions from their colleagues or supervisors very often.

Our respondents provided answers about the pressure experienced from colleagues and supervisors related to motherhood.

Figure 10 Pressure from colleagues/supervisors when women decided to become mothers



Source: Author of master's thesis

Figure 10 depicts the proportion of women affected by unpleasant situations related to family planning. Only 177 women (or 40%) reported that they didn't experience pressures from their colleagues or supervisors when they planned their pregnancy. A smaller 31 (7%) women said that they rarely experienced such pressures, while 62 women (or 14%) reported that they experienced such obstructions sometimes. Similarly, 22 (5%) women said that they often had to deal with such situations, while 27 women (or 6%) reported that the situations arrived very often. Conversely, 98 women (or 22%) women said that question doesn't apply to them, since they didn't plan pregnancy. Lastly, 26 (6%) women provided additional comments. Those are summarized below:

"In my previous company all female employees who get pregnant they got fired. Because of that I didn't plan pregnancy, until I changed job, when all colleagues were supportive." "I got fired when I got pregnant with my first baby." "That year when I was pregnant, all women who were pregnant or going for maternity leave, were forced to resign. The rest of the years before that, and after that, everything was normal, women were regularly going for maternity and pregnancy leave." "Employer thought I will not come back to work after maternity leave." "In company that I work for, every time one women got pregnant, she got fired, it simple, employer just doesn't renew her agreement." "First I became a mother, then I looked for a job when my youngest kid turned 3 years old." "I found job when my kids were bigger." "My contract was not renewed when I got pregnant."

Table 11 provides details related to the following question- what are the rights of pregnant women in the companies that they work for?

Table 11 Legal rights pregnant women have in the companies that they work for

Rights for pregnant women are?	Percentages	Number of answers
Unpaid leave up to 2 years	0.2%	1
Paid leave up to 1 year	66.9%	287
None	7.7%	33
Unpaid leave up to 1 year	12.6%	54
Paid leave up to 6 months	8.6%	38
Paid leave up to 3 months	4%	17

Source: Author of master's thesis

According to display, Table 11 shows that 287 women (or 66.7% out of all surveyed women) reported that pregnant women in the company that they work for have paid leave up to 1 year. Also, 17 women (or 4%) reported that pregnant women in the company that they work for have paid leave up to 3 months. Besides that, 38 women (or 8.8%) said that pregnant women in the company that they work for have paid leave up to 6 months, and another 54 women (or 12.6%) said that pregnant women in the company that they work for have unpaid leave up to 1 year. In contrast, 33 women (or 7.7%) said that pregnant women in company that they work for have neither maternity nor pregnancy leave. Lastly, 1 woman (or 0.2%) said that pregnant women in the company that they work for have unpaid leave up to 2 years.

Table 12 provides information on additional benefits that some mothers enjoy at workplace. The responses collected in the survey suggest that these benefits had to be negotiated. The provided answers were categorized into 11 categories and a qualitative analysis of the dataset is presented below.

Table 12 Overview of coding certain categories in the process of qualitative analysis of open-ended answers

Category	DESCRIPTION OF CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION OF SUB-CATEGORY	Number of answers
1	Additional benefits	1.1.	Flexible working hours	10

		1.2.	The possibility of leaving workplace anytime	6
		1.3.	Shorter working hours	10
		1.4.	Additional days off	2
		1.5.	Bonuses for mothers	2
		1.6.	Additional leave only for mothers	2
		1.7.	Higher salary for same amount of work	1
		1.8.	Leaving workplace for breastfeeding	2
		1.9.	Company paid full salary during maternity leave	2
		1.10.	Less stressful projects during pregnancy	5
		1.11.	Paid full salary during the time of not working for risky pregnancy care	1
			Total:	43

Source: Author of master's thesis

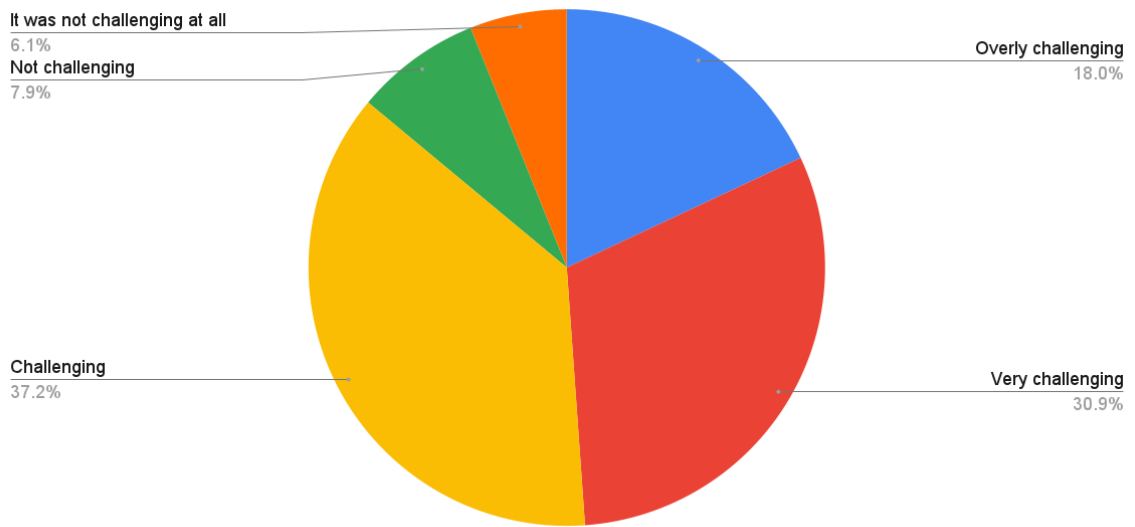
Table 12 provides a list of categories and subcategories that were used for the encoding of the provided answers. A common approach is to rely on two independent inputs during the encoding process. These two inputs are then combined to generate a final list of encodings. In this work, the encoding was done in parallel by two people, however, the comparison and combination of the inputs was done immediately after the encoding and not afterwards (which is the common approach). Once the encoding was finalized, a quantitative analysis of the encodings was done to understand the lack of opportunities and the decision to not take advantage of the existing opportunities for professional development of young women in B&H. The analysis was done for the whole dataset (including 443 surveyed women). The analysis mainly focuses on the frequency of chosen answers for this question considering the whole dataset.

The main purpose of the question above was to understand to what extent do women manage to negotiate additional benefits compared to the ones that are enforced by law.

key factor. Besides that, 9 women said networking was key factor, while 7 women said that engagement was crucial to help them make progress in their career.

Figure 12 provides insight in the level of difficulty related to balancing between career and family duties.

Figure 12 Maintaining balance between career and family duties.

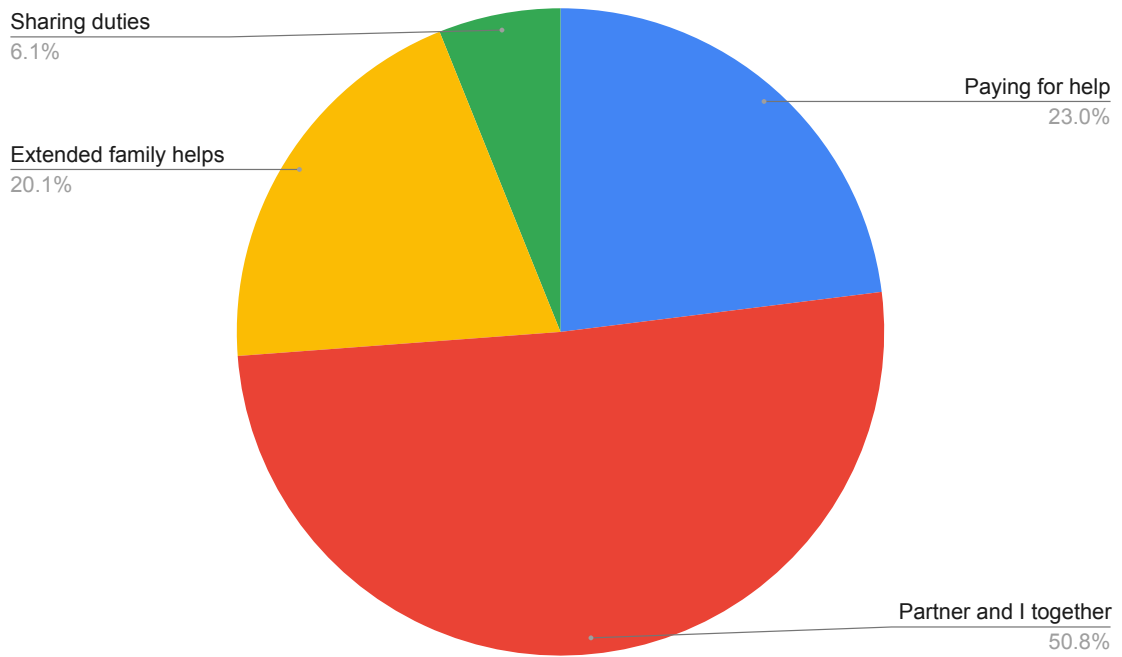


Source: Author of master's thesis

As shown in Figure 12, 165 women (or 37.2%) reported that it was challenging for them to balance between career and family duties. 137 women (or 30.9%) reported that it was very, while 80 women (or 18%) reported that it was overly challenging for them to balance between career and family duties. 35 women (7.9%) said that it was not challenging, while 27 women (6.1%) reported that it was not at all challenging for them to balance between career and family duties.

Figure 13 provides information on the amount of help the surveyed women have received in terms of family duties, such as taking care of the household or childcare support.

Figure 13 Additional support with family duties

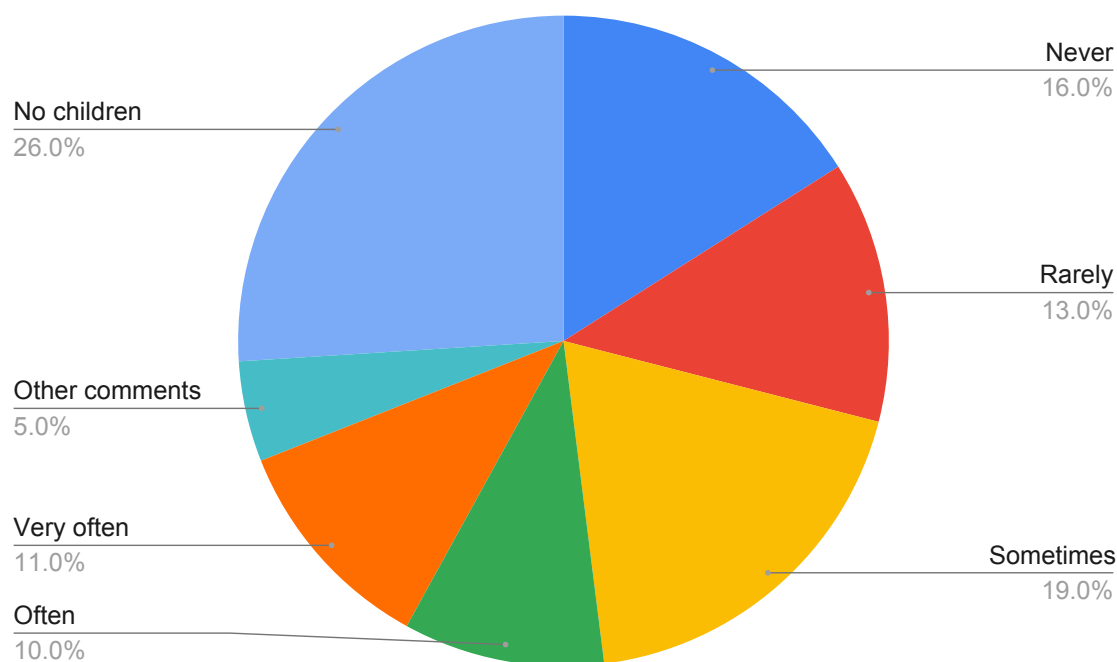


Source: Author of master's thesis

As we can see from Figure 13, 225 women (51%) reported that they share family responsibilities. Additionally, 89 women (20%) said they have additional support from extended family. 27 women (6%) reported that they are paying for extra help to get support for family responsibilities. In contrast, 103 women (23%) said that they don't have any help with household duties childcare.

Figure 14 depicts additional benefits at the workplace, during some period of motherhood. These benefits include flexible working hours, going out from work for child necessity purpose, or any other special treatment from the employer.

Figure 14 Additional benefits/ special treatment at workplace for mothering purpose



Source: Author of master's thesis

As we can see from Figure 14, 70 women (16%) reported that they never had any additional benefits at the workplace after becoming mothers. Also, 58 women (13%) said that they rarely received additional benefits, while 85 women (19%) reported that they received additional benefits occasionally. 46 women (10%) said they enjoyed additional benefits often, and 50 women (11%) said that they enjoyed them very often. This question was not applicable to 113 women (26%), since they did not give birth yet. Lastly, 22 women (5%) had additional comments and provided an open-ended answer. Those comments are presented below:

»I am still on maternity leave. I don't know, because I give birth before I started working. I give birth before I started working in this company. I don't have kids. I didn't give birth. I am not a mother. I am still on maternity leave. I don't know what situation will be when I get back to work. After giving birth I started working. I was not working when I became a mother.«

Lastly, we asked surveyed women in relation to treatment of young women at work, and its impact on their professional growth, which was somehow missed in this survey, to specify. Considering that this was an open-ended question, we used a coding technique to present the results. Table 13 provides detailed information on the responses. A descriptive analysis was further performed to determine the most frequent answers. As presented in Table 13, the answers suggest how to improve the treatment of young women at the workplace and techniques that could help reaching better work-life balance. The

main focus was on the aspects missing from the survey. A total of 179 answers was provided.

Table 13 Overview of coding certain categories in the process of qualitative analysis of open-ended answers

Category	DESCRIPTION OF CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION OF SUB-CATEGORY	Number of answers
1	Discrimination	1.1.	Social norms	15
		1.2.	Stereotypes – dividing on male and female jobs	12
		1.3.	Sexism	13
		1.4.	Sexual harassment	4
		1.5.	Stereotypical opinion that women will focus more on motherhood, leaving career behind	4
		1.6.	Pregnancy followed with dismissal	11
		1.7.	Pregnancy observed as cost for the company	27
		1.8.	Expectations that women who are not mothers will take over more tasks	5
2	Weaknesses from the organization	1.1.	Lack of mechanisms for supporting work-life balance	42
		1.2.	Lack of quotas for women	8
		1.3.	Digital skills/ training/ educational development	18
		1.4.	No space for growth, company is stagnating	3

3	Reasons connect to workplace	3.1.	Lack of support from colleagues	8
		3.2.	Toxic environment	3
4	Private life	4.1.	Childcare	9
		4.2.	Other family duties	8
		4.3.	Lack of support from partner	7
5	Reasons connected to supervisors	5.1.	Lack of women on leading positions	8
		5.2.	Lack of support from higher management	10
		5.3.	Incorrect behavior from manager	5
		5.4.	Toxic behavior from high management	6
6	Lack of interest	6.1.	Lack of interest	10
7	Systemic problems	7.1.	Lack of legal regulations	18
		7.2.	Implementation of mandatory paternity leave	3
		7.3.	Corruption	2
		7.4.	Awareness for existing women rights	2
		7.5.	Nepotism	
8	Media	8.1.	Promotion of newer way of working and therefore create new future picture of workplace for public which will become norm	2
			Total:	179

Source: Author of master's thesis

Like the analysis from Table 12, Table 13 also provides a list of categories and subcategories that were used for the encoding of the provided answers. A common approach is to rely on two independent inputs during the encoding process. These two inputs are then combined to generate a final list of encodings. In this work, the encoding was done in parallel by two people, however, the comparison and combination of the inputs was done immediately after the encoding and not afterwards (which is the common approach). Once the encoding was finalized, a quantitative analysis of the encodings was done to understand the lack of opportunities and the decision to not take advantage of the existing opportunities for professional development of young women in B&H. The analysis was done for the whole dataset (including 443 surveyed women). The analysis mainly focuses on the frequency of chosen answers for this question considering the whole dataset.

4.6 Discussion on the research results

Regarding the outcomes of our survey, it is expected that there will be statistical bias present during the process of collecting data. The results demonstrate three distinct types of biases: selection bias, information bias, and confounding bias. It is important to note that the respondents were required to possess basic digital skills to access Google forms and basic technological literacy to complete the survey. Consequently, we must consider that certain women in specific job positions are entirely excluded from this study. Additionally, this exclusion gives rise to confounding bias, which leads to the conclusion that women may receive favorable treatment at work solely due to their education and digital skills. Despite these factors, the results are based on a total of 443 completed surveys. When analyzing the survey findings, it is crucial to consider the presence of confirmation bias among the respondents. They might have already developed preconceived notions about how women are treated in the workplace based on their personal experiences, and they may have interpreted the information in a manner that supports their existing assumptions or theories. Nevertheless, while keeping the aforementioned factors in mind, we can still utilize the data to analyze the results and take a step further in understanding the treatment of young women in the workplace.

Understanding the composition of our respondents is crucial, with 74.7% of the young women who completed the survey falling within the age range of up to 40 years old. The results reveal that 91.4% of the respondents are currently employed. The occupation data exhibits a wide range of diversity, which proves beneficial for data analysis purposes. Within the survey results, we can distinctly observe the various occupations mentioned. During the data analysis, one notable observation is that 402 individuals (90.7% of the respondents) utilized masculine nouns when describing their occupation, whereas 41 individuals (9.25% of the respondents) employed gender-sensitive language for the same purpose. It is worth emphasizing that the Bosnian language allows the use of female gender nouns, and it is recommended to use gender-neutral or female-specific language when appropriate. The prevailing use of masculine nouns as a generic default is a

common practice, with many people believing that such usage is socially neutral. However, this assumption is not necessarily accurate and undermines gender equality.

When examining the Educational Attainment, it is observed that 78.6% of the surveyed respondents have attained higher education. Additionally, 71.6% of the respondents have children. Regarding the level of job descriptions, our results showcase a wide range of diversity. Upon closer examination of the data, a notable question arises regarding the progression of work experience between the ages of 41 to 50. Within this age group, there is a decline in growth due to various factors. Some potential reasons for this decline include withdrawing from the job market due to family responsibilities, unpaid domestic labor, challenges in maintaining work-life balance, limited opportunities for flexible working schedules, gender pay gap, economic and personal pressures, as well as the stresses arising from the post-Covid work environment. Some individuals may completely withdraw from the workplace due to the lack of opportunities or negative treatment, such as work-related stress, bullying, harassment, and encountering the glass ceiling phenomenon.

Regarding income participation, Figure 4 reveals that 71.78% of the surveyed women contribute 50% or more to the total household income. Furthermore, the results indicate that when asked about opportunities for professional advancement during their careers, 81.26% responded that they either never received such opportunities (100 respondents), received and utilized them (101 respondents), created opportunities for themselves (107 respondents), or acknowledged the existence of numerous opportunities but never received one (52 respondents) (Table 9). A further analysis was conducted to understand the reasons behind the lack of opportunities. Figure 5 illustrates that the reasons vary and include factors related to private life, political interests, organizational constraints such as stagnation within the organization, absenteeism, theft, sabotage, physical or verbal aggression, discrimination, and sexual harassment. Additionally, other reasons identified include the absence of mechanisms supporting work-life balance, the lack of quotas, insufficient training and development opportunities, inadequate support from colleagues, lack of support from partners in women's career development, childcare issues, stereotypes regarding gender-specific roles, stereotypical beliefs that women prioritize motherhood over their careers, viewing pregnant women as a burden to the company, and systemic problems like the absence of mandatory paternity leave (Table 10).

When considering the level of Family support towards professional development, Figure 6 highlights that families are highly encouraging in this aspect. This observation leads to the conclusion that we reside in a society that recognizes the significance of professional growth for both partners. However, most women do not perceive themselves as having equal opportunities compared to men, as depicted in Figure 7. This raises the discussion of whether this discrepancy stems from cultural influences, stereotypical social norms, or simply a lack of overall opportunities for women.

It is worth noting that mentoring is still a program that remains uncommon in the lives of many women, with only 16.4% of the respondents reporting having had mentoring support, as shown in Figure 8. While companies do provide support for women's professional development, it prompts us to question why women are still leaving the workplace and not returning. This situation suggests that mentoring could play a crucial role in further improvements.

Diving deeper into the reasons behind these findings, the collected data examines if women face obstacles from colleagues and supervisors during their career development. The results indicate that the pressures experienced from colleagues and supervisors are often related to motherhood, as evidenced by Figure 9 and Figure 10. Interestingly, the data also reveals information about additional benefits that some mothers enjoy in the workplace, beyond those legally mandated. These benefits are specific to the workplace or negotiated by women based on their personal needs. The existence and implementation of these additional benefits could serve as a basis for introducing or expanding government-mandated benefits for women in all workplaces, such as flexible working hours, the option to leave the workplace at any time, reduced working hours, additional days off, and so on (Table 12).

Specific factors have aided women in succeeding in their careers. Respondents emphasized that having a strong network, education, support, experience, and ambition were key factors for their success, as depicted in Figure 11. This suggests that these women received support from their families, partners, and companies. Particularly because maintaining a balance between career and family duties is exceedingly challenging for women, as illustrated in Figure 12.

Additionally, it is important to keep in mind that the results of our survey and any other survey conducted in a controlled environment must be taken with some caution in mind. For example, our survey like many other containers a certain level of statistical bias within the process of data collection. The data was collected via Google forms, by sharing links through different social media channels. The fact that for participating in this survey, the person should already have certain digital skills moved statistics towards educated women. The alternative would include collecting random samples door to door. This would also introduce a certain bias depending on the neighborhood, city, or region of the survey. A closer look at the numbers provided in the survey are quite concerning. Considering that many women (in the case of our survey - educated women), don't contribute a lot to the household income and rarely get the opportunity for progress results in households where the burden of bread maker falls onto one family member (usually the man), and all household work including childcare on the women. This further creates issues down the line, where those women due to their newly emerged responsibilities don't get more opportunities due to the lack of experience and it creates a culture of a female housewife.

4.7 Recommendation for future research

Interesting, very few companies have ever studied the cost and statistics of maternity leave. Companies up until now didn't consider work from home/ flexible part time work during the maternity leave or just after maternity leave. Additionally, it would be interesting to research the human capital utilization in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Another interesting topic emerges from the survey: how to handle the discrimination and judgement of the women that decided to focus only on their careers in their life without a plan for their own family. How are they treated at work? How are they treated by society? And what effect does it have on their mental health?

5. CONCLUSION

The primary objective of the research carried out in this master's thesis is based on the problems that women are facing today are well known and academics wrote about them 60 years ago. In the previous century, numerous social changes happened and changes at workplaces, however problems such as (young, educated women opting to permanently exist workplace, young women that are performing well during their education and working era often do not accomplish their career goals afterwards, and huge negative impact that has on economy and social wellbeing in general) is related to treatment of young women at workplace. In other words, awareness of the problem exists, but societies are lacking implementing strategies of these academic research papers. Therefore, research carried out in this master's thesis shows that looking into the insights provided by the Nordic countries, who flourished after implementing changes (e.g., benefits at workplace for both men and women, flexible working hours, childcare arrangements, elderly care, etc.). All those legal requirements that in practice are making difference, might be a successful approach. On the other hand, we can also learn from countries (e.g., Italy, India, United States) that are facing an enormous number of women withdrawing from workplace or consciously deciding to not reach their professional potential. In this case, it is evident that the measures for improvement that were implemented until now either are not effective and make very small steps forward or the metrics for those measures were not examined properly. Furthermore, to really know which measures were negative and which were positive, certain mechanisms for following the results need to be set up. Through the research carried out in this master's thesis, it is presented clearly that young women in countries (such as Norway, Finland, Denmark, Sweden, Iceland) are treated better at workplaces in terms of variables discussed above such as e.g., leaves of absence that are required by law. Laws and regulations, as well as practices in past years have positive results reflecting on wellbeing and economic growth. Developing human capital, only leads to higher return on investment in the long term.

The main purpose of the research conducted in thesis was to approach the subject of the treatment of young women at the workplace in Bosnia and Herzegovina with no intention for generalization and sense of radical feminism. The goal was also to provide seminal

overview of this topic, to dive deep with data from the survey to understand and learn mechanisms on how to improve treatment of women at workplaces. Finally, the goal was to highlight that the results of our study are not necessarily new findings, but rather a confirmation that things are changing very slowly.

Observing frequently occurring patterns in society, people make implicit associations about women's and men's likely roles. For instance, while women are more easily linked to family, men are more commonly associated with careers. Gender equality is triggering social and cultural change, and it is a complex process that had to be supported on the national level. As this thesis highlights Nordic countries had a major international impact, such as (e.g., implementing quotas, and gender inclusive policies). Various disciplines in academia are researching this complex but much needed gender equality change. From business and political science at both national and supranational level, to finance and sociology, which leads to the importance of examining this subject on an interdisciplinary level. Still, this kind of research can never be complete or comprehensive due to the bias introduced at various levels (e.g., data collection, choice of questions, data processing and filtering).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Survey questions

Poštovane,

Upućujem Vam poziv da učestvujete u anketi koja je će biti okosnica naučnog istraživanja za Magistarski rad na Ekonomskom Fakultetu u Sarajevu. Pozivam Vas da učestvujete, ukoliko ste: ostvarili do sada barem jednu godinu radnog staža, starosti ste od 20 do 60 godina, majka (ali ne i nužno) - te date svoj doprinos da se kroz rad odgovori na istraživačka pitanja: „Da li mlade žene u BiH imaju i da li koriste prilike za profesionalno napredovanje, ako ne zašto ne i koji su glavni razlozi za to?“. Vaši odgovori će biti anonimni i korišteni samo za potrebe ovog istraživanja. Cilj rada je ukazati da li postoje i koliki su gubici preduzeća zbog neiskorištenog, ali obrazovanog ljudskog potencijala u koji se investiralo, odnosno koliko je za cjelokupno društvo i njegov ekonomski rast nužno da i žene na tržištu rada ostvare svoj profesionalni potencijal. Da bi se taj cilj u punom potencijalu zaista i ostvario u budućnosti, potrebno je spoznati kakav tretman zaposlene žene imaju danas.

Unaprijed Vam se zahvaljujem na Vašem vremenu i doprinosu na temu koja zahtjeva radikalne promjene za sadašnje i buduće generacije.

1. Koliko imate godina?*

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61 i više

2. Vaš trenutni radni status?*

- Zaposlena
- Nezaposlena
- Samozaposlena

3. Vaše zanimanje?*

4. Vaša stručna sprema?*

- Srednja škola
- Viša škola
- BSc Bachelor/ Fakultet
- Magistarski
- Doktorat

5. Da li imate djecu?*

- Da
- Ne

6. Molimo navedite starost za svako svoje dijete u narednim redovima?

0-5	6-11	12-17	18-23	24-29	30-35	36 i vise
Dijete 1						
Dijete 2						
Dijete 3						
Dijete 4						
Dijete 5						
Dijete 6						
Dijete 7						

7. Molimo odaberite kategoriju koja najbolje opisuje Vaše radno mjesto?*

- Tehnička i administrativna podrška
- Profesionalno osoblje
- Menadžment nižeg nivoa
- Menadžment srednjeg nivoa
- Menadžment višeg nivoa

8. Molimo navedite koliko imate ukupno radnog staža ili radnog iskustva? (U godinama)*

9. A koliko radnog staža na sadašnjem radnom mjestu? (U godinama)*

10. Da li radite u javnom, privatnom ili nevladinom sektoru?

- Javni sektor
- Privatni sektor
- Nevladin sektor

11. Koliko je učešće Vaših prihoda u ukupnom izvoru prihoda u porodici? (Procentualno napišite)*

12. Da li ste tokom Vaše karijere imale priliku/e za napredovanje?*

- Imala sam priliku, ali ja nisam bila zainteresovana.
- Bilo je prilika, ali je ja nisam dobila
- Nisam imala priliku
- Imala sam jednu priliku i iskoristila sam je
- Imala sam mnogo prilika
- Stvarala sam sebi prilike

- Other:

13. Ako niste imali priliku za napredovanje, a bili ste zainteresovani, molim Vas obrazložite razloge, okolnosti za koje smatrate da su bili uzroci odsustva prilika? (Možete izabrati više ponuđenih odgovora)

- Politički interesi

- Seksualno uznemiravanje

- Diskriminacija

- Privatni život

- Organizacijska ograničenja (stagniranje organizacije- organizacije se ne razvija pa nema prilika, krađa, prevara, apsentizam, fizička ili verbalna agresija, sabotaza, i slično)

- Drugi razlozi, molimo ih navedite u sljedećem pitanju

14. Koji su to drugi razlozi zbog kojih niste dobili priliku za napredovanje?

15. Da li je Vaša porodica podržavala Vaš profesionalni razvoj?*

- Ne

- Minimalno

- Umjereno

- Dosta

- Mnogo

- Other:

16. Da li smatrate da žene imaju jednake prilike kao i muškarci?*

- Žene imaju jednake prilike kao muškarci

- Žene imaju manje prilika nego muškarci

- Žene imaju više prilika nego muškarci
- Other:

17. U kojoj mjeri Vas je organizacija/kompanija podržavala u Vašem profesionalnom razvoju? (Možete izabrati više ponuđenih odgovora i dodati neku vrstu podrške koju ste imali)*

- Plaćene edukacije
- Mentorstvo
- Odsustvo za naobrazbu
- Podrška kolega i nadređenih
- Nikakva podrška
- Other:

18. Da li ste se susretali sa opstrukcijama kolega i nadređenih u toku razvoja Vaše karijere?*

- Ne
- Rijetko
- Ponekad
- Često
- Vrlo često

19. Da li ste iskusili pritisak/e od kolega ili nadređenih na radnom mjestu kada ste se odlučili za majčinstvo?

- Ne
- Rijetko
- Ponekad
- Često

- Vrlo često
- Ne odnosi se na mene, još nisam rađala
- Other:

20. Koja prava ostvaruju trudnice u kompaniji za koju radite?

- Nikakva prava
- Plaćeno odsustvo do 3 mjeseca
- Plaćeno odsustvo do 6 mjeseci
- Plaćeno odsustvo do 1 godine
- Neplaćeno odsustvo do 1 godine
- Neplaćeno odsustvo do 2 godine

21. Da li u Vašoj organizaciji nude još neke pogodnosti za porodijsko, ili ste Vi uspjele pregovarati za neke povoljnije tretmane na poslu zbog toga što ste postali majka? (Molimo objasnite)

22. Navedite faktore koji su Vam najviše pomogli da napredujete u karijeri? (Stavite najznačajniji faktor prvi)*

23. Koliko Vam je (bilo) izazovno balansirati između karijere i porodičnih obaveza?*

- Nije izazovno 1 2 3 4 5 Previše izazovno

24. U kojoj mjeri imate pomoć pri izvršavanju porodičnih obaveza?*

- Nemam pomoć
- Partner i ja dijelimo porodične obaveze
- Pomažu mi ostali članovi šire porodice

- Plaćam pomoć za obavljanje obaveza u domaćinstvu i brigu o djeci

25. Da li ste imali određene pogodnosti na radnom mjestu, u nekom periodu majčinstva, u smislu fleksibilnog radnog vremena, povremenog izlaska s posla radi potreba djeteta, ili bilo kojeg drugog posebnog tretmana od strane Vaše organizacije?*

- Vrlo često
- Često
- Ponekad
- Rijetko
- Nikad
- Ne odnosi se na mene, još nisam rađala
- Other:

26. Ako smatrate da ima još nešto značajno u vezi sa tretmanom mladih žena, a što utiče na njihov profesionalni napredak, a da smo to ovom anketom propustili, molim Vas podijelite u sljedećem paragrafu?*