Gender Gap in Entrepreneurship

Gražina Startienė, Rita Remeikienė

The article considers a significant global issue – gender gap starting and developing own business. The field of business was for a long time reserved to men, thus, despite of an increasing number of female entrepreneurs during last decade, the number of female entrepreneurs in Europe, including Lithuania, remains lower than the one of male entrepreneurs. According to the data of various statistical sources, an average ratio of enterprises newly established by men and women in EU countries is about 70% and 30% (European Economic and Social Committee, 2007). Especially in developing countries where gender stereotypes formed through long decades (women’s main role is to be wife and mother) are treated as one of the most important obstacles preventing women to start their own business. Business development, achievements in work environment such as successful carrier, increased personal influence and prestige in society, in contrast with simple job, require conditionally great personal commitment which according to various sources of literature (Nordic Innovation Centre (2007); M. Minniti (2003); P. Tominc, M. Rebernik (2006)) is more acceptable to men than women. Moreover, it is supposed that own business often puts to shade personal private life; therefore it is more associated to men than women.

Going deep into the field was also encouraged by the discovery that the analysed literature lacks more detailed discussion of factors that determine the emergence of gender gap in perspective of business establishment. Scientists point out various factors, attach them to various groups, however, little attention is paid to the impact of those factors to existing gender gap. At present, literature does not have an answer to such questions as: “Why do differences exist?” “What causes them?”

The aim of the article – to determine differences of gender gap in entrepreneurship – is to review the reasons provided in literature explaining the emergence of gender gap when starting own business, to analyse and point out the factors which positively or negatively influence the behaviour of men and women in business and also, on the grounds of expert evaluation, to perform a comparative study of gender gap in entrepreneurship in Lithuania.

Having performed an analysis of scientific literature, the conclusion was made that the theories of feminism and discrimination, changes of demographic factors, different value systems and various other factors best explain the prevailing gender differences between men and women. In order to systemise different factors influencing gender gap, the article provides such factor groups as cultural, organisational, economic, demographic, psychological, technological, institutional and political factors. Also the factors that influence the differences of men and women in business in three ways (increase, decrease and neutral) are excluded.

Having completed a comparative analysis of gender differences in entrepreneurship, the conclusion was made that the gender differences discussed and analysed in literature are relevant also to Lithuanian entrepreneurs. An expert survey revealed that enterprises managed by men are bigger, exist longer than the ones managed by women; however, the fields of business establishment of both men and women are very similar. It is important to note that the theory emphasises different value systems of genders in obvious practise.

Keywords: gender gap, factors influencing gender gap in entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship.

Introduction

Actuality of the problem. Equal opportunities of men and women and sexual equality are not fully implemented either in Lithuania or in many other countries (N. Daukantienė, 2006). Inequality of men and women in the world of business is a serious problem of entire European society. A great gap between the salary of men and women is still noticeable, a stereotypical view to woman’s role in the family exists even today, which prevents women to integrate into labour market and start their own business.

There is no doubt that the development of any economic and social system is based, to large extent, on the development of entrepreneurship, which stimulates entrepreneurs to develop their companies and also motivate and encourage the adult population to start their own entrepreneurial careers (P. Tominc, M. Rebernik, (2006); K. Kriščiūnas, J. Greblikaite (2007); V. Navickas, R. Navickas, R. Bagdonaitė, V. Juščius (2006)). Due to the globalization and integration of the countries with transitional economics into the global market, not only increases the degree of risk for enterprises practicing economic activity, but there also occur various ways of risk reduction in the level of the enterprise and state. (G. Startienė, R. Remeikienė (2007); R.Adamoniene, J. Trifanova (2007)).

Entrepreneurship is clearly a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. Changes in economy and the restructuring of labor markets in terms of employee qualifications, the nature of works contents and work contracts have raised the profile and importance of entrepreneurship within the global economy (M. Minniti (2003); A. Šileika, D. Andriušaitienė (2007)). Female and male entrepreneurs differ with respect to their personal and business profile:
they start and run businesses in different sectors, develop different products, pursue different goals and structure their businesses in a different fashion (I. Verheul, A. Stel, R. Thurik, 2004). Despite the rapid growth of women in professional and managerial jobs and the economic importance of female entrepreneurs, the gender gap in entrepreneurship remains significant (M. Minniti (2003); I. Verheul et al (2004)). Although according to the data of “The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor” (2007), the participation of women in business is constantly increasing, the systematically lower rate of female participation indicates that some differences exist. Foreign scientists maintain that women face lots of difficulties developing their own business. Some of these hurdles have been identified as being greater for women than men. These challenges include (R. McKay, 2001): obtaining capital, acquiring appropriate training, resistance from relatives, friends and family, overcoming cultural conditioning and discrimination. European Economic and Social Committee (2007) agrees with the problems mentioned and states that social and cultural hurdles, lack of information about education and learning possibilities as well as additional difficulties in finding financing for business projects cause the fact that women starting business face more problems than men. However, the analyses both in theory and practice testify a successful activity of women starting and developing enterprises.

Although strong interest in gender gap in entrepreneurship came up only when the practice of women-entrepreneurs became more active, i.e. in the last century. The analysed literature is full of various micro, macro analysis and studies performed in various countries. Having the results of various studies the authors try to determine the existing gender gap and more clearly perceive the reasons of gender gap in business as well as determine and analyse factors which influence different behaviour of men and women when starting or developing business. Though gender gap in entrepreneurship is widely discussed, there are no clear definitions of the reasons for those differences. Some authors (T. B. Levent et al., 2003) explain gender gap by feminism theories, others (R. O. Kutans, S. Bayraktaroglu, 2003) – by changing demographical factor tendencies and different value systems, and still others (I. Verheul, A. Van Stel, R. Thurik (2006); G. Negru-Strauti, M. Izvercian, M. Tion (2008)) – try to explain the existence of gender gap in business by referring to various factors. One more question that scientists do not find one unique answer to is: “Do the same factors have similar influence on gender gap?” Such authors as M. Minniti (2003) state that the same factors influence men and women making business solutions; however, statistical data reveal a lower participation of women in business, which allows us to presume that gender gap exists. Unfortunately, the nature and reasons for the differences are not fully presented in scientific literature.

Object of the article – gender gap.

Purpose of the article – to determine differences of gender gap in entrepreneurship.

To achieve the purpose of the article, the following tasks were set:

1) to point out the reasons which determined the emergence of gender gap in perspective of starting business;

2) to classify the factors influencing gender gap in entrepreneurship;

3) to determine the factors which increase, decrease or are neutral in producing a gender gap in entrepreneurship;

4) to perform a comparative analysis of gender gap in entrepreneurship on the grounds of expert opinions.

Scientific methods: evaluation of scientific literature, statistic data, secondary data, professional conclusion.

In the first part of the article the reasons of gender gap emergence in entrepreneurship are discussed. In order to perform a deeper analysis of factors which influence men and women differences in entrepreneurship, the second part of the article provides the classification of those factors into certain groups and indicates the type of influence – positive, negative or neutral, i.e. the factor that influences the behaviour of men and women in establishing their own business. The third part of the article is devoted to a comparative analysis of gender gap in entrepreneurship, taking into consideration expert evaluations.

Gender differences from the viewpoint of business establishment

In the early literature entrepreneurship has been a man’s domain. The historical descriptions of the entrepreneur’s activities are strictly masculine. Bird and Brush (2002) in their works provide the definitions of entrepreneurship of such pioneers of entrepreneurship theory as Schumpeter, Hebert and Link, Liebenstein and others. According to Schumpeter (1934), the entrepreneur is as captain of industry, while Hebert and Link (1982) celebrate the key man. Liebenstein (1968) describes the hero who perceives the gaps and connects markets, and Knight’s (1921) was a capitalist, a special social class and an active businessman who directed economic activity. Not only in economic but also in psychological and social literature scientists describes entrepreneurs as men, therefore the question is: what caused women’s participation in business? Scientific interest in women entrepreneurs increased only recently in XX century. Increased participation and success of women in entrepreneurship could result in changes in certain demographic variables, such as higher degrees of residential mobility, new lifestyle and nutritional habits, increased duration of work time, possible higher rates of divorce or of never-married woman, postponement of childbearing, overall increase of social stress or higher emotion/psychological satisfaction and well-being (Kutans, Bayraktaroglu, 2003). Other sources of literature (Bid and Brush, 2002) indicate that increasing number of women in employment, politics, etc., including business, was influenced by the second wave of feminism which emerged at the end the 7th decade of XX century. According to Levent et al (2003), gender differences in entrepreneurial characteristics and performance sprang from liberal feminist and social feminist theories, which attempt to explain the basis of the lower status of women in society.

When analysing gender gap in entrepreneurship many authors (Alsos, Isaksen, Ljunggren, 2006; J. Reingardienè, 2004) in their studies maintain that entrepreneurship is still
a male-dominated activity in the twenty-first century. This attitude was formed not only because fewer women and more men are inclined to start their own business, but the few who take this step seem to achieve less growth in their businesses than their male counterparts (Cliff, 1998). It is also supported by the prediction of discrimination theory: numerous women enter entrepreneurship but exit from it so rapidly that traditional annual stock data (time series) fail to capture the phenomenon (Rosti, Chelli, 2005).

In various sources of literature authors point out different reasons for the emergence of gender gap in entrepreneurship. Some authors (Alsos, Isaksen, Ljunggren, 2006; Rosti, Chelli, 2005) explain lower participation of women in entrepreneurship by their limited possibilities of financing. In many western countries funding for new business start-up can be achieved through four main sources: personal savings, debt financing, soft loans or grants supported by government and equity funding from venture capital institutions or informal investors (Borch et al., 2002; Foss, Ljunggren, 2006; Jarvis, 2000; Pečüriene, 2006). As it is known, women’s income is usually lower then men’s, which also causes lower savings and less possibilities getting a loan and consequently more difficulties starting their own business (Manning, Swaffiels, 2008). Alsos, Isaksen, Ljunggren (2006) in their studies mention the statements of such authors as Greene, 2008) and Isaksen, Ljunggren (2006) in their research which also caused lower savings and less possibilities getting a loan and consequently more difficulties starting their own business (Manning, Swaffiels, 2008). Alsos, Isaksen, Ljunggren (2006) in their studies mention the statements of such authors as Greene, Brush and Saparito (2001) that women’s difficulties in raising equity capital could be explained by three factors: 1) women experience structural barriers when trying to acquire equity capital; 2) women do not want to use this type of capital (strategic choice); 3) women do not possess the necessary knowledge and capabilities to acquire equity capital (human capital).

Other authors (Malaya, 2006) explain insufficient participation of women in entrepreneurship by different value systems. For example, women do not enter business just for financial gain (Kuratkó, Hornsby, 1997; McClelland, Swail, Bell, Ibbotson, 2005) and economic success may not be as important as personal satisfaction and other nonfinancial goals (Kyro, 2001; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Chaganti, 1986; Scott, 1986). In contrast to men, the growth of profit and business for women is not the most important factor determining success. They value a harmonious microclimate of enterprise and employee satisfaction, self-fulfillment, professional performance and development, recognition and skills improving, balancing work and family responsibility, social contribution, and so on. Other sources of literature (Watson, 2002) explain gender gap by two theories: liberal feminist theory and social feminist theory. Watson (2002) proposes Fischer, Reuber, Dyke (1993) presumptions of liberal feminist theory that small and medium enterprises (SMEs) run by women will exhibit poorer performance because women are overtly discriminated, for example by lenders, or because of other systematic factors that deprive women of important resources (business education and experience). Social feminist theory suggests that men and women are inherently different by nature and emphasizes that women are not less suitable for business than men; they only choose different ways of developing entrepreneurship which may be not so effective in comparison with strategies employed by men.

Many scientists in their works mention various advantages and differences of men and women in business establishment. For example, Mirchandani (1999) quotes Cronie (1987), who points out even 13 different factors comparing reasons why men and women establish business. Hisrich (1989), Birley (1989), Chaganti (1986) and others performed a comparative analysis of men and women who started their own business and assessed such factors as motivation, source of funds, occupational background, and reasons for occupational departure, personality, background, support group and type of business or management style.

A tendency in analysed literature was observed that some authors (Driga, Lafuente, Vaillant, 2005; Malaya, 2006; Mirchandani, 1999 and others) are inclined to examine individual factors of entrepreneur’s success associated with gender gap (for example, individual or organizational characteristics), not attaching them to any factor group. Other scientists (Verheul, Van Stel, Thurik, 2006) classify these factors. On the grounds of the classifications of factors (Verheul et al., 2006 and other authors, Levent et. al, 2003) influencing gender gap, we provide a supplemented castigation of factor groups (Fig. 1).

Table 1 provides systemised factors that may have positive, negative or neutral influence on gender gap. Unemployment, as one of the mostly enlarging gender gap in entrepreneurship, is excluded, because according to L. Verheul and et. (2004), the general unemployment level may be more likely to negatively affect female than male employment as women are often involved in service-type and part-time jobs and accordingly, may be particularly vulnerable to the effects of unemployment.

In the group of demographic factors, marriage and the presence of children have negative influence for female entrepreneurs because women are more likely to withdraw from employment or entrepreneurship after they get married, or when they reach the child-rearing age. Parenthood negatively influences female employment, while is male employment positively influenced. Actually, immigration also increases gender gap in entrepreneurship (Portes and Zhou, 1998). Immigrant women are less likely to be self-employed than immigrant men. For instance, for women marriage reduces the likelihood of being an entrepreneur because married men tend to employ their wives in their company to reduce shirking behaviour of employees. Experience is also a very important factor negatively influencing gender gap. According to Brush (1992), Cliff (1997), Fisher et al. (1993), men tend to have more labour market and industry-specific experience in terms of both wage- and self-employment and starting and running a business. They have also more management experience and experience with personnel, technical and financial issues. On the contrary, female entrepreneurs tend to have less industry, management and prior business start-up experience.

In the group of institutional and government intervention factors, such factors as availability of capital, social security and business licensing have the most important influence on gender gap. Several studies (Alsos, Isaksen, Ljunggren, 2006; Rosti, Chelli, 2005) suggest that acquiring capital is more difficult for women than for men and that women have more difficulty in convincing investors.


### Table 1: Factors influencing gender gap in entrepreneurship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Factors increasing gender gap or “push” (negative) factors</th>
<th>Factors decreasing gender gap or “pull” (positive) factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brush, Carter, Gatewood, Greene and Hart (2004); Verheul, R. Thurik (2001); S. Birley, C. Moss, P. Saunders (1987); I. Verheul, A. Van Stel, R. Thurik (2006); M. Minniti (2003)</td>
<td>Funding gap for woman entrepreneurs; access to financial capital; availability of financial capital</td>
<td>High participation in the labor force and high level of education, literacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Carter (2000); Carter&amp;Rosa (1998); Marlow&amp;Patton (2005)</td>
<td>Undercapitalization</td>
<td>The desire of woman to be economically independent; social structures, social networks, family and organized life, mobility; population growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Rosti, F. Chelli (2005)</td>
<td>Wage gap</td>
<td>Motivation, psychological traits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuck (1985)</td>
<td>Woman lack confidence in numerical skills; need the support of a partner and lack managerial experience</td>
<td>Location of businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loscosco and et. (1991); Silver (1993); I. Verheul, A. Van Stel, R. Thurik (2006)</td>
<td>Lack of industry experience; family situation (in particular responsibility for childcare); responsibility for domestic work; availability of maternity</td>
<td>Share of service sector</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hisrich (1989)</td>
<td>Inability to prioritize between organizational and family responsibilities; lack of financial management by taking loans or managing family finances; lack of occupational experience in middle-management; study engineering science, technical or business-related subjects</td>
<td>The desire for entrepreneurial aspiration (independence, self-fulfillment, autonomy, self-achievement, being one’s own boss, using creative skills, doing enjoyable work, entrepreneurial drive and desire for wealth, social status and power).</td>
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<tr>
<td>I. Verheul, A. Van Stel, R. Thurik (2006)</td>
<td>New technologies; unemployment; informal sector (i.e. shadow or underground economy); economic transition; business licensing; dissatisfaction with life</td>
<td>Social stigma; social embarrassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. Driga, E. Lafuente, Y. Vaillant (2005); P. Tominc, M. Rebernik (2007)</td>
<td>Intolerance of risk; gender beliefs system existing in a country</td>
<td>The desire for entrepreneurial aspiration (independence, self-fulfillment, autonomy, self-achievement, being one’s own boss, using creative skills, doing enjoyable work, entrepreneurial drive and desire for wealth, social status and power).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Minniti (2003); J. Ruškus and etc. (2004)</td>
<td>Customs of marriage, law, unemployment; child care</td>
<td>Motivation; backgrounds; past experience; industrial sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. V. Stil, E. A. Walker (2006)</td>
<td>Obtaining finance, unemployment</td>
<td>Employment structure (firms size and industry focus)</td>
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<tr>
<td>E. McClelland, J. Swail, J. Bell, P. Ibbotson (2005)</td>
<td>Redundancy, unemployment, frustration with previous employment</td>
<td>Social stigma; social embarrassment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Neutral factors or factors having no or little influence</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. Birley, C. Moss, P. Saunders (1987); Mukhtar (1998)</td>
<td>Motivation; backgrounds; past experience; industrial sector</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>K. Mirchandani (1999)</td>
<td>Employment structure (firms size and industry focus)</td>
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<tr>
<td>O. Driga, E. Lafuente, Y. Vaillant (2005)</td>
<td>Social stigma; social embarrassment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Verheul et al (2006)</td>
<td>Per capita income; female/male labor force participation rate (employment rate)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Minniti (2003)</td>
<td>Age structure</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** Factor groups influencing gender gap in entrepreneurship
Also social security system on labour force participation differs between men and women (Reimers and Honig, 1995). It appears that women and men have different time horizons when making labour supply decisions. Women take into account their social security „wealth“ rather than their current earnings, while men are more likely to respond to current earnings rather than to future benefits. Business licensing may pose more problems for female than male entrepreneurs. According to Verheul and others (2004), women usually have less previous experience with starting up business, they may have less knowledge of government legislation and the ways how to comply with it, posing particular problems or even discouraging them to start business.

In the group of psychological factors, especially such factors as motivation and personal value system tend to increase gender gap in one way or another in entrepreneurship (Buttner and Moore, 1997; Cliff, 1998; Verheul et al., 2001). For example, male entrepreneurs are most motivated by the need to improve their positions in society for themselves and their families, while female entrepreneurs are most motivated by the need for achievement, self-fulfilment or because of dissatisfaction. Female entrepreneurs are predisposed to personal satisfaction, strong interpersonal relations, while men entrepreneurs to status, wealth and success.

Among factors that have positive influence or decreasing gender gap in entrepreneurship the following factors are singled out: share of service sector, because the growth of service industries has been a major factor in increasing female labour force participation (Oppenheimer, 1970; Ward and Pampel, 1985) and educational level (Kovalainen et al., 2002). The general level of education in a country may be a development indicator, where a higher level of education is accompanied by a higher level of integration of women in the economic structure of the country and accordingly, a higher level of female self-employment. Though most authors allocate motivation and psychological traits to the factor group that increases the gender gap, Mukhtar (1998) in his study quotes such authors as Smith, McCain and Warren (1982); Wadell (1984) who claim that male and female entrepreneurs may portray similar motivations and psychological traits.

In order to avoid the complexity of assigning factors to analysed groups, the third group of neutral factors was composed, i.e. the group describing factors having little or no influence on the gender gap in entrepreneurship. There is no one unique opinion in this issue. For example, some authors (Verheul et al., 2006) assign such factor as industrial sector and especially service sector to the factors that decrease the gender gap, while others maintain (Mirchandani, 1999) that there is little analysis of how gendered processes may in fact shape the size of firms, or tendency to focus on certain industries. The fact that the owners of certain firms face barriers regardless of their sex is presented as the evidence that these barriers are gender neutral. Birley, Moss, Saunders (1987) share their opinion and claim that there is no relationship between gender and the industrial sector chosen. There is also no unique opinion about the influence of such factors as past experience, motivation, per capita income, etc.

In summary, a conclusion can be made that there are more factors increasing gender gap than the ones that decrease or are neutral. Though most statistical data declare that gender gap in entrepreneurship is decreasing, the factors analysed support the fact that differences between men and women entrepreneurs do exist and the decrease in difference is stipulated by changing economic and social environment.

**Analysis of gender gap in entrepreneurship**

According to the Department of Statistics of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania, in Lithuania there were 99.4 % of small and mid-sized businesses in 2008.

In order to perform the analysis of gender gap starting and developing own business in Lithuania, four presumptions which should confirm or deny the gender differences discussed in theoretical part are formulated:

**Presumption 1:** Men entrepreneurs’ businesses are bigger and survive longer than the ones of women entrepreneurs.

**Presumption 2:** Men entrepreneurs tend to gain the initial capital easier (or they already have it) for the beginning of business while women entrepreneurs face more difficulties gaining the initial financing due to their lower income.

**Presumption 3:** Often men start business aspiring to get financial benefits while women seek more personal interests (self-acknowledgement, pleasant microclimate, financial independence, etc.).

**Presumption 4:** Gender gap exists between business segments: men are more inclined to start business oriented to technological (innovation), industrial or constructional trends while women to trade and service fields.

The presumptions are verified on the grounds of empirical methodology. The presumptions were confirmed (denied) by the method of expert evaluation. Group of experts was formed from 20 businessmen representing small and mid-sized companies (10 women and 10 men) who answered the survey’s questions which should display gender gap tendencies in entrepreneurship in a written form.

When the data of survey were summarised, presumption 1 was determined to be confirmed: in experts’ opinion, men entrepreneurs start businesses where more workers are employed (form 10 to 49 employees in larger companies); women entrepreneurs start small businesses, i.e. companies up to 9 employees (see Figure 2). The latter statement is confirmed by such authors as Still, Walker (2006). The survey performed in Australia revealed that most women in small business in Australia were either self-employed or owners of “micro-businesses” (less than 5 employees). Men entrepreneurs’ businesses on average survive for 11 years while women entrepreneurs’ businesses exist half shorter, on average for 5.5 years (see Figure 3). The existing situation may be explained by the fact that more active participation of women in business in Lithuania increased only during the last decade.
According to the Department of Statistics of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania (2008), in 2000-2006 an average salary of women was smaller by 218 Lt than the one of men. Similar tendencies were discovered during the analysis. Experts stated that more men (50% men and 40% of women) start their business from personal savings or use a combined financing – bank loan and personal savings (40% women and 30% men). Other sources of financing, according to experts, are: a loan form of a bank, EU structural fund’s support, help of parents, friends. Experts maintain that men have more possibilities to use the bank loan and support of EU structural funds while women are more likely to use the help of parents and family. Having summarised all the answers, a statement can be made that men gain initial capital for the beginning of the business easier than women, thus presumption 2 is confirmed.

In order to test presumption 3, experts were given 11 reasons that could influence the establishment of own business. The experts could choose several answers and rank them according to priority: 1 – the most important, 2 – important, etc. Information in Figure 4 confirms the presumption 3.

Thus, in expert’s opinion, even 80% of men establish a business in order to get financial benefits while for women financial benefits are only important but not the most important priority. The percentage distribution of reasons why women start their own business is much well-rounded, universal because as the most important reasons such motives as wish to get away from undesirable working conditions, wish to try business and possibility to use talent, professional skills are indicated. An interesting fact was noticed that for men it is important to have a possibility to combine work and personal life while women do not consider it to be so important. It could be explained by the fact, that women working in a private/government enterprise feel responsibility to combine both things. A conclusion can be made that a situation analysed reveals still existing gender stereotypes.

In order to test presumption 4, experts had to designate fields (according to the allotment of Department of Statistics...
of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania) where men and women entrepreneurs have established their businesses. They had to choose several variants. When data was systemised, it emerged that, according to experts, most men (70%) run businesses in trade and smaller part of them (40%) – real estate and other types of business. Experts maintain that women entrepreneurs’ percentage distribution is almost equal in the following fields: services, trade, real estate, rent and other types of businesses (from 20 % to 30%). With reference to the information presented, a conclusion can be made that presumption 4 was not confirmed because, in experts opinion, both men and women go into various types of businesses in Lithuania and explicit differences were not denoted.

Conclusions

Summarising, the following conclusions can be made:

1. Having analysed literature, it was assessed that the main reasons which determined the emergence of gender gap in entrepreneurship are changes in demographic variables, different value systems and factor groups. Scientists explain a lower status of woman in society by theories of feminism and discrimination which describe the phenomena through historical stereotypes and different nature of man and woman.

2. With reference to foreign scientists’ classification of factors influencing gender differences in entrepreneurship, a supplemented classification of factor groups was proposed: cultural, organisational, economic, demographical, psychological, technological, institutional and political.

3. The factors which increase, decrease gender gap in entrepreneurship or are neutral were determined and grouped. Among the most influential for the increase of gender gap in entrepreneurship are unemployment, redundancy, salary difference in labour market (group of economic factors), marriage, parenting, emigration and previous work experience (group of demographical factors), availability of capital, social security and business licenses (group of institutional and political factors) and finally motivation and personal value system (group of psychological factors). Service market share, education, motivation and psychological features of a person are treated as the most important in order to reduce the gender gap. An abundance of negative factors allow presuming that reduction of gender gap is a long and complex process that will take more than one decade.

4. In accordance with the answers of experts, 3 of 4 presumptions about existing gender differences in entrepreneurship were confirmed, one of them was denied. It was determined that businesses established by men survive longer and are bigger than the ones of women in Lithuania; men usually have the initial capital for the beginning of business while women more often use the help of parents, friends or bank loans; value systems of men and women are apparently different: men usually seek profit, while women aspire to acknowledgement; men and women choose almost the same types of businesses during recent years of the recovery of economy in trade, real estate and financial intermediation fields attracted entrepreneurs irrespective of their gender.

References


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Lyčių skirtumai verslininkystėje

Santrauka


Akivaizdu, kad bet kurios ekonominės ir socialinės sistemos yra praturtintos dėl moterų ir vyro verslininkystės nepasikeitimo. Remiantis verslininkų statistika, moterų versmininkystė yra mažiau įtakminga negu vykstančia verslininkystė. Remiantis šiuo dėl, moterų verslininkystė yra labiau likvidiems ir dažniau siejama su vyrais, o moteriškai orientuoti verslininkai stengiasi įveikti vieną iš didžiausių verslininkų kliūčių. Padidėjusios verslininkystės lyčių skirtumai gali turėti įtakos daugelio verslininkų verslininkystės lyčių skirtumams.}


Straišsnio tikslas – nustatytı lyčių skirtumus verslininkystėje. Tikslui pasiekti išskeliami šie uždaviniai: 1) išskirti priežastis, lėmusias lyčių skirtumų atsiradimą verslo steigimo požiūriu; 2) suklaipsniuoti veiksnius, darančius įtaką lyčių skirtumams verslininkystėje; 3) nustatyti veiksnius, didinančius, mažinančius ar neutralius veikiančius lyčių skirtumų verslininkystėje; 4) remiantis ekspertų įvedimais, aiškinti lyčių skirtumų versle palyginamąją analizę. Straišsnio objektais – lyčių skirtumai versle.

Tyrimo metodika apima mokslinės literatūros, statistikos duomenų, antrinių duomenų analizę, ekspertinio vertinimo metodą. Straišsnio pirmoje dalyje iškirstas priežastis, paaiškinančios lyčių skirtumų kilimą versle. Atlikus mokslinės literatūros analizę, prieita prie išvados, kad tiksliausiai vyraukantys skirtingai tarp vyrų ir moterų paaiškina feminizmo ir diskriminacijos teorijos, demografinių veiksnų pokyčiai, skirtinos vertibų skaiči ir kiti įvairūs veiksniai.