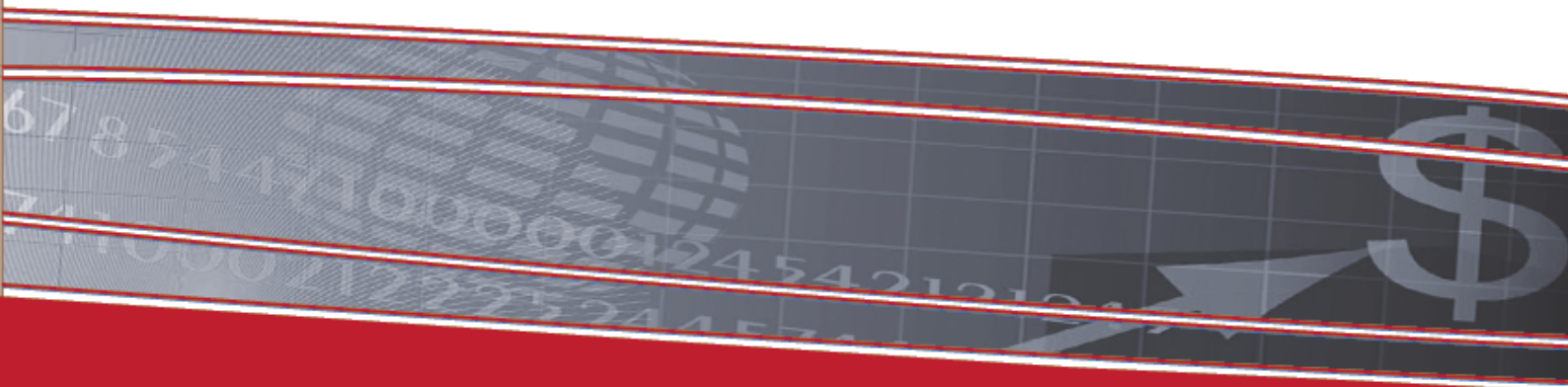


JOURNAL OF APPLIED ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS



VOL.6, ISSUE 1 – MARCH, 2018



Education and Novel Technology Research Association

Journal of Applied Economics and Business

VOL. 6, ISSUE 1 - MARCH, 2018

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IMMIGRANTS AND CRIME: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOREIGN-BORN POPULATIONS AND CRIMINAL ACTIVITY AT THE STATE LEVEL

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between immigration and criminal activity. The present study uses annual, state-level data on foreign-born populations and a fixed effects model. Most prior studies on this topic used city-level data. Results suggest that foreign-born populations have no significant effects on most state-level crime rates. States with higher percentages of foreign-born populations have statistically similar crime rates to those states with lower percentages of foreign-born populations. There is, however, a significant and negative relationship between rape and foreign-born populations. States with higher percentages of foreign-born populations have lower reported rates of rape. These results are noteworthy because they suggest that the percentage of the state population that is foreign born does not result in more criminal activity at the state-level.

Key words: Foreign born; Crime; State level.

INTRODUCTION

There is a belief among some Americans that increased immigration results in more crime. When President Trump was a candidate, he regularly highlighted in his speeches various crimes that were committed by undocumented immigrants, thus attempting to illustrate a positive relationship between immigration and crime. Even in his presidential announcement speech, Donald Trump referred to Mexican immigrants as “rapists.”

Early sociological theories generally supported the view that immigrants are more likely to engage in criminal activity. Some of those theories are as follows noted in Wadsworth (2010), Ousey and Kurbin (2009) and Lee et al., (2001):

- (1) Opportunity Structure Theories. The opportunity structure theories focused on the limited opportunities that immigrants face due to language and cultural barriers and potential discrimination. Unable to find legitimate employment, some immigrants may turn to a life of crime in order to provide for themselves and their families;
- (2) Social Disorganization Theory. This theory states that an influx of immigrants, given their cultural differences and limited economic resources, could disrupt and weaken community institutions. Given these strains on the community, both foreign and native-born populations may face reduced economic opportunities and civic engagement and thus may engage in more criminal activity;
- (3) Labor Market Disruptions. Given that immigrants may dislocate native-born workers from certain occupations, criminal activity may increase among these populations, due to their newly limited employment opportunities; and
- (4) Cultural Perspectives. Diverse cultural perspectives on the part of immigrants may also result in increased criminal activity. One way in which this may happen is when immigrants try to adapt to their new surroundings by assimilating into the predominant culture of their new neighborhoods. Given that immigrants' first homes in America are typically located in economically disadvantaged areas, the predominant culture in many of these areas may be criminally oriented. Thus, immigrants may attempt to assimilate by engaging in criminal activity. Secondly, there may be certain practices that are accepted in the immigrants' native cultures but are considered to be illegal in their new country. Thus, immigrants who have not fully assimilated into their new country's culture may be inadvertently committing crimes.

All of these theories thus support the belief that increased immigration results in increased levels of criminal activity. However, alternative theories of immigration and assimilation and most recent empirical evidence tend to suggest the opposite; increased levels of immigration do not result in more crime but rather may actually reduce crime. Theories that indicate a negative relationship between immigration and crime are as follows (Ousey & Kurbin, 2009):

- (1) Selection Effects. This theory suggests that immigrants are not necessarily a random cross section of the immigrant's home country population. Rather, those most likely to emigrate are those with above average educational attainment and



above average income. Given those characteristics, immigrants are probably much less likely to engage in criminal activity than the average person emigrating from that particular country. In addition, given the effort involved in moving to another country, immigrants are probably more likely to work hard and to avoid activities that may draw attention from local law enforcement in order to minimize the possibility of being deported;

- (2) Formal Social Control. This theory suggests that greater influxes of immigrants may foment fear and angst in the immigrants' new communities. Native-born populations, fearing an increase in crime and unrest, may pressure local officials to increase police presence in the affected communities. An unintended consequence of this increased police presence may be a reduction in all crime, even crime not associated with the immigrant populations; and
- (3) Social Capital. According to this theory, immigrants who congregate in certain communities preserve and maintain cultural mechanisms of social control. These ethnic enclaves encourage the preservation of cultural identities and family ties and provide potential employment opportunities. All of these informal social controls contribute to greater stability in immigrant communities and thus discourage criminal activity.

Hence, all of the above theories suggest that increased immigration results in less crime. The vast majority of prior research in this area also indicates the same: increased immigration results either in a reduction in criminal activity or in no statistically-significant effect (Ousey & Kurbin, 2009 and 2014; MacDonald et al., 2013; Martinez et al., 2010; Wadsworth, 2010; Stowell et al., 2009; Reid et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2001; Butcher & Piehl, 1998). Only one recent study found a positive relationship between immigration and crime (Spenkuch, 2014).

Almost all of this prior research was conducted at the city or census tract-level. Although interesting due to the wide variations in crime rates across communities and neighborhoods, there are several drawbacks to using this type of micro-level data. One of the largest drawbacks is that data at this level ignores smaller cities and rural communities. Hence, the results drawn from an urban level of analysis may not be entirely applicable to smaller communities. Another drawback of many of these studies is that they use data from the decennial censuses. It is difficult to derive trends from data that has 10-year gaps, and the use of fixed effects with so few time-periods is problematic at best.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between immigration and criminal activity. This study's approach is somewhat different from that employed by prior studies in that annual, state-level data on foreign-born populations will be examined. In addition, several demographic and socioeconomic factors that could not be examined at the city level are incorporated into the model used in the present study. Results of this study suggest that foreign-born populations have no significant effects on most state-level crime rates. This result is noteworthy because this is one of the first studies to find that increased immigration does not result in higher levels of criminal activity at the state level.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As noted previously, there have been numerous studies on the topic of immigration and crime. In this review, only the more recent studies that specifically examined the relationship between immigration and crime will be reviewed. One of the more recent studies was Ousey and Kurbin (2014). In this study, Ousey and Kurbin (2014) examined the impact of immigration on different types of homicide (total, felony-coincident, argument, drug, and gang). Using decennial city-level data from 1980-2010 and a fixed effects negative binomial model, the authors found that immigration is negatively related to drug-related homicides but is not significantly related to other subtypes of homicide. It is important to note, however, that in their 2SLS models, very few explanatory variables were statistically significant in the felony and argument regressions.

MacDonald et al., (2013) looked at the impact of immigration on crime in Los Angeles. Using census tract-level data for Los Angeles for the period 2000-2005, the authors used a 2SLS model with the annual change in neighborhood crime being the dependent variable. Results indicate that increased immigrant concentration (estimated in the first stage of the model) was significantly and negatively related to both total crime rates and violent crime rates. It is important to note that the authors used indices to capture poverty and residential stability and that the coefficients of determination were very low in all regressions (< 0.20).

Martinez et al., (2010) examined the impact of immigration on crime in San Diego. Using decennial data from 1980, 1990, and 2000, the authors looked at neighborhood-level data and averaged crime rates over 5 year periods. Using a fixed effects model with a log-linear functional form, the authors found that there was a negative relationship between the percent foreign born and the homicide rate in San Diego.

Almost all of the other studies examined also found a negative relationship between immigration and crime. Some used city-level data (Wadsworth, 2010; Ousey & Kurbin, 2009; Lee et al., 2001; Butcher & Piehl, 1998); others used MSA or metro-level data (Stowell et al., 2009; Reid et al., 2005); and some studies looked at only a few U.S. cities (Lee et al.,



2001; Butcher & Piehl, 1998). Almost all of these studies used panel data, although some prior research only used cross-sectional data.

The only recent study that found a positive relationship between immigration and crime was Spenkuch (2014). This study was the only recent study to look at decennial, county-level data for the period 1980-2000. Contrary to most other recent research on this topic, Spenkuch (2014) found that, when using a fixed effects model, most property crimes were positively related to immigration. However, when using a 2SLS model, only robbery was found to be significantly and positively related to immigration.

The present study differs from this prior research in several ways. First, annual, state-level data for the period 2000-2014 is used. Almost all other studies used decennial data, and no study used data as recent as 2014. Although the use of state-level data may not capture local differences in criminal activity, the use of city-level or census tract-level data excludes data from smaller cities and rural populations, both of which have observed increases in foreign-born populations over the past two decades. Second, this study will examine foreign-born populations and not annual immigration flows. The reason for the use of foreign-born population data is the assumption that all immigrants, and not just recent immigrants, may have a significant impact on criminal activity in a given state. Finally, the present study will use a balanced panel data set, along with a two-way fixed effects model that should control for unobserved heterogeneity among states.

EMPIRICAL TECHNIQUE

In order to determine if foreign-born populations are related to criminal activity, a fixed effects model that controls for both state-level and year fixed effects is used. All observations are weighted using state-level population, standard errors are corrected using a clustering method (clustering is at the state level), and a log-linear functional form is used.

In order to determine if foreign-born populations have an effect on state-level crime rates, the following equation is estimated in the present study:

$$Y_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_i + \gamma_t + \beta'X + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (1)$$

In the above equation, y denotes the relevant crime rate, α_i denotes the state-level effects, γ_t denotes the year effects, and X denotes the vector of explanatory variables which includes the percentage of the state's population that is foreign born. Guidance for this model was obtained from various studies that estimated crime rates at the state level (Gius, 2014; Moody & Marvell, 2009; Moorehouse & Wanner, 2006; Koper & Roth, 2001; Ludwig, 1998).

The dependent variables used in the present study are the following crime rates: murder, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, property crime, and violent crime. All crime rates are incidents per 100,000 persons.

Immigration is represented by the percentage of the state's population that is foreign born. The use of foreign-born population data should capture the effects of all immigration, both current and historical, on criminal activity in a given state. In addition, given state-level data is used, the annual changes in the percentage of foreign born are not affected by intrastate migrations of foreign born residents but instead are only affected by interstate or international migrations; hence, the data should exhibit less variability than city-level or census tract-level data. Finally, given that state-level data is used, it is highly unlikely that this study's measure of immigration is endogenous in the regression model. Although some prior studies used 2SLS in order to take account of this possible endogeneity, the use of state-level data should greatly reduce the likelihood that immigration is endogenous; hence, the use of 2SLS is not warranted in the present study.

In addition to foreign-born populations, it is assumed that crime rates are dependent upon a variety of state demographic and socioeconomic factors. These control variables were selected based upon their use in prior research (Gius, 2014; Moody & Marvell, 2009; Moorehouse & Wanner, 2006; Koper & Roth, 2001; Ludwig, 1998). These variables include the percentage of the state population that is Black, per capita real income, percentage of population that is college educated, unemployment rate, percentages of population aged 18-24 and 25-34, population density, per capita alcohol consumption, per capita prison population, and police employees per capita. It is expected that those factors that reduce economic opportunities and increase societal frictions will be positively related to criminal activity.

DATA AND RESULTS

Data used in the present study is at the state level and is for the years 2000-2014. The sample size is 750. Crime data were obtained from the Uniform Crime Reports, Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). State-level data on foreign-born populations were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population and the American Community Survey. It is important to note that the term foreign born refers to all individuals not born in the United States, including naturalized U.S. citizens, legal permanent residents, temporary migrants, refugees, and persons living illegally in the United States. All other data were obtained from relevant Census Bureau reports, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism.

Regarding the use of state-level data, although many prior studies that examined the effects of immigration on crime used city or metro-level data, the use of such crime data to estimate the effects of immigration is problematic. Many studies that used city-level

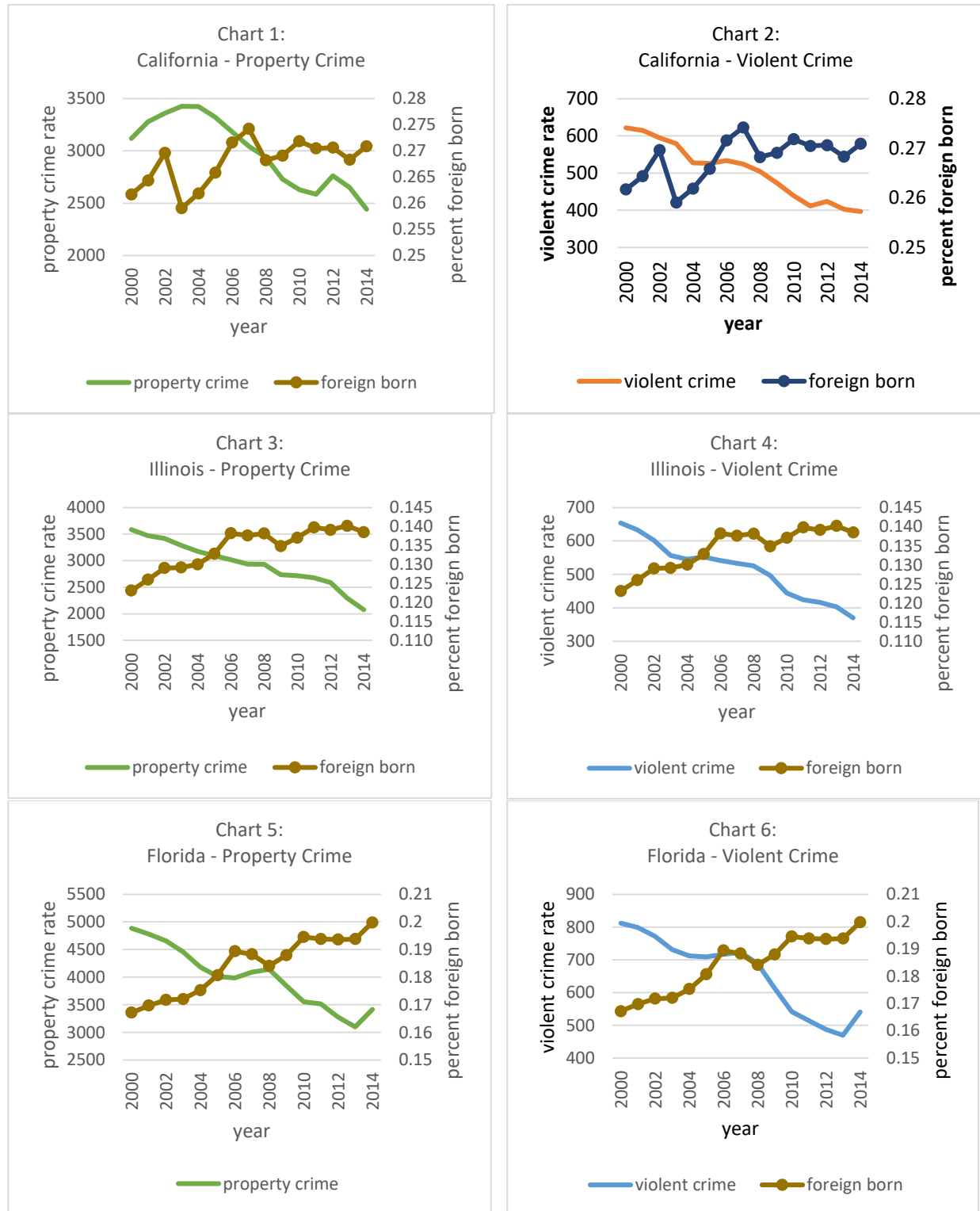


crime data obtained their data from the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports (UCR). In order to compile the UCR, local and state police agencies voluntarily submit crime data to the FBI. Many times, local police agencies send incomplete data to the FBI. In addition, the FBI has limited control over the quality and reliability of this data. Although the FBI attempts to correct for missing observations by imputing data, they only use these imputed values to aggregate the data to the state, regional, and national levels (Maltz & Targonski, 2002). Due to the inconsistency of this data, the use of city or county-level crime data for any type of analysis should be viewed with suspicion. Finally, according to Helland and Tabarrok (2004), there is evidence that city and county-level crime data is subject to shocks. The effects of these shocks cannot be taken account of by conventional measures to correct standard errors. Hence, if left uncorrected, the standard errors may be biased downwards. Given these issues with city and county-level crime data and given that many prior studies examining the determinants of crime in other contexts used state-level data, the use of state-level crime data in the present study is warranted and appropriate.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Violent Crime Rate	391.25	164.95
Property Crime Rate	3154.92	794.10
Rape Rate	32.84	11.46
Robbery Rate	99.52	55.52
Aggravated Assault Rate	252.86	121.40
Murder Rate	4.54	2.31
Burglary Rate	673.59	232.44
Percent Foreign Born	0.082	0.059
Percent Black	0.102	0.094
Real Per Capita Income	17560	2723
Percent College Graduates	0.268	0.049
Unemployment Rate	0.0589	0.0206
Percent Age 18-24	0.0989	0.0101
Percent Age 25-34	0.135	0.0486
Population Density	191.29	256.25
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	2.36	0.483
Per Capita Prison Population	430.52	176.01
Per Capita Police Personnel	305.558	110.568

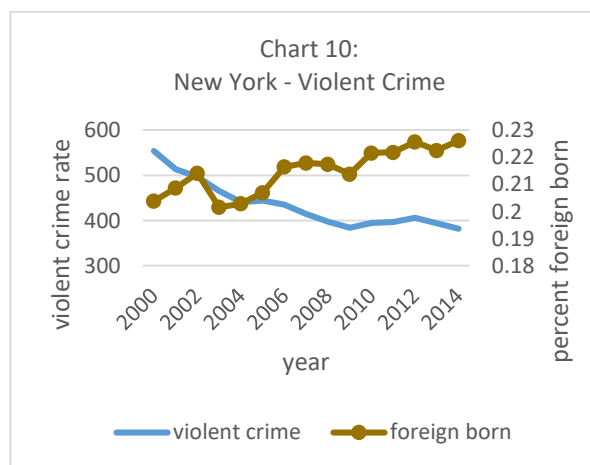
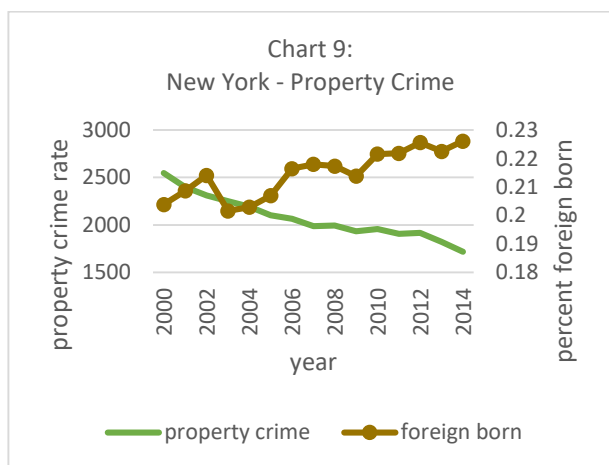
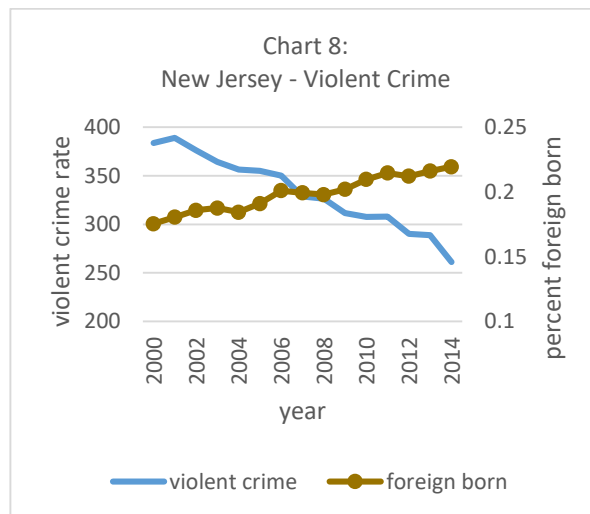
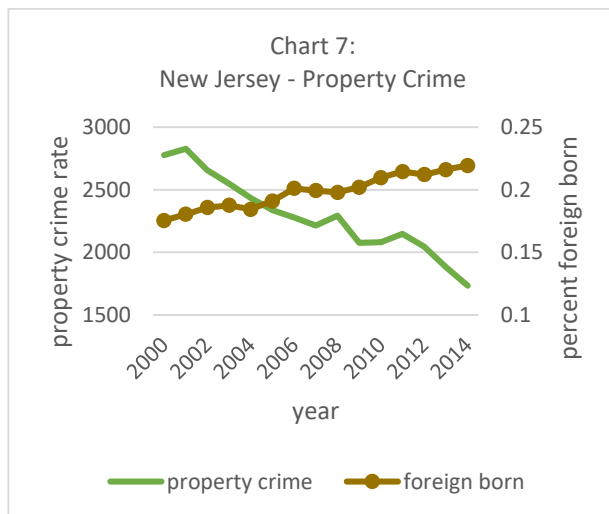
Descriptive statistics are presented on Table 1. For the period in question, the average percentage of state population that is foreign born is 8.2%.

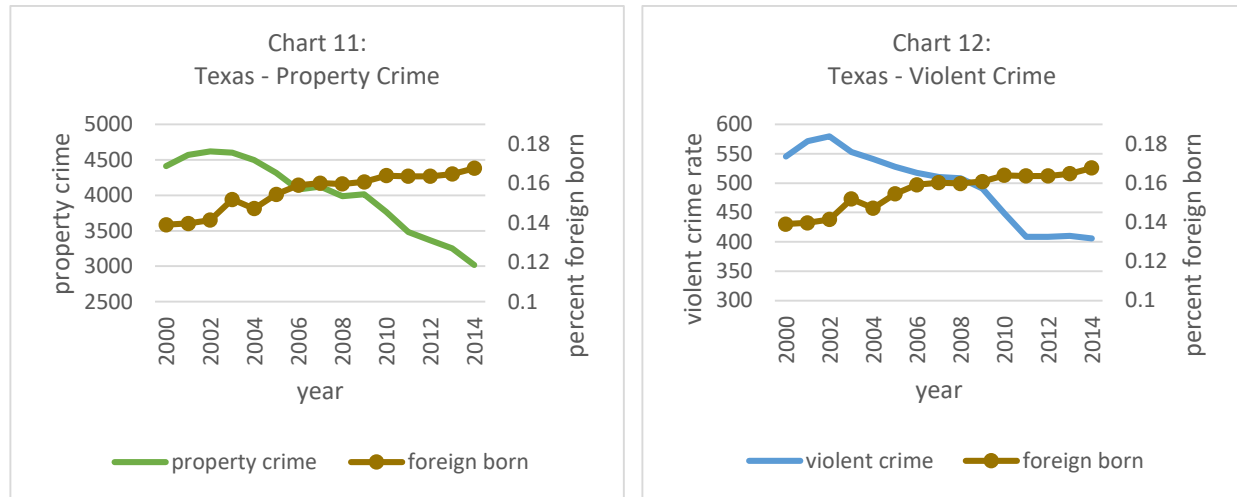


On Charts 1-12, data on the percent foreign born and the violent crime and property crime rates are presented for the six states with the highest percentages of foreign-born populations. It is possible to discern several interesting trends and relationships from



these charts. First, the percentage foreign born is relatively stable within a given state over the 14-year period examined. In California, for example, it only ranged from 26% to 28%. Second, it appears as if there is an inverse relationship between foreign-born populations and crime rates. As foreign-born populations increased, the crime rates fell. Hence, this summary data suggest that increased immigration is negatively associated with criminal activity at the state level.





As noted previously, a fixed effects model that controls for both state-level and year fixed effects was used. All observations were weighted using state-level population, standard errors were corrected using a clustering method (clustering was done at the state level), and a log-linear functional form was used. Weighted variables were used because crime rates fluctuate much more over time in less populated states. Weighting variables controls for this population-sensitive fluctuation. Given that state-level data was used, it was assumed that the percent foreign born is exogenous. Results are presented on Tables 2-8.

TABLE 2. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS VIOLENT CRIME RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	6.09	30.24***
Percent Foreign Born	-0.442	-0.64
Percent Black	4.47	6.93***
Real Per Capita Income	0.0000002	0.04
Percent College Graduates	0.118	0.48
Unemployment Rate	-0.398	-0.98
Percent Age 18-24	-0.583	-1.85*
Percent Age 25-34	0.283	0.62
Population Density	-0.0047	-9.59***
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.204	5.71***
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00024	3.07***
Per Capita Police Personnel	0.000053	0.57

Notes:

R² = 0.958

p-value<=0.01 ***, 0.05 <= p-value<=0.1 *



TABLE 3. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS PROPERTY CRIME RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	8.042	52.44***
Percent Foreign Born	0.0385	0.07
Percent Black	0.339	0.69
Real Per Capita Income	0.0000031	0.63
Percent College Graduates	0.0807	0.43
Unemployment Rate	0.00049	0.01
Percent Age 18-24	-0.518	-2.15**
Percent Age 25-34	-0.163	-0.47
Population Density	-0.00072	-1.92*
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.00924	0.34
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00013	2.17**
Per Capita Police Personnel	0.00013	1.84*

Notes:

R² = 0.956

p-value<=0.01 ***; 0.01< p-value < 0.05 **; 0.05 <= p-value<=0.1 *

TABLE 4. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS RAPE RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	3.72	15.04***
Percent Foreign Born	-1.84	-2.17**
Percent Black	4.05	5.12***
Real Per Capita Income	0.0000088	1.10
Percent College Graduates	-0.203	-0.67
Unemployment Rate	-0.679	-1.36
Percent Age 18-24	0.0603	0.16
Percent Age 25-34	0.541	0.97
Population Density	-0.0041	-6.74***
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.00489	0.11
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00034	3.50***
Per Capita Police Personnel	0.000075	0.65

Notes:

R² = 0.931

p-value<=0.01 ***; 0.01< p-value < 0.05 **

TABLE 5. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS ROBBERY RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	4.72	19.79***
Percent Foreign Born	-1.12	-1.36
Percent Black	3.142	4.11***
Real Per Capita Income	0.0000017	0.22
Percent College Graduates	-0.201	-0.69
Unemployment Rate	0.721	1.50
Percent Age 18-24	-0.0412	-0.11
Percent Age 25-34	0.952	1.77*
Population Density	-0.00268	-4.61***
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.125	2.95***
Per Capita Prison Population	0.0001	1.11
Per Capita Police Personnel	-0.00006	-0.55

Notes:

R² = 0.969

p-value<=0.01 ***; 0.05 <= p-value<=0.1 *

TABLE 6. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS AGGRAVATED ASSAULT RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	5.446	21.58***
Percent Foreign Born	0.116	0.13
Percent Black	5.48	6.79***
Real Per Capita Income	-0.0000012	-0.14
Percent College Graduates	0.356	1.16
Unemployment Rate	-0.682	-1.34
Percent Age 18-24	-0.92	-2.33**
Percent Age 25-34	0.365	0.64
Population Density	-0.0056	-9.05***
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.274	6.11***
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00022	2.27**
Per Capita Police Personnel	0.00007	0.59

Notes:

R² = 0.954

p-value<=0.01 ***; 0.01< p-value < 0.05 **

TABLE 7. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS MURDER RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	0.603	1.77*
Percent Foreign Born	-1.117	-0.95
Percent Black	1.549	1.42
Real Per Capita Income	0.0000046	0.41
Percent College Graduates	0.324	0.78
Unemployment Rate	-1.44	-2.11**
Percent Age 18-24	-0.756	-1.42



Percent Age 25-34	-0.208	-0.27
Population Density	0.00149	1.79*
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	0.154	2.54**
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00072	5.41***
Per Capita Police Personnel	-0.00027	-1.73*

Notes:

 $R^2 = 0.919$ p-value ≤ 0.01 ***; $0.01 < \text{p-value} < 0.05$ **; $0.05 \leq \text{p-value} < 0.1$ *

TABLE 8. FIXED EFFECTS REGRESSION RESULTS BURGLARY RATE

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Intercept	7.08	36.19***
Percent Foreign Born	0.749	1.11
Percent Black	1.17	1.87*
Real Per Capita Income	-0.000011	-1.67*
Percent College Graduates	-0.325	-1.36
Unemployment Rate	0.778	1.97**
Percent Age 18-24	-0.659	-2.15**
Percent Age 25-34	-0.226	-0.51
Population Density	-0.0022	-4.58***
Per Capita Alcohol Consumption	-0.0479	-1.38
Per Capita Prison Population	0.00019	2.49***
Per Capita Police Personnel	0.00017	1.82*

Notes:

 $R^2 = 0.963$ p-value ≤ 0.01 ***; $0.01 < \text{p-value} < 0.05$ **; $0.05 \leq \text{p-value} < 0.1$ *

These results suggest that the percentage of the state's population that is foreign born has no statistically-significant effects on most crimes. In fact, the percent foreign born only has a significant effect on the state-level rape rate and that effect is negative. Hence, states with larger foreign-born populations actually have lower rates of rape. These results thus indicate that increased immigration is not associated with an increase in criminal activity, hence validating the findings of most prior studies.

Regarding the control variables, the variables that were statistically significant in the majority of regressions include the following: percentage of the population that is Black, per capita alcohol consumption, and population density. These results are consistent with the findings of prior studies.

CONCLUSION

Immigration was an important topic in the recent presidential election. President Trump typically campaigned against increased levels of immigration, especially illegal

immigration. In order to stem the flow of migrants, President Trump has proposed building a wall along the entire U.S.-Mexican border, reducing the number of refugees admitted into the U.S., and possibly even reducing the number of H-1B visas. The reasons given for the reducing the flow of migrants range from economic issues (migrants taking jobs from U.S. citizens) to security concerns (preventing terrorists from entering the U.S.). Another reason for reducing the flow of migrants is the belief that immigrants, and especially illegal immigrants, commit relatively more crimes than the native-born populace. In fact, one of Donald Trump's first executive orders created the Victims of Immigration Crime Enforcement Office within the U.S. Immigration and Crime Enforcement. This office's primary purpose is to acknowledge and serve the needs of crime victims and their families who have been affected by crimes committed by criminal aliens.

Early sociological theories somewhat support the view that increased immigration levels result in more crime. Most of those theories, however, have been refuted by recent empirical evidence that shows that increased immigration does not result in more crime. In fact, many prior studies found that increased immigration actually results in a reduction in criminal activity. This prior research has several shortcomings, including the use of micro-level, decennial data. Given that most of this prior research used city-level or metro-level data, the impact of increased immigration on smaller cities and rural areas was ignored.

In order to address these deficiencies in the research, the present study estimated the impact of foreign-born populations on state-level crime rates. The use of state-level data allowed for the use of annual data and greatly reduced the likelihood that immigration was endogenous in the estimating methodology. Using state-level data for the period 2000-2014, the present study found that the percent of the state's population that is foreign born has no statistically-significant effects on a wide variety of crime rates, both violent and property. In fact, the higher the state's percentage of foreign born, the lower is its rape rate. These results are significant in that they validate the findings of most of the prior research in this area even though the level of geographic analysis used in this study is very different and is much more at the macro-level than that used in prior studies. In addition, the only recent study that found a somewhat positive relationship between increased immigration and crime used county-level data and found this positive relationship in a 2SLS model for only one crime (robbery).

Although the present study has its shortcomings, it is significant nonetheless in that it is one of the few studies that examines crime at the state level and yet still does not find a positive relation between immigration (percent foreign born) and crime. These findings clearly repudiate the oft-mentioned belief, unsupported by empirical evidence that



increased immigration results in more crime. It is important to note that undocumented aliens are included in the estimated counts of foreign-born populations used in the present study. Therefore, although the current data do not allow for segregation by citizenship or documented status, the results of the present study suggest that even higher levels of undocumented aliens should not result in increased levels of criminal activity. Hence, current policies on the deportation of undocumented aliens should be reconsidered, especially in light of the evidence that increased levels of immigration do not result in increased levels of criminal activity.

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FEMALE ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TOURISM: A STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE IN MACEDONIA

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Abstract

The entrepreneurship is one of the most important factors that contributes to the initiation of the self-development. By introducing a female entrepreneurship, the participation of women in the process of economic development has been increased in many ways. Yet, many obstacles are noted in the line of empowering women in their entrepreneurial achievement. Unlike other countries, men and women in Macedonia slightly differ in sectors in which they are engaged, generally depending on the managerial gender. The paper elaborates the main findings from a survey undertaken when evaluating the role of women working in tourism and running a tourism business in Macedonia. Moreover, the study assesses the current position of women in tourism in terms of detecting the most profound obstacles for their entrepreneurial advancement. For that purpose, a self-administered questionnaire was distributed among managers and employees working in travel agencies and tourism service facilities in several locations in Macedonia. While women share the same view with men concerning many investigated issues, their perception towards participation of women entrepreneurs in tourism in Macedonia strongly differs. Hence, men did not have unique attitudes whereas women's perception is that their participation in tourism entrepreneurship is moderate and needs to be improved. Furthermore, the paper outlines the specific problems that women are faced with when being employed in tourism. Finally, in order to over-bridge the gap and move from the current to the vision of change, based on the research findings, the paper recommends many interventions to be implemented.

Key words:

Entrepreneurship, Strategic management, Tourism, Women enhancement, Macedonia.

INTRODUCTION

The state of gender equality in the labor market is a phenomenon that is increasingly gaining importance in the European Union and in Macedonia as well. Gender mainstreaming and the balanced participation of men and women in the labor market is a crucial indicator for further action and initiate policies that may improve the

society. The gender equality in Macedonia is guaranteed by the Constitution as a fundamental human right and one of the most important goals and priorities of the country. At the same time, the employment in Macedonia is characterized by a very unfavorable gender structure, unstable economic and social conditions, and a mismatch between the available and needed profiles on the labor market.

The objective of this paper is to assess the current involvement of women in entrepreneurship in tourism sector in Macedonia. In particular, the paper attempts to explore and identify the specific problems that women are faced with when being in a position to become an entrepreneur in tourism domain. The focus is put on detecting the major profound limits for improving women entrepreneurship, in the first line by assessing the perception of managers and employees working in travel agencies and catering facilities in selected destinations in Macedonia. The contribution of the study is the fact that it enriches the poorly developed academic work in Macedonia addressing this issue.

The paper is structured in several parts. After the introductory part, the rest is organised as follows: Section 2 provides a background material on women entrepreneurship from global and national perspective. Section 3 presents the methodological frame, while the analysis, results and discussion of the research are noted in Section 4. The closing remarks, future challenges and recommendations are presented in the final section.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a large body of literature elaborating the importance of female entrepreneurship. Various approaches have been applied to investigate this issue and to identify the main motif that urges women to do business, which is often a successful one (Birley, 1989; Cromie & Hays, 1988; Scott, 1986; Star & Yudkin, 1996; Zapalska & Brozik, 2014). It is even noted that women are more motivated than men by non-economic goals, like personal fulfillment and independence (Burke et al, 2002; Orhan & Scott, 2001; Schindehutte et al, 2003).

Furthermore, Hisrich and Brush (1983) argue that the most common features which are considered to create an overview of the profile of women entrepreneurs are: age, marital status, education, career, past experience, ethnic identity, work-family clashes, reasons for starting a private business or similar. Yet, women who started business in their early twenties have more growth oriented ventures compared to forty years old women (Mitra, 2002). They choose self-employment due to the flexibility to make balance between family and work obligations (Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001).

BACKGROUND MATERIAL

Global perspective on women entrepreneurs



Entrepreneurship is the strongest expression of individual freedom of men to realize their potential through free and sovereign realization of ideas (Stein et al, 2013). The number of managers and professionals within the existing businesses and companies that can be described as entrepreneurs is constantly increasing. These are people who have entrepreneurial qualities in realizing innovative projects in larger companies. However, very few enterprises are run by women, and women managers work mainly in businesses owned by women. The analysis based on a survey by the World Bank (2009), where are considered small, medium and large businesses shows that 36% of surveyed enterprises are owned by women, and 18% are managed by women. In this way, businesses owned by women are defined as businesses in which at least one of the owners is a woman, and businesses run by women are those managed by women. Thus, women manage 10% of enterprises owned by men and 33% of businesses are owned by women.

In this respect, Minniti (2010) and Van der Zwan et al, (2011) suggest that the ownership of women's businesses are behind men and why they are untapped "source of entrepreneurial energy." Bardasi et al, (2011) notes that women entrepreneurs are more concentrated in certain sectors such as retail and hospitality, while men are present in all sectors of the economy. Finally, the concentration in the informal sectors is explaining the gender gap in the productivity of the firms, resulting with productivity in different sectors (Minniti & Naudé, 2010).

In the context of ECO (Europe and Central Asia), a recent study by Paul and Sarma (2013) explore the gender gap, which participates with 6.5% in self-employment, which is characterized by several aspects. Companies established on the Balkan are considered to be companies with the most profound gender gap. It is very important, as Paul and Sarma (2013) have pointed out, that self-employed women in middle-income countries on the Balkans and the CIS (Community Innovation Surveys) are more likely to pay bribes in order to succeed in the business than women in other regions. In Russia, where there are various databases on this issue, Gamberoni and Posadas (2012) show that the income gap between men and women is 26% in favor of men. Based on the survey data, it is found that those businesses run by women sell less than businesses run by men, although having higher value added per worker.

Women entrepreneurs are marked as new engines of growth and economies in developing countries that contribute to the prosperity and well-being. They are appointed as an important "untapped source" of economic growth and development (Minniti & Naudé, 2010). World Economic Forum on Women Entrepreneurs at their annual meeting in 2012 identifies them as "the way forward." Others named them as "new social movement" and claim that "... forget about aid, focus on women entrepreneurs as key drivers of growth and development" (Forbes, 2011).

Women have similar entrepreneurial potential as men and are able to contribute to wealth creation, self-employment, as well as to starting and developing their own businesses. Unfortunately, their potential is not fully realized and exploited because of systemic challenges faced by women entrepreneurs (Hanson, 2009). Globally, women who choose to pursue entrepreneurial ventures have limited representation in the construction industry, which limits their contribution to economic development (Verwey, 2005; Worrall et al, 2008).

If you analyze the gender gap in entrepreneurship in the EU as a whole, reflecting the trends in the rest of the developed world, including the United States, there has been a significant growth in female entrepreneurship in the recent decades. The employment rate of women in the EU is largely unaffected by the recession and the number of male entrepreneurs decreased by 17% between 2008 and 2010 (EC, 2010). Specifically, studies have shown that the rate of self-employed women in France, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom has grown steadily over the past decade (Hatfield, 2015).

While this is an encouraging trend, the percentage of women is only 29% of 40 million entrepreneurs in the EU in 2012, in line with the rest of the developed world in which women own and manage about one third of all companies in developed countries (McClelland et al, 2005). It also shows that the rate of female self-employment is behind male equivalent in each EU country, and the biggest difference is found in Ireland, Sweden and Denmark and the lowest in Luxembourg and Portugal (Hatfield, 2015).

National perspective on women entrepreneurs

Unlike other countries, men and women in Macedonia slightly differ in the sectors in which they are engaged. No matter whether it is a male or female, the business does not depend on the gender of the manager or the owner. The majority of businesses are run by women in the retail sector, while a larger percentage of men are found in transport, construction, clothing and metal processing. More businesses run by women than men can be found in the sectors of retail, chemicals, food industry, plastics and rubber. Similar patterns of distribution by sector can be found if making a breakdown by gender of the owner. Businesses run by women are equally productive like businesses run by men whether you measure productivity by the volume of sales or by the value added per worker.

Women entrepreneurs in Macedonia are faced with many obstacles in exercising their entrepreneurial potentials. According to the GEM (2012), most of them feel that there are very few opportunities for doing business and they do not possess the necessary skills. An equal number of men and women would not have started a business regarding the fear of its failure. 22% of respondents feel that they will have a good chance to start a business in the next six months, which is a small number compared to the participants. It is interesting to note that although there are similarities between



spotting the business opportunities by men and women, more men realize them. This is confirmed by the percentage of the total number of new entrepreneurs who recognized the possibility of starting a business: 9.35% were men and 2.83% were women. Data shows that women recognize the support for starting a new business with self-employment in Macedonia (3.14%), which is on a higher level from Croatia (2.80%). They also see it as an acceptable option for their career. In addition, 4.38% of them say that they are equally capable of starting a new business, as opposed to Zenit in Ireland (3.95%), and Croatia (2.95%).

TABLE 1. WOMEN SUPPORT IN STARTING BUSINESS

Statement: "In my country..."	Macedonia	Ireland	Slovenia	Croatia
...there are sufficient social services available so that women can continue to work even after they start a family	2.92	2.51	3.06	2.35
...starting a new business is a socially acceptable career option for women	3.14	3.95	3.61	2.80
...women are encouraged to become self-employed or start a new business	2.89	2.82	3.08	2.71
...men and women get equally exposed to good opportunities to start a new business	3.65	3.37	3.69	2.66
...men and women have the same level of knowledge and skills to start a new business	4.38	3.95	4.63	2.95
Average	3.40	3.32	3.61	2.69

Source: GEM. (2012:55).

Note: The scale of possible answers is from 1 to 5 where 1 denotes complete disagreement with the statement, whilst 5 signifies complete agreement with the statement.

It is difficult to confirm the rates of female entrepreneurship in Macedonia, as the Central Registry of the Republic of Macedonia does not provide reports on the gender of the owner of the company. When compared, women entrepreneurs in Macedonia have similar opportunities to realize business opportunities as Croatia, Slovenia and Ireland.

Furthermore, Macedonian women entrepreneurs along with Slovenian seem to possess much higher level of knowledge and skills for starting a new business, than the Irish. The average score for support for women to start a business in Macedonia is lower than in Slovenia, but higher than in Croatia. There is a gap between the perception: "Men and women are equally capable of starting a business" and the low percentage of businesses started by women in the country. The 9.35% of new entrepreneurs are male, while only 4.54% are women. However, according to Table 1, most experts agree that men and women have equal opportunities to start a business.

In Macedonia, slight movements are registered making some efforts to raise the awareness about the role of women into the economy and society in general. This is the case of the Association of Women Organizations in Macedonia. Moreover, several non-government organizations take active policy actions aimed to activate and involve women in the economic and political life of the country. Nevertheless, despite women's available human potential and capabilities for successful development of women entrepreneurship, strong governmental support is indispensable. More precisely, by providing material or non-material governmental support, women slowly but surely find their place in the Macedonian economy (Tašaminova, 2012). Studies generational dynamics of employment shows that in overall, entrepreneurial firms led by women grow proportionately faster than other firms. Moreover, in the long term, entrepreneurial firms create positive externalities leading to more jobs.

Indicators of perception of entrepreneurial potential and skills needed in Macedonia, according to gender show that women are high in all positions, except in the view of the fear of failure (44.2%), where men expressed greater indicator in that position (45.6%).

TABLE 2. PERCEPTION OF ENTREPRENEURIAL POTENTIAL AND NEEDED SKILLS IN MACEDONIA ACCORDING TO GENDER (%)

Entrepreneurial perception	Women	Men
Possibilities for starting a business	32.3	29.2
Fear of failure*	44.2	45.6
Personal acquaintance of entrepreneur**	38.2	24.4
Possesses skills for running a business	64.2	45.7
Total new entrepreneurs	9.4	4.5
Set businesses	9.2	4.2
Total new entrepreneurs with possibilities to start business	4.8	1.6
Total new entrepreneurs who started business due to necessity	4.4	2.8

Source: Data from Global Entrepreneurship Survey 2008-2010-2012 (p.53).

Notes:

*Calculated from the percentage of sample at age of 18-64 who feels that there are good business start-up opportunities.

**Calculated from the percentage of sample at age of 18-64 not involved in entrepreneurial activities.

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH FRAME

The study involved a field survey conducted in July 2015 with the main aim to evaluate the role of women working in tourism and hospitality in Macedonia. In that line, a self-administered questionnaire was distributed among managers and employees working in travel agencies, and catering facilities like hotels, motels, private villas, restaurants and taverns.

The respondents were previously well informed about the aims of the survey undertaken in several locations in Macedonia. A total of 317 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 270 were complete and usable yielding an overall response rate of 85.2%. The respondents were asked to assess the current position of women in



tourism. Hence, they were asked to express their level of agreement with the statements posed in Table 3. More precisely, the respondents were asked to choose just one choice from the five-point Likert scale, where 1 equals to strongly disagree; 2 - disagree; 3 - neutral; 4 - agree; and 5 - strongly agree. Furthermore, the respondents were asked to detect the most profound obstacles for enhancing female entrepreneurship in tourism. In this line, the respondents were asked to choose between the options of "not present," "present in low/medium/high intensity," and "I do not know" (Figure 1). Due to the lack of standardization, limited reliability, and scarce measurement, simple tests were applied and processed in SPSS.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Table 3 presents the statements for assessing the current position of women in tourism. It is interesting to note that women share the same view as men regarding some issues. Namely, they agree that there is equity in payment between women and men (for the same job), the opportunities for employment and career development in tourism and hospitality are equal, women have sufficient knowledge and skills to work in tourism and working in tourism and hospitality requires knowledge and skills.

Yet, women have completely different opinions from men concerning other issues. In fact, women absolutely oppose to men who disagree that the work in tourism is safe and secure. They also disagree with men and strongly share that prejudices do exist regarding the ability and expertise of women. Another confronting attitude is the statement that women working in tourism should be attractive and should know how to cope with indecent comments of guests. Namely, men agree but women totally disagree. While men disagree that if working in rural areas they can be employed much more easily than women, the female have neutral opinion.

The situation is the same referring the statement that male family members have priority in job search. In the cases of investigating the opinion for the unavailability of funding sources as an obstacle for tourism business run by women entrepreneurs, and the membership of woman in the Tourism Committee can improve the position of women entrepreneurs in tourism sector, the female respondents strongly agree opposite to the male respondents who did not have unique attitude. Regarding the following statements that in tourism the work is well paid, that it is much easier for men than women and the existence of sexual harassment and mobbing, one may not draw any statistically significant conclusions with gender cross-tabulation, due to the very split opinions of the respondents.

TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF STATEMENTS

There is equity in payment of women and men (for the same job).
Employment opportunities in tourism are equal for women and men.
Opportunities for career development are equal for women and men.
Work in tourism and hospitality sector is safe and secure.
Prejudice exists regarding the ability and expertise of women.
Men more often participate in training, specialization or other types of specialization compared to women.
Women working in tourism and hospitality should be attractive and should know how to cope with indecent comments of guests.
Living in rural areas is a barrier for employment.
Men working in rural areas get employed much easier than women.
Women have sufficient knowledge and skills to work in tourism and hospitality.
Male family members have priority in job search.
The work in tourism and hospitality is well paid.
Working in tourism and hospitality requires knowledge and skills.
Working in tourism and hospitality is much easier for men than women.
There is sexual harassment and mobbing in the tourism and hospitality sector.
Unavailability of funding sources is an obstacle for tourism business run by women entrepreneurs.
Membership of women in the Tourism Committee can improve the position of women entrepreneurs in tourism sector.

Source: Authors

Figure 1 presents the key findings upon the summarized survey results on the main profound limits for improvement. The processed data gave in-depth conclusions concerning the entrepreneurial advancement of women in tourism in Macedonia. It is interesting that women share the same view as men relating many investigated issues. Yet, their perception towards participation of women entrepreneurs in tourism in Macedonia strongly differs.

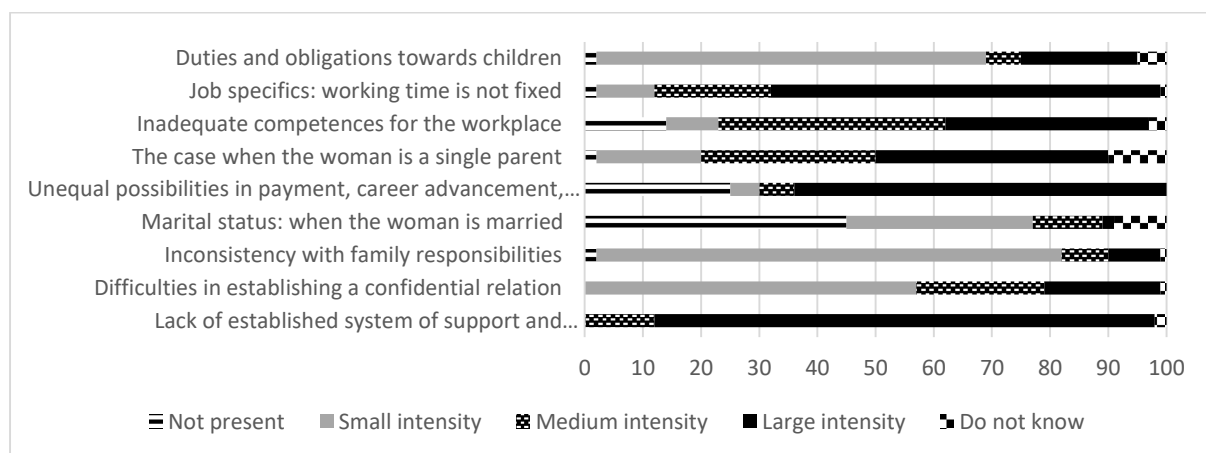


FIG. 1. SUMMARIZED SURVEY RESULTS

Source: Authors



The following indicators were most commonly selected. Between 70% and 98% of respondents denoted presence at a medium to high level of intensity:

- Lack of established system of support and understanding by the employer;
- Job specifics: working time is not fixed;
- Inadequate competences for the workplace;
- Unequal possibilities in payment, career advancement, participation and professional development of women; and
- The case when the woman is a single parent. Four-fifths of the respondents identified the 'Difficulties in establishing a confidential relation' as being of medium significance.

The results also reflected a significant variation in respondents' attitudes towards the indicators regarding the 'Duties and obligations towards children' as well as the 'Inconsistency with family responsibilities', which most probably stems from different understandings of the issues. Nonetheless, it is interesting to note that the 'Marital status: when the woman is married' as a significant obstacle for women enhancement in tourism was generally indicated as "not present" by large number of respondents, which does not, however, detract from the importance of being a factor that may profoundly affect entrepreneurial advancement of women.

CONCLUSION

The paper examined the possibility of empowering female entrepreneurs in tourism in Macedonia. It identified the major characteristics related to women managerial work in tourism sector, and analyzed some profound difficulties they are faced with. The findings presented are from a survey among managers and employees in tourism and hospitality sector in Macedonia aimed to evaluate the role of women.

There is an agreement that women are underrepresented in entrepreneurial activities in Macedonia. However, this is the case for most countries in the world, and is also due to the different social and cultural traditions and norms. The social aspect is very important for development of women entrepreneurship, in terms of a better cooperation and harmonization between kindergartens and institutions to assist the women entrepreneurs who are also mothers so they can be directed towards the development and normal functioning of the business world. On the other hand, it is mostly sure that to some extent there are developed female entrepreneurs in Macedonia.

In order to over-bridge the gap and move from the current to the vision of change, based on the research findings, the following interventions are recommended:

- Interventions for career awareness;
- Media and marketing blitz focusing on promoting tourism as an attractive career choice;

- Tourism awareness campaigns that will help raise the profile of tourism and hospitality as a challenging and prosperous working environment;
- Interventions for recruitment;
- Media and marketing blitz focusing on employment of women under the slogan "Tourism is a career of choice";
- Promotion of stimulating courses and career programs for unemployed women as new recruits for tourism;
- Interventions for employment of women entering and empowering tourism and hospitality sector;
- Sponsoring best-practice tourism management policy from the destination in the line of promoting and coordinating establishment of tourism as preferred employer (known as performance through people);
- Dissemination of materials for raising awareness for necessity of introducing systems and support mechanisms to encourage and facilitate women's participation in a decision-making process;
- TV and radio campaigns for creating positive attitude for women entering tourism, particularly assisting women to return to work after pregnancy and maternity period;
- Workshops on promoting a fair and equitable sharing of benefits from tourism. Special modules on: Valuing and paying for work carried out by female; Adopting and enforcing equal pay for equal work policies; Ensuring equal access to all resources, etc.;
- Informative meetings and dissemination of materials on promoting "Women's Voices and Leadership". Information on approaches for promoting women's involvement in all aspects of tourism and hospitality functioning. Spreading the importance and necessity of ensuring that women's voices are heard at local level;
- Capacity building of women for running tourism business with special focus of funding; and
- Round tables for clarifying the importance of the membership in the Tourism Committee in terms of improving the position of women entrepreneurs in tourism. Supporting credit cooperatives or other schemes providing groups of women with access to credit, technology and market linkages.

The study underscores the importance of continuous, systematic analysis of specific problems that women are faced with when being employed in tourism and hospitality in Macedonia. This research may be enhanced by broadening it with additional significant indicators for better assessment of the possibilities for entrepreneurial advancement of women in tourism. Yet, besides the limitations of the scope of the research, this article possess relevant conclusions upon which serious measures and activities may be initiated for detecting the negative impacts for female entrepreneurship in tourism in Macedonia.



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