



Gendering the Academy
and Research: combating
Career Instability and Asymmetries



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1

Contextualizing Women's Academic Careers: Comparative Perspectives on Gender, Care and Employment Regimes in Seven European Countries

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General introduction

The main objective of this report is to enable GARCIA researchers to pinpoint the role of context in structuring the career opportunities for women (and men) in the early stages of academic occupations, in order to elaborate self-tailored action plans for equality, that take national, regional and cultural specificities into account.

It is premised on the need to analyze the societal and institutional environments of young scientists in terms of the structure of opportunities and constraints offered by various “welfare”, “gender”, “care” and “employment” regimes. This report therefore provides the background information supplied by the GARCIA partners, from three distinct analytical perspectives:

- Firstly, the background data analysis enables us to map national welfare, gender, employment and care “regimes” (e.g. education, family formation patterns, employment, child-care, health, equal opportunities, work-life balance) and to show how these structure women’s career opportunities in general;
- Secondly, the background data analysis enables us to identify any local (cultural, ethnic, religious, linguistic, regional, etc.) differences / particularities within these societal-level “regimes”, and, where pertinent, to analyze their influence on women’s early academic careers;
- Finally, the background data analysis enables all partners to analyze the extent to which the academic employment sector is congruent with or deviates from these societal and local “regimes”.

Two main hypotheses underpin this Deliverable:

- Some countries are very homogeneous in their social structure, value systems and legislative frameworks, whereas others are marked by differences between linguistic regions, ethnic groups, generations or other significant types of social stratification.

- In some countries, employment patterns in HE & Research differ little from those in other labor market sectors, whereas this sector has marked particularities elsewhere.

Methodology

Most of the research carried out in preparation of this deliverable is desk-based (secondary data collection + analysis + comparison).

Additional local and sector-level information may also have been obtained through expert interviews with key informants (5 max / country).

1. Italy

Introduction: Contextual overview

Key Indicators

Population, total (millions): 59.83 (2013)
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$): \$35,860 (2013)
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population (2010): 1.4% (2010)
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 1.4 (2012)
Share of women employed in the non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural employment): 45% (2012)
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 4 (2013)
Number of weeks of maternity leave: 22 (2009)
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%): 31% (2014)

Source: ¹ <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/italy>

Traditional gender roles underpin the family-employment system in Italy, shaping the family-centred character of the welfare regime. The employment regime in Italy is characterised by high rates of self-employment, high shares of people employed in small firms, a high degree of employment protection for employees on open-ended contracts (employed either in medium-large firms or in the public sector), combined with a high degree of flexibility to a large extent achieved through an increasing share of atypical contracts and an extended underground economy. All these factors give rise to the marked labour market segmentation, which is related to the extreme fragmentation in the social security system and noticeable differences in employment protection (that depends on public/private sector, firm size, employment contract and on formal/informal work). As a result, young people, women and migrants suffer significant disadvantages in gaining access to jobs with adequate rights and social security provisions. The academic system clearly mirrors the duality between fully included workers and marginal workers as it will be shown in this report (Domain 5).

In Italy (as in other Mediterranean countries), the family plays a central role in the provision of care and assistance to its members. Families are expected to support their own members (also beyond the nuclear family) when these are in need of some kind of support, without intervention by the State. Accordingly, family policies are underdeveloped in comparison with those of other EU countries, and income

¹ Accessed January 27, 2014 [Note: this is an exact copy of the text as found on the web page]

maintenance systems are inadequate, especially for young people (unemployed or in atypical jobs). This feature is mirrored in a very low share of social expenditure relative to family and children, housing and social exclusion, and a high risk of poverty after social transfer. The outcome is the combination of very low female employment rate with very low fertility rates (Villa 2012).

Over the last few decades, women have greatly improved their educational attainment, and their labour market ambitions have increased accordingly. Along with the increase in female educational attainment, the employment rate of women (especially mothers) has increased to a significant extent especially in the decade before the crisis. However, gender gaps in employment and unemployment rates remain amongst the highest in the EU28. Thus, women are not fully integrated into the labour market or remain in its periphery, especially in Southern Italy (Villa 2010).

The family-employment system is based on rather traditional gender roles, with men employed full-time in secure jobs throughout their working life, mainly responsible for earning enough for the economic wellbeing of the whole family, while women have responsibility for family caring and domestic work. Reality is more diversified than this stylised model; however, this was the model around which labour market policies and personnel management practices were constructed and implemented. In short, the male breadwinner model of the family remains dominant. This explains, on the one hand, the high share of inactive mothers (especially in Southern Italy) and, on the other hand, the pervasive discrimination against maternity, reflected in gender inequalities in the labour market (i.e. higher female unemployment rate and higher share of women in precarious jobs). Young women are caught in the intergenerational solidarity trap: because of the lack of adequate family policies and the unfavourable context towards working mothers (and in general, towards women with family responsibilities) they have to choose between the family (taking care of the children, the elderly, the frail family members) and employment.

Because women are still the main providers of domestic services and care work, when they experience motherhood, childbearing is seen to exacerbate an already heavy and unbalanced division of household labour, and this tends to limit their fertility intentions. On the one hand, there is significant discrimination in the labour market: access to secure jobs is more difficult for young women compared to young men, hence youth female unemployment rates are higher. On the other hand, support for combining

motherhood and paid work remains weak: services for the family are insufficiently developed, family-friendly organisations are few, gender-roles in the family lead to a very asymmetric distribution of tasks.

1.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

The main features of the Italian education system are summarized in Box 1, in which is detailed the institutional configuration ranging from the lower to the higher education.

Box 1 Education system overview

The education system in Italy is organised according to the principles of subsidiarity and of autonomy of schools. The State has exclusive legislative competence on general issues on education, on minimum standards to be guaranteed throughout the country and on the fundamental principles that Regions should comply with within their competences. Regions share their legislative competences with the State on all education issues except for vocational education and training on which they have exclusive legislative competence. Schools are autonomous as for didactic, organization and research and development activities.

Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) for children aged less than 3 years, offered by nursery schools, is organized at local level and it is not part of the education system. ECEC for children aged from 3 to 6 years is part of the education system and it is not compulsory.

Compulsory education lasts for 10 years (from 6 to 16 years of age). It covers 5 years of primary school, 3 years of lower secondary school and the first two years of upper secondary school. Compulsory education can be accomplished also by attending three and four-year courses offered within the regional vocational education and training system. The upper secondary level of education has a duration of 5 years (from 14 to 19 years of age) and it is offered in both general and vocational pathways.

Higher educations offered by both universities (polytechnics included) and the High level arts and music education system (AFAM); higher technical education and training offered by the Higher Technical Institutes (ITS); education offered by the other higher institutions.

In general, adult education includes all activities aiming at cultural enrichment, requalification and professional mobility. Within the broader term ‘adult education’, the domain “School education for adults” only refers to the educational activities aimed at the acquisition of a qualification and literacy and Italian language courses. A recent reform has re-organised the School Adult Education for adults sector by replacing the former Permanent territorial centres, the evening classes held in all upper secondary schools and the relevant prison divisions, with the new Provincial Centres for School Education for Adults (CPIA).

Source: <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Italy:Overview>

Trends in education in Italy

Over the last 15 years, Italy has showed significant increases in the educational attainment of men and women. The share of 25-34 year-olds who have not attained upper secondary education decreased from 41% in 2000 to 28% in 2012. At the same

time, the share of university graduates among 25-34 year-olds steadily increased, from 11% to 22%.

Despite these positive trends in educational attainment, young Italians have on average lower levels of education than their peers in Europe. In 2012, the share of 25-34 year-olds in Italy without an upper secondary degree (28%) was far higher than the OECD average of 17% and the EU21 average of 16%. Moreover, tertiary attainment rate among 25-34 year-olds in 2012 was the fourth lowest among OECD and G20 countries (Italy ranks 34 out of 37 countries in tertiary attainment rates; see: OECD 2014a) and it was significantly far from the target set by the Europe 2020 Strategy (by 2020, at least 40% of 30-34 year olds should have a tertiary or equivalent qualification, EC 2014b).

Significant progress can still be made in preventing high school and tertiary education drop-out. Between 2010 and 2012, the share of 15-19 year-olds who are no longer in education grew slightly and in 2012 only 86% of 17-year-olds were still in education, one of the smallest proportions among OECD countries. At the same time, the university entry rates fell significantly during recent years (OECD 2014a).

Overall, women appear to perform better than men at all levels of education. Young women are usually more likely than young men to complete their upper-secondary education on time and perform better at school leaving examinations at the end of compulsory education and upper secondary school (Eurydice 2009). On average, 75% of young women complete their upper secondary education within the stipulated time, compared to 59% of young men (OECD 2014b: 61).

In Italy (as in EU28), female graduates outnumber male graduates by a ratio of approximately three to two (OECD 2014a). In 2011, 60.5% of new tertiary graduates were women, up from 56% in 2000 (see **Table I.4**). Tertiary education attainment of women in Italy has increased to 15.6%, which is still significantly below the EU27 average of 25.8% (EC 2014b).

The proportion of men and women usually varies considerably between different areas of study in tertiary education. This pattern is fairly consistent throughout Europe (Eurydice 2010: 97) and the promotion of gender atypical fields of study still remains a main challenge. In Italy gender differences across fields of study often are smaller than those observed in other European countries. In tertiary education (ISCED 5a), the share of women is particularly high in “Education” (90% in 2011/12), “Humanities & arts” (72%) and “Health & welfare” (65.7%) (see **Table I.5**). In the area of “Social science,

business and law”, which have by far the highest number of students, women are in a slight majority (57%), while the area of “Services” is slightly male dominated (approximately 46% of student are women). Finally, the area of “Science” and “Agriculture” showed in 2011 an equal distribution of women and men. The only area markedly male-dominated is “Engineering, manufacturing and construction” where less than one out of three students were women in 2011/12. However, while on average across OECD countries only 28% of all new engineering graduates were women, in Italy they reached the 40% in 2012 (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.1.1).

The balance between male and female slightly improves when we focus on people enrolled in advanced research programs (PhD students, ISCED 6). On average in 2012 there was an equal distribution between men and women among PhD students in most fields of study. Women were still the vast majority in “Education” (73.5%), “Health & welfare” (64.7%) and “Humanities & arts” (58.6%) even if the under-representation of men in these fields was less pronounced compared with the composition of graduate students (see **Table I.5**). Also for ISCED 6, the only area where women continued to be strongly under-represented is “Engineering manufacturing and construction”. In this case, 65% of PhD students were men in 2011/12. However, there is a significant variation by type of specialization. Men outnumber women in “Information technology” (80%) and “Industrial engineering” (70%), while the share between men and women is equally distributed in the case of “Civil engineering and architecture” (see Additional data Italy, Tab. A.1.2).

From education to employment

According to the 2012 data, collected for the EU employability benchmark, Italy is one of the countries (with Spain and Portugal) where recent higher education graduates face the greatest difficulties in finding work: the employment rate among recent higher education graduates is below 70% (EC 2014b). Moreover, the average real net monthly salary one year after graduation has significantly reduced during the recession: from 1,290 euro in 2007 to 1,038 in 2012 (-19.5%) (Almalaurea 2014: 167). Apart from the difficult labour market situation, these figures also suggest that there is a lack of correspondence between the courses students follow and the knowledge and skills required by the labour market. The courses students choose, as well as the quality and relevance of the programmes provided are contributing factors (EC 2014b). In general,

the field of study which guarantees the higher chances of be employed after graduation is “Health and welfare” (90%) (ISTAT 2012; Almalaurea 2014). “Engineering” is the second (70%); it is also the degree that gives access to better jobs in terms of contract, employment protection rights and long-term perspectives (ISTAT 2012a). On contrary, the situation for those with a degree in “Humanities & arts” and in “Science” (biology, chemistry, geology) is less satisfying in terms of employability with unemployment levels that exceed 40% one year after graduation (ISTAT 2012a). On average, men graduates still perform better than women in the labour market. After 5 years from graduation, 79% of men have a permanent position compared to the 67% of women and average wages are 22% higher for men (Almalaurea 2014: 159-169).

The difficulties that young tertiary educated Italians face in finding adequate work are part of the larger problem of school-to-work transitions. Italy struggles with high rates of inactivity among its young people: in 2013, 26% of 15-29 year-olds were neither in education nor employed (NEET). This share is one of the highest among OECD countries, well above the OECD average of 16%. While the proportion of NEETs in Italy decreased between 1998 (26%) and 2003 (19%), it has increased rapidly since the global recession hit in 2008. In 2013 it was 6 percentage points higher than before the recession (OECD 2014a; ISTAT/Cnel 2014).

Funding for the educational system and its gender effects

Italy is the only country where real public expenditure on educational institutions fell between 2000 and 2011, and the country with the sharpest decline (-5%) in the volume of public investment (OECD 2014a: 5). Over the same period, the share of the total funding for schools and universities that comes from private sources almost doubled and the relative weight of public funding on the total funding for educational institutions fell from the 94% of 2000 to the 89% in 2011 (OECD 2014a).

Overall the public and private expenditure per student sharply declined between 2008 and 2011 (-12%) (OECD 2014a). In part, this corresponds to a rebalancing of educational expenditures from primary and secondary schools to universities: the expenditure per tertiary student rose by 17% between 2005 and 2011. The main savings reducing expenditure per student in primary and secondary schools came from an increase of the number of students per teacher, which reduced the salary cost per student. Statutory salaries for school teachers (with 15 years of experience) were

reduced by as much as 4.5% between 2005 and 2012 across all levels of education, even if pay increases based on seniority partially compensated for the salary cut for individual teachers (OECD 2014a). However, the teacher's salaries in Italy remain definitely lower than OECD average.

One of the consequences of the increase in the students/teacher ratio, has been the considerably rise of the mean age of the teaching staff, due to the lack of job opportunities for newly qualified young teachers. In 2012, 62% of all secondary teachers were older than 50, up from 48% in 2002. This is the highest proportion of teachers of that age among all OECD countries.

Women account for the large majority of teachers in primary and secondary education. On average Italy shows a higher level of feminisation of this profession compared with the OECD and the G20 averages (OECD 2014b) (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.1.3). The proportion varies according to the level of education: while women are the majority among primary teachers (ISCED 1) with proportions varying between 99% in pre-primary education to 96% in primary education, for upper secondary education the share of women among teachers is about 66%. When we focus on tertiary education the proportion of women among teachers drastically falls to 36%, below the OECD average (42%) (OECD 2014b; Bettio, Verashchagina 2009) (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.1.3)

1.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

The Italian labour market is characterized by long-standing imbalances, which include low female participation rates, high youth unemployment rates, and a high degree of labour market segmentation. In Italy, the process of labour market flexibilisation over the last 20 years has been characterized by partial and targeted forms of deregulation that introduced new employment contracts aimed at facilitating employment of young people. These initiatives were planned to respond to widespread unemployment and informal work episodes but also to reduce the extent of labour market segmentation (given the high degree of protection granted to core workers, employed in medium-large firms in the centre-north of the country). This duality between workers fully included in the labour market (being employed with an open ended contract, enjoying a high degree of employment protection) and “marginal workers” who (in atypical and precarious form of employment, with limited or no employment protection) does actually

constitute a major hindrance that young people and women must face when they approach labour market².

The various labour market reforms have resulted in significant increase in the share of precarious jobs (fixed-term contracts, temporary jobs, collaborators and other atypical contracts) (OECD 2013b). Non-standard (i.e. flexible) jobs are often accompanied by poorer working conditions, low wages, income instability, and long-term income penalties. Moreover, there is a high risk of being trapped into precarious, low protected and low-wages work positions, especially among low educated, youth and women (Cutuli 2008; Barbieri, Scherer 2009).

The last comprehensive labour market reform, approved in June 2012³, has not modified the overall approach, though some attempts have been made to increase the economic costs (for employers) of atypical contracts. But firms still tend to hire young, inexperienced workers only if they can employ them with a temporary contract (OECD 2014b). More precisely, about 70% of new hires are on temporary contracts, one of the highest rates among OECD countries (OECD 2014c). Atypical work continues to be widespread among young people and women. Among people aged between 15 and 34 years, one employed person out of four has a temporary or a collaboration contract, with the percentage rising up to 31.7% among university graduates. Nevertheless, atypical work is not limited to very young people, as one third of these workers are aged between 35 and 49 years (ISTAT 2014, see also **Table II.16**).

Part-time work is the only type of contract that has increased between 2008 and 2013 and in a totally involuntary way (see Additional data Italy, Tab. A.2.1). It has increased from 22.1 to 25.8% among women and from 3.7 to 5.7% among men (ISTAT 2014: 89). Companies have been using part-time work as a strategy to deal with the recession (ISTAT 2013; ISTAT 2014). In nine cases out of ten the growth of part-time work occurred in the female-dominated services sector – especially retail trade, hotels and

² All these changes must be understood in the broader context of Southern European family-centered welfare system, typically characteristic of Italy. Lack of social policies explicitly targeted towards youth, low unemployment benefits and the weakness of family provisions are additional factors, which contributed to increase levels of uncertainty during the initial phases of adult life (see Domain 3 and 4).

³ This reform aimed at reducing the labour market segregation tries to rebalance the use of different atypical and precarious contractual arrangements by: *i*) extending the cooling-off period between two fixed-term contracts; *ii*) reducing the fiscal incentive for some types of non-permanent contracts; and *iii*) introducing tests to re-classify independent contractors as employees. Moreover, the reform foresees the extension of the pool of workers eligible to standard unemployment benefit (OECD 2013b).

restaurants, services for businesses, health and assistance – and concerned unskilled jobs and executive professions (ISTAT, 2014) (See **Table II.11** and **Table II.15**)⁴.

Trends in employment

Between 2008 and 2013, employment in Italy has decreased by 984 thousand units, men in the vast majority of cases (-973 thousand) whose employment rate has fallen from 70.3% in 2008 to 64.8% in 2013 (-5.5 percentage points). The employment crisis in Italy is particularly pronounced for men in the early or in the central phases of the adult life cycle. More precisely the employment rate has fallen from 29.1 in 2008 to 18.8 in 2013 (-11.3 percentage points) for men aged 15-24⁵ and from 87.3% in 2008 to 78.5% in 2013 for men aged 25-49 (-9.8 percentage points) (see **Table II.2**). The loss of employment seems to be particularly pronounced for men aged 25-49 with low levels of education, whose employment rate has fallen from 83.7% in 2008 to 72.5% (see **Table II.2**). The more intense employment adjustment for men is consistent with the fact that the crisis affected, especially at the beginning, male-dominated sectors. GDP contracted most strongly in construction, manufacturing and agriculture, all sectors in which men account for a much larger share of the workforce than women (ESDE 2013; ISTAT 2014).

Since 2008 the employment rate of women has held quite steadily even if the economic participation rate of women is still considerably lower than men and one of the lowest in Europe (12.2 points lower than EU28 average). The employment rate has moved only from 47.2% in 2008 to 46.5% in 2013 for women aged 15-64, and from 61.1% to 57.9% for women aged 25-49 (see **Table II.2**). The stability of women's employment is the result of a set of factors: i) the contribution of foreign-born employed women, who have increased by 359 thousand units between 2008 and 2013, whereas Italian women have decreased by 370 thousand units; ii) the increase in women who enter the labour market in the South to compensate their partners' unemployment; iii) the increase in women aged 50 years and over, due to the rise in retirement age (ISTAT 201: 8).

⁴ In 2013, 31.3% of all female employees (34% of women aged 25-49), and only 7.4% of the male employees worked part-time. These figures emphasize also the considerable gender gap in terms of part-time employment between men and women in Italy, which is to a large extent induced by the family commitments of women and not necessarily by choice (EC 2013: 15).

⁵ Eurostat employment statistics available at:

http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Employment_statistics

Trends in unemployment

Italian labour market continues to be characterized by low security because of a high risk of unemployment combined with a welfare system that has a low coverage of unemployed people and does not provide generous income supports to those who are entitled (OECD 2014c). Between 2008 and 2013 the number of unemployed people has doubled and the unemployment rate has reached 12.2% (+5.4 percentage points since 2008) (ISTAT, 2014). This increase has hit Southern Italy in particular (+7.7 percentage points since 2008), where the unemployment rate has reached 19.7%, among the highest in Europe. The rate of long-term unemployment has risen very sharply for youth and, to a much lesser extent, for the low skilled and prime-age men, while it has remained stable for women and skilled workers.

Gender gap

Because of the worsening of employment conditions, which is felt most by men, the gender gap continues to close. The gender gap for non-participation has gone from 11 points in 2008 to less than 8 points in 2013, but still far surpassing the European average (ISTAT/CNEL 2014). In 2014 Italy continued to be among the worst performers in the Global Gender Gap Index (ranking 69th out of 142 overall), penalized above all by the economic participation and opportunity category (114th) (WEF 2014). Italy lags behind in women's access to the labour market, remuneration, career advancement, promotion to positions of leadership and new business initiatives. The gender gap is larger in the South, by almost 9 percentage points with respect to the Centre and North; it is greatest in the 35-54 years age group and is inversely proportional to educational attainment (Banca d'Italia 2012: 87).

Gender pay gap

In Italy, the average female employee earns 5.8% less than the average male employee (see **Table II.13**), which is a considerably smaller gender pay gap than the overall EU27 average (16.2%) (Eurostat 2014). However, there is the possibility that the rather low labour market participation of women to some extent distorts the picture of the gender pay gap, as data on highly educated and thus, highly paid women can skew the statistic towards a more positive picture than is overall the case (EC 2013: 21). More accurate analyses have showed that the distance between women and men significantly increase along the wage distribution. The growth is quite steadily among low and medium wages

but there is a substantial acceleration among the highest wages. This result suggests the presence of a “glass ceiling” (ISTAT 2013: 118).

Further analyses of the gender pay gap by level of education highlight that the distance between women and men wages increases with the level of education and it is particularly high among graduates. ISTAT (2013) estimated that on average the disadvantage of graduate women with respect to men with the same level of education is -10.8% (higher than the gap between women and men with a secondary degree that is -9.9). This suggests that the investment in education does not have an equalizing effect on men and women wages able to nullify the gender pay gap. This result is partially explained by three factors: i) the higher presence of women in the lowest paid sectors; ii) the high proportion of Italian graduate women employed in under-qualified work positions and part-time (ISTAT 2013) and iii) the low presence of women at the top of the work hierarchy also in female-dominated sectors.

Horizontal segregation

In Italy horizontal segregation is similarly pronounced for occupations and sectors as in the EU27. Women occupation should be promoted in male-traditional fields, in order to make full use of the female labour force potential. Two of the five most common industries for female employees, namely "Wholesale & retail" and "Manufacturing" are also among the top five male industries (26.6% of Italian women and 36.9% of men work in either of these two sectors). The remaining three industries show a clear horizontal segregation, exemplified by "Health care & social work", "Education" and "Accommodation & food service activities", which are typically female-dominated sectors throughout the EU (EC 2013: 7). Also the distribution of women and men across the type of occupations is characterized by a gender bias. Women are primarily engaged in the fields of "Service workers and shop and market sales workers", "Clerks", or "Professionals" (see Additional data Italy, Tab. A.2.2). These constitute the group of the female-dominated occupations (see **Table II.6** and **Table II.7**). Men on the other hand rather pursue careers in technical fields, as “Craft and related trade workers” and “Technicians and associate professionals” (see Additional data Italy, Tab. A.2.1).

Vertical segregation

In terms of vertical segregation, the data show a positive trend for Italian women, even if their chances of reaching top positions are constantly lower than that for man (see

Table II.17). The female share in corporate boards has increased considerably to 11.0% in 2012 (from 2% in 2003) even if still remains clearly below the EU27 average of 16.0%. Moreover, the share of women in different management positions in large companies and SMEs reached 35.0% in 2010 (from 22.0% in 2003) and now lies above the EU27 average of 33.0%. Thus, the challenge remains to establish gender equality in Italy's business environment and its economic decision-making positions not only in corporate management positions, but also in board positions (EC 2013: 12).

Work and family roles

The low female labour market participation goes together with traditional family roles. Women often do not participate in the labour market as their role in the family limits their possibilities to pursue a career. In 2011 the employment rate of married women aged 25-49 was only 54.6%, while it reached the 65.9% for single women and exceeded the 74% among divorced women (see **Table II.3**). Furthermore, the employment rate is lower for women with children, by an average of about 6 percentage points for those aged 15-64 (see **Table II.4**). The impact of children is negative when they are small; it persists in terms of employment type (qualification, working hours and contract) and career continuity (Banca d'Italia 2012) (See also Domain 4).

1.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

Family models

Italy has gone through an important revolution in the types of family models due to a number of factors: ageing, increasing schooling and educational attainment, increasing female participation in the labour market, very low fertility rates and postponement of childbirth, decreasing marriage rate partly compensated by increasing cohabitation among young couples, finally a higher risk of family dissolution. These trends have resulted in new types of families: made up of singles, unmarried couples, couples without children, and single-parent families.

Over the last three decades there has been a dramatic reduction in the number of average members per family in Italy. The average size in 2011 is 2.6 for all households, 3.8 for couples with children and 2.5 for single parents households (OECD 2014, SF1.1). Couple families (with or without children) are the most frequent type of household (62.3%). Single-person households constitute 24.9% of all, a share relatively low

compared to other countries (OECD, 2014 SF1.1). The lower proportion of single-person households in Italy is the result of the fact that young adults leave late the parental home and that elderly live with their children. Single-parent families constitute a significant minority of households (8.9%) in Italy, close to the OECD average (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.3.1) but higher than in the Netherlands and Switzerland (OECD, 2014 SF1.1). As in other countries, women head 82.5% of single-parent families. The average Italian family today is made up of one or two children (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.3.2). The reduction in the number of new births has led to an increase in the number of couples with only one child and a significant reduction of large families (3 or more children), while the number of couples without children has not increased significantly (in comparison with other countries).

Leaving home and economic independence

In Italy, the number of children per family has decreased over time, but children stay at home much longer compared to the past. As it is well known, there are pronounced cross-country differences when it comes to leaving the parental home in Europe. This is a feature that should be highlighted in a comparative perspective: in Italy it is common to find adult children who live with their parents. At European level, the data (EU-SILC 2011) indicate that young people leave the parental home earliest in the Nordic countries, and latest in southern and eastern European countries. The median age at which young men leave home is 29.6 in Italy (26.8 for women), compared with 20 in Denmark (19.6 for women) (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.3.3).

Transition to adulthood

Leaving the parental home can be seen as one of the first active transitions to adulthood. It marks the event of starting to run one's own household and make one's own financial decisions. The age at which 50% of young people leave home in Italy is among the highest in Europe (as in most Mediterranean countries, but also Slovenia). After leaving home, they live alone for some time before moving in with a partner, and there is another long wait before they become parents (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.3.3). For these reasons, the age at which 50% of young people in Italy become parents is also the highest in Europe (EU27): 37.2 for men and 31.8 for women.

There has been a general trend of postponement and increased complexity of transitions to adulthood. This is explained by cultural, institutional and economic factors, such as

the protecting role of the family, the set-up of the education system and labour market segmentation (Facchini, Villa 2005). Before the crisis, among the factors associated with very slow and late transitions one has to recall: i) the lack of economic support and housing policies for young people or university students⁶ and ii) the difficult and problematic school-to-work transition. In times of economic crisis, uncertainty increases among young people, which can lead to the further postponement of achieving their goals of adulthood. This implies that the economic crisis not only excludes young people economically from the labour market, but also hampers them in becoming independent citizens. This should be a source of real concern in Italy, where young people's transitions are already delayed and the age at which they become parents is considerably postponed in comparison with the rest of Europe.

The most common reasons for late transition to adulthood are the long time needed on average for completing tertiary education, the costs linked to attending university (i.e. lack of economic independence), the long and problematic school-to-work transition, finally the lack of a steady job (with a sufficient income to live independently, some prospects for economic stability in the near future and a minimum protection). All this has caused a delay in the age at first childbirth.

Fertility

Italy's low female labour market participation goes together with a low fertility rate (1.42 in 2012, with the EU28 average at 1.58) (see **Table III.1**). The total fertility rate (TFR) reached a minimum in Italy around 1995 (down to 1.19), since then a modest increase was recorded (up to 1.42). However, it should be pointed out that about half of this small increase is due to the entry of foreign women (recording a higher TFR) in the country since the mid-1990s. In 2012, the TFR is 1.29 for Italian citizens and 2.37 for foreigners (ISTAT 2013: 1).

In 2011, the mean age of women at the birth of their first child is almost 30 (see **Table III.2**), one of the highest in OECD countries. The postponement of first births can be observed in the vast majority of countries since the 1970s. In Italy it increased significantly both from 1970 to the mid-1990s (by three years), and since the mid-1990s

⁶ In Italy, those who attend university (BA and Master degrees) are not, on average, economically independent.

(by two years)⁷. These variations relate to changes in the timing of family formation that have occurred over the last decades.

The specificity of the Italian case is testified by the combination of very low female employment rate and very low fertility – especially in Southern Italy (ISTAT 2014). The difficulties women face in entering employment, especially standard employment with adequate protection in case of maternity, is due to a sort of discrimination against their potential motherhood. Employers (in the private sector) do not recruit young women on a permanent basis in order to avoid having to comply with maternity and parental leave, demands of flexible working time, etc. This raises a sort of trade-off between employment and motherhood: young women are somehow forced to choose between paid work and motherhood (Valentini 2012). As a matter of fact, in Italy many young women postpone motherhood, looking for a stable job with adequate protection (Barbieri, Bozzon 2013) and this translates into a fertility rate significantly lower than the desired number of children⁸.

Policies

Family formation practices, including the division of labour within the household and the decision to participate in the labour market, are interlinked with four broad policy areas: maternity and parental leave, the availability of services (See Domain 4), labour market regulations and income taxation.

Leave schemes provide parents the opportunity to spend time off work around childbirth (and later) and thereby facilitate work-life balance; moreover, they could also encourage fathers to share with mothers' child-care responsibilities. The provision of sufficient paid leave has a positive effect on the employment of mothers as it encourages them to remain active after having children.

In terms of maternity leave entitlements, the Italian system is well designed for dependent employment: the leave duration is neither too short, neither too long (see **Table III.3**); and it is also relatively generous: 100% in the public sector and 80% in the private sector for five months (see **Table III.4**). Much less generous benefits are foreseen for parental leaves (Murgia and Poggio 2009, 2013), which are paid the 30% of

⁷ OECD (2014), Chart SF2.3.B: "The postponement of the first birth in 2011, since 1970".

⁸ OECD (2014), SF2.2 "Ideal and actual number of children".

the parent's salary⁹ and are unpaid if the child is aged 3-8 years old. Parents may be absent from work, even simultaneously, for a period of six months each (continuously or piecemeal) up to a maximum of ten months. But if the father takes leave of absence for a continuous period amounting to more than 3 months, the 6-month limit is extended to 7, and the total amount of leave entitlement for the two parents becomes 11 months (see **Table III.4**). A balanced use of leave entitlements by both parents has been shown to have positive effects in terms of distribution of household and care responsibilities and of female labour market outcomes (EC 2014: 16). But this is not the case in Italy: administrative data (INPS) show that on average 88% of the time of parental leaves is taken up by women, and that each mother takes up 18 weeks of parental leave in the first three years of the child (Mundo 2012, in EP 2014: 27). In order to increase the involvement of fathers, the Fornero Reform (L. 92/2012) introduced a pilot compulsory paternity leave of one day at full salary, plus two optional extra days subtracted from the mother's mandatory leave. Despite this a symbolic step into the direction of a greater involvement of men, fathers' take-up of parental leave remains quite low, given the high gender gap in earnings and the traditional cultural norms still prevailing in Italian society (Mundo 2012; Gramiglia 2014).

Moving to labour market regulation, in Italy several minor and major labour market reforms have been implemented over the last two decades, with the explicit goal of increasing labour market flexibility. The outcome has been a progressive enlargement of atypical contractual arrangements (including agency work, fixed-term contracts, temporary work, dependent self-employed workers) with very little or no protection. This has resulted in pronounced labour market segmentation, with the weakest segments of the labour force (young, women, migrants) having difficulties in entering standard employment (open-ended employment relationships). Given the difficulties faced by young women in the Italian labour market, they are more likely than men to hold precarious jobs. The over-representation of young women amongst atypical workers, especially on contractual arrangements with limited or no protection, implies that many young women cannot rely on any income in case of maternity.

The tax system also plays a role in the division of labour within the household, discouraging the supply of labour, especially for women. In Italy the unit of labour

⁹ In the Public Administration the first month of parental leave is paid the 100 % of the salary.

income taxation is the individual. Nevertheless, the benefit system is not, at least not entirely. In particular, child-related allowances and benefits are assessed against family income. In addition, the tax system grants a ‘non-working spouse allowance’, which is lost if the spouse (by and large the woman) takes up employment. The deductions and other transfers, calculated on the basis of household income, raise the effective marginal income tax rate of second earners (typically female spouses) and discourage them from participating in the labour market. The distortion is greater for women with limited earnings prospects and a husband with a low-income job. In short, as recently pointed out by the Bank of Italy (2014: 73), the tax-benefit system penalizes dual-earner couples and tends to discourage female participation. In 2013, Italy was addressed for the first time a country-specific recommendation to tackle financial disincentives to work (EC 2014: 17).

1.4 Domain 4. Care & work-life policies and practices

The family – in particular, the work of women inside the family – has traditionally been the main provider of social protection and care services for the Italians, according to what has been defined the “Mediterranean model of welfare state” (Bettio and Villa 1998; Trifiletti 1999). This has hindered the participation of women in the labour market in principle and the development of private and public services for the care of children, disabled and elderly people.

Time spent by men and women in domestic activities

The distribution of care and domestic work is particularly uneven, providing further evidence on the role played by cultural factors. While in many other advanced economies, men and women work approximately the same total number of hours – with men working more in the labour market and women more in the home – in Italy women work overall much more, given the more unequal distribution of unpaid work between partners (see **Table IV.3**). Within families, even in couples where both partners work, domestic and childcare responsibilities weigh disproportionately on women (OECD 2012b). And there are no significant changes over time. According to “time use” survey, in 2008-09 women did 76 per cent of work in the home, just 2 percentage points less than in 2002-03, and 9 points less than in 1989 (ISTAT 2011a: 155-161). According to OECD, after Turkey and Mexico, Italy has the third lowest female employment rate

(47%), but one of the highest gender gap in terms of unpaid work (see Additional data Italy, fig. A.4.1). Women are often regarded as the main "family carer": Italian women do on average 3.7 hours a day of household work more than men, holding back growth in female employment growth.

Childcare services

In 2011 around 27 per cent of small children (under 3 years) benefited from day-care, nursery schools and other education services, 3 percentage points more than in 2007 but still below the European target of 33 per cent (see **Table III.5**). Despite the financing of the Special Plan for the Development of Early Childhood Social and Education Services (Law 296/2006), national data show that only half of the children in nursery school were enrolled in public nursery schools or schools operated under a convention. In the Bank of Italy survey on Italian households, the main reasons cited for recourse to private facilities at this level, unlike at the subsequent levels of schooling¹⁰, were the insufficient number of places available and the short school day (Bank of Italy 2014: 94-95).

The lack of childcare services continues to hinder women's labour market participation in the early years of children's lives. Progress in the provision of childcare for small children has been negligible in 2005-2011 (only one percentage point, EC 2014: fig. 12, p. 13). It is not surprising that Italy has been addressed, repeatedly over the last decade, a country-specific recommendation (by the EU Commission) to improve the availability and affordability of childcare facilities. In 2013, Italy was also asked to improve the provision of elderly care services (EC 2014: 17).

Working-time arrangements of couples (aged 25-49)

The study of employment patterns among couple families (aged 25-49) (Table A.4.1) shows that, in Italy, the male breadwinner model remains the most common employment pattern among couples (34.2%), especially those with children (around 37%). The second most common employment pattern is "both partners working full-time". This arrangement covers almost 33% of all couples, but ranging from 50% of couples without children to 27.7% of couples with children. The third most common employment pattern is the "one-and-a-half earner couple families" (18.1%): men are still the main earner in families where women work part-time. This arrangement is

¹⁰ In Italy 95% of kindergarten-age children (3 years old to mandatory school age) are in formal care facilities (EC 2014: fig. 9, p. 12).

more common among couples with children (almost 20%). Finally, where either both partners are not in employment or the men is not working cover about 11% of all couples, but with a higher share among couples with children (See Additional data Italy, tab. A.4.1).

Empirical analyses show that paid work reduces the amount of time mothers spend with their children only marginally. Working mothers compress their free time and that spent on domestic tasks; by the same token, when mothers work, the time fathers spend with their children tends to increase. Work for mothers, therefore, appears to favour a more equitable distribution of childcare.

Occupational segregation, pay gaps and glass ceilings are less prominent issues in Italy than in many other European countries because, much more so than in other countries, women with lower earnings (especially those with low education) are more likely to leave the labour market after childbirth (OECD 2012; ISTAT 2011c).

Lack of flexible working arrangements

Flexible working arrangements enable employees to vary their working hours and adapt them to their personal and family needs, improving the quality of work, which makes a better work-life balance possible. According to recent data, in Italy women reported about the same access to family related work schedule flexibility than men (EC 2014: 15-16). However, the share of workers who can vary the start and/or end times of their working day is much lower in Italy (around 44%) than female workers in the Netherlands (83%), Austria (67%), Island (65%), Slovenia (61%) and Belgium (58%). A similar picture emerge in terms of the percentage of employed people generally able to take whole days off for family reasons. In short, in Italy women with family responsibilities face serious reconciliation problems due to the lack of flexible working arrangements (especially in the private sector) and the traditional gender roles (perpetrating the unequal distribution of unpaid work within the household).

The "Law on reconciliation of work and family life" (now included in L. 198/2006) is supposed to support local projects encouraging flexible working arrangements (in terms of hours, teleworking, job-sharing, hours savings, the possibility for the female self-employed to be substituted by a co-worker). However, lack of incentives for employers and lack of funds have not allowed the generalization of some successful best practices at local level (EP 2014: 28).

Reconciliation problems and inactivity

Although the non-symmetrical nature of work within families is gradually reducing, the difficulties of balancing work and life can be seen with greater intensity when there are small children involved, as shown by the gap between the employment rates of men and women without children and with small children (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.4.2). As it is well known, while the employment rate increases for men when there are small children, it decreases for women. As a result, the gap by sex in the employment rate is much higher when there are small children; and this implies that a significant number of women leave the labour market when they become mothers. However, it should be recalled that there are large differences between the South (recording very low employment rates for mothers) and the Centre-North (recording rates close to the EU27 average). The data for Trentino, the province where the University of Trento is placed, confirm that the difficulties for working mothers are similar to those recorded on average in the European Union (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.4.3).

A national survey has shown that 46% of women who are inactive left work because of reconciliation problems (ISFOL 2010: 53). Administrative data (INPS) show that 25% of women who gave birth in 2009 were not back to work three years later (Mundo 2012, in EP 2014: 26). Inactivity due to reconciliation problems is certainly very high in Italy, though with differences across the country. While in the Mezzogiorno a large number of women in their prime age abandon active life when they become mothers (and some when they get married), in the Centre-North they move to part-time jobs.

The availability of means of reconciling work and family commitments influences the decision on how much to work and where. Owing to the uneven distribution of roles between the sexes, shortcomings in the supply of care services (especially for the very young and the dependent elderly) have a greater impact on female participation choices. In particular, the availability of crèches is positively correlated with women's working hours outside the home.

The recent introduction of vouchers (by Law 92/2012), granted (only) to working mothers as an alternative to parental leave, may improve women's employment outcomes and give parents more options in providers. However its overall effect is unclear due to the cuts in public funding for early childhood education at a time when the extension of retirement age is expected to reduce informal childcare provided by grandparents. Clearly the willingness of Italian men to engage in more unpaid

housework will co-determine to what extent Italian women will be able to increase their participation in employment.

Commute time

Another decisive factor in the supply of labour is commute time, which is a work related fixed cost. These costs can cause people to opt out of the labour market entirely, accept only very well paid offers, or circumscribe their job search, inducing them to accept less favourable offers. The more pressing the requirements of family care, the greater the burden of home-to-work travel, as happens when there are small children and for women especially, who shoulder most of the housework (Bank of Italy 2011). According to ISTAT's "time use" survey, in 2008-09 working males on average spent 58 minutes commuting to and from work every day, as against 52 minutes for working women and 47 minutes for working women with children. Analyses based on the two surveys conducted in 2002-03 and 2008-09 show that higher average regional commute times are associated with a significant reduction in labour market participation by both men and women, and are a stronger deterrent to women, especially mothers. The time it takes to reach the workplace can also influence the choice of how many hours to work. The Bank of Italy (2011: 91) has estimated that the impact of commute times on hours worked is negative for women and nil for men.

Policies

Policy-makers have tried to address this situation in recent years focussing on the provision of childcare services introducing a symbolic paternity leave (one day only), and by timidly encouraging some flexible work arrangements. All measures have always been underfunded and seriously hit by budget cuts in recent years, driven by austerity policy (EP 2014: 26).

In Italy, the regions (and the two autonomous provinces, Trento and Bolzano) were given the power to introduce legislation to remove all obstacles to genuine equality between the sexes. Policies for salaried employment, female entrepreneurship and reconciling work and family life vary greatly from region to region. While it is difficult to isolate policy effects, an indicator of the regional situation was recently constructed by the Bank of Italy with the aim to highlight the geographical differences underlying Italy's backwardness at European and international level (Amici, Stefani 2013). This indicator, which adapts the Gender Equality Index developed by Plantenga et al. (2009) for EU

countries, considers four dimensions: a) work (counting both employment and unemployment), b) income, c) representation in leadership positions (separately for local politics and corporate management) and d) the use of time within the home. The indicator can be interpreted as a gauge of the progress made towards gender equality. This gender gap indicator is constructed for the Italian regions, including the Autonomous Province of Trento. A limited number of regions, led by Piedmont and Emilia Romagna, are approximately halfway down the path, while a larger group is positioned around the Italian average, i.e. one-third down the path. By contrast, all the southern regions (except Sardinia) lag far behind.

The 2010 indicator (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.4.4) shows that all Italian regions are far from assuring equality: if the Italian average is compared to that estimated for the other European countries, Italy ranks 21st out of 25. Moreover, it varies considerably across regions: Piedmont and Emilia Romagna are closest to the European average, Calabria furthest behind while the Autonomous Province of Trento is only slightly better than the Italian average.

1.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

Equal opportunity policies and practices: Historical overview

Gender equality legislation

Italy has put in place different measures having constitutional, legislative, and administrative nature on the elimination of gender discrimination and the respect for the principle of gender equality in the economic, social, cultural, and political life of the country (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.5.1, for a synthesis). This paragraph provides a brief overview of the most significant equal opportunity and anti-discrimination legislation adopted in Italy.

The general principle of equality between women and men is enshrined in Article 3 of the Italian Constitution providing that “All citizens have equal social dignity and are equal before the law, without distinction of sex, race, language, religion, political opinion, personal and social conditions”. In addition, Article 37 states that: “Working women are entitled to equal rights and, for comparable jobs, equal pay as men. Working conditions must allow women to fulfil their essential role in the family and ensure appropriate protection for the mother and child”; and Article 51, which was amended in

2001, through its new wording envisages that “Any citizen of either sex is eligible for public offices and elected positions on equal terms, according to the conditions established by law. To this end, the Republic shall adopt specific measures to promote equal opportunities between women and men”.

The gender equality principles set in the Italian Constitution inspired several national laws enacted over time. However, it is widely acknowledged that achieving substantive equality between men and women is still far. At the root of gender inequalities still shaping Italian society are traditional norms and values. In particular, a number of factors explain the difficulties in reforming the Mediterranean welfare regime to meet the new demands of a society that began changing in the 1970s. These include: a highly male dominated decision-making arena (see Additional data Italy, fig. A.5.1 and A.5.2) and a gender-blind culture little inclined (and indeed unwilling) to promote women’s rights. The idea of the woman as responsible for the family rather than occupied in a professional career is a hangover from a past, which is still present in the current political discourse, and in other arenas (economy, society, culture).

In this type of context, the development of a gender-equality policy was largely influenced by EU membership and the activities of the women movement (Quing 2007). As from the 1970s, implementation of European directives on gender equality profoundly changed the Italian legal framework centred on the ‘woman-mother’ and helped overcome cultural and social resistance; this change started with the adoption of L. 903/1977 on equal treatment on the workplace. In the 1970s due to the women’s rights campaigns promoted by the women movement, there was the approval of the divorce law (1970) and the abortion law (1978), together with the reform of family law in 1975, which recognized the parity between partners within the family institution. To note, only with the approval of L. 66/1996, violence against women was considered a crime against the person.

In 2006 the National Code for Equal Opportunities between Women and Men (D. Lgs. 198/2006) was enacted, gathering into a single code all the laws in force on gender equality and women’s empowerment with the view of regulating the promotion of equal opportunities between women and men in all areas of society. The Code has introduced the principle of gender mainstreaming: government authorities have to adopt a gender perspective in the drafting of laws, regulations and administrative acts, and in all policies and activities. Besides providing for general provisions, the Code focuses on the

organisation of facilities and bodies established for the promotion of equal opportunities.

In the most recent years, some new measures have been adopted to enhance women in leadership positions: gender balanced promotion in local government (L. 215/2012); mandatory quotas in the boards of companies listed in the Stock Exchange (L. 120/2011)¹¹; finally, mandatory quotas in companies owned by the public administration (at least 20% for the first year, and 33% for the following years) were established by Presidential decree (D.P.R. 251/2012). But there are no mandatory gender quotas in the Italian parliament.

In 2009, a law introduced stalking as a type of punishable offence. In 2013, the Council of Europe convention on violence against women and domestic violence (so-called Istanbul Convention) became law by unanimous approval of the Parliament (L. 119/2013), but the network of anti-violence centres lacks of funds and resources (EP 2014: 5; Donà 2014).

Concerning funding, the L. 53/2000 on work-life balance measures is partially not implemented since 2011 due to lack of funding to cover the financial incentives for firms effecting more flexible working arrangements.

To conclude, despite the significant amount of legislation approved, Italy is far away from achieving full equality between men and women: according to the Global Gender Gap Report Italy ranks 69, out of 142 countries (World Economic Forum 2014).

5.1.2 Institutional structure for gender equality and equal rights

It's due to note that the influence of the EU resulted crucial in the set up of a women's policy machinery at national (and local) level, which became an arena through which women were able to convey their demands in policymaking. In Italy, the governmental machinery for equality is composed of several institutions (see Additional data tab. 5.1). The Italian women's policy machinery was established during the 1980s, especially in the field of labour, and was consolidated during the 1990s, both at the national and local levels. An important initiative undertaken in 1997 by the then Prime Minister and the Minister for Equal Opportunities was the National Directive to promote actions aiming

¹¹ The 2011 law establishes that the gender quota in the boards of directors for the least represented gender should increase up to 33% by 2015. The percentage of women in boards increased from 7% in 2011 to 17% in 2012.

at the attribution of responsibilities and rights to women; its aim was to mainstream gender equality in all institutional activities and policies, as part of the 1995 UN Beijing Platform of Actions obligations ratified by Italy and the EU. So far, gender mainstreaming is far from been generally adopted and implemented at the national level (in central government activities), while local governments are more advanced in gender mainstreaming policies under EU structural funding requirements.

Table 5.1: Equal opportunities and anti-discrimination institutional structure (current situation)

Institution	Main functions
Prime Minister' Office Department for Equal Opportunities (since 1997), which includes the Office against Racial Discrimination (UNAR)	Activities in the EU and international arenas; monitoring the adoption of EU legislation; verification of the application of mainstreaming in government activities; law-making schemes, monitoring and assessment of the state of implementation of equal-opportunities policies. Gathering of complaints, and legal assistance; promotion of research activity for combating discrimination on different grounds of discrimination; networking with NGOs.
Ministry of Labour National Committee for Equal Treatment (since 1983; reinforced as from 1991) National Equal Opportunities Counsellor (from 1991)	Monitoring anti-discrimination legislation at the workplace. Approval and monitoring of affirmative-action programmes. Proactive work in the field of equal opportunities in the labour market. Inspection activities in cooperation with Labour Inspectors.

Since the outset of the financial and economic crisis, in the fall of 2008, four different Governments ruled the country. In these problematic six years, gender equality issues and gender mainstreaming were put on aside. According to the 2014 Shadow Report (AAVV 2014), the role of the Equal Opportunity Department progressively weakened in terms of political leadership and centrality. The last two female Ministers appointed were simultaneously responsible for other policy areas (respectively, Labour Affairs and Sport and Young People promotion), with a negative impact on the political visibility of equal opportunities and gender issues. The current government (2014-) decided not to nominate a specific Minister for Equal Opportunities, leaving the competence under responsibility of the Prime Minister Office. The lack of a political reference means that there is no commitment on the issue, lack of political activity and of connections with

civil society organizations. The result is that, despite having a gender balance government composition (about half of the ministers are women), up until now the current Government's agenda do not include women's issues and gender mainstreaming, despite the on-going debate on reforming the following fields: school system, labour market policies, Senate composition and electoral rules.

The lack of attention to gender equality at the national level is mirrored also at the local level. At regional level, the Councillors for equality are almost near to disappear. Established by law in 1984, the main function of the Councillors for equality is to put into practice the principle of equal treatment for women and men in the field of labour. They can report offences to the juridical authorities and institute legal actions. Their role was reinforced and actually implemented only in 2000 (D. Lgs. 196/2000), when a national fund to implement the activities of the Equality Councillors was established and a national Network of Equality Councillors was set up in order to exchange best practices and to coordinate local activities. During the recent years, the need to cut public expenditure meant that the founding for the Councillor activities has been dramatically reduced in such a way that according to Maione (2014) it's quite likely that this figure is going to disappear soon.

At the local level, Equal Opportunity Commissions (CPOs) were active in each institution of the public sector since 1988 (regional, provincial, municipal administrations, universities, local units of the national health system, etc.). Their performance is extremely diverse. Some confine themselves to dealing with minor problems of the staff while others are active in promoting gender equality in society at large (EP 2014: 12). The CPOs have recently been transformed (by L. 183/2010) into CUGs (Unified Committee for the rights of the employees), which combine the former CPOs with the committees for protection against mobbing (Tomio 2012).

Equal opportunity/promotion of women in science policies and practices

In Italy, the university system lacks policies and practices explicitly targeted to promote gender equality in academia and/or women in science. Nevertheless, the need to promote equal opportunities in the Italian university system and women in science has entered the debate, and some initiatives have been recently put in place. In this section we present: i) the most significant initiatives for gender equality in education and

women in science coordinated by the Department for Equal Opportunities; ii) an overview of the scope and diffusion of gender studies within tertiary education.

The most significant initiatives for gender equality in education and science

Italy has achieved full literacy for girls, so this is no longer a matter of concern. In primary education, schooling rates for girls and boys are now equivalent and, in most levels of secondary schools, girls actually do better than boys. Over the past decades, in fact, there has been a marked tendency of Italian women continuing their studies, especially at higher levels.

In recent decades the access to and participation of women in STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) has been addressed by several initiatives. The number of women who take up a career in the scientific sector has remarkably increased in the past 25 years, although only a minimal share achieve leadership positions. There is also a positive evolution in the number of women students and graduates in STEM, but the gender gap is still present during the career evolution and is particularly striking at the top level.

In this scenario, the Department for Equal Opportunities has carried out several actions to improve the role of women in the scientific field and fight against the discrimination that women suffer in this strategic sector¹². The projects financed by the EC 7FP for research, coordinated and co-funded by the Italian Government are four: i) PRA.G.E.S. “PRACTising Gender Equality in Science” (2009); ii) WHIST “Women Careers Hitting the Target” (2009); iii) STAGES “Structural Changes to achieve gender equality in science” (2012); iv) and TRIGGER “TRansforming Institutions by Gendering contents and Gaining Equality in Research” (2013).

Following these projects the pro-tempore Minister for Equal Opportunities signed, in 30 September 2013, a Memorandum of Understanding (*Protocollo di intesa*) with the Ministry of Education, University and Scientific Research aimed at promoting equal opportunities in science, thus creating for the first time in Italy, a national strategy to increase the participation of women and girls in science and technology education, training, research and employment. It has provided the institution with a Consultation

¹² Response of the Italian Government to the UNECE Questionnaire on the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and the Platform of Action (1995) and the outcomes of the 23rd Special Session of the General Assembly.

Panel composed of experts coming from public administrations, Universities and the civil society, with a view to elaborate concrete measures to achieve gender equality in science, fighting the under-representation of women in the scientific fields, facilitating the advancement of female careers, and improving the presence of women in the labour market and, in particular, in decision making positions. At time of writing (December 2014) it appears too early to evaluate progress and effects of the initiative.

Before concluding, it should be recalled that if, on the one hand, the Department for Equal Opportunities was taking initiatives to improve the position of women in science, the Ministry of Education and University was implementing (since 2010) major reforms for both the university and the school system, based on impressive budgetary cuts (with an overall reduction equivalent to 32% of the 2008 budget). Suffice it to say that the negative impact on women - as students, teachers, researchers, professors - has been substantial (due to reduced full-time school, teaching staff downsizing, lack of resources for recruiting young researchers).

Teaching gender in Italian universities

In Italy, more than in other countries, gender studies are accused of ‘poor science’. This position is also found within academic institutions. This explains the little diffusion of degrees, courses, classes explicitly including a gender perspective.

A recent research has done a mapping of the teaching courses explicitly considering a gender perspective in the Italian universities in the academic year 2011-12 (Antonelli, Sarra, Sorrentino 2013). The analysis considers: (i) the institutional framework (i.e. the boundaries set by the law for the organization of teaching), and (ii) the effective supply of gender sensitive courses in the Italian universities.

The institutional framework, defined at the national level, intervenes at two levels. First, the “scientific disciplinary fields” (which by law categorise the research fields in which knowledge is organised in the Italian academia) are identified. Out of 165 fields considered, gender studies do not appear as a specific disciplinary field; and only in 4 out of 165 fields gender is recognised as an “object of study” (medieval history, modern history, contemporary history, social statistics). Second, the “classes of degrees” (i.e. undergraduate programs and masters) are described in terms of educational goals,

teaching areas, etc. None of the classes of degrees considered (of the 78 examined)¹³ is focused exclusively on gender issues; out of the 26 undergraduate programs and out of 52 master programs, only 6 and 11, respectively, include among their educational goals the need for a gender perspective in the study of social, cultural, political, economic phenomena or related to the body. To sum up, the legal framework for university teaching does acknowledge the area of gender studies, even if in a confused and incoherent way (i.e. limiting to list the need for a gender perspective in certain disciplinary areas).

The way in which these abstract possibilities are translated into gender sensitive teaching programs is rather disappointing. In the Italian universities there are no degree programs specifically focused on gender issues, while the total number of courses (of those surveyed) explicitly 'gender sensitive' (i.e. including some attention to the gender dimension) amounted to only 57 courses (an extremely small number compared with the total number of teaching courses active in 2011/2012). Not only the total number of courses on gender issues is very small, but these courses appear also highly concentrated in few teaching sectors: 60% is attributable to sociology, languages and foreign literature and history. The teaching of gender studies is extremely limited in law and economics, despite the statutory provisions.

To sum up, the teaching of gender studies in tertiary educational is still very limited, fragmented, disjointed and does not correspond either to the extension of research in this area or to the even contradictory and limited statutory provisions set by law for undergraduate and graduate programs. Thus, entire degree programs, crucial for the formation of the Italian ruling classes, do not provide courses that include a gender approach.

Evaluating the effects of equal opportunity/promotion of women in science policies

The need to promote equal opportunities in the Italian university system and women in science has entered the debate, and some interesting and innovative initiatives have been recently put in place. However, both the characteristics of these initiatives, as well as the nature of their goals (promoting greater attention to gender inequality in academia, combating gender stereotypes in education, etc.), and their relatively recent

¹³ The researchers focused their analysis on those teaching areas more likely to include a gender perspective (sociology, law, economics, history, medicine, etc.).

launch do not allow to provide an evaluation of their effects. At the same time, the university system has gone through important institutional changes in the recent decades. And these changes do affect the position of women in the academia, as well as the debate on gender and career advancement. This section will focus on these issues. To start with, we present some background information about the Italian university system and the selection procedures for recruitment and promotions.

The Italian university system

In Italy there are 89 universities (28 private and 61 public) and 6 higher education institutions. The latter usually dispense only masters and PhD courses, being more research oriented than most of the other universities. Three out of the 61 public universities are polytechnics. 11 out of the 28 private universities are distance-learning institutions. Overall, the university system is employing over 110,000 people (57,300 teaching staff, 56,600 non-teaching staff), offering courses to 1.7 million students (undergraduate and post-graduate).

The Italian university system is regulated by national laws and by local statutes. Recruitment procedures, employment conditions and salaries fall under the control of nation-wide norms¹⁴. Each professor is characterised by a level of arrangement (full professor, associate professor and assistant professor/researcher) and by one research field (out of 372¹⁵, grouped into 14 research areas). Any vacancy is coded by a given research field, and applicants are evaluated by professors of the same field. Given the public nature of the employment contracts, university professors can only be hired through public competitions that should grant publicity of the vacancy, selection of the selecting committee based on objective criteria, transparency of the selection process.

The institutional design of selection procedures for recruitment and promotions has changed radically over the last three and a half decades:

- between 1979 and 1998, centrally managed nation-wide competitions were used to hire (i.e. promotions) associate and full professors, while assistant professors

¹⁴ Salaries vary only by level of arrangement and seniority, and departments are prevented from linking payment to research productivity and/or teaching loads.

¹⁵ The 372 research fields (*settore scientifico disciplinare*) are defined by the National University Council (CUN), according to homogeneity of research topics. However, the identification of research fields does not necessarily follow rational rules, nor they do adjust to the evolution of research (Checchi, Verzillo 2013: 2). As a matter of fact, they tend to reflect the way in which academic power is organised.

- (with tenure) were recruited through local competitions (though the selecting committee was appointed at the national level);
- starting in 1999, recruitment procedures became entirely local, and each university could organise its own selection procedures (for assistants, associates and full professors) through local committees;
 - year 2008 marked a turning point in the rules governing competition for associate and full professors in Italy. A new system for the selection of commissioners was set (due to the application of Law n. 230/2005, best known as Moratti Reform), involving a random extraction (by lottery) of 4 external professors out of a pool of previously elected professors (for the same research field) and an internal commissioner appointed by the faculty which decided to run the competition. The aim of this procedure was to avoid the formation of ad hoc committees (i.e. collusive behaviour favouring local candidates) and to increase competition;
 - in 2010 the recruitment procedure has been reorganized and partially re-centralized. The Gelmini reform (L. 240/2010) has established a ‘national scientific qualification’ (NSQ)¹⁶ as a necessary prerequisite for access to permanent positions (associate and full professor).

The new National Scientific Qualification (NSQ) system and its gender effects

In December 2010 a comprehensive reform (L. 240/2010, or ‘Gelmini reform’) introduced new rules for the academic staff recruitment procedures (as well as the institutional governance and internal organisation of Italian universities). A two-step procedure has been established: first, at the national level, the national committees (one for each research field) have to select the candidates that deserve the scientific qualification (*idoneità*) for associate professor; second, at the local level, each Departments can decide - within the next four years - to open a local competition to either recruit or promote somebody as associate professor in that specific research field. This two-step procedure applies (but separately) also to full professorship.

These national committees are made of five members: four extracted from a list of all professors (available to be included in these national committees) who meet in their research field some minima scientific requirements (identified by biblio-metric

¹⁶ In Italian: Abilitazione Scientifica Nazionale.

indicators) and one external professor (teaching abroad) designated at the central level (identified in terms of international reputation).

The 2010 Gelmini reform has changed not only the recruitment process (introducing a two step procedure) and the rules for the setting up of committees, but has also further stressed the importance of ‘merit evaluation’, indirectly opening the door to the problematic relationship between ‘merit evaluation’ and ‘quantitative indicators’ for scientific productivity (Rossi 2012).

It is important to note that the composition of teaching staff by position and sex in the Italian University system shows that the vast majority of full professors are men (only 21% are women)¹⁷, while in the lower levels the share of women tends to increase, though it remains below the numerical parity: 35% among associate professors and 46% among assistant professors (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.5.1).

In this context, the preliminary results of the *National Scientific Qualification* (NSQ) system from a gender perspective suggested that women are less competitive and less productive than men; however on average, women do not seem to be discriminated against in the NSQ procedure based on biblio-metric criteria. In fact, there is only a negligible gender difference in the probability of success. Here follows a list of main points from the most recent literature:

1. On average, there is a lower number of women compared to men participating in the competition for NSQ (with differences across research fields). The share of applicants on total ‘potential candidates’ is 48% among women, but 54% among men (De Paola, Ponzio, Scoppa 2014; Baccini, 2014; Baccini and Rosselli 2014).
2. In a recent paper on the determinants of individual scientific performance (on a dataset that includes 942 permanent researchers of various scientific sectors in Italy, for 2008-2010) the results confirm the gender productivity gap, previously documented in the literature (Baccini et al. 2014: 20). The gender effect is moderately significant and affects all the research production measures negatively. This suggests that women face *ceteris paribus* more difficulties than men in publishing.
3. Scientific productivity (assessed by biblio-metric indicators) seems to play a crucial role for success in NSQ (De Paola, Ponzio Scoppa 2014).

¹⁷ Unsurprisingly, there are very few women as rectors, heads of departments and members of the ruling bodies.

4. The new rules for the setting up of national committees (the random designation of four commissioners, the inclusion of one commissioner teaching abroad and the assessment of their productivity) has allowed to estimate the effect of the national committees composition by sex on gender differences in the probability of success. Quite surprisingly, the probability of success for female candidates in NSQ competition is reduced when the committee includes at least one woman (Bagues et al. 2014). Previously, De Paola and Scoppa (2011) analysed the competition to associate professor and full professor held in 2008 in economics (when 4 out of 5 members of the national committees were extracted). They found that the presence of women in the national committees enhanced the probability of success of female candidates and helped reducing the bias against women produced by ‘all-men committees’. The hypothesis advanced to explain the ‘surprising’ outcome in NSQ competition, is that the evaluation system tends to change when a committee includes both sexes (as if all members tend to adopt more stringent evaluating criteria).

Post-doc and entry positions

The flexibilization of the early stages of the academic career. Over the last ten years the recruitment process of academic staff has substantially changed (see the 7.1 GARCIA deliverable – Report on gap formal actual criteria), developing a process of flexibilisation of the research positions. In 2005, the Moratti reform established the elimination of the ‘permanent assistant professors’ (to be completed by 2013) and introduced the ‘fixed-term researcher’ for the newly recruited in academic career. The duration established for this new position was 3 years, renewable only once (up to 6 years). Given budget constraints, and the lack of resources to invest in new positions, to allow for some further flexibility in research and teaching, the Moratti reform introduced also the possibility to open positions as ‘research collaborators’¹⁸.

In 2010, the Gelmini Reform introduced further changes, in particular concerning the early stages of the academic career (after PhD). An “ideal path” (lasting a maximum of 12 years) composed of three stages/positions has been envisaged:

¹⁸ These are self-employed contractors (co.co.co), supplying qualified consultancy and freelance work coordinated by an employer (i.e. the faculty). In 2010, the Gelmini reform has restricted the use of collaboration contracts (co.co.co) only to support activities for research.

- up to 4 years as post-doc ‘research fellow’ (*assegnista di ricerca*)
- up to 5 years as fixed-term *researcher of type A* (RTDa, ‘ricercatore a tempo determinato di tipo A’)
- up to 3 years as fixed-term *researcher of type B* (or tenure track) (RTDb, ‘ricercatore a tempo determinate di tipo B’).

The first step (after PhD award) should be the access to a ‘research fellow’ position¹⁹. However, this is not a proper employment contract, rather a sort of post-doc position financed by a grant (for example, EU research funds) to develop research activities on a specific topic for at least one year (renewable up to 4 years). There are no teaching duties. People entering this position are not entitled to unemployment benefit, parental leaves or other welfare provisions (with the only exception of the compulsory maternity leave).

The second step should be the access to a ‘fixed-term researcher of type A’ position (RTDa): a work contract with a 3-year duration, renewable for up to five years. It foresees both research and teaching duties.

The third step should be the transition into a ‘fixed-term researcher of type B’ position (RTDb) a sort of tenure-track with a maximum duration of 3 years, not renewable. It foresees both research and teaching duties. The access to this position is subordinated to a previous experience as fixed-term researcher of type A (or 3 years as post-doc research fellow before the Gelmini reform). At the end of the third year, after receiving the NSQ, the hosted university can call the researcher as permanent associate professor. According to this path, a young researcher with a regular track in education and research should be able to reach his/her first permanent position, as associate professor, at the age of 39 or 40. If by that age he/she has not been able to succeed, he/she will have to leave the academic career.

Consequences of the flexibilisation of the early stages of the academic careers. Between 2008 and 2013 the total teaching staff in academia (permanent and non-permanent positions) has increased by 5.2%, but while permanent positions have decreased, non-permanent positions have steadily increased. In particular, permanent positions (full

¹⁹ This position was introduced in 1997 (L. 449/1997, art. 51, c. 6) and modified in 2010 (L. 240/2010, art. 22). It is generally open to PhD holders, but in some cases can be required only a university degree. The Gelmini reform has increased the minimum financial amount of the yearly gross grant to 19.367 euros/year.

professors, associate professors, assistant professors) have shrunk by 18.5%²⁰, whereas non-permanent positions (fixed-term researchers, post-doc research fellows and research collaborators) have increased by 71.2%. In 2013, non-permanent positions account for 37% of the total teaching staff (+14.3 percentage points from 2008)²¹. More than 60% of the non-permanent positions are post-doc research fellows, while only 10% are fixed-term researchers (type A and B). While there is an equal distribution by sex among research fellows and research collaborators, women are under-represented (only 43.3%) among fixed-term researchers (see Additional data, tab. A.5.1).

This imbalance between permanent and non-permanent positions is the result of two main processes: a) the changes introduced by law in the recruitment process, aiming to introduce some flexibility in the early stages of academic career (as already discussed); b) the changes imposed to the university system in order to reduce public expenditure. In particular, academic staff turnover has been limited by law since 2009 (limited at 50% on the ceasing staff for the recent years)²²; academic staff salaries, fixed nationally, have been frozen since 2011; finally, since the outset of the economic crisis, consistent cuts in university public funding have been set by law (-18.7% between 2008 and 2013). In this scenario, the near future for both the Italian university system and the young researchers looks quite gloomy.

It has been projected (Anvur 2014) that in the next five years (2014-2018) there should be further 9,300 retirements from permanent academic positions (equivalent to 17% of the total permanent staff). This outflow could produce considerable consequences on the efficiency of the university system if there will not be a yearly recruitment of at least 1,850 new academic positions (900 full professors, 500 associate professor and 400 fixed-term researchers of type A or B). It has been suggested that the university system requires for its efficient functioning the recruitment of 9,000 new fixed-term researchers (5,000 of type A and 4,000 of type B) by the end of 2016 (CUN 2014). Unfortunately, the current recruitment process is definitely much slower. In 2013 were

²⁰ The reduction in permanent positions (-26.6% for full professors, -13.4% for associate professors, -7.2% for permanent assistant professors) is due for the most part to retirements.

²¹ The share of non-permanent positions on the total academic positions overcomes 50% when also PhD students are included.

²² Moreover, since 2012, the turnover limitation does apply no longer at each institution depending on the ceasing staff, but at the systemic level (L. 135/2012); since then on, yearly the Ministry assigns to each university the maximum number of available credits for new positions by ministerial decree (Donina, Meoli, Paleari 2014: 7).

announced only 520 fixed-term associate professor of type A positions and 130 tenure track positions (Bonatesta, Montalbano e Ferrara 2014: 32).

The future prospects for those working at the university in a non-permanent position are discouraging, as highlighted by the few studies on the consequences of the flexibilisation of early career stages in the Italian university. The various reforms implemented over the last 10 years have resulted in the exclusion of young researchers from the academic system. In the decade 2004-2013, only 6.7% of those who worked with a non-permanent research position at the university (mainly post-doc research fellows) has succeed to enter a permanent position (Coin et al. 2014). Given the constraints in the recruitment process after the Gelmini reform, the current chances of recent PhDs²³ to reach a tenure-track position is only by 3.4%, while the 86,4% will exit from the Italian academic system after the period as research fellow and the 10.2% after the period as fixed-term researcher of type A (Bonatesta, Montalbano, Ferrara 2014: 33). This suggests that there is a serious issue concerning the dispersion of highly qualified competences and professional skills developed inside the academic system.

2015 will be a crucial year because the first round of post-doc research fellows will finish the 3 possible renewals of their contract (a limit set by the Gelmini reform). For these researchers the possibility to continue in their scientific career in Italy are very limited. They can apply for a fixed-term researcher position at the university, or look for a research position abroad or outside the university²⁴, or give up their scientific career. In the mid-term, a similar set of problems will also be faced by the first round of fixed-term researchers of type A, when they will complete their 5th year of contract. This situation is even more serious if we take into account that the mean age of the post-doc research fellows was 34 in 2013 (Anvur 2013: 245) and that the PhD degree is not appreciated outside academia in Italy²⁵. According to Coin et al. (2014), 40% of the post-doc researchers and fixed-term researchers interviewed ponder that they will move abroad in order to continue in their research career²⁶.

²³ Since 2003 the number of PhD awarded every year almost tripled reaching the highest level in 2008. In 2013 the number of PhD awarded was 11,288 (5,232 men, 6,056 women). See Additional data Italy, tab. A.1.2.

²⁴ They could also accept a position as research collaborator but it would mean a devaluation of their career because these positions are foreseen only for research support activities and are not considered a valuable step in the “ideal path” of the (Italian) research career drawn by the reform.

²⁵ As a matter of fact, in Italy the PhD does not give additional points to facilitate the access to other position both in the public and in the private sector (Bonatesta, Montalbano, Ferrara 2014).

²⁶ This proportion reaches the 60% among PhD students (Coin et al. 2014).

The high levels of insecurity which affects the first stages of academic career tends to produce negative consequences on the young researchers' ability to manage their present and future work. According to a recent research project (Coin et al. 2014), aimed at analysing the work conditions of young precarious researchers, 84.3% of the people interviewed think that their insecure work position negatively affects their work performance and 50% are unable to imagine their professional future in 10 years. For Italian precarious researchers it is very difficult to program their present work because of the constant need to search for a new job position. The lack of welfare protections is an open issue. Precarious researchers (*assegnisti*) are not entitled to receive unemployment benefit and are also excluded from income support measures because they are considered as 'students' (hence part of the inactive population), not as workers.

Highly-skilled migration and the brain drain

In recent years, growing attention has been devoted to the phenomenon of brain drain, i.e. the emigration of people with tertiary education to somewhere for better pay or conditions. In the case of Italy, the lack of research policies and funding means that our country is less able than other countries to attract and retain talent. This situation is worsening given the context of a long economic crisis, fiscal consolidation and severe budget cuts.

Inability to attract foreign talent. In 2005, the share of foreigners with a tertiary education in Italy (12.2%) was amongst the lowest in the OECD countries, well below the overall average for destination countries (23.2%) and EU average (18.6%). This can be attributed to a lack of restrictive and selective immigration policies. Indeed, Italy has not adopted programs that facilitate the entry of highly skilled personnel: the majority of migrants (including those with tertiary education) enter Italy to fill unskilled jobs. In 2005, the number of graduates who migrated to Italy (246,925) was smaller than the number who left Italy (294,767). Therefore, before the crisis, Italy's problem lied in its limited capacity to attract skilled human capital, rather than in the fact that a percentage of our graduates moved abroad (Milio et al. 2012). Over the last six years, there has been an increase in the share of young graduates moving to EU countries with better employment opportunities (especially Germany and the UK); this tends to reinforce the hypothesis that Italy lacks the capacity to attract and retain talent. A recent study (Economist Intelligence Unit 2011) demonstrates that Italy is plodding along in the "war

for talent”, ranking in 23rd place in the league table for “ability to attract and produce talent” (see Additional data Italy, tab. A.5.3).

Italian talent mobility. Data available on the destination countries of the Italian highly-skilled workers (in particular, those employed in Science and Technology) seem to suggest that there is a high proportion of scientists, engineers and researchers among highly-skilled emigrants. In other words, if the data on skilled migration in general is left aside to focus on migration in the scientific field, it would seem that the Italian problem is not solely one of a failure to attract talent but is also a matter of failing to retain it. A major problem for Italy is therefore the negative net flows between incoming and outgoing talent, exacerbated by the high qualification levels of those leaving the country compared to those arriving (Terzi, 2014). Lack of funding and sponsorship, lower salary levels (compared to many foreign countries), the non-meritocratic criteria pursuant to which funds are allocated, and the lack of adequate infrastructure and equipment are considered the main causes of scientific migration.

Current challenges and debates on women and science issues in the Italian context

As we have evidenced in the previous sections, Italy lacks a centralized university politics able to attract, retain and promote talent, and to reconfigure the academic structure in a more gender balanced way. More precisely, we showed that in academia the high levels of insecurity and precariousness of working contracts affect the early stages of career. This situation affects negatively the young researchers’ ability to manage and plan work and private life.

Moreover in promoting equal opportunities programs there is a lack of: i) coordination between university structures and ii) implementation of monitoring and evaluation tools at central level, coupled with limited resources both in terms of personnel and funding.

To overcome these limits, since 1980s women involved in research have been actively supporting a variety of initiatives for the promotion of equal opportunities in research, but with mixed results among disciplinary fields. Women started to organized activities in STEM fields first, and then other fields followed more recently (Economics); other disciplines register the total absence of activities on gender issues (for example, Political Science). Moreover, projects aiming to enhance the role of women in science and fight

discrimination have been promoted by central government institution for equal opportunities or universities under the European 7FP funding. These projects are very few, and isolated since they are not part of a national strategy to promote women in science. Another point to note is the very limited, fragmented and disjointed diffusion of gender studies in tertiary education. Entire degree programs, crucial for the formation of the Italian ruling classes, do not provide courses that include a gender approach.

The debate on gender and career advancement shed some light on the gender effects of evaluation criteria, in particular how biblio-metric criteria and productivity measures may have negatively affected the likelihood of women to NSQ procedure. To add, the measures introduced to evaluate scientific research and teaching activity in order to rationalize the central system of (decreasing) public funding for universities are currently under discussion within the academic community. To note, Italy is a country with no experience in evaluation, and this lack of experience is mirrored in the current difficulties to introduce and implement an effective system of university evaluation.

Periodically, the media debate focuses on the issue of Italian brain drain. Lack of funding and sponsorship, lower salary levels (compared to many foreign countries), the non-meritocratic criteria pursuant to which funds are allocated, and the lack of adequate infrastructure and equipment are the main causes scientific migration. This scenario is mainly due to government and business world deficiencies. In the next future the scientific migration it's likely to increase given that the declining public funding and the restrictive recruitment criteria, taken together, will cause the exclusion from the university system of 96% out of the total of the current research fellows. If these data are confirmed, the dramatic haemorrhage of young educated people will result in a collapse for the Italian system as a whole.

Conclusions

Notwithstanding the advances of recent decades, the economic participation rate of women is still considerably lower than that of men in Italy. In 2014 the country continued to be among the worst performers in the *Global Gender Gap Index* (ranking 69th out of 142 overall), penalized above all by the economic participation and opportunity category (114th), while the gap in educational attainment was narrower (62th). Italy lags behind in women's access to the labour market, remuneration, career advancement, promotion to positions of leadership and new business initiatives.

The education gap had been closed. Less marked, but still observable, is the traditional concentration of women graduates in education and humanities while engineering remains the only male-dominated field or study.

Gender gaps in the labour market are still large. Female employment rates remain low, especially in Southern Italy and in general for women with low education. Young women are more likely than young men to be unemployed, to be employed in less stable forms of employment and in the lowest-paid sectors (horizontal segregation).

Lack of services for children (and above all for the elderly) combined with rigid work arrangements make it hard to reconcile work and family life. Female unemployment rates are higher than male rates; career progress is difficult; and young women are over-represented in atypical and precarious jobs, with limited or no protection in case of maternity.

A policy mix comprising access to standard jobs (good quality, open-ended positions), affordable childcare, neutral tax and benefit systems, flexible working time arrangements and the provision of paid leave for both parents can support them in reconciling work and family and effectively promote female employment.

Women's position in Italian society has been deeply affected by socio-cultural changes and European Union requirements since the beginning of the 1970s. However, transformations in the structures of the society have not been always consistent with it. Political parties were slow to respond to the requests of civil society movements including women's movement. The persistence and the dominance of a conservative and traditional political discourse has meant the difficulties to promote norms, legislation and measures aimed to promote women's roles other than the 'caring role' and their presence in all the fields of society.

The problem of efficient institutional mechanisms for promoting, enacting and monitoring legislation on gender equality in Italy has never been satisfactorily solved at the national level of central government, as witnessed by the variety of solutions adopted over the years. The Department for Equal Opportunities, established in 1997 has been headed by various Ministers (nine ministers in 18 years), whose action has always been impaired by lack of resources, short terms of office and sometimes even lack of experience in gender issues. The importance of gender inequality vs other grounds of discriminations has been interpreted by each minister very differently, according to political parties membership, culture and openness to civil society.

Academic careers have undergone profound changes in the access and promotion rules. Since these processes have gone hand in hand with the drastic reduction in the available financial resources the consequences at the individual and structural level are ambivalent and the current situation of the Italian university system is quite alarming: i) over one third of the university research staff has a non-permanent position; these positions are all concentrated among the new generation of researchers; ii) the severe budget cuts of the university system produced a serious contraction of permanent teaching staff which negatively affects the current efficiency of the university both in teaching and research activities; iii) the new rules seems not to reduce the female disadvantage in the career advancement (at least in the short run).

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Additional data Italy

Tables

Table A.1.1: Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to women in tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, by field of education, 2012

	All fields	Education	Humanities and arts	Health and welfare	Social sciences, business and law	Services	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Sciences	Life sciences	Physical sciences	Mathematics and statistics	Computing	Agriculture
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Austria	55	80	68	68	58	42	25	36	69	32	37	16	64
Belgium	55	76	65	67	60	39	26	35	53	33	40	10	57
Iceland	65	84	63	86	64	80	33	39	60	44	35	13	73
Italy	62	88	75	69	59	51	40	55	71	42	54	25	48
Netherlands	57	79	59	75	54	52	21	26	61	27	32	13	55
Slovenia	64	85	75	80	69	56	31	44	75	41	62	15	62
Switzerland	51	73	62	69	49	55	19	35	52	35	29	9	66
OECD average	58	78	66	75	58	51	28	41	63	43	46	20	53
EU21 average	60	81	68	76	62	49	29	42	65	44	50	20	54

Source: OECD (2014), http://www.OECD-ilibrary.org/education/education-at-a-glance-2014_eag-2014-en

Table A.1.2: Percentage of PhD awarded to women by field of study, 2002-2012

Field of study	PhD awarded											
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
Civil engineering and architecture	54.4	48.5	47.7	50.8	47.9	46.5	45.8	49.9	47.8	53.1	51.6	
Information Technologies	15.2	13.7	15.6	22.3	23.2	20.5	21.4	19.8	19.3	21.9	21.4	
Industrial engineering	24.8	25.8	25.4	27.6	27.4	27.7	29.5	31.1	30.2	31.8	29.9	
Agricultural sciences	50.9	52.0	52.2	53.4	50.7	51.9	47.9	51.6	53.6	52.0	53.2	
Biology	74.1	72.5	70.1	67.4	69.1	65.5	68.7	68.2	64.8	65.7	65.2	
Chemistry	57.9	58.8	58.2	54.5	54.2	55.6	55.6	59.6	51.4	53.8	53.0	
Earth sciences	48.5	50.0	47.9	52.2	44.3	42.5	42.7	44.1	47.1	50.0	50.8	
Sciences relating to the Ancient world, Philology and Literature	62.8	64.3	64.0	65.2	66.1	63.8	64.3	63.7	62.2	65.8	68.4	
Sport sciences	100.0	33.3	33.3	50.0	75.0	66.7	50.0	54.5	48.1	58.3	48.0	
Business economics	51.0	44.2	45.1	47.4	47.3	55.9	56.6	51.9	52.9	58.4	51.4	
Economic sciences (socio-politics)	41.3	52.5	37.7	47.1	46.1	46.0	46.7	45.3	43.0	44.5	49.5	
Physics	27.9	28.6	31.2	30.2	31.5	36.6	34.0	39.7	37.1	34.9	41.6	
Law	48.2	48.4	49.3	47.7	51.1	48.4	53.5	52.8	50.6	55.1	50.1	
Computer sciences	36.7	25.0	33.3	28.7	21.8	23.7	19.8	30.6	26.6	31.3	24.4	
Mathematics	47.5	39.5	40.8	46.3	42.6	49.0	41.7	37.4	44.9	36.7	38.2	
Medicine	60.3	61.5	64.3	62.3	62.6	64.8	62.4	61.9	63.8	61.7	64.3	
Education	85.3	72.5	76.0	67.8	68.3	72.7	69.1	72.4	76.7	69.9	71.0	
Politics and social sciences	50.0	48.4	45.0	60.8	49.8	45.7	56.2	56.2	55.6	54.5	55.8	
Psychology, anthropology and geography	51.7	68.8	64.2	64.7	67.7	66.9	69.0	67.1	68.8	65.5	66.4	
Statistics	67.4	53.7	47.1	49.4	50.0	61.5	55.3	56.3	57.3	49.3	58.8	
History and Philosophy	54.5	50.5	49.0	49.2	48.6	49.0	43.8	50.6	48.4	48.2	54.4	
Arts	60.6	56.1	65.3	60.8	64.1	65.0	54.3	68.2	56.9	61.0	59.5	
Veterinary sciences	68.7	60.2	50.5	57.9	61.4	61.9	57.6	59.0	64.0	67.0	56.2	
N Male	1,993	3,066	4,028	4,556	4,880	4,974	5,894	5,671	5,401	5,216	5,232	
N Female	2,146	3,183	4,318	4,921	5,177	5,485	6,514	6,431	5,933	5,956	6,056	
Total	4,139	6,249	8,346	9,477	10,057	10,459	12,408	12,102	11,334	11,172	11,288	
Mfemale/total %	51.8	50.9	51.7	51.9	51.5	52.4	52.5	53.1	52.3	53.3	53.6	

Source: MIUR WEBSITE (<http://statistica.miur.it/>, December 2014).

Table A.1.3 Gender distribution of teachers, 2012

	Notes	<i>Percentage of women among teaching staff in public and private institutions by level of education, based on head counts</i>										
		Pre- primary education	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education			Post- secondary non-tertiary education	Tertiary education			All levels of education
					General programmes	pre- vocational/ vocational programmes	All programmes		Type B	Type A and advanced research programmes	Total tertiary education	
Austria	(1)	99	91	71	63	50	54	53	x(10)	x(10)	40	65
Belgium	1	97	81	62	61	x(6)	61	x(6)	x(10)	x(10)	46	70
Iceland	2	96	81	81	x(6)	x(6)	54	x(6,10)	x(10)	x(10)	47	73
Italy	2	99	96	78	75	61	66	m	33	36	36	77
Netherlands	2	86	85	50	50	50	50	51	41	40	40	64
Slovenia		98	97	79	71	64	67	x(4,5)	x(10)	39	39	75
Switzerland		98	82	53	45	42	43	m	33	37	37	58
OECD average		97	82	67	59	53	57	55	47	40	42	68
EU21 average		96	86	69	64	56	60	54	50	40	42	71

1. Year of reference 2011.

2. Public institutions only (for Italy, from pre-primary to secondary levels).

Sources: OECD (2014), http://www.OECD-ilibrary.org/education/education-at-a-glance-2014_eag-2014-en

Tab. A.2.1: Part-time employment and involuntary part-time for women aged 25-49 (%)

	<i>PT as % of total employment</i>			<i>Involuntary PT as % of total PT</i>		
	2004	2008	2013	2004	2008	2013
EU27	28,3	28,8	30,3	17,4	23,2	26,9
Belgium	40,7	39,3	39,3	15,7	13,2	8,5
Italy	25,9	29,3	34,1	31,1	37,2	57,9
Netherlands	72,9	71,7	73,0	2,7	3,8	8,2
Austria	41,6	43,8	47,8	6,9	9,0	9,0
Slovenia	5,7	6,0	8,8	15,0	13,0	17,3
Iceland	30,3	27,7	24,9	:	7,1	22,8
Switzerland	61,8	60,6	62,1	5,0	5,1	6,9

Source: Eurostat, online codes: [lfsa_eppga], [lfsa_eppgai].

Table A.2.2: Occupations by sex and level of education, 2013

<i>Percent of corresponding total of all occupations</i>	WOMEN		MEN	
	All	Tertiary Education (Level 5-6)	All	Tertiary Education (Level 5-6)
Legislators, senior officials and managers	2.3	2.7	4.6	7.1
Professionals	17.7	50.4	10.6	54.1
Technicians and associate professionals	16.4	22.9	17.9	22.8
Clerks	18.7	13.5	7.9	6.4
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	23.6	6.9	11.6	3.6
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1.3	0.2	3.3	0.7
Craft and related trade workers	3.7	0.5	22.9	1.4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	3.1	0.2	9.9	0.9
Elementary Occupations	13.0	2.7	9.3	1.4
Armed forces	0.1	..	1.9	1.6
Not stated
<i>Total</i>	<i>100.0</i>	<i>100.0</i>	<i>100.0</i>	<i>100.0</i>

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Tab. A.3.1: Types of households in Italy and OECD average in 2011 (in % of all households)

	Italy	of which:	OECD average	of which:
Couple families	62.3	66.7% with children	57.6	58.6% with children
Single person households	24.9		27.7	
Sole parent families	8.9	82.5% sole mother	9.1	84.5% sole mother
Other private households	3.9		7.0	

Source: Population census 2011, in: OECD (2014), "SF1.1: Family size and household composition"

Tab. A.3.2: Households by number of children* in 2011 (% of all households)

	0	1	2	3 and more	% of households with children < 6
Austria	63	18	14	5	14
Belgium	57	18	17	8	16
Italy	52	25	19	4	18
Netherlands	61	15	17	7	16
Slovenia	50	25	20	5	16
OECD-24	56	20	17	7	17

* For European countries, data include children not yet 15 years of age, or aged 15 to 24 and dependent (not employed and with at least one parent in the household).

Source: Population census 2011, in: OECD (2014), "SF1.1: Family size and household composition"

Tab. A.3.3: Age at which 50% of young people leave home, live with a partner and become parents, 2011

	Leaving home (age)		Living with partner (age)		Having children (age)	
	M	W	M	W	M	W
AT	25.9	23.3	29.6	26.5	33.5	29.8
BE	24.6	23.2	28.2	25.6	34.2	29.4
DK	20.6	19.6	26.0	25.1	33.5	29.7
FI	21.1	19.8	23.7	21.5	33.8	30.1
IT	29.6	26.8	33.8	28.9	37.2	31.8
SI	29.9	27.0	32.1	28.2	34.2	29.1
EU27	26.3	23.8	29.4	26.4	34.3	30.1

Note: Denmark and Finland have been included for comparison (even though not included in the GARCIA project).

Source: EU-SILC 2011, in: Eurofound (2014, tab. 4, p. 23).

Tab. A.4.1: Working-time arrangements of couples aged 25-49 years by family circumstances and age of youngest child, 2012 (%)

	Without children	Child aged < 6	Child aged ≥ 6	All couples
Men FT, woman inactive	21.9	36.6	37.3	34.2
Both FT	49.8	30.5	27.7	32.9
Men FT, woman PT	14.0	18.6	19.3	18.1
Men & woman not working	4.2	6.2	7.7	6.5
Men not working & woman FT	3.4	2.3	2.5	2.6
Men not working & woman PT	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.9
Other working-time arrangements	4.8	4.1	3.5	3.8

Source: table IV.2.

Tab. A.4.2: Employment rate (25-49) by sex and presence of children in 2012 (%)

	Italy			Trentino			EU27		
	M	F	gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap
Without children	76,1	66,1	10,0	91,1	76,9	14,2	78,9	77,1	1,8
1 small child (<5 yrs)	89,0	61,9	27,1	94,8	68,6	26,2	89,0	68,0	21,0
2 or more children (<5 yrs)	89,1	53,1	36,0	96,2	65,0	31,2	90,0	63,4	26,6

Source: PAT (2013: 49).

Table A.4.3: The Gender Equality Index for Italy and the Autonomous Province Trento, 2010

	P.A. Trento		Italy	
	absolute	standardized	absolute	Standardized
Employment gap	17.24	0.52	20.35	0.43
Unemployment gap	10.18	0.51	12.13	0.42
Standardized work dimension		0.52		0.43
Wage gap	11.40	0.18	9.94	0.29
Standardized wage dimension		0.18		0.29
Gap in regional councils	77.14	0.23	78.89	0.21
Gap in regional government	55.56	0.44	55.12	0.45
Gap in ISCO 1 (top occupations)	0.46	0.28	0.49	0.23
Standardized political power dimension		0.31		0.28
Gap in time spent in children care	100.95	0.57	104.17	0.55
Gap in leisure	21.92	0.44	26.91	0.31
Standardized time dimension		0.50		0.43
The Gender Equality Index		0.38		0.36

Source: Amici, Stefani (2013).

Tab. A.5.1: Main legislative acts to promote women's rights and gender equality

<i>Source</i>	<i>Main disposition</i>
Art. 3 and Art. 37, Art. 51, Constitution (1948)	Formal equality between men and women Pay Equality between men and women Equal access to public office
Law 868/1950	Tutela fisica ed economica delle lavoratrici madri
Law 898/1970	Divorce Law
Law 1204/1971	Tutela delle lavoratrici madri
Law 1044/1971	Child care facilities under local government
Law 151/1975	Family Law Reform
Law 903/1977	Equality of treatment between men and women on the workplace
Law 194/1978	Abortion Law
Law 125/1991	Positive action for achieving parity between men and women at work
Law 215/1992	Positive action for female entrepreneurship
Law 66/1996	Measures against sexual violence
Law 53/2000	Measures to promote reconciliation of work- family life
Reform of art. 51 of the Constitution	Legal Recognition of electoral gender quota
Law 154/2001	Measures against intimate violence
Legislative Decree 198/2006	National Code of Equal Opportunities between Women and Men
Legislative Decree 196/2007	Equal treatment between men and women in access to and supply of goods and services
Law Decree 11/2009	Measures against gender violence and stalking.
Law 120/2011	For public and private board composition, no more than 2/3 members of the same sex on the board
Law 215/2012	For the local elections, no more than 2/3 candidates of the same sex on the lists; gender preferences
Law Decree 93/2013	Measures (among others) against gender violence, converted in Law 119/2013
Law 65/2014	For the European Parliament elections, candidates of both sexes on the lists; gender preferences

Table A. 5.2: Global Talent Index

2011 RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE/100	2011 RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE/100
1	United States	74.2	31	Chile	43.7
2	Denmark	64.7	32	Slovakia	43.3
3	Finland	63.2	33	China	41.1
4	Norway	61.9	34	Russia	40.8
5	Singapore	60.2	35	India	40.5
6	Australia	60.1	=36	Malaysia	40.1
7	Sweden	59.5	=36	Romania	40.1
8	Hong Kong	59.1	38	Mexico	39.7
9	Switzerland	58.5	39	Venezuela	39.4
=10	Israel	58.3	40	Colombia	39.1
=10	Netherlands	58.3	41	Saudi Arabia	39.0
12	United Kingdom	58.2	42	Brazil	38.2
13	Germany	57.9	43	Ukraine	38.0
14	Canada	57.8	44	Philippines	37.6
15	New Zealand	57.7	45	South Africa	37.4
16	Ireland	57.4	46	Thailand	36.8
17	Austria	55.7	47	Peru	36.4
18	Belgium	55.5	48	Turkey	35.0
19	France	55.1	49	Bulgaria	34.7
20	Taiwan	54.5	50	Ecuador	33.5
21	Spain	49.7	51	Egypt	32.8
22	South Korea	48.4	52	Vietnam	30.7
=23	Greece	46.7	53	Kazakhstan	30.5
=23	Italy	46.7	54	Azerbaijan	29.8
25	Czech Republic	45.9	55	Iran	29.7
26	Portugal	45.4	=56	Algeria	27.0
27	Japan	45.0	=56	Pakistan	27.0
28	Argentina	44.6	58	Indonesia	26.5
29	Poland	44.0	59	Sri Lanka	26.3
30	Hungary	43.8	60	Nigeria	23.1

Source: Economist Intelligence Unit (2011) <http://www.globaltalentindex.com/>

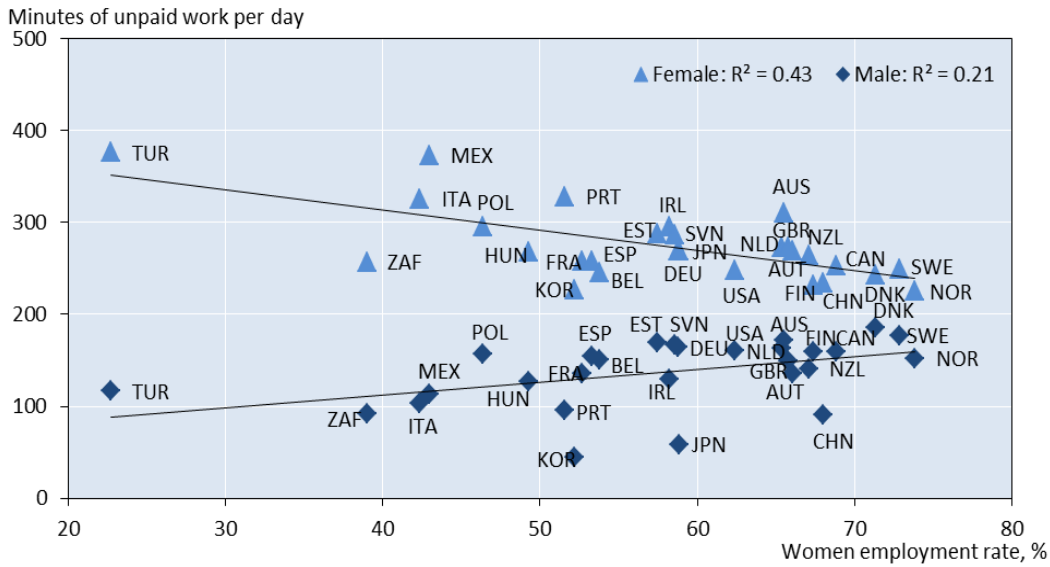
Table A5.3 - Academic research staff, 2013 and 2018

	2013				2013 %			var % (2008)		
	M	F	TOT	F/TOT%	M	F	TOT	M	F	TOT
<i>Permanent positions:</i>										
- Full professor	10955	2935	13890	21.1	22.0	8.5	16.4	-28.7	-17.7	-26.6
- Associate professor	10278	5532	15810	35.0	20.7	15.9	18.7	-14.9	-10.4	-13.4
- Permanent assistant Professor	12923	10823	23746	45.6	26.0	31.2	28.1	-8.0	-6.2	-7.2
<i>Non-permanent positions</i>										
- Fixed-term researchers (type A and B)	1798	1364	3162	43.1	3.6	3.9	3.7	454.9	459.0	456.7
- Research fellows	9592	10107	19699	51.3	19.3	29.1	23.3	67.9	65.8	66.8
- Research collaborators	4222	3946	8168	48.3	8.5	11.4	9.7	56.8	29.2	42.2
	49768	34707	84475	41.1	100.0	100.0	100.0			
	2008				2008 %					
	M	F	TOT	F/TOT%	M	F	TOT			
<i>Permanent positions:</i>										
- Full professor	15364	3565	18929	18.8	30.6	11.6	23.4			
- Associate professor	12080	6176	18256	33.8	24.1	20.1	22.6			
- Permanent assistant Professor	14044	11539	25583	45.1	28.0	37.6	31.6			
<i>Non-permanent positions</i>										
- Fixed-term researchers (type A and B)	324	244	568	43.0	0.6	0.8	0.7			
- Research fellows	5712	6097	11809	51.6	11.4	19.9	14.6			
- Research collaborators	2692	3053	5745	53.1	5.4	10.0	7.1			
	50216	30674	80890	37.9	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Source: our elaborations on Miur data (“Banca dati dei docenti di ruolo” and “Banca Dati del Personale Docente a Contratto e Tecnico Amministrativo”), December 2014, <http://statistica.miur.it/>

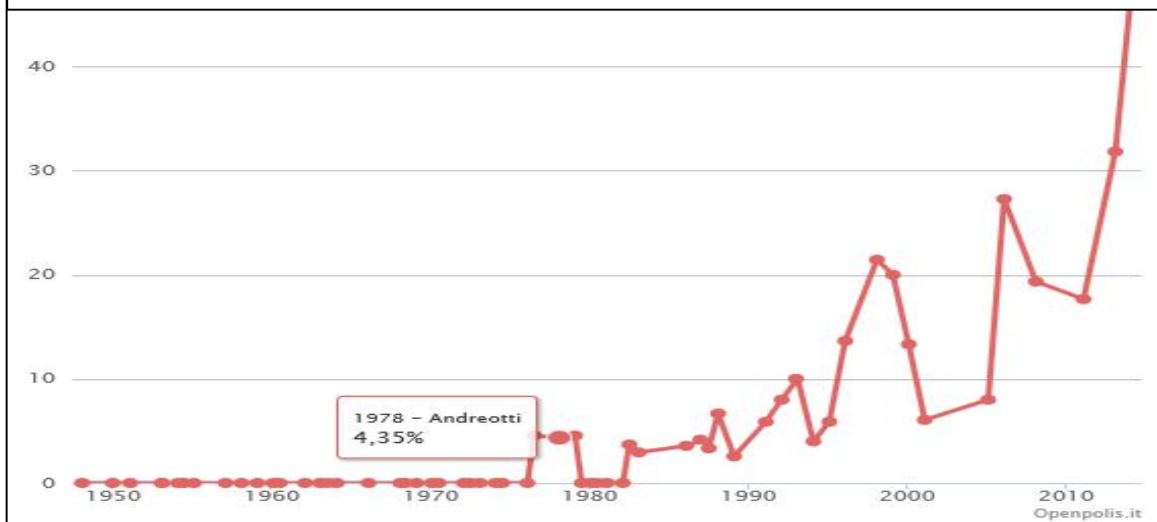
Figures

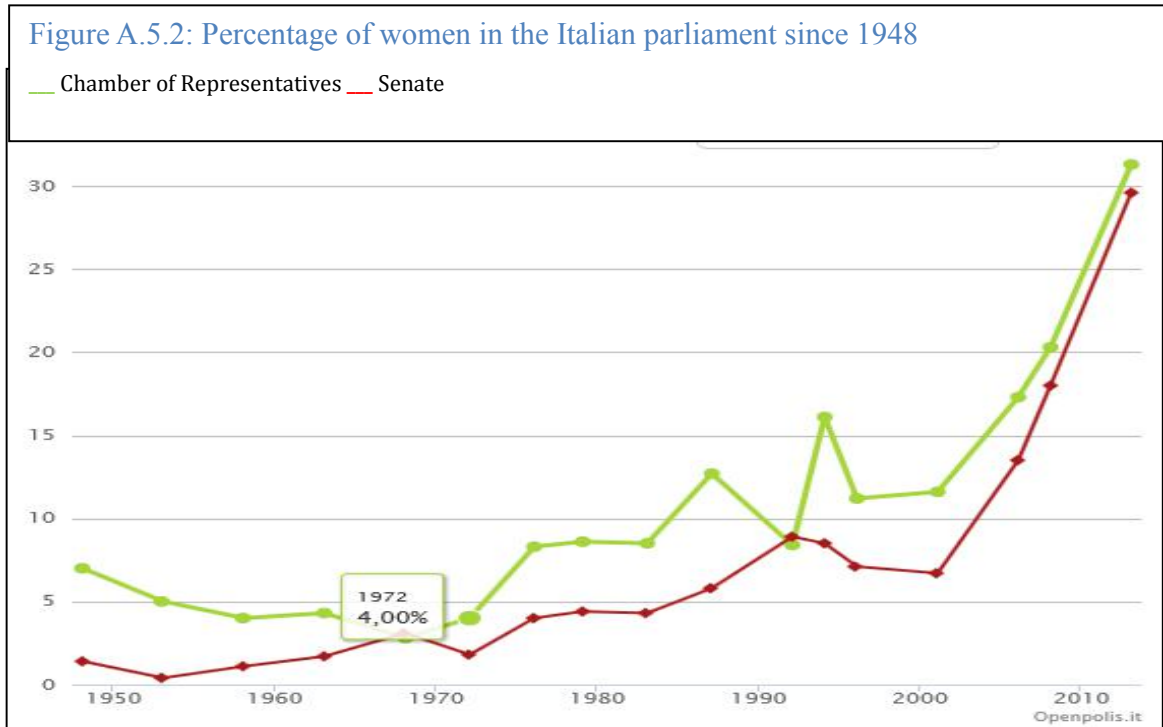
Fig. 4.1 - Unpaid work and women employment rate in OECD countries



Source: OECD (2012a), Closing the Gender gap: Act Now (Chapter 17, fig. 17.2). OECD Secretariat estimates based on national time-use surveys and OECD Labour Force Surveys for employment rates.

Figure A.5.1: Gender representation in the governments (prime minister and ministers) of republican Italy, 1948-2014





2. Belgium

Introduction: Contextual Overview

Key Indicators

Population, total (millions): 11.11
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current \$US): \$45,210
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population: 0.5%
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 1.8
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 6
Number of weeks of maternity leave: 15
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%): 38%
Gender Inequality Index Rank: 12 th *

Source: <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/belgium>

*http://www.leavenetwork.org/fileadmin/Leavenetwork/Annual_reviews/2013_complete.6june.pdf

“Belgium performs well in many measures of well-being, as shown by the fact that it ranks among the top ten countries in several topics in the Better Life Index” (OECD, 2014)²⁷

Belgium is a federal country, characterized by internal variation in policies, values and social practices, depending on the linguistic regions and communities (Flemish, French and German). The employment rate and economic development are better in the Flemish region in comparison with the Brussels-Capital and Walloon regions.

In existing social protection regime typologies, Belgium is generally qualified as having a corporatist model, as identified by Esping-Andersen (1990), founded on the Bismarckian model and the key role of social partners and social negotiation.

In terms of gender regime, education, family organization, equal opportunities policies as well as gendered segmentations of the labour market, the same trends and rationales prevail in the different regions and communities of the country. Belgian women have relatively high economic activity rates and levels of qualification, but they also tend to work part-time and to be the main users of leave policies when their children are young. In that sense, since the Second World War, Belgium seems to have

²⁷ <http://www.OECDbetterlifeindex.org/countries/belgium/>

evolved towards the adoption of a “dual earner/female part-time carer normative model” (Crompton, 1999).

In this report, we will describe the main features involving five domains:

- domain 1. Education policies and practices
- domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices
- domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies
- domains 4 & 5. Care & work-life policies and Equal opportunity / anti-discrimination policies and practices

Where it is appropriate, we will point to some science career indicators, particularly in the French-speaking part of Belgium where our case study of the University of Louvain is embedded.

We will conclude this overview on the congruence between the societal regime and the university employment sector.

2.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

In Belgium, teaching is termed a Community matter, i.e. dependent on the linguistic communities (Flemish, French-speaking, German-speaking). However, the structure of the school system is similar throughout the country.

Education is obligatory from 6 until 18 years of age. The school system is free for pre-school education (provided from 3 to 6 years of age, but with more and more children entering it at two and half years of age), primary school education (6 years) and secondary education (6 years). Secondary education has three major tracks (general education, technical education and vocational education), to which must added an alternated training and apprenticeship track which is little developed. Higher education is accessible on payment of a registration fee fixed by the State in its community components. As an indication, the amount was 834 euros for the 2014-2015 university year, for an inscription in a university of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels (it is slightly higher in the Flemish part). Higher education is provided by two types of operators: ‘hautes écoles’ (non-university higher education) and

universities. Passage between the operators and levels of studies is made possible, with university education remaining most appreciated, at least symbolically. In accordance with European policy, higher education has been reorganized around a first cycle leading to a baccalaureate, a second cycle certified by a master's degree, and a third cycle giving access to the title of doctor (only granted by universities).

In terms of level of studies, thus without regarding the tracks, girls may be considered to perform today better than boys. Accordingly, we note that the enrolment rate of girls in upper and post secondary education is higher than that of boys and that has been the case since the early 2000's: the rate is under 50% for the boys, oscillating between 46.7% and 49.5%, whereas it is over 50% for the girls, with a minimum of 50.5% for the 2002-2003 school year and a maximum of 53.3%, for example, for the 2011-2012 school year (cf. **Table I.3**). During the same period, this female performance may also be observed on the level of the proportion of tertiary qualifications awarded to women (**Table I.4**) given that, all fields of studies taken together, they obtain a score of over 50%, for example reaching 55% in 2011. If, over time, we compare two age groups expressing generational effects, the 25-49 year olds and those over 50, we observe that the level of studies of women increases compared to that of men (**I.1 Table**). For example, the proportion of women with primary educational attainment out of the entire population of 25-49 year olds, in 2000, was 51.7% (and for the population over 50, was 60.2%) and, in 2012, 49.2% (and 61% for those over 50). The further up we go in the level of studies, the more the percentage favours the women in this intergenerational comparison. Indeed, in 2012, we observe that:

- the percentage of women with lower secondary educational attainment diminishes between the two generations (41.7% for the 25-49 year olds; 52.8% for those over 50);
- this reduction also applies to the percentage of women with upper secondary educational attainment (in 2012: 46.3% for the 25-49 year olds; 51.5% for those over 50);
- for its part, the percentage of women with tertiary educational attainment increases (in 2012: 55.4% for the 25-49 year olds; 46.8% for those over 50).

In sum, these new generations of women hold an increasing number of degrees and now exceed the men both with regard to access to higher and university education and in numbers of graduates. A zoom on the situation in the universities concerned within the Federation Wallonia-Brussels (French-speaking and German-speaking part), reinforces this diagnosis. Indeed, (in 2011) the female population accounted for 54% of the total student population. Having said that, the percentage of women obtaining a doctorate, is estimated at 42 % of the graduates in 2009-2010 (Meulders *et al.*, 2012: 25), suggesting an under-representation of women at this level of qualification (the highest). In addition, an uneven distribution of students depending on the disciplinary fields is also discernable: “62% of the female students and 50% of the male students are to be found in the social sciences, against 11% of women and 29% of men in the sciences and 27% of women and 20% of men in the health sciences” (Meulders *et al.*, 2012: 28).

Hence differences remain as to the tracks followed, whether it be in secondary or higher education. If we analyse the male/female ratios in tertiary education more specifically (**Table I.5**) for the whole of Belgium, we observe that the tracks of education, humanities and arts, social sciences, business and law, health and welfare are more than 50% feminized, whereas the tracks of science, engineering, manufacturing and construction, and agriculture remain male-dominated. It is also interesting to notice that within this general segmentation more subtle distinctions are at work: for example, in the very male fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction, if the proportion of girls in the theoretically oriented programmes has been around 25% in the last few years and even some 30% in the advanced research programmes, it falls to some 10% in the vocationally oriented programmes. This phenomenon is even more marked in the field of sciences. Conversely, in the health and welfare field, the proportion of girls in vocationally oriented programmes exceeds 80%, but falls to around 60% for the theoretically or advanced research programmes. This logic is also noticeable in another very feminized domain, the humanities and arts, often considered as offering less marketing capacity (the ability to advance oneself on the labour market) than fields concerned with the natural or health sciences: the percentage of women in the theoretically oriented programmes exceeds 60% today, that is to say in a formation which we might describe as general,

decreasing to under 50% in the advanced research programmes with a higher prestige level, and only accounting for 40% of students in vocationally oriented programmes.

These examples underline the fact that orientations always vary between men and women, the first being tendentially more present in the tracks and sub-tracks with high commercial and/or symbolic value. Nevertheless, if we suppose that scientific careers are prioritarily attached to theoretically oriented and advanced research programmes, in a medium length observation we see that the proportion of women has increased since 2003 and exceeds 50% in the theoretically oriented programmes and 40% in the advanced research programmes (see **Table I.6**). This observation signifies that more and more women are entering the recruitment pool for scientific posts.

The structure of the teaching corps between primary, secondary and higher education also reveals a logic of relative segregation between men and women. In fact, if we estimate that a hierarchy exists, at least symbolically, or perhaps financially, between the status of primary school teaching, secondary level teaching and teaching in the superior or university, it is not surprising that over 80% of primary school teachers are women (**Table I.8**), in secondary education around 60% (Source: Eurostat quoted by Eurydice, 2010) while representing 46% in higher and university education (**Table I.8**).

In conclusion, women in fact use the school system to increase their level of studies and exceed men in access to higher and university education, which also results in higher graduation rates, except at the doctoral level. However, a horizontal segmentation may be observed between the tracks followed, some of which remain male bastions. Moreover, although less visible, a gender differentiation exists within the tracks because the most socially valued programmes, symbolically and/or economically, have experienced a loss in the relative number of women. The fact remains that more and more girls are to be found today in theoretically oriented and advanced research programmes, for this reason constituting an increasingly large

part of the qualified people eligible for a scientific career. Women nevertheless remain under-represented in obtaining doctorates.

2.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

As is the previous domain, the job market is also strongly feminized in Belgium. Women constitute around 45% of the active population between 20 and 59 years of age (**Table II.1**). Nevertheless, the employment rates, even if they have shown a tendency to increase since 2000, remain lower than the men's (**Table II.2**): for the year 2013, they amounted to 75.3% for women compared with 87% for men (with a slight reduction since 2000).

The least qualified women (less than primary, primary and lower secondary) have the lowest employment rates: for example, 47.5% in 2013. This phenomenon is also observable for the men but to a lesser degree (for example, 67.8% in 2013). Yet the least qualified men have seen the curve of their employment rates in almost constant freefall since the year 2000 when they had a rate of nearly 90%. One thing is certain for the women, the more their level of studies increases, the more their employment rates increase, and the more the difference in their employment rates, compared to men, diminish. Thus, with regard to the highest levels of qualification (short-cycle tertiary, bachelor, master and doctoral or equivalent) the difference in employment rates decreases to less than five points (92% for the men and 87.4% for the women in 2013). We might suppose that women's increasing rates of access to and graduation within the education system plays in favor of the women's position in employment.

Aside from the "qualification" effect, women are marked by a rather pronounced "marital situation" effect (**Table II.3**). For example, for the 25-49 year old age bracket (the population most present on the job market), we observe, in singling out the year 2011 (but we could have taken others), that the employment rates of women decrease gradually between those who have never been married (78.9%), those who are married (74.5%), those who are divorced (72.8%) and those who are widowed (47.4%). Undoubtedly this last, very low rate, must be seen in relation to what is called the "survivor's pension" payable following the death of a spouse.

To this “marital” effect may be in fact be added a pronounced “parental” effect (**Table II.4**). Thus, in 2012, 77.4% of women without a child were employed against 68.3% of mothers with a child under 3 years of age. As regards men, we have a “parental” effect in the opposite direction since for the same year (but it is recurring), men without a child had an employment rate of 79.7 against 87.7 for fathers of a child under 3 years of age. For parents - for both men and women - the employment rate increases as the age of the dependent children increases: in 2013, 73.9% for the mothers and 90.5% for the fathers of a child between 3 and 5 years old; 77.3% for mothers and 91.3% for fathers of a child between 6 to 16 years old.

Besides these effects, and perhaps in connection with them, the job market remains segmented both horizontally and vertically. Women are more present than men in the public sector (56.3% in the public sector compared with 42.3% in the private sector in 2012, with a slight increase in the time within that sector - **Table II.5**). They are in the majority in the main categories of the following occupations (reference: 2013 - **Table II.6**):

- service and sales workers: 67.8%
- elementary occupations: 64% (with a 20 year upward trend)
- clerks: 61.5%
- professionals: 54.1%

Elsewhere, they are in the minority (same reference year) in the following occupations:

- technicians and associate professionals: 45.4% (with a 20 year upward trend)
- legislators, senior officials and managers: 32.4% (in 2012 - Table II.7)
- skilled agricultural and fishery workers: 16.4%(with a 20 year downward trend)
- plan and machine operators and assemblers: 13.7% (with a 20 year downward trend)
- armed forces: 7.2% (year 2011)
- craft and related trade workers: 6.1%(with a 20 year downward trend)

The most qualified women (tertiary education) modify this segmentation slightly (**Table II.7**), because here they are more represented than men in the category of

technicians and associate professionals with a ratio of 53.1%. This category occupies approximately a fifth (19.5% in 2012 - Table II.8) of the population of qualified women in higher or university education. Nearly one highly qualified woman in two is located in the “professionals” category (49% in 2012). This category also constitutes an important outlet for men with the same qualification level (43.5% in 2012). Let us note that the category of legislators, senior officials and managers occupies 8.3% of women with high qualifications and more than twice as many men (17.5%). This indicator suggests that access to decision-making professional functions remains marked by gender discrimination (“glass ceiling”). The proportion of men and women with senior management responsibilities is moreover, in 2010, 13.6% for the men and 8.5% for the women - **Table II 17**). Another indicator of this phenomenon is the percentage of women who are employers; it was 24.2% in 2013 (**Table II.12**), but in continuous progression since the 1980’s (being at 9.7% in 1980). The women’s loss in ascending professional mobility choices is also rather clearly seen in academic careers. Thus, in 2010, for the French-speaking universities, the percentage of women with the rank of lecturer/associate professor (level C) is 32%; with that of professor (level B) at 25%; and that of full professor (level A) at 10% (Meulders *et al.*, 2012: 38). These few figures photographically underline the maintenance of a “leaky pipeline” and a “glass ceiling” in the academic universe but which nevertheless fits into a movement of progressive attenuation in the differences as underlined in graphs 1 and 2 in Additional data Belgium.

Depending on the figures of Statistics Belgium²⁸, in 2013, the relative difference in unemployment rates between men and women is very close regardless of their place of residence (Flemish region, Brussels-Capital region or Walloon region) and their qualification level. Affecting as much the men as the women, the differences are nonetheless striking depending on the regions and the qualification levels: being a man with a low qualification level and living in the Brussels-Capital region results in a 34.7% unemployment rate as compared to 30.7% for women with the same profile. But that rate falls to 9.2% for men and 8.4% for women in the Flemish region, and 10.6% and 20.8% in the Walloon region. At the other end of the qualification range,

²⁸ <http://statbel.fgov.be/fr/statistiques/chiffres/travailvie/emploi/relatifs/>

for highly qualified people, the regional phenomenon remains but in an attenuated way: the unemployment rate is 9% for women and 11.2% for men in the Brussels-Capital region, 6.4% for women and 5% for men in the Walloon region, and 3.2% for women and 3.8% for men in the Flemish region. A mid range qualification follows the same logic with an intermediate unemployment rate (4.8% for women in the Flemish region and 21.9% for men and women in the Brussels-Capital region). These few indicators stress the fact that the situation in facing unemployment is less an issue of gender than of qualification level and the region of localization, with men liable to be more affected by unemployment than women, which is not recent if we look at the 2003 data.

The fact remains that one of the main reasons for inactivity distinguishing men and women between 25 and 49 years of age (**Table IV.5**) relates to domestic tasks. Indeed, if 42.6% of inactive women in 2012 (51.7% in 2006) evoke reasons associated with “homemaking”, only 4.9% of the men use this justification (3.4% in 2006). The importance of domestic tasks attributed to women is moreover one of the explanations of another flagrant difference between Belgian men and women: part time. The latter represent nearly 80% of part-time workers (**Table II.11**); nevertheless a relatively progressive reduction may be observed since the early 1990’s when women constituted 88.6% of part-time workers. Conversely, women today represent just a little more than one third of full-time workers, with a slight progression in the rate since the 1990’s. If only 6% of men in employment, from 25 to 49 years of age, work part-time, that rate rises to 39.3% for women in the same age bracket in 2013 (**Table II.15**). If we refer to the figures cited by Anne-Marie Dieu (2006), for the men, the main reason invoked is the fact of not having found full-time employment (31.3%). Family and personal reasons are cited by 14.5% of the workers questioned. Only 3.5% of men working part-time evoked taking care of children. On the contrary, among women, the first reason mentioned related to taking care of children (29.1%), with (25.7%) invoking personal and family reasons, and the third reason being the fact of not having found full-time employment (20.2%).

Gender pay gap (difference in hourly wage) remains around 10% (**Table II.13**). According to the report of the Institute for the equality of women and men published

in 2011: “[In Belgium] women receive 38% of all gross salaries, whereas 46% of workers are women and women put in 42% of all the hours worked. Concretely, that corresponds to a wage gap of 8.4 billion euros for 2008. That means that all the female workers of Belgium taken together earned 8.4 billion euros less than the men in 2008” (IEFH, 2011, p. 65). “On average women earn only 56% of the gross incomes of men. Since higher incomes are proportionally more heavily taxed, the difference stands out less in terms of net incomes. The women earn on average 63% of men’s net incomes. Out of all labour incomes (wages, revenues as self-employed workers (*indépendants*), auxiliary wages, etc), women earn on average 71% of men’s incomes” (IEFH, 2011, p.83). Let us point out that this difference, coupled with part-time work, has ramifications on retirement pensions for, among them, “59% of women and 33% of men entitled to a pension receive an amount below 1,000 euros.” (IEFH, 2011, p.71).

This analysis of the job market in Belgium underlines both a far-reaching feminization of the job market and certain advances among women, especially the highly qualified, into professional positions attached to a tertiarized economy. Notwithstanding, the “glass ceiling” and “leaky pipeline” phenomena have not been done away with and are easily observable in university careers. In addition, the fact that men are no more immune to unemployment than women does not mean that the phenomenon of sexual segmentation is thereby abolished since certain professional categories remain strongly male and others very female. The most striking fact is undoubtedly the number of women employed part-time, which is largely associated with familial situations. Moreover, in terms of earned income, the economic conditions are still unfavourable towards women as gender pay gaps and the differential with regard to retirement pensions underline. The movement begun several years ago has certainly reduced the inequalities between men and women in their access to employment and their professional positioning, but it is still far from having removed them or made them insignificant, even for the highly qualified. This persistence of inequalities is of course rooted in both regulatory modes and professional cultures as well as in the gender division of productive and reproductive work, and thus in the family sphere.

2.3 Domains 3-4. Family-formation, care & work-life policies and practices

As we have underlined, the relationship of women to employment is not independent of family forms and dynamics.

Depending on the civil status registers (situation as of 1/1/2010), 41.8% of men and 40.2% of women are declared married; 47.9% of men and 40.57% of women declare that they have never been married; 7.69% of men and 8.88% of women are declared divorced; finally 2.6% of men and 10.36% of women are declared widowed (IEFH, 2011: 36). The difference in the widow/widower situation depending on gender is mainly explained by the women's longer life expectancies (82 versus 77 for men in 2009).

Despite an increasing feminization of the job market, it should be noted that the fertility rate is rather stable: 1.7 in 1980 and 1.8 in 2012, with a minimum of 1.6 and a maximum of 1.9 in that time period (**Table III.1**). However, the average age of women at the birth of their first child is, for its part, increasing progressively from 24.7 years of age in 1980 to 28.2 in 2010 (**Table III.2**). This increase can be logically associated with the increase in the level of studies, later entry onto the labour market, the time of conjugal experiences before developing a parental project and the precariousness of their first professional insertions.

In Belgium, the average age for a first marriage is 29.7 years of age for the women and 32.1 for the men, in 2010 (IEFH, 2011: 27). Following the European tendency, the crude marriage rate has decreased in Belgium (7.1 marriages for 1,000 inhabitants in 1960 and 4.1 in 2011). In contrast, the number of legal cohabitations has greatly increased since 2002 (IEFH, 2011: 35). With regard to divorces, the average length of a marriage is between 14 and 15 years. At the time of divorce, men are on average three years older than women (IEFH, 2011: 28). The divorce rate is in fact on the increase²⁹ and among the highest in Europe: 2.9 divorces for 1,000 inhabitants in

²⁹ http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Marriage_and_divorce_statistics/fr

2011³⁰ This is an important fact in securing female life courses through access to employment.

Within this configuration, it should be noted that the structure of the use of time of women and men (from 19 to 65) remains differentiated even if it has undergone significant evolutions in the past four decades. Indeed, depending on time-use surveys (see Glorieux et al., 2013), women on average devoted nearly 10 hours less per week than men to paid work in 2005 (15:27 hours for women and 25:02 for men), while the variation has greatly decreased in the last few decades (it was approximately 26 hours in 1966). This reduction in the variation is not due to an increase in the time women devote to paid work (it was 16:20 hours in 1966) but due to a fall in the average number of hours worked by men (it was 43:48 hours in 1966). Depending on the 2005 figures, women, on the other hand, devote nearly 10 hours more to housework than do men (23:47 hours for women as against 13:52 hours for men), with a reduction of a little over 10 hours for the women and an increase of more or less 7 hours for the men as compared to the survey carried out in 1966. The time devoted to child-care and education remains higher for women (2:54 hours for the women against 1:07 hours per week for the men, in 2005), although this indicates a decrease for the women and an increase for the men since 1966). What is called free time (leisure) has also increased since the 1960's for both sexes, all the while being lower for women (22:55 hours and, for men, 28:42 hours, in 2005). One of the most outstanding evolutions is the increase in time spent commuting, increasing from 5:17 hours for the women and 7:26 hours for the men in 1966, to, respectively, 10:22 hours and 11:00 hours in 2005. The time devoted to social participation has also increased, whereas time for rest and personal care has evolved little during the period (around sixty hours per week).

The unequal distribution of time between men and women depending on the parental situation was also noticed during a study undertaken among postdoctoral researchers in French-speaking Belgium (Fusulier, del Rio Carral, 2012): if on average they declare putting in 47 work hours per week (median: 45 hours), the mothers are

³⁰ http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Marriage_and_divorce_statistics/fr

those estimating that they work the least (average: 44 hours; median: 40 hours); childless men are those stating that they work the most (49 hours on average); 47 hours for the fathers and childless women. As for the time devoted to household tasks, the mothers declare 7 hours per week on average, as opposed to approximately 6 hours for childless women, fathers and childless men. The fathers say they devote 22 hours per week on average caring for their children (median: 20 hours), the mothers declare 29 (median: 30 hours). Thus this study shows us that the researchers' relationship to time also reveals a "gender" effect coupled with "parental status".

All things considered, despite tendencies towards a rapprochement in time use between the sexes, we can conclude in referring to the title of a chapter of analysis on the use of time by Belgians, the National Institute of Statistics (2002), entitled: "The egalitarian household: not for tomorrow". According to the projections of Glorieux et al. (2013), taking the rhythm of change into account, an equilibrium may be reached in 2050. The National Institute of Statistics also predicts that as the model of the double income household gradually becomes more widespread, the pressure time exerts will intensify.

Public authorities are called upon to provide a series of institutional supports in order to reduce that pressure and facilitate a work/family conciliation. Thus, several policies are coordinated in Belgium, some forming part of a de-familialization program (early childhood care services and service vouchers, for example), others in a logic of decommodification (vacations linked to caring for close relations and parentality, for example).

We cannot be exhaustive here for the legislative arsenal is complex. The principal policies are³¹: maternity leave, paternity leave, parental leave and time-credit (allowing all workers to take a period of leave during their professional career – see Fusulier, 2009). The maternity leave (15 weeks for a non-multiple pregnancy) contains an obligatory part (hence 100% of the mothers take it, and nearly all use the

³¹ http://www.belgium.be/fr/emploi/gestion_de_carriere/conges_et_interruptions_de_carriere/

entire maternity leave); the paternity leave (10 days) is, for its part, not obligatory but its use has become widespread (According to a 2010 IEFH study, 88% of fathers have taken leaves within the context of paternity leave regulations). In contrast, the use of parental leave and time-credits is very gender linked. Thus, the proportion of women in the population taking a parental leave has reached 78% in (IEFH, 2011). Depending on the same source, with regard to credit-time used for care (education of a child under 8, palliative care, medical assistance or taking charge of a sick family member and homecare provided for a cohabiting handicapped child), 71.3% of the users are women. We note that 72% of the forms of career breaks in the public sector are also taken by women.

In summary, whether it be on the level of social time distribution, the use of leaves for family reasons open to both men and women, credit-times or career- pauses, Belgium remains characterized by a gendered order where reproductive work still remains largely a female affair, even if it is changing over time, but slowly, on the intergenerational scale.

Box 1. The question of work/family articulations among researchers

The researchers' situations fit into this reality. According to a survey done in French-speaking Belgium, the relationship between profession and parentality is considered a dimension which discourages the pursuit of a scientific career for 50% of the female doctors and 27% of the male doctors (Meulders *et al.*, 2012: 59). These proportions are far from being negligible for both sexes but massive as regards the women. More specifically, a study on postdoctoral candidates (Fusulier, del Rio Carral, 2012) indicates, in a general manner, that 67% of the researchers believe that their professional life encroaches on their private and family life, a feeling present among 77% of the mothers. For 44% of the mothers, this feeling of encroachment also works in the other direction: an encroachment of the family life on the professional life, which is definitely less keenly felt in the other sub-groups (fathers and childless researchers, around 25 %). It is not surprising that, for a little less than one mother out of two, "the conflict experienced between professional life and family life" represents a factor encouraging them to reorient their careers, with that opinion being shared by 29% of the childless women, 27% of the childless men and 23% of the fathers. Certainly, as we have seen, legal provisions exist to help parents reconcile their professional lives with their family lives, such as vacations for parental reasons (maternity, paternity, parental, etc). In any case, their use in the scientific field among postdoctoral researchers appears to create problems. Thus Fusulier and del Rio (2012) observed that only 80% of the mothers declared having used their entire maternity leaves (fifteen weeks) and 52% of the fathers their entire paternity leaves (ten days). Use of the parental leave is, for that matter rather anecdotal. Recourse to those legal provisions is seen by the researchers as liable to have an negative impact on the possibility of having a career due to strong competition for the permanent posts. Indeed, 92% of the mothers, 79% of the childless women, 77% of the fathers and 75% of the childless men consider that taking a leave for private/family reasons or a career pause may have such a negative effect (Fusulier, del Rio Carral, 2012). This very fact challenges how the scientific field itself is regulated.

If we look now at the policies of defamilialization in force in Belgium, one of the major problems debated in public space is that of the availability of childcare centres. Evaluated as meeting approximately one third of the needs (**Table III.5**), at considerable cost, especially for low incomes, the taking charge of children under 3 (age of access to nursery school, and liable to be lowered to 2.5 years) thus constitutes a sensitive point among others. There is in fact an important gap between the period covered by the maternity leave (15 weeks in general - see below) perhaps even expanded through a parental leave taken by the mother and the father (two times 4 months - but with a substantial loss of income) with schools assuming responsibility from 2.5 or normally 3 years of age on.

In Belgium, there is another programme which contributes to fluidifying work/family articulations within a logic of defamilialization: the service vouchers system came into effect on January 1st, 2004. The service voucher is a federal government initiative aimed at promoting jobs and local services in order to create employment and struggle against undeclared work. The users are private individuals who can buy service vouchers serving to pay a certified business for domestic assistance, meaning:

- activities at the user's residence: house cleaning - including windows, washing and ironing, occasional sewing, preparing meals;
- activities outside the user's place of residence: household shopping, transportation escort of persons with reduced mobility, including mending laundry to be ironed³².

According to the report evaluating service vouchers (IDEA Consult, 2012), the service vouchers programme included 834,959 active users (in 2011 against 98,814 users when the programme was introduced in 2004), and 17% of households have recourse to it. What is termed the 'active' population is the largest user (those between 35 and 55 years old account for approximately 45% of the users; those over 65 a little under 27%). Nearly 150,000 workers were hired in 2011 within this context by 2,708 certified businesses. 97% of the workers are women, mostly with low levels of professional qualification. The two most frequent tasks are cleaning and ironing. This programme has thus met its goal of salarization of housework and a

³² <http://www.emploi.belgique.be/defaultTab.aspx?id=651#AutoAncher0>

defamilialization supporting work/family conciliation within an active population, which one might suppose for the most part belongs to socio-economically favoured, or relatively favoured, social class which before resorted to undeclared help for those tasks or else did them themselves. In intersectional terms, we have here an usage of women with low qualification levels (and a considerable part of whom issue from immigration) in service to other women who are thereby “liberated”.

In conclusion, work/family articulations remain a sensitive point and one of the major causes of the reproduction of inequalities between men and women. We must say that despite institutional responses and the efforts of public initiatives in developing certain domestic services and setting up aid to working parents programmes, the time devoted to a multitude of worthwhile social activities is all too short and remains distributed in terms of a gendered (sexual) division of productive and reproductive work. The population of researchers are obviously equally affected by this situation.

2.4 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

While Belgium is taken as an example by the OECD in the 2014 edition of its Social Institutions and Gender Index (see below) and while equality between men and women is inscribed into its Constitution, inequalities have not disappeared despite all this, as we have seen. Institutions have been given a call to vigilance in this domain and actively carry out policies for equality and struggle against discriminations in synergy with many organizations in the civil society. Several promising initiatives have been taken in the last few decades.

Box 2. Extract from the SIGI for 2014

Top performing country: Belgium

Belgium presents very low levels of discrimination across all five sub-indices of the SIGI. The country guarantees women's rights within the family, freedom from violence, access to resources, as well as civil and political rights.

The minimum legal age of marriage is 18 for both sexes, and women and men have equal rights to parental authority, inheritance and divorce.

The country has a strong and comprehensive legal framework addressing gender-based violence. Domestic violence is criminalized, and in 2010-14 a national action plan against domestic and intimate partner violence within the family extended its scope to forced marriage, violence related to honour issues and female genital mutilation. Rape, including spousal rape, is also criminalized. Sexual harassment legislation was reinforced in 2014 by a series of laws that cover training staff, obliging employers to act in cases of a complaint and appointing a prevention advisor. The new legislation also allows victims to claim a fixed-sum compensation.

The law guarantees women's equal land, property and economic rights. However, in the labour market, gender gaps persist in wages and occupational segregation.

Women and men have equal rights to political voice, and electoral quotas exist at both national and sub national levels. Women's representation in parliament has increased significantly, from 12% in 1995 to 39% in 2011. Following the May 2014 elections, women represented 39.3% of the lower house of parliament and 50% of the upper house.

Source: <http://www.genderindex.org/sites/default/files/docs/BrochureSIGI2015.pdf>

On the federal (national) level, promoting equality between men and women, and the struggle against discrimination based on gender are dealt with by the Institute for the Equality of Women and Men created by the law of December 16th, 2002. This institute has taken over the competencies vested in the Office for equal opportunities of the FPS (Federal Public Service) Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue. It acts in several domains: it helps federal political authorities and their administrations in furthering equality of women and men from the development of their policies to their implementation; it plays an important role in promoting greater equality in political decision-making; it develops practical instruments and studies aimed at achieving greater equality on the labour market, in consultation with the social partners³³; it is

³³ Placed on the political agenda, equal pay is a sensitive point for, despite the many international and Belgian legislative texts, the gender pay gap persists, as we have seen. Various initiatives have been taken in order to struggle against the pay gap. The law of April 22, 2012 was passed in order to struggle against the pay gap between men and women. That law was modified by the law of July 12, 2013, related to the struggle against the pay gap between men and women. The intention is to make the pay gap visible and to make it an object of negotiations. Several measures have been put in place in the Belgian system of social negotiation (between employers and trade unions), intervening on three levels of negotiation: the inter-professional, sectorial and company levels. See <http://www.emploi.belgique.be/defaultTab.aspx?id=8486>

responsible for coordinating the National Action Plan: Violence between partners and collaborates with the legal, police and health services, as well as in the sectors of aid to victims and authors; it is also responsible for preparing and implementing government decisions, as well as monitoring European and international policies; every year, it devotes part of its budget to subsidizing organizations and projects which contribute to gender equality; and provides its assistance to victims of discrimination, including in cases of discrimination towards transsexual persons.

Institutions in charge of equality have also been set up on the federal entities level too, such as the Equal Opportunities Directorate of the Ministry of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels which deals with questions of equality and female/male equality in the context of the competencies of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels, among which are teaching and scientific research. It has the particular mission:

- of promoting and stimulating a dynamic of Equal opportunity in areas within the competency of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels;
- being a resource centre open to exchange, reflection and creation;
- informing the associative sector, being able to listen to it, aid and support it in its research and undertakings;
- and initiate innovative experiments in the service of a concrete policy of Equal Opportunity, particularly in developing tools, within the Federation Wallonia-Brussels.

On the more specific level of scientific research and higher education in the Federation Wallonia-Brussels, both in its declaration of Community policy 2009-2014 and in the “Wallonia-Brussels Partnership for female and male researchers”, the Government is committed to taking measures aimed at encouraging equality between men and women in scientific careers. Within this framework, the Government has granted the university academies a subsidy of 150,000 euros and requested that a “gender contact person” be appointed within each university. Among the missions entrusted to this person, is the establishment of an annual report on the state of gender equality, the first of which was submitted at the end of 2014.

In addition, a “Women and Sciences” Committee was inaugurated in 2008. It includes male/female representatives of the universities of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels, the National Fund for Scientific Research, the Office of the Minister in charge of scientific research and administration (DGENORS and the Equal Opportunities Directorate). This Committee’s goal is to share experiences and identify concrete problems and obstacles confronting women intending to devote themselves to an activity in the field of research and to propose decretal or regulatory modifications to the public authorities, as well as actions aimed at furthering equality between women and men in scientific and academic careers.

This Committee’s work is aligned with:

- recommendations concerning the European Charter for Researchers (CEC) and the Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers (CCRC), published by the European Commission in March 2005;
- the Wallonia-Brussels Partnership for female and male researchers adopted May 26th, 2011 by the governments of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels, in order to contribute to implementing the CEC and the CCRC, the European Commission Partnership for Researchers, and recommendations of the Helsinki Group³⁴ on Women and Science and the human resources strategy of the key initiative “Innovation Union” (of the European Union).

In a note sent to the Minister in charge of scientific research in November 2014, this committee suggested taking actions³⁵ in the 2013-2019 legislative period on three levels:

- document the situation in continuing and reinforcing the Gender Contact Persons within the universities of the Federation Wallonia-Brussels³⁶ and in creating an observatory of the scientific career in and outside of the university;

³⁴ Created in 1999 under the auspices of the European Commission, it has the goal of promoting women in the sciences in the member countries of the European Union and in associated States.

³⁵ They are, among others, inspired by actions 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19 of the Walloon-Brussels Partnership for female and male researchers, recommendations made following a study carried out by DULBEA: “Alma Mater Homo Sapiens II” (Meulders et al., 2012) and the Community Policy Declaration (CPD) 2014-2019. Those recommendations are also based on the study: “Chercheur-e-s sous haute tension” (Fusulier, del Rio Carral, 2012).

³⁶ A project put in place by the decree of the Government of the French Community of November 21, 2013 modifying the decree of the Government of the French Community of December 13, 2012

- take actions for equality in the profession in pursuing legislative work concerning the harmonization of personal leave; in conceiving a programme of mentorship supporting young women researchers (to begin with) which includes the question of gender; and in revising the criteria used to evaluate the researchers' work and, consequently, classify and select them inspired by the concept of alter-excellence;
- stimulate research and teaching on gender by integrating a "gender" axis (at least in terms of criteria; possibly, by appropriating a thematic budget line) in public appeals for research projects; in supporting the creation of an inter-University Master programme in gender; and in creating a Prize accompanied with a scholarship in order to present work accomplished by an outstanding woman researcher.

On the local level, the Université catholique de Louvain, a GARCIA project partner, wished to participate in this "gender" policy in signing, in January 2006, the "European Charter for Researchers" and the "Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers" (the Euraxess initiative) and in reiterating its commitment in July 2010. In this strategy, UCL commits itself to developing a whole series of concrete actions, among which numbers taking an inventory on the question of gender within the institution. It also, logically, signed the convention with the Federation Wallonia-Brussels and designated a "gender contact person" within its administration. The new rectorial team installed in September 2014 has moreover named a woman faculty member to the post of adviser for gender policy.

The gender issue is clearly identified in Belgium and is the subject of vigilance and recommendations at various levels of power (ranging from the Federal to the local and intermediate entities). The institutional authorities responsible for scientific policy are henceforth sensitive to this and initiatives are taken today in a voluntary way.

granting a subsidy to university academies in the context of applying the "European Charter for Researchers" (EURAXESS).

Conclusions

This macro-sociological analysis has shown us that the gender question remains an open one, even if significant advances towards greater equality are observable. In particular, girls have made the school system their own, especially in terms of levels of studies. They are now in the majority in higher and university education, with higher graduation rates than the boys. Yet two important reservations should be formulated: firstly, access to the highest level of qualification, the doctorate, still remains male in the majority; secondly, a horizontal segmentation between ‘male’ tracks of studies (sciences and technology) and female (human and social sciences) is still reproduced.

The labour market has also been strongly feminized, but here too classical phenomena of horizontal segmentation (between sectors and trades) and vertical (employment and responsibility levels) are present, although they are decreasing. For that matter, an unexplained 10% gender pay gap is still present. One of the important aspects of female employment in Belgium is its part time character. The scale of female part time work should be, at least partially in any case, interpreted as the fruit of work/family conciliation difficulties, expressing the persistence of a sexual and gendered division of work in which an essential part of “care” is still attributed to women. Such a division is also visible in how the time of social activities is distributed between men and women, and within households.

Familial policies supporting work/family conciliation are nevertheless numerous and pursue two logics: a logic of decommodification notably via measures dealing with working hours (reduction, interruption, leave for familial reasons, etc.) and defamilialization measures notably via early childhood care and education, and service-vouchers. These policies undoubtedly support employment rates among women, who are their principal users. They do not however manage to do away with the work/family contradiction, which would moreover seem to imply basically reconsidering the organizing principles of the “labour society” (Fusulier, Nicole-Drancourt, in press).

On its various levels of power and in its various components, the Belgian State, is sensitized to the question of inequalities between men and women, equality being inscribed into its Constitution. An Institute for the equality of women and men was created a few years ago on the Federal level to continue the struggle against discriminations and promote equality. Intermediate bodies have also been institutionalized and the social partners (employers and trade unions) should introduce this concern on all levels of social consultation (the inter-professional, sectorial and company levels), particularly in order to reduce the “gender pay gap”.

Scientific and academic careers are anchored in this societal configuration. Thus, many women pursue graduate and postgraduate studies but enter a leaky pipeline wherein their downfall may be observed from their doctorate to the highest positions of the statutory hierarchy of university space. The problem of articulating work and family within a gender regime maintaining a sexual division of productive work and reproductive work is one of the apparent causes of this downfall. In addition, a horizontal segmentation is present too, certain scientific disciplines such as the sciences and technology remain male bastions. Incorporating the Helsinki Group’s European recommendations, a political will to counter these phenomena has been making itself felt in the last few years. Today, in the context of applying the European Charter for Researchers (EURAXESS), each French-speaking university has a person in charge of examining the “gender” issue in producing indicators and formulating proposals for action. A “Women and Sciences” Committee has been inaugurated by the Federation Wallonia-Brussels including representatives of the various universities, the Administration, the Minister in charge of higher education and scientific research as well as the National Fund for Scientific Research. The GARCIA Project consequently works in synergy with these initiatives.

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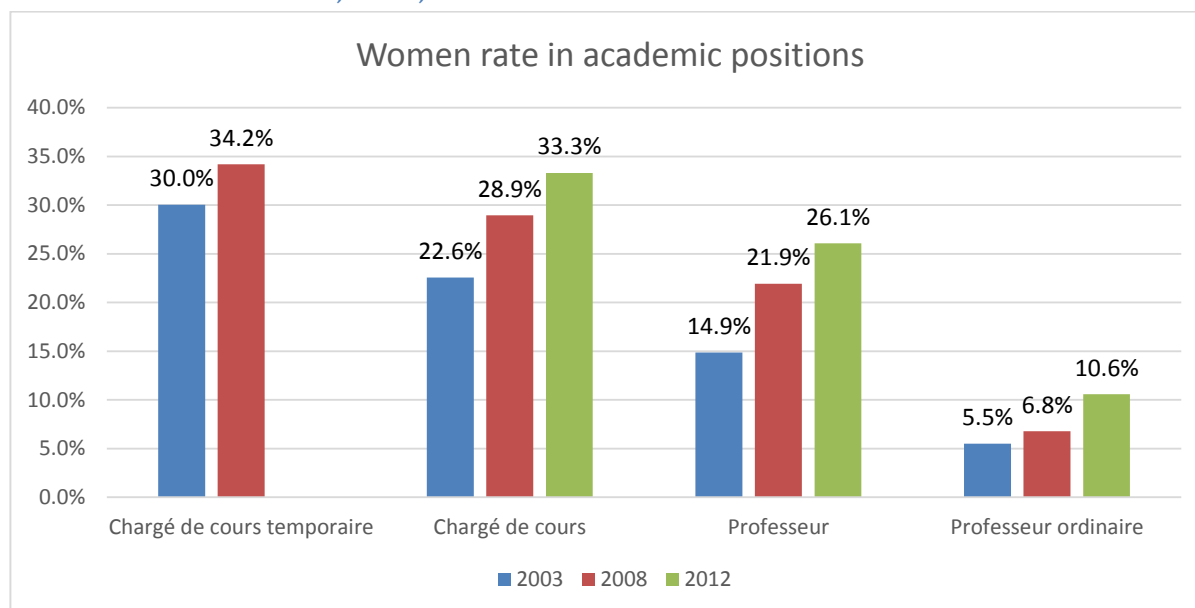
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Additional data Belgium

Graph 1. Percentage of women in the different academic positions in the Federation Wallonia-Brussels- 2003, 2008, 2012



Source: Banque de données du Conseil des Recteurs – traitement par Edithe Antoine UCL

Graph 2. Women rate in academic positions C/B/A in the Université catholique de Louvain (from 2004 to 2012)

	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012
Lecturer	24,0	27,2	30,3	32,4	31,4
Professor	17,9	20,8	22,5	22,7	27,9
Full Professor	5,5	5,5	8,5	9,2	9,6

Source: UCL

3. Netherlands

Introduction: Contextual overview

Key indicators

Population, total (millions): 16.80 (2013)
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$): \$47,440 (2013)
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population: 0.4% (2010)
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 1.7 (2012)
Share of women employed in the non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural employment): 49% (2012)
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 6 (2013)
Number of weeks of maternity leave: 16 (2009)
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%): 39% (2013)

Source³⁷: <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/netherlands>

The national government and the two chambers of parliament formulate laws and regulations in the Dutch parliamentary representative democracy (Fleurke & Hulst 2006). Despite local autonomy at the level of provincial and municipal government in the decentralized unitary state, the national legislator has complete sovereignty and in order to understand developments in the policy fields of gender, care, employment and science we need to consider the national policies.

Based on Esping-Andersen's typology of welfare state, the Netherlands after WWII can be characterized as a hybrid of social democratic and conservative elements (van Hooren & Becker 2012). The social democratic elements are expressed for instance in high unemployment benefits and a relatively high minimum wage to which basic social assistance and pension rates are bound (ibid. 86). The conservative-paternalist elements have a Christian democratic background, which historically structured social and political life (the era of pillarization), and resulted in the idea that the strong had to take care of the weak (ibid.). Since the 1990s, neoliberalism as dominant discourse has its impact on the welfare state and policies are designed on the principal of individual responsibility.

³⁷ Accessed on November 6 2014 [Note that this is an exact copy of the text from the abovementioned web page].

The male breadwinner model has been dominant in the Netherlands for a long time. Historically women's labour participation used to be rather low, but has sharply increased since the mid-eighties; from 34% in 1985 to 64% in 2011 (Köster et al. 2009; Merens et al. 2012). This sharp rise is usually explained via the emancipation of women in society generally and policies to stimulate women to (re)enter the labour market. Nowadays, the employment rate for women in the Netherlands is among the highest in Europe, yet when we consider the rate in fulltime equivalent the Netherlands are among the lowest³⁸.

Whereas only 52% of all women are economically independent 74% of the men in the Netherlands are economically independent (Merens 2012: 13). After a strong increase between 2001 and 2008, the percentage of economically independent women has stabilized (ibid.). Important to note here is that during the economic crisis between 2009 and 2011 women's share of the labour market as well as their economic independence remained the same (Merens et al. 2012: 9).

In the 1990s the dual-earner household became the standard that underpins government action (Verloo & van Lamoen 2003: 6). In practice, however, the current situation can be best described as a one-and-a-half earner system, which usually means that one partner has a fulltime job and the other partner works part-time. In the Netherlands, part-time work is very much gendered: far more women (73%) than men (16.5%) have part-time jobs (Table II.15). Also, there is still a dominant discourse that women are primarily responsible for taking care of children (Lauwers 2007: 26-27). Formal childcare is a rather recent phenomenon: since the late 1980s both demand and supply increased strongly (Raaijmakers 2013: 77). In 1991 the first Childcare Act came into force, followed by the 2004 Childcare Act that among others organizes the costs for childcare (Lauwers & van der Wal 2008). From the perspective of government intervention in the issue of the combination of care and paid labour, others have characterized the Netherlands as 'unsupported universal breadwinner model' (Ciccia & Verloo 2012) because leave policies provide little support. Moreover, the policies show a

³⁸ Figure 2 in http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/themes/31_labour_market_participation_of_women.pdf

tension between the contrasting aims of promoting maternal employment and familial care (ibid.: 523).

Women's share in academia (all ranks, including PhD students) has increased from 31% in 2003 to 38% in 2011, but women are still underrepresented in the Dutch academic sector (de Goede et al. 2013: 17). Moreover, the higher the position, the stronger the gender imbalance. The Netherlands is a clear example of the phenomenon of the 'leaky pipeline' (van den Brink 2010). In 2011, 44.7% of the PhD candidates are women, whereas only 14.8% of the full professors (2481 fte) are female (Gerritsen et al. 2012). This vertical segregation is present at all stages of an academic career, but is especially strong when we consider the step between assistant professors (33.2%) and associate professors (21.5%) (ibid.: 3). Compared to other European countries, the Netherlands scores low with regard to the rate of female full professors (EC 2012: 90). In 2010, throughout EU-27 19.8% of the professors was female, whereas the Netherlands at that time only had 13.1% of female professors (ibid.). In 2002, the percentage of women professors in the Netherlands was 8.2% (compared to 15.2 in EU-27) (ibid.).

Sex segregation found in secondary and tertiary education also reflects in the representation of women as full professors across the different disciplines. The percentages of female full professors in Law (22.4%), Social Sciences (21.4%) and Language and Cultural studies (23.3%) are much higher than in Agriculture (8.9%), Science (9.5%), Technology (7.4%) and Economy (8.5%) (Gerritsen et al. 2012: 13; percentages for 2011). For the disciplines with the highest percentage of female full professors, female students are overrepresented (ibid.) This pattern is not true for Agriculture: here, women make up 55.4% of the students and only 8.4% of the full professors.

3.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

Education system overview

The education system in the Netherlands is decentralised. Until their fourth birthday, children can attend a day nursery or crèche. Playgroups cater for two to four-year-olds and fall under the responsibility of the local authorities. There are few preschool facilities for the under-fours. There are programs for early childhood education, but these are aimed at two to five-year-olds at risk of educational disadvantage. Every child must attend school full-time from the age of five; however, nearly all children start going to school at the age of four.

Primary education lasts eight years, after which, around the age of 12, pupils opt for one of three types of secondary education: pre-vocational secondary education (VMBO, which takes 4 years), senior general secondary education (HAVO, 5 years) or pre university education (VWO, 6 years). Most secondary schools are combined schools offering several types of secondary education so that pupils can transfer easily from one type to another. Young people aged 18 or over can take adult education courses or higher distance learning courses.

In addition to mainstream primary and secondary schools there are special schools for children with learning and behavioural difficulties who – temporarily at least – require special educational treatment. Pupils who are unable to obtain a VMBO qualification, even with long-term extra help, can receive practical training, which prepares them for entering the labour market.

Overall responsibility for the education system lies with the State, specifically the Minister of Education, Culture and Science and the State Secretary (junior minister) for Education, Culture and Science. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science lays down statutory requirements for early childhood education, primary and secondary education and secondary vocational education, and has overall control of adult general secondary education (VAVO). The government lays down the framework within which higher education institutions (higher professional education and universities) have to operate, but it is the responsibility of the competent authority of each institution to expand on the government framework in the teaching and examination regulations. The provincial authorities' role in education is limited to supervisory and legal tasks. The administration and management of primary and secondary schools and schools for secondary vocational education is locally organised.

Source³⁹: <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Netherlands:Overview>

In general, the younger generation of women (25-49 years) is better educated than the age group 50+ women (**Table I.1**). Over the years (2000-2013)⁴⁰ we see the share of women with primary education and lower secondary education decreases, while the percentage of women with upper secondary and tertiary education increases. Between 2000 and 2013, the percentage of women in the age group 25-49 years old who completed tertiary education has increased from 45% to 51.6%. In 2013, more women

³⁹ Accessed on November 6 2014 [Note that this is an exact copy of the text from the abovementioned web page]

⁴⁰ Table I.1 does not include figures for the period 1980-2000.

from the younger generation than women in the age group of 50+ (39.2%) completed a tertiary education. The generational difference is the largest for women with primary school as highest educational attainment : in 2013, 44.4% women in the age group 25-49 years and 64.6% women in the age group 50+ completed a primary education as highest educational attainment. Although we see an increase in women with a tertiary education, in comparison to Iceland, Italy and Slovenia, the percentage is the lowest.

In 2010-2011 90% of all girls was enrolled in a secondary school. This is an increase of 7% compared to the school year 1990-1991. (**Table I.2**) With regard to the enrolment in upper and post secondary education the percentage of girls has increased between 1980 and 2012, while the percentage of boys has declined over the years (**Table I.3**).

More women than men have tertiary qualifications, and in the last decade (2000-2011) the percentage of women graduates increased from 54.8% to 56.9% (**Table 1.4**). Compared to the percentages in the other six countries for 2011, the Netherlands is positioned right in the middle.

In tertiary education, women dominate particular fields of study and are underrepresented in others (**Table I.5**). Women are strongly overrepresented in 1) theoretically oriented programmes in Education, 2) vocationally oriented programmes in Humanities & Arts, and 3) theoretically and 4) vocationally oriented programmes in Health & Welfare. Women are strongly underrepresented in theoretically and vocationally oriented programmes in Science and Engineering, Manufacturing & Construction. Compared to the other six countries, the Netherlands scores the lowest in both fields of study : in 2011-2012 women's share in theoretically oriented programmes in Science was 22.2% and 17.6% in theoretically oriented programmes in Engineering, manufacturing & construction. In the period 2006-2012 the percentage for Science did increase from 16.2% to 22.2%. In Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction we also see an increase, but here improvement is smaller: from 15.2% to 17.6%. In comparative perspective, the underrepresentation in Science is more extreme. The Dutch government actively tried to influence the gender imbalance in education via several information campaigns. In 1987 and 1990 the Dutch Ministry for Education launched campaigns (*Kies exact* and *Een slimme meid is op haar toekomst voorbereid*) to stimulate

girls in secondary schools to choose for beta courses. In 2008 a campaign (*Meisjes en Techniek*) was launched to stimulate the number of girls that choose a tertiary education in Technology and ICT. The gender imbalance is almost absent for theoretically oriented programmes in 1) Humanities & Arts, 2) Social Sciences, Business and Law, 3) Agriculture, and 4) Services. Since 2000, more women than men graduate in theoretical and advanced research programmes (**Table I.6**).

When we consider the highest educated group in the Netherlands, one third of all persons with a PhD in the Netherlands is female in 2012-2013 (Maas et al. 2014). The representation of women in the younger generation is much higher: of all doctorate holders aged 30-35 years 51% are female and for the age group 20-25 58% are woman (ibid.).

The proportion of women in lifelong learning /continuous education programmes is low, but has increased from 12.2% in 1995 to 18% in 2013 (**Table I.7**).

With 85.2% female teachers, women dominate at the level of primary education. This share reduces drastically when we consider secondary education (49.9% female teachers) and even more stronger at the level of tertiary education (40% female teachers) (**Table I.8**). Compared to the other four countries (missing data for Iceland and Italy) involved in the study, and under the condition of incomplete data, we note a similar pattern.

Between 1980 and 2006 all heads of universities in the Netherlands were men. Between 2007 and 2013 the share of women heads of universities increased from 7.1% to 21.4% (**Table I.9**). Currently, of all 42 members of the university boards (*College van Bestuur*) nine members are women (Lückerath-Rovers & de Kroon 2014 : 9). Still, six universities have no female member in their university board. In two of the fourteen universities (Universiteit van Amsterdam and Open Universiteit) a woman has the highest position in the university (Rector Magnificus). (ibid.)

3.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

Employment rate

The gross labour participation rate for women in the age group 15-64 years old has increased rapidly from 34% in 1985 to 65.4% in 2013 (Köster et al. 2009; CBS 2014a). The employment rate of women (15-64 years old) in 2013 is 69.9% (66% in 2003), which is still much lower compared that to men (78.7% in 2013) (EC 2014).

Since the mid 1980s, younger women participate in higher proportions on the labour market than older age cohorts (**Table II.1**). Remarkable is that compared to other countries women's share for age cohort 65-69 in 2013 is among the lowest (ibid.).

The higher women are educated the more likely they participate in the labour market. In 2013, 90% of women in the Netherlands with tertiary education, BA, MA or doctoral degree, or equivalent are employed (**Table II.2**). This percentage has increased from almost 88% to 90% between 2000 and 2013. The employment rates of men in the same category decreased in the same period, from 96.2% to 92.8%. Compared to the other studied countries, the employment rate of the highest educated women in the Netherlands is the highest.

Although marital status (compared to never married) still has a negative impact on women's labour market participation, the employment rate of married women has increased between 1990 and 2011 (**Table II.3**). Also, younger married women are more inclined to work than the older generation. In 2011, 79% of all married women in the age group 25-49 years worked compared to 55.7% of the women between 50-64 years old. Divorced women and widows in the age group 25-49 work less often.

Compared to the other countries involved, the labour market participation of women of whom their youngest child is under 16 years old (age groups combined) is very high (**Table II.4**). The differences between the Netherlands and the other countries is more clear for women with a youngest child aged under five years (age groups combined). When we compare the labour market participation of mothers in the Netherlands, the labour market participation of women whose youngest child is aged 3-5 years is the lowest (77%). However, this has increased from 68% in 2000 to 77% in 2010. In that same category, we note that men's employment rate decreased from 91% to 84%. The

decline for men is noticeable in other countries as well, but not as strong as in the Netherlands.

Occupational categories

Women tend to work more often in the public sector (the number of women working in this sector is lower than Belgium, Slovenia and Switzerland), but the number of women working in the private sector has increased over the years (2000-2012) (**Table II.5**). Women are very much underrepresented in the following occupational categories: 'plant and machine operators and assemblers', 'craft and related trade workers', 'skilled agricultural and fishery workers' (16% women is the highest percentage in this group in 2013) (**Table II.6**). In 2013, women made up 24.7% for the group of 'legislators, senior officials and managers'. Compared to the other countries, the Netherlands scores the lowest. Between 1995 and 2013 the percentage of female professionals has increased from 39.6 to 47.7%. The gender imbalance is also very extensive in the category of service and sales workers: here, we see a more or less stable picture in which women are severely overrepresented (69.8% in 2013). In comparative perspective, the overrepresentation of women in this occupational category is the largest. We see the same tendency for clerks, but the overrepresentation is somewhat smaller (62.5% in 2013). In the category 'clerks' and the category 'service workers and sales and shop and market sales workers' we find that over 60% of the women have a tertiary education (**Table II.7**).

Self-employed

In general, 16% of the Dutch labour population are self-employed (of all women in paid work, 12% are self-employed); most of them (69,4%) are self-employed persons without employees. 35% of all self-employed persons without employees are women (Annink & den Dulk 2014: 5). Only two out of five self-employed women without employees work fulltime, in contrast to men of whom four out of five work fulltime (CBS 2012). The number of self-employed women has increased more strongly than the number of self-employed men in the period 1996-2014 (Annink & den Dulk 2014: 6). For women, flexibility and the combination of work and care are more important reasons to choose for self-employment than for self-employed men (ibid: 9).

Of all categories of self-employment jobs mentioned in Table II.12, compared to men women are clearly overrepresented as family workers (72.4% in 2013). Women's share in the category own-account workers is 37.5% and only 24.3% in the category of employers (**Table II.12**). Women's share in the category employers varied between 30.4 in 1995 and 31.6% in 2001, but has decreased to percentages between 21.3 and 24.3% since then.

Unemployment

The average unemployment rate for the age group 20-64 years old is 5.3% for women and 4.9% for men in 2011 (Merens et al. 2012: 70).⁴¹ At times of the economic crisis, the unemployment rate for men increased more rapidly, which has resulted in 2011 in the smallest gender difference in the period 2001-2011 (ibid.: 13). The unemployment rate is the highest for women under 25 years (**Table II.9**), the same goes for men in that age group. The biggest difference between men and women is found in the age group 60-64 (5% of the women and 6.4% for men in 2013). In 2013 35.3% of the female unemployed population are long term unemployed (over 12 months) (**Table II.10**). The percentage is not stable of the period 1990-2013, but varies.

Part-time employment

Part-time work in the Netherlands is very common. A 1995 Equal Treatment in Working Hours law (*Arbeidstijdenwet*) was introduced to make sure that part-time workers and full-time workers are treated equally. What is considered part-time is constructed (Mescher 2011: 91). Statistics Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, CBS) considers working less than 35 hours a week as part-time (CBS 2014b). The bi-annual Emancipation Monitor, one of the ways that the government's Directorate Emancipation policy measures the impact of Dutch emancipation policies, considers working over twelve hours a week as a (part-time) job. Most women in the Netherlands work in part-time jobs (**Table II.11**). In 2013 73% of all working women between 25-49 years old have part-time jobs, as against 16.5% of all working men (**Table II.15**). This means that only 27% of all working women in the Netherlands work in full-time jobs. Over the years (1990-2013), women's share of full- and part-time employment has remained more or less constant. The average number of hours that women work is 26.4 hours per week,

⁴¹ Data on the average unemployment rate for women (total 15+) is missing in Table II.9. We made use of data based on the age group 20-64 years.

the average number of working hours for men is 38.2 hours (Merens et al. 2012: 13). Mothers with a partner work the least number of hours (ibid.). Between 2001 and 2006, the average number of hours women with part-time jobs (aged 20-64 years old) worked has increased from 25.8 to 26.4 hours per week (Merens et al. 2012: 59). Since 2006, the working hours per week did not change (ibid.). In contrast to the national average on women with full-time jobs, in 2011 45% of all working women with a university degree in the age group 20-64 years have a full-time job (Merens et al. 2012: 59; based on CBS data). In general, this category of women also work more hours: 74% of all working women with a university degree are working 28 hours a week or more (ibid.).

For the academic sector, the picture is again different. In academia, almost 60% of all **women scholars** work in full-time jobs (Gerritsen et al. 2012: 17; based on data collected by the Association of universities in the Netherlands, VSNU). In contrast, 73% of the men work in fulltime jobs. Also in this context, men scholars more often work fulltime, namely 73%. For assistant and associate professors (53.7% of female assistant professors and 61.9% of the female associate professors are working full-time), the difference between men and women is even bigger, namely almost 20%. Male and female full professors however almost equally often have full-time jobs. (ibid.) This means that women academics at the start of their careers (assistant professors and associate professors) work shorter hours than men, which could indicate that women have less time for research, publications and management tasks (ibid.).

Gender pay gap

Between 1995 and 2012 the gender pay gap in hourly wage has decreased from 23 to 16.9% (**Table II.13**). For the category of tertiary education the gender pay gap (21.6% in 2010) is above the average gender pay gap in the Netherlands (17.8% in 2010) (**Tables II.13 and II.14**). The gender pay gap is also present in the university sector: the higher the academic position the greater the difference in salary between men and women (Gerritsen et al. 2012: 18). This is also true for the younger generation of men and women (ibid.).

Temporary employment

In 2013, 17.3% of the women between 25-49 years old have temporary jobs in the Netherlands. The average is 16.6%. Men are slightly below this percentage (15.9%), and women slightly above this percentage. (**Table II.16**)

The situation in the academic sector strongly diverges from this picture: in 2012, 40.7% of the academics (excluding PhD-candidates who in the Netherlands almost always work on temporary contracts) have temporary (fulltime) jobs (VAWO 2013). Even though temporary jobs are more common in the Dutch academic sector, the issue is strongly gendered. That is, whereas only 33.4% of the men work in temporary jobs, 52% of the women have temporary contracts (ibid.). Since 1995, the amount of temporary jobs has almost doubled (from 22.8% in 1995 to 40.7% in 2012). Even though the amount of women working as academics has increased sharply since 1999, most often (63.8%) this is due to the sharp rise of the number of female academics on temporary contracts (ibid.).

Gender and senior management responsibilities

In comparison to men, women less often have senior management positions in the Netherlands (**Table II.17**). Between 1995 and 2010, the percentage of women in top management positions remains rather stable and varies between 6 and 7.6%. For 2011 we even note a decline, namely 4.7%.

When we zoom in on the **university sector**, we note a more positive picture compared to the average figure. In 2011, women fill 16% of the management positions (dean; director research institute; director teaching institute) in universities (Gerritsen et al. 2012: 20). In university boards, in 2012 19% are women (compared to 7% in 2009) (ibid.). In 2012, women occupy 36% of the positions in supervisory boards (Gerritsen et al. 2012: 22). When it comes to the position of head of department, the percentage is again much lower: 11% of the heads of department are women (ibid.: 23).

3.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

Maternity leave in the Netherlands is 16 weeks (**Table III.1**) and is 100% paid (**Table III.4**). In 1980 this was 12 weeks (ibid.). Currently, the length of maternity leave is

rather low compared to other Western European countries (Gauthier 2014: 2). Mothers are encouraged to return to the labour market quickly after having given birth (ibid.). In 2010 the Dutch government strongly opposed the EC proposal to extend maternity leave to 18 or 20 weeks (ibid.). According to the paternity leave regulation, partners (male and female) get two days of paid leave when a child is born (**Table III.3**). In 2014, the government approved a modernisation of leave regulations which includes the extension of the current leave period of two days of paid leave for partners after child birth with the right of three days of unpaid leave (EK 2014-2015, 32855, A).

Since 2009, parental leave regulation provides the possibility to take up a maximum of 26 weeks of leave per child until the child reaches the age of 8 years old. Before that time a parent was allowed to take up 13 weeks of leave (**Table III.2**; Merens et al. 2012 : 95). Between 2003 and 2011, of all persons that are allowed to use this regulation more women than men took parental leave (Merens et al. 2012 : 95). For both women and men this percentage has increased over time. In 2011 49% of the women and 27% of the men made use of the parental leave regulation (ibid.). The strongest rise can be found in the period 2009-2011, the percentage has increased with 8% for both women and men (ibid.). Payment of parental leave depends on the collective labour agreement (CAO) of the sector, this may vary between 40 and 75% of previous earnings, including a tax reduction (den Dulk 2014: 3). According to the collective labour agreement for universities parental leave includes a paid and an unpaid part: in the paid part of the leave employees get paid 62.5% of their salary over at maximum 13 times the hours of their working week (CAO Nederlandse universiteiten 2011-2013, Paragraaf 3b)⁴².

Formal childcare for preschool children in the Netherlands used to be very uncommon, mainly as a result of a dominant ideology that childcare was a family affair (van Hooren & Becker 2012 : 46). Women were seen as primarily responsible for childcare. In 1985-1986 only 1 to 2% of all children under 3 years old was enrolled in public daycare (Raaijmakers 2013: 78). After pressure from civil society actors (among them women's organizations and labor unions), the government came to view childcare as an instrument of labour market policy and introduced several measures to stimulate the

⁴² At the time of writing, the 2011-2013 Collective Labour Agreement still applied.

use of childcare (ibid.: 79). Since the 1990s, the use of childcare for preschool children (children between 0 and 4 years old are included in the Dutch figures) increased rapidly: from 13.1% in 1996 to 42 % in 2012 (**Table III.5**). Over the years the Dutch population (16-74 years old) have come to accept working mothers and the use of formal childcare: in 2010 73% of the women and 64% of the men do not disapprove when working mothers bring their child(ren) to formal childcare (Merens et al. 2012 : 98). Yet, the current support for children 0-12 years old in childcare (people were asked to respond to the statement: ‘it is good for children to go to childcare two or three days a week’) is still very low among both men and women. This support is especially low for small babies (0 years old): in 2012 24% of the women and 21% of the men (ibid.: 99).

In the Netherlands the government, employers and parents share the costs for childcare. Whereas until 2005 subsidies were allocated to municipalities, since the 2005 Childcare Act working parents are compensated via income-related tax deductions (Raaijmakers 2013 : 80). This shift from a supply driven to demand driven financial structure follows the general tendency of marketization of policies (ibid.). The underlying model for Dutch labor policy and emancipation policy is the so-called *Combination Scenario*, in which partners in a couple should share paid work and unpaid work (care) equally (Raaijmakers 2013: 83). For the Combination Scenario to work out, both partners should be able to work part-time and men need to be more active as a father in terms of care and childrearing (ibid: 83-84). Care for children should be divided among both parents and professional childcare. This way of organizing family life is explained as the answer to the Dutch culture of ‘self-care’ (which derived from the male breadwinner model in which women were primarily responsible for childcare, but now both parents are expected to be involved) and improvement of women’s labour market participation (ibid.: 83).

In the period 2005-2009, these income-related tax deductions for working parents increased and parental contribution to formal childcare decreased (CPB 2011: 3). As a result, the labour market participation of women with young children increased as well as the number of hours they worked (study over period 2005-2009). This was particularly the case for medium and highly educated women. (ibid.)

Between 2009 and 2011, in households with two working partners the use of formal childcare (including care for children 0-4 years old in childcare centres and by so-called professional guest parents, and care for children 4-12 years old before and after school hours) declined from 49% in 2009 to 44% in 2011 (Merens et al. 2012: 94). The use of informal care for children by family and friends increased from 27% to 34% (ibid.). Highly educated women make more use of formal childcare than the national average: in households with university-educated mothers the use of formal childcare is 59% in 2011 (Merens et al. 2012: 95), which is a difference of 15%.

From 2011 until 2013, the financial support to parents (*kinderopvangtoeslag*) has been reduced (Portegijs et al. 2014: 18-19). The government introduced the cost reduction measures because the costs for child care tax reduction measures had risen sharply since 2005, and the economic crisis forced the government to implement cutbacks (ibid.). The cutbacks particularly effected middle and higher income families. In general, in that same period the influx of children into childcare centres decreased and the outflow increased (ibid.: 9). The outcome of a survey among parents shows that the high costs for child care and unemployment are the main reasons for reducing the number of hours children spend in childcare (ibid.: 10). In 2014, the government increased the budget for financial support to parents once again, which was primarily beneficial to middle income families. (ibid.)

3.4 Domain 4. Care & work-life policies and practices

The most dominant working time arrangement of (heterosexual) couples in the Netherlands is a situation in which the man is working full-time and the woman has a part-time job (**Table IV.2** ; figures from 2012). This is true for 47.8% of the couples aged 25-49 years. When couples have children, this percentage increases to 53.7% for couples with children under 6 years old and to 53.5% for those with children aged 6 years old and above. Compared to the other studied countries, the Netherlands shows the highest percentage in this category.

The Netherlands best complies to the one-and-a-half earner model. This model is highly gendered, as the figures above show. Moreover, only in 2.3% of the couples do we see the reverse picture in which the woman works full-time and the man has a part-time job

(Table IV.2). We also note that the traditional male breadwinner model still applies to 19.6% of the couples (for couples with children the percentages are slightly higher). In contrast, only in 1.5% of the couples the woman is the breadwinner and the man does not work. A situation in which both the man and the woman have a part-time job is rather low (6.2%), but is the highest compared to the other studied countries. Of all categories in this context and in comparative perspective, this percentage is the highest for couples with children aged 6 years old and above (8.1%) in the Netherlands.

The impact of childbirth on working hours affects women in the Netherlands much more than men (Merens et al. 2012: 91). In 2011, 45% of the first-time mothers worked less hours or stopped working after child birth. In contrast, only 5% of the men worked less hours or stopped working after the birth of their first child. However, between 2001 and 2011 the percentage of women that worked less hours or stopped working after child birth decreased from 60% to 45%. (ibid.)

The particular organization of school hours in the Netherlands encourages part-time work. Most primary schools start the school day at 8:30 a.m. or 8:45 a.m., at noon there is a lunch break and the school usually ends at 3:00 p.m. or 3:15 p.m. Most schools do not have classes on Wednesday afternoons. Schools have been organizing the supervision of children during the lunch break for those that do not go home. Only recently, since 2007, schools are obliged by law (Childcare Act) to offer pre-school and after-school child care, as well as during school holidays.

In 2011, women in the Netherlands spend more than twice as much time per day on childcare than men (0.55 and 0.29 hour per day). Since 1980, the time spent on childcare has decreased. **(Table IV.1)** Highly educated women spend the most time on childcare per week (4.9 hours) in comparison to lower educated women and men in all levels of education (figures from 2011; Cloïn 2013 : 68). At the same time this group of women spends less time than low or average educated women on domestic tasks, but works more hours per week in paid jobs (ibid.). In comparison to highly educated men they work less hours in paid jobs (22.4 versus 33.7 hours per week) and spend almost twice as much time on domestic work (17.6 versus 9.2 hours per week) (ibid.).

Women spend more minutes per day on unpaid work (272.8) than men (**Table IV.3**). Men in the Netherlands spend more minutes per day on paid work, namely 297.5, than women (167.5) (**Table IV.3**). Compared to the other countries, only women in Italy spend less time on paid work. Paid and unpaid work combined, women spend more time on work than men (460.5 versus 440.3 minutes).

3.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

Although the descriptive representation of women has improved over time, women are still underrepresented in politics. Currently, in the Conservative Liberal-Socialist government (Rutte II) 38.7% of the MPs are female (**Table V.1**). In 1990, the proportion of seats held by women was 21.3% (ibid.). At the level of the ministerial posts, the proportion of women currently is 33.3% (**Table V.2**). Women continue to occupy a position in Dutch politics for the first time. For example, in 2012 Jeanine Hennis-Plasschaert (Conservative-Liberal party, VVD) became the first woman on the post of Minister of Defence. Hitherto, the Netherlands has never had a female Head of State. Even though a general picture shows an increase in time, the proportion of women in Dutch politics is not self-evident (Leyenaar 2013). For example, in 2010 at times on the Rutte I government (a coalition of the Conservative Liberals and the Christians Democrats that formed a minority cabinet with support of the populist Freedom Party) only three of the twelve ministers were women (25%).

Equal opportunity policies and practices: Historical overview

The first emancipation policy plan in the Netherlands dates back to 1976. Until 1981 the Ministry of Culture, Recreation and Social work was responsible for gender equality policy, in the Netherlands usually addressed as emancipation policy. In 1981, the issue of emancipation was taken up by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment.⁴³ From 2007 onwards, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap) is responsible for women's emancipation. Since then the emancipation portfolio also includes the emancipation of LGTBs.

In general, the main issue in emancipation policies in the Netherlands is the labour market, more specifically encouraging women's labour market participation and their

⁴³ http://wetten.overheid.nl/BWBR0003466/geldigheidsdatum_27-09-2012 accessed November 14 2014

economic independence (Lauwers 2007: 5; Verloo & van Lamoen 2003). From the start the government took a two track approach: on the one hand, it formulated specific measures for different policy areas (so-called facet policy), and, on the other hand, tried to integrate the issue of emancipation as a “sector-crossing issue” (“sector-policy”) (Verloo & van Lamoen 2003: 4). Characteristic for Dutch emancipation policies is that soft policies (such as information, communication, setting norms, establishing preconditions and monitoring) are preferred over law enforcement, which can be explained as a result of the Dutch consensus democracy (ibid.: 2-3). One of the few Dutch laws that explicitly addressed inequality on the basis of sex was the 1975 Equal Wages for Women and Men Act, later included in the broader 1980 Equal Treatment of Men and Women Act. Since 1983, equal treatment is laid down as basic principle in Article 1 of the Constitution, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex, and also discrimination on the grounds of religion, belief, political opinion and race (Bleijenbergh 2014). In 1994 a general Equal Treatment Act came into force, which covered discrimination on all above mentioned grounds (Verloo & van Lamoen 2003: 8).

The most recent Emancipation policy letter for the period 2013-2016 prioritizes women’s labour market participation in the context of the economic crisis, safety of women, girls and LGTBs, differences between boys and girls in the field of education, and international polarization (conservatism and religious fundamentalism) (TK 2012-2013, 30420, 77). The values of equality, independence, freedom of choice and responsibility underlie policymaking. The responsible Minister, Jet Bussemaker, during the current Rutte II government emphasizes that emancipation needs continuous attention and argues that, as a result, current policies are continued in combination with the introduction of new initiatives. One of the new priorities is to study the success of girls’ educational results in comparison to the lower educational results of boys and their (negative) behaviour in and around the schools. (ibid.) In 2011, the Rutte I government argues that a budget of 17.5 million Euros per year will be invested for the period 2011-2015 to implement the policy measures (TK 2010-2011, 27017, 74).

Resistance to quotas

Currently, the main government focus regarding diversity management is on gender equality in company boards (Bleijenbergh et al. 2014). In 2013, during the Conservative

Liberal-Socialist cabinet of Prime-Minister Rutte (Rutte II government) the Dutch Supervision and Management Law (*Wet Toezicht en Bestuur*) added an amendment that says that large companies need to have at least 30% women and at least 30% men in their executive boards (*Raad van Bestuur*) and supervisory boards (*Raad van Commissarissen*). The target measure will be in force until January 1st 2016. There is no hard sanction, but companies have to comply or explain their results when they fail to live up to the target. Since 2008, the Foundation Talent to the Top (Talent naar de Top: www.talentnaardetop.nl) stimulates organizations to sign a Charter and helps them to achieve and monitor a more gender balanced hierarchy. In November 2014, 243 out of more than 4900 organizations that meet the criteria for large companies had signed the Charter (for the total number of organizations we rely on Pouwels & Henderikse 2014).⁴⁴ By November 2014, eleven of the fourteen Dutch universities (the universities in Delft, Wageningen en Maastricht did not commit to the charter) had signed the charter. As mentioned before, the Netherlands traditionally is hesitant to introduce compulsory quotas, and rather formulates target figures. The discussion about quotas revived again recently after the introduction of quotas for women in German Boards of directors. Current Minister Bussemaker, responsible for emancipation policy, said in a newspaper interview that if the temporary target figures formulated in the Dutch Supervision and Management Law do not lead to the improvement of women in top positions, the government will take further measures, hinting that quotas would be an alternative measure: “If there is a will, there is a way. If there is no will, there will be a law” (Dohmen & Vasterman 2014).

Equal opportunity / promotion of women in science policies and practices

National policies to improve the representation of women in the academic sector

Between 1998 and 2006 the law Equal representation of women in higher education (*Wet evenredige vertegenwoordiging vrouwen in leidinggevende posities*) was in force to improve the number of women in higher positions primarily in the academic sector (van den Brink 2010: 58). A 2005 evaluation report concluded that the representation of women had improved but the set targets had not yet been reached (ibid.: 59).

⁴⁴ http://www.talentnaardetop.nl/Home_NL/Charter/Ondertekenaars/ accessed November 24, 2014

Between 1999 and 2002 the Dutch Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) together with the Ministry of Education and the Dutch Association of universities (VSNU) introduced the program **Aspasia** to stimulate women assistant professors to get promoted to an associate professorship (ibid.: 59). A woman would be promoted when she had won a research grant for herself and a PhD candidate or postdoc researcher. In 2002, the successful Aspasia program was reformulated and incorporated into a general funding program. Currently, universities receive a bonus when women are awarded a research grant. The criteria to apply to a VENI grant for PhDs compensate time for pregnancy, childbirth and childcare. Scholars can apply for this three-year research grant within three years after their graduation, yet women who gave birth get 18 months extension (a maximum extension of five years).

The Athena program of NWO stimulates the upward mobility of women in Chemical Sciences: the grant of 100.000 euros is intended to encourage female chemical scientists who have already won a research grant (VENI) to get a tenured position (www.nwo.nl). Since 1999, the Dutch foundation Fundamental Research on Matter (FOM) aims to stimulate the upward mobility of women in physics and to encourage them not to leave the academic sector (ibid.: 60). They also founded a network for female physics to improve their visibility.⁴⁵ The foundation signed the Charter Talent to the Top and committed itself to have 20% female full professors and 20% women in salary scale 12 or higher in 2020 (ibid.).

Since 2007, the university of Groningen organizes together with the European Union the Rosalind Franklin Fellowship Program, which aims to get talented female scholars to a tenure track position to full professorship. Several universities followed this initiative. For instance, Delft University of Technology recently introduced a five-year Delft Technology Fellowship at Assistant, Associate or Professor level. The Technical University Eindhoven has a Women in Science Tenure Track. At the University of Amsterdam women in science can apply for the MacGillavry Fellowship, by which a woman academic is appointed as Assistant Professor for a maximum of six years. Like Delft and Eindhoven, the position is tenure-tracked which means that when the fellow

⁴⁵ www.fom.nl accessed December 12, 2014

performs well she will be promoted to Associate Professor with the aim to make her Full Professor. In 2001, a national network for female (full and associate) professors (Landelijk Netwerk Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren, LNVH) was established by female professors themselves. Currently this network has 850 members. Since 2003 they publish a report on women in academia every three years.

The most recent policy plan on academia (Wetenschapsvisie 2025) of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science dedicates two pages to the issue of gender equality in the academic sector (Ministerie van OCW 2014). The Ministry states that: 1) more effort is needed to get more female full professors, 2) argues for a awareness of implicit prejudice, 3) equal opportunity in competitions of Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO), 4) they support the EC Horizon 2020 program, and 5) the national Alliance Gender & Health. The latter concerns the recognition that gender differences are important for the quality of health care. The project has a focus on awareness raising, research and teaching. (ibid.)

Gender equality policy initiatives at Radboud university

Nowadays, Radboud University scores best nationally with regard to the share of female full professors: in 2011 this was 20.6%, which is well above the average 14.8% for all fourteen universities (Gerritsen et al. 2012 : 8). In 2003, this was 12.8% (ibid.) Thirty years earlier, in 1983, Radboud University had less than 1% female full professors (Leenders & Bleijenbergh 2014). Besides, since 2013, the university board has a female member, Wilma de Koning.

In 1980 the University Board installed an Emancipation Committee to give advice with regard to gender equality issues (Leenders & Bleijenbergh 2014). Since 1985 the university has an interdisciplinary institute for research and teaching on women, sexuality and gender (Institute for Gender Studies), which is the largest institute of its kind in the Netherlands. In the 1990s affirmative action policies were introduced. For instance, they introduced the Frye Stipendium to financially support talented female PhD students to continue their career by offering them a travel grant. In 2000 the Radboud University joined an EQUAL project, resulting in gender sensitive recruitment and selection procedures. Crucial for putting gender equality on the political agenda of

the university have been several members of the University Board. They for example strongly defended that one out of four full professor appointments should be for a woman. Since 2001, there is a Network for Female Full Professors (Netwerk Vrouwelijk Hoogleraren). In 2012 a network for women in lower ranks was established (Halkes Women Faculty Network) by female PhD students supported by the FP7 framework program STAGES. In 2013 the Nijmegen School of Management recognized the 'Hotspot on gender and power in politics and management' as one of its multidisciplinary research groups. (Leenders & Bleijenbergh 2014)

In 2008 the university signed the charter Talent to the Top and committed itself to improve the men-women ratio. Concrete activities related to this charter include a mentoring program for talented female scholars, incentive premiums for Senior Lecturers (and, in some cases, Postdocs and PhD students) to devote more time to research, and reviewing selection procedures relating to appointment advisory committees.⁴⁶

Moreover, gender equality is currently institutionalized into the strategic agenda : for instance, it is written into the university's 2009-2013 Strategic Plan. One staff member of the Personnel and Organization Department is appointed to dedicate 0.2fte to gender issues. (Leenders & Bleijenbergh 2014)

Evaluating the effects of equal opportunity/promotion of women in science policies

Since 2000, two Dutch research institutes (Statistics Netherlands and the Netherlands Research Institute for Social Research) biannually publish a report called Emancipation Monitor, which evaluates gender issues related to gender equality policies for the Directorate Emancipation of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. The report provides quantitative information in fields like education, employment, income, work-life balance, top positions, violence and health. For the academic sector, the national network of female full professors (LNVH) publishes since 2002 every three year a report on women in academia. This report also provides especially numbers on sex segregation in ranks, fields of study, working hours, payment, and management positions based on

⁴⁶ <http://www.ru.nl/nvh/english/genderpolicy-radboud/talent-top/> accessed December 19, 2014

information about university personnel. As a result, there is a lot of quantitative information about gender differences both at the national level and the academic sector.

Yet, there is a general lack of monitoring and evaluation of policies and their effectiveness in the academic sector (van den Brink 2010: 61). Research on gender equality policies in all fourteen universities for the period 2000-2007 revealed that all universities applied gender equality policy measures, but hardly evaluated these measures (Timmers et al. 2010). The study shows that measures are not fully applied everywhere, and success depends on committed initiators in a powerful position (van den Brink 2010: 61). Besides, most universities more often applied measures in the so-called cultural perspective (than in the individual or structural perspective)⁴⁷ (Timmers et al. 2010: 729, 733). The cultural perspective refers to measures that “focus on the responsibility for and support of applying a gender equality policy by managers and decision makers and decision making procedures in hiring and selection”, such as having one or more women in the hiring and selection committee, a Gender Impact Assessment and gender equality training for staff responsible for hiring and selection procedures (ibid.). With regard to the effect of measures, the study shows a positive relationship between policy measures in general and the reduction of the glass ceiling. More specifically, they found a positive relationship between measures in the cultural perspective and the increase in number of female associate and full professors (Timmers et al. 2010).

Current challenges and debates on women and science issues in the Dutch context

From the elaboration on the situation of women in the Dutch academic sector above, at least four issues are relevant in the context of current challenges and debates. First, we notice a reduction of gender equality issues to numbers. That is, many discussions about women in academia single out the issue of underrepresentation and focus on improving women’s share in academia. Secondly, the Netherlands is traditionally hesitant to implement compulsory quotas. At the same time, because other measures like target

⁴⁷ Timmers et al. (2010: 726) use the individual perspective to refer to measures “aimed to remedy a presumed shortcoming of women compared to men” (like for instance mentoring and coaching and a women’s network). The structural perspective refers to measures that are “expected to put pressure on decision makers to create equal opportunities” in order to increase women’s share at higher levels (ibid.: 729).

figures do not improve the situation sufficiently, arguments against this more radical measure increasingly do not hold. Thirdly, the sharp increase of temporary contracts in universities resulting in growing job insecurity is particularly problematic for women, because they more often than men have this type of contract. Fourthly, the ministerial 2025 Vision document calls for awareness of implicit prejudice in the context of women in academia. As the box below shows, talent is still primarily associated with male scholars, even by an institution that claims to acknowledge that implicit prejudice might very well (partly) explain women's underrepresentation (Ministerie van OCW 2014: 71).

Box : Protest against implicit prejudice in ministerial plan for the future of Dutch academia

Figure: Protest poster in reaction to picture in ‘2025 Vision for Science’



Source: <http://www.fsw.leidenuniv.nl/nieuws-2014/actie-van-leidse-vrouwelijke-hoogleraren.html> (Accessed December 16, 2014).

November 2014 the Dutch ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OCW) published a composition of photos of 16 male full professors blue sepia tone effect as part of their vision document on the future of Dutch academia (2025 Vision for Science). In reaction to the publication of the particular set of photos on the left part of the poster shown above, four female full professors from Leiden university composed a pink colored set of photos which shows a series of 16 female full professors. The text on the left side reproduces the cover page and title of the document with an added question mark, now saying “Vision for Science 2025, choices for the future?” The pictures of female full professors is accompanied by the text: “OCW (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science), to govern is to foresee!” The insignia of the Netherlands is replaced by the woman symbol. One of the makers of the poster, Prof. dr. Naomi Ellemers, told the leading newspaper *NRC Handelsblad* that she was “surprised” that in the gender paragraph of the document implicit prejudice is mentioned as one of the reasons why the Netherlands has such a small number of female full professors (de Bruin 2014). According to her, the illustration of the all male full professors is a classical example of implicit prejudice (ibid.). The ministry defends the choice for the illustration by saying that the picture was to show excellence (all men are Nobel prize winners). Yet, 13 women in the pink set of photos won the highest academic award (Spinoza prize) and the other three are among the first women that gained access to the academic sector.

Conclusions

In this report, we have evaluated the societal and institutional Dutch context for the domains education, employment, family formation and work-life issues in order to be able to define elements that structure the career opportunities for women and men in the early stages of their career academics. Next, we discussed policies introduced by the government in general and in the academic sector specifically that aim to come to a more gender equal situation in society at large, and in academia.

Women's level of education has improved significantly over the years. In general, women nowadays are highly educated. More women than men have tertiary qualifications. At the highest level of education, only one third of all doctorate holders are women. However, when we consider the young generation, the number of women with a PhD is much higher. When we zoom in on the different fields of studies at the tertiary level, we find persisting sex segregation. Particularly, the underrepresentation of women in Science – both in historical and cross-national perspective - is extreme.

In the domain of employment, this same pattern of both horizontal and vertical segregation is reproduced. Women tend to work in particular sectors, and are underrepresented in top positions. We find the same tendency in the academic sector. Despite the high number of women students and growing number of female PhD-candidates and their good performance, women in academia are especially underrepresented at the level of assistant, associate and full professors. Since 1980 we see improvement, but the phenomenon of the 'leaky pipeline' still applies very well to the Dutch situation: the higher the rank, the less women we find. Women are also underrepresented in university boards.

Currently, a high percentage of women in the Netherlands are participating on the labour market, yet most of them are in part-time jobs. The Netherlands can be best characterized as a one-and-a-half earner model: the most dominant working arrangement of (heterosexual) couples in the Netherlands is a situation in which the man has a full-time job, and the woman a part-time job. This situation is more often true when couples have children.

While part-time work is a key characteristic for the Dutch labour market, women with a university degree tend to work much more often in full-time jobs. The same goes for women working in the academic sector. Yet, female assistant and associate professors much less often work in full-time positions than their male colleagues. At the same time, the gender difference for full-time jobs is small at the level of full professorship. This means that especially at the start of their careers women work less working hours.

Besides, the recent and sharp increase in temporary contracts in the academic sector in general particularly affects the job security of women as they more often than men work on temporary contracts.

The policies and practices around care and work-life issues remain rather traditional in the Dutch context. The impact of child-birth affects women more than men. Even though the number of women that reduce their working hours after child-birth is still high, women nowadays tend to do this less often than before. Compared to men, women are still primarily responsible for and spend more time on childcare and domestic work. Despite a culture of taking care of children in the family (by the mother), the use of formal childcare has increased rapidly.

Besides equal treatment laws, gender equality policy measures in the Netherlands are primarily soft policies. Emancipation policy continues to focus on women's labour market participation and women's economic independence. Measures taken often intend to improve the representation of women. Politically, there is resistance to the more radical measure to improve the underrepresentation of women by compulsory quotas and target figures are preferred. To conclude, measures mainly focus on increasing numbers, and less on more structural changes.

With regard to the academic sector, both the government and universities themselves have been actively introducing individual and structural measures to improve the situation of women. Unfortunately, there is a general lack of monitoring and evaluation of these policies and their effectiveness (van den Brink 2010: 61). Research on the Dutch academic sector does show that measures are not fully applied everywhere, and success depends on committed initiators (ibid.).

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4. Iceland

Introduction: Contextual overview

Key Indicators

Population, total: 325.671 (2014)
Ethnic Groups: Icelandic 93,44%, Polish 2,83%, Other 3,73% (2013)
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$): \$43.930 (2013)
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population: 0.0% (2010)
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 2.0 (2012)
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 4 (2013)
Number of months of parental leave: 9 (Mother: 3, father 3 and 3 joint) (2014)
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments: 40% (2014)

Source: <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/iceland>

Iceland is a constitutional republic with a multi-party system. It became independent in 1944. The head of state is the President, elected every four years. Since the establishment of the republic there have been five presidents, including one woman, Vigdís Finnbogadóttir. Executive power is exercised by the Government, which is elected every four years. After the parliamentary election in 1979, women were only 5% of the Althingi (the Icelandic Parliament). Since the 1990's the number of women in Parliament has steadily increased. The Women's Alliance got three women elected in 1983, bringing the percentage of women in Parliament up to 15%. The first female cabinet minister was appointed in 1970 and the first female prime minister in 2009. Approximately two-thirds of the population lives in the capital. Residence is a significant variable which affects social participation on several levels. Until recently, the Icelandic nation had remained largely homogeneous, both culturally and religiously. In 1981, nearly 98 percent of the nation was born in Iceland, and 96 percent belonged to the Lutheran state church or other Lutheran religious sects. By 2007, however, these numbers dropped to 89 and 86 percent. The primary reason is the growing population of immigrants in Iceland during the so-called economic boom between 1995 and 2008. The economic collapse in 2008 and the crisis that followed had a serious negative impact in Iceland. The national currency fell steeply, the GDP dropped drastically, unemployment increased and foreign currency restrictions were instituted. As one result of higher unemployment, numbers of students at the University of Iceland rose considerably. However, the over-all recession in the economy also affected the academia leading to substantial financial cutbacks.

Iceland has held the top ranking in the World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report six years in a row. In the report, the gender gap is evaluated based on political participation, education, health and economic attainment. Despite the high ranking gender equality has not been reached in Iceland. While a high proportion of women is active on the labour market there are still gendered gaps in decision making and executive management positions, and the gender pay gap is rather high. The same discrepancy is within Higher education in Iceland. Although the majority of students and graduates at the University of Iceland are female, the professorships remain largely occupied by men (althingi.is, n.d.; hagstofan.is, n.d.; velferdaraduneyti.is, n.d.; weforum.org, 2013)

The last parliamentary election was held in April 2013. Women became 39.7% of the MPs, or 25 out of 33, and one third of the ministers (three of nine). There was a decrease from the elections in 2009 when women were 43% and the first woman, Jóhanna Sigurðardóttir, became Prime Minister. The proportion of women in ministerial level positions rose from 27.3% in 2005 up to 50% for a short period of time in 2012 (see **Table V.2.**). Iceland has had a 40% quota in government and municipal committees, councils and boards since 2008. Despite the improved numbers of women holding seats however, the minimum quota of 40% has only been reached in 5 out of 12 parliamentarian committees. The percentage of women has improved in many positions. Hence, in early 2011 the number of women holding ministerial secretary positions became equal to men. There is, however, imbalance in many senior positions. The number of women serving as municipal judges is 35%, and there are only two women out of 12 judges of the Supreme Court. In 2011, women are 33% of department heads, 26.5% of Ambassadors, 6% of Foreign Service delegates, 30% managers of state institutions and 9% of police officers (Velferdaraduneyti.is 2013/2).

4.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

Educational system: overview

Education is mandatory for all children from 6 to 16 years, including special education, provided mainly by the municipalities. Law on compulsory education in Iceland was passed 90 years ago and has been reformed several times since then. Education in Iceland is mainly public with a certain number of private institutions. Over the last

decades, the educational system in Iceland has undergone decentralization regarding responsibilities, finance and decision-making (Menntamalaraduneyti.is 1998).

As revealed in **Table 1.1.**, there are considerable gender differences in education with more women than men that only have basic education. Approximately 36% of the population has tertiary education in 2013, 42.5% of the women and 29.6% of the men. The education of women has increased more than that of men over the last three decades. This development is similar to other Western countries. This is explained largely by the older cohorts and is in fact reversed in the younger generations. The table also shows regional differences in educational attainment with higher education levels in the capital region than other parts of the country. Both in the capital and countryside, women outnumbered men in the group with tertiary education (Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland n.d./3).

Table 1.1. Educational attainment of the population 25-64 years old 2013

	Total	Males	Females	Capital region	Outside capital region
Basic education	27.8%	26.1%	29.6%	22.7%	37.0%
Upper secondary education	36.1%	44.2%	27.9%	35.0%	38.2%
Tertiary education	36.0%	29.6%	42.5%	42.3%	24.7%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Levels of education

In 1994, pre-primary education was defined by law as the first level of the educational system, provided by pre-schools for children under the age of six. It is not compulsory, and not all children are guaranteed a place in pre-school, and therefore we will discuss this in detail in the section “child care” below. The mandatory education from 6-16 years is discussed in the previous section.

Upper secondary education is not compulsory, but anyone who has completed compulsory education has the right to enter an upper secondary school, which are roughly divided into colleges, vocational education and training programs. Students are usually between 16 and 20 years of age. Women outnumbered men as college graduates for the first time in 1977 and have made majority since. In 2013, 25.496 were registered at the upper secondary level, equal numbers men and women. Of these, two thirds (67%) were in general education (more women than men, or 54%), and one third (33%)

in vocational education (more men than women, or 58%). The choice of upper secondary study courses differ according to gender with men outnumbering women in science, mathematics, computing, engineering, manufacturing and construction, whereas men outnumber women in humanities, social sciences, business and law, health and welfare, and the majority of the men are in men (Statistical Yearbook 2014, 196).

Academic Institutions in Iceland

There are currently seven higher educational institutions in Iceland. The modern Icelandic system of higher education dates back to the foundation of the University of Iceland in 1911. The legal framework covering higher education in Iceland is the Higher Education Institutions Act No 63/2006. The University of Iceland is a public research university situated in Reykjavik. The university is the oldest and by far the largest institution of higher education. During the first year of practice of the University of Iceland, 45 students were registered, thereof 1 woman. In 2013 the student body was approximately 14.000 with 34% men and 66% women. In 1926 the first woman defended her doctoral thesis. In 2013 52 students graduated with a PhD, thereof 25 women.

According to *The History of the University of Iceland 1911-2011* (Karlsson 2011) the ideology and management of the university goes in hand with the prevailing political and economic sways at each time. In the 1970s and 1980s the importance of knowledge construction for the economic growth of Icelandic society was promoted. New strategies were found that aimed to strengthen research and science for the utilization of a growing industry. The development contextualized with the changes within the economy. Iceland had developed from depending foremost on its primary industry, fish and agriculture, towards relying more on industrial production, electronics, computer technology, and biomedical technology. The aim was to further the possibilities of the country and to create new employment opportunities. The idea of the interrelation between general education and booming economic life was a discursive theme throughout the era.

In the 1990s a structural change took place reflecting the political emphasis of the era. Decentralization was increased and new procedures implemented in order to increase the institutions responsibility for their own affairs. In 2005 the first woman was elected rector of the University of Iceland, Dr. Kristín Ingólfssdóttir. She is the first and only

woman to serve as rector at the university. The University is divided into five schools: School of Education, School of Humanities, School of Engineering and Natural Sciences, School of Social Sciences and School of Health Sciences (Karlsson 2011).

Other universities are:

- Reykjavik University, a private institution with three departments: Business, Computer science and Law.
- The University of Akureyri, a public university with four schools: Health Science, Humanities and Social Science and Business and Science.
- Bifröst University, a private university college with the departments of Business, Law and Social Sciences.
- Hólar University College, a public institution with the faculties of Aquaculture and fish biology, Equine Studies and Rural Tourism.
- The Agricultural University of Iceland, a public university with two faculties, Faculty of Land and Animal Resources, and Faculty of Environmental Sciences.
- Iceland Academy of the Arts, a private foundation with departments of the Academy are Arts Education, Design and Architecture, Fine Arts, Music and Performing Arts (Sources: homepages of the universities).

Table 1.2. Distribution of students at the Universities in 2011 according to gender:

University	Number of registered males	Number of registered females
University of Iceland	4848	9071
Reykjavik University	1491	977
University of Akureyri	365	1128
Bifröst University	180	251
Icelandic Academy of Arts	169	245
The Agricultural University of Iceland	81	157
Hólar University College	40	132
Total	7174	11961

(Hagtíðindi/Statistical Series 2012)

Women outnumbered men at the University of Iceland during the school year 1985-86. As shown in Table 1.2, women are two third of the university students although there are differences between the universities. In 2013 the overall gender rates were the same.

The choice of study field in tertiary education is considerably gendered. Women outnumber men in the humanities and the social sciences whereas men outnumber women in STEM, science, technology, engineering and math. This applies to both the tertiary level and the upper secondary level as well discussed above. In universities most students registered are studying social science, business and law. Over 7.000 students in Iceland or 37% study within those fields. Over 3.000 students study within humanities and art. In the faculty of health and welfare there are a little less than 2.300 students registered. Women outnumber men in every field of study except science, mathematics, computer science, engineering, production and construction (Hagtíðindi/Statistical Series 2012).

In Iceland, it's common to pursue your studies later in life, especially for women, which might be one of the reasons for the higher rate of women at the tertiary level. Students in Iceland can leave the education system relatively easily and re-enter later on. Based on the current patterns of graduation, it is estimated that more than 1 out of 3 women will graduate from tertiary level after the age of 30, compared to less than 1 out of 10 on average among OECD countries. In 2011, among the 25-64 year-old population, 4 out of 10 women in Iceland (40%) had a tertiary degree compared to less than 3 out of 10 men (28%) (OECD 2013).

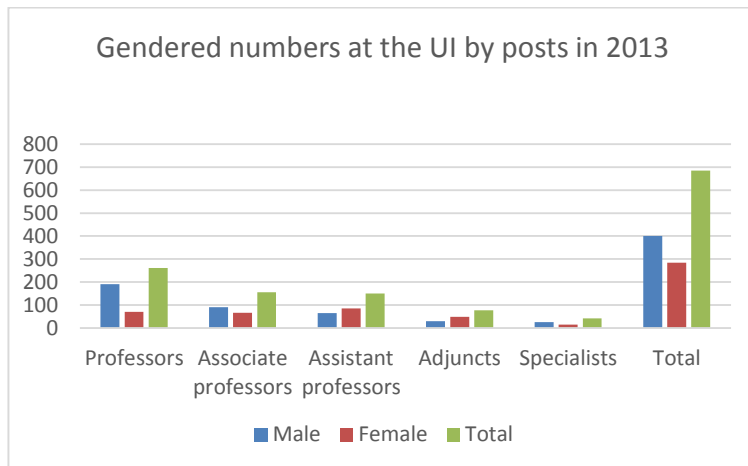
Employees at higher educational level at the University of Iceland

Although women outnumber men within the academia, both as students and staff, the positions of power are still in the hands of men. The majority of academic staff at the University of Iceland, the largest university, was 1.368 in 2012. Of these women were 52% and men 48%. The gender ratio can be seen in Figure 1.1 below.

As demonstrated in Figure 1.1, Full Professors generate the biggest single group and this is a result of a specific promotion system that has been in place since the 1980s. The number of female Full Professors increased steadily after the introduction of the promotion system until 2006 when stricter rules were enacted. In 2012 for example women were a quarter of Full Professors compared to 7% in 1996, with a slower increase since 2006. The number of female Associate Professors has increased through the years; in 1996 they were 20% but in 2012 they were 42%. Among Assistant Professors, adjuncts and part-time-teachers women outnumbered men; women were 63% and men 37%. In 2013 men outnumber women in the group of highest ranking

administrators and three out of five deans of the Universities schools were men (jafnretti.hi.is 2013; Karlsson 2011).

Figure 1.1



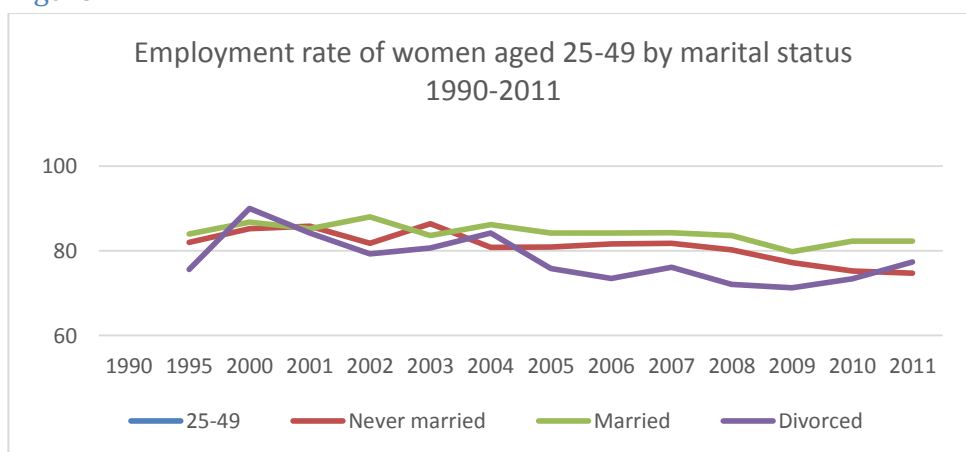
4.2 Domain 2. Employment and labor market policies and practices

Women's participation on the labor market, historical overview

In 2013, Iceland had the highest rate of women's participation in the labor market among the OECD countries, or about 83%. In 2014, women work on average 35 hours a week and men work 44 hours. Women's high labor market activity has a long history in Iceland. For the first decades of the 20th century women were one third of registered workforce in Iceland, with maids as the biggest work group of women during the 19th century and the first decades of the 20th century. With growing industry and changing economy women were increasingly employed in factories, offices and shops. Economic changes during the post-war period were accompanied by drastic increase of women's employment, not least in the welfare and health system. This process was spurred by the second feminist movement and a general change of mind-set. In 1960 the ratio of women in paid work had risen up to 34%, steadily increasing to 65% in 1980. The larger societal development enhanced this process and altered the premise for women's participation on the job market. Hence, abortions were allowed in 1975, and in 1976 the building of day care centers started. Increased education further enhanced women's possibilities on the job market.

For the better part of the 20th century unmarried women, single mothers and widows formed the registered group of working women in Iceland. In general married women did not work outside the home. Furthermore, the tax system punished married women in paid work. The construction of daycare for children, altered taxation law in the 1970s, changes in the economy and zeitgeist still enhanced married women's participation in paid work increased. (Helgadóttir 2001; Erlendsdóttir 1993; Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland n.d./5). In contemporary Iceland the working status of women is not determined by her marital status and since the beginning of the 21st century there are only slight differences between working women after civil status, as can be viewed in **Figure 2.1** below.

Figure 2.1



Gender pay gap

Despite the high ratio of women's education and participation on the work market in Iceland the gender pay gap remains a continuous obstacle. In contemporary Iceland, women have 62% of men's total employment income, according to tax returns. In order to find the adjusted pay gap variables such as age, education, hours worked and years of work experience are taken into account. According to one such study from 2008 women have 74% of men's total income but when all the variables had been taken into consideration the pay gap is 16.3%.

The Icelandic labor market is highly gendered segregated. Women more often work in the public sector, such as in health care, welfare and education, and men more often work in the private sector. The segregation between occupations is furthermore highly gendered. The gender segregation of the labor market, according to occupation, industry

and sector, is the largest single factor behind the gender pay gap (Mósesdóttir et al. 2006).

The construction of gendered pay gap is commonly thought to be threefold. First, by gendered discrimination when a person is hired or promoted; second, the salaries in “typical” women’s professions are generally low despite education, skills etc., and third, women get paid less than men for similar jobs (Peterson and Morgan 1995). The Icelandic economist Lilja Mósesdóttir (2006) asserts that the gendered pay gap thrives with wage secrecy. Other inequalities are linked to factor such as regional differences. Hence, the gender pay gap is larger in the rural areas than in the capital region.

Unemployment

Compared to other European countries, unemployment in Iceland has been relatively low, with a higher ratio of women registered as unemployed than men. During the 1990s, unemployment rose due to economic recession. Unemployment among men reached 4% and among women over 6%. During the first eight years of the 21st century unemployment never rose above 4% and the gendered bias stayed the same with women outnumbering men’s unemployment figures. After the economic crash in 2008 however, the scale of unemployment rate escalated almost overnight and the gender ratio interchanged leaving far more men than women unemployed. The reason can be traced to the large number of construction workers during the economic boom. As demonstrated in the table figure below, the gendered bias already changed back to the majority of unemployed being women in late 2011, due to austerity measures in the public sector in which the majority of the women work. The latest numbers from the Statistics Iceland show the continuing development with 5.1% women unemployed and 5.0 men in October 2014 (Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland n.d./5).

Figure 2.2



4.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

Overview

The term family is defined by Statistics Iceland as two or more individuals living together and united by family ties as partners or parent and child, 18 years or younger. Thus a family can consist of partners or single parents with or without children. The **Table 3.1** provides an overview of the family types as registered by Statistics Iceland in 2013.

Figure 3.1

Families by type of family	Family nuclei	Percent
Total	78.175	
<i>Married couples and consensual unions with children</i>	32.958	42.1%
<i>Married couples and consensual unions without children</i>	32.474	41.5%
<i>Mothers with children</i>	11.614	14.9%
<i>Fathers with children</i>	1.129	1.4%

Source: Landshagir 2014/Statistical Yearbook of Iceland 2014.

Family policy in Iceland was underrepresented in politics until the 1990s. During the UN Year of the Family in 1994 a proposition was put forth in a parliamentary debate that called for a family policy. In 1997 the Icelandic parliament passed a resolution on both the formation of an official family policy as well as measures to be implemented that

would strengthen the status of families. (Eydal 2003). Extensive reforms have been enacted in recent years; parental leave was reformed in 2000, and day care facilities are available for the majority of pre-school children. However, the working hours are very long, as mentioned above, which also applies to parents of young children (Pétursdóttir 2009).

Fertility rates

Live births in Iceland in 2012 were 4.533. Total fertility rate was 2.0, which is higher than in most other European societies. Turkey and Albania were the only countries in Europe with higher total fertility rate than Iceland. The total fertility rate has remained relatively stable in Iceland since the early 1990s. During the 20th century total fertility peaked during the 1960s to a rate of 4.3. Highest fertility rate was experienced by mothers in birth cohorts of the 1930s (3.5). In recent decades Iceland has experienced pronounced increase in the age of mothers at childbirth. Between 1966 and 1970 the mean age of new mothers was 21.3 as compared to 27.0 in 2011 (see **Table III.2.** GARCIA data). During this period, age-specific fertility in the age groups below 25 has declined considerably whereas fertility above the age of 30 has remained stable (Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland n.d. /6).

Parental leave

In 2000, the Icelandic Act on Parental Leave in Iceland was changed significantly. The leave was extended from six months to nine. Parents who were active in the labor market were paid 80% of their average salaries during the leave and the payments were to come from a specific fund, financed through an insurance levy (see **Table III.4.** in the GARCIA data). The parents had the right to three months' non-transferable leave each and additional three months together that they could share to fit their own set of circumstances. The Act was well received by society. Around 90% of fathers used their non-transferable share of the parental leave, on average 101 days and thus increased their attendance of their children considerably. The mothers use the majority of the leave, on average of 180 days.

Research has shown that after the new parental law was brought into effect, fathers are building up closer relationships with their children and women and men are on a more equal footing in the workplace. However, following the financial crisis the government decided to lower the payments in severe budget cuts which have had negative impact on

the fathers' take up rate. From late 2008 to early 2011, the maximum payment has been cut down to 75% of the average salaries. This has resulted in fewer fathers using their leave (Gíslason 2007; Velferdaraduneyti.is n.d. /2).

Childcare

Pre-primary education has formally been the first level of the educational system since 1994, and pre-schools are provided by the municipalities but also to some extent by private pre-schools. The access to pre-schools has increased during the last decades and has been rather good the last decade. However, the availability of pre-schools varies between regions and not all children have access to pre-schools. In 2003 between 73% and 84% of children were in preschool, the lowest and the highest rate in the rural areas farthest away from the capital region (in the eastern and western part of Iceland) with Reykjavík among the highest. In 2013 the proportion has risen to 82% and 91%, with the highest rate still in the eastern part of Iceland but Reykjavík with the lowest rate (Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland, statistics retrieved December 20, 2014). Of these 87% are provided by the municipalities and 13% by private pre-schools (Landshagir/Statistical Yearbook 2014, 192). The number of children with foreign citizenship in pre-primary school has increased in recent years. Along with the increase in children attending pre-primary school the number of staff has increased. A vast majority of pre-primary schools teachers are women (Hagstofa Íslands/Statistics Iceland 2008). While the availability of pre-schools is good in Iceland, there is a gap between the parental leave and the pre-school period which remains unresolved (Haraldsdóttir 2013).

4.4 Domain 4. Care & work-life policies and practices

The welfare system in Iceland is often compared with those of the other Nordic countries. Studies have shown, that although the Nordic systems set out on similar grounds in the 1940's and 1950's, the welfare expenditure did not grow as fast in Iceland in the 1960's and 1970's as elsewhere in Scandinavia and in the 1990's the development had taken a different course in Iceland. During the 1990's Iceland's proportion of GNP spent on welfare was considerably lower than in the other Scandinavian countries. In 1997 i.e. Iceland spent 2.4% of GNP on benefits and services for families and children. In comparison, Denmark spent 3.8%, Finland 3.9% Norway 3.5

% and Sweden 3.8%. The difference is even bigger when bearing in mind the demographic status of Iceland with higher fertility rates and thus larger group of children under 16 than the other Nordic countries (Eydal 2003).

The parental leave reform from 2000 was introduced as a work-life policy and has affected the involvement of men in the care of their newborns positively. However, division of work within the family remains highly unequal and women continue to shoulder the main part of the family responsibilities and domestic work. Research shows that the involvement of men has increased after the collapse (Þórsdóttir 2013). In 1988 women, regardless of civil status, spent on average 18.8 hours a week on house work whereas men spent 5.8 hours. In 2010 the average time spend by women had decreased to 12.8 hours and men's to 8.7 hours. The care of children is moreover women's responsibility. When only married or cohabiting people are taken into account, women spent on average slightly less than 33 hours a week in 2010 on care for children whereas men spent 19 hours a week (Þórsdóttir 2013).

4.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

Historical overview/milestones

During the first decades of the 19th Century the Icelandic women's movement was strong and successful. Women gained full equal access to education, public grants and public office in 1911 women, and in 1915 women aged 40 and older got the right to vote. A renewed period of women's right started in the 1970s with the "Red Stockings Movement" that was founded in 1970. The same year the first female cabinet minister was appointed, much later than in the other Nordic countries. On October 24th 1975, the UN International Women's year, more than 25 thousand women in Iceland took a day off and marched to the center of Reykjavík to emphasize the importance of women's contribution to the economy, both in paid and unpaid work. In the following decade many improvements took place in women's issues, in the legal framework, in gender-based violence and in politics.

During the first decade of the 21st century many women became pioneers and leaders in their sectors: i.e. the first female university president was elected in 2005. In 2009, Jóhanna Sigurðardóttir became the first Prime Minister of Iceland. She was also the first openly gay Prime Minister in the World (Halldórsdóttir & Jónatansdóttir 1998; Karlson 2011; Velferdaraduneyti.is, n.d. /2). In 2012 Agnes Sigurðardóttir became the Bishop of

Iceland, the first woman to be elected for the post. In 2010 a law was adopted for gender quotas for corporate boards in 2010, which came into force in the fall 2013.

Equal opportunity / promotion of women in science policies and practices

National legislation on gender equality

The constitution of Iceland contains the principle of equality stating that “[E]veryone shall be equal before the law and enjoy human rights irrespective of sex, religion, opinion, national origin, race, color, property, birth or other status. Men and women shall enjoy equal rights in all respects.” (Constitution of the Republic of Iceland, Act No. 33/1944). Iceland got its first Equality Act in 1976, which has been reviewed regularly ever since. At first the Act was directed at the labor market but now it is more inclusive, intended to ensure equality between women and men and their equal status in all respects. The Act on Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men (No. 10/2008, as amended by Act No. 162/2010 and No. 126/2011): “The aim of this Act is to establish and maintain equal status and equal opportunities for women and men, and thus promote gender equality in all spheres of the society. All individuals shall have equal opportunities to benefit from their own enterprise and to develop their skills irrespective of gender” (Althingi.is 2008). According to the law gender mainstreaming shall be observed in all policy-making and planning in the work of the schools and instruction on gender equality issues offered at t all levels of the educational system. Furthermore, research in gender studies shall be increased.

Other resorts to further ensure the implementation of gender equality

The Center for Gender Equality is operated since 2000 when it replaced a previous gender equality unit. The function of the Center is to provide general counseling and education in the field of gender equality for governmental and municipal authorities, institutions, companies, individuals and NGO’s. When the Center was recreated in 2000, the minister of social affairs moved it from Reykjavík to the city of Akureyri on Iceland’s northern coast. While an important second city this placement was thinly justified as a democratic move, and weakened the Center’s policymaking capacity and ability to oversee the government. Women’s issues were literally marginalized in ways completely new to Icelandic politics (Johnson, Einarsdóttir & Pétursdóttir 2013, 191).

The Equal Status Council is the platform for equality policy formulation. The Council is manned by representatives of the confederation of employers, institutions and NGOs in the field of gender equality. The Gender Equality Complaints Committee has been operated since 1991 as a platform for act on nonobservance or law-breaking of the Equality Act. According to the Act of Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men a Gender Equality Forum is held supposed to be held every year where a report on equality issues is presented and selected equality matters discussed.

According the Act on Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men the Minister of Social Affairs and Social Security shall present to the Icelandic parliament a motion for a parliamentary resolution on a four-year gender equality action program. In the Parliamentary resolution on the Equality Act from 2011-2014, gender equality in universities is addressed by the following clause: “Education on gender equality should be established within universities. A working party should be established to plan and implement such a process; the party should be composed of representatives from universities and the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and experts in gender studies.” This has not been implemented. The resolution further states, that a “strategy to enforce gender budgeting should be implemented in stages over the period 2011-2014. For this purpose, pilot projects should be initiated in ministries and institutions with the objective to develop procedures and methods for the preparation of gender-budgets. This has been put into practice and within the Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs gender budgeting has developed from a pilot project in 2009 to a 3-year plan in place from 2011 to 2014 (Fjarmalaraduneyti.is n.d.).

The Gender Equality Fund was established by law and has operated since 2006 with the aim to rectify the gendered imbalance of research. Studies and projects are carried out by grants from the Gender Equality Fund. The fund is administrated by The Prime Minister's Office. In 2013 there were five grants for the total amount of 9.4 Million ISK given to researchers studying matters of gender equality in Iceland. The total amount of all grants equals one single grant within the University fund or IRF (Forsaetisraduneyti.is n.d.). The amount of 9.4 Million ISK can be compared to the total amount of grants awarded by the Icelandic Research Fund, 598 million ISK (Rannis.is).

Equality at the University of Iceland

Research on gender issues gained academic weight with the founding of the Centre for Women's and Gender Studies 1990 and the establishment of Gender Studies in 1996 at the University of Iceland. In addition, equality-work at the University of Iceland has been on the agenda since 2000.

The UI approved its fourth Equal Rights Program on January 16th 2014. Previous Equality work (2000-2004, 2005-2009, 2009-2013), was based on three different sets of programs, i.e. gender equality, the affairs of the disabled and policy against discrimination.

The latest policy is an expansion towards equality for all in one policy document. According to the policy, the five schools of the university are obliged to have a committee of equal rights pursuing the equality program based on the principles of the equality policy for all, students and staff. The current Equal Rights Program has as its main objectives to care for the diverse human resources of the university and to mainstream gender and equal right perspective into all policies and programmes, administration, curriculum, instruction, research (Equal Rights Programme of the University of Iceland 2013-2017). In January 2014 the university Council has recently approved Procedural Rules for responding to gender-related sexual harassment and other sexual violence. The goal is to uproot gender related and sexual harassment and violence and to ensure that remedies shall be in place if an employee or student thinks that she or he has experienced such offences.

The Equal Rights Committee works in an advisory capacity to the University Council on equality and diversity related issues. Among its roles is to oversee equality, provide advice which promote equality and combat discrimination on the grounds of gender, ability, sexual orientation, nationality, gender identity, origin, ethnicity, religion and any other identities/characteristics. The Equal Opportunities Officer of the university is a full-time employee who holds an administrative position within the university and oversees equality implementation and equality related matters. S/he works alongside the Equal Rights Committee and the Council for Disability Rights, of which s/he is the chair. The role of the Council for Disability Rights is to oversee issues concerning people with disabilities and students with special needs within the university. In addition to this, equality focused Student Organizations are operated in which students at the university are involved in with many equality projects. The Student Union has an Equal

Rights Committee and Officer, as well as a Student Interests and Loan Officer and an International Committee. (Haraldsdóttir 2013; Jafnretti.hi.is 2013). Finally Equality Days have been held annually since 2009.

Evaluating the effects of equal opportunity / promotion of women in science policies

Gender equality in the field of science and research in Iceland is structured by law, resolutions and equality work. Overall, both law and policies broadly cover the structural presupposition of gender equality within science and research. The gender equality work at the University of Iceland has been evaluated twice (Leiknisdóttir et al. 2009; Social Science Research Institute 2012). The most recent evaluation concludes that certain aspects of the equal opportunities programme have been successful as they have increased the number of people involved in gender equality work and stimulated the debate. However, the education and knowledge of gender issues is lacking, gender issues are not mainstreamed, reconciliation of work and family life has become more difficult after the collapse, incidents of sexual harassment are not dealt with in a systematic way, and last but not least, a divide and distrust exists between the top officials and decision makers of the university and the people working with equal opportunities issues (Social Science Research Institute 2012).

Current challenges and debates on women and science issues in the Icelandic context

Challenges and debates on women's positions within the field of science and research have been mapped thoroughly in several studies in Iceland. The report "Women in science" published by the Ministry of Education in 2002 revealed extensive gender differences at all levels in the academia (Menntamalaraduneyti.is 2002).

A study on the educational choices and conditions of women in male dominated majors at the University of Iceland shows that women in STEM disciplines are high academic achievers and possess self-efficacy. On the other hand they lack support and experience to lesser extent than men that respect, recognition and equality is prominent within their departments. (Sigurjónsdóttir & Einarsdóttir 2011). Another study unfolds masculine atmosphere and male dominance within the culture of selected STEM faculties at the University of Iceland (Snæfríðar- og Gunnarsdóttir & Einarsdóttir 2011).

A report on the preparatory framework for the Gender Budgeting Project for the Ministry of Education Science and Culture revealed a gendered discrepancy within science in Iceland (Einarsdóttir 2011). The report shows the gendered imbalance within science, in decision making and strategic planning. Fewer women than men apply for grants and they are allocated lower amounts, indicating the important role of “gate-keepers”, the reliability of the peer review and a critical approach to potential gender bias. (Einarsdóttir 2011). Finally, a new research on gender issues in the Icelandic academia shows that women still face structural hindrances on many levels. Further development and reinforcement of methods to implement gender equality in the field of science and research is much needed (Heijstra 2013).

Conclusions

According to the World Economic Forum (2013) Iceland passes as a leading example of gender equality. The rich participation of women on the labor market is often interpreted as de facto equality. Despite high gender equality ranking, gender equality laws and machinery large gender disparities remain. Women are largely underrepresented in decision making positions, in politics and finance. Overall, a gendered pay gap is a persistent problem.

Gender equality in the field of science and research in Iceland is structured by law, resolutions and equality work. Overall, both law and policies broadly cover the structural presupposition of gender equality within science and research. The implementation has stimulated the increased number of women within the Icelandic academia. At the same time the number of professors employed on permanent basis remains male-biased. Women and men tend to choose gender stereotypical training, study and occupation. Financial resources in academia also seem directed through and to males and male-dominated research fields, preserving a system ranked by and to the favor of men.

The gender-difference in choice of education and occupation has been explained with the social-cultural framework, opportunities and hindrances within the system that favor culturally defined male qualities and dominance. The structural hindrances have, among others, been identified as glass ceilings, leaky pipelines and cultural restraints. The legal framework and increased involvement of women within the community at large is not enough to balance the gendered power-relations within the system. Further

development and reinforcement of methods to implement gender equality in the field of science and research is much needed. There is still a long way to go before gender equality is gained.

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5. Switzerland

Introduction: Contextual overview

Key Indicators

Population, total (millions): 8.08
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$): \$86,600
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population: 0.7%
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 1.5
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 6
Number of weeks of statutory maternity leave: 14
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (%): 29%

Source: <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/switzerland>

Switzerland is a federal country, characterised by considerable internal variation in policies, values and social practices, according to the linguistic regions and cantons. In existing social protection regime typologies, Switzerland is generally qualified as having a « hybrid » social protection system, combining elements of the liberal and corporatist models identified by Esping-Andersen (1990).

From a gender perspective, Switzerland has evolved over the past twenty years towards the widespread adoption of a « modified male breadwinner » normative model of gender relations. Thus, Swiss women have relatively high economic activity rates (see **Table II.2**). However, they also tend to work part-time (with a large proportion of female part-timers at less than a half-time position) and/or to take extended breaks from the labour market when their children are young. The division of domestic labour is particularly unequal and 50% of marriages end in divorce.

Several recent studies have shown that this particular pattern of female activity rates and family organisation are explained by a combination of fiscal policies that are unfavourable to dual-earner households, the lack of affordable childcare, both for pre-school children and for extra-curricular activities for older children (most junior schools do not provide a canteen service at lunch-time, for example), long working hours for full-timers and a low male unemployment rate.

Although there has been a considerable improvement in women’s access to higher education over the past 15 years, the academic occupational hierarchy continues to demonstrate a clear “glass ceiling”. Women are well represented amongst doctoral students and make up a significant proportion of temporary scientific research positions, but they are much less likely than their male counterparts to reach permanent professorships.

Increasing women’s access to scientific occupations is nevertheless a concerted policy objective, particularly as a solution to the permanent risk of labour shortages in qualified occupations. In a country with a low unemployment rate, a small university-educated population and relatively well-paid job opportunities in the private and public sectors, Swiss higher education institutions do not necessarily represent a particularly attractive employer (Studer, 2012), notably because of the large proportion of temporary, fixed-term contracts that characterize the early stages of an academic career.

5.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

The Swiss educational system: Overview

The Swiss education system is characterised by federalism, and organised in a decentralised manner. The primary responsibility for education lies with the cantons (states). They are responsible for the education system, except where the Federal Constitution declares the Confederation, or the Confederation and cantons to be jointly competent. For some areas the Federal Constitution lays down an obligation for the cantons to coordinate their action (e.g. coordination of the cantons in the compulsory education sector, cooperation between the Confederation and cantons in the higher education sector).

Early childhood education and care for children under four years falls within the sphere of family and social policy. The use of the public or private day-care facilities is voluntary. Compulsory education lasts at least nine years and is subdivided into primary school and lower-secondary education. In the majority of the cantons, primary school lasts six years and lower-secondary education three years. In lower-secondary education, teaching is realised at different performance levels. Pupils complete compulsory education at the age of 15/16.

Upper-secondary education is subdivided into general education programmes and vocational education and training programmes (VET). The general education programmes include the Baccalaureate schools and the upper-secondary specialised schools. They do not lead to professional qualifications, but prepare for tertiary level education programmes. In the vocational programmes adolescents learn a profession. Vocational education and training is mostly completed at training companies combined with teaching at a VET school (dual track). After lower-secondary education the majority of adolescents commence vocational education and training. The adolescents complete upper-secondary education at the age of 18/19.

Tertiary level education can be completed at A-level tertiary institutions in level-B tertiary level professional education and training (PET) institutions. The different types of tertiary level A institutions (universities, universities of applied sciences, universities of teacher education) offer various academic and practice-oriented degree programmes. Tertiary level B professional education and training enables experienced professionals, who have completed vocational education and training at upper-secondary level to acquire more in-depth specialist knowledge.

Continuing education and training is characterised by heterogeneity, e.g. regarding responsibility, regulation, financing and types of programmes. Private parties perform a key role, bearing general responsibility, as well as providing and financing continuing education and training. The Confederation and the cantons mainly perform a subsidiary role.

Source:

<https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Switzerland:Overview>

As shown in **Table I.1**.⁴⁸, Swiss women have considerably improved their educational achievements and credentials over the past thirty years. Amongst the over 50s, women represent less than a third (32%) of the most highly qualified members of society (those with a tertiary-level diploma), whereas they represent 43.4% of the recipients of these qualifications in the 25-49 years age group.

In 2011, over half (51.2%) of tertiary qualifications were awarded to women; a significant increase over the past 10 years (**Table I.4**). In 2012, almost 43% of men aged 25-64 years have an A or B-level tertiary diploma (as compared to a third of men in 1999); this is the case for just over 30% of Swiss women (as against 13.6% in 1999) (see **Table A.1**.)

Although women's share of tertiary qualifications has increased significantly in recent years, it is important to stress that the Swiss higher education system remains relatively elitist. As indicated in **Table A.2**., only a small proportion (between 10 and 15%) of contemporary age cohorts are university-educated. In comparison to many neighbouring countries, Switzerland is confronted with a structural shortage of highly qualified workers in many domains. This explains the large number of foreign (immigrant or transnational) workers in the Swiss labour market (see below), including in the academic sector.

⁴⁸ In this country report, the reference data are indicated as follows: Tables with roman numerals (e.g. I.1.) are to be found in the Appendices to this deliverable, which contains the statistics provided for all partners in the D.3.2 data collection guideline. Tables with a letter (e.g. A.1.) refer to the additional collected by the Swiss team and are located at the end of this report, after the bibliography.

Furthermore, Switzerland has about 12% of 20-25 year olds who are in the so-called NEET category (not in employment, education or training) (see **Table A.3.**). Unfortunately, we have been unable to obtain gender-specific data on this category of young people.

As in almost all other European countries, women's access to higher education has led to the increased feminisation of a wide range of disciplinary fields. In the Vaud Canton, women represent over half (55%) of the students registered at Lausanne University and 53% of those studying for a vocational degree at the University of Applied Sciences, but also a third of those attending the Federal Engineering School (*Ecole polytechnique fédérale de Lausanne – EPFL*), as against only 10% in 1980 (BEFH, 2014: 8). In the Vaud canton, women represent 78% of students in Social work, 65% of students in the Humanities and Social sciences and in Business management, 58% of students in Geosciences and 57% of students in Biology and Medicine (BEFH, 2014: 9). Additional data from the Vaud statistical office enables us to complete the information on women's representation amongst teachers, at different levels of the educational system. Thus, in the Vaud canton, over 94% of pre-school and primary school teachers are women, as compared to 58% in lower-level (compulsory) secondary schools, 46% in higher-level secondary schools and 39% in secondary vocational schools (BEFH, 2014: 9).

The proportion of women academics in tertiary education varies considerably by type of higher education institution (see **Table A.4.**). The EPFL has fewer than 10% female professors, whereas the University of Lausanne has about a quarter of female academics and the Applied Science Schools about a third (BEFH, 2014: 9). This is slightly higher than the national rate of feminisation of academic staff, which currently stands at 18% (as compared to just 2% in 1980).

5.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

Switzerland is characterized by relatively high activity rates for men and women, in all age categories (**Table A.5.**). Women now represent over 40% of the Swiss labour

force, with relatively little variation in this figure across the life-course (**Table II.1.**). On the basis of these data, it is clear that the Swiss gender regime has undergone a significant evolution over the past thirty years.

In 1980, only half (52%) of Swiss women aged 25-49 were economically active. By 1990, this figure had risen to 72% before increasing further, to 80% in 2010. However, despite the fact that more and more Swiss women are entering the labour market, they are increasingly **unlikely** to be working full-time. As shown in **Table A.7.**, over 50% of women worked full-time in the early 1990s, as against barely 42% in 2012. Nowadays, about a quarter of workingwomen have jobs that are less than half time and the remainder occupy jobs with a duration ranging from 50%-90% of a full-time position.

Women's activity rates are influenced by their level of qualification, but not to the same extent as in some of the other GARCIA partner countries (**Table II.2.**). For women aged 25-49 years, there is a 16% difference between the economic activity rates of women with the lowest educational credentials (ISCED 0-2 = 69%) and those with some form of tertiary qualification (ISCED 5-8 = 85%). Indeed, for the same intermediate age group (25-49 years), women's activity rates are as sensitive to marital status as they are to qualification levels: In 2011, almost 90% of single (never married) women are in the labour market, as compared to 74% of married women, 87% of divorced women and 77% of widows (**Table II.3.**).

Likewise, women's activity rates vary considerably according to their parental status and according to the age of their youngest child (**Table II.4.**). Thus, over 87% of single or married women without children are in the labour market, compared to just 67% of those with a youngest child aged less than 3 years. Mothers of pre-school aged children (3-5 years) are also disproportionately absent from the labour market (30% not economically active), but they tend to return to work (usually on a part-time basis) once their children are older: 81% of mothers of 6-16 year olds are in employment, as are 84% of mothers of adult children. As we will see in more detail below, this variability of women's activity rates is largely explained by the lack of

affordable pre-school childcare services and by the absence of after-school activities for older children.

These relatively high activity rates are also associated with the widespread adoption of part-time working patterns by Swiss mothers. Switzerland has one of the highest rates of part-time employment in Europe. In 2013, 12% of men and 62% of women work part-time (**Table II.15.**). However, as indicated in **Table II.11**, women's share of full-time jobs has been relatively stable since the beginning of the 2000s (28%), whereas their share of part-time employment has marginally fallen over time (from 80% in 2000 to 77% in 2013). These figures should be considered in relation to the particularly long average full-time working hours in Switzerland. In 2012, the full-time working week was, on average, almost 42 hours per week (**Table A.6.**). By law, people are not allowed to work more than 45 hours a week (extended to 50 hours in certain domains). Normal working hours cover the time-span from 6am to 8pm. Between 8pm and 11pm workers are considered to be on an "evening shift", which doesn't bring any compensation rights.⁴⁹ However, OFS data on the private sector suggests that average working time in research & development is slightly **lower** than in other types of employment.

As indicated in **Table A.7.**, about a quarter of the female labour force work less than half-time, whilst just over a third work between 50% and 90% of a full-time working week (the remaining 43% work full-time). In short, a woman working in so-called "long part-time" jobs in Switzerland may actually be spending more time in employment than some of their full-time counterparts in other national contexts.

The OFS notes that only about 7% of the labour force is "under employed", although this category is mostly (over 75%) composed of women who would like to increase their working time, although not necessarily to a full-time position (**Table A.8.**).

In terms of employment status, the data in **Table II.12.**, indicates a small increase in women's representation amongst employers over the past 20 years: from 21.5% in

⁴⁹ <http://www.guidesocial.ch/fr/fiche/139/>

1990 to 26% in 2013. Their share of salaried jobs has also increased marginally over the same period, as has their share of self-employment (+10% since 1990). In opposition to this tendency, there has been a sharp drop in women's share of family workers, from 74% in 1990 to 57% in 2013.

As in many other European countries, women tend to be over-represented in public sector employment and this gender segregation has become more marked over time: In 1980, women made up 38% of public sector employees and 36% of private sector workers. By 2013, women were 56% of public sector workers, but only 44% of private sector workers. This segregation is at least partially explained by the concentration of the most feminized occupations in the public or semi-public sector.

The overall increase in women's share of public and private sector employment is not necessarily reflected at all levels of the occupational hierarchy. Despite the fact that most categories (with the notable exception of service and sales workers and of agricultural and fishery workers) have seen their share of female workers increase, this change has not been uniform over the labour market. Women remain largely represented in so-called "elementary" (unskilled) occupations; their share of these jobs has actually increased over time: from 58% in 1990 to 67% in 2013. But changes have also taken place at the opposite end of the occupational hierarchy. In 1990, women made up a quarter (24%) of senior officials and managers. Twenty years later, they represent a third (33%) of this category. The most spectacular increase has taken place in the professions, where women's share of employment has increased from 28% in 1990 to 45% in 2013 (**Table II.6.**). The number of women with management responsibilities has also doubled since the mid-1990s, but remains below the equivalent figures for men: almost 6% of working women have management responsibilities in 2011, as against just under 10% of their male counterparts (**Table II.17.**).

In comparison to its' European neighbours, Switzerland has suffered relatively little from the effects of the post-2008 economic recession. Notably, unemployment rates have remained well below the European average to date. Furthermore, in 2013, women's overall unemployment rate is almost identical to that of their male

counterparts, in all age groups (**Table II.9.**). Likewise, the proportion of temporary / fixed-term employment is relatively low in Switzerland: 6.5% of men and almost 8% of women occupy these kind of flexible jobs, a much lower proportion than in many of Switzerland’s neighbouring countries (**Table II.16.**).

These relatively favourable employment data are partly due to the “cushion effect” of Switzerland’s migrant and transnational working populations. In 2013, foreigners’ make up no less than 30% of the Swiss labour market.⁵⁰ Part of this unusually high figure can be explained by the restrictive citizenship regime and the very complex naturalisation procedures that prevail in the country. Thus, a significant proportion of the so-called “foreign” population may have been resident in Switzerland for many years, or indeed have been born to foreign parents and trained in the country. As indicated in **Table A.9.**, the vast majority of the foreigners currently working in Switzerland are of European origin. In addition, Switzerland has 265 000 transnational workers (i.e. people who work in the country, but live in one of its’ neighbouring countries), again, usually of European nationality.

Foreigners working in Switzerland have historically experienced higher unemployment rates than their Swiss counterparts. In 2012, 7% of foreigners were unemployed, at a time when the average unemployment rate was only 3%. A number of structural differences explain this phenomenon. Firstly, about 30% of foreign workers in Switzerland have low levels of qualification (no diploma above school-leaving certificate), as against just 12% of the Swiss working population. Secondly, foreign workers tend to be concentrated in the industrial and manufacturing sectors, where companies are more sensitive to cyclical economic fluctuations. Finally, young workers (under 40 years old) represent a larger proportion of foreign workers than those with Swiss nationality.⁵¹ Foreign and transnational workers have to obtain a permit before they can work in Switzerland. The different kinds of resident / work permit are defined as follows:

- The B permit: allocated to any EU citizen who has already found a job in Switzerland. Valid for 5 years (renewable).

⁵⁰ <http://www.travailler-en-suisse.ch/perspectives-2013-marche-travail-suisse.html>

⁵¹ <http://www.travailler-en-suisse.ch/perspectives-2013-marche-travail-suisse.html>

- The L permit: allocated on a short-term basis, for a maximum of 12 months (renewable).
- The C permit: allocated for unrestricted residential authorisation, usually only allocated to EU citizens who have already been working in Switzerland for more than 5 years.⁵²
- The G permit: allocated to transnational workers, who are obliged to leave Switzerland at least once a week. Dependant on the prior negotiation of an employment contract with a Swiss employer, or proof of self-employed status on Swiss soil.
- The F and K permits: allocated to asylum seekers and refugees.

Data from the OFS would seem to suggest that men and women are equally represented amongst the beneficiaries of these different categories of foreign residents.

Finally, it is important to mention the specificities of the gender pay gap in the Swiss context. Despite recent attempts by some political parties and trade union organizations to get legislation adopted at the federal level, there is **no legal minimum wage in Switzerland**. However, employers' and workers' representative organisations have negotiated minimum wage recommendations in almost all of the main economic branches. These social protection agreements would seem to have benefitted the least well-qualified members of the labour market, since the gender pay gap is lowest at the bottom end of the occupational hierarchy.

Overall, the gender pay gap is estimated at approximately 18%, with little change over the past decade. Contrary to many other European countries, there is only a marginal (2%) difference in the gender pay gap between the public and private sectors of the economy (**Table A.10.**), to the advantage of public sector employees. The range of the pay gap is nevertheless quite large (from 13% to 30%) according to occupational status and qualification levels, with the largest inequalities being found

⁵² In fact, most foreign tenured academics have immediate access to this type of permit on arrival in the country.

amongst university graduates and senior managers (**Table A.11.**). The importance of this gap is probably due to the high proportion of individually negotiated bonuses and performance based financial rewards in the remuneration of highly qualified workers. The gender pay gap is actually lowest amongst the self-employed.

As a result of these differences, women make up two-thirds of those receiving the lowest gross wages (below 4000 Swiss Francs a month⁵³, for a full-time equivalent position), but only 27% of those in the highest salary band (above 8000 Swiss Francs / month) (see **Table A.12.**). This unequal access to economic resources obviously has an influence on the decisions women and couples make regarding their investment in a career and in the family at strategic points in the life calendar.

5.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

The recent demographic evolutions taking place in Switzerland are similar to those affecting all European societies: a drop in marriage and birth rates, an increase in extra-marital births and divorce rates, increasing life-expectancy and an ageing population, with potentially increasing care demands.

It is widely recognised that Switzerland is trailing behind its European neighbours in dealing with the falling birth rate and the challenges created by its commitment to “active ageing” policies, which may reduce the availability of grandmothers as informal childcare providers.

With a birth rate that currently stands at 1.53 children, Switzerland is located in the middle to bottom range of European countries as regards fertility. Within the country, the final birth rate is highest in the French-speaking cantons (Vaud = 1.60 in 2013) and lowest in the Italian-speaking Ticino region (1.38), with medium levels in the German cantons (Berne and Zurich = 1.5).⁵⁴

⁵³ 1 Swiss Franc = 0.80 Euros (before the recent changes to the currency exchange controls in Switzerland).

⁵⁴ <http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/themen/01/06/blank/key/02/05.html>

As indicated in **Table A.13.**, along with Austria, the Netherlands and Germany, Switzerland also has quite a high rate of intended childlessness, particularly in the German-speaking cantons and in the largest cities (Miettinen & Szalma, 2014: 37). However, the relationship between education credentials and the decision not to have any children is rather complex. Although some authors suggest that childlessness is more prevalent amongst women with tertiary level qualifications (see Steinhauer, 2013, for example), this correlation is not systematically confirmed in other studies (Miettinen & Szalma, 2014).

Issues around fertility rates and working mothers have been relatively high on the Swiss political agenda over the past 10 years, with an initial focus on paid maternity leave being slowly replaced by debates on paternity / parental leave policies (Valarino, 2013). Although maternity leave as a right has been enshrined in the Swiss Constitution since 1945, it took no fewer than five parliamentary debates (in 1974, 1984, 1987, 1999 and, finally, 2004) and some 60 years for the principle of **paid** maternity leave to be imposed by law.

Thus, it is only since the 1st of July 2005 that Swiss mothers are entitled to 14 weeks statutory maternity leave, paid at 80% of their previous salary. In some cases, the adoption of this Federal paid maternity leave legislation was disadvantageous for women in the more progressive cantons or working for particular (usually multinational) companies. Thus, for example, prior to 2005, public-sector employees in Bern were entitled to 16 weeks leave, paid at 100% of their salary. Some of these more advantageous provisions have been maintained whereas others have been brought into line with the Federal legislation.

In order to be eligible for this leave, women must have worked continuously for a minimum of 5 months in the period prior to the birth / adoption of their child. Unfortunately, many of the FNS (Swiss National Science Foundation) international mobility grants available to post-docs do not count as employment and do not, therefore, provide access to paid maternity leave, nor indeed to standard social insurance cover, including pension contributions.

As yet, there is no legal provision for paternity leave in Switzerland (Valarino, 2013). As was previously the case for maternity leave, some employers do provide some opportunity for fathers to spend time with their new-born children, but the duration of these provisions is extremely limited (from 1-2 days to 2 weeks at the most). Research has shown that, even in companies that have introduced a short period of paternity leave on a voluntary basis, social acceptance of such measures is still very limited, particularly for men with management responsibilities (Valarino, 2013).

Perhaps the most significant characteristics of family-formation patterns and policies in Switzerland concern 1) the very limited provision of child-care facilities, including after-school activities for older children and 2) the very high cost of access to the rare child-care services available.

In a cross-national comparative perspective, Switzerland appears amongst the pool of countries where pre-school child-care facilities are the least developed. In 2014, almost two-thirds of under 3 year-olds do not spend any time at all in institutional care structures, and only 5% of this age-group are taken care of in *crèches* or day-care centres for more than 30 hours a week (**Table A.14.**).

Even when we consider a broader age range (0-12 years), it appears that 40% of Swiss children receive no formal or informal care services; beyond the time they spend in school, they are exclusively looked after by their parents, usually their mothers. Again, it is quite frequent for working parents to combine some kind of formal and informal care solutions for their children, always on a part-time basis (**Table A.15.**). This implies a lot of “juggling”, according to the availability of professional or family carers. It is quite common for grandparents to take care of their grandchildren one day a week, in order to reduce the cost of institutional child-care services, even when these are theoretically available (**Table A.16.**).

A study carried out in 2006 by an economist from Saint Gallen University showed that the combination of a household-based income tax system and the “redistributive” pricing system of *crèche* services made it economically counter-productive for mothers of two or more children in Zurich to work full-time (Bühler, 2006). A follow-

up study on the French-speaking cantons was commissioned by the Federal Bureau of Equality, and published in 2008 under the title “When women working costs them more than it rewards them” (Bütler, 2008). This study had a significant impact on public opinion and led to the decision to increase the availability of *crèche* places in a number of Swiss cantons, including the Vaud. Nevertheless, there is still a lot of political opposition to the provision of public / subsidised child-care services for pre-school children, particularly in the German-speaking cantons. In the run-up to a 2014 referendum on the proposition for the cantons to increase spending on the provision of pre-school child-care services, billboards across the whole country were covered with posters of babies crying behind prison bars. Needless to say, the proposal to encourage cantons to increase pre-school child-care provision did not obtain a majority vote. Once again, there was a clear divide between the French-speaking and the German-speaking cantons on this question.

A more recent study based on the same methodology as the Saint Gallen research (marginal cost of each 20% increase in women’s working time) and on data for the Bern canton reaches much the same conclusions as the previous publications. When they are married with two children, it is economically disadvantageous for women to work more than 40% of full-time. This is true whether they are living in households with relatively high or relatively low-income levels (Schwegler & Schultheiss, 2014). The only case where it is financially viable for women to work full-time concerns female-headed single-parent families in the low-income bracket (*idem*).

These results help to understand the compromises that Swiss parents have to make as regards work-family arrangements. Although there is a tendency for men and women to adhere to relatively “conservative” or “traditional” values, in opposition to full-time employment for the mother of young children, structural factors would seem to have more influence on their actual practices than their attitudes. Several studies on the transition to parenthood have shown that almost all Swiss parents end up adopting the so-called “modified male breadwinner” gender arrangement (men working full-time (long hours) + women working part-time (half-time) when the children are young), even when they had expressed clear and shared aspirations for

gender equality and women’s financial autonomy before the birth of their first child (Bühlmann, Elcheroth and Tattamanti, 2010).

5.4 Domain 4. Care & work-life policies and practices

The working-time arrangements of Swiss men and women thus reflect the structural constraints that continue to limit women’s access to the labour market. As shown in **Tables A.17., and A.18.**, only a very small minority of mothers live in dual full-time worker households. Indeed, this is only the case for just over half of couples without children. Part-time employment for women is clearly a norm that penetrates all aspects of Swiss life and this is likely to influence their chances of access to an academic career and particularly to the top of the academic occupational hierarchy.

Not surprisingly, these working-time arrangements are associated with a very unequal distribution of unpaid domestic and care activities. **Table A.19.**, indicates that, in each family configuration, the total working time of men and women is relatively similar, but that women’s working time is proportionally more frequently devoted to unpaid domestic activities than to paid work. Only a quarter of Swiss couples declare “shared” responsibility for domestic activities and this proportion is lower amongst parents, particularly as they get older (**Table A.20.**). There is a higher level of shared responsibility amongst the younger generations, but no suggestion that these more egalitarian family configurations will be pursued once children appear on the scene (**Table A.21.**).

5.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

Equal opportunity policies and practices: Historical overview

As indicated in the following summary time-line, Switzerland has never been a historical forerunner in the adoption of equal opportunity measures. The first version of the Federal Law on Equality between women and men (LEg) was adopted in 1996, and represents the main contribution to the constitutional duty to promote equality between women and men, which was defined as early as 1945. After the adoption of this law, it has become illegal to practise direct or indirect gender discrimination against women in the labour market, including pay discrimination and sexual

harassment in the workplace.⁵⁵ The LEg allows for positive action measures in order to compensate for past discriminatory practices.

Despite having a very poor record in combatting gender discrimination, once equal opportunity legislation has been adopted, Switzerland performs relatively well on the policy implementation criteria: the existing policies receive relatively high levels of financial support, they are quite strongly supported by institutions at different levels of the complex political structure and their evaluation is generally taken seriously.

Thus, for example, as of 2003, the Federal Bureau for Equality between men and women produced a simple computer programme (Logib), which enables all companies and public sector administrations to check their own gender pay gap. The Federal Law on Public Markets requires that any company with 50 or more employees applying to provide goods or services to public sector actors must prove respect for the equal pay principle. The BFEG is also entitled to carry out spot checks on companies, also using their own computer programme.

This combination of the slow adoption of equality measures, but their conscientious elaboration, funding and institutionalisation is probably quite rare in the European context. It makes the description and analysis of the Swiss equality regime quite difficult, because it is possible to read the situation alternatively through the lens of historical conservatism or through the lens of institutional efficacy.

⁵⁵ OFS (2008) *Vers l'égalité entre femmes et hommes. Situation et évolution*, Neuchâtel and Berne, OFS & BEFH.

Time-line of gender equality measures adopted at the federal level in Switzerland.

1887	The first female Swiss lawyer, Emilie Kempin - Spyri (1853-1901) triggers the first trial for unequal treatment between men and women judged by the Federal Court. She argues that Article 4 of the Federal Constitution, " All Swiss are equal before the law," also implies equality between women and men. The Federal Court decides otherwise, judging Kempin – Spyri's interpretation "as audacious as it is new."
1971	Women's right to vote and stand for election is enshrined in the Federal Constitution (some 123 years after male suffrage) by popular vote on February 7: 65.7 % of the (male) voters approved the proposal. The cantons remained free to set up (or not) women's suffrage at the cantonal level.
1976	Creation of the Federal Commission for Women's Issues , on January 28th, by the Federal Council. This extra-parliamentary commission is the first public body in charge of gender equality in Switzerland.
1981	Article 4.2 of the Federal Constitution defines the principle of equality between men and women. Decision adopted by a 60% majority vote, on June 14. A large part of existing legislation was revised to reflect the requirement of equality.
1982	Based on the new Article 4 paragraph 2 of the Federal Constitution on gender equality, the Federal Court declared unconstitutional the practice hitherto accepted of applying distinct (and more selective) selection criteria for girls and boys for access to different higher education courses. This had been standard practice in the Vaud canton until that date.
1988	The Federal Office for Equality between women and men created, on 1 September.
	The new marriage law comes into force. It ratifies the formal equality between spouses.
1990	The canton of Appenzell Inner Rhodes, the last canton not to have introduced women's suffrage, was forced to do so. In its judgment of 26 November, the Federal Court unanimously ordered the canton to include women in the terms Landleute " and "other Swiss ", in the cantonal constitution.
	Creation of the Cantonal Gender Equality Office in the Vaud canton.

Time-line of gender equality measures adopted at the federal level in Switzerland (2)

1991	National Women's Strike: across the country, hundreds of thousands of women take part. National Women's Strike: across the country, hundreds of thousands of women take part.
1996	The Federal Act on Equality between Women and Men (Equality Act - LEg) comes into force on 1 July. The central point is the widespread prohibition of discrimination in the workplace.
2000	The new Federal Constitution enters into force on 1 January. The article on equality between women and men (see 1981) is reproduced as Article 8.3. It only clarify that the term encompasses formal and substantial equality.
	The revision of the divorce law takes effect. It introduces the principle of equal treatment between men and women.
2002	The Federal Office for Gender Equality (BFEG) launches a Fairplay-at-home campaign, followed, a year later, by Fairplay-at-work. These initiatives include a whole range of measures to promote the reconciliation of family and professional life.
2004	September 26: After 60 years campaigning, Switzerland finally adopts paid maternity leave legislation, adopted by a 55.4% majority. Swiss maternity leave for a period of fourteen weeks guarantees working mothers 80% of their salary.
2005	June 5: a 58% majority of voters accept the law on registered partnerships .
2008	Paternity leave for staff of the federal administration is increased from two to five days.

Source: Commission fédérale pour les questions féminines
<http://www.ekf.admin.ch/themen/00503/index.html?lang=fr>

Equal opportunity/promotion of women in science policies and practices

The situation in Switzerland is quite unique because it does not belong to the European Union and is therefore not obliged to adopt EU directives and laws, but it has nevertheless adapted its' higher education institutions and programmes to the « Bologna process » and is a partner in many EU-funded equal opportunity initiatives. Although this field of study is relatively new, Swiss institutions have produced a considerable amount of statistical data and reports on the low representation of

women at the top of the academic hierarchy. There are signs of quite strong institutional commitment to the fight against the horizontal and vertical segregation processes that limit women's access to academic careers.

Although women's underrepresentation in universities was already being discussed in feminist circles by the late 1970s, this issue only appeared on the political agenda in the early 1990s. The data produced by a number of institutions and individual researchers was important in revealing the discriminatory nature of what was presumed to be a « neutral » meritocratic selection process (Fassa and Gauthier 2010 ; Fassa and Kradolfer, 2010).

Time-line of gender equality measures in relation to women & science in Switzerland

1868	Marie (Heim-) Vögtlin (1845-1916) is the first Swiss woman to undertake higher education . She qualified as a medical doctor in 1872, at the University of Zurich.
1906 – 1918	In 1906, women made up a quarter of the student population (of which more than 90% were of foreign nationality). The First World War put an abrupt end to the expansion of women's studies. The percentage of female students fell to 10%, between 1925 and 1955, stagnated between 12% and 14%
1957	Erna Hamburger (1911-1988) is the first Full (extraordinary) professor (in electrometrics) to be appointed at a technical high school (Lausanne).
1970-...	Discussions around feminist research content starts. Feminists are able to put pressure on the political institutions of Education and Science and satisfy some of their claims.

Time-line of gender equality measures in relation to women & science in Switzerland (2)


1973-1974	Women make up a quarter of all students in Switzerland and this time the share of Swiss women reaches almost 70%.
1983	The Swiss Association Women, Feminism and Research is founded on 7 May in Bern. It aims to promote academic feminist research in connection with the women's movement.
1992	Virtually all Swiss universities have created a delegate position on women's issues or a commission for equality.
	The Swiss National Science Foundation decides to promote gender equality through a national research program. Six million Swiss Francs are available for the National Research Programme No 35 "Women, Law and Society », for a 5 year period.
	A budget of 2.3 billion Swiss Francs for the promotion of universities and Higher Education colleges is subject to the condition that at least a third of the academic jobs created in these institutions between 1992 and 1995 are occupied by women. In 1993, 41.3 % of the positions in question are held by women.
1997	Historian Regina Wecker occupies the first academic position professor in gender studies in Switzerland.
	A joint post-graduate degree in Gender studies created by the universities of Geneva and Lausanne.
1998	The Federal Council decides to promote equal opportunities between men and women in universities. The Declaration on the Promotion of Education, Research and Technology, 2000-2003, of 25 November 1998: « provides that the incentive program for young academics applies a female quota of 40 %. In addition, the number of female university professors is set to double between 1997 (6.3%) and 2006.
1999	Parliament adopts a 16 million Francs budget for the equality measures in universities and colleges. The Federal Programme for Equal Opportunities to be launched in 2000.
2000	The Incentive Law for Universities of 8 October 1999 comes into force on 1 April. It expressly defined as one of its objectives the achievement of equality between women and men at all academic levels.
	The federal "Equal opportunities for women and men in universities » programme enabled the creation of Equal Opportunity Offices (<i>Bureaux de l'égalité des chances - BEC</i>) in all of the Swiss universities.
	The first professorship Gender Studies, Lausanne occupied by Patricia Roux.
2001	The Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) abolished the age limit for women wishing to receive a research grant. As of 2008, biological age is replaced by a so-called «academic age» for men and women in the regulations for the allocation of research grants.

2002	April 2002: Creation of the virtual platform Gender Campus Switzerland, for information and discussion on issues relating to gender equality and gender studies.
	December 2002: More women than men start an undergraduate university course.
2006	Women are for the first time more likely to obtain a university degree than their male counterparts.
2007	Women's share of professorships doubled, from 7% to 14%, since 2000.

As indicated in the following Table, since the beginning of the 2000s, four successive «Equal opportunity in Universities» programmes have demonstrated a tangible political will to promote women's access to all levels of academic institutions. The actions and recommendations of the Swiss National Science Foundation (FNS), the Swiss University Conference (CUS) and the Rectors' Conference of Swiss Universities (CRUS) have all taken contributed to different aspects of these programmes. Each of these programmes has formulated several distinct but interrelated objectives:

1. Encouragement for the recruitment of more women to tenured academic positions (including through direct financial incentives to those universities who nominate female professors, see **Table A.22.**);
2. Mentoring services for junior researchers, including PhD candidates (see **Tables A.23 and A.24.**), through coaching programmes and developing support networks, dedicated research and international mobility grants, career advice and monitoring systems;
3. Support for the development and institutionalisation of gender studies and research on equal opportunities and gender discrimination;
4. Measures to promote work-life balance in academic careers, including direct support for the provision of university-based day nurseries and/or emergency child-care services. Since 2008, a budget has also been dedicated to support for dual-career couples (DCC) within the Swiss academic labour market.

Aims and objectives of the Federal Equal Opportunity Programmes at Swiss Universities and Universities of Applied Sciences, since 2000

<p style="text-align: center;">10 Cantonal Universities</p> <p>Program Objectives</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Institutionalization of equal opportunity of women and men / gender equality. 2. To achieve meaningful progress in gender equality (budgeting, academic staff, monitoring, ...) 3. Structurally implement Gender Studies at Swiss universities. <p>Action plans</p> <p>For the period of 2013-2016 the universities have established <i>individual</i> action plans specifically tailored to their needs based on the following:</p> <p>Fields of action:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Establishment of gender equality in the university structures and as part of quality management 2. Women professors (goal 25% cat. I, 40% cat. II) and women in academic leadership positions 3. Gender-sensitive actions in the promotion of young academics (PhD students and postdocs) 4. Support for students, staff and researchers with family/care obligations 5. Women and STEM 6. Human resources (HR) and organisational development 7. Other/new measures (e.g. Stereotype campaigns) <p>4-year Budget: CHF 13,7 m.</p> <p>Initial 4-year-program launch: 2000</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">7 Universities of applied sciences</p> <p>Program Objectives</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reducing horizontal segregation mainly in Health and STEM 2. Reducing vertical segregation (pass through the glass ceiling) 3. In general enhance Diversity and cooperation <p>Action plans</p> <p>For the period of 2013-2016 the universities of applied sciences have again established <i>individual</i> action plans specifically tailored to their needs based on the following</p> <p>Fields of action :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Institutionalization of gender equality policies in different areas 2. Human resources development and development of young academics 3. Recruitment and student development 4. Teaching and research 5. Others <p>4-year Budget: CHF 10 m.</p> <p>Initial 4-year-program launch: 2000</p> 	<p style="text-align: center;">swissuniversities</p> <p>Future frame conditions</p> <p>From 2015 onwards, a new law the Higher Education Funding and Coordination Act (HEdA) will regulate the coordination and funding of the Swiss Higher Education sector.</p> <p>Gender Equality is included in: Art. 30, Institutional Accreditation</p> <p>Equal opportunity of women and men/diversity/gender equality must be considered.</p> <p>Art. 59, Project-based Funding</p> <p>Four-year project funding is primarily given to projects of national importance. The promotion of equal opportunity of women and men is one of the listed topics.</p> <p>A first project application is actually under elaboration under the guidance of the coordination group equal opportunity of swissuniversities (from 12-2014 on as official Delegation) and will be finally evaluated (2-step process) and decided upon in 2016 by the Swiss Science & Innovation Council and the Federal Parliament.</p> 
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Further information:

- <http://www.crus.ch/information-programme/programme-cus-p-4-equal-opportunity-gender-studies.html?L=2>
- <http://www.sbf.admin.ch/fh/02141/02152/index.html?lang=en>
- <http://www.swissuniversities.ch/en/organisation/coordination-groups/>
- <http://www.kfh.ch/>

Poster by:

Dr. Gabriela Obexer-Ruff, coordinator, Rector's Conference of the Swiss Universities (CRUS) and Yvonne Jänchen, project manager, State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation (SERI)

The fourth stage of the Federal Gender Equality programme (2013-2016) enabled each university to define its' own priorities and objectives, in the form of a specific Action Plan, within the framework of the Federal programme. At the University of Lausanne, this institutionally tailored philosophy was further decentralised, in order to take internal (e.g. disciplinary) variations into account. Thus, each of the seven Faculties has been invited to adapt the University-level Action Plan (Vision 50/50) to their particular profile and needs.

The Swiss National Science Foundation (FNS) has also introduced an impressive range of measures to improve women's access to research positions. Amongst other things, it has made regular changes to its' regulations (recommended quotas for research funds and grants, creating equal opportunity and promotion of women committees and administrative support structures, lifting age limits on grant eligibility criteria, etc.).

The FNS has a full-time Equality Officer, who has also been actively involved in EU-level equality initiatives, notably through the work of the Helsinki group at the European Commission. Thanks to this institutionalisation, the FNS has produced a considerable amount of data on the extent to which different selection procedures may be discriminatory towards female candidates (Goastallec et al, 2007; Goastallec et al, 2008). As indicated in **Table A.26.**, women's share of applicants for FNS funding has increased marginally, from 15% in 2005, to 22% in 2013. Over the same time period, their share of projects selected for funding has also increased, from 13% to 19%. However, the success rate of female applications is systematically lower than those of their male counterparts.

Furthermore, it would seem that the amount of funding requested by female applicants (as well as the amount actually offered to them by the FNS) is significantly lower than the sums made available to their male counterparts (**Table A.27.**). Unfortunately, the data is not broken down by disciplinary field and it may simply be that the average project from disciplines where women are the least represented may command higher funding levels than those from the humanities or Social sciences.

In 2014, the directorate of the FNS agreed to the creation of a Gender Equality Advisory Board, composed of a panel of international experts, who are invited to make recommendations in favour of improving women’s access to all of the career support measures, including suggestions for additional data collection procedures.⁵⁶

Family-friendly measures adopted (**and planned**) by the Swiss National Science Foundation, since 2000

Early and Advanced Postdoc.Mobility

<http://www.snf.ch/en/funding/careers/early-postdoc-mobility/Pages/default.aspx>

- Maternity leave: 16 weeks
- Paternity leave: up to 16 weeks
- Higher rates for grantees accompanied by spouses
- Additional child allowance

Advanced Postdoc.Mobility

<http://www.snf.ch/en/funding/careers/advanced-postdoc-mobility/Pages/default.aspx>

- Splitting of the stay possible
- Conducting part of the fellowship in Switzerland possible
- Return grants

In all funding instruments

- Part-time work possible
- 120% support grant (postdoc level **and doctoral level**)

<http://www.snf.ch/en/funding/supplementary-measures/120-support-grant/Pages/default.aspx>

Source: FNS, internal document.

Defining specific targets (doubling the proportion of women professors from 7% in 1998 to 14% in 2006 – which has been achieved - and then to 25% in 2012 – a figure that has still not been reached in any Swiss university) only constitutes part of the philosophy underlying the programmes, which primarily aim to integrate the principle of equality in all academic structures (in line with the aims of gender mainstreaming).

Evaluating the effects of equal opportunity / promotion of women in science policies

⁵⁶ See: <http://www.snf.ch/en/theSNSF/research-policies/gender-equality/Pages/default.aspx>

Although the 25% women professors has yet to be reached, there has been a significant increase in the feminisation of intermediate levels of the academic hierarchy. Women's share of funded PhD students and post-doc (non-tenured) research positions increased from 27% to 40% between 1998 and 2007 (OFS, 2008 : 9-10). In addition, women now represent over 40% of non-tenured scientific collaborators and non-professorial teaching staff in universities. They have also been relatively successful in achieving academic recognition in the Universities of Applied Sciences, where they are expected to represent a quarter of professors by 2023.

However, one of the fundamental characteristics of this feminisation process is the fact that it has not always been to the sole benefit of Swiss women. Whilst women have increased their share of university professorships, from 9% in 2006 to 17% in 2010, the proportion of foreigners amongst the female academic population has increased from 46% to almost 57% over the same period (**Table A.25.**)⁵⁷ This would seem to suggest that the Swiss gender regime continues to pose material and symbolic constraints on women who have been brought up in that particular context, even when wide-reaching equal opportunity measures are introduced within academic institutions.

For the period 2017-2020, several proposals have already been submitted to the federal government in order to obtain agreement for the extension of the equal opportunity measures in universities (and their extension to the universities of Applied Sciences). As in the previous stages, this Federal policy would imply matched funding from the cantons and the institutions. Given the likely reduction of funding available for the Equality programme, the 17 applications received to date will probably not be funded. It remains to be seen on what criteria the selection procedure will be based.

Conclusions

This brief overview of available data would suggest that the barriers to women's equal access to a successful academic career are still quite numerous in the Swiss

⁵⁷ OFS : su-f-15-02.03_HEU-2010.xls.

context, despite the adoption of wide-ranging and relatively well-funded equal opportunity measures.

The dominant Swiss gender regime is characterised by increasing activity rates across all age and educational groups of women, but also by some of the highest levels of women’s part-time working, particularly amongst mothers of young children. In addition to this typically female working pattern, the division of domestic labour and unpaid care activities is particularly unequal; with women taking responsibility for almost 80% of daily household chores.

This “modified male breadwinner” gender regime is bolstered by a number of structural characteristics of Swiss society: very low levels of childcare provision, extremely expensive childcare costs, high levels of horizontal and vertical segregation, a relatively large gender pay gap, particularly at the upper reaches of the occupational hierarchy.

It is particularly notable that the small progression achieved in women’s access to an academic career over the past 10 years has tended to benefit women of foreign nationality rather than their Swiss counterparts.

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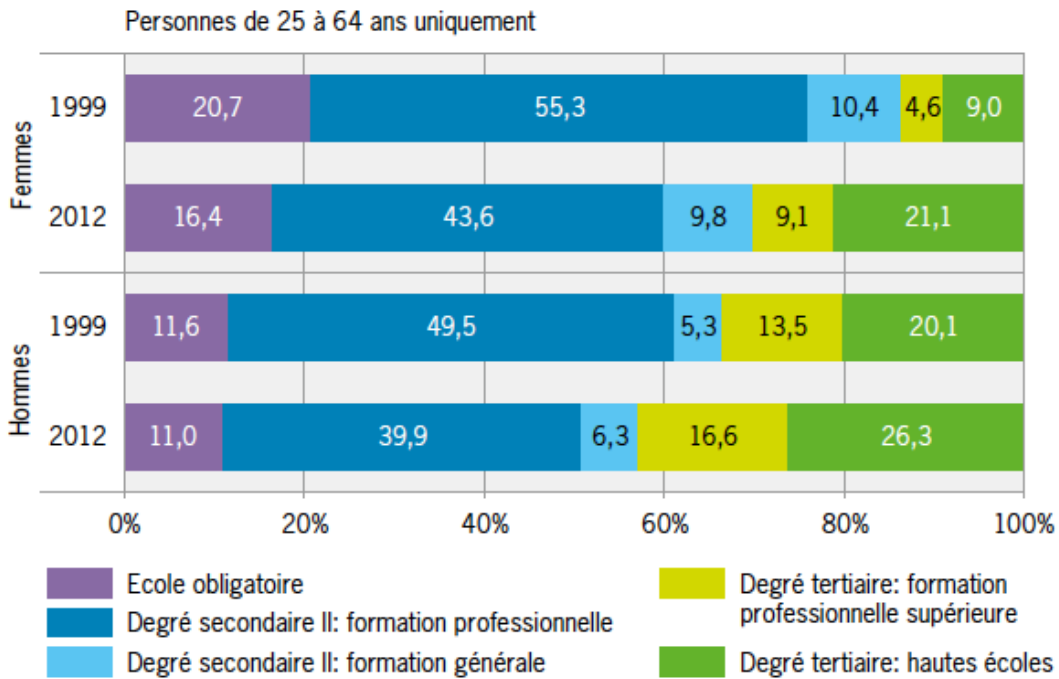
Valarino Isabel (2014) *The emergence of parental and paternity leaves in Switzerland: a challenge to gendered representations and practices of parenthood?*, PhD Thesis, Université de Lausanne, Faculté des sciences sociales et politiques, 373 pages.

Additional data Switzerland

Table A.1. Evolution of the level of qualification of the Swiss population aged 25-64 years, by sex, 1999 - 2012

Niveau de formation de la population résidente, en 1999 et 2012

G 1



Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESPA

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Table A.2. Evolution of the proportion of tertiary-level qualifications in the Swiss population, by sex, 1990 - 2011

Taux de diplômes des hautes écoles, 1990–2011 G 3

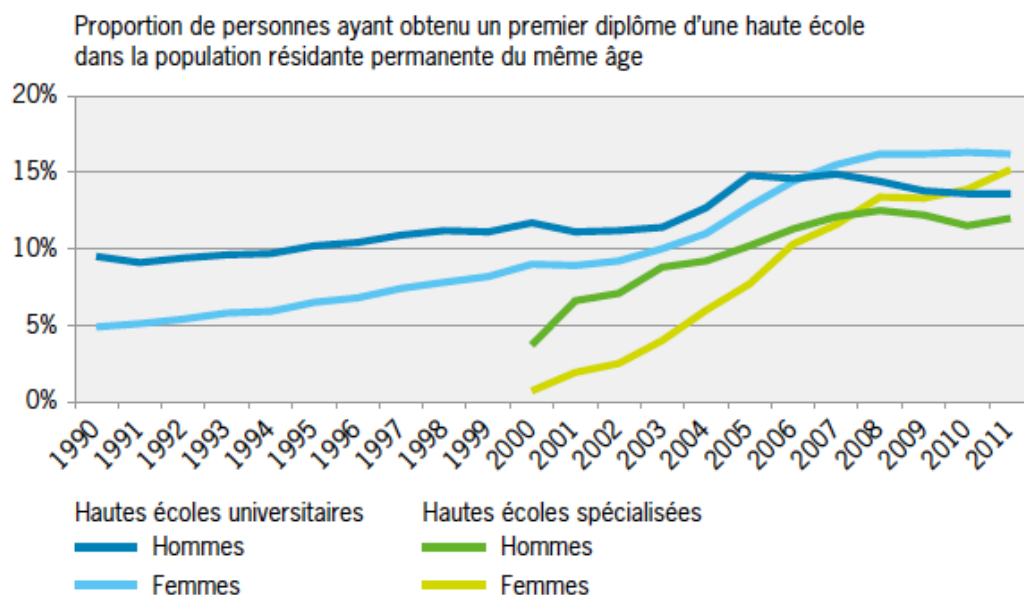


Table A.3. Percentage of 20-24 year olds not in employment, education or training (NEET), 2012

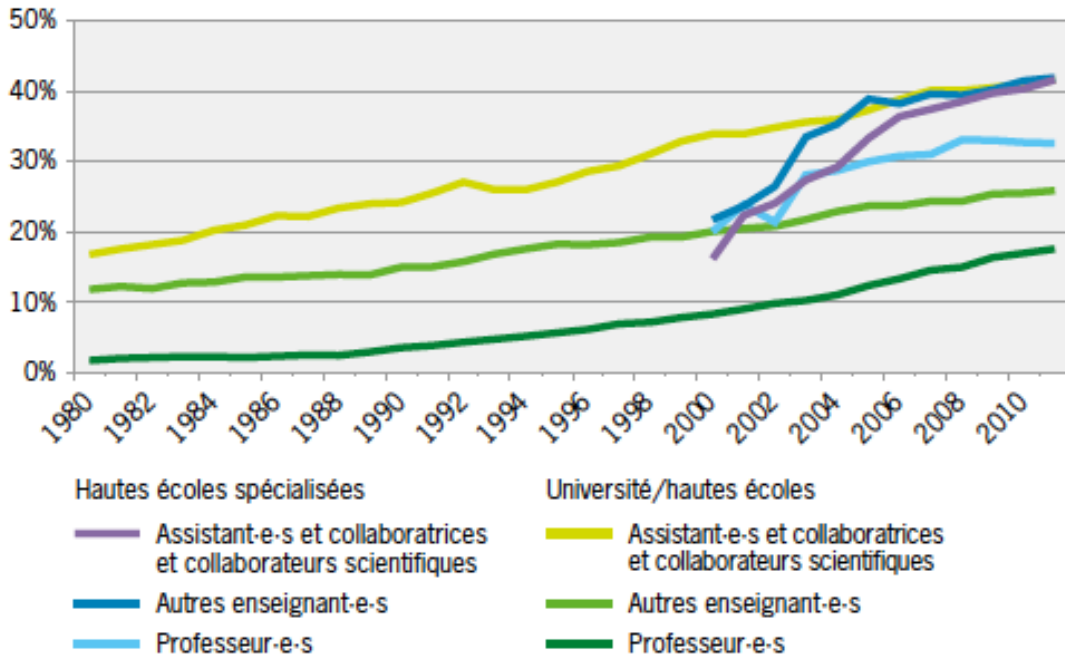
Country	% not in employment, education or training
Austria	11.1
Belgium	17.5
Iceland	9.0
Italy	31.5
Netherlands	7.1
Slovenia	11.4
Switzerland	12.1
OECD average	17.5

Source: OECD

Table A.4. Proportion of women amongst academic staff in different types of higher education institutions, 1980 to 2011

Proportion de femmes dans le corps enseignant des hautes écoles, de 1980 à 2011

G 9

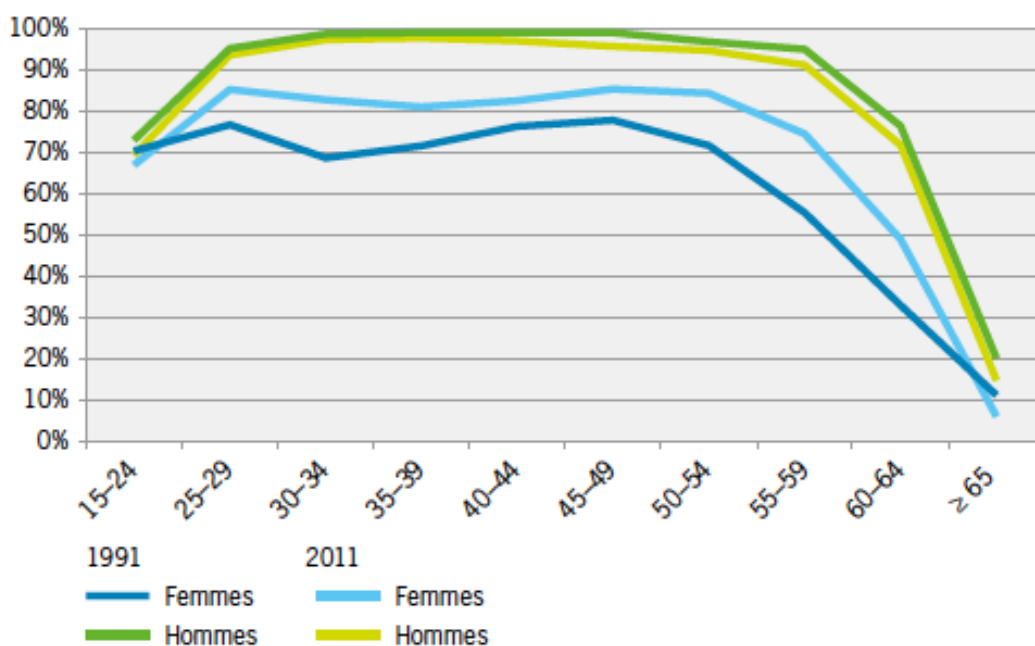


Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, Statistique du personnel des hautes écoles

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Table A.5. Evolution of economic activity rates, by age and gender, 1991 to 2011

Taux d'activité professionnelle selon le groupe d'âge, en 1991 et 2011 G 10



Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESPA

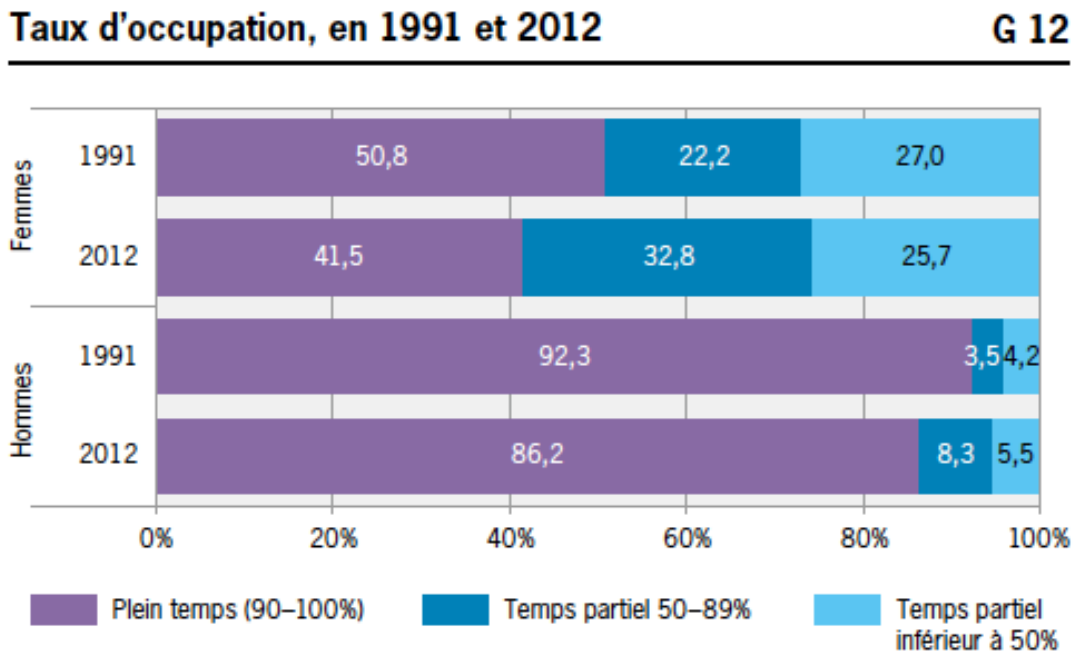
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Table A.6. Average working time (hours / week), by economic sector, Switzerland, 2004 to 2013

Year / Economic sector	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
A-S 01-96 TOTAL	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.6	41.6	41.6	41.7	41.7	41.7
A 01-03 Primary	43.0	42.9	42.9	42.8	42.7	43.0	42.3	42.9	43.0	42.8
B-F 05-43 Secondary	41.4	41.4	41.4	41.4	41.3	41.3	41.4	41.4	41.4	41.4
G-S 45-96 Tertiary	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7	41.7

Source: OFS

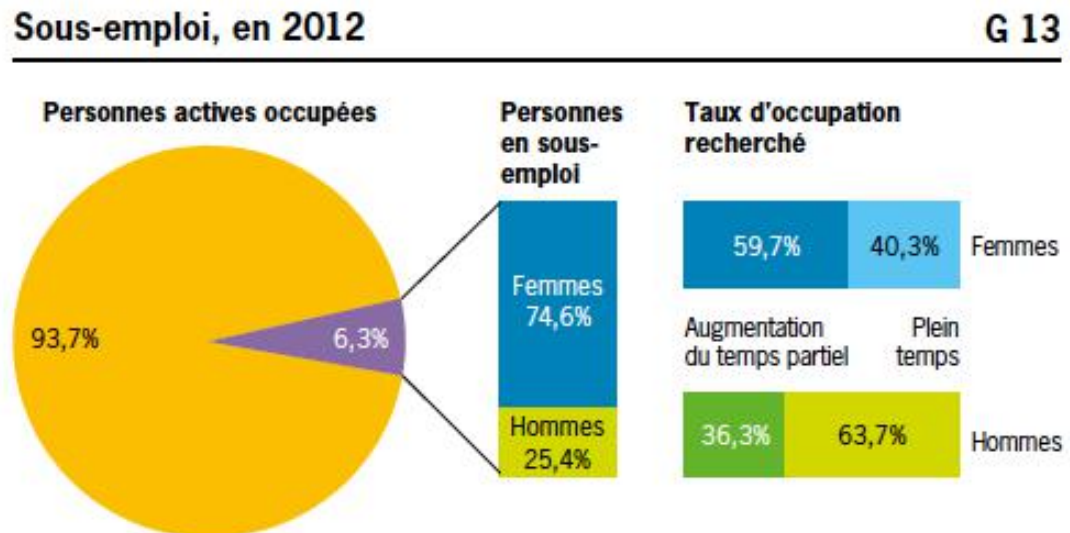
Table A.7. Full and part-time activity rates, by sex, 1991 and 2012



Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESPA

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Table A.8. Proportion of under-employed amongst part-time workers, by sex and working-time aspirations, 2013



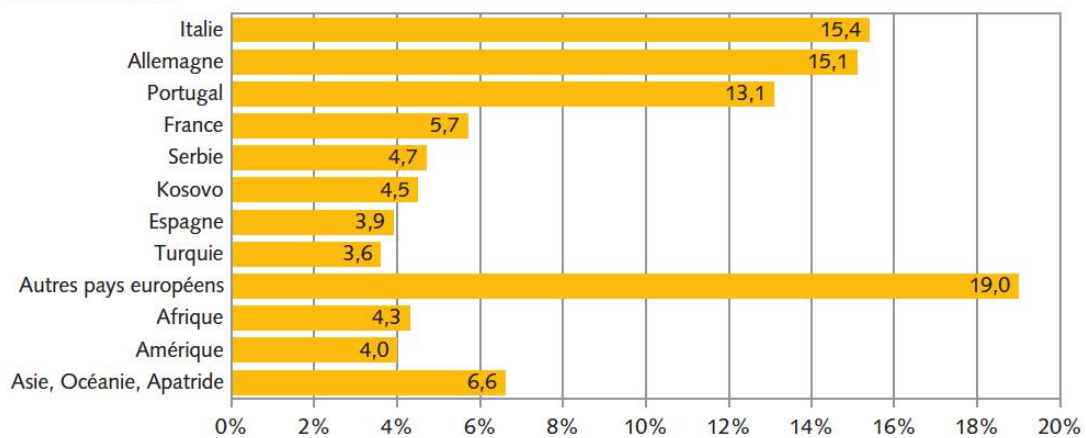
Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESPA

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Table A.9. Composition of foreign resident population, Switzerland, 2013

Population résidante permanente étrangère, au 31 décembre 2013

Selon la nationalité



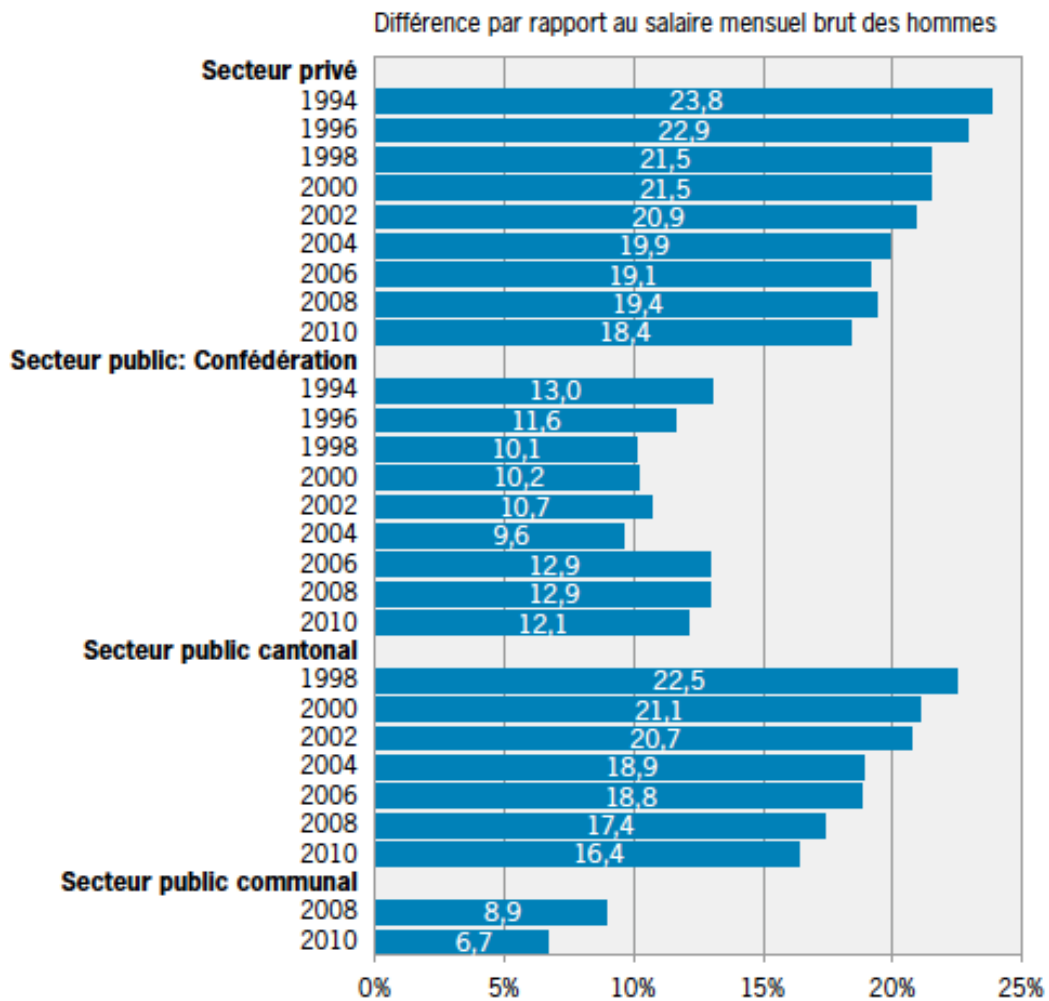
Source: OFS – STATPOP

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Table A.10. Evolution of the gender pay gap, according to public / private sectors, Switzerland, 1994 to 2010

Différence salariale entre femmes et hommes, de 1994 à 2010

G 23

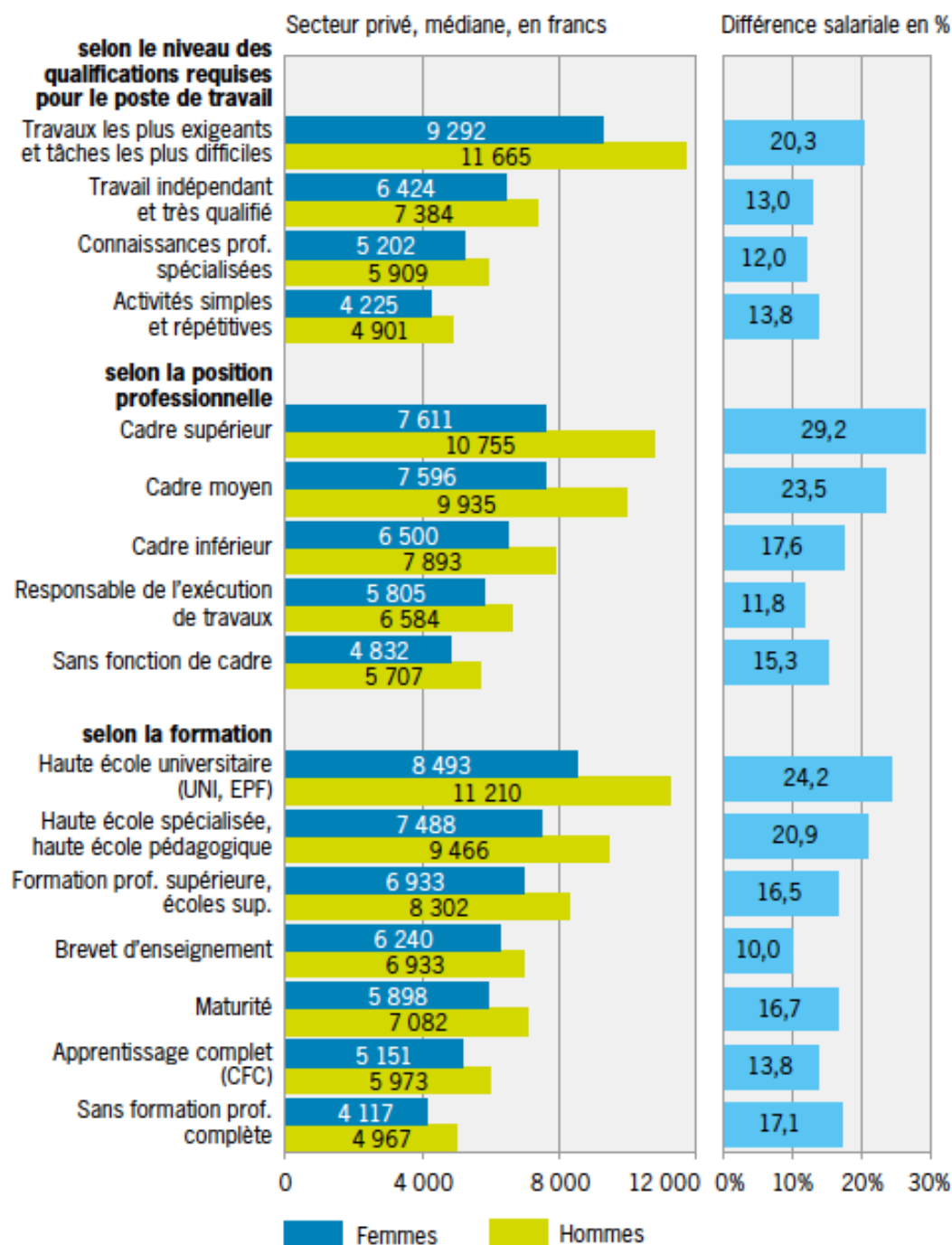


Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESS

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Table A.11. Gender pay gap (monthly gross earnings) according to different criteria, 2010

Salaire mensuel brut selon différents critères, en 2010 G 25

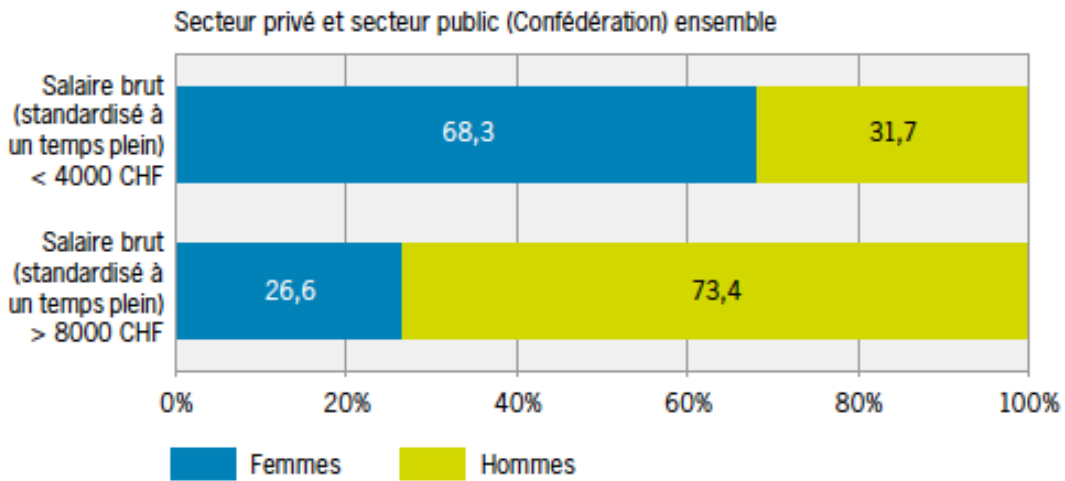


Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESS

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Table A.12. Women’s share of low and high salaries, Switzerland, 2010

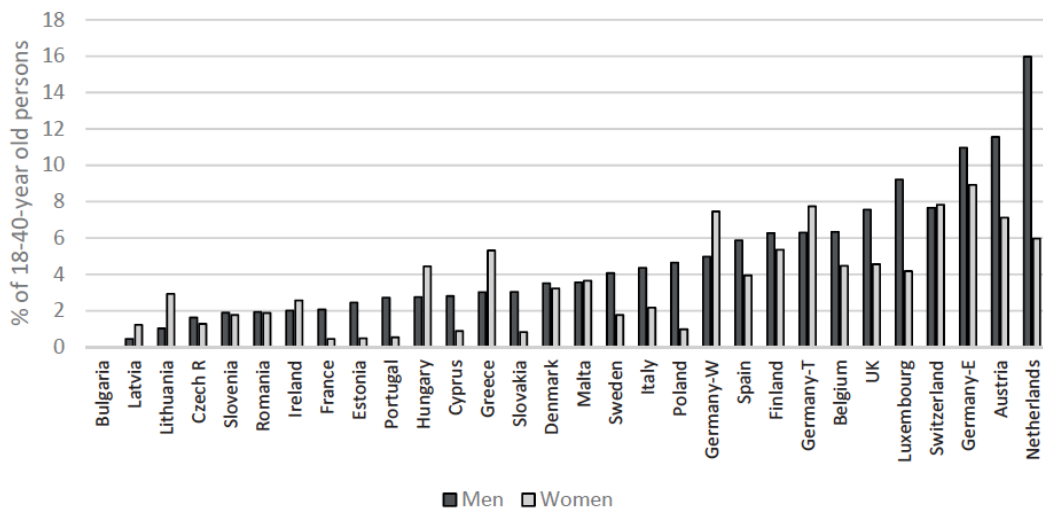
Salarié-e-s à bas salaire et à haut salaire, en 2010 **G 28**



Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESS

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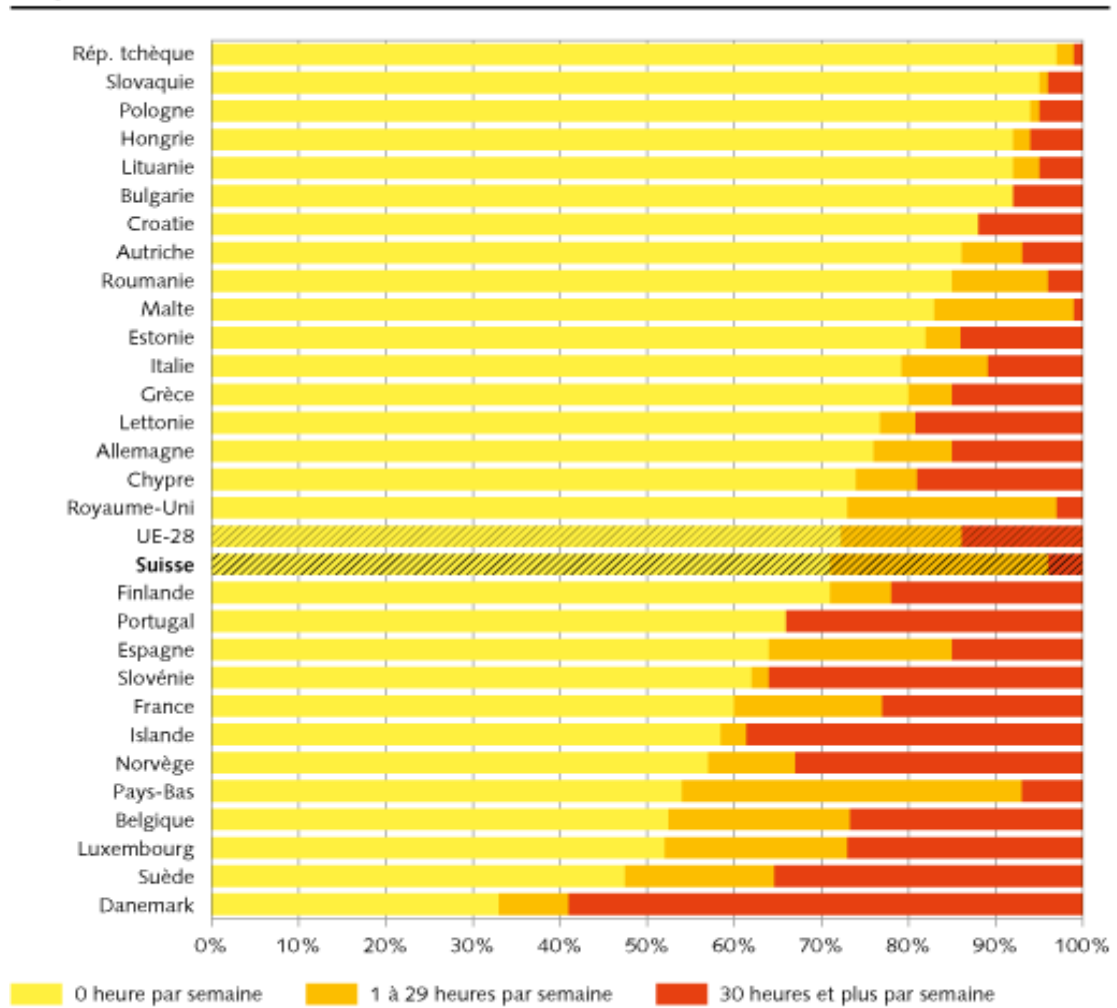
Table A.13. Childlessness intentions amongst 18-40 year olds, by sex and country



Source: Miettinen & Szalma (2014): p. 37

Table A.14. Number of hours formal childcare for the under 3s, by country, 2012

Pourcentage d'enfants de moins de 3 ans selon le nombre d'heures de garde formelle, en 2012



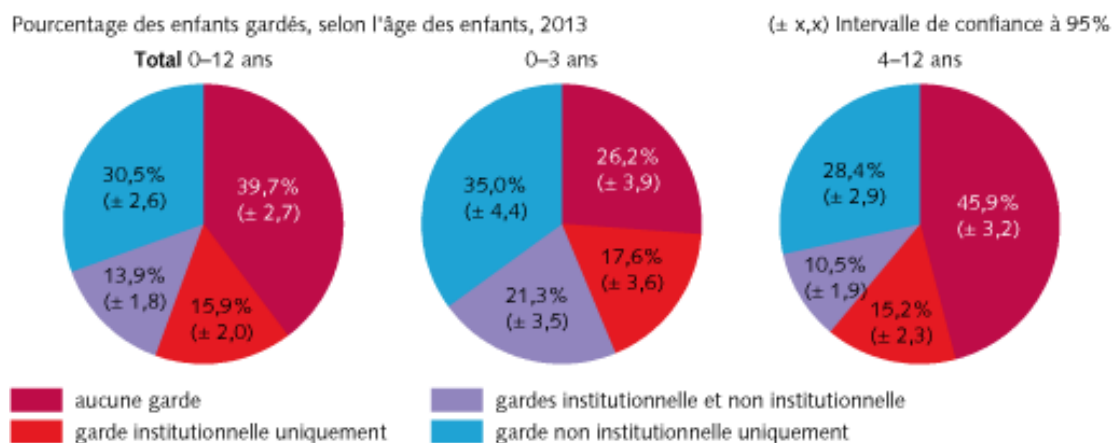
Source: Eurostat – EU-SILC 2012 (version du 3.6.2014)

© OFS, Neuchâtel 2014

Source: OFS (2013).

Table A. 15. Type of formal and informal child-care services used by Swiss families, according to the age of the children concerned, 2013

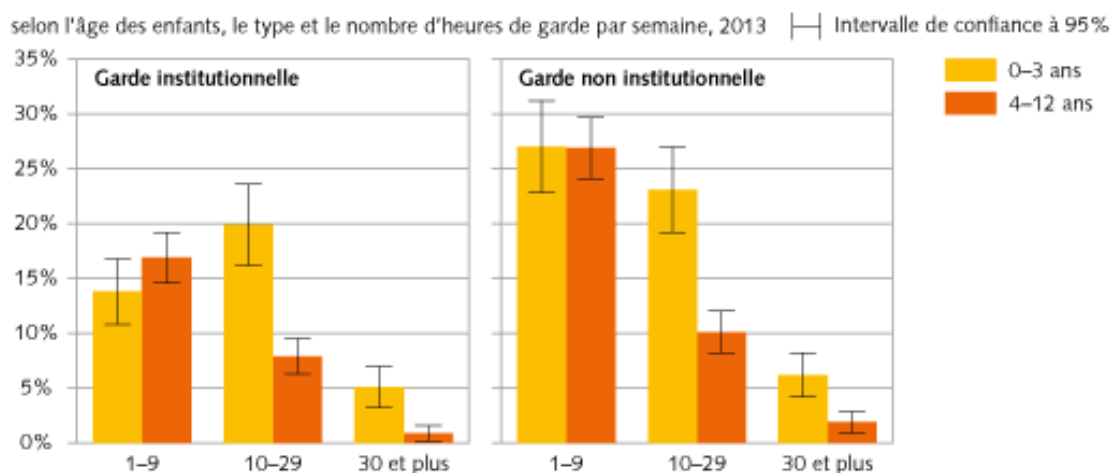
Recours aux différents types de garde extrafamiliale ou extrascolaire



Source: OFS – Enquête sur les revenus et les conditions de vie, SILC-2013 version 17.10.2014 © OFS, Neuchâtel 2014
 Source: OFS (2014)

Table A.16. Duration of formal and informal child-care provision, according to the age of the children concerned, 2014

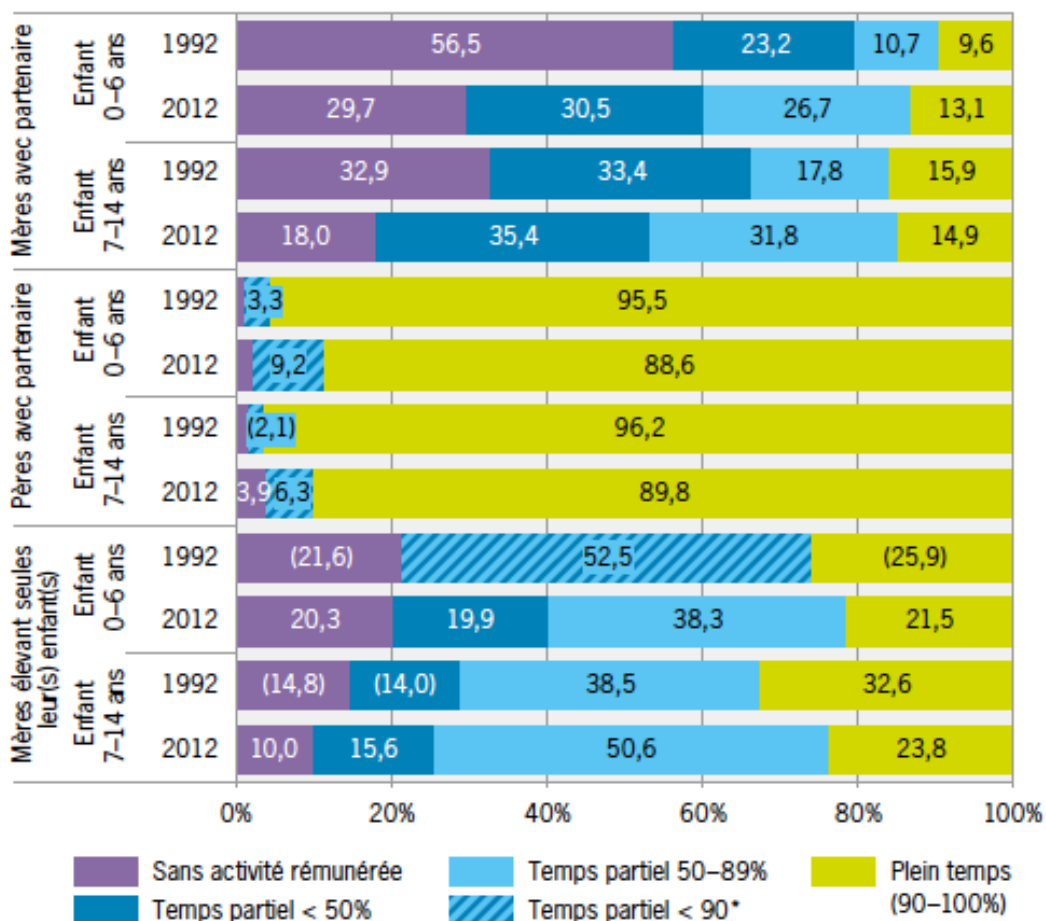
Pourcentage d'enfants avec un accueil extrafamilial ou extrascolaire



Source: OFS – Enquête sur les revenus et les conditions de vie, SILC-2013 version 17.10.2014 © OFS, Neuchâtel 2014
 Source: OFS (2013).

Table A.17. Employment status of mothers and fathers, according to marital situation and age of youngest child, Switzerland, 1992 and 2012

Situation professionnelle des mères et des pères selon l'âge du plus jeune enfant, en 1992 et 2012 G 16



* Faut d'un nombre suffisant d'observations dans l'échantillon, il n'est pas possible de distinguer entre temps partiel <50% et temps partiel 50-89%.

(chiffre): extrapolation basée sur moins de 50 observations. Les résultats sont à interpréter avec beaucoup de prudence.

Source: Office fédéral de la statistique, ESPA

© OFS

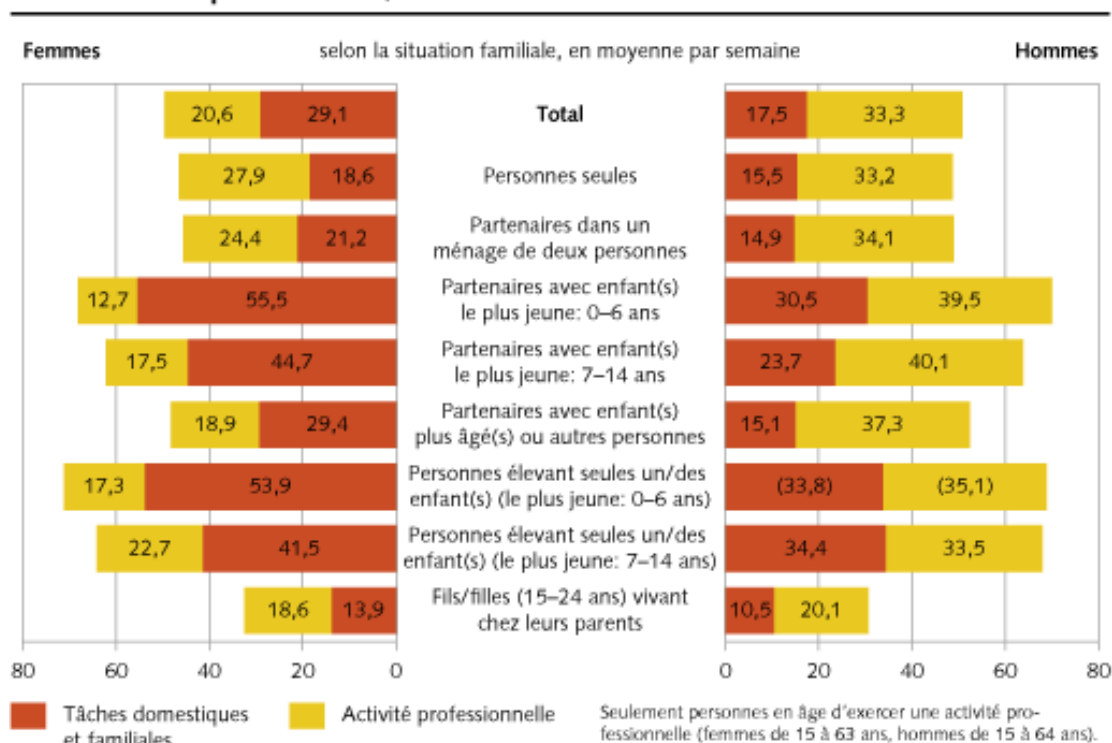
Table A.18. Working-time arrangements of Swiss couples aged 25-49 years, 2012 (%)

	All couples (25-49 years)	Without children	Youngest child aged under 6 years	Youngest child aged above 6 years
Man & woman working full-time	26.4	55.3	11.7	15.5
Man full-time & woman part-time	39.1	21.7	44.1	50.1
Man full-time & woman not working	20.1	9.0	28.6	21.2
Man part-time & woman full-time	1.8	3.5	1.1	1.0
Man & woman part-time	4.2	3.0	6.0	3.5
Other configurations	3.9	4.6	3.4	3.7
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Country Summary of **Table IV.2**.

Table A.19. Total (paid & unpaid) working time of men and women, according to family configuration, Switzerland, 2013 (hours per week)

Nombre d'heures consacrées à l'activité professionnelle et au travail domestique et familial, en 2013



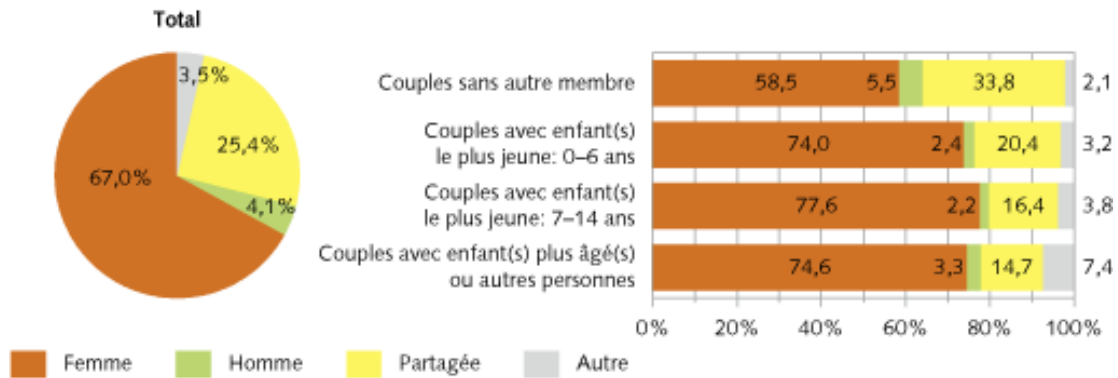
Source: OFS – ESPA

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Source: OFS web site.

Table A.20. Main responsibility for domestic labour, according to family configuration, Switzerland, 2013

Responsabilité principale pour le travail domestique dans les couples, en 2013



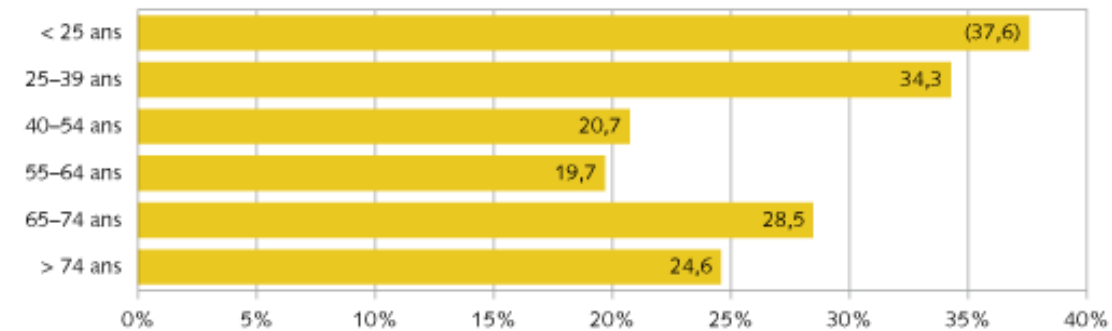
Source: OFS – ESPA

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Table A.21. Proportion of couples who share responsibility for domestic labour, according to age of the male partner, Switzerland, 2013

Proportion des couples se partageant la responsabilité du travail domestique, en 2013

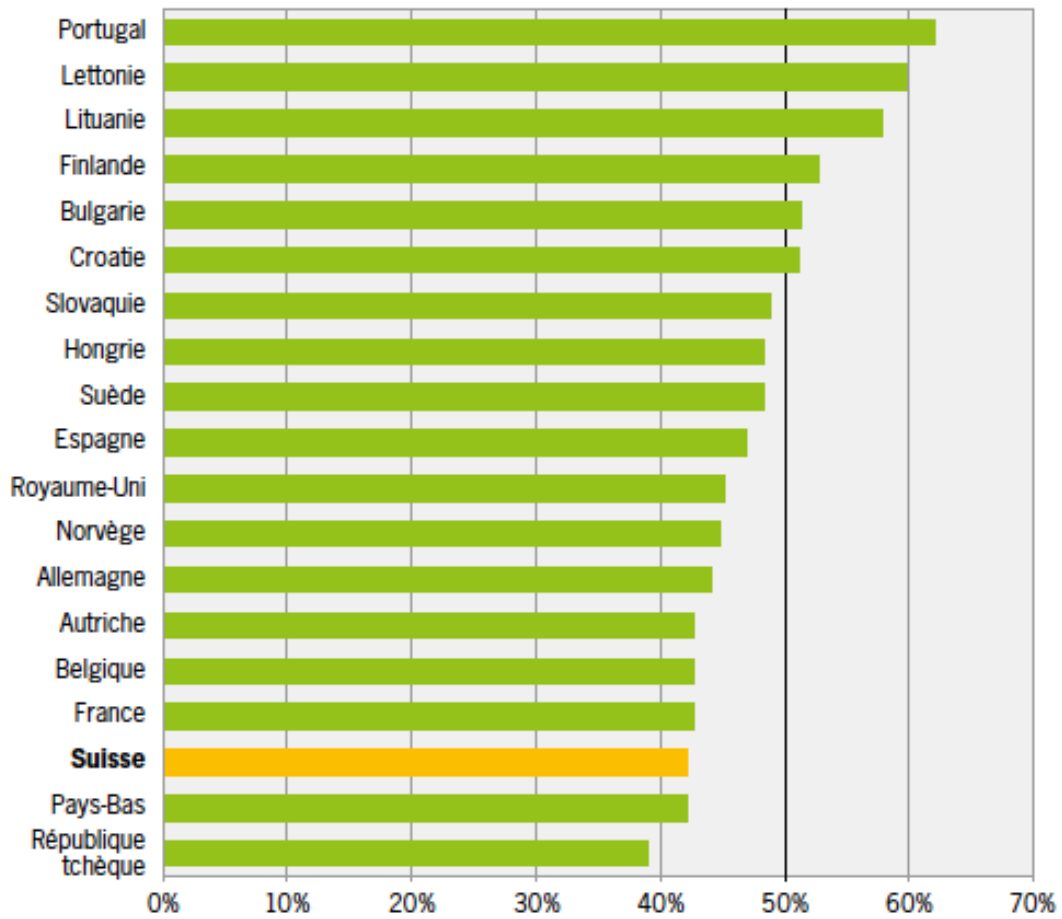
Selon l'âge de l'homme



Source: OFS – ESPA

© OFS, Neuchâtel 2014

Table A.22. Women's share of PhDs, Switzerland, 2010

Part des femmes parmi les doctorats, en 2010**G 34**

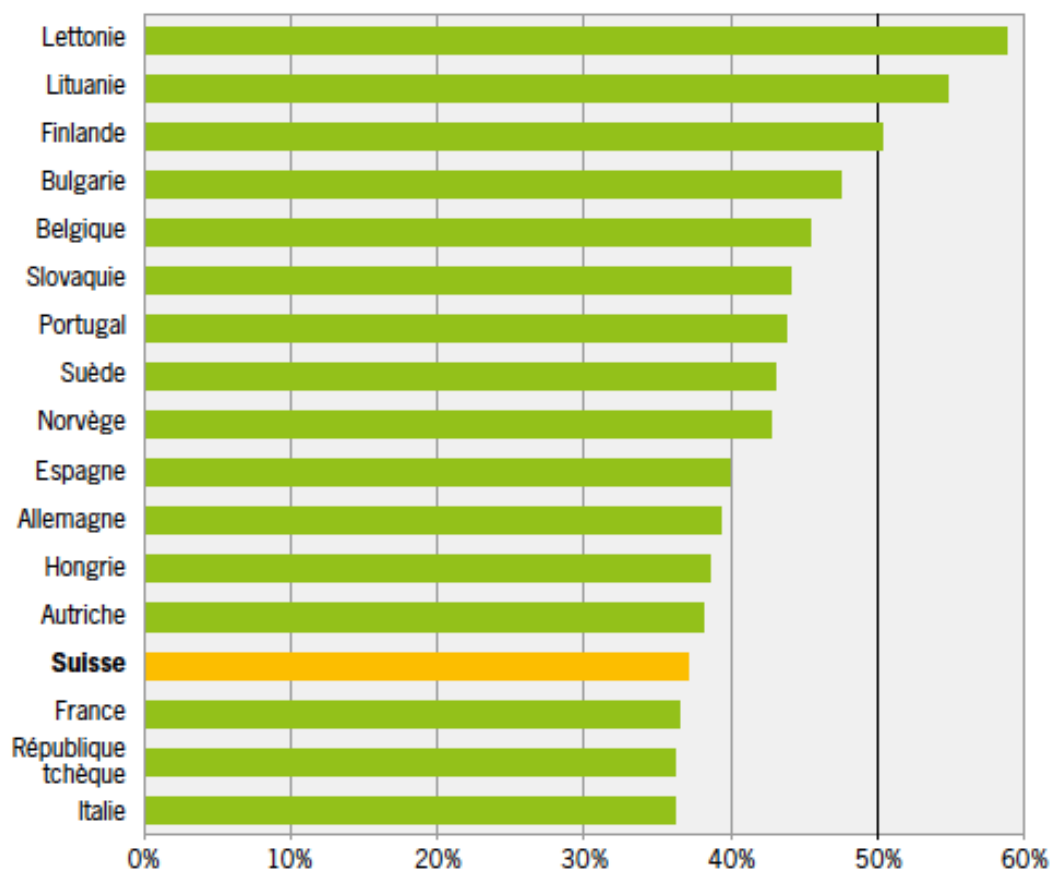
Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database

© OFS

Table A.23. Women's share of tertiary-level academic staff, Switzerland, 2011.

Part des femmes dans le corps enseignant au degré tertiaire, en 2010-2011

G 35

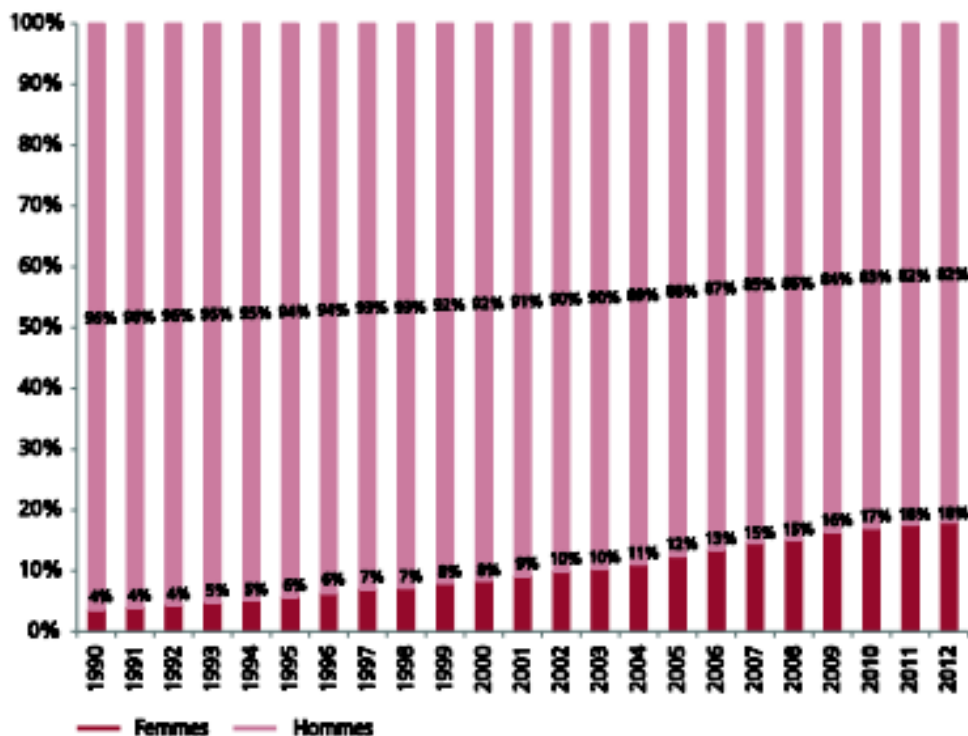


Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database

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Table A.24. Male and female share of academic positions in Swiss Universities, 1990-2012

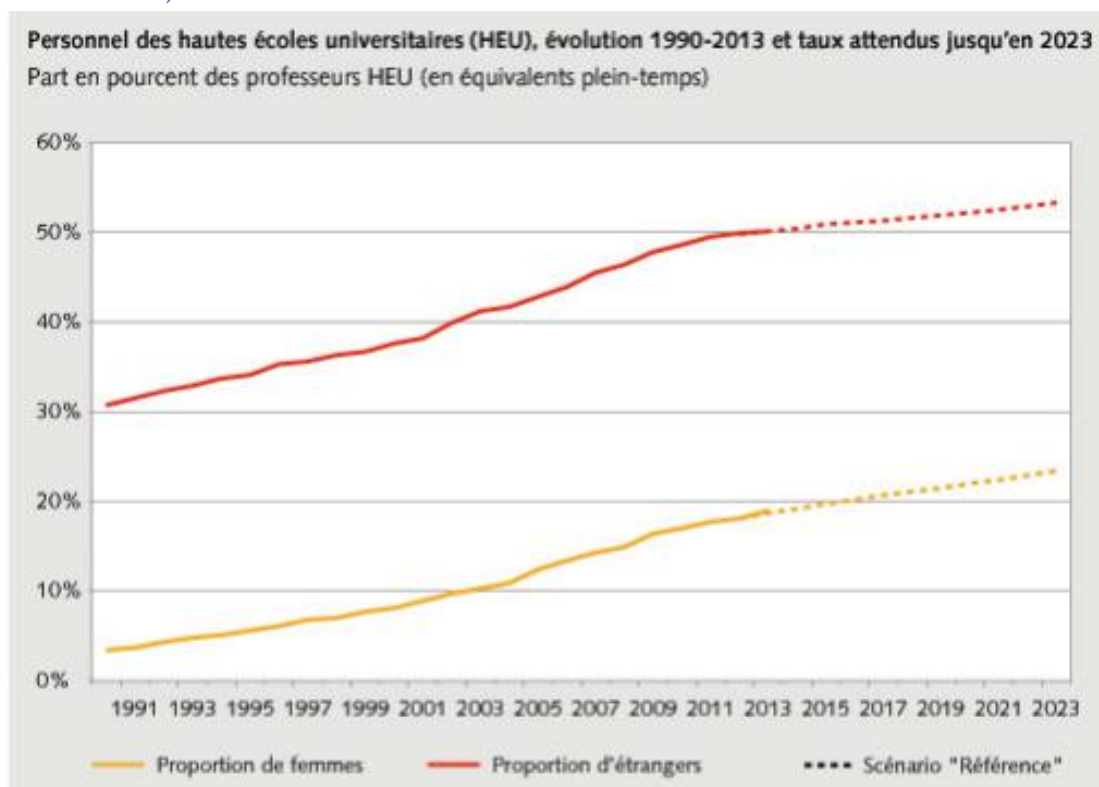
Figure 17. Répartition des professeurs dans les HEU selon le sexe



Source: OFS

Source: SEFRI, 2014: 88.

Table A.25. Progression and projected evolution of staff numbers in Swiss Universities, 1991-2023



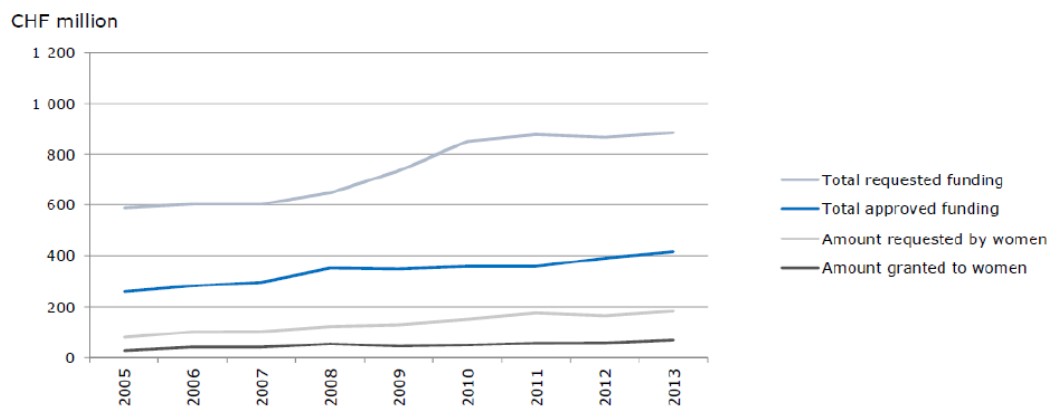
Source: OFS web site.

Table A.26. Gender gap in the success rate of research applications for FNS grants and fellowships, 2005-2013

Year	Number of applications submitted			Number of applications approved			Success rate
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	
2005	1,758	15%	85%	1,065	13%	87%	61%
2006	1,761	19%	81%	1,154	16%	84%	66%
2007	1,825	18%	82%	1,165	15%	85%	64%
2008	1,867	20%	80%	1,227	17%	83%	66%
2009	1,906	20%	80%	1,087	16%	84%	57%
2010	2,276	19%	81%	1,183	17%	83%	52%
2011	2,407	21%	79%	1,229	17%	83%	51%
2012	2,221	20%	80%	1,206	17%	83%	54%
2013	2,266	22%	78%	1,217	19%	81%	54%

Table A.27. The gender “funding gap” in applications for FNS grants and fellowships, 2005-2013

Year	Amount requested			Amount approved			Approval rate
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	
2005	585	14%	86%	261	11%	89%	45%
2006	603	17%	83%	285	15%	85%	47%
2007	603	17%	83%	298	14%	86%	49%
2008	648	19%	81%	352	16%	84%	54%
2009	737	18%	82%	349	14%	86%	47%
2010	851	18%	82%	358	14%	86%	42%
2011	878	20%	80%	359	17%	83%	41%
2012	867	19%	81%	391	15%	85%	45%
2013	885	21%	79%	416	17%	83%	47%



The demand for project funding has stabilised, albeit at a high level, after continually rising between 2005 and 2011.

Source: SNSF-Homepage, Statistics full version 2013, p. 16, 17

http://www.snf.ch/en/theSNSF/profile/facts_figures/statistics/Pages/default.aspx

6. Slovenia

Introduction: Contextual Overview

Key Indicators

Population, total (millions):	2.06
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$):	\$22,750
Poverty headcount ratio of \$1.25 a day (PPP) % of population:	13.5
Fertility rate, total (births per woman):	1.6
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births):	7
Number of weeks of maternity leave:	15
Number of days for parental leave (for further care of the child):	260 calendar days
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (2013):	32.2%

Source: <http://data.worldbank.org/country/slovenia>

Previously one of Yugoslavia's six constituent republics, Slovenia became independent in 1991 as Yugoslavia fell apart. Slovenia became the EU member in the spring of 2004 and became the first 2004 European Union entrant to adopt the Euro (on 1 January 2007). It has experienced one of the most stable political transitions in Central and South-eastern Europe. In March 2004, Slovenia became the first transition country to graduate from borrower status to donor partner at the World Bank. In 2007, Slovenia was invited to begin the process for joining the OECD; it became a member in 2012. However, due to the problematic privatizations and economic crisis, particularly within Slovenia's largely state-owned and increasingly indebted banking sector, since 2012 the country has been considered for EU-IMF financial assistance. In 2013, the European Commission granted Slovenia permission to begin recapitalizing ailing lenders and transferring their nonperforming assets into a 'bad bank' established to restore bank balance sheets. The government has embarked on a program of state asset sales intended to bolster investor confidence in the economy, which in 2014 is poised to contract 1%, its third-year of recession.

While the state still represents the main provider of social services, the importance of the private non-profit sector is also increasing. In this sense, the welfare state in Slovenia combines elements of the conservative-corporative (compulsory social insurance systems based on social partnership) on the one hand, and social-democratic (strong public/state sector as the main service provider, state support to

the informal sector and complimentary relationship between public/state sector and non-profit voluntary sector) welfare system on the other hand (Kolarič et al., 2011).

Women in Slovenia have ‘traditionally’ high labour market participation rates. However, the general participation rate of women in the Slovenian labour market is still lower than the general participation rate of men (see more detailed statistics in Domain 2). The share of employees working part-time is significantly below EU-27 average, yet increased throughout the last years. The low number of women working part-time shows that women in Slovenia tend to work full-time or not at all.

The choice of education of students in Slovenia shows that there is an overrepresentation of women in ‘typical’ female fields (e.g. education) and an overrepresentation of men in ‘typical’ male fields (e.g. engineering). The status quo of horizontal segregation is partially pronounced in Slovenia, but less than in the EU-27 – it is yet necessary to motivate female graduates to enter gender ‘atypical’ sectors. The status quo of vertical segregation shows that women are underrepresented in decision-making positions. Whereas the share of women on boards (15%) is higher than the EU-average (14%), the share of women in national government stands at 8% which is far below the EU-average (26%). The unadjusted gender pay gap in Slovenia is well below the EU-27 average. In Slovenia, women earned 4.4% less than men in 2010 (EU-27: 16.4%).

Slovenia already provides a rather encompassing system of childcare facilities: 37% of all children younger than 3 years and 91% of all children between 3 years and school age attend childcare facilities. Both figures are clearly above the EU-average of 28% and 84% respectively. However, the low number of children younger than 3 years attending childcare shows that offering corporate childcare facilities can be a supportive measure for companies to gain better access to the female talent pool and enlarge the participation rate of women in Slovenia as well as in other EU countries.

6.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

Education system overview

The education system in Slovenia, which is regulated by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, consists of preschool education, compulsory education, (upper) secondary education (vocational and technical education) and secondary general education, higher vocational education, and higher education.

The Preschool Institutions Act (1996) provides that preschools are established and funded by municipalities. Preschools are organised and integrated, and are intended for children from the end of maternity leave until entrance into the 1st grade of compulsory school at the age of 6. Compulsory education lasts for 9 years and consists of primary school education. Pupils complete compulsory education at the age of 14/15. Secondary education is divided into grammar, technical and vocational schools. Students' choice of secondary school is in principle voluntary, but restricted by students performance during primary school and by number of available places. Adolescents complete secondary education at the age of 18/19. Tertiary level programmes are available to all students who complete a general secondary or vocational secondary education and pass the 'matura' examination. Students that completed grammar schools (gymnasium) have the best chances for successful enrolment to the tertiary level. For this reason, the enrolment rate in these schools is exceptionally high.

Life-long learning in Slovenia is a relatively recent educational field. LLL is considered a national priority and although it has been argued, it is not yet systematically regulated in the majority of areas (management, legislation, financing, development of a network of providers and programmes and infrastructure). It is mostly implemented through financing schemes of the European Commission.

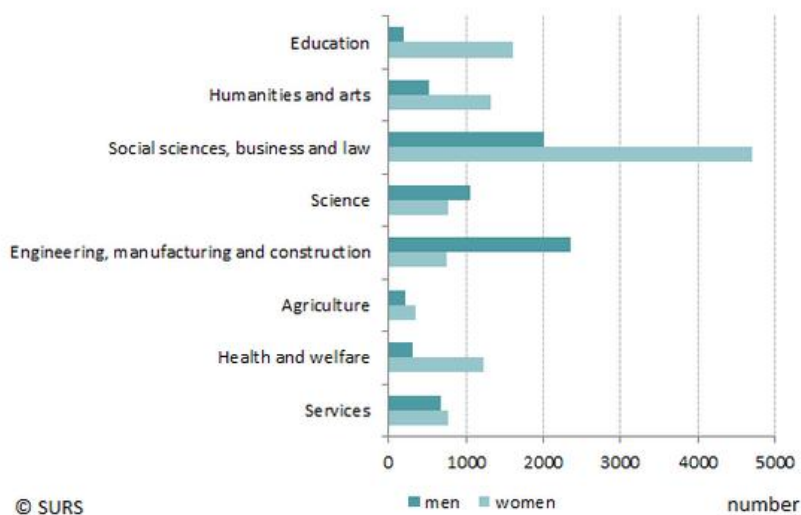
Comments on the data provided in Tables I.1–I.9 and additional information

As the GARCIA statistics show, in recent decades there has been a significant shift in the educational level of women in Slovenia (SURS 1981, 1991, 2002, 2012). Even three decades ago, only one third of women in Slovenia attained the level of education higher than completed primary school and only 5% of women had education higher than upper secondary level. In recent decades, the number of women among university graduates steadily increased and in 2013 it reached 63.8% of the total

number of university graduates (SURS 2014). An intergenerational comparison of the tertiary educated population shows that the younger generation of women (25–49) exceeded the proportion of men already at the beginning of the 1990s. The shares of the older generation of women (50+) also increased, but did not reach 50% (**Table I.1.**). Concurrently, the shares of the younger generation of women (25–49) decreased to below 50% or even close to 40% at lower and upper secondary level. At the same time, the enrolment rate of girls at the secondary level remained high (92–94%) (**Table I.2.**), almost at the same level as the enrolment of boys (**Table I.3.**). Furthermore, this development is extending also to doctoral studies. Among doctors of science the gender ratio was not reversed in the previous period – men always dominated. However, the share of female doctors of science has been slowly increasing and it reached almost 50% in 2013 (SURS 2014 and **Table I.6.**).

A more detailed analysis of students enrolled by the field of study (**Table I.5.**) shows that women are not equally represented in all disciplines. For example, in the academic year 2011/2012 in Slovenia (similarly as in the EU) most students at the university level decided to study social sciences, business and law (34.7%) and engineering, manufacture and construction (19.5%) (SURS 2012b). Simultaneously, the female student population enrolled in social sciences, business and law was 66%, while in engineering, manufacture and construction it was 27.2% (**Table I.5.**). A lower share of female than male students was recorded also in science (43.9%), while higher shares were registered in education (83.4%), health and welfare (77.1%) and humanities and arts (72.2%). Consequently, the ratio between men and women graduates varies (Chart 1). In the fields of educational sciences, arts and humanities, social, business, administrative and legal sciences as well as health and welfare, the ratios are in favour of women (more than 80%). However, more men graduated in the fields of science, mathematics and computer science. In the school year 2011/2012, the share of women graduated in these fields was 22% (engineering, manufacturing and construction) and 36% (mathematics, computer and natural science) (SURS 2014). Thus, women are more successful in academic disciplines bringing lower financial rewards and having lower reputation in the academic world (Ule, 2012).

Chart 1: Tertiary education graduates by fields of education (KLASIUS-P), Slovenia, 2013



Almost a half of the population of Slovenia aged 19–24 is enrolled in tertiary education. In the academic year 2012/2013, among all students there were 57.75% females (SURs 2013). Similarly, as in the course of tertiary education, women are also more often than men included in lifelong learning. In 2013, 15% of women were taking part in lifelong learning (3 percentage points less than in 2011) (**Table I.7.**), which is above the EU27 average (9.6% in 2011) (Eurostat 2013). Moreover, the pattern of selection of fields of study typical for tertiary education is maintained also in lifelong learning. Almost half (44.6%) of women attended social sciences, business and law, as well as humanities and arts programmes, while men mostly attended services (20.6%) and engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes (16.3%). The lowest number of men attended education programmes (2.5%) and health and welfare programmes (4.3%) (SURs 2010).

In Slovenia, 47,000 teachers, educators and other teaching professionals are engaged in education, which is 5.8 % of all persons in employment. They represent the most numerous group of professionals (ISCO major group 2) among the active population in Slovenia (SURs 2014a). The male to female ratio among teachers is changing with the level of education. Women represent as many as 98% of educators and assistant educators in kindergartens, 88% of elementary school teachers, 66% of upper secondary school teachers, 48% of professors at vocational schools and 36,7% of professors in higher education institutions (2014b and **Table I.8.**). The share of

women in the teaching staff is slowly but steadily increasing. The greatest changes in the male to female ratio were observed in higher education and in upper secondary education. In the 1980s, only near to 15% of higher education professors were women. In the 1990s, the share was between 18% and 22%, and today they represent 36.7% of higher education professors. In the 1970s, only around 35% of upper secondary school teachers were women. In the 1980s, the share was around 50% and today they represent 66% of upper secondary school teachers. (SURS 2011a; 2014b). As statistics show (**Table I.9.**) the proportion of women heads of universities increased significantly in the last couple of years. While in 2010, 11% of deans were women, this share increased to 63.4% in 2013.

6.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

In Slovenia, female employment is ‘traditionally’ high. During socialism, women's employment was crucial to economic development and women were officially granted an equal position in society to men. Correspondingly, both direct and indirect social policy measures were introduced to support parents' employment. Since the 1970s, Slovenia has actively promoted a dual-earner family model through policies designed to facilitate continuous female employment and to involve men in care work. Since 1991, however, Slovenia has experienced dramatic economic and social changes particularly through the ‘transition’ from the state to the market economy. Among several issues, a radical change in relations between employees and employers and job insecurity were identified, especially among young women and men, widening a gap between declarative norms of work-life balance and their practices. Although the transition to the market economy after the end of socialism caused dramatic changes in the labour market, Slovenia has managed to retain significant legacies of the welfare state, with most of its indicators being higher than in other post-socialist countries and often above European and EU average.

On the basis of Slovenia's Development Strategy in 2005, the Reform Programme for Achieving the Lisbon Strategy Goals was adopted. The aims of the Lisbon Strategy as

well as other Slovenian strategic documents were to increase the employment rate⁵⁸ of the population to 70% and the employment rate of women to 60% until 2010 (European Commission 2010: 15). However, due to the economic crisis these predictions did not come true. In 2010, in the EU-27 the average employment rate (age groups 15-64) was 64.2%, while Slovenia was situated above this average with a 66.2 % employment rate. Regarding gender, the data show that since 2008 when the employment rate of men in Slovenia reached 72.7% and was equated with the European average; in 2012, this rate fell to 67.4 % which was below the EU average. In 2012, the employment rate of women was 60.5%, which was 4 percentage points less than in 2008, but still higher than the EU-27 average. In Slovenia, the employment rate of men was also below the OECD countries average, while the employment rate of women was above the average (Fakin et al.. 2013).

In 2013, the share of women in the labour force (i.e. the total of employed and unemployed persons aged 15 years and more) in Slovenia was 45.6% (SURS 2013a). As statistics in **Table II.1.**, show, this rate was the highest in the age groups 45–54 and 25–34 (49.2% and 47.1% respectively). Since 2010, these two groups had the highest rates, while before that period, particularly during the first decade in the new millennium, women aged 35–39 had the highest ones (between 52.9% and 47.3%). In the same period, particularly after 2010, women aged 60–64 and 65–69 had the lowest shares (28.7% and 39.5% in 2013). Among various groups of employed persons, women have the highest shares among family workers (about 60%, which recently slightly decreased) and employees (near 47%). In the period from 1995 to 2013, among employers there were 24% to 25% of females and among own-account workers 24% to 30% of females (**Table II.12.**). In Slovenia, this last category had the lowest shares among all other Garcia countries.

Employment rates vary greatly depending on the level of educational attainment. In 2010, in Slovenia the employment rate (age groups 25–49) for those who have completed tertiary education was 87.3% (across the EU-27 it was 83.9%), which is

⁵⁸ The employment rate is defined as the percentage of the economically active population in the working age population (SURS 2014). In this particular case, the employment rate is the ratio of people aged 15 to 64 who are employed and all working population of that age.

much higher than the rate of those who have acquired primary (51.1%) or lower secondary education (73%). Comparison (**Table II.2.**) shows that from 2000 to 2013 the above-described proportions hold true also from the gender perspective, e.g. employment rates of tertiary educated females were higher than employment rates of less educated males. However, tertiary educated men had higher employment rates than tertiary educated women: in 2010, this rate was 86.1% for males and 83.8% for females. In 2013, it decreased to 85.8% for males and 79.9% for females (**Table II.2.**).

Furthermore, employment rates, especially for females, depend on marital status. During 2000–2013, married women (age group 15+) continuously had the highest rates: from 46.7% in 2000 to 56.3% in 2008 and 54.1% in 2013 (**Table II.3.**). The employment rate of single and divorced women (age group 15+) was rather similar during 2002 and 2008 (about 50%), but in 2011 it decreased significantly for divorced women (45.3%), while for single women it remains near 50%. However, considering data by different age groups (from 15–24 to 50–64) (**Table II.3.**), it is revealed that younger divorced women have higher employment rates than older divorced women (in 2011, for those aged 25–59 the rate was 83.9% and 43.3% for those aged over 50).

Although statistics on the employment rate according to parental status are missing for Slovenia in Table II.4, there are some data available (OECD Family database 2014) showing a very high employment rate among mothers (age cohort 25–54) in Slovenia. This is most probably owing to well-developed childcare services. According to the OECD data, in 2011, the employment rate of women (age cohort 25–54) in Slovenia who have children under the age of 15 was 84.39%. This put Slovenia at the top of the rankings, immediately after Iceland with 84.4 % (the OECD average was 65.2%). In Slovenia, the employment rate was 84.8% for women with one child, 89.1% for mothers of two children, and 79.3 % for women with three or more children. The comparable employment rates for men are as follows: 80.5% for single men, 90% for men with one child, 93.7% for men with two children and 89.5% for men with three or more children. The Commission Report on Equality between Women and Men in Slovenia stated that only 62.4% of women who had small children were employed, while the share for men was much higher at 91.4% (SURS 2008). A series of

legislative documents that define and regulate employment and labour in Slovenia, as well as reconciliation of work and family life that is of particular significance for women's career choices and strategies are discussed in more detail in Domain 4.

As data in **Table II.5.**, indicate, female employment rates depend greatly on the sector of employment. From 1995 to 2008, women (aged 15 and more) employed in the public sector have considerably higher rates than women employed in the private sector. Through the observed period, the difference amongst these two groups got even larger; in 1995, the difference was 4.7 percentage points whereas in 2008, it was already 20.9 percentage points. Moreover, female employment rates also greatly depend on occupation. As data in **Table II.6.**, reveal, throughout the observed period (1995–2013), women clerks, service and sales workers, professionals and those in elementary occupations had the highest employment rates (for those aged 15–64). In 2013, the rates in these occupations for females ranged from 57% to 62%. However, with respect to tertiary education, female employment rates were relatively high also for women working as technicians and associate professionals (59.2% in 2012) (**Table II.7.**). Among associate professionals, the employment rate is even slightly higher for women (14.3%) than for men (13.5%) (**Table II.8.**). The same data also show that women in Slovenia are underrepresented among legislators, senior officials and managers; e.g. in 2012, the employment rate for males in this occupation group was 21.7% whereas for women it was 14.5%. A similar picture is mirrored also from data in **Table II.17.** in the period 1995–2013 among senior managers (irrespective of public or private sector), there were more males (5.2% to 10.8%) than females (2.7% to 6.9%).

The response to the worsening situation on the labour market due to the economic crisis is seen not only at unmet Lisbon Strategy objectives regarding the employment rates but also in the growth of flexible forms of labour such as part-time work, temporary employment and self-employment. For example, the Labour Market Regulation Act from 2013 facilitates higher flexibility of the labour force.

The EUROSTAT data (2014) show that in 2013 in Slovenia 9.3% of all employed persons (aged 15–64)⁵⁹ work part-time, which is significantly less than the EU average (19.5%). However, the same data show that the number of employees working part-time in Slovenia has been growing gradually; in 2003, there were 5.8% employees in this type of employment, in 2008, the corresponding share was 8.1%. Among those working part-time, persons with secondary education and women prevail (Employment Service of Slovenia, 2009). In 2013, women represented 60.5% of all part-time employees (**Table II.11.**). From 2000 to 2013, this share was always above 50%, but 10 to 20% lower than in other Garcia countries. On the other hand, during the same period the share of full-time female workers was considerably higher (by at least 5 percentage points) than in other Garcia countries, close to 45% (**Table II.11.**). But all in all during the indicated period, female full-time employment remained rather unchanged while in the last five years, female part-time employment increased. As studies show, part-time work is not acceptable due to low earnings, while employers do not favour it due to higher labour costs compared to full-time employment. This is also evident in the long work-hour cultures and high work demands, which make part-time work problematic in Slovenia (Stropnik 2011, Grönlund and Javornik 2014).

Considering temporary employment, the EUROSTAT data show that in 2013, 16.8% of persons (aged 15–64) were engaged in temporary employment, while in the EU-27 the average was 13.7%. Data in Table II.16 show a slight difference among men (13.4%) and women (14.8%) aged 25–49 in Slovenia. However, this type of employment is characteristic of young people (under 35 years) – 66 %, while only a few (4%) older persons (over 55) are temporary employed (SURS 2012). Student work, as one of the peculiarities of the Slovenian employment system, and short-term contracts are widely used by employers as a flexibility leverage in order to lower the costs of production and to increase the organisational and labour force flexibility. This leads to a situation in which young people are more severely exposed to flexibilisation, insecurity and precariousness. Work of retired persons in Slovenia is regulated by the legislative act from July 2013. It enables retired persons to re-enter

⁵⁹ Proportion of part-time employment amongst aged 25–49 in 2013 was 5.9%, 3.3% for men and 8.8% for women (Table II.15).

labour market through contracts for temporary and occasional work, which are arranged directly between employers and employees, with no mediating bodies (unlike student work).

These data, especially those referring to flexible working arrangements are also related to the gender pay gap. As already stated, in the period from 1995 to 2013 women represented 24 to 30% of own-account (self-employed) workers (**Table II.12.**), with the highest shares recorded after 2009.

As indicated in **Table II.13.**, from 1995 to 2009 the gender pay gap decreased from 14% to almost zero. Nevertheless, after that period, it increased again and in 2011, women's monthly gross earnings were on average 4.5% lower than men's monthly gross earnings (SURS 2013b). With regard to education, women with basic education or less were receiving on average 13.5% lower monthly gross earnings than men with the same level of education, women with upper secondary education were receiving on average 10.6% lower monthly gross earnings than men with the same level of education, while women with tertiary education were receiving on average 18.4% lower monthly gross earnings than men with the same level of education (SURS 2013b).

Unemployment

The economic crisis has also initiated a process of lower levels of activity on the labour market. In 2012, the average employment rate of the population (aged 20-64) in the EU was 1.8 percentage points lower than in 2008. The unemployment rate was 10.4%, which was about 3.4 percentage points more than in 2008. In Slovenia, the employment rate (aged 20–64) dropped to 68.3%, which was about 4.7 percentage points less than in 2008, while the unemployment rate has doubled and reached 8.9% in 2012. With the prolongation of the crisis the structural problems in the labour market are increasing. In 2012, the long-term unemployment in the EU increased to 4.6%, which was about 2 percentage points more than in 2008. In Slovenia, long-term unemployment rose even faster and in the period from 2008 to 2012 more than doubled (Fakin et al., 2013).

This process is mirrored also in female and male unemployment rates. Data in Table II.9 show that from 2000 to 2013 female unemployment rates were slightly higher than male employment rates in all age groups. The biggest differences among genders are seen in age group 20–24 and 15–19, where the unemployment rates are the highest. This means that young women are the most vulnerable group are young women. However, at higher ages (40–50 and 50–60) men seek employment for longer periods than women do (Domadenik et al., 2013: 16). A similar situation is observed also in long-term unemployment (which means seeking employment for more than a year). In 2010, women had lower (3%) long-term unemployment rates than males (3.3%) (Fakin et al., 2013: 16). As Table II.10 shows, the long-term unemployment rate of females was the highest (60%) at the beginning of the millennium. It decreased to 30% in 2009, but increased again to 49% in 2013 (SURS 2014a). Furthermore, according to data of the Employment Service of Slovenia (Domadenik et al., 2013), the shares of the long-term unemployed in the period 2000–2010 were on average the lowest among the tertiary educated. Females were unemployed for shorter periods than males were.

The Fiscal Balance Act, introduced in 2012, addressed the public sector, to which the majority of research and higher education institutions also belong. It impeded promotions of public employees; therefore, obtaining a higher academic title does not imply a salary raise. It also restricted new employments in the public sector, limited the number of days of annual leave, as well as payment of annual leave subsidies (*regres*).

6.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

Slovenia has a long tradition of liberal family policy but also a long period of unfavourable indicators of fertility behaviour, which implies that Slovenia represents an example of an inefficient family policy. In Slovenia, the long-term decrease in fertility along with an increase in life expectancy has caused an aging population. This

process was accelerated at the end of the 1970s, when the total fertility rate (TFR)⁶⁰ reached below-replacement level, and life expectancy at birth exceeded 70 years.

The number of live births in Slovenia has been decreasing for more than 100 years but especially since 1980. As a result, the first fertility national survey was conducted in 1989. In the period between 1995 and 2005, Slovenia was the country with the lowest low TFR in Europe. The lowest level of 1.20 was reached in 2003. In 2011, the TFR raised to 1.56 and in 2012 to 1.58 mostly due to the second order births and the births that had been postponed (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008, Stropnik 2014a, SORS 2012a). In the last ten years, the TFR has been increasing but the fertility is still below the replacement level (**Table III.1.**) (SUSR 2013a).

Postponement of various events, as far as family is concerned, refers also to the age of women at first marriage, which has been steadily rising from 23.1 in 1970 to 29.8 in 2012. The average age of men at first marriage has also been rising and is slightly higher with 31.5 years in 2012. A rise in the age of women at first birth from 22.8 years in 1975 to 28.8 in 2011 is also registered (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008, SORS 2011). In 2012, the mean age of first-time mothers was 28.9 years; compared to 1991, this was 4.8 years more, and compared to the 1970s over 6 years more (SURS 2014a). In addition, more than half (54%) of women who gave birth in 2012 were aged 30 years or more. Thirty years ago (in 1982) only 17% of women who gave birth were older than 30 years of age. In the past 30 years, the proportion of women who were younger than 25 years and gave birth fell from 53% in 1982 to 13% in 2012 (SURS 2013a). The most fertile group in 2012 were—as in the last few years—women aged 25–29 years (an average 111 children per 1,000 women), followed by women aged 30–34 years (108 children), and women aged 20–24 and 35–39 years gave birth to 44 children per 1,000 women. Thirty years ago, the most fertile group were women aged 20–24 (160 children per 1,000 women) who on average gave birth to three times as many children as women aged 30–34 years (49 children per 1,000 women) (SURS 2013a).

⁶⁰ TFR is the average number of live born children per woman of childbearing age at the present mortality rate and on the assumption that the woman will reach her 49th birthday.

For a long time, marital status was the most important determinant of fertility in Slovenia. According to EUROSTAT data (2014b), the number of marriages per 1000 inhabitants in the EU member states in 2008 was between 3.3 and 7.7. With 3.3 Slovenia was ranked in the last place. In 2012, with the crude marriage rate of 3.4, Slovenia was still among the countries in the EU with the lowest marriage levels (EUROSTAT 2014b). The data on households and families was collected from administrative sources for the first time in 2011 (SORS 2011). It shows that in 2011, among all couples there were 12.6% consensual union couples in Slovenia.

The divorce rate in Slovenia is today practically the same as it was a few decades ago: from 1.1 cases of divorce per 1,000 inhabitants in 1965 to 1.2 cases in 2012 (SORS 2012b).

The pluralisation of family forms and lifestyles is characteristic of Slovenia. Data on family size and the composition of families show the falling number of family members in the last few decades: from 3.36 in 1971 to 2.9 in 2011. According to the 2002 census, almost half of all families had one child (48.65%), and 42% of them had two children, while the 2011 census shows the increased share of one child families (54%) compared to the decreased share of two children families (37%). Additionally, there was an increase of single-parent families from 18% in 1991 to 25.2% in 2011 (Švab et al., 2012, SORS 2011, SORS 2013a). In 2011, 21.1% of all families were of single mothers; the share of single fathers was much lower (4.1%) (SORS 2014a).

Even though the married couple families with children are still the most common (41.8% in 2011), their number has been decreasing since 1991 (59 %). There has been an increase in the number of unmarried couples with children from 2.2% in 1991 to 8.7% in 2011. Together with a high share of extramarital births, this share indirectly indicates that cohabitation is not only a form of premarital partnership but also extends into family life (SORS 2011, SORS 2013a). Correspondingly, since 2007, more than half (50.8%) of all babies in Slovenia have been born to unmarried mothers. In 2011, two thirds (65%) of first-born children were born to unmarried mothers (SORS 2013a). This figure situates Slovenia among the EU countries with the

highest shares of births outside marriage. An even higher proportion of live births outside marriage were registered in Iceland (66.9%) (EUROSTAT 2014b).

Prolonged co-residence and supportive family networks

Several studies in the last decade show that the prolonged co-residence of grown-up children with their parents is another important aspect of family life in Slovenia. This phenomenon is interpreted as one aspect of an increasing importance of primary relations and networks for survival due to very scarce affordable housing. Although young people are largely dependent on their parents' resources, co-residence with their parents is also seen as a cultural practice associated with supportive (in terms of finance, housing, use of social contacts, childcare, emotional support, in coping with unemployment, finding a job, etc.) and relatively high-quality relationships with their parents (Mandič and Gnidovec 2000, Stropnik and Šircelj 2008, Švab et al., 2012, Ule 2012, Ule and Zidar 2012, Kuhar and Reiter 2014).

Parental leave arrangements

Although in **Table III.3.**, there are no statistics on the length of maternity, paternity and parental leave for Slovenia some data selected from various sources are provided for the period from 1980 to 2011. According to the Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act adopted in its latest version in 2014, the maternity leave is defined as a leave aimed for childbirth preparation and care for the child immediately after the birth and lasts 105 days (MINISTRY OF LABOUR 2014). The beneficiaries of maternity leave must be insured for parental protection to be entitled to 100% wage compensation. The mother must begin maternity leave 28 days before the expected date of delivery. The father or other person may exercise the right to paternity/maternity/parental leave if the child's mother dies, leaves the child or, in the opinion of a doctor, is permanently or temporarily unable to work. According to the 2010 Labour Force Survey, men represented 7% of individuals who took the parental leave intended for child nursing and care, which starts immediately after the maternity leave and is usually taken by the child's mother (SURS 2013b).

According to the same rules, the paternity leave for a father introduced in 2001 by The Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act is a leave to enable him at the very early stage of a child's development to participate with child's mother in childcare

and support. The father is entitled to paternity leave of 90 days. The father has the right to take 15 days of paternity leave till the child is six months old and receives 100% wage compensation (MINISTRY OF LABOUR 014). In 2003, the 15-day paid paternity leave until the child is six months old was taken by 63% of fathers of children born in that year. In 2011, the share was over 80% (SURS 2013b). The rest of the 75 days can be used until the child is three years old. Additionally, in 1995, fathers were present at a third of first births. In 2011, the share was 80%. As regards births of higher order, the share of fathers present increased from 20% in 1995 to 72% in 2011 (SURS 2013b).

Furthermore, relating to the same above indicated rules the mother or the father can be entitled to the parental leave, or, under certain conditions, by another person after the expiry of maternity leave. This leave is intended for further care of the child. Parental leave lasts 260 calendar days and 90 days longer in particular circumstances (the birth of twins, child in need of special care etc.) (MINISTRY OF LABOUR 014).

Current crisis-related reforms, especially The Fiscal Balance Act (2012), aim at slightly changed family benefits. In 2014, parental leave arrangements show the following picture:

<p>Maternity leave:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 105 days; mother's right (can be exceptionally transferred to the father or other person) - Compensation rate: 100% of average salary, based on salaries on which contributions were paid during the 12 months prior to the leave (temporary measure: max. 2 times the average wage)
<p>Parental leave:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 260 days per family (30 to 90 days, longer if parents have more children); from 1 September 2014, each parent has the right to half of parental leave – no longer a family entitlement - Compensation rate: 90% of average salary, based on salaries on which contributions were paid during the 12 months prior to the leave (max. 2 times the average wage)
<p>Paternity leave:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 90 days - Compensation rate: the same as for parental leave but for 15 days only if taken before the child is 6 month of age; from 1 September 2014, 75 days of unpaid paternity leave have been replaced by additional 15 days of paid paternity leave to be used after parental leave and before the child has completed the first grade of primary school. For 75 days, social security contributions are paid based on the minimum wage. The paternity leave can now also be used part-time.

Early childcare education and care

Even during the 'transition years', Slovenia preserved achievements of pre-school childcare attained in the socialist period. Pre-school childcare is provided by public kindergartens and private childcare providers. Public kindergartens are the most widespread form of pre-school child-care and represent a form of daily care and education for young children. Kindergartens are part of the preschool system of early childhood education. They are known for their high quality, working not only as daily childcare institutions but also as educational institutions with official pre-school educational curricula. Children can start attending kindergarten when they are one year old. Public kindergartens have a special nursery programme for children less than three years of age. In the school year 2011/2012, as much as 78% of all children of the proper age were included in nurseries/kindergartens and the majority of them (98%) attended all-day programmes (Stropanik and Šircelj 2008, Čelebič 2012). In 2013, in Slovenia 75.6% of all children, aged between 1 and 5 years, were enrolled in kindergartens. In the programs of the 1st age period, 53.8% of all children aged up to 3 years were enrolled and in the programs of the 2nd age period 88.6% of all children aged 3 years and more participated until entering primary school. The number of private kindergartens has been increasing but it is still low (42 in 2011/2012), and only a few of them do not receive public funds. The share of children enrolled in private kindergartens is also low: 3.1% in the year 2011/2012, which is 2.0 p.p. more than in the year 2000/2001 (Čelebič 2012). Nearly a quarter of all pre-school children remain outside the educational system provided by public and private kindergartens (SURS 2014b). According to OECD data (2014), participation rates in formal care and pre-schools were 41.8% for children under 3 years and 85.8% for children from 3 to 5 years in 2010. The corresponding shares for the EU-27 were considerably lower: 29% and 82.6% respectively.

Research stresses the important role of informal carers (grandparents and nannies). Despite the fact that family networks in Slovenia are well-developed, many parents decide to leave children in day-care at the grandparents and enrol their children into kindergartens when they are two or three years old. The most frequently mentioned difficulty refers to non-synchronised kindergartens' and parents' work schedules (Švab et al., 2012).

The Fiscal Balance Act (2012) changed also the early childcare education and care measures in the following directions:

Early childcare education and care – ECEC (2014):

- mainly institutional and public; publicly subsidised – parents' fees cover 0 to 77% of the price, depending on the family income and property
- parents' fee for the 2nd child set at 30% of a corresponding fee
- free of charge for the 3rd and subsequent child simultaneously attending ECEC
- municipalities can subsidise child minders for children who were not accepted in ECEC due to the lack of places and are on the waiting list – with the amount of 20% of the corresponding fee for ECEC

Reproductive rights

Regarding reproductive rights, abortion was legalised in 1954 and the constitutional right to freely decide on the birth of children was included in the new Constitution of Socialist Republic of Slovenia in 1976. In the same year, the Act on Marriage and Family Relations afforded unmarried heterosexual couples the same legal position as married couples. In 1977, the right to abortion on the request of a pregnant woman was set out in the Health Care Act. In this act, still considered as one of the most advanced legal documents in the area of reproductive rights, other methods of birth control, as well as methods treating infertility, including artificial insemination, were also mentioned (Švab et al., 2012: 423). The Health Measures in Exercising Freedom of Choice in Childbearing Act were adopted in 1977, granting the right to artificial insemination to every adult legally competent and healthy woman in the age period suitable for childbirth.

Healthy Life Years

The indicator Healthy Life Years (HLY) is calculated as a combination of mortality and disability in a way that in the context of the expected years of life at any age and it indicates the number or proportion of years someone will survive without disabilities. The indicator thus distinguishes between a life without limitations in usual activities and years of life, when a person is prevented from normal activities due to health problems for a longer time (Zaletel and Lavtar 2013). As indicated in **Table III.6.**, for Slovenia, in 2012 this indicator was lower for females (55.6) than for males (56.5). In the same year, the number of healthy life years at birth was estimated at 61.3 years for men and 61.9 years for women in the EU-28. Regarding

these figures, Slovenia is ranked almost at the end of the list of EU countries. Additionally, the same data set shows that life expectancy for women in the EU-28 was, on average, 5.6 years longer than that for men in 2012. Men therefore tend to spend a greater proportion of their somewhat shorter lives free from activity limitations (EUROSTAT 2014c).

6.4 Domain 4. Care & work-life policies and practices

In Slovenia, several studies revealed the discrepancy between egalitarian gender ideology in the paid economy, which supports full-time employment of both genders, and households'/families' realities, where women still take a greater part of the work burden. The main conclusion points to the lack of egalitarian discourse on parenting and the division of unpaid tasks alongside non-egalitarian practices. The latter was already observed in the first research study on the division of domestic labour in Slovenia (1977), which showed 'traditional' gendered division of domestic tasks despite the almost full employment of the adult female population (Ule et al., 1978). Since then, the majority of studies, examining the division of labour at 'home', describe a similar picture: women as caregivers and homemakers who spend a disproportionate amount of time on unpaid domestic work (Rener 1985; Jogan 1986; Ule et al., 1990; Barbič 2000, 2005; Rener et al., 2006; Černič Istenič 2006, 2007; Sedmak and Medarić 2007; Humer and Kuhar 2010; Knežević Hočevar and Černič Istenič 2010; Knežević Hočevar 2007, 2010, 2012, 2013; Švab et al., 2012).

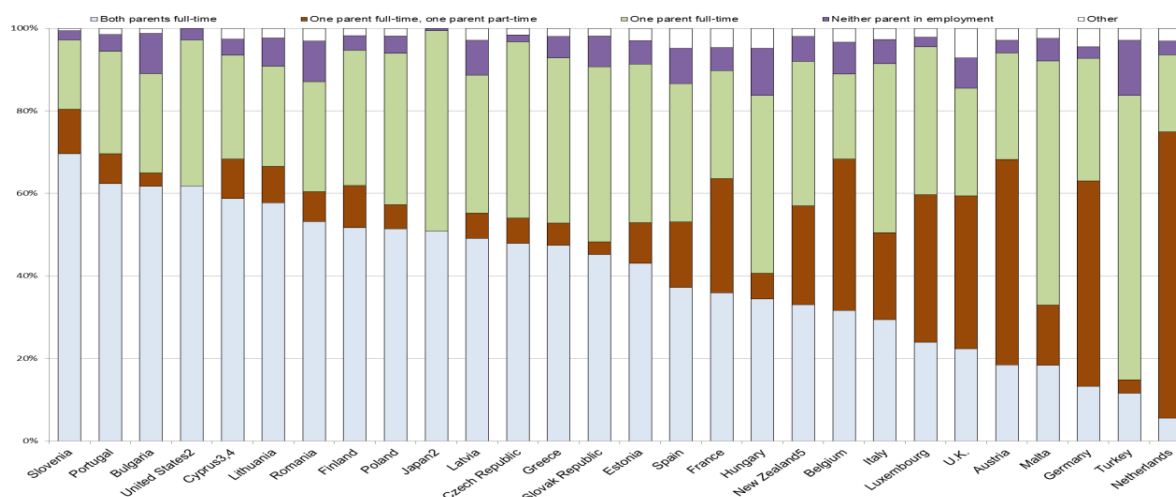
Recent studies discuss two trends of care reallocation in Slovenia as a result of such a gendered division of home tasks: from women to paid services for those who can afford it, and to unpaid services provided by relatives (Humer 2009, Hrženjak 2011, 2012, 2013). Few studies point to work-family conflict as experienced and understood by working parents (Grönlund and Javornik 2014), and rare studies discuss changing fatherhood either towards their changing paternal identity and related values or their fathering practices (Rener et al., 2008, Švab and Humer 2010). Finally, in the framework of the European Commission's Initiative Programme (EQUAL), the Slovenian Development Partnership entitled Young Mother/Family-Friendly Employment carried out the first national in-depth research on parents' and

potential parents' attitudes and experience of their motherhood and fatherhood at work (Kanjuro Mrčela and Černigoj Sadar 2007, Stropnik 2011).

Although in **Table IV.1.**, there is no data provided for Slovenia pertaining to time spent by men and women in domestic activities, some statistics available on this theme were collected in the frame of the European Time Use Surveys carried out from 1999 to 2008. Statistics show that in Slovenia in 2008, women over the age of 15 with at least one child allocated a higher share of their daily time to household activities (18.3%) than men did (10.3%), took over more care work (8.8%) than men (4%) and were more engaged in childcare (9.2%) than men (4.1%). At the same time, they allocated less of their time to work-related activities (13.1%) than men (23.4%) did (OECD 2010a: 16).

Table IV.2., referring to the working-time arrangements of couples by family circumstances and age of youngest child, also does not provide data for Slovenia. However, the OECD Family Database on children in families by employment status (2014b) provides some data. As Graph 1 reveals, Slovenia is actually the first one among all countries included in this database with 70% of parents with children aged 0–14 in full-time employment. Simultaneously, it is at the very end considering part-time employment arrangements of parents. Moreover, with as many as 75% of single parents working full-time, Slovenia also occupies the first place among the included countries (see more about legislation on part-time work in Domain 2).

Graph 1: Children in couple households by parental employment status, 2011
(Source: OECD 2014b: 3)



Additionally, data for Slovenia collected in the frame of the Labour Force Survey in 2010, show a difference among men and women regarding reconciliation between work and family life. According to this data (SURs 2011) in 2010, 75% of fathers took the 15-day paternity leave and 90% of mothers took the maternity leave lasting three months. Among parents taking the parental leave (which usually starts when the child is three months old and usually lasts nine months) there were just 7% men and 93% women. Two thirds of fathers that took the parental leave spent only up to three months on this leave and one third spent 7 to 12 months at home. On the other hand, 80% of mothers spent 7 to 12 months on paternity leave. Furthermore, in the same data set (SURs 2011), it was reported that among 44.000 persons who worked fewer hours than usual in at least one month due to childcare, there were 72% of women. Research shows that mothers usually take full-time parental leave, while the reasons for low participation of fathers in parental leave are interpreted in line with the traditional division of tasks within the family, attitudes in the society, the absence of a positive image attributed to the father with more family responsibilities, employers' expectations and demands related to male employees, and due to the limited duration of full wage compensation. Therefore, absence due to parental leave continues to affect women's professional careers (Švab and Humer 2013, Stropnik 2014b).

The data from **Table IV.3.**, show that the amount of time spent in paid and unpaid work varies among genders; while on average men (of all ages) spend 5 hours in paid

work women spend 4 hours. Similarly, while men spend 2.7 hours in unpaid work, the corresponding amount for women is 4.8 hours.

Among the inactive population in Slovenia there are 57.6% of women. However, among women aged 25–49, the corresponding share is 11.4% (SURS 2014). Data in **Tables IV.4., and IV.5.**, show that in the period from 2000 to 2012, the main reasons of inactivity of this group of women were other reasons, including illness (45%–56%). Corresponding shares for men were a bit higher (59%–65%). In that period, the second main reason of inactivity for women was home-making (20%–24%), while for men it was retirement (28%–15%). In addition, 17% of women and 20% of men were inactive due to enrolment into study.

As explained under Domain 2, part-time work was an unusual employment arrangement in Slovenia until the 1990s. It has rarely been a preference and it is not widespread even today (Stropnik, Šircelj 2008). However, in Slovenia, there are several legal provisions that allow part-time employment due to parenthood on a voluntary basis. According to the 2007 Parenthood Protection and Family Benefit Act, 260 days of parental leave may be taken as 520 days of half-time leave; the parent of a child below the age of three (if the parent is taking care of two children until the youngest child reaches six years of age) may choose to work part-time and have social security contributions paid by the state budget to make up the difference to the full-time working hours. The latter applies also for the parent, who nurses and takes care of a child below the age of 18 with a severe physical disability or a moderate or severe mental disability. Finally, chapters that more or less explicitly discuss reconciliation of work and family are included in several other national documents, e.g. The Social Agreement for the Period 2007–2009, the Development Strategy of the Republic of Slovenia for the Period 2006–2013 and the Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men 2005–2013 (Stropnik 2011). Finally, research shows that part-time work has been much more related to age and health status than to gender. For employees aged over 55 years and with health difficulties, part-time work is mostly the solution.

Flexible working arrangements for family reasons:

In Slovenia, very few companies have formal arrangements for work at places other than the regular work place. Tele(home)working is performed mostly at the initiative of individual employees and based on agreement between employer and employee. Studies from the beginning of the 2000s show that very few organisations formally used homeworking and telework, and that a small share of employees (between 0 and 5%) were performing such work (Stropnik 2011).

The 2013 revisions of the Employment Relationship Act involve the Article (148), which relates to a more flexible distribution of working time. At first, such a provision was introduced in the 2007 version of the Act but under the Article 147. The employee may propose a change in the work schedule in order to reconcile professional and family life, and the employer has to provide his arguments in written form, taking into account the needs of the work process. The 2007 version of the Employment Relationships Act first defined telework and homework in the Article 67, and in the following article (68) guaranteed the same rights for tele(home)workers as those enjoyed by the company-based employees (Stropnik 2011). In the 2013 Act, telework and homework are defined in the Article 68 while the rights, obligations and conditions for such a working arrangement are defined in the following Article 69. In its Article 163, the 2013 Act guarantees parents of school-age children the right to take at least one week of their annual leave during school holidays. The Article 185 further allows parents who nurse and take care of a child under the age of seven or a child who is severely ill or a child who is in need of special care, and parents who live alone with the child to work overtime or at night only upon their prior written consent. Finally, female employees who are still breastfeeding their children (up to 18 months) have the right to a one-hour daily break at least once per day (Article 188).

Good practices of family-work balance: A Certificate for Family-Friendly Enterprise

To improve work-life balance, the Slovenian government introduced in 2007 a certification scheme to encourage employers to apply family-friendly principles in the workplace. The 'Family Friendly Company' certificate, as a novelty in the Slovenian business environment, is awarded to companies that adopt at least three measures from a catalogue of work-family reconciliation measures, such as flexible working

times, company childcare services, job sharing, adoption leave, part-time work and the assistance to care for a disabled family member (Stropnik 2011).

Family related measures

Some authors believe that current family policy measures (allowances, subsidies, income compensation) not only alleviate the decrease in the family standard of living after the birth of the child but provide also some necessary preconditions for reconciling work with family obligations and for the implementation of equal opportunities for both genders. Moreover, these measures are seen as having prevented an even greater decline in the number of births in Slovenia, and alleviated the economic standard or even poverty in many families with children (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008).

Family benefits: Currently (2014), these benefits encompass parental allowance, childbirth allowance, child allowance, large family allowance, allowance for care of a child needing special care and protection, and part payment for lost income.

Since the World War II, child allowance has been a benefit of low income families and, since 1994, of middle income families as well. In 1996, the income threshold was raised from 50% to 110% of the national average gross wage per family member. Consequently, some 90% of children (those up to the age of 15 years and those up to the age of 26 years who were still in full-time education) were eligible. In 1999, the income threshold was lowered to 99% of the national average gross wage per family member. Progressive child allowance was dependent on family income and number of children. Dependence of the child benefit level on the birth order of the child was introduced, and the benefit levels were increased considerably (by 38% on average), particularly for children in families with the lowest income and children of higher birth orders. From 2003, child benefits for pre-school children who are not included in subsidised childcare programs are 20% higher, and from 2004, they are 10% higher for children in single-parent families, as compared to those for other children (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008). In line with the Fiscal Balance Act (2012), there are changes of eligibility criteria for child allowance (6 income brackets, the highest is set

at 64% of average net salary per family member; before it was 99% of average net salary per family member).

Until the end of 1993, parental allowance was limited to female with higher secondary education, university students and the registered unemployed persons, and was received for 84 days. Since 1994, this benefit has been granted to persons who are not eligible for the insurance-based wage compensation during the parental leave (about 14% of parents on the parental leave) for the period of one year (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008).

In 2002, large family allowance was introduced for families with three or more children younger than 18 years or 26 years if fulfilling the status of education (pupil, student or apprentice). In line with the Fiscal Balance Act (2012), this benefit is not calculated at a universal flat rate, but became means-tested (upper limit at 64% of average net salary per family member). There are also some other direct and indirect family benefits like the birth grant (a one-off ‘childbirth allowance’ payment intended to cover some of the costs related to new-borns), textbook funds, scholarships, subsidised transport for pupils and students and subsidised school meals, some of them being universal rights and some means-tested (Stropnik and Šircelj 2008).

6.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

Location of Slovenia in existing welfare regimes

Due to specific social circumstances in former socialist societies, a specific type of welfare system also evolved in socialist Yugoslavia (which Slovenia was a part of) – a state socialist welfare system, in which the state had a dominant role. The state owned, financed and controlled all institutions and organisations providing social protection and welfare to its citizens (Kolarič et al., 2009, 2011). However, a large burden for ensuring social welfare and security was also placed on informal social networks, especially family and kinship networks, but also neighbourhoods and circles of friends. The third important element in the provision of welfare was the ‘grey’ economy provided by individuals employed in public institutions that was tolerated by the state, as it compensated for shortcomings in the public sector. The role of the market and non-profit organisations was weak due to formal limitations

that civic organisations faced and especially due to formal limitations in the social/charitable role of the Church (Kolarič et al., 2009, 2011).

In the transition from the socialist to the capitalist system of production, some changes of the former social policy systems occurred. However, unlike in some other former socialist countries, these were gradual (Kolarič et al., 2009: 49). The foundations of the present welfare system in Slovenia are compulsory social insurance schemes based on social partnership. These represent the primary instruments for ensuring social security of employees and their family members. The health system, on the other hand, is founded on the principle of solidarity in the sense of universal rights and autonomy. Supplementary private insurance schemes have also developed in the field of pension and health insurance. In addition, private for profit organisations are becoming increasingly important in the field of health care provision, for example. While the state still represents the main provider of social services, the importance of the private non-profit sector is also increasing. In this sense, the welfare state in Slovenia combines elements of the conservative-corporative (compulsory social insurance systems based on social partnership) on the one hand, and social-democratic (strong public/state sector as the main service provider, state support to the informal sector and complimentary relationship between public/state sector and non-profit voluntary sector) welfare system on the other hand (Kolarič et al., 2011). Although research has persuasively demonstrated that informal networks, especially of family members and relatives (mainly parents) are the main providers of social support in the private sphere (including household chores and childcare), especially in the last decade the issue of paid domestic work is also gaining increasing public and research attention (Hrženjak 2007, 2012; Šadl 2006, 2010, 2014). Researchers have attributed such a trend mainly to increasing shares of women in managerial and professional positions, the increasingly common culture of long working hours and persistent gender asymmetries in the division of household work.

According to the OECD (2009), Slovenia's social protection system is still well developed. As presented in the analyses of Domains 3 and 4, family policy includes a wide array of child benefits, parental leave and maternity leave allowances, and

financial support towards childcare and kindergartens. Social transfers have relatively broad coverage in Slovenia and social spending appears to have a high effectiveness with regard to poverty and inequality reduction (OECD, 2009). Josipovič and Trbanc similarly (2012: 5) maintain that ‘the relatively successful Slovenian economic and social development during the 1990s and in the first years after 2000 was strongly connected to gradual, cautious approach to economic and social reforms. The social protection stayed at a relatively high level, which was until recently reflected in relatively low poverty rates and comparatively low income inequalities. This ‘gradualist approach’ was unique compared to other transition countries in Central and Eastern Europe’ (see also Kolarič et al., 2011).

Although an exhaustive review of the social policy in Slovenia is beyond the scope of this report, some general trends point to the decrease of the level of social policy provisions that target the most vulnerable groups of the population. Such a trend could undoubtedly be attributed also to the effects of the economic crisis, especially from 2009 on. Blum et al., (2014) maintain that economic and crisis-related arguments for austerity measures prevailed in public discussions in Slovenia. For example, the latest changes in legislation in 2012 and 2013, as documented in Domains 2 and 4, have brought about a decrease and/or changed eligibility criteria for various state benefits. In 2010, a reform of the pension system was passed, increasing the period of work activity and halting the fall of pensions while stabilising expenditures for pensions in the medium-term perspective. There were so far no major reforms of the health system and system for long-term care (*Poročilo o razvoju*, 2013: 12).

Equal opportunity policies and practices: Historical overview

In Slovenia, the women's question first appeared in the 1870s. In 1897, the right to university-level education was granted to women in the Austro-Hungarian Empire that Slovenia formed part of at the time. In 1901, the first feminist society on the territory of today's Slovenia was established. Among its goals was also increasing women's educational levels. At that time, the profession of a teacher was the only ‘intellectual’ profession available to women. Gradually, women gained access also into other educational fields, such as law and medicine. The first Slovenian woman

graduated at the university level in 1905, and the first doctorate ever at the University of Ljubljana (until 1975 the only university in Slovenia) was awarded to a woman in 1920 (cited in Mladenić 2007).

After the end of World War II in 1945, the Yugoslav State, of which Slovenia formed a part, was constituted as a socialist country and the life of women in this period was extensively marked by socialist political practice (Bahovec et al., 2002: 292-293). Already the first constitution of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia from 1946 enabled women full equality with men in both public and private domains. The 1947 Basic Act on the Relationship between Parents and Children also introduced the equality of mothers and fathers in relation to children and the legal equality of children born to married and unmarried parents (Švab et al., 2012: 321). As described by, for example, Kralj and Renner (2010 in Švab et al., 2012: 420), in the socialist period women were endowed with a high level of political, social and economic emancipation, while the family was considered as being a phase in 'socialisation' in terms of the transition of family functions from the private. Consequently, issues such as the gender division of family labour or domestic violence were not tackled, as the political leadership regarded family relations as somewhat 'irrelevant' (Švab et al., 2012).⁶¹

Such an omission of the family was both a result of the economic needs for a new work force and the needs and interest of women for working outside the home (Bahovec et al., 1992: 301). Nevertheless, the high labour force participation of women was also a consequence of the socialist ideological framework that defined women as both workers and mothers and defined paid employment for both genders as a social norm (*ibid.*: 294). However, this did not entail a decrease in women's obligations in the family, as women were still perceived as primarily responsible for childcare and household tasks, as extensively documented in research on the subject.

⁶¹ It was only around the 1980s that issues such as reconciliation of paid work and family life gained increased public and research attention (Leskošek 2004) and the first research study on this issue was conducted in 1977. It was found that 'the distribution of gender roles and family obligations were relatively traditional in spite of the almost full employment of the adult female population' (Ule, Mežnarić and Ferligoj in Švab et al., 2012: 427). As research from the 1970s and 1980s persuasively demonstrates, women in Slovenia and Yugoslavia regarded their employment not only in terms of economic welfare, but also as a means of expressing personal autonomy (e.g. Renner 1986; Jogan 1987; etc. cited in Švab et al., 2012: 427).

Despite such a discrepancy, it is quite generally agreed that the position of women in the socialist period was at enviable levels in terms of accessibility of education, a high level of employment and thus economic independence, liberal legislation on abortion, birth control and family planning, a reasonably developed and accessible network of childcare, etc. (Bahovec et al., 2002: 302). In this respect, in terms of social rights and formal/legal equality, the socialist system in Yugoslavia (Slovenia) undoubtedly surpassed policies and practices in some 'Western' countries (Švab et al., 2012). The so-called state feminism, with its proclaimed equality, was prevalent. An illustrative example of a high degree of formally recognised women's rights is the regulation of reproductive rights and legalisation of abortions (see the analysis in Domain 3).⁶²

In 1977, the penal Code of Slovenia (but not Yugoslavia) defined rape in and out of heterosexual wedlock as a criminal offence and decriminalised homosexual relationships. In 1981, Yugoslavia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

In 1988, the Council for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, an oppositional civil society institution, was established. With the establishment of the new social movements in Slovenia in the 1980s, the socialist 'state feminism', represented by the Conference for the questions of the social position of women as a part of the Socialist Alliance of Working People, encountered an 'opposition' in numerous women's, gay, lesbian, peace and similar movements. These were all oriented mainly towards political emancipation. The largely unaddressed issues that they brought to the public attention were the problematic relation between private, public and political spheres, the participation of women in politics, the position of women in families, media and school books representation of women, the right to free choice and sexual orientation and especially the issue of violence against women. The developments in these groups in the 1980s and 1990s undoubtedly facilitated

⁶² To sketch a timeline of the most important gender equality legislation, we draw mainly on the QUING national report Issue Histories Slovenia: Series of Timelines of Policy Debates (Kuhar et al., 2007).

the emergence and elaboration of the concepts of women's question, women's politics and equal opportunities (Kuhar 2007).

At a state level, the Office for women's politics, a governmental advisory body for women's and gender equality issues was established in 1992.⁶³ The first interdisciplinary post-graduate programme Women's Studies and Feminist Theory was launched at the Faculty of Arts in the second half of the 1990s (Kuhar 2007).

After acquiring independence, Slovenia was relatively quick to ratify international documents in the area of equal opportunities, for instance, the UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women in 1992, the Convention On Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms in 1994 and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in 1995 (Kuhar et al., 2007).

Despite such a long tradition of policies and practices to establish gender equality, the issue of equal opportunities became fully institutionalised in 2002, when Slovenia adopted its first Equal Opportunities between Women and Men Act, which foresaw gender mainstreaming as a legally binding governmental approach. Before the adoption of the Act, the fundamental provisions on non-discrimination and gender equality were contained only in the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia. The aim of the Act was to define common grounds for the improvement of the status of women and the establishment of equal opportunities for women and men in political, economic, social, educational and other fields of social life. The Act determines general and special measures for the establishment of equal opportunities and defines responsible actors and their competences and obligations in this area.

A gender equality strategy is also laid down in the Resolution on the National programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men 2005–2013 that directly lists gender mainstreaming as a priority (EIGE 2013). The legal basis for ensuring the equal treatment of persons in all areas of social life regardless of personal circumstances, including gender, was further improved with the enactment of the

⁶³ The office underwent several changes; it was later transformed into the Office for Equal Opportunities.

Implementation of the principle of Equal Treatment Act in 2004.⁶⁴ Together with the Equal Opportunities between Women and Men Act, a legal basis for the identification and prohibition of multiple and intersectional discrimination against women was provided by this act.

In 2004, the Constitutional Act Amending Article 43 of the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia was passed, which, in addition to the general and equal right to vote, also included a paragraph authorising the legislator to establish by law the measures to promote equal opportunities for women and men to stand as candidates in local and state elections. Quotas for the lists of candidates were consequently added to the Election of Slovenian Members to the European Parliament Act (2004), the Local Elections Act (2005) and the National Assembly Elections Act (2006).

As indicated, the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia was amended in 2004 by including a provision on the promotion of equal opportunities of women and men. With regard to vertical segregation, however, women are still underrepresented in decision-making positions. Nevertheless, significant improvements have occurred in the past decade. Despite the legal equality among women and men in Slovenia, the share of women in politics is not equal to the shares of men.

As noted in the governmental report on this issue, although the provision determining the minimum share of women and men on the list of candidates was already in force in 2008, this did not result directly in greater electability of women. At the National Assembly elections in 2011, the share of women Members of Parliament was 32.2% (Table V.1). For the first time in the history of independent Slovenia, women represented more than a third of parliament members (before that time the share was 12% to 14%). This share rose to 35.6% at the last National Assembly elections in 2014 (Women in national parliaments, 2014). At the previous elections in 2011, the proportion of women at the ministerial level in Slovenia was

⁶⁴ In describing and assessing the legal provisions regarding gender equality and equal opportunities for men and women, we draw mainly on the Report on the implementation of the Beijing declaration and platform for action (1995) and the conclusions of the 23rd Special session of the General Assembly (2000) on the occasion of 20th anniversary of the fourth conference on women and the adoption of the Beijing declaration and platform for action in 2015, prepared by the Government of Slovenia in May, 2014 and on the national reports for Slovenia developed within the QUING project.

very low (7.7%) in comparison to other GARCIA countries (Table V.2). However, at the elections in 2014, this share increased considerably to 41.2% (Government of Republic of Slovenia 2014) which situated Slovenia closer to Garcia countries with the highest shares of women in the governmental structure. In comparison with previous elections to the European Parliament, in 2014, the share of female Members of the EU Parliament from Slovenia decreased from 50% (Pleš et al., 2013) to 37.5% (Salecl, 2014). The proportion of women in municipal councils was only about 13% until 2006. Following the enactment of legislative measures to ensure greater equality between men and women on candidate lists, after the next two elections, the proportion of women counsellors in municipal councils increased to more than 22% (Pleš et al., 2013), while in 2014 their share is 32% (Salecl, 2014). Women represent just 7.5% of all mayors. So far the two highest state functions of both the President and the President of the Parliament of Slovenia have not been dedicated to women. The first female Prime Minister was proclaimed in 2013, while the current Prime Minister is a man. Political parties, as was shown by the Women's Lobby of Slovenia 2011 analysis of national assembly elections, did not include women on the list of candidates in localities where they had greater possibilities of being elected. Nevertheless, the introduction of quotas, although not immediately, has contributed significantly to an increased share of women in the parliament. It has also resulted in better visibility and recognisability of women in politics, as well as in greater awareness of the need for more gender-balanced representation in political decision-making.

Family Violence Prevention Act was adopted in 2008 and in the same year a new Penal Code defining family violence as a criminal offence for which the perpetrator can be sentenced to an imprisonment of up to five years, also came into force. Domestic violence was implicitly recognised as a criminal offence already in the amendment of the Penal Code in 1999, and more severe punishments for criminal offences against sexual integrity were introduced already in the amendments to the Penal code in 2004.⁶⁵

⁶⁵ In the 1994 Penal Code, the violation of the principle of equality was classified among the criminal offences against human rights. Criminalisation of trafficking in women was also introduced (Kuhar et al., 2007).

As indicated in the analyses of the Domain 3, the Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act from 2001 lay grounds for measures facilitating professional and private life and greater involvement of fathers in childcare by giving them an individual and non-transferable right to paternity leave. An option of part-time work for one parent was also introduced depending on the age and number of children.

In 2005, the registration of Same-Sex Partnership Act was adopted, giving partners in same-sex relationships a say in each other's medical care and granting limited inheritance rights. No social, pension or other similar rights were granted and adoption or parenting rights were also not addressed (Kuhar et al., 2007). The Marriage Equality Bill, aiming to give same-sex couples the same rights as heterosexual couples, with the exception of adopting children, is currently under government proposal.

The first gender mainstreaming activities at the government level started in 1997 with a pilot project involving several ministries. The aim of the project was to educate state employees on gender equality policy and the concept of gender mainstreaming. Particular attention was given to educating public officials also in subsequent years (Government of the Republic of Slovenia 2014). The Office for Equal Opportunities was quite active in promoting the concept of gender mainstreaming in the public arena. For example, it undertook numerous awareness-raising activities and educational tools for specific ministries mostly as part of two projects: Making Gender Mainstreaming Work and Gender Mainstreaming Strategy, co-financed under the PROGRESS programme. The first initiative resulted in concrete tools and training modules on gender mainstreaming for civil servants at the national and local level. The second project used the training module at gender mainstreaming trainings organised at different ministries and a training programme on gender mainstreaming in the budget process was carried out. It resulted in two tools: a list of questions for gender mainstreaming in the budget process and a web tool for gender mainstreaming (EIGE 2013; Government of the Republic of Slovenia 2014). Nevertheless, the implementation of gender mainstreaming is still very limited and a gender mainstreaming steering group is proposed among possible solutions.

The Office for Equal Opportunities was transformed from an independent public body to an Equal Opportunities Department within the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs (at present Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities) in 2012. Consequently, in the aftermath of the economic crisis in Slovenia, its financial resources have been further limited. At present, gender training at ministerial level is specialised and provided on an ad hoc basis (EIGE 2013). From 2010, the Advocate of the Principle of Equality, a specialised body for prevention and elimination of discrimination in Slovenia, is also in function. Its main responsibility is to assist the victims of discrimination who report such cases and to guide and advice to prevent discrimination (MDDSZ). The Office of the Ombudsman is also in charge of monitoring gender equality and the implementation of equal opportunity measures in Slovenia. The Council for the Implementation of the Principle of Equal Treatment is an advisory body of the Government in the area of non-discrimination and equal treatment, which in addition to representatives of ministries, also includes representatives of non-governmental organisations (Government of the Republic of Slovenia, 2014).

Another significant element that contributed to the introduction of gender equality legislation is the accession to the European Union, which played a considerable role in adopting gender equality legislation. Europeanization in the context of equal opportunities policy leads to the homogenisation process of standards for gender equality in the European Union member states (Humer 2007). In this respect, Humer (2007) maintains equal opportunities policy as a concept and as a legal mechanism emerged mainly from the Western tradition. As such, it was directly applied also in Slovenia as a new European Union member state.

Although we have witnessed progress in some aspects of gender equality in the last two decades, there have been some conservative tendencies and revivals of traditionalism. Among the most illustrative ones are attempts to prohibit abortion and intense public debates on the regulation of medically assisted reproduction procedures.

Initiatives aimed at increasing birth rates and prohibiting abortion came to the forefront in the years before Slovenia acquired independence, especially in the end of the 1980s. Nevertheless, following intense pressure mainly from feminist groups and women's organisations, the Constitution of the newly-formed Slovenian state of 1991 included a provision giving women and men the freedom of choice in childbearing (Kuhar et al., 2007; Švab et al., 2012). In the Draft proposal for the increase of fertility, presented in 2006 by the Ministry of Labour, Work and Social Affairs, it was claimed that the number of abortions in Slovenia contributes to the poor demographic image of the nation. Consequently, it was suggested that the payment for artificial termination of pregnancy should be on the side of the women, not state subsidies. The proposal, however, was never passed (Kuhar et al. 2007).

The second important event regarding women's reproductive rights dates to the end of the 1990s and concerns the regulation of procedures of insemination with biomedical assistance. In 1977, all women, regardless of their marital status, acquired the right to medically assisted reproduction procedures. After intense public debates and a national referendum on this issue, the right to insemination with biomedical assistance was denied to single women in 2001.

Nevertheless, in spite of the tendency of governments in the post-socialist period to put the issues related to gender equality aside, it is quite generally agreed that these issues remained important in the public arena. This could be ascribed not only to European Union integration incentives, but also due to the socialist legacy and the profound engagement of civil society movements (Kuhar et al., 2007).

[Assessing the effectiveness of existing equal opportunities measures](#)

Especially in the last decade, different projects and initiatives have addressed the effectiveness of existing policy measures related to equal opportunities and anti-discrimination measures. According to the European Institute for Gender Equality (2013), the economic crisis has had a negative impact on the gender equality policy in Slovenia in a broader context. In this respect, Women's Lobby in Slovenia in 2013 conducted a study on the effect of anti-crisis measures on gender equality in the country (Humer and Roksanđić, 2013). The authors have shown that, similarly to

other European Union countries, the effects of reduced public spending and fiscal consolidations have not been evaluated by the government in Slovenia from the viewpoint of gender equality. They based the study on one of the most exhaustive analysis of the gender pay gap in Slovenia. The authors stressed that the gender pay gap has increased not only in the period of transition, but also during the economic crisis in Slovenia and that its levels are significantly higher than represented in official (EUROSTAT) data (Penner et al. in Humer and Roksandić, 2013). The intervention measures to combat the negative effects of the economic crisis in Slovenia seem to have affected women to a greater degree than men. Among other measures, changed eligibility criteria for child and other family benefits had following consequences:

- Disproportionally affected women as primary applicants for such benefits;
- Decreased the percentage of wage compensation for parental leave, which is predominantly taken by women; and
- Decreased wages in the public sector, where the share of women is greater than that of men.

In this respect, the authors of the report concluded that the 'shrinkage of the welfare state and cuts in the public sector, mainly in the area of health and the social security, shift care responsibilities from the state to households, especially women, who perform the majority of informal household and care labour. Such trends lead to reprivatisation of care services (transfer of care to the family domain) and to a retraditionalisation of gender roles' (Humer and Roksandić, 2013: 24).

Also in 2013, an evaluation of the effects of the Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men 2005–2013 was carried out. It addressed different thematic areas pertaining to gender equality (Kanjuro Mrčela et al., 2013). As regards to the labour market, the authors note that steps towards greater gender equality were achieved in terms of the employment rate, youth unemployment and self-employment. They attribute these changes also to the increasingly unfavourable position of men on the labour market. However, significant gender differences continue to exist especially in areas pertaining to working conditions, segregation according to types of work and gender pay gap. Furthermore, they conclude that gender differences with regard to type and level of education have

not decreased. Women also still face significantly higher at-risk-of-poverty rates than men, which holds especially true for single mothers and older women. Violence in the family, on the other hand, is stated as an illustrative example of an encompassing, thorough and holistic approach in gender equality policies. The authors of the evaluation also note positive improvements with regard to encouraging and achieving active fatherhood. Nevertheless, the failed attempt in 2013 to introduce one month of parental leave as the exclusive right of fathers and non-transferable to the mother of the child, demonstrates that major changes in this area will require more time and active efforts of different social actors. They maintain that the lowering of wage compensation for parental leave (from 100% to 90% in 2012) bears not only practical consequences (women prevalently use parental leave), but also symbolic implications in terms of attributing lesser value to childcare in opposition to paid work. In relation to the position of women in the decision-making processes, a call for more concrete activities, addressing mainly young women, is made. Reviewing government reform documents from 2005 onwards, they also observe a tendency to increasingly marginalise gender equality issues, a trend that has undoubtedly been accelerated during the period of economic crisis.

In May 2014, the Government of Slovenia has issued a Report on the implementation of the Beijing declaration and platform for action (1995) and the conclusions of the 23rd Special session of the General Assembly (2000) on the occasion of 20th anniversary of the fourth conference on women and the adoption of the Beijing declaration and platform for action in 2015. Progress was noted especially in three areas: a more balanced gender representation in the political decision-making process⁶⁶, combating violence against women and an easier reconciliation of professional and private life.

Regarding the issue of violence against women, the role of non-governmental organisations is highlighted in the report. The Family Violence Prevention act, the Resolution on the National Programme for Family Violence Prevention 2009–2014 and a new Criminal Code defining violence as a criminal offence, together with other

⁶⁶ The role of women in political decision-making has already been discussed in previous parts of the report (Domain 5).

implementing regulations all contributed to a systematic regulation of preventing and combating violence against women.

Activities aimed at a better reconciliation of work and family life have mostly been targeted at achieving a more equal division of childcare between partners and encouraging fathers to exercise their parental rights by increasingly using paternity as well as parental leave, which is still almost exclusively used by mothers. Some improvements have occurred, however – in 2001, only 1% of fathers took some parental leave for child nursing and care, while in 2012, this share rose to 8%.

The report mentions two areas in which strategies for achieving gender equality need to be strengthened: first, the status of women in the decision-making processes in the economy, and second, the area of gender mainstreaming (discussed under the previous heading). The twenty largest listed companies have only 10% of chairwomen, 20% of female management board members, 24% of female non-executive and 19% of female executive directors (data for 2013). In recent years, this problem has been highlighted in research and support measures, but more binding measures may be needed to achieve concrete progress in this area.

Equal opportunities in the context of gender/science/education

As statistical data concerning gender equality and differences between women and men in Slovenia have already been extensively referred to and interpreted in previous sections of this report, in this part we focus on data that more concretely relate to the position of women in science/education in Slovenia.

Vendramin (2010) has prepared a EURYDICE report for Slovenia on gender differences in educational outcomes. She maintains that gender equality issues are acknowledged to a certain degree, but often considered as a thing of the past, merely a theoretical issue or a marginal subject in view of all other pressing issues. For instance, in 1999, when a new pre-school curriculum was published, there were quite a few public objections to the proposed mention of the rights of girls. It was claimed that in the school system in Slovenia, there was no gender-based discrimination and that boys and girls were treated equally. The White Paper, the basic document in the

sphere of education in Slovenia, stresses equal opportunities and non-discrimination on the basis of sex, social and cultural background, religion, nationality, physical and psychological condition, and so on. The rights of the female child are also mentioned in terms of a required shift from formal to substantive rights (*ibid*). Equal opportunities were among the principles of the curricular reform in Slovenia. The commissions in charge of preparing new programmes and curricula were supposed to include issues related to gender difference into the curriculum, but there were no standardised procedures to achieve this. A substantive amount of research documenting the omission of gendered sensibilities in school textbooks has been conducted (*ibid*).

As discussed in previous parts of the report, the differences between women and men in education increase at higher education levels. More women than men complete undergraduate studies, but on the post-graduate level, the proportion of women decreases. Women are also poorly represented in senior positions in science and research. While they are good in medical and social sciences, men are more successful in natural and technical sciences.

Therefore, it remains necessary to motivate female graduates to enter sectors perceived as ‘atypical’ for their gender (The current situation of gender equality in Slovenia 2012). Nevertheless, horizontal segregation in Slovenia is still lower than the EU-27 average. Several initiatives and projects have been developed to reduce gender-based segregation in secondary and higher vocational education programmes and in curricular and extra-curricular activities. For example, a Researchers Night was organised with the aim of acquainting young people with science and promoting enrolment in post-graduate courses. A professional training programme Equal Gender Opportunities was organised by the Faculty of Education which included targeted methods of encouraging girls and boys to enrol equally in secondary (vocational) programmes and tertiary programmes (Government of the Republic of Slovenia 2014). On the policy level, the issue of vertical and horizontal segregation is recorded in the Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men. In the resolution, educational measures for integrating untypical ‘female’ and ‘male’ occupations to reduce both forms of segregation are called for.

One of the proposed solutions is the promotion of scholarships for female pupils and students in educational programmes traditionally dominated by men and vice versa (Vendramin 2010).

Despite ensured formal equality the issue of equal opportunities of men and women in science in Slovenia is highly relevant for the scientific field. This is confirmed by existing research on the subject. As described by Jogan (2004), the Office of the Slovenian National UNESCO Committee publicly addressed the question of equal opportunities for the first time in 1994. Consequently, in 1996, the Committee financed the research entitled 'The position of female scientists in Slovenia'. The project, the first systematic study of the position of women in science in Slovenia, was led by Maca Jogan, who had previously conducted small-scale research amongst full professors at the University of Ljubljana (1992). These two projects found the following key obstacles to women's academic careers: hidden discrimination, lack of support in working organisations, prejudice against women, overburdening with unnecessary (especially administrative) tasks, a Spartan way of life as a prerequisite for efficiency at work, overburdening with family/household tasks and poor knowledge of possible changes (Jogan 2004). In 1997, a survey on the position of university teachers also demonstrated that women assess information and possibilities to influence decision-making processes less favourably than men do (Podmenik, Kump and Kramberger cited in Šadl 2006). Smaller-scale interviews on power and authority in academic institutions were also conducted in more focused research studies (Luthar and Šadl 2002; Šadl 2006).

Gender issues in science and research in Slovenia are highlighted especially by the Commission for the Promotion of Women in Science (at present Commission for Women in Science) at the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, which was founded in 2001 following the recommendation of the Helsinki Group on Women and Science. The Helsinki Group first tackled the issue of harmonisation of statistics and indicators in 2002. The national correspondent for the She figures publications is the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia. Since 2003, statistical data on wages according to gender, education and scientific position are also analysed by the Commission. Among the first large-scale activities of Slovenian

researchers in the area of gender and science was the participation in the Enwise Expert Group (Enwise-Enlarge Women in Science to East) with members from Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic states that was established by the European Commission in 2002. The group collaborated closely with the Commission. Both a national and a comparative report were prepared within its framework in 2004, presenting historical and geopolitical profiles of the involved countries that influenced the position of women in science in different national contexts. The Central European Centre for Women and Youth in Science (CEC-WYS), a project funded by the European Commission built on the activities of the Enwise group and a mapping of the situation of women in science was conducted for four countries, Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia. Questionnaire-based research was performed with stakeholders at the national governmental level, decision-making representatives from the media and senior representatives of higher education institutions and the academy in 2005. It is quite indicative that only 24.5% of respondents from the scientific sphere answered that the issue of equal opportunities in the area of research and development formed a part of the development strategy in their own institution. The majority also agreed that the position of women in science is neither bad nor good. A lack of knowledge and sensitivity to the question of women in science was also noted especially among stakeholders in the political sphere. In scientific circles, the opinions on the position of women in science were found to be mixed, but the need to encourage girls to choose traditionally ‘male’ fields of study was highlighted by respondents (Jogan et al.; Umek Venturini, 2013).⁶⁷

In 2011, a large-scale study regarding the position of women and the differences between genders in science in Slovenia entitled ‘Differences in working conditions in science in Slovenia’ was carried out. It was largely organised by the members of the Commission for Women in Science in Slovenia. The survey was sent out to 4 551 PhD holders, of which 1 100 responded. The focus of research was on working conditions, management of scientific careers and obstacles and discrimination mechanisms in scientific careers. As the results of the study are too extensive to be analysed in more

⁶⁷ The follow-up activities of the Enwise and CEC-WYS activities included several activities related to women in ICT (physical and virtual exhibition, organisation of an international workshop); activities in collaboration with the Commission for the Promotion of Women in Science and linkages to other international (FP 6) projects (Linková et al., 2007).

detail in this report, we summarise the main findings of the study under the heading: ‘Current challenges and debates on women and science issues in the Slovenian context’ (Ule 2013a; 2013b).

As regards to policy referring directly to the improvement of women's position in science, Rules about (co)financing basic, applicative and postdoctoral projects, which are in use from 2005, have recognised the significance of maternity/parental leave as a factor that might have an impact on the five-year research history required from a project leader candidate. Accordingly, this period has been extended. Additionally, the age limit (35 years) of a candidate for a postdoctoral project can be raised for the period of parental/maternity leave. The same applies for the candidates for the young researchers programme, under which postgraduate (doctoral) study and research training for young researchers is financed by the Slovenian Research Agency.

However, with regard to inequalities in science in Slovenia, statistics that pertain to the gender compositions of heads of Programme Groups⁶⁸ are quite illustrative. In April 2014, 242 heads of programme groups were men and 64 were women (20.9 %). This fact points to disproportionate shares of female scientists at higher levels of organisation. In addition, the gender composition of the recipients of Zois awards—the most prestigious scientific awards in Slovenia—is indicative – between 2000 and 2012 no woman has received the highest award for life achievements. The most awards—72%—were awarded in natural and technical sciences, where women are typically underrepresented (Ule 2013a). The share of women on boards that have an influence on the allocation of funding is, according to the European Commission, below the EU-27 average – 23% (cited in Umek Venturini 2013: 16).

The Commission also organises roundtables and conferences pertaining to the wider topic of gender and science in different university centres in Slovenia. In 2011, it also developed guidelines for gender-sensitive use of language. Recently, an initiative to systematically note violations – ‘bad practices’ that relate to the engagement of women in science in Slovenia was also presented within the Commission.

⁶⁸ Programme Groups perform long-term research that is of national interest. The Slovenian Research Agency awards their funding (Slovenian Research Agency).

Several targeted projects aiming (also) at the promotion of women in science and research in Slovenia also exist(ed). For instance, the 7th Framework Programme project Genis LAB (The Gender in Science and Technology LAB) strives at implementing structural changes in order to overcome the factors that limit the participation of women in science. In Slovenia, it is implemented by the National Institute of Chemistry. Several other European Commission framework projects have also been realised in Slovenia (Umek Venturini 2013).

Professional associations that specifically target women also exist. For example, female physicists in Slovenia have been organised in the Informal Network of Female Physicists since 2002. Alpha section, a Slovenian member of the international association of Women in Nuclear Science, also unites women in this professional domain. Among other activities, they have also been active in the promotion of physics to young girls, have organised a travelling poster exhibition 'Slovenian Female in Physics' and have produced a monograph on female physicists in Slovenia. The Slovenian section of IEEE WIE (Women in Engineering and Science) was founded in November 2013.

Current challenges and debates on women and science issues in the Slovenian context

The crucial issues highlighted by research on gender and science in Slovenia could be summarised as follows:

- The gender pay gap in science persists mainly due to differences in benefits related to managerial positions.
- Vertical (men occupy the majority of senior research and managerial positions in science) and horizontal segregation (division of typically male/female fields of science) in science and research persists.
- Female scientists report discrimination by gender more often than male scientists do.
- Nevertheless, the main types of discrimination identified in existing research generally pertain mainly to non-membership in particular informal/interest groups, lobbies and nepotism, which holds true for both male as well as female scientists.

- More female than male scientists report coming across obstacles in international scientific mobility.
- Female scientists report more administrative tasks than their male counterparts.
- Female scientists less often report acquiring national research projects.
- Female scientists report having worse working conditions (in terms of space, research equipment, etc.) than male scientists.
- Female scientists experience significantly higher levels of work-family conflict than male scientists do.
- Female scientists report that they are performing more household and childcare tasks than male scientists do.
- Male scientists receive a significantly higher number of awards for their scientific research than female scientists do.

Conclusions

The report has identified the main characteristics of the welfare system in Slovenia in fields that are relevant for the GARCIA project. It was found that Slovenia has largely preserved the 'state' welfare model that was prevalent in the socialist system, although there are indications that also non-profit and profit organisations are gaining increasing importance in providing welfare to citizens.

Special attention was paid to the issue of paid work and family and to their mutual reconciliation and some peculiarities of the system in Slovenia in comparison to other GARCIA countries were identified. High female labour force participation rates are characteristic of Slovenia and a dual-breadwinner model is prevalent. Part-time work is not very common, which holds true also for women with small children who usually continue to work full-time. This is probably required in financial terms and is facilitated by a solid network of institutionalised childcare and extensive family support networks. Nevertheless, as the report pervasively demonstrates, women, in addition to being employed, also take on the majority of family responsibilities, including housework and childcare. Men devote significantly more time to paid work. Although in recent years there are some indications of an increasing involvement of men in parenting and household chores (e.g. the proportion of men taking parental

leave, increasing use of paternity leave, division of household tasks, etc.), the 'traditional' division of labour at home seems to persist. Based on the data and results of previous research on the subject of (young) women in science, it can be argued that the prevailing life course 'pattern' of women scientists is similar to that described above. Although in terms of education, women have achieved almost full equality with men, and even have surpassed men in some fields, men continue to occupy the majority of senior research and managerial positions in science and divisions of 'typical' male/female fields of science persist.

From 2011 the (ongoing) crisis-related reforms have highly affected the welfare system, also related to gender. The Fiscal Balance Act (2012) aims at slightly changed family benefits. The eligibility criteria for direct and indirect family benefits like the birth grant (a one-off 'childbirth allowance' payment intended to cover some of the costs related to new-borns), child allowance, textbook funds, scholarships, subsidised transport for pupils and students and subsidised school meals were amended.

The Fiscal Balance Act addressed the public sector, to which the majority of research and higher education institutions also belong. It blocked promotions of public employees; as a consequence, obtaining a higher academic title does not imply a salary raise. It also restricted new employments in the public sector, limited the length of annual leave as well as payment of annual leave subsidies (*regres*). Moreover, the Labour Market Regulation Act from 2013 facilitates higher flexibility of the labour force.

These recent measures thus additionally challenge the position of women in the academia in Slovenia. As regards to the percentage of employed female researchers, Slovenia fits the general EU pattern (37% of researchers with PhD are female, 20% of women at high academic positions), but the percentage of women occupying decision making positions and managing distribution of resources is significantly lower than the European average (36% EU, 23% Slovenia).

Therefore, there are no legal provisions that directly or indirectly would discriminate against women in science. Moreover, the rules of financing of the National research

agency account for maternity / paternity leave as one of the factors that could influence research careers and exclude this time from evaluation provisions. However, men largely outnumber women in terms of leading programme groups and in the number of awards received for their scientific work.

The increasing precariousness and insecure job positions in science in Slovenia were identified in existing research, but it seems that more research is needed, in order to identify to what extent this issue is gendered. Existing studies show that female scientists under 40 years of age and with lower academic titles most often perceive gender-related partiality in their academic environment and indicated parenthood as a primary source of such partiality. However, there is a certain gap in knowledge about women and men at early stages of academic careers, and this is an urgent topic to be addressed.

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7. Austria

Introduction: Contextual overview

Key Indicators

Population, total (millions): 8.47 (2013)
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$): \$ 50,430
Poverty headcount ratio of \$ 1.25 a day (PPP) % of population: 0.3% (2004)
Fertility rate, total (births per woman): 1.4 (2012)
Share of women employed in the non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural employment): 48% (2012)
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births): 4 (2013)
Number of weeks of maternity leave: 16 (2009)
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%): 33% (2014)

Source⁶⁹: <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/country/austria>

Austria is a small member state of the European Union accounting for around 1,7% of the EU-27 population. But it is one of the richest EU Member States with a GDP per capita of €34.120 in 2011. In terms of science and innovation it is characterized as innovation follower by the Innovation scoreboard (European Commission, 2013b) - but with high ambitions to advance into the group of innovation leaders until 2020 (Austrian Federal Government, 2011, S. 9). Therefore Austria has made high investments in science, technology and innovation (STI) over the last decade. In 2010 Austria has invested 2,78% of the GDP in STI and belongs to the countries with the highest share of GDP invested in STI in the EU. The STI sector and related occupations are therefore exhibiting high growth rates (Schuch, 2012; Holzinger, 2013).

Austria has been characterized by Esping-Anderson as a conservative welfare state regime. Entitlements to welfare benefits are mainly based on insurance payments which result from labor market participation. Therefore the conservative regime is mainly founded on the male breadwinner model and on family structures. The political women movement as well as the establishment of gender studies at Austrian Universities has taken place later than in other European countries. A social modernization process started in the 1970ies which had a great impact on women's emancipation and participation in economic, political and educational spheres. In the

⁶⁹ Accessed December 29, 2014 [Note: this is an exact copy of the text as found on the web page]

last decade policies have been developed to foster the participation of women in the labor market on the one hand and of men in unpaid care activities on the other hand. But the success of these policies is quite limited as the following results are indicating.

7.1 Domain 1. Education policies and practices

Education system overview

Competence for legislation in education and its implementation is divided between the **Federation** (*Bund*) and the **Länder** (*Bundesländer*). At Länder level, the competent legislative bodies are the Länder Parliaments (diets). Responsibility for implementation rests with the administrative bodies (*Ämter der Landesregierung*) of the 9 Austrian Länder. In specific matters enumerated in the Constitution, the Federation and the Länder have a shared legislative competence. The Federation enacts framework legislation, whilst the Länder lay down detailed implementing legislation. However, the Federation has overwhelming responsibility for the **system of education**, which covers virtually all areas of school organisation, the organisation of school instruction, Private Schools as well as the service, remuneration and retirement law governing teachers. These matters are all governed by federal legislation.

The Länder are mainly responsible for the provision of teaching staff at Public Compulsory Schools. Moreover, they support the municipalities in the construction and maintenance of these Schools via dedicated school construction funds, which they administer. Kindergarten (nursing school) education is a responsibility of the Länder. Schools enjoy some autonomy in budgetary management and, up to a point, are free to adapt the curriculum to local needs.

The [Federal Ministry of Education and Women's Affairs](#) is the supreme oversight body for **primary and secondary education** as well as for the **University Colleges of Teacher Education** (*Pädagogische Hochschulen*). The [Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy](#) is the supreme oversight body for **Universities** and **Universities of Applied Sciences** (*Fachhochschulen, FHs*).

The [University Act - as amended](#) (*Universitätengesetz 2002*) transformed Universities from federal institutions into public-law entities, which are no longer under federal administration.

Federal funding is provided through three-year global budgets that are based on performance agreements. Being endowed with full legal capacity, the Universities are free to tap other sources of funding. Territorial entities and private legal entities may run [Universities of Applied Sciences](#) (*Fachhochschulen*). At present, [Universities of Applied Sciences study programmes](#) are predominantly funded by the Federation, on the basis of authorised study places.

Furthermore, the [Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy](#) is the supreme oversight body for company based **apprenticeship training**. The [Federal Ministry of Health](#) is the supreme oversight for education and training in **health care**.

Source: <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Austria:Overview> (December 2014, 29) [Note: This is an exact copy of the text as found on the web page]

Women have long been disadvantaged in the Austrian educational system regarding the level of educational attainment. But since the 1970s the educational level of women (and men) has been constantly rising in Austria. Still the share of people between 25 and 64 years with only compulsory education is higher among women

than among men - 24% compared to 15% in 2011 (Statistik Austria, 2014, S. 91). Women between 25 and 49 years are better educated than women of the age group 50+ (see Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 81; Statistik Austria, 2014, S. 90). The catching up process of women is especially evident in tertiary education: In 1980 only 27% of people in the age group 25 to 49 with tertiary education were women, whereas in 2012 48% were women. In 2012 only 35% of people in the age group 50+ with tertiary educational attainment are women. Compared to other countries the share of women in the group of tertiary educated people is still quite low (**Table I.1**).

The enrollment rate of girls at secondary school level is around 90% in 2012 to 2013. There has not been much change between 1995/96 and 2012/13 in the enrollment rate of girls in Austria (**Table I.2**). In upper and post secondary education the proportion of girls enrolled has been rising between 1980 and 2011 from 44% to 49% (**Table I.3**). Women are overrepresented in academic secondary schools and higher technical and vocational colleges. 60% of all school-leavers with «Matura⁷⁰» are women (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 91).

The share of early school leavers is nearly the same for boys (8,4%) and girls (8,2%) and has decreased steadily since the 1990ies (Bergmann *et al.*, 2014, S. 27). Boys with a migration background are much more likely to leave school early than boys (and girls) without: the early school leaver proportion for boys with migrant background is 22% and for boys without 6% (Bergmann *et al.*, 2014, S. 29). Educational success of boys and girls in Austria is highly connected to the educational level and the employment status as well as occupational status of their parents: Educational attainment is very much inherited in Austria (Statistik Austria, 2014, S. 36; Bergmann *et al.*, 2014, S. 30).

The differences between women and men in the age group 20 to 24 concerning the educational attainment level have been reduced significantly because women's level

⁷⁰ Austrian school-leaving certificate that guarantees access to higher education

of education has increased stronger than that of men in the last decades (Mairhuber, Papouschek, 2010, S. 444). In 2011 54% of all tertiary qualifications were awarded to women. This is significantly more than in 2000 when only 46% were. The proportion of tertiary qualifications awarded to women is lower only in Switzerland and considerably higher in Iceland, Italy and Slovenia (**Table I.4**).

The share of women graduates has been increasing since the late 1970ies. In the last few years the development has not been as linear as before (**Table I.6**): In 2011/12 women accounted for around 55% of all degrees awarded in tertiary educational programmes. In theoretically oriented programmes the share of women graduates is about 56% and for advanced research programmes 42%. Therefore women graduates are still underrepresented in PhD programmes in Austria - which is also the case in Belgium, The Netherlands and Switzerland.

Although the educational level of women has increased over the last decades and especially the participation of women in tertiary education has widened, the Austrian educational system is still highly segregated: not only in terms of educational paths but also concerning contents or subjects of education (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 81). Austrian boys and girls are very traditional in their educational choices: women choose mainly social and nursing professions, whereas boys follow educational paths leading to technical occupations (Bergmann *et al.*, 2014).

The gender gap is also evident in tertiary education: women and men choose very different fields of study. In 2011/12 women were (highly) overrepresented in theoretically as well as vocationally oriented programmes in Education (73% and 78%), Humanities and Arts (67% and 65%), Health and Welfare (64% and 78%) and in social sciences, business and law (55% and 58%). In Science (36% and 22%) as well as in engineering, manufacturing and construction (27% and 12%) women were underrepresented in theoretically and vocationally oriented programmes.

In Agriculture women were overrepresented in theoretically oriented programmes (61%) but slightly underrepresented in vocationally oriented ones (45%) whereas in

Services it was the other way around: There were more women than men enrolled in vocationally oriented programmes (73%) and fewer in theoretically oriented ones (42%).

The same pattern of segregation can be observed in advanced research programmes. The share of women in advanced research programmes is generally a bit lower than in theoretically oriented programmes. Which is evidence that women are less likely to pursue academic careers in science, technology and innovation.

Although there have been several policies and measures implemented in the last decade to reduce the segregation between men and women by educational fields - there is hardly any evidence of change (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 106): neither the share of women in science and engineering programmes nor the share of men in education, humanities and arts or health and welfare has significantly increased in the last years (**Table I.5**). The measures aiming at reducing the gender-segregated choice of education are mainly targeted at women who should choose more often science and engineering programmes. These measures comprise initiatives like MUT (girls and technology), FIT (women in technology), girls' days or FEMtech Praktika to name just a few. The effectiveness of these programmes is hard to assess. However, evaluations come to the conclusion that *»concrete changes in career choices are less frequent due to the persistence of gender-appropriate career stereotypes, also among parents«* (Castano *et al.*, 2010, S. 63). Bergmann *et al.* (2014) point out that there are hardly any initiatives targeting at reducing traditional educational choices of boys – which is an important issue considering the industrial transformation process and its impact on traditional male employment (Bettio *et al.*, 2013).

The proportion of women in lifelong learning or continuous education programmes has increased in Austria since 1995 from 6% to 15% (**Table I.7**). Since 2003 the share of women between 25 and 64 years making use of lifelong training programmes is higher than the share of men. However, 44% of women who participated in lifelong learning programmes were able to do this during their working hours - compared to 61% of men. Employed women have to use their spare

time more often than men to participate in vocational courses and trainings (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 117).

In 2011/12 teaching staff in primary and secondary schools in Austria consisted mostly of women: in primary schools 91% of the teachers are women and in secondary school 63%. Only in tertiary educational institutions women are under-represented: only 40% of teachers at universities and at universities of applied sciences are women (**Table I.8**).

In 2007 the first woman was elected as rector of an Austrian university (**Table I.9**). Until then women have been vice-rectors but never have made it into the top management positions of universities in Austria. The first woman rector resigned one year later - the reasons for her designation were disputed heavily in the Austrian press: The woman rector made irreconcilable differences between her and the chairperson of the Senat concerning the management of the university and its strategic orientation but also mobbing in regard to her cancer disease responsible for her decision. The Senat and the University Council disagreed with her explanation and accused her of being incompetent in leading a university. The universities' gender equality working group investigated the designation of the woman rector and found no evidence for discrimination - but has never examined the mobbing accusations (Blimlinger, 2009, S. 221). In 2013 the share of women rectors is 24%⁷¹. There are five women rectors in Austria and one of them is heading the Technical University of Vienna.

7.2 Domain 2. Employment and labour market policies and practices

Employment rate

The employment rates of men and women have been equalizing over the last ten years: in 2013 the employment rate of men amounted to 87% and those of women to

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<https://suasprod.noc-science.at/XLCubedWeb/WebForm/ShowReport.aspx?rep=002+personal%2f001+universit%u00e4ten%2f006+funktionen+an+universit%u00e4ten.xml&toolbar=true>

82%. The difference between employment rates of men and women has been reduced from 15%-Points in 2000 to 5%-Points in 2013. The employment rates of women as well as of men increase with the level of educational attainment: Whereas only 64% of all women with primary or lower secondary educational levels are employed, the employment rates for women with upper secondary and post secondary education rises to 84% and is the highest for tertiary educated women with 87% (**Table II.2**). The increase of the women employment rate between 2000 and 2013 is connected to the growing labor force participation of women with upper and post secondary educations (**Table II.2**). Compared to other European countries the employment rate for women is above the EU-27 average but considerably lower than in the Nordic countries (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010, S. 129 ; European Commission, 2013c).

The marital status has a negative impact on the labour force participation of women in Austria : the employment rate for married women is considerably lower than the one for single (not married) or divorced women in all age groups - except for women between 15 and 24 years (**Table II.3**). Nevertheless the labour force participation of married women has increased substantially between 1995 and 2011 : In the age group 25 to 49 the difference of employment rates between single and married women amounted to around 6%-Points in 2011 and to around 15%-Points back in 1995 (**Table II.3**).

Besides the marital status labour force participation of women in Austria is influenced **by parental status and the age of the children living in the household** (Haas, 2009, S. 141). In 2012 the employment rates of women and men aged between 25 and 49 without children were nearly the same : 85% for women compared to 87% for men (**Table II.4**). The birth of children has very different impacts on the labour force participation for men and women : Women reduce their engagement whereas men increase their labour force participation (Hirschbichler u. Klapfer, 2011).

The employment rate of women aged between 25 and 49 with children aged under 3 years is 69% and for men 93%. The labour force participation of women increases with the age of the children but stays more or less the same for men: with

children aged between 3 and 5 years the employment rate of women amounts to 77%, for men to 93% ; with children between 6 and 16 years to 83% and for men to 95% ; and for children aged above 17 years to 85% and for men to 94% (**Table II.4**).

The employment rate for women with children in these different age groups has increased continuously between 1995 and 2012. The only exception is the employment rate for women with children aged under 3 years : In 1995 75% of these women were employed. This share dropped until 2007 to 57% and increased since then to 69% in 2012.

Compared with the other countries the labor force participation of women with children aged under 3 years is quite average whereas for women with children aged between 3 and 5 years it is higher than in Switzerland, Belgium and Italy and equal to The Netherlands (**Table II.4**).

Part-time employment

The increase of women's labor market participation is due to the rise of part time work in Austria. The number of part time employment has increased since 1995 steadily whereas the number of full time jobs has decreased slightly (Mairhuber u. Papouschek, 2010, S. 438). In 2013 80% of part time workers were women compared to 35% of all full time workers (**Table II.11**). In 2004 the share of women working part time among all part time workers was highest with 87% and decreased since then to 80%, which means that more men started working part time in the last ten years. The share of women working full time has decreased slowly between 1995 and 2013 from 37% to 35% (**Table II.11**). Compared to the other countries the share of women in part time employment is highest in Austria. For full time employment it is equal to the shares of full time employed women in Belgium and Italy, above those in The Netherlands but below those in Iceland and Slovenia (**Table II.11**).

Between 2002 and 2012 the proportion of women working part time among all employed women has increased from 35% to 45% and for men from 5% to 9% (AMS Österreich, 2013:13). Part time work is also unevenly distributed between different economic sectors and industries in Austria. It is very common in low paid sectors with high shares of women employees. High shares of women working part time can

be observed in real estate activities, other service activities, human health and social work activities as well as in wholesale and retail trade (Mairhuber, Papouschek, 2010:438).

In a life course perspective women work part time in the middle years of their working careers - between 30 and 44 years. In comparison the few men who work part time tend to do so at the beginning and at the end of their career. So for them it is a scenario for entrance into and exit from the labor market whereas for women it is connected to childcare activities (Mairhuber, Papouschek, 2010: 438); for non-university, applied research sector see (BMVIT, 2009)).

As already mentioned the employment of women is very much influenced by the presence of children in the household. The share of women with children working part time in Austria is considerably higher than the share of women working part time in general (Mairhuber, Papouschek, 2010: 440). The reconciliation between work and family life is one of the major factors influencing women's decision to work part time : 38% of women but only 3% of men named caring activities for children or relatives as the most important reason for their part time employment (Haas *et al.*, 2014). The lack of childcare facilities and full-time schools as well as the inavailability and lack of involvement of fathers worsens the employment situation for women (Lutz, Schratzenstaller, 2010; Mairhuber, Papouschek, 2010: 439). Moreover full time employment of mothers is perceived as detrimental for the family life: Therefore full time employment for women is seen as acceptable only for women without children or when children have left the household (Haas, 2009: 141).

Sectorial and Occupational categories

The Austrian labor market is characterized by a highly sex segregated occupational structure: Most of the women are employed in the service sector: 83% of all employed women in 2012 compared to 69% of employed men (Statistik Austria, 2013: 43). The proportion of women is especially high in Human Health and Social Work Activities (76%), Real Estate Activities (61%), Accommodation and Food Service Activities (59%), Public Administration and Defence (59%) and Education (56%). The distribution between men and women is nearly equal in professional, scientific and technical activities: 52% women. Men are overrepresented in the following

sectors of economic activities: Construction (88%), Mining and Quarrying (87%), Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply (83%), Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities (79%) and Manufacturing (75%) (AMS Österreich, 2013: 10).

Concerning occupational categories women are underrepresented in more manually oriented occupations in 2013 like Craft and related trades workers (9%) and Plant and machine operators and assemblers (14%). Women are also underrepresented in the highest occupational category Legislators, senior officials and managers (29%) : Leading positions are mostly occupied by men - in the private as well as in the public sector (vgl. Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010: 143; Kreimer, 2009: 128).

Women are overrepresented in categories like clerical support workers (72%) and Service and sales workers (67%). For the occupational categories Professionals (49%) and Technicians and associate Professionals (48%) the distribution between men and women is equal (Table II.6). For scientists and engineers who are employed in physical, mathematical engineering as well as in life science and health occupations the share of women is considerably lower in Austria : women account only for 28% of people working in these occupations (Holzinger, Reidl, 2012: 27).

The number of researchers has increased significantly in Austria between 2002 and 2011. The share of women among researchers has risen from 16% to 23%⁷². Compared to the women's share in employment and to their increasing participation in tertiary education and advanced research programmes this has to be considered as very low. The participation of women differs considerably between the two major R&D⁷³ sectors in Austria : The share of women researchers is higher in the Higher education sector (34%) than in the Business Enterprise sector (15%) (Holzinger, 2013).

The growth of women's participation in R&D in Austria is accompanied by a rise of part time employment. The share of women working part time in the Austrian R&D

⁷² Calculated in full time equivalent (FTE).

⁷³ Research and Development

sector (40%) is considerably high compared to men (Michenthaler, 2011: 26). Women working in the Business Enterprise Sector are more likely to work full time than women in the Higher education sector (Holzinger, 2013). Long hours are an integral part of researchers' working life in Austria (Holzinger, Reidl, 2012): 42% of women employed as scientists or engineers and 53% of male scientists or engineers work more than 41 hours per week compared to 25% of tertiary educated women and 52% of tertiary educated men. Women scientists and engineers are working more often in the evening, during nights and on weekends than their male colleagues. Considering the high share of part time employed women scientists and engineers these results can be interpreted as evidence that women use these nontypical working time locations to be able to combine work and family (Holzinger, 2013). This thesis is supported by a recent study from Iceland which shows that women tend to use the high level of time flexibility of academic/scientific work to meet childcare responsibilities (Rafnsdóttir, Heijstra, 2013).

Between 2009 and 2011 the growth rates for women researchers have decreased considerably in the business enterprise as well as in the higher education sector and have adjusted to the growth rates of men, which have been quite stable over the last years. This can be interpreted as an impact of the economic crisis on women's participation in R&D : the economic crisis slows down the increase in the numbers of women researchers in R&D in Austria whereas growth rates of men researchers are not affected (Holzinger, 2013). If this pattern stabilizes in the coming years the participation rates of women in R&D in Austria are likely to decrease.

Inventors and Patents

As already mentioned, women are strongly underrepresented in the R&D sector in Austria. This also impacts on science and technology out-puts : the share of women among inventors is considerably low in Austria compared to other EU member states (Frietsch *et al.*, 2009). Female inventors accounted only for 4% of all patented inventions in Austria in 2007 and at least one women participated in 8% of Austrian patented inventions (Turecek, 2011: 164). One major factor contributing to this gender gap in innovations is the educational and occupational segregation: women inventors are underrepresented in electrical engineering and electronics, in

engineering and mechanical engineering industries as well as in material sciences. These technology branches are traditional strengths of the Austrian innovation system with a high patent activity. Women inventors are more focused on chemistry, biotechnologies and pharmaceuticals (Turecek, 2011: 165).

Gender Bias in Funding Decisions

An important issue and indicator for gender equality in science, technology and innovation are gender biases in grant and resource allocation. The She Figures benchmarking report on gender in research and innovation by the European Commission showed a significant difference for success rates between men and women in research funding in Austria: in 2002 the success rate for women was 6%-points lower than the one for men and increased to 11%-points in 2010 (European Commission, 2013d: 119). A study by Mutz et al. (2012) for the Austrian Science Fund found no evidence that funding decisions were influenced by the sex of applicants. For other research-funding agency no comparable results are available.

Self-employed

The share of women among employed workers is higher than among the self-employed: women account only for 24% of all employers but for 43% of own-account workers. The share of self-employed women (with or without employees) has not dramatically changed in Austria since 1995 (**Table II.12**). Nearly on third of self-employed women is working in the agricultural sector but this share has been declining steadily in the last decades. Contrary to this self-employment of women became more important in other sectors or industries. 70% of self-employed women are working as own-account workers. This is significantly more often than for self-employed men (53%) (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010: 132).

In comparison to the other countries the share of women as employers is lowest in Austria but the differences are rather moderate. The share of women working as self-employed without employees is the second highest - only in Switzerland this share is a bit higher.

Unemployment

The unemployment rates of women and men amounted to 4,9% in 2013 and has not changed dramatically since 1995, although it was a bit higher in 2004 and 2005 (**Table II.9**). In 2013 younger people were more often unemployed than people in middle or older age groups. The unemployment rate of women between 15 and 19 was higher (13%) than for men in the same age group (11%). The share of long term unemployed women among all unemployed women was 23% in 2013. Since 1995 this proportion has dropped from 30% with the lowest share recorded in 2009 (21%) (**Table II.10**). The share of long term unemployed women is lower than the share of long term unemployed men (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010: 140). Women with lower levels of education are more likely to be unemployed : around 75% of unemployed women in 2008 had a primary or lower secondary degree whereas only 7% were tertiary graduates (Bundesministerin für Frauen und Öffentlichen Dienst im Bundeskanzleramt Österreich, 2010: 139).

Gender pay gap

The gender pay gap, measured in differences between hourly wages of men and women, is much higher in Austria than in the other GARCIA countries: Women earn 23% less than their male colleagues (**Table II.13**). The gender pay gap has only narrowed slightly since 2006 and is highest for women with tertiary education : they earn 25% less than tertiary educated men. For upper and post secondary education the pay gap adds up to 23% and for primary and lower secondary education it amounts only to 11%. A recent study of the Austrian Court of Audit has shown that the gender pay gap is considerably higher in the private sector than in the public sector (Rechnungshof, 2014).

Although the gender pay gap is calculated on the basis of hourly wages one important influencing factor is the high number of women in part time employment : hourly wages for part time workers are significantly lower than those of full time workers in Austria - the difference is about 30% (Mairhuber u. Papouschek, 2010: 440).

In a study on the gender pay gap in business R&D in Austria, Gregoritsch et al. (2010) found that women scientists earn 30% less than their male colleagues. If only full time employed scientists are compared, the gender pay gap adds up to 22%. The main reasons for the gender pay gap are that ...

- ... women get significantly lower wages in the beginning of their career compared to men (and are not able to catch up anymore) (this is also reported by Rechnungshof, 2014, S. 56);
- ... women take up childcare responsibilities which is slowing down their careers ;
- ... women are in average younger than their male colleagues (Gregoritsch *et al.*, 2010, S. 33).

Women without children are progressing in their career faster than men (and of course as women with children) and can therefore narrow the gender pay gap resulting from the starting disadvantage (Gregoritsch *et al.*, 2010: 33).

In an econometric analysis Grünberger and Zulehner (2009) have calculated factors influencing the gender pay gap in Austria: They have come to the conclusion that only 50% of the gender pay gap in Austria can be explained by factors like level and type of education, professional experience, marital status or horizontal and vertical segregation patterns of the Austrian labor market. The un-explained part of the gender pay gap is either due to effects of discrimination or systematic differences between unobservable attributes like gender differences in risk aversion in salary negotiations or in occupational choices (Grünberger, Zulehner, 2009).

Temporary employment

In 2013 the proportion of temporary employment among men and women aged 25 to 49 was around 6%. The difference between men and women is hardly significant: 5% of all employed men and 6% of all employed women have only temporary contracts. Compared to the other countries the temporary employment is not very common for women and men in Austria (**Table II.16**).

A recent study on employment in non-university research institutions - which is a small subsector of the business enterprise sector in Austria - reported that the share of temporary employed researchers in this sector is higher than for all employees in

Austria. Furthermore, women are more likely to be temporary employed than men: 18% of all women researchers are temporary employed, compared to 12% of their male colleagues (Holzinger, Hafellner, 2014: 8). At the professorial level in Austrian universities the same picture can be observed: 17% of all women professors have only a temporary contract in contrast to 10% of male professors⁷⁴.

Gender and senior management responsibilities

Most boards in Austria are homogenous in terms of gender composition: in 2014 only around 6% of executive board members in Austria's top 200 companies were women and in supervisory boards their share was 14%. In listed companies women accounted only for 3% of all managing board members and for 12% of supervisory board members in 2014 (Ebner, Wieser, 2014).

Around 7% of all employed men but only 3% of all employed women were in senior management positions in Austria in 2011. This is the second smallest share of all compared countries - only in Italy the proportion of women with senior management positions is lower (**Table II.17**). Since 1995 this share has declined from 5% to 3% for women and from 10% to 7% for men. This indicates that as more women enter the labor market the glass ceiling gets thicker as women do not progress in the same pace in the upper management hierarchies. But also for men it has become more difficult to get into senior management positions as a consequence of the economic crisis in Austria⁷⁵. As described by Hanappi-Egger, the main reason why women are hardly represented in executive or managing boards is their exclusion from powerful social networks, which play an important role in nominating candidates for executive or non-executive committees (Hanappi-Egger, 2011). To increase the participation of women in committees and boards several measures have been established: a cross mentoring programme for women in the public sector (see box below) and training programmes like "Future.women" by the Austrian Chamber of Commerce and the women only Governance Excellence Programme by the Vienna University of

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<https://suasprod.noc-science.at/XLCubedWeb/WebForm/ShowReport.aspx?rep=002+personal%2f001+universit%u00e4te n%2f005+personal+nach+verwendung.xml&toolbar=true> (02.01.2015) ; own calculations

⁷⁵

http://ooe.arbeiterkammer.at/service/presse/presseaussendungen/Fuehrungskraefte_Monitor.html (01.02.2015)

Economics and Business. Since 2010 listed companies are obligated to report on activities to promote women in their corporate governance report. But only a minority of listed companies explicitly names targets and measures for the promotion of women (Ebner u. Wieser, 2014, S. 27).

Cross Mentoring Programme for women in the public sector

“In the public sector, mentoring and coaching programmes have also been used to ensure that more women reach top positions. In order to accelerate the take-up of higher management positions by women, Austria created the Cross Mentoring Programme. Since 2007, 40-50 couples comprised of a female public employee (mentoree) of one ministry and a female or male manager (mentor) from another ministry have been formed through e-matching. The personnel developers of all Federal Ministries support this programme by organising at least four meetings of mentors and their mentorees, introductory workshops, networking meetings and evaluations. The reported benefits of this programme include: networking opportunities; encouragement for career advancement; systematic transfer of knowledge and know-how; and better self-assessment.”

Source: (OECD, 2014: 73)

The underrepresentation of women in senior management positions is very well documented for the higher education sector: women account only for 17% of all professors at Austrian Universities which is lower than the EU-27 average. Also the Glass Ceiling Index at Austrian Universities (1,9) is slightly higher than the EU-27 average (1,8): The chances for women to reach top management positions at Austrian Universities have improved between 2004 and 2010 as the GCI fell from 2,39 to 1,9 (European Commission, 2013d: 91). As already mentioned the share of women as heads of higher education institutions has improved in the last few years considerably. The proportion of women in scientific boards is a bit lower than for the EU-27 but significantly higher than the share of women among researchers and among senior management positions in Austria. This is clearly an impact of 40% quotas for women in university bodies as well as in all public bodies and committees in Austria (Schulev-Steindl, 2010; Wirz *et al.*, im Erscheinen).

7.3 Domain 3. Family-formation practices and policies

Compared to the other GARCIA countries the total fertility rate is quite low in Austria: with 1,4 the fertility rate is significantly lower than in Iceland, Belgium or The Netherlands. Italy has the same fertility rate as Austria. The fertility rate in Austria did not change since 1995 (**Table III.1**). The low fertility rate in Austria is particularly interesting as governmental expenditure for family benefits is above

average in international comparison: spending on family benefits by the Austrian government amounted to 3% of the GDP in 2009 whereas in OECD countries to 2,6%. In Austria family benefits are dominated by direct or indirect monetary transfers. Only a small amount of the budget for family benefits is spent for maintaining and improving childcare facilities (around 17% in 2009) (Schratzstaller, 2014: 10). All these efforts have not contributed to a higher fertility rate, or to more gender equality in the Austrian labour market (Lutz u. Schratzenstaller, 2010: 664).

Women are postponing motherhood to a later stage in their life: Since 1990 the mean age of mothers when giving birth to their first child has constantly increased: in 1990 the mean age was 25 years and in 2011 28,5 years. Compared to the other countries the mean age for women at birth of their first child is lower in Austria than in Switzerland, Italy, The Netherlands and Slovenia (**Table III.2**). The age of motherhood is patterned by education: low educated women become mothers earlier than tertiary educated ones. Therefore the increasing number of women graduating from higher institutions is a major factor driving the postponement of parenthood. Other relevant factors for Austria are the declining economic position of younger adults, the increase in youth unemployment, in part time and temporary jobs as well as the low availability of childcare facilities and the poor possibilities to combine work and family (Sobotka, 2010).

Maternity leave in Austria is paid and 16 weeks long (8 weeks before and after birth). During maternity leave women are formally not allowed to work and get a transfer payment covering 100% of their wages. Parental leave with job protection can be taken for a maximum of 2 years (it ends with the 2nd birthday of the child). Parental leave can be extended on mutual agreement between employer and employee but without job protection. Additionally to parental and maternity leave fathers and mothers of newborn children are entitled to “Kinderbetreuungsgeld” (childcare allowance). Childcare allowance can be taken for different periods of time: for 14 (12+2), 18 (15+3), 24 (20+4) and 36 (30+6) months. In each model there is a fathers quota which means that the full length of the childcare allowance can only be obtained if both partners share childcare duties/obligations. The quota is only a minimum requirement meaning that the allowance can be shared between the

parents individually. The actual amount of childcare allowance depends on the chosen model: parents get for 36 months 14,53 €/day, for 24 months 20,8 €/day, for 18 months 26,6 €/day and for 14 months 33 €/day. Since 2010 an income dependent 14 months model has been introduced: parents who were employed before the birth of their child get 80% of their salary but limited to 2.000 €/month (Reidl u. Schiffbänker, 2013: 6).

The childcare allowance was originally introduced in 2002 and modified in 2008 and 2010. Especially the fathers' quotas as well as the income dependent model should motivate fathers to make use of these entitlements and to get more involved in childcare activities. Moreover the short length of entitlement should eliminate barriers to and negative incentives for the employment of mothers. But this is counteracted by the still existing longer models of entitlement for childcare allowance (Lutz u. Schratzenstaller, 2010). The new income dependent model was chosen only by 11% of all parents obtaining childcare allowance whereas the 30+6 months long model was chosen by 59% in 2013. The proportion of the 30+6 model among all chosen models has declined since 2008 from 84% to 59%⁷⁶.

Still childcare allowance is mostly paid to mothers. Only a few fathers use their entitlement for childcare allowance although the share of fathers receiving childcare allowance has increased significantly from 2,3% to 8,4% between 2002 and 2011. In contrast, 9,3% of tertiary educated fathers have used childcare allowance in 2011. Therefore, in Austria tertiary educated fathers are more likely to obtain childcare allowance (Reidl u. Schiffbänker, 2013: 9).

Still fathers take considerably shorter leaves than women: therefore the share of leave days taken by fathers was only 4,2% in 2011 compared to 1,7% in 2002. Tertiary educated fathers take up 4,5% of leave days of all tertiary educated men and women receiving childcare allowance in 2011 (Reidl u. Schiffbänker, 2013: 9).

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See: http://www.statistik.at/web_de/static/kinderbetreuungsgeldbezieherinnen_und_-bezieher_nach_geschlecht_2008_bis_2_058447.xlsx (30.12.2014) (own calculations)

The re-entry into the labour market is very different for fathers and mothers: whereas for fathers it is smooth and has hardly any consequences concerning level of occupation or income loss (Reidl u. Schiffbänker, 2013), this is quite different for mothers. Mothers reach the same level of occupation and income only five years after their re-entry into the labour market (Riesenfelder, 2013: 21).

In Austria the enrolment rate of children aged under 3 years in childcare facilities was the second lowest within the GARCIA countries in 2012/13: only 21% of children aged 3 years or less were enrolled in childcare facilities. Only in Italy the enrolment rate is lower. But the enrolment rate has constantly increased since 1995 (**Table III.5**). However, Austria is still not meeting one of the Barcelona targets defined by the European Commission (European Commission, 2013a) which states that at least 33% of children under 3 years of age should be enrolled in childcare facilities. In 2012 the second Barcelona target of 90% enrolment rate for children between 3 years old and mandatory school age was reached as 91% were enrolled in formal childcare facilities⁷⁷. Although the enrolment rate for children over 3 years is relatively high, the opening hours of childcare facilities do not meet the needs of full time employed mothers and fathers as most kindergartens close early (especially in rural areas) (Festl *et al.*, 2010). Therefore usage of formal childcare can be characterized as part time in Austria (Plantenga, 2014). Furthermore as there are hardly any full time schools in Austria more facilities for after school care for pupils are needed to enhance the full time participation of women in the labor market (Lutz, Schratzenstaller, 2010).

Women have on average a longer healthy life expectancy than men in Austria. Together with Belgium it is the only country where women's healthy life expectancy exceeds those of men (**Table III.6**).

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http://www.statistik.at/web_de/static/kinderbetreuungsquoten_nach_altersgruppen_1995_bis_2013_021659.pdf (01.02.2015)

7.4 Domain 4. Care and work-life policies and practices

Following the working time arrangements between couples aged between 25 to 49 years in a household the dominant model is a modified, one-and-a-half breadwinner model where men work full time and women work part time (42%). In 32% of couples women and men work full time (dual breadwinner model) and 16% of couples can be characterized as the traditional male breadwinner model where men are employed to earn the household income and women stay at home to take care of children and the household. Other arrangements - like both partners working part time (2%) or women work full time and men part time (1,6%) - are hardly significant in Austria (**Table IV.2**). These different arrangements of working time between couples (male breadwinner, modified male breadwinner and dual breadwinner model) have different frequencies in relation to the presence of children in the household: 59% of couples without children follow the dual breadwinner model and only 18% the modified male breadwinner model and 9% the traditional male breadwinner model. As already mentioned in connection to part time work: children have a significant impact on the working time arrangements of couples and labour force participation of women. The birth of children often leads to a more traditional division of labour between women and men as women are still expected to be primary carers and arrange their employment accordingly (Haas, 2009). Therefore working time arrangements change when couples have children: in 20% of couples with children under 6 years both partners work full time, in 45% men work full time and women part time and in 22% only men work and women stay at home. A similar pattern can be observed for couples with children older than 6 years: in 28% of these couples both partners work full time, in 50% men work full time and women part time and in 14% only men work and women stay at home (**Table IV.2**).

The total time spent for paid and unpaid work per day is longer for women (518 minutes) than for men (500 minutes). But women do more unpaid work than men: 269 minutes compared to 135 minutes per day. Whereas men spent more time on paid work than women: 365 minutes, compared to 249 minutes (**Table IV.3**). This means that in 2013 men spent 28% of their total work time on unpaid work and women 52%. In 2002 employed women spent 62% of their total working time on

unpaid work and men only 20% (Haas, 2009: 140). Women commit more working time to house keeping and childcare. Younger people as well as people with higher educational levels show more equal patterns of time spent on paid and unpaid work between women and men but still women do more unpaid work (Haas, 2009: 140).

In a recent study on gender equality from the perspective of men studies Bergmann et al. (2014: 56) have shown that more men are reporting a desire to be involved in childcare activities and to be a more active father. Still as shown above men do not participate in childcare activities and unpaid work to the same extent as women. Bergmann et al. (2014) explain this divergence between wishes and actual behaviour by demands of employers and working conditions in Austria: for instance, part time work in male dominated industries is not socially accepted or offered by employers (in Austria the right to part time is restricted to parents of small children who work in companies with more than 20 employees longer than 3 years). The influence of organizational cultures on the involvement of fathers is also evident in research results by Schiffbänker and Holzinger (2014) who report that fathers taking parental leave do this in close coordination with what they perceive as possible and acceptable in their companies.

They have also found that some of these fathers reduce their working time for a longer period of time to get more involved in childcare activities. The increased usage of parental leave of fathers is therefore likely to change working time arrangements between parents. However, as stated above, not only men need to change but also organizational cultures and working conditions in Austrian companies (Bergmann *et al.*, 2014).

The most important reasons for inactive men are (further) education (21%) and other reasons like sickness (46%). For women the most important reason is house-making (63%) and other reasons like sickness (24%) whereas education (9%) is hardly important (**Table IV.5**).

7.5 Domain 5. Equal opportunity policies and practices

In 2013 a third of all members of parliament were women. This is nearly as much as between 2003 and 2005 when the share of women members of parliament was highest (**Table V.1**). In 2012 nearly half of Austrian government members were women (**Table V.2**). In 2014 there are only 31% women (5 out of 16 federal ministers). Head of state is the federal president of Austria, which is elected every 6 years: since the establishment of the Republic of Austria in 1918 no woman was elected as federal president.

The oldest equality guarantee in Austrian constitutional law dates back to 1867. In Article 2 of the Basic Law on the General Rights of nationals (Staatsgrundgesetz) the general principle of “equality of all citizens” was laid down. The Federal Constitution Law, dating back to 1920, regulates in Article 7 that “*all Federal nationals are equal before the law*” and that “*privileges due to birth, sex, estate, class or religion are excluded.*” (Tertinegg, Sauer 2007: 11)

In the civil code reform in 1975 the principle of equal partnership in marriage was established. This was an important milestone in the issue history of intimate citizenship that occurred before 1995. However, the general principle of equal partnership did not include the abolishment of all male privileges. Some were only abolished much later or even exist today. (Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 48)

Besides the reform of the marriage and family law the 1970s were characterized by a social and political modernization process in Austria with major impacts on gender equality (2009: 34):

- Educational reforms and expansion lead to higher participation of women
- Availability and extended usage of birth control pill
- Introduction of time-phase solution for the termination of pregnancy
- Introduction of individual taxation

In 1979 the Equal Opportunities Act (Gleichbehandlungsgesetz) was adopted which is seen as a milestone for equality policies in Austria. It serves as legal framework for equality issues in the private sector and contains legal provisions on the equal

treatment of women and men at work (including ending discrimination in determining wages for women and men). The Equal Opportunities Act is also applicable to universities of applied science, private universities and non-university research institutions. In addition to the law, an 'Equal Treatment Commission' of the social partners (Gleichbehandlungskommission) was founded within the ministry of social affairs. The mandate of the commission was to act in cases of complaints of discrimination on grounds of sex in employment in general before the case was taken to court. The first Women's Policy Agencies were also established in 1979. (BMWWF 2014; Tertinegg, Sauer 2007: 4; Tertinegg, Sauer 2008: 21).

In 1990 a law entered into force that gave fathers the right to take paternity leave and gave parents the right to divide parental leave between the mother and the father. (Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 48). Also in 1990 the state secretary for general women's issues was restructured into the „Federal Ministry of Women's Affairs“. This also meant that for the first time the ministry was allotted its own budget. Following changes of government, the Federal Ministry of Women's Affairs was dissolved in 2000 and Women's issues became part of the Ministry of Social Welfare, Family and Generations. In 2003 the Ministry for Health and Women's Issues was established. From 2007-2013 the women's minister was situated within the Federal Chancellery meaning that contrary to former governmental periods (2000-2006) women's issues were not located in a separate ministry. (Tertinegg, Sauer 2008: 27-30; Tertinegg, Sauer 2007: 6-8) Since 2014 there exists a Ministry of Education and Women's Affairs.

Since the mid 1990s all nine Austrian federal states have ministries or departments for women's issues (Landesrätinnen für Frauen). Women's offices in the regional administration (Landesfrauenreferentin or Frauenbeauftragte) are responsible for the advancement of women in the federal state administration. (Tertinegg, Sauer 2007: 9). From December 1996 to January 1997 the campaign Half/Half (Halbe/Halbe) from the minister for women's affairs, Helga Konrad, was launched all over Austria. The intention of the campaign was to raise the issue of the unequal sharing of household and care work between men and women and to increase awareness of a more equal distribution. Two years after the campaign, in 1999,

marital law was amended. The amendment speaks of a “balance of contributions” between spouses but does not explicitly regulate that household and care work must be distributed equally (Tertinegg, Sauer 2007: 33; Tazi-Preve, 2009)

In 2001 a Department for Men's Policy Issues in the Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection was established during the right-wing, conservative coalition in Austria (Sauer, 2009), which institutionalized neo-conservative gender politics (Mayrhofer, 2006; Kreisky, Löffler, 2010). Furthermore, in 2006 the first Austrian Men Report was issued by the Ministry (Ballnik, Wassertheurer, 2006).

In 2000, an inter-ministerial working group on Gender Mainstreaming (IMAG Gender Mainstreaming; www.imag-gender-mainstreaming.at) was set up for the purpose of implementing gender mainstreaming at the federal level. It contains representatives of all federal ministries, the Constitutional Court, the Administrative Court, the Court of Audit and the Ombudsman's Office, the Parliamentary Administration and the public service trade union. The initiatives of the IMAG GM achieved that all ministries have at least adopted the language of gender mainstreaming and established a gender mainstreaming section on their websites⁷⁸ (Tertinegg, Sauer 2008: 10; 27-30).

In the following years further key decisions by the Council of Ministers followed. In 2002 a work programme for gender mainstreaming was agreed. A decision of 2004 included requirements for a targeted implementation of gender mainstreaming at the federal level. In 2008 ‘Guidelines for gender mainstreaming in legislation’ and ‘Guidance on gender budgeting in public administration’ were agreed. In 2011 steps for a sustainable implementation of gender mainstreaming and areas for further action were agreed by the Council of Ministers⁷⁹.

An amendment to the Federal Constitution (Article 13(3)2008) stipulates that government bodies have to promote gender equality at all levels within the context of budgetary management. Budgetary law reforms require that federal budgets include

⁷⁸ <https://www.bka.gv.at/site/6823/default.aspx#a2>

⁷⁹ <http://www.bka.gv.at/site/5557/default.aspx>;

<http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH3112163ENN.pdf>

a gender component (OECD, 2014: 191). Austria is presently the only country in the EU27 where gender budgeting is codified in the constitution.

Timeline of gender equality initiatives in Austria

1993	Federal Law on Equal Treatment of Men and Women (B-GIBG) was adopted which had two main purposes: the principle of equal treatment and the principal of affirmative action to actively promote equal opportunities for women who are federal civil servants.
1998	Commitment of federal, provincial and local levels to de-facto equality of women and men. It is clarified that measures to promote de-facto equality such as quota are in accordance with constitutional principles. ⁸⁰
1998	Women can (voluntary) enter military service. Previously women had barred access. ⁸¹
1999	According to § 50 of the Federal Equal Opportunities law, amendment 1999 ⁸² , a women's report on the status quo of the implementation of equal opportunities and measures for the promotion of women has to be made every second year by the Minister of Science for the Federal Chancellor. ⁸³
2004	The Equal Treatment Act and the Federal Equal Treatment Act are entirely revised according to European anti-discrimination directives. Earlier both laws had only applied to discrimination on the grounds of gender. With the revision discrimination on grounds of age, ethnic, origin, religion or belief, and sexual orientation were added. The institutional bodies were also changed: Formal contents regulating monitoring procedures and bodies were regulated in a separate law on the Equal Treatment Commission and Equal Treatment Lawyer (Gleichbehandlungskommission und Gleichbehandlungsanwaltschaft). The new law placed the Equal Treatment Commission within the ministry responsible for women's affairs. Furthermore, its responsibility for discrimination on grounds of gender was extended and divided into three separate senates overseeing the monitoring of different grounds of discrimination. ⁸⁴ The Equal Treatment Lawyer (ombudsperson) is responsible for comprehensive information of and advising of persons in cases of discrimination in employment in general. It has some mediating and preventing functions in disputes concerning discrimination in employment. (Tertinegg/Sauer 2008: 27-30)
2008	Introduction of gender budgeting with an amendment of the Austrian Federal Constitution. ⁸⁵ Since 2009 all level of government are obliged to aim for gender equality.

⁸⁰ BGBl I Nr 68/1998

⁸¹ BGBl Nr 30/1998, Gesetz über die Ausbildung von Frauen im Bundesheer

⁸² BGBl I 132/1999

⁸³ Mukherjee-Cosmidis 2002;

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/bmfwf/ministerium/veranstaltungen/publikationen/publikationen/wissenschaft/publikationen-gleichstellung-und-frauenfoerderung/frauenberichte/>

⁸⁴ Gleichbehandlungsgesetz BGBl I. Nr. 66/2004

⁸⁵ BGBl. I Nr. 1/2008, Änderung des Bundes-Verfassungsgesetzes und des Bundeshaushaltsgesetzes

2009	Since the federal budget estimate of 2013 all ministries and their highest bodies have to formulate output oriented objectives of which one has to contain actual equality of women and men (§ 41 Para. 1 BHG ⁸⁶). Additionally, one to five measures aiding in the fulfilment of the output oriented objectives and operational figures (indicators) have to be listed. ⁸⁷ In fulfilment of this regulation one of the impact targets of BMWF (since 1.3.2014 BMWFW) is a balanced gender ratio in managerial positions and university bodies as well as among young scientific/artistic staff. ⁸⁸
2011	The commitment of the Austrian federal government to integrate the strategy of gender mainstreaming into all policy areas and fields of action was deepened with a cabinet decision in 2011 which set five priority areas for the sustainable implementation of gender mainstreaming. ⁸⁹

Timeline of gender equality initiatives in domain 1. Education Policies and Practices

1995	“Equality between women and men” is introduced as educational principle in secondary education and training of teachers. ⁹⁰
2009	Introduction of mandatory, half-day childcare in institutionalized care facilities (“Kindergarten”) free of charge in the last year before starting school. ⁹¹ In some federal states (Vienna, Upper Austria) even full-day childcare is free of charge ⁹² .
2011	Agreement on the expansion of school-based day care in Austria. ⁹³

⁸⁶ Bundesgesetz über die Führung des Bundeshaushaltes (Bundeshaushaltsgesetz 2013 – BHG 2013), BGBl. I Nr. 139/2009

⁸⁷

<http://wissenschaft.bmwfw.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/national-directives/>

⁸⁸

<http://wissenschaft.bmwfw.gv.at/bmwfw/wissenschaft-hochschulen/gender-und-diversitaet/programme-und-initiativen/gleichstellungsziel-im-rahmen-der-wirkungsziele-im-verwaltungsbereich-wissenschaft-und-forschung/?mobile=1>
<http://wissenschaft.bmwfw.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

⁸⁹ Cabinet Decision; Resolution of the Council of Ministers of 06/11/2011

⁹⁰ Grundsatzterlass ZI 15.510/60-Präs 3/95; Rundschreiben des BMUK Nr. 77/1995

⁹¹ Vereinbarung gemäß Art. 15a B-VG über die Einführung der halbtägig kostenlosen und verpflichtenden frühen Förderung in institutionellen Kinderbetreuungseinrichtungen BGBl. I Nr. 99/2009

⁹² <https://www.help.gv.at/Portal.Node/hlpd/public/content/37/Seite.370130.html>

⁹³ Vereinbarung gemäß Artikel 15a B-VG über den Ausbau der ganztägigen Schulformen BGBl. I Nr. 115/2011

Timeline of gender equality initiatives in domain 2. Employment and Labour Market Policies and Practices

1993	<p>The Federal Equal Treatment Act for the Public Service⁹⁴ is adopted introducing special measures (quota) for the promotion of women in public service and establishing several institutions responsible for the implementation of its provisions. It was proposed that the percentage of women should be increased to 40%. All branches of the federal administration had to implement positive action towards women (Frauenförderpläne). Due to the Act all ministries have implemented measures for the advancement of women within the administration. Most ministries established working groups on gender equality and developed affirmation action plans for women.</p> <p>The Federal Equal Treatment Act is also applies to universities.⁹⁵</p> <p>The institutions established are namely: Federal Equal Treatment Commission (Bundes-Gleichbehandlungskommission), Equal Treatment Official (Gleichbehandlungsbeauftragte), Working Group for Equal Treatment Questions within Ministries (Arbeitsgruppen für Gleichbehandlungsfragen in allen Ressorts), Interministerial Working Group (interministerielle Arbeitsgruppe).</p>
1994 - 1997	<p>Equal Treatment provisions for employment in provincial and community service are established between 1994-1997 in the federal states (“Bundesländer”) of Austria.⁹⁶ Apart from Vorarlberg the federal states established Equal Treatment Commissions for public service.</p>
1997	<p>Reform of the pension system: If a woman had been employed and interrupted or gave up that employment in order to care for a child, this time for caring for children was recognized as creating pension entitlements (of max. 36 months).⁹⁷</p>
1998	<p>An amendment of the Equal Treatment Act (for the Private Sector) lays down that employers must stop sexual harassment by third parties. Furthermore, regional offices for Equal Treatment are established.⁹⁸</p>
1999	<p>Amendment of the Equal Treatment in Federal Service Act introducing an open maximum of financial compensation for discrimination on grounds of gender when entering or advancing in public service; sexual harassment has to be reported to Disciplinary Commission.⁹⁹</p>

⁹⁴ Bundes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz für den öffentlichen Dienst, BGBl Nr. 100/1993, last amended by BGBl I Nr. 87/2001; Source: Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 14 f.

⁹⁵ Universitäts-Organisationsgesetz; Source: Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 14 f.

⁹⁶ Equal Treatment Law Carinthia in 1994: Kärntner Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl 65/1994 idF LGBl 25/2006; Equal Treatment Law Vienna in 1996: Wiener Gleichbehandlungsgesetz, LGBl 18/1996 idF LGBl 49/2005; Equal Treatment Law Burgenland in 1997: Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl.Nr. 59/1997 idF LGBl 10/2006; Upper Austria in 1995: Oberösterreichisches Gleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl Nr. 8/1995 idF. LGBl 73/2006; Equal Treatment Law Salzburg in 1996: Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz, LGBl Nr 30/1996, as last amended by LGBl Nr 46/2001, superseded by Salzburger Gleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl 31/2006; Equal Treatment Law Styria in 1997: Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl. Nr. 63/1997 as last amended by LGBl. Nr. 45/2003, superseded by Landesgleichbehandlungsgesetz LGBl Nr. 66/2004. Equal Treatment Law Tyrol in 1997: Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz, LGBl. Nr. 71/1997, as superseded by Landes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetz 2005, LGBl. Nr. 1/2005; Equal Treatment Law Lower Austria 1997, LGBl 2060-0 idF.2060-3 (2005); Equal Opportunities Law Vorarlberg in 1997: Gesetz zur Förderung der Chancengleichheit von Frauen und Männern, LGBl. Nr. 1/1997. Anti-discrimination Law Vorarlberg 2005, Gesetz über das Verbot der Diskriminierung, LGBl. Nr. 17/2005.

⁹⁷ BGBl I Nr. 139/1997

⁹⁸ The Equal Treatment Act for the private sector was originally introduced in 1979 and amended several times. The current version is BGBl. 108/1979 idF. BGBl. I Nr. 107/2013

⁹⁹ The Act on Equal Treatment in Federal Service was first introduced in 1993 and amended several times. The current version is BGBl I Nr. 100/1993 idF BGBl. I Nr. 210/2013

2004	In order to implement EU-directives equal treatment provisions in the area of public service are changed. ¹⁰⁰
2004	Implementing EU-directives previous equal treatment provisions in the private sector are changed. ¹⁰¹
2006	Launch of the Women in Technology (FiT) Program (Frauen in Handwerk und Technik). The program promotes the involvement of women in trades and technical professions. The program has been demonstrably successful in encouraging female school-leavers to opt for technical or scientific studies. ¹⁰²
2008	An amendment of the Federal Equal Treatment Act introduces the rule of non-discriminatory language, i.e. the obligation for the use of both the female and the male form of nouns, and for gender-neutral wording in job advertisements and in all correspondence relating to human resource matters in public service. ¹⁰³
2008	Second amendment to the Equal Treatment Act and the Act on the Equal Treatment Commission and the Ombudsperson for Equal treatment. It transposes Directive 2004/113/EC and implements the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services. ¹⁰⁴
2010	A National Action Plan (NAP) for Gender Equality in the Labour Market ¹⁰⁵ is adopted. In the NAP the current situation of women in the labour market is portrayed and four goals are mentioned: Diversifying educational paths and career choices, increasing labour market opportunities, increasing the number of women in leadership positions and reducing the gender pay gap. Measures for each goal are defined.
2010	With Zukunft.Frauen (Future.Women) and the database of female supervisory board members two initiatives were started to increase the number of women in leadership positions. ¹⁰⁶
2011	According to the NAP for Gender Equality in the Labour Market since 2011, employers are required by law to compile reports on the average earnings of women and men. The Ombudsman for Equal Treatment and the Equal Treatment Commission play a key role in the review of complaints (OECD, 2014: 112). In addition, the amendment to the Federal Equal Treatment Act stipulates that salaries must be indicated in job advertisements. In order to create greater transparency, a federal salary calculator is introduced. ¹⁰⁷
2012	The program “Re-Entering the Workforce with a Future” (Wiedereinstieg mit Zukunft) and the modular training programme “Systemic Competence” (Kompetenz

¹⁰⁰ Änderung des Bundes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetzes 2004 (BGBl I Nr. 65/2004)

¹⁰¹ Gleichbehandlungsgesetz – GLBG und Änderung des Bundesgesetzes über die Gleichbehandlung von Frau und Mann im Arbeitsleben (Gleichbehandlungsgesetz), BGBl. I Nr. 66/2004, same as Bundesgesetz über die Gleichbehandlungskommission und die Gleichbehandlungsanwaltschaft (GBK/GAW-Gesetz).

¹⁰² Mukherjee-Cosmidis 2002; NRP 2013;

http://www.forschungsnetzwerk.at/downloadpub/Arbeitsmarktbericht%20zur%20Gleichstellung_2013.pdf

¹⁰³ Änderung des Bundes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetzes, BGBl. I Nr. 97/2008

¹⁰⁴ Änderung des Gleichbehandlungsgesetzes sowie des Bundesgesetzes über die Gleichbehandlungskommission und die Gleichbehandlungsanwaltschaft, BGBl. I Nr. 98/2008

¹⁰⁵ <https://www.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CobId=42528>

¹⁰⁶

<http://www.bmwfw.gv.at/Wirtschaftspolitik/Standortpolitik/Seiten/FuehrungskraefteprogrammZukunftFrauen.aspx>

<http://www.bmwfw.gv.at/Wirtschaftspolitik/Standortpolitik/Seiten/Aufsichtsratinnen-Datenbank.aspx>

¹⁰⁷ Änderung des Gleichbehandlungsgesetzes, des Gesetzes über die Gleichbehandlungskommission und die Gleichbehandlungsanwaltschaft, des Behinderteneinstellungsgesetzes und des Bundes-Behindertengleichstellungsgesetzes, BGBl. I Nr. 7/2011; <http://www.gehaltsrechner.gv.at/>

	mit System) are designed in order to make it easier for women to re-enter the workforce after family-related career breaks. ¹⁰⁸
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Timeline of gender equality initiatives in domain 3. Family-Formation Practices and Policies

1995	A change in Marital Name Law allows that spouses keep their original last name. A common family name must be chosen. ¹⁰⁹
2000	Obligatory joint custody after divorce is introduced. ¹¹⁰
2001	Childcare Benefit Law is changed: Monthly child-care benefit (€436) per birth irrespective of former employment; only one parent may receive it at a time (no simultaneous receipt for both parents); dependent on eligibility for family benefit; maximum additional income of parent must be below € 14.600 per year; maximum period of 36 months if parents share, maximum period 30 months for single parents and parents who don't share. Non-Austrian nationals must have valid long-term residency permit (both parent and child). ¹¹¹
2004	Equal treatment of the right to parental leave for fathers and mothers is established. Earlier, the father's right was secondary to the mother's right, as the law did not allow for simultaneous parental leave for both. ¹¹²
2007	Change in Childcare Benefit Law: More flexible childcare benefits can be received for either a shorter time with higher amounts (20 months plus 4 months other parent, 15 months plus 3 months other parent) or for a longer time with a lower amount (30 months plus 6 months other parent). ¹¹³
2010	Further Amendment of the Childcare Benefit Law ¹¹⁴ : Additionally to the three already existing possibilities a variant with 12 months plus 2 months other parent is introduced. Furthermore, income-dependent childcare benefits for 12 plus 2 months other parent is added. ¹¹⁵

¹⁰⁸ NRP 2013: <https://www.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CobId=49942>

¹⁰⁹ Namensrechtsänderungsgesetz, BGBl Nr. 25/1995

¹¹⁰ Kindschaftsrechtsänderungsgesetz, BGBl Nr. 135/2000

¹¹¹ Kinderbetreuungsgeldgesetz, BGBl I Nr. 103/2001

¹¹² BGBl I Nr 64/2004, same as Law on Parental Part-Time Work

¹¹³ Änderung des Kinderbetreuungsgeldgesetzes, des Karenzgeldgesetzes und des Allgemeinen Sozialversicherungsgesetzes BGBl. I Nr. 76/2007. Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 40.

¹¹⁴ Kinderbetreuungsgeldgesetz (KBGG)

¹¹⁵ <https://www.help.gv.at/Portal.Node/hlpd/public/content/8/Seite.080601.html>

Timeline of gender equality initiatives in domain 4. Care and Work-Life Policies and Practices

1997	An amendment of Labour and Social Law gives employees the right to negotiate a decrease of norm working time with the employer if he/she must care for close relatives. ¹¹⁶
1999	An amendment of Marriage Law ¹¹⁷ leads to a “Clarification of distribution of tasks within marriage: tasks (such as gainful employment, household, child care) must be distributed 'with the aim of full balance of contributions' (if one spouse is gainfully employed and the other isn't, the non-employed spouse is obliged to do household and care work but the employed spouse is obliged to help); one spouse may unilaterally change the original agreement on distribution of tasks if there are important personal reasons (such as the wish to be gainfully employed) and this does no longer constitute a ground for divorce (through fault of one's own). (Tertinegg/Sauer 2008: 6). The law established furthermore that maintenance after divorce must be paid if it cannot reasonably be expected that the divorced spouse can make a living of her or his own because of caring for the joint child or because of lacking employment options due to having cared for a child or relative during marriage. (Tertinegg/Sauer 2007: 34)
2004	Introduction of the right to part-time work for parents up to child's 7 th birthday under restricted conditions (employed for 3 years and if employer has more than 20 employees). ¹¹⁸
2011	The Care Allowance Act ¹¹⁹ and the Care Allowance Reform Act ¹²⁰ bring a major change to the administration of care allowance.
2011	Introduction of a “paternity leave month” for public servants which provides for the possibility of taking four weeks of unpaid paternity leave during the maternity protection stage. Many provincial governments have followed with similar regulations. ¹²¹
2011	In the work program of the Austrian federal government for the 2013-2018 period an expansion of child-care offerings (Kindergartenplätze) is planned. ¹²²
2012	Public commitment to the importance of family-friendly measures in organizations and companies in form of the Charter on the Compatibility of Family and Career. ¹²³
2013	Amendment of the Austrian Labour Law ¹²⁴ : Employees have the right to take care leave as well as negotiate a reduction of working time if he/she has to care for close relatives. Furthermore a legal claim to benefits for care leave and social security protection in the form of zero-contribution health and pension insurance are guaranteed.

¹¹⁶ BGBl I 139/1997; Arbeits- und Sozialrechts-Änderungsgesetz 1997

¹¹⁷ Eherechtsänderungsgesetz, BGBl Nr. 125/1999

¹¹⁸ Elternteilzeitgesetz, BGBl I Nr. 64/2004

¹¹⁹ Pflegefondsgesetz BGBl. I Nr. 57/2011

¹²⁰ Pflegegeldreformgesetz 2012, BGBl. I Nr. 58/2011

¹²¹ Budgetbegleitgesetz 2011, Bundesgesetzblatt I Nr. 111/2010;

<https://www.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CobId=49942>

¹²² <https://www.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CobId=56730>

¹²³ Charta zur Vereinbarkeit von Familie und Beruf <http://www.bmfj.gv.at/familie/vereinbarkeit-familie-beruf/charta-vereinbarkeit-familie-und-beruf.html>

¹²⁴ BGBl I Nr. 138/2013

Promotion of women and gender equality in the Austrian science and innovation system

In 1896 women were allowed for the first time to pass the A-levels/school-leaving exam. A year later women were allowed to matriculate as students of the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Vienna. Only in 1919 women were admitted to matriculate in most Viennese universities. In 1956 Berta Karlik was the first woman to receive a regular professorship. In 1970 Hertha Firnberg was the first woman to become Federal Minister for Science and Research – a position in which she enforced many important affirmative action measures. In the 1970ies first measures and initiatives to promote women and gender equality were implemented at Austrian universities. In the 1990s a process of juridicisation of the promotion of women took place. In 1991, various Working Groups on Equal Opportunities at Austrian Universities were founded. Since the mid 1990ies the different strands of equal opportunity policies between men and women started to become more coordinated and specific measures were put in place like initiatives to promote young women researchers or to raise awareness for gender bias and discrimination in the science and innovation system. After the turn of the century Gender Mainstreaming was introduced in the Austrian policy context, which resulted in the establishment of an inter-ministerial working group for gender Mainstreaming (IMAG GM) in 2000 (Wroblewski *et al.*, 2007)¹²⁵.

Before 2003 the main focus of promoting women in science was on the higher education sector. Since 2003 Austria has put more effort into raising the share of women researchers especially in industrial research as the first benchmarking report “She Figures” was published by the European Commission. This report made evident that Austria had one of the lowest participation rates of women researchers in the European Union. In 2004 a comprehensive program (fForte) to promote women in (industrial) research was initiated. The implemented measures addressed various barriers hindering the participation of women in science - from socialization in school to labor market entry and career progress - and were targeted at the individual as well as at the structural level (Ihsen *et al.*, 2013). In alignment with Gender

¹²⁵ BMWFW: Milestones for Gender Equality <http://wissenschaft.bmwfw.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

Mainstreaming principles, fellowship programmes in Austria take gender issues into account:

Women researchers are given the right to interrupt or extend a contract in the event of maternity leave:

- Fellowship programmes administered by the Austrian Academy of Science allow women researchers to interrupt and extend their contract for a maximum of 12 months during maternity leave.
- Fellows (mothers and fathers) who can proof care for at least one child under the age of seven are eligible for a part-time fellowship. Furthermore the duration of the fellowship can be extended.

The FWF Austrian Science Fund targets and achieves a quota of 30 % female scientists/scholars within its programmes. In the Doctoral Programs a gender-equal focus/orientation of applications is demanded. Furthermore the share of women scientists involved in a Doctoral Program should at least be as high as in the respective scientific discipline. As a general principle of decision-making procedures in the FWF, the share of women among reviewers should average at least 30% per year.

Currently a shift in the discussion on barriers to gender equality in science, technology and innovation is observable in Austria: the focus shifts towards more cultural barriers to the participation of women, which are inscribed in the institutions of the science and innovation system (Schiffbänker u. Holzinger, 2012). But this has not really resulted yet in a newly designed set of equality policies in Austria.

Timeline of gender equality initiatives in science and research in Austria

1991	Working Groups on Equal Opportunities were set up at Austrian Universities based on the 1990 amendment of the University Law from 1975.
1993	A Working group on equal treatment was founded and Equal Opportunity Commissioners and contact women (Kontaktfrauen) for civil servants within the Ministry of Science and Research were introduced.
1995	Decree of the first affirmative action plan ¹²⁶ for the Federal Ministry of Science and Research. In the document concrete measures (e.g. the priority for women where their qualifications are equal) are formalized with the goal of increasing the

¹²⁶ Frauenförderungsplan im Wirkungsbereich des BMWFK BGBl. Nr. 229/1995, https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/Dokumente/BgblPdf/1995_229_0/1995_229_0.pdf

	percentage of female employees in the BMWFw's sphere of responsibility to 40%. ¹²⁷
1997	Introduction of the principle of equal treatment of women and men in all legal norms relevant to universities. "Aim of institutionalizing women's and gender studies in all curricula." ¹²⁸
1998	Introduction of the Hertha Finberg Scholarship, which supports women at the start of their scientific career (two-stage funding for a maximum of six years). ¹²⁹
1999	The White Paper on the Advancement of Women in Higher Education and Research was issued. It included 25 concrete measures for gender equality and the advancement of women in academia and in the non-university research sector. ¹³⁰
2002	The University Act 2002 ¹³¹ contains legal protection instruments (Working Groups on Equal Opportunities and arbitration commission), affirmative action instruments for the reduction of structural inequalities (e.g. a female quota of 40% for university committees, Women's Studies Coordination Centres and Women's Offices or Children's Offices) and organizational parameters for the continuation of successful facilities, as well as a commitment of autonomous universities to the implementation of affirmative action plans (measures to increase the proportion of women in leadership positions and to promote female junior researchers). ¹³²
2002/ 2003	The Inter-ministerial action umbrella programme fForte (Women in Research and Technology) is founded in order to increase the amount of women in science and technology. The initiative consists of the following funding programs: fFORTE academic (BMWFw – Ministry of Science, Research and Economy) w-fFORTE (BMWFw): The w-fFORTE project – economic impulses by women in research and technology – aims at establishing equal opportunities in scientific and technological worlds of work. It is a programme of the Austrian Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy and is implemented in the Austrian Research Promotion Agency (Österreichische Forschungsförderungsgesellschaft mbH FFG). The focus of the programme is on understanding different types of culture in research institutions. An important part of the programme is funding research centres for applied basic research that are headed by outstanding female scientists (laura bassi centres of expertise). FEMtech-fFORTE (BMVIT – Ministry for Transport, Innovation and Technology): Seeks to increase female participation in industry innovation and applied sciences at PROs in the medium and long-run. Support activities include for example FEMtech internships or FEMtech PhD grants in applied science for female MINT (mathematics, informatics, natural sciences, engineering) students or support of PRO institutions to implement e.g. fair recruitment strategies. Furthermore, certain FEMtech R&D grants target gender-specific innovation since 2010. It is a line of fFORTE-Programmes and since 2011 a line of Talents Programme. ¹³³ fFORTE Schule (BMBF – Ministry of Education and Women's Affairs): This is the

¹²⁷

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.wg.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

¹²⁸ BGBl I Nr. 48/1997; Universitäts-Studiengesetz

¹²⁹ EC 2013

¹³⁰ Mukherjee-Cosmidis 2002

¹³¹ Act on Universities 2002, (Universitätsgesetz 2002), BGBl I Nr. 120/2002

¹³²

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.wg.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/national-directives/>; <http://wissenschaft.bmwf.wg.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>; EC 2013

¹³³ <http://www.femtech.at/en/femtech.html>

	schooling branch of the initiative and supports activities on school level to encourage e.g. gender specific teaching schemes for MINT (mathematics, informatics, natural sciences, engineering) subjects at school and to strengthen general and female participation in MINT subjects. DOC-fFORTE: Scholarships for young female scientists in technology, natural sciences, medicine, life sciences and mathematics; introduced in 2003 but discontinued in 2011.
2004	Introduction of the Excellentia programme by the Federal Minister of Science and Research: Aim of the program is to raise the share of women professors from 8% in 2003 to 16% in 2009 by offering additional money for each woman who was promoted to professor.
2004/ 2005	Renaming of the Charlotte Bühler Scholarship, which was introduced in 1992 into Elise Richter Scholarship. The Programme is aimed at senior post-docs and helps them acquire the necessary qualifications to apply for professional positions in Austria or abroad. ¹³⁴
2006	The Regulation on formula based budgets for Austrian Universities (FBV) ¹³⁵ formulates two indicators related to the promotion of women: Indicator 8 measures the share of women in grade A (full professors) positions and indicator 9 measures the number of women PhD graduates weighted by discipline of PhD study. ¹³⁶
2007	The BMWF (since 1 March 2014: BMWFW) introduces gender monitoring, including indicators that make the supervision of the implementation of gender equality possible. ¹³⁷
2008	The funding scheme FEMtech FTI Projects (renamed to FEMtech Research Projects) was introduced. It funds research projects, which are focused on gender aspects in technology development.
2009	The University Law Amendment Act ¹³⁸ sets a 40 % quota for the underrepresented sex at all university committees. To help realize the quota the BMWF has financed a training measure for members of boards. Furthermore, gender monitoring with respect to recruitment as well as in governance entities was implemented. ¹³⁹
2009	The Austrian Research Promotion Agency has introduced gender criteria in application procedures. Applicants need to argue how they deal with gender aspects of their research.
2009	Implementation of the Laura Bassi Centers of Excellence. Women scientists are encouraged to apply for top positions within these centers to address the shortage of women in scientific roles. ¹⁴⁰
2010	The regulation on intellectual capital reports for Austrian universities ¹⁴¹ obligates universities to provide indicators on the share of women, the gender pay gap and the budget for work-life balance measures. ¹⁴²

¹³⁴ EC 2013,

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

¹³⁵ Formelbudget-Verordnung BGBl Nr. 120/2006

¹³⁶ EC 2013

¹³⁷

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

¹³⁸ Universitätsrechts-Änderungsgesetz 2009 BGBl. I Nr. 81/2009, amendment to the University Act / Universitätsgesetz 2002

¹³⁹ EC 2013

¹⁴⁰ EC 2013

¹⁴¹ Wissensbilanzverordnung 2010 – WBV 2010, BGBl II 216/2010

¹⁴² EC 2013

2010	Universities receive funding against Performance Agreements with the Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy (BMWF) ¹⁴³ . In the Performance Agreements they have to state university-specific objectives and measures to improve the position of women as well as to support work-life balance (e.g. child-care facilities, parental leave, flexible working hours). Generally speaking the Performance Agreements aim for a 40 % share of women in leading positions and gender mainstreaming. The inclusion of gender equality objectives in the performance agreements is formalized as a measure of the output oriented objectives of the outcome-oriented budgeting. The implementation of measures for gender equality is reviewed on a yearly basis in form of knowledge surveys. ¹⁴⁴
2010	Foundation of the Uniko Task Force “Gender and Diversity” for gender mainstreaming. The objective of the task force is gender equality in university everyday life. A Staff Unit for Gender and Diversity Management at the Federal Ministry of Science and Research is founded. ¹⁴⁵
2011	Introduction of the “higher education institution and family audit” (Audit hochschuleundfamilie) as measure to improve the reconciliation of family and career in higher education institutions. During the audit process existing measures of the higher education institution are evaluated and ways towards new possibilities and strategies are revealed. 18 universities have already taken part in the audit. ¹⁴⁶
2011	An Advisory Board for Gender and Diversity (Strategiebeirat Gender und Diversität) dealing with high-visibility innovations in gender and diversity is founded at the Federal Ministry of Science and Research. ¹⁴⁷
2011	In the Quality Assurance Framework Law ¹⁴⁸ gender equality and promotion of women are set as legal obligations for all HEIs. Aims, principles and activities in this area have to be written down in the statutes. ¹⁴⁹
2012	An Affirmative Action Plan of the Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy ¹⁵⁰ (BMWF) is adopted as a legally binding document. It contains various objectives to promote women. ¹⁵¹
2012	In the first performance agreement (2012 to 2014) between the Austrian Academy of Science (ÖAW) and the Federal Ministry of Science and Research it was agreed

¹⁴³ Formerly Ministry of Science and Research (BMWF)

¹⁴⁴ EC 2013,

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/programmes-and-initiatives/formalisation-of-strategic-gender-equality-objectives-in-the-universities-performance-agreements/>

¹⁴⁵

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

¹⁴⁶

<http://www.bmfj.gv.at/familie/vereinbarkeit-familie-beruf/vereinbarkeit-familie-beruf.html>;

Eurypedia

http://www.familieundberuf.at/fileadmin/user_upload/Formular_und_Downloads/Audit_hochschuleundfamilie.pdf

¹⁴⁷

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/legal-framework-for-equality/milestones-for-gender-equality/>

¹⁴⁸ Qualitätssicherungsrahmengesetz 2011 - BGBl. I Nr. 74/2011

¹⁴⁹ Tiefenthaler/Good 2011

¹⁵⁰ BGBl. II 49/2012

¹⁵¹

<http://wissenschaft.bmwf.gv.at/home/science-higher-education/gender-and-diversity/programmes-and-initiatives/legal-measures/>

	that the ÖAW develops and implements an affirmative action plan for women. ¹⁵²
2013	A Working Group on Gender and Diversity Management is established within the Ministry of Science and Research. It consists of top managers within the Ministry and aims to implement diversity measures in public universities and research organizations. ¹⁵³
2013	Start of the Dual Career Service Support as an initiative of the Universities Austria (uniko). The DCSS is a network of research and scientific organizations in the greater area of Vienna with the goal of improving the support for dual career couples, i.e. couples where both are highly qualified and career oriented. ¹⁵⁴
2014	Establishment of Dr. Maria-Schaumayer re-entry scholarships for women scientists at a pre-doc or postdoc-stage who have interrupted their career for caring responsibilities at the Vienna University of Economics and Business.

Conclusions

In 2008 a report by the European Commission on gender equality in science labelled Austria as a country “*with good policy but weak results*” (European Commission, 2008b: 8): meaning that it introduced an extensive gender equality legislation and a comprehensive and coordinated set of measures and initiatives along the whole life-cycle but the results of the implementation are weak to moderate. The comprehensiveness of efforts to raise the participation of women in science and technology was also noted in other reports (see Castano *et al.*, 2010: 42 or European Commission, 2008a). The weak results are explained by the weak performance of Austria in providing enough incentives and support for women to stay in employment. In principle the individual taxation does not provide any barriers for the labour market participation of women in Austria. But the tax- and transfer/benefits system as a whole is primarily focused on male breadwinner households and women are seen as providers of additional income mainly responsible for childcare and household. The traditional division of labour between women and men is sustained by a set of different measures like generous child related benefits, rather extensive parental leaves taken by mothers with low compensation rates for income losses, lack of available and affordable childcare facilities which are compatible with full time jobs and taxation rules which often discourage double-income families (deductions for single breadwinner households) (Lutz u. Schratzenstaller, 2010: 670 ; Tazi-Preve, 2009). Women sharing a household with a partner and children are still less likely to

¹⁵²http://wissenschaft.bmwf.wg.at/fileadmin/user_upload/forschung/Leistungsvereinbarung_2012-2014.pdf; EC 2013

¹⁵³ EC 2013

¹⁵⁴ http://www.uniko.ac.at/arbeitsbereiche/gender_diversity/schwerpunkte/dual_career/

participate in full time in the labour market - regardless of their level of education. They act as additional earners and sustain the still dominant male breadwinner model (Biffl, 2009: 159). Therefore the rising participation of women in the labour market does not impact the traditional division of labour : women still work nearly twice as much in the household as men in Austria (OECD, 2012). Although in the younger generation women have closed the gender gap in educational levels to men (OECD, 2012), they are still less likely to translate their educational efforts into respective occupational positions : in 2003 56% of men with a tertiary degree were occupying highly qualified or leading positions but in comparison only 18% of tertiary educated women (Mairhuber u. Papouschek, 2010: 444).

There is strong evidence that policies in Austria are directed towards more emphasis on gender equality and new egalitarian division of labour. There is also some evidence that this translates into new social values and attitudes (see for example Haas, 2009 ; Tazi-Preve, 2009; Holzinger *et al.*, 2014). Still traditional social roles for women and men are quite dominant and especially the birth of a child leads to a fall back to traditional gendered patterns of division of labour in Austria (Haas, 2009: 135). Only a minority of fathers is making use of their entitlement to parental leave although there is evidence that working fathers want to be more involved in childcare activities.

The Austrian welfare system and labour market policies are still founded on conservative, family-oriented and essentialist social perceptions of sex and gender differences (Sauer, 2009: 53). This has contributed to an equation of family policies with gender equality policies in Austria (Kreisky u. Löffler, 2010; Appelt, 2009). Despite progress in equal treatment and gender equality legislations and initiatives the Austrian welfare state still shows »a certain reluctance to give up the support of family life«(Plantenga, 2014: 32) and therefore comprises conflicting elements of a male breadwinner model as well as a adult worker model. Consequently, Bergmann et al. (2014), following Kreimer (2011), characterize Austria's process of modernization in respect to gender equality as « stuck halfway».

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General conclusion

The data from this mapping exercise will be analysed comparatively during the next phase of the project and will ultimately serve as a backdrop against which results from the other GARCIA work-packages can be interpreted.

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Deliverable D3.2 – National & Local Policy Reports APPENDICES

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Domain I. Education policies and practices

Table I.1. Highest educational attainment of women, by age cohort, 1980-2013

Date	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Women as % of those with primary educational attainment according to age																	
25 – 49																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	53.3	51.7	51.7	50.9	50.5	50.8	51.2	51	51.1	49.5	49.9	50.5	48.8	49.2	..
<u>Iceland</u>	62.5	87.5	..	52.3	53.9	52.9	48.7	47.3	44.8	43.7	45.6	47.1	45.5	45.1
<u>Italy</u>	58.1	58.2	57.1	57	57.1	55.9	56.4	55.1	54.1	53.8	52.3	52	52.1	50.6	50.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	52	53.2	51.3	50.3	51.7	51	50	48.5	48.8	48.5	49	47.6	47.4	44.4
<u>Slovenia</u>	52.9	48.1	45.4	45.8	46.1	44.2	43.2	40.6	34.2	39.4	39.2	40.2	38.5	39.4	40.0
<u>Switzerland</u>	56	55.4	55.5	56.1	55.9	56.1	56.5	55.8	55.4	56.5	58.0	..
50+																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	60.4	60.2	59.9	60.7	61.1	60.1	60.8	59.9	60.9	61.7	61.7	60.1	60.9	61.0	..
<u>Iceland</u>	..	63.1	61.4	59.4	65.6	..	59.2	61.4	60.3	53.8	54.3	56.3	58.2	55.3	57.4	58.8	56.7
<u>Italy</u>	57.2	57.8	58.2	58.3	59.1	58.4	58.6	59	58.8	59.2	59.8	59.9	60.0	60.3	60.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	66.7	65.2	65.4	65.1	65.2	65.1	64.9	64.2	65.5	64	64.3	63.3	63.3	64.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	64.2	63.1	64.1	65.8	66.5	68.2	67.6	67.5	67.1	65.5	66.4	67.4	72	71	64.4	64.6	65.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	62.3	62.7	63.7	62.6	64.1	61.8	61.5	63.2	62	62.1	62.6	..
Women as % of those with lower secondary educational attainment, according to age																	
25 – 49																	
<u>Austria</u>	62.2	65.7	63.4	62.7	63.5	64.1	64.5	60.4	61.8	64.2	64.1	63.4	63	61.1	60.8	61.3	..
<u>Belgium</u>	46.2	44.6	45.1	44.5	45.3	45.2	44.1	43.9	44.1	43.6	43.8	42.9	43.4	41.7	..
<u>Iceland</u>	..	63.4	58.7	55.2	56	..	61.5	64.4	63.2	58.2	60.3	57.4	55.3	55	50	55	55.9
<u>Italy</u>	46.9	46.5	46.5	46.5	46.5	45.2	44.7	44.8	44.7	44.4	45	45	45	44.7	44.7
<u>Netherlands</u>	51.9	51.4	51	50.7	51	50.8	49.7	50	48.4	47.4	47	46.9	46.2	46.8
<u>Slovenia</u>	63.7	60.8	57.2	55.8	54.9	53.6	52.1	52.8	52.4	50.7	50.3	48.5	48.6	47.3	44.1	44.3	44.4

Switzerland	..	63.4	63.5	60.2	61.3	61.1	63.8	64	63.1	63.6	62.5	62.6	61.9	58.2	58.1	56.9	..
50+																	
Austria	71.5	71.7	68.9	70.2	69.9	69.6	69.8	69.9	69.4	71.7	71.6	71	71.1	71.2	71.1	70.7	..
Belgium	54.4	55.1	56.4	54.5	53.5	56.7	54.3	55.2	54.3	55.2	53.8	54.4	53.1	52.8	..
Iceland	..	67.2	69.3	61.8	61.5	..	71.5	70.5	67.9	70	68.8	71.3	70	69.8	69.7	67.3	70.3
Italy	47.5	46.9	47	47.5	48.4	46.4	46.7	46.6	46.8	46.8	47.4	47.6	47.3	47.3	47.5
Netherlands	62.6	62.5	63.1	63.3	63.4	64	64.5	64.2	63.9	63.9	62.9	61.2	61.8	61.9
Slovenia	68.1	72.1	71.3	72.3	72.8	72.1	72	72.6	71.2	70.4	70.4	70.8	69.9	69.5	69.3	69.1	68.9
Switzerland	..	73.4	73.4	71.9	74.1	76.2	75.5	75.3	75.3	74.3	74.3	75.7	75.4	74.2	72.6	72.5	..
Women as % of those with tertiary educational attainment, according to age																	
25 – 49																	
Austria	27.1	44.3	45.9	44	43.6	44.9	45.7	44.7	46.1	45	44.8	45.9	46.9	47.5	47.3	47.9	..
Belgium	51.1	52.1	52.3	53.3	52.8	52.8	53.4	53.6	54.4	54.4	54.9	54.4	55.0	55.4	..
Iceland	..	44.2	49.1	52.9	52.2	..	55.5	55.7	55.4	55.4	53.8	55.7	57.3	59.3	60.3	60.6	59.2
Italy	48.4	50.9	51.7	52.3	53.0	55.0	55.2	55.9	56.5	57.2	57.5	57.8	57.5	57.9	58.1
Netherlands	45	45.8	46.8	47.1	47.3	47.7	48.8	49.0	49.1	49.8	50.0	50.8	51.3	51.6
Slovenia	44.0	52.1	53.6	58.9	59.3	59.7	59.8	59.8	58.2	59.2	59.9	59.6	60.1	59.7	61.6	61.6	61.8
Switzerland	..	30.1	28.3	32.4	33.4	34.4	34.8	35.6	37.1	38.1	39.2	40.6	40.8	42.9	43.3	43.4	..
50+																	
Austria	24.9	25.1	29.6	29.2	32	32	31.6	31.4	32.1	31.6	31.5	33	34.5	35.7	34.3	34.6	..
Belgium	57.4	44.8	44.4	43.4	44.5	44.7	46.2	46.0	45.2	44.7	44.8	47.3	46.6	46.8	..
Iceland	..	23.3	27.3	38.9	40.7	..	45.3	41.4	47.5	50.8	46.6	43.3	45.8	50.3	50.9	52.1	54.1
Italy	33.9	39.5	40.5	40.8	41.1	42.1	43.0	43.9	44.7	45	45.7	45.5	46.4	47.4	47.1
Netherlands	36.3	37.5	36.1	36.1	37.6	37.0	37.9	38.2	38.6	39.1	39.3	39.6	39.4	39.2
Slovenia	26.6	33.2	36.4	40.3	42.9	41.8	42.3	43.9	45.6	46.4	45.1	46.8	49.3	49.4	47.8	48.6	49.3
Switzerland	..	26.2	19.2	22.6	23.6	25.8	27.5	27.0	27.3	27.3	29.0	29.2	30.3	31.7	32.1	32.0	..
Women as % of those with upper secondary educational attainment, according to age																	
25 – 49																	

Austria	40.8	43.6	44.8	47.4	47.5	47.2	47.1	48.8	48	47.6	47.7	47.9	47.9	48.3	48.5	48.3	..
Belgium	47.8	49	48.5	48.1	48.3	47.6	47.9	47.7	46.8	47.2	46.4	46.8	46.4	46.4	46.3
Iceland	..	41.5	43.4	41.7	40.2	..	41	39.5	40.3	39.8	40.6	41	42.9	42.2	40.5	39.6	40.9
Italy	49.6	50.5	50.6	50.6	50.5	51.1	51.2	51	50.8	50.8	50.5	50.4	50.6	50.6	50.3
Netherlands	50	49.7	49.9	50.4	50.2	50.3	50.4	50.6	51.2	51	51	50.7	50.5	49.7
Slovenia	39.6	44.5	46.1	44.4	44	44.8	44.9	44.8	45.3	45.3	44.2	43.9	43.5	43.9	43.3	42.6	42.3
Switzerland	..	51.4	52.7	54.5	54.2	54.2	54.2	54.7	54.6	54.3	54.3	53.9	54.2	53.3	53.2	53.2	..
50+																	
Austria	42.7	43.9	46.4	47.9	48.3	49.1	49.3	49.9	49.9	48	47.5	48.2	48.3	48.2	48.2	48.7	..
Belgium	47.4	48.7	48.5	49.7	49.4	49.5	49	50.3	50.5	49	51.1	50.7	51.6	51.5	..
Iceland	..	40	38.4	39.3	39.1	..	33.5	33.8	34.6	35.7	37.5	37.6	37	36.2	35.6	35.4	34.3
Italy	45.4	45.3	45.4	45.6	46	46	46.1	46.4	47.2	47.5	47	47.9	48.9	49	49.2
Netherlands	44.5	43.6	44.9	44.2	44.6	44.7	44.6	45.5	45.5	45.9	46.5	48.1	48	47.8
Slovenia	39.2	42	44.4	46.7	45.2	45.8	45.9	45.7	46	46.9	46.7	46.1	45.7	46	44.9	44.9	44.9
Switzerland	..	50.5	52.4	55.2	54.5	54.3	54	54.4	54	54.8	55.1	55.6	55	54.5	54.4	55.2	..

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources.

[Definition: Educational attainment is defined as the highest level successfully completed by the person, in the educational system of the country where the education was received. The levels of education are defined according to the ISCED 1997.](#)

[Austria](#) : 2003-2004: break in series, changes in data collection procedure.

[Belgium](#) : 2010: break in series: change in methodology.

[Iceland](#) : 2003: change in data collection procedure.

[Italy](#) : 1980,1990: data for primary level attainment include persons who have not completed the primary level education. 2004: break in series: change in data collection procedure.

[Switzerland](#) : 1990: data refer to 1991,1990 to 2001: lower secondary education includes primary education. Breaks in series: 1996 and 2002: change in definition of educational attainment levels; 2010: major changes in data collection procedures (quarterly data instead of annual data).

Table I.2. Enrolment rate of girls at secondary school level, 1980-2013

	1980-1981	1990-1991	1995-1996	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013
Austria	89.2	89.8	89.8	89.9	90.1	91.1	92	90.4	90.7	90.7	90.3	90.2	90.6	90.4
Belgium	..	88.2	96	..	96	97	84	84	85
Iceland	87.4	84	86	88	90	90	90	91	91	90	90	89
Italy	91	92	93	93	93	92	94	93	94	92
Netherlands	..	83	92	89	91	89	90	88	90	89	89	88	88	90
Slovenia	93	93	93	92	92	92	93	93	93	93	94
Switzerland	..	75	83.4	82	81	81	81	82	83	83	82	82	82	82

.. - data not available.

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (UNESCO Institute for Statistics) official sources.

Definition: The net enrolment ratio is the number of students of the official school-age group (defined by each country) enrolled in secondary-level education per 100 persons of the same age group.

The gross enrolment ratio is the number of students enrolled in secondary level education (regardless of their age) per 100 persons of the official school-age group corresponding to secondary-level education.

[The secondary level consists of lower and upper secondary levels of ISCED 1997.](#)

[Austria](#) : NER: data include ISCED level 4 programmes; NER data refer to official school age group assumed to be 10-17 years.

[Iceland](#) : 1980/1981-1995/1996: data refer to ISCED 1976 classification.

[Italy](#) : Data refer to level 3 of ISCED classification and refer to the school year.

[Netherlands](#) : 1990/1991: data do not include special secondary education.

[Slovenia](#) : Data refer to 15 September of the school year.

Table I.3. Enrolment rate of girls in upper and post secondary education, 1980-2012

	1980-1981	1990-1991	1995-1996	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of total for both sexes															
Girls															
<u>Austria</u>	44.2	45.3	46.6	48.1	48.1	48.3	48.6	48.8	49.3	48.8	49	49.3	49.2	49.2	..
<u>Belgium</u>	49.8	51.6	51.6	50.8	50.5	51.3	51.5	51.7	53.2	53.3	52.9	53.2	53.3
<u>Iceland</u>	46.1	47.1	48.3	50.9	51.5	51.6	51.1	50.9	51.5	52.4	51.2	51.7	50.8	50	49.9
<u>Italy</u>	48.5	49.9	49.9	49.2	48.7	49.1	49	48.9	48.9	48.7	48.6	48.7	48.5	48.4	48.4
<u>Netherlands</u>	43.5	45.4	47	48.6	48.9	49.7	49.4	49.2	49.1	49.1	49.1	49.1	49.4	49.2	49.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	49.7	49.8	49.8	50.2	49.6	49.2	49.2	49.3	49.6	49	49.1	48.9	48.7	49.1	48.9
<u>Switzerland</u>	42.6	45.2	45.9	47	47.3	47.4	47.4	47.2	46.9	47	46.3	46.5	47.1	47.2	..
Boys															
<u>Austria</u>	55.8	54.7	53.4	51.9	51.9	51.7	51.4	51.2	50.7	51.2	51.2	51	50.7	50.8	..
<u>Belgium</u>	50.2	48.4	48.4	49.2	49.5	48.7	48.5	48.3	46.8	46.7	47.1	46.8	46.7
<u>Iceland</u>	53.9	52.9	51.7	49.1	48.5	48.4	48.9	49.1	48.5	47.6	48.8	48.3	49.2	50	50.1
<u>Italy</u>	51.5	50.1	50.1	50.8	51.3	50.9	51	51.1	51.1	51.3	51.4	51.3	51.5	51.6	51.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	56.5	54.6	53	51.4	51.1	50.3	50.6	50.8	50.9	50.9	50.9	50.9	50.6	50.8	50.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	50.3	50.2	50.2	49.8	50.4	50.8	50.8	50.7	50.4	51	50.9	51.1	51.3	50.9	51.1
<u>Switzerland</u>	57.4	54.8	54.1	53	52.7	52.6	52.6	52.8	53.1	53	53.7	53.5	52.9	52.8	..

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and UNESCO Institute for Statistics) official sources.

Definition: Upper and post secondary levels correspond respectively to levels 3 and 4 of ISCED. 1997 classification. Tertiary levels is not included.

Upper secondary education (level 3) typically begins at the end of full-time compulsory education for those countries that have a system of compulsory education. The entrance age to this level is typically 15 or 16 years.

Post secondary education (level 4) captures programmes that straddle the boundary between upper secondary and post-secondary education from an international point of view.

Level 4 programmes can, considering their content, not be regarded as tertiary programmes. They are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at level 3 but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at level 3.

Austria : Up to 1990-1991: data refer to ISCED 1976 classification.1980-1981, 1990-1991 and 1995-1996: data refer to 1979-1980, 1989-1990 and 1994-1995.

Iceland : Up to 1995-1996: data refer to level 3 of ISCED 1976 classification.

Italy : Data refer to level 3 of ISCED 1997 classification. 1980-1981, 1990-1991 and 1995-1996: data refer to 1979-1980, 1989-1990 and 1994-1995.

Table I.4. Proportion of tertiary qualifications awarded to women, 2000-2011

Year	2000	2010	2011
	All fields		
Austria	46.2	53.1	53.7
Belgium	50.1	54.5	55.0
Iceland	66.9	66.9	67.0
Italy	55.8	59.4	60.5
Netherlands	54.8	56.7	56.9
Slovenia	..	65.1	64.0
Switzerland	37.8	50.6	51.2

Source: OECD. No data available prior to 2000, nor between 2000 and 2010.

Detail by field of study and type of qualification in the following Table.

Table I.5. Share of women in tertiary education, by field of study and type of study programme, 2006-2012

	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Education						
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Education (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	72.1	75.1	75.1	74.4	73.9	73.4
Belgium	75.1	75	75.4	74.6	74.6	75.2
Iceland	85.2	84.7	85	83.5	81.6	81.7
Italy	85.7	86.6	87.8	91.6	82	90.8
Netherlands	74.1	74.1	73.9	73.2	72.1	72.2
Slovenia	79.6	80	79.9	81.7	90.9	83.4
Switzerland	71.2	72.3	73.7	72.4	72.8	73.1
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	11.9	15	14.9	15.5	16.9	18.4
Belgium	3.6	3.7	3.9	4.4	4.4	4.4
Iceland	21.3	21.3	20.8	19.7	18.3	15.1
Italy	11.2	10.3	10.2	7.6	10.1	8.8
Netherlands	21	20.1	19.1	18.6	16.9	16.2
Slovenia	15.8	13.9	12	11.2	12.4	12.6
Switzerland	18.1	17.4	15.9	15.9	16	16.1
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Education (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	79.5	80	80.6	80	79.3	78.1
Belgium	71.2	71.2	71.2	71.2	71.2	71.8
Iceland	48.3	64.4	60.3	53.7	53.4	37.5
Italy
Netherlands	55	58.5	34.1

Slovenia	88.5	87.4	81.3	81.8	93	78.8
Switzerland	66	67.8	67.9	66.5	66.3	63.1
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	63.3	23.6	27.9	35.3	43.9	47.3
Belgium	26.6	24.8	24.3	24	24.5	24.5
Iceland	49.1	58	51.5	53.4	59.1	23.8
Italy
Netherlands	3.3	1.6	3.9
Slovenia	5.2	6.3	7.4	7.6	7.6	4.2
Switzerland	7.6	7.1	6.6	7.1	7.1	6.2
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Education (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	68.7	70.1	71	71.3	72.3	72.8
Belgium	55.7	55	69.9	65.2	68.5	70.9
Iceland	82.4	69	85.7	63.8	73.2	73
Italy	72.1	71.1	73.5
Netherlands
Slovenia	70.8	51.9	61.4	66.3	80.8	79.8
Switzerland	65.3	67	65.5	64.4	63.5	63.3
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	6.4	5.9	6	6.4	6.3	6
Belgium	1.2	1	1.1	1	1.1	1.2
Iceland	12.2	13.3	14.5	16.8	18.7	16.3
Italy	2.2	2	2.4
Netherlands
Slovenia	5.7	3.5	4.2	7.1	8.7	9.2
Switzerland	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8

Humanities & Arts	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Humanities & Arts (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	67.4	66.3	66.5	66.6	66.6	66.6
Belgium	61.2	61.2	61	60.8	61.4	61.9
Iceland	65.7	67.2	66.5	64.8	63.1	63.1
Italy	72.8	74.3	72.8	72.9	74.7	72.2
Netherlands	54.1	54	54.4	54.2	54.4	54.7
Slovenia	75	74.7	74.3	72.5	77.5	72.2
Switzerland	60.8	61.1	61.5	61.7	61.8	61.8
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	21	17.9	17.8	17.4	16.8	16.3
Belgium	21.9	20.2	19.6	19.2	19.4	18.7
Iceland	14.6	14.8	13.8	14.6	14.7	15.6
Italy	18.9	17.2	18.9	18.4	16.3	18.2
Netherlands	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8	9.1	8.6
Slovenia	15.2	14.4	12.8	11.6	11.3	11.2
Switzerland	18	17.5	17.8	17.1	16.6	15.8
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Humanities & Arts (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	69.9	64.8	65.5	65.1	65.1	65.3
Belgium	33.1	34.4	35.3	34.7	39.9	40.5
Iceland	76.3	70.8	78.8	78.1	76.3	77.5
Italy	57.4	55.7	53.3	52	51.1	48.4
Netherlands	88.2	88.5	60.3	89.8
Slovenia	46.3	44.1	48	42.8	46.8	39.6
Switzerland	52	52.4	55.6	50.3	52.7	50
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	3.1	11.6	6.7	6.7	5.6	5.1
Belgium	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.2	3	2.9
Iceland	38.8	23	38.2	38.5	36.5	61.4
Italy	100	100	100	100	100	100
Netherlands	2.9	3.4	7.6	10.6
Slovenia	1	1.3	2.6	2.8	3.9	3.5
Switzerland	4.6	5	4.7	4.4	4.8	3.8
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Humanities & Arts (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	57.6	58.1	57.3	58.5	58.2	58.3
Belgium	48.5	49	48.1	48.2	47.9	48.8
Iceland	55.3	65.7	60	60.7	56.5	60.8
Italy	58.9	60.4	58.6
Netherlands
Slovenia	61.4	61.9	63.7	53.3	63	66.8
Switzerland	52	52.8	52.7	52.8	53.6	54.0
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	22.8	22.0	21.9	21.6	21.2	21.6
Belgium	14.4	13.6	12.8	12.4	12.4	11.7
Iceland	18.3	15.3	14.5	19.0	14.0	16.0
Italy	14.9	15.2	14.4
Netherlands
Slovenia	17.1	15.6	13.2	13.4	16.9	16.2
Switzerland	18	18.3	18.0	17.4	17.0	16.7

Social sciences, Business and Law	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Social sciences, Business and Law (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	55.8	56.3	56.4	56.1	55.7	55.2
<u>Belgium</u>	54.4	54.6	54.6	54.8	54.8	54.9
<u>Iceland</u>	59.9	60.7	61	59.7	59.7	60.7
<u>Italy</u>	57.5	57.7	58	58.1	57.8	57.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	46.9	47.2	47.6	47.8	47.9	47.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	65.4	65.9	66.4	66.5	67	66
<u>Switzerland</u>	47	47.3	47.7	48.1	48.7	48.8
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	42.1	39.8	39.8	40.2	39.4	38.2
<u>Belgium</u>	39.8	39.5	38.8	38.8	38.6	38.1
<u>Iceland</u>	36.6	36.3	37.7	35.4	35.5	36.6
<u>Italy</u>	36.2	36	35.7	34.8	35.2	34.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	34.1	34.4	35	35.6	36.8	36.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	45.2	45.3	46.1	45.3	39.5	39.1
<u>Switzerland</u>	35.1	35.7	35.6	35.6	35.3	35.4
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Social sciences, Business and Law (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	79.6	57.5	59.2	59.3	57.9	57.7
<u>Belgium</u>	52.9	53.3	52.9	52.5	52.9	52.0
<u>Iceland</u>	..	32.6
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	43.3	45.2	42.1	34.0
<u>Slovenia</u>	68.1	69.7	71.8	74	73.2	70.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	48.9	48.8	47	47.5	44.7	44.6
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	2.9	18	30.7	28	25.3	24.0
Belgium	20.2	20.6	20.9	20.4	20.5	19.7
Iceland	..	7.5
Italy
Netherlands	40.2	34.2	17.9	12.6
Slovenia	51.9	46.6	41.1	39.2	37.4	39.5
Switzerland	48.1	34.4	33.6	37.9	35.6	30.3
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Social sciences, Business and Law (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	48.4	48.3	47.9	50	50.8	50.7
Belgium	46.3	48.3	49.1	50.1	50	50.8
Iceland	48.5	51.3	48.1	56	61.6	64.4
Italy	53.7	54.1	54.4
Netherlands
Slovenia	62	54.9	53.6	57.8	58	56.6
Switzerland	41.4	42.3	42.4	43.1	44.1	46.4
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	38.3	35.6	36.1	41.8	41.2	39.5
Belgium	20.9	21.6	23.7	22.9	23.5	23.3
Iceland	13.9	13.3	15.2	15.6	19.1	20.6
Italy	20.2	19.6	19.3
Netherlands
Slovenia	17.3	15	18.4	29.8	24.3	23.6
Switzerland	26.7	26.3	25.5	25.1	24.6	25.3

Science	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Science (EA)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	34.4	34.9	36.1	36.3	36.4	36.4
<u>Belgium</u>	37.2	36.6	35.4	34.5	31.3	31.7
<u>Iceland</u>	40.6	40.6	39.4	40.2	38.0	38.2
<u>Italy</u>	50.2	50.8	51.4	51.9	52.1	52.0
<u>Netherlands</u>	16.2	17.4	19	19.9	21.3	22.2
<u>Slovenia</u>	40.2	39.2	44.3	45.3	57.9	43.9
<u>Switzerland</u>	29.7	30.5	31.8	32.7	33.6	33.9
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	8.3	7.9	8	7.9	8	8
<u>Belgium</u>	6.5	6	5.6	5.4	3.9	3.8
<u>Iceland</u>	4.4	4.1	3.9	4.7	4.9	5.3
<u>Italy</u>	6.7	6.9	7	7	7.1	7
<u>Netherlands</u>	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	4	4	4.3	4.6	5.9	5
<u>Switzerland</u>	6	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.5
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Science (SB)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	17	25.4	17.7	14.1	16.9	22.4
<u>Belgium</u>	8	8.4	5.9	6.2	9.2	11.6
<u>Iceland</u>	11.4	16.4	10.8	11.8	7.9	12.1
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	66.7	5.9
<u>Slovenia</u>	19.1	19.3	16.8	20.1	22	19.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	10.3	9.3	8.4	7.1	6.9	9.5
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9
Belgium	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	
Iceland	12.1	11	10.3	7.4	4.4	11.9			
Italy
Netherlands	0.4	0.6	
Slovenia	1.5	1.8	2	2.8	2.9	2.8			
Switzerland	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7			
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Science (6)									
Percent of total for both sexes									
Austria	35.2	35.9	35.3	34.4	33.5	32.5			
Belgium	41.8	40	42.9	42.3	38.3	38.1			
Iceland	48.1	42.5	45.2	39.2	40.2	45.7			
Italy	51.8	51.1	50.8			
Netherlands			
Slovenia	46.1	43.9	46.4	43.4	44	49.3			
Switzerland	35.1	37.1	36.3	36.5	36.9	36.5			
Percent of total for all fields of study									
Austria	13.2	13.6	13.2	10.6	10.6	10.3			
Belgium	30.2	30.3	23.7	21	18.4	17.7			
Iceland	22.6	22.7	23	16.2	18.3	18.8			
Italy	23.6	22.8	22.6			
Netherlands			
Slovenia	20.6	17.7	16.5	15.5	16.9	22			
Switzerland	23.5	23.8	23.1	23	22.9	22.5			

	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Engineering, manufacturing & construction						
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Engineering, manufacturing & construction (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	24.3	25.9	26.3	26.5	26.7	27.1
<u>Belgium</u>	22.9	25.1	27.9	26.9	24.8	25.4
<u>Iceland</u>	32	32.8	33.5	33.4	30.3	31.2
<u>Italy</u>	28.7	29.5	30	30.1	33.5	30.8
<u>Netherlands</u>	15.2	15.8	16.1	16.9	17.7	17.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	32.6	31.9	31.3	29.9	32	27.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	17.3	18.1	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.5
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	5.5	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.9
<u>Belgium</u>	5.5	5.9	6.5	7	6.8	6.9
<u>Iceland</u>	3.9	4.4	4.9	5	4.6	4.3
<u>Italy</u>	7.8	8	8.2	8.4	10.2	8.7
<u>Netherlands</u>	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	6.8	7.1	7.4	7.7	8.4	7.7
<u>Switzerland</u>	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.1
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Engineering, manufacturing & construction (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	13.7	13.1	10.3	10.5	11.6	12.3
<u>Belgium</u>	14.9	14.3	14.8	14.4	8.4	8.9
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	4.4	0.8	35
<u>Slovenia</u>	18.1	18.7	18.6	17.8	18.6	18.8
<u>Switzerland</u>	5.4	4.8	4.6	5.3	5.9	7.1

Percent of total for all fields of study									
Austria	4	5.5	5.2	5.6	5	4.9			
Belgium	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.8	0.9	0.9			
Iceland			
Italy			
Netherlands	0.4	0	1.4			
Slovenia	7.3	9.1	10.6	10.7	11.5	12.4			
Switzerland	2.4	1.5	1.5	2	2.6	3.1			
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Engineering, manufacturing % construction (6)									
Percent of total for both sexes									
Austria	24.2	24.7	23.7	24.8	24.8	25.1			
Belgium	21.8	26.8	24.6	29.5	30.7	30.2			
Iceland	30	45	57.1	50	46.7	53.3			
Italy	34.8	35.4	34.6			
Netherlands			
Slovenia	29	29.2	33.7	26.9	28.4	26.6			
Switzerland	22	21.3	23	23.4	25.5	25.5			
Percent of total for all fields of study									
Austria	7.4	8.1	7.4	6.7	7.2	7.5			
Belgium	7.2	7.9	10.6	14.2	14	13.1			
Iceland	2.6	6	4.8	5	5	5.7			
Italy	12.5	13.2	13.5			
Netherlands			
Slovenia	16.9	12.5	12.2	9	10.1	8.9			
Switzerland	6.1	5.8	6.4	6.6	7.1	7.1			

Agriculture	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Agriculture (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	65.9	65.4	64.3	63.3	61.6	60.8
<u>Belgium</u>	57.1	58.3	48.7	57.7	60.8	61.5
<u>Iceland</u>	46.2	54.8	59.1	63.3	63.2	55.3
<u>Italy</u>	45.1	45.9	46.5	47	47.9	49.1
<u>Netherlands</u>	50.5	51.4	50.9	51.3	56.1	53.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	59.2	60.4	59.6	56.6	57.2	56
<u>Switzerland</u>	60.4	63.4	65.3	66.1	64.8	63.9
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
<u>Belgium</u>	3.9	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.5	3.5
<u>Iceland</u>	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9
<u>Italy</u>	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	1.1	1.1	1.1	1	1.1	1.1
<u>Slovenia</u>	2.6	3	2.9	2.6	2.5	2.6
<u>Switzerland</u>	1	1	1	1	0.9	0.9
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Agriculture (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	..	82.1	52.2	33.9	44.2	44.7
<u>Belgium</u>	41.6	40.3	41	42	42	43.1
<u>Iceland</u>	75
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	2.4	9.8
<u>Slovenia</u>	55	57.3	58.3	55.3	53.3	50.6
<u>Switzerland</u>	8.4	8.1	10.1	12.4	9	8.6
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	..	0.2	0.1	0.9	1.3	1.3
Belgium	1	1	0.9	1	1.1	1.1
Iceland	3
Italy
Netherlands	0	0.1
Slovenia	3.9	4.1	4.5	5	5.3	5.9
Switzerland	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Agriculture (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	54.6	57.1	57.2	58.7	56	57.9
Belgium	43.6	45.5	47.7	50.3	50.6	51.5
Iceland	66.7	66.7	66.7	50
Italy	54.2	53.6	53.6
Netherlands
Slovenia	57.9	66	48.6	57	56.4	60.9
Switzerland	66.1	70.1	73	74.4	73.7	74.8
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	3.8	4.2	4	3.1	2.8	2.7
Belgium	7.8	6.8	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.3
Iceland	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.4
Italy	6.3	6	5.9
Netherlands
Slovenia	3.7	4	3.5	3.3	3.1	1.9
Switzerland	4.3	4	3.9	4	3.6	3.4

Health & welfare	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Health & welfare (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	62.7	62	62.9	63.4	63.4	63.9
Belgium	62.7	62.2	62.2	62	63.1	62.8
Iceland	85.4	84.6	85.4	87	86.9	86.6
Italy	65.5	65.5	65.8	66.1	66.1	65.6
Netherlands	73.6	73.6	73.8	73.5	72.3	72.4
Slovenia	72.6	74.8	76	75.6	80.8	77.1
Switzerland	70.1	70.2	70.9	71.2	71.5	71.8
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	8.6	10.3	10.2	9.5	9.4	9.5
Belgium	17.5	18.5	18.9	20.3	22.3	23.3
Iceland	16.8	16.6	16.8	18.1	18.6	19.4
Italy	14.8	15.2	15.3	13.6	15	17.1
Netherlands	24.1	24.4	24.6	24.3	24.2	24.3
Slovenia	6.8	7.3	8.4	10.6	13.3	15.2
Switzerland	15.5	15.8	16.7	17	17.4	17.5
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Health & welfare (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	83.6	80.3	80	80.7	81.6	77.6
Belgium	79.8	80.2	80.1	80.8	80.8	81
Iceland
Italy
Netherlands	80.3	82.6	84.6	87.3
Slovenia	85.7	84.5	83.2	83.1	84.2	85.3
Switzerland	81.5	85.6	85.5	84.1	83.9	83.4
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	21.7	31.6	16.4	11.7	7.8	6.3
Belgium	33	33.1	32.6	35.6	36.3	37.3
Iceland
Italy
Netherlands	44.7	42.1	54.8	31.4
Slovenia	14.4	15.6	16.9	14.8	12.8	9.1
Switzerland	19.6	38.4	36.6	29.6	31.2	30
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Health & welfare (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	57.7	53.4	51.4	50.4	56.7	55.9
Belgium	54.8	55.5	56.2	57.6	59.4	59.6
Iceland	71.4	71.7	73.3	72.3	75	83.8
Italy	63.2	64.6	64.7
Netherlands
Slovenia	50.3	62.3	63.4	68.7	73.9	71.2
Switzerland	51	52.1	54.1	54.7	54.7	55
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	4.8	6.3	8	6.8	7.6	8.8
Belgium	16.8	17.4	20.3	20.5	22.2	24.8
Iceland	30.4	28.7	26.7	26.3	23.7	22
Italy	19.7	19.7	20
Netherlands
Slovenia	13.7	25	25.1	16.6	15.7	14.4
Switzerland	15.7	15.9	16.8	16.9	17.6	18.1

Services	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in Services (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	39	38.4	38.6	39.3	39.9	41.8
<u>Belgium</u>	36.7	35.3	33	33.5	34.3	34.4
<u>Iceland</u>	77.8	77	71.8	69.7	72.6	69.1
<u>Italy</u>	48.5	48.2	47.6	47.2	52.2	46.5
<u>Netherlands</u>	48.7	48.9	48.9	48.3	49.1	47.4
<u>Slovenia</u>	53.2	58.5	59	57.7	59.5	57.8
<u>Switzerland</u>	43	45.1	47.7	49.5	52.4	53.8
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4
<u>Belgium</u>	1.3	0.8	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.1
<u>Iceland</u>	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.5	2.8
<u>Italy</u>	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	3.1	2.3
<u>Netherlands</u>	5.8	6	6	6	6	5.9
<u>Slovenia</u>	3.5	5.1	6.1	6.2	6.7	6.6
<u>Switzerland</u>	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in Services (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	77.9	73.3	76	78.1	76.4	73.4
<u>Belgium</u>	61.5	60.7	59.2	58.4	60.6	59.1
<u>Iceland</u>	..	25	..	16.7
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	83.3	65.9	30.6	35.9
<u>Slovenia</u>	47	47.1	46.2	46	46.8	47.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	53.3	53.9	54	51.4	51.9	54.4
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	4.8	8.4	12	10.8	10.1	9.7
Belgium	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.1
Iceland	..	0.5	..	0.7
Italy
Netherlands	11.8	16.6	10.1	18.1
Slovenia	14.8	15.2	15	17.2	18.7	22.6
Switzerland	16.2	13	16.1	17.9	17.9	25.4
% of girls in advanced research programmes in Services (6)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
Austria	29.9	34.3	36.2	33.6	33.3	32.8
Belgium	45.5	43.6	48.1	33.3	51.2	52.8
Iceland	..	100	25	33.3
Italy	37.3	47	47.2
Netherlands
Slovenia	55.6	48.2	45.1	50.3	54.8	51.2
Switzerland	45	43.3	46.2	48.7	48.6	47.4
Percent of total for all fields of study						
Austria	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6
Belgium	1.5	1.4	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.7
Iceland	..	0.7	0.4	0.4
Italy	0.1	0.2	0.2
Netherlands
Slovenia	5	6.8	6.8	5.3	4.3	3.9
Switzerland	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.7	3.8	3.7

Unspecified field of study	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
% of girls in theoretically oriented programmes in an unspecified field of study (5A)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	50.8	46	47.5	41.2	45.7	40.9
<u>Belgium</u>	17.2	51.7	45.4	19	17.5	25.7
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>	58.3	60.8	65.1	66	77.7	61.8
<u>Netherlands</u>	45.4	44.9	47.7	48.6	41.6	52
<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>	53.7	51.6	51.6	52.9	52.6	50.4
Percent of total for all fields of study						
<u>Austria</u>	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Belgium</u>	0	1.5	2.4	0.1	0.1	0.1
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>	0.4	2.1	0.5	6.1	1.2	1.4
<u>Netherlands</u>	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	2.1
<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>	0.9	1	0.9	1	1	1
% of girls in vocationally oriented programmes in an unspecified field of study (5B)						
Percent of total for both sexes						
<u>Austria</u>	..	73.7	60.4	56.4	58.7	59.8
<u>Belgium</u>	51.3	52	53.2	52.1	50.8	50.5
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	57.3	55.8
<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>
Percent of total for all fields of study						

Austria	..	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Belgium	12.8	13.8	14.5	12.6	11.1	10.9	
Iceland	
Italy	
Netherlands	7.9	21.3	
Slovenia	
Switzerland	
% of girls in advanced research programmes in an unspecified field of study (6)							
Percent of total for both sexes							
Austria	51.3	54.9	55.2	53.4	51.7	52.5	
Belgium	20	47.7	28.6	36.4	
Iceland	
Italy	46.4	52.6	52.8	52.6	48.9	50.3	
Netherlands	..	42.4	43.6	45	29.4	33.3	
Slovenia	
Switzerland	55.7	58.8	62.5	60.9	60	59.3	
Percent of total for all fields of study							
Austria	2.8	3.7	2.8	2.4	2.5	3	
Belgium	0	0.3	0	0.1	
Iceland	
Italy	0.5	100	100	100	1.3	1.8	
Netherlands	..	100	100	100	0.1	0.2	
Slovenia	
Switzerland	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and UNESCO Institute for Statistics) official sources.

Table I.6. Proportion of women graduates, by type of programme, 1980-2013

	1980-1981	1990-1991	1995-1996	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013
Theoretical and advanced research programmes (5A+6)																
<u>Austria</u>	34.5	41.9	43.6	48	48.1	48.9	49.6	51.9	51.4	52	52.8	54.2	53.1	53.7	55.3	..
<u>Belgium</u>	52.0	54.3	54.6	54.8	54.6	54.8	54.6	55.0	55.3	..
<u>Iceland</u>	62.3	65	63.8	65.8	67.1	68.1	68.0	67.9	66.9	66.2	67.0
<u>Italy</u>	42.1	47.9	53.6	57.3	56.7	56.8	58.0	58.6	58.8	59.7
<u>Netherlands</u>	44.5	46.2	50.4	54.5	55.3	56.0	56.1	56.5	55.9	56.5	56.7	56.5	56.7	56.9	56.6	..
<u>Slovenia</u>	39.5	50.7	57.8	61.3	61.5	61.8	61.5	63.4	64.0	63.5	64.3	65.3	65.1	64.0	63.7	..
<u>Switzerland</u>	37.4	38.1	39.3	40.6	40.5	43.6	44.2	46.9	47.3	49.3	49.7	50.7	51.0	51.2
Theoretical oriented programmes (5A)																
<u>Austria</u>	35.9	43.6	45.3	49.2	49.4	49.9	50.7	52.8	52.2	52.8	53.5	54.9	53.7	54.3	55.9	..
<u>Belgium</u>	52.7	55	55.4	55.2	55	55.3	55	55.4	55.7	..
<u>Iceland</u>	62.4	65.0	63.8	65.8	67.1	68.1	68.0	68.0	67.1	66.3	67.2
<u>Italy</u>	42.1	47.9	53.8	57.4	56.8	56.9	58.1	58.8	59.0	59.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	45.1	47.1	51.1	55.3	55.8	56.4	56.6	57.0	56.4	56.9	57.1	56.9	57.1	57.3	56.9	..
<u>Slovenia</u>	40.0	51.7	58.8	62.0	62.2	63.0	62.5	64.2	64.7	64.5	65.1	66.3	65.9	64.8	64.2	..
<u>Switzerland</u>	38.3	38.5	39.9	41.1	40.9	44.3	45.1	47.7	48.2	50.0	50.5	51.4	51.8	51.8
Advanced research programmes (6)																
<u>Austria</u>	13.5	26.5	30.9	37.1	37.6	40.6	40.5	43.5	41.5	42.4	42.5	43.5	42.6	41.6	41.8	..
<u>Belgium</u>	33.9	37.1	38.2	39.1	42.0	41.4	42.6	43.2	43.8	..
<u>Iceland</u>	0.0	100	40.0	33.3	50.0	57.1	53.3	60.0	30.4	62.5	44.4
<u>Italy</u>	..	45.5	45	52.1	51.7	50.9	51.7	51.5	51.7	51.3
<u>Netherlands</u>	9.1	17.9	27.4	31.5	38.5	41.1	39.4	38.1	38.7	41.8	41.7	41.6	42.1	43.8	44.9	..

Slovenia	20.0	24.8	37.2	49	45.3	41.4	40.6	47.7	49.6	45.8	47.7	44.8	46.0	45.5	50.4	..
Switzerland	30.0	34.6	34.3	36.8	36.5	36.9	36.1	38.7	37.6	40.4	40.7	42.2	41.8	43.2

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and OECD) official sources.

[Definition](#): Graduates are those students who have successfully completed Level 5A or 6 of the ISCED 1997 during the academic year, with some exceptions, where graduate data refer to the calendar year. [Level 5A](#) corresponds to tertiary programmes that are largely theoretically based and are intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programmes and professions with high skill requirements. [Level 6](#) is reserved for tertiary programmes leading to the award of an advanced research qualification.

General note: The joint UOE (UNESCO-IIS, OECD, EUROSTAT) 2005 data collection on graduates by fields of education and training was changed to include graduates who were awarded more than one degree in different fields (not within the same field). In previous years, these graduates were reported only once and pro-rated over the fields. This change affected data in very few countries as multiple graduations in different fields for the same reference year are negligible in most countries.

For EU countries base period is in general the calendar year. E.g. 2008-2009 data refer to 2009 calendar year.

[Iceland](#) : 2001-2005: data refer to calendar year.

[Slovenia](#) : Data refer to calendar year.

[Switzerland](#) : 1995: data refer to 1997. 2005-2008: break in series; due to growth in some fields of studies for women such as teacher training or health in Universities of Applied Sciences.

Table I.7. Proportion of women in lifelong learning / continuous education programmes, 1995-2013

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Females															
Austria	6.3	7.4	7.7	7.3	8.6	12.2	13.5	14	14	14.2	14.7	14.7	14.5	15.2	15.3
Belgium	2.3	5.7	5.9	6	6.9	8.5	8.5	7.6	7.4	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.4	6.9	6.8
Iceland	15.5	26.7	28.1	27.7	34.1	28.9	29.8	33.7	32	30.5	30	29.4	29	31	29.2
Italy	3.6	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.8	6.7	6.2	6.5	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.5	6	7	6.5
Netherlands	12.2	14.7	15.2	15.5	16.8	16.8	16.1	15.9	17	17.2	17.5	17.2	16.9	17	18
Slovenia	7.9	8.9	14.7	17.6	17.2	16.3	16.1	15.4	16.4	18.3	18.2	16.1	14.5
Switzerland	..	29.4	32.1	30.7	24	27.4	26.5	23.4	27.5	28.2	25	29.6	28.7	28.7	29.5

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat) official sources.

Definition: Life-long learning data are shares of persons aged 25 to 64 who answered they received education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey. The denominator consists of the total population of the same age group, excluding no responses to the question 'participation to education and training'. The numerator is formed by those persons who reported 'participation in regular education' and/or 'participation in other taught activities', while self learning activities are not included.

Table I.8. Proportion of women teachers, by level of educational institutions, 2011-2012

% of women	2011-2012
Primary	
Austria	90.9
Belgium	81.3
Iceland	..
Italy	..
Netherlands	85.2
Slovenia	97.3
Switzerland	81.6
Secondary	
Austria	62.6
Belgium	..
Iceland	..
Italy	..
Netherlands	49.9
Slovenia	..
Switzerland	..
Tertiary	
Austria	39.8
Belgium	46.0
Iceland	..
Italy	..
Netherlands	40.0
Slovenia	39.0
Switzerland	37.0

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and UNESCO Institute for Statistics) official sources.

[Definition: Teaching professionals teach the theory and practice of one or more disciplines at different educational levels, conduct research and improve or develop concepts, theories and operational methods pertaining to their particular discipline, and prepare scholarly papers and books. The number of teachers is disaggregated according to education levels of enrolment. Education levels are classified using the ISCED 1997. Primary education corresponds to level 1, secondary education corresponds to levels 2, 3 and 4 and tertiary education corresponds to levels 5 and 6.](#)

[Iceland](#) : 1980/1981-2002/2003: data for primary level include secondary level.

[Slovenia](#) : 1980/1981 - 1995/1996: data for primary level include levels 1 and 2; data for secondary level include levels 3 and 4 of ISCED 1997 classification.

Table I.9. Proportion of women Heads of universities, 1980-2013

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Female																	
Percent of total for both sexes																	
<u>Austria</u>	0	0	4.8	5	0	4.5	19	19	..	
Iceland	0	0	0	12.5	12.5	25	25	25	25	25	25	28.6	14.3	28.6	42.9	..	
Italy	5.1	
Netherlands	0	0	0	0	..	0	..	0	0	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	14.3	21.4
Slovenia	22.2	40	11.8	11.8	11.1	23.8	69	63.6
Switzerland	0	13.5	21.1	..	18.4	..

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources

Definition: A university is an institution of higher education providing facilities for learning (and usually research) and authorised to grant academic degrees. Their main focus should be on ISCED 1997 level 5A programmes.

Switzerland : 2003: data refer to universities only. 2008: data include universities and universities of applied sciences that cover the entire ISCED 5A level.

Domain II. Employment and labour market policies and practices

Table II.1. Women's share of the labour force, by age cohort, 1980-2013

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
20 – 24																	
Austria	43.9	47.1	50.5	48.3	47.8	48.1	47.8	48.2	48.6	48.6	48.2	47.8	49	48.3	47.8	47.5	48.4
Belgium	48.7	48.7	47	45.4	44.8	45.3	43.4	46.9	46.7	46.6	46.8	47.0	46.3	45.9	46.1	44.8	45.6
Iceland	44.5	47.6	46.7	47.1	47.1	46.6	45.6	45.6	48.1	47.8	45.8	47.1	47.3	49.4	48.3	47.5	48.1
Italy	45.1	46.4	44.7	45.3	45.1	44.4	44.0	44.0	43.2	41.8	41.1	41.4	40.9	41.1	41.2	41.3	42.2
Netherlands	49.4	50.2	49.9	48.3	48.3	48.7	48.9	48.6	49.1	48.7	48.3	48.9	49.2	49.5	49.8	50.2	49.7
Slovenia	..	49	45.4	44.1	43.8	42.5	41.9	44.4	44.2	43.1	40.8	40.2	40.4	39.5	40.8	40.8	42.3
Switzerland	47.5	47.8	49.2	48.0	47.8	48.7	48.3	46.0	49.2	50.3	48.3	48.1	47.7	48.9
25 – 29																	
Austria	40.8	43.2	46.3	48.3	48.5	48.3	47.3	47.8	47	46.8	45.9	46.6	47.4	47.9	47.5	48.1	48.5
Belgium	44.2	44.6	45.8	46.7	46	46.3	46.3	47	47	47.5	47.4	47.6	47.7	47.8	47.5	48	47.6
Iceland	41.1	44.5	50	47.1	47.1	45.3	48.8	47.6	46.1	44.9	43.8	42.2	45	44.7	46.6	46.3	46.9
Italy	37.9	42.4	41.7	43.4	43.5	43.8	44.1	43.8	43.4	43.6	43.6	43.8	44.2	44	44.2	44.2	44.4
Netherlands	38.2	41	44.5	46	47.1	46.4	46.7	47.2	47.8	48	47.8	47.8	48.2	48.3	48.4	48.3	48.5
Slovenia	..	50	49.9	50.1	45.9	48.7	47.4	47.1	47.6	48.5	47.8	47.5	47.2	48.4	48.7	49.3	47.5
Switzerland	46.9	46.2	47.3	48.5	47.4	47.2	46.4	46.1	48.5	45.8	46.2	45.5	45.4	45.4
30 – 34																	
Austria	..	39.8	43.5	45.2	45.1	46.3	46	46.5	45.7	45.3	45.3	46.1	46.5	46.4	46.4	46.7	46.6
Belgium	41.2	41.4	44.1	45.3	45.5	44.9	45.1	45.5	46.2	46.7	46.2	46.9	47	47.1	46.7	46.9	46.7
Iceland	40.3	43	47.4	50	47.1	46.9	44.9	46.3	47.1	44.1	43.4	44	44.9	46.3	46.9	47.4	45.9
Italy	34.2	39.7	38.6	40.2	40.5	41.3	40.8	42.5	42.5	42.2	42.1	42.7	42.7	42.5	42.5	43.3	43.3
Netherlands	30.9	38.1	41.3	43.8	44	45.1	45.4	45.2	46.1	46.3	46.8	47.2	47.4	47.6	47.5	47.5	47.2
Slovenia	..	49	48	45	46.7	47	46.5	48.2	47.7	47	47.3	45.7	46.5	47.3	46.6	46.6	47.1

<u>Switzerland</u>	45.7	47.8	44.7	44.4	46	46	45.6	45	44.3	46.6	46.1	46.8	45.9	46.5
35 – 39																	
<u>Austria</u>	37.8	40.5	43.3	44.4	44.4	45.5	45.2	45.8	46	46	46.4	46.8	47.3	47.4	47.6	47.6	47.9
<u>Belgium</u>	38	40.6	43	44.4	43.3	43.6	44.4	44.9	45.6	45.6	45.7	46	46.1	47.1	46.1	46.2	46.7
<u>Iceland</u>	42	45.7	47.4	47.4	47.4	47.2	48	46	45.8	43.9	44.3	43.8	45.9	46.6	46.4	47.1	48.6
<u>Italy</u>	31.8	36.6	38	39.7	39.7	39.9	40.4	40.9	41.3	41.5	41.4	41.9	42	42.2	42.5	43	43.5
<u>Netherlands</u>	31.4	38.1	40	43	43.4	43.6	43.8	44.7	45	45.6	46.1	46.4	46.7	46.9	46.9	47.1	47.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	..	47.4	49.5	52.9	51	50.1	50.9	48.6	48.4	49.3	48.4	47.9	47.3	46.3	46.9	46.7	45.6
<u>Switzerland</u>	43.3	43.1	44.9	44.7	44.2	44.8	45.6	46.8	46.6	46.4	46.4	46.2	47.5	47.5
40 – 44																	
<u>Austria</u>	..	40.6	43.6	44.1	44.5	45.5	45.5	46.7	46	46.5	46.6	46.6	47.2	47.3	47.6	47.7	48.2
<u>Belgium</u>	34.6	37.4	41.2	44.1	43.6	44.2	44.9	44.4	45	45.3	45.5	45.8	46	46.2	46.4	46.1	46.6
<u>Iceland</u>	44.3	45.9	47.1	47.4	45	46.4	47.9	50.3	48.5	46.8	46.6	46.5	47.7	49.2	47.8	47.5	47.8
<u>Italy</u>	29.9	34.9	36.6	38.2	39.3	39.4	39.2	40.6	40.7	41	40.9	41.4	41.5	41.8	42	42.5	42.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	31.3	36.7	41.1	43.1	44	44.3	44.4	44.6	45.2	45.5	45.9	46.2	46.5	46.5	46.3	46.5	47.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	..	47.3	47.4	49.8	49.7	49.8	48.9	49.4	47.5	46.8	47.5	47.5	48.7	48.3	47.5	47.2	46.8
<u>Switzerland</u>	40.5	41.6	44.9	45.2	45.4	45.8	45.5	45.9	47	46.9	45.8	46	46.6	46.5
45 – 49																	
<u>Austria</u>	35.4	38.8	41.9	44.6	44.5	45.9	45.4	45.9	47	46.8	46.4	46.7	47.2	47.2	47.2	47.6	48.1
<u>Belgium</u>	31.6	33.9	37.9	41.8	41.8	42.2	43.1	43.3	44.2	44	44.9	45.2	45	45.3	45.9	45.8	46.1
<u>Iceland</u>	44.4	46.5	46.7	47.1	44.4	48.4	47.2	45.4	45.7	45.5	45.8	46.1	47	48.5	49.2	50	49
<u>Italy</u>	28.8	31.8	34.4	36.7	37.8	38.1	38.5	39.3	39.7	40.2	40.5	40.8	40.8	41.5	41.5	42.5	42.5
<u>Netherlands</u>	29.1	34.9	38.3	42.8	42.7	43.7	44.7	44.9	45.1	45.5	46	46.3	46.4	46.1	46.4	46.4	46.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	..	47.3	46.6	45.1	45.2	45.6	47.2	47.6	48.3	49.6	49.3	49.3	48	48.6	48.8	48.9	49.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	45.7	45.3	45.2	44.8	46	46.7	47.2	46.9	45.5	46	47.1	47.2	46.8	46
50 – 54																	
<u>Austria</u>	36.3	37.7	41.3	42.2	42.8	44.3	45.1	46	45.4	46.7	46.9	47.1	47.3	46.7	47.2	46.9	47.3
<u>Belgium</u>	26.2	29	33.7	37.6	37.7	39.4	40.6	40.8	41.6	41.6	42.3	42.6	44	44	44.2	44.4	44.9

Iceland	44	49	50	46.7	46.7	47.8	48.4	46.9	47.3	47.2	44.3	46	47.2	47.9	48.7	49.5	49
Italy	26.7	28.4	31.8	33.5	34.5	35.1	36.4	37.9	37.6	38.5	38.9	39.7	39.7	40.2	40.7	41.5	41.8
Netherlands	25.5	31.2	35.2	38.8	38.9	40.3	40.9	42.5	43.1	43.4	44.4	45	45.1	45.5	45.5	45.8	45.8
Slovenia	..	34.8	37.5	40.2	42	43.4	40.7	44.3	46.6	46.2	45	48	48.9	47	48.1	48.2	47.6
Switzerland	46.3	48.4	46.6	46.9	45.6	44.9	45.1	44.9	46.3	46	45.8	45.3	45.7	47.1
55 – 59																	
Austria	35.2	30.2	31.6	30.4	32	34.5	34.4	34.5	38.3	38.6	39.5	40.8	41.6	42.7	41.5	42.4	43.4
Belgium	22.3	24.7	29.6	32	33.6	34.1	33.8	36.6	37	38.4	39.9	40.4	41.3	41	42.5	43.6	44.5
Iceland	43.6	47.3	44.4	45.5	41.7	48.4	48.4	46.2	47.1	47.3	47.1	45.6	47.2	48.1	47.5	46.3	45.8
Italy	24	24	26.8	32.2	32.7	34.1	34.6	35.7	36.9	37.1	37.4	38	38.6	39.1	40.2	40.8	41
Netherlands	23.6	27.5	32.1	35.2	36.3	35.1	36.9	36.9	38.6	39.8	40.5	41.1	42.1	41.7	42.9	43.2	43.6
Slovenia	..	33.6	26.7	28.7	28.7	27.1	30.6	31	29	32.3	32.9	31.3	35.1	35	35.5	38.7	39.9
Switzerland	41.7	43	43.6	43.4	43.7	44.2	44.1	46.1	45.5	45.5	45.2	45	44.7	45.3
60 – 64																	
Austria	33.5	29.1	35.6	33.9	34.7	30.6	29.7	35.3	30.9	33.5	30.4	32.3	33.2	34	36.8	34	32.9
Belgium	19.1	18.5	24.1	29	22.3	29	25.3	29.9	29.9	32	34.4	34.2	35.3	36.2	37.8	39.8	39.9
Iceland	39.7	46.5	44.4	50	50	46.4	47.1	44.7	45.8	45.1	44.9	44	43.2	45	46	47.3	46.3
Italy	23.9	24.4	22.4	21.8	22.7	23	24.8	24.4	26	27.6	28	29.7	30	29.9	31.2	34.3	35.4
Netherlands	20.5	29.8	29.1	30.3	31.7	30.8	31.4	33.2	34.7	35.2	35.3	36.3	36.8	35.8	38.4	39.2	37.4
Slovenia	..	42.9	46.8	40.5	38.1	36	40.4	38.3	32.3	33.8	38.3	39.2	33	34.6	34	33.5	29.5
Switzerland	37	35.8	35.6	38.2	38.7	41.1	42.6	40.1	42	41.2	40.2	41	42.6	43.0
65 – 69																	
Austria	38.5	47.6	40.8	40.1	48.7	37	37.9	43.3	31.8	36	38.7	37.6	38.7	38.7	43.2	42.7	41.5
Belgium	33.3	29.8	38.3	..	38.2	24.9	31.4	26.6	28	24.1	34.8	29.8	32.6	32.7
Iceland	36.4	41.1	50	40	40	38	42.9	44.2	35.4	38.3	45.8	43.1	41.8	40.4	40.7	40.6	42.9
Italy	24.3	25.9	24.6	22.3	22	19.1	23.3	22.4	21.7	21.4	22.9	22.9	25	26.9	27.6	25.4	26.3
Netherlands	..	20.3	21	31.7	23.1	24.5	34.1	28.8	29.4	29.6	30	31.3	30.4	32.4	31.2	27.5	27.4
Slovenia	..	55	46.8	37.6	46	54.3	45.5	40.5	40.7	40	43.5	42.7	40.4	37.3	42.2	38.9	39.5

Switzerland	39.7	41.1	44.8	41.5	36.5	41	42.3	42.8	42.1	39.9	40.4	37.8	39.5	41.4
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.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Definition: The labour force/economically active population includes all residents who are either employed or unemployed.

The employed are all persons above a specified age who, during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories:

(a) paid employment:

(a1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for wage or salary, in cash or in kind;

(a2) with a job but not at work: persons who, having already worked in their present job, were temporarily not at work during the reference period and had a formal attachment to their job;

(b) self-employment:

(b1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind;

(b2) with an enterprise but not at work: persons with an enterprise, which may be a business enterprise, a farm or a service undertaking, who were temporarily not at work during the reference period for any specific reason.

The unemployed are all persons above a specific age who, during the reference period, were:

(a) without work, i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment, and

(b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period, and

(c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

[For additional information, see the International Conference of Labour Statisticians \(ICLS\).](#)

The economic activity rate is the share of the labour force (employed + unemployed) in the total population aged 15+.

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

[Austria](#) : 1980-1990 : data refer to the national definition of labour force (Life Subsistence Concept). From 1995 : data comply with ILO definition.

1980 : age group 35-39 refers to 30-39; age group 45-49 refers to 40-49; age group 65-69 refers to 65+.

[Belgium](#) : 1980 : data refer to 1985.

[Iceland](#) : 1980 : data are based on registers. 1990 : data refer to 1991.

From 1990 : age group 15+ refers to 16-74; age group 15-19 refers to 16-19; age group 70+ refers to 70-74.

[Italy](#) : 1980-1990 : data refer to the economically active population aged 14+, which includes the persons who have been seeking employment in the last 6 months.

From 1995 : data refer to the economically active population aged 15+, which includes the persons who have been seeking employment in the last 30 days.

[Netherlands](#) : 1980 : data refer to 1985.

[Slovenia](#) : 1990 : data refer to 1991.

Table II.2. Employment rates of men and women aged 25-49 years, by highest level of education attained, 2000-2013

All ISCED 2011 levels

Females

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	71.8	69.6	69.8	70.2	71.8	73.0	73.5	74.8	76.4	75.8	76.2	75.5	75.5	75.3
Italy	53.0	54.9	56.1	56.8	59.7	59.4	60.5	60.6	61.1	59.9	59.3	59.4	59.4	57.9
Netherlands	73.7	75.4	76.0	76.3	76.2	77.0	78.7	80.1	81.8	82.0	80.5	80.2	79.9	79.3
Austria	75.5	76.0	77.5	77.8	77.2	77.4	77.9	78.1	79.5	80.6	80.6	80.9	81.8	81.7
Slovenia	84.4	84.5	84.7	83.7	84.8	83.8	83.6	85.1	86.7	84.6	83.8	83.0	81.8	79.9
Iceland	86.6	85.7	85.2	84.6	84.0	82.2	82.3	82.7	81.2	78.1	78.5	78.8	80.4	80.0
Switzerland	75.9	76.9	78.4	77.5	77.3	77.7	77.7	78.6	80.6	80.2	79.2	79.7	80.5	80.6

ISCED 0-2 Less than primary, primary and lower secondary (levels 0-2)

Females

GEO/TIME	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	52.7	47.4	46.4	50.0	50.7	49.3	50.0	50.9	53.0	49.1	50.0	48.0	47.3	47.5
Italy	37.7	39.9	40.9	41.6	44.2	43.6	43.9	43.9	43.8	42.4	41.7	41.9	42.6	41.1
Netherlands	56.3	58.8	59.8	59.9	58.9	60.1	60.5	62.0	64.3	63.7	61.2	62.0	59.5	60.2
Austria	64.2	64.1	65.1	64.4	63.1	61.8	63.2	64.8	63.3	63.5	65.2	64.2	65.7	63.5
Slovenia	70.9	71.9	73.6	71.4	73.1	71.2	70.8	70.9	69.7	66.1	65.5	63.5	58.6	54.1
Iceland	85.1	81.8	81.1	80.3	78.5	75.9	77.4	77.5	76.0	71.1	69.2	65.5	66.0	65.5
Switzerland	63.8	69.2	69.5	66.9	67.1	66.8	65.9	65.8	67.6	68.0	69.1	67.7	69.4	69.2

ISCED 3-4 Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary (levels 3 and 4)

Females

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	73.1	73.9	73.6	71.6	72.6	73.7	73.6	74.6	76.0	75.8	75.7	75.1	74.5	74.5
Italy	63.6	65.1	65.8	65.8	67.4	67.2	68.6	68.4	68.3	66.9	66.3	65.7	64.4	62.4
Netherlands	78.0	79.2	79.4	79.2	78.4	78.6	80.5	81.7	83.4	84.0	82.4	81.5	81.5	78.5
Austria	77.3	77.6	78.3	79.7	79.2	79.5	80.5	80.4	82.1	83.4	83.5	83.7	84.1	84.4
Slovenia	86.7	85.7	85.1	83.8	84.6	82.8	82.0	84.4	86.8	83.9	82.4	80.7	80.8	77.9
Iceland	80.6	82.7	81.6	82.2	81.3	79.0	78.7	80.4	77.3	73.9	73.6	76.6	78.8	81.1
Switzerland	77.3	76.4	79.2	78.1	77.8	78.0	77.8	79.0	80.7	80.0	79.4	81.0	80.8	80.3

ISCED 5-8 Short-cycle tertiary, bachelor, master and doctoral or equivalent (levels 5-8)

Females														
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	88.6	87.5	87.4	86.6	87.3	88.0	87.8	88.7	88.8	88.9	88.9	88.3	88.5	87.4
Italy	78.8	79.4	80.0	78.6	79.3	76.8	77.4	76.8	77.9	76.5	75.1	75.6	75.4	73.8
Netherlands	87.9	88.1	87.7	87.4	87.9	88.3	89.4	90.3	90.9	90.4	89.9	89.5	89.1	90.0
Austria	87.3	88.2	90.0	88.7	85.9	86.5	86.2	85.9	87.3	87.5	84.9	86.1	87.5	87.2
Slovenia	93.1	94.7	93.7	92.5	93.6	93.5	92.9	92.3	93.5	92.4	92.1	91.4	88.6	87.9
Iceland	94.8	94.6	94.6	92.1	93.1	90.1	89.7	89.4	88.2	85.7	87.9	87.4	88.7	86.4
Switzerland	83.5	85.2	84.2	85.6	84.4	85.4	85.2	85.0	86.5	85.8	83.7	82.9	84.5	85.0

All All ISCED 2011 levels

Males														
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	89.9	87.8	87.6	85.7	87.2	87.2	86.9	87.8	88.1	86.4	86.0	85.4	84.9	84.4
Italy	85.6	86.1	86.5	86.9	87.6	86.9	87.3	87.3	86.7	84.5	83.3	83.0	81.2	78.5
Netherlands	93.3	93.5	92.7	91.6	90.9	90.8	91.8	92.7	93.5	92.4	90.5	89.9	89.0	86.5
Austria	90.7	91.3	90.6	91.1	88.4	89.9	90.7	91.5	91.1	89.7	89.3	90.2	90.1	88.9
Slovenia	86.7	88.8	88.6	87.4	88.2	88.6	88.9	90.1	90.3	88.2	86.1	86.2	86.8	85.8
Iceland	96.0	95.1	95.0	93.3	92.6	92.4	93.4	93.2	92.0	85.2	85.6	87.0	87.0	88.0
Switzerland	95.2	95.3	93.9	92.4	92.6	92.9	93.3	93.9	94.2	93.1	92.2	93.0	92.8	92.0

ISCED 0-2 Less than primary, primary and lower secondary (levels 0-2)

Males														
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	83.1	79.3	78.5	75.6	76.8	76.9	75.1	76.1	75.7	72.9	71.7	69.9	70.0	67.8
Italy	84.6	84.7	85.8	86.1	86.1	85.2	85.6	85.1	83.7	81.1	79.2	78.8	76.3	72.5
Netherlands	87.3	88.0	87.6	84.3	84.4	85.1	86.3	86.9	87.7	86.0	82.5	81.8	80.5	77.0
Austria	80.7	82.4	80.9	82.1	77.9	78.5	79.3	81.0	78.7	75.3	74.5	78.6	76.6	75.3
Slovenia	74.6	80.2	77.1	74.5	76.4	76.8	74.7	77.9	75.7	74.3	69.3	68.8	70.9	67.7
Iceland	96.3	94.2	93.6	92.7	91.3	89.5	89.4	91.0	90.5	79.8	80.7	82.7	79.3	82.5
Switzerland	88.1	89.9	85.5	85.4	84.0	83.6	84.5	86.6	85.6	83.8	84.7	84.3	84.0	82.6

ISCED 3-4 Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary (levels 3-4)

Males	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	92.4	91.3	90.6	89.6	89.2	89.3	89.3	90.0	90.6	88.6	88.9	88.3	86.8	87.0
Italy	86.3	86.6	86.3	87.1	88.7	88.5	89.0	89.4	89.3	87.2	86.5	85.7	84.5	82.1
Netherlands	95.3	95.2	94.0	94.0	91.9	91.5	92.2	93.1	94.6	93.4	91.9	91.0	89.7	86.4
Austria	91.3	91.9	90.9	91.6	88.5	90.6	91.2	92.0	91.8	90.1	89.9	90.5	90.6	89.5
Slovenia	88.7	90.1	90.2	89.3	89.4	89.5	90.0	91.1	91.9	89.0	86.7	86.3	87.1	86.0
Iceland	93.8	95.0	94.4	92.7	92.1	93.4	92.8	94.1	91.7	86.3	85.5	87.1	88.0	87.2
Switzerland	95.2	94.7	93.5	92.4	92.3	92.7	92.5	93.2	93.4	92.0	91.6	92.9	92.3	91.4

ISCED 5-8 Short-cycle tertiary, bachelor, master and doctoral or equivalent (levels 5-8)

Males	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Belgium	95.5	93.4	94.0	92.1	94.9	93.5	93.6	94.1	93.9	93.1	92.3	92.1	92.7	92.0
Italy	90.5	90.6	90.1	89.3	89.2	87.3	87.3	87.5	87.6	85.9	84.7	86.1	84.3	82.8
Netherlands	96.2	96.1	95.7	94.2	94.4	94.1	95.6	96.3	96.2	95.4	94.4	94.2	93.7	92.8
Austria	96.3	95.7	96.0	95.0	94.3	94.2	95.6	95.8	95.4	95.3	94.8	95.0	94.9	93.7
Slovenia	93.7	93.2	94.7	93.0	94.4	94.4	95.5	94.9	95.1	94.1	93.8	94.4	93.5	92.6
Iceland	99.2	96.5	97.6	96.0	95.1	96.1	97.7	95.5	94.7	90.5	91.4	90.9	92.6	93.9
Switzerland	97.6	98.0	97.3	94.7	95.7	95.9	96.5	96.5	96.9	96.1	94.8	95.3	95.4	94.5

Source : Eurostat

Table II.3. Employment rate of women, by marital status and age, 1990-2011

	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total (15+)														
Never married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	59.4	59.2	59.2	59	58.6	57.9	60.9	61.6	63	64.5	64.5	64	64.5
<u>Belgium</u>	33.2	34.8	45.3	44.5	44.8	47	40.2	43.3	46.8	48.4	49.4	49.2	48.8	49.6
<u>Iceland</u>	..	70.4	79.8	79.9	74.1	75.9	75.1	76.8	77.5	77.7	77.3	73.1	70.8	70.5
<u>Italy</u>	34.3	29.9	35	36.5	37.3	38.6	42	40.9	41.4	41.4	41.9	40.4	39.9	40
<u>Netherlands</u>	57.9	61.8	73.2	74.7	73.6	72.9	71.9	72	71.1	72.6	73.5	74.1	70.4	70.4
<u>Slovenia</u>	46.7	47.4	49.1	46.9	50.7	50.8	51.1	52.3	56.3	55.2	54.9	54.1
<u>Switzerland</u>	70.1	69.5	71	69.1	68.8	68.2	70.1	69.5	71.1	71.1	70.7	71.3
Married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	50.2	50.1	50.1	51.8	52.4	51.1	51.6	53.2	53.7	54.3	55.1	55.2	55
<u>Belgium</u>	37.7	41.9	45.2	43.4	43.6	42.6	44.5	45.9	45.5	45.9	46.5	46.6	47.8	47.3
<u>Iceland</u>	..	78.8	78	76.7	79.9	77.5	75.8	75.9	76.5	77.3	75.2	73.5	74.7	74.5
<u>Italy</u>	31.5	32	33.4	34.6	35.4	36.1	37.1	37.1	37.9	38	38.3	37.8	37.7	37.8
<u>Netherlands</u>	36.5	42.6	49.8	51.5	52.5	52.6	52.8	53.3	54.4	55.4	57	56.6	56.7	56.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	58.5	57.9	58.4	56.6	58.8	59.4	59.8	59.6	58.9	59.1	57.9	55.7
<u>Switzerland</u>	55.2	56.9	57.6	56.8	56.2	56.8	56.4	56.8	58.1	58.3	56.8	57.4
Divorced														
<u>Austria</u>	..	60.6	59.8	59.2	59.4	58.6	59.6	58.2	57.1	56.3	58.1	55.8	56.4	57.6
<u>Belgium</u>	46.7	47.4	51.7	49.7	46.7	48	32.4	53.5	53	54	54.7	52.8	52.3	51.1
<u>Iceland</u>	..	77.5	80.6	75.7	74.8	76.3	78.6	73.1	71.5	72.3	70	65.2	65.2	69.4
<u>Italy</u>	57.2	54.1	56.2	56.4	56.6	58.8	62.5	63.6	63.9	62.9	62.4	61.5	59.6	60.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	39.1	45.2	55.2	53.6	56.3	56.3	53.1	55.5	53.6	57	58	57.3	53.1	53.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	53.3	57.6	51.7	47.2	50.3	49	51.6	52.8	55.8	52.2	42.8	45.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	69.6	69.7	68.9	68.3	67	65.2	66.1	66.4	68.4	68.5	67.1	66.6
Widowed														

<u>Austria</u>	..	8	7.4	7.3	7.3	7.4	6	7.8	8	8	8.1	9	8	7.2
<u>Belgium</u>	4.1	4.3	5.4	4.9	5.9	6.3	..	5.6	5.5	5.7	6.4	5.9	6.1	5.6
<u>Iceland</u>	..	40.5	43.3	42.9	45.9	40.7	44.9	43.5	38.9	41.3	48.3	48.9	50	41.8
<u>Italy</u>	8.1	6	5.9	5.8	5.7	6.3	5.4	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.2	7	7.7	8.1
<u>Netherlands</u>	6	5.9	5.6	7.8	6.7	8	8.2	8.7	8.1	9.8	9.2	11	9.4	8.2
<u>Slovenia</u>	9.1	11.4	10.2	9.3	11.6	10.9	9.4	11	9.8	9.2	8.7	9.1
<u>Switzerland</u>	14.1	14.1	13.4	13.9	13.6	13.1	14.2	15.1	15.7	14	13.4	12.8
15 – 24														
Never married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	52.7	47.9	46	46.4	44.8	44.4	49.4	49.5	51.2	52.3	51.7	49.4	49.9
<u>Belgium</u>	22.9	19.9	24	23.3	24.2	23.5	24.6	24	23.6	24.1	24.3	22.2	22.2	23.5
<u>Iceland</u>	..	61.5	77.2	75.7	66.6	67.1	70.7	73.7	74.7	74.9	73.6	66.6	65.2	66.5
<u>Italy</u>	27.2	19.9	21.3	21.4	20.6	20.3	22.4	20.7	20	19.2	19.2	16.8	16.2	15.3
<u>Netherlands</u>	52	53.8	67.7	69.8	69.4	68.8	66.4	65.5	62.6	65.3	66.8	66.4	63.2	64.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	25.7	25.2	26.3	23.3	28.4	29.1	29.8	30.8	33	30.7	29.3	26.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	63.2	62.9	65.8	62.6	61.2	59.1	62.6	60	61.3	62.8	61.6	61.9
Married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	74.3	56.2	65.7	64.2	64.9	59.3	49.4	54.8	53.9	49.2	50.2	48.6	54.1
<u>Belgium</u>	57.8	56.2	58.6	45.1	46.5	28.6	50.8	46.4	43.8	41.2	39.3	41.9	41.4	40.6
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>	32.9	29.2	29.8	30.9	28.4	28.3	28.5	23.6	22.8	27.2	23.8	21.2	22	22.4
<u>Netherlands</u>	53.7	55.7	53.2	58.6	67.1	59.9	57.4	54.6	59.6	61.8	67.7	65.1	70.1	66.8
<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>	66.6	69.9	56.8	56.9	59	53	53	55.2	60.1	53.9	49.6	57.6
Divorced – No data available														
Widowed – No data available														
25 – 49														
Never married														

<u>Austria</u>	..	82.5	84.2	85	84.5	83.8	82.7	84	84.1	84	84.4	84.9	85.3	84.8
<u>Belgium</u>	72.3	73.1	78.8	74	73	75.4	77.5	76.9	77.9	79.7	80.3	79.8	79.2	78.9
<u>Iceland</u>	..	82	85.2	85.8	81.8	86.4	80.8	80.9	81.6	81.8	80.2	77.2	75.2	74.7
<u>Italy</u>	63.6	56.7	60	61.8	63.3	65.8	68.2	67.1	68.1	68.4	69	66.9	65.5	65.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	79.5	80.8	86.8	87.4	86.2	84.4	84.4	84.4	84.8	86.2	86.4	86.6	84.4	84.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	80.8	81.6	81	78.8	80.6	81.2	78.8	79.2	83.2	80.6	79.8	79.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	90.9	90.6	91.3	90.2	91	90.5	90.6	91.1	91.5	90.6	89.4	89.6
Married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	68.4	71.5	72	74.1	75	73.8	73.8	74.6	74.8	76.1	77.9	77.7	78.5
<u>Belgium</u>	56.5	62.5	70.3	68.2	68.9	67.8	70.2	72.1	71.9	72.6	74.8	74	75.1	74.5
<u>Iceland</u>	..	84	86.8	85.2	88	83.6	86.2	84.2	84.2	84.3	83.6	79.8	82.3	82.3
<u>Italy</u>	45.3	46.3	49.8	51.5	52.6	52.8	55.2	54.8	56	55.8	56.2	55.2	55	54.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	48.5	58	69	71.2	71.9	73.2	73.4	74.2	75.9	77.3	80	79.7	79.7	79
<u>Slovenia</u>	86.4	86.2	87.2	86.8	87.3	85.3	86.4	88.2	88.9	87.4	87.1	85.9
<u>Switzerland</u>	68.5	69.8	72.4	71.4	70.5	71.3	70.8	71.6	73.9	73.8	72.9	73.7
Divorced														
<u>Austria</u>	..	83.8	85.8	85.7	84.4	83.5	84.5	82.8	83.2	82.5	84.5	83.6	83.5	83.1
<u>Belgium</u>	65	64.1	69.5	74.1	71.9	76.2	69.9	72.2	74.5	76.1	76.4	75.1	74.6	72.8
<u>Iceland</u>	..	75.6	90	84.2	79.3	80.7	84.2	75.8	73.5	76.1	72.1	71.3	73.4	77.4
<u>Italy</u>	75.7	72	73.2	76	75.5	77.2	78.4	79.1	78.7	77.7	77.8	76.9	74.2	74.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	48.8	55.5	69.2	68.7	74.4	71.9	69.9	71.6	68.2	72.9	75.8	75.6	74	74.1
<u>Slovenia</u>	83.4	85.7	..	80.9	84.8	81.4	80.7	88.2	91.2	82.7	74.9	83.9
<u>Switzerland</u>	88.6	90.8	88.8	87	87.4	85.9	86.9	87.1	88.8	89.6	86.4	86.5
Widowed														
<u>Austria</u>	..	54.9	64.8	55.1	64.6	64.2	78.4	68.5	58.5	66.8	72	73.6	67.2	66.7
<u>Belgium</u>	46.7	42.5	46.8	42.9	45.6	54.6	..	41.9	47.9	59	55.8	53.4	56.3	47.4
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>	56.8	47	52.6	50.2	50.3	53	53.8	59.8	64.3	67.4	66.8	63.6	68.6	67.6

<u>Netherlands</u>	38.6	43.7	50.2	56.9	54.9	52.5	51.6	58.8	62.5	64.8	62.1	71.7	66	66.2
<u>Slovenia</u>	83.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	72.5	77	82.4	71.5	75.7	73.1	73.1	68.2	78.4	77.4
50 – 64														
Never married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	39.1	36.6	42.8	39.8	40.4	34.9	40	48.7	51.8	50.9	54.2	55.7	61.3
<u>Belgium</u>	26.5	33.7	43	53.4	42.2	48.5	39	44.8	49.9	52.3	55.2	52.8	56.1	54.5
<u>Iceland</u>	87.2	93.2	69.7	68.4	78.2	81.7	73.3	84.4	87.7	83.6	77.3
<u>Italy</u>	32.1	28.1	33	33.8	39	41.5	43.9	45	46.9	48.5	49.8	50.7	50.8	51.8
<u>Netherlands</u>	41.3	41	57.9	58.7	55.3	55.8	57.7	60.6	61.4	65.1	63	66.1	63.5	64
<u>Slovenia</u>	41.7	42.7	43.2	46.1	47.8	48	47.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	72.1	74	70.2	70.7	69.3	73.1	74.3	73.4	76	72.2	75.8	76.4
Married														
<u>Austria</u>	..	33.1	32.2	32.5	35.6	36.8	35.8	38.9	43.6	45.7	47.8	48.5	50.5	50.1
<u>Belgium</u>	15.5	20.4	25.4	27.2	28.8	29.7	31.9	34	34	37	37	39	41.1	42.7
<u>Iceland</u>	..	85.3	84.9	82.8	87	85	79.2	83.7	83.9	83.7	80.7	81.4	81.6	81.9
<u>Italy</u>	19.5	19.8	22.1	23.6	25.1	27	27.8	28.6	30.2	31.1	32.4	33.4	34	35.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	22.4	26.9	37.1	39.4	42	42	43.5	45.4	47.5	49.4	52.4	53.9	53.3	55.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	29	30.9	33.5	33.1	39.7	40.3	42.2	41.2	42.7	46.2	44.1	42.1
<u>Switzerland</u>	55.8	59.1	57.8	58.2	58.5	59.6	60.1	61.7	63.7	64	63.3	64.2
Divorced														
<u>Austria</u>	..	47.8	44.8	42.7	44.2	42.9	44.6	44.7	44.1	46.3	50.2	49.5	53.2	55.5
<u>Belgium</u>	28.2	32.9	46.4	41.6	43.1	42.7	38.6	45.5	47.1	49.2	50.4	51.8	50.9	53.4
<u>Iceland</u>	..	87	75.1	74.5	77.2	86	81.9	83	79.4	79.4	76.2	71.4	68.8	72.8
<u>Italy</u>	38.7	37.4	43.7	40.8	43	50	50.5	53.4	56.8	59.1	57.6	54.7	55.3	57.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	29.4	38.4	50.1	50.4	51.3	53.3	53.5	55.7	55.4	58.7	58.7	58	57.2	56
<u>Slovenia</u>	48.1	46.1	44.2	48.4	55.4	45.6	43.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	71.9	73.6	74.6	76.2	73.6	73	73.4	74.9	77.6	79.5	76.8	78.2

Table II.4. Employment rate of men and women, by parental status and age of youngest child, 1980-2012

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
All categories																	
Female																	
<u>Austria</u>	58.1	..	72.3	75.5	76.1	77.6	78.3	77.3	77.4	77.9	78.2	79.5	80.6	80.6	80.9	81.8	..
<u>Belgium</u>	73	73.5	74.8	76.4	75.8	76.2	75.5	75.5	..
Iceland – NIL																	
<u>Italy</u>	49.0	53	55	56	56	59.4	59.4	60.5	60.6	61.1	59.9	59.3	59.4	59.4	..
<u>Netherlands</u>	67	68	69	70	71	72	74	76	78	79	79
Slovenia – NIL																	
<u>Switzerland</u>	51.8	72.0	72.0	75.9	76.9	78.4	77.5	77.3	77.7	77.7	78.6	80.6	80.2	79.1	79.8	80.4	..
Male																	
<u>Austria</u>	92.5	..	92.2	92.5	91.9	92	92.3	90.4	89.9	90.7	91.6	91.1	89.7	89.3	90.2	90.1	..
<u>Belgium</u>	87.2	86.9	87.8	88.1	86.4	86	85.4	84.9	..
Iceland – NIL																	
<u>Italy</u>	85.0	86	86	87	87	87.1	86.8	87.3	87.3	86.7	84.5	83.3	83	81.2	..
<u>Netherlands</u>	95	95	95	94	94	94	94	96	96	96	95
Slovenia – NIL																	
<u>Switzerland</u>	97.1	97.2	95.2	95.2	95.3	93.9	92.4	92.6	92.9	93.3	93.9	94.2	93.1	92.2	93	92.8	..
Without Children																	
Female																	
<u>Austria</u>	80.2	..	82.4	82.5	81.5	83.8	84	83	84.6	84.1	84.4	85.1	85.5	85.5	85.4	85	..
<u>Belgium</u>	75.8	75.3	77.8	78.4	78.6	78	78.2	77.4	..
<u>Italy</u>	65	70	72	74	74	68.5	68.8	69.5	69.7	69.9	68.3	67.1	67.2	66.1	..
<u>Netherlands</u>	62	65	66	65	67	68	71	74	77	78	77
<u>Switzerland</u>	80.5	88.1	88.9	88.7	89.5	90.1	88.3	88.8	89.3	88.8	89.3	89.8	89	86.9	87.4	87.7	..

Netherlands	92	93	92	90	90	90	91	92	93	92	90
Switzerland	98.8	99.3	98.1	97.5	94	90.3	89.7	90.3	91	92	94	95.4	95.6	94.7	93.4	96.4	..

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources.

Definition: The employment rate is the share of employed persons aged 25 to 49 in the population of the corresponding sex and age group.

Data are reported according to the age of the youngest child living in the household. Children living outside the household are not considered.

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified.

Table II.5. Women's share of public and private sector employment, 1980-2013

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Public sector																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	..	42.8	46.7	51.8	52.2	53.1	52.2	53.5	54.0	54.7	54.5	55	54.9	55.4	55.3	56.3	..
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	42.9	43.3	43.9	44.2	44.6	44.8	45	45.3	44.8	45.3	45.9	46.2	46.3	..
<u>Slovenia</u>	49.8	54.6	55.4	56.0	56.7	57.0	57.3	57.7	58.2	58.9
<u>Switzerland</u>	37.9	44.4	..	53.9	51.7	51.9	53.1	53.3	53.4	53.3	54.7	55.2	54.1	56.3	56.8	56.4	56.3
Private sector																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	..	36.0	38.3	39.0	38.8	39.2	40.1	39.6	40.2	40.6	41.2	41.6	42.1	42.3	42.5	42.3	..
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>	34.6	35.6	36.2	36.8	36.1	37.0	37.9	39.1	39.3	39.6	39.6	39.1	40.3	..
<u>Slovenia</u>	45.1	41.3	40.8	40.3	39.7	39.4	39.0	38.7	38.5	38.0
<u>Switzerland</u>	35.6	38.0	..	41.2	42.3	43.0	42.7	42.8	42.9	43.1	42.6	43.4	43.8	43.0	42.9	43.2	43.8

.. - data not available

Source: Eurostat

Table II.6. Women's share of occupational categories, 1980-2013

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Legislators, senior officials and managers																	
<u>Austria</u>	23.9	28.4	30.1	29.2	27.4	27.1	27.2	28.6	26.7	28.3	27.2	28.8	27.2	30.0	29.4
<u>Belgium</u>
<u>Iceland</u>	..	27.0	27.7	29.3	29.1	29.4	36.9	33.3	27.4	29.6	29.9	32.7	33.3	34.5	40.0	40.0	37.3
<u>Italy</u>	15.7	14.3	18.7	20.2	20.8	33.2	32.4	32.8	33.5	33.2	33.6	32.8	25.0	25.9	26.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	20.3	26.6	25.8	25.3	25.7	25.4	25.5	26.7	28.0	28.1	28.5	28.6	29.6	29.0	24.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	27.2	29.6	31.5	29.2	33.3	33.4	34.2	33.1	31.8	34.9	35.6	34.8	38.5	39.0	37.0
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	23.9	23.9	23.3	25.6	27.9	27.8	26.8	28.3	30.6	30.4	30.2	31.5	33.0	33.0	33.2	32.8
Professionals																	
<u>Austria</u>	47.3	50.3	51.3	51.1	51.7	43.8	45.5	44.3	44.9	45.4	46.0	46.2	50.7	48.7	48.7
<u>Belgium</u>	52.2	53.7	53.7	53.4	56.0	55.3	54.1	55.0	55.8	56.3	55.5	56.3	53.5	53.6	54.1
<u>Iceland</u>	..	48.8	51.3	50.7	50.9	53.5	50.6	52.2	53.1	52.2	50.8	51.1	54.8	59.8	58.9	60.1	58.9
<u>Italy</u>	55.5	53.7	54.1	54.9	56.3	45.5	45.2	45.4	45.2	45.4	45.9	45.8	54.5	54.0	52.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	39.6	41.5	42.5	43.1	44.5	45.4	46.3	47.3	46.6	46.8	47.3	46.9	45.9	46.4	47.7
<u>Slovenia</u>	57.0	61.4	59.6	57.7	60.0	60.5	59.9	59.3	60.1	60.3	60.0	59.7	61.5	61.4	60.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	27.7	28.6	33.0	32.7	33.2	33.7	35.0	34.5	34.2	35.3	36.4	35.3	35.7	44.4	44.3	44.8
Technicians and associate professionals																	
<u>Austria</u>	45.3	47.4	47	47.6	45.5	49.1	50.4	49.9	49.3	47.2	48.0	47.6	43.8	45.8	48.0
<u>Belgium</u>	35.5	36.5	35.8	40.3	37.0	37.1	38.8	38.4	36.8	35.4	37.0	37.8	42.4	44.4	45.4
<u>Iceland</u>	..	49.0	55.8	53.9	57.6	55.8	56.7	55.9	57.5	60.9	61.3	62.0	61.6	58.0	59.6	54.2	53.2
<u>Italy</u>	33.8	38.0	38.3	38.6	39.1	46.6	46.8	47.4	47.5	48.0	48.0	48.2	39.6	39.2	38.5
<u>Netherlands</u>	48.0	51.0	52.8	53.3	53.5	51.4	51.4	53.2	53.6	52.9	52.8	53.9	49.5	49.1	50.9
<u>Slovenia</u>	50.4	49.2	49.5	53.8	52.3	54.8	52.3	51.6	53.3	51.2	51.0	51.5	51.3	49.4	48.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	47.0	48.6	52.2	52.7	54.6	54.7	55.0	54.8	55.2	56.0	57.2	57.3	55.9	48.7	49.1	50.0
Clerks																	
<u>Austria</u>	65.8	67.4	68.3	70.3	68.7	67.7	70	69.9	69	70.7	71.5	70	72.6	72.3	72.3
<u>Belgium</u>	57.8	62.2	60.7	59.2	59.6	62.6	62.9	64.2	64.7	63.7	64.2	65.1	62.7	60.5	61.5

<u>Iceland</u>	..	85.1	81.1	83	83.3	87.1	89.1	89.8	84.5	80.2	85	79	81.8	81.4	84.1	79.7	80
<u>Italy</u>	52.1	54.5	54.9	55.1	57.1	59.9	60.4	59.1	59.5	60.3	59.7	60.2	61.9	62.5	64.1
<u>Netherlands</u>	65.2	67.7	68.3	69.3	69.8	68	68.6	68.6	69.1	69.4	69.7	69.7	66.1	66.5	62.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	70.8	68.9	67.1	65	66.2	66	63.5	63.6	60.1	64.1	64	62.6	59.2	59	56.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	64.5	64.3	70.6	71.1	69.5	70.1	69.4	70.9	70.4	70.9	69.9	70.6	70.1	68.8	69.8	69
Service and sales workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	67.8	65.6	65.6	68.1	68.2	73	70.9	70.3	71	72.5	72.3	72.9	68.2	67.9	67.2
<u>Belgium</u>	65	65.5	66.2	65.2	69.8	67.6	65.9	66.8	66.3	68.4	68.6	67.4	66.1	65.3	67.8
<u>Iceland</u>	..	61.9	68	70.5	69.3	65	63.5	67.3	65.4	63.3	61.9	60.4	59.6	60.3	61	62.3	63
<u>Italy</u>	45.9	48.5	49.9	49.8	50.1	58.1	57.4	57.4	57.5	57.7	58.1	58.6	57.5	58.9	59.3
<u>Netherlands</u>	67.8	69.9	69.9	68.9	69.4	69.5	69.3	68.5	68.6	69.9	69.9	69.9	70.7	70.2	69.8
<u>Slovenia</u>	68.9	62.6	63	64.1	64.2	63	63.8	62.5	62.1	63	63.1	62.6	62.2	61.4	62
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	71.8	75.5	71.3	70.5	70.8	69.4	68	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.4	69.4	68	66.6	65.2	66.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	49.4	46.6	49	48.5	47.9	50.5	47.9	48.4	47.3	47.4	47.3	46.6	42.3	42.4	41.7
<u>Belgium</u>	28.4	23.2	25.3	23.4	24.9	28.7	28	26.3	25.9	22.7	23.2	23.9	20.3	16.5	16.4
<u>Iceland</u>	..	24.3	20.2	23.6	20.8	19.8	18.8	20.6	23.7	19.8	18.1	21.2	18.5	18.9	13	16.9	24.6
<u>Italy</u>	30.5	28.6	28.4	27.6	26.9	25.7	25.3	24.1	23.7	24	23	22.5	21.3	21.7	22.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	28.8	29.4	28.5	27.6	26.6	24.9	26.1	26.6	27.6	27.6	26.4	26	23.2	22.8	16.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	48.1	45.7	45.9	46.5	45.7	45.4	46	43.2	44.2	42.2	42.7	40	35.1	38.2	37.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	32.5	33.9	32.4	33.5	34.7	33.9	34.1	33.2	32.3	30.4	30.4	30.9	29.1	25.8	27.6	26.7
Craft and related trade workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	10.3	8.8	8.6	8.1	8.6	8.4	7.5	7.8	7.2	7.2	7.3	7	9.4	8.2	8.6
<u>Belgium</u>	10.5	7.8	7.5	8.7	8	6.4	7.3	7.1	8.2	6.7	6.8	6	5.4	5.7	6.1
<u>Iceland</u>	..	26.8	22.6	16	14.2	14.2	14.2	15	11.2	11.2	9.9	8.2	9.5	9	10.7	12.1	12.8
<u>Italy</u>	15.8	15.2	15.3	14.8	14.1	14.2	13.3	14.6	14.5	13.7	12.7	11.5	10.8	10.2	9.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	5.2	5.3	5.6	5.5	6	5.1	5	5	4.6	4.4	4.7	4.7	5.8	6.1	6.8
<u>Slovenia</u>	12.3	6	8	9	7.9	8	8.7	8.7	7.6	8.8	8	7.6	10.1	10.1	10.3

<u>Switzerland</u>	..	8.9	11	11.8	12.9	13.9	13.9	14.5	13.9	15.6	13.9	13.8	13.8	13.7	14.9	15.4	15.8
Plant and machine operators and assemblers																	
<u>Austria</u>	19.3	17.6	18.7	18.4	17.8	13.4	12.6	13.7	13.5	11.6	13	13	13.2	14.6	14.2
<u>Belgium</u>	15.1	15.2	16.1	14.8	17.8	15.8	16.5	14.7	15	16.5	15.6	16.2	12.8	12.6	13.7
<u>Iceland</u>	..	10.7	12.2	11.3	..	12.1	..	10.7	8.8	7.3	6.1	7.6	10.8	10.5	11.5	9.9	11.4
<u>Italy</u>	21.1	21.3	20.9	20.6	19.5	20	19.6	18.4	18	18.3	17.6	17.1	18.3	18.2	18.8
<u>Netherlands</u>	14.1	11	12.5	12.4	11.5	11.2	10.6	10.2	10.1	10.4	9.9	10.6	11.1	10.4	9
<u>Slovenia</u>	38.2	37.5	38.6	37.3	35.5	35.3	33	32.3	30.3	27.3	27.9	28.9	27.3	27.8	28.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	13.8	19.2	17.5	16.5	15.8	15.7	14.9	17.3	19.3	17.4	19.9	18.4	16	18.7	18.5	17.5
Elementary Occupations																	
<u>Austria</u>	59.2	62.2	62.5	63	62.4	55.7	55.6	57.2	55.2	55	55.8	55.4	61	62.3	62.7
<u>Belgium</u>	46	46.3	47	50	48.4	53.9	51.6	51.9	52.2	55.3	54.8	54.3	63.9	64.3	64
<u>Iceland</u>	..	57.1	60.4	48.2	50.4	54.1	50	50.6	50	44.8	40.6	46.3	51.5	50	48.4	48	47.8
<u>Italy</u>	41.7	40.7	42.2	43.2	44.5	46.1	47.6	47.1	46.2	47.9	50.7	52.5	49.8	49.6	48.9
<u>Netherlands</u>	49.6	49.6	48.8	47.6	46.8	47.2	46.3	45.1	46.4	46.5	46	45.8	47.7	47.7	46.6
<u>Slovenia</u>	53	62.7	61.1	56.1	54.4	58.2	57.9	56	58.5	57.5	58.8	58.6	59.9	59	57.7
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	58.3	65.3	63.8	60.6	60.8	62	63	62.7	62.1	62.1	65	65.1	63.7	67.3	65.9	66.8
Armed forces																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	7.5	8.4	6.9	7.6	..	8.3	10.4	8.4	9.4	7.2
<u>Iceland</u>
<u>Italy</u>	1.9	1.2	1.8	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.6	2	2.4	3.4
<u>Netherlands</u>
<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>
Occupation unknown																	
<u>Austria</u>
<u>Belgium</u>	34.3	37.5	0	42.6	43.3	43.4

Table II.7. Women's share of occupational categories, by levels of education, 2000-2012

	2000	2006	2012
Female			
Percent of corresponding total of both sexes			
All Educational Levels			
Austria	44.0	45.3	46.5
Belgium	42.3	43.9	45.5
Iceland	46.8	45.7	47.9
Italy	36.8	39.4	41.3
Netherlands	42.8	44.9	46.3
Slovenia	46.2	45.5	45.9
Switzerland	44.0	45.4	45.7
Legislators, senior officials and managers			
Austria	30.1	28.6	30.0
Belgium	32.1	31.5	32.4
Iceland	29.3	29.6	40.0
Italy	14.3	32.8	25.9
Netherlands	25.3	26.7	29.0
Slovenia	29.6	33.1	39.0
Switzerland	23.4	30.6	33.2
Professionals			
Austria	50.6	44.3	48.7
Belgium	54.8	55.0	53.6
Iceland	50.7	52.2	60.1
Italy	53.7	45.4	54.0
Netherlands	41.2	47.3	46.4
Slovenia	61.4	59.3	61.4
Switzerland	32.9	34.2	44.3
Technicians and associate professionals			
Austria	47.4	49.9	45.8
Belgium	37.5	38.4	44.4
Iceland	53.9	60.9	54.2
Italy	38.0	47.4	39.2
Netherlands	51.3	53.2	49.1
Slovenia	49.2	51.6	49.4
Switzerland	52.2	55.2	49.1
Clerks			
Austria	66.4	69.9	72.3
Belgium	61.6	64.2	60.5
Iceland	83.0	80.2	79.7
Italy	54.5	59.1	62.5
Netherlands	69.3	68.6	66.5
Slovenia	68.9	63.6	59
Switzerland	70.7	70.4	69.8

Service workers and shop and market sales workers			
Austria	67.6	70.3	67.9
Belgium	64.6	66.8	65.3
Iceland	70.5	63.3	62.3
Italy	48.5	57.4	58.9
Netherlands	68.2	68.5	70.2
Slovenia	62.6	62.5	61.4
Switzerland	71.3	68.3	65.2
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers			
Austria	47.1	48.4	42.4
Belgium	21.6	26.3	16.5
Iceland	23.6	19.8	16.9
Italy	28.6	24.1	21.7
Netherlands	30.8	26.6	22.8
Slovenia	45.7	43.2	38.2
Switzerland	32.3	32.3	27.6
Craft and related trade workers			
Austria	9.8	7.8	8.2
Belgium	8.0	7.1	5.7
Iceland	16	11.2	12.1
Italy	15.2	14.6	10.2
Netherlands	5.9	5.0	6.1
Slovenia	6.0	8.7	10.1
Switzerland	11.8	15.6	15.4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers			
Austria	16.9	13.7	14.6
Belgium	14.3	14.7	12.6
Iceland	11.3	7.3	9.9
Italy	21.3	18.4	18.2
Netherlands	11.7	10.2	10.4
Slovenia	37.5	32.3	27.8
Switzerland	17.3	19.4	18.5
Elementary Occupations			
Austria	63.5	57.2	62.3
Belgium	47.6	51.9	64.3
Iceland	48.2	44.8	48
Italy	40.7	47.1	49.6
Netherlands	47.1	45.1	47.7
Slovenia	62.7	56	59
Switzerland	63.6	62.1	65.9
Armed forces			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland
Italy	..	1.8	2.4

Netherlands
Slovenia
Switzerland
Not stated			
Austria
Belgium	40.2	43.3	..
Iceland	48.8
Italy
Netherlands	47.4	33.4	40.0
Slovenia	..	43.8	39.1
Switzerland	40.0	49.8	44.6
Tertiary Education (Level 5-6)	2000	2006	2012
Total			
Austria	39	40.6	43.6
Belgium	49	50.2	52.2
Iceland	50	52.7	57.2
Italy	44.1	49.7	52.4
Netherlands	41.9	45.6	47.3
Slovenia	54.5	55.5	58
Switzerland	26.9	33	38.1
Legislators, senior officials and managers			
Austria	26	23.9	30.9
Belgium	26.4	30.9	34.2
Iceland	31	34.7	44
Italy	19.3	29.7	29.2
Netherlands	24.2	27.1	28.9
Slovenia	37.4	39.8	48
Switzerland	12.7	21.6	26.5
Professionals			
Austria	49.1	46.1	50.6
Belgium	54.8	55.3	55.1
Iceland	50.5	53.3	60.6
Italy	44.3	46.7	50.7
Netherlands	43.1	49.1	49.3
Slovenia	60.2	59	61.7
Switzerland	27.5	32.1	41.1
Technicians and associate professionals			
Austria	41.2	48.1	41.9
Belgium	45.8	45.2	53.1
Iceland	67.3	60.8	57.9
Italy	48.6	57.6	52.5
Netherlands	45.2	44.9	47.5
Slovenia	60.3	62.9	59.2
Switzerland	33.2	42.6	40.5
Clerks			

Austria	59.2	64.6	71.3
Belgium	60.9	64.5	64.7
Iceland	..	83.3	58.3
Italy	56.1	63.9	69.9
Netherlands	66.9	61.2	63.9
Slovenia	80	77.8	72.9
Switzerland	49.6	55.4	64
Service workers and shop and market sales workers			
Austria	47.7	61.7	62.3
Belgium	56.6	57.5	61.1
Iceland	..	60	66.7
Italy	52.7	63.9	68.2
Netherlands	65.8	59.9	60.5
Slovenia	50	43.9	66.3
Switzerland	53.4	43.7	46.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers			
Austria	18.1	19.8	22.8
Belgium
Iceland
Italy	..	25.8	20.4
Netherlands
Slovenia	..	38.1	44
Switzerland	..	14.2	14
Craft and related trade workers			
Austria	5.5	7.2	4.3
Belgium	15.6	18.2	14
Iceland
Italy	24.1	31	26.3
Netherlands	22.3	13.4	12.1
Slovenia
Switzerland	..	9.9	10.1
Plant and machine operators and assemblers			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland
Italy	31.7	36.7	23.8
Netherlands
Slovenia
Switzerland
Elementary Occupations			
Austria	44	43.4	43.9
Belgium	31.7	44.6	56.6
Iceland
Italy	44.4	62.7	67.8
Netherlands	39.5	32.5	50.6

Slovenia
Switzerland	..	31.5	46.2
Armed forces			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland
Italy
Netherlands
Slovenia
Switzerland
Not stated			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland	65.4
Italy
Netherlands	44.2	44.9	51.1
Slovenia	..	47.4	38.1
Switzerland	..	40	44

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Definition: The *employed* are all the persons above a specified age who, during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories:

(a) paid employment:

(a1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for wage or salary, in cash or in kind;

(a2) with a job but not at work: persons who, having already worked in their present job, were temporarily not at work during the reference period and had a formal attachment to their job;

(b) self-employment:

(b1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind;

(b2) with an enterprise but not at work: persons with an enterprise, which may be a business enterprise, a farm or a service undertaking, who were temporarily not at work during the reference period for any specific reason.

[For additional information, see the International Conference of Labour Statisticians \(ICLS\).](#)

[The occupations are classified according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations \(ISCO-88\).](#)

[The level of education is the highest level successfully completed in the educational system of the country where the education is received. The levels are defined with reference to the International Standard Classification of Education \(ISCED 1997\).](#)

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

Table II.8. Women’s and men’s share of occupational categories, tertiary level of education (levels 5 & 6), 2000-2012

	2000	2006	2012
Females with tertiary level education	100	100	100
Males with tertiary level education	100	100	100
Legislators, senior officials and managers			
Female			
Austria	12.8	7.3	6.1
Belgium	7.7	9.9	8.3
Iceland	8.1	10.1	12
Italy	3.1	4.9	2.7
Netherlands	8.7	7.9	6.7
Slovenia	14.3	12.1	14.5
Switzerland	5.4	7.8	10.4
Male			
Austria	23.4	15.9	10.4
Belgium	20.7	22.3	17.5
Iceland	18.1	21.1	20.9
Italy	10	11.4	7.1
Netherlands	19.8	17.7	14.8
Slovenia	28.5	22.6	21.7
Switzerland	13.7	14	17.7
Professionals			
Female			
Austria	56.1	52.8	58.7
Belgium	54.1	52.9	49.0
Iceland	58.1	57.1	61.4
Italy	61.1	47.2	50.4
Netherlands	54.6	56.5	56.8
Slovenia	57.7	63.3	59.2
Switzerland	45.5	43.0	51.2
Male			
Austria	37.2	42.1	44.3
Belgium	42.9	43.1	43.5
Iceland	56.9	55.3	53.0
Italy	60.5	53.3	54.1
Netherlands	52.0	49.0	52.4
Slovenia	45.7	54.9	50.6
Switzerland	44.1	44.8	45.3
Technicians and associate professionals			
Female			
Austria	15.3	21.3	16.0
Belgium	14.1	12.2	19.5
Iceland	21.9	18.5	10.7
Italy	20.2	31.5	22.9

Netherlands	17.8	18.3	16.6
Slovenia	19.9	17.3	14.3
Switzerland	28.1	29.8	19.7
Male			
Austria	14	15.6	17.1
Belgium	16	14.9	18.8
Iceland	11.2	12.5	10.4
Italy	16.8	23	22.8
Netherlands	15.6	18.8	16.5
Slovenia	15.5	12.8	13.5
Switzerland	20.8	19.8	17.8
Clerks			
Female			
Austria	8.8	7.7	7
Belgium	18.5	19.6	14.9
Iceland	..	6	2.3
Italy	9.3	9.1	13.5
Netherlands	8.5	8.6	7.8
Slovenia	4.8	3.4	5.9
Switzerland	8.5	8.3	7
Male			
Austria	3.9	2.9	2.2
Belgium	11.4	10.9	8.9
Iceland
Italy	5.7	5.1	6.4
Netherlands	3	4.5	3.9
Slovenia	..	1.2	3
Switzerland	3.2	3.3	2.4
Service and sales workers			
Female			
Austria	3.8	5.8	8.4
Belgium	3.8	3.5	5.9
Iceland	..	5.4	5.8
Italy	4.2	4.2	6.9
Netherlands	4.8	5.7	8.1
Slovenia	2	1.5	3.9
Switzerland	8.8	6.7	8.3
Male			
Austria	2.6	2.5	4
Belgium	2.8	2.6	4.1
Iceland
Italy	3	2.3	3.6
Netherlands	1.8	3.2	4.8
Slovenia	2.6	2.4	2.8
Switzerland	2.8	4.2	5.9
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers			

Female			
Austria	1.2	1.3	1.4
Belgium
Iceland
Italy	..	0.1	0.2
Netherlands
Slovenia	..	0.6	0.7
Switzerland	..	0.8	0.6
Male			
Austria	3.4	3.7	3.6
Belgium	0.6	0.8	0.5
Iceland
Italy	0.4	0.4	0.7
Netherlands	0.5	0.2	0.8
Slovenia	..	1.3	1.2
Switzerland	3.5	2.3	2.3
Craft and related trade workers			
Female			
Austria	1.1	1.5	0.9
Belgium	0.5	0.5	0.5
Iceland
Italy	0.8	0.7	0.5
Netherlands	0.5	0.4	0.4
Slovenia
Switzerland	..	1.8	1.1
Male			
Austria	11.9	13.3	14.7
Belgium	2.8	2.1	3.5
Iceland
Italy	2	1.6	1.4
Netherlands	1.3	2	2.8
Slovenia	1.7	1.7	3.1
Switzerland	9	7.9	6.1
Plant and machine operators and assemblers			
Female			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland
Italy	0.4	0.5	0.2
Netherlands
Slovenia
Switzerland
Male			
Austria	2.4	1.9	1.8
Belgium	0.8	1.4	1.4
Iceland

Italy	0.7	0.8	0.9
Netherlands	1	1.2	1
Slovenia	3.4	0.7	1.3
Switzerland	1.5	1.8	1.3
Elementary Occupations			
Female			
Austria	1	1.9	1.4
Belgium	0.7	1	1.4
Iceland
Italy	0.8	1.8	2.7
Netherlands	0.6	0.8	1.4
Slovenia
Switzerland	..	0.9	0.7
Male			
Austria	0.8	1.7	1.4
Belgium	1.4	1.3	1.2
Iceland
Italy	0.8	1	1.4
Netherlands	0.7	1.4	1.2
Slovenia
Switzerland	0.8	1	0.5
Armed forces			
Female			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland
Italy
Netherlands
Slovenia
Switzerland
Male			
Austria
Belgium	0.5	0.6	0.5
Iceland
Italy	..	1	1.6
Netherlands	0.6	0.5	0.4
Slovenia	..	0.9	0.9
Switzerland	..	0.3	..
Occupation unknown			
Female			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland	5.5
Italy
Netherlands	3.9	1.5	1.6
Slovenia	..	0.7	0.5

Switzerland	..	0.8	0.7
Male			
Austria
Belgium
Iceland	3.9
Italy
Netherlands	3.6	1.6	1.4
Slovenia	..	0.9	1.1
Switzerland	0.5	0.6	0.5

- data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Definition: The *employed* are all the persons above a specified age who, during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories:

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(a2) with a job but not at work: persons who, having already worked in their present job, were temporarily not at work during the reference period and had a formal attachment to their job;

(b) self-employment:

(b1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind;

(b2) with an enterprise but not at work: persons with an enterprise, which may be a business enterprise, a farm or a service undertaking, who were temporarily not at work during the reference period for any specific reason.

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General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

Table II.9. Female and male unemployment rates, by age group, 1980-2013

Female	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
15 – 19																	
Austria	4.7	3.9	9.2	7.9	7.6	8.7	8.5	18.2	15.0	14.5	12.9	12.8	12.4	12.2	12.3	11.2	13.2
Belgium	36.3	27.1	38.1	31.9	33.3	25.3	..	30.0	33.4	32.7	32.9	27.4	29.9	36.6	26.7	24.1	27.7
Iceland	..	4.9	10.4	8.2	10.4	14.7	17.5	12.4	12.4	9.8
Italy	37.7	42.6	46.6	46.5	40.6	41.3	44.1	44.4	44.9	41.1	37.8	41.5	45.4	52.3	55.5	58.1	67.7
Netherlands	27.7	17.1	18.8	9.0	6.6	7.3	8.4	11.7	11.4	10.1	9.2	7.0	8.2	11.5	10.9	13.7	14.5
Slovenia	31	31.1	25.9	18.6	..	18.7	18.1	15	12.1	12	11.4	13.5	15.8	17.5	16.4
Switzerland	..	3.4	5.5	6.7	7.5	3.9	6.4	6.3	10.5	8.0	7.0	8.1	8.8	7.7	9.2	7.7	8.8
20 – 24																	
Austria	4.5	3.7	4.9	4.4	4.8	5.5	6	7.4	7.5	6.8	7.1	5.7	7.8	7.1	7.1	7.5	7.8
Belgium	27.0	18.2	22.5	16.1	14.5	13.8	16.8	18.2	20.6	21.3	19.1	17.6	21.4	20.4	17.4	18.2	21.9
Iceland	..	3.3	9.7	11.4	9.3	12.3	6.2
Italy	24.8	32.6	36	32.6	29.3	29.5	28.2	25.5	24.2	22.5	20.6	21.5	26	25.9	28.5	34.3	37.8
Netherlands	12.9	9.6	10.0	3.4	3.0	3.0	5.1	5.4	6.1	4.8	3.8	3.7	4.4	6.3	5.5	7.3	8.8
Slovenia	18.2	16.1	15.2	16.3	17.9	17.5	17.7	17.3	11	11.1	13.9	13.9	17	21.6	25.1
Switzerland	2.4	4.1	3.9	10.4	8.1	8.1	7.1	7.7	6.9	9.1	8.9	6.9	8.3	8.0
25 – 49																	
Austria	2.6	3.5	4.6	4.1	3.6	4.1	4	4.4	5	5	4.7	3.7	4.1	3.8	4	4.1	4.7
Belgium	15.5	10.6	11.2	7.5	6.6	7.4	8	7.7	8.6	8.2	7.4	6.8	7.1	7.7	6.5	6.9	7.6
Iceland	..	2.8	4.2	2.6	..	3	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.8	5.5	6.3	6.4	5	5.7
Italy	7.7	12	13.4	13.2	11.9	11.7	11.1	9.1	9.5	8.4	7.7	8.3	9.1	9.7	9.5	11.9	13.5
Netherlands	11.5	11.2	8	2.9	2.2	2.5	3.3	4.5	4.6	3.8	3	2.5	2.9	3.7	3.6	4.3	5.2
Slovenia	5.3	5.7	4.9	5.5	6.4	5.6	6.6	6.8	5.6	4.4	5.7	7.2	8.1	9.4	10.8
Switzerland	..	2.6	4	3.4	3.4	3.3	4.2	4.8	4.9	4.7	4.3	3.8	4.4	4.9	4.2	4.4	4.5

Iceland	..	2.3	5.2	1.9	1.9	3	4	4	2.5	2.8	2.3	2.9	7.2	7.6	7	6	5.4
Italy	4.7	9.8	11.7	10.9	9.6	9.2	8.9	7.9	7.7	6.8	6.1	6.8	7.8	8.4	8.4	10.7	12.2
Netherlands	9.5	7.7	7.2	2.7	2.1	2.6	3.6	4.7	4.7	3.9	3.2	2.8	3.4	4.5	4.4	5.3	6.7
Slovenia	7.7	6.9	5.7	6	6.5	6	6.5	6	4.9	4.4	5.9	7.3	8.2	8.9	10.1
Switzerland	..	1.2	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.9	4.1	4.3	4.5	4	3.7	3.4	4.1	4.6	4.1	4.2	4.4
15 – 19																	
Austria	3	2.7	6.8	6.8	6.7	7.3	7.9	14	13.5	11.9	11.2	10.8	12	10.5	10.1	10	11.4
Iceland	..	9.1	14.2	14.9	15.1	8.8	12.4	10.1	11.8	17.9	19	17.1	16.1	14.2
Italy	24	35.1	39.3	39.3	35.4	35	35.3	36.2	36.8	32.9	31.5	34.7	40	45.5	48.4	56.3	63.5
Netherlands	24.8	14.6	15.5	7.8	6.4	6.8	8.6	10.8	10.5	9.1	8.6	7.1	8.3	11.1	10.4	12.7	14
Slovenia	25.4	24.9	22.4	18.3	20.5	14.6	16.5	15.2	9.8	9.9	14.8	15.3	15	19.4	14.9
Switzerland	..	1.2	5.2	6.8	8.2	6	7.2	7.4	8.9	7.9	7	7.1	8.3	7.4	8	7.7	8.8
20 – 24																	
Austria	4.2	4.4	5.5	6	5.6	7.1	7.2	9.5	8.7	7.5	7.2	6.4	8.8	7.9	7.3	8.1	8.1
Iceland	..	3.6	11	10.7	9.8	6.2	4.9	4.4	5.4	14.3	14.1	12.5	11.7	8.2
Italy	18	26.6	31.7	29.5	25.9	25.3	24.9	21.8	21.1	19.2	17.9	18.4	22.8	24.7	26	31.7	36.6
Netherlands	16.8	9.4	10.5	3.3	2.8	2.9	5.1	5.9	6.5	4.6	3.8	3.8	5.3	6.9	5.6	7.1	8.8
Slovenia	16.6	14.6	14.6	14.2	14.6	13.9	15.8	13.5	10.2	10.6	13.3	14.5	15.9	20.8	22.9
Switzerland	3.8	3.8	5.3	9.4	7.9	8.7	7.6	7.2	7	8.6	8.2	7.5	8.9	8.4
25 – 49																	
Austria	2.5	2.6	4	4	3.5	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.2	3.9	3.4	4.2	4	3.8	3.9	4.6
Iceland	..	2	4	1.5	1.4	2.4	2.2	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.3	2	6.7	6.9	6	5	5
Italy	2	7.2	9.4	9.4	8.6	8.3	8	7	7.1	6.3	5.8	6.4	7.4	8.1	8	10.3	12
Netherlands	8.4	7.4	6.5	2.3	1.7	2.2	3.1	4.1	4.1	3.3	2.5	2	2.8	3.7	3.7	4.5	5.9
Slovenia	6.7	5.6	4.7	5.1	5.9	5.3	5.8	5.5	4.4	3.8	5.5	7.3	7.8	8.5	9.6
Switzerland	..	0.8	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.8	3.8	4.1	3.9	3.6	3.2	3	3.9	4.4	3.8	3.9	4.3
50 – 54																	
Austria	2.2	2.9	5.1	6.3	4.3	5.5	4.8	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.4	2.7	4	3.7	2.6	3	3.5

[Austria](#) : 1980-1990: data refer to national definition (Life Subsistence Concept). From 1995: data comply with ILO definition. 1980: data refer to 1981. Age group 60-64 refers to 60+.

[Iceland](#) : 1980: data refer to 1981. Data refer to population aged 16-74. Age group 15-19 refers to 16-19, 2003: break in serie because of change to continuous survey every week of the year.

[Italy](#) : 1980-1990 : data refer to the persons aged 14+, who have been seeking employment in the last 6 months. From 1995 : data refer to the persons aged 15+, who have been seeking employment in the last 30 days.

[Netherlands](#) : 1980 : data refer to 1985.

[Switzerland](#) : 1990 : data refer to 1991. 1990-2002 : age group 15-19 refers to 15-24; age group 25-49 refers to 25-54; age group 55-59 refers to 55-64.

Table II.10. women's long term unemployment rate, 1990-2013

	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Women																
<u>Austria</u>	13.2	29.9	27	25.8	27.4	23.8	26.3	24.9	25.1	27.1	22.6	20.9	22	24.2	23.7	23.2
<u>Belgium</u>	68.5	61	54.3	47.1	50.2	47.1	49.2	52.8	52.6	51.4	48.1	45	47.8	49.8	43.1	45.5
<u>Iceland</u>	10.3	11	7.4	7	..	7.2	12.1	12.9	9.3	11.1	5.7	6.8	15.8	25.9	25.9	17.6
<u>Italy</u>	..	65	61.8	62.5	59.8	57.9	51.9	51.9	51.2	49.1	47.5	46.9	49.9	52.4	54.6	57.1
<u>Netherlands</u>	41.6	41.8	27.2	27.1	27.4	28.1	32.6	37	40.3	37.1	32.2	26.1	27.5	31.6	32.8	35.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	..	48.7	59.8	58.3	52.8	51.3	49.5	46.3	48.9	46.1	4.3	32.1	41.2	43.1	47	50
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	36.3	29.6	35.5	24.4	30.8	35.6	40.7	42.5

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat) official sources.

Definition: The unemployed are all the persons above a specific age who, during the reference period, were:

- (a) without work, i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment, and
- (b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period, and
- (c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

[For additional information, see the International Conference of Labour Statisticians \(ICLS\).](#)

The long-term unemployed are the persons who have been unemployed for 12 months or more.

The long-term unemployment rate is the share of the long-term unemployed in the total unemployed population.

General note: Data comes from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified.

Long-term unemployed persons are shown in thousands. Long-term unemployed rates are shown as a percentage of all unemployed persons.

Belgium : 1990 : data refer to 1992.

Iceland : 1990 : data refer to 1991. Data refer to population aged 16-74.

Italy : 1990 : data refer to 1992.

Netherlands : 1990 : data refer to 1992.

Slovenia : 1995 : data refer to 1996.

Switzerland : Data refer to the permanent resident population. 1990 : data refer to 1991.

Table II.11. Women's share of full- and part-time employment, 1980-2013

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Women as % of all part-time workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	83.7	85.6	86.1	85.3	85.8	86.7	84.1	83.7	82.5	81.3	81.0	80.8	80.9	81.2	79.9
<u>Belgium</u>	..	88.6	87.5	83.8	83.8	82.5	82.7	82.1	80.5	81.4	81.0	80.6	79.8	79.5	78.6	79.0	79.4
<u>Iceland</u>	78.6	77.3	77.9	75.6	77.8	80.7	79.1	77.0	76.6	74.7	73.0	73.1	74.2	72.4	72.2
<u>Italy</u>	..	67.2	70.6	72.3	73.6	73.4	76.3	76.6	78.1	78.4	77.9	77.8	78.6	78.1	77.2	75.3	74.1
<u>Netherlands</u>	..	70.8	73.4	73.3	73.2	72.3	72.7	72.5	72.9	72.5	72.5	72.5	72.1	71.9	72.2	71.5	70.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	58.5	55.7	57.6	5.09	56.5	56.4	57.3	54.8	57.5	57.1	59.2	58.9	61.3	60.5
<u>Switzerland</u>	80.2	79.8	81.1	80.4	80.4	80.5	79.3	79.6	78.7	78.9	78.3	77.7	77.5	77.2
Women as % of all full time workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	36.7	35.5	35.5	35.8	35.7	35	34.8	34.7	34.3	34.8	35.1	34.8	34.6	34.4	34.7
<u>Belgium</u>	..	31.2	32.6	32.9	32.6	32.8	32.6	32.7	33.3	33.2	33.8	34.1	34.4	34.4	34.3	34.2	34.9
<u>Iceland</u>	33	34.8	34.6	35.8	39.4	38.8	37.6	37.0	36.7	38.0	39.4	40.3	41.1	41.4	41.2
<u>Italy</u>	..	32.5	32.7	33.4	33.9	34.3	34.4	33.7	33.4	33.4	33.4	33.6	33.7	33.7	34.0	34.3	34.5
<u>Netherlands</u>	..	22.3	21.2	21.5	21.5	21.1	20.7	20.5	20.7	21.1	21.3	21.4	21.5	21.1	21.2	21.2	21.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	45.4	4.05	45.0	44.6	44.8	44.6	44.3	44.2	44.3	44.6	44.1	44.4	44.2	43.7
<u>Switzerland</u>	28.1	27.9	28.4	27.9	27.7	27.9	28.3	27.8	28.6	28.3	27.7	28.0	27.9	28.2

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat) official sources.

Definition: The employed are all the residents above a specified age who, during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories:

- (a) paid employment:
 - (a1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for wage or salary, in cash or in kind;
 - (a2) with a job but not at work: persons who, having already worked in their present job, were temporarily not at work during the reference period and had a formal attachment to their job;
- (b) self-employment:
 - (b1) at work: persons who, during the reference period, performed some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind;
 - (b2) with an enterprise but not at work: persons with an enterprise, which may be a business enterprise, a farm or a service undertaking, who were temporarily not at work during the reference period for any specific reason.

Part-time/full-time: A part-time worker is an employed person whose normal hours of work are less than those of comparable full-time workers. In most countries, the distinction between part-time and full-time work is based on self-declaration. In a few countries, work is defined as part-time when the hours usually worked are below a fixed threshold. General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

Table II.12. Women's share of salaried / self-employed positions, 1980-2014

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Employees																	
<u>Austria</u>	37.3	40.4	42.5	43.6	44.8	45.9	45.8	46.5	46.5	46.5	46.3	46.9	47.7	47.7	47.6	47.8	48.2
<u>Belgium</u>	33.9	38.3	40.8	43.3	43.4	43.5	44.2	44.9	45.2	45.6	45.9	46.5	46.9	47.1	47.4	47.5	48.3
<u>Iceland</u>	..	50.3	51.5	50.5	50.5	51.4	50.3	49.9	50.4	49.5	48.5	48.3	50.0	50.2	50.2	49.9	50.2
<u>Italy</u>	31.8	36.3	37.6	40	40.8	41	41.4	42.2	42.4	42.6	42.7	43.2	43.6	44.0	44.3	44.9	45.2
<u>Netherlands</u>	41.5	43.6	44.1	44.6	45.5	45.5	46.1	46.4	46.9	47.2	47.5	47.9	48.2	48.3	48.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	48.1	47.9	47.4	47.6	47.2	47.3	47.0	47.1	46.7	47.0	47.7	47.6	47.8	47.8	47.2
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	43.2	43.9	45.5	45.9	46.6	46.6	46.8	46.8	46.7	46.4	47.3	47.3	47.0	46.7	46.9	47.4
Employers																	
<u>Austria</u>	43.3	31.2	24.5	29.1	26.9	26.2	26.2	26.4	23.3	26	25.5	26.4	25.5	25.9	25.0	24.2	23.8
<u>Belgium</u>	9.7	12.5	13.8	21.1	19.8	22	21.7	21.5	21.7	22.7	22.3	22.2	23.0	24.3	20.7	23.1	24.2
<u>Iceland</u>	..	21.3	24.5	26.1	21.4	19.1	24.2	26.4	25.0	22.1	25.9	23.5	17.6	26.5	26.1	26.5	26.4
<u>Netherlands</u>	30.4	31.2	31.6	23.2	21.3	23.8	22.6	23.0	22.6	21.7	23.3	22.7	24.2	24.5	24.3
<u>Slovenia</u>	65.9	23.1	25.6	24.1	25.5	22.3	27.1	27.6	21.5	24.4	25.2	25.6	26.5	26	25.3
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	21.5	22.5	23.4	24.2	25.1	24.2	22.8	23.0	22.6	24.9	24.3	25.2	24.9	24.3	24.3	25.6
Own-account workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	43.5	39.2	40	42	41.5	39.9	41.5	41.2	42.8	41.3	41.6	42.2	43.1	43.4	42.8
<u>Belgium</u>	26.5	26.6	30.6	32.5	33.1	33.9	34.1	31.6	32.2	31.9	33.2	32.9	33.7	33.4	33.8	34.1	32.4
<u>Iceland</u>	..	24.8	23.9	28.9	29.7	28.8	26.2	32.1	24.3	24.2	24.2	27.1	31.2	34.8	36	36.3	34.3
<u>Italy</u>	..	23.6	24.7	25	25.7	25.7	25.8	30.8	30.6	30.9	30.8	30.7	30.3	30.1	30.1	30.6	30.6
<u>Netherlands</u>	37.4	35.8	37.9	38	37.4	37.3	38.2	38.6	37	37.2	37.4	37.5
<u>Slovenia</u>	28.3	28.3	27.4	28	24.6	30.8	25.7	23.7	28.9	28.2	25.4	30.6	30.9	29.8	29.4
<u>Switzerland</u>	..	35.4	37.4	41.4	41.2	41.5	42.6	41.2	43.5	43.5	43.2	43.7	44.6	44.8	44.9	46.1	45.5
Family workers																	
<u>Austria</u>	..	75.3	66.5	67.1	66.8	66.6	66.9	72.6	60.8	63.1	55.1	52.9	54.4	52.3	50.6	50	49.9
<u>Belgium</u>	82.9	81.8	85.3	83.7	84.2	86.5	82.8	82.7	87.1	84.3	84.8	80.5	79.2	83.6	75.8	73.8	74.8

Iceland	..	54.3	62.5	66.7	40	
Italy	67.0	63.7	59.6	54.4	54.1	54.5	55.3	57	59.4	58.5	57.1	57.9	56.3	56.9	57.5	56.7	58.7							
Netherlands	82.6	78	79.2	82.2	79.9	79.4	78.6	80.9	76.5	78	75.7	78.3	74.5	71.1	72.4							
Slovenia	43	62.8	60.4	61.5	61.2	57.9	62.8	66.3	63.3	58.4	58	57.9	57.4	58.4	57.4							
Switzerland	..	73.6	68.6	62.9	58.9	59.4	59.1	61.6	64.6	66.2	60.8	59.8	57.1	55.5	60.1	59.6	57.2							

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Definition: The status of employment is defined with reference to the distinction between 'paid employment' and 'self-employment' jobs. Workers holding paid-employment jobs have explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts which give them a basic remuneration which is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work. Self-employment jobs are jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced.

Employees are all the workers who hold paid employment jobs.

Employers are workers who hold self-employment jobs and have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Own-account workers are workers who hold self-employment jobs and have not engaged, on a continuous basis, any employees to work for them during the reference period.

Members of producers cooperatives are workers who hold self-employment jobs in a cooperative producing goods and services, in which each member takes part on an equal footing with other members in determining the organisation of production, sales and/or other work of the establishment, the investments and the distribution of the proceeds of the establishment amongst their members.

Family workers are workers who hold self-employment jobs in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.

[For additional information, see the International Classification of Status in Employment \(ICSE-93\).](#)

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified. Data from the LFS and from population censuses normally comply with the definition above.

[Austria](#) : 1980-1990 : data refer to national definition (Life Subsistence Concept). 1980 : data on employers include own-account workers and family workers.

1990 : data on employers include own-account workers.

[Belgium](#) : 1980 : data refer to 1983.

[Iceland](#) : 1990 : data refer to 1991.

[Netherlands](#) : 1980 : data refer to 1983. 1980-2001 : data on employers include own-account workers and members of producers cooperatives.

[Switzerland](#) : 1990 : data refer to 1991.

Table II.13. Gender pay gap (difference in hourly wage), 1995-2012

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Austria	22	20	20	..	17	18	18	25.5	25.5	25.1	24.3	24	23.7	23.4
Belgium	12	13	12	6	7	9.5	10.1	10.2	10.1	10.2	10.2	10
Iceland	..	35.1	33.3	32	30.6	29.1	28.4	27.5	28.2	24.5
Italy	8	6	6	7	9	4.4	5.1	4.9	5.5	5.3	5.8	..
Netherlands	23	21	19	18.7	23.6	19.3	18.9	18.5	17.8	17.9	16.9
Slovenia	14	12	11	6.1	8	5	4.1	-0.9	0.9	2.3	2.5
Switzerland	..	21	..	21	..	19	..	18.6	..	18.4	18.4	17.8	17.9	..

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international official sources.

Definitions: Gender pay gap is the difference between men's and women's average earnings from employment, shown as a percentage of men's average earnings. The UNECE gender statistics database presents two indicators on gender pay gap, which represent two different concerns of gender equality.

Gender Pay Gap in hourly wage rates refers to the gender gap in average hourly earnings. This indicator aims to capture the difference between men's and women's overall position in the labor market. It measures the difference between men's and women's wage rates independent of the number of hours worked, the type of activity or the type of occupation.

Gender Pay Gap in monthly earnings refers to the gender gap in average monthly earnings. This indicator aims to capture the variance between men's and women's earnings over a specific period of time. It reflects differences in time worked and type of work performed, which translates into gender differences in economic autonomy.

[Wage rates are earnings elements meant to be measured, as stipulated by the ILO Resolution concerning an integrated system of wages statistics \(ILO, 1973\), in relation to an appropriate time period such as the hour, day, week, month or other customary period used for purposes of determining the wage rates concerned. In the case of these statistics, the reference time period is the hour.](#)

Wage rates should include basic wages, cost-of-living allowances and other guaranteed and regularly paid allowances, but exclude overtime payments, bonuses and gratuities, family allowances and other social security payments made by employers. Ex gratia payments in kind, supplementary to normal wage rates, are also excluded.

Earnings relate to remuneration in cash and in kind paid to employees, as a rule at regular intervals, for time worked or work done together with remuneration for time not worked, such as for annual vacation, other paid leave or holidays.

Earnings include direct wages and salaries for the time worked, or work done, remuneration for time not worked, bonuses and gratuities and housing and family allowances paid by the employer directly to his employee.

Earnings exclude employers' contributions in respect of their employees paid to social security and pension schemes and also the benefits received by employees under these schemes. Earnings also exclude severance and termination pay.

Gross earnings refer to total earnings before any deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees.

Net earnings refer to pay allocated to the worker after deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees.

[Netherlands](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2002 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources. For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, the underlying average earnings refer to employees only and do not include bonuses, gratuities, housing and family allowances.

[Slovenia](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2002 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources. The data on gender pay gap in monthly earnings are derived from Tax Register and Statistical Register of Employment. Data refer to full-time employees only.

[Switzerland](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2006 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources. For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, the underlying average earnings data exclude overtime pay and family allowances, cover employees in private and public federal sectors and refer to full-time equivalents.

Table II.14. Gender pay gap (difference in hourly wage), by level of education, 2006 and 2010

	2006	2010
Pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (ISCED97 levels 0-2)		
Austria	13.7	11.0
Belgium	17.2	16.1
Iceland
Italy	12.8	14.2
Netherlands	24.1	16.3
Slovenia	18.3	12.7
Switzerland	..	12.4
Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED97 levels 3-4)		
Austria	23.3	22.8
Belgium	13.2	11.1
Iceland
Italy	17.5	9.8
Netherlands	21.7	15.0
Slovenia	12.9	6.8
Switzerland	..	11.5
Tertiary education (ISCED97 levels 5-6)		
Austria	26.3	24.5
Belgium	14.9	18.3
Iceland
Italy	10.8	17.4
Netherlands	25.8	21.6
Slovenia	20.7	15.4
Switzerland	..	16.7

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international official sources.

Definitions: Gender pay gap is the difference between men's and women's average earnings from employment, shown as a percentage of men's average earnings. The UNECE gender statistics database presents two indicators on gender pay gap, which represent two different concerns of gender equality. Gender Pay Gap in hourly wage rates refers to the gender gap in average hourly earnings. This indicator aims to capture the difference between men's and women's overall position in the labor market. It measures the difference between men's and women's wage rates independent of the number of hours worked, the type of activity or the type of occupation.

Gender Pay Gap in monthly earnings refers to the gender gap in average monthly earnings. This indicator aims to capture the variance between men's and women's earnings over a specific period of time. It reflects differences in time worked and type of work performed, which translates into gender differences in economic autonomy.

[Wage rates are earnings elements meant to be measured, as stipulated by the ILO Resolution concerning an integrated system of wages statistics \(ILO, 1973\), in relation to an appropriate time period such as the hour, day, week, month or other customary period used for purposes of determining the wage rates concerned. In the case of these statistics, the reference time period is the hour.](#)

Wage rates should include basic wages, cost-of-living allowances and other guaranteed and regularly paid allowances, but exclude overtime payments, bonuses and gratuities, family allowances and other

social security payments made by employers. Ex gratia payments in kind, supplementary to normal wage rates, are also excluded.

Earnings relate to remuneration in cash and in kind paid to employees, as a rule at regular intervals, for time worked or work done together with remuneration for time not worked, such as for annual vacation, other paid leave or holidays.

Earnings include direct wages and salaries for the time worked, or work done, remuneration for time not worked, bonuses and gratuities and housing and family allowances paid by the employer directly to his employee.

Earnings exclude employers' contributions in respect of their employees paid to social security and pension schemes and also the benefits received by employees under these schemes. Earnings also exclude severance and termination pay.

Gross earnings refer to total earnings before any deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees.

Net earnings refer to pay allocated to the worker after deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees.

[Educational attainment is defined as the highest level successfully completed by the person, in the educational system of the country where the education was received. The levels of education are defined according to the ISCED 1997](#)

General note:

Data are compiled from gross earnings and cover paid employees in all categories of activities and workers in full time and part-time employment. Any deviations from these are specified in the subsequent notes, to the extent the information is available.

Gender pay gap in hourly wage: For EU member countries, the data are compiled from hourly earnings available in Eurostat's online database derived from the Structure of Earnings Surveys. Please refer to the EU Structure of Earnings Survey methods and their gender pay gap in unadjusted form for further explanations.

For non-EU countries, the figures are compiled from hourly earnings data provided by the countries in response to the UNECE questionnaire.

Gender pay gap in monthly earnings: Figures are compiled from monthly earnings data provided by the countries in response to the UNECE questionnaire and official earnings data available in Eurostat and ILO databases.

[See the note 'Method and data sources for the gender pay gap in the UNECE Statistical Database' for more information.](#)

[Austria](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2006 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources. Data for 1995 refers to 1996. For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, the underlying average earnings data for 2006 are compiled from EU Structure of Earnings Survey and cover employees in enterprises of 10 or more employees only. People working in public sector are not covered.

[Belgium](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2006 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources.

For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, underlying average earnings data are compiled from EU Structure of Earnings Surveys.

[Italy](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2006 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources.

For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, underlying average earnings data are compiled from households surveys (EU-SILC).

[Netherlands](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2002 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources.

For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, the underlying average earnings refer to employees only and do not include bonuses, gratuities, housing and family allowances.

[Slovenia](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2002 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources.

The data on gender pay gap in monthly earnings are derived from Tax Register and Statistical Register of Employment. Data refer to full-time employees only.

[Switzerland](#) : For gender pay gap in hourly earnings, data from 2006 are compiled from European Structure of Earnings Surveys. Earlier data are compiled from national sources.

For gender pay gap in monthly earnings, the underlying average earnings data exclude overtime pay and family allowances, cover employees in private and public federal sectors and refer to full-time equivalents.

Table II.15. Proportion of part-time employment amongst men and women aged 25-49 years, 2013

	Total	Males	Females
Belgium	21.6	6.0	39.3
Italy	18.5	7.0	34.1
Netherlands	43.4	16.5	73.0
Austria	26.9	7.8	47.8
Slovenia	5.9	3.3	8.8
Iceland	14.8	5.7	24.9
Switzerland	35.1	11.9	62.1

Source:

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_social_policy_equality/equality/indicators_gender

Table II.16. Proportion of temporary employment amongst men and women aged 25-49 years, 2013

	Total	Males	Females
Belgium	7.2	6.3	8.0
Italy	13.2	11.8	14.9
Netherlands	16.6	15.9	17.3
Austria	5.7	5.2	6.3
Slovenia	14.1	13.4	14.8
Iceland	11.7	11.8	11.7
Switzerland	7.1	6.5	7.9

Source:

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_social_policy_equality/equality/indicators_gender

Table II.17. Proportion of men and women with senior management responsibilities, 1995-2011

	Men											Women														
	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	9.5	10	10.5	9.9	10.3	9.2	9.9	9.3	9.5	9.1	9.1	8.8	6.8	4.5	5.4	5.7	5.0	4.8	4.1	4.5	4.5	4.2	4.3	3.9	4.1	3.0
Belgium	12.2	12.2	13.1	12.6	13.1	13.9	13.9	14	13.5	13.3	13.6	13.6	9.2	8.4	7.9	8.8	8.0	7.4	7.7	8.4	8.2	8.7	8	8.5	8.5	4.7
Iceland	10.5	8.4	9.8	10.7	7.8	9.1	9.6	11.1	12	11.9	12.7	11.1	10.4	4.7	4	4.6	5.0	5.1	5.1	4.1	5.5	6.1	6.9	7.1	6.3	7.5
Italy	4.1	5.9	4.2	4.2	4.4	10.2	9.9	9.5	9.1	9.1	8.9	8.8	5.0	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.9	7.8	7.4	7.2	7.0	6.8	6.7	6.3	2.4
Netherlands	16.1	15.8	16.3	15.7	16.5	14	13	13.7	13.8	13.9	14.2	14.4	9.6	6.2	7.2	7.6	6.9	7.2	6	5.5	6.1	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.8	4.7
Slovenia	5.9	9.6	8.9	8.3	7.4	7.6	8.2	7.9	7.5	8.2	9.5	10.8	9.4	2.7	4.7	4.9	4.0	4.4	4.5	5.1	4.7	4.2	5.3	6.2	6.8	6.9
Switzerland	7	8.2	7.5	8	8.2	8.4	8.2	8.1	8.1	8.5	8.6	8.9	9.6	2.9	3.2	3.2	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.6	5.2	5.7

Source: <http://www.OECD.org/gender/data/indicatorsofgenderqualityinemployment.htm>

Domain III. Family-formation practices and policies

Table III.1. Total fertility rate, 1980-2006

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Austria	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Belgium	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8
Iceland	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	2	1.9	2	2	2	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0
Italy	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4
Netherlands	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7
Slovenia	..	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Switzerland	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat, UN Statistics Division Demographic Yearbook, WHO European health for all database and UNICEF TransMONIEE) official sources.

Definition: The total fertility rate is defined as the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the age-specific fertility rates of a given year.

General note: Data come from registers, unless otherwise specified.

Table III.2. Mean age of women at birth of first child, 1980-2012

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Austria	..	25	25.6	26.4	26.5	26.7	26.9	27	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.8	28	28.2	28.5	..
Belgium	24.7	26.4	27.5	27.3	27.3	27.5	27.6	27.7	27.9	27.9	28.0	28.0	28.3	28.2
Iceland	21.9	24.0	24.9	25.5	25.8	26.0	26.0	26.2	26.3	26.4	26.6	26.4	26.6	26.8	27.0	..
Italy	25.1	26.9	28.0	28.6	28.7	28.8	29.0	29.6	29.6	29.8	29.9	30.0	30.1	30.2	30.3	..
Netherlands	25.7	27.6	28.4	28.6	28.6	28.7	28.8	28.9	28.9	29.4	29.4	..
Slovenia	22.5	23.9	25.1	26.5	26.7	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.8	28	28.2	28.4	28.5	28.7	28.8	..
Switzerland	26.3	27.6	28.1	28.7	28.8	28.9	29.1	29.3	29.5	29.6	29.8	29.9	30.1	30.2	30.4	30.4

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and UNICEF TransMONEE) official sources.

Definition: The mean age of women at birth of first child is the weighted average of the different childbearing ages, using as weights the age-specific fertility rates of first-order births.

General note: Data come from registers, unless otherwise specified. Data for 2010 come from the European Demographic Data Sheet (Wittgenstein Centre) for the following countries: Albania, Cyprus, Malta, Montenegro, Sweden and Turkey.

[Belgium](#) : Before 2000: data are based on events.

[Italy](#) : Since 1-1-1999 data by birth order are estimated using resident population registers and sample surveys.

Table III.3. Length of maternity, paternity and parental leave, 1980-2011

Indicator	Length of legal maternity leave														
	Total														
Age Group															
Sex	Women														
	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Country															
Austria	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Belgium	14	14	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Iceland	13	8.7	8.7	8.7	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Italy	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Netherlands	12	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Switzerland	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	14	14	14	14	14	14
Parental leave with job protection															
Indicator	Total														
Age Group	Total														
Sex	Women														
Time	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Country															
Austria	44	44	96	78	78	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96
Belgium	0	0	0	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Iceland	0	17.3	17.3	17	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Italy	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Netherlands	0	0	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Switzerland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Indicator	Total duration of paid maternity and parental leave														
	Age Group	Total													
Sex	Women														
Time	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Country															
Austria	60	60	112	86	86	146	146	146	146	146	146	81	81	78	78
Belgium	14	14	15	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Iceland	13	26	26	25.7	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Italy	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
Netherlands	12	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	42	42	42
Switzerland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	14	14	14	14	14	14

Indicator	Paternity leave (paid)														
Age Group	Total														
Sex	Men														
Time	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Country															
Austria	0	0	0	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Belgium	0.4	0.4	0.4	13.4	13.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.4
Iceland	0	0	0	1.3	4.3	8.7	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Italy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	0	0	0	0	0	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Switzerland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source : OECD

Table III.4. Paid maternity leave benefits (% of wages covered during leave period), 1990-2009

	1990	2004	2009
Austria	100	100	100
Belgium	82	82	82
Iceland	..	80	80
Italy	80	80	80
Netherlands	100	100	100
Slovenia	..	100	100
Switzerland	100	80	80

Source:

<http://databank.worldbank.org/Data/Views/VariableSelection/SelectVariables.aspx?source=283>

Table III.5. Enrolment rate of children aged under 3 years in childcare facilities, 1980-2013

	1980-1981	1990-1991	1995-1996	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013
Austria	5	8	8	9	9	9	10	11	12	14	16	17	20	21
Belgium	..	21	28	28	28	28	29	29	30	31	32	33
Iceland	..	24	36	42	49	51	53	52	53	55	55	55	54	55	57	58
Italy	4.6	5.5	..	6.1	9.1	20	19.7	22.4	19.6	23.1	20.6	18	22.9	20
Netherlands	13.1	20.2	..	21.8	..	24.9	25.2	25.9	31.3	34	36.3	41	44	42
Slovenia	29	30	33	37	37	38	41	44	49	51	54	56	55
Switzerland

.. - data not available

Source: UNICEF Statistical Database, compiled from national and international (UNICEF TransMONNEE) official sources.

Definitions: Child-care refers to formal child-care arrangements, public or private, such as group care in child-care centres (creche) or registered childminders based in their own homes looking after two or more children. Child-care refers to children at youngest age (typically children aged under 3); pre-primary schools are excluded.

Enrolment in child-care centres: Number of children aged under 3 enrolled in child-care centres per 100 children of the same age group.

General note: depending on the organization of education and child-care centers in countries, data may be available for age groups different from under 3 years.

Such differences and other deviations from the above definitions are specified in country notes.

[Austria](#) : Data include centre-based institutions and exclude home-based arrangements. Age calculation as of 31 August, the beginning of school year.

[Belgium](#) : Data refer to children aged 0-2.5 years. Data cover only the French community of Belgium. 1990/1991-2007/2008: data are estimates. 2008/2009: data refer to children enrolled on October 2008.

[Iceland](#) : Data refer to children aged 0-2 years in formal child-care arrangements and with registered private child-minders.

[Italy](#) : Up to 2003-2004: data refer to formal child-care arrangements in public centres. From 2004-2005: data refer to formal child-care arrangements, public or private.

[Netherlands](#) : Data refer to children aged 0-4 years. 1995-1996 data refer to 1996. 2000-2001 data refer to 2000, 2002-2003 data refer to 2002, etc.

Table III.6. Healthy life-expectancy, in years at birth, 2012

Country	Females	Males
Belgium	65.4	64.4
Italy	61.5	62.1
Netherlands	58.9	63.5
Austria	62.5	60.2
Slovenia	55.6	56.5
Iceland	68.0	70.4
Switzerland	67.6	68.6

Source:

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_social_policy_equality/equality/indicators_gender

Domain IV. Care and work-life policies and practices

Table IV.1. Time spent by men and women in domestic activities, 1980-2012

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total Domestic Activities																
Female																
Austria
Belgium
Iceland – NIL																
Italy
Netherlands
Slovenia_NIL																
Switzerland
Male																
Austria	..	2.02	2.08
Belgium	2.28
Iceland – NIL																
Italy	1.58
Netherlands	1.81	1.92	2.12	2.09	2.11	2.25	2.3	..
Slovenia_NIL																
Switzerland	2.34	2.44	2.54	2.7	2.41
Food Preparation, Dish Washing																
Female																
Austria	..	1.28	1.13
Belgium	1.18
Italy	1.9	1.8
Netherlands	1.84	1.49	1.31	1.24	1.19	1.17	0.94	..
Switzerland	1.57	1.47	1.48	1.48	1.42

<u>Belgium</u>
<u>Italy</u>	0.37
<u>Netherlands</u>	0.32	0.32	0.36	0.38	0.36	0.38	0.47	..
<u>Switzerland</u>	0.24	0.26	0.25	0.28	0.26	..
Child Care																				
Female																				
<u>Austria</u>	..	0.55	0.57
<u>Belgium</u>	0.32
<u>Italy</u>	0.47	0.47
<u>Netherlands</u>	0.73	0.7	0.69	0.74	0.85	0.62	0.55	..
<u>Switzerland</u>	0.62	0.75	0.79	0.81	0.74	..
Male																				
<u>Austria</u>	..	0.18	0.27
<u>Belgium</u>	0.13
<u>Italy</u>	0.18	0.18
<u>Netherlands</u>	0.26	0.24	0.25	0.29	0.38	0.3	0.29	..
<u>Switzerland</u>	0.39	0.5	0.49	0.52	0.46	..
Adult Care																				
Female																				
<u>Austria</u>	0.03
<u>Belgium</u>
<u>Italy</u>	0.07	0.05
<u>Netherlands</u>
<u>Switzerland</u>	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	..
Male																				
<u>Austria</u>	0
<u>Belgium</u>
<u>Italy</u>	0.03	0.03

repairs comprise all kinds of major construction, renovation and repairs of the dwelling, garage or outhouse, as well as indoor repairs, making and repairing equipment, vehicle maintenance, etc.

Shopping and services – Shopping includes purchasing consumer and capital goods, browsing at shops or markets. Services include visiting public offices, and commercial or personal services. Trips connected with shopping are excluded when separated in the diary.

Child care – Covers active care given to a child living in own household, including physical care, teaching, reading, playing and talking with a child, accompanying a child to a doctor, visiting a school etc. Going together to the cinema, watching TV with a child, are excluded.

Adult care – Covers adult assistance and care (except housework) given to an adult living in own household, including physical care of a sick or elderly adult; washing, cutting hair, massaging; mental help, information and advice; accompanying to a doctor; and visits to hospitals.

General note: Data are reported in number of hours, where decimals represent hundredths of an hour (e.g. 1.75 should be read 1 hour and 45 minutes; 0.20 should be read 12 minutes).

Italy : 2002: data refer to 2002-2003, 2008: data refer to 2008-2009.

Netherlands : In 2006, the data is collected according to the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS) replacing the original Dutch Time Use Survey.

Switzerland : 1995: data refer to 1997.

Table IV.2. Working-time arrangements of couples aged 25-49 years, by family circumstances and age of youngest child, 2012

Couples working-time arrangement	
Family circumstances	
Man & woman full-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	32.2
Belgium	39.4
Italy	32.9
Netherlands	16.1
Slovenia ¹⁵⁵	..
Switzerland	26.4
Without Children	
Austria	59.0
Belgium	48.7
Italy	49.8
Netherlands	39.9
Switzerland	55.3
Child aged under 6	
Austria	20.4
Belgium	37.2
Italy	30.5
Netherlands	7.9
Switzerland	11.7
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	27.8
Belgium	35.2
Italy	27.7
Netherlands	8.1
Switzerland	15.5
Man full-time/ woman part-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	41.6
Belgium	31.0
Italy	18.1
Netherlands	47.8
Switzerland	39.1
Without Children	
Austria	17.7
Belgium	23.2
Italy	14.0
Netherlands	30.9

¹⁵⁵ Data for Slovenia not available.

Switzerland	21.7
Child aged under 6	
Austria	45.3
Belgium	28.8
Italy	18.6
Netherlands	53.7
Switzerland	44.1
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	50.4
Belgium	39.2
Italy	19.3
Netherlands	53.5
Switzerland	50.1
Man full-time / woman not working	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	15.6
Belgium	16.3
Italy	34.2
Netherlands	19.6
Switzerland	20.1
Without Children	
Austria	9.3
Belgium	13.6
Italy	21.9
Netherlands	11.4
Switzerland	9.0
Child aged under 6	
Austria	22.3
Belgium	19.1
Italy	36.6
Netherlands	23.9
Switzerland	28.6
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	13.6
Belgium	14.9
Italy	37.3
Netherlands	21.1
Switzerland	21.2
Man part-time / woman full-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	1.6
Belgium	1.7
Italy	1.1
Netherlands	2.3

Switzerland	1.8
Without Children	
Austria	3.6
Belgium	2.1
Italy	1.9
Netherlands	4.1
Switzerland	3.5
Child aged under 6	
Austria	1.3
Belgium	1.7
Italy	0.9
Netherlands	1.7
Switzerland	1.1
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	0.9
Belgium	1.4
Italy	0.9
Netherlands	1.7
Switzerland	1.0
Man & woman part-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	2.0
Belgium	2.0
Italy	1.1
Netherlands	6.2
Switzerland	4.2
Without Children	
Austria	2.3
Belgium	1.5
Italy	1.3
Netherlands	4.9
Switzerland	3.0
Child aged under 6	
Austria	2.6
Belgium	2.0
Italy	1.1
Netherlands	5.0
Switzerland	6.0
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	1.4
Belgium	2.3
Italy	0.9
Netherlands	8.1
Switzerland	3.5

Man part-time / woman not working	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	1.0
Belgium	0.9
Italy	1.7
Netherlands	1.3
Switzerland	0.8
Without Children	
Austria	1.0
Belgium	0.8
Italy	1.4
Netherlands	1.3
Switzerland	0.5
Child aged under 6	
Austria	1.7
Belgium	1.2
Italy	2.0
Netherlands	1.4
Switzerland	1.2
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	0.5
Belgium	0.5
Italy	1.6
Netherlands	1.3
Switzerland	0.6
Man not working / woman full-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	2.0
Belgium	2.3
Italy	2.6
Netherlands	1.5
Switzerland	2.1
Without Children	
Austria	3.6
Belgium	3.9
Italy	3.4
Netherlands	3.0
Switzerland	3.4
Child aged under 6	
Austria	1.5
Belgium	1.9
Italy	2.3
Netherlands	1.1
Switzerland	1.3
Child aged 6 and above	

Austria	1.7
Belgium	1.7
Italy	2.5
Netherlands	1.0
Switzerland	1.8
Man not working / woman part-time	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	1.8
Belgium	1.7
Italy	1.9
Netherlands	2.5
Switzerland	1.5
Without Children	
Austria	1.7
Belgium	1.7
Italy	1.9
Netherlands	2.4
Switzerland	1.3
Child aged under 6	
Austria	1.9
Belgium	1.8
Italy	1.7
Netherlands	2.7
Switzerland	1.5
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	1.8
Belgium	1.5
Italy	2.0
Netherlands	2.4
Switzerland	1.7
Man & woman not working	
All categories (couples aged 25-49 years)	
Austria	2.3
Belgium	4.8
Italy	6.5
Netherlands	2.6
Switzerland	1.8
Without Children	
Austria	1.9
Belgium	4.4
Italy	4.2
Netherlands	2.1
Switzerland	1.2
Child aged under 6	

Austria	3.2
Belgium	6.3
Italy	6.2
Netherlands	2.7
Switzerland	2.1
Child aged 6 and above	
Austria	1.8
Belgium	3.3
Italy	7.7
Netherlands	2.9
Switzerland	1.9

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources.

Definition: Couple: A couple is defined as a man and woman living as a married couple, a registered couple or a couple who lives in a consensual union. Two persons are considered as partners in a consensual union when they have usual residence in the same household, are not married to each other and have a marriage-like relationship to each other.

Data refer to couples where both partners are in the age range 25-49. Data are reported according to the age of the youngest child of the couple. Children living outside the household are not considered.

Part-time/full-time: A part-time worker is an employed person whose normal hours of work are less than those of comparable full-time workers. In most countries, the distinction between part-time and full-time work is based on self-declaration. In a few countries, work is defined as part-time when the hours usually worked are below a fixed threshold.

Not working: Both inactive and unemployed persons are considered as not working.

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) unless otherwise specified.

[Austria](#) : 1980: data refer to 1984 and to the livelihood concept. 2004: break in series due to change in data collection procedure.

[Switzerland](#) : Data are from Population Census.

Table IV.3. Time spent in unpaid, paid and total work, by sex, 2013

	Time spent in unpaid work			Time spent in paid work			Time spent in total work	
	Men	Women		Men	Women		Men	Women
Country			Country			Country		
Austria	135.3	268.9	Austria	364.8	248.8	Austria	500.1	517.7
Belgium	150.8	245	Belgium	265.6	189	Belgium	416.4	434
Italy	102.9	325.8	Italy	282.9	162.3	Italy	385.8	488.1
Netherlands	163	272.8	Netherlands	297.5	167.5	Netherlands	460.5	440.3
Slovenia	166.5	286.2	Slovenia	299.8	234.2	Slovenia	466.3	520.4
Switzerland

Source: <http://www.OECD.org/gender/data/indicatorsofgenderequalityinemployment.htm>

Table IV.4. Women's share of inactive population aged 25-49, by reason for inactivity, 2000-2012

	2000	2006	2012
All reasons			
Austria	81.1	75.3	70.0
Belgium	..	74.0	68.9
Iceland	..	75.8	64.7
Italy	82.5	80.2	75.3
Netherlands	80.5	75.6	71.3
Slovenia	57.0	58.9	60.2
Switzerland	87.0	81.9	80.5
Study			
Austria	45.0	50.3	48.6
Belgium	..	51.4	55.9
Iceland	..	77.4	62.8
Italy	50.7	54.8	53.9
Netherlands	53.8	50.0	56.5
Slovenia	57.6	56.4	55.7
Switzerland	..	45.7	52.5
Retirement			
Austria	45.0	40.4	47.1
Belgium	..	53.6	64.9
Iceland
Italy	57.7	42.3	13.7
Netherlands
Slovenia	51.4	..	30.5
Switzerland	..	47.0	50.1
Home-making			
Austria	98.6	98.0	97.7
Belgium	..	97.8	95.0
Iceland	..	100.0	90.0
Italy
Netherlands	97.1	96.3	96.8
Slovenia	96.0	97.6	98.0
Switzerland	99.3	98.2	96.8
Other reasons, including sickness			
Austria	44.0	44.5	46.3
Belgium	..	60.0	57.2
Iceland	..	69.8	62.9
Italy	88.4	84.1	78.2
Netherlands	58.6	55.8	58.6
Slovenia	50.2	55.1	56.5
Switzerland	64.8	..	65.6

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources.

Definition: The economically inactive population includes all the persons who are not part of the labour force, i.e. are neither employed nor unemployed.

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS), unless otherwise specified.

Data are shown in thousands.

[Austria](#) : 2004: break in series due to change in data collection procedure.

[Iceland](#) : The survey sample covered population aged 16 to 74. 1990 : data refer to 1991.

2003: break in serie because of change to continuous survey every week of the year.

[Italy](#) : 2004: break in series due to change in data collection procedure. 2005: break in series due to change in question related to reason for being inactive.

[Switzerland](#) : 1980: data are from Population Census. 1990: data refer to 1991. Data refer to the permanent resident population.

Table IV.5. Distribution of male and female inactive population aged 25-49 years, by reason for inactivity

	2000	2006	2012
All reasons			
Female	100	100	100
Male	100	100	100
Study			
Female			
Austria	7.4	6.3	8.6
Belgium	..	4.5	6.7
Iceland	..	32	36
Italy	8	8.5	8.2
Netherlands	3.8	4.8	7.5
Slovenia	12.1	15.6	16.9
Switzerland	..	5.2	8.6
Study			
Male			
Austria	38.5	18.8	21.2
Belgium	..	12	11.8
Iceland	..	29.2	41.5
Italy	36.7	28.5	21.5
Netherlands	14	15.1	15.1
Slovenia	..	17.3	20.3
Switzerland	..	28.2	32.1
Retirement			
Female			
Austria	5.8	2.7	3.7
Belgium	..	2	1.5
Iceland	0
Italy	2.3	0.2	0
Netherlands	0	0	0
Slovenia	22	..	4.5
Switzerland	..	6.8	6.3
Retirement			
Male			
Austria	30.1	11.9	9.7
Belgium	..	5	1.8
Iceland
Italy	7.8	1.3	0.5
Netherlands	0	0	0
Slovenia	27.6	17.3	15.4
Switzerland	..	34.6	25.9
Home-making			
Female			
Austria	82	74.1	63.4

Belgium	..	51.7	42.6
Iceland	..	18.7	12
Italy
Netherlands	69.3	63.6	46.3
Slovenia	20.7	19.2	23.9
Switzerland	83.7	77.8	70.1
Home-making			
Male			
Austria	5	4.6	3.4
Belgium	..	3.4	4.9
Iceland	..	0	2.4
Italy
Netherlands	8.4	7.5	3.8
Slovenia
Switzerland	9.5
Other reasons, including sickness			
Female			
Austria	4.9	17	24.3
Belgium	..	41.8	49.2
Iceland	..	49.3	52.0
Italy	89.8	91.3	91.7
Netherlands	26.9	31.6	46.3
Slovenia	45.1	55.6	54.7
Switzerland	6.2	..	15.0
Other reasons, including sickness			
Male			
Austria	26.5	64.6	65.7
Belgium	..	79.6	81.5
Iceland	..	66.7	56.1
Italy	55.5	70.2	78.1
Netherlands	77.7	77.4	81.7
Slovenia	59.4	64.8	63.5
Switzerland	..	30.7	32.5

.. - data not available

Source: UNECE Statistical Database, compiled from national official sources.

Definition: The economically inactive population includes all the persons who are not part of the labour force, i.e. are neither employed nor unemployed.

General note: Data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS), unless otherwise specified.

Data are shown in thousands.

[Austria](#) : 2004: break in series due to change in data collection procedure.

[Iceland](#) : The survey sample covered population aged 16 to 74. 1990 : data refer to 1991. 2003: break in serie because of change to continuous survey every week of the year.

[Italy](#) : 2004: break in series due to change in data collection procedure. 2005: break in series due to change in question related to reason for being inactive.

[Switzerland](#) : 1980: data are from Population Census. 1990: data refer to 1991. Data refer to the permanent resident population.

Domain V. Equal opportunity / anti-discrimination / diversity policies and practices

Table V.1. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)

	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Austria	11.5	..	26.8	26.8	..	33.9	33.9	33.9	32.2	32.8	27.3	27.9	27.9	27.9	27.9	33.3
Belgium	8.5	..	23.3	23.3	23.3	35.3	34.7	34.7	34.7	35.3	35.3	38	39.3	38	38	38
Iceland	20.6	..	34.9	34.9	34.9	30.2	30.2	33.3	33.3	33.3	33.3	42.9	42.9	39.7	39.7	39.7
Italy	12.9	..	11.1	9.8	9.8	11.5	11.5	11.5	17.3	17.3	21.3	21.3	21.3	21.6	21.4	31.4
Netherlands	21.3	..	36	36	34	36.7	36.7	36.7	36.7	39.3	41.3	42	40.7	40.7	38.7	38.7
Slovenia	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	13.3	14.4	14.4	32.2	32.2	32.2
Switzerland	14	..	23	23	23	25	25	25	25	28.5	28.5	29	29	28.5	29	29

Source: <http://databank.worldbank.org/Data/Views/VariableSelection/SelectVariables.aspx?source=283>

Table V.2. Proportion of women in ministerial level positions (%)

	2005	2008	2010	2012
Austria	35.3	38.5	38.5	46.2
Belgium	21.4	23.1	33.3	41.7
Iceland	27.3	36.4	45.5	50
Italy	8.3	24	21.7	16.7
Netherlands	36	33.3	23.5	33.3
Slovenia	6.3	17.6	22.2	7.7
Switzerland	14.3	42.9	42.9	42.9

Source:

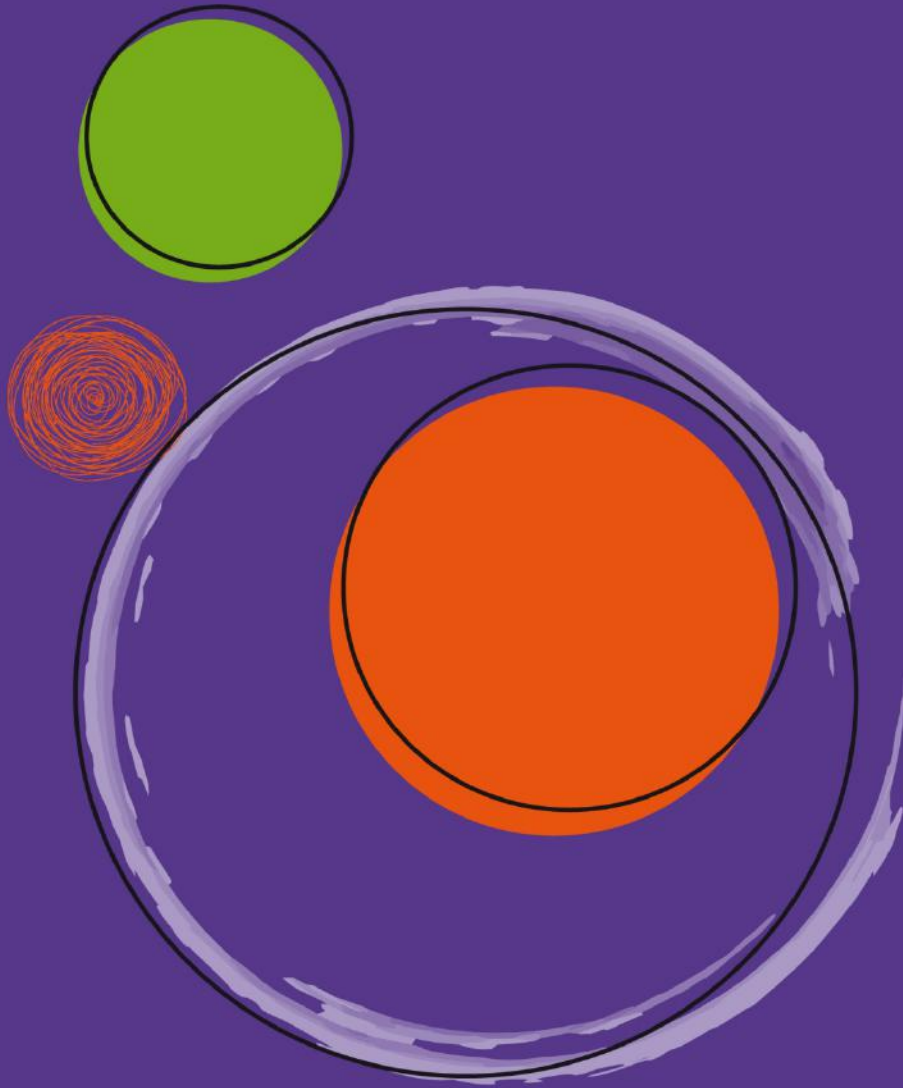
<http://databank.worldbank.org/Data/Views/VariableSelection/SelectVariables.aspx?source=283>

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