

Women and men in Norway

2018



What is Women and men in Norway?

In *Women and men in Norway*, Statistics Norway presents statistics on women and men in Norway within 14 different areas of society. Each chapter contains links to more information about the subject covered. The publication is written in a way that is easy to read and understand, giving readers the opportunity to form their own opinions about the gender equality situation in Norway.

The publication is based on two earlier editions. The first edition was published in 2006 and was written by Jan Erik Kristiansen and Toril Sandnes, while the second edition from 2010, which was based on the first publication, was compiled by Agnes Aaby Hirsch (ed.), with input from a number of other Statistics Norway employees.

This edition of *Women and men in Norway* was compiled by Karin Hamre (ed.), Toril Sandnes, Kristin Egge-Hoveid, Lene Sandvik, Kristin Mathilde Drahus, Maria Engvik, Reid Stene and Kari Kraakenes. Marit Vågdaal, Thomas Bjørnskau and Siri Boquist were responsible for design and layout.

I would like to thank Natasza Sandbu and all others who were involved in quality assuring the content.

Statistics Norway, February 2018
Torstein Bye

Population: More elderly women	2
Population: Families and households	4
Births and children: From generation to generation	6
Education: Thirsty for knowledge	10
Work: Equality in the workplace	12
Distribution of financial resources: Wages	16
Distribution of financial resources: Income	18
Culture and media use: Women are culture vultures	20
Time use: Around the clock	22
Crime: Offenders and victims of violence	24
Power and influence: Who decides?	26
Immigrants and Norwegian-born Women and men with to immigrant parents: immigrant background	28
Illness and health: Women lead healthy lives, but are more often ill	30
Regional differences Gender equality in in gender equality: Norwegian municipalities	34

More elderly women

Life expectancy at birth, selected countries. 2015

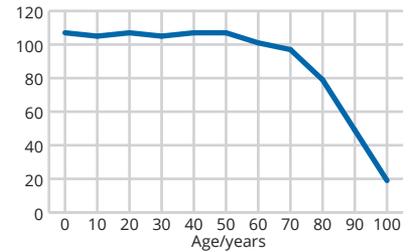
	Men	Women
Austria	78.8	83.7
Belgium	78.7	83.4
Denmark	78.8	82.7
Estonia	73.2	82.2
Finland	78.7	84.4
France	79.2	85.5
Germany	78.3	83.1
Greece	78.5	83.7
Hungary	72.3	79.0
Iceland	81.2	83.8
Israel	80.1	84.1
Italy	80.3	84.9
Japan	80.8	87.1
Latvia	69.7	79.5
Lithuania	69.2	79.7
Netherlands	79.9	83.2
Norway	80.5	84.2
Poland	73.5	81.6
Portugal	78.1	84.3
Russia	65.9	76.7
Spain	80.1	85.8
Sweden	80.4	84.1
Switzerland	80.8	85.1
Turkey	75.3	80.7
UK	79.2	82.8
USA	76.3	81.2

Source: OECD
<https://data.oecd.org/healthstat/life-expectancy-at-birth.htm>

More newborn boys

Slightly more boys than girls are born each year – approximately 106 boys per 100 girls. However, the higher mortality rate among men means that the gender ratio evens out and eventually shifts. At the age of 60, the number of women and men is almost the same, but this is followed by an overrepresentation of women. At the age of 90, there are about twice as many women as men.

Number of men per 100 women. 2017

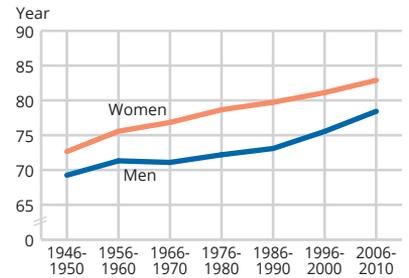


Source: www.ssb.no/en/folkemengde

Women live longer than men

A lower mortality rate among women means that they live almost four years longer than men. Today, a newborn boy can expect to live to 80.6 years of age, whereas a girl can expect to reach 84.2 years of age.

Life expectancy at birth



Source: www.ssb.no/en/dode

After World War II, the gender disparity in life expectancy was slightly more than three years. The subsequent increase in deaths from cardiovascular diseases among men pushed up this figure, and by the beginning of the 1980s, the age gap had widened to almost seven years. This has since dropped to less than four years, partly due to the falling mortality rate for cardiovascular diseases among men.

According to population projections from 2016, life expectancy is also expected to increase markedly in the years ahead. Based on the scenario where we assume a moderate increase, a boy born in 2060 will have a life expectancy of 87.2 years and a girl 89.2 years. In other words, the gender gap will be further reduced to around two years.

Norwegian women no longer live the longest

Until the early 1980s, Norwegian women had the highest life expectancy in the world. Today, women in a number of countries can expect to live longer. Top of the list are Japanese women, whose life expectancy is more than 87 years. Other women too, particularly in the south of Europe, can expect to live longer than their Norwegian counterparts.

The gender disparity in life expectancy varies from country to country. Iceland and the Netherlands have the smallest gender disparity in life expectancy in Europe, with women living roughly three years longer than men. The gap in Finland is wider than in other Nordic countries, and the greatest disparities in the EU are found in Eastern Europe. Russian women and men have a shorter life expectancy than their EU counterparts, and the gender gap is also wider here.

The grey tsunami: women in the majority

Much has been said about the expected growth in the number of elderly people. In some respects, we can say that it has already started. In 1950, only 8 per cent of the population were aged 67 or over, while in 2017 the figure was almost 15 per cent. This will increase further around 2030 to roughly 18 per cent, and 22 per cent in 2060.

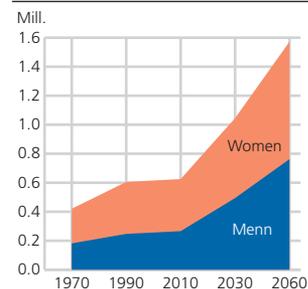
The narrowing of the gender gap in life expectancy means that the future elderly population is likely to be slightly less dominated by women, although women will still be in the majority.

Mobile women

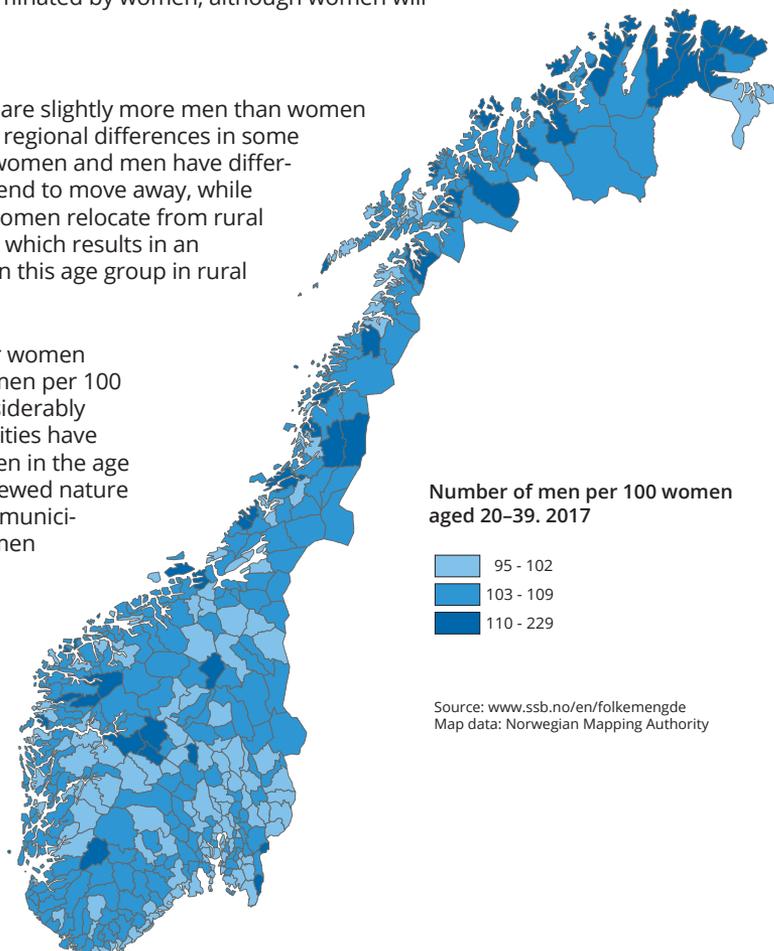
If we take the country as a whole, there are slightly more men than women up to the age of 60, but there are major regional differences in some age groups. This is due to the fact that women and men have different migration patterns: young women tend to move away, while men more often stay where they are. Women relocate from rural municipalities to urban areas and cities, which results in an underrepresentation of young women in this age group in rural municipalities.

Norway as a whole has 5 per cent fewer women than men in the 20–39 age group (105 men per 100 women). However, this ratio varies considerably between municipalities. Most municipalities have between 90 and 130 men per 100 women in the age group 20–39 years. Given the slightly skewed nature of the gender ratio in general, far more municipalities have an overrepresentation of men than women.

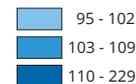
Number of women and men aged 67 and over. From 1970 to 2060 (projection)



Source: www.ssb.no/en/folkfram
Corrected 4 May 2018.



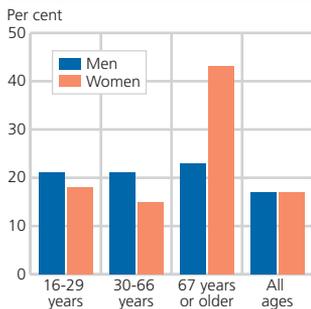
Number of men per 100 women aged 20–39. 2017



Source: www.ssb.no/en/folkemengde
Map data: Norwegian Mapping Authority

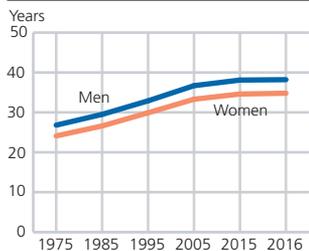
Families and households

Percentage of women and men aged 20 and over living alone. 2016



Source: . www.ssb.no/en/familie

Average age at marriage



Source: www.ssb.no/en/ekteskap

Almost as many women and men live alone

The post-war period was the golden era of the nuclear family. Large numbers of people were getting married and the proportion of one-person households was low. The beginning of the 1970s saw the number of marriages start to fall, while the number of divorces increased. The result is more than a two-fold increase in the proportion of one-person households. As of 1 January 2017, 38 per cent of households were one-person households, and persons living alone accounted for 17 per cent of the entire population.

In the population as a whole, the shares of women and men living alone are roughly equal. However, certain age groups show a gender imbalance. Up to the age of 66, more men than women live alone, while single women are in the majority in the group aged 67 and over. This is partly due to the fact that women live longer than men.

Few live alone in the suburbs

One-person households are more common in central urban municipalities, in inland rural municipalities in South Norway, and in Northern Norway. In Oslo, Trondheim and Bergen, more than 20 per cent of the population live alone. The lowest proportions of one-person households are found in the suburbs, and in many of the coastal municipalities stretching from Agder to Western Norway.

Age at first marriage increasing

In 2016, about 22 500 couples tied the knot. In the 1960s, despite the population being much smaller than it is today, a larger number of marriages were contracted, with between 28 000 and 30 000 every year.

The average age gap at the time of marriage was 2.7 years in 1974. This gap increased steadily to 3.7 years, subsequently falling again to 3.4 years between 2011 and 2016. Grooms are generally older than their brides. However, the average age to get married has increased. In the early 1970s, the average age to say 'I do' was 27 years for men and 24 years for women. By 2016, this had increased to 38 years for men and 35 years for women.

More choosing to cohabit

The decline in the number of marriages is partly due to the changing pattern in how couples live together. As the number of marriages has fallen, the number of couples choosing to cohabit without getting married has increased. In 2016, 29 per cent of all couples living together were cohabitants, compared to 19 per cent in 1994.

Although for most age groups the proportion of married couples is still higher than the proportion of cohabitants or those who are not in a live-in relationship, the disparity has levelled off in recent years. The proportion living as cohabitants has increased, and the proportion that is married has decreased.

Cohabiting is most common among the youngest age group. Up to 25 years of age, most people are not in a live-in relationship, while just over half of those aged 25–29 are cohabiting. The proportion of women cohabiting is highest in this age group, with 43 per cent. Among men, the greatest proportion is in the age group 30–34 years, at 38 per cent. The proportion that is married increases with age, and for married women aged 30–34 and married men aged 35–39 the proportion is larger than for cohabitants. In the age group 70–79 years, 64 per cent are married.

Stable numbers of same-sex marriages and partnerships

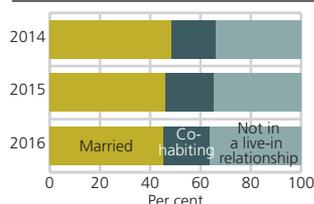
Marriages between same-sex couples have been included in the statistics since 2009. Since then, just under 300 of the marriages contracted each year have been between same-sex couples. Same-sex partnerships were introduced to the statistics in 1993. In the early years, there was a clear dominance of male partnerships, but female partnerships have been in the majority since 2006. Almost 280 same-sex marriages were contracted in 2016. This figure has remained relatively stable since 2009.

Fall in number and percentage of couples divorcing

The number of marriages that end in divorce has remained relatively stable since the late 1980s, with a slight decline in 2016. A shift occurred in the 1970s and 1980s, when more marriages than ever before were ending up in divorce. This roughly coincided with the women's liberation movement. Towards the end of the 1980s, the number of divorces peaked at around 10 000 a year, remaining stable at around 10 000–11 000 for a number of years. Since 2012, the number of divorces has been declining, and the figure for 2016 was just over 9 000.

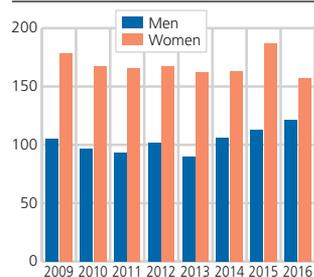
Divorce numbers provide us with limited information as the population is constantly growing and fewer marriages are being contracted. The estimate for marriages that will end in divorce after 40 years has gradually decreased from a peak of 49.9 per cent in 2004 to 37.3 per cent in 2016. This means that the proportion of all marriages that end in divorce is also smaller today than it was before.

Percentage in different types of relationships, both sexes



Source: www.ssb.no/en/samboer

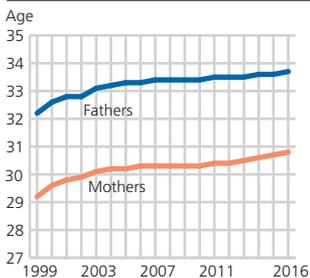
Number of same-sex marriages contracted



Source: www.ssb.no/en/ekteskap

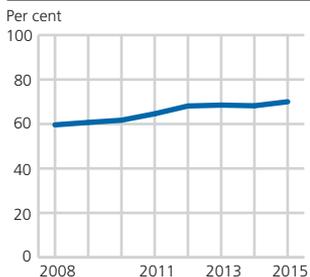
From generation to generation

Average age of parents of children born in Norway



Source: www.ssb.no/en/fodte

Percentage of fathers who use their full paternity leave entitlement or more



Source: www.ssb.no/en/likekom

Several factors affect women's fertility, the most important of which are perhaps women's education and employment patterns. Compared with earlier years, women are often older today when becoming a parent for the first time, and their average age impacts on the fertility rate. The older a woman is when she first gives birth, the lower the fertility rate. This is also the case in Norway. Fertility rates are currently on a par with the record low of the 1980s. The number of abortions has not increased, despite the lower fertility rate. In 2016, the number of abortions was at the same level as in 1980, but there has been a slight decline, mainly among young women under the age of 25.

Although the proportion of women without children has seen a slight rise, the corresponding increase among men is considerably higher. This indicates that a small group of men have children with more than one woman. In terms of parental leave in connection with a birth, seven out of ten fathers used their statutory paternity leave entitlement (10 weeks) or more in 2016.

Mean age of parents at childbirth

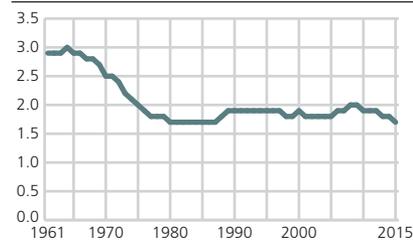
Until the 1970s, the age of mothers at childbirth was decreasing. However, the growth in educational opportunities and career options for women pushed up the mean age for giving birth, rising by approximately six years to 30.8 years since the early 1970s. Fathers are two to three years older on average. In 2016, the average age of women having their first child was 29 years

The increase in age of first-time mothers is particularly reflected in the number of teenagers having children, where the figure has fallen from around 6 000 in the early 1970s to 613 in 2016.

Fertility rate falling ...

The post-war baby boom lasted until the mid-1960s and was followed by a decline in birth rates that reached a record low of 1.7 at the beginning of the 1980s. Fertility then increased somewhat, and has remained at around 1.9 since the end of the 1980s. In 2008 and 2009, the fertility rate was almost 2.0, the highest since 1975; however, by 2015, it had fallen again to 1.7.

Total fertility rate in Norway



Source: Eurostat.

If we disregard immigration and emigration, the national fertility rate in any country must be approximately 2.1 in order to ensure the long-term natural replacement of the population. Norway has remained below this level since the mid-1970s.

The proportion of women without children remained stable for a long time. Among women born in the period 1935–1950, just under 10 per cent of the 45-year-olds were childless. This proportion increased to 13 per cent among women born in 1970. However, the proportion of 45-year-old men without

Births/children

In this report, births/children refer to live births.

children is considerably higher than for women of the same age. Among men born in 1940, 14 per cent were childless at the age of 45, and this increased to 24 per cent for men born in 1970. This means that a large and increasing proportion of men are having children with more than one woman, and steadily more men are not having children.

... but still high compared to other countries

The fall in the fertility rate in recent decades is a general phenomenon in the western world, and Norway has actually had one of the highest fertility rates in recent years. The average fertility rate in the EU, for example, was 1.6 in 2015.

Norway's relatively high fertility rate is assumed to be partly linked to the parental benefits received after the birth of a child, which makes it easier for women and men to combine a career and have children. Since 1 July 2014, the parental benefit period in connection with a birth has been 49 weeks.

Part of the parental leave is earmarked for fathers (the paternal quota). The paternal quota has increased gradually from 4 weeks when it was introduced in 1993 to 14 weeks in 2013, when 69 per cent of fathers used their full paternity leave entitlement or more. In 2014, the paternal quota was reduced to 10 weeks. Seventy per cent of fathers entitled to parental leave used their full paternity leave entitlement or more in 2016. The extent to which fathers use their quota varies throughout Norway. The largest proportions of men who use the full paternal quota or more are found in the counties of Sogn og Fjordane, Sør-Trøndelag and Akershus, while fathers in Østfold, Finnmark and Telemark are at the opposite end of the scale.

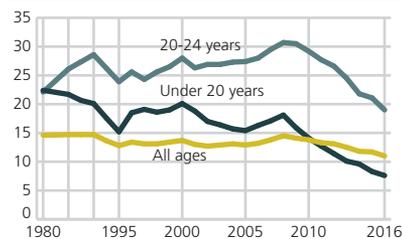
Uptake of the cash-for-care benefit has fallen since it was introduced: only 23 per cent of children of qualifying age were receiving cash for care as of 1 September 2016, compared with 74 per cent on 1 September 1999.

Fewer abortions

Since 1979, women in Norway have been legally entitled to decide for themselves if they want to terminate a pregnancy in the first 12 weeks. The number of abortions peaked at the end of the 1980s, and has since totalled between 14 000 and 16 000 per year, which corresponds to 13–14 per 1 000 women aged 15–49.

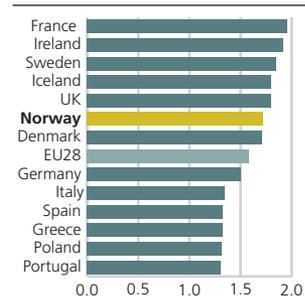
In 2016, 14 600 abortions were performed in Norway, which corresponds to 11 per 1 000 women of childbearing age. The frequency of abortions is highest among women aged 20–29. The number of abortions remained stabled at around 13–14 per 1 000 women for 30 years, but fell to 11 per 1 000 women of childbearing age in 2016. This decline has been particularly observed in the under 25s.

Abortions per 1 000 women of childbearing age (aged 15–49)



Source: Norwegian Institute of Public Health, The Registry of Pregnancy Termination

Total fertility rate in selected countries. 2015



Source: Eurostat.

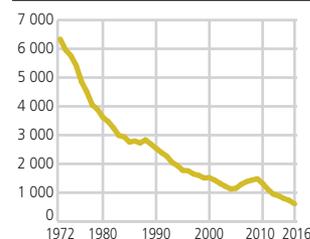
Total fertility rate (TFR)

The average number of children that a woman of childbearing age (15–49 years) will give birth to, assuming that the fertility pattern remains constant and no one dies before the age of 50.

Childlessness

The TFR is a measurement used in relation to women of childbearing age. We will not therefore know the total number of children for a cohort until that cohort has passed the age of fertility. We therefore refer to childlessness among women and men born in 1970.

Number of teenage births (aged 15–19)



Source: www.ssb.no/en/fodte

How many men and women live in Norway?

Population as per 1.1.2018



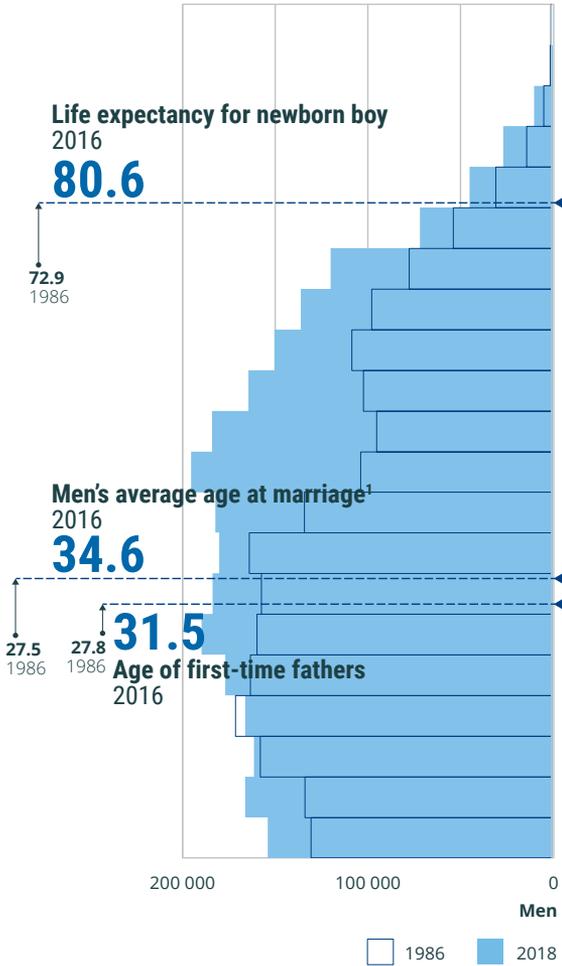
Men

2 668 371

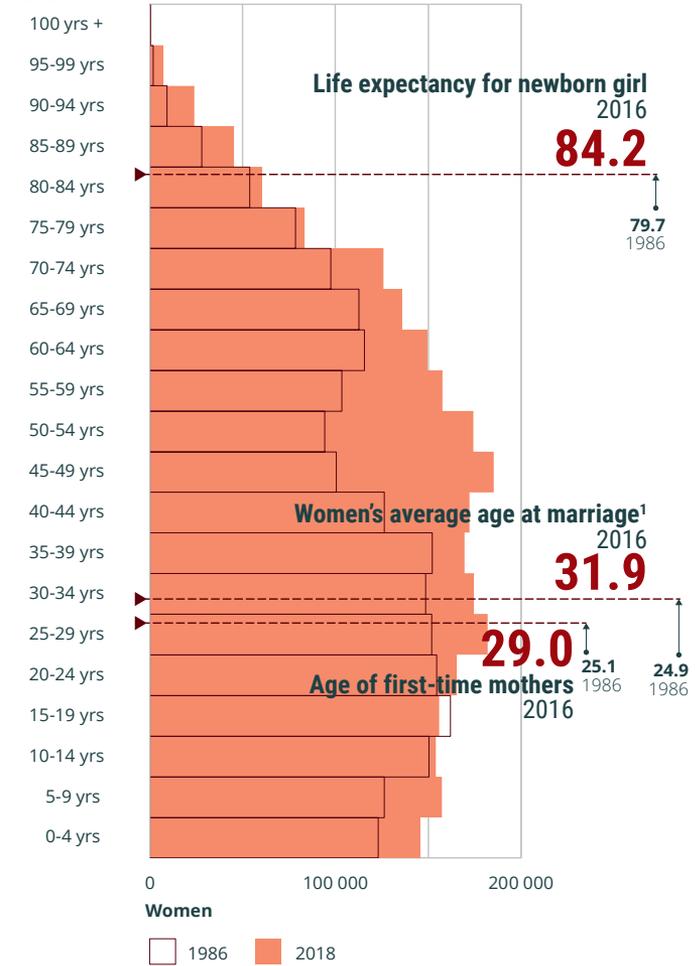
Women



2 627 248



Age groups



Worth noting:

Slightly more boys are born than girls. In the age group 0–4 years, there are 153 917 boys and 145 662 girls.

There are two and a half times as many women as men over the age of 90: 31 905 women and 12 787 men.

Both first-time mothers and fathers are around 3 years younger on average than at the time of marriage.

¹ Observed average age at first marriage.

Sources: www.ssb.no/en/folkemengde, www.ssb.no/en/fodte, www.ssb.no/en/dode, www.ssb.no/en/ekteskap.

What do boys and girls study?

Upper secondary pupils
2016

Girls
123 144



Boys
138 462

Upper secondary education and training. Programme for general studies

Percentage by gender



Upper secondary education and training. Vocational education programme

Percentage by gender



Students in higher education in Norway
2016

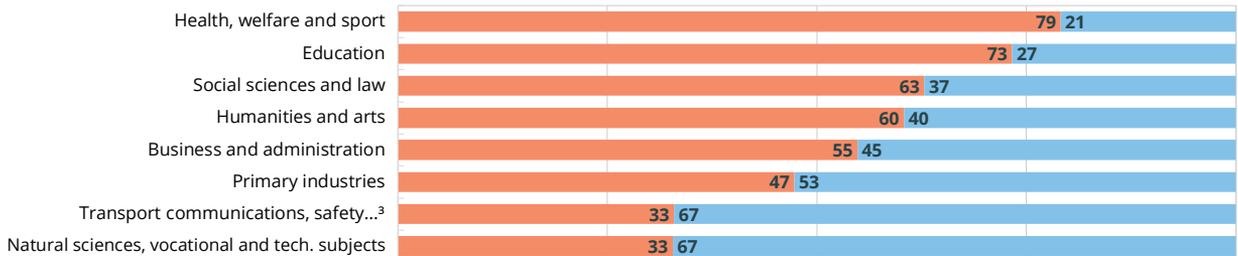
Girls
162 657



Boys
110 570

Students in higher education in Norway, by field of study

Percentage by gender

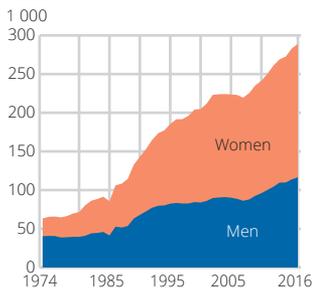


¹ The general studies programmes 'Media and communication' and 'Art, design and architecture' were introduced in autumn 2016 for first year pupils at upper secondary schools. ² The last cohort in 'Media and communication' under the vocational education programme started in autumn 2015. ³ Transport and communications, safety and security and other services.

Sources: www.ssb.no/en/vgogjen, www.ssb.no/en/utuvh.

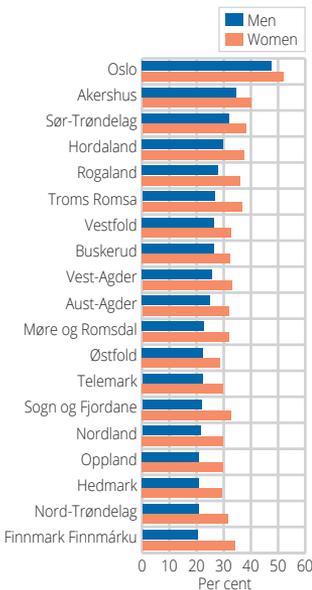
Thirsty for knowledge

Students in higher education in Norway and abroad



Source: www.ssb.no/en/utuvh

Percentage with a completed higher education¹, by county. 2016



¹ Statistics Norway's data on immigrants' education levels is incomplete. As from 2014, imputed values are given for education levels for this group.

Source: www.ssb.no/en/utniv

Upper secondary education: different choices

Around 92 per cent of 16-18-year-olds were in upper secondary education in 2016, with minor differences between boys and girls. While girls are in the majority in general studies, vocational studies are more popular among boys.

In vocational education, boys and girls choose very different programmes. In health care, childhood and youth development, as well as design, arts and crafts, eight out of ten pupils were girls, while building and construction and electricity and electronics were dominated by boys, with a share of more than 90 per cent. Among pupils in general education, the majority were girls, with 56 per cent in 2016. The differences in boys' and girls' study choices in upper secondary education are also reflected in the labour market.

Girls are more likely to complete their upper secondary education than boys: 78 per cent of the girls who enrolled in upper secondary education in 2011 attained qualifications for entry into university or vocational qualifications within five years, compared with just 68 per cent of the boys.

Majority are men in post-secondary vocational education

In 2016, the majority of students in Norwegian post-secondary vocational education were men. Female students in post-secondary vocational education totalled almost 6 100, or 41 per cent. Men and women also choose different fields of education in post-secondary vocational education as well, with women dominating certain fields in 2016. The largest proportion of women was found in the field health, welfare and sports, where 90 per cent of the nearly 3 200 students were women. Business and administration was also popular among female students, who made up 80 per cent of the student population in this field. There was a clear overrepresentation of men in natural sciences, vocational and technical subjects, where 6 300 out of nearly 6 700 students were men. Women accounted for barely 6 per cent.

Wise women

Since the mid-1980s, women have been in the majority in higher education, and today six out of ten students in higher education are women. While 43 per cent of women aged 19–24 were in higher education in 2016, the corresponding figure for 2006 was 37 per cent. The increase among men was just under 4 per cent, from almost 25 per cent in 2006 to 28 per cent in 2016.

The female majority in higher education is not unique to Norway. The international OECD report *Education at a Glance 2017* shows that the majority of students are women in most member countries.

Women also make up the majority (61 per cent) of graduates at universities and university colleges. Fifty-eight per cent of graduates with higher degrees (more than 4 years of higher education) were women in the academic year 2015/2016, and for degrees at a lower level (up to 4 years of university/university college) the

corresponding figure was 63 per cent. Women are also in the majority among students who study abroad (62 per cent). Furthermore, in the academic year 2014/2015, the number of women who attained a doctoral degree in Norway outnumbered men for the first time. In the following year, an almost equal number of doctoral degrees were conferred on men as women.

In the autumn of 2016, female graduates were in the majority in all the major fields of education apart from natural sciences, vocational and technical subjects, and transport, communications and safety and security services, where around two out of three graduates were men. The largest proportion of female graduates was found in health, welfare and sports, as well as in education, where 81 and 73 per cent were women respectively.

More women than men have attained a higher education

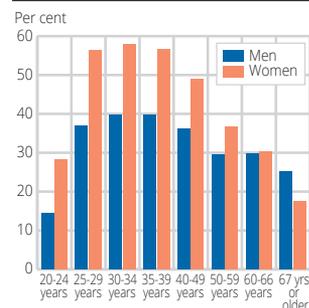
A greater proportion of men and women have been educated at universities and university colleges. In 2016, the proportion was 33 per cent. The proportion of women with a higher education (37 per cent) was greater than the corresponding proportion for men (29 per cent), but this varies depending on the level of education. The proportion whose highest level of completed education was a lower level degree (maximum of four years higher education) remained higher for women than men in 2016, with 28 and 19 per cent respectively.

However, in 2016, there were still more men than women whose highest level of completed education was a higher degree (more than four years), with 10 and 9 per cent respectively. Nevertheless, since 2004, more women than men have attained a higher degree. If this trend continues, the number of women with a higher degree will eventually surpass the number of men.

The proportion of women and men with a higher education varies depending on what part of the country they live. The proportion of women with a higher education is greater than for men in all counties. In Oslo, 48 per cent of men and 52 per cent of women had a higher education in 2016, making this the county with the highest proportions for both sexes. In Oslo, Akershus and Sør-Trøndelag, the proportion of men with a higher education is more than 30 per cent. For women, more than 30 per cent had completed higher education in all counties except Østfold (20 per cent). The county with the lowest proportion of men with a higher education is Finnmark, where just 20 per cent of men have attained a higher education. This is also where the widest gender gap is observed, with a disparity of 14 percentage points in favour of women.

Except Oslo – where the proportions are the same – all counties have a larger proportion of men than women who have post-secondary vocational education as their highest level of completed education. The disparity is small, however, as relatively few have post-secondary vocational education as their highest level of completed education, with 4 per cent of men and 2 per cent of women in 2016.

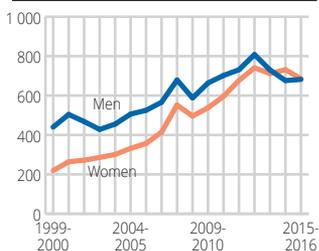
Percentage of women and men with a higher education in different age groups. 2016



¹ Statistics Norway's data on immigrants' education levels is incomplete. As from 2014, imputed values are given for education levels for this group.

Source: www.ssb.no/en/utniv

Number of completed doctoral degrees/research-based education¹

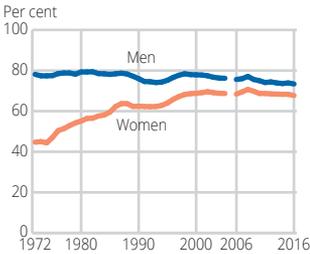


¹ Includes degrees completed in Norway with a duration of 2 years or more.

Source: www.ssb.no/en/hugjen

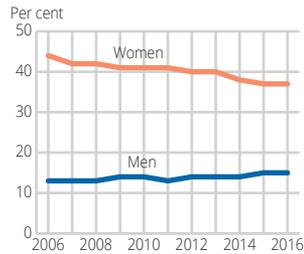
Equality in the workplace

Percentage of women and men in the labour force¹



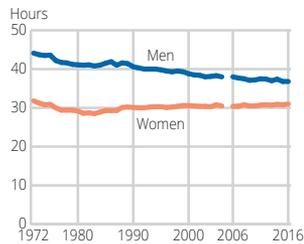
Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

Percentage of women and men in part-time work¹



Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

Average actual working hours per week¹



Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

¹ The Labour Force Survey (LFS) was subject to major changes in January 2006. The age limit for inclusion in the LFS was lowered from 16 to 15 years, and the age definition was changed from age at the end of the year to age on the relevant reference date.

Gender parity in labour force participation is one of the most important criteria for gender equality. It is important for the economy, for men and women's economic independence, and for equality in family life. Although the disparities in labour force participation have levelled out over the years, many aspects of working life still face gender equality challenges. For example, a larger proportion of women work part time compared to men. In addition, women and men still tend to work in different sectors and industries, and systematic differences can still be observed in women's and men's career choices.

High labour force participation for women and men

More than 2.7 million people aged 15–74 make up the working population in Norway. The gender distribution is relatively even, with 53 per cent for men and 47 per cent for women. In the working-age population (aged 15–74), 68 per cent of women and 74 per cent of men were in employment in 2016.

Participation in the labour force increased significantly among women between the beginning of the 1970s and the end of the 1980s, but remained fairly stable for men. In the 1990s, the proportion in the labour force rose for both sexes, before falling again after 2008. This decline was mainly a result of the increase in young people staying in education and the growing number of pensioners. Along with its Nordic neighbours, Norway has one of the highest proportions of women and men in the labour force in the world.

Fall in proportion of women working part time

One of the main gender disparities in working life is the number of hours worked. In Norway, 37 per cent of employed women work part time, which is one of the highest proportions in the Nordic countries. However, the proportion of women who work part time has fallen over the past ten years, and more and more women are now choosing to work full time.

Women's average weekly working hours began to fall in the early 1970s, from 31.8 hours in 1972 to 28.5 hours in 1983. They subsequently increased until 1990, and have since remained stable at about 30 hours, just slightly less than in 1972. During the same period, working hours for men decreased, from 44 hours a week in 1972 to 37 hours in 2016. However, this does not mean that more men are working part time, but that fewer are working extra-long hours. The shortening of the working week from 40 to 37.5 hours at the end of the 1980s has also impacted on the number of hours worked, particularly for men.

Majority of unemployed are men

Over the last ten years, unemployment in Norway has fluctuated between 2.5 and 4.7 per cent, which is low compared with many other European countries. However, from 2014 to 2016, unemployment rose, mostly for men and slightly less for women. In 2016, 5.4 per cent of men and 4 per cent of women were unemployed.

Cyclical fluctuations and the economic situation in general impact unemployment levels. Historically, male-dominated industries such as manufacturing and the oil industry are more exposed to such fluctuations. Many women work in the public sector, which is less affected by cyclical fluctuations.

Big difference between public and private sector

Many women who went to work in the 1970s and 1980s were employed in the public sector, which was experiencing a period of strong growth partly due to the expansion of health and care services. Today, 70 per cent of public sector employees are women. This means that almost half of all working women are employed in the public sector. In the private sector, however, over 60 per cent of employees are men, and only two out of ten men work in the public sector.

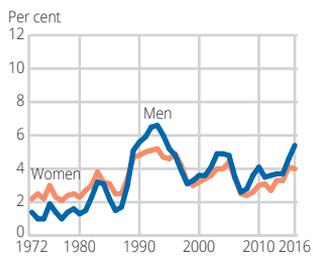
Still male and female professions

The gendered labour market, where women and men choose to work in different sectors and occupations, can also lead to major disparities in pay, part-time work, working environment and career opportunities.

In Norway, half of all women in employment work in the ten most female-dominated occupations, while only one-quarter of men in employment work in the ten most male-dominated occupations. This indicates that women tend to work in many of the low-paid occupations, including the health sector.

Despite the persistent imbalance in men's and women's education and choices of occupation, a shift has been observed in recent years towards more women choosing traditionally male-dominated lines of study and occupations. However, there has been less evidence of a corresponding trend among the men.

Percentage unemployed



Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

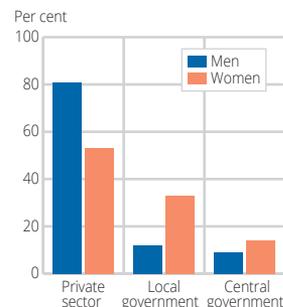
Labour force is the sum of those in employment and the unemployed.

Employed refers to persons engaged in paid work.

Unemployed refers to persons without paid work, but who are seeking such work and can start immediately.

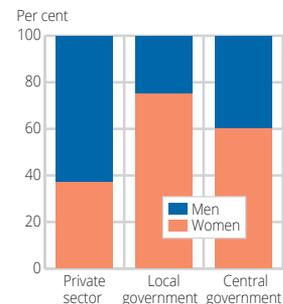
Working hours: Full time is defined as a minimum of 37 hours a week, or 32–36 hours when stated that this is full time. Part time is therefore less than 32 hours, or 32–36 hours when stated that this is not full time.

Percentage of women and men in employment, by sector. 2016



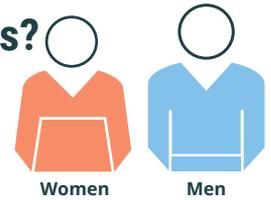
Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

Gender distribution of employees in public and private sector. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

What are the typical gender-dominated occupations?



In Norway, half of all female employees¹ work in the ten most female-dominated occupations. Only one-quarter of employed men work in the ten most male-dominated occupations.

The five most female-dominated occupations². 2016

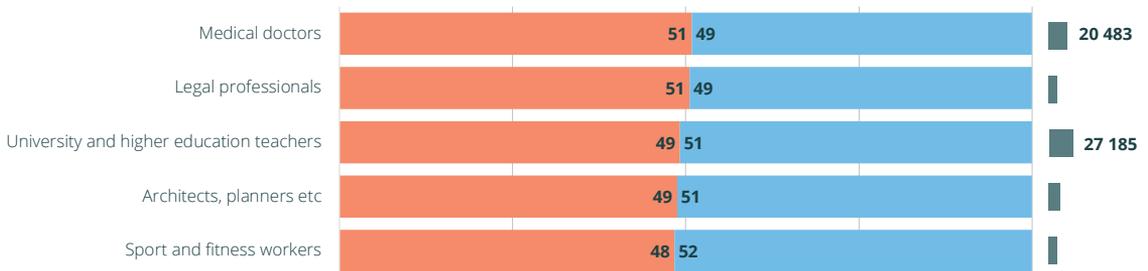
Percentage by gender

Employees¹, total



The five most gender-balanced occupations². 2016

Percentage by gender



The five most male-dominated occupations². 2016

Percentage by gender



¹ The figure only shows figures for employees, i.e. not those who are self-employed.

² Only occupational groups with over 3 000 employees are shown. Occupations are categorised at a three-digit level.

Source: www.ssb.no/en/regsys (StatBank table 11411, www.ssb.no/en/table/11411).

Wages

Which occupations have the widest gender pay disparity?



Average monthly earnings in NOK for all sectors. 2017

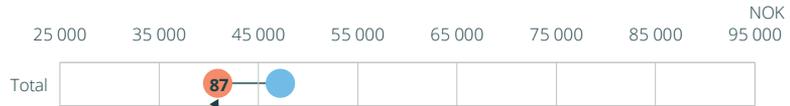


Women
40 860



Men
47 140

Women's average monthly earnings are 87 per cent that of men's.



Top 10 occupations¹ with the highest wage differential in men's favour



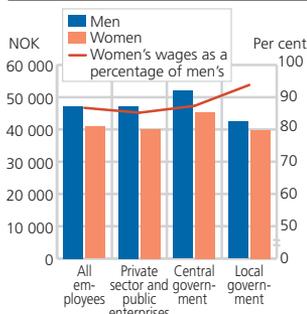
Top 10 occupations¹ with the highest wage differential in women's favour



¹ StatBank table 11418 (www.ssb.no/en/table/11418) gives average earnings for 336 different occupations. Here, all occupations with more than 5 000 employees have been selected and ranked according to the gender wage disparity. Source: www.ssb.no/en/lonnansatt.

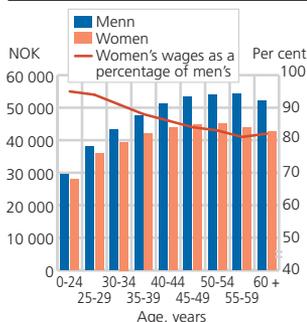
Wages

Average monthly earnings per FTE and women's monthly earnings as a percentage of men's. All employees, by sector. 2017



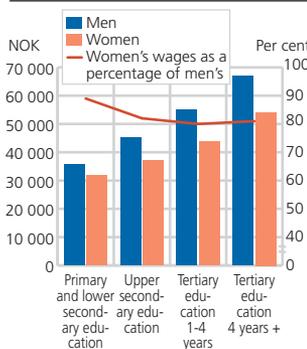
Source: www.ssb.no/en/lonnansatt

Women's earnings as a percentage of men's. All employees, by age group. 2017



Source: www.ssb.no/en/lonnansatt

Women's earnings as a percentage of men's. All employees, by level of education. 2017



Source: www.ssb.no/en/lonnansatt

Equal pay for equal work?

Equal pay can be defined as equal pay for equal work. But what does 'equal work' or 'work of equal value' really mean? Women and men work different hours, have different educational backgrounds and work in different occupations and industries. However, even when these factors are taken into account there are still some disparities, and this is partly due to the large pay gap between the public and private sector.

Pay gap continues

On average, women earn NOK 87 for every NOK 100 earned by men, in both part-time and full-time jobs. Women's and men's wages have risen steadily since 2000, but the increase for women has been slightly higher than for men. Women's pay as a percentage of men's varies over time, but has seen an increase from 83.5 per cent in 2000 to 86.7 per cent in 2017.

On average, men's monthly earnings were NOK 6 280 more than women's in 2017. While the average monthly earnings for male employees were NOK 47 140, the corresponding figure for women was NOK 40 860. If we only consider full-time employees, the pay level was somewhat higher for both men and women, and the pay gap was smaller than for all employees as a whole. Full-time male employees earned NOK 49 230 in 2017, while the corresponding figure for full-time female employees was NOK 43 370 (including various additional allowances and bonuses). Full-time female employees earned 88 per cent of their male counterparts.

Additional allowances and overtime – a male privilege?

The gender pay gap is widened further due to the variable additional allowances and bonuses that men often receive, and their higher income from overtime work.

Women's basic monthly salaries were 91 per cent of men's basic monthly salaries in 2017, regardless of contracted working hours. However, when variable additional allowances and bonuses are included, women's pay falls to 88 per cent of men's pay. The disparity is even greater when overtime payments are included, with women's pay falling to 87 per cent of that of men's.

Wider pay gap in private sector

The gender pay gap varies by sector, industry, occupation, level of education and age. When considering the public and private sectors separately, the pay gap is widest within the private sector, which also has the highest number of employees. In the private sector, the women's share of men's wages was 85 per cent in 2017. In the public sector, we can break down the figures into central government and local government. In central government, the women's share of men's wages was 87 per cent, and the corresponding figure in local government was 94 per cent.

Pay gap increases with age

Both women's and men's wages increase with age. This 'age effect' is a result of seniority and education, but is far greater for men than for women. In the under 29s, women earned 95 per cent of their male counterparts' wages in 2016. The

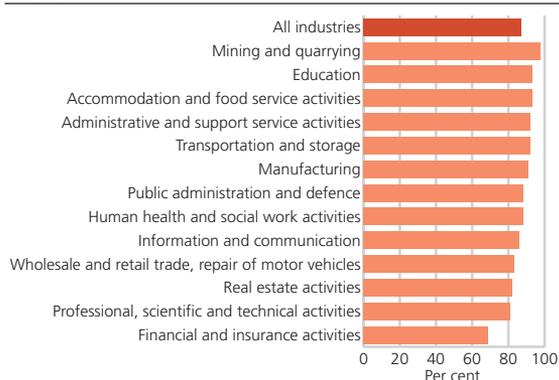
pay gap also steadily increases with age, and women over the age of 55 earn around 20 per cent less than men in the same age group. This can partly be linked to generational disparities in education and career choices, and the fact that having children used to have a greater impact on women's pay and skills development than it does today.

Pay gap narrowest in oil extraction

The pay gap varies considerably from industry to industry. In the financial services industry, where the pay level is relatively high, women earn the least compared with men. In 2017, women earned 69 per cent of men's pay in this industry.

If we exclude the construction industry, where the number of female employees is low, the gap is narrowest among teaching staff, with women earning 93 per cent of that of men in 2017. Two-thirds of teaching staff are women.

Women's monthly earnings as a percentage of men's. All employees in selected industries. 2017



Source: www.ssb.no/en/lonnansatt.

Does 'female education' pay?

Women and men still choose subjects that are traditionally associated with a particular gender. For instance, women tend to choose the arts and humanities, teacher training and health and care services, while men choose economics and technical subjects. The Norwegian labour market is also extremely gender-divided – partly as a result of the different educational choices – with many industries dominated by either a female or male workforce. This also has a major impact on the gender pay gap.

Perhaps surprisingly, the greatest disparity in the ratio between women's and men's wages is observed in the group with a university/university college education of less than five years. This is related to the fact that women and men in this group work in very different occupations and industries. While the men are often found in the private sector working as engineers, technicians or sales representatives, women are more likely to be found in the public sector as kindergarten teachers, primary and lower secondary teachers or nurses. There is also a wide pay gap among those with a university/university college education of more than four years. A higher education is therefore no guarantee of gender equality in terms of pay.

The wage statistics define wages as gross pay before tax.

Monthly earnings as a full-time equivalent (FTE)

FTE is a method of calculation that enables comparisons between part-time and full-time employees' earnings. The monthly earnings of part-time employees are converted to what they would earn if they worked full time. Unless otherwise specified, this document refers to FTE monthly earnings.

Wages or income?

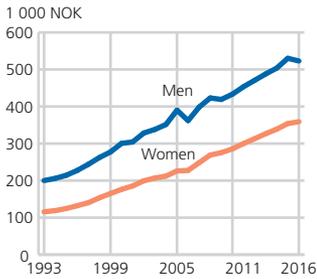
How much do you earn? Is it the amount on your monthly pay slip or your total annual income? In everyday language, wages and income are often used interchangeably, but a clear distinction is made between the two in the statistics:

Income is a broader term than wages. In addition to income from work, this term includes capital income and benefits such as housing allowance, child benefit, unemployment benefit, pensions, social assistance etc.

Wages represent payments received for work performed. Wages are often referred to according to specific periods of time, such as hourly wages, weekly wages or monthly earnings. Monthly earnings is the main term in the wage statistics. In order to make comparisons, all types of wages are converted to monthly earnings in the wage statistics.

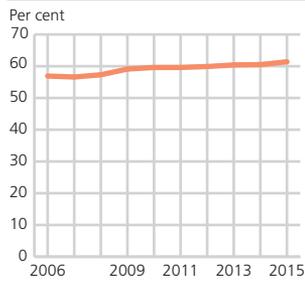
Income

Average gross income



Source: www.ssb.no/en/selvangivelse

Women's income from work as a percentage of men's



Source: www.ssb.no/en/ifhus

Women's income 69 per cent of men's

In 2016, the average gross income for an adult amounted to NOK 447 000. Women's average income was NOK 359 000 and the corresponding figure for men was NOK 522 900. Gross income is income before tax. As shown on the previous page, women's monthly earnings were 86 per cent of men's in 2016. Women's annual gross income thus constitutes just 69 per cent of men's. The ratio between women's and men's income has remained relatively stable in recent years, but the gap is slowly narrowing. In 1984 for example women's income was just 47 per cent of men's.

Gender gap largely due to disparities in income from work

The gender disparities in income are still much greater than the disparities in wages, primarily because men tend to have a higher income from work than women. Income from work and wages are defined slightly differently: wages refer to payments received for work performed during a specific period of time, for instance per hour, while income from work is the sum of income earned as an employee or self-employed during the calendar year. The gender disparities in income are also partly a result of factors such as men having more capital income, fewer women in the labour force and more women working part time. The fact that the majority of pensioners receiving the basic pension are women is also a contributing factor.

Men have more capital income

More than two-thirds of both women's and men's gross income stems from income from work. Men receive a larger proportion of capital income, while a larger part of women's income is made up of National Insurance benefits.

Capital income includes interest payments, share dividends and other capital income during a calendar year. There are significant gender disparities in capital income. In 2015, women received a total of NOK 32.6 billion in capital income, while the corresponding figure for men was over NOK 100 billion. Women's capital income is therefore 32 per cent of men's.

Unlike income, wealth is more difficult to link to an individual member of a family or household. Who is registered as the owner of an asset can sometimes be arbitrary, and traditional attitudes and family power structures may also play a role.

Women receive more in taxable and tax-free transfers

The National Insurance Scheme is a core part of the Norwegian welfare society and provides financial security to those who for various reasons are unable to support themselves through paid work. A distinction is made here between taxable transfers, such as the state retirement pension, parental benefit and sickness benefit, and tax-free transfers, such as child benefit, housing allowance, student grants, social assistance, other benefits and cash for care.

More women than men receive both taxable and tax-free transfers. Women are also in the majority among recipients of benefits from the National Insurance Scheme such as retirement pension and disability benefit. One of the reasons for this is that women live longer than men. Women are also more likely to receive sickness benefit and parental benefit than men. The only benefit that has more male recipients is unemployment benefit. Apart from social assistance and other tax-free transfers, women also receive more tax-free transfers than men.

Smallest gender gap in the north

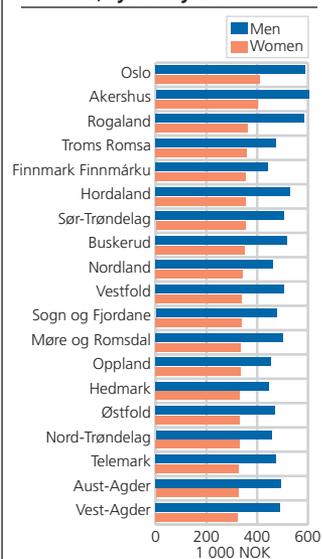
Both the income level and the gender disparity ratio vary between and within municipalities. Women in Oslo had the highest average gross income in 2016, with NOK 410 200, while women in Vest-Agder had the lowest, with NOK 325 300.

The gender disparity in income is greatest in Rogaland and least in Finnmark. This applies to both absolute values and ratios between the sexes. Men's incomes in Rogaland were NOK 220 900 higher than their female counterparts, while in Finnmark the difference was NOK 87 100. The counties with the smallest disparities in income ratios were Finnmark, Troms and Hedmark, and the greatest disparities were observed in Vest-Agder, Aust-Agder and Rogaland.

Shared finances

When describing how different incomes are distributed between women and men, consideration should be given to the fact that many people who live together in the same household share their income and expenses. The income earned by one person or more may also be shared with others who do not have their own income, such as children, adolescents and household members who stay at home to fulfil domestic tasks and undertake care responsibilities. In addition, there are several types of household or family-related income that are only registered on one recipient in the household (such as social assistance, housing allowance and child benefit). Married couples are also free to choose who is registered as the owner of capital income and interest expenses. These are important points to bear in mind when examining macro figures on how different types of income are distributed between women and men.

Average gross income for women and men, by county. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/selvangivelse

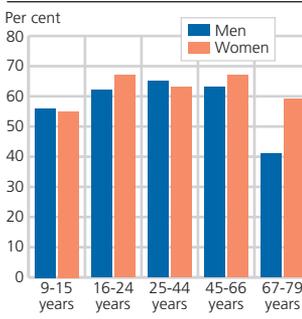
Women are culture vultures

Percentage of women and men attending various cultural events in the last 12 months. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/kulturbar

Percentage of women and men attending a concert in the last 12 months, by age. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/kulturbar

Women attend cultural events such as going to the theatre, operas, ballets, art exhibitions and libraries to a greater extent than men. Men are most often to be found at sporting events, however there are no major gender disparities when it comes to going to the cinema, cultural festivals, museums and concerts.

Women of all ages attend more cultural events than men, but growing numbers of men are visiting the theatre and going to see musicals and shows; 43 per cent in 2016 compared with just 38 per cent in 1991. In 2008, the figure peaked at 49 per cent for men. The corresponding figures for women are 57 per cent in 2016 and 51 per cent in 1991.

Opera lovers the oldest, cinema goes the youngest

Visitor numbers at operas are steadily increasing. In 2016, 9 per cent of women and 7 per cent of men attended such a show, compared to 6 and 4 per cent in 1991. The majority of these were the more elderly part of the population, with 15 and 18 per cent aged 67–79 in 2016.

In 2016, seven out of ten women reported going to the cinema in the preceding 12 months, and the corresponding figure for men was the same. The cinema is particularly popular among the younger age groups, with 93 per cent of women and 89 per cent of men aged 16–24 taking a trip to the cinema in 2016. Despite the increase in the proportion of both women and men going to the cinema, overall visitor numbers have fallen considerably in the last ten years. The average age of cinema goers is 37; the lowest of all attendees at cultural events.

Technical museums for men, art for women

Visitor numbers for museums in Norway saw little change from 1991 to 2016, with 45 and 43 per cent for men and women respectively in 2016. Whilst men more often visit technical museums, women choose art. The level of interest in natural history and archaeological museums is the same for both sexes.

Thirty-one per cent of men and 40 per cent of women attended an art exhibition in 2016. This gender disparity has remained constant since the start of the 1990s.

More women visit the library and more men attend sporting events

Fewer people are visiting public libraries than before, and the majority of visitors are women. Fifty-four per cent of women visited a library in 2016, compared with 39 per cent of men. The highest proportions of users are children and young people, with 75 per cent of boys and 59 per cent of girls aged 9–15 visiting a library in a typical year. Visitors to libraries average 4.3 trips a year. Women aged 67–79 are the most frequent users, with an average of 11 visits each year.

More men (59 per cent) than women (52 per cent) attend sporting events. In 2016, this was the case for all age groups except the youngest. Men attend more football matches than women, who are more likely to be found watching a handball match.

TV and radio less popular

Despite the increase in access to 24-hour television channels, we are not spending any more time watching TV. For both women and men, the proportion watching TV on a typical day fell to 67 per cent in 2016 from approximately 80 per cent in 1991. News broadcasts are the most commonly watched type of programme, followed by television series, sport and entertainment programmes.

The interest in radio has waned despite a growing number of channels and extended broadcasting times. In 2016, 58 per cent of women and 60 per cent of men listened to the radio on a typical day, compared with 69 and 73 per cent in 1991. Women tuned in to the radio for an average of 74 minutes a day in 2016, and the corresponding figure for men was 81 minutes – a fall from 110 and 103 minutes respectively in 1991.

Women read magazines and books

Eight per cent of women and 2 per cent of men read magazines on a typical day. The number of men and women reading magazines has fallen considerably since the early 1990s, from 27 and 14 per cent respectively. The most avid readers are found in the age group 67–79, where 21 per cent of women and 5 per cent of men read magazines.

More women than men read books; 34 and 16 per cent respectively. Fiction books are the most popular genre with both sexes. Women buy books from book clubs and borrow books from other people more often than men, and men most often buy books in book shops or read books they have received as gifts.

From paper to screen

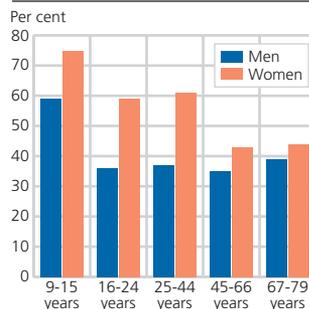
Fewer people are reading printed newspapers than before. In 2016, 40 per cent of women and 37 per cent of men read a newspaper on a typical day. These figures have fallen from 82 and 87 per cent respectively in 1991. On average, we spend around 14 minutes per day reading a printed newspaper; 25 minutes less than in 1991.

The fall in the printed newspaper readership and the time spent reading newspapers is due to the proliferation of other media in the market in recent years. The proportion reading online newspapers has increased in just four years, from 47 per cent of women and 57 per cent of men in 2013 to 51 and 60 per cent in 2016.

Eighty-six per cent of women and 92 per cent of men used the Internet on a typical day in 2016. This is a huge increase from 1997, when the corresponding figures were 3 and 10 per cent. The share of children and young people using the Internet is fairly evenly spread between the sexes. From the age of 25 and over, the proportion of men is the highest. Women and men in the age group 67–79 spend the least time surfing the Internet; 52 per cent of women and 67 per cent of men.

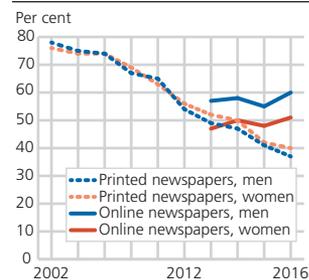
The use of streaming services such as Netflix has seen a marked increase among both women and men. In 2012, 14 per cent of women and 8 per cent of men using video media were users of streaming services. In 2016, this increased to 68 and 72 per cent respectively across all age groups.

Percentage of women and men visiting a public library in the last 12 months, by age. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/kulturbar

Percentage of readers of printed newspapers and online newspapers on a typical day, by gender



Source: www.ssb.no/en/kulturbar

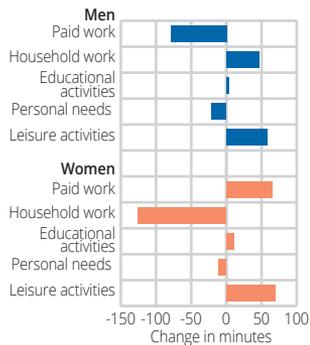
Around the clock

Time spent on different activities on an average day. 16–74 years. 2010



Source: www.ssb.no/en/tidsbruk

Changes in the time spent on main activities from 1971 to 2010. 16–74 years



Source: www.ssb.no/en/tidsbruk

The time-use survey maps people's activities and interaction patterns, and was first undertaken in 1971. It is conducted every ten years, most recently in 2010.

Over the last forty years, major changes have occurred in the way in which women and men spend their time. Less time is devoted to household work, meaning house work, maintenance, family care and shopping and services. While women aged 16–74 spent nearly six hours per day on household work in 1971, they spent less than four hours per day on this in 2010.

Most of the time spent on household work is taken up by house work, and this is primarily what women now devote less time to than before. In the same period, the time that men spend on household work has increased by approximately three quarters of an hour, to three hours in 2010. This increase is mainly due to the fact that compared to previously, more men of all ages now take part in this kind of work.

Time for paid work

From 1971 to 2010, the proportion of women who perform paid work on an average day increased consistently, while the proportion of men decreased. Over the same period, the time spent on paid work on an average day increased for women, from two hours in 1971 to three hours in 2010. This is due to the increasing employment rate among women.

On average, men spent a little more than four hours per day on paid work in 2010, a decrease of one hour and 20 minutes since 1971. Some of the decrease is attributable to the shorter working hours that were introduced in the 1970s and 1980s, as well as the increase in the number of people enrolled in education in 2010 compared to 1971.

Over a 24-hour period, women spent ten hours and 24 minutes on their personal needs such as sleep, personal care and meals in 2010. In 1971, they spent ten hours and 35 minutes. Men spent ten hours of every 24-hour period on these activities in 2010, a decline of 21 minutes from 1971.

Six hours per day for leisure activities

Women and men spend an increasing proportion of their time on leisure activities; more than six hours per day on average in 2010, equal to an increase of more than one hour for both genders since the 1970s.

The daily hours that remain were spent on educational activities, somewhat less than half an hour on average for both women and men in 2010. The amount of time devoted to educational activities has changed little for both genders over the last 40 years.

The responsibility for young children is more equally shared

Mothers of young children (children aged 0–6) devote more time to household work and less time to paid work than what fathers of young children do. Nevertheless, the gender disparities during this stage of life have become significantly smaller over the years, since fathers of young children spend more time on household work and less on paid work than previously, while the opposite trend has been observed for the mothers.

In 1980, the time that fathers spent doing ordinary housework amounted to 21 per cent of that of the mothers. In 2010, this proportion was 55 per cent. For fathers, the time spent on family care amounted to 64 per cent of the time spent by mothers, compared to 44 per cent in 1980. The change is due to an increase in fathers' input in this area, while the figures for mothers have remained relatively stable.

Considerable differences remain between mothers and fathers when it comes to maintenance work. These tend to be typically male activities, and no increase has occurred in the mothers' input in this area since the early 1980s. On average, fathers of young children (aged 0–6) spend nearly four times as long as mothers on such activities. In total, however, far less time is devoted to maintenance work than to housework and family care.

Time use among children and adolescents ...

Children aged 9–15 had well over an hour more leisure time than the population in general; eight hours for boys and 7½ hours for girls in 2010. Among the boys, two hours and two minutes of this time was spent on computer games or other computer and internet use, compared to one hour and five minutes for the girls.

From 2000 to 2010, the leisure time of children aged 9–15 has declined slightly, while they spend more time on educational activities; this applies to both genders. Girls aged 9–15 spend more time than boys on household work and personal needs, and thereby have 39 minutes less than boys to spend on leisure activities on an average day.

... and among the oldest

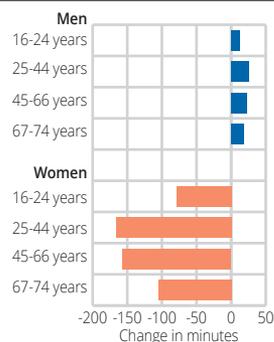
Many of today's elderly (67–74 years) lead active lives. Women are more socially active than men, while men spend a lot of time helping others. The most marked change since 1971 for this age group has occurred in the area of household work. In 2010, women spent four hours and 32 minutes per day on this, a decline of one hour. The men spent four hours and ten minutes on such tasks, one hour and 40 minutes more than in 1971.

Over the last 40 years, the amount of time spent on leisure-related activities has also changed for the 67–74-year-olds. Most of the increase in leisure hours enjoyed by the elderly appears to have been converted into TV viewing. The time spent in front of the TV has increased by one and a half hours since 1971. The 67–74-year-olds watch TV nearly three hours every day, and men watch 40 minutes more TV than women. This is approximately one hour more than the 45–66-year-olds, and one and a half hours more than the 25–44-year-olds.

Less time for household work than other Europeans

Compared to other European countries, Norwegian women and men aged 20–74 spend more time on leisure activities and less time on household work. Norwegian women spent less time on meals and personal care compared to women in other countries, but were among those who spent most time on paid work and education. The same applied to Norwegian men.

Changes in time spent on house work from 1971 to 2010, by age



Source: www.ssb.no/en/tidsbruk

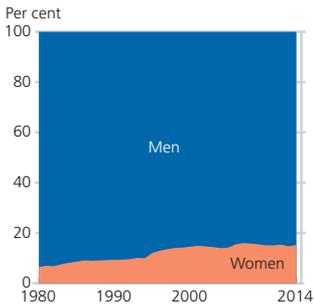
Time spent on main activities on an average day



Source: www.ssb.no/en/tidsbruk

Offenders and victims of violence

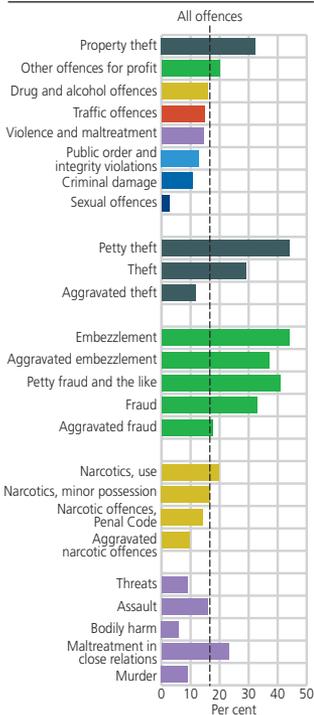
Sanctions for crimes, by gender¹



¹ Of all for whom gender is stated.

Source: Sanctions, NOS/Criminal statistics 1980-2001. StatBank table 10623

Proportion of women among persons charged for selected types of main offences. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/lovbrudde. StatBank table 09417

The proportion of female perpetrators varies by offence, time and age

The majority of perpetrators for virtually all types of offences are men. This notwithstanding, women have accounted for one-quarter of all sanctioned persons in recent years.

The proportion of female perpetrators varies considerably for the various types of offences, as well as with the type of judicial authority and the period of time from which the statistics are drawn. For example, if we exclude all sanctioned persons whose main offence is a traffic offence, the proportion of women falls to under 19 per cent. If we go further back in time, for example to the early 1980s, the proportion of women among those sanctioned for criminal offences was significantly lower, especially for serious crimes.

Over the last ten years the number of children and adolescents charged has declined markedly, for both genders. For both men and women, however, the majority of persons charged are still in the age group 18–20 years. Among the very youngest, the gender disparities are minor, but starting from the late teens and into the twenties, the proportion of men charged with an offence increases.

Largest proportion of women for the least serious offences

In real numbers, most of the offenders are caught for traffic offences and drug and alcohol offences, and this applies to women and men. Among women, however, nearly as many are charged with property theft.

In general, we can see that the proportion of women among those who are charged and sanctioned is highest for the least serious offences, and that this proportion falls as the degree of seriousness increases. This applies especially to thefts and other offences for profit, but also to narcotic offences. The proportion of women is also higher in cases involving less serious assault than in those of more grievous bodily harm. In offences of violence, threats, maltreatment in close relations and murder are exceptions to this general picture.

The proportion of women is above average for theft – especially petty theft from shops, for which women account for approximately 40 per cent of those charged. Document and ID offences, embezzlement and fraud are types of offences with a relatively high proportion of female perpetrators.

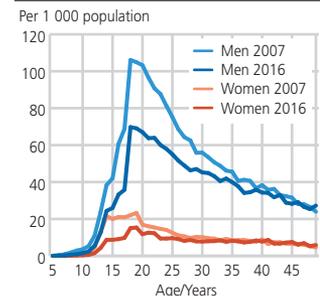
Still few women in prison

One in every ten new imprisonments are of a woman. However, women tend to serve shorter prison sentences than men. On an average day, women thus account for only 5–6 per cent of all prisoners, and this proportion has remained stable over the last 15 years.

Less youth violence, but more reported abuse of women and children

In all previous living conditions surveys and statistics on criminal proceedings in the judicial system, the proportion of both perpetrators and victims of violence in

Persons charged with offences by gender and age. 2007 and 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/lovbrudde. StatBank table 09415

general has been far larger in the younger age groups than in the older ones, and this applies to men and women alike. In recent years, however, there has been far less violence among young people, especially among young men, who in previous statistics was the group clearly most exposed to violence.

From the 1980s until today, the number of sexual offences reported to the police has increased significantly. Since 2005, there has also been a rise in the number of reports of maltreatment in close relations. A total of 10 000 victims of sexual offences and domestic abuse were registered in 2016. Of these, 7 350 were women and 2 650 were men, primarily young boys.

Equal exposure to violence ...

Today, approximately equal proportions of women and men are registered as victims of violence, threats and other maltreatment. In the last living conditions survey from 2015, approximately 2 per cent of women and men reported to have been exposed to at least one violent incident over the last year. The largest proportion, 5 per cent, was found among men in the age group 16–24 years. Among women, the largest proportion of victims of violence was found in the age group 25–44 years, with just over 3 per cent.

... but still differences in the types of violence

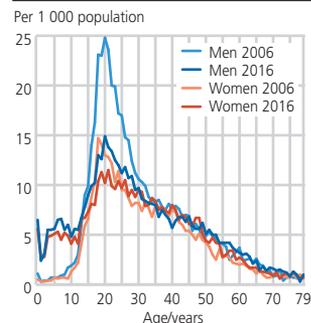
According to the living conditions surveys, violence against men more frequently occurs in public places, at night time, during weekends, and by someone under the influence of alcohol or drugs. In addition, a far larger proportion of violent incidents involving men are perpetrated by someone who is a complete stranger to the victim. A large proportion of the cases of violence against women are perpetrated in workplaces or in private homes and by someone not under the influence of alcohol or drugs.

As regards the victims of violent offences that are reported to the police, men account for a far larger proportion of those who have suffered bodily harm (83 per cent) than of victims of less serious assault (61 per cent) and threats (56 per cent). Women, on the other hand, are strongly overrepresented among victims of sexual offences (82 per cent) and maltreatment in close relations (64 per cent). Close to half (45 per cent) of all murder victims over the last twenty-year period have been women.

Fewer, but still many women experience fear of violence in their local environment

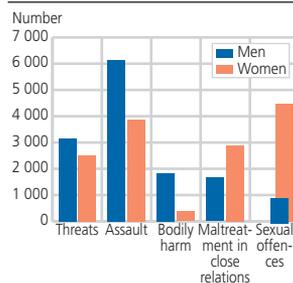
The proportion of the adult population that fears violence and threats in their home area has been halved since the 1990s. In the last living conditions survey, however, 16 per cent of all women aged 16–24 reported to have experienced this recently. Among men in the same age group, this applied to just over 2 per cent. Although the gender disparities are still extensive, there is now a far clearer connection between the perceived fear of and exposure to violence in the home area.

Victims (persons) of violence and maltreatment. Reported 2006 and 2016



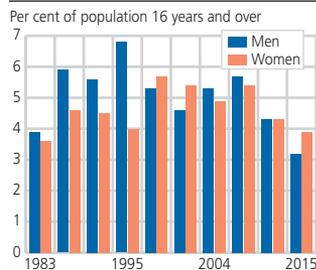
Source: www.ssb.no/en/lovbruddo. StatBank table 11624

Victims (persons) of offences reported to the police, by selected types of main offences. Reported 2016



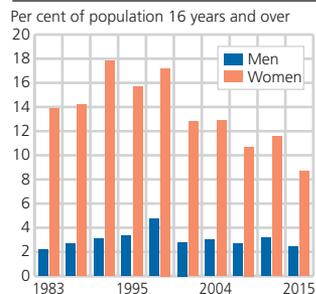
Source: www.ssb.no/en/lovbruddo. StatBank table 08638

Exposed to violence or threats of violence over the last 12 months



Source: www.ssb.no/en/vold. StatBank table 04621

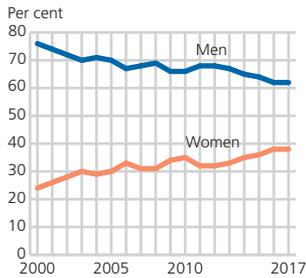
Feared violence or threats in their home area



Source: www.ssb.no/en/vold. StatBank table 04621

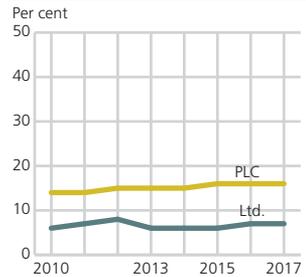
Who decides?

Gender distribution among managers



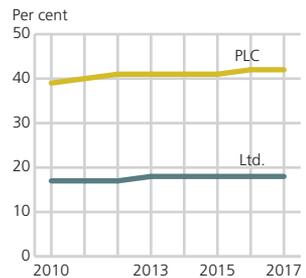
Source: www.ssb.no/en/aku

Proportion of female board chairs in Ltd. and PLC



Source: www.ssb.no/en/styre

Proportion of female board members in Ltd. and PLC



Source: www.ssb.no/en/styre

From a gender equality perspective, it is essential that both women and men have the opportunity to influence society and to be equally represented when important decisions are made. This applies to matters such as access to positions in working life and industry, in organisations and representation in elections and elected bodies, as well as in other arenas where power is exercised.

More female managers

Despite the fact that women now make up 47 per cent of the labour force, they are still in the minority in managerial positions. In 2016, 38 per cent of all managers were women. This is a significantly larger proportion than fifteen years ago. In 2001, women accounted for only 26 per cent of all managers.

Men at the top

Although the gender balance among managers in general has improved, men continue to dominate at the very top. Only one in every four senior managers were women in 2016, and eight in every ten CEOs were men. This male dominance at the top has remained stable over the last ten years.

Is the public sector more women-friendly?

The proportion of women in managerial positions is highest in occupations and industries in the public sector, especially education and health, where more than 70 per cent of the managers are women. This large proportion of female managers is associated with the fact that in general, most women are employed in the public sector.

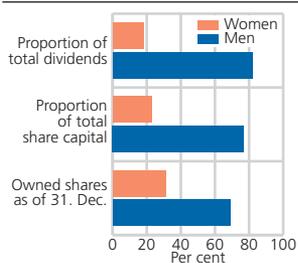
Male-dominated boardrooms

Much of the power and influence in society is found in corporate boardrooms. Until the introduction in 2008 of the Gender Quota Act, which required the boards of public limited companies (PLCs) to have at least 40 per cent women members, the boardrooms were largely the preserve of men. In 2003 (when the law was passed), 91 per cent of all board members in PLCs were men, and 97 per cent of all board chairs were men. Since the Act came into force, the proportion of women on these boards has remained stable at around 40 per cent. The proportion of women board representatives in Norwegian limited companies, on the other hand, amounted to 16 per cent in 2017, and this proportion has remained stable over many years.

Ltd/PLC

A limited company (Ltd) can have one or more owners, but the shareholders can be a closed group, where the shares are not offered to the general public. The share capital must be at least NOK 30 000. In a public limited company (PLC), on the other hand, the public can purchase shares, and PLCs therefore tend to have many owners. The share capital must amount to at least NOK 1 million. A PLC must also have a CEO, a board with at least three members and at least 40 per cent of each gender represented among the board members.

Distribution of shares, share capital and dividends. 2016

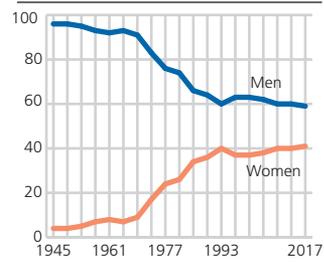


Source: www.ssb.no/en/aksjer

Men own more financial capital

A great deal of power and influence is also acquired through ownership and management of financial capital, i.e. money, shares or property, that can be invested to yield a financial return. Men own more financial capital than women. Of a total of NOK 1 272 billion of income from work in 2016, NOK 782 billion was paid to men, a proportion of 62 per cent. Of total capital income, such as share dividends and interest payments, men received 75 per cent.

Gender distribution among members of the Storting

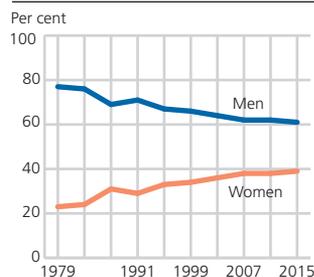


Source: www.ssb.no/en/valg

More women in the Storting and in local councils

From 1945 until the end of the 1960s, very few women were represented in the Storting and local councils. From the late 1960s, however, the proportion of women rose significantly, from less than 10 per cent in 1969 to 40 per cent in 1993. Since then and until the last elections, the proportion of women in the Storting and local councils has fluctuated at around 40 per cent. After the election in 2017, the Sámi Parliament encompassed 44 per cent women. This was partly due to the fact that the Sámi Parliament has the right to decide that each gender must form at least 40 per cent of the party list of proposed candidates.

Proportion of men and women in local councils

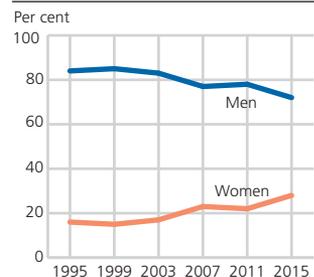


Source: www.ssb.no/en/valg

Mayors are largely men

After the local elections in 2015, 28 per cent of all mayors were women. This means that 307 of the country's 428 municipalities have a male mayor, while 121 municipalities have a woman in this role. The proportion of female mayors has increased in nearly every election since the 1990s, from 16 per cent in 1995. The gender distribution among deputy mayors is somewhat more balanced than among mayors; in 2015, 43 per cent of the deputy mayors were women.

Gender distribution among mayors



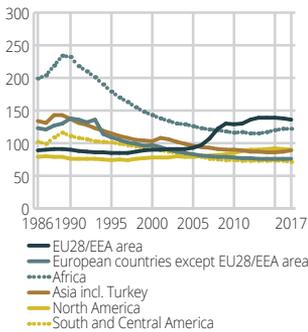
Source: www.ssb.no/en/valg

More women to the polls

Influence can also be gained indirectly by exercising the right to vote in parliamentary and local elections. In the first elections after World War II, election turnout was a little higher among men than among women. By the 1980s, however, this imbalance had been redressed, and in subsequent elections more women than men have made use of their right to vote. In the general elections in 2017, 80 per cent of the women voted, compared to 77 per cent of the men.

More men than women with immigrant background

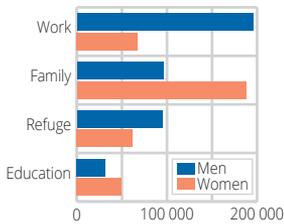
Proportion of immigrant men per 100 immigrant women¹



¹ Excluding Norwegian-born to immigrant parents.

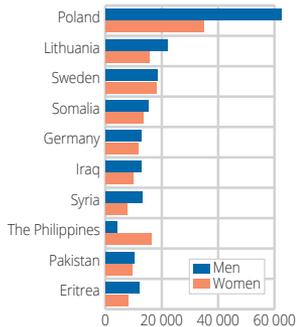
Source: www.ssb.no/en/befolkning/

Non-Nordic immigrants by reason for immigrating. Women and men



Source: www.ssb.no/en/innvgrunn

The ten largest immigrant groups. Women and men, by country background¹. Per 1 January 2017



¹ Excluding Norwegian-born to immigrant parents.

Source: www.ssb.no/en/befolkning/

In early 2017, there were slightly more men than women among the immigrants: 380 000 men and 345 000 women, corresponding to 91 women for every 100 men. However, this ratio varies by country background and region. Among immigrants from Western Europe, EU countries in Eastern Europe, and Africa, men are in the majority, while women are in the majority among immigrants from other countries in Eastern Europe, Asia and North, Central and South America.

Among those who are Norwegian-born to immigrant parents there are also more men/boys than women/girls (95 women for every 100 men). This is simply because more boys than girls are born. In total, there were 158 800 persons who were Norwegian-born to immigrant parents at the start of 2017.

Men are labour immigrants - women are family immigrants

People migrate to Norway for a variety of reasons. Some arrive as refugees, while others come to work, to start a family or be reunited with their family, or to study. Among the labour immigrants, who have formed the largest group in recent years (except in 2016), 74 per cent were men in the period from 1990 to 2016, while women accounted for 66 per cent of the family immigrants. If we consider only adult family immigrants aged 18 and older, the proportion of women increases to 77 per cent. Men account for a majority of the refugees (61 per cent), while 61 per cent of those who come to study (including au pairs) are women.

Male surplus from Poland

If we consider the ten countries with most immigrants resident in Norway at the start of 2017 as a whole, 56 per cent were men. This is due to the clear over-representation of men in the largest group; immigrants from Poland. More than 6 out of 10 immigrants from Poland are men. In addition to Poland, there is a clear male surplus among immigrants from Syria, Eritrea, Lithuania and Iraq. Among the ten largest immigrant groups at the start of 2017, the Philippines was the only country with a surplus of women; 4 out of 5 immigrants from there are women.

More children

The fertility rate for immigrants from all continents as a whole is higher than the average for non-immigrants. In 2016, the average fertility rate was 1.86 children per woman with an immigrant background, versus 1.71 for non-immigrant women. Among immigrant women from the EU/EEA area in Europa, the fertility rate was 1.76 in 2016, compared to 1.98 for women from European countries outside the EU/EEA and 1.83 and 2.82 for women from Asia and Africa respectively.

Previous analyses have shown that fertility rates are especially high among recently arrived immigrants and that the differences in fertility decline with increasing time of residence. Over time, fertility rates have declined more among immigrant women than the Norwegian average; in 1998, fertility rates were 2.36 among women with an immigrant background and 1.81 among non-immigrant women.

Differences in level of education

In the population as a whole, 93 per cent of all women and 92 per cent of all men aged 16–18 were enrolled in upper secondary education in 2016. Among immigrants in the same age group, 75 per cent of the women and 66 per cent of the men were in upper secondary education, and among those Norwegian-born to immigrant parents these proportions were 94 and 92 per cent respectively.

Among immigrants who enrolled in upper secondary education in 2011, 48 per cent of the boys and 62 per cent of the girls completed their education within five years. For all young people in the same age cohort, the corresponding proportions were 68 and 78 per cent. The Norwegian-born to immigrant parents have a higher rate of completion than immigrants; in the former group this applied to 66 per cent of the boys and 80 per cent of the girls within five years.

Few immigrants in the age group 19–24 years take a university or university college education. In 2016, this applied to 22 per cent of the women and 14 per cent of the men. This proportion is far higher among the Norwegian-born to immigrant parents: 51 per cent for women and 38 per cent for men. In the population as a whole, these proportions amount to 45 and 30 per cent respectively.

Lower rate of employment

Immigrants have a lower rate of employment than the population as a whole, although this rate varies considerably by country background. Immigrant men have a higher employment rate than their female counterparts, and the gender disparities are larger than in the population in general. Towards the end of 2016, the employment rates of immigrant men and women aged 15–74 were 64 and 57 per cent respectively, compared to 69 and 65 per cent in the population as a whole. The greatest differential between the employment rates of men and women is found among immigrant groups from North America, Africa and Western Europe outside the Nordic region. The smallest gender disparities in employment rates are found among Nordic immigrants.

The lowest rates of employment are found among immigrants with a background from Africa, with 39 per cent of women in employment and 45 per cent of men.

Higher unemployment rates

In the fourth quarter of 2016, the number of women and men registered as 100% unemployed as a proportion of the total labour force amounted to 2.3 and 3.3 per cent respectively. The unemployment rate was higher among immigrants: 6.4 per cent for women and 6.6 per cent for men. Among the immigrants, the unemployment rate was highest among the Africans, with 10.7 per cent unemployed women and 10.3 per cent unemployed men. The lowest unemployment rates are found among immigrants from the Nordic countries and other Western European countries.

Immigrants and Norwegian-born to immigrant parents

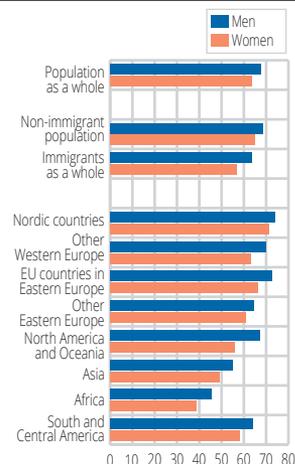
Immigrants are persons who are born abroad to foreign-born parents and have four foreign-born grandparents.

Norwegian-born to immigrant parents are persons who are born in Norway to foreign-born parents and have four foreign-born grandparents.

Refugees are those who are registered with a refugee status by the Directorate of Immigration and have been granted residence in Norway.

Country background. For immigrants, this is their country of birth. For Norwegian-born to two immigrant parents, this is their parents' country of birth.

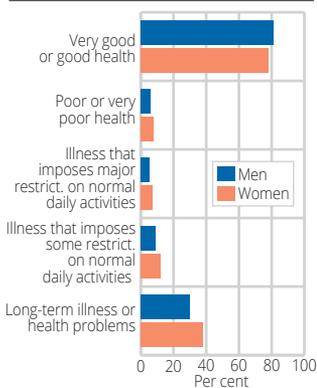
Proportion of gainfully employed persons in per cent of the population aged 15–74, by country background. Women and men. 4th quarter 2016



<https://www.ssb.no/en/innvregsys>

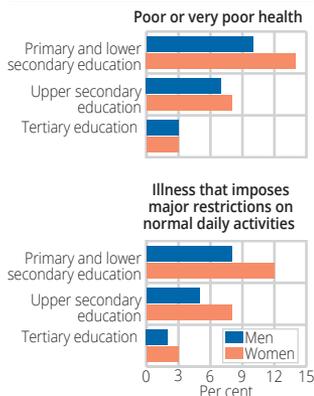
Women lead healthy lives, but are more often ill

Women's and men's self-perceived health, 2015



Source: Health, care and social relations, survey on living conditions. Statistics Norway.

Self-assessed health, by education and gender



Source: Health, care and social relations, survey on living conditions. Statistics Norway.

In many ways, women lead healthier lives than men; they are more physically active, eat a healthier diet, are less overweight and drink less alcohol. Moreover, women live longer than men and use health services more frequently. This notwithstanding, when compared to men, women more frequently report to suffer from mental health issues and long-term health problems. However, factors other than gender also have an effect on health. Better social and economic conditions are associated not only with better health, but also tend to even out the gender disparities in health.

Women live more healthy lives ...

Far more men than women drink alcohol at least once a week, but the difference in smoking habits is smaller. Snus is still more popular with young men, and its use has remained fairly stable, but there has also been a dramatic increase in its use among young women.

Women report to eat a healthier diet and engage in more physical activity than men. Women eat more fresh fruit, berries, vegetables and salads on a daily basis, while men far more frequently drink sugary beverages every day. The gender disparities in terms of physical activity are far smaller in the younger age groups compared to the older ones. Differences in lifestyles are also reflected in the disparities in body mass index. Men are more frequently represented in all categories of overweight: somewhat overweight, overweight and obese. Women, on the other hand, tend to be more frequently underweight than men, especially young women.

... and also live longer

We are living increasingly longer lives, and the number of years of good health has increased significantly. Even though the gender disparities are narrowing every year, women still have a higher life expectancy than men. However, women can expect fewer years of life in good health. In 2015, women could expect 69 healthy life years, of a total life expectancy of 84.2 years, whereas men could expect to spend 72 of their expected 80.6 years in good health.

The gender disparities in life expectancy and number of years of good health can be explained by both biological and social factors. The most obvious biological difference between the sexes is associated with reproduction. Gender disparities in factors such as risk behaviour, the threshold for contacting the health services and access to resources are all examples of aspects that are socially conditioned.

Women assess their health as good or very good somewhat more seldom than men, but the gender disparity in health is not especially wide. In 2015, 81 per cent of men and 78 per cent of women reported to be in good health.

Women's health problems restrict them more in everyday life

Although women and men assess their health to be on an almost equal footing, women more frequently report suffering from long-term illness and health problems that impose restrictions on daily activities. Women report more incidences

of bodily pain, headache/migraine and symptoms such as coughs, nausea/indigestion and dizziness than men. Social and economic conditions, however, have an impact on health as well as on gender disparities in health. For example, the gender disparity in health is wider among people with less education.

Women also have poorer mental health than men. Women, and young women in particular, to a greater extent report traditional indicators of poor mental health, such as irritability, aggressiveness, insomnia and poor concentration. On the other hand, women tend to perceive life as meaningful to a greater extent than men. They are also more satisfied with life in general.

Since women more frequently report various health complaints and symptoms, it naturally follows that they also seek out GPs and specialists in hospitals and elsewhere to a greater extent than men. The gender disparity in the use of health services should also be seen in the context of reproductive health, with women of reproductive age contacting health services in connection with pregnancy, birth and the postnatal period. However, women also seek out dentists, psychologists and physiotherapists to a greater extent than men. In addition, they visit practitioners of alternative medicine more frequently. Among the oldest, more women than men also receive care services. In 2016, 94 per cent of all women older than 90 years received care services. Men use such services to a lesser extent, with just 80 per cent.

Men are more exposed to accidents

One reason for the higher life expectancy of women is the gender disparity in risk behaviour. Although mortality from accidents has fallen significantly over the last 45 years among both women and men, and the gender disparity has declined, more men than women still die in accidents. Men die more frequently than women in traffic accidents, drowning accidents, accidents related to leisure activities and from poisoning and overdoses.

Men are also exposed to non-fatal injuries more frequently than women until the age of 55. After 55 years, women suffer injuries more frequently than men. This is mainly due to the fact that older women are more exposed to bone fractures, such as hip fractures.

Fewer die from cardiovascular diseases – especially men

For many years, cardiovascular diseases have been the most prominent cause of death among women and men alike. However, a clear decline has been observed in cardiovascular mortality among both women and men, and this decline has been most marked among men. This reduction in cardiovascular diseases is a contributory factor to the higher life expectancy of both women and men.

As regards the other dominant cause of death – cancer – no major changes have occurred over the last 20 years up to and including 2015, either among women or men. The strong decline in cardiovascular mortality means that cancer is now becoming the main cause of death in Norway.

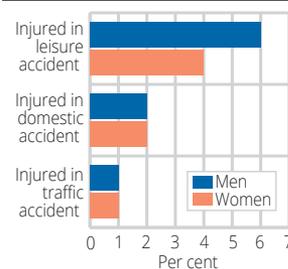
Life expectancy is estimated annually based on the age of those who died and those who survived in the preceding year. If this pattern of mortality is kept constant for the coming years, the life expectancy of a newborn baby can be estimated on the basis of this assumption.

Healthy life years (HLY) is an indicator of expected health obtained by combining information about mortality and illness. The HLY is estimated by examining the proportion of the population that is healthy or ill in various age groups, and age-specific mortality rates. Health is defined here as absence of limitations/functional impairment.

Body mass index (BMI) is self-reported weight in kilos divided by the height in metres squared:

- Underweight: Below 18.5
- Normal weight: 18.5-24.9
- Normal weight/somewhat overweight: 25-26.9
- Overweight: 27-29.9
- Obesity: 30 and above

Proportion of persons injured in accidents, 2015



Source: Health, care and social relations, survey on living conditions. Statistics Norway.

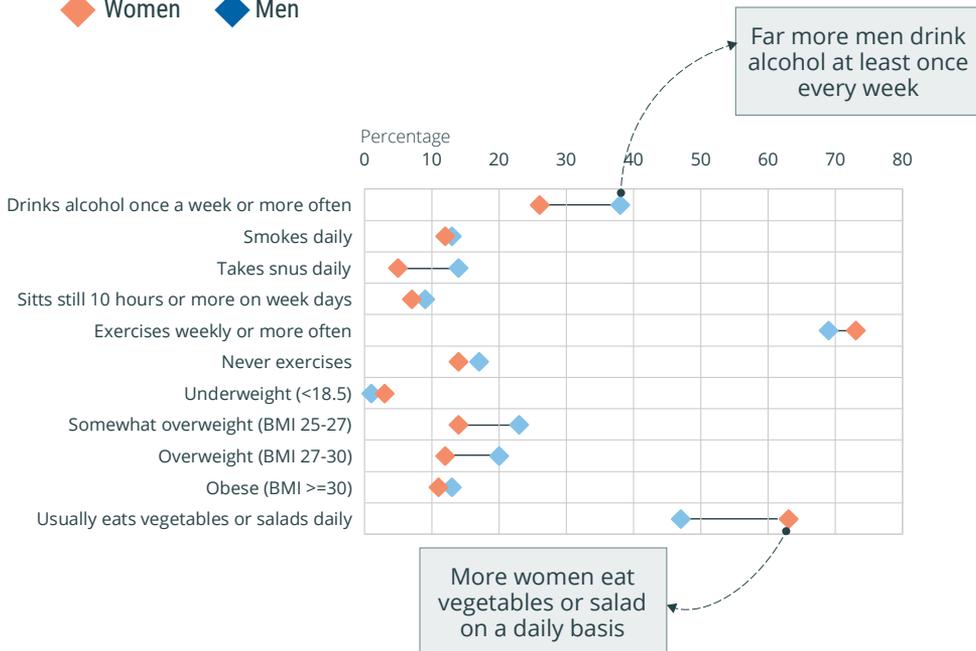
What is the state of women and men's health?



In many ways, women lead healthier lives than men; they are more physically active, eat a healthier diet, are less overweight and drink less alcohol. This notwithstanding, when compared to men, women more frequently report to suffer from long-term health problems.

◆ Women ◆ Men

Lifestyles. 2015

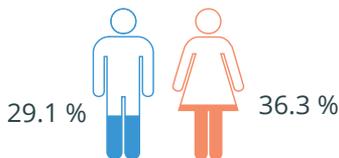


Symptoms of health problems. 2015

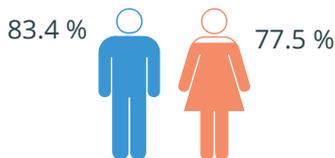


Indicators for gender equality. 2016

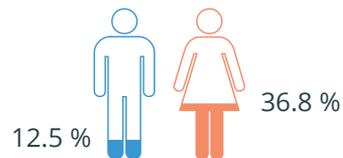
Gender gap in higher education



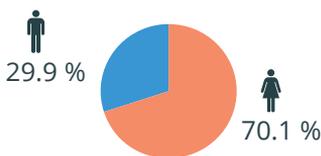
Gender gap in the work force (20-66 yrs)



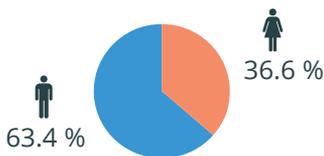
Gender gap in part-time work (20-66 yrs)



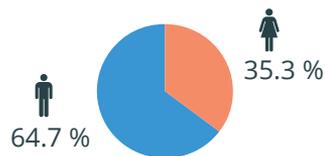
Gender distribution in public sector



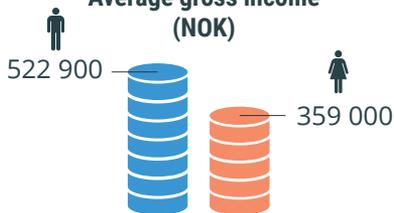
Gender distribution in private sector



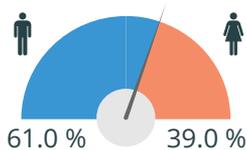
Gender distribution among leaders



Average gross income (NOK)



Gender distribution of municipal county members



Share of fathers taking the full father's quota



Share of 1-5 yrs old in kindergarten



Level of gender balance¹ in upper secondary schools



Level of gender balanced¹ business structure



Gender equality in Norwegian municipalities

Indicators of gender equality in the municipalities

- Proportion of children aged 1–5 in kindergarten
- Proportion of employees in a gender-balanced industry
- Ratio of women to men in the public sector
- Ratio of women to men in the private sector
- Proportion of students in upper secondary schools in a gender-balanced educational programme
- Ratio of women to men in the labour force
- Ratio of women to men in part-time employment
- Proportion of fathers who make full or extended use of the paternity leave entitlement before their child reaches the age of three
- Ratio of women to men with a higher education
- Ratio of women to men among managers
- Ratio of women to men among local council representatives
- Ratio of women's to men's average gross income

Indicators of gender equality at the local level

Each year, Statistics Norway publishes twelve indicators that are deemed important and relevant for describing gender equality at the local level, i.e. in Norwegian municipalities. Each indicator provides a measure of equality/inequality between women and men by showing the extent to which men and women participate in politics, education and professional life, and how influence and economic resources are distributed.

These indicators measure only gender equality. This means that they do not take the equality of other groups, such as LGBT persons or people with disabilities or an immigrant background, into account. Gender equality can be elucidated in various ways and with the aid of various types of statistics. This composition of indicators is only one of many possible ways to describe the situation in the municipalities with regard to gender equality, and includes what is available in terms of relevant statistics at the municipality level in Statistics Norway.

Labour markets in and around the cities are most gender balanced

In light of the indicators that we measure, we find the highest degree of gender equality in and around the cities. For example, there is a high degree of gender equality in Oslo and Akershus counties on indicators related to the labour market. A large proportion of the managers are women, and the industrial structure and the public and private sectors have a better gender balance than other regions. This does not mean, however, that Oslo and Akershus have a high degree of gender equality on all twelve indicators. There is some variation between the different counties.

For example, Oslo has the country's lowest proportion of children (1–5 years) who are in kindergarten, and there is a large gender gap in incomes – especially in Akershus county, but also in Oslo. Kristiansand and Stavanger stand out in having a smaller proportion of women in the labour force and a larger gender gap in income than the average municipality.

Finnmark and Troms score high on many gender-equality indicators

Finnmark and Troms counties also score high on a number of indicators of gender equality. For example, there is an even gender balance in the labour force, and the gender gap in income and in part-time employment is also smaller than anywhere else in the country. The gender balance in public-sector employment is also relatively even. In Finnmark, the proportion of women in managerial positions is also far higher than in many other counties.

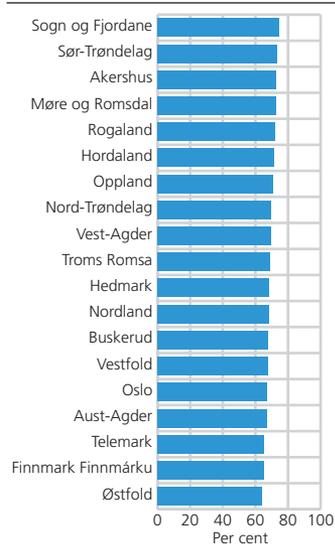
Paternity leave as an indicator of gender equality

Fathers' use of paternity leave, or the proportion of fathers who take their full entitlement or more in the parental leave period, is used as an indicator of the degree of gender equality. The paternal quota was introduced as a measure to promote gender equality, including to encourage parents to share responsibility for care during a child's first year of life, with a view to ensuring more gender-balanced care of the child over time.

The different counties vary little on this indicator. In 2016, Sogn og Fjordane county had the largest proportion of parents who made use of the paternal quota. Not far behind were Sør-Trøndelag, Akershus and Møre og Romsdal counties. Østfold county had the smallest proportion of fathers who made use of the paternal quota in 2016, followed by Finnmark and Telemark counties. In Aust-Agder county and the city of Oslo, a smaller share of fathers makes use of this leave quota compared to the counties at the top of the list. These regional trends have remained relatively stable since this indicator was first measured in 2008, but the scores have increased strongly over time in all counties.

Dividing the parental leave into quotas is also controversial, since current regulations stipulate that if the father fails to make use of the statutory paternity leave entitlement, the parents will forfeit these weeks from the total leave period. The statistics show, however, that an increasing proportion of the fathers are making use of the paternity leave entitlement or even extending their leave period. In 2016, 70 per cent of all fathers made full or extended use of the paternity leave quota, up from 60 per cent in 2008.

Proportion of fathers who make full or extended use of the paternity leave entitlement. 2016



Source: www.ssb.no/en/likekom

About indicators for gender equality

An indicator is used to describe conditions/phenomena that are too large or complex to measure directly. The indicator simplifies complicated conditions and is intended to signify the status of a situation and intercept changes. In this case, the indicators are intended to describe the degree of gender equality at the local and national level with the aid of selected statistics.

Each indicator describes the degree of gender disparity in a municipality. In the indicators, the ultimately positive outcome is gender balance, i.e. no overrepresentation of either men or women. The proportion can also be converted to a score that can be placed on a scale from 0 to 1. A high score indicates a high degree of gender equality, while a low score indicates a low degree of equality.

A complete overview of the twelve gender-equality indicators, time series and county and municipality breakdowns are available here: <http://www.ssb.no/likekom>

The paternity quota: Part of the parental leave is earmarked for fathers. The paternity quota of four weeks was first introduced in 1993. In 2005, a little more than a decade later, it was extended to five weeks, and then to six weeks in 2006. In 2009, the quota was extended to ten weeks, 12 weeks in 2011, and 14 weeks in 2013. In 2014, it was reduced back to ten weeks, but is expected to be increased again in 2018.

More statistics about women and men in Norway?

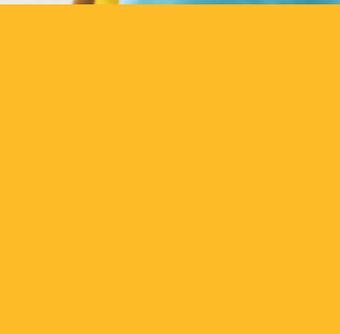
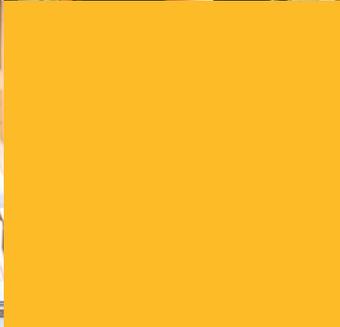
Women and men in Norway provides some samples of statistics published by Statistics Norway that in some way or other help elucidate the situation of women and men in society.

On our information page for gender equality

www.ssb.no/befolkning/faktaside/likestilling

you can find the most recent statistics, as well as articles and publications that are relevant to issues pertaining to gender equality.

Questions about statistics and analyses can be sent to Statistics Norway's Information Centre: informasjon@ssb.no



© Statistics Norway, April 2018
 When using material from this
 publication, Statistics Norway shall
 be quoted as the source.



ISBN 978-82-537-9730-4 (print)
 ISBN 978-82-537-9731-1 (electronic)