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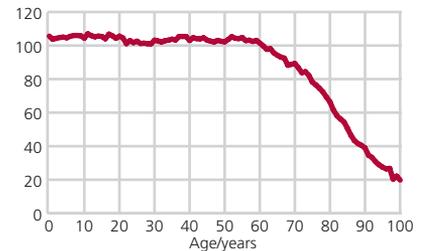
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Design and layout: Siri Boquist and Marit Vågda

# A long(er) life

## More boys

More boys than girls are born each year – approximately 105 boys per 100 girls. However, because of a higher death rate among men this ratio evens out eventually. At the age of 60 there are almost as many men as women, but the difference between the sexes then increases as women begin to outnumber men. At the age of 85, there are 50 per cent more women than men.

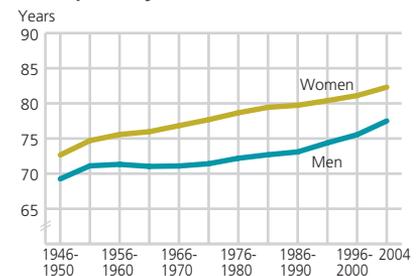
Number of men per 100 women. 2004



## Women live five years longer

A lower death rate among women means that they live around five years longer than men. Today a newborn boy can expect to live to 77.5 years of age, whereas a girl can expect to reach 82.3 years of age.

Life expectancy at birth



After the Second World War, the difference in life expectancy between women and men was slightly more than three years. It then increased, especially because deaths from cardiovascular diseases among men increased. At the beginning of the 1980s, the age gap had widened to almost seven years, but it has now narrowed to less than five years. One reason for this is the decline in the death rate for cardiovascular diseases among men.

According to Statistics Norway's population projections from 2005, life expectancy will also increase markedly in the years to come: based on the alternative where we assume a medium increase, a boy born in 2050 will have a life expectancy of 84.7 years and a girl 88.9 years. In other words, the difference between the sexes will be reduced further to around four years.

## Norwegian women no longer live longest

Some years ago Norwegian women had the highest life expectancy in the world. Today women in a number of countries can expect to live longer: Japanese women top the list with a life expectancy of 84 years. Other women too, for example those from the south of Europe, can expect to live longer than their Norwegian counterparts.

There seems to be a north-south divide when it comes to life expectancy and sex. Whereas Icelandic and Swedish women only live four years longer than their men, Spanish, French and Portuguese women live around seven years longer.

Life expectancy in selected countries. 2003

	Women	Men
Japan	84.3	77.6
Spain	83.6	76.9
Switzerland	83.1	78.0
France	82.9	75.9
Iceland	82.7	79.7
Sweden	82.5	77.9
Italy	82.5	76.8
<b>Norway</b>	<b>82.0</b>	<b>77.1</b>
Finland	81.8	75.1
Belgium	81.7	75.9
Austria	81.6	75.9
Germany	81.4	75.7
United Kingdom	80.7	76.2
Portugal	80.5	74.2
Denmark	79.9	75.1

Source: Eurostat.



### Ageing population: women in majority, but the gap is narrowing

Much has been said about the expected growth in the number of elderly people. In some respects we can say that the greying of the population has already started. In 1950, only 8 per cent of the population were aged 67 or over, while today the share is 13 per cent. Not until 2020 will this proportion increase further, reaching 16 per cent in 2020 and 21 per cent in 2050.

With diminishing differences in life expectancy, the future population of elderly people will be less dominated by women, although women will still be in the majority.

### La donna é mobile

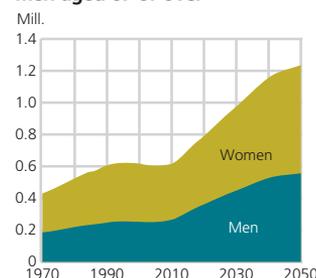
If we look at the country as a whole there are slightly more men than women up to the age of 60, but there are great regional differences in some age groups. This is due to the fact that women and men have different migration patterns: young women move and men stay behind. Women move from the least central municipalities to urban settlements and cities, which results in a lack of young women in sparsely populated areas.

Norway as a whole has a 3 per cent deficit of women in the 20-39 age group (103 men per 100 women). This ratio varies considerably from region to region, however. Whereas the ratio is 110 men per 100 women in municipalities where agriculture or fisheries is the main industry, there are only 100 in municipalities dominated by the service industry.

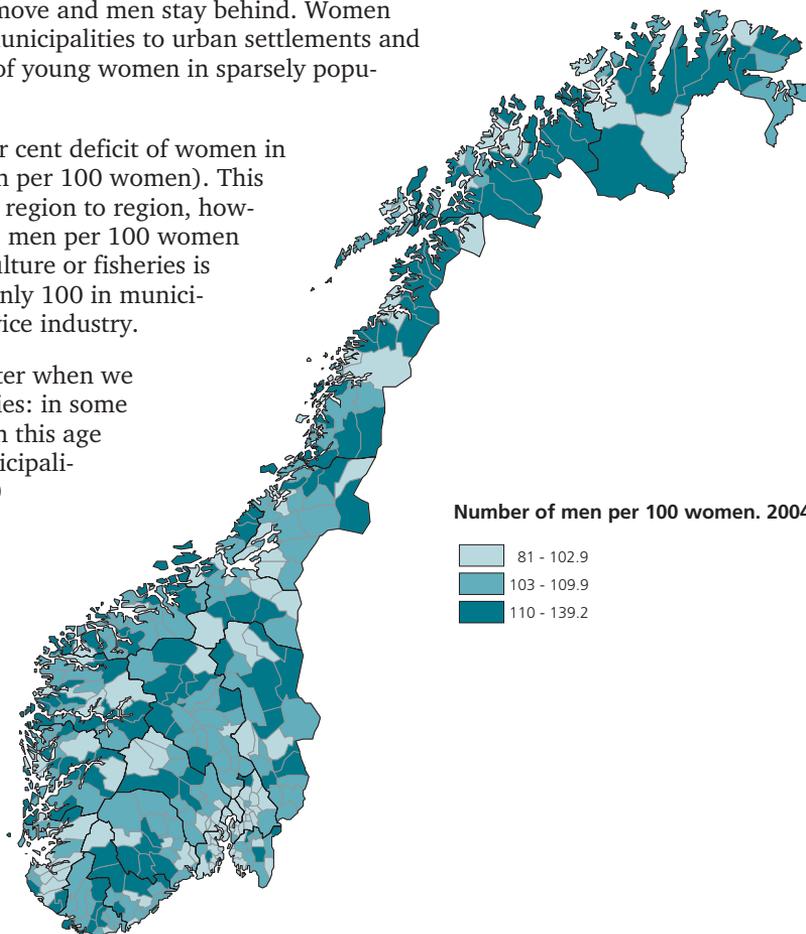
The differences are even greater when we look at individual municipalities: in some municipalities there are 130 in this age group, but there are also municipalities with only 80 men per 100 women.

Because of the natural surplus of boys, municipalities with a surplus of men clearly outnumber municipalities with a surplus of women.

Ageing population: Women and men aged 67 or over\*



\* Projection based on alternative MMMM (= medium growth)

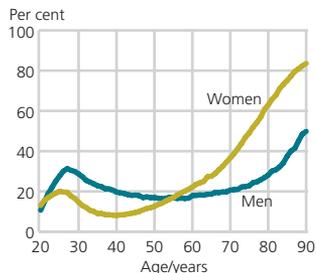


Number of men per 100 women. 2004

- 81 - 102.9
- 103 - 109.9
- 110 - 139.2

# Single or cohabiting?

**Proportion of women and men aged 20 and over in one-person households. 2001**



## More people live alone

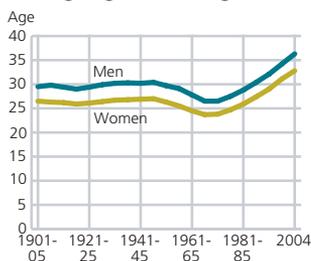
The post-war period was the great era of the nuclear family. More people got married and the proportion of one-person households decreased slightly. From the beginning of the 1970s, there were fewer marriages while the number of divorces increased. This resulted in a more than doubling of one-person households to 38 per cent, equal to 17 per cent of the population. When we disregard children and young people, around 22 per cent of the population aged 20 and over live alone.

In the population as a whole, roughly as many women as men live alone. However, while single women are in the majority in the oldest part of the population, there is a large surplus of men in the 30-45 age group.

## One-person households: women in cities, men in the country

One-person households are particularly common in city centres and sparsely populated areas. Among people aged between 20 and 59, the surplus of single men is greatest in remote municipalities and in municipalities where fisheries is the main industry or there are few industries. One reason for this pattern is that women in particular move to the largest towns to study and find work.

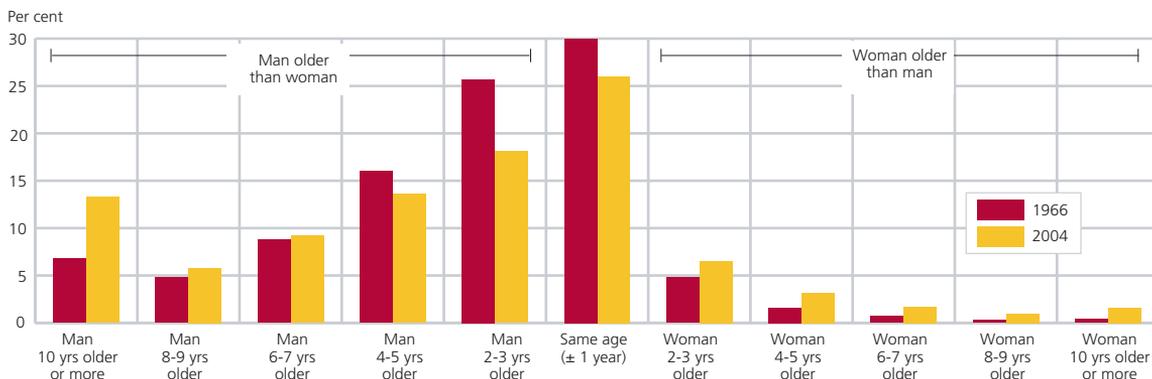
**Average age at marriage**



## Living together: widening age gap – both ways

Traditionally, the age difference at the time of marriage has been relatively large. Men have on average been three to four years older than their wives. Along with increased gender equality in many areas of life, such as education and the labour market, it would seem reasonable to assume that this age gap would diminish. However, this does not seem to be the case. Over the past 50 years the age difference has changed very little. Following a fall

**Men's and women's age at marriage. 1966 and 2004**





in the marriage age towards the end of the 1960s, the average age at marriage has increased for both women and men, but the age difference is the same.

However, this average does not necessarily reflect the age differences in individual marriages. Looking at individual marriages we find that there since 1966 has been an increase in marriages with relatively large age differences. The proportion of marriages where the man is more than nine years older than the woman has almost doubled. In addition, there has been a systematic increase in marriages where the woman is older than the man.

Somewhat surprisingly perhaps, cohabitants are very similar to married couples with regard to age differences – with one exception: the proportion of cohabiting couples where the man is more than nine years older than the woman is far lower.

### More foreign spouses

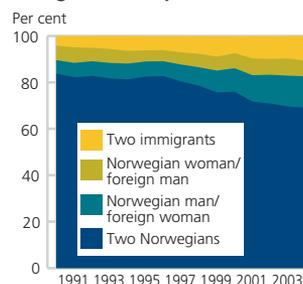
Increasing globalisation and international mobility have gradually «hit» the Norwegian marriage market, and marriages where one or both partners are of foreign origin are becoming more and more common. In 2004, 7 out of 10 marriages contracted were between two Norwegian citizens, 11 per cent were marriages between two immigrants, 7 per cent were between a Norwegian woman and a foreign man, and 13 per cent were between a Norwegian man and a foreign woman.

The latter group in particular has increased dramatically in recent years, with the majority of men marrying women from non-western countries, especially Thailand and the Philippines. In addition, many men «import» women from Eastern Europe, especially from Russia. Marriages between Norwegian women and foreign men have only increased slightly since 1990, with women marrying men from other western countries like Denmark, Sweden, the USA and the UK being the most common.

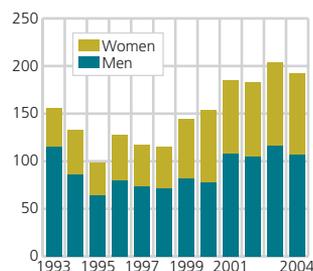
### Around 200 same-sex partnerships contracted annually

In 1993, same-sex partnerships were included in the statistics. Since then, around 1 800 partnerships have been registered. In the early years there was a significant dominance of male partnerships, but this has evened out. However, male partnerships are still in majority.

Marriages by immigrant background of spouses

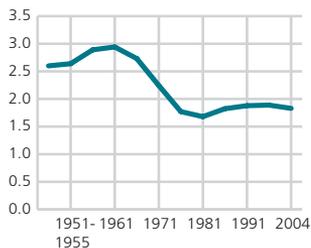


Number of same-sex partnerships contracted. Men and women



# From generation to generation

## Total fertility rate



### Total fertility rate

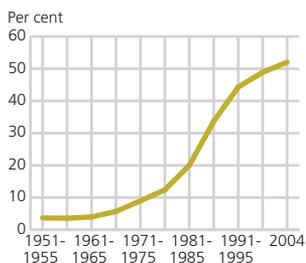
The average number of live births per woman during her lifetime if the fertility pattern in the period is the same throughout her childbearing age and no deaths occur.

## Total fertility rate in selected countries. 2004

Iceland	2.03
Ireland	1.99
France	1.90
<b>Norway</b>	<b>1.81</b>
Denmark	1.78
Sweden	1.75
United Kingdom	1.74
EU-25	1.50
Portugal	1.42
Germany	1.37
Italy	1.33
Spain	1.32
Greece	1.29

Source: Eurostat.

## Percentage of children born outside marriage



## Low fertility ...

The post-war baby boom lasted until the mid-1960s and was followed by a decline in birth rates that reached its lowest point at the beginning of the 1980s. Fertility then increased somewhat, but has been stable at around 1.8 in recent years.

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

For a long period, the proportion of childless women was on the decline from around 20 per cent for women born in 1910 to around 14 per cent for the 1920 cohort. It was lower than 10 per cent for women born in 1940, but increased in later years to almost 13 per cent for women born in 1960. The proportion of childless men is considerably higher (25 per cent of the 1960 cohort). In addition, the increase in the proportion of childless men has been substantially higher. This means that a large and increasing proportion of men are having children with several women.

## ... but high compared to other countries

The fall in the fertility rate in the last decades is a general phenomenon in western countries, and Norway is actually one of the countries with the highest fertility rates in recent years. The average fertility rate in the EU, for instance, is now 1.5, with Italy, Spain and Greece down at 1.3. The highest fertility rate is to be found in Iceland and Ireland.

Norway's relatively high fertility rate is assumed to be related to the parental leave scheme, which makes it easier for women to combine a career and children. Three out of four women are now entitled to such leave, and three out of four choose to stay at home for 52 weeks with 80 per cent pay.

The earmarked part of the parental leave (father's quota), up to four weeks, is taken by around 87 per cent of fathers who are entitled to such leave. However, almost 40 per cent are not entitled to such leave, which means that in total only around 50 per cent of fathers take paternal leave. Fathers take 23 days leave on average, and this figure has been stable since 1994.

The use of cash for care has fallen in recent years: only 63 per cent of 1 and 2 year-olds received cash for care at the end of 2004, compared with 73 per cent in 2001.

## One in two born outside marriage

One in two children is now born outside marriage, compared with only 3 per cent in the 1950s. The largest increase took place in the 1970s and 1980s and has levelled off now. The great majority of children born outside marriage have parents who live together. Only 10 per cent are born to lone



mothers. However, in the case of the first child, 49 per cent are born to parents who live together and 15 per cent to lone mothers. When the second child comes along, the parents are more likely to be married.

### Most up north

Most births outside marriage are found in the three northern counties and Trøndelag, while Agder and Rogaland have the lowest figures. In Europe as a whole we also see a clear north-south divide: Iceland heads the list, followed by Sweden and the other Nordic countries. In Southern Europe births outside marriage are still a relatively rare phenomenon.

### Older mothers

Until the 1970s women became mothers increasingly younger. However, with the growth in educational opportunities and career options the average childbearing age began to increase, and since the early 1970s it has increased by approximately four years to 30.2 years. Fathers are three years older on average. The average age of women at the first birth is 28 years.

This trend is clearly seen among teenagers: Around 1970 teenage births amounted to 20 per cent of those giving birth for the first time, whereas today the figure is less than 5 per cent.

### More multiple births

The proportion of multiple births (mainly twins) remained around 1 per cent for a long time, but this started to increase at the end of the 1980s and is now close to 2 per cent. This development is probably due to the rise in childbearing age and to the increased use of in-vitro fertilisation.

### Caesarean more common

Over the past 30 years the proportion of births by Caesarean has increased markedly: from 2 per cent in 1968 to more than 15 in 2004. The largest increase took place in the 1970s and 1980s. The trend levelled off during the 1990s, but is now on the rise again. Older mothers in particular undergo Caesarean delivery, and the increase must therefore be seen in conjunction with the marked increase in childbearing age. The increase in multiple births may also have contributed to this development.

### Abortions down since 1990

Abortion rates rose sharply at the beginning of the 1970s. Since the introduction of the Abortion Act in 1978, numbers have stabilised between 14 000 and 16 000. In 2004, 14 100 abortions were carried out, a figure equivalent to about 25 per cent of all live births.

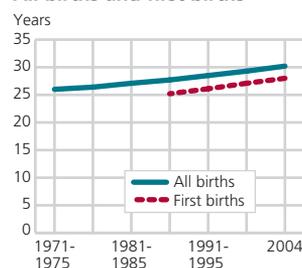
The frequency of abortions is particularly high among women aged 18 to 24; every year 2-3 per cent in this group have an abortion. In the 15 to 19 age group, there are now almost twice as many abortions as births.

### Percentage of children born outside marriage in selected countries. 2003

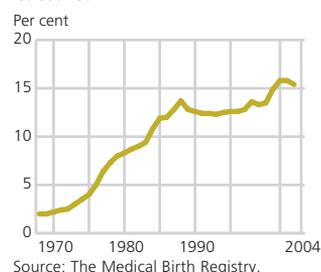
Iceland	63.6
Sweden	56.0
<b>Norway</b>	<b>50.0</b>
Denmark	44.9
France	45.2
United Kingdom	41.5
Netherlands	30.7
Germany	27.0
Spain	23.2
Italy	13.6
Greece	4.8

Kilde: Eurostat.

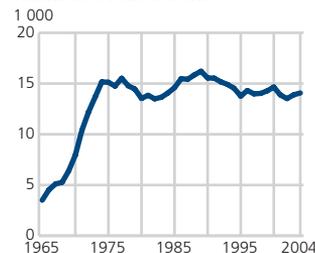
### Average childbearing age. All births and first births



### Percentage of children born by Caesarean



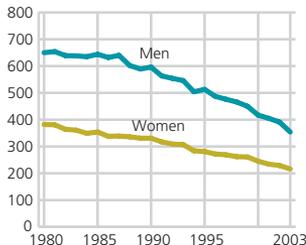
### Number of abortions



# Women are sicker, men die quicker

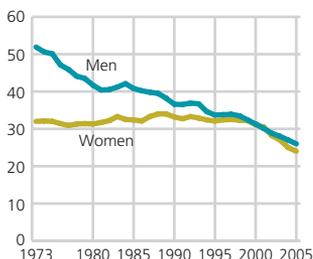
## Age standardised mortality rates – cardiovascular diseases. Women and men

Per 100 000 inhab.



## Percentage daily smokers. Women and men. 16-74 years\*

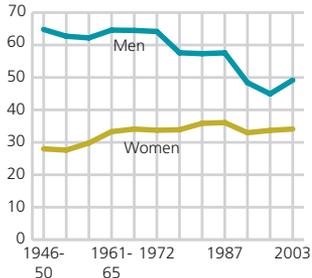
Per cent



\* Three-year moving average.

## Deaths from accidents. Women and men

Per 100 000 inhab.



## Women more illnesses – men die younger

In a nutshell, this is the main difference between women and men's health. Women live longer than men, but have more illnesses and health problems than men throughout their lives. This apparent paradox can be explained by a number of factors – both biological and social: it is assumed that men's higher mortality is partly attributable to biological factors, but also to differences in lifestyle and various types of risk behaviour. The fact that women are more ill than men is often put down to differences in lifestyle and living conditions, for instance strains in relation to domestic work and professional work.

So, are the diminishing gender differences in life expectancy in recent years an indication of a reduced gap in health and mortality?

## Fewer cardiovascular deaths – particularly among men

Cardiovascular diseases have long been – and still are – the most common cause of death among men and women. In 2003, around 40 per cent of all deaths were caused by cardiovascular diseases. The diminishing difference between men and women's life expectancy is to a large extent due to a decline in death rates from cardiovascular diseases among men. This decline has been particularly strong in the past 15 years.

With regard to the second most common cause of death – cancer – there have not been any major changes in the past 20 years, neither for men, nor women.

## One in four smoke daily

The decline in cardiovascular diseases is assumed to be related to the decline in smoking: the proportion of men who smoke every day has fallen from more than 50 per cent to 26 per cent. The corresponding figure for women was slightly higher than 30 per cent for a long time, but has now fallen to 24 per cent.

Sweden is the only country where more women than men smoke on a daily basis – 21 and 17 per cent respectively. However, in some countries (United Kingdom, Denmark, France and Finland) there is a tendency that more young women than men smoke. It may therefore seem as if the numerous awareness campaigns in recent years have had an effect on middle-aged men, but have not prevented young girls from taking up smoking.

## Accidents

As is the case for cardiovascular diseases, the gender gap in violence-related deaths has also narrowed. While the number of violent deaths among women has increased somewhat, it has fallen for men. The gender differences have become smaller for accidents in particular, although there now seem to be an increase.



## Health problems

The differences between men and women with regard to diseases and health problems are evident in many ways: women do not consider their own health as good or very good as often as men. They report more long-term illnesses, including illnesses that significantly affect their daily lives.

Women more often suffer from diseases of the nervous system, respiratory system and musculo-skeletal system. They also suffer from headaches or migraine and bodily pain more often than men. In addition, they tend to have more psychological problems and symptoms such as problems sleeping, feeling down and depressed, and they take medicine for such problems to a larger extent than men.

It is a paradox that women have a higher illness rate than men, as women in many ways lead a much healthier life than their male counterparts: the majority of smokers have always been men, and women drink less alcohol and less often than men. Furthermore, women have a healthier diet (they eat more fruit and vegetables, for instance) and although they exercise slightly less than men, they tend to be less overweight.

## Women visit GPs more often than men

Because women report various health problems and symptoms more often than men, it is not surprising that they visit the doctor more often. This applies to general practitioners and specialists in hospitals and elsewhere. In addition, they consult physiotherapists and alternative practitioners more often than men.

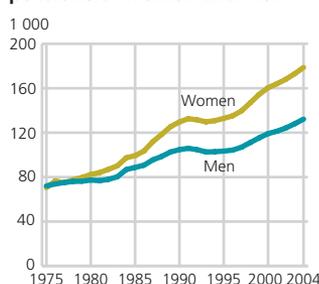
Working women have a higher sickness absence rate than men: while the sickness absence for men is slightly below 6 per cent of the total number of man-days, the figure for women is around 8 per cent. Sickness related to pregnancy is probably one important factor behind this difference.

## ... and are more likely to become disability pensioners

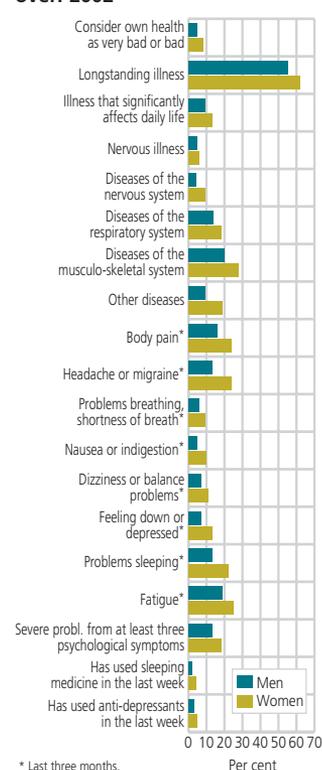
Women's health problems are also evident in the statistics on disability pensioners. In the mid-1970s the number of disability pensioners was around 140 000, of which men accounted for slightly more than half. The number of disability pensioners increased markedly in the 1980s, particularly among women. It then levelled off, but started to increase again in 1995.

In 2004, the total number of disability pensioners was 310 900: 178 700 women and 132 200 men. The strong increase in the number of female disability pensioners must be seen in connection with the number of women entering the labour force during this period.

Number of disability pensioners. Women and men

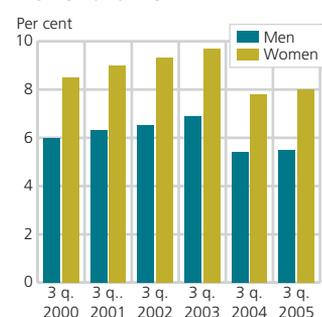


Selected health indicators. Women and men aged 16 and over. 2002



\* Last three months.

Sickness absence rate for women and men



# Thirsty for knowledge

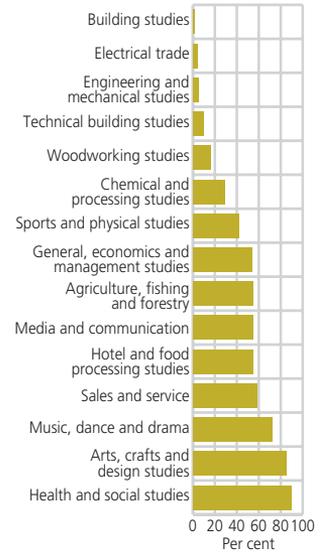
## Upper secondary education: Different choices

Around 90 per cent of 16-18 year-olds are in upper secondary education, with the girls having a small majority (51 per cent). Whereas girls are in the majority in general studies, there is a majority of boys in vocational studies.

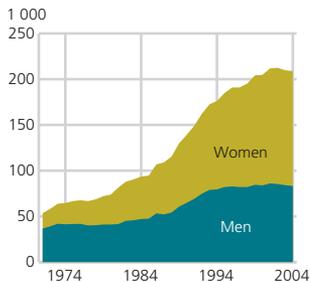
On the other hand, girls dominate health and social studies, as well as arts, crafts and design studies. Music, dance and drama studies and the new sales and service studies and media and communication studies are also popular. Building studies, electrical trade studies, engineering and mechanical studies are completely dominated by boys.

It is more common for boys than for girls to drop out of upper secondary education: 29 per cent of the boys who enrolled in upper secondary education in 1999 had dropped out five years later, compared with 20 per cent of the girls.

## Proportion of girls in different studies in upper secondary education. 2004



Number of female and male students. 1 000



## Wise women

Since the mid-1980s women have been in the majority among students, and today almost six out of ten students are women. The proportion of women is particularly high at university colleges (63 per cent). Whereas 35 per cent of women aged 19-24 years are in higher education, this applies to 24 per cent of men.

The female majority in higher education is not unique to Norway. The situation is similar in most EU countries, including the new member states.

Women now make up the majority (almost 60 per cent) of the graduates at universities and university colleges. Women make up 50 per cent of students at Master degree studies and 65 per cent at Bachelor degree studies. Women are also in the majority among students who study abroad (almost 57 per cent).

In the autumn of 2004, women were in the majority in all the major fields of study apart from in natural sciences, vocational and technical subjects (70 per cent male students). With eight out of ten students being women, the greatest majority of women is found in health, welfare and sports subjects.



## Women from rural areas

Traditionally, the recruits to higher education were men from urban areas with parents with higher education.

This is about to change, however. Women's entry to higher education has resulted in a more even geographical distribution of applicants to higher education. This change is evident in the statistics on women and men in higher education by place of residence. In 2004, 34 per cent of women and 24 per cent of men aged 19-24 years were in higher education. Although the female proportion varies a lot, it is highest in the least central/most sparsely populated counties like Sogn og Fjordane and Møre og Romsdal. Taking the regional dimension into account, this figure varies much less for men.

Consequently, the greatest differences between men and women are found in these areas. In Sogn og Fjordane for instance, the proportion of female students is 42 per cent, compared with 25 per cent male students. In another sparsely populated county, Finnmark, the corresponding figures are 31 and 18 per cent. In central counties such as Oslo and Akershus the differences between women and men are far less.

## As many women as men have higher education

Three times as many people have a university or university college education today compared with 1970. In addition, there is no longer a difference between women and men. Around 23 per cent of women and men aged 15 or older have a university or university college education, although men still have a somewhat longer higher education than women.

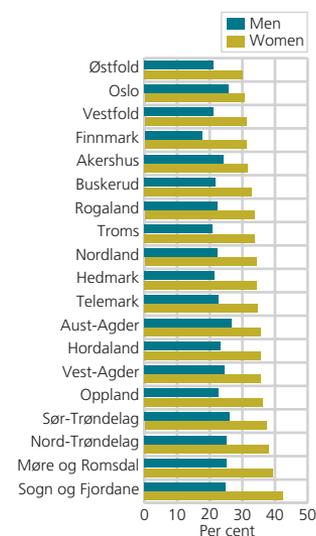
In 2003, for the first time, as many women as men completed a university degree at Master level. In the youngest part of the population (under 50 years of age) far more women than men have higher education. Especially among those aged 25-29 years, 45 per cent of the women have higher education compared with 30 per cent of the men. In addition, there will soon be as many women as men with long higher education in this age group.

## Women dominate the teachers' room

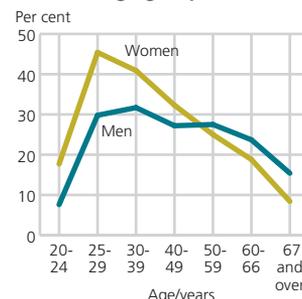
Female teachers have long been in the majority in primary and lower secondary education, and the proportion continues to increase: seven out of ten teachers in primary and lower secondary schools are women. Women are also making their mark in upper secondary education – the proportion of female teachers is now 45 per cent. In both primary and secondary education the proportion of women is far greater among the youngest teachers, a fact that indicates that the feminizing will continue in this sector.

The proportion of female teachers is 48 per cent at university colleges and 35 per cent at universities. There are great variations, however: whereas 44 per cent of research fellows are women, this only applies to 16 per cent of professors.

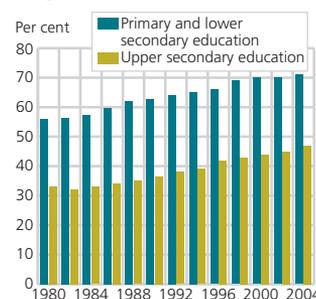
Proportion of women and men aged 19-24 years in higher education, by county of residence at age of 16. 2004



Proportion of women and men with higher education in different age groups. 2004



Proportion of female teachers



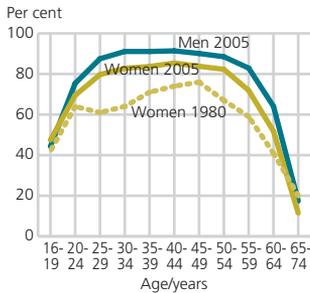
# Still male and female professions

**Economically active and part-time working women 15-64 years. Selected countries. 3rd quarter 2005**

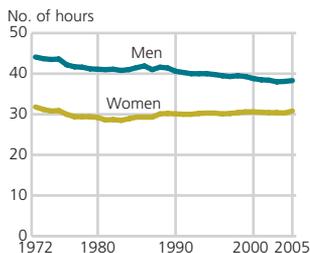


Source: Eurostat.

**Labour force participation of men in 2005 and women in 1980 and 2005, 16-74 years**



**Weekly hours of work for women and men in employment**



**High labour force participation...**

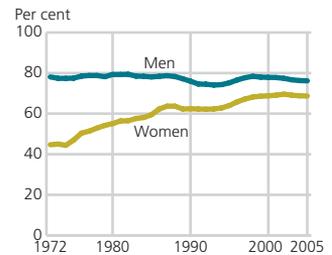
There are approximately 2.3 million people aged 16-74 in employment in Norway, of which women account for 47 per cent.

Labour force participation for women increased significantly from the beginning of the 1970s until the end of the 1980s, but remained more or less stable for men. During the economic recession from the end of the 1980s to 1993, the participation rate for women remained steady, but fell for men. Subsequently, figures have increased for both sexes. In 2005, the labour force comprised 69 per cent of women and 76 per cent of men aged 16-74.

Labour force participation for women is high in Norway, and the gap between women and men's participation is small compared with other countries. Countries with a large proportion of employed women also tend to have a large proportion of women working part-time.

From the 1980s to the present day, labour force participation for women aged 25-40 has increased considerably.

**Economic activity rate for women and men. 16-74 years**



**... but many women still work part-time**

Many more women than men work part-time, although fewer women and more men work part-time today than ten years ago. In 1990, 48 per cent of women and 9 per cent of men worked part-time, compared with 42 and 12 per cent respectively today.

It is particularly women with more than one child under the age of 16 who work part-time. For men, part-time work is more common in combination with studies or at the end of their career.

Since the 1970s, the weekly working hours for men has fallen from 44 to 38 hours. Weekly working hours for women fell by three hours by the mid-1980s, but have since increased. In 2005 the weekly working hours for women was almost 31 hours.

**Majority of unemployed are men**

From the beginning of the 1970s until the recession of 1983-84, the unemployment rates remained steady at just under 2 per cent of the labour force, but 1 percentage point higher for women than for men. When unemployment increased in the 1980s, these gender differences levelled out.

At the beginning of the 1990s, the unemployment rate was higher for men. In 1993, unemployment peaked at its highest level ever with 6.6 per cent for men and 5.2 per cent for women.



The recession of the 1980s and 1990s mainly hit male-dominated industries such as manufacturing and building and construction. Women more often work in health services, teaching and other fields in the public sector, which are less affected by cyclical fluctuations.

The unemployment rates in 2005 were 4.8 per cent for men and 4.4 per cent for women.

The Norwegian unemployment rates are much lower than in other European countries. Figures for the third quarter of 2005 show that Norway, the UK and Ireland have unemployment rates of around 4.5 per cent for women and 5 per cent for men. In Spain, Italy and Finland the unemployment rate for women is about 10 per cent. In France, the unemployment rate for men is more than 8 per cent.

### More women in the public sector

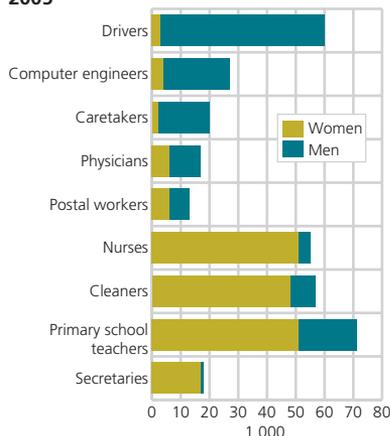
Today, 47 per cent of women and 18 per cent of men work in the public sector. These figures have remained stable over the last few years. Women are more often employed in the local government sector while there is a more even distribution of men between the local government and central government sectors.

### Still male and female professions

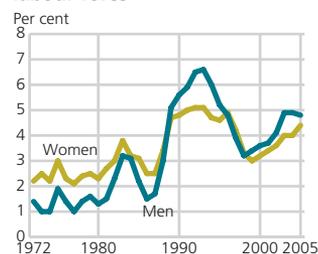
Despite the increase in the educational level, male and female career paths are still quite traditional.

Typical female professions are teachers in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools, nurses, cleaners and secretaries. Typical male professions are craftsmen, building and construction workers, drivers and engineers. In some professions, e.g. postmen, marketing and advertising staff, the numbers are approximately equal for women and men.

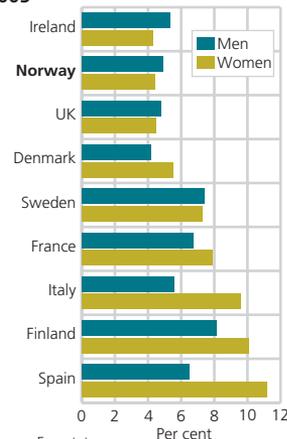
Women and men in employment, by selected occupations. 16-74 years. 2005



Unemployed women and men. 16-74 years. Percentage of the labour force



Percentage of unemployed women and men. 15-64 years. Selected countries. 3rd quarter 2005



Source: Eurostat.

**Labour force** = total of employed and unemployed. As a percentage of the population this is referred to as the *economic activity rate*.

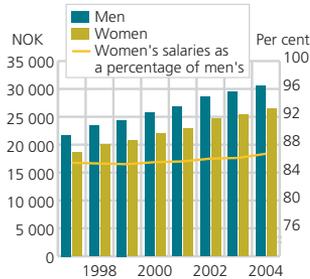
*Employed* = people engaged in income-generating work.

*Unemployed* = people without income-generating work, but who are looking for work and can start immediately.

**Working hours:** *full-time* = 37 hours and upwards, or 32-36 hours when stated that this is full-time.

# A woman's worth

## Monthly salaries. Male and female full-time employees. 3rd quarter



### Average or median?

Because the male wage distribution is far less equal than women's (some men have very high salaries) it may be favourable to use the median here. The median, which is the value that divides the distribution of wages into two equal parts, was NOK 27 300 for men and NOK 25 000 for women in 2004. Using this measure, women's salaries as a percentage of men's salaries increase from 87 to 92 per cent.

## Equal pay

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 differences, and this is partly due to large differences in pay between the public and private sector.

## Men earn about NOK 4 000 more per month

While the average monthly earnings for male full-time employees was NOK 30 600 in the third quarter of 2004, the corresponding figure for female full-time employees was NOK 26 500. These figures include various additional allowances and bonuses. Over the last six years the development of salaries has been almost the same for women and men, and women's salaries are now 87 per cent of men's salaries. However, viewed in a longer perspective the differences have diminished. Around 1960 women's salaries were only 60 per cent of men's salaries.

If we include part-time employees and convert the data to full-time equivalents, the picture only changes slightly – with women's monthly earnings amounting to around 84 per cent of men's earnings.

## Additional allowances and overtime – a male privilege?

The differences in earnings become even greater because men more often than women have various forms of additional allowances and bonuses, and are paid more overtime.

Women's basic salaries are 88 per cent of men's basic salaries. However, when additional allowances and bonuses/commissions are included, women's salaries are 87 per cent of men's salaries. The differences become even greater when overtime payment is included, with women's salaries falling to 85 per cent of men's salaries.

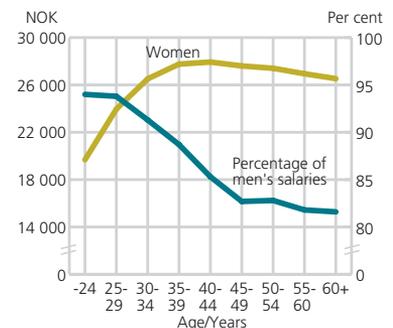
## Monthly salaries for male and female full-time employees. 3rd quarter 2004

	Men	Women
Agreed salary	28 996	25 584
Variable additional allowances	925	607
Bonus/commission	670	289
	<b>30 591</b>	<b>26 480</b>
Overtime payment	1 255	495
<b>Total</b>	<b>31 846</b>	<b>26 795</b>

## Pay gap increases with age

Both women's and men's salaries increase with age – up until the age of 45. This «age effect» (which is a result of seniority and education) is however far greater for men than for women. This results in a widening pay gap: when women are in their 20s, their salaries are 93 per cent of men's salaries, but when they have passed 50, their salaries are just about 80 per cent of men's salaries.

## Monthly salaries for female full-time employees as a percentage of men's salaries. 3rd quarter 2004



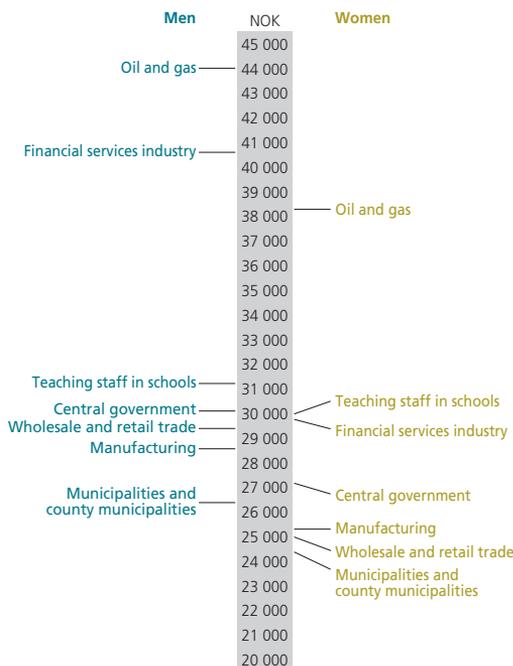


With regards to the oldest women, there is also a «generation effect»: the oldest women belong to a generation where women had a lower education than men.

### Teaching staff most equal

The discrepancy between women's and men's salaries varies from industry to industry. The largest relative difference is found in the financial services industry, which includes banking and insurance activities, where the earnings of women working full-time are 74 per cent of men's salaries (and the percentage has fallen slightly in recent years). Women in property management and the retail trade also fare poorer than men. The gap is smallest among teaching staff, where women's earnings are 96 per cent of men's earnings in the school system. The percentage is also well above 90 in building and construction, and in the local and county administration.

Monthly salaries for women and men in selected industries. Full-time employees. 3rd quarter 2004



### Wages or income?

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

*Income* is a broader term than wages. Apart from income from work, this term includes capital income and benefits such as housing support, child benefit, unemployment benefit, pensions, social security etc.

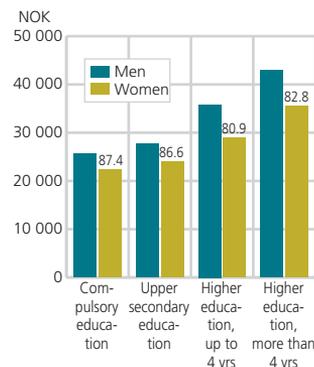
*Wages* represent payment for work done. Wages are often payment for a fixed period of time, for instance hourly wages, weekly wages or monthly wages. In order to make comparisons, all types of wages are converted to monthly salaries in the wage statistics.

### Does «female education» pay off?

Women and men still choose traditional subjects: for instance, whereas women choose the arts and humanities, teacher training and health and care services, men choose economics and technical subjects. This gender segregation is most evident at Bachelor degree level, and the results can be seen in the wage statistics.

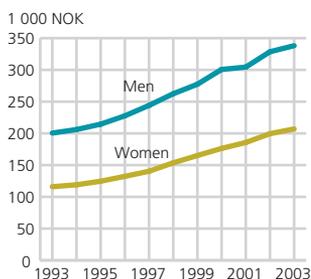
Somewhat surprising perhaps, the earnings of female full-time employees as a percentage of men's earnings are lowest among the group with a short higher education (up to four years). This is of course related to the fact that women and men in this group work in very different occupations and industries. While the men, to a large extent, work as engineers, technicians or sales representatives in the private sector, women are more likely to work in the public sector such as kindergarten teachers, primary school teachers or nurses. This proves that higher education is no guarantee for equality in terms of equal pay.

Monthly salaries for full-time employees, by education level. Women and men. 3rd quarter 2004



# Mind the gap!

## Average gross income. Women and men



### Wages or income?

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

*Income* is a broader term than wages. Apart from income from work, this term includes capital income and benefits such as housing support, child benefit, unemployment benefit, pensions, social security etc.

*Wages* represent payment for work done. Wages are often payment for a fixed period of time, for instance hourly wages, weekly wages or monthly wages. In order to make comparisons, all types of wages are converted to monthly salaries in the wage statistics.

## Women's income 61 per cent of men's

In 2003, the average gross income for all adults was NOK 271 400. While the average gross income for women was NOK 207 000, the figure was NOK 338 100 for men.

As shown previously, average monthly earnings for women in full-time employment represent approximately 86 per cent of men's. Women's gross annual income, however, is only 61 per cent of men's. In 1984, the corresponding figure was 47 per cent. In recent years the relative difference has been stable.

The difference in income is much greater than the difference in earnings primarily because there are fewer women than men in the labour force and they more often work part-time. In addition, the majority of pensioners on a minimum benefit old age pension are women (see below).

### Average or median?

As is the case with wages, the male income distribution is far less equal than women's (some men have very high incomes). It may therefore be favourable to use the median here. The median, which is the value that divides the distribution of income into two equal parts, was NOK 285 600 for men and NOK 186 500 for women in 2003. Measured in this way, women's income as a percentage of men's increases from 61 to 65 per cent.

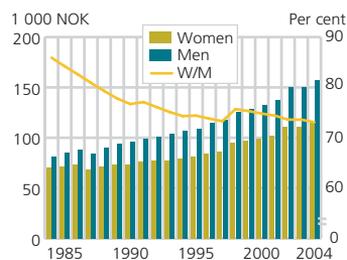
### Women receive more benefits

Wage income makes up around two thirds of gross income for both women and men. A larger part of women's income is made up of national insurance benefits (partly because there are far more female pensioners), whereas men have more net entrepreneurial income and income from dividends.

### Majority of old age pensioners with minimum benefits are women

The large differences in income between women and men are not only a result of part-time work and the fact that there are fewer women than men in the labour force. It is also because the pension of today's pensioners is to a large extent based on and determined by their work history.

### Average old age pension. Women and men and women's pension as share of men's. 2003-NOK





In 2003, the average old age pension was NOK 149 800 for men and NOK 110 200 for women. This means that women's pensions are scarcely 74 per cent of men's – and this figure is falling. This is related to the fact that around half of all female pensioners still only receive a basic pension, whereas this only applies to one in ten male pensioners. In other words: nine out of ten pensioners with minimum benefits are women.

### Large regional differences

Both the income level and the relative difference between women and men vary considerably from county to county and municipality to municipality. Women's income varies between NOK 257 000 in Oslo and NOK 181 000 in Nord-Trøndelag. The difference between women and men's income is greatest in Rogaland and least in Finnmark.

The greatest *relative* difference is found in Rogaland, where women's income is only 53 per cent of men's. Aust-Agder and Vest-Agder are also well below average. Finnmark has the least relative difference, where women's income is 76 per cent of men's. The relative differences in Troms and Nordland are also less than average.

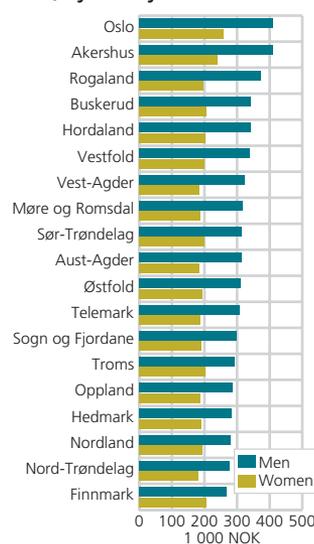
The differences are even greater at municipality level, both in absolute and relative figures. In Beiarn, women's average income was NOK 147 000, compared with NOK 272 500 in Bærum. In some municipalities in Finnmark, women's income is more than 80 per cent of men's. On the other hand, women's income is less than half of men's in a large number of municipalities.

### Majority of assets owned by men

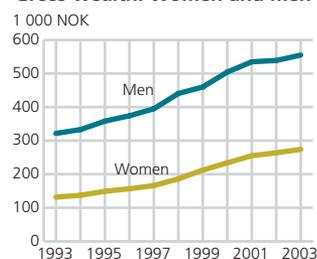
Wealth cannot be connected to one individual in a family or household as income. The registered owner of various assets can be random; in other cases it is an expression of (traditional) attitudes and the power structure in a family.

In 2003, Norwegian men had a gross wealth of almost NOK 555 000 on average, compared with NOK 274 000 for women. Women's gross wealth was almost half of men's; an increase from around 40 per cent in 1993. In other words: women were in 2003 registered as owners of 34 per cent of the total gross wealth.

Gross income for women and men, by county. 2003

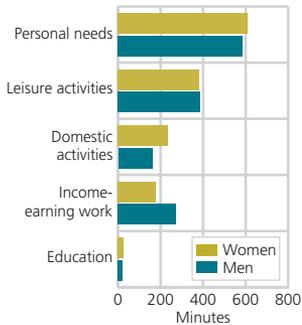


Gross wealth. Women and men

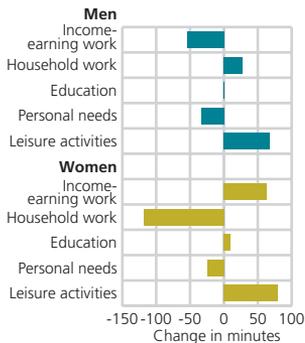


# Around the clock

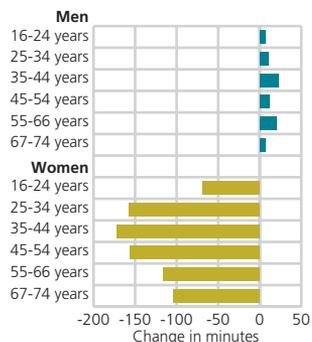
**Time spent on various activities on an average day. Women and men 16-74 years. 2000**



**Change in time spent on main activities from 1971 to 2000. Women and men 16-74 years**



**Change in time spent on domestic activities from 1971 to 2000. Women and men 16-74 years**



## In the course of 24 hours

women spend 10 hours and 11 minutes on personal needs such as sleep, personal care and meals. On average, this applies for every day of the week. Men spend 9 hours and 46 minutes on these activities.

Both women and men spend slightly more than 6 hours a day on leisure activities. Whereas women spend almost 4 hours on domestic activities, the figures are 2 hours and 40 minutes for men. Women and men spend 2 hours and 50 minutes of this time on housework respectively.

On average, women spend 3 hours a day on income-earning work, compared with 4 hours and 30 minutes for men. On average, both women and men spend 20 minutes daily on education.

## Since the 1970s ...

women and men spend an increasing amount of their time on leisure activities. This has increased since the 1970s on average by more than 1 hour to more than 6 hours per day. Women now spend 2 hours less on domestic activities and 1 hour more on income-earning work. In comparison, men spend around 30 minutes more on domestic activities and 1 hour less on income-earning work. Time spent on education has changed very little for both women and men in the past 30 years.

## Mother cleaning – father repairing

In couples with children aged 1-6 years, mothers spend more time on income-earning work than before, whereas the time spent by fathers doing domestic activities has changed little the last 30 years. Mothers spend twice as much time on housework than fathers do. In comparison, fathers spend much more time on maintenance work than mothers.

Nevertheless, maintenance work represents a rather small part of total domestic activities. The time fathers spend on childcare and paternity leave has increased in recent years.

## More leisure, more TV

The marked increase in leisure time from the 1970s to the present day has not led to more time being spent on sports and outdoor life. Instead, both women and men spend considerably more time watching TV. The one-hour increase for women and men is due to an increase in the proportion that watch TV every day, and an increase in the time spent on this activity per day.

Both women and men sleep an extra hour on Sundays and spend 15 minutes more on meals in the weekend than during the week.



### More alone, but less at home

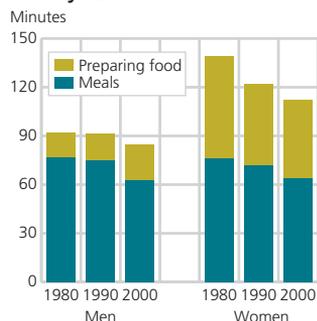
Both women and men have spent an extra hour alone per day in 2000 compared with 1990 – almost 15 hours for men and 14 and a half for women on an average day, including the time we spend sleeping.

We spend less time at home today than we did in 1980. While women spend 16 hours at home, the figure is 14 and a half for men. The time spent at home has decreased more for women (30 minutes) than men (10 minutes) during the last 20 years.

### Out and about

When travelling, we mostly use the car. The proportion of people who use the car has increased substantially since 1980. Roughly as many women as men travel by car. The time we spend on daily travel by car has remained more or less stable in recent years, on average 47 minutes for women and 1 hour for men.

### Time spent preparing food and having meals. Women and men 16-74 years



### Less time on meals

There has been an enormous interest in TV cookery programmes in recent years but this does not seem to have resulted in more time spent in the kitchen.

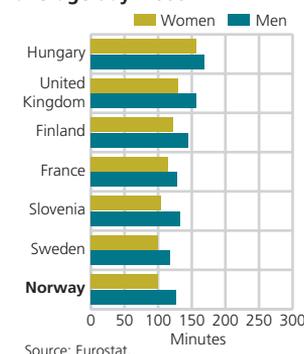
Since 1980, time spent on meals has decreased by 12 and 14 minutes for women and men respectively. Women and men spent on average 1 hour on meals in 2000.

The time spent preparing meals has increased by 7 minutes for men and fallen by 15 minutes for women since 1980. Today men spend 20 minutes and women 50 minutes on preparing meals.

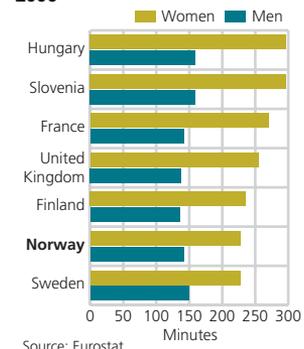
### Less time on domestic activities than other Europeans

Compared with other European countries, Norwegian women and men aged 20-74 spend more time on leisure activities and less time on domestic activities. Norwegian women spend less time on meals and personal care than women in other countries, but are among those who spend most time on income-earning work and education. This also applies to Norwegian men. French women and men get most sleep (almost 9 hours), whereas in Norway, women and men get least sleep (almost 8 hours). On average, men get slightly less sleep than women – they go to bed later and get up earlier.

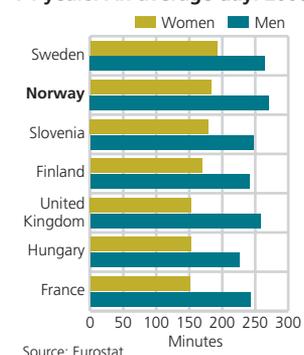
### Time spent watching TV/video in selected countries. Women and men 20-74 years. An average day. 2000



### Time spent on domestic activities in selected countries. Women and men 20-74 years. An average day. 2000

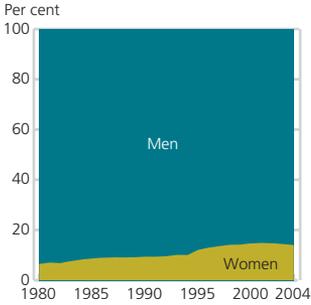


### Time spent on income-earning work and education in selected countries. Women and men 20-74 years. An average day. 2000



# Few female criminals

**Sanctions for crimes. Men and women**



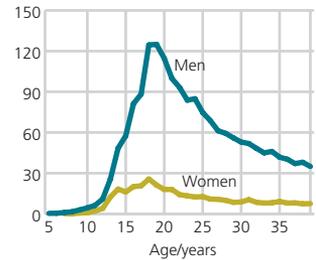
## More women breaking the law than before

Female criminals are still rare, but more common than before. Out of a total of 300 000 sentences passed in 2004, 58 600 were given women, which means that 20 per cent of the prosecuted were women.

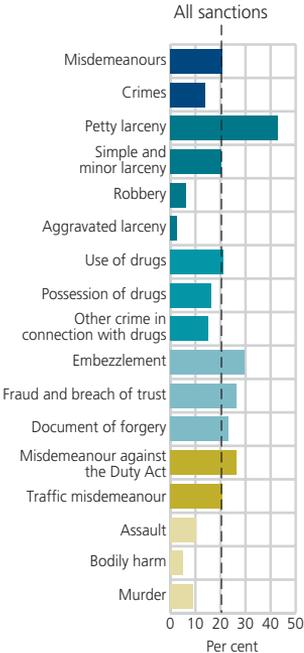
If we look solely at persons charged with crimes, the percentage for women is slightly lower than for law violations as a whole; 14 per cent of sentences for crimes were given to women. A review of different types of crimes, shows that in general women are charged with less serious crimes than men. However, there has been a clear increase since the beginning of the 1980s, when the share of female criminals was slightly less than 7 per cent, but the increase appears to have levelled off in recent years.

The highest percentage of women and men charged with crimes is found among 18-20 year-olds. However, compared with men, there are relatively more younger women charged with crimes: in the 12-14 age group, the percentage of women is 28.

**Charged with violations. Women and men by age. Per 1 000 inhabitants. 2001**



**Percentage of women sanctioned, by types of crime. 2004**



## Women more often guilty of crimes for profit and drug offences

The percentage of women varies considerably for the different types of offences. The figure is particularly high with regard to crimes for profit, such as petty theft. Young girls in particular commit these types of crimes, and in the 11-14 age group there are roughly the same number of boys and girls charged with these crimes.

Document forgery, embezzlement and fraud, as well as drug offences are all «typical» female crimes. However, women who commit these types of crimes tend to be older.

In general, there is a clear trend that the percentage of women is highest for the least serious offences and for the percentage to decline with the increasing degree of seriousness – both for theft and drug offences. This also applies to violent crimes, but the percentage of women found guilty of murder is an exception in that respect.

## Few women locked up

Approximately 8 per cent of the new inmates in prisons are currently women. However, women are given shorter sentences than men, which means that only just below 6 per cent of the inmates are women. The corresponding figure was 3 per cent 25 years ago.

## Violence: men and women both victims ...

Being asked whether they have been subjected to violence or threats of violence in the last year, around 5 per cent reply that they have – and this per-



centage has been stable in the last 20 years. Men and women appear to have about the same risk of becoming a victim of violence. It is the case for both genders that it is the youngest ones who most often state that they have been victim of violence or threats of violence.

Women are to a greater extent than men exposed to violence in intimate relationships and in their neighbourhood. Men are more often the victims of violence in the evenings and weekends, by more and less unknown assaulters, and in public areas.

### ... but women are more afraid

Far more women than men are afraid of being exposed to violence where they live: in 2004, the percentage was 13, compared with 3 per cent of men.

Younger women in particular feel anxious about being a victim of violence; in ages 16-24 the figure is almost 20 per cent, compared with 3 per cent of young men. The fear of being victimised is not necessarily connected to the likelihood of being a victim of a crime. The fact that women, to a greater extent than men, are the victims of violence in their immediate surroundings, may partly explain why many more women than men say that they feel threatened in their local environment. The differences, however, are considerable, and the share of women who fear violence and threats is much higher than the percentage of women who are subjected to it. The largest difference between the risk of being a victim and the extent of the fear can be found among the oldest women. Conversely, young men are the most frequent victims of violence but are much less worried by it.

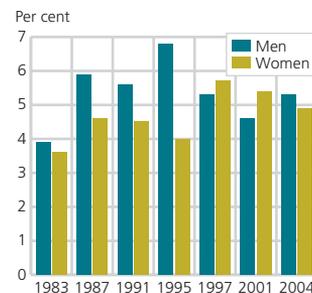
### Rape

The fact that women fear violence much more than men is no doubt due, to some extent, to rape being perceived as a threat for many women.

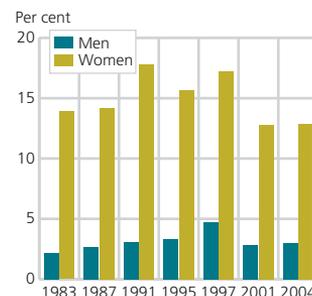
During the 1980s, there was an increased public focus on sexual assaults, and there was a gradual increase in the number of rapes being dealt with by the courts. During this decade, the number of rapes that were investigated and concluded almost tripled. Despite changes in the registration practice and the extended definition of rape in the new General Civil Penal Code of Norway (which came into force on 11 August 2000), we can establish that the number of reported rapes has increased further: the number of reported rapes in the last three years is about 60 per cent higher than 10 years previously. In 2004, almost 100 cases of attempted rapes and 740 rapes were reported.

Since 1994, the per cent of rape offences solved has fallen by a third, from around 30 to 20 per cent. 75 per cent of all rapes reported in 1997 were dismissed, 7 per cent were not settled, 5 per cent ended in acquittals and just below 13 per cent ended with one or more culprits being found guilty – after four to five years (as at 1 January 2002) in court.

Percentage of women and men who have been victims of violence or threats of violence in the last 12 months



Percentage of women and men that have feared violence or threats where they live in the last 12 months



# Breaking the glass ceiling?

**Proportion of female managers at different sectors/different levels. 2004**



## Majority of managers are men

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 2004, 29 per cent of all managers were women, an increase from 26 per cent in 2001.

The proportion of female executive managers is even lower at 23 per cent, while 32 per cent of middle managers are women. The majority of female managers work in teaching, health and social services, where more than six out of ten managers are women.

## Public sector more women friendly?

When looking at the gender distribution of managers, it may at first glance seem as if the public sector is far more “women friendly” because it employs significantly more female managers than the private sector does: 44 per cent compared to 25.

However, the high proportion of female managers is obviously related to the fact that the public sector is dominated by women – two out of three employees in the public sector are women. In terms of number of employees there are twice as many female managers in the private sector: 6 and 3 per cent of female employees are in managerial positions in the private and public sector respectively.

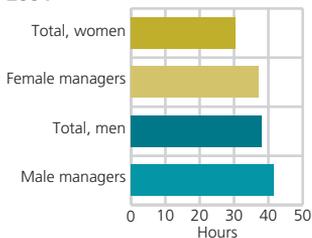
## More female entrepreneurs?

A large majority of new established enterprises are sole proprietorships, and women owned one in three enterprises established in 2004. Only a quarter of the registered sole proprietorships were owned by women. Female entrepreneurs are often found in teaching, health and social services and other personal services.

The fact that entrepreneurs have a larger share of women than the total registered sole proprietorships have, could mean that there are now more women that establish enterprises on their own than previously. However, it could also mean that more men succeed with their businesses and that more women than men give up after short time in business.

19 per cent of the board members in public limited companies are women (including deputy board members).

**Weekly working hours, all men and women and managers. 2004**



## Female managers work like men

Female managers work more than other women. Because many women work part-time the differences in working hours are much lower between women and men in managerial positions than women and men in general. The agreed working hours of female managers were 37 hours per week in 2004, four and a half hours less than for male managers. The agreed working hours for women in general were 30 hours per week, eight hours less than the average for employed men.



### Higher proportion of women in the Storting and municipal councils

The proportion of female representatives in the Storting and municipal councils rose sharply from the end of the 1960s to the end of the 1990s. This came to a halt after the last two general elections in 1997 and 2001, however the share of female representatives increased to 38 per cent after the 2005 general election. The proportion of women in municipal councils has continued to rise and was 36 per cent after the 2003 election. In the Sámi Parliament the share of female representatives is 51 per cent (2005).

In total, 48 per cent of the municipal council representatives were re-elected in 2003. Only 41 per cent of the female representatives were re-elected, whereas the corresponding figure for men was 52 per cent.

### Decreasing number of members in political parties

Compared with the 1980s, fewer women and men are members of political parties. The decline has been particularly strong among men. In 1980, 21 per cent of Norwegian men and 12 per cent of the women were members of a political party. These figures fell to 9 and 6 per cent respectively in 2004.

### Mostly male mayors

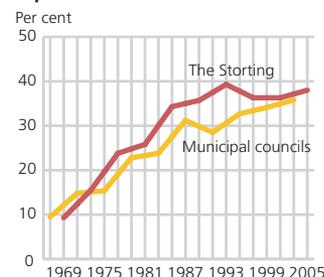
Only 73 of Norway's 434 mayors (chairmen of municipal councils) are women, which means that men hold 83 per cent of these posts after the 2003 election. The number of female mayors increased at almost every election in the 1990s, from 55 in 1991. At the last two elections the number of female deputy mayors was twice as high as the number of mayors.

### Higher voter turnout among women

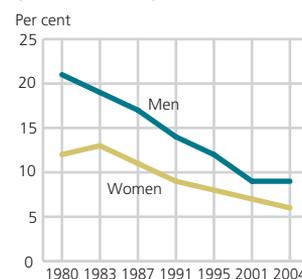
In 2001, 77.5 per cent of women and 76.8 per cent of men cast their vote in the general election. In the years following the Second World War men had a 7 per cent higher participation in general elections than women. This difference had evened out by the end of the 1980s and since then the voter turnout for women has been higher.

The voter turnout was also higher for women than men at the municipal council elections in 2003, respectively 62 and 60 per cent.

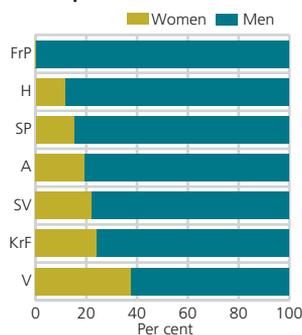
### Proportion of female Storting and municipal council representatives



### Political party membership by gender, 16-74 years



### Percentage of female and male mayors by political party. Municipal councils, 2003



Sole proprietorships only have one owner, who is personally liable. Sole proprietorships are the most common form of business organisation among new established enterprises.

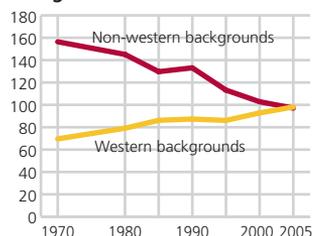
Enterprises operating in Norway at the beginning of 2005 are referred to as the registered enterprises

Enterprises founded in 2004 are known as new established enterprises.

A public limited company is defined as a company in which none of the members are personally liable for the company's debts. A public limited company normally has more shareholders than a private limited company.

# Svante and Fatima

**Gender ratio (men per 100 women) among immigrants with western and non-western background**



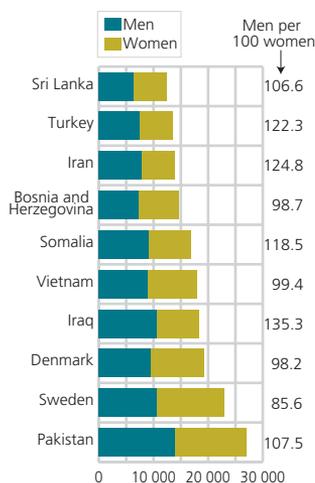
## Just as many women as men

As with the Norwegian population, the immigrant population consists of roughly the same number of women and men. At the beginning of 2005, the number of men with immigrant background was 179 800 and the corresponding figure for women was 185 200, which is a gender ratio of 97 men to 100 women.

By distinguishing between immigrants with western and non-western background, the figures show two different trends: among non-western immigrants there was a significant male overrepresentation in the 1970s. Immigration was mainly related to employment at that time. With the increase in family reunification and a growing number of marriages between Norwegian men and foreign women, the surplus of men has decreased.

Among immigrants with western background, women were overrepresented for a long time. However, today this group also has about the same number of men and women. Among refugees, there is a male surplus of 130 men per 100 women.

**Men and women, and men per 100 women in the largest immigrant groups. 1 January 2005**



## Surplus and deficit of women and men

Among the ten largest immigration groups, there is a relatively clear male dominance. The exceptions are Sweden (86 men per 100 women) and Denmark (98 men per 100 women). The share of women from these countries is highest for those aged 20-29. Men are overrepresented in the immigrant groups from both Iraq (135 men per 100 women) and Somalia (118). A significant female surplus can be found among immigrants with background from the Philippines (32 men per 100 women) and Russia (50).

## Marriage or cohabitation

The number of marriages contracted by two persons with immigrant background has increased every year, following the growth of the immigrant population. In 1990, around 4 per cent of all marriages were contracted by two persons in the immigrant population. In 2004, the corresponding figure was almost 11 per cent. When non-western immigrants enter into a relationship for the first time, they get married, while women and men without immigrant background and western immigrants more often start with cohabitation.

## Fertility falls with increasing length of stay

Immigrants from all continents have a higher fertility rate than the Norwegian average, which is now 1.8 children per woman. The average for immigrants from Eastern Europe is 1.9, and 2.6 for women from the Third World. The differences in fertility diminish as the length of stay increases. The development shows that children of first generation immigrants have a fertility pattern that is more in line with the Norwegian population than with their parents. They will therefore have fewer children than their parental generation.



### Major differences in education levels

90 per cent of women and 89 per cent of men aged 16-18 were in education in 2004. Among first generation immigrants in the same age group, 75 per cent women and 73 per cent men were in education, and the corresponding figures for their descendants were 88 and 86 per cent.

Pupils with immigrant background have poorer throughputs in upper secondary education compared with pupils in general. Of all pupils with immigrant background that started in upper secondary education in 1999, 57 per cent completed their education and 38 per cent dropped out within five years. For all young people in the same cohort, the corresponding figures were 70 and 24 per cent. The girls completed their education to a greater extent than the boys in general (girls 76 per cent and boys 66) and among young people with immigrant background (girls 66 per cent and boys 49).

Few first generation immigrants aged 19-24 are taking a university or university college education: 21 per cent of the women compared to 16 per cent of the men. The corresponding figures for their descendants are 38 per cent among women and 29 per cent among men, as in the population as a whole.

### Lower employment level

The employment level is lower among immigrants than in the total population, but the employment rate varies according to country background. In particular, women with immigrant background have a low employment level. Among first generation immigrants in the 16-74 age group, men and women had an employment rate of 61.1 and 52.2 per cent respectively in 4th quarter 2004, compared to 72.5 and 66.0 per cent in the total population. The greatest difference between men and women's employment is found in western immigrant groups, from North America, Oceania, Asia and Western Europe (not including the Nordic countries). The smallest gender differences in the employment level are in the Nordic immigrant population. The lowest employment level is found among first generation immigrants with background from African countries, with 35.5 per cent of women and 45.6 per cent of men employed.

### High unemployment rate

In the third quarter of 2005 the unemployment rates among women and men were 3.8 and 3.6 per cent respectively. Unemployment among first generation immigrants is around 10 per cent for both women and men. African immigrants have the highest unemployment rate; approximately 20 per cent for men and 17 per cent for women. The lowest unemployment level is found among the first generation immigrants from the Nordic countries and the rest of Western Europe, with around 5 per cent for men and just below 4 per cent for women.

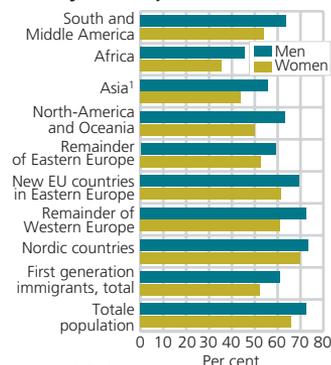
#### The immigrant population

consists of persons with two foreign-born parents: first generation immigrants that have immigrated to Norway, and persons born in Norway with two foreign-born parents (known as descendants).

**Country background** = own, or parents' native country. Persons with no immigrant background only have Norway as a country background.

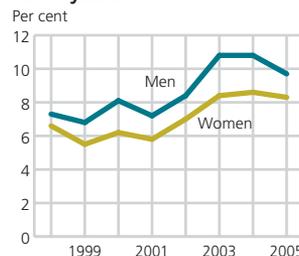
**Non-western country** = Asia including Turkey, Africa, South and Middle America and Eastern Europe.

Employment by country background in per cent of the population. Women and men 16-74 years. 4 quarter 2004



<sup>1</sup> Asia with Turkey.

Unemployed first generation immigrants. Women and men 16-74 years



# Considerable differences among the municipalities

## Municipalities at the top of the ranking:

1	Karášjohka Karasjok	3.8
"	Leikanger	3.8
3	Jølster	3.7
4	Bykle	3.6
5	Oppegård	3.5
"	Molde	3.5
"	Namsos	3.5
"	Levanger	3.5
"	Bodø	3.5
"	Tromsø	3.5
"	Vadsø	3.5
"	Hammerfest	3.5
"	Sør-Varanger	3.5

## Municipalities at the bottom of the ranking:

422	Froland	1.5
"	Hægebostad	1.5
"	Sokndal	1.5
"	Karmøy	1.5
"	Bjugn	1.5
427	Selje	1.4
"	Sande	1.4
429	Gjerstad	1.3
"	Lindesnes	1.3
"	Farsund	1.3
"	Vennesla	1.3
433	Drangedal	1.2
434	Vanylven	1.1

## Many ways to depict gender equality

The gender equality index for Norwegian municipalities has been published annually by Statistics Norway since 1999. In the Gender Equality Index we combine various indicators of gender equality that show to what extent women and men participate in politics, education and working life.

The indicators are:

- Kindergarten coverage for children aged 1-5
- Number of women per 100 men aged 20-39
- Education level for women and men
- Labour force participation for women and men
- Income for women and men
- Percentage of female municipal council members

Equality between women and men can be illustrated in different ways and by using different kinds of statistics. This combination of indicators is one of several possible ways to depict the state of gender equality in municipalities. The index is based on relevant statistics available on municipality level.

## Municipalities at the top and bottom

The 2005 gender equality index reveals considerable differences among the municipalities. Karasjok in Finnmark and Leikanger in Sogn og Fjordane have the highest score with 3.8 points, closely followed by Jølster in Sogn og Fjordane (3.7) and Bykle (3.6). The municipalities can score a maximum of 4 points and a minimum of 1 point.

Vanylven in Møre og Romsdal has the lowest score of 1.1 points, followed by Drangedal in Telemark (1.2).

The six largest cities, Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger, Trondheim, Drammen and Kristiansand all have scores above the national average of 2.5.

## About the index

This index is relative. Municipalities among the 25 per cent with the highest score are given the value 4, whereas the 25 per cent with the lowest score are given the value 1. The fact that a municipality has a 4 on income, for example, does not mean that women and men have an equally high income, only that the municipality is placed in the quartile with the highest values.

For the indicators kindergarten coverage, female municipal council members and percentage of women aged 20-39, the municipalities are ranked and grouped into quartiles and given the following point values: 4, 3, 2, and 1.

For the indicators education, employment and income, the municipalities have been ranked *both* by women's education level *and* the relative level of education for women and men. The total is divided by two, so that the maximum and minimum points are 4 and 1 respectively. The total value is subsequently divided by the total number of indicators, that is 6, which give a municipality or a county a maximum score of 4 and a minimum of 1.

More information about the Gender Equality Index for Norwegian municipalities:  
[www.ssb.no/english/subject/00/02/10/likekom\\_en/](http://www.ssb.no/english/subject/00/02/10/likekom_en/)

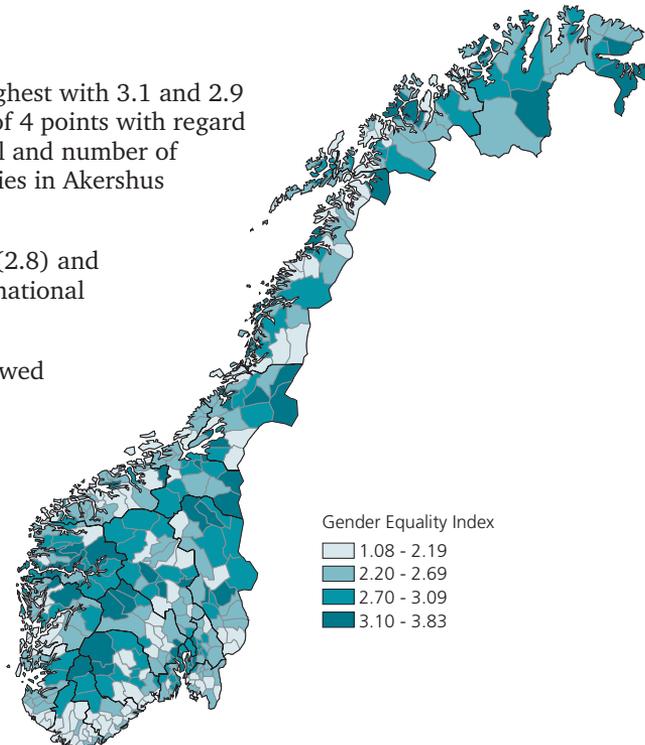


### Oslo at the top of the county ranking list

Among the counties, Oslo and Akershus score highest with 3.1 and 2.9 points respectively. Oslo gets a maximum score of 4 points with regard to female representation in the municipal council and number of women per 100 men. Almost all the municipalities in Akershus are above the national average of 2.5 points.

The counties Finnmark (2.8), Sogn og Fjordane (2.8) and Nord-Trøndelag (2.7) also score high above the national average of 2.5 points.

Vest-Agder is ranked lowest with 1.9 points followed by Aust-Agder and Møre og Romsdal with 2.2 points. These counties have low scores on each indicator. However, some of the municipalities in these counties have high scores. For example, Bykle in Aust-Agder has the fourth highest score of all the municipalities and Molde in Møre og Romsdal has the fifth highest score.



**Gender Equality Index for Norwegian municipalities. Counties. 2005**

	Index	Kindergarten coverage	Female municipal council members	Education level for women and men	Women per 100 men	Labour force participation for women and men	Income for women and men
Total	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5
Oslo	3.1	2.0	4.0	2.5	4.0	3.0	3.0
Akershus	2.9	2.1	3.2	2.3	3.7	3.2	2.9
Finnmark-Finnmárku	2.8	2.7	2.6	3.1	2.1	2.8	3.7
Sogn og Fjordane	2.8	3.1	2.4	2.9	2.3	3.3	2.7
Nord-Trøndelag	2.7	3.0	2.5	2.9	2.8	2.5	2.4
Hedmark	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.5	3.1
Buskerud	2.6	2.7	2.2	2.1	2.9	3.2	2.8
Vestfold	2.6	1.9	3.0	2.3	3.8	2.1	2.6
Oppland	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	2.6
Sør-Trøndelag	2.5	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.4
Telemark	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.3
Nordland	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.8
Troms	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	1.7	2.4	2.9
Hordaland	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.7	2.2	2.8	2.1
Østfold	2.3	1.9	2.5	2.1	3.0	2.0	2.4
Rogaland	2.3	1.9	1.9	2.7	3.1	2.5	1.8
Aust-Agder	2.2	2.3	1.9	2.7	2.5	1.8	2.0
Møre og Romsdal	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.0
Vest-Agder	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.4

# More statistics on gender equality?

*Women and men in Norway* offers only a sample of the statistics provided by Statistics Norway on gender equality. For the latest statistics, analyses and publications on the subjects dealt with in this booklet, visit [www.ssb.no/likestilling\\_en/](http://www.ssb.no/likestilling_en/)

**Key figures:**

- 3 out of 5 students at universities and university colleges are women
- 2 out of 3 women are employed
- 2 out of 5 employed women work part-time
- 3 out of 10 middle managers are women
- 72 per cent of children aged 1-5 have a kindergarten place
- 17 per cent of board members in public limited companies are women (including deputy board member)
- 2 out of 5 Storting representatives are women

**Explanation of terms**

**Employed** are people engaged in income-generating work.  
**The labour force** is the total of those in employment and unemployed.  
**Public limited company (plack):** A company in which none of the members are personally liable for the company's debts. A public limited company normally has more shareholders than a private limited company (ltd) and is governed by stricter rules with regard to the composition of the board and the share capital.

**Focus on: Gender equality**

Statistics and analyses that reveal the similarities and differences between women and men in different areas of life are important tools in the work towards gender equality. This web site presents some of Statistics Norway's material on this subject. The web site also contains statistics that show how women and men live in Norway today.

- Roughly as many women as men have higher education. But women and men's choice of studies follows traditional patterns. While women tend to choose teaching, health and care services, men tend to choose technical subjects and natural sciences.
- From the mid-1970s, the employment level for women has increased dramatically. Today there are almost as many women as men in paid work. However, there are still clear distinctions between female and male occupations, and women are much more likely to work part-time than men.
- Although more women are becoming managers, only 1 out of 10 executive managers are women. Women manifest themselves most frequently among the middle managers, particularly in teaching, health and social services.
- Women's average monthly pay was 84.5 per cent of men's in 2004. The differences in pay vary considerably according to industry, educational background and age.
- In line with increasing education and employment levels from the mid-1960s, women are having children later in life. Since 1986 and until today the average age at first birth has increased from 25 to 28 years.
- Women spend less time and men spend more time on domestic work today than at the beginning of the 1970s. But women still spend most time on domestic work.

**Average childbearing age, all births and first births, 1971-2004**

Year	All births (Age)	First births (Age)
1971	25	25
1975	26	26
1980	27	27
1985	28	28
1990	29	29
1995	30	30
2000	31	31
2004	32	32

For questions about statistics and publications, please contact:

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