

EGGE – EC’s Expert Group on Gender and Employment

Supplementary information regarding policies to promote gender equality and employment

Portugal

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**Supplementary information regarding policies to promote gender
equality and employment : Portugal**

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GENDER EQUALITY IN PORTUGAL: Some relevant issues

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The Employment and Social Council recommendations related to the Portuguese Employment policy¹ stresses the overall good performance of the Portuguese labour market (namely in terms of the employment and unemployment rates). Still it is underlined the existence of relevant structural weaknesses requiring policy action.

The document refers three main structural problems in the Portuguese labour market one of which explicitly concerns the issue of Equal Opportunities from a gender perspective (“the Portuguese labour market displays one of the most pronounced gender imbalances in terms of employment across sectors in the EU”) the other two being more general but having obviously a link with the issue of Equal Opportunities (“low levels of educational attainment and participation in further learning, as well as (despite a fall) the higher rates of early school leaving in the EU” and “the low skill level, the [need for] modernisation of work organisation and employment relations.

This note aims at producing some comments on these issues as well as to include and comment some available information allowing a better understanding of the situation.

1. Information on gender segregation at a sectoral level

1.1. General Remarks

Gender segregation (in at least one of its possible dimensions) is referred as one of the structural characteristics of the labour market of four of the Member-States having the highest female employment rate² across the EU: Sweden, United Kingdom, Finland and Portugal (Tables 2 and 3). And this is not surprising as, namely by historical reasons, the steady increase of the female participation rate, occurring essentially after the 60s, went together with a strong development of the service sector which has been the main contributor to employment creation. So, women being the latecomers into the labour market they tended, much more than men did, to occupy the newly created jobs in the

¹ The Council of European Union, 14911/01, SOC 522 ECOFIN 377.

² As well as the highest FTE employment rates within the EU.

services. This is not of course the all story but is obviously part of it being an important element to introduce some elements on the debate of this issue.

- Being a characteristic of most of the countries having high female employment rates it seems that sectoral segregation appears to have a link with high integration of female in the labour market. This fact obviously does not eliminate the existence of a segregation problem but in fact makes it appear as less accurate as it can be read as part of the process of integration of women in the labour market. If this is the main issue sectoral segregation appears more as a step towards full integration of women in the labour market having to do with the particular constraints that that process had when compared with the one of men;
- As we told before this is not, for sure, the whole story. Sectoral segregation is linked with other characteristics of the labour market such as differences in wages, differences in the most relevant forms of contract and so differences in the higher or lower precariousness of jobs. So it is important to understand the link between sectoral (and other forms of) segregation and wages as well as its link with contractual forms of employment. If segregation can be considered one of the causes of the gender wage gap or of relevant differences in the quality of jobs then desegregation has to be taken as a main area of political action. If not, sectoral segregation can be considered as a relevant characteristic of some national labour markets (that contribute to their differentiation), but not as a problem needing relevant political action³;
- Still it's important to stress that even if sectoral segregation is not considered, in itself, a negative characteristic of labour markets it is important to consider the eventual existence of effects of gender segregation on the way how the societies and the individuals integrated in those societies represent the role of men and women in the production system. If there exists a clear sectoral division of labour from a gender perspective with men and women occupying different sectors and namely if female sectors are essentially those that represent extensions of the caring role women have

³ This is one of the main discussions that cross gender studies on the labour market nowadays. At this purpose see EMEREK and *al.*, *Indicators on Gender Segregation*, in RUBERY and *al.*, *Indicators on Gender Equality in the European Employment Strategy*, Report by the Expert Group on Gender and Employment to the European Commission, 2001, pp.34-37.

traditionally occupied in the family (women concentrated on the health, educational sector and in the production of services to the households) the cultural representation of women as the *natural* agents of those activities becomes harder to break out. This can in fact represent one relevant problem as the cultural dimension of gender gaps (in the labour market and in the household) should not be underestimated and need to be taken into account in policy action;

- Despite the previous remarks some of the arguing that underestimates the relevance of gender segregation should also be considered. Mainly the arguing that stresses the dynamics that female dominated sectors did show in terms of promotion of family friendly working arrangements and working schedules associated with a deeper involvement of the economic agents on those sectors (both employers and unions) in the issue of Equal Opportunities has to be integrated on the analysis⁴. The eventual existence of this type of effect has also to be considered as one of the dimensions to be taken into account and that may justify that policy action to reduce sectoral gender segregation becomes less important or even not important.

1.2. Sectoral segregation in Portugal: some relevant empirical evidence

Data on the sectoral distribution of employment by sector and gender show some relevant particularities from a European perspective.

At a very aggregate level (concerning the employment distribution amongst the three main sectors of activity) there are obvious particularities of the Portuguese situation both in general terms and in a gender perspective:

- Portugal has, when compared to the European average, a relative weight of the Services in the employment structure (less 10.8 percentage points than the EU in 2000) that is counterbalanced by a relative higher weight of both the Agriculture and the Industry (Industry: more 4.3 p.p. than the EU; Agriculture: more 6.4 p.p. than the EU)⁵;

⁴ See EMEREK and *al.* (2001), p.36. There is a reference to the case of Denmark where “family friendly occupations are mostly found in female-dominated sectors, as most male-dominated sectors as well as male dominated unions are not willing to rethink their system of work organisation”.

⁵ See Annex, Table 4.

- When the dimension gender is brought into the analysis it becomes clear that these differences concern both men and women but that the diversities are much more extreme in the group of women: the relative weight of Services in the female employment structure is, in Portugal, 14.7 p.p. lower than it is in the EU while the relative weight of Agriculture and Industry is, respectively, 8.8 p.p. and 6.3 p.p. higher in Portugal than in the EU;
- Besides the structure of employment it is important to stress that in Portugal women occupy more jobs than men do both in the Services (53.7% of total employment in the Service sector) and in Agriculture (50.7% of total employment in Agriculture).

Despite the difficulties to accede to detailed sectoral distribution of employment (see note Table 5) three main aspects appear from the available information reported on Tables 7 to 9:

- Women are the great majority of workers on three main sectors (they represent 75% or more of total employment on these sectors): Home services, Health and Social Action and Education. It's obvious that these three sectors are directly or indirectly linked with traditional household activities namely domestic work and care. So, and despite of the importance of these sectors on overall well-being and on cultural changes, it is also deserve noting that the massive presence of women on these sectors acts in the sense of reproducing the traditional representation of the role of women in production. At this level I think that the most important line of action is on the sense of acting on the promotion of cultural changes and mainly in the sense of valorising the role of men on care, education and family life;
- The way how men and women distribute amongst the more and the less feminised sectors of economic activity do evidence a relevant difference: the more feminised sectors (6 sectors have been considered on Table 7) besides representing half of the total employment of women also represent an important part of men's total employment (50.2% of women's employment and 21.6% of men's employment); the less feminised sectors (7 sectors have been considered in Table 7) represent an almost negligible part of women's employment and an important but far from the majority of men's employment. This evidence

indicates that men are much more spread on the different sectors of the activity than women do;

- The evidence stressed on the previous point is also visible within the sector of manufacturing that, as we stressed previously, keeps a high importance in the Portuguese employment structure and namely on female employment structure. Again, the evidence of Tables 8 and 9 shows that women, much more than men are concentrated on some sectors and namely in the traditional industries such as Textile and Leather. In these sectors, and despite the fact that women occupy the majority of jobs, men occupy a number of jobs that remains important in terms of men's total employment in Manufacturing.

2. Gender gaps by educational level

Portugal went on the last decades through important changes on its educational system. The fact that the big changes occurring in this area are one of the outcomes of the implementation of a democratic regime in 1974 is one of the reasons for the contrasts that are visible on the level of education in different generations: there is a higher incidence of lack of any formal education (any degree agreed) among women than among men (see Tables 10 and 13) but having clearly a generational dimension as people without any school degree are concentrated on the older age groups⁶.

As to the active age population the Portuguese situation is characterised by three main aspects:

- The low education level of the country clearly expressed on the high incidence of low educational level of the population on working age and namely on the population aged 25-64: In Portugal 79% of this age group had, at the most, a secondary level of education while in the EU this percentage is 38%⁷. So Portugal more than doubles the EU average regarding the relative expression of low educated individuals in its adult population the counterpart of which is, obviously, the high deficit that Portugal has (in EU standards) of medium and highly qualified

⁶ CIDM, *Portugal 2001. Situação das Mulheres*, 2001, p.58.

⁷ These percentages refer to 1999 (see Table 12).

population. In terms of the incidence of low educational attainment it must be emphasised that Portugal ranks last in the EU, far behind its more close partners⁸.

- The introduction of the gender dimension, clearly shows that, on this perspective, the gender imbalance tends to favour women: women, more than men, are investing in education particularly in the youngest group of the population (see Table 12). So women (and/or their families) are investing more in education and so are investing more in the promotion of their future situation. This will, for sure, act in future terms in the sense of pressing the reduction of the existing gender gaps in the Portuguese labour market by several means: i) changing the conditions of labour supply, ii) promoting cultural changes as highly educated women tend to be more active than less educated ones, iii) creating pressure on the demand side of the labour market in order to generalise awareness against eventual attitudes of employers' discrimination and iv) creating more social pressure on the need of expanding the existing care structures (childcare but also elderly care and care services to some specific target groups). Still it must not be forgotten that, given the low departure point, this process will expand quite slowly. Aspect that should act in the sense of making politically evident the benefits of gender mainstreaming the employment policy, namely on the fundamental issue of the employability pillar, as the cross contribution of pillar 1 and pillar 4 can be most productive both in improving the quality of the labour force and in doing it by means of the promotion of gender equality issues.
- The ongoing tendencies on the highest education level must be integrated with the two previous points. Portugal is, according to the available data (Table 14) the EU country with the higher ratio of women in tertiary education as related to men (134 women by every 100 men). This reflects, in my perspective, a strategy by means of which women (and families) are behaving as if they want to compensate some disadvantages they have in the labour market by creating conditions of advantage. This tendency will not appear as necessary if the Portuguese labour market becomes less gender differentiated and as far as more conditions are implemented to reconcile work and family life both for men and for women. It still is an important sign on

⁸ The percentage of individuals (aged 25-64) having less than upper secondary education is 65% in Spain, 57% in Italy, 51% in Ireland and 50% in Greece. In all the other EU countries this group represented less than 50% of individuals aged 25-64. Denmark, Germany and the UK have the lowest incidence of low educated people: 20% (EC and Eurostat, *The Social Situation in the European Union*, 2001, p.118).

how individuals (and female mainly) have a perception and a strategy on the existing gender biases within the labour market. The follow-up of this situation deserves further and deep analysis in order to identify the changes that it is generating (or not) and the reasons for it.

3. Measures to improve conciliation between family and working life

Despite the high female activity and employment rates Portugal keeps a traditional domestic division of labour. The recent promotion of an Inquire on the way how men and women use their time clearly shows that domestic work and care services are mainly committed to women: employed women spend, on average, 4 hours a day in domestic work and caring while employed men only spend an hour on those activities with the obvious implications on the time spent on work (and study) and on the time dedicated to leisure and resting activities.

The strategic action that has been implemented in the last years on the area of the promotion of Equal Opportunities in the labour market has clearly linked these two realities making the issue of reconciliation between work and family life the more central one. The rationality that lies beyond this political strategy is that, both from a demand perspective and from a supply perspective, the promotion of full gender equality cannot be achieved without the promotion of gender equality within family life: in the demand perspective action has to be promoted in terms of preventing employers' discrimination linked to the fact that they associate a higher risk to contracting a woman than to contracting a men (essentially because of the "risk" of maternity); in the supply side it means that if a better division of domestic tasks and care is promoted men and women would face identical constraints in their decisions of participating or not in the labour market.

Being so the main idea is that maternity and paternity rights and duties have to be more similar in formal and in real terms. This is central to the promotion of equality as a universal social value and is a question of utmost importance given the difficulties that have been felt, in Portugal and in all the other European countries, of making Equal Opportunities a global aim and task involving, thus, men and women. Developments are urgent in the sense of promoting the policy instruments that guarantee that non-

dependent individuals have the **duty** (which is often stated but not though as something that can be a field of further policy action) but also the **right** of caring the relative dependants they have. This last topic is considered in Portugal as a decisive one and represents a big challenge for the institutions acting in the field of Equal Opportunities as it needs decisive action in the cultural domain introducing big changes in the way how **men and women** represent their identity as individuals and their role in social reproduction of society.

The recent developments on the legislation of maternity and paternity leaves had this central issue as background: changes have been introduced in terms of the enlargement of the length of the remunerated leave for the father after the birth of a child and an enlargement of 15 days of the maternity leave is guaranteed under the condition that this extra days are asked by the father. In last March the Government has also announced that the 5 days of remunerated leave to which the father is entitled would be made compulsive. Some public debate occurred by then about the necessity (and even about the legitimacy) of developing legislation on this sense. Still, and despite being publicly announced, the measure has never been implemented even if the prevailing strategy amongst the main political responsible for the area of Equal Opportunities was to take this measure as a departure point for the enlargement of compulsive paternity leave allowing to more equally dividing it between mothers and fathers in reality⁹.

Given the centrality that measures on reconciliation of work and family life have been agreed on Portuguese policy action in the field of Equal Opportunities, three main developments appear to be decisive on the promotion of reconciliation of work and family life:

- The first one is to continue the revision of the legal dispositions of maternity and paternity leaves on the direction previously described. The public debate it generates (namely at the level of the Social Partners) and the deep cultural challenges it introduces in terms of promoting a discussion of the existing Gender Pact and the renewal that it must suffer in order to be fully adequate to a more equal participation of men and women in the labour market and in education, are not minor aspects of this changes. The focus of this discussion on both rights and duties of both men and women being a major point of the promotion of new attitudes both of men and of

⁹ The legal dispositions already allow that, after a period of time (6 weeks) that is necessarily taken by the mother, the leave can be taken by the mother or by the father by simple agreement between them.

women urgently needed in order to enlarge the visibility of the social dimension of Equal Opportunities and of the expression of its full accomplishment in the promotion of the well-being of both men and women and so of the all society;

- The full promotion of reconciliation of work and family life implies, also, a higher availability of care infrastructures. Structures of childcare need to be extended namely for the very young children (under 3 years) that's where the lacks are more relevant. Some interesting experiences have been promoted at the local level essentially relying on the logic that middle age inactive women, wanting to care for small children, could be part of the process of the needed expansion of these type of services potentially providing a double benefit by means of allowing the promotion of care and by means of the involvement of previously inactive women in care (activity that the great majority of them has developed along their life within the family). This process also aimed at promoting local strategies helping to improve the links between local agents. Still this type of experiences developed slowly as it needs formal procedures of validation and evaluation that are sometimes difficult to implement. By their own nature these experiences are a sort of “formalisation of the informality” making, sometimes, the minimum requested formalities not easy to implement¹⁰. The expansion of the public care services for small children is progressing but is still far from being sufficient more emphasis needing to be put on its promotion. The development of care services for children aged 3 to 5 has been developing faster in the last years. Quantified targets have been stated at the NAPs and, evaluations show that the country is now close to full coverage of care services for children aged 5 and the target of steady increase of the coverage of care services for children aged 3 and 4 by 2006 seems to be progressing in the good direction. The recent change of Government (a new Government, resorting from a different political field, is in function since the beginning of April) represents, in this area, some uncertainty regarding the future. It's not still certain, by now, if the engagement in care for young children will remain as a priority or not¹¹.

¹⁰ The control of quality of the care service is not easy, but is crucial, for the success of the experience.

¹¹ The next NAP to be published will, at this level, be a crucial element. There's nothing on the political speech and on the profile of the new responsible for the employment area that induce pessimism towards the engagement in the existing targets. The question relies on the fact of the emphasis to be put in its future development, as it is not a main or either frequent topic on the ongoing debates.

- At the level of the promotion of care the main emphasis continues to be placed at the level of childcare. But it becomes urgent to put more emphasis in the promotion of care services to the elderly. Portuguese population is becoming older as it happens all around Europe and urgent needs exist in this area that combines, more closely, services of care and medical services. The deficits on the availability of this type of structure is becoming more and more visible (both in quantitative and in qualitative terms) making it urgent to define quantitative targets for the creation of care services for the elderly: in fact, till very recently, a relevant percentage of the elders were cared within families where the inactivity of women was common. Still the older generations of female population in working age are more and more generations of families where most of the women are active. This fact, together with the increase of life expectancy, has made more and more urgent the need for more services on this area as well as the need to diversify the services supplied in this domain: the ageing process is very different from individual to individual, from region to region and from family to family. Probably there would be some gain in joining together within the employment targets the objective of “active ageing” and of “assuring the quality of ageing”. The first appears to be part of the second and must not shadow the achievement of this second target. So, in Portugal, and probably all along the EU quantitative and qualitative targets for elderly care should be included in the NAPs under the guidelines that refer both to ageing and to care;
- The promotion of family friendly forms of organisation of working time has to be implemented under the targets of both the pillar of Adaptability and of Equal Opportunities. It seems to me very important that these two logics underpin the promotion of forms of working time aiming at the reconciliation of work and family life in order to ensure that the promoted measures are not only the ones that make women's work more flexible (namely by the classical receipt of promoting part-time work) but that promote new forms (probably sector shaped as different sectors, different jobs and even different firms have different possibilities -or not- of promoting flexible working forms) of working time arrangements allowing more flexibility aimed (also) at allowing the worker to better reconcile work and family life. These rearrangements imply that the issue of reconciliation enters the debate between the Social Partners implying that an important effort is done in order to improve the sensibility of both the Unions and the Employers' organisations to the

promotion of the social well being that better mechanisms of reconciliation allow. Employers know that the more motivated their employees are the more productive they will be and this motivation can also be achieved on the grounds of a less stressing reconciliation of work and family life. Of course this issue will only become a relevant topic for the discussion if men and women appear as implicated on it and so assume themselves as agents and beneficiaries of these new arrangements. And here we are back again to our departure point: if the issue of reconciliation does not mobilise the whole society, and namely if it does not mobilise unions in order to put the issue of reconciliation on the centre of the social debate, it will probably be easier to promote family friendly arrangements on sectors (firms) that are female dominated. At least in the short term. But this should not make us forget the long term effects of this type of process: it's true that the existence of negotiated working time and working organisation arrangements, developed in sectors where the composition of the working force as been more favourable to their emergency, can create conditions for their improvement and after for their diffusion to other sectors. But it is also true that the process, in itself, will produce as a result the reinforcement of the prevailing cultural values according to which "care" is "naturally" a female task. By reinforcing reconciliation measures essentially on the female sectors more quick effects in terms of the development of family friendly arrangements will probably be achieved but, in my perspective, the cost of the eventual reinforcement of the prevalent cultural values should not be underestimated. In Portugal this is no doubt a crucial issue that has to shape the measures of political action on the field of Equal Opportunities.

4. Wage gap

Despite the fact that this topic has not been mentioned on the themes to be developed on this report I think that some comments are needed on this issue. Portugal has not any recommendation on this topic and is quoted, in the report of the EC¹², as a country with

¹² Commission of the European Communities, 2001, *Assessment Implementation of the 2001 Employment Guidelines. Supporting Document to the Joint Employment Report 200*, p.134.

a good performance on this issue in EU terms. My comments on this topic rely on two main issues:

- The first refers to the recognised limitations of the existing data on wages and earnings and the contradictory results that often appear when we use different statistical sources. Portugal is, precisely, one of the EU countries where this happens: its performance is very good when we compare the performance of the EU countries based on the ECHP but it worsens deeply when we use the ESES database (in terms of the gender pay gap, hourly earnings, by Member State the ranking of the EU countries Portugal drops from 1st position to 9th)¹³. The good performance of Portugal in terms of this indicator does not correspond to the normal values that are used on the characterisation of the situation of the Portuguese labour market. It is true, in fact, that the national source usually used for the calculations of the gender pay gap (and in general terms for research on wages) is a database that only concerns the private sector (*Quadros de Pessoal*, Ministry of Employment) and that the ECHP indicates the existence of a relevant gap on the gender gap between the public and private sector in the country that really exists, but the measurement of the gap, given the identified limitations of the data source used to measure it at the EU level does not allow us to fully trust on the optimistic evaluation of the gender pay gap existing in Portugal that the EC includes in its analysis;
- Given this limitation of sources less emphasis should be placed on the good situation of the country from this perspective (which differs from the figures included in the Portuguese NAP¹⁴). And for sure, even if we consider this measurement as sufficient for comparison purposes, the high gap between the performance on gender pay between the public and the private sector would deserve

¹³ At this purpose see BARY and *al.*, *Indicators on Gender Gaps in Pay and Income*, in RUBERY and *al.*, *Indicators on Gender Equality in the European Employment Strategy*, Report by the Expert Group on Gender and Employment to the European Commission, 2001, pp.71-95. In this chapter it is presented a very detailed analysis of the existing sources of pay and income data available in the EU and the problems and positive aspects of each of them stressing the misleading analysis and recommendations that derive, namely, from the use of the data source ECHP.

¹⁴ In page 105 of the Portuguese National Action Plan, 2001, the Portuguese situation in terms of gender gap is characterised as follows: “women’s gross **average earnings** represent approximately 72.4% of men’s; this value rises to 79.9% if the effect of unequal sector distribution is removed, and to 86.1% if the effects of sector distribution and qualification levels are removed”.

to be considered as a relevant characteristic of the Portuguese pay system which appears quite marginalised on the EC analysis¹⁵

Conclusions

The previous elements, despite the lack of information easily available in useful time for this study, allow some conclusive remarks:

- i) The first comment relates to the access (difficulties of access) to statistical information related to gender issues. It is deserve stressing that, despite the statements of the successive NAPs, and despite the determination of the EC determining that all the relevant statistical information on individuals should be broken down by gender, the Portuguese National Institute of Statistics (INE) does not publish regularly all the available employment information disaggregated by gender: This fact makes the access to information more difficult, expensive and often not available in relevant time contributing to introduce additional difficulties to something that the existing Portuguese NAPs state as an objective: the promotion of gender studies;
- ii) As to the concrete topics that have been commented the following main conclusions can be enounced in synthetically terms:
 - Sectoral gender segregation is not, in itself, a problem deserving concrete action able to promote short-term changes. Still two main questions are strictly linked with this issue: the cultural link between certain activities and women's *natural* skills reinforcing the existing stereotypes on women's role in work and in family life; The need to better understand the type of link existing between the sectoral distribution of men and women in the labour market and the gender pay gaps.
 - The previous statements allow us to consider that urgent research on the dimension and on the causes of the gender pay gap is necessary in Portugal as it is in the EU. At this level we fear that the current conclusions of the EC (included on the more recent *Joint Employment Reports*) stressing the good performance of Portugal on terms of its gender pay gaps give wrong signs to the Portuguese authorities. Development of research and prudence in policy conclusions urge on this area.

¹⁵ See, at this purpose, Commission of the European Communities, 2001, *Assessment Implementation of the 2001 Employment Guidelines. Supporting Document to the Joint Employment Report 200*, p.134.

- The importance of acting in the field of changing cultural values appears to be decisive. Of course most of the results of this type of action will only occur in the long run but they will traduce the fundamental needed changes. The institutional debate on the issue of reconciliation of work and family life appears as the most decisive process to implement and three main topics appear to be central on this debate: the improvements on the legal dispositions on maternity and paternity conceived as a right and a duty of both mothers and fathers; the inclusion, on the priorities of the country, of the target of to developing the structures of care (childcare, elderly care and others); the need to improve adaptability within the labour market also by means of promoting family friendly working organisation forms as a way of improving the quality of life of workers and their motivation at work.
- The recognition that Portugal has a structural problem in terms of its labour market with obvious links in the area of Equal Opportunities that is the deficit of formal education of its population and of its labour force. The effort in the promotion of the education level of the Portuguese labour force, going together with the previously enounced processes, will tend to contribute to the incorporation of the new values in individuals and in the society.

ANNEX
Statistics

Table 1 - Employment rates in the EU
%

	Total	Women	Men	M-W (pp)
EU				
1975	63.3	43.8	83.4	39.6
1985	59.3	44.7	74.3	29.6
1990	62.2	49.1	75.3	26.2
1996	60.3	50.8	70.3	19.5
2000	63.3	54.0	72.5	18.5
Portugal				
1975	72.2	53.6	92.4	38.8
1985	64.0	48.8	80.4	31.6
1990	64.9	52.7	78.2	25.5
1996	64.0	55.7	72.9	17.2
2000	68.3	60.3	76.6	16.3

Source: EC, *Employment in Europe*, 2000 and 2001

Table 2 - Employment rate in the EU Member-States in 2000 (1)

Countries	Employment rate (%)			
	Total	Women	Men	M-W pp
Denmark	76.3	71.6	80.8	9.2
Sweden	73.0	71.0	74.8	3.8
United Kingdom	71.2	64.6	77.8	13.2
Finland	67.5	64.4	70.6	6.2
Netherlands	73.2	63.7	82.4	18.7
Portugal	68.3	60.3	76.6	16.3
Austria	68.3	59.4	77.0	17.6
Germany	65.4	57.9	72.8	14.9
France	62.2	55.3	69.3	14.0
Ireland	65.1	54.0	76.1	22.1
Belgium	60.5	51.5	69.5	18.0
Luxembourg	62.9	50.3	75.1	24.8
Greece	55.6	40.9	71.1	30.2
Spain	55.0	40.3	69.9	29.6
Italy	53.5	39.6	67.5	27.9
EU	63.3	54.0	72.5	18.5

Source: EC, *Employment in Europe*, 2001

(1) The ranking of countries follows the employment rate of women from the highest to the lowest

Table 3 - FTE Employment rate in the EU Member-States in 2000 (1)

Countries	FTE Employment rate (%)			
	Total	Women	Men	M-W pp
Denmark	69.3	62.2	76.9	14.7
Finland	64.9	60.5	69.3	8.8
Sweden	65.1	60.2	70.0	9.8
Portugal	66.6	57.1	76.6	19.5
Austria	63.5	51.0	76.2	25.2
United Kingdom	61.7	49.7	74.4	24.7
France	58.7	48.7	69.2	20.5
Belgium	60.5	46.6	74.4	27.8
Germany	58.6	46.1	71.1	25.0
Ireland	60.6	45.2	75.8	30.6
Luxembourg	60.4	44.6	75.9	31.3
Netherlands	57.2	40.1	74.6	34.5
Greece	55.3	40.0	71.5	31.5
Italy	51.7	36.7	67.0	30.3
Spain	52.5	36.6	69.0	32.4
EU	57.9	45.3	71.0	25.7

Source: EC, *Employment in Europe*, 2001

(1) The ranking of countries follows the FTE employment rate of women from the highest to the lowest

Table 4 – Share of employment by sector in the EU and in Portugal - 2000

	Total	Women	Men
EU			
Agriculture	4.4	3.4	5.1
Industry	26.9	14.0	36.6
Services	68.8	82.5	58.3
Portugal			
Agriculture	10.8	12.2	9.9
Industry	31.2	20.3	40.6
Services	58.0	67.8	49.6

Source: EC, *Employment in Europe*, 2001

**Table 5 - Portugal: Structure of the employment by economic sector - 2001
(thousands)**

Sectors	Total	Men	Women
Agriculture and Fishing	628,7	309.8	319.0
Industry, Construction, Energy and Water	1716.1	1200.4	515.7
Manufacturing	1081.9		
Construction	581.8		
Services	2644.3	1224.0	1420.3
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs	752.2		
Hotels and restaurants	255.0		
Transports, communications	194.2		
Financial intermediation	86.7		
Housing and property sales and services to the enterprises	224.5		
Public administration, defence and compulsory social security	310.9		
Education	280.6		
Health and social action	252.0		
Other social and individual and collective services	145.7		
Other services	142.7		
TOTAL	4989.1	2734.2	2255.0

Source: INE, *Estatísticas do Emprego - 4º trimestre de 2001*, Table 5

Note: The National Institute of Statistics (INE) does not include in the published outcome of the Employment Enquire that is done every 3 months in Portugal, information, at a disaggregated level, on the gender composition of employment of the different sectors. This information, being available is not published, implying that administrative procedures have to be taken to accede to it. Although those procedures have been made, the information is still not available on the data of the writing of this report. So, more desegregated information had to be reported to previous years.

Table 6 – Structure of employment by economic sector –2001 (%)

Sectors	Total	Men	Women
Agriculture and fishing	12.6	11.3	14.1
Industry, Construction, Energy and Water	34.4	43.9	22.9
Manufacturing	21.7		
Construction	11.7		
Services	53.0	44.8	63.0
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs	15.1		
Hotels and restaurants	5.1		
Transports, communications	3.9		
Financial intermediation	1.7		
Housing and property transactions, and services to the enterprises	4.5		
Public administration, defence and compulsory social security	6.2		
Education	5.6		
Health and social action	5.1		
Other collective, social and personal services	2.9		
Other services	2.9		
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: INE, *Estatísticas do Emprego – 4º trimestre de 2001*, Table 5

Table 7 – Economic sectors with the highest and the lowest employment of women and their importance in total employment: 1999 (%)

Sectors	% of women in the employment of the sector	Men	Women
<i>Sectors having the higher % of women in employment</i>			
Home services	98.8		
Health and social action	80.3		
Education	75.0		
Hotels and restaurants	58.8		
Other social and individual collective services	56.8		
Agriculture	52.7		
% of total employment		21.6	50.2
<i>Sectors having the lower % of women in employment</i>			
Fishing	2.1		
Construction	3.6		
Mining	6.1		
Production and distribution of electricity, gas and water	9.4		
Transports, storing and communication	22.4		
International organisations	28.6		
Public administration, defence and compulsory social security	35.5		
% of total employment		27.1	2.7

Source: INE, *Estatísticas do Emprego – 4º trimestre de 1999*, Table 5

Table 8 - Structure of employment in Manufacturing, 1997 (thousands)

	Total	Men	Women
Manufacturing	783 052	421 681	361 371
Food, drinks and tobacco	80 937	43 470	37 467
Textile	227 134	60 860	166 274
Leather	65 481	25 624	39 857
Wood and cork	38 871	28 280	10 591
Paper, editing and printing	40 409	27 321	13 088
Coal, refined oil and nuclear fuel	101	84	17
Chemistry products and synthetical or artificial fibres	21 367	14 348	7 019
Rubber and plastics	18 771	13 239	5 532
Non-metallic minerals	60 179	40 453	19 726
Metallic Products	71 042	58 847	12 195
Machines and equipment	36 227	29 163	7 064
Electric and optical products	47 097	22 456	24 641
Production of transportation products	30 921	24 943	5 978
Non-specified manufacturing	44 515	32 593	11 922

Source: Ministério do Trabalho e da Solidariedade, *Quadros de Pessoal – 1997*, Tables 31, 33 e 35.

Table 9 – Manufacturing sectors with the highest and the lowest employment of women and their importance in total employment: 1999 (%)

Sectors	% of women in the employment of the sector	Men	Women
<i>Sectors having the higher % of women in employment</i>			
Textile	73.2		
Leather	60.9		
Electric and optical products	56.6		
% of total employment		25.8	63.9
<i>Sectors having the lower % of women in employment</i>			
Coal, refined oil and nuclear fuel	16.8		
Metallic Products	17.2		
Production of transportation products	19.3		
% of total employment		20.0	5.0

Source: Ministério do Trabalho e da Solidariedade, *Quadros de Pessoal – 1997*, Tables 31, 33 e 35.

Table 10 – Education level of the Portuguese population aged 25 or more in 2000 (%)

Education level	Men	Women	Total	Feminisation rate (%)
None	14.4	26.9	21.1	68.0
Basic	69.8	57.6	63.3	48.4
1 st level	41.7	36.3	38.8	49.8
2 nd level	17.4	12.9	15.0	45.7
3rd level	10.7	8.4	9.5	47.1
Secondary	9.2	7.7	8.4	48.8
Superior	6.6	7.8	7.2	57.2
Polytechnic	1.7	2.7	2.2	64.5
University	4.9	5.1	5.0	54.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: CIDM, *Portugal 2001. Situação das Mulheres*, p.58 (INE, *Inquérito ao Emprego*)

Table 11 – Population aged 25-64 by level of educational attainment (%) and sex, 1999

	Total	Women	Men	M-W (pp)
EU				
Less than upper secondary	38	41	65	24
Upper secondary	42	41	73	32
Tertiary education	40	19	56	36
Portugal				
Less than upper secondary	79	77	80	3
Upper secondary	12	12	11	-1
Tertiary education	10	11	8	-3

Source: EC and Eurostat, *The Social Situation in the European Union, 2001*, p.118

Table 12 – Percentage of the population that has completed at least upper secondary education, by sex and age-group, 1999

	Total	Women	Men	M-W (pp)
EU				
Total, age-group 25-64	62	59	65	6
Age-group 25-29	74	75	73	-2
Age-group 50-64	49	43	56	13
Portugal				
Total, age-group 25-64	21	23	20	-3
Age-group 25-29	35	39	31	-8
Age-group 50-64	12	12	12	0

Source: EC and Eurostat, *The Social Situation in the European Union, 2001*, p.118

Table 13 – Education level of the Portuguese population aged 15 to 64 in 2000 (%)

Education level	Total	Men	Women	M-W (pp)
None	8.9	6.1	11.6	-5.5
Basic	70.3	75.0	65.8	4.2
Secondary	13.5	12.9	14.1	-1.2
Superior	7.3	6.1	8.5	-2.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Source: INE, *Indicadores Sociais*, 2001.

Table 14 – Females per 100 males in tertiary education

Education level	EU	Portugal
1981/82	80	102
1997	107	134

Source: EU and EUROSTAT, *The Social Situation in the European Union*, 2001, p.118.

Table 15 – Percentage of women, students and graduates by education area (1996/97)

Scientific area	Students	Graduates
Educational sciences	78.1	82.5
Arts	57.6	62.8
Language and Literature	77.6	79.0
Religion and Theology	34.8	26.7
Social Sciences	64.7	64.8
Business and Management	54.7	58.5
Law	63.8	65.9
Natural Sciences	60.1	67.9
Mathematics and Informatics	50.5	52.3
Medical Sciences	71.8	77.1
Engineering	27.1	30.8
Architecture and Urbanism	47.5	43.9
Agriculture and Fishing	53.1	55.5
Nutrition Sciences	75.1	77.6
Information and Documentation	72.1	72.3
Others	52.9	60.8
TOTAL	57.1	63.8

Source: CIDM, *Portugal 2001. Situação das Mulheres*, p.62

Table 16: Portugal: Average daily use of time of the employed population by main activities

	Men	Women
Work and study	7h 33m	5h 53m
Homework and care	0h 54m	3h 57m
Others	15h 33m	14h 10m

Source: INE, 1999, *O uso do tempo*, p.3.