Summary

Emancipation Monitor 2016

Editors:
Wil Portegijs (scp)
Marion van den Brakel (cbs)

Met medewerking van:
Marijke Hartgers (cbs)
Math Akkermans (cbs)

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The goal of Dutch emancipation policy is to promote equal rights, equal opportunities, equal liberties and (shared) responsibilities for women and men. In order to achieve this, a number of objectives and targets have been formulated in several areas: labour market participation; educational and career choice; combining work and care tasks; economic independence; wage differences; representation in senior positions; and safety and health. The Emancipation Monitor (Emancipatiemonitor), which is published every two years, contains a large number of recent statistics on the position of women and men in these areas. The purpose of the Monitor is to track the emancipation process in the Netherlands and to investigate whether it is developing in the direction envisaged in the government’s emancipation policy.

Key findings

Chapter 2 Population
- The population profile in the Netherlands is changing: the share of older persons is growing, as is the share of women and men with a non-Dutch background.
- The number of single-parent families is continuing to increase; women are much more often single parents than men. The proportion of single mothers of Antillean and Surname origin is also relatively high.
- The number of single-person households is rising; more older women than older men live alone.
- Over a third of all marriages end in divorce.
- The number of births remains low; the average age at which women have their first child has increased slightly (to 29.6 years), especially among women of non-Western origin.

Chapter 3 Education
- Girls perform roughly as well as boys in the national school tests at the end of their primary school career.
- Girls are overrepresented in the higher educational tracks in general secondary education and senior secondary vocational education.
- The proportion of women going on to higher education has been above 50% for years; the percentage of female first-year students is higher among those of non-Western origin than in the Dutch native population.
- The share of women that received a PhD degree was just under 50% in the academic year 2014-15, but is still growing; this increase is concentrated mainly in the health care and welfare disciplines.
- Women graduate from higher education more often and also more quickly than men.
As the generations progress, women are gradually making up their educational disadvantage relative to men. In the population aged 25-45 years, women are more highly educated than men, while in the age range 45-65 years they are almost as well educated as men.

Among young adults (18-25 years), women more often have an initial qualification for the labour market than men. Of the population aged 18-25 who are no longer at school, men of non-Western origin least often have an initial qualification.

Women of non-Western origin training to entrance level in senior secondary vocational education drop out of their courses relatively rarely; most of them continue to higher tracks of senior secondary vocational education.

Girls differ from boys in their choice of educational discipline, but at all educational levels the difference in choice of discipline decreases to a greater or lesser extent. Sex segregation in education is still greatest in pre-vocational secondary vocational education and senior secondary vocational education.

The percentage of men opting for a course of study in the care sector is higher than the share of women choosing science subjects, especially at university level. There is little difference here between Dutch natives and students of non-Western origin.

After leaving education with a senior secondary vocational, university of applied sciences or university qualification, the share of women in full-time employment is much lower than that of men; the gap between higher education graduates is smaller than among those with a senior secondary vocational qualification.

Women who leave education with a senior secondary vocational, university of applied sciences or university qualification and work in a full-time job earn less than their male counterparts. The gap between male and female higher education graduates is smaller than among those with a senior secondary vocational qualification.

Over the coming years, the many science and technology courses followed by boys will offer better employment prospects than traditionally ‘female’ courses, for example in the care and education sectors.

Chapter 4 Employment

The net labour participation rate of women aged 20-64 years was 71% in 2015, a fraction higher than in 2014 but the same as in 2013. 82% of men had a job for at least one hour per week in 2015. The labour participation rate of women remained steady at around 70% during the crisis, while that of men fell.

The net labour participation rate of women aged up to 40 years remained unchanged between 2013 and 2015, while that of women aged 40 and over rose slightly. In particular, older married or cohabiting women without children (living at home) were more often in work in 2015 than in 2013. A fairly high proportion (79%) of mothers with a partner and young children had jobs in 2015, slightly up on 2013 (78%). The labour participation rate of single mothers, by contrast, fell by one percentage point to 61%.

Only highly educated women were in work more often in 2015 than in 2013 (91% versus 89%). The labour participation rate of low-educated women – 37% among women
The gross labour participation rate of women aged 20-64 years has risen over the last decade to reach 76% in 2015. During the crisis, this was translated into rising unemployment, though this fell again for the first time in 2015. The percentage of men working or looking for work has been around 86% for several years. The unemployment rate among men also fell in 2015.

Almost three-quarters of women with a job work part-time. Higher-educated women are most often employed for a minimum of 28 hours per week. Running the household and care tasks are the most important reason for not working longer hours for nearly six out of ten women who work part-time.

The average working week of women increased by 20 minutes between 2013 and 2015, to just under 27 hours per week. Men’s working hours remained virtually unchanged from 2013, at 37.7 hours. Mothers with a partner work the fewest hours, young women with a partner and no children the most. Among men, fathers with a partner have the longest working week.

Women reduce their average working hours between the ages of 25 and 35, and barely increase them again thereafter. This reduction in the phase that women are having children is less pronounced in the youngest female birth cohorts.

More women than men say they would like to change their working hours. A higher proportion of mothers, in particular, would like to work more hours as their children grow older. By contrast, fathers want to work less during this phase.

Working women more often have a permanent employment contract than men. By contrast, self-employed men account for a larger share of the working labour force. The number of self-employed workers of both sexes has been growing for years, as has the percentage of workers on flexible employment contracts.

Almost half of working women were employed in the civil service or the care sector in 2015, compared with 17% of men. Men were represented principally in the industry, energy and construction sectors. Gender segregation by employment sector has decreased over the last five years, and segregation by occupational level has virtually disappeared.

Illness or incapacity for work are the main reason for both women and men being unwilling or unable to work. Looking after children or family is cited less and less often by women: compared with ten years ago, the number of women who are unable or unwilling to work due to care tasks has almost halved. Men rarely cite looking after children or family as a reason for being unwilling or unable to work.

Women say they enjoy their work just as often as men, and that they consider it very important. On the other hand, they are less focused on achieving senior or top positions. This does not apply for highly educated women, who are just as ambitious as their male counterparts.
– Women who live with a male partner are less focused on developing a career than single women and women living with a female partner.

Chapter 5 Combining paid work and care tasks
– Dutch women still allocate more time to the household and looking after children and less time to paid work than men.
– Among dual-earner couples with young children, the arrangement in which the male partner works full-time and the woman part-time was most common in 2015 (58%). This arrangement has increased steadily over the last ten years, as has the arrangement where both parents work full-time (10%). Over the same period, the breadwinner model in which only the father works has become less common (18% in 2015). Among childless couples, most opt for a full-time/full-time model (35%) and the full-time/part-time model (36%).
– Whereas ten years ago most women reduced their working hours after the birth of their first child, in 2015 it was most common to carry on working the same number of hours. This percentage also increased slightly between 2013 and 2015 (from 48% to 49%), while the percentage of women who reduced their working hours declined from 40% to 36%. One in ten women gave up work after the birth of their first child. This increased to more than a quarter among low-educated women.
– The use of formal childcare (day nurseries, out-of-school childcare or registered childminders) decreased between 2011 and 2014, but increased slightly between 2014 and 2015. Informal childcare provided by family or friends (in many families combined with formal childcare), has become more common over the last five years. In 2015 72% of families with children aged up to 4 years used this form of childcare, compared with 58% in 2011. Among employed parents with school-aged children, the use of informal care increased from 44% in 2011 to 52% in 2015.
– In 2013 half of fathers of young children looked after their child at some point during the week while the mother worked. One in three fathers looked after the children for a whole day, but there are also fathers who do this for half a day (10%) or for several days a week (11%). Only a small proportion (6%) of mothers are never at home while the partner is at work, and almost three-quarters spend more than one day a week at home while their partner is working.
– Compared to employed fathers, employed mothers are twice as likely to take parental leave (11% versus 22%). The take-up of long-term care leave is very low, both among women and men. Both are much more likely to use short-term care leave, vacation days or reduce their work hours to care for someone who is ill.
– In 2015, 38% of male employees and 34% of female workers made use of telework. These employees were not so much motivated by a wish to improve their work-life balance. Instead, they worked from home because they had to work overtime or wanted to avoid the distractions of the workplace. Men have more control over the timing of their working hours than women (26% versus 20%).
More than two-thirds of men and women who do not work or who work part-time say they would like to work (or work more hours) provided certain conditions are met. The most frequently reported conditions relate to the ability to reach a good work-life balance; for example, flexible working hours and the ability to work from home are frequently mentioned.

Women are somewhat more willing to provide informal care to sick family members than men (83% versus 79%), and more often report doing so (32% versus 28%). Women and men would mainly give up free time if they were to provide informal care.

Just over four out of ten men feel that women are better suited to care for young children than men. Between 2014 and 2016 a slight divergence occurred between women with and without young children; the percentage of the former group who feel that woman are more suitable caregivers rose by 10 percentage points (from 21% to 32%), whereas the percentage of women without children who agreed with this statement remained stable at 22%.

A majority of the Dutch population think that having a job for two or three days a week is ideal for women with young children. For mothers with school-aged children a work week of three or four days is considered ideal. Between 2014 and 2016 a full-time job became less popular for fathers with young children. Currently only 22% of the population considers this to be the ideal working week for them.

Almost three-quarters of men and women approve a situation in which children go to childcare while their mother is in paid employment. In addition, 63% of men and women believe that toddlers benefit from going to child care. A smaller percentage (just over 40%) approve of out-of-school care.

Half of men and women express a preference for an egalitarian division of work and care tasks between men and women. This percentage is slightly higher than in 2014.

Chapter 6 Senior positions

The share of women in management positions at the highest occupational level stood at 25% in 2015. That is lower than the total percentage of women working at the highest occupational level (46%).

The civil service and care sectors are the only areas where women are overrepresented at the highest occupational level (63%) and where there is a proportional distribution of men and women in the most senior management positions. Women are underrepresented in the other sectors, including in the most senior management roles.

3% of all working women are employed as managers, compared with 8% of men. Part of this difference is due to part-time working and the fact that there are few management roles in sectors where many women are employed.

The percentage of women at the top of the 25 largest companies in the Netherlands increased from 16% in 2013 to 22% in 2015. The percentage at the 100 largest companies rose from 15% to 19% over the same period.

There are more women in senior positions in the non-profit sector than in the commercial sector: 25% in the socioeconomic sector, 35% in the care and welfare sector.
and 30% in civil-society organisations. The percentage of women at the top in these sectors has shown little or no increase in recent years, though the share of women working in the echelon just below the top level has increased.

- The proportion of female senior and top civil servants rose from 28% in 2014 to 31% at the end of 2015. This means that the target of 30% by 2017 has already been achieved.
- The percentage of female professors rose from 16% in 2012 to 18% in 2015.

Chapter 7 Income and economic independence

- Women with their own income received an average of 23,100 euros per annum in 2014, just under 60% of what men received (39,300 euros) – the same gap as two years earlier. The income difference between fathers and mothers is larger, especially where the children are older, though it has decreased.
- The average gross annual salary of working women in 2014 was 30,000 euros; the figure for men was 51,000 euros. Whereas men’s income from employment grows throughout their working life, the incomes of women show a much more diverse pattern across the different phases of life.
- Women were the main breadwinners in 19% of couples in 2014, a small increase compared with 2005 (16%).
- Women’s average gross hourly pay rate was just over 83% of that of men in 2014, a discrepancy of 17%. The wage gap in the civil service was 10%, and in the commercial sector 20%. The wage difference in the civil service has decreased since 2008 as younger women have caught up. After allowing for differences in aspects such as work experience, education level and management, the remaining wage gap in the civil service is 5%, and in the private sector 7%.
- The increase in the female labour participation rate is the main reason for the declining number of men paying maintenance to their partners (in 2014 around 10% of those who had divorced less than 12 years ago, compared with 15% in 2005). Women lose almost a quarter of their purchasing power on divorce; men lose only 0.2%. Women in receipt of maintenance payments lose out substantially (38%), mainly because they generally lose the benefit of the much higher income of their former spouse after the divorce.
- Partly because of the high percentage of women working part-time, the share of economically independent women is substantially lower than among men: 54% versus 74%. After rising sharply between 2003 and 2008, the percentage of economically independent women has increased only slightly in recent years. The share of economically independent men fell during the crisis.
- The rate of economic independence is highest among young women with a partner and no children (70%). It is lowest among single mothers with a baby or toddler (38%). Married men with young children are most often economically independent (88%).
- Among women with a non-Western background, those of Surinamese origin are most often economically independent (51%), putting them the closest to native Dutch
women (56%). Relatively few women of Turkish or Moroccan origin (24%) achieve economic independence.

- Economic independence rises with education level. Moreover, the difference in economic independence is smallest between highly educated women (71%) and men (80%). The difference is 32 percentage points for low-educated women, and 19 percentage points for those with an intermediate education level.

- Women with part-time jobs are more often economically independent than men who work part-time. This is because men with part-time jobs tend to be young and more often work in lower-level occupations than women who work part-time.

- Women receive social assistance benefit slightly more often than men; the figure is particularly high among single mothers, almost a quarter of whom are in receipt of this benefit.

- Most women and men believe it is important that women should have their own income. For most of them, however, that income need not necessarily be enough to enable them to live independently; they believe that in a good relationship, financial dependence is not an issue.

- Women attach less importance to having their own income if they live with a man; this is not the case if they live with a female partner.

Chapter 8 Social safety

- According to self-report, men were more often victims of physical abuse and threats than women in 2015 (0.9% versus 0.6% and 1.7% versus 1.1%, respectively). Women were more often victims of sexual violence than men (0.16% versus 0.03%).

- The percentage of female victims of violence appears to have declined slightly between 2008 and 2015, whereas the percentage of male victims remained more or less unchanged.

- More than 55% of female victims of violence know the perpetrator. This applies for just under 40% of male victims. Women also more frequently suffer violence at home. Men are more likely than women to be victims in the street and in bars, cafés and clubs.

- Sexual violence against women is more often perpetrated by a stranger (58%) than by someone they know. In two out of ten cases, the perpetrator is the woman’s current or former partner.

- Women are subjected to cyberbullying slightly more often than men (3.4% versus 2.9%). Two-thirds of female victims know the perpetrator, compared with 55% of male victims. The perpetrators are more often a former partner or relative than is the case for male victims.

- Female employees more often experience external aggression (e.g. from customers or patients) than men (29% versus 17%). The same proportion of women as men (16%) experience internal aggression, such as intimidation or bullying by managers and colleagues.
- Women report fewer than half of all violent offences against them (45%) to the police; 24% make an official complaint. Women are most likely to report physical abuse, and least likely to report cyberbullying. The only difference in reporting behaviour between men and women relates to threats, which men report to the police less often than women.
- The police recorded just under 91,000 violent offences in 2015. Physical abuse accounts for over half of all violent offences; threats account for a third and sexual offences for fewer than a tenth.
- The number of recorded violent offences fell again in 2015, continuing a downward trend which began in 2007. The number of official police reports drawn up because of physical abuse was 10% lower in 2015 than in 2013. The number of threats recorded by the police was 13% lower in 2015 than two years earlier.
- The number of recorded sexual offences has fallen continuously since 2005, and reduced by 12% between 2013 and 2015.
- The number of women suspects has reduced over the last decade, from 53,000 in 2005 to 37,000 in 2015. The biggest fall was among those below the age of maturity. The police record four times as many male as female suspects. There has also been a reduction of 39% in the number of male suspects, a slightly bigger decrease than among women.
- Women are less often suspects than men for virtually all types of offence. Men are more than six times more likely to be suspects of violent offences than women. Shoplifting was the only offence which was perpetrated more often by women aged 18-24 years than men in the same age group in 2015.
- More women than men, and especially young women, sometimes feel unsafe, both in general and in their own residential neighbourhood. In addition, more women than men (65% versus 58%) have felt afraid of becoming a victim in the past year, and their sense of fear is also greater. In particular, women are more afraid than men of becoming victims of burglary and sexual violence;
- burglary and sexual violence by a stranger are the only offences for which women assess their probability of becoming a victim higher than men. Women do however assess the impact of being a victim more seriously than men for all offences studied.
- The number of reports of human trafficking fell by 15% in 2015 compared with 2014, in particular the number of cases reported by the police and border police. Four-fifths of the potential victims reported are women, though the number of male victims reported has increased.
- Women’s views on both sexual relations with women and violence against women are still more female-friendly than men’s views, although the differences in 2016 are smaller than in 2014. Both sexes, but especially men, have become more female-friendly in their views on sexual relations and violence.
Chapter 9 Health

- Women live longer than men on average. In 2015, life expectancy at birth was 83 years for women versus 80 years for men. On the other hand, women spend those extra years in poorer health.

- Women report impairments in their hearing, vision and/or mobility more often than men (just over 16% versus 9%).

- Women report suffering from migraine twice as often as men (19%), and also report chronic arthritis more often than men (8% versus 4%). Four times as many women (10%) as men report that they suffer from urinary incontinence.

- Non-Western women have hearing, visual or mobility impairments more often than Dutch native women (17% versus 7%), and report migraine more often. Urinary incontinence and arthritis occur equally frequently in both groups.

- Low-educated women suffer hearing, visual or mobility impairments more often than highly educated women (29% versus 4%), and also more often report urinary incontinence and arthritis.

- More women than men (13% versus 8%) report psychological problems, such as feeling anxious, depressed, stressed, down and sombre and/or not happy. That said, the majority of women and men are happy and satisfied with their lives.

- Mood, anxiety and eating disorders are more common among women than men, while substance abuse and dependence and behavioural disorders such as ADHD are more common among men.

- Women take more time off sick than men: 4.7% versus 3.4% in 2015. Sickness absenteeism has been higher among women for years.

- Women have more contact with their GP, are admitted to hospital more often and take medication more often than men. The most common reasons for visiting the GP are skin complaints and complaints affecting the locomotory system. Cancer is the most important reason for hospital admission for both women and men.

- The average costs of care covered by basic health insurance are higher for women (2,315 euros) than for men (2,075 euros). The costs of care for people with a non-Western background are around 200 euros higher than for Dutch natives.

- More men than women die from cancer. Cardiovascular diseases are just as big a cause of death for women as cancer.

- Women smoke and drink less often than men, but exercise less and struggle with obesity more often than men. Non-Western women exercise less and are more often obese than native Dutch women. On the other hand, native Dutch women more often smoke. There are no differences in alcohol use between non-Western and native Dutch women.

- Highly educated women smoke less and are less overweight than their low-educated counterparts. There are no differences in amount of exercise or alcohol use between those with a high and low education level.

- Men participate in sport on a regular basis more often than women.
Chapter 10 Emancipation in a European perspective

- Slightly more women than men go on to higher education (higher professional education/university level) in the Netherlands (51%), but their share is below the European Union average (54%). With the exception of Germany, the share of 30-35 year-olds with a high education level is higher among women than men in all EU member states.
- Compared with women from other EU countries, Dutch women are underrepresented in science subjects. The percentage of women in the Netherlands following programmes in the sciences, mathematics and information technology is 24%, the lowest in the European Union.
- More than seven out of ten women in the Netherlands are in paid work for at least one hour per week. There are seven other EU member states, including the Scandinavian countries and Germany, with a higher female labour participation rate. Dutch women and men lead the field in Europe in part-time working. Three-quarters of women and a quarter of men in the Netherlands work part-time, compared with the European averages of 32% and 8%, respectively.
- The wage difference between women and men working full-time is relatively large in the Netherlands, at over 14%. Among part-time workers, the difference is relatively small (3%).
- The differences between women and men in time spent on the household and childcare are smaller in the Netherlands than in most other EU member states.
- The percentage of women on the supervisory boards of Dutch listed companies is 25%; that is above the European average (19%).
- Women in all member states have a higher life expectancy than men. However, European men and women spend roughly the same number of years in good health, i.e. without impairments.
- Women in Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium and France more often report being or having been victims of violence than women in other EU member states.
- Summarising, the Netherlands occupies fourth place in the gender equality rankings in the European Union. Only the Scandinavian countries, with Sweden at the head, have more equality.

Chapter 11 Epilogue

At the end of this Emancipation Monitor, we conclude that progress is being made on many fronts, but that it is proceeding more slowly than was expected in 2000 (when the first Emancipation Monitor was published). We explore several possible explanations for this.
- Two economic crises have impeded the growth in the female labour participation rate.
- The impact of cohort replacement is steadily diminishing.
- Stereotypical views on the role division between women and men have by no means disappeared. This has an implicit and often unnoticed impact on the choices made by women and men in everyday situations.
– Implicit gender bias within organisations distorts the picture of women’s ambitions and qualities. The career path of women is more labyrinthine than that of men, creating the risk that they will become discouraged and adjust their ambitions.

– Part-time working is embedded in many institutions in the Netherlands (for example school hours, short maternity leave, the expectation of government that citizens will take on a greater share of informal care provision). This makes it more difficult for partners who both wish to work full-time to combine work and care tasks.

The foregoing notwithstanding, there has been some shift in views on the role division between women and men; and, now that the Dutch economy is improving again, the emancipation process is expected to gather more momentum in the years ahead.