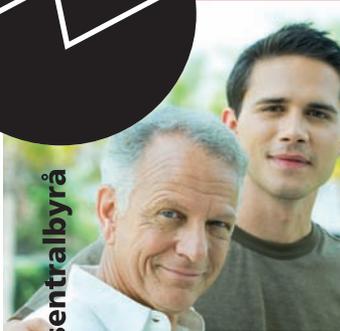
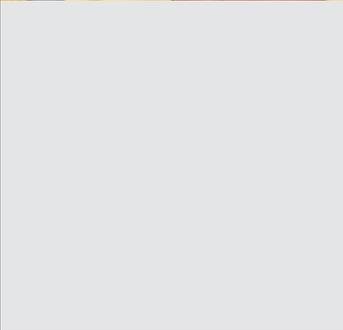
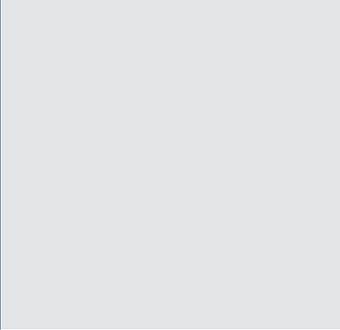
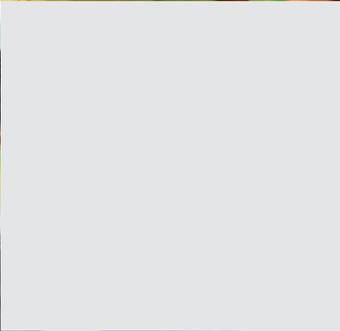




Statistics Norway



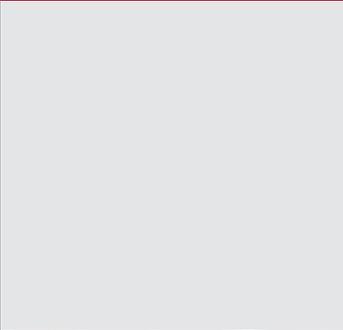
Statistisk sentralbyrå



Women and men in Norway

Revised edition 2010

What the figures say



Who are the women and men in Norway?

Statistics Norway presents similarities and differences between women and men in Norway within areas of society we can describe with statistics in *Women and men in Norway*. The publication is easy to read and understand, and each chapter contains links to more information on the relevant topic.

The first edition of *Women and men in Norway* was published in 2006 and was written by Jan Erik Kristiansen and Toril Sandnes. This edition is largely based on the previous publication but also includes a new chapter on culture and media use.

The publication has been compiled by Agnes Aaby Hirsch (ed.), Gro Flatebø, Ingrid Modig, Toril Sandnes, Vebjørn Aalandslid, Lotte Rustad Thorsen and Reid Jone Stene. Marit Vågdal and Siri Boquist were responsible for design and layout.

Oslo/Kongsvinger, January 2010



Øystein Olsen
Director General

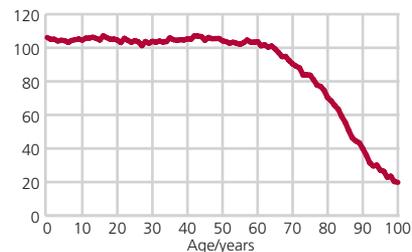
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More elderly women

More boys born

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 considerably as women begin to outnumber men. At the age of 85, there are about 50 per cent more women than men.

Number of men per 100 women. 2009

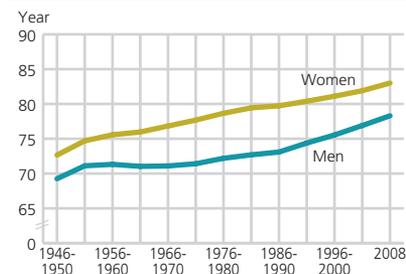


Source: Population statistics.

Women live almost five years longer

A lower death rate among women means that they live almost five years longer than men. Today a newborn boy can expect to live to 78.3 years of age, whereas a girl can expect to reach 83.0 years of age.

Life expectancy at birth for women and men



Source: Population statistics.

Life expectancy at birth in selected countries. 2007

	Women	Men
Japan ¹	85.8	79.0
France	84.8	77.6
Switzerland	84.4	79.5
Spain	84.3	77.8
Italy ¹	84.2	78.5
Iceland	83.4	79.6
Sweden	83.1	79.0
Finland	83.1	76.0
Austria	83.1	77.4
Norway	82.9	78.3
Germany	82.7	77.4
Belgium	82.6	77.1
Netherlands	82.5	78.1
Portugal	82.2	75.9
Greece	81.8	77.1
United Kingdom	81.8	77.6
Denmark	80.6	76.2
Poland	79.8	71.0
Estonia	78.8	67.2
Lithuania	77.2	64.9
Latvia	76.5	65.8
Russia ¹	73.2	60.4

¹ 2006.

Source: Eurostat. Japan: Japan Statistical Yearbook. Russia: OECD Factbook.

After World War II, 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 population projections from 2009, 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 2060 will have a life expectancy of 87.1 years and a girl 90.3 years. In other words, the gender gap will be further reduced to around three years.

Norwegian women no longer live longest

Up to the early 1980s, Norwegian women had the highest life expectancy in the world. Today women in a number of countries can expect to live longer: Japanese women top the list with a life expectancy of almost 86 years, compared with 83 for Norwegian women. Other women too, for example those from the south of Europe and other Nordic countries, can expect to live longer than their Norwegian counterparts.

The difference between men and women's life expectancy varies between the different countries. Life expectancy of men and women in Iceland and

Sweden is most similar among the European countries, with women living four years longer than men. Finland has a bigger gap in life expectancy compared with other Nordic countries, which is the same as in some of the south European countries – seven years. The Baltic States have the greatest differences in life expectancy in the EU, where the women live 11 and 12 years longer than the men. Russian women and men have a shorter life expectancy than women and men in the EU countries, and the gap is also somewhat greater than in the Baltic States.

Ageing population: women in majority

Much has been said about the expected growth in the number of elderly people. In some respects we can say that it has already started. In 1950, only 8 per cent of the population were aged 67 or over, while today the share is 13 per cent. Not until 2020 will this proportion increase further, reaching 15 per cent in 2020 and 22 per cent in 2060.

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.

Mobile women

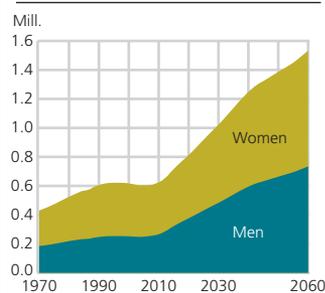
If we take the country as a whole, there are slightly more men than women up to the age of 60, but there are major regional differences in some age groups. This is due to the fact that women and men have different migration patterns: young women move and men stay behind. Women move from the least central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

Norway as a whole has a 4 per cent deficit of women in the 20-39 age group (104 men per 100 women). This ratio varies considerably from region to region, however. Whereas the ratio in 2009 was around 108 men per 100 women in municipalities where agriculture or fisheries is the main industry, the figure was more balanced in central municipalities dominated by the service industry, with 102 men per 100 women.

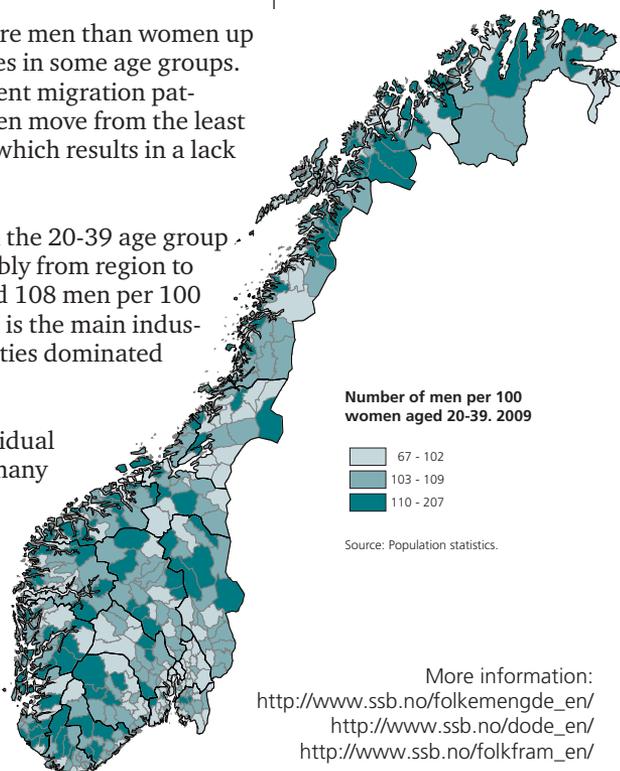
The differences are even greater when we look at individual municipalities: in one municipality there are twice as many men as women in the 20-39 age group (207 men per 100 women), while at the other end of the spectrum one municipality has a large deficit of men, with only 68 men per 100 women. However, these are special cases. Most other municipalities vary between 90 and 130 men per 100 women.

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

Ageing population: Women and men aged 67 or over¹



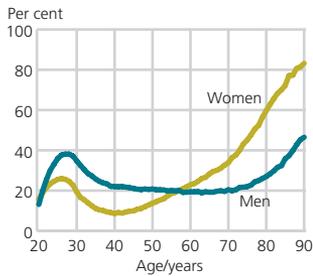
¹ Projection based on medium national growth (Alternative MMMM).
Source: Population statistics.



More information:
http://www.ssb.no/folkemengde_en/
http://www.ssb.no/dode_en/
http://www.ssb.no/folkfram_en/

Single or cohabiting?

Percentage of men and women aged 20 and over in one-person households. 2009



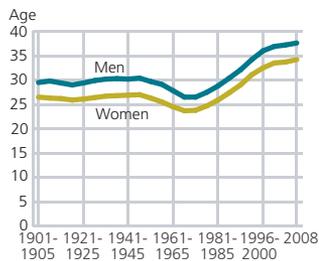
Source: Population statistics.

More elderly women than men live alone

The post-war period was the great era of the nuclear family. Large numbers of people were getting 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 has resulted in more than twice as many one-person households: 40 per cent of households are now one-person households, and persons living alone accounted for 18 per cent of the entire population as of 1 January 2009.

In the population as a whole, roughly as many women as men live alone. However, more men than women are living alone in the age group up to and including 44, while single women are in the majority in the oldest part of the population. Roughly as many women as men live alone in the 45-66 age group.

Average age at marriage



Source: Population statistics.

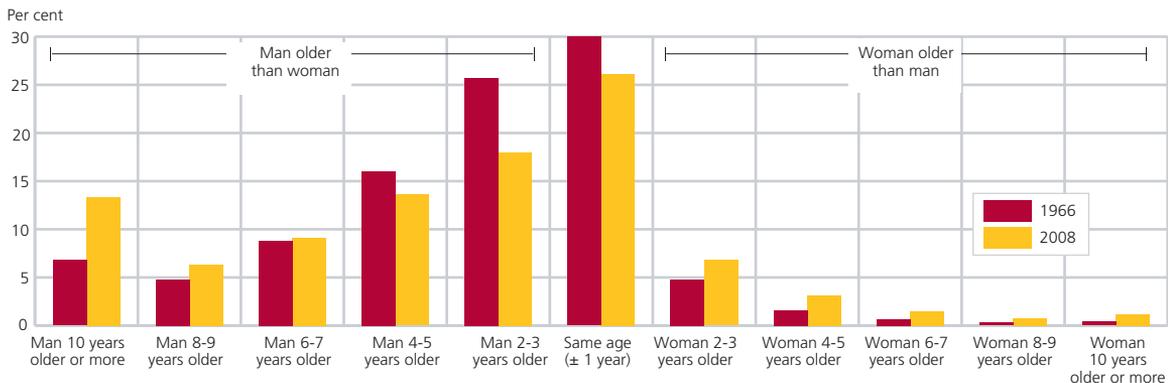
Single life in the city

One-person households are more common in cities and central municipalities than in more remote municipalities, both for men and women. In the most central municipalities, 27 per cent of men aged 20-59 live alone, and the corresponding figure for women in the same municipalities is 17 per cent. The most remote municipalities have a large surplus of single men aged 20-59, with two out of ten men living alone but only one out of ten women living alone.

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 a higher degree of 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.

Age difference at marriage. 1966 and 2008



Source: Population statistics.

Over the past 50 years, the age difference has changed very little. Following a fall in the marriage age towards the end of the 1960s, the average age at marriage has increased considerably for both women and men, but the age difference is the same. At the start of the 1970s, the average marriage age was 27 for men and 24 for women. By 2008, this had increased to 38 for men and 34 for women, which is mainly due to a large number of couples cohabiting before getting married.

However, this average does not reflect the age differences in individual marriages. Looking at individual marriages we find that since 1966 there has been a considerable 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.

More international marriages

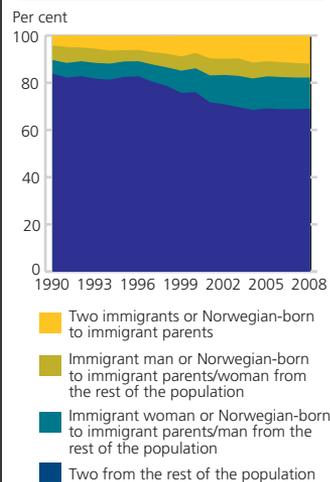
Increasing globalisation and international mobility have gradually impacted the Norwegian marriage market, and marriages where one or both partners are immigrants or Norwegian-born to immigrant parents are becoming more and more common. In 1990, 4 per cent of all marriages were between two immigrants or two Norwegian-born to immigrant parents. By 2008, this had increased to 11 per cent. Among the rest of the population, it is more common for men than women to marry an immigrant or Norwegian-born to immigrant parents; 13 and 6 per cent of all marriages in 2008 respectively.

Marriages between men from the rest of the population and female immigrants/Norwegian-born to immigrant parents in particular have increased in recent years, from 6 per cent of all marriages in 1990 to 13 per cent in 2008. The majority of these men marry women from Thailand, the Philippines and Russia. The number of marriages between women from the rest of the population and male immigrants/Norwegian-born to immigrant parents has remained relatively stable in recent years; 6 per cent of all marriages in both 1990 and 2008. These women usually marry men from Sweden, Denmark, the USA and UK.

More women than men in same-sex partnerships

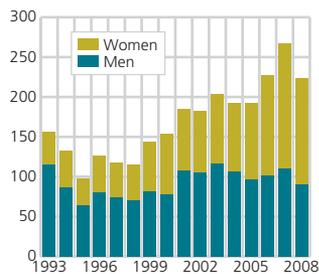
Same-sex partnerships have been included in the statistics since 1993, and since then a total of around 2 700 such partnerships are registered. In the early years there was a significant dominance of male partnerships, but women have been in the majority since 2006. More than 200 same-sex partnerships were entered into in 2008.

Marriages by immigrant background of spouses



Source: Population statistics.

Number of same-sex partnerships contracted

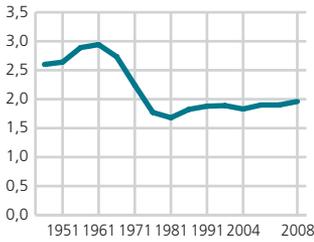


Source: Population statistics.

More information:
[http://www.ssb.no/familie_en/](http://www.ssb.no/familie_en)
[http://www.ssb.no/ekteskap_en/](http://www.ssb.no/ekteskap_en)

From generation to generation

Total fertility rate



Source: Population statistics.

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.

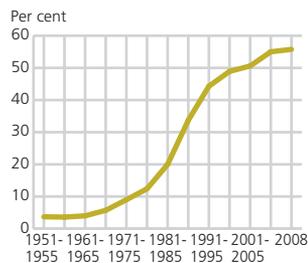
Total fertility rate in selected countries. 2007

Iceland	2.09
Ireland	2.01
France	1.98
Norway	1.90
Sweden	1.88
United Kingdom ¹	1.84
Denmark	1.84
Finland	1.83
Greece	1.41
Spain	1.40
Germany	1.37
Italy ¹	1.35
Portugal	1.33
Poland	1.31

¹ 2006.

Source: Eurostat.

Percentage of children born outside marriage



Source: Population statistics.

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, and has been at around 1.9 in recent years. In 2008, fertility was almost 2.0; the highest since 1975.

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.

The proportion of childless women has remained stable for many years. For women born between 1935 and 1950, less than 10 per cent of the 45-year-olds were childless. This increased to almost 12 per cent for women born in 1960. The proportion of 45-year-old childless men is considerably higher than for women of the same age, and an increasing number of men are childless. For men born in 1940, 14 per cent were childless at the age of 45, and this figure increased to 21 per cent among men born in 1960. This means that a large and increasing proportion of men are having children with more than one woman.

... but high compared to other countries

The fall in the fertility rate in recent decades is a general phenomenon in western countries, and Norway has actually had one of the highest fertility rates in recent years. Portugal and Poland have the lowest fertility rate in the EU, at roughly 1.3. The highest fertility rate is to be found in Iceland and Ireland, with slightly more than 2.0.

Norway's relatively high fertility rate is assumed to be related to the high number of kindergarten places available and the cash support scheme for parents at birth, which makes it easier for women to combine a career and children. Parental leave was extended for children born after 30 June 2009 by two weeks to 46 weeks with full pay, or 56 weeks with 80 per cent pay. Two out of three women with an entitlement to such leave choose the option with 80 per cent pay. An increasing proportion of women are, however, opting for the shorter leave period with full pay.

Part of the parental leave is earmarked for fathers (father's quota), and this was extended from six weeks to ten weeks for children born after 1 July 2009. Three out of five fathers entitled to such leave in the first half of 2009 took six weeks of the leave or more. The extent to which fathers use their quota varies throughout Norway. Men in Oslo took seven out of ten weeks or more, which was the case for only four out of ten men in Aust-Agder. The use of cash for care has fallen since it was introduced: only 34 per cent of the parents of 1 and 2 year-olds received cash for care in 2009, compared with 75 per cent in 1999.

More than half born outside marriage ...

More than half of all children are now born outside marriage (56 per cent in 2008), compared with only 3 per cent in the 1950s. The largest increase took place in the 1970s and 1980s, but this has now levelled off. The vast majority of children born outside marriage have parents who live together. Only 12 per cent are born to single mothers. However, in the case of the first child, 52 per cent are

born to parents who live together and 17 per cent to single mothers. When the second child comes along, the parents are more likely to be married.

... and most up north

Most births outside marriage take place in the three northernmost counties and Trøndelag, while Agder and Rogaland have the lowest figures. A clear north-south divide can also be seen in Europe as a whole: Iceland heads the list, followed by Sweden and Norway. Births outside marriage are still a relatively rare phenomenon in many countries in Southern Europe.

First-time mothers average 28 years

Until the 1970s, first-time mothers were getting younger. However, with the growth in educational opportunities and career options the average child-bearing age began to increase, and has since the early 1970s increased by approximately four years to 30.3 years. Fathers are three years older on average. The average age of women at the first birth was 28.1 years in 2008, which has been stable since 2005. The increase in age of first-time mothers is particularly clear among teenagers. At the end of the 1970s, 20 per cent of first-time mothers were teenagers, compared to only 5 per cent today.

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 was almost 2 per cent in 2002. This development is mainly attributed to the rise in child-bearing age and to the increased use of in-vitro fertilisation. However, the proportion of multiple births has fallen in recent years, to 1.8 per cent in 2008.

Caesareans 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 17 in 2008. 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 deliveries, and the development 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.

Abortion level remains stable

Since 1979, women in Norway have been legally entitled to decide for themselves if they want to terminate a pregnancy in the first 12 weeks. The number of abortions peaked at the end of the 1980s, and has since totalled between 14 000 and 16 000 abortions a year, or 13-14 per 1 000 women aged 15-49. In 2007, almost 15 200 abortions were performed in Norway, which corresponds to 13.8 per 1 000 women of a childbearing age. The frequency of abortions is highest among women aged 20 to 24. Since 2002, the abortion rate has increased somewhat.

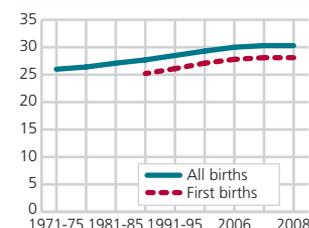
Percentage of children born outside marriage in selected countries. 2007

Iceland	63.8
Sweden	54.8
Norway	54.5
France	51.7
Denmark	46.1
United Kingdom ¹	43.7
Netherlands	39.5
Ireland ¹	33.2
Germany	30.8
Spain ¹	28.4
Italy	20.7
Poland	19.5
Greece	5.8

¹ 2006.

Source: Eurostat.

Average childbearing age. All births and first births



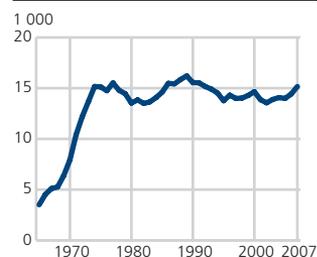
Source: Population statistics.

Percentage of children born by Caesarean



Source: The Medical Birth Registry.

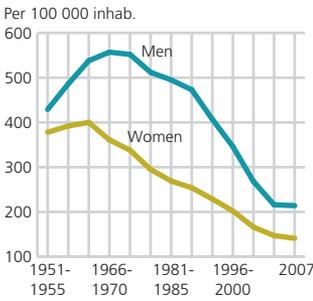
Number of abortions



Source: Statistics Norway and the Medical Birth Registry.

Women are sicker, men die quicker

Age standardised mortality rates – cardiovascular diseases^{1,2}. Women and men

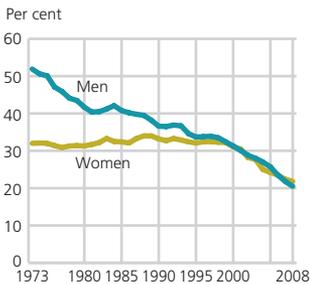


¹ Year average for 5-year period.

² Age standardised with WHO's European standard population.

Source: Cause of death statistics.

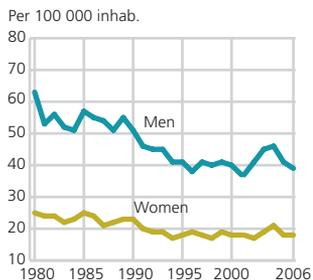
Percentage of daily smokers. Women and men 16-74 years¹



¹ Three-year moving average

Source: Health statistics.

Age standardised mortality rates, accidents¹. Women and men



¹ Age standardised according to European standard population.

Source: Cause of death statistics.

Women more illnesses – men die younger

In a nutshell, this is the main difference between women and men's health: men live an average of five years less than women, while women 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 lower mortality age 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 care work at home and in their professional lives.

Gender differences in life expectancy have lessened in recent years. Can this be an indication of a narrowing of the gap in health and mortality?

Fewer cardiovascular deaths – particularly among men

Cardiovascular diseases have long been the most common cause of death among men and women. In 2007, around 35 per cent of all deaths were caused by cardiovascular diseases, with a higher figure for men than women. However, a clear fall in cardiovascular deaths is emerging for both men and women, and the fall has been more pronounced for men. This decline is a contributing factor to the increase in life expectancy for both men and women.

With regard to the second most common cause of death – cancer – there have not been any major changes in the past 20 years, either for men or women. One in four deaths in 2007 was related to cancer. Cancer is one of the most common causes of death among the younger age groups in particular.

One in five 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 at the start of the 1970s to 21 per cent in 2008. The corresponding figure for women was slightly higher than 30 per cent for a long time, but has now fallen to 21 per cent.

In Sweden, more women than men smoke on a daily basis – 17 and 12 per cent respectively in 2006. This is the trend in a number of countries among the younger age groups, with Norway, Sweden and Spain all having more women than men aged 15-24 smoking daily. 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 to the same extent.

Fewer dying in accidents

As is the case for cardiovascular diseases, the gender gap in accident-related deaths has also narrowed gradually. The number of fatalities due to accidents has fallen since 1980, both for men and women, with the biggest reduction for men.

More health complaints among women

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, particularly 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 depression, and they take medicine for such problems to a greater 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 until now 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), they exercise more often than men, and 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 their GPs and specialists in hospitals and elsewhere more often. In addition, they consult acupuncturists, masseurs and alternative practitioners more often than men.

Working women also have a higher sickness absence rate than men: while the sickness absence for men is slightly more than 6 per cent of the total number of man-days, the figure for women is more than 9 per cent. Sickness related to pregnancy can partly explain this difference.

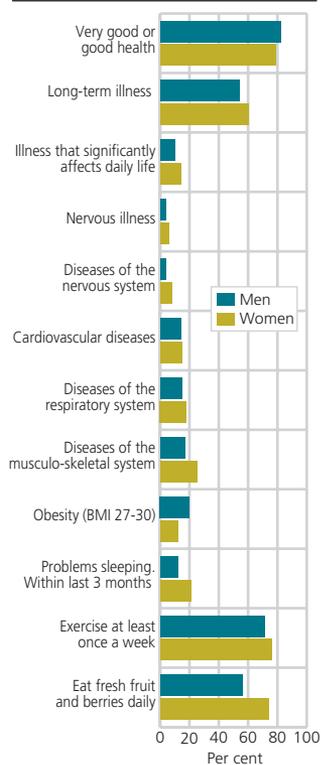
... and are more likely to become disability pensioners

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 2009, the total number of disability pensioners was 341 400: 198 500 women and 142 900 men. The strong increase in the number of female disability pensioners must be viewed in connection with the number of women entering the labour force during this period.

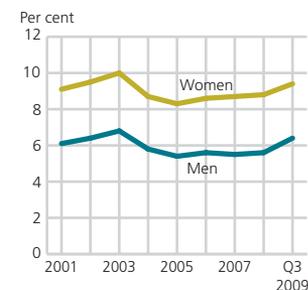
Statistics Norway

Selected health indicators. Women and men aged 16 and over. 2008



Source: Living conditions survey.

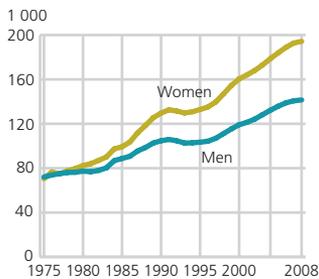
Sickness absence rate for women and men



Source: Sickness absence statistics.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/dodsarsak_en/
http://www.ssb.no/royk_en/
http://www.ssb.no/helseforhold_en/
http://www.ssb.no/sykefratot_en/

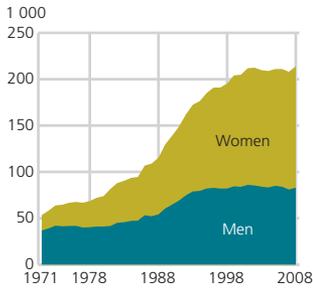
Number of disability pensioners¹. Women and men



¹ From 2004 figures also include persons with indefinite disability benefit.
 Source: NAV.

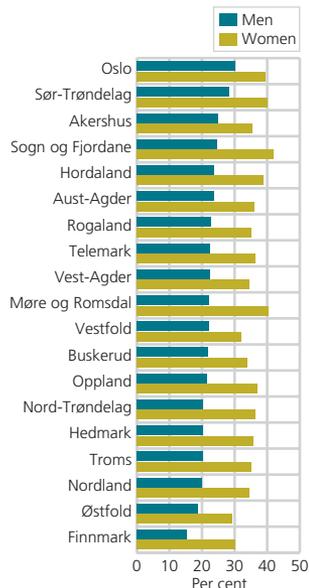
Thirsty for knowledge

Number of female and male students. 1 000



Source: Education statistics.

Proportion of women and men aged 19-24 years in higher education, by county. 2008



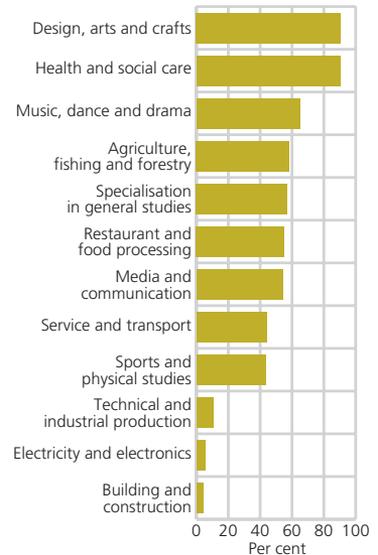
Source: Education statistics.

Upper secondary education: different choices

Around 90 per cent of 16-18 year-olds are in upper secondary education, with around the same number of boys as girls. Whereas girls are in the majority in general studies, vocational studies have a majority of boys.

In the vocational subjects, boys and girls choose very different lines of study. In health and social care, as well as design, arts and crafts, nine out of ten pupils are girls, while building and construction and electricity and electronics are completely dominated by boys. Among pupils on the Programme for Specialisation in General Studies, girls are in the majority, with 57 per cent in 2008. The differences in studies undertaken by boys and girls in upper secondary education are reflected in the gender gap in the labour market.

Percentage of women in upper secondary education, by education programme. 2008



Source: Education statistics.

It is more common for boys than for girls to drop out of upper secondary education: 75 per cent of the girls who enrolled in upper secondary education in 2003 attained qualifications for entry into university or vocational qualifications within five years, compared with just 62 per cent of the boys.

Wise women

Since the mid-1980s, women have been in the majority in higher education, and today more than six out of ten students are women. The proportion of women is particularly high at university colleges (64 per cent). Whereas 39 per cent of women aged 19-24 years were in higher education in 2008, this applied to only 25 per cent of the 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 (61 per cent) of the graduates at universities and university colleges. 55 per cent of students at Master degree level and 63 per cent at Bachelor degree level are women. Women are also in the majority among students who study abroad (59 per cent).

In the autumn of 2008, women were in the majority in all the major fields of study apart from natural sciences, vocational and technical subjects, where

two out of three students were men. The largest majority of women was found in health, welfare and sports subjects, as well as teaching training, where almost eight out of ten students were women.

Women from rural areas

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

In 2008, 39 per cent of women and 25 per cent of men aged 19-24 years were in higher education (including those studying abroad). Although the female proportion varies considerably depending on where they live, 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 to a far lesser extent 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 Finnmark – also a sparsely populated county – the corresponding figures are 30 and 15 per cent. In central counties such as Oslo and Akershus the differences between women and men are far less, but there is also a clear majority of women in these areas studying at university colleges and universities.

More women than men have higher education

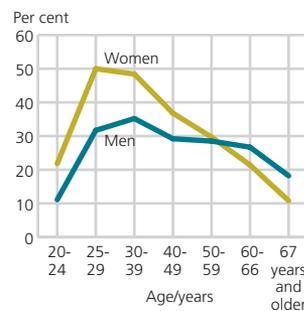
A growing proportion of men and women in the population are educated at universities or university colleges. However, the share of women with higher education is increasing at a quicker rate than the share of men. In 2008, 29 per cent of women and 25 per cent of men had higher education.

In the population as a whole, there still are more men than women who have completed a university degree at Master level (more than four years), with 8 and 5 per cent respectively in 2008. However, since 2004, more women than men have completed a Master degree course. If this trend continues, there will also gradually be more women than men with a Master degree from universities or university colleges.

Women dominate the staff room

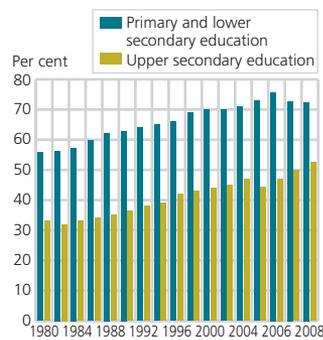
Female teachers have long been in the majority in primary and lower secondary education, and the proportion continues to increase: seven out of ten teachers in primary and lower secondary schools are women. Women are also making their mark in upper secondary education, with more than half of all teachers at upper secondary schools now being women.

Proportion of women and men with higher education in different age groups. 2008



Source: Education statistics.

Proportion of female teachers

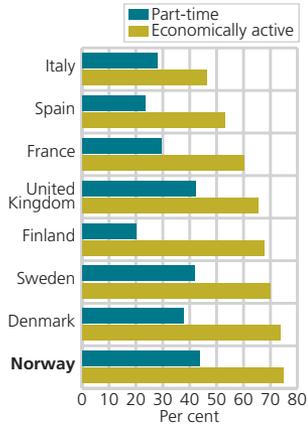


Source: Labour force survey.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/utuvh_en/
http://www.ssb.no/utniv_en/
http://www.ssb.no/yrkeaku_en/
http://www.ssb.no/vgu_en/

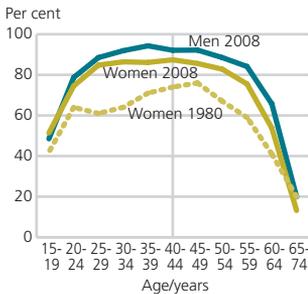
Still male and female professions

Women aged 15-64 in employment and share in part-time work. Selected countries. Q1 2009



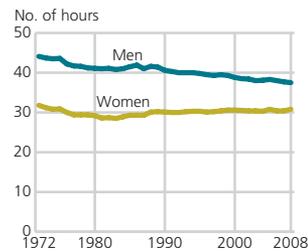
Source: Eurostat.

Proportion in the labour force aged 15-74 years. Women and men 2008 and women 1980



Source: Labour force survey.

Weekly hours of work for women and men in employment



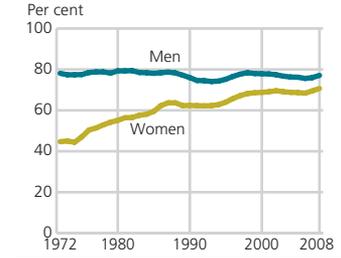
Source: Labour force survey.

High labour force participation ...

There are approximately 2.5 million people aged 15-74 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. Since then, the share has increased for both sexes. In 2008, almost 71 per cent of women and 77 per cent of men aged 15-74 participated in the labour force.

Percentage of women and men in the labour force. 15-74 years



Source: Labour force survey.

Labour force participation for women is high in Norway, and the gap between women's and men's participation is small compared with other countries. Since the 1980s, women aged 25-40 in particular have been more active in the labour market. This can be attributed to the increased number of kindergarten places available and good welfare schemes that make it easier to combine a career and family.

... but many women still work part time

The trend is that countries with a high proportion of women in employment also have a high share of women working part time, and there are still far more women than men working part time in Norway. However, fewer women and more men work part time today than 10 years ago. In 1990, 48 per cent of women and 9 per cent of men worked part time, compared with 43 and 13 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 37 hours. Weekly working hours for women fell by three hours by the mid-1980s, but have since increased. In 2008, weekly working hours for women totalled 31.

Majority of unemployed are men

From the beginning of the 1970s until the recession of 1983-84, the unemployment rate remained steady at just under 2 per cent of the labour force, but was slightly 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 care services in the public sector, which are less affected by cyclical fluctuations.

At the start of 2009, Norway had few unemployed men and women aged 16-64 compared with other European countries, with 3.6 and 2.4 per cent respectively. In the Nordic countries, Denmark was the next lowest, with 4.6 unemployment for women and 5.9 per cent for men. Sweden had the highest unemployment in the Nordic region, with 4.6 per cent of women and 5.9 per cent for men. Sweden had the highest unemployment in the Nordic region, with 7.7 per cent of women and 8.2 per cent of men. The highest unemployment in Europe was in Spain, with 18.1 per cent for women and 17.0 per cent for men.

More women in the public sector

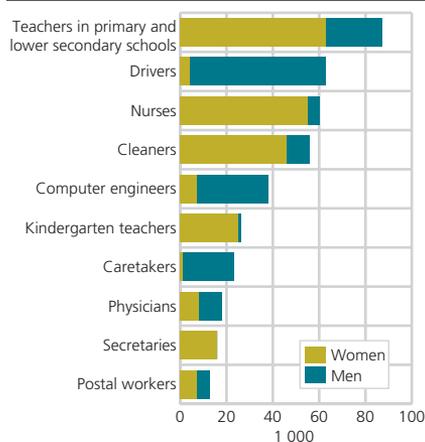
Today, 48 per cent of women and 19 per cent of men work in the public sector. These figures have remained stable in recent years. Women are more often employed in the local government sector, while there is a more even distribution of men between the local government and central government sectors.

Still male and female professions

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

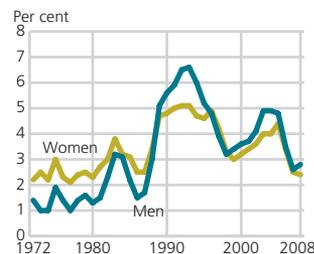
Typical female professions are teachers in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools, nurses, cleaners and secretaries. Typical male professions are craftsmen, building and construction workers, drivers and engineers. In some professions, e.g. psychologists, postal workers, marketing and advertising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

Women and men in employment in selected occupations, 15-74 years. 2008



Source: Labour force survey.

Unemployed women and men aged 15-74 years. Percentage of the labour force



Source: Labour force survey.

Unemployed women and men aged 15-64 years. Selected countries. Q1 2009. Percentage of the labour force



Source: Eurostat

Labour force

= Total of employed and unemployed. Employed is defined as persons engaged in income-generating work. Unemployed are persons without income-generating work, but who are looking for work and can start immediately.

Working hours

= Full time is defined as a minimum of 37 hours a week, or 30-36 hours when stated that this is full time. Part time is therefore less than 30 hours, or 30-36 hours when stated that this is not full time.

More information:

http://www.ssb.no/aku_en/

http://www.ssb.no/yrkeaku_en/

A woman's worth

Average monthly salaries¹ for women and men

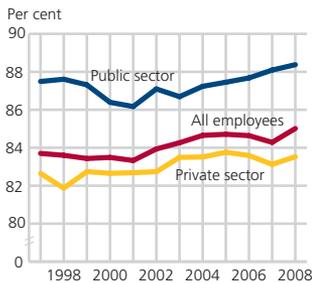


¹ Full-time equivalents.
Source: Wage statistics.

Full-time equivalent monthly earnings

In order to be able to compare salaries of full-time and part-time employees, the part-time employees' earnings are converted to full-time equivalents, i.e. the monthly earnings of part-time employees will be quoted as if they work full time. Unless otherwise specified, the full-time equivalent monthly earnings are quoted in this document.

Women's salaries as a percentage of men's, by sector



Source: Wage statistics.

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 the large pay gap between the public and private sector.

Pay gap continues

On average, women earn 85 per cent of men's salaries, in both part-time and full-time jobs. Wages have increased steadily since 1997 for both men and women, but the pay gap has remained relatively stable.

Men's monthly earnings were NOK 5 400 more than women's in 2008 on average. While the average monthly earnings for male employees was NOK 36 500, the corresponding figure for females was NOK 31 100. If we only consider full-time employees, the pay level was somewhat higher for both men and women, and the pay gap was smaller than for all employees as a whole. Full-time male employees earned NOK 37 100 in 2008, while the corresponding figure for full-time female employees was NOK 32 300 (including various additional allowances and bonuses). Full-time female employees earned 87 per cent of full-time male employees' salaries.

Additional allowances and overtime – a male privilege?

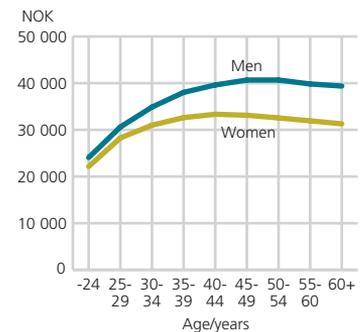
The differences in earnings become even greater because men more often than women have various forms of additional allowances and bonuses, and are paid more overtime.

Women's basic salaries were 87 per cent of men's basic salaries in 2008, regardless of contracted working hours. However, when additional allowances and bonuses/commissions are included, women's salaries fall to 85 per cent of men's salaries. The differences become even greater when overtime payment is included, with women's salaries falling to 83 per cent of men's salaries.

Wider pay gap in private sector

The differences in earnings between men and women vary by sector, industry, occupation, level of education and age. When considering the public and private sectors separately, the pay gap is widest within the private sector, which also has the highest number of employees. In the private sector, the women's share of men's earnings was 84 per cent in 2008, compared with 88 per cent in the public sector.

Average monthly salaries¹ for women and men, by age, 2008



¹ Full-time equivalents.
Source: Wage statistics.

Pay gap increases with age

Both women's and men's salaries increase with age. This "age effect" is a result of seniority and education, but is far greater for men than for women. The increase in earnings levels out and falls when the woman passes 40, while men's salaries increase up to 50, thus widening the pay gap. When women are in their 20s, their salaries are 92 per cent of men's salaries, but when they have passed 50, their salaries are just about 80 per cent of men's salaries. There is also a "generation effect" since the oldest women belong to a generation where women had a much lower education than men.

Teaching staff most equal

The pay gap varies considerably from industry to industry. In the financial services industry, where the salary level is relatively high, women earn the least compared with men. In addition, women's salaries as a percentage of men's salaries have fallen in recent years in this industry. In 1997, women earned 73 per cent of men's monthly earnings within the financial services industry, which fell to 65 per cent in 2008.

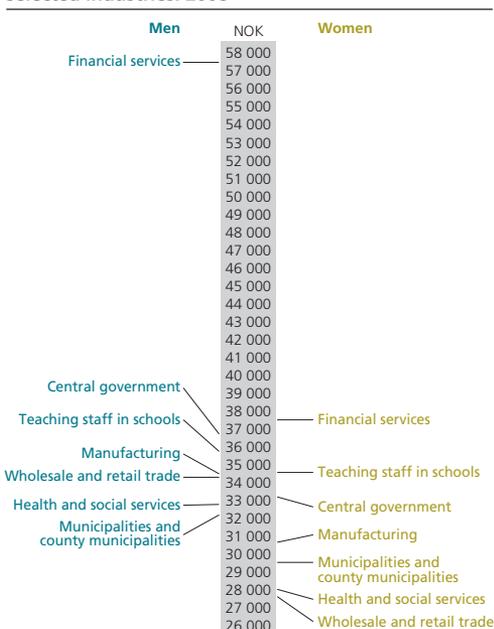
The gap is narrowest among teaching staff, where women's earnings were 97 per cent of men's earnings in 2008. Two thirds of teaching staff are women.

Does "female education" pay?

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 surprisingly perhaps, women's earnings as a percentage of men's earnings are lowest among the group with a short higher education. 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 or technicians in the private sector, women are more likely to work in the public sector as teachers or nurses. The pay gap is also greater among those with the highest level of education than among those with a lower education. This proves that higher education is no guarantee of equality in terms of equal pay.

Average monthly salaries¹ for men and women in selected industries. 2008



¹ Full-time equivalents.
Source: Wage statistics.

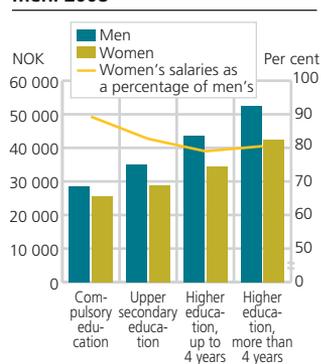
Wages or income?

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.

Average monthly salaries¹, by education level. Women and men. 2008

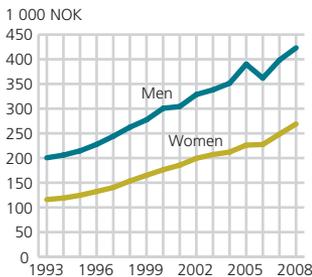


¹ Full-time equivalents.
Source: Wage statistics.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/lonnansatt_en/

Mind the gap!

Average gross income. Women and men



Source: Tax statistics for personal taxpayers.

Wages or income?

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Women's income 64 per cent of men's

In 2008, the average gross income for all adults was NOK 345 300. While the average gross income for women was NOK 269 000, the figure was NOK 423 100 for men.

As shown previously, average monthly earnings for women in full-time employment represent 87 per cent of men's. Women's gross annual income, however, is only 64 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 because they are more likely to work part time. In addition, the majority of pensioners on a basic old age pension are women.

Average or median?

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 instead of the average to describe the difference in income between the sexes. The median, which is the value that divides the distribution of income into two equal parts, was NOK 363 600 for men and NOK 248 000 for women in 2008. Using this measure, women's income as a percentage of men's income increase from 64 to 68 per cent.

Men earn more from self-employment

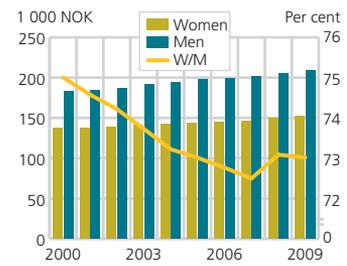
Earned income makes up slightly more than two thirds of gross income for both women and men. A larger part of women's income is made up of national insurance benefits (partly because there are far more female pensioners), whereas men have more income from self-employment and dividends.

Majority on basic pension are women

The large difference in income between women and men is not only because women work less hours and are less likely to be part of the labour force than men, it is also because the pension of today's pensioners is to a large extent based on and determined by their work history.

In 2009, the average old age pension was NOK 209 000 for men and NOK 152 600 for women. This means that women's pensions are 73 per cent of men's. This is related to

Average old age pension. Women and men and women's pension as share of men's



Source: NAV.

the fact that almost 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 a basic pension are women.

Smaller gender gap in the north

Both the income level and the relative difference between women and men vary considerably from county to county and municipality to municipality. Women in Oslo had the highest income in 2008, with NOK 316 600, while women in Nord-Trøndelag had the lowest, with NOK 240 500. The difference between women's and men's income is greatest in Rogaland and least in Finnmark. This applies to both absolute values and relative figures. Men in Rogaland had incomes that were NOK 217 900 more than their female counterparts, while in Finnmark the difference was NOK 80 500.

The three most northern counties in Norway have a pattern of least relative income differences, and the greatest differences are in the south and west (Rogaland, the Agder counties, Hordaland and Møre og Romsdal).

The differences are even greater at municipality level. In some municipalities in Finnmark, women's income is about the same as men's, particularly in Kautokeino and Karasjok, which is due to the men's low income level in these municipalities. Conversely, there are a number of municipalities in Western Norway where the women have less than half the income of the men.

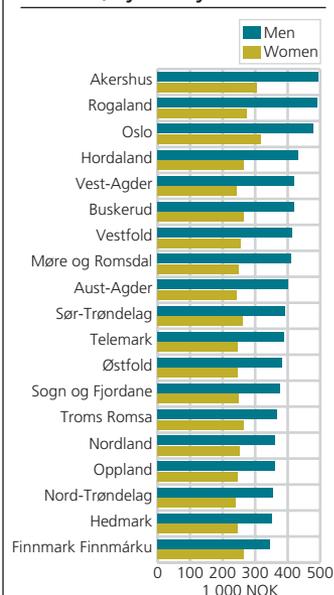
Asker and Bærum have the highest income levels in Norway for men and women, but women in these municipalities still only have slightly more than half of the men's income.

Majority of assets owned by men

Unlike income, wealth cannot be linked to one individual in a family or household. 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.

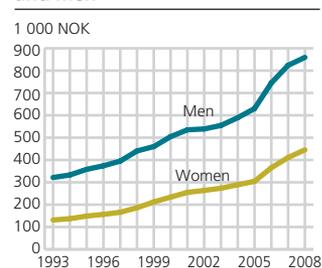
In 2008, Norwegian men had a taxable gross wealth of NOK 859 300 on average, compared with NOK 445 400 for women. Women's gross wealth was around half of men's; an increase from around 40 per cent in 1993. In relation to taxable net wealth, however, the differences between men and women are very small, which is partly due to the fact that men have more debt. In 2008, women's taxable net wealth was NOK 133 400 on average, compared with NOK 137 100 for men.

Average gross income. Women and men, by county. 2008



Source: Tax statistics for personal taxpayers.

Taxable gross wealth. Women and men



Source: Tax statistics for personal taxpayers.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/selvangivelse_en/

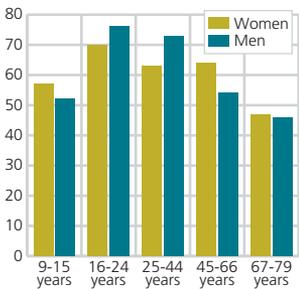
Women are culture cultures

Proportion of women and men taking up various cultural offers in last 12 months, 2008



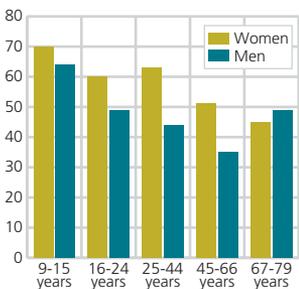
Source: Norwegian cultural barometer.

Proportion of women and men who have attended a concert in last 12 months, by age, 2008



Source: Norwegian cultural barometer.

Proportion of women and men who have visited a public library in last 12 months, by age, 2008



Source: Norwegian cultural barometer.

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

Growing numbers of men are attending the theatre and going to see musicals and shows; 49 per cent in 2008 compared with just 38 per cent in 1991. The corresponding figures for women are 57 and 51 per cent respectively. Women are most keen to take up cultural offers regardless of their age.

Opera lovers the oldest ...

Since 1991, the number attending operas and operettas has been growing steadily; 8 per cent of women and 5 per cent of men in 2008. The majority of these were the more elderly part of the population, with 14 and 11 per cent aged 67-74 in 2008.

... and cinema goes the youngest

Going to the cinema is a popular pastime, with seven out of ten of the population visiting the cinema in 2008. In the same period, 95 per cent of women and 90 per cent of men aged 20-24 took a trip to the cinema. The average age of cinema goers is 34; the lowest of all users of cultural offers.

Technical interests for men, art for women

Visitor numbers for museums in Norway remained similar between 1991 and 2008, with 40 and 47 per cent each year for men and women. Whilst men more often visit technical museums, women choose art. The interest in natural history and archaeological museums is the same for both sexes.

36 per cent of men and 47 per cent of women had attended an art exhibition. This difference has remained constant since the start of the 1990s.

More women at the library ...

Fewer people are visiting public libraries than before, and the majority of visitors are women. Six out of ten women had visited a public library in 2008. Children and young people visit libraries the most. 69 per cent of boys and girls aged 9-12 visit a public library in a year. Visitors to libraries average 5.5 trips a year.

... and men at sporting events

More men (61 per cent) than women (50 per cent) attend sporting events. 72 per cent of boys aged 9-15 attend sporting events, whilst the corresponding figure for women aged 67-79 is just 23 per cent. Men attend more football matches than women, who are more likely to be found watching a handball match.

Strong growth for new medias

Fewer people are reading printed newspapers than before. The majority of newspaper readers used to be men, but in 2008 69 per cent of women and 67 per cent of men read a newspaper an average day. These figures have fallen since 1991, from 82 and 87 per cent respectively. Men and women in Norway spend an average of approximately 27 minutes reading the printed newspaper every day; 12 minutes less than in 1991.

The fall in the number of printed newspapers and time spent reading newspapers is due to the explosive entry into the market of other medias in recent years. 67 per cent of women and 75 per cent of men used the Internet on a typical day in 2008. This is a huge increase from 1997, when the corresponding figures were 3 and 10 per cent. The share of children and young people using the Internet is fairly evenly spread between the sexes. From the age of 25 and over, the proportion of men is the highest. Women and men in the age group 67-79 spend the least time surfing the Internet; 16 per cent of the women and 42 per cent of the men.

Men use home computers to a greater extent than women. This difference applies to all age groups, with the exception of the young. Nevertheless, a growing number of women are logging on to the home computer, and the increase in the past year applied solely to women. In 2008, the share was 55 per cent for women and 62 for men, compared with 6 and 16 per cent in 1994. Only 16 per cent of women aged 67-79 use a home computer on a typical day, compared with 35 per cent of men in the same age group.

Less TV

Despite the increasing access to 24-hour television channels, we are not spending any more time watching TV. Approximately 80 per cent of men and women watched television on a typical day in both 1991 and 2008. News broadcasts are the most commonly watched type of programme, followed by television series, sport and entertainment programmes.

More women read magazines ...

19 per cent of women and 7 per cent of men read magazines on a typical day. The number of men and women reading magazines has fallen since the start of the 1990s, with only slight changes in recent years. 23 per cent of women aged 67-79 read magazines, and the corresponding figure for boys aged 9-15 is 3 per cent.

... and books

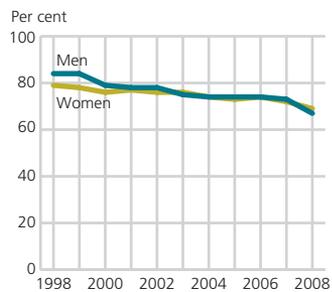
One out of four reported reading books in their leisure time in 2008. More women than men read books; 28 and 18 per cent respectively. Fiction books are most popular with both sexes. Women buy books from book clubs and borrow books from other people more often than men, and men most often buy books in book shops or read books they have received as gifts.

Radio less popular

The interest in radio has waned despite a growing number of channels and longer transmission times. In 1991, 69 per cent of women and 73 per cent of men listened to the radio on a typical day, compared with 52 and 56 per cent in 2008.

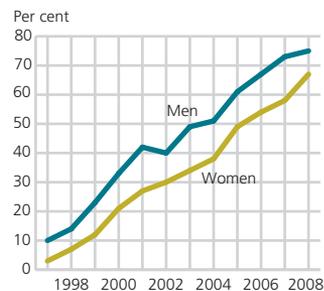
Radio listeners tuned in for an average of 80 minutes a day in 2008. In 1991, women spent 110 minutes a day listening to the radio. This fell to 69 minutes in 2008, and the corresponding figures in the same periods for men are 103 and 91 per cent.

Percentage of newspaper readers on average day. Women and men



Source: Norwegian media barometer.

Percentage using the Internet on average day. Women and men

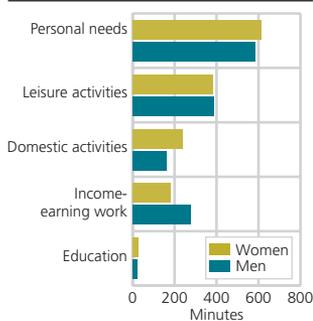


Source: Norwegian media barometer.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/kulturbar_en/
http://www.ssb.no/medie_en/

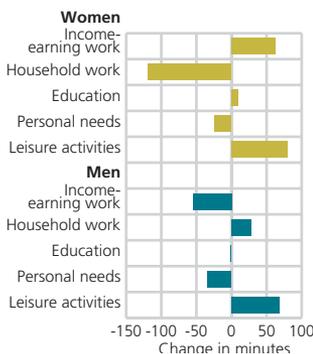
Around the clock¹

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



Source: Time use survey.

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



Source: Time use survey.

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



Source: Time use survey.

In the course of 24 hours

Women spent 10 hours and 11 minutes on personal needs such as sleep, personal care and meals in 2000. On average, this applies for every day of the week. Men spent 9 hours and 46 minutes on these activities.

Both women and men spent slightly more than 6 hours a day on leisure activities. Whereas women spent almost 4 hours on domestic activities, the corresponding time for men is 2 hours and 40 minutes. Women and men spent 2 hours and 50 minutes of this time on housework respectively. On average, women spent 3 hours a day on income-earning work, compared with 4 hours and 30 minutes for men. The rest of the day was spent on education amongst other things, with both women and men spending slightly more than 20 minutes on this daily.

From the 1970s to 2000 ...

Women and men are spending an increasing amount of their time on leisure activities. In 2000, both sexes spent an average of more than 6 hours per day, which was an increase of more than an hour from the 1970s. Women spent 2 hours less on domestic activities and 1 hour less on income-earning work. In comparison, men spent around 30 minutes more on domestic activities and 1 hour less on income-earning work. Time spent on education changed very little for both women and men during this period.

Mother cleaned – father repaired

Among couples with children aged 1-6 years, mothers were spending more time on income-earning work than before, whereas the time spent by fathers doing domestic activities changed little from 1970 to 2000. Mothers spent twice as much time on housework as fathers. In comparison, fathers spent much more time on maintenance work than mothers.

Nevertheless, maintenance work represented a very small part of total domestic activities. The time fathers spent on childcare and paternity leave increased since the 1990s.

More leisure time

The marked increase in leisure time from the 1970s to 2000 did not lead to more time being spent on sports and outdoor activities. Instead, both women and men spent considerably more time watching TV. The one-hour increase for women and men was due to an increase in the proportion that watched TV every day, and an increase in the time spent on this activity per day. Both women and men slept more than one hour extra on Sundays and spent 15 minutes more on meals at the weekend than during the week.

¹The time use survey maps how the population spends its time and who it spends its time with. Previous surveys were conducted in 1971, 1980, 1990 and 2000, and the next survey is due in 2010.

More alone, but less at home

Both women and men aged 16-74 spent more than one hour extra alone a day from 1990 to 2000 – almost 15 hours for men and 14 hours and 30 minutes for women on an average day, including the time we spent sleeping.

We spent less time at home in 2000 than we did in 1980. While women spent 16 hours at home, the figure is 14 hours and 30 minutes for men. The time spent at home decreased more for women (30 minutes) than men (10 minutes) from 1980 to 2000.

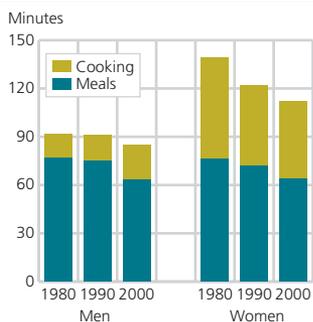
Out and about

When travelling, we mostly used the car. The proportion of people who used the car increased from 1980 to 2000, and roughly as many women as men travelled by car. The time we spent on daily travel by car remained more or less stable during this period; on average 47 minutes for women and 1 hour for men.

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.

Time spent on cooking and meals. Women and men. 16-74 years



Source: Time use survey.

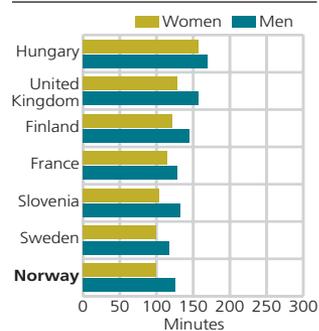
Time spent on meals decreased by 12 and 14 minutes for women and men respectively from 1980 to 2000. Women and men spent an average of 1 hour on meals in 2000. The time spent preparing meals increased by 7 minutes for men and fell by 15 minutes for women from 1980 to 2000, with men spending 20 minutes and women 50 minutes on preparing meals per day in 2000.

Less time on domestic activities than other Europeans

Compared with other European countries, Norwegian women and men aged 20-74 spent more time on leisure activities and less time

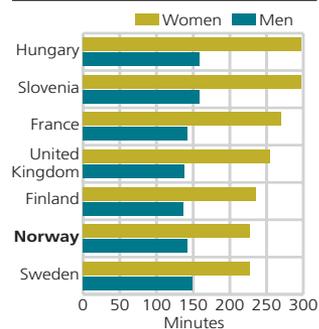
on domestic activities in 2000. Norwegian women spent less time on meals and personal care than women in other countries, but were among those who spent most time on income-earning work and education. This also applies to Norwegian men. French women and men got most sleep (almost 9 hours), whereas in Norway, women and men got least sleep (almost 8 hours).

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



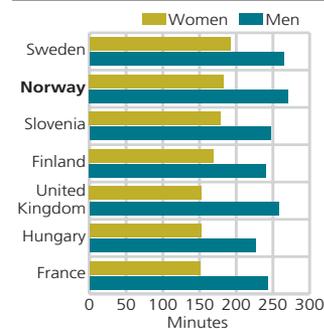
Source: Eurostat.

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



Source: Eurostat.

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



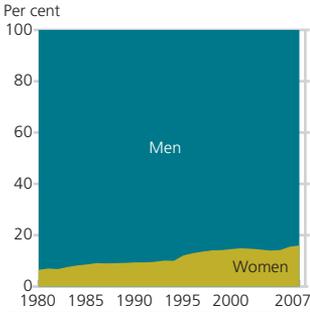
Source: Eurostat.

More information:

http://www.ssb.no/tidsbruk_en/

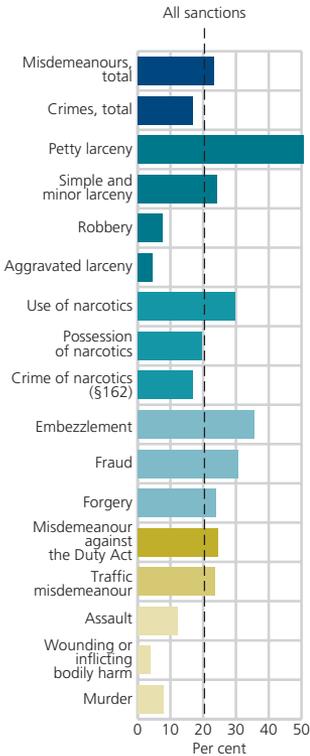
Few female criminals

Sanctions for crimes. Women and men



Source: Crime statistics.

Percentage of women sanctioned, by types of crime. 2007



Source: Crime statistics.

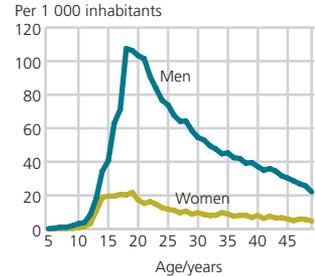
More women breaking the law than before

Female perpetrators are still rare, but are nevertheless more common than before. Out of a total of 307 000 sanctioned in 2007, 66 800 were women, which represents 23 per cent.

If we look solely at sanctions for crimes, the percentage for women is slightly lower than for law violations as a whole; only 16 per cent of all sanctions for crimes were given to women. 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.

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 women being charged with crimes among the youngest: in the 12-14 age group, girls make up a third.

Persons charged with offences. Women and men, by age. 2005



Source: Crime statistics.

Women commit crimes for profit and drug offences

The percentage of women committing crimes 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 use of narcotics are all “typical” female offences. However, women who commit these types of offences 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 narcotic crimes. This also applies to violent crimes, but the percentage of women found guilty of murder is an exception to that.

Few women locked up

Approximately 9 per cent of new inmates in prisons are women. However, women are given shorter sentences than men, which means that only just below 6 per cent of inmates are women. The corresponding figure was 3 per cent 25 years ago.

Victims of different types of violence

On the question of 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 percentage has been stable in the last 20 years. Men and women appear to have about the same risk of becoming a victim of violence, and it is the youngest ones who most often state that they have been a victim of violence or threats

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/kriminalitet_en/

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

Police reports also show that the youngest age group of boys and girls is most vulnerable. However, in the age group 19-24, twice as many acts of violence are reported against men compared with women.

With regard to victims of reported offences, men make up a far larger percentage of those subjected to wounding or inflicting bodily harm (85 per cent) than the less serious assaults (64 per cent) and threats (53 per cent). Conversely, women are strongly over-represented among victims of ill-treatment within family relations (84 per cent) and sexual crimes (86 per cent). Almost half (46 per cent) of all murder victims from 1999 to 2008 were women.

Rape on the increase

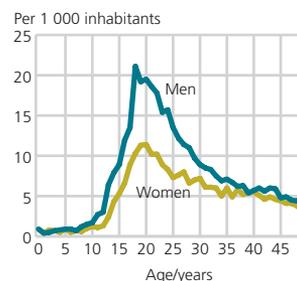
During the 1980s, there was an increased public focus on sexual assaults, as well as a gradual increase in the number of rapes being dealt with by the legal system. During this decade, the number of rapes that were investigated and concluded almost tripled. Despite changes in the registration practice and the extended definition of rape in the new General Civil Penal Code of Norway of 2000 affecting the statistics, we can state that the number of reported rapes has increased further: the number of reported rapes to the police in the last three years has more than doubled since 1993-1995. In 2008, approximately 120 cases of attempted rape and 940 rapes were reported to the police.

Women still more afraid

Far more women than men are afraid of being subjected to violence where they live: in 2007, the percentage was 11, compared with 3 per cent of men. Younger women in particular feel anxious about being a victim of violence; in the age group 16-24 the figure is 15 per cent, compared with 4 per cent of young men.

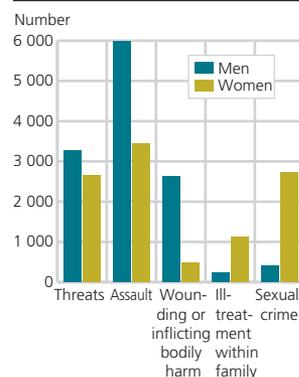
The fact that women, to a greater extent than men, are the victims of violence in their immediate surroundings, may partly explain why many more women than men say that they feel threatened in their local environment. The differences, however, are considerable, and the share of women who fear violence and threats is much higher than the percentage of women who are actually subjected to them. The greatest 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.

Victims of offences of violence. Women and men, by age. 2008



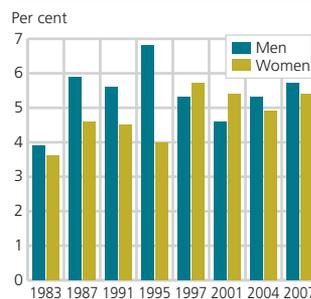
Source: Crime statistics.

Victims, by type of principal offence. Women and men. 2008



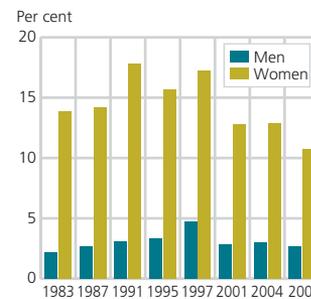
Source: Crime statistics.

Exposed to violence or threats of violence in last 12 months. Women and men



Source: Living conditions survey.

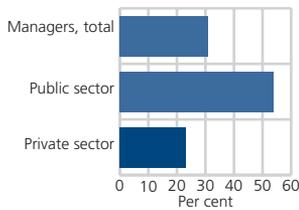
Fear of violence or threats in areas of residence. Women and men



Source: Living conditions survey.

Breaking the glass ceiling?

Percentage of female managers. 2008



Source: Labour force survey.

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 2008, 31 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 20 per cent, while 36 per cent of middle managers are women. The majority of female managers work in teaching, health and social services, where seven out of ten managers are women.

Public sector more woman friendly?

When looking at the gender distribution of managers, it may at first glance seem as if the public sector is more “woman friendly” because it employs significantly more female managers than the private sector: 55 per cent compared to 24. However, the high proportion of female managers is obviously related to the fact that the public sector is dominated by women – 70 per cent of employees in the public sector are women.

In terms of number of employees, there are many more female managers in the private sector than in the public sector, with 4.3 and 3.8 per cent respectively. The corresponding figures for men are 7.8 and 7.1 per cent.

More female entrepreneurs?

A large majority of newly-established enterprises are sole proprietorships, and one in three new enterprises in 2009 were established by women. However, only a quarter of the existing sole proprietorships were owned by women. Female entrepreneurs are often found in health and social services, teaching and other personal services.

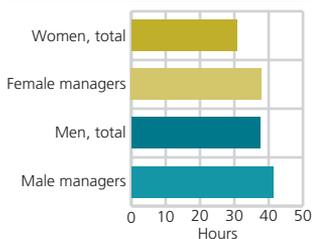
The fact that newly-established enterprises have a larger share of women than the existing sole proprietorships could mean that there are now more women establishing enterprises on their own than previously. However, it could also mean that more men succeed with their businesses and that more women than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

In 2009, 40 per cent of the board members in public limited companies are women. The corresponding figure for private limited companies is 17 per cent. Public limited companies are enterprises where none of the partners are personally responsible for the enterprise’s liabilities. A public limited company normally has more shareholders than a private limited company, and is subject to more requirements with regard to the board and share capital.

Female managers work similar hours to 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 contracted working hours of female managers in 2008 were 38 hours per week,

Hours worked. 2008



Source: Labour force survey.

i.e. approximately 3 hours less than for male managers. The contracted working hours for women in general were 31 hours per week, which is 6 hours less than the average for male employees.

More 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. After stagnating at 36 per cent in the general elections in 1997 and 2001, the share of female representatives increased to 38 per cent after the 2005 general election, and to 40 per cent in 2009. The proportion of women in municipal councils rose to 38 per cent after the 2007 election. In the Sámi Parliament, the share of female representatives is 49 per cent in 2009.

Only in the other Nordic countries do we find an equally high, or higher, percentage of women in the legislative assemblies: Sweden with 47 per cent, Finland 42 and Denmark 37 per cent women. By comparison, the corresponding figures in some other countries are Germany 32, UK 20 and France 19 per cent. Around 46 per cent of the municipal council representatives were re-elected in 2007. Only 39 per cent of the female representatives were re-elected, and the corresponding figure for men was 50 per cent.

Fewer members of 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 men and 12 per cent of women were members of a political party. These figures fell to 9 and 7 per cent respectively in 2007.

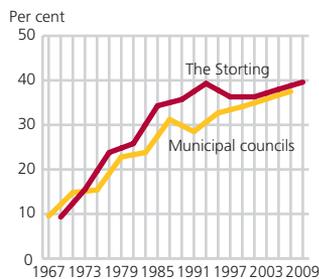
Mostly male mayors

97 of Norway's 430 mayors (chairmen of municipal councils) were women after the 2007 local government elections, i.e. 77 per cent of these posts are held by men. The number of female mayors has increased at almost every election since the 1990s, from 55 in 1991. At the last two elections, the number of female deputy mayors was almost twice as high as the number of female mayors.

Higher voter turnout among women

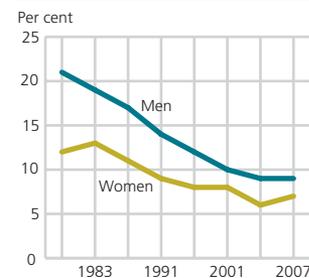
Men have traditionally had a somewhat higher participation in general elections than women. In the years following World War II, men's participation in elections was slightly higher than among women. By the end of the 1980s, this difference had levelled out, and since then more women than men have exercised their right to vote.

Proportion of female Storting and municipal council representatives



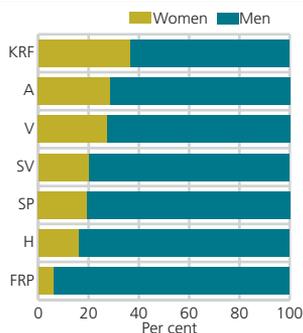
Source: Election statistics.

Political party membership by gender. 16-74 years



Source: Living conditions survey.

Percentage of female and male mayors in municipal councils 2007, by political party

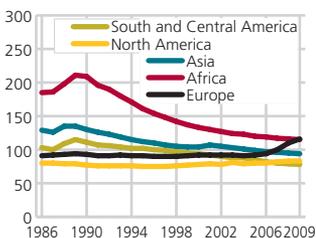


Source: Election statistics.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/yrkeaku_en/
http://www.ssb.no/aku_en/
http://www.ssb.no/storingsvalg_en/
http://www.ssb.no/kommvalg_en/
http://www.ssb.no/orgakt_en/

Piotr and Gunilla

Share of men per 100 women, by continent



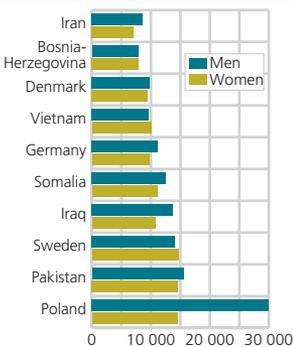
Source: Population statistics.

Non-Nordic immigrants, by reason for immigration. Women and men. 1990-2009



Source: Population statistics.

Ten largest immigrant groups. Women and men, by country background. 1 January 2009



Source: Population statistics.

Just as many women as men

The immigrant population consists of roughly the same number of women and men. At the start of 2009, the number of male immigrants was, however, higher than the number of female immigrants; 216 700 men and 205 800 women. This represents a gender ratio of 95 women to 100 men. However, the ratio varies by country of origin and region. Men are over-represented among immigrants from Western Europe, Eastern Europe and Africa, while women are over-represented among immigrants from Asia, North America and South and Central America.

Among Norwegian-born to immigrant parents there are also more men than women (95 women to 100 men), due to the fact that more boys than girls are born. At the start of 2009, Norway had a total of 85 600 Norwegian-born to immigrant parents.

Men are labour immigrants – women are family immigrants

There are various reasons for immigrants coming to Norway. Some arrive as refugees, while others come here to work, to start a family or be reunited with existing family members, or to study. Labour immigrants, who have constituted the largest group in recent years, are made up of almost 80 per cent men, while women make up 66 per cent of the family immigrants. When looking solely at adult family immigrants, the share of women rises to 75 per cent. Men are in the majority (60 per cent) among refugees, while immigrants moving to Norway to study, including au pairs, are made up of 60 per cent women.

Surplus of men from Poland

There is a clear over-representation of men in the ten largest groups of immigrants in Norway. This is due to the predominance of men in the largest group; immigrants from Poland, where men outnumber women by more than two to one. Only three out of the ten largest country groups have an over-representation of women; Bosnia, Vietnam and Sweden. In addition to the surplus of males from Poland, there is also a clear over-representation of men from Iraq and Iran.

Fertility falls as length of stay increases

Immigrants from all continents have a higher fertility rate than the Norwegian average, which in 2008 was 1.96 children per woman. Female immigrants from Eastern Europe have a fertility rate of 1.97, and the corresponding figures for Asia and Africa are 2.13 and 2.94 respectively. The differences in fertility diminish as the length of stay increases and from one generation to the next. The development shows that children of first generation immigrants have a fertility pattern that is more in line with the Norwegian population than their parents' generation.

Differences in education levels

91 per cent of women and men aged 16-18 were in upper secondary education in 2008. Among immigrants in the same age group, 71 per cent of the women and 68 per cent of the men were in upper secondary education, and the corresponding figures for Norwegian-born to immigrant parents were 89 and 88 per cent respectively. Pupils with an immigrant background have poorer throughputs in upper secondary education compared with pupils in general.

Of the immigrants who enrolled in upper secondary education in 2003, 41 per cent of the boys and 59 per cent of the girls had completed their education within five years. The corresponding figures for all pupils who enrolled in 2003 were 62 and 75 per cent respectively. However, Norwegian-born to immigrant parents are more likely to complete their studies, with 59 per cent of the boys and 72 per cent of the girls in this group completing their upper secondary education after five years.

Few immigrants aged 19-24 attend university or a university college; 20 per cent of the women and 15 per cent of the men in 2008. The share is much higher among Norwegian-born to immigrant parents, at 41 per cent of women and 31 per cent of men, which is on a par with the rest of the population.

Lower employment level

The employment level is lower among immigrants than in the rest of the population, but the employment rate varies according to country background. In particular, women with an immigrant background have a low employment level. Among immigrants in the 15-74 age group, men and women had an employment rate of 69 and 59 per cent respectively at the end of 2008, compared to 75 and 69 per cent in the total population. The greatest difference between men's and women's employment is found in immigrant groups from Asia, Africa and North America. The smallest gender differences in the employment level are in the Nordic immigrant population. The gender gap is narrowest among Norwegian-born to immigrant parents, with the employment level for men being somewhat higher than for women.

The lowest employment level is found among immigrants with a background from African countries, with 43 per cent of women and 55 per cent of men in employment.

High unemployment rate

In the second half of 2009, the unemployment rates among women and men were 2.6 and 3.3 per cent respectively. Unemployment among immigrants was somewhat higher, with 6.9 per cent for women and 8.0 per cent for men. African immigrants had the highest unemployment rate; 15.2 per cent for men and 12.3 per cent for women. The lowest unemployment level is found among the immigrants from the Nordic countries and the rest of Western Europe, with a level on a par with the rest of the population.

Immigrants and Norwegian-born to immigrant parents

Immigrants are persons who have immigrated to Norway for one reason or another.

Norwegian-born to immigrant parents

are persons born in Norway with two immigrant parents.

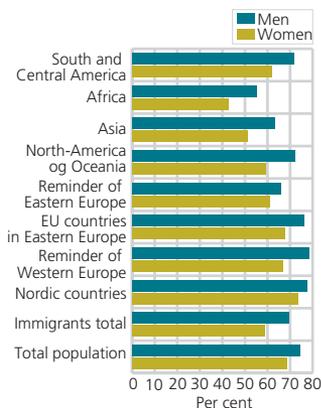
Refugee:

defined in the refugee register of the Directorate of Immigration as persons granted refugee status and in possession of a residence permit in Norway.

Country background:

own native country of an immigrant. For Norwegian-born to immigrant parents, the native country of the parents applies here.

Employment as a percentage of persons aged 15-74 years, by country background. Women and men. Q4 2008



Source: Labour market statistics.

More information:
http://www.ssb.no/innvbef_en/
http://www.ssb.no/innvgrunn_en/
http://www.ssb.no/innvregsys_en/

Regional differences in gender equality

Gender equality in the municipalities

Since 1999, Statistics Norway has published an index on gender equality in Norwegian municipalities. The index only measures equality between men and women, and not equality between different groups with regard to ethnicity or sexuality, for instance. The term “gender equality” is therefore used.

Equality in the municipalities can be measured in different ways. An index makes it easier to compare municipalities with regard to a number of indicators. Which indicators are included in the index depends, of course, on what we have statistics on. The method used to calculate the index will also affect the results. Designing an index aimed at measuring gender equality therefore entails making a number of choices, both with regard to content in the indicators and how these are assembled.

Dimensions of equality between women and men

The definition of equality is a subject of great debate. In the past, gender was mainly defined as equality for women, such as women’s participation in the labour market. Today, equality also includes equality for men, and equality in the home can be just as central as in the labour market. The index for gender equality in the municipalities does not consider what is the most important, but describes the extent of differences between women and men internally

New gender equality index for municipalities

The index was changed in 2009. Compared with the previous gender equality index, the new index has more indicators and has been compiled using a more composite method.

The municipalities are rated according to a sliding scale from 0 (least equality) to 1 (most equality) for each of the indicators, which is then input to an aggregate index (a weighted average). The indicators are as follows:

1. Institutional and structural frameworks for local equality

- 1.1. Governmental facilitating of potential equality
 - Share of children aged 1-5 years in kindergarten
- 1.2. Structure of industry and educational patterns
 - Share of employees in gender-balanced industries (one-digit level)
 - Ratio between women and men in the public sector
 - Ratio between women and men in the private sector
 - Share of pupils in upper secondary school in a gender-balanced education programme

2. Men’s and women’s local adaptations

- 2.1. Distribution of time, work/care
 - Ratio between the share of men and women in the labour force
 - Ratio between the share of men and women in part-time employment
 - Share of fathers taking statutory paternity leave or more (from parental leave in connection with childbirth)
- 2.2. Distribution of individual resources/influence
 - Ratio between the share of men and women with higher education
 - Share of female managers
- 2.3. Distribution of political influence
 - Share of women in the municipal council
- 2.4. Distribution of money
 - Ratio between men’s and women’s average gross income

in a municipality, and how these differences vary from region to region. The indicators included in the index throw light on a number of dimensions that have no clear dividing lines between them.

The index covers both structural frameworks and women and men's local adaptations. This includes governmental facilitating for areas such as kindergarten places, structure of industry and educational patterns, as well as use of time - distribution between work and care, individual resources and influence, political participation and income.

Most equal in Eastern Norway

Some regional patterns can be seen when the municipalities are divided into four equal groups by degree of equality.

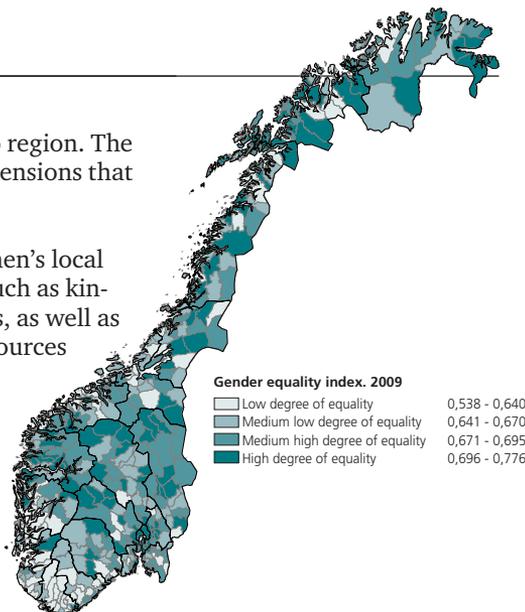
The highest degree of gender equality is primarily found in municipalities in the central and inland area of Eastern Norway. A number of municipalities in Sogn og Fjordane, Troms and Finnmark also have a high degree of equality. The municipalities with the least equality are found in the two Agder counties, as well as Rogaland, Hordaland and Møre og Romsdal.

When considering the 108 municipalities that are categorised as most equal, some differences can be seen between the north, west and east. The municipalities in Eastern Norway with the highest degree of equality have a more even balance between women and men with a higher education. Oslo and numerous municipalities in Akershus also have relatively many employees working in an industry with gender equality. Additionally, a more even balance between women and men can also be seen in the private sector, while the private sector in municipalities in the north is more male dominated. The regional pattern, however, differs in the public sector, where the gender balance is somewhat more even in the north than the east.

The municipalities in Sogn og Fjordane with the highest degree of equality have a particularly high percentage of fathers who take the statutory paternity leave or more of the parental leave. There is almost no difference between women's and men's income in the Finnmark municipalities with the highest degree of gender equality.

High degree of equality in the largest municipalities

All of the largest cities are included in the municipalities with the highest degree of equality. The cities all have high scores for most indicators, albeit with some variation. For example, Oslo has a lower percentage of fathers who take the statutory paternity leave. Kristiansand and Stavanger have a lower percentage of women in the labour force and the differences in income are greater than the municipal average. Bergen also has greater differences in income than average. A lower percentage of managers are women in Kristiansand, Stavanger, Bergen and Trondheim than in most other municipalities.



Gender equality index. 2009

Low degree of equality	0,538 - 0,640
Medium low degree of equality	0,641 - 0,670
Medium high degree of equality	0,671 - 0,695
High degree of equality	0,696 - 0,776

**Gender equality index
for Norwegian
municipalities 2009.
Sorted by degree of
equality**

Municipalities with high degree of equality

Municipality	Score
0104 Moss	0,701
0138 Hobøl	0,702
0211 Vestby	0,730
0213 Ski	0,717
0214 Ås	0,707
0215 Frogn	0,707
0216 Nesodden	0,753
0217 Oppegård	0,765
0219 Bærum	0,755
0220 Asker	0,742
0226 Sørum	0,705
0227 Fet	0,724
0228 Rælingen	0,729
0230 Lørenskog	0,748
0231 Skedsmo	0,724
0233 Nittedal	0,712
0234 Gjerdrum	0,706
0235 Ullensaker	0,704
0301 Oslo kommune	0,769
0402 Kongsvinger	0,704
0403 Hamar	0,749
0415 Løten	0,703
0427 Elverum	0,697
0429 Amot	0,736
0436 Tolga	0,726
0437 Tyristet	0,715
0438 Awdal	0,703
0501 Lillehammer	0,744
0511 Dovre	0,703
0512 Lesja	0,717
0513 Skjåk	0,711
0517 Sel	0,713
0521 Øyer	0,705
0533 Lunner	0,700
0541 Etnedal	0,699
0545 Vang	0,715
0604 Kongsberg	0,712
0612 Hole	0,738
0616 Nes (Buskerud)	0,698
0617 Gol	0,700
0619 Al	0,703
0620 Hol	0,710
0622 Krødsherad	0,704
0626 Lier	0,713
0627 Røyken	0,709
0704 Tønsberg	0,710
0722 Natterøy	0,709
0723 Tjøme	0,723
0826 Tinn	0,713
0829 Kviteseid	0,698
0830 Nissedal	0,712
1001 Kristiansand	0,707
1103 Stavanger	0,704
1134 Suldal	0,698
1201 Bergen	0,730
1233 Ulvik	0,749
1266 Masfjorden	0,706
1411 Guleh	0,716
1418 Balestrand	0,713
1419 Leikanger	0,743
1420 Sogndal	0,711
1421 Aurland	0,755
1429 Fjaler	0,716
1430 Gaular	0,732
1432 Førde	0,696
1443 Eid	0,698
1445 Gloppen	0,724
1502 Molde	0,717
1525 Stranda	0,724
1526 Stordal	0,706
1601 Trondheim	0,738
1640 Røros	0,726
1644 Holtålen	0,754
1663 Malvik	0,697
1702 Steinkjer	0,718
1719 Levanger	0,707
1729 Inderøy	0,698
1736 Snåsa	0,726
1740 Namsskogan	0,703
1743 Høylandet	0,707
1804 Bodø	0,731
1805 Narvik	0,716
1813 Brønnøy	0,717
1824 Vefsn	0,697
1828 Nesna	0,736
1833 Rana	0,699
1838 Gildeskål	0,720
1849 Hamarøy	0,733
1852 Tjeldsund	0,736
1860 Vestvågøy	0,696
1870 Sortland	0,723
1901 Harstad	0,708
1902 Tromsø	0,756
1911 Kvæfjord	0,705
1913 Skånland	0,698
1922 Bardu	0,714
1923 Salangen	0,721
1924 Målselv	0,717
1926 Dyrøy	0,726
1927 Tranøy	0,733
1942 Nordreisa	0,704
1943 Kvaenangen	0,731
2002 Vardø	0,740
2003 Vadsø	0,776
2021 Karásjohka Karasjok	0,720
2023 Gamvik	0,709
2027 Unjárga Nesseby	0,763
2030 Sør-Váranger	0,756

Municipalities with medium high degree of equality

Municipality	Score
0101 Halden	0,684
0105 Sarpsborg	0,673
0106 Fredrikstad	0,672
0119 Marker	0,680
0123 Spydeberg	0,679
0124 Askim	0,674
0125 Eidsberg	0,675
0136 Rygge	0,687
0229 Enebakk	0,694
0236 Nes (Akershus)	0,695
0238 Nannestad	0,692
0412 Ringsaker	0,674
0417 Stange	0,684
0423 Grue	0,685
0428 Trysil	0,685
0430 Stor-Elvdal	0,673
0432 Rendalen	0,682
0434 Engerdal	0,676
0439 Holtdal	0,697
0441 Os (Hedmark)	0,678
0502 Gjøvik	0,690
0515 Vågå	0,695
0532 Jevnaker	0,671
0534 Gran	0,690
0542 Nord-Aurdal	0,681
0543 Vestre Slidre	0,681
0544 Øystre Slidre	0,685
0602 Drammen	0,688
0605 Ringerike	0,673
0624 Øvre Eiker	0,678
0625 Nedre Eiker	0,682
0628 Hurum	0,692
0632 Rollag	0,690
0633 Nore og Uvdal	0,672
0701 Horten	0,678
0702 Holmestrand	0,686
0706 Sandefjord	0,687
0713 Sande (Vestfold)	0,673
0720 Stokke	0,677
0805 Porsgrunn	0,683
0806 Skien	0,692
0807 Notodden	0,694
0828 Seljord	0,693
0901 Risør	0,681
0904 Grimstad	0,689
0906 Arendal	0,688
1102 Søndnes	0,679
1106 Haugesund	0,686
1231 Ullensvang	0,678
1235 Voss	0,692
1243 Os (Hordaland)	0,671
1246 Fjell	0,675
1252 Modalen	0,678
1412 Solund	0,674
1422 Lærdal	0,687
1426 Luster	0,697
1428 Askvoll	0,678
1431 Jølster	0,690
1433 Naustdal	0,685
1444 Hornindal	0,693
1449 Stryn	0,689
1504 Ålesund	0,692
1505 Kristiansund	0,692
1516 Ulstein	0,680
1519 Volda	0,675
1520 Ørsta	0,681
1523 Ørskog	0,681
1524 Norddal	0,688
1528 Sykkylven	0,684
1560 Tingvoll	0,695
1566 Surnadal	0,677
1567 Rindal	0,675
1571 Halså	0,684
1612 Hemne	0,674
1621 Ørland	0,692
1634 Oppdal	0,687
1635 Rennebu	0,671
1664 Selbu	0,677
1703 Namsos	0,688
1714 Stjørdal	0,679
1718 Leksvik	0,671
1723 Mosvik	0,676
1738 Lierne	0,686
1742 Grong	0,693
1748 Fosnes	0,672
1811 Bindal	0,677
1812 Sømnå	0,676
1820 Alstahaug	0,692
1826 Hattfjelldal	0,687
1827 Dønna	0,680
1835 Træna	0,678
1840 Saltdal	0,676
1851 Lødingen	0,683
1853 Evensen	0,673
1866 Hadsel	0,678
1871 Andøy	0,691
1874 Moskenes	0,679
1915 Bjarkøy	0,688
1920 Lavangen	0,690
1925 Sørreisa	0,686
1929 Berg	0,683
1931 Lenvik	0,684
2004 Hammerfest	0,682
2012 Alta	0,686
2014 Loppa	0,674
2019 Nordkapp	0,683
2020 Porsanger Porsángu Porsanki	0,680
2022 Lebesby	0,680
2028 Båtsfjord	0,672

Municipalities with medium low degree of equality

Municipality	Score
0111 Hvaler	0,642
0121 Rømskog	0,654
0122 Trøgstad	0,643
0135 Råde	0,663
0137 Våler (Østfold)	0,647
0221 Aurskog-Høland	0,670
0237 Eidsvoll	0,660
0418 Nord-Odal	0,641
0419 Sør-Odal	0,666
0425 Asnes	0,659
0426 Våler (Hedmark)	0,669
0514 Lom	0,659
0516 Nord-Fron	0,669
0519 Sør-Fron	0,665
0520 Ringebu	0,660
0522 Gausdal	0,670
0528 Østre Toten	0,660
0529 Vestre Toten	0,664
0536 Søndre Land	0,642
0538 Nordre Land	0,656
0615 Flå	0,646
0618 Hemsedal	0,670
0623 Modum	0,665
0709 Larvik	0,659
0711 Svelvik	0,665
0714 Hof	0,652
0718 Hof (f.o.m. 2002)	0,643
0728 Lardal	0,660
0815 Kragerø	0,669
0819 Nome	0,641
0821 Bø (Telemark)	0,663
0822 Sauherad	0,649
0827 Hjarstad	0,662
0831 Fyresdal	0,650
0833 Tokke	0,654
0834 Vinje	0,669
0914 Tvedestrand	0,668
0926 Lillesand	0,670
0929 Amli	0,656
0937 Eje og Hornes	0,641
0940 Valle	0,663
0941 Bykle	0,664
1002 Mandal	0,659
1004 Flekkefjord	0,643
1112 Lund	0,651
1120 Klepp	0,652
1121 Time	0,666
1122 Gjesdal	0,644
1124 Soia	0,665
1135 Sauda	0,667
1141 Finnøy	0,645
1151 Utsira	0,647
1216 Sveio	0,656
1227 Jondal	0,647
1232 Eidfjord	0,649
1234 Granvin	0,646
1238 Kvam	0,650
1245 Sund	0,653
1247 Askøy	0,665
1256 Meland	0,650
1260 Radøy	0,659
1263 Lindås	0,653
1401 Flora	0,656
1416 Høyanger	0,660
1417 Vik	0,641
1424 Ardal	0,652
1438 Bremanger	0,655
1439 Vågsøy	0,662
1532 Giske	0,663
1539 Rauma	0,654
1563 Sunndal	0,654
1573 Smøla	0,661
1576 Aure	0,646
1617 Hitra	0,641
1620 Frøya	0,648
1624 Rissa	0,658
1627 Bjugn	0,656
1632 Roan	0,652
1633 Osen	0,645
1636 Meldal	0,667
1653 Melhus	0,651
1657 Skaun	0,663
1662 Klæbu	0,655
1665 Tydal	0,651
1711 Nærøer	0,649
1725 Namdalseid	0,650
1744 Overhalla	0,664
1750 Vikna	0,661
1751 Nærøy	0,646
1815 Vega	0,662
1818 Herøy (Nordland)	0,644
1822 Leirfjord	0,664
1825 Grane	0,651
1832 Hemnes	0,654
1834 Lurøy	0,642
1837 Meløy	0,641
1841 Fauske	0,663
1850 Tysfjord	0,657
1857 Værøy	0,657
1865 Vågan	0,670
1917 Ibestad	0,647
1936 Karlsøy	0,645
1938 Lyngen	0,664
2011 Guovdageaidnu Kautokeino	0,670
2015 Hasvik	0,662
2024 Berlevåg	0,669
2025 Deatnu Tana	0,663

Municipalities with low degree of equality

Municipality	Score
0118 Aremark	0,622
0127 Skiptvet	0,615
0128 Rakkestad	0,633
0239 Hurdal	0,608
0420 Eidskog	0,629
0540 Sør-Aurdal	0,640
0621 Sigdal	0,637
0631 Flåberg	0,613
0719 Andebu	0,619
0811 Siljan	0,636
0814 Bamble	0,634
0817 Drangedal	0,652
0911 Gjerstad	0,598
0912 Vegårshei	0,635
0919 Froland	0,612
0928 Birkenes	0,614
0935 Iveland	0,569
0938 Bygland	0,620
1003 Farsund	0,632
1014 Vennesla	0,596
1017 Songdalen	0,588
1018 Søgne	0,639
1021 Marnardal	0,584
1026 Aseral	0,625
1027 Audnedal	0,608
1029 Lindesnes	0,598
1032 Lyngdal	0,637
1034 Hægebostad	0,538
1037 Kvinesdal	0,613
1046 Sirdal	0,595
1101 Eigersund	0,626
1111 Sokndal	0,590
1114 Bjerkreim	0,614
1119 Hå	0,619
1127 Randaberg	0,631
1129 Forsand	0,627
1130 Strand	0,604
1133 Hjelmeland	0,628
1142 Rennesøy	0,601
1144 Kvitsøy	0,598
1145 Bokn	0,663
1146 Tysvær	0,615
1149 Karmøy	0,603
1160 Vindafjord	0,611
1211 Etne	0,601
1219 Bømlo	0,592
1221 Stord	0,630
1222 Fjell	0,597
1223 Tysnes	0,616
1224 Kvinnherad	0,615
1228 Odda	0,630
1241 Fusa	0,622
1242 Samnanger	0,639
1244 Austevoll	0,608
1251 Vaksdal	0,632
1253 Osterøy	0,646
1259 Øygarden	0,598
1264 Austrheim	0,613
1265 Fedje	0,621
1413 Hyllestad	0,635
1441 Selje	0,611
1511 Vanylven	0,610
1514 Sande (Møre og Romsdal)	0,598
1515 Herøy (Møre og Romsdal)	0,615
1517 Hareid	0,635
1529 Skodje	0,613
1531 Sula	0,597
1534 Haram	0,611
1535 Vestnes	0,615
1543 Nesset	0,634
1545 Midsund	0,614
1546 Sandøy	0,578
1547 Aukra	0,640
1548 Fræna	0,602
1551 Eide	0,591
1554 Averøy	0,584
1557 Giærrnes	0,626
1613 Shillfjord	0,613
1622 Agdenes	0,604
1630 Åfjord	0,634
1638 Orkdal	0,635
1648 Midtre Gauldal	0,630
1717 Frosta	0,640
1721 Verdal	0,638
1724 Verran	0,637
1739 Røyrvik	0,629
1749 Flatanger	0,603
1755 Leka	0,627
1816 Vevelstad	0,621
1836 Rødøy	0,638
1839 Beiarn	0,618
1845 Sorfjord	0,636
1848 Steigen	0,621
1854 Ballangen	0,634
1856 Røst	0,638
1859 Flakstad	0,630
1867 Bø (Nordland)	0,619
1868 Øksnes	0,601
1919 Gratangen	0,637
1928 Torsken	0,627
1933 Balsfjord	0,616
1939 Storfjord	0,638
1940 Gáivuotna Kálfjord	0,634
1941 Skjervøy	0,622
2017 Kvamsund	0,619
2018 Måsøy	0,623

More information:

http://www.ssb.no/likekom_en/

More statistics on gender equality?

ssb.no/english/

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/

For questions about statistics and publications, please contact:

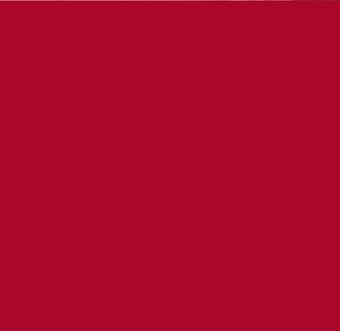
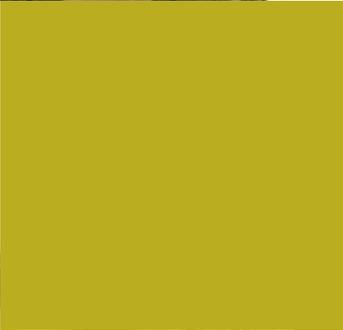
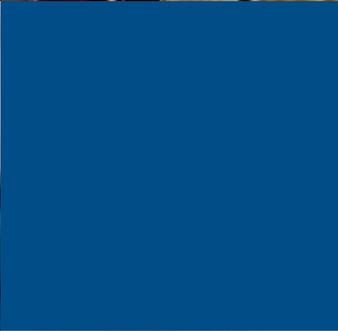
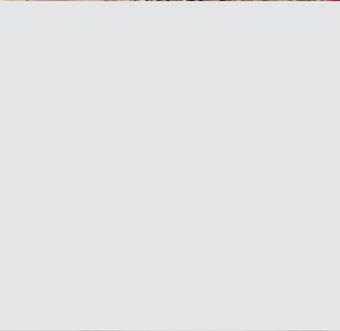
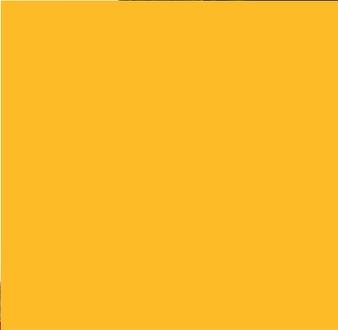
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