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PERSONAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN IN RURAL AREAS OF EUROPE

NOTE

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DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR INTERNAL POLICIES POLICY DEPARTMENT B: STRUCTURAL AND COHESION POLICIES

AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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NOTE

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Abstract

The present note provides an overview of the social situation of women in the rural areas of Europe. It looks into rural women's work, political participation and their experience of the quality of life in rural areas. It describes the average situation of rural women and identifies the differences between rural areas and between social groups of women. It also looks into the effectiveness of rural development programmes and formulates recommendations for the CAP post 2013.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| САР | Common Agricultural Policy |
|--------|---|
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| LAG | Local Action Group |
| LEADER | Liaison Entre Actions de Développement de l'Économie Rurale |
| NUTS | Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics |
| NUTS 1 | Major socio- economic regions |
| NUTS 2 | Basic regions for the application of regional policies |
| NUTS 3 | Small regions for specific diagnoses |
| | |

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background

In September 2010 the Committee on Agricultural and Rural Development of the European Parliament will organise a workshop on 'Women in agriculture', in which the situation of women living in the rural areas of Europe and possible actions to support gender equality will be debated. In preparation for the workshop and in order to provide updated knowledge the committee commissioned consultants to present overviews of the personal and social development of rural women as well as the position of women in agriculture.

Aim

The present report provides an overview of the social situation of women in the rural areas of Europe. It looks into rural women's work and income, political participation and their experience of the quality of life in rural areas. It aims to describe the average situation of rural women and to identify the differences between rural areas and between social groups of women. In addition, it reports on good practices and the effectiveness of gender mainstreaming policies and gives recommendations for policy and research.

Method

The report is based on literature review and combines statistical analysis with results from a wide range of European, national and regional studies. In doing so different indicators of rurality have been used that take population density into account, geographical remoteness and socio-economic marginality. In addition a quick scan of relevant website was undertaken to select a sample of good practices.

Results

The situation of rural women differs considerably between and within Member States. There is no evidence of a general rural disadvantage.

Women experience specific problems only in the peripheral rural regions of Europe and in particular the Central-Eastern Member States. These areas are maladapted to women's needs in terms of employment and services, as well as cultural norms and values. It is also in those areas that young rural women (and men) decide to leave and to search for a better life elsewhere.

In the accessible rural areas the quality of life, services and employment opportunities have greatly improved as a results of modernisation and counter-urbanisation. In those regions there is little difference in the situation of rural and urban women. There are still differences in women's relative position to men but the problem is not one of rural disadvantage.

Analysis of rural development policies reveals that women seldom participate in the formation of rural development plans or the decision making on the distribution of funds. There are some projects designed for women often focusing on self-employment. There are also some projects aimed at improving the supply of social services. Most projects are fragmented attempts to solve some problems for some women. A coherent plan on how to address gender equality is lacking.

Recommendations for the CAP post 2013

Targeting of peripheral rural regions

Rural development policy should focus on the situation in the peripheral rural areas where the low quality of life and lack of work, income and services constraints women's development and perpetuates unequal gender relations. Gender inequality in the accessible rural areas should be targeted by way of general gender policy.

Periphery and territoriality

To improve the situation of rural women it is recommended to invest in the vitality and quality of life of peripheral rural areas. Improving the accessibility of the areas is of the utmost importance as is strengthening rural-urban linkages. Upgrading the local quality of life may convince rural women (and men) to stay. It may also help to mobilize individual and collective action for local development.

It is, moreover, important to support the creation of women's networks. They give access to shelter against violence and oppression, support for self-development and the negotiation of gender relations, and contribute to increase political participation.

Territorial approach – focused, coherent and participatory also in gender terms

Supporting women and gender equality should be an integral part of the territorial approach to local development. It should start with the identification of locally specific gender problems and opportunities, taking the differences between social groups into account. Local governments should be held accountable for the responsiveness of local development programmes to gender equality.

Recommendations for research

There is a great need for more comparative research to study the differences in the situation of rural women in a systematic way to understand the interaction of gender issues with rural development and rural decline. In this, the patterns of female in- and out-migration requires particular attention

1. INTRODUCTION

Gender equality has been a key principle of the EU ever since the Treaty of Rome introduced the principle of equal pay for men and women in 1957. Since then many directives have been adopted which ensured, among other things, equal treatment in the labour market, the reconciliation of work and care and fought discrimination and maltreatment of women in the domestic as well as in the public domain. As a result the average position of women in Europe has greatly improved in the past decades.¹

There are, however, great differences in the position of women across social groups as well as countries and regions within countries. Women living in rural areas are considered to be among the most disadvantaged women as a result of the more traditional social structures limiting their personal and social development.² During a technical seminar on 'Women in the sustainable Development of the Rural World' in Cáceres (Spain), 27-29 April 2010 a declaration was adopted, which calls for a revalidation of the commitment of the EU to the principles of equality.³ The declaration points at the importance of gender equity for a sustainable rural population dynamic and underlines the importance of supporting gender equality by way of rural development and territorial policies.

In September 2010 the Committee on Agricultural and Rural Development of the European Parliament will organise a workshop on 'Women in agriculture', in which the situation of women living in the rural areas of Europe and possible actions to support gender equality will be debated. In preparation for the workshop and in order to provide updated knowledge the committee commissioned consultants to present overviews of the personal and social development of rural women as well as the position of women in agriculture.

The present report examines the situation of rural women. More specifically it provides an updated overview of the key elements that characterise the social situation of women in the rural areas of Europe, highlighting the differences and similarities between social and territorial groups and identifying the factors that influence the position of rural women.

Analyzing the position of rural women is more complicated than it may initially seem. The lack of data is one of the difficulties. There are few statistics publically available that are segregated by gender as well as region. In addition, hardly any comparative study on rural women has been undertaken in recent years. In order to paint a picture of the situation of rural women across Europe this study combines data sets and insights from a wide range of European, national and regional studies.

Another complication lies in the definition of rural areas. In most statistics rurality is defined in terms of (low) population density. Various studies have pointed at the problems that such a definition brings along; distinguishing rural and urban areas based on population density insufficiently accounts for real differences in living conditions and quality of life.⁴ Processes of urbanisation and counter-urbanisation have led to the blurring of rural-urban differences and the convergence of rural and urban areas also in terms of labour market structures. At the same time, this does not happen to the same extent in all sparsely populated areas. The situation in those areas differs greatly going from the North-

¹ European Commission, 2009.

² European Parliament, 2008.

³ European Forum Women in the Sustainable Development of the Rural World, 2010.

⁴ See Shucksmith *et al.* 2006; Copus *et al.* 2006 and chapter 2 for a more detailed discussion.

West towards the South-East of Europe, but also between more or less peripheral areas, and areas with more or less economic potential. It is, hence, important to differentiate between rural areas and to critically examine the tendency to describe the position of rural women in terms of a general rural disadvantage. In order to compensate for the weakness of the available indicators of rurality, this study combines insights based on the use of variable indicators.

The report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 gives an overview of rural women's social situation looking into rural women's work and income (2.1.), their participation in politics and decision-making (2.2), their view on the quality of rural life (2.3) and the relevance of personal and socio-demographic characteristics (2.4.). Chapter 3 provides an analysis of good practices and the effectiveness of gender mainstreaming policies. Chapter 4 draws conclusions and give recommendations on how to support gender equity in rural areas in the CAP post 2013.

2. OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIAL SITUATION OF WOMEN IN RURAL AREAS

The position of women is often described in terms of their economic and political participation and the existence of gender gaps in income and power. This report also adopts these as its starting points: (2.1) rural women's work and income, and (2.2) participation in politics and decision-making. It then looks into aspects of the quality of life in rural areas (2.3) that are of special interest of women, such as access to services, the experience of safety, rural gender identity and rural outmigration. The position of women is influenced by structural and cultural factors but also by the personal characteristics of women such as education, life cycle and marital status. Chapter 2.4 discusses the relevance of such factors at the regional level in helping to understanding the variable position of women in rural areas.

2.1 Rural women's work and income

Employment

Although women's participation in paid work has greatly improved over the last decades, gender segregation of labour markets is still a fact with lower employment and higher unemployment rates among women compared to men.⁵ Women's labour market position is also more precarious due to a larger part being part-time work or based on contracts with limited duration.⁶ Moreover, women are overly represented in non-managerial occupations in the tertiary sector. As a result, the gender gap in payment has not yet been eradicated – on average women still earn less than men do even when taking education, work experience, position and working hours into account. Consequently, women in general have a higher poverty risk, especially when being older or heading a single household with children.

Statistical analysis shows that the position of women differs considerably between women. The latter may be explained by individual socio-demographic characteristics such as age, education and life cycle position. Older women, women with low education and women with young children face difficulties in finding paid employment.

But there are also great differences between countries. On average the employment position of women is better in the Northern and Western Member States compared to the Southern and Central-Eastern Member States (see table 1 for employment; for unemployment see annex, table A1). This has often been explained by a more conservative gender-contract in the Mediterranean countries, reflected in less political support for family and work reconciliation services. But also the economic strength of Member States plays an important role and the availability of employment in the tertiary sector of the labour market. This study adopted the distinction used in the European Quality of Life survey in order to demonstrate the combined effect of wealth and geographical location.⁷ It differentiates between three groups of EU member-states based on their average GDP, which in part runs parallel to a distinction between the North-West and South-East.

⁵ European Commission, 2009.

⁶ Eurostat 2010a.

⁷ Shucksmith *et al.* 2006.

| Table 1: Employment rate of women (age 15-64 years) ⁸ | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|-----------------|-------|-------------|---------------------|--|--|
| | Fer | nale employment | | Gender gap* | Regional dispersion | | |
| | 2003 | 2008 | 2009 | 2009* | 2007 | | |
| EU-27 | 54.9 59.1 58.6 -12.1 | | -12.1 | 15.8 | | | |
| EU-12 High | | | | | | | |
| Austria | 61.6 | 65.8 | 71.6 | -10.5 | 3.4 | | |
| Belgium | 51.8 | 56.2 | 66.4 | -11.2 | 10.7 | | |
| Denmark | 70.5 | 74.3 | 56.0 | -5.2 | - | | |
| Finland | 65.7 | 69 | 73.1 | -1.6 | 5.9 | | |
| France | 58.2 | 60.4 | 60.1 | -8.4 | 7.8 | | |
| Germany | 58.9 | 65.4 | 66.2 | -9.4 | 4.8 | | |
| Ireland | 55.7 | 60.2 | 57.4 | -8.9 | - | | |
| Italy | 42.7 | 47.2 | 46.4 | -22.2 | 26.4 | | |
| Luxembourg | 50.9 | 55.1 | 57.0 | -16.2 | - | | |
| Netherlands | 66 | 71.1 | 71.5 | -11.0 | 2.7 | | |
| Sweden | 71.5 | 71.8 | 70.2 | -4.0 | 2.9 | | |
| United Kingdom | 65.3 | 65.8 | 65.0 | -9.8 | 6.3 | | |
| EU-7 intermed | liate | | | | | | |
| Cyprus | 60.4 | 62.9 | 62.5 | -15.1 | - | | |
| Czech Rep | 56.3 | 57.6 | 56.7 | -17.1 | 6.4 | | |
| Greece | 44.3 | 48.7 | 48.9 | -24.6 | 7 | | |
| Malta | 33.6 | 37.4 | 37.7 | -33.8 | - | | |
| Portugal | 61.4 | 62.5 | 61.6 | -9.5 | 5.5 | | |
| Slovenia | 57.6 | 64.2 | 63.8 | -7.2 | - | | |
| Spain | 46.3 | 54.9 | 52.8 | -13.8 | 11.8 | | |

Table 1: Employment rate of women (age 15-64 years)⁸

⁸ The percentage of all women (aged 15-64 years) involved in paid work, self-employment and/or work in a family business.

| | Fer | male employment | | Gender gap* | Regional dispersion |
|-----------|------|-----------------|------|-------------|---------------------|
| | 2003 | 2008 | 2009 | 2009* | 2007 |
| EU 8 low | | | | | |
| Estonia | 59 | 66.3 | 63.0 | -1.1 | - |
| Hungary | 50.9 | 50.6 | 49.9 | -11.2 | 10.3 |
| Latvia | 57.9 | 65.4 | 60.9 | -0.1 | - |
| Lithuania | 58.4 | 61.8 | 60.7 | +1.2 | - |
| Poland | 46 | 52.4 | 61.6 | -13.3 | 6.7 |
| Slovakia | 52.2 | 54.6 | 52.8 | -14.8 | 10.9 |
| Bulgaria | 49 | 59.5 | 58.3 | -8.6 | 9 |
| Romania | 51.5 | 52.5 | 52.0 | -10.2 | 7.8 |
| ACC 2 | | | | | |
| Croatia | - | - | 51.0 | -11.4 | - |
| Turkey | - | - | 24.2 | -40.3 | - |

* Gender gap is calculated as the difference between male and female employment rates; - data not available;

Source: European Commission, 2009⁹, Eurostat 2010d for regional dispersion

The employment position of women (and men) differs considerably within Member States, as the regional dispersion rates underline (see table 1). A clear rural pattern is, however, difficult to see with the available statistics.¹⁰ Among the regions (at NUTS2 level) with a lower than average female employment rate are rural, intermediate and urban regions (see table 2). The same is true when searching for regions with higher than average female unemployment rates – again these maybe rural, intermediate or urban areas (see annex table A2).

⁹ Sources used by European Commission 2009: eurostat Labour Force survey, annual averages

¹⁰ EUROSTAT provides regional statistics at two levels: NUTS-2 and NUTS-3, with NUTS-3 being a sub-division of NUTS2 level regions. For this report we made use of NUTS2 level data as data regarding the relative position of women and men are only accessible at that level.

Table 2 Employment rate of women (age 15-64 years) by NUTS 2, predominantly urban (PU), intermediate (I) and predominantly rural (PR) regions, 2008¹¹

| | Average female employment | Regional minimum | | F | Regional maximum |
|----------|---------------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------|------|--------------------------|
| BE 12 | 56.2 | 47.8 | Prov. Hainault (I) | 63.3 | Prov Oost Vlaanderen(I) |
| BG | 59.5 | 67.6 | Yugozapaden (I) | 54.0 | Severen tsentralen (PR) |
| CZ | 57.6 | 52.6 | Severozápad (I) | 64.0 | Praha (PU) |
| DK | 74.3 | 71.9 | Sjaelland (I) | 76.7 | Hovestaden (PU) |
| DE | 65.4 | 59.2 | Arnsberg (I) | 70.9 | Freiburg (I) |
| IE | 60.2 | 57.7 | Border, Midlands & Western (PR) | 61.1 | Southern and Eastern (I) |
| EL | 48.7 | 37.1 | Voreio Aigaio (PR) | 52.3 | Ionia Nisia (PR) |
| ES | 54.9 | 31.3 | C. A. De Melilla (PU) | 62.2 | Cataluna (I) |
| FR | 60.4 | 33.8 | Guyane (PR) | 64.9 | Limousin (PR) |
| | | 49.3 | Corse (PR) | | |
| IT | 47.2 | 27.3 | Campania (I) | 62.1 | Emilia Romagna (I) |
| HU | 50.6 | 43.5 | Észak Magyarotszág (PR) | 56.5 | Közép Magyarország (I) |
| NL | 71.1 | 67.8 | Groningen (I) | 74.5 | Utrecht (PU) |
| AT | 65.8 | 62.3 | Wien (PU) | 68.6 | Salzburg (I) |
| PL | 52.4 | 46.5 | Kujawsko Pomorskie (I) | 58.0 | Mazowieckie (I) |
| PT | 62.5 | 51.8 | Reg. Aut. Dos Acores (I) | 65.9 | Centro (PR) |
| | | 59.2 | Alentejo (PR) | | |
| RO | 52.5 | 49.3 | Centru (PR) | 57.1 | Nord Est (I) |
| SI | 64.2 | 62.4 | Vzhodna Slovenija (PR) | 66.2 | Zahodna Slovenija (I) |
| SK | 54.6 | 47.9 | Východné Slovensko (I) | 67.7 | Bratislavský kraj (I) |
| FI | 69 | 62.9 | Itä Suomi (PR) | 78.6 | Aland (PR) |
| SE | 71.8 | 69.3 | Östra Mellansverige (PR) | 75.1 | Stockholm (I) |
| UK | 65.8 | 57.3 | West Midslands (PU) | 73.1 | North Yorkshire (PR) |

Source: Eurostat 2010b

¹¹ Data on Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania and Malta are not presented as they comprise only one NUTS 2 level region.

¹² BE Belgium, BG Bulgaria, CZ Czech Republic, DK Denmark, DE Germany, IE Ireland, EL Greece, ES Spain, FR France, IT Italy, HU Hungary, NL Netherlands, AT Austria, PL Poland, PT Portugal, RO Romania, SI Slovenia, SK Slovakia, FI Finland, SE Sweden, UK United Kingdom.

The extent, to which the female labour market participation varies across rural and urban areas, is in fact highly variable. There is no general rural disadvantage. Only in the peripheral rural areas rural women's employment is lower than urban women's employment. This is the case in the peripheral rural regions in the Central East (especially Poland and Hungary), some of the Southern Member States (Italy, Greece and Spain) and some of the scattered rural regions of France, Belgium, Germany and Ireland.¹³ These areas have a low economic potential because of the distance from sources of goods and services and the absence of agglomerative economies.¹⁴ Consequentially there are few opportunities for female employment.

In the other, non-peripheral rural regions the situation is more favourable. Translocation of economic activity from urban centres to nearby rural areas has greatly improved the labour market situation.¹⁵ As a result many of these rural areas resemble urban areas for what regards the opportunities in the typically female labour domains of the tertiary and public sector.¹⁶ Besides, it is possible to commute to work in urban centres from those rural areas that are well connected in terms of material infrastructure, such as roads, public transport and electronic means of communication, such as internet.

The peripheral and accessible rural areas also differ in the predominance of more traditional or modern gender identities that either underline women's important role as mothers or support their involvement in paid work.¹⁷

In sum it can be concluded that living in a rural area does not sufficiently explain women's employment position, neither is it necessarily a fundamental constraint in itself.¹⁸ Women's employment position is difficult only in specific rural regions that are maladapted to women's needs in terms of the availability and accessibility of jobs that are attractive to women, the availability and accessibility of services that support the combination of family and work, as well as a cultural repertoire of norms and values that supports and encourages women's employment.

Self-employment and entrepreneurship

In the tables above self-employment and entrepreneurship is included as eurostat-data include all kinds of work against wage, profit or family gain. Still it is worthwhile to draw special attention to self-employment and entrepreneurship as the incidence of self-employment is higher in rural areas.¹⁹ Generally, women's engagement in entrepreneurship is increasing although mostly in smaller businesses and with lower profits than men. This is the case in urban as well as in rural areas; in keeping the business small women want to make sure that work remains compatible with family care.²⁰

Many businesses in rural areas are agricultural and formally headed by men.²¹ In recent decades, however, the percentage of female farm heads is steadily increasing. Moreover, many farm women start business-activities and small businesses on the farm to help

¹³ Copus *et al.* (2006: XXIX).

¹⁴ "The more peripheral parts of Europe are constituted by Southern France, the central Spanish, Mid and South Italy as well as Austria, Hungary, Slovakia and Czech Republic. The Scandinavian as well as the Baltic countries show above-average accessibility only in the more populated coastal regions while other parts of these countries (especially Scandinavia) rend to be highly peripheral. The New Member States as well as Romania, Bulgaria and Greece are almost exclusively characterised by high peripherality"(Copus *et al.* 2006: 155).

¹⁵ Bosworth 2010.

¹⁶ Copus *et al.* 2006.

¹⁷ Morris and Little, 2005; Huges and Nativel 2005; Granvik 2009.

¹⁸ Bock 2004b.

¹⁹ Copus *et al.* 2006.

²⁰ Baines and Wheelock 2000; Verheul *et al.* 2005; Granvik 2009.

²¹ Shortall 2006a.

continuing the farm business in times of decreasing incomes from primary production.²² Statistics illustrate the increase of new on-farm businesses and there is evidence that many of the diversifying farms are doing well economically.²³ Such studies also show that some sectors and some regions are more successful than others. Individual resources and regional accessibility seem to be important factors but also the ability to cooperate with other business in the regions.²⁴ Comparative statistics of the incidence and success of such activities across regions are, however, unavailable.

Women play an important role in these new activities but often have to fight against traditional ideas of male entrepreneurship and experience difficulty being respected by business advisors.²⁵ Many of the new activities lean heavily on traditional female interest and capabilities and use the traditional idyllic image of rural areas and rural women to promote the new products, such as local food, accommodations and way of life.²⁶ It is a successful marketing concept but also contributes to the reinforcement of traditional gender identities. The gendered division of labour is generally reproduced in the new business although there are indications that the internal relations are changing in the longer run with the professionalization of the business and the growth in women's professional self confidence.²⁷

Income

There are no regional statistics that give any gender-segregated information about income which makes it difficult to evaluate rural women's income situation. Given the general trend of women's engagement in paid work it may be expected that rural women earn less than men– as they generally work fewer hours per week and in jobs at a lower level of hierarchy.

The first European Quality of Life survey concluded that there are differences between rural and urban areas in relation to income, levels of deprivation and subjective economic strain, with the most difficult situation occurring in the lower income Member States.²⁸ It is, however, in the rural areas of the high income Member States that women worry most about their job security and income. When it comes to balancing work and private life, urban women worry more than rural women do. This may in part be explained by the different expectations of women. Many rural women accept that the combination of work and family is more complicated in rural areas, which reduces complaints about their situation.

From the above it may be concluded that it is impossible to understand and explain the situation of rural women regarding work and income, based on statistical analysis alone. Actually, this is not surprising for several reasons. One reason is that there is still a lack of gender segregated statistics. Another reason is the unreliability of female (un)employment statistics and their insufficient reflection of the real working situation of women. Many women have informally paid work that does not appear in statistics. In addition, many women who would like to work (more hours) are not officially registered as unemployed and again do not appear in statistics. This is true for women generally and probably even more true in rural areas where hidden unemployment and seasonal work is prominent.

²² Bock 2004a.

²³ Van der Ploeg *et al.* 2002.

²⁴ Van der Ploeg and Marsden 2008.

²⁵ Scholten 2004; Driga 2008; Vakoufaris *et al.* 2007.

²⁶ Anthopoulou 2010; Morris and Little 2005; Brandth and Haugen 2010 describe also the commercialisation of rural male identities in rural tourism.

²⁷ Bock 2004a.

²⁸ Shucksmith *et al.* 2006.

2.2. Political participation and decision-making

Women's representation in politics and public decision-making is an important indicator for women's social situation. In this respect women's position has greatly improved but is still far from equal to the position of men in most Member States. This is clear in table 3 which presents the percentage of female members of parliament, ministers in national governments, leaders of businesses. It demonstrates that women are generally more strongly represented in decision-making in the North West than in the South-East Member States. Regional statistics on political representation are unavailable at the European level.

Table 3: Women's participation in politics and decision-making: percentage of female members of parliament, female ministers and female members of the highest decision making body of the largest publicly quoted companies, 2009

| | % female Parliament Members | % female senior ministers | % female members of company bodies |
|-------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | 2009 | 2009 | 2009 |
| EU-27 | 24 | 26 | 11 |
| EU-12 High | | | |
| Austria | 28 | 36 | 7 |
| Belgium | 38 | 27 | 11 |
| Denmark | 37 | 42 | 18 |
| Finland | 40 | 60 | 24 |
| France | 19 | 33 | 10 |
| Germany | 32 | 44 | 13 |
| Ireland | 13 | 20 | 8 |
| Italy | 21 | 22 | 4 |
| Luxembourg | 20 | 27 | 3 |
| Netherlands | 42 | 22 | 15 |
| Sweden | 47 | 45 | 27 |
| UK | 2- | 17 | 12 |

| | % female Parliament Members | % female senior ministers | % female members of company bodies |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | 2009 | 2009 | 2009 |
| EU-7 intermediate | | | |
| Cyprus | 16 | 8 | 3 |
| Czech Rep | 18 | 18 | 13 |
| Greece | 16 | 11 | 5 |
| Malta | 9 | 22 | 4 |
| Portugal | 30 | 13 | 4 |
| Slovenia | 16 | 26 | 10 |
| Spain | 36 | 50 | 10 |
| EU 8 low | | | |
| Estonia | 21 | 8 | 6 |
| Hungary | 11 | 0 | 13 |
| Latvia | 22 | 20 | 17 |
| Lithuania | 19 | 13 | 15 |
| Poland | 20 | 25 | 10 |
| Slovakia | 18 | 13 | 18 |
| Bulgaria | 22 | 24 | 17 |
| Romania | 11 | 15 | 12 |
| ACC-2 | | | |
| Croatia* | 24 | 20 | 15 |
| Turkey* | 9 | 7 | 9 |

* data for 2008

Source: European Commission 2009²⁹

Various factors constrain women's entrance into the political arena.³⁰ The masculine culture of politics plays an important role when agricultural, forestry and rural development politics are concerned as they are considered to be typically male fields of expertise.³¹

²⁹ Sources used in European Commission 2009: European Commission, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision making; data for 2009 were collected in august 2009; the indicators were developed as part of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers; a senior minister is a minister on the national government who has a seat in the cabinet. The list of largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of the blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance Luxembourg, Slovakia), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

³⁰ Leijenaar 1996.

³¹ Oedl-Wieser 2008; Arora-Jonsson 2008.

Moreover, men are still dominating the agricultural organisations that are predominantly involved in agricultural and rural development decision making.³² In informal politics in the form of voluntary community engagement, women are well represented.³³

It is of special interest for this study, commissioned by the Agriculture and Rural development Committee, to look into the representation of women in the new rural governance structures that participate in the implementation of rural development policy. Again there are only very few comparative data available. Table 4 summarizes the representation of women in the local action groups (LAG's) that were actively involved in the implementation of LEADER in 2005 in EU-15. As the table demonstrates women are rarely equally represented in the LAG's.

| Countries | % of women | | | Total no. of LAG's |
|-----------------|------------|--------|-------|-----------------------|
| | < 25% | 25-50% | > 50% | |
| EU-15 | 47 | 31 | 22 | 892 |
| Austria | 18 | 82 | 0 | 56 |
| Belgium | 55 | 45 | 0 | 20 |
| Germany | 47 | 48 | 5 | 148 |
| Denmark | 58 | 33 | 8 | 12 |
| Spain | 58 | 15 | 27 | 146 |
| Finland | 12 | 64 | 24 | 25 |
| France | 54 | 16 | 30 | 140 |
| United Kingdom* | 9 | 63 | 28 | 57 |
| Greece | 100 | 0 | 0 | 40 |
| Ireland | 32 | 68 | 0 | 22 |
| Italy | 72 | 10 | 18 | 130 |
| Luxembourg* | 0 | 0 | 100 | 4 |
| Netherlands* | 54 | 25 | 21 | 28 |
| Portugal | 2 | 4 | 94 | 52 |
| Sweden | 0 | 100 | 0 | 12 |

Table 4: Women's participation in Local Action Groups (LAG), 2005)

* Data from 2004

Source: Min. Env. R&M Affairs 2010³⁴

In part the low participation of women may be explained by the rules that define the composition of the LAG in terms of representation of public administrators at local and

³² Bock and Derkzen 2008; Pini 2008.

³³ Little 2002; Arora-Jonsson 2008.

regional level and representation of rural and agricultural organisations. Those organisations have generally very few female representatives or prefer to send male representatives.³⁵ Women who do enter the new political structures report on their difficulty with the male political culture, which may even motivate them to resign.³⁶ In addition, self-exclusion contributes to low female representation. Women refer to their lack of time and experience as important motives not to engage in any formal political activity. They often prefer to engage in informal political activities that are perceived as less difficult and less competitive, dealing with issues that are more closely related to their daily life (i.e. quality of life) and involve less public exposure.³⁷

There is some evidence of the supporting role of rural women's organisations. They often promote the societal engagement of members in, for instance, Local agenda 21 activities, and support women to do so as collectively. In addition, they also lobby for women's inclusion in relevant political bodies at the national and regional level.³⁸

In sum, we have to conclude that the traditional male-dominated rural political structure is continued and re-established even in the new rural governance structures. Rural women hardly participate in the decision making on rural development plans and the destination and distribution of rural development funds. Various studies have pointed out that as a result rural development policy insufficiently responds to women's needs and that projects proposed by women have a lower chance of approval and funding.³⁹

2.3 Quality of life through the eyes of women

This paragraph looks into aspects of the quality of life in rural areas that are of special interest to women, such as access to services, the experience of safety, rural gender identity and rural outmigration.

Access to services

It is generally assumed that the range of social services such as schools, post offices, shops, health centres and public transport is limited in rural areas. But again the situation is more complex and social services are not posing the same problems in all rural areas.

Similar as with employment, rural women and men experience the situation as problematic only in the poorer and more peripheral rural regions of Europe.⁴⁰

In the more accessible rural areas many rural inhabitants can nowadays reach the necessary services by car, although this is not true for many young and elderly people as well as women who do not own a car or are unable to drive. Some service related problems have also been solved through new models of service provision that involve new technologies, such as 'telecare'⁴¹, the combination of multiple services in one building and the initiative of local communities, and the community-based organisation of shops or transport. But there is also reason for concern as the reorganisation of service delivery through partnerships may come at the price of uncertain continuity and quality assurance and the dependence on the voluntary labour of women who cannot find any other employment.⁴²

³⁴ Source in Min. Env. R&M Affairs, 2010 : LEADER+ Monitoring Indicators Database.

³⁵ See Shortall 2006b for an overview.

³⁶ Bock and Derkzen 2008.

³⁷ Bock and Derkzen 2008.

³⁸ Derkzen 2008.

³⁹ Bock and Derkzen 2006; Prügl 2010; Shortall 2002 Little and Jones 2000.

⁴⁰ Shucksmith *et al.* 2005, 2009; Copus *et al.* 2006.

⁴¹ Manthorpe and Livsey 2009.

⁴² Cawley and Nguyen 2008.

Experiences of safety

Rural areas are generally perceived as safe places, with less violence and crime compared to urban areas.⁴³ But there is evidence of hidden violence in rural communities including sexual and domestic violence. The latter seems to be even more a taboo and underreported than in urban areas because of the high level of social control and lack of anonymity. In addition, specialised services are generally not locally provided making it difficult for women to seek help in the more remote rural areas.⁴⁴ But research on this topic is still very scarce.

Gendered identity

The hegemonic image of rural society is one of traditional gender relations and identities.⁴⁵ But gender relations are changing and modernizing also in rural regions and with it gendered identities.⁴⁶ To give just one example – with more and more rural women entering paid employment, paid work gets a more central place in rural women's life and self-identity.⁴⁷ There is also an increasing number of studies that appoint a changing definition of rural male identities with more importance attached to caring abilities and emotional openness.⁴⁸ As a result the differences in urban and rural female and male identity construction gradually diminish. Given the differences in employment figures, we may expect that this is again more the case in the accessible rural areas; rural gender identities modernise less quickly probably in the peripheral rural areas. But here it is probably very important to differentiate between the new and the old Member States. In the new Member States paid work was already much more common and accepted among women and part of rural female identities.⁴⁹But again, there has hardly any comparative research been undertaken and reliable data are lacking.

Migration

The exodus of young women is considered as indicative for the disadvantaged position of rural women. But the situation is much more complicated than that. At the individual level outmigration improves the position of women. It is also the main motive to leave.⁵⁰ In particular girls decide to leave because they look for a more enjoyable life and adventurous lifestyle in the city. Leaving the rural area offers more opportunities for education, employment and recreation, and helps them to escape from social control.⁵¹ Many rural boys leave the rural areas for the same reasons and consider leaving a sign of success. Those rural boys, who for various reasons do not manage to leave, feel a sense of defeat.⁵²

At the level of the region the outmigration of young women and men is reason for concern as often the more enterprising people leave. The relative presence of men or women, or (fe)maleness of certain regions is not readily available in European statistics. A pattern of 'masculinisation' may only be witnessed in the more sparsely populated and predominantly rural Nordic regions and the less developed peripheral and predominantly rural regions of

⁴³ Little *et al.* 2005.

⁴⁴ Brunell 2005.

⁴⁵ Little 2002.

⁴⁶ Sireni 2008. ⁴⁷ See Bock 2006b for an overview.

⁴⁸ Bye 2009; Steenbacka 2008; Brandth and Haugen 2010.

⁴⁹ Van Hoven 2004.

⁵⁰ See Bock 2006a for an overview.

⁵¹ Rye 2006.

⁵² Ni Laoire 2001.

the new Member States. 53 In many of these regions the ageing of the population is also becoming a problem as well. 54

But there is also considerable immigration into rural areas due to counter-urbanisation as well as transnational immigration. Immigration into rural areas may positively influence the socio-economic development, for instance by solving labour shortages.⁵⁵ They may free rural women of work in the farm and in the household and enable them to look for more qualified work elsewhere.⁵⁶ But they may also replace 'domestic' labour forces and reduce female employment.⁵⁷

The effects of migration on the position of women are, hence, complex and difficult to assess in terms of more or less gender equality and improvement of deterioration of rural women's situation. The question is also on which rural women to focus. What about the situation of the new rural women (and men) immigrating into the areas? Most research so far focuses on the 'original' population and overlooks the many new inhabitants of rural areas who increasingly find work in the rural regions of the EU and who often left other rural areas in- or outside Europe. They may be there only temporarily or illegally and, consequentially, do not appear in statistics either. In some areas they do, however, settle down and become the new rural population.⁵⁸

In sum, the above leads to the conclusion that the quality of rural life is negatively affecting rural women's life only in the peripheral rural regions. It regards the availability of material support for the development of a satisfactory professional life but also the support for self-fulfilment according to modern role models and expectations. In the accessible rural areas some discomfort is accepted as a normal aspect of rural life⁵⁹, which is often overcome by own means of transport of modern forms of service provision.

2.4 The relevance of personal and socio-demographic characteristics

When explaining the position of women individual characteristics, such as age, education and family status play an important role. They influence women's ability to cope with the constraints that limit their access to work, income and decision making. This is also true for rural women and helps to explain why some women have more difficulty to enter employment or politics compared to others. Especially women with higher education and without children manage to access well-paid jobs also in rural areas and profit from the generally improved employment opportunities in rural areas.⁶⁰

This chapter discusses the relevance of such factors to explain differences between women and social groups. In addition it looks at their relevance at the regional level in helping to explain why women's position is especially difficult in some rural areas. Personal characteristics such as age education and fertility have then to be aggregated at regional level and become socio-demographic characteristics of region.

⁵³ Copus *et al.* 2006.

⁵⁴ Copus *et al.* 2006; Goll 2010.

⁵⁵ Stockdale 2006, 2010; Bosworth 2010.

⁵⁶ Papadopoulos 2006.

⁵⁷ Green *et al.* 2008; Kalantaridis 2010; Manos *et al.* 2010.

⁵⁸ Kasimis *et al.* 2010; Kasimis 2008.

⁵⁹ McNerney and Gillmor 2005.

⁶⁰ Hoggart and Cheng 2006; Phimister *et al.* 2006; Demoissier 2004.

Education

Only in the rural areas of the low income Member States rural women have lower educational qualifications than urban women.⁶¹ This is, however, not only the case for women but also for men. In general the educational attainments are lower only in the more peripheral rural regions, especially in Greece, Portugal, Spain, Bulgaria and Romania.⁶² This in part explains why it is difficult for those men and women to find employment or successfully engage in entrepreneurship. We may expect that this is less the case for young people who increasingly enter higher education. For this, however, they generally have to move to urban centres from where they often do not return.

Investment in the education and training of people living in the peripheral rural areas is, hence, important. Given their remoteness long-distance and ICT supported education offers possibilities. This again requires investment in internet connections which are worse in exactly the same areas.⁶³ Gender segregated statistics for internet usage are not available at the regional level.

Life cycle and marital status

Women's position is heavily influenced by having children or what is also called their life cycle position as it defines their need to provide family care and complicates their involvement in paid labour. Women with young children are therefore especially constrained in finding paid work. Among them, again, it is easier for some to combine work and care than for others. This is related to the local availability of child care facilities as well as to their financial means and social support network.⁶⁴

The presence of a partner also makes a difference. Generally speaking the position of women is less strong, at least economically, when they are the single head of a household with children.⁶⁵ There are no statistics which reflect the presence of single headed households in rural areas but based on migration rates the likelihood is high in the rural areas of the low income Member States where many men (and women) leave their families at least temporarily in search of work elsewhere. These households are headed by mothers and increasingly grandmothers.⁶⁶

Some rural women have, hence, more difficulty than other women to find employment and to combine work and family duties satisfactorily. The same is true in urban contexts – having small children and few educational qualifications are severe constraints also in urban centres. It is important, however, to recognise, that it may be even more difficult to overcome these constraints in the peripheral regions. There are, moreover, indications that the percentage of women, that experience such severe constraints, is particularly high in the peripheral rural regions.

⁶¹ Shuckmith *et al.* 2006.

⁶² Copus et al. 2006.

⁶³ Shuckmith *et al.* 2006.

⁶⁴ Halliday and Little 2001.

⁶⁵ Hughes and Nativel 2005.

⁶⁶ Bell et al. 2009.

3. GOOD PRACTICES AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING POLICIES

Several studies concluded that rural development policy seldom addressed women's needs and priorities.⁶⁷ Most of this research reflects a situation of about ten or even more years ago. In the meantime political interest in the situation of rural women has increased. This may be witnessed at least so at the level of the European Commission given the explicit and repeated mentioning of gender equality and attention to the disadvantaged position of rural women already in the previous CAP 2000-2006. The European Commission calls again for specific attention for women's specific needs in the CAP 2007-2013 in at least two regulations⁶⁸ and underlines the need to support female employment and to improve the quality of life in rural areas. In article 8 of the Council Regulation ((EC) No 1698/2005) the need for gender mainstreaming in all stages of programme implementation is stressed. This means, that it is not sufficient to organise some specific activities for women; instead the programme as such has to support gender equality and abolish gender inequality.

Regarding the representation of rural women in political bodies there is still reason for concern, as has been shown above (2.3). Even in the new decision-making bodies that are meant to govern rural development programmes through a participatory bottom-up approach, women are a minority. Women's continued underrepresentation raises the question if and to which extent women's specific needs and concerns are taken into account in the various national and local rural development programmes.

It is too early for an in depth evaluation of the present policy programmes; evaluations of national rural development programmes are planned for this year, a Europe wide synthesis is scheduled for 2011. But the results of the previous rural development programmes (CAP 2000-2006) were not very promising.⁶⁹ Generally speaking, very little specific information was provided, besides some figures on female employment and female farm entrants. Evidently, only few countries closely monitored the results achieved for this objective. The report did not discuss the impact of gender mainstreaming as such. Searching scientific literature only one relevant study could be found: Prügl (2010) compared the results of gender mainstreaming politics in LEADER in two regions in Germany. She concluded that gender mainstreaming was not effectively implemented in either of the two regions. In one of the regions the local state was unwilling to support gender equality and effectively blocked the implementation of gender mainstreaming strategies. In the other case the local state actively supported women's employment but in traditional female activities reaffirming the unequal gendered division of labour. Following Prügl there was a lack of commitment to support women but it proved also to be difficult to change the routine procedures that demanded objectivity and made it difficult to engage in favour of women.

A quick scan of rural development projects on relevant websites⁷⁰ resulted in a selection of ongoing or recently finished projects that were presented as 'best practices' (see annex

⁶⁷ Houses of Oireachtas 1994; Oedl-Wieser 1997; Little 2002; Bock 2002;Bock & Derkzen 2006; Shortall 2004.

⁶⁸ Council Regulation EC No 1698/2005 on support for rural development by the European Agricultural fund for Rural Development; Council Decision (of 20 February 2006) on community strategic guidelines for rural development 2007-2013.

⁶⁹ EPEC 2004.

⁷⁰ The European network of rural development and LEADER websites as well as a selection of national network for rural development and LEADER websites (Austria, Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, UK); the EU website for regional policy.

table A3). The list of projects is incomplete and general conclusions cannot be drawn from it. But it gives an impression of the range of projects, the topics and target groups.

Most of the projects that are specifically designed for women, aim to support women's employment, often by encouraging self-employment and entrepreneurship. There are training and coaching programmes for start-ups and several projects supporting business women's networks. One project dealt with gender politics; they supported women's involvement in politics and tried to raise the general awareness for gender issues in the areas. There were several other projects that aimed at improving the quality of life in rural areas with women as one of the target groups. Such projects promote the instalment of broadband internet connections, the community-based organisation of rural transport and the organisation of multiple service supply centres.

Gender mainstreaming has earlier been criticized for its tendency to make gender-issues disappear – as the issues become part of everything, there seems to be no need anymore to give it specific attention.⁷¹ This seems not to have happened – there are projects that improve the quality of life more generally but also specific projects for women. It is impossible to measure the relative attention given to the improvement of rural women's situation based on the information available now. Neither is known how successful the listed projects were – this requires a much more detailed evaluation, taking into account the whole range of local projects and the nature of the regional programmes. Looking back on the analysis of rural women's situation in chapter 2 it is obvious that the projects address some of the identified concerns. But on their own they may also be characterised as fragmented attempts to help some women to overcome the problems that they experience as women living in a rural area.

⁷¹ Lombardo and Meier 2006.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY AND RESEARCH

4.1. Conclusions

Looking back at the analysis of rural women's situation and the effectiveness of policies and projects, the following conclusions can be drawn.

- There is no evidence that the situation in rural areas is generally disadvantageous for women.
- As a result of modernization and commercial counter-urbanisation many rural areas especially in the North-West of the EU offer similar opportunities to women than urban areas.
- The situation is different and disadvantaged in the peripheral rural regions particularly in the South and Central East of the EU.
- These regions are not only geographically remote but also badly connected to nonperipheral areas because of their lack of material infrastructure.
- The rural women living in these areas experience the quality of life as unsatisfactory because of a lack of employment, income and social services.
- In addition especially young women complain about the constraints resulting from a conservative gender ideology coupled with high levels of social control.
- As a result of the perceived lack of opportunities young women (and men) leave those areas and search for a better life elsewhere.
- The loss of young and entrepreneurial women (and men) contributes to the ongoing cycle of decline in these peripheral rural areas.

Regarding the effectiveness of policies and projects:

- Women are still underrepresented in bodies that participate in the programming of rural development plans and distribution of funds.
- Projects designed for women tend to focus on self-employment and entrepreneurship often putting emphasis on self development and training.
- Besides there are some projects trying to find new solutions for improving the supply of services, such as child care and transport.
- There are hardly any projects that address gender equality as such and try to raise awareness towards gender issues.
- Most projects are fragmented attempts to support some women in rural areas.
- The projects are not part of a plan that addresses gender inequality in a territorial manner.

4.2. Recommendations for CAP post 2013

It is important to develop a targeted approach that takes the spatial dimension of rural women's problems into account. More specifically, an approach is required that addresses the specific gender- and quality of life - issues of peripheral rural regions.

Targeting of peripheral rural regions

In most rural regions and especially those close to urban areas, the situation of rural and urban women is similar. Here the problem is not one of rural disadvantage but of gender inequality more generally, which should be addressed by national and European gender policy. It is the accumulation of disadvantages in the most peripheral rural regions, especially in Southern and Central Eastern Europe, that constraints women's development and perpetuates unequal gender relations. We recommend targeting the support from rural development policy on those areas.

Periphery and territoriality

In order to improve the situation of rural women it is pertinent to invest in the vitality and quality of life of peripheral rural areas. A large part of rural women's problems are not only 'women's problems'. Although they may impact more severely on women, they frustrate local development more generally. Improving the accessibility of the areas is of utmost importance as well as the strengthening of rural-urban linkages. Both are important for supporting the mobility of rural women (and men) and as a result their opportunity to reach and use the labour markets, education centres and social services of less peripheral areas. It concerns material accessibility in terms of transport but also internet connections, which offer business opportunities and opportunities for education and training.

Rural vitality has also a social face. Various resources are needed for local development but social relations and interactions are crucial to mobilize and connect people.⁷² Many peripheral areas are also socially disconnected; there are problems of social isolation and exclusion, lack of human, social and political capital – reinforced by the outmigration of young and enterprising people. It is particularly important but also particularly difficult in these regions to mobilize and organise collective engagement as the inhabitants lost confidence that things may be changed for the better and that a good life could also be realised without moving away. Recent studies demonstrate that the socio-material reconnection and re-integration of peripheral areas has to take place first, before people are able to realise local development themselves.⁷³ Upgrading the local quality of life and the growth of inter-local networks are important for raising expectations for local development and mobilising individual and collective action. Ideally this already starts off the cycle of development for instance in terms of new income opportunities through the provision of social services or public goods.

Looking more specifically into women's needs, we recommend supporting the creation of women's networks that cut across regional borders. Supporting women's organisation fosters their participation in decision making and local development. It also breaks through their social isolation and gives access to shelter against violence and oppression and support for self-development and the negotiation of gender relations. Women's participation in the formulation and implementation of rural policies and the distribution of rural development funds needs more attention as the actual guidelines are not sufficiently

⁷² Marsden and van der Ploeg 2008.

⁷³ Ventura *et al.* 2010.

enhancing women's participation. Following a general bottom-up and participatory approach is certainly not sufficient to define and tackle the specific and variable needs of the different groups of women living in rural areas.⁷⁴ In terms of equal rights and democracy and also for encouraging the local development process it is important to support and increase women involvement in the policy-process. But women's participation in decision-making in itself does not sufficiently warrant the development of a coherent territorial approach to gender equality.

Territorial approach – focused, coherent and participatory also in gender terms

The territorial approach is part and parcel of the European Rural Development policy. In short, it entails the development of specific local development plans in cooperation with local stakeholders and communities; the plans should identify the specific local problems, opportunities as well as community objectives and the development of coherent strategies making use of various policy instruments and funds. So far the situation of rural women and issues of gender inequality are not addressed in this way.

We recommend making the identification and response to gender issues an integral part of the territorial approach. It requires the careful identification of gender-specific problems and opportunities in a specific territory, taking the differences between social groups into account. This is of particular importance as the group of local stakeholders that is generally involved in the development of local plans often includes few, if any, women. In addition, we recommend that local authorities are held accountable for the gender-responsiveness of rural development plans and programmes

4.3. Recommendations for research

Sketching the situation of rural women across the EU made very clear how little information there is actually available. Much of what we know is based on case-studies that give insight into the situation of some women in some areas but no general overview of the actual situation or the differences between women, countries and regions within countries. There is, hence, a need for more comparative research. Such research should look into pattern of differences across Europe and between rural regions and groups of rural women in order to better understand the role of rurality and peripherality, and the quality and attractiveness of rural life. In addition, the importance of rural-urban interconnections should be investigated. This would help us to get more insight into the problems of rural disadvantage and rural development in general but would also greatly improve our understanding of rural gender issues and their interaction with rural development and rural decline. This again, is pertinent to support gender equality.

It is also important to study the process of female in- and out-migration in more detail and from a transnational and trans-regional perspective. Leaving rural areas may very well improve the situation of individual rural women and in that sense support gender equality. The same may be true for female immigrants who enter the European countryside leaving even more disadvantaged regions elsewhere. The effect of female migration can only be understood when migration patterns are studied in an integrated way, revealing also why specific groups of women decide to leave specific rural areas.

⁷⁴ Porter and Shortall 2009.

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ANNEX

| | Fema | Gender gap | | |
|-----------------|------|---------------|------|------|
| | 2003 | 2008 | 2009 | 2009 |
| EU-27 | 9.8 | 7.5 | 8.8 | -0.2 |
| EU-12 High | | | | |
| Austria | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.6 | -0.4 |
| Belgium | 8 | 7.6 | 8.1 | +0.3 |
| Denmark | 5.7 | 3.7 | 5.4 | -1.1 |
| Finland | 9.9 | 6.7 | 7.6 | -1.3 |
| France | 9.6 | 7.9 | 9.8 | +0.6 |
| Germany | 9.3 | 7.5 | 6.9 | -1.1 |
| Ireland | 4 | 4.6 | 8.0 | -4.9 |
| Italy | 11.9 | 8.5 | 9.3 | +2.5 |
| Luxembourg | 4.7 | 6 | 6.0 | +1.4 |
| Netherlands | 3.8 | 3 | 3.5 | +0.1 |
| Sweden | 5 | 6.6 | 8.0 | -0.6 |
| UK | 4.1 | 5.1 | 6.4 | -2.2 |
| EU-7 intermedia | te | | | |
| Cyprus | 4.6 | 4.2 | 5.5 | +0.3 |
| Czech Rep | 9.6 | 5.6 | 7.7 | +1.8 |
| Greece | 14.3 | 11.4 | 13.2 | +5.3 |
| Malta | 9.9 | 6.8 | 7.6 | +1.0 |
| Portugal | 7.2 | 9 | 10.3 | +1.3 |
| Slovenia | 7 | 4.8 | 5.8 | -0.1 |
| Spain | 15.9 | 13 | 18.4 | +0.7 |

Table A1: Unemployment rate of women (age 15-64 years)⁷⁵

⁷⁵ The unemployment rate is the number of people unemployed as a percentage of the labour force.

| | Fema | Gender gap | | | | |
|-----------|------|---------------|------|------|--|--|
| | 2003 | 2008 | 2009 | 2009 | | |
| EU 8 low | | | | | | |
| Estonia | 10.4 | 5.3 | 10.6 | -6.3 | | |
| Hungary | 5.4 | 8.1 | 9.7 | -0.6 | | |
| Latvia | 10.8 | 6.9 | 13.9 | -6.7 | | |
| Lithuania | 13.2 | 5.6 | 10.4 | +1.4 | | |
| Poland | 19.9 | 8 | 8.7 | +0.9 | | |
| Slovakia | 17.3 | 10.9 | 12.8 | +1.4 | | |
| Bulgaria | 13.2 | 5.8 | 6.6 | -0.4 | | |
| Romania | 6.4 | 4.7 | 5.8 | -1.9 | | |
| ACC 2 | | | | | | |
| Croatia | | | 10.3 | +1.3 | | |
| Turkey | | | 12.6 | +0.1 | | |

 \ast gender gap is calculated as the difference between male and female (un)employment rates; - data not available;

Source: European Commission 2009⁷⁶

 $^{^{76}}$ Source of the European commission 2009: eurostat labour force survey.

Table A2: Unemployment rate of women (age 15-64 years) by NUTS 2, predominantly urban (PU), intermediate (I) and predominantly rural (PR) regions, 2008^{77}

| | Average female unemployment | Regional minimum | | F | Regional maximum |
|----|--------------------------------|------------------|----------------------------------|------|------------------------------------|
| BE | 7.6 | 3.3 | Pr. West Vlaanderen (I) | 16.6 | Bruxelles (PU) |
| BG | 5.8 | 3.0 | Yugozapaden (I) | 10.2 | Severoiztochen (PR) |
| CZ | 5.6 | 2.3 | Praha (PU) | 10.3 | Moravskoslezsko (I) |
| DK | 3.7 | 3.5 | Hovestaden (PU) | 4.2 | Nordjylland (PR) |
| | | 3.5 | Syddanmark (PR) | | |
| DE | 7.5 | 3.4 | Oberbayern (I) | 15.5 | Sachsen Anhalt (I) |
| IE | 4.6 | 4.2 | Southern and Eastern (I) | 5.8 | Border, Midlands & Western (PR) |
| EL | 11.4 | 8.6 | Attiki (PU) | 19.3 | Dytiki Makedonia (PR) |
| ES | 13 | 7.7 | Pais Vasco (I) | 29.3 | C.A. De Mellila (PU) |
| FR | 7.9 | 5.9 | Bretagne (I) | 29.6 | Guyane (PR) |
| | | | | 12.7 | Corse (PR) |
| IT | 8.5 | 3.0 | P.A. Bolzano-Bozen (PR) | 17.3 | Sicilia (I) |
| HU | 8.1 | 5.3 | Közép Magyarország (I) | 12.5 | Észak Magyarotszág (PR) |
| NL | 3.0 | 2.1 | Utrecht (PU) | 4.5 | Groningen (I) |
| AT | 4.1 | 2.8 | Tirol (PR) | 6.5 | Wien (PU) |
| PL | 8.0 | 6.4 | Mazowieckie (I) | 10.3 | Dolnoslaskie (I) |
| PT | 9.0 | 7.1 | Centro (PR) | 11.7 | Alentejo (PR) |
| RO | 4.7 | 2.5 | Bucuresti Ilfov (PU) | 7.0 | Centru (PR) |
| SI | 4.8 | 3.3 | Zahodna Slovenija (I) | 6.2 | Vzhodna Slovenija (PR) |
| SK | 10.9 | 3.4 | Bratislavský kraj (I) | 15.3 | Východné Slovensko (I) |
| FI | 6.7 | 5.6 | Etä Suomi (PR) | 9.1 | Itä Suomi (PR) |
| SE | 6.6 | 5.3 | Stockholm (I) | 8.3 | Sydsverige (PR) |
| UK | 5.1 | 3.5 | Shropshire & Stafordshire (I) | 8.1 | Inner London (PU) |

Source: eurostat 2010e

⁷⁷ Data on Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania and Malta are not presented as they comprise only one NUTS 2 level region.

Table A3: List of projects

| DE | IT Landfrauen: IT advice for women | Deutscher LandFrauenverband | www.landfrauen.info |
|-----|--|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| DE | Assistance for start-ups: entrepreneurship | LEADER project | www.kellerwaldverein.de |
| DE | Kompetenz-WerkstattfürFrauen:employment&entrepreneurship | LEADER project | moderator@vg-saarburg.de |
| DE | Regionale Vernetzungsafentur: ICT course for women | LEADER project | www.das-bunte-dach.de |
| DE | Generationenhaus: multifunctional centre with services for women of all generations | LEADER project | Frauen-netzwerk-kg@t- online.de |
| UK | WiRE: women in rural enterprise: business network | | www.wireuk.org |
| UK | Women into enterprise: business networking | LEADER project | www.ballymenabusiness.co.uk |
| UK | Women's development programme: business coaching | LEADER project | www.craigavonarmaghrural.org |
| UK | Transport on demand in rural Scotland | Regional policy | www.angustransportforum.org |
| NL | Ruralwomen'sfuture:employment&entrepreneurship | LEADER project | <u>www.kvo.nu</u> |
| ES | Handicraft cooperative: training and employment | LEADER project | www.grisalla.com |
| ES | Womensportscentre:entrepreneurship&recreation | LEADER project | claraisqpt@hotmail.com |
| IRE | Women in agriculture: research | LEADER project | www.wicklowleader.ie |
| AU | Chiron: gender mainstreaming & awareness | LEADER project | www.muehlviertleralm.at |
| EL | Broadband over the mountains | Regional policy | <u>www.lga.gr</u> |



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