ABSTRACT

EUROPEAN OPEN COORDINATION VERSUS WELFARE/FAMILY REGIMES?

GENDER AND GENERATION CONTRACTS IN SWEDEN AND GERMANY

Ursula Degener, Political Science Department, Freiburg University

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference

August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

Recent developments in European welfare regimes have shown a certain convergence: as for pension systems, European trends in the individualization of entitlements as well as the compensation of care work or education allowances seem to standardize pension systems. There is evidence for this at least in so far as elements from the German system, for example the accounting for education times as well as a stronger equivalence according to contributions have been established in the reformed Swedish pension system, whereas reforms of the German pension system have been designed to strengthen women’s participation in the labour market even for mothers of younger children and to enhance the independence of women’s entitlements from their husbands’. Both have introduced programmes for promoting private pension schemes.

On the basis of reform discussions on recent pension reforms, my idea is to examine in how far the EU’s “open method of coordination”, a tool for policy coordination in the European context, has had an influence on these reforms. Has this new policy strategy of target-setting and controls through indicators, of benchmarking and best practice-examples intensified international policy diffusion, or is it merely the change in family structures, the impending demographical problems and the labour market development that has brought forth similar results? These factors have not developed equally in Sweden and Germany, but have been problematic at different periods of times. What is the impact of policies that have been transferred from a foreign system on the domestic welfare regime and how do reforms counter the impediments of path dependency? This will be examined with regard to gender aspects of welfare regimes (Esping-Andersen, Lewis/Ostner, Sainsbury etc.), and typologies of family policies (Gauthier).
FROM MARKETS TO THE SUSTAINABILITY OF LIFE

Amaia Perez Orozco, Universidad Complutense de Madrid

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper discusses a basic question for the development of Feminist Economics. It looks at the main focus of the analysis that is currently shifting from markets and accumulation of capital to the processes of satisfying human needs. A dual perspective is used in order to argue in favour of the latter. On the one hand, a revision of recent Feminist Economics writings provides arguments and shows trends towards such a change. On the other hand, attention to the feminist movement is drawn to complement the previous theoretical discussion. The paper references to diverse feminist positions towards the past general strike in Spain (June 2002) and illustrates the key debate within the feminist movement with respect to employment, welfare and other politics. The divergent point is whether the role of markets as the leading principle of economic and social life is questioned or not. Finally, various implications and further questions that arise from the shift of theoretical and political priorities towards the sustainability of human life are identified.
Abstract

WELFARE, GENDER AND RELIGION
IN A EUROPEAN PERSPECTIVE

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Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper presents a recently initiated research project within the field of welfare, gender and religion (2003-2006). Europe is undergoing economic, social and value related changes, which have direct influence on the organisation of social welfare provision. The aim of the project is to analyse the function of European majority churches as agents of welfare within the social economy. The starting point for the study is the Swedish situation, which will be compared with equivalent situations in seven European countries; Finland, Norway, England, Germany, France, Italy and Greece.

Gender and welfare is a well established area of research in several European countries today. The specific contribution of this project is to bring religion/theology into this discussion. The European majority churches have been of historic importance in forming European identity, also with regard to gender. Today religion appears as an interesting actor, both as welfare provider and public voice. Our aim is to identify patterns of gender and power which emerge within the majority churches in their role as agents of welfare. These patterns will be interpreted against the background of the respective countries and church traditions.

The analysis will enable different models and solutions to emerge - and eventually to critique and complement each other. In this way we hope to be able to provide relevant knowledge for forthcoming decisions concerning the role of the churches within the field of welfare.
ABSTRACT

POSITIONING DISCOURSES ABOUT GENDER IN THE IT SECTORS IN SWEDEN AND IRELAND

Chris Mathieu, Institute for Organisation and Industrial Sociology, Copenhagen Business School

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper is based upon an on-going research project on women and men in technically qualified jobs in the IT sector in Sweden and Ireland. The focus of the project is to uncover and analyse how gender inequality is exacerbated or countered once women reach employment in the IT sector (our focus is on what happens during employment rather than in prior phases which have been more extensively studied, i.e. relating to initial career choice and the education system). The paper positions three things in the various academic research traditions/literature fields that play prominent roles in understanding the empirical matters that the project addresses. These are: 1) the project itself as we understand it; 2) the most frequent explanations we receive from the men and women we have interviewed; and 3) some of the more popular discussions on gender equality among actors within and outside the sector. The primary academic literature fields (a very crude division, and the fields often intersect each other) taken up are: women and technology; the gendered labour market; the gendered organisation; the work-(family-)life connection; various discrimination paradigms; and “business reasons.” Each of the perspectives that are reviewed have different understandings of what forces impinge on and inform action, and the cumulative/structuring effects that actions have. Likewise, the various perspectives have different ideas about what in the social world is relatively static and dynamic, what the processes of creation, transmission and reinforcement are, and what oppressive and emancipatory (or equality promoting) forces and possibilities exist.
ABSTRACT

EMPLOYMENT AND DAILY LIFE IN AN IRISH TOURIST TOWN: GENDERED INTERACTIONS OF EMPLOYMENT, MOTHERHOOD AND LONG-TERM RELATIONSHIPS

Jacqui O’Riordan, University College Cork

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

Are boundaries around women’s and men’s work breaking down to form more equal gender relationships or are they evolving to form new patriarchal and class structures? This question is central to the concerns of this paper that draws on initial insights gleaned from the data gathered in the course of research in Killarney town in the South West of Ireland, from 1998 – 2000. Part of a broader research project that examined the interaction between work and gendered identities in modern Ireland this analysis highlights considerations women are making in their day to day lives, as they negotiate their diverse commitments within the personal and employment options that they have open to them. In making these considerations visible it adds to the knowledge and understanding we have of the complex relationships there are between the diverse aspects of being a gendered adult in modern Ireland, where recourse to traditional norms may no longer be a realistic option. It utilises insights from feminist literature in terms of the changing face of the workforce in Ireland, and roles, responsibilities and expectations operating within household. The particular tourist-oriented local labour market that exists in Killarney has many characteristics of an increasingly flexible workforce. Furthermore, it offers an opportunity to examine the interactions between areas of work and non-work within an established and long standing concentration on atypical working patterns. Focusing on the growing importance of a tourist-oriented workforce in the area, it highlights the implications that this has for the options that are open to women. It is grounded in the decisions that they are making in their daily lives and has applicability far beyond the bounds of the South West region of Ireland.
ABSTRACT

WHAT IS THE THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL FRAMEWORK WHICH
SHAPES THE NURSE-PATIENT RELATIONSHIP?

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Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist
Research
Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

Aim: The aim of this descriptive ethnographic study is to explore culture in one
hospital unit in an urban area in Iceland, focussing on the constraints and
circumstances experienced by nurses and especially regarding patient-oriented
nursing.

The Research question: What is the theoretical and practical framework
which shapes the nurse-patient relationship in a medical unit in urban area in Iceland?

Method: The approach I used toward answering this research question is
ethnographic, but I did participant observation and wrote extensive field notes at the
medical unit; furthermore, I intensively interviewed one female nurse, my key
informant, applying a mixture of semi-structured and in-depth interviewing as a data
collection method.

Data analyses: My data was analysed according to the Ethnonursing Data

Findings: The findings and themes emerging from my research strongly
suggest that there are severe and considerable constrains within hospital culture
against the nurses’ ability to be ‘patient-oriented’. According to my study the central,
critical issues are time and communication. At the unit where I did my research and
between ca. 9:00 and 10:30 nurses had to be, as they expressed it ‘at two places at the
same time’. I argue and my findings show that this overlap of time hinders the
teamwork which is fundamental part of patient-oriented nursing. In order to create and preserve some type of coherence in the hospital culture nurses are socialised into being an oppressed group, individually communicating with other professionals, especially those ranked above them, as subordinates. Hospital culture should be described as dissonant since there seems to be a striking mismatch between espoused values and organisational goals, also because of the competitive spirit between nurses and nursing auxiliaries and the double standard for behaviour, but no formal systems exists for addressing conflict, just an informal one. I argue in accordance with the findings of my research that the theoretical framework that shapes nurse-patient interaction is fundamentally task-oriented and also oppressive in nature.
ABSTRACT

CHANGES OF THE FEMALE WORKFORCE. IDENTITY AND SELF REPRESERNTATION OF YOUNG ITALIAN WOMEN'S STUDIES STUDENTS.

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Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper could be considered as an outcome of the Research "Employment and Women's Studies: the Impact of Women's Studies Training on Women's Employment in Europe". (A RTD Project of the 5th Framework Programme of the European Commission).

The most important transformation process that have taken place in Italy in the last forty years is the change in Women's working habits and the increase in female activity rates from the '70s onwards. The key factors of this transformation were: the passage from an economy strongly tied to the agricultural sector to an industrial one in the '50s; the spreading of the tertiary sector in the '70s; the urbanisation process; the increase in schooling and changing in the roles within the family.
But our data show that there are still gaps between men and women in their access to various occupations as well as in career progression. Women are more frequently offered part-time or precarious jobs. Another source of concern is the persistence of some cultural limitations. For many women, entering the labour market still means having to choose between work and family. In any case entering the labour market for women meant also a change of job representations: nowadays is part of Women's social horizon and personal identity.

How do young Women's Studies student face to this situation?
Job insecurity leads to stress and anxiety, but above all it makes it difficult to make long term plans.
This paper is based on 100 questionnaires and 30 deep interviews done in all Italy between December 2001 and July 2002 to Women's Studies Students.
Aspirations, expectations and projects mentioned by the young women we interviewed are placed in this changing picture and have to deal with territorial peculiarities, difficulties in entering the labour market and the uncertainty which is attached to work.
ABSTRACT

EXPERIENCES OF RACISM AND RACIST/ETHNIC DISCRIMINATION IN A EUROPEAN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper presents a research project aiming at developing comparable quantitative data in the member states of the European Union on migrants’ and ethnic minorities’ experiences of racism and discrimination. This means that the project has on the one hand a method developing aim and on the other hand a data developing aim. By applying a quantitative methodology for sampling, data collection and data analysis that has been successfully practiced in Sweden the project tries to achieve the basis for comparability. However, the conditions for conducting quantitative surveys among random samples of migrants and ethnic minorities vary in the member states of the European Union. In the paper this is discussed. The Swedish model study is compared with the Dutch, the Italian, and the Spanish.

In spite of the various methods for samples, and data collection, the findings are quite similar. Survey data from all countries prove that a high number of all migrants studied have made experiences of discrimination and have been subjected to insults/harassment at work, school or university; subject to threats in other public places, refused jobs or entry to a pub/restaurant, subject to harassment by neighbours, badly treated by the police. Reporting to authorities are in general low. Gender can in these studies explain less about variation in perceived discrimination than ethnicity. However, men express to a higher extent having been victims of discrimination than women. Less gender differences are found in the public/social domain compared to the employment.
1. Introduction

Contemporary racism in Europe, hit at ethnic minorities and immigrant communities, at their norms and values. Contemporary racism tends to apply arguments that are couched in terms of cultural as well as biological differences. What has been called the New Racism argues that the dominant cultures is threatened by immigrant cultures, and argues for repatriation of immigrants to their countries of origin – for their own good. These arguments have become a discourse of our time, not only supported by extreme right parties or organisations.

The fight against racism and racial discrimination has in the last decade become an extensive concern for the European Community and its member states. The legal basis to combat discrimination at the national and European level have been considerably strengthened and a line has been drawn which sets the minimum standards and benchmarks the future development on non-discrimination. In 2000 the member states adopted the Racial Equality Directives\(^1\) and the Employment Equality Directive\(^2\). Overall, the period from the adoption of the Directives in 2000 has resulted in a re-assessment and re-examination by Governments and interest groups of Member States’ legislation and institutional mechanisms to combat discrimination on the grounds of racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, sexual orientation and age. In addition, some Member States plan to strengthen the Gender Equality Directive\(^3\) in employment, which brings gender equality legislation in conformity with the latest legislative developments on equal treatment, as part of an overall package of equal treatment legislation.

The establishing of a European Monitoring centre on racism and xenophobia (EUMC) in June 1997\(^4\), during the European Year against Racism, is another significant initiative proving the ambitions of the European Union. The EC Regulation sets out the prime objective for the EUMC, which in short is to “Provide the Community and its Member States with objective, reliable and comparable data at the European Level on the phenomena of racism, xenophobia and anti-Semitism”. The EUMC is also required to: “Study the extent and development of the phenomena and manifestations of racism, xenophobia and anti-Semitism, analyze their causes, consequences and effects, and examine examples of good practice in dealing with them.” The EUMC uses the EC equal treatment directives and the ICERD definition of racial discrimination that has been ratified by the EU Member States\(^5\) to study racism. And accordingly it is not only overt racist violence that should be called racism, but also the subtle expressions of exclusions on grounds of race, ethnicity, religion and culture. Direct expressions of racism as well as indirect expressions, like marginalisations, invisibility making, unfounded accusations, declarations of incapacity, are views as racist since these actions are racist in their consequences.

In order to collect data, the EUMC has established the RAXEN network, which consists of 15 co-partners or National Focal Points, one in each Member State. With the assistance of the RAXEN network the EUMC has achieved an overview of the organisations and institutions working in the

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\(^4\) European Council adopted the Regulation EC No 1035/97

\(^5\) “any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on “race”, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life”.
member states with the issues, and accordingly an overview of what kind of activities and data that exist and what kind of data that do not exist.

It has become obvious that there is a general lack of data related to racism and xenophobia and even more so when it comes to data that are comparable within the 15 EU member states. This means that for the EUMC to monitor racism effectively a lot of tools are still to be developed by the Member States. For improving the situation with regard to comparability, objectivity and reliability of data at Community level the EUMC has initiated surveys, preparatory studies and feasibility studies.

In 2001 the EUMC initiated a research project called Migrants’ experiences of racism and discrimination. The aim of the project is to develop comparable data on migrant and minority groups with regard to experiences of racism and discrimination in their everyday life, by using as far as possible a similar methodology for data collection and data analysis. The comparability approach was at the same time an investigation into the conditions for conducting comparable quantitative research on migrants and minorities in various EU member states. The project reflects the colonial past as well as the new economic and political situation in world. Migrants from Morocco, Turkey, and Yugoslavia have become especially numerous in Western Europe over the last decades, which is notable in this project. With the continuation of the project and the full coverage of the 15 EU member states, migrants of third country nationals settled in Europe will leave their traits in the map of groups vulnerable to racism and discrimination.

As surveys on experienced discrimination among migrants have been conducted in Sweden and Finland over the last decade, and as researchers in these two countries already have an established cooperation, which recently has influenced a similar survey in Denmark, it was decided to investigate the possibility of using the Nordic surveys as a model for the rest of the countries in the European Union. Professor Anders Lange at Stockholm University and the designer of the Swedish survey allowed the EUMC to use the already developed methodological approach and instrument in the other eleven member states. The EUMC started the project in 2001 with a survey in Italy and the Netherlands, continuing in 2002 with surveys in Belgium, Spain, Austria and the United Kingdom. For 2003 another three countries will be selected and the project will end by 2004 with the commission of the remaining member states of the EU and with a comparative analysis. In the following I will discuss the Dutch, the Italian and the Spanish studies in relation to the Swedish with regard to methods and with regards to findings.

2. The Model study

In Sweden the Ombudsman against ethnic discrimination initiated a series of surveys measuring the experiences of discrimination by selected immigrant groups, starting in 1990s. The choice of groups was related to those who often had turned to the Ombudsman’s office with complaints. In the survey from 1995, which was used as the model, the respondents were selected under four categories: “Africans” (mainly from Ethiopia, Somalia, Uganda), “Arabs” (mainly from Lebanon, Syria and Iraq), “Asians” (mainly from China, Thailand, Vietnam) and “Ex-Yugoslavians”. The sampling

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6 A. Lange, (1997) Immigrants on Discrimination II, CEIFO, University of Stockholm
7 K. Liebkind, Dr I Jasinskaja-Lahti, Maahanmuuttajien sopeutuminen paakaupunkiseudulla, Ministry of Labour: Helsinki
frame was defined after criteria such as age (18-60 years old) and time of arrival (1971-1991). The study was thereby restricted to the first generation immigrants. The Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics carried out a sample based on a combination of independent random sample and stratified samples. Stratification by sex was necessary because of the strongly skewed sex distribution in the respective populations. The total sample was 1,600, 400 per category. The total response rates exceeding 60% with small differences between the migrant categories and small differences between men and women.

The questionnaire had already been used in the first survey and thereby been evaluated, a few questions had been exchanged. Questionnaires were sent to respondents in Swedish and in mother tongue language (English, Amarinya, Arabic, Chinese, Thai, Vietnamese or Serbo-Croatian). The questionnaires were attached to a covering letter containing a detailed description of the confidentiality rules for the survey and brief instructions on how to answer the questions.

The data collection lasted from mid September till mid December in 1995. Questionnaires were mailed in September and a first reminder was sent out in October. Respondents who had not returned a completed questionnaire after the first reminder were contacted in a telephone follow-up. If the respondent agreed an interview was conducted on the telephone in Swedish. A second letter of reminder was sent out in November and the data collection was ended in December.

3. Methodological divergences from the Model study

Sample frames and samples

When comparing the EUMC initiated surveys with the Swedish model study, there are two major conditional differences to take into account. The first is related to the financial conditions. The EUMC project did not have the same kind of budget for the individual surveys as the Swedish model study. The EUMC budget did for example not allow for purchase of samples or for telephone interviews to increase the response rates, as was done in the Swedish survey. The second conditional divergence is related to the restricted time for conducting the EUMC studies. In all the EUMC studies were limited to a period of seven months including data collection and data analysis and had to start rather immediately after contracts were signed. This meant for instance that it was not enough time, in the Dutch case, to request a national random sample, as this would have taken too long time. The shortage of time had of course also an impact on the data collection period, which was evidently shorter than in the Swedish case.

National population statistics providing information about the population’s citizenship, nationality, or country of birth (also if asylum seekers and refugees) do not exist in all EU member states. In some countries, such as Sweden, national statistics also record immigration status, such as first and second generation and if naturalised, and by various socio-economic variables including geographical site. However, it is not always the case that a random sample of selected immigrants groups by nationality or country of birth, by sex and age group, can be ordered and purchased. In the EUMC project so far, national population statistics in Belgium, Italy and in the Netherlands keep records of country of birth/origin and provide sample service for scientific purposes. However, it might take time for negotiations with the authorities, and in order to save time, the Dutch and the Italian studies, also the Belgian, are based on sample frames and samples from selected municipalities instead of national samples. And further on samples from municipalities where samples could be purchased to a low cost.

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15 The second-generation immigrants are born in Sweden, and found in statistics by the parents’ nationality or country of birth. In the Netherlands immigrants are recorded as allochthonous, meaning either that the person or at least one of the parents is born abroad.
16 Naturalised is a person that has received a citizenship of the new country.
17 The Municipalities’ Basic Registration (GBA) is the only Dutch authority that can provide required data on migrants including addresses, which the National Statistics Office cannot.
In some of the EU member states national population statistics do not keep information about country of birth, nationality or ethnicity. In France for instance it is prohibited according to the Constitution. For three countries in the EUMC project so far, Austria, Spain and the United Kingdom, the sampling could not follow the model study and alternative ways had to be found. Census data have been helpful as reference for stratification of samples in Austria and in the United Kingdom, but not in Spain, where census data do not exist. In Spain the research team developed stratified samples by a quota system, based on the official statistics from ministries of Interior and Labor regarding legal residents and registered workers. The quotas reflect the official proportion of migrant/minority groups with regard to sex, residential region, and registration of employment.

The samples in the Swedish study combine random samples and structured samples. A number of considerations lay behind the choice of migrant groups. One of them referred to the most vulnerable from various continents according to the Ombudsman for Ethnic Discrimination. The size of the groups was another concern. The former Yugoslavians represent not just a numerous immigrant group but also a group of migrants with a shorter geographic, cultural and “phenotypic” distance in relation to immigrants from Africa, Asian and the Middle East, which was a factor of relevance for the study of discrimination.

The fact that the Swedish study, compares the respondents by the size of the location; metropolitan (larger cities) and non-metropolitan areas (smaller cities), the EUMC project strives to make similar comparisons, by constructing the samples by size of location, larger cities and smaller cities, and of course on the fact of high numbers of immigrants. In the Dutch study samples are based on the immigrant population in Rotterdam, the Hague, Arnhem and Tilburg. In the Italian case samples are taken from Turin, Florence, Naples, and Brescia.

In the Dutch and the Italian studies, which most closely follow the Swedish model study, samples have been stratified by sex, age groups and geographical location for each nationality group. Migrant groups from five continents have been selected. In the Dutch study: Surinamese (South America), Moroccans (Africa), Indonesians (Asia), Turks (Middle East) and Ex Yugoslavians (Eastern Europe), representing different ethnic, cultural and religious backgrounds, postcolonial migrants and “guest-workers”. The Dutch study is not restricted to first generation immigrants; also the second generation “allochthonous” is included.

In the Italian study, Africa is represented by migrants Morocco and Senegal, Latin America by migrants from Peru, Asia by Philippines, and Europe by Albanians. Italy (and Spain) is a country where immigration is a new phenomena compared to Sweden and the Netherlands.

In the Spanish study, the two Latin American groups are quite new and have increased considerably in the last decade, and are considered living in the most critical phase of migration, with regard to legal insecurity, black economy, etc. In the Spanish study, samples are taken from regions such as Catalonia, Madrid and Andalucia, the three regions where the majority of the immigrants reside. It should be added that the Roma is not only a vulnerable ethnic groups in Spain, but in several EU Member States. However, it is evidently more difficult to establish a sample frame of Roma as they are citizens, proportionally selected for large and smaller cities.

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Table 1. Samples and respondents divided by origin for Sweden, Netherlands, Italy, and Spain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study/ Sample/ respondents</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Netherlands</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkey and Albania(^{19})</td>
<td></td>
<td>960/149</td>
<td>962/96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex-Yugoslavia</td>
<td>400/233</td>
<td>960/190</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco(^{20})</td>
<td></td>
<td>960/124</td>
<td>964/54</td>
<td>400/337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa (excl Morocco)(^{21})</td>
<td>400/221</td>
<td>962/73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East(^{22})</td>
<td>400/256</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia(^{23})</td>
<td>400/233</td>
<td>960/190</td>
<td>965/63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America(^{24})</td>
<td></td>
<td>960/149</td>
<td>828/94</td>
<td>400/331(^{25})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roma(^{26})</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>400/351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total samples/ Responses (rate%)</td>
<td>1600/955</td>
<td>4807/772</td>
<td>4663/380</td>
<td>1200/1019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data collection
The second divergence is related to the methods for data collection. In the model study, questionnaires (in various languages) were sent by post accompanied by introduction letters and pre-paid response envelopes to individuals in the samples. In Sweden a letter of reminder was sent out three weeks later and respondents who had not returned a completed questionnaire after the first letter of reminder were contacted by telephone. In those cases where the respondents agreed to take part in the survey a telephone interview was done in Swedish.

The studies in Italy and the Netherlands followed the Swedish model, and sent out questionnaires by post. A postcard as reminder was sent out a week after the first contact. No telephone interviews were conducted. In the Italian study the addresses were not always the correct, in total 12% of the sent out questionnaires were returned undelivered, which give a signal of high mobility.

In connection with the start of the data collection in the Netherlands, a press release was sent to the editors of the TV news program called Migranten TV, which is broadcasted in the Ranstad area, where many immigrants reside. Other local TV stations with special broadcasts for migrants followed up the press release.

In the Spanish case, questionnaires were handed out by a team of ten persons who located the informants in accordance with the real proportions of migrants, by gender and region. The informants introduced the study. The forms were collected at the time or returned by post.

\(^{19}\) In the Netherlands the samples are exclusively Turks and in Italy Albanians
\(^{20}\) Exclusively from Morocco
\(^{21}\) Mainly Ethiopia and Somalia in the Swedish study, exclusively from Senegal in the Italian study
\(^{22}\) Mainly from Lebanon, Iraq and Syria in the Swedish study (labelled as “Arabic world”)
\(^{23}\) Mainly from Thailand, Vietnam, China in the Swedish study, Philippine (Italian study), Indonesia (Dutch study)
\(^{24}\) Ecuador and Colombia (Spanish study), Peru (Italian study), and Surinam (Dutch study)
\(^{25}\) In the Spanish sample frame 122 were Colombians and 278 were Ecuadorians
\(^{26}\) Roma are mainly Spanish citizens
Questionnaire
The third but minor divergence is related to the questionnaire. The Swedish questionnaire was adopted with only some minor changes to fit local differences, to improve usability and improve the validity. In the Dutch study, formulations referring to “foreign background” were changed to “allochton background”. In the Italian study a question was added regarding experiences of having been stopped by the police for simple check of documents and another question on eventual reporting of discrimination to the police. In the Spanish study, two questions were added, one on loosing a job because of foreign background and the other question on detainment by police. The questionnaire was slightly changed to address the Roma, as they are not immigrants. Some specific questions regarding the social, economic and cultural traditions of the Roma were included and questions on the migratory process excluded.

In the Swedish study questionnaires were distributed in Swedish and in one more language. In the Dutch study questionnaires were translated into Turkish, Moroccan-Arabic and Serbo-Croatian in addition to Dutch. In the Italian study in addition to Italian, the questionnaires were translated and sent out in Albanian, Tagalog, Moroccan-Arabic, Spanish and in French. French questionnaire was sent to the Senegalese. Native speakers did the translation of the questionnaires. In Spain there was only a questionnaire in Spanish, and the functionaries did assist in explaining the questions for the Moroccans, the only non-Spanish speaking group. The questionnaire was tested in Spain and in the Netherlands, not in Italy.

Response rates
Table 1 shows the responses per country and per migrant group. The variety is extensive. The average response rate in Italy is only 10%, in the Dutch study, 17% and while it is 84% in the Spanish study and 60% in the Swedish study.

It seems obvious that the response rates are related to the way data are collected and that posted questionnaires might not be a way to collect data among migrants and minorities. In the Spanish study local functionaries handed out questionnaires and assisted with instructions. In the Swedish study telephone interviews were used to increase the response rates. In the Italian and the Dutch cases the only follow up was a post card.

One possible explanation suggested to the low response rates in Italy is the lack of confidence in surveys. And related to this a lower level of integration and a lack of trust in official institutions. Another explanation might be difficulties to understand the questions and how to fill in the form, as many respondents have lower education than average.

In the Netherlands it is quite common with low response rates for surveys in general, not only when migrants are addressed. For migrants, there is a “survey fatigue” and a general mistrust in surveys following large numbers of surveys among migrant population. Regarding the representation of responses in the Dutch study, a weighting system has been applied for gender and age.

As the samples for each migrant group was stratified by gender and age, the proportions of responses could be weighted in order to avoid disproportional analysis of findings.

4. Experiences of racism and discrimination – findings in comparison

In spite of the variation with regard to samples, sampling and data collection methods, the results have a lot of correspondence in Sweden, Netherlands, Italy and Spain.
**Significant differences of discriminatory acts**

In all questionnaire there were 17 questions measuring discrimination in various areas. When comparing the single items measuring discrimination in the four studies and for the various migrant and minority groups the following items had the highest scores per country:

Table 2 Total percentage of perceived discrimination for selected items per country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Act of discrimination (%)</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Netherlands</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job recruitment</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insults/harassment In public</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment at work</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment by neighbours</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denied renting apartment</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The single discriminatory act that has been reported by a high number of migrants in all the four countries is experiences of insults and harassment at work because of their foreign/ethnic background. In total 40% in both the Italian study and in the Dutch studies and about 30% in both the Spanish and the Swedish studies, have had these experiences during the last years.
- Another discriminatory act that has high scores in all four countries is also related to the employment domain, namely experience of not getting a job qualified for because of the foreign/ethnic background. 40% in both the Spanish and in the Swedish study and about 30% in the Dutch and in the Italian studies report this kind of perceived discrimination.
- A third single act of discrimination that has high scores in the four countries in experiences of insults or harassment in the public transport or in the streets because of the foreign/ethnic background. In total about 30% of the respondents in the Netherlands and in Spain, and even more in Sweden and Italy have experiences this in the last year more than once. In Italy 45% of all respondents have had these kinds of experiences lately.
- The single item that is a larger problem in the two Southern countries than in the Northern countries is discrimination with regard to renting or buying apartments our houses. In the Italian study as well as in the Spanish studies, discrimination with regard to having been denied renting or buying an apartment or a house because of their foreign/ethnic background is the highest of all items. In total 63% of the Italian respondents and 55% of the Spanish respondents report having this experience of discrimination. In Sweden and in the Netherlands it is about 10% of all respondents. And when excluding respondents for who renting or buying was not relevant, the percentage raises to nearly 80%.
- Insult or harassment by neighbours is another item that migrants and minorities encounter, about 30% of the respondents in Spain and in Italy and about 20% of the respondents in Sweden and the Netherlands.
- The category that has the lowest score in all four studies refers to denial of entry into shops because of foreign/ethnic background. The percentage varies from 13% in the Spain to about 3% in the other three countries.

**Significant ethnic differences**

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27 In the Dutch study, the factor analysis resulted in a slightly different pattern. Therefore I will only discuss the responses to the single items.
When comparing the perceived discrimination in various domains and for various migrant and minority groups’ experiences of discrimination, there seems to be a rather stable pattern of the most vulnerable groups that come to the shore.

Table 3 The Migrant groups per country and domain of discrimination having significant more experiences of discrimination than other migrant groups in respective country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Domain of discrimination</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Netherlands</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>employment sphere(^{28})</td>
<td>Yugoslavians and Arabs</td>
<td>Moroccans and Turks</td>
<td>Senegalese and Moroccans</td>
<td>Moroccans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public and social sphere(^{29})</td>
<td>Africans (Ethiopians)</td>
<td>Turks and Moroccans</td>
<td>Senegalese</td>
<td>Moroccans and Ecuadorians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>institutional sphere(^{30})</td>
<td>No significances</td>
<td>Turks</td>
<td>Senegalese</td>
<td>No significances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>violence and harassment(^{31})</td>
<td>Africans (Ethiopians)</td>
<td>Turks and Moroccans</td>
<td>Senegalese</td>
<td>Ecuadorians</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Whereas the migrant groups are very much the same in all areas of discrimination in the Netherlands, Italy and Spain, the migrant groups in the Swedish study vary with the areas.
- The Moroccans and the Ecuadorians in Spain, and the Moroccans and the Turks in the Netherlands, and the Moroccans and the Senegalese in Italy express significantly more often experienced discrimination in the area of employment, in the public/social sphere as well as experienced violence in the streets, in comparison to other migrants groups in their countries.

**Significant Gender differences**

When comparing the reported experiences of discrimination in the 17 various situations, it is clear the men have in general experienced more discrimination than women. At the same time, the differences between men and women are not always significant higher and there are domains where women have much more experiences of discrimination than men.

- In Spain Roma women have to a significant higher extent experienced being denied entrance to shops than Roma men.
- In the Netherlands Moroccan, Turkish, Yugoslavian and Surinamese women have to a significant higher extent experienced harassment by neighbours than Moroccan, Turkish, Yugoslavian and Surinamese men. Moroccan and Turkish women have also been harassed in the streets significantly more than Moroccan and Turkish men. Another area where women have more experiences of discrimination than men is in contact with health care institutions. Turkish and Yugoslavian women report much more discrimination of this kind than Turkish and Yugoslavian men.

\(^{28}\) Have (i) not been offered a job qualified for because of foreign/ethnic background (ii) missed a promotion because of foreign/ethnic background, and (iii) been subjected to insult at work because of foreign/ethnic background during the last 5 years

\(^{29}\) Have been (i) refused entry to restaurant (ii) shop (iii) denied possibility to buy on credit (iv) denied buy/rent house/apartment because of foreign/ethnic background (v) subjected to insult/harassment in school because of foreign/ethnic background during the last 5 years

\(^{30}\) Have been badly treated or received poor service in contacts with (i) the employment service/job centre, (ii) social insurance, (iii) police, (iv) health care service, (v) social service, because of foreign/ethnic background during the last year

\(^{31}\) Have been (i) subjected to insult/harassment by neighbours (ii) in the street/public transport (iii) subjected to violence, robbery or crime because of because of foreign/ethnic background during the last year
• In Sweden the Asian women have to a significant higher degree experiences threats, insults or harassments in the street than Asian men. Asian women have also much more experiences of discriminatory treatment in restaurants and shops than Asian men.

5. Concluding remarks

Reflections on quantitative methods for comparative studies

Hardly anybody would deny that quantified data measuring the social situation for vulnerable groups in society do have a better chance of getting political and media attention and thereby lead to political preventive interventions, than non-quantified data. This is the reason why the EUMC project has chosen to use a quantitative approach. The project gives at the same time an insight into the limits of traditional quantitative research and the use of posted questionnaire for data collection in the EU member states. The most obvious is the extreme high percentages of non-responses following post surveys. There are worrying signs when people do not want to take part of surveys also when they could benefit thereof.

But what is on the other hand an acceptable response rate? In the Swedish model study a response rate of 60% was accepted. But the acceptance was related to the analysis of the non-respondents and to the balance between respondents and non-respondents. When the proportions of men and women in certain age groups are intact, the representation is considered statistically secured. In addition there is always the possibility of statistical weighting of the underrepresented parts and thereby an increase of representation. So after all the high percentage of dropouts must not be the major problem. Both the Dutch and the Italian studies had extreme low response rates 10% (Italian study) and 17% (Dutch study). But as the proportions of responses were intact with the proportions of the sample frames the dropouts did not ruin the representation. In addition the responses were weighted in order to achieve the acceptable proportions.

There might though be other and more serious problems caused by low response rates and that is the kind of answers given. With a small number of responses the risk is higher that the answers are more limited in variety or even unbalanced. Therefore it is to prefer that the samples are huge from the start, as in the Dutch and the Italian case. In the end the Dutch number of responses were about 800, which is not too far from the absolute numbers of filled in questionnaires in the Swedish (60% responses) and in the Spanish study (84% responses).

When post surveys can be combined with telephone interviews or with personal interviews the response rates obviously increases. Whether this mixture of data collection methods has an impact on the way individuals’ answer the questionnaire has to be further analysed. The same goes for the method of handing out questionnaires. The response rates are extremely high, as been shown in the Spanish study. But whether the method has an impact on the how individual’s answer must be studied. The handing out of questionnaire is however a solution in the case where no addresses from random samples can be achieved. The shortcomings of handing out questionnaires instead of sending by post are obvious. You have to restrict the study to a more limited geographical area or you have to rely on a numbers of local assistants.

Ethnicity, gender and discrimination

Interestingly enough the results of the various surveys are not so divergent as might have been expected with the totally different methods. The extent of experienced discrimination is higher for job recruitment and for insults and harassment at workplaces and in the public. Migrant groups from in particular Africa have reported more experiences of discrimination than for instance migrants from Europe or from Asia. Men have in comparison to women reported more perceived discrimination than women. However there are gender differences with regard to various spheres. The findings raise the expectations for the extension to all the 15 EU Member States.
Gender does not explain so much of the variance as could have been expected.

At the same time there are indications of significant gender differences.

The new anti-discrimination legislation when implemented will urge the EU member states to install institutions to record complaints on discrimination on racial/ethnical, religious, grounds and support victims in courts. At the same time there is a lot of work ahead to encourage and convince individuals to turn to institutions and report on discrimination and ill treatment. The Swedish Ombudsman against Ethnic Discrimination found it necessary to measure the extent of perceived discrimination by surveys also when the Ombudsman institution had existed for many years. It is therefore expected that the EUMC project will be an ongoing project for many years to come. After all there is no other and more reliable way to find out about the level and the kind of discrimination than to ask vulnerable groups and potential victims.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Violence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Did not get job</td>
<td>1. Insulted/harassed by neighbours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Missed promotion</td>
<td>2. Insulted/harassed in street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Insulted/harassed at work</td>
<td>3. Subjected to violence/robbery</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public and social</th>
<th>Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Denied house/apartment</td>
<td>1. Badly treated in restaurants/bars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Badly treated in school</td>
<td>2. Badly treated by job agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Refused entry in restaurants/bars</td>
<td>3. Badly treated by social insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Refused entry in shops</td>
<td>4. Badly treated by police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Denied credit</td>
<td>5. Badly treated by health service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Badly treated by social service</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

CROSS CULTURAL MARRIAGES IN AUSTRIA

Karin Maria Schmidlechner, Department of History, University of Graz, Austria

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper is dealing with cross-cultural marriages in Austria. One of the primary objectives of this research was to gain insights into a special form of marriage migration, namely the marriages between Austrian women or men and foreign partners, a topic which parallels previous research on the subject of mixed marriages. The term "mixed" or "cross-cultural" marriage is applied to marriages contracted between two people who do not share the same nationality, language, religion, ethnicity, or other cultural characteristics.1 In a mixed marriage, the concept of the “other”, which has played an important role in some feminist scholarly literature, is an especially useful analytical tool. To some degree, all relationships are characterized by a distinction between “self” and “other”. Everyone defines him or herself by reference to others. You are you because you are not someone else.2 In feminist literature, the definition of self is tied closely to gender. In heterosexual relationships, gender becomes a sort of cultural divide in and of itself.3 In a mixed marriage, this gender-based notion of “otherness” is then compounded by a whole range of additional cultural differences. By definition, people in mixed marriages have at their disposal a larger range of cultural possibilities in structuring their relationships than is typically the case for the parties to a more conventional marriage, whether it be regarding the division of household labor, methods of child-rearing, family traditions, language of communication, moral expectations, or even definitions of what it means to be male and female. Indeed, all mixed marriages are influenced to at least some degree by

1 This is not to say, however, that a couple may not have at least some of these characteristics in common, only that they differ in at least one of them. Breger and Hill, Cross-Cultural Marriages, p. 7.
3 Deborah Tannen, That's not What I Meant (New York: Ballantine Press, 1986), get page number!
different culturally determined expectations of the two partners and their relatives regarding such matters. The very fact that the partner appears at least somewhat exotic may have, by turns, an attractive or repulsive effect on the partner, for example, depending on the circumstances.\(^4\)

The paper is based on interviews.

ABSTRACT

UNDER INTEGRATION – THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN CONDITIONS OF CITIZENSHIP AND GENDER RELATIONS AMONG BOSNIAN REFUGEE FAMILIES

Åsa Gustafson, Department of Sociology

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

This paper focuses on the nexus of gender relations, citizenship, normalization and integration. It is based on a study made in 1996-1997 in Malmö and Umeå among Bosnian refugees. Under conditions of radical change, as for refugee families trying to normalize their lives, there will surely be strong internal tensions in relation to gender relations. There will also be external tensions vis-à-vis conditions of integration and questions of real citizenship in relation to more formal or more substantial aspects. In my study I can see a close connection between the general conditions for integration in society, and contingencies of real citizenship, and the way one can cope with a change of life patterns between man and women. This is due to the necessity to adapt to expectations and assumed standards in the surrounding society. The point discussed in the paper concerns these connections between processes of normalization and integration on one side and changing gender relations on the other, at the background of principal aspects of citizenship and fundamental conditions for integration. The more restricted conditions for integration, the more problematic changes in gender relations, or the other way around, more equal conditions for integration seems at the same time to open up for changes towards more equal gender relations.
One of the characteristics of societies undergoing industrialization is the opening up of various sectors to women and the defining of their professional capabilities. There are those professions which are seen as extensions of caring role (teachers, nurses, midwives, social workers, personal secretaries, paediatricians), and, as well as, the activities for which women were preferred because of the combination of physical and psychological qualities considered typically feminine - patience, caring nature, being used to repetitive work, greater adaptability and kindness.

I expose the results of researches about women working in Società Metallurgica Italiana (copper and alloys, munitions), and women clerks in telephonic bureau. In both cases, they come to be employed precisely because they are women. In SMI’s factories, the workwomen are assigned to producing metallic articles and copper wire, and small and medium calibre munitions, because they are more patient and careful; thus, the telephone exchanges are solely staffed by women, because they are more patient and polite.

The female employment’s history is essentially history of fatigues, underpayment, scanty social recognition. Young age of most of workwomen, employment’s brevity and precariousness did very difficult to recognise the actual transformations, produced by working experience in lives and thinking of Italian women.

Nevertheless, in examined cases, the work’s experience becomes favourite place to acquire self-consciousness, by the test of their cleverness and the experience of new ways of relations and solidarity. The employed women are a model for others girls, because the modern and fine behaviours grow within them.

As regards the social and domestic relations, workwomen’s life emphasised adaptations and resistances of patriarchal structures to the modernity brought from industrialisation. The most relevant changes concern young women’s relations with their parents, which grant, progressively, their self-government’s spaces. Within the married couple, the friendly marriage brings most tenderness, but less engraves on domestic roles.
ABSTRACT

THE GENDER SYSTEM OF CARELIA (1950-2000)

Tatyana Yarovaya, Department of Historical Studies, Petrozavodsk State University, Russia

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

The concepts of "gender system" and "gender contract" examined by a Swedish women's researcher Yvonne Hirdman in terms of the Swedish history can also be applied to the history of Carelia (1950-2000), the north-western republic of the Russian Federation due to the universality of the gender system concept.

Two kinds of gender contracts can be distinguished in the Soviet Karelia (1950-1985), one for the countryside and one for the rapidly expanding urban areas. According to a defence strategy of the Soviet State adopted in 1920s, processing industries were not developed in the border area of the republic, situated to the west of the railroad Murmansk-Leningrad, and therefore, local Carelian people was primarily occupied in agriculture and forest cutting. For that reason, the patriarchal ways of life remained there longer than in the towns, i.e. industrial centres.

By contrast, paper and pulp industry, tractor and shipbuilding, and heat and power production industry etc. were rising up in the area east of the railroad, populated mostly by Slavs. There was a huge labour force demand in 1944-1949, caused by the mass repressions and war losses, filled up by women, doing mainly unskilled poorly-paid work (1939 - 37,7% women of total labour force, 1970 - 53-54%). Fear of under-population (the birth-rate had fallen down by the middle of the 1960th) forced the Soviet State to initiate social reforms to make easier the burden of a working mother: day-care centres, pioneer camps, child allowances, maternity leaves were particularly introduced on a massive scale in 1960s-1970s.

"Perestroika" (1985-1991) made the Soviet values and ways of life a subject of a sharp criticism, an idea of a “women's natural destination” became extremely popular. According to Mikhail Gorbachev: “Women must be freed and allowed to stay at home longer”. This can be explained by wish to eliminate/diminish covert unemployment estimated at 30 – 50% of the total labour force of the USSR. In the beginning of the transitional phase (1991-2000) Russia was struck by a catastrophic economic crisis fully shared by Carelia, followed by severe decline of its economics. Mostly struck were women: 74% of the dismissed labour force.

The paradox of the Carelia’s democratic development is reflected by men/women representation in the decision-making process: in the Soviet Karelia women's representation of the legislative assemblies throughout the examined period was approximately 35%, while now it is about 17% (2002). While the social programs are being cut down, the birth rate has fallen down from 2,0 births per woman in 1989 to 1,1 in 1997. The process of depopulation in well under way, with the population nearing 800 thousand in late 1980s, that now is around 740 thousand.

The welfare gap between the well-to-do and the bulk of the population is growing. While the contract of a "working mother" is functioning as it was in the Soviet Era, at the same time, the process of poverty feminisation is progressing.
ABSTRACT

CAREER CHANGES OF ISRAELI WOMEN

Riva Ziv College of Judea and Samaria

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

Recently there has been an increase in the number of men and women who change their career track. Formerly, people were less mobile in terms of changing their occupational role. They prepared themselves for one occupation, which they usually held till retirement. Career models, developed mainly during the seventies, were usually based on the assumption of one career, starting in the twenties of a person's life and lasting till retirement. Yet in today's reality, people change direction in their careers and even change their lifestyle more than ever before.

What characterizes women's career considerations? The theory of careers treats the person who chooses a career as an individual, disregarding the family. This model is more suitable to men, who can expect their families to adjust to the results of their career choices. However, a woman's life is anchored much deeper in her family, and her career choice is more limited, out of consideration for it. The assumption is that a woman's demands of her working life are much lower than those afforded to man.

The Ph.D. dissertation examined models of women's career changes; i.e., the factors affecting the second, salaried career, and the demands, salary and status of this career. Generally, the study examined the effect of variables affecting men's careers (human resources and experience, plans and ambitions, social networks); and the effect of variables termed "family constraints" affecting women's careers. The hypothesis was that women's and men's careers are affected by the same variables, with an addition of some variables for women: those related to the family sphere.

The study examined the second career of Israeli regular army women, who are forced to make a career change in midlife as they must retire from the military at the age of forty.

The main finding is related to variables in the family sphere:

The hypothesis was that women's search of employment and their investment in a career are affected by family status, number and age of children at home, and family support. This group of variables was termed "family constraints."

Contrary to expectations, it was found that the same variables affect both men and women's second career after leaving regular military service. No effect was found for variables related to the family sphere on the second career of women or its characteristics.

The second, civilian career was characterized in this study on the basis of three indicators: salary, status, and the level of demands. The status and level of demands were measured against the military role. The salary was measured in absolute terms.

It was found that the variables of family constraints do not affect the existence of a second career; they also do not affect the salary level of this career, its status or its level of demands.
Thus the hypothesis, according to which models of careers dealing only with a man's world are not applicable to a woman's world, is inappropriate. The variables predicting men's and women's second career are similar.

Three types were found among women looking for a career:
- The woman who is looking for a challenging career
- The woman who is looking for a career affording security and continuity
- The woman who is looking for a comfortable career.

The woman who is looking for a challenging career finds herself making the same level of investment in her career as does a man. Yet, there is a gap between military women's ambitions about a second career and reality, from the point of view of the characteristics of the civilian career. In most cases, the status and the salary of the second career are lower than those of the first. The same opportunities are open to men and women military personnel, according to the research - but only to women motivated toward a challenging career. Only these women gain social rewards in the form of salary and status similar to those they had in the military.

In summary, the research indicated that similarly to men, family constraints are not relevant for women in the second career.

It also appears that a woman looking for a challenging career acts in the labor market in the same fashion as does a man, in respect to the demands of the job. She also expects a similar reward to that of a man, in salary and status.
ABSTRACT

THE INVISIBLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP OF WOMEN IN GNOSJÖ, SWEDEN

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Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

The locality of Gnosjö in Småland, Sweden, is often seen as a successful model of entrepreneurship, characterised as it is by many small entrepreneurs and a low unemployment rate. Nevertheless, studies grasping the model from a gender perspective indicate that although fully one third of the entrepreneurs in Gnosjö are women, they are not included in the representations. This can partly be understood as a consequence of the male bias of these concepts, which in turn has implications for female entrepreneurs. The paper is based on an interview study in the municipality of Gnosjö, in which female entrepreneurs and local business promoters have taken part. The invisibility of women in the discourse of Gnosjö is prominent also in the women’s narratives. In the paper, this invisibility is discussed in terms of some interrelated aspects. One of these is the women’s hesitation towards seeing themselves as leaders or entrepreneurs, which is analysed in relation to the masculinistic connotations of these concepts. Descriptions of ‘the good entrepreneurs’ are strongly male based as well. Thus, women become deviants and they have to accommodate to the entrepreneurial (male) world. The responsibility to settle down and feel comfortable in entrepreneur organisations is theirs, since there is no questioning of the dominating gender structures in the core of the entrepreneurial world. This invisibility also manifests itself in family businesses, where the husband, in the eyes of the business promoters, stands out as ‘the entrepreneur’, while the wife is reduced to ‘his assistant’. Besides a numeric underestimation, female entrepreneurs are expected to be found mainly in the service sector, while business promoters seem to believe that men are represented in every business sector. Finally, the empirical results from the Gnosjö study presented in the paper, are understood in the context of feminist theory.
ABSTRACT

TRANSITION AND PRIVATISATION IN SERBIA – IMPACT ON LABOUR MARKET

Tatjana Djuric Kuzmanovic, Advanced Business School of Novi Sad, Yugoslavia

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

In this paper, I explore the impact of privatisation and structural adjustment on gender inequalities in Serbia. Primarily, I explain directed non-development and refusal of transition in Serbia during 1990 and absence of labour market. Secondly, I research relative economic poverty of women in Serbia during the transition process and reform of labour market. Finally, I conclude that challenges of transformation at the labour market in Serbia lead to some expected gender consequences. All the data from other post-socialist countries, as well as my analysis of the situation in Serbia, show a paradox of democracy. Transition sharpens economic inequalities between women and men, as well as among women, especially regarding job opportunities.

In the transformation process in Serbia full employment will not be guaranteed any more. It could be expected that transition in Serbia would lead to the increase of unemployment resulting from decreasing of labour demand on the one hand and increasing of its supply on the other hand. Under the circumstances of generally high unemployment rates, structural changes in employment could also be expected. These changes will probably lead to greater availability of temporary, seasonal and low-paid jobs. Women are likely to be pushed out even from such employment opportunities by unemployed men. Some positive effects of all these changes may be expected, but they will not benefit everybody. Besides, all these changes have their time lags. In a short time period, the unemployment will remain high and the salaries of workers low. Highly educated and skilled women may still get new job opportunities in the newly expanding sectors. However, we can hope only for a few female winners among many female losers amidst expected economic changes.

In this paper, I use theoretical perspective Gender and Development (GAD) and combine it with neo-institutional theory. Beside analysis of relationship between Women and Development, and confirmation of subordinated position of Women in Development, in Gender and Development I recognise the significance of male contribution in this process. I consider men's role in development from their role as obstacles to female development and gender oppression to their strategic gender partnership.

KEY WORDS: transition, labour market, gender inequalities, gender and development
ABSTRACT

GENDER, LABOUR MARKET AND THE EDUCATION. A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE BETWEEN SWEDEN AND ROMANIA

Oana Pusa Sofroniciu, University of Bucharest, Romania

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

The paper is focused on gender issues and especially on women’s status on the labor market, following a comparative perspective between Sweden and Romania. I have on purpose chosen a Western European country and an Eastern European country, both with Social Democratic welfare state regimes, but still promoting different social policies, generally speaking, and, in particular, different policies regarding women. This approach allows me to emphasize the similarities, the differences and the effects of these policies, as well as to describe in a suggestive manner women’s roles and statuses, also taking into consideration the societal characteristics, the present context and former events and policies that have significantly influenced women’s image and place in the society. The paper also discusses the connection between individual educational levels and the particular characteristics of women’s participation on the labor market, and especially between women’s involvement in learning programs and their status on the labor market and within other social systems. All these comparisons, discussions and analysis are related to the globalization and transformation process of the last years, in an attempt to understand the social process of change and its implications for women in the two countries.

While in Sweden the dominance of economic globalisation allowed Social Democracy to play an important part, having as consequence women’s release from the “male breadwinner” model, in Romania the situation is different. As political globalisation is dominant, a new “male breadwinner” model appeared and women have been forced towards decisions that weaken their position in the society.

Secondary analysis was used as method for research; the greatest difficulty encountered was that of harmonizing the data when comparing the same dimensions/variables for the two countries taken into consideration.

Key words: social policy, economic/political globalisation, gender differentials, “male breadwinner” model, double burden, labour market, people’s mentality.
ABSTRACT

The 2003 Conference on Feminist Economics New perspectives in gender studies on the labour market.

Paula Mulinari Department of Gender Studies Linköping University,

Presented at Gender and Power in the New Europe, the 5th European Feminist Research Conference
August 20-24, 2003 Lund University, Sweden

Abstract: The 2003 Conference on Feminist Economics

New perspectives in gender studies on the labour market.

During the last 20 years there has within gender studies been a growing theorizing on the intersections of different power relations. The intersections between race, class, gender has been studied and discussed within a wide range of feminist literature. Inspired by postkolonial Black feminism and queerer perspectives (Haraway, D 1991, Mohanty, C 1988, McCall, L 2000, Wilson, R 1993) feminist researches have for instance illuminated the need of incorporating different power relations in an analyses of the labour market in other to grasp the complexity of today’s labour market (McCall, Leslie 2000). In Sweden this perspective has mostly been used within the humanities. One of the most central fields within Swedish gender research is that of working life. This field aims to explore and critically re-read both the Swedish labour market and the Swedish welfare state from a feminist perspective. This is a broad and heterogeneous research field that has provided us with important insights on how patriarchal relations create and reproduce a gendered segregated labour market (Sundin, E 1998, Wikander, Ulla 1999, Gonäs, L 2000). These theoretical and empirical insights have been challenged by feminist voices inspired by antiracist and postcolonial feminism (Knocke, W 1981, de los Reyes, P 1997). These researchers have asserted that the analysis provided by Swedish gender studies on the labour market often overemphasised gender relations and lack an analysis of racism as an institutional and everyday process. The aim of this article is – taking as a point of departure feminists intellectuals theorising the connection between class, gender and "race"/ethnicity within labour markets in late capitalism- to make a critical re-reading of Swedish gender studies with focus on the labour market, in order to illuminate and discuss the unspoken assumptions about gender, nation and ethnicity. These assumptions – I will suggest- are central in creating a specific narrative of women’s position within the Swedish labour markets and in Swedish society that obscures the position and the contribution of racialised women. I will conclude by suggesting that the changes in labour markets that have occurred in Sweden in the last twenty years cannot be grasped unless the hegemonic definition of gender, as isolated and autonomous from other social hierarchies is challenged within Swedish gender research.

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