Pilot experiences for improving gender equality in research organisations

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## 1 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

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<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>DMB</td>
<td>Decision Making Bodies</td>
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<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>European Commission</td>
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<td>EIGE</td>
<td>European Institute for Gender Equality</td>
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<td>EP</td>
<td>European Parliament</td>
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<td>ERA</td>
<td>European Research Area</td>
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<td>GE</td>
<td>Gender Equality</td>
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<td>GEP</td>
<td>Gender Equality Plan</td>
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<td>HM</td>
<td>High Management</td>
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<td>H2020</td>
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<td>RPO</td>
<td>Research Performing Organisation</td>
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<td>RFO</td>
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2 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report aims to provide an analysis of the framework variables (cultural, legislative, political, economic) which may affect the gender equality related issues in each piloting partner’s organisation1 country (Italy, Spain, Israel, Cyprus, Slovenia, Tunisia, and Greece), and to evaluate each research performing and research funding piloting organisations GEP against national and ERA guidelines.

The GEP target areas defined by piloting partners address several national framework variables – legislative, cultural, economic, and political ones, covering the following six broader fields:

- Mentoring
- Female researchers’/staff career and excellence
- Work-life balance; gender balance (in committees, researchers, job offering & recruitmentHM, DMB)
- Gender dimension in research and curricula
- Improving use of gender-sensitive language in organization’s documents
- Raising awareness of gender equality within the organisation

Most of the GEP target areas result from detecting a gap – between what is prescribed by legislation and what exists in practice (as a consequence of unequal access, prevalent stereotypes, institutional cultures, etc.), and between what countries commit to with regard to gender equality in policy documents and resolutions and what they really do in order to fulfil their commitments.

Target areas defined for each GEP also address gender equality related issues and discrepancies that easily escape legislative regulations – practices stemming from organisational cultures, differences in professional behaviour of women and men, hidden forms of sexism and harassment, etc.

Finally, several target areas in piloting organisations’ GEPs aim at making a step forward from what is prescribed in the existing legislature, taking into account issues recognised by research community and civil society members, as well as at responding to the needs of employees of piloting RPOs and RFOs.

Recommendations outlined in the European Research Area Guidelines to promote gender equality in research and innovation are generally relevant for the piloting organisations and for the definition of their GEP target areas. They either help achieving goals set in the GEP target areas or point towards gaps which tend to occur between adopted policies to promote gender equality measures, and the lack of implementation of such measures in practice.

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1 UNISA, CIC nanoGUNE, MIGAL, CNTI, ZRC SAZU, ANPR, and GSGE.
3 INTRODUCTION

3.1 THE SCOPE AND THE STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This report is based on desktop research and brings the analysis of the national contexts (Italy, Spain, Israel, Cyprus, Slovenia, Tunisia, and Greece) in which the 7 piloting partners (UNISA, CIC nanoGUNE, MIGAL, CNTI, ZRC SAZU, ANPR, and GSGE) of the R&I PEERS project conceptualise their Gender Equality Plans (GEPs). The analysis presented here derives from the information provided by all RPO and RFO partners through the questionnaire designed by ZRC SAZU and additional sets of revisions of each pilot partner’s report. The questionnaire addressed three sets of questions:

a) Comprehensive overview on main legislative documents related to gender equality and cultural, social and political aspects that influence gender equality in each country.
b) Preliminary GEP targets for each piloting partners and their evaluation against legislative and cultural context in each country.
c) Evaluation of preliminary targets against the European Research Area Guidelines stated in the EC’s document Guidance to facilitate the implementation of targets to promote gender equality in research and innovation (http://ec.europa.eu/research/swafs/pdf/pub_gender_equality/KI-07-17-199-EN-N.pdf).

This report is divided into six main sections. The Executive Summary and the Introduction are included in sections §2 and §3, respectively. Section §4 collects for each piloting partner the following four items: the legal and cultural context for the GEP definition, followed by a short description of the organisation, preliminary GEP target areas and their evaluation against national guidelines. Section §5 offers a synthetic overview and comparative analysis of the ways in which each piloting partners’ target areas relate to their particular national context. In section §6, it is summarised the correlation of the GEPs targets with the ERA guidelines.
4 NATIONAL, LEGISLATIVE AND CULTURAL CONTEXTS OF THE GENDER ACTION PLAN FOR EACH PILOTTING INSTITUTION

4.1 ITALY

4.1.1 The National Context

According to the *European Index of gender Equality 2017* report, Italy ranks 14th in European Index of Gender Equality 2015. Although the figure is still below the average of EU 28 gender equality average, it is to be highlighted the significant progress achieved in comparison with EIG 2005. Since then, policies to tackle gender imbalance have been cautious and progress in the legal framework has been promoted mainly by EU directives and by civil society pressures.

The Italian Gender Equality regulatory framework is represented by the National Code of Equal Opportunities between men and women approved in 2006 (DL 198/2006), which organises and harmonises 11 equal opportunity laws in a single text with the aim of regulating the promotion of equal opportunities between men and women in all fields of society. Measures to reconcile professional life and family life are included in numerous rules governing the labour market and funds have been allocated to promote further working typologies more compatible with the family care and the creation of an appropriate social infrastructure. The Budget Law (L. 205/2017 art 1, paragraph 218), which introduces two further paragraphs to art. 26 of Legislative Decree. 198/2006 (entitled “Harassment and sexual harassment” of the Code of equal opportunities between men and women), recognises broader protections for female workers and for male workers who report discrimination owing to harassment or sexual harassment.

Family Law recognises a perfect equality between men and women and confers the same rights to children born in and out of marriage. However, care of children in the first years of their life is still mainly delegated to women: in 2015 the paternity leave in Italy was only 1 day, subsequently increased to 2 days in 2016 (source: [www.inps.it](http://www.inps.it)). Only in 2018 the compulsory paternity leave in Italy was increased up to 4 days. With the Legislative Decree 80/2015, implementing the Jobs Act, measures have been introduced to protect maternity and to make parental leave more flexible. Parental leave, for example, has been extended to the child’s 12 years of age, with a salary of 30% of the salary up to the sixth year, while an *ad hoc* leave was provided for women who are victims of violence. With the same legislative decree, about 110 million euros have been allocated, for the years 2017-2018, in favour of companies that in the second level contracts guarantee work-life reconciliation measures to their employees.

The Italian legislation has yet to adopt the recent Judgment of the European Court of Human Rights on the right of the mother to give her surname (instead of the father’s surname) to their children. Divorce is possible, but involves high costs and a long waiting period that various proposals are trying to reduce. However, the so-called Short Divorce Act (Law 6 May 2015, No. 55) is also in force, reducing the time for divorce application from 3 years to 12 months from the separation of judicial or consensual separation between spouses.

The presence of women in decision-making positions is still very limited and recently several measures have been successfully introduced to improve the situation.

A quota system has been imposed on the boards of directors and in the union colleges of companies listed on the stock exchange (starting from 20% and then moving to 33% by 2015) and in the boards of directors of companies with unlisted public capital. The rules for the election of local administrations has been modified to ensure a significant presence of women. No local government can be composed of only people of the same sex, although it remains to be clarified what is the maximum percentage allowed.
However, the electoral law for the national elections that is voted in Parliament does not include provisions ensuring 50% (or 40%) of women in the Chamber of Deputies. Law n. 215 of 2012 introduced provisions aimed at promoting the rebalancing of gender representation in local administrations. First of all, the legislation for the election of municipal councils is modified. For municipalities with a population of more than 5,000 inhabitants, the law, based on a model already tested by Campania’s regional electoral law, provides for two measures:

- The so-called “quotas”: in the candidate lists neither gender can be represented more than two thirds; however, only in municipalities with a population of more than 15,000 inhabitants, failure to comply with the quota may result in the forfeiture of the list.
- The introduction of the so called “double preference of gender”, which allows the voter to express two preferences (instead of one, as required by the previous legislation) provided that they concern candidates of different sex, under penalty of cancellation of the second preference.

For all municipalities with a population of up to 15,000 inhabitants, however, the representation of both sexes is provided on the candidate lists. Secondly, the mayor and the president of the province are required to appoint the junta in accordance with the principle of equal opportunities between women and men, ensuring the presence of both sexes and the municipal and provincial statutes must establish rules to "guarantee", and not simply "promote", the presence of both sexes in the non-elective councils and collegial bodies of the municipality and province, as well as the bodies, companies and institutions dependent on them.

In the par conditio law, the principle is finally established that the media, in the context of transmissions for political communication, are bound to respect the principles of equal opportunities between women and men enshrined in the Constitution.

Owing to the weakness of the mechanisms for gender equality at the level of the central government, the gender mainstreaming approach is used very seldom to assess the impact of new measures and new laws on gender equality.

The situation is slightly better in local administrations, at regional level, provincial or communal, in which some successful initiatives were carried out in the field of gender budgeting.

Positive Action Plans (PAPs) (Envisaged by article 48 of the legislative decree 198/2006, which can be considered a form of GEPs for the public administration, are tools to be compulsory adopted by public administrations to implement gender equality initiatives. With the aim of monitoring and assessing gender equality policies, the Strategic Impact Assessment on Equal Opportunity (VISPO) is defined at central level and applied to the evaluation of some initiatives at local level.

From 2010 onwards, the fragmentation of aims and activities for Equal Opportunities Committees, which are now in charge of not only gender equality initiatives but also of wellbeing and safety in public administrations, combined with the reduction of available resources, have limited the possibility for these initiatives to have an impact (Sansonetti S. et al. 2017). Various coordination initiatives have however been taken by the Equal Opportunities Department at the Prime Minister’s Office (established by DPCM No. 405 of 28 October 1997, as amended on 30 November 2000, 30 September 2004, 1 March 2011 and December 4, 2012).
4.1.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- 2017, October: The Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) launched (par. 16 of art. 1 of law 107/2015) a National Plan to promote, in schools of all levels, education for respect, to combat all forms of violence and discrimination and to promote the overcoming of prejudices and inequalities, according to the principles expressed in the article 3 of the Italian Constitution.
- National guidelines were developed by the Ministry of Education, University and Research, foreseen by paragraph 16 of article 1 of law 107/2015 for promoting in schools “education to gender equality, the prevention of gender violence and all other discrimination”. It is a document that provides schools with ideas for deepening the values and principles for a correct education to respect "inspired by art. 3 of the Constitution.
- 2018 Guidelines for use of gender-sensitive language in administrative documentation Ministry of Education, University and Research del MIUR, were developed by a working group established by the decrees of Minister Valeria Fedeli of 19 July 2017, n. 508, and of 13 September 2017, n. 664,) with the task of intervening with actions to remove gender discrimination in the language of MIUR by promoting the simplification and greater clarity in the communication both internal and external.
- “Recommendations for Positive Actions of MIUR on Gender Themes in University and Research” were developed on the basis of the Ministerial decree prot. n. 162 of 28 February 2018. The document points out, in particular, the importance of balancing the gender composition in the evaluation panels of the research projects to be funded (40% women is the target to be reached in 5 years, in any case at least 30% women), of the valorisation of the research including gender perspective and considerations in its content, as well as of monitoring the execution of the scientific graduation plan 2017-2018 as far as orientation initiatives to STEM disciplines for young women are concerned.

4.1.3 UNISA

The University of Salerno (UNISA) is one of the biggest universities in Southern Italy. The Interdepartmental Observatory for Gender studies and Equal Opportunity (OGEPO) is a research center including 10 of 16 departments of the UNISA. Among its missions is promotion of interdisciplinary collaborations between Italian and foreign professors, promotion of comparison on women’s role in the present society and favouring integration of the gender prospective in research and course of study programs.

4.1.4 UNISA GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

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<th>GEP target area</th>
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<td>This target area relates to “Recommendations for Positive Actions of MIUR on Gender Themes in University and Research” developed on the basis of the Ministerial decree prot. n. 162 of 28 February 2018. The document points the importance of valorisation of the research including gender perspective and considerations in its content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving use of gender-sensitive language</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance with the 2018 Guidelines for use of gender-sensitive language issued by the Ministry of Education, University and Research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEP target area</td>
<td>Evaluation against national guidelines</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>The issue of conciliation of professional and private life, which is particularly challenging for women, has been tackled by numerous legal and policy initiatives in Italy. Measures to reconcile professional life and family life are included in numerous rules governing the labour market and funds have been allocated to promote further working typologies more compatible with the family care and the creation of an appropriate social infrastructure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap in job offering and recruitment procedures</td>
<td>This target area relates to “Recommendations for Positive Actions of MIUR on Gender Themes in University and Research” developed on the basis of the Ministerial decree prot. n. 162 of 28 February 2018. The document points to the importance of monitoring the execution of the scientific graduation plan 2017-2018 as far as orientation initiatives to STEM disciplines for young women are concerned.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance to The Italian Gender Equality regulatory framework and general efforts to reduce gender disparities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap in decision making bodies</td>
<td>This target area relates to “Recommendations for Positive Actions of MIUR on Gender Themes in University and Research” developed on the basis of the Ministerial decree prot. n. 162 of 28 February 2018. The document points to the importance of balancing the gender composition in the evaluation panels of the research projects to be funded (40% women is the target to be reached in 5 years, in any case at least 30% women), of the valorisation of the research including gender perspective and considerations in its content, as well as of monitoring the execution of the scientific graduation plan 2017-2018 as far as orientation initiatives to STEM disciplines for young women are concerned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising awareness of GE</td>
<td>This target area addresses the issue that has been recognised as relevant at the national level. The National guidelines were developed by the Ministry of Education, University and Research, foreseen by paragraph 16 of article 1 of Law 107/2015 for promoting “education to gender equality, the prevention of gender violence and all other discrimination”.</td>
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### 4.2 Spain

#### 4.2.1 The National Context

On the 8th of March 2018, massive demonstrations and strikes took place all over Spain, as part of the celebration of the International Women’s Day. The revindications pivoted around three main issues: caring, consumption and labour. The historical day was documented by both Spanish and International media (Sánchez 2018, Álvarez 2018, Povoledo et al. 2018). During the weeks preceding and following this day, female problems and revindications were also given visibility and voice, more than ever before. This public voice of denounce of the existing unfair gap between women and men at social, economic,
and political levels, and the massive declaration of non-acceptance, have been the result of a very long battle, which many females and some males had been fighting for many decades.

At legal level, the recognition of the need for an effective equality was embodied in 2007 within the Spanish Organic Law No 3/2007 for the effective equality of women and men (based on two European Directives: 76/207/CEE (no longer in force) and 2004/113/CE). Before that, the Basque Government had already published the Law 4/2005 (CIC nanoGUNE is in the Basque region), for the equality between women and men. Despite the formal full recognition of the equality between women and men by law, the tangible results so far have been insufficient.

Today, Spanish females face inequalities and problems in their day to day life related to gender which are perpetuating a model of unfair society. These issues encompass sexist violence, gender bias in the labour market, invisibility of the female figure within society, lack of recognition of the importance of the traditional domestic and caring role carry out by females, and education in stereotypes.

Females suffer from gender bias in the labour market, which is the subjacent reason for which salary and pension gaps, worse working conditions (precariousness), bias in selection processes, inequalities for conciliation, glass ceiling in management and decision-making among others still exist. The latter three groups, in which the existing problems in the labour market have been classified, feed, in turn, the salary and pension gaps and the worse working conditions. Considering the trend of the existing data, it has been assured that the equality at work would not be reached until 2088 (Hernández 2018).

More specifically, there is a clear salary gap between men and women, which affects directly women’s unemployment benefits and pension. According to Eurostat, in Spain, the salary gap per worked hour is of 14.2 %, against an annual salary gap of 23% (EUROSTAT 2018) (Bolaños 2018). However, other sources have reflected a harsher reality. Females are experiencing an average annual salary gap of at least 30%, and a pension gap of at least 37% (Hernández 2018). Within the public sector, the annual salary gap is smoothed to 12.3 % (Requena Aguilar 2013), implying that in the private sector this gap is probably above 30 %. The plot also changes when considering the average salary against the age range: the gap increases progressively as the employees become older. According to the General Workers Union (UGT, acronym in Spanish), at the age range below 25, the gap is approximately of 20 %, and above 55, the figure rises to 33% (Larrañeta 2018). According to a study made by Gestha5, the salary gap can be above 50 % when considering employees who are 65 (Hernández 2018). Moreover, while the salary income of males keeps rising monotonically with age until retirement, the upward progression of the salary of females saturates in the age range of 35-44 (Flotats 2017).

According to the National Institute of Statistics, the percentage of worker females with a temporary job is slightly larger than that of worker males: 26.4 % against 25.7 %, respectively. Curiously, the salary gap for temporary jobs is significantly smaller than that for fixed-term contracts. Conversely, 75 % of the part time jobs in Spain are occupied by females. The same body concludes that 24 % of the overall female employments are part time, against 8 % in the case of males. But, what are the reasons for females working part time? According to the National Institute of Statistics, 62 % of females do not find a full-time job and 13.5% of them have to take care of dependent members within their family, such as children, ill adults, disable members and/or their elderly people.

The cultural and working conditions in Spain make difficult to conciliate personal/family and working life for both females and males, especially for females. The family domestic and caring role within the society is still assigned to females, i.e. there is clear lack of a culture of co-responsibility in the Spanish Society at all levels. According to the National Institute of Statistics, 6.7 % of females are not working owing to caring responsibilities, against 0.6 % in the case of males, and 22.6 % of females have reduced their working

5Salary gap and glass ceiling study presented by the Tax Office Technical Employees (Gestha) elaborated with data corresponding to the year 2016 of the Spanish Tax Agency.
time to take care of their family against 3.44% of males. Moreover, only 55% of females return to their employment after being mothers, whereas 100% of males, who became fathers, do return to work, as assured by the “Spanish Platform for equal and transferable permits for birth and adoption (PPIiNA)”.

But there is more to it. According to the study Spanish Gender Gap, published by the Spanish Foundation of Studies of Apply Economy (Fedea) (Conde-Ruiz, J. I.; Marra de Artiñano, I. 2016), females reduce their working time or even stop working to take care of domestic tasks and family members because their salary prospects and prospects in general are usually worse than those of their male partners. By the Spanish Organic Law No 3/2007, males are entitled to reduce their working time, or ask for paternity leave. However, the existence of “mandatory” paternity leaves and/or permits, etc., which could work towards equality and non-female discrimination caused by this role, are very much promoted and incentivised neither within organisations nor by law.

A “crystal clear” glass ceiling exists for females at work. Management and decision-making positions in companies and institutions are mainly occupied by males. This trend persists even though gender balance has been proven to be very positive for the profitability of organisations.

Other facts that aggravate Spanish female’s situation are: (i) female invisibility within the society, and (ii) a strong culture of stereotypes and education based on gender roles which is feeding a stereotype of submissive, caring and sexual/beauty female model perpetuating an unfair, unreal and unbalanced society.

In the specific arena of science and technology, all the above problems add to the career of a female researcher, which is already complicated not only in Spain but worldwide. The organisational structure of the (scientific) research and innovation sector is such that each position in the ladder is intimately related to the “age” of the researcher. As the professional grows older, (scientific) researchers have to inevitably occupy positions of increased responsibility, which also become less abundant in number, and hence more competitive and difficult to achieve.

This picture aggravates even more the situation for female scientific researchers (which adds more to the overall national context). For them, career progression becomes even more tedious and complicated, because on top of the competition issue, gender biases and inequalities also persist, especially in the field of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) (read SHE Figures 2015).

The salary of a post-doc is better than the average Spanish worker but there is lack of prospects and a large uncertainty (both regarding professional and personal stability which is caused by the mobility nature of research jobs). Moreover, the competitive environment makes female/male young researchers to commit hours of their spare time to work in the quest for professional merits, making even more difficult to conciliate.

Several institutions and initiatives in Spain on both national and regional levels strive to change the existing state of affairs in the field of research and innovation: e.g. Emakunde (Basque Institute of Women – transversal approach), CERCA (Institution for the Research Centres in Catalunya), AMIT (Spanish Association of Women Researchers and Technologists), FECYT (Spanish Foundation for Science and Technology).

The unfavourable labour market and social barriers for females (which adds to the economic crisis and unstable and precarious job situation for most employees) is having serious consequences for the Spanish Society. According to the National Institute of Statistics, in 2015, the Spanish birth rate was of 9.02 birth per 1000 inhabitants. Moreover, elderly and dependent people are “abandoned” by their family. As generally, males do not assume their domestic and caring duties, and females cannot renounce to earn a salary. The reason for the latter is, at least, two-fold: (i) females cannot renounce to have economic independence to ensure being free individuals, (ii) it is impossible for most couples/families to subsist
with only one salary. If the conciliation problem is not soon addressed, it is going to have dramatic consequences for the future of the Spanish society.

Spanish females are empowering themselves thanks to their integration in the labour market. Their presence in different social/economic/political sectors and their financial independence are allowing the visibility of all the existing problems and barriers female suffer owing to gender bias and inequalities. Thankfully, some males are also aware of the disadvantages and unfair treatment that females are experiencing and want to contribute to a change within the society. A large portion of Spanish society is, finally, jointly and strongly demanding a paradigm shift towards a more respectful and balance society through the defence of feminism. Their demands also cover the needs and problems of other unprotected collectives such as children, elderly and dependent people, immigrants and also lesbians, gays, transsexuals, etc.

4.2.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives


4.2.3 CIC nanoGUNE

NanoGUNE is a research center with the mission of performing nanoscience research for the competitive growth of the Basque Country. It bases its innovation capacity on a technology transfer model able to drive knowledge and technology into the market.

4.2.4 CIC nanoGUNE GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supporting women’s research career and excellence</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised gap in participation of females in the research and higher education sector. Women’s career progression is tedious and complicated, because on top of the competition issue, gender biases and inequalities persist, especially in the field of STEM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised issue of impossibility of females (but also males) in Spain to balance their professional and private life. Having in mind how important this issue is in the Spanish society in general, this target is set as a prerequisite for a successful career of female researchers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising awareness of gender equality</td>
<td>In Spain, there is a strong culture of stereotypes and education based on gender roles which is perpetuating a model of unfair and unbalance society. Occurrences of micro-sexisms, harassment, and abuses (psychological, physical) are also significant. This target area directly addresses these issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap in management and decision-making bodies</td>
<td>This target area addresses recognised existence of “glass ceiling” for women in the Spanish research and higher education sector, which persists within the institution despite the benefits of gender balanced in decision-making and high management structures are known.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 ISRAEL

4.3.1 The National Context

The issue of equality of women and men has occupied important space in the Israeli legislation and politics for several decades already. The 13th Israeli Parliament (Knesset) established the Committee for the Advancement of the Status of Women in 1992. The Committee's work, as defined in the Knesset bylaws, was to advance the status of women with the goal of achieving equal representation in education and personal status, preventing discrimination in any area based on gender or sexual tendencies, reducing economic and employment-related gaps, and combating violence against women. In 1993, the Knesset amended the Government Companies Law, 1975 to require an "appropriate expression" of representation by men and women on boards of directors of the government-owned companies. This amendment (No. 6) charged government ministers with making appointments, where necessary, to achieve this goal immediately. In 1995, the State Service Law (Appointments), was amended to stipulate that for all employees in government service jobs, at every rank and in every profession, there must be "fair representation" of both men and women. The amendment also allowed the establishment of affirmative action programmes. Following recommendations by a committee headed by Prof Ruth Ben-Israel, which monitored implementation of the amendment, the Department for the Advancement and Integration of Women in the Civil Service was established in order to ensure adherence to the principle of fair representation. The Department's responsibilities include developing a working plan for fair representation of women in the spirit of the Supreme Court judgment, advising persons responsible for the status of women within government ministries and guiding their activities, and handling women's complaints of discrimination and sexual harassment. Persons responsible for the advancement and integration of women in government jobs are charged with raising awareness of female employees about laws, regulations, and procedures dealing with the status and rights of women.

The Authority for the Advancement of the Status of Women was established, by law, in the Prime Minister's Office in 1998 to "advance the status of women in Israel and coordinate between governmental and non-governmental bodies acting to promote the status of women." The law granted the Authority the power to monitor the activities of government ministries in areas under their jurisdiction and to require them to operate in accordance with policies approved by the government. In addition, the Authority took on the task of raising public awareness about its activities through the media, the education system, and direct community activities.

Despite of the described measures and initiatives, Israel has one of the highest gender salary gaps in the Western world, with full-time female workers earning on average 35% less than their male peers, according to 2017 figures made available by the Central Bureau of Statistics, down from 68% in 2016. And in the high-tech field, a main force in the Israeli economy and where the salaries are higher than average, the gap widens to 45 percent.6

The most substantial factor for this disparity, according to the Taub Center for Social Policy Studies in Israelis that women on average work fewer hours than men in part because they are still considered main caregivers for children and elderly parents. Another key factor, according to the report is “that women are more likely to be employed in lower-wage occupations and industries” (Fuchs 2017).

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6http://nocamels.com/2018/03/women-power-israel-initiatives/
Gender discrimination in public service in Israel is widespread, says a report published in 2014 by the state comptroller. Women face gender discrimination in senior positions in government ministries, hospitals, government-owned corporations, statuary corporations, universities and other public entities, the report showed. Public service in Israel and those who stand at its helm (who are mostly men) have failed to implement the fundamental principle of equality between both sexes. In 2011, 64 percent of women served in the public service, but the upper ranks of positions were male-dominated, with 32-34% of women in the highest rank, 36% in the second rank and 39% in the third rank (Druckman 2014).

In many areas it is claimed that the status of women in Israel is inferior to that of men. Such as the denial of women’s service in certain positions in the Israeli Defence Forces, salary gaps between women and men, discrimination in hiring and the existence of an alleged "glass ceiling" that prevents the advancement of women to senior positions. The destruction of billboards and advertisements with pictures of women because they violate the boundaries of modesty and the exclusion of women on religious grounds, including verbal and physical violence in an attempt to enforce this exclusion.

One area in which women are excluded to an extreme degree is the military. Although Israeli women are required, by law, to perform military service, there is no equality between men and women, neither during their term of mandatory service nor as professional officers. In 2000, the Knesset took significant steps to ban gender discrimination in the IDF by passing Amendment 11 ("Equality in Service") to the Military Service Law. The amendment grants full equality to women in fulfilling their military service, with one qualification: the military is permitted to refuse to appoint a woman to a military role if demanded by the nature and characteristics of that particular role. The road to this pioneering legislation was paved by the reservist Alice Miller, who petitioned the Supreme Court in 1994 to order the IDF to permit women to take the entrance exam for the Air Force pilots’ course. Following the Court’s acceptance of the petition, the IDF opened the course to women and gradually began to consider opening the gates to other military professions that had never accepted women to their ranks. Efforts to achieve gender equality in the military, begun 15 years ago, have translated into a multi-year plan, "On the Basis of Substance, Not Gender," which aims to integrate women into military positions from which they have been excluded for many years (Schafferman 2008).

Women in Israel, on the other hand, are entitled to benefits and affirmative action by virtue of laws relating to the fields of work, social security and military service.

In 2000, Israeli government created the Council for the Advancement of Women in Science and Technology with the aim to help women advance in these fields. In 2003, the Council reported that women constituted only 25% of all graduates completing degrees in the hard sciences, 24% of all senior academic staff in Israel’s higher-education sector and 29% of all technology industry workers.7

There is a significant gender gap with regards to women holding senior positions in Israeli academia, according to a report released by the National Authority for the Advancement of Women. The authority gathered information regarding membership for the Board of Trustees of universities and academic colleges throughout the country. According to the findings, only 22 percent of women hold positions on the board at higher education institutions, compared to 78% of men.

The Ministry of Science and Technology continues in 2018 the scholarship programme for female students studying for a doctorate in higher education institutions in Israel, but in a different format. The goal of the program is to increase the number of women engaged in science and technology, exact sciences and engineering - areas in which the representation of women is low or insufficiently budgeted.

For the first time the scholarships are designed to assist female doctoral students. The goal of the program is to grant scholarships to students who are in their final year of first degree studies or to

students who are in their first year of graduate studies and who are planning to enrol in the "direct doctoral track" in the fields of engineering and exact sciences in institutions recognised for higher education in Israel.

### 4.3.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- The Law for Discharged Soldiers, 1949
- Women's Equal Rights Law, 1951
- Law of Hours of Work and Rest, 1951
- Women's Labour Law, 1954
- The Civil Service Law (appointments), 1959
- The Employment Service Law, 1959
- Government Companies Law, 1975
- Equal Employment Opportunity in the workforce Law, 1988
- Equal Pay for Men and Women, 1996
- Protection of Workers Law, 1997
- The Law for the Prevention of Sexual Harassment, 1998
- Strategic Plan 2014-2016: Deepening the enforcement of equality law; Enabling inclusion in the labour market; Deploying expertise to inform policy and practice; Making it work (being effective and efficient)\(^8\)

### 4.3.3 MIGAL

MIGAL Galilee Research Institute Ltd. is a private applied research institute. The research at MIGAL is highly interdisciplinary and specialised in the areas of Agrotechnology, Environmental Sciences, Agriculture, nutrition science and Biotechnology. As a leading institute for applied research, MIGAL aims to strengthen and promote scientific innovation and spur economic growth.

### 4.3.4 MIGAL GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance to the ongoing efforts to help women in Israel not only to enter the fields of research and higher education, but also to remain there.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting women’s research career and excellence</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised gap in participation of women in the research and higher education sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap for researchers</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised gender disbalance in the Israeli labour market in general, and also in the research and higher education sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>This target is set as a prerequisite for a successful career of Israeli female researchers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap in promotion committees</td>
<td>The target is in accordance to the recognised need to increase the percentage of senior female researchers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^8\) [http://www.iataskforce.org/governments/view/20](http://www.iataskforce.org/governments/view/20)
4.4 Cyprus

4.4.1 The National Context

In recent decades, a significant number of legislative measures related to gender equality have been adopted and several institutions have been established to promote and enhance gender equality across the island. The National Machinery for Women’s Rights (NMWR) under the Ministry of Justice and Public Order, the Office of the Commissioner for Administration and Protection of Human Rights (Ombudsman), the Cyprus Anti-discrimination Body and the Equality Authority and finally, the Gender Equality Committee of the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance constitute the main exemplary bodies towards this direction. Simultaneously, several Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) as well as NGOs working in the field of promoting and safeguarding gender equality rights have been established throughout the recent years. As example consider, the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies and the Cyprus Gender Equality Observatory.

The employment and participation in the labour market rates in Cyprus are relatively high. This also applies to the participation of women in the labour market. Nevertheless, there are still significant gender gaps in labour market participation. As evident at the Policy on Gender Equality in Cyprus (2012), a document that concisely reviews gender equality legislation and policy developments in Cyprus, there is a significant - gender pay gap of over 23% along with gender segregation in employment according to which women remain concentrated in the lower paid sectors such as health, education, and domestic work. They also often interrupt their careers in order to raise children and have difficulties re-entering labour market. Consequently, women receive lower pensions, and are more dependent on social benefits.

Insufficient provision of high quality and affordable childcare facilities is a major obstacle that prohibits the potential increase of labour market participation for women. This obstacle has been acknowledged and actions to further frame it as a policy issue has been relatively recently put in place, mainly encouraged by the EU because of its emphasis on the work-life balance. On the other hand, however, flexible forms of employment are not particularly widespread.

There is an increase of women who actively take part in politics, but women remain underrepresented in high position in politics and the judiciary system (Pavlou 2015). Gender stereotypes prevalent in the Cypriot society pose main obstacles for making essential changes in gender equality.

The report on Gender equality in Cyprus (2012) states that “although on paper Cyprus’ gender policies seem excellent, little has been done to actively promote these policies and generate awareness such as disseminate information to citizens relating to this new legislation or provide information and training to employers, policy makers, and decision-makers to effectively implement these measures.” The needs to effectively implement adopted legislation and to raise awareness of citizens about available mechanisms to balance work and family life through appropriate training remain relevant points in the current social situation as well. Steps towards the smooth tackling of the above-mentioned issues have been taken through the enactment of the Strategic Plan on Gender Equality 2014–2017 which was introduced in 2014 covering a period of three years. The plan has set out the following six priorities: a) institutional reform for the effective implementation of gender equality; b) law reform/improvement of the legislative framework; c) balanced participation of women and men in public and political life; d) combating all forms of violence against women; e) economic empowerment of women; and f) elimination of gender
stereotypes and actions to promote gender equality as well as to monitor and evaluate their implementation have been proposed. To facilitate its implementation, six committees have been established (e.g. equal participation, economic empowerment, eliminating gender stereotypes) which encouraged and strengthened the active participation of Women’s and other NGOs organisations in them.

4.4.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- In 2006, the Committee on Equal Opportunities for Men and Women was created within the Parliament of the Republic of Cyprus with a predominant goal to monitor the policies and actions related to the provision of equal opportunities between men and women.
- In 2007, the Ministry of Labor and Social Insurance launched a study to identify causes for gender pay gap and in 2010 a project entitled “Actions for Reducing the Gender Pay Gap” coordinated by the Department of Labour Relations of the Ministry was initiated aiming at combating the root factors which create and further sustain the gender pay gap in Cyprus.
- The National Action Plan on Equality between Women and Men (2007-2013) that aims to define specific actions to promote gender equality through Ministries, NGOs and other organizations.
- Strategic Plan on Gender Equality 2014–2017 (in Greek)\(^9\): The Plan was introduced in 2014 by the National Machinery for Women's Rights (NMWR) under the Ministry of Justice and Public Order.
- The Parental Leave and Leave on Grounds of Force Majeure Law, 2012, (L. 47(I)/2012) (in Greek). This legislation was enacted in 2012 and entitles men and women workers to an individual right to parental leave on the grounds of the birth or adoption of a child to take care of that child for a period of up to 18 weeks.
- The Maternity Protection (Amendment) (No. 2) Law, (N. 20(I)/2018) (in Greek)\(^10\). This national law was introduced in 1997 to provide the grounds on the maternity protection according to which a woman worker is entitled to a maternity leave of 18 consecutive weeks.
- The Protection of Paternity Law, (N. 117(I)/2017) (in Greek)\(^11\). This national law was introduced in 2017 and provides fathers workers (including those adopting a child up to age 12) with two consecutive weeks of paid leave.

4.4.3 CNTI

CNTI (Cyprus Neuroscience and Technology Institute) is a research, non-profit, non-governmental, non-partisan independent organisation active in programs with future orientation in areas related to human brain-modern technology-social transformation and the repercussions of relevant research for humanity.

4.4.4 CNTI GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>This targeted area addresses recognised obstacles women face in reconciliation of work and private life. These obstacles have been acknowledged and actions to frame policies to overcome them have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^10\)http://www.mlsi.gov.cy/mlsi/dlr/dlr.nsf/All/3340CD79635C486C2257A0C0038E318/$file/Γονική%20Άδεια%202012.pdf?OpenElement
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap in decision-making bodies</td>
<td>The need to reduce gender gap in the decision making bodies was recognised in the National Action Plan on Gender Equality and in particular under its chapter on the “Balanced Participation of Women and Men in Political/Social and Economic life”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing gender gap among researchers</td>
<td>This target area corresponds with the priority “economic empowerment of women” of the National Action Plan on Gender Equality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving use of gender neutral language in organization’s documents</td>
<td>This target area corresponds with the priority to eliminate gender stereotypes of the National Action Plan on Gender Equality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5 SLOVENIA

#### 4.5.1 The National Context

Women in Slovenia have ‘traditionally’ high labour market participation rates: in 2016, 66% of women were employed. However, it is still lower than the general participation rate of men, which was 74% in 2016 (*Report on equality between women and men in the EU, 2017*, 10).

The percentage of the part-time employment is 9,7%, which is significantly below EU-27 average (17,6%). In the case of number of women working part-time, Slovenia shows tendency of slight increasing in percentage from 13% in 2014 to 13.5% in 2017 yet still far beyond EU average (26,8%). The discrepancy is particularly visible in the percentage of part-time employed women with two children aged less than 6 years, which is 17,1% against the EU average of 41,5% (EUROSTAT 2018). In the research and higher education sector, 4,1% of women and 7,2% work part-time, which is significantly below the EU average (13,5% of women and 8,5% of men) (SHF Figures 2015, p. 102). One of the important reasons for that is the fact that Slovenia provides a rather encompassing system of childcare facilities. According to OECD data (2014), 40,3% of all children younger than 2 years attend childcare facilities while proportion of children aged 3-5 enrolled in pre-primary education is 87,2%. Both figures are clearly above the EU-average of 34,4% and 85% respectively.

Women are underrepresented in decision-making positions. Whereas the share of women on boards (15%) is higher than the EU-average (14%), the share of women in the national government stands at 8%, which is far below the EU-average (26%). The gender pay gap in Slovenia is well below the EU-27 average. In Slovenia, women earned 4,4% less than men in 2010 (EU-27: 16,4%) (*Černič Istenič et al. 2015, 186*) while this percentage has gradually increased to 7,8% in 2016 (EU-27 16,2%) (EUROSTAT 2016).

Despite ensured formal equality, the issue of equal opportunities of men and women in research and higher education in Slovenia remains highly relevant. They are particularly addressed by the Commission on Equal Opportunities in Science (previously Commission on Women in Science) at the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, which was founded in 2001, following the recommendation of the Helsinki Group on Women and Science. There are also professional associations that specifically target women scientists. For example, Alpha section, a Slovenian member of the international association of Women in Nuclear Science, unites women in this professional domain. Informal Network of Female Physicists exists in Slovenia since 2002. They have been active in the promotion of physics to young girls, and they have also organised a travelling poster exhibition ‘Slovenian Females in Physics’ and have produced a
monograph on female physicists in Slovenia. The Slovenian section of IEEE WIE (Women in Engineering and Science) was founded in November 2013. Society of mathematicians and physics of Slovenia, obtains Committee on women.

Statistical data show that in Slovenia in 2013 the number of women is overcoming the number of men at bachelor, master and doctoral studies (Arsenjuk in Vidmar, 2015). Women are 64% of all students enrolled in the master studies. 2015 SHE figures indicate that 50% of women are PhD graduates. However, women are still mostly represented in the traditional “female fields” – education (between 83 and 93%), medicine and social work (between 78 in 81%), social sciences, humanities and arts (between 63 and 76%). According to the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, the lowest number of women is in science and technology (27–28%).

As regards to the academic profession, in 2012, the percentage of female scientists in Slovenia was 35.8%, which is above EU-27 average (33%) (SHE Figures 2015, p. 22). According to the Resolution on the Research and Innovation Strategy 2011-2020 (further Resolution on Research), the number of young female researchers involved in the program of Young researchers (age under 34) is gradually increasing, which proves tendencies of increasing representations of women in science and research in Slovenia.

As regards to the policy referring directly to improvement of female researchers’ position, Slovenian Research Agency in its rules for (co)financing basic, applicative and postdoctoral projects, which are in use since 2005, have recognised the significance of maternity/parental leave as a factor that might have an impact on the five-year research history required from a project leader candidate. Accordingly, this period has been extended. Additionally, the age limit (35 years) of a candidate for a postdoctoral project can be raised for the period of parental/maternity leave. The same applies for the age limit (28 years) for candidates for the Young Researcher Programme, a framework of support for excellent PhD candidates to start their research career.

However, with regard to inequalities in the domain of research and innovation in Slovenia, statistics that pertain to the gender compositions of heads of research programme groups are quite illustrative. In April 2014, 242 heads of programme groups were men and 64 were women (20.9%). In addition, the gender composition of the recipients of Zois’ awards—the most prestigious scientific awards in Slovenia—is indicative – since 2000 only one woman has received the highest award for life achievements. The most awards—72%—were awarded in natural and technical sciences, where women are typically underrepresented. The share of women on boards that have an influence on the allocation of funding is, according to the European Commission, below the EU-27 average – 23% (Umek Venturini 2013, 16).

It is a stated strategy of the Republic of Slovenia to foster and support creation of gender equality plans in the research performing organisations (e.g. Slovenian ERA Roadmap, priority area 3.5). However, this strategy is rather declarative, since there are no mechanisms of incentives through which Ministry of education would actually support establishment of GEPs in academic institutions, such as those set out, for instance, by the Athena SWAN Charter in the UK. It seems that strategy to support GEP at academic institutions, was rather a left-over of the initial more ambitious (declarative) commitments set out by the parliamentary resolutions.

Resolution on Research envisioned that Ministry of education and Ministry of economy would create an ‘Action plan for improving career opportunities for researchers at all career stages and ensuring principle of gender equality’ which would include legislative changes (chapter 4.1, goal 5)\(^\text{12}\). Bearing in mind this commitment the subsequent Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men 2015-2020 (further Resolution on Equal Opportunities) stated that the mentioned Action plan

\(^{12}\)In addition, the Action plan would cover activities promoting women in science, gender balance in the constitution of working bodies in charge of Ministry of education, and giving attention to the role of gender in research and teaching.
would lay out needed structural changes through adoption of “programmes for fostering gender equality in research-funding and research-performing organisations” (chapter 2.3.1). Concretely, this resolution sets the aim to increase participation of women in science and academia, and improve their position, by adoption of guidelines and strategies for removing barriers in academic carriers of women (chapter 2.3.2, sub-chapter II).

However, the mentioned Action plan was never adopted and no coherent policy change pertinent to this issue took place. Instead, the subsequent Slovenian ERA Roadmap mentions the namesake Action plan as something that research organisations are supposed to enact (goal 17, p. 19). Therefore, the legislative burden has been shifted from government’s responsibility to the responsibility of research performing organisations. The goal vaguely gives the impression that (in accordance with the Resolution on Research) there should be changes in legal framework pertinent to science funding which would include in the evaluation of an academic institution the requirement to adopt gender equality actions plans.

Nevertheless, no change in legal framework is stated under the list of actions planned for achieving this goal. In addition, it seems as if the Slovenian ERA Roadmap uses interchangeably the title ‘Action plan for improving of career opportunities for researchers at all career stages and ensuring principle of gender equality’ and the title ‘Gender equality plan’. This obliterates the responsibility of Slovenian government to take structural legislative and policy changes that would make academic environment genuinely more supportive for careers of women. This is also clandestine shift from the commitments stated in the two mentioned parliamentary resolutions. Therefore, the academic institutions are declaratively “supported” to adopt gender equality plans, but this is not reflected in any policy stimulus (such as additional funding) nor is set as sanctioned requirement (e.g. necessary requirement in the process of accreditation). The ‘burden’ of creating gender equality plans is put on the academic institutions, without clear guidelines how the institutions would ‘profit’ from adopting such plans.

In regard of gender in the content of research, the Resolution on Equal Opportunities sets out goal of increasing number of scientific studies on gender equality (chapter 2.3.2, sub-chapter III). It envisions that measures would be taken in order to support research on gender equality and include gender perspective in relevant scholar analysis. Furthermore, the Slovenian ERA Roadmap envisions that actions would be taken, which would support research projects in the field of gender equality, as well as implement principle of gender equality in the content of the financed research projects and programmes. However, the last competition for the research projects issued by the Slovenian Research Agency (ARRS), as the main mechanism of financing research in Slovenia, did not include principle of gender equality in its evaluation process: gender balance of research teams was not evaluated per se,
and (non)existence of gender-sensitive content was not taken into account in the evaluation process. The projects which did include principles of gender equality got no incentive in the selection process.

While the Resolution on Equal Opportunities includes as the indicator for its fulfilment the number of financed studies on gender equality (as well as those including gender perspective), the more concrete policy document – Slovenian ERA Roadmap – does not include such indicators. The official results on the projects awarded by the ARRS also do not provide statistics on such projects, nor is there any evidence they are numbering projects that apply the gender equality principle. This means that there is no way of measuring successfulness of gender mainstreaming in research, that is declaratively stated in the parliamentary resolution. Therefore, the existing policies are not fulfilling declared policy strategies, but the GEP envisioned by the ZRC SAZU is in accordance with the aims envisioned by these strategies (concretely GEP target areas: promoting excellence of female academics; and raising awareness on gender equality in research).

The target area of ZRC SAZU’s gender equality plan dealing with work-life balance also follows one of the goals set out by the Resolution on Research dedicated to improving career opportunities for researchers and including principle of gender equality, which aims at providing social security of the researchers and working environment supportive for career advancement (chapter 4.1, goal 5). Finally, the Resolution on Equal Opportunities sets the goal of increasing gender-sensitive use of language in legal, political and educational acts, through support of usage of both masculine and feminine grammatical and lexical forms (chapter 2.3.2, sub-chapter V). It is noteworthy that in June 2018, two leading academic institutions in Slovenia – Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Social Sciences, at the University of Ljubljana – have adopted statutory amendments by which legal acts of these institutions will use feminine grammar form as a generic form (in contrast to the present practice of using masculine form as a generic one), in all formal acts in future three years. The aim is to eventually balance out the number of documents using male and female grammar forms as generic ones. These changes have stirred up considerable public debate, facing both support and opposition from various public intellectuals. In this public environment, ZRC SAZU sets out to improve gender neutrality and sensitivity in its internal documents, as the last GEP target area.

4.5.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- Equal Opportunities for Woman and Men Act, 2002
- Protection Against Discrimination Act, 2016
- Decree regulating the criteria for implementation of the principle of balanced representation of women and men, 2004
- Ministry of labour, family, social affairs and equal opportunities, as of 2018: Rules on insurance for parental leave and associated rights
- Government of the Republic of Slovenia, 2014: Report on the implementation of the Beijing declaration and platform for action (1995) and the conclusions of the 23rd Special session of the
### General Assembly (2000) on the occasion of 20th anniversary of the fourth conference on women and the adoption of the Beijing declaration and platform for action in 2015

- Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men 2015-2020, 2015
- Ministry of education, research and sport, 2016: Slovenian ERA Roadmap

### 4.5.3 ZRC SAZU

The Research Centre of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts (ZRC SAZU) is the leading research and educational centres in Slovenia, and is completely comparable with the most prominent academic institutions in central and southeast Europe.

More than three hundred research associates are organised into eighteen independent but coordinated and interconnected institutes. Work at ZRC SAZU is distinctly interdisciplinary and based on cooperation, complementation, and synergy. The diverse research areas can be summed up in the study of cultural, social, and natural phenomena, processes, and practices. The results are visible not only in research and discussion articles, as well as general-interest publications, but also documentaries, promotional films, maps, CDs, posters, exhibitions, and websites.

### 4.5.4 ZRC SAZU GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>The Young Researcher Programme scheme aims to support both excellent PhD students to start their academic career in a research institution, and successful researchers from these institutions to mentor PhD candidates. However, there are no developed strategies and tools that would help young PhDs to survive in highly competitive academic labour market, which is particularly unfriendly to young female researchers. This target is directed towards changing the traditional conception of mentoring, which is limited to pedagogical work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>Target area follows one of the goals set out by the Resolution on Research dedicated to improving career opportunities for researchers and including principle of gender equality, which aims at providing social security of the researchers and working environment supportive for career advancement. We start from the fact that Slovenian legislation enables high degree gender equality and possibility to balance work and private life, but we are also aware of the importance of organisational and everyday life.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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25 [Resolucija o raziskovalni in inovacijski strategiji Slovenije 2011-2020,](http://pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=RESO68)

26 [Resolucija o nacionalnem programu za enake možnosti ženskih in moških 2015-2020,](http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=RESO108)
### GEP target area | Evaluation against national guidelines
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institutional culture for position of female researchers and the way their academic career is shaped. | **Promoting excellence of female academics**

Resolution on Equal Opportunities and Slovenian ERA Roadmap as key strategic documents acknowledge the necessity to promote and support excellence of female researchers, but without clearly set mechanisms to measure the improvement. This GEP target thus sets the context for concrete changes in this area.

Resolution on Equal Opportunities and Slovenian ERA Roadmap as key strategic documents acknowledge the necessity for gender mainstreaming and raising awareness of gender equality in research, but without clearly set mechanisms to measure the improvement. This GEP target thus sets the context for concrete changes in this area.

The Resolution on Equal Opportunities sets the goal of increasing gender-sensitive use of language in legal, political and educational acts, through support of usage of both masculine and feminine grammatical and lexical forms.

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### 4.6 TUNISIA

#### 4.6.1 The National Context

Tunisia has always been considered as one of the most advanced Arab countries in terms of women's rights thanks to a family code promulgated in 1956, followed by the amendment of the labour codes, the penal code and nationality; these legal regulations have strengthened the rights of women in Tunisia.

In the pre-independence period (-1956), the reform movement in Tunisia has raised the issue of women’s empowerment, particularly through education. Women’s organisations emerged, and debates on women’s position in the society developed. Women had also an important role in the liberation struggle and became involved in political actions.

The post-independence period (since 1956) was marked by the establishment of the foundations of the modern state and the construction of modern society. In this period, significant efforts were placed in order to improve women’s position. The publication of the Personal Status Code (August 13, 1956) represents the culmination of the legal reform movement. It guaranteed the fundamental rights of women and regulated organization of relations within the family. The June 1959 constitution enshrines the principle of equality between women and men. A set of legislative acts that approve the civil and political rights of women (such as the right to vote, education and employment ...) inevitably followed.

After January 14, 2011, the elaboration of the new Constitution confirmed the will of a fringe of the society to make access the woman to an equal status in democratic rights and freedoms, ensuring the foundations of human rights in Tunisia.

There are several organisations and governmental bodies active in the field of gender equality in Tunisia. The Centre for Research, Studies, Documentation and Information on Women (CREDIF) was created in 1990. It is considered as the scientific body of the SEFF, whose mission is to encourage studies and research on the role and status of women in the Tunisian society and collect data and documentation.
relating to the situation of women, as well as ensuring their dissemination and reporting on the evolution of the status of women in the Tunisian society to inform decision-makers about strategies and action plans to implement to reduce gender gaps and achieve gender equality. Furthermore, 15 women assume the responsibilities of gender focal points in SEFF’s ministerial partner departments. Effective interdepartmental collaboration is not yet institutionalised. Pilot experiments have been set up with the participation of 2-3 ministries, but they have had the duration of a program and are intended to conclude with a lack of capitalisation. The Peer Council for Equal Opportunities is established in 2016 by Government Decree No. 626-2016. As advisory body, its main mission is to integrate the social gender approach into development policies and plans in Tunisia (planning, programming, evaluation and budgeting) with the aim of eradicating all forms of discrimination between women and men and achieving equality in rights and obligations. It is also empowered to give its opinion on bills relating to women's rights.

The new Tunisian Constitution (January 2014), shows positive signs in defense of women's rights, with two articles in particular (articles 21 and 46) which rule on discrimination, equal opportunities in positions of responsibility and gender-based violence. A major challenge is the translation of constitutional principles into national laws that go hand in hand with the text of the Constitution. Even the favourable legal framework instituted by Bourguiba, the 1st Tunisian republic President, has sometimes been overlooked at grassroots level, and also by groups of more educated people and members of civil society.

Likewise, in spite of all legal regulations and efforts of governmental bodies, changes in women's rights in terms of access to education and maternal health have not translated into more meaningful integration of women into economic and political activities. International indices clearly show this gap. The major inequities that are revealed in international reports relate to the scarce presence of women in both the Parliament and the occupation of ministerial positions.

The institutional mechanisms for gender mainstreaming that have been implemented since the 1990s to deinstitutionalise the gender issue are relatively weak in terms of mandate and human and financial resources.

There are few initiatives such as the UNFPA and UN-Women informal gender group, and Coalition for Women of Tunisia, launched in 2012, which brings together nearly 30 women's rights NGOs as well as a more specific Gender, Agriculture and Rural Development group initiated by FAO-Tunisia. However, it is important to underline the lack of coordination between state parties and civil society, coupled with the absence of a mapping of intervention priorities by region, locality and sector. This situation does not favour a targeted intervention with a global and strategic vision to act effectively against inequalities. It is also noted that there is lack of coordination, networking and search for synergies on the gender issue.

### 4.6.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- In 1985, Tunisia the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), but with reservations which were repealed by decree-law, in August 2011. In April 2014, the lifting of Tunisia's reservations was officially notified to the Secretary General of the UN. The Optional Protocol to CEDAW was ratified by Tunisia in 2008.
- The new Tunisian Constitution (January 2014), shows positive signs in defense of women's rights, with two articles in particular (articles 21 and 46) which rule on discrimination, equal opportunities in positions of responsibility and gender-based violence.
- Decree No. 35 of 2011 dated 10 May 2011: The establishment of vertical alignment in the elections of the National Constituent Assembly (the circulation of names in the same list between men and women).
- Decree No. 103 for the year 2011 dated 24 October 2011 lifts reservations to the International Convention against Discrimination against Women.
- Basic Law No. 61 of 03 August 2016 (Special Protection of Women and Girls from Trafficking in Persons) for preventing and Combating Trafficking in Persons.
- Government Decree No. 626-2016 in 2016: establishment of The Peer Council for Equal Opportunities. As advisory body, its main mission is to integrate the social gender approach into development policies and plans in Tunisia with the aim of eradicating all forms of discrimination between women and men and achieve equality in rights and obligations.
- Horizontal Harmonization: Basic Law No. 7 of 14 February 2017 on Elections and Referendum (deliberation on the presidency of the list between men and women).
- Cancellation of leaflets concerning the Tunisian ban on marriage to non-Muslims on 8 November 2017.

### 4.6.3 ANPR

The National Agency for the Promotion of Scientific Research (ANPR) is a governmental agency whose primary mission is providing services to professionalise the management of research activities in partnership with the effective and equitable socio-economic operators. It plays a crucial role in interfacing and supporting research structures, the implementation of the valorisation process and transfer of research results.

The National agency for the promotion of scientific research (ANPR: [www.anpr.tn](http://www.anpr.tn)) was created in 2008 by the law n° 2008-60 dated on August the 4th, 2008 and amended by the law n° 2010-42 of 26th July 2010. Under the guardianship of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, ANPR has the status of scientific and technological public establishment with the administrative and financial autonomy.

ANPR is an interface structure between Research & Innovation stakeholders:

- **Research actors**: 22846 permanent teachers, 330 research laboratories, 300 research units, 40 research centers.
- **Socio-economic national actors**: sectorial ministries, horizontal departments, technical centers, technology parks, clusters, public & private companies, employer organizations, banks, business angels, civil society, diaspora.

Its primary mission is to support the emergence of the Tunisian National Innovation System:

- Contribution to the implementation of national research programs,
- Support the creation of transfer technology offices,
- Attending public structures in the fields of intellectual property, promoting the results of research and technology transfer,
- Contribution to the establishment and animation of research consortia,
- Financial management of research projects,
- Intermediation between research structures, companies and foreign partners,
- Disseminating mechanisms related to the valorization of research results, technology transfer and the promotion of innovation concept,
- The exploitation of results related to scientific and technological scouting,
• Opinion giving concerning the acquisition, the maintenance and the exploitation of scientific equipment.

4.6.4 ANPR GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing a Mentoring process</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised need to provide mechanisms for women’s better access to education, labour market, and economic and political spheres. It is also in accordance to institutional mechanisms for gender mainstreaming that have been implemented since the 1990s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raising awareness of gender bias in decision-making bodies (grant committees etc.)</td>
<td>This target area addresses recognised need to provide mechanisms for women’s better access to education and labour market, economic and political sphere, and to their insufficient presence in decision making bodies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising awareness of importance of gender perspective in research content and curricula and promoting female researchers’ excellence</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance to the main mission of the Peer Council for Equal Opportunities to integrate the social gender approach into development policies and plans in Tunisia with the aim of eradicating all forms of discrimination between women and men and achieve equality in rights and obligations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving gender-sensitive language in organisation’s documents</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance to the main mission of the Peer Council for Equal Opportunities to integrate the social gender approach into development policies and plans in Tunisia with the aim of eradicating all forms of discrimination between women and men and achieve equality in rights and obligations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>This target area addresses the need to facilitate the access of woman into an equal status in democratic rights and freedoms, which was also expressed in the 2014 constitution. It is also in accordance to the Peer Council for Equal Opportunities’ main mission to integrate the social gender approach into development policies and plans in Tunisia with the aim of eradicating all forms of discrimination between women and men and achieve equality in rights and obligations. On the other hand, achieving this target would be a step forward vis-à-vis the Labour Code and civil service law and its related regulatory texts.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

4.7 GREECE

4.7.1 The National Context

During the period of the accession to the EU, a number of legislative and policy measures have been adopted in Greece to promote gender equality. Family Law reform (1983) introduced significant improvements in the domain of gender equality (protection of family, introduction of civil wedding, abolition of legal institution of the dowry).
According to Article 22 of the 1975 Constitution ‘all workers, irrespective of sex or other distinction are entitled to equal pay for work of equal value’. In the 1980s, many legislative steps have been taken towards at least the creation of an officially fairer labour market. The contribution of EC membership in terms of employment policies has been very important; yet, direct discrimination has not been eradicated; and indirect discrimination has not been adequately addressed by institutions, employers or employees (according to the document The Policy of Gender Equality in Greece, 2013).27

Greek women’s labour participation has been characterised by concentration in traditionally ‘female’ occupations. Care for both children and the elderly family members is considered women’s responsibility. The provision of childcare facilities is insufficient, and women face obstacles when returning to the labour market after maternity leave. To overcome this issue, Law 4075/2012 established the right for parental leave of each parent to participate in the upbringing of the child until the age of 6.

The gender pay gaps in Greece had declined from about 35% in the 1970s to roughly 25-30% in the 1990s; in 2010, In Greece, the gender gap pay stands at 15.0% (the average gender pay gap in the EU is 16.3%) (source: EUROSTAT). This gap has been frequently attributed to discrimination as well as to educational choices of university graduates (women chose less prestigious and less paid professions). Moreover, women’s representation in top and decision-making position remains low.

Since 2009, the economic crisis and austerity negatively affected life quality and status of women in Greece, reversing positive effects of adopted legislative acts. Service provisions have been restructured and reduced. In 2011 a large number of full-time contracts were converted into flexible contract types and significant salary cuts and layoffs in the public sectors, affecting predominantly women. The pension system has changed as well, raising the retirement age for women to 65 (in 2013). Unemployment rates significantly rose: measured in full-time equivalent rates, in 2010 the employment rates for men and women were 77.8% and 47.2% respectively (source: OECD.Stat). Austerity intensified discrimination of women in the labour market and the impediment of their promotion and professional development (The Policy of Gender Equality in Greece, 2013).

The economic crisis experienced in Greece and the prolonged austerity policies implemented over the past 6 years have resulted in a dramatic drop in employment for both women and men. The policies implemented in the public sector (reduction of recruitments), legislation on the reduction of labor rights in the private sector (limiting the protection of employees from collective redundancies, reduction of overtime compensation, flexible working hours), but also the operation and the taxation of small and medium-sized enterprises and self-employed workers have had a significant impact on employment in the public sector (reduced entry and exit waves) but also in the private sector for the employees, the self-employed and the entrepreneurs.

These measures also have gender consequences as they have disproportionately affected women, young people and migrants, who are more concentrated than men in the lower part of the wage scale and in the secondary sector of work (Karamessini 2015: 261-2). At the same time, issues such as the gender salary gap and pension gap, the glass ceiling, the under-representation of women in specific sectors of the economy, persist as gender inequalities, which interact with the new social and economic conditions that emerged in the last six years.

In particular, the shrinkage of male employment, which can be seen as a reduction of gender inequalities in employment, neither meant improving the position of women in the workplace nor compensated the accumulated inequality and discrimination against women over the years. In particular, for the period of the economic crisis, as stated by Karamessini (2015), the female employment rate has fallen to such an extent that it has reached the corresponding rate of 1997, while the female unemployment rate has risen

to similar heights. It should be noted that the employment crisis affected mainly middle and high-educated women, who mainly worked in the public sector.

Most employed women have low paid and precarious jobs, often with little room for promotion, unable to develop professionally and educationally, socially stagnant and often unable to join collectives and organised activities, while they undertake large loads of family work and often are victims of domestic violence (GSGE 2015).

As a result, a large proportion of the female population experiencing gender discrimination is isolated, while high unemployment rates trap women into poverty, forcing them either to fall into a state of 'permanent poverty' or to be maintained by their friends or families without any professional way out and social perspective (GSGE 2015).

Along with the quantitative issues, there is also a qualitative difference, as women are mainly employed in sectors such as health services, social work or education, while men are more involved in construction, transport and information and communication technologies. Women entrepreneurs seem to focus primarily on consumer services, while only 19% of female entrepreneurship provides business services, with 14% focusing on manufacturing and around 5% working in the primary sector. Nevertheless, women entrepreneurs tend to have a slightly higher tendency than men to follow a strategy of extroversion, while in the period of crisis, businesses run by a female employer showed a higher resilience (Karamessini 2015).

There is also the issue of the gender pension gap which is related to the gender salary gap. Based on the study by Tinios P., Bettio F. and Betti G (2015), which draws data from EU-SILC 2012 on the incomes of 2011, the average gender gap in pensions of all EU Member States is 40%. Greece ranks eleventh among the EU Member States, with a pension gap of 23% at the age of 65-79.

In Greece, women aged over 65 who have access to a pension are less than men of the same age by 12 percentage points, a gap which is actually greater if widows’ pensions are deducted - this percentage also includes widows’ pensions, which in the case of women is higher than that of men. The gender gap in pensions is larger in the case of married women (28.4%) than women with a different family status (free, divorced, widows, 17.6%). This is directly related to the traditional gender roles within the household and the highest priority given by women to domestic work than to their career. In terms of income, the gender gap is greater in middle-income households than in poor households.

With regard to the conciliation of family and work life, the distribution of roles in the Greek family based mainly on the model of the “male breadwinner”, begun to be replaced in recent years by the model of dual-career families where both spouses are working. This model is now further eroded by the increase of households without any parent working or with only the mother working.

An important aspect of the reconciliation of work and family life is the status of maternity and parental leave permits for women and men, as well as respect for the legal protection of parenthood. With regard to the latter, during the crisis and in the context of the deregulation of the labor market, there has been an increase in violations of labor rights related to maternity protection.

According to the Ombudsman’s 2010-2011 and 2012 annual reports, it appears that the overwhelming majority of complaints about equal treatment at work relate to issues of maternity protection (dismissal or coercion into resignation, non-granting of maternity protection, adverse change in working conditions, etc.) (Karamessini, 2015). Employment conditions of this kind are dissuasive to women’s decision to have children or to enter the labor market in childbearing age.

Additionally, the Law does not protect all categories of employees in a uniform way. With regard to the public sector legislative framework, problems are identified for those working under a fixed-term private-law contract (a category involving a sufficient number of female employees in the public sector too, such
as substitute teachers, trainee doctors, the employees recruited through NSRF, the employees of the Private Law Entities and so on). The total maximum absence from work for this category of female employees is approximately 32 weeks. In addition, women working in social welfare programs are not subject either to labor law provisions or to provisions concerning public employee, hence, no facilitation is granted in respect of pregnancy, childbirth and child upbringing.

As regards private sector employees, the fact that the granting of part-time work under an equal period of time depends on the consent of the employer often leads to violation of the law. The GSGE has repeatedly received complaints from working mothers about the fact that the employer refuses to grant an equitable leave and at the same time violates the hours of the employees.

Finally, with regard to the status of self-employed persons, issues arise in relation to the amount of maternity allowance granted, as this could be considered to be insufficient in the light of the purpose of the provision (to allow for “temporary interruption of their profession on the grounds of pregnancy or maternity”). Secondly, it is noted that a significant number of typically self-employed women work on a single employer with a service voucher in conditions that are more similar to those of employees.

There are several governmental bodies in Greece active in the field of promotion of Gender Equality. The General Secretariat for Equality (GSGE) was set up in 1985, a Centre for Research on Equality Issues (KETHI) in 1989. In 2005, the Greek Ombudsman was designated as the national body to handle complaints with regard to discrimination.

The National Programme for Substantive Gender Equality 2010-2013 had the following strategic goals: a) to defend the rights of all women through promotion of gender equality and interventions targeting in particular women facing multiple discrimination; b) to prevent and fight all forms of violence against women; c) to support employment and economic independence of women; and d) to make use of cultural creativity for the purpose of promotion of gender equality.

The National Action Plan for Gender Equality 2016-2020 (NAPGE 2016-2020) was designed and is currently implemented by The General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE), aiming at the elimination of inequalities between women and men, taking into account the particular needs and conditions that emerged and shaped the field of gender equality at the time of the economic crisis. The NAPGE was formulated through a process of consultation with gender equality experts, and representatives of the civil society, the academia, politics and public administration. It is of national scope and the strategic objectives set for the new period are grouped into 6 Priority Axes, which are the following: 1. Social inclusion & Equal treatment of women suffering multiple discrimination; 2. Gender-based violence; 3. Labour market, family & work life balance; 4. Education, training, culture, sports & the media; 5. Health; and 6. Decision making centres.

One of the six Priority Axes is number 3 “Labour market, family & work life balance”, which has 3 main objectives relevant to the program: encouraging participation of women in the labour market, promoting the principle of equality in businesses and measures for the reconciliation of family and professional life (work-life balance). Furthermore, Priority Axe number 4 is referred to Education, training, culture, sports and the media and the first objective set is “Promoting gender equality in formal education, science and research”, which includes the following objectives: increasing the proportion of female researchers in the academic field by increasing the number of positions available and motivating women researchers; raising awareness within the academic and research community on gender equality; establishing gender equality offices within universities; combating sexual harassment within the academic community, and promoting women in decision-making centres within the academic community.

GSGE prepared a Guide for the Use of Gender Inclusive/Non-Sexist language in order to overcome linguistic sexism in public documents. The Guide is a specialised and easy to use tool in the first place for the recognition and understanding of linguistic sexism. It includes instructions, remarks,
recommendations, practical advice and specific proposals for the use of non-sexist language to promote and implement gender equality in administrative documents. It also includes sentences with alternative uses of words to prevent language sexism and attempts to revise terms, while referring to specific examples.

The Guide was sent by the Ministry of the Interior to the Directorates of Administration of Ministries and the Directorates of Administration of the Decentralised Administrations, as a circular.

4.7.2 Main legal documents and other GE related initiatives

- Law 1414/84 applies the principle of sex equality in employment relations, abolishes all forms of discrimination against women and differentiation between male and female jobs and creates opportunities for the integration of women in the labour market through participation in training programmes.
- Equal pay law (Article 22 of the 1975 Constitution).
- Law nr. 2839/2000 sets a mandatory 1/3 gender quota in the boards and collective bodies of the Greek central and local government. The compliance is being monitored by the GSGE.
- Law 3488/2006 promotes equal treatment between men and women in access to employment and in employment relations.
- Law nr. 3653/2008 provides for a mandatory 1/3 gender quota on researchers in the National Bodies of Research and Technology, provided that the candidates are qualified for the positions.
- The Istanbul Convention was recently ratified by the Greek Parliament.

4.7.3 GSGE

The General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE) is the governmental agency competent to plan, implement, and monitor the implementation of policies on equality between women and men in all sectors. The GSGE implements co-financed programmes and actions through the Coordination, Managing and Implementation Authority for co-funded actions of the Ministry of Interior.

4.7.4 GSGE GEP and Evaluation Against National Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target area</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raising awareness of gender equality within the Organisation</td>
<td>The target area is in accordance to The National Action Plan for Gender Equality 2016-2020, and more specifically to its Priority Axe number 4, which is referred to Education, training, culture, sports and the media. Its Objective 2 “Promoting Gender Equality in Lifelong Learning and Informal Education”, includes actions such as: “Train personnel of organisations that are crucial for the promotion of gender issues under an EKDDA certified programme”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>The target area is in accordance to The National Action Plan for Gender Equality 2016-2020, and more specifically to its Priority Axes number 3 “Labour market, family &amp; work life balance” which has three main objectives relevant to the program: encouraging participation of women in the labour market, promoting the principle</td>
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<tr>
<td>GEP target area</td>
<td>Evaluation against national guidelines</td>
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<td>of equality in businesses and measures for the reconciliation of family and professional life (work-life balance).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female staff career and excellence (enhancement &amp; promotion)</td>
<td>This target area addresses the recognised need to eliminate inequalities between women and men in the Greek society at the time of the economic crisis, as well as to actively support women take decision making roles and positions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of gender-sensitive language in organisation’s documents</td>
<td>This target area is in accordance to the existing efforts to overcome linguistic sexism in public documents (The Guide for the Use of Gender Inclusive/Non-Sexist Language).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 A SYNTHETIC AND COMPARATIVE OVERVIEW OF NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE AND CULTURAL CONTEXTS

5.1 NATIONAL CONTEXTS

The main purpose of the activities that resulted in this report was to obtain relevant information on and provide an analysis of the framework variables (cultural, legislative, political, economic) which may affect the gender equality related issues in each piloting partner’s organisation (UNISA, CIC NanoGUNE, MIGAL, CNTI, ZRC SAZU, ANPR, and GSGE) country (Italy, Spain, Israel, Cyprus, Slovenia, Tunisia, and Greece).

There are significant differences among piloting partners – with regard to their national histories and legacies, the supra-national framework relevant for particular countries, the nature of piloting institution activities (RPOs/RFOs) and legal status of these organisation (public/private/governmental/NGO), as well as in their size. For some piloting partners (e.g. ANPR, MIGAL), the regional differences seem to play important role. Moreover, RPOs differ among themselves in research disciplines in which they perform research (STEM, large, interdisciplinary institutions, humanities).

All these differences informed the ways in which the main target areas for GEPs have been defined. These differences notwithstanding, there are several general traits in national cultural, economic, political and social contexts that are shared by all or the majority of piloting partners. In all seven countries piloting partners come from, there is a national legislation guaranteeing equal opportunities, including equality between women and men. In several countries, there are additional policy documents aiming to improve equal opportunities. For example, Cyprus has a Strategic plan on Gender Equality (2014-17; 2018-21 in preparation), and The National Action Plan for Gender Equality 2016-2020 (NAPGE 2016-2020) was designed and is currently implemented by The General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE) in Greece. The National Code of Equal Opportunities was adopted in Italy in 2006, Equal employment opportunity commission was established in Israel in 2008, and Peer council for Equal Opportunities is active in Tunisia since 2016.

The economic crisis since 2008 significantly – and negatively – influenced equal opportunities in domains of employment and work life balance, widening the gap in payment of women and men and their participation in the labour market. This is particularly true for Greek and Spanish societies.

Moreover, in some national contexts (Italian, Spanish, Cypriot, Greek) prevalent stereotypes play significant role in disbalance of women’s and men’s participation in the workforce, politics and public life, and in disaggregation of the workforce into “typically male” and “typically female” professions, the latter being less prestigious and less paid. The crisis also aggravated the burden of care for minors and the elderly that women traditionally carry. The last two issues were detected as problems in all piloting partners’ national contexts.

Different welfare states regimes and legacies of piloting partners’ countries have importantly influenced defined GEP targets, particularly in the domain of work-life balance. For example, there is a stark difference between two EU-28 countries – Cyprus and Slovenia. Although in both EU members participation of women in the labour market is relatively high (68.5% in 2010 in Cyprus, 66% in Slovenia in 2016), social policies that facilitate conciliation between family and professional life significantly differ. There is insufficient provision of high quality and affordable childcare facilities in Cyprus, while Slovenia provides a rather encompassing system of childcare facilities. Moreover, in Slovenia, there is paid 105 day maternity leave (starting 28 days before child birth) and paid parental leave lasting for additional 260 days, to be used by either a mother or a father (or both in combination). In contrast, Cypriot legislation enacted in 2012 entitles men and women workers to an individual right to parental leave on the grounds of the birth or adoption of a child to take care of that child for a period of up to 18 weeks (i.e. 126 days). However, despite differences, all partners reported care labour (as regards to children and/or...
elderly) as still predominantly female domain, which prevents more substantial implementation of gender equality policies on the ground.

While in all piloting partners’ countries there are legal and policy frameworks for assuring equal opportunities for women and men, issues of gender equality in the domain of research, innovation and higher education are not necessarily explicitly addressed, but there is an increasing number of civil society organisations, governmental bodies and initiatives dealing with inequalities in the domain of research and innovation across all these countries. For example, in 2000, Israeli government created the Council for the Advancement of Women in Science and Technology with the aim to help women advance in these fields. In Spain, several institutions and initiatives on both national and regional levels strive to change the existing state of affairs in the field of research and innovation Emakunde (Basque Institute of Women – transversal approach), CERCA (Institution for the Research Centres in Catalunya), AMIT (Spanish Association of Women Researchers and Technologists), FECYT (Spanish Foundation for Science and Technology).

The issue of gender (in)equality in research, innovation, and higher education is paid particular attention in the EU member countries, which is usually a consequence of the EU-driven initiatives and policies. As a result, there are several bodies established in these countries (for example, Commission on Equal Opportunities in Science (previously Commission on Women in Science) at the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport in Slovenia, which was founded in 2001, following the recommendation of the Helsinki Group on Women and Science; Resolution on Equal Opportunities 2015-2020 and Slovenian ERA Roadmap were adopted).

### 5.2 GEP TARGET AREAS

In spite of the outlined differences in the national context, there is significant convergence in the preliminary defined GEP target areas for all seven piloting partner organisations, as indicated in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target areas (broad)</th>
<th>UNISA</th>
<th>CIC nanoGUNE</th>
<th>MIGAL</th>
<th>CNTI</th>
<th>ZRC SAZU</th>
<th>ANPR</th>
<th>GSGE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
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<td>Female researchers/staff career and excellence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work/life balance</td>
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<td>Gender balance (committees, researchers, job offering &amp; recruitment, HM, DMB)</td>
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<td>Gender dimension in research and curricula</td>
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Most of the preliminary GEP target areas directly address some of the existing national legislature or policies and initiatives. As a rule, such target areas are defined as a result of the recognition of discrepancy between what is prescribed by legislation and what is the actual state of affairs. Despite the legally prescribed equality between men and women in all piloting partners’ countries, there is a lack of gender balance (in RPO’s and RFO’s higher management, among researchers/employees; in job offering and recruitment, in decision making bodies; in certain R&I domains), unequal payment, unequal opportunities for women researchers’ excellence and career development. In some instances, policies adopted by ministries and other governmental bodies that directly address issues of gender equality are not put into practice and did not result in any structural legislative and policy changes. In such cases, GEP targets aim to enforce implementation of what was written in resolutions and other policy documents.

Another gap, recognition of which resulted in the formulation of GEP target areas, is that existing between the legislation on the one hand, and practices and realities that cannot be regulated by legislation. Defining targets for their organisation’s GEPs, piloting partners had to go beyond the legislative level and seriously take into account realities and relationships that cannot be regulated through legislation: organisational cultures, persistence of traditional gender roles, prevalent stereotypes and more subtle forms of inequality all of which determine position of female researchers in respective RPOs and RFOs. Statistical data disaggregated by gender is of great help to dismantle such discrepancies, as well as methods such as surveys and interviews, which offer a possibility to hear voices and views of employees themselves. In addition, disparities between legislation and actual state of affairs often stem from culturally based disparities – gender-based stereotypes or exclusionary by widely accepted linguistic practices. Several piloting partners choose to tackle such disparities through a set of actions within their piloting organisations (target areas related to raising awareness of GE in organisations, to improving gender-sensitive use in organisations’ documents).

In some instances, defined targets mean a step forward from the existing legislation and policies on the national level; GEPs address issues which are not recognised as problematic by legislation, but are seen as such by the civil society or researchers themselves. In case of ANPR, for example, targets set for work-life balance go beyond what is prescribed by Tunisian legislation. Similarly, in CNTI, measures to be implemented within target area work-life balance provide additional benefits for employees with young children. In Slovenia, legislation treats masculine forms as neutral and generic one. ZRC SAZU’s GEP aims to change this and include feminine forms in the organisation documents.
6 AN EVALUATION OF GEP TARGETS AGAINST ERA GUIDELINES

The European Research Area Guidelines stated in the EC’s document *Guidance to facilitate the implementation of targets to promote gender equality in research and innovation* outline the following recommendations that apply at national level (p. 4):

1) Collect and publish sex-disaggregated data on the composition of professorship and management/leadership positions.
2) Promote gender balance in decision-making positions and professorships with adequate awareness raising and training.
3) Institutionalise gender equality plans as an assessment tool in the accreditation of universities and make them mandatory for universities and research organisations.
4) Institutionalise the proportion of women in grade A/professor positions as an assessment criterion in institutional evaluations (higher education accreditation, performance contracts with universities).
5) Set and implement guiding targets and/or quotas through legislation.
6) Evaluate regularly the implementation of quotas and/or targets.
7) Introduce incentives for institutions adopting pro-active measures and/or sanctions for non-compliance, as necessary.

In the questionnaire distributed to all piloting partners, they were asked to assess the relevance of each of the listed recommendations for their organisations and their significance for the definition of their GEP target areas.

1) Collecting and publishing sex-disaggregated data on the composition of high academic and management/leadership positions is of high importance for all piloting partner organisations’ GEPs. It was recognised as critically important methodological tool for detecting discrepancies between national regulations and actual state of affairs, as well as for monitoring GEP implementation. In some piloting organisation sex-disaggregated data on the composition of high academic and management/leadership positions have already been collected; in some countries, such data are collected on the national level. For those piloting partners where such data are not systematically collected (e.g. Tunisia), this is set as a GEP target.

2) Establishing mechanisms to promote gender balance in decision-making and high academic positions with adequate awareness raising and training are important for most of piloting partner organisations’ GEPs. Most piloting partners defined as their GEP target reducing the gap between women and men in decision-making and high academic positions, or, alternatively, envisioned mechanisms to promote and foster female researchers’ excellence; these mechanisms should lead to changes in institutional practices and cultures and to gender balance in decision-making and high academic positions.

3) Recommendations 3-7 address measures to be implemented on national levels, and as such they are beyond the scope and liability of particular piloting partner organisations, as their GEPs are necessarily organisation-oriented. However, they are of general relevance for RFO piloting partners, who have the capacity to influence and shape national legislation, measures and policies, as well for RPO piloting partners, who recognise the gap between adopted policies that often envision measures such as quotas, making GEPs mandatory, introducing incentives/sanctions for institutions adopting pro-active measures and/or sanctions for non-
compliance, introducing incentives for including gender perspective into research proposals, etc., and lack of implementation of these measures in practice.
7 CONCLUSIONS

This report aims to provide an analysis of the framework variables (cultural, legislative, political, economic) which may affect the gender issues in research in each piloting partner (country (Italy, Spain, Israel, Cyprus, Slovenia, Tunisia, and Greece), and to evaluate each piloting organisation’s preliminary GEP against national and ERA guidelines.

The analysis has shown that, despite significant differences among piloting partner organisations (in nature of their work, status, size), there is a notable convergence in GEP target areas defined. They cover the following broader fields: mentoring; female researchers’/staff career and excellence; work-life balance; gender balance (in committees, researchers, job offering & recruitment, HM, DMB); gender dimension in research and curricula; improving use of gender-sensitive language in organisation’s documents; raising awareness of gender equality within the organisation).

Target areas defined for each piloting organisation’s GEP address several national framework variables – legislative, cultural, economic, and political ones. Moreover, most of the GEP target areas result from detecting a gap – between what is prescribed by legislation and what exists in practice (as a consequence of unequal access, prevalent stereotypes, institutional cultures, etc.), between what countries commit to with regard to gender equality in policy documents and resolutions and what they really do in order to fulfil their commitments.

The target areas defined for each GEP also address gender equality related issues and discrepancies that easily escape regulations through legislature – practices stemming from institutional cultures, differences in professional behaviour of women and men, hidden forms of sexism and harassment, etc.

Finally, several target areas in piloting organisations’ GEPs aim at making a step forward vis-à-vis existing legislature and take into account issues recognised by the research community and civil society members, responding to the current needs of employees of piloting RPOs and RFOs.

Recommendations outlined in the European Research Area Guidelines to promote gender equality in research and innovation are generally relevant for the piloting organisations and for definition of their GEP target areas. They either help achieving goals set in the GEP target areas or point towards gaps which tend to occur between adopted policies to promote gender equality measures, and the lack of implementation of such measures in practice.
8 REFERENCES

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• Uredba o kriterijih za upoštevanje načela uravnotežena zastopanosti spolov, [link]

• Zakon o enakih možnostiščih žensk in moških, [link]

• Zakon o varstvu pred diskriminacijo, [link]

• Zavarovanje za starševsko varstvo in pravice, ki iz tega izhajajo, [link]
9 ANNEX I: QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTED TO ALL PILOTING PARTNERS

1. National/local guidelines on gender equality plans

Please provide a short description of your national (and regional/local where relevant) context in which your GEP will be developed.

- Shortly describe broader political context, existing legislation and initiatives in the field of gender equality that are relevant for defining targets of your GEP:

- List and shortly describe relevant documents and regulations, if any; provide basic information on relevant documents (if any): name, time-frame (date or year) when it was introduced, the legal body which issued it, link to the document (if available) etc.:

- If there are no country guidelines, describe existing initiatives in the field of gender equality. Provide their authors/initiators and their time-frame (date or year) when they were introduced:

- If there are no country guidelines, please explain the strategy you chose when collecting preliminary data for GEP (Annex II in the application) and outline the ways in which you will approach (re)defining GEP targets:

- Let us know if there was any significant change / update in the socio-political context and regulations since the time of preparation of questionnaires and definition of GEP targets for the R&I PEERS application.

2. GEP targets

2.1. Evaluation of GEP targets against national guidelines

Please list the main targets of your GEP. For each, shortly describe rationale behind its definition (against national context and national guidelines and regulations).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEP target</th>
<th>Evaluation against national guidelines and sociopolitical context (and institutional context where relevant)</th>
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2.2. Evaluation of GEP targets against ERA guidelines

For each point of the ERA guidelines, please choose from 1 (minimally relevant/irrelevant) to 5 (very relevant) to indicate relevance for your GEP. If necessary, provide justification and any additional information that may be of relevance in the third column.
ERA guidelines are listed according to the EC document *Guidance to facilitate the implementation of targets to promote gender equality in research and innovation*, which is sent along with this questionnaire, and is also available under the following link: [http://ec.europa.eu/research/swafs/pdf/pub_gender_equality/KI-07-17-199-EN-N.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/research/swafs/pdf/pub_gender_equality/KI-07-17-199-EN-N.pdf). Consult this document in case you need further clarification regarding specific ERA guidelines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ERA guidelines</th>
<th>Relevance for your GEP</th>
<th>Justification/additional information (optional)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collection of sex-disaggregated data on the composition of high academic and management/leadership positions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mechanisms for promoting gender balance in professorship/high academic positions and management/leadership positions/boards</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutionalisation of gender equality plans as assessment tool in accreditation process (or other form of making GEP mandatory)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Institutionalisation of the proportion of women in grade A/professor positions as an assessment criterion in institutional evaluations (higher education accreditation, performance contracts with universities)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting and implementation of targets and/or quotas through legislation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Regular evaluation of the implementation of quotas and/or targets</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introduction of incentives/sanctions for adopting pro-active measures/non-compliance</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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