

**Gender, Work and Employment in Ten
Candidate Countries of Central and Eastern
Europe.
Final Report. Country: Hungary**

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Introduction.

The Hungarian media shows very contradictory pictures of women today: Successful career women enjoying material well-being is one picture, while the careful mother not working outside the home, keeping together the family is another one. Between these two contradictory poles there are almost no other female actors in the media. Life produces something different. In spite of the fact that there was a big loss of jobs in 1990s, and women's activity rate decreased while the unemployment rate increased compared to before the 1990s, woman with dual roles are still accepted and common. The first female task is looking after the family and the second one is working outside the home and earning money. In many cases there is a third role: studying in distant or evening courses.

In the next chapters we go deeper into this topic. We analyse the different aspects of female labour market positions, and show some relevant characteristics of governmental parental benefits and childcare support, and examine how the new pension system effects women. We also have a quick look at trade unions and show their lack of activity around gender issues.

In the labour market analysis of the position of women we use labour force surveys, institution-based labour statistics, and unemployment registers. The Appendix 1 contains short descriptions of these data sources.

Economic, Demographic and Employment Background.

GDP, Economic Development and Structure.

The labour market position of Hungarian women after the transition cannot be analysed without knowing the general state of the Hungarian economy. In less than 15 years the whole structure of the Hungarian economy has changed. New branches have been born and others disappeared. Figure 1 shows changes in GDP during this period. In Table 1 the per capita GDP numbers can be seen.

Figure 1. Gross domestic product per capita after the transition.

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Source: National accounts Hungary, relevant years. Central Statistical Office, Hungary

Table 1. Gross Domestic Product, Absolute per-capita and Growth rate 1985 - 2001

	1985	1990	1995	2001
GDP per capita \$ *	1 950	3 187	4 325	5 087
GDP per capita PPP**	5 140	7 719	8 976	13 447
GDP growth rate	- 0.3 %	- 3.5 %	+ 1.5 %	+ 3.8 %

*GDP in current prices and exchange rates, expressed in USD.

** GDP in current prices and PPPs, expressed in USD.

Source: Calculation by the experts of the Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

GDP in Hungary fell significantly after the economic and political changes. In 2001, it was only about 8% greater, and in 2002 by about 11% greater than in 1989. During this time the GDP increase in the EU was 29%, the gap between the EU countries and Hungary has widened. GDP declined until 1993, and then began to grow again.

During the transition the whole economy changed. The economy became much more modernised, and production became more efficient. In the second part of the period, GDP increases were not accompanied by severe imbalances in foreign trade. The cost of these changes was suffered by the population, which can be seen by analysing real wage changes in Table 2 and Figure 2. Income inequality increased over the transition. The difference between the highest and lowest tenth of incomes doubled during this period.

Table 2. Change in Real salaries using 1990 as index base (100%).

Year	1985	1990	1995	2001
Index	109.3	100	82.9	94.8

Source: Employment and Earnings 1998-2001. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

Figure 2. Relative real salaries.

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Source: Employment and Earnings 1998-2001. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

Most the income of the population comes from work-related income, in which wages and salaries represent the biggest share. Four-fifths of the active workforce is an employee. Real salaries decreased until 1996, but even by 2001 they were still about 5% less than in 1989. The 57% increase in the minimum wage in 2001 explains a great part of increase in that year.

Foreign trade decreased significantly at the beginning of the 1990s, principally owing to the cessation of old trade relationships, which were determined in the field of certain commodities before 1990. Loss or narrowing of old markets was felt especially in exports. There was an increase in exports in 1992 followed by a decline the next year. In 1994 exports increased again, and the rise has continued. (See Table 3.) However, imports were always greater than exports, and as a result the shortage of external trade balance increased (Figure 3). In 2001, exports increased 2.6-fold and imports increased 3-fold in comparison with 1989.

Table 3. Export Growth Rates

	1985	1990	1995	2001
Export growth rate (% change on previous year)	105.2	95.9	108.4	107.8
Import growth rate (% change on previous year)	107.4	92.5	96.1	104.0

Source: Statistical Yearbooks, Central Statistical Office, Hungary

Figure 3. Balance of External Trade.

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Source: Statistical Yearbooks, Central Statistical Office, Hungary

The volume of exports and imports had decreased in the first quarter of the period, and the structure of foreign trade has changed. The whole period was characterised by the import surplus.

Population.

Economic changes came at the same time as a decrease in the population. (See Table 4.) The decrease began in the early 1980s, but became more profound over the decade and into the next.

Table 4. Population.

	1985.31. December.			1990. 1. January.			1995. 1. January.			2001.1. January.		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Population												
Total Population (See period above , 1,000s)	10640.0 06	5138.12 4	5501.88 2	10709.4 63	5188.70 9	5520.75 4	10245.6 77	4903.70 4	5341.97 3	10200.2 98	4851.01 2	5349.28 6
Population aged 15- 64 (% total)	66.1	67.3	65.1	64.6	65.4	63.8	67.7	69.4	66.2	68.3	70.3	66.4
Population 65 and over in % total. age	12.5	10.0	14.8	13.5	11.3	15.6	14.0	11.1	16.7	15.1	11.8	18.1

Source: Demographic Yearbooks, Central Statistical Office, Hungary

Births fluctuated to some extent, but decreased since 1985, resulting in a drop in the population. (See Table 5.) By 2001, the population shrunk by 1.7% since 1990. The migration into Hungary slightly mitigated the natural decrease of population.

The share of women was greater at the end of the period than at the beginning due to the ageing of the population and the shorter life expectancy of men. The share of those above 65 has continuously increased, with a more rapid increase for over 65 women. The life expectancy of men initially decreased in the period, but later increased. The female life expectancy increased slightly and at the end of the period reached more than 76 years.

Table 5. Annual Birth and Life expectancy rates.

Rate	1985	1990	1995	2001
Birth rate (live births per 1000 population)	12.3	12.1	10.8	9.5
Average life expectancy at birth men	65.09	65.13	65.25	68.15

Average life expectancy at birth Women	73.07	73.71	74.50	76.46
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Employment and Unemployment.

Due to the importance of work in life and living standards of Hungarians, the position of women can be characterised by their labour market opportunities. Table 6 below shows basic labour market indicators, which provide a starting point for examining women's position.

Table 6. Employment, Activity rate, Employment rate and Unemployment (LFS and registered).

	1985			1990*			1995			2001		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Employment												
LFS Labour force (Employed+unemployed 1,000s)	5372.9	2912.3	2460.6	5108.2	2823.8	2427.6	4095.3	2311.1	1784.2	4092.4	2273.3	1819.1
% Labour force who are M & F	100	54.2	45.8	100	55.3	45.7	100	56.4	43.6	100	55.5	44.5
Activity Rate** (Labour force in % of total, M & F populations, 15-64)	80.1	88.9	69.4	80.0	83.8	75.9	58.8	67.9	50.3	60.0	67.8	52.4
Total employment (LFS, 1,000s, 2 nd quarter***)	5372.9	2912.3	2460.6	5227.2	2809.6	2417.6	3665	2042.6	1622.4	3849.8	2127.5	1722.3
% Employed who are M & F***	100.0	54.2	45.8	100.0	53.7	46.3	100.0	55.7	44.3	100.0	55.3	44.7
Employment rate (total empl. in % of total, M & F populations, 15-64)	76.4	84.2	68.7	75.6	82.7	68.6	52.8	60.0	45.9	55.3	62.4	48.5
Employment in agriculture (% total, M & F employment ****)	18.9 (in 1980)	21.4	15.7	15.5	19.1	10.9	8.1	11.0	4.7	6.2	8.4	3.5
-Industry (% a above)	41.2 (in 1980)	44.8	36.5	37.9	42.4	32.2	33.1	39.8	24.8	34.2	41.3	25.5
-Service (% as above)	39.9 (in 1980)	33.9	47.8	46.6	38.5	56.9	58.8	49.2	70.6	59.6	50.3	71.0

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Unemployment												
Total unemployed 1000s LFS ILO definition	0	0	0	24.2	14.2	10.0	410.6	264.1	146.5	229.9	141.9	88
% unemployed who are M & F	-	-	-	100	58.7	41.3	100	64.3	35.7	100	61.7	38.3
LFS Unemployment rate unemployed as % LF total, M & F, 2 nd quarter	-	-	-	2.4 (average)	2.6 (average)	2.1 (average)	10.1	11.4	8.3	5.6	6.3	4.9
Youth unemployment rate unemployed as % LF, 2 nd quarter 15-19	-	-	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	29.3	31.9	25.3	18.0	17.5	18.6
Youth unemployment rate unemployed as % LF, 2 nd quarter 20-24	-	-	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	15.1	17.7	11.2	9.2	10.0	8.1
Elderly unemployment rate unemployed as % LF, 2 nd quarter 55-59).	-	-	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.5	5.7	5.0	2.8	3.6	1.3
Elderly unemployment rate unemployed as % LF, 2 nd quarter 60-74).	-	-	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	4.1	3.8	4.7	2.1	2.1	2.3
Long term unemployed (% of total unemployed, 2 nd quarter) (more than 12 months)	-	-	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	44.2	46.5	43.2	41.1	42.3	39.2
Registered unemployment rate (2 nd quarter)	0	0	0	0.46 (average)	0.50 (average)	0.41 (average)	12.1 (average)	12.3 (average)	11.8 (average)	8.4 (average)	8.3 (average)	8.5 (average)

* In 1990 unemployed are registered unemployed. In this year practically all unemployed persons were registered. In other years unemployed persons fit to ILO definition.

Sources: Employment and Earnings 1998-2001, and Labour Force Survey 1992-2001. Statistical Yearbook 1985.

** Activity rate of the working-age population, which changed over time as follows: In all period, the 0-14 population is excluded. Men over 60 years are excluded until 1999, and over 61 years in 2000 and 2001, and over 62 years from 2002 on. Women over 55 are excluded until 1996, over 56 years between 1997-1999, and over 57 years in 2000 and 2001.

***In 1985 and 1990 from Labour Force Balance, 1st January. Other years Labour Force Survey

**** For 1985 and 1990 calculations are based on data from Living Standard 1988-1997. There are not appropriate data for 1985, because classification was different, and the reclassification was done only for 1980. For 1995 and 2001 data are from Labour Force Surveys.

***** Unemployment for 1985 is zero (the law prohibited nonemployment), and unemployment for 1990 is from census. Data are taken from Living Standard (1988-1997) and Employment and Earnings 1998-2001, Central Statistical Office, Hungary. Unemployment in 1995 and 2001 are ILO unemployment from Labour Force Surveys.

Between 1989 and 1992 about 1.3 million people lost their jobs. Job losses then slowed down, and between 1995 and 2001, the number of working people increased by 180,000.

A significant number of those who lost their jobs left the labour force and became inactive. This happened at a higher rate for women than for men, the result of which was a decline in the labour force participation rate of women. In 1990, 45.7 % of the total

labour force was women, and in 1995 only 43.6%. (See Table 6.) The loser of this process was definitely women, as the female activity rate dropped by 25%point from 1990 to 1995, while the male activity rate dropped by only 15.9%pont. Some of these decreases are explained by a change in the measurement of the activity rate. In 1990, the denominator was the working age population, and the retirement age was 55 for women and 60 for men. In 1995 and 2001, the denominator is the number of the age group 15-64. The broadening of the denominator results in some decrease in the activity rate. Nevertheless, the drop in the activity rate of women is larger than from men.

The labour force in 2001 was still about 1.5 million less than in 1989. The lowest level of employment occurred in 1996-97, but by 2001, it was 6% higher. The source of the increase was women, since their activity rate increased more significantly than activity rate of men. The male activity rate in 1995 was 67.9% and in 2001 was marginally lower at 67.8%, whereas women's activity rate increased from 50.3% to 52.4% over the same time period. Table 7 shows changes of activity rates and employment rates five year averages.

Table 7. Total % Changes: Activity Rates and Employment Rates Labour Force Surveys

	1985 – 1990			1990 – 1995			1995 – 2001		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Activity Rate Change*: (Labour force in % of population 15-64) %point	-5.1	6.5	-0.1	-15.9	-25.6	-21.2	-0.1	2.1	1.2
Employment rate change (total empl. in % population 15-64) % point	-1.5	-0.1	-0.8	-22.7	-22.7	-22.7	2.4	2.6	2.5

*Activity rate in 1985 and 1990 from working-age population.
See sources of the data and explanation below Table 6.

Lower female activity rates were accompanied by lower unemployment rates for women (See Figure 4.), which is unusual compared to some other countries. It shows partly that women who wanted to work were ready to accept "whatever job" exists, and it is partly due to the consequences of a changing economy. Women work in high percentages in education, health care, and services (see later), where unemployment rates are lower than in other sectors of the economy.

Figure 4. Unemployment Rate by Sex

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Source: Employment and Earnings 1998-2001, Central Statistical Office, Hungary

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Employment and unemployment by gender as total numbers can hide some important relationships. Examining these indicators by Age Band and Highest Educational Attainment (Table 8a.and Table 9.) indicates these relationships.

Table 8a. Employees*, Men and Women, Labour Force Surveys by Age Bands and Highest Educational Attainment, Thousands and Female as % Total

	1985				1992				1995				2001			
	Total	Male	Female	F as % total	Total	Male	Female	F as % total	Total	Male	Female	F as % total	Total	Male	Female	F as % total
Total of which:	4643.7	2486.7	2157	46.5	4082.7	2218.2	1864.5	45.7	3678.8	2049.6	1629.2	44.3	3859.5	2130.6	1728.9	44.8
Aged																
14	3.8	1.7	2.1	55.3												
15-19	1320.2	736.6	583.6	44.2	136.3	73	63.3	46.4	101	57.8	43.2	42.8	46.6	28.2	18.4	39.5
20-24					427.1	242.6	184.5	43.2	398	231.2	166.8	41.9	413.5	239	174.5	42.2
25-29					416.8	251.6	165.2	39.6	422.8	266.1	156.7	37.1	567.7	342.5	225.2	39.7
30-39	1408.9	727.3	681.6	48.4	1246	666.4	579.6	46.5	1055.6	583.6	472	44.7	974.6	553.3	421.3	43.2
40-54	1812.3	1021.1	811.7	46.6	1527.4	774.7	752.7	49.3	1478.4	758.3	720.1	48.7	1570.9	782.5	788.4	50.2
55-59			78		190.5	132.1	58.4	30.7	148.2	105.6	42.6	28.7	224.3	145.9	78.4	35.0
Over 60	98.5				138.6	77.8	60.8	43.9	74.8	47	27.8	37.2	61.9	39.2	22.7	36.7
Highest education attained																
Total	100%	100%	100%	46.5	4025.7	2161.2	1864.5	46.3	3622.8	1993.6	1629.2	45.0	3844.5	2115.6	1728.9	45.0
Less than Basic Primary	10.5	10.8	10.2	45.0	142.1	71.3	70.8	49.8	47.7	27.2	20.5	43.0	26.1	16.2	9.9	37.9
Basic Primary	35	31.4	39.5	52.2	1029.4	488.7	540.7	52.5	809.5	397.6	411.9	50.9	634.6	316.2	318.4	50.2
Apprentice school	20.7	27.7	11.7	26.8	1029	757.2	271.8	26.4	1051.6	753.2	298.4	28.4	1228.1	892.7	335.4	27.3
Vocational school					49.1	4.4	44.7	91.0	42.9	14.2	28.7	66.9	41.5	9.9	31.6	76.1
Secondary Grammar School (with GCSE)	23.9	19.7	29.3	56.3	482.6	170.8	311.8	64.6	407.5	148.1	259.4	63.7	326.3	104.2	222.1	68.1
Other Secondary with GCSE					709.6	350.1	359.5	50.7	704.6	359.8	344.8	48.9	923.1	446.7	476.4	51.6
College	9.9	10.4	9.3	43.7	330.7	155.9	174.8	52.9	334.9	150.3	184.6	55.1	394.8	164.5	230.3	58.3

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University					253.2	162.8	90.4	35.7	224.1	143.2	80.9	36.1	270	165.2	104.8	38.8
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*January-December average

Sources: Labour Force Survey 1992-2001 and Statistical Yearbook 1985. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

The total number by age bands (e.g. 4082.7 thousand in 1992) and the total number by educational attainment (e.g. 4025.7 thousand in 1992) in Table 8 have slight differences, the cause of which is that data are based on labour force surveys and then approximated to total population. The difference in the two approximations does not cause problems in relative numbers.

In the age band 40-54 there are almost as many female workers as male. (In 2001 when there was slight increase in women participation rate the employees women took the 50.2 % of that age group employees.) This is the age group which shows the big flexibility of women. Those between 40 and 54 were educated under the previous system and have more difficulty finding work in the market economy. Women still could find jobs more easily. Later we will see that they are paid less, which is partly the cause of their relatively high employment rate.

On average, women have a higher level of education than men with the exception of apprentice school and university levels. In vocational apprentice schools, manual professions are taught, which are male dominated. Even at college level the share of women is greater, and it has increased during that period. At the university level the women's share has also increased, but still has not reached 40% in 2001. This is the consequence of the presence of older generations, where female educational attainment really was lower than that of males. One can analyse the educational attainment from a different perspective using Table 8b.

Table 8b. Distribution by Educational Attainment of Active People by Gender (%)

Highest education attained	1992			1995			2001		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than Basic Primary	3.9	3.6	4.1	1.6	1.6	1.5	0.8	0.9	0.7
Basic Primary	26.7	23.9	30.1	23.6	21.6	26.3	17.4	16.1	19.0
Apprentice school	26.0	35.4	14.8	29.7	38.4	18.7	32.2	42.2	19.7
Vocational school	1.2	0.2	2.5	1.2	0.7	1.8	1.1	0.5	1.9
Secondary Grammar School (with GCSE)	11.6	7.6	16.5	10.9	7.1	15.7	8.4	4.8	12.8
Other Secondary with GCSE	17.1	15.7	18.7	18.7	17.1	20.8	23.6	20.7	27.2
College	7.6	6.7	8.7	8.6	7.0	10.7	9.9	7.4	12.9
University	5.8	6.9	4.5	5.7	6.5	4.6	6.7	7.4	5.8

Table 8b shows that there was no significant gap between the educational attainment of women and men even in 1992, and after the transition the female educational attainment has become even closer to the male educational attainment. Examining the gender breakdown of recent higher degree recipients reinforces these statistics. In 2001, for example, 63.4% of those who received a college degree, and 53.7% of those who received a university degree were women.

The increasing educational attainment of women indicates a better labour market position in the future, because the higher the educational attainment, the lower the probability of being unemployed. See Table 9.

Table 9. Unemployment Rate*, Men and Women, by Age Band and Highest Educational Attainment

	1992		1995		2001	
	Men %	Women%	Men %	Women%	Men %	Women%
Total of which:	10.7	8.7	11.3	8.7	6.3	5.0
Aged						
15-19	28.2	25.4	33.3	28	20.1	22.7
20-24	16.2	10.9	16.8	11.7	10.4	8.2
25-29	11.8	11.4	11.0	9.7	7.1	6.7
30-39	10.1	8.5	10.7	9.0	5.7	5.0
40-54	8.3	6.5	8.9	6.3	5.0	3.6
55-59	6.6	5.7	5.9	5.5	3.9	1.4
60-74	4.0	4.9	4.5	6.1	2.0	2.2
Highest education attained						
Less than Basic Primary	19.1	15.9	26.9	25.2	20.2	19.5
Basic Primary	15.9	12.0	18.2	12.1	13.3	8.0
Apprentice school	12.0	10.4	13.0	10.4	6.3	6.4
Vocational school	8.3	12.4	12.9	9.2	8.3	6.8
Secondary Grammar School (with GCSE)	6.8	7.3	7.9	7.2	4.2	4.5
Other Secondary with GCSE	8.0	6.0	6.7	7.0	4.3	3.8
College	3.9	1.7	4.3	3.0	1.6	1.9
University	2.4	2.6	1.7	2.4	0.9	1.0

*Average year data

Sources: Labour Force Surveys

Unfortunately in the future, college and university degrees are not expected to provide such a high level of safety against unemployment as present because of increased participation in higher education. Currently, Hungary is experiencing a brand new phenomenon: unemployment of new higher education graduates.

Structure of Economy.

To understand more about the labour market position of Hungarian women we must analyse the structure of the economy. Table 10 shows how the ownership structure changed in the 1990s.

Table 10. Changing Structure of Public and Private Sectors, in percentage of total employment.

	1985	1992	1995	2000
Private sector	4.2	30.5	41.7	57.4
Mixed	0	8.7	12.2	6.5
Public sector	95.8	60.8	46.1	36.1

Source: Monitoring statistics, TARKI 2000. December.

Although in 1985 only 4.2% of total employment was in the private sector, by 2000, that number rose to 57.4%. We will see later that women are more dominant in public sector employment such as education and health care. Now Table 11 shows the changing structure of the economy by sectors.

Table 11. Changing Structure of Economy: Employed by NACE as percentage Total Workers Employed in civil sector of Economy pre- and post-transition

NACE	% All in civil sector of economy 1985	% All in civil sector of economy 1992	% All in civil sector of economy 1995	% All in civil sector of economy 2001
Total	100	100	100	100
1.+2 Agriculture et al + Fishing et al.	12.5	11.3	8.0	6.2
3. Mining		1.3	0.9	0.4
4. Manufacturing	34.0 (3.+4.)	25.8	23.1	24.8
5. Electricity, Gas, Water Supply	1.2 (some parts are in 4.)	2.6	2.6	2.1
Industry(3, 4, 5) sub-total	35.2	29.7	26.7	27.2
6. Construction	7.0	5.3	5.9	7.1
7. Wholesale & Retail Trade an repairing	11.4	11.8	12.5	14.2
8. Hotels and Restaurants	(put in other categories, basically in 9.)	2.8	3.2	3.7
9. Transport, storage and communications	9.7	8.5	8.7	8.1
10. Financial Intermediation	(put in other categories, basically in 11.)	1.7	2.2	2.0

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11. Real estate, renting, business	3.7	3.4	3.6	5.7
Services (7, 8, 9, 10, 11) sub-total.	24.9	28.2	30.1	33.7
12. Public administration, defence; compulsory social security	(put in other categories, basically in 15.)	7.2	8.6	7.5
13. Education	Put into 14.	7.6	9.1	8.0
14. Health and Social Work	14.7	5.8	6.3	6.1
15. Other community, social and personal service activities	5.8	4.9	5.2	4.3
Public Sector services (12, 13, 14, 15) sub-total.	20.4	25.5	29.3	25.9

Source: Calculations upon the data in Statistical Yearbook 1985; Labour Force Surveys

During the time period studied, employment in industry had decreased as a share of total employment, while the public sector and services had increased. Particular sectors which had shrunk as a percentage of total employment include Agriculture et al.; Mining; and Manufacturing. The sectors which had grown during this period include Public Sector Services; Financial Intermediation; Transport, Storage and Communication; and Wholesale and Retail Trade and Repairing.

The changing structure of the economy also can be seen through the changes of firm size (Table 12a.)

Table 12 Changing Structure of Economy by firm size, % of employees.

Size band	1995	1998	2000	2001
<20	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.9
20-49	6.3	6.3	7.4	9.6
50-249	31.1	32.4	41.5	38.5
250-999	29.9	26.4	22.4	23.0
>999	32.7	34.4	28.0	28.0

Source FH BT, their own calculations.

Table 12b shows the number of the firms by different size.

Table 12b. Changing Structure of Economy by firm size. Number and % of firms by size.

Size band	1990		1995		2001	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total	n.a.		1046539	100.0	923571	100.0
<10	n.a.		1014013	96.9	882535	95.6
10 – 20	16465	n.a.	16358	1.6	18490	2.0
20 – 100	4129	n.a.	9184	0.9	12972	1.4
>100	7068	n.a.	6984	0.7	9574	1.0

Source: Central Statistical Office, Hungary. Monthly Statistical Bulletins.

After the transition more than 95% of firms had 10 or fewer employees. Most of the time the owner is the only worker in the firm. The average firm size is 3.6 persons, compared to an average firm size of 6 persons in the EU. These small firms are very vulnerable. There is no significant difference between the shares of women and men working in different firms by size.

Gender Segregation.

Segregation by Industry.

The share of women in the workforce has decreased slightly after 1992, as shown in Table 13, but this has not dramatically changed sectoral concentration. Those sectors where female concentration was high before transition remained so after the transition, and those sectors where female concentration was low remained low. Sectors with a high concentration of women are: Education; Health and social work; and Financial and banking services. Sectors with low concentration of women are Agriculture et al. and Fishing et al.; Mining; Electricity, gas, water supply; Construction; and Transport, storage and communications.

Table 13. Composition of Employment Sectors by Gender: percentage of each sector who are men and women.

NACE	1992		1995		2001	
	% Men	% Women	% Men	% Women	% Men	% Women
Total	54.3	45.7	55.7	44.3	55.2	44.8
1.+2 Agriculture et al + Fishing et al.	68.8	31.2	74.3	25.7	74.9	25.1
3. Mining	86.3	13.7	84.7	15.3	88.2	11.8
4. Manufacturing	56.1	43.9	58.6	41.4	58.3	41.7
5. Electricity, Gas, Water Supply	70.9	29.1	74.3	25.7	75.8	24.2
Industry(3, 4, 5) sub-total	58.7	41.3	61.0	39.0	60.0	40.0
6. Construction	85.0	15.0	90.1	9.9	92.1	7.9
7. Wholesale & Retail Trade an repairing	41.8	58.2	45.2	54.8	49.1	50.9
8. Hotels and Restaurants	42.1	57.9	44.9	55.1	51.0	49.0
9. Transport, storage and communications	70.2	29.8	74.5	25.5	72.5	27.5
10. Financial Intermediation	24.0	76.0	28.7	71.3	30.8	69.2
11. Real estate, renting, business	48.8	51.2	52.5	47.5	55.4	44.6
Services (7, 8, 9, 10, 11) sub-total.	44.2	55.8	47.1	52.9	45.5	54.5
12. Public administration, defence; compulsory social security	65.3	34.7	63.3	36.7	54.2	45.8
13. Education	24.2	75.8	25.5	74.5	22.5	77.5
14. Health and Social Work	24.9	75.1	24.3	75.7	23.4	76.6
15. Other community, social and personal service activities	51.0	49.0	53.3	46.7	46.2	53.8

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Public Sector services (12, 13, 14, 15) sub- total.	41.1	58.9	41.4	58.6	35.8	64.2
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Source: Labour Force Survey 1992-2001. KSH

In spite of the relative stability of concentration, in some sectors the share of women increased, in others, it decreased. Sectors where the share of women has changed a lot during the last decade are: Electricity, gas, water supply (decrease); Construction (large decrease); Wholesale and retail trade and repair (large decrease); Financial intermediation (decrease); Public administration, defence, compulsory social security (large increase); Other community social and personal services (small increase). In the Public Sector services as a whole, the high share of women became even higher.

Next Table 14 shows the percentage of workforce in different sectors, which also can be used as an indicator of gender segregation.

Table 14. Distribution of Male and Female Workforce across sectors (what percentage of men, what percentage of women, work in each sector)

NACE	1992		1995		2001	
	% Men	% Women	% Men	% Women	% Men	% Women
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1.+2 Agriculture et al + Fishing et al.	14.3	7.7	10.7	4.7	8.4	3.5
3. Mining	2.1	0.4	1.4	0.3	0.6	0.1
4. Manufacturing	26.6	24.8	24.3	21.6	26.2	23.0
5. Electricity, Gas, Water Supply	3.5	1.7	3.5	1.5	2.8	1.1
Industry(3, 4, 5) sub- total	32.1	26.9	29.2	23.5	29.5	24.2
6. Construction	8.3	1.7	9.5	1.3	11.8	1.2
7. Wholesale & Retail Trade an repairing	9.0	15.0	10.2	15.5	12.6	16.1
8. Hotels and Restaurants	2.2	3.6	2.6	3.9	3.4	4.1
9. Transport, storage and communications	11.0	5.5	11.6	5.0	10.6	4.9
10. Financial Intermediation	0.7	2.8	1.2	3.6	1.1	3.2
11. Real estate, renting, business	3.1	3.9	3.3	3.8	5.7	5.7
Services (7, 8, 9, 10, 11) sub-total.	26.0	30.8	28.8	31.8	33.5	34.0
12. Public administration, defence; compulsory social security	8.6	5.5	9.8	7.2	7.4	7.7
13. Education	3.4	12.7	4.2	15.3	3.3	13.9

14. Health and Social Work	2.7	9.5	2.7	10.8	2.6	10.4
15. Other community, social and personal service activities	4.6	5.2	5.0	5.5	3.6	5.1
Public Sector services (12, 13, 14, 15) sub-total.	19.3	32.9	21.7	38.8	16.8	37.1

Source Labour Force Survey 1992-2001. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

Segregation by Occupation.

One source of gender segregation in employment is the sectoral distribution of jobs. Another one is composition of occupational status of employment. The latter can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15. Composition of each Occupation (ISCO-88) and Status of Employment by gender.

Indicator	% Each Indicator who are men and women					
	1994		1995		2001	
ISCO-88	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.Legislators, senior officials and managers	63.2	36.8	66.2	33.8	65.6	34.4
2.Professionals	43.3	56.7	44.6	55.4	42.7	57.3
3.Technicians and Associated professionals	35.5	64.5	36.4	63.6	35.5	64.5
4.Clerks	8.8	91.2	8.1	91.9	7.4	92.6
5.Service workers and shop and market sales workers	43.2	56.8	44.3	55.7	45.3	54.7
6.Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	68.7	31.3	71.2	28.8	71.7	28.3
7. Craft and related trade workers	78.7	21.3	79.2	20.8	82	18
8. Plant and machine operators and assemblers	78.9	21.1	80.3	19.7	71.3	28.7
9.Elementary occupations	42.9	57.1	43.1	56.9	45.6	54.4
0. Armed forces	94.4	5.6	94.8	5.2	90.8	9.2
Status in employment	1992		1995		2001	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Employees	51.3	48.7	52.4	47.6	52.9	47.1

Members of producers co-operative	68.4	31.6	68.8	31.2	67.8	32.2
Member of partnership	61.7	38.3	70	30	71.6	28.4
Self-employed	65	35	69.3	30.7	69.1	30.9
Unpaid family workers	31.4	68.6	33.7	66.3	35	65.0

Source Labour Force Survey 1992-2001. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

The first year, when this type of data were collected in a comparative way was 1994. There are no big changes in the share of employees in ISCO-88 categories, the biggest one being the 7.6% point increase of female's share in category 8. However some occupational categories became even more female or male dominated during the time period for which there are data. In category 1, there are many more men than women, and during the analysed period the difference increased. In the second category, the situation is just the opposite. This category is female dominated, and this majority increased during the time period. The first and second employment category needs the same education level, but both in terms of power and pay, the first is higher than the second. High-level managers are in the first category.

Women dominate other jobs. Female-dominated jobs are market sales and clerks (4); technicians and associated professionals (3); and service workers and shop and market sales workers (5). Male-dominated jobs include: craft and related trade workers (7); plant and machine operators and assemblers (8); armed forces (0); and skilled agricultural and fishery workers (6). Finally in elementary occupations (9) there are relatively more women than men.

The bottom part of Table 16 indicates 'status in employment.' Women are much less likely to be self-employed than men, and much more likely to be unpaid family workers. Unpaid family work often leads women into a dependency situation with few prospects of fulfilling their own aims. All the above trends are also represented in the next table. Table 16 below indicates the distribution of women and men by occupational and employment status.

Table 16. Distribution of Male and Females Workforce across Occupations (what percentage of men and what percentage of women work in each occupation in each year)

ISCO-88	Percentage Male and Female Job Holders in Each Indicator					
	1994		1995		2001	
	%Men	%Women	%Men	%Women	%Men	%Women
1.Legislators, senior officials and managers	7.4	5.2	6.9	4.4	8.0	5.2
2.Professionals	8.1	12.8	8.6	13.5	9.0	14.9
3.Technicians and Associated professionals	7.7	17.1	8.2	18.0	8.6	19.2
4.Clerks	1.4	17.1	1.2	16.4	0.9	13.8

5. Service workers and shop and market sales workers	10.9	17.3	11.3	17.9	12.8	19.0
6. Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	4.4	2.4	4.5	2.3	4.5	2.2
7. Craft and related trade workers	32.6	10.7	32.0	10.6	32.2	8.7
8. Plant and machine operators and assemblers	15.0	4.8	15.4	4.7	15.4	7.6
9. Elementary occupations	7.5	12.1	7.1	11.8	6.2	9.1
0. Armed forces	5.0	0.4	4.8	0.3	2.4	0.3
Status in employment	1992		1995		2001	
Employees	76.1	83.6	78.3	87.0	82.4	89.8
Members of producers cooperative	7.1	3.8	2.9	1.6	1.0	0.6
Member of partnership	7.4	5.3	5.9	3.1	4.0	2.0
Self-employed	8.7	5.4	12.2	6.6	12.2	6.6

Source: Labour Force Survey. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

Gender and Pay.

Distribution by occupational status is only half of the picture. The other half is the pay structure of these jobs. See Table 17 below.

Table 17 Gross Average Monthly Pay, Men and Women, 1994 – 2001, by Industry (NACE).

NACE	Gross average pay 1994			Gross average pay 1996			Gross average pay 2001		
	M	F	F as % M	M	F	F as % M	M	F	F as % M
Total	3926 8	3183 2	81.1	5316 8	4199 9	79.0	1147 32	9191 1	80.1
1 Agriculture et al	2741 7	2290 3	83.5	3755 4	3297 8	87.8	7659 6	6657 5	86.9
2. Fishing et al.	2601 5	2655 3	102.1	4409 7	4139 4	93.9	6477 6	6270 5	96.8
3. Mining	4943 2	3383 7	68.5	6231 9	5235 7	84.0	1221 63	1209 07	99.0
4. Manufacturing	3986 1	2878 6	72.2	5607 7	4005 5	71.4	1189 40	8557 8	72.0
5. Electricity, Gas, Water Supply	4707 7	3464 5	73.6	6819 1	5199 3	76.2	1430 31	1182 24	82.7

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Industry (3, 4, 5) average	4130 1	2934 2	71.0	5822 9	4116 8	70.7	1218 43	8753 7	71.8
6. Construction	3410 8	3280 9	96.2	4241 3	4104 3	96.8	8378 0	8644 1	103.2
7. Wholesale & Retail Trade and repairing	4032 2	3122 1	77.4	5290 5	4111 9	77.7	1022 80	8351 1	81.6
8. Hotels and Restaurants	3704 1	2776 8	75.0	4918 8	3637 0	73.9	9163 4	6710 4	73.2
9. Transport, storage and communications	3906 6	3467 1	88.7	5490 7	4941 9	90.0	1183 14	1081 97	91.4
10. Financial Intermediation	7555 3	5355 4	70.9	1154 28	7726 8	66.9	2963 68	1745 16	58.9
11. Real estate, renting, business	4265 0	3621 3	84.9	5480 1	5116 7	93.4	1317 87	1097 28	83.3
Services (7, 8, 9, 10, 11) average.	4166 6	3595 8	86.3	5673 2	4973 8	87.7	1211 20	1040 31	85.9
12. Public administration, defense; compulsory social security	4494 8	3443 3	76.6	5290 1	4308 8	81.5	1488 09	1114 30	74.9
13. Education	3950 6	3146 3	79.6	4649 7	3744 6	80.5	1033 77	8199 0	79.3
14. Health and Social Work	3816 1	2905 3	76.1	4651 9	3633 1	78.1	9340 4	7826 1	83.8
15. Other community, social and personal service activities	4328 8	3394 1	78.4	5386 6	4500 4	83.5	1088 24	8969 0	82.4
Public Sector services (12, 13, 14, 15) average.	4117 5	3162 2	76.8	4959 3	3927 6	79.2	1160 01	8886 9	76.6

Source: Employment and Earnings in the National Economy, referred year data. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

In each sector women earned about 20% less gross pay on average than men. The only exception is construction where women represent a very low share. The special character of construction work entails that women work there basically only in positions of higher rank, where they receive relatively higher pay.

Women receive less than 80% of male's pay in Manufacturing and in Public Administration et al. In the latter, the share of women has increased. The lowest pay relative to men is in Financial Intermediation where women earn less than 60% of men's pay. This declined from just over 70% at the beginning of the period studied. At the same time the high share of women in this sector shrunk. Men replaced women in higher level management with higher pay, and women remained in lower-paid employment in this sector. Table 18 shows the pay differences by occupation.

Table 18. Gross Average Monthly Pay, Men and Women, 1994 – 2001 , by Occupation (ISCO-88).

ISCO-88	Gross average pay 1994			Gross average pay 1997			Gross average pay 2001		
	M	F	F as % M	M	F	W as % M	M	F	F as % M
average	39268	31832	81.1	64486	51442	79.8	114732	91911	80.1

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1.Legislators, senior officials and managers	73269	61362	83.7	139440	109044	78.2	243137	190659	78.4
2.Professionals	51883	42619	82.1	92851	65417	70.5	184112	118325	64.3
3.Technicians and Associated professionals	41490	33589	81.0	71371	54369	76.2	129475	97816	75.5
4.Clerks	31257	28217	90.3	54454	49573	91.0	100666	84016	83.5
5.Service workers and shop and market sales workers	28067	20965	74.7	45093	33954	75.3	74073	58808	79.4
6.Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	22923	19951	87.0	37772	33176	87.8	64592	61195	94.7
7. Craft and related trade workers	30333	22419	73.9	51963	37767	72.7	88646	67482	76.1
8. Plant and machine operators and assemblers	32765	23869	72.8	56162	40945	72.9	93140	72944	78.3
9.Elementary occupations	22007	18022	81.9	35471	28841	81.3	61225	52025	85.0
0. Armed forces	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	126370	118948	94.1

Source: Calculation of experts of Employment Office from staff number, pay and income data collected by the Employment Office and its predecessors.

The highest pay is in the legislators, senior officials and managers' category (1), where there are significantly fewer women than men. In category (2), where women are in the majority, pay is also higher than the average national. In both the first and second category, the ratio of female/male income was initially slightly above the national average, but in 2001 it decreased below the national average. The biggest gap was in category (2). In the analysed period the Clerks' (4) pay ratio between women and men was higher than the national average at the beginning, but at the end the general pay level of this category increased, and so did the gender pay gap. In the categories Service workers and shop market sales workers (5); Craft and related trade workers (7); Plant and machine operators and assemblers (8), the gender pay gap was higher than the national average, but it decreased by the end of the period.

Employment Arrangements and Work - Family Interface

Employment Conditions.

Contractual Arrangements: Work, Employment, Self employment.

In Hungary there is a trend towards less secure employment. In spite of this familiar trend, it is very difficult to prove with the data and it is even more difficult to show that women are more affected than men. In Table 19 below we can see that after 1992 the share of self-employed people was globally constant and fewer women were self-employed than men. In practice, this means that self-employed men often have female helpers inside the family, who themselves are not officially self-employed. Self-employed women very rarely have this kind of support.

Table 19. Number and per cent of Self Employed 1992-2001, I. quarter

	Self-employed	Men			Women	
		Within			Within	
		1000	Age 15-74		1000	Age 15-74
1992	362	16.75	9.73	236	12.63	5.89
1993	345	17.20	9.37	196	11.14	4.86
1994	357	18.16	9.57	191	11.32	4.72
1995	371	18.83	10.03	183	11.33	4.49
1996	377	19.04	10.10	176	11.09	4.32
1997	383	19.14	10.23	170	10.70	4.19
1998	351	17.75	9.49	174	10.61	4.31
1999	370	18.08	10.03	179	10.54	4.45
2000	368	17.78	10.02	168	9.83	4.21
2001	350	16.61	9.53	164	9.45	4.10

Source: Own calculation upon Labour Force Surveys (Slight differences comparing with Table 15 due to approximation error.)

Numbers regarding self-employment in Table 19 are very confusing. Self-employment very often means covered (secret) employment by other employers, so-called 'forced self-employment.' In these cases, the employer does not want to sign an employment contract with his/her employee so as to not have any contractual responsibility and to avoid paying social insurance contributions for the employee. This practice became more and more dangerous, and finally on July 1, 2003 a new law was introduced to stop this practice. Upon this law any working contract must be judged regarding all the circumstances of work, and if it is a kind of employment-employee relation this must be formalised in a working contract. It is forbidden to use the workforce as self-employed. There is strict enforcement of the law coupled with heavy punishment for offenders. We have only an approximation of how women are affected by this new law and we think that women are affected to the same extent as men. However other guesses are that

women take part in the grey economy much more than men do. In the grey economy they are not even self-employed, and there is no any contractual framework for their job. They are absolutely dependent on their boss, and no rules represent their interests. This kind of "employment" can be found among maids, shop assistants, private tutors/teachers, fitness teachers, etc.

Working Time (paid employment) and Changes in Labour Codes on Working Time

There is no change legally in working hours in Hungary. Since 1983, the legal work week is 40 hours. (See Hungarian Labour Code No XXII of 1992; Art 117/B.) But there is still a slight practical increase in actual working hours as is shown in Table 20 below. Legal daily maximum working hours are 12 and maximum weekly hours are 60 if employee is in reserve or he/she is close relative of the owner (Art.139). Gender is not taken into consideration.

Mandatory overtime should not expose the employee to health and safety hazards, and should not impose a large burden on the employee given his/her personal and family circumstances. Between two working days, the employer is obliged to assure a minimum of 11 hours rest.

Legal daily minimum working hours are 4 working hours per day.

Table 20. Actual hours worked by sex.

	199 2	199 3	199 4	199 5	199 6	199 7	199 8	199 9	200 0
MEN									
Average weekly hours worked in main work	38.9	39.9	40.1	40.1	41.4	40.5	40.3	40.9	41.1
Average weekly hours worked in main and second work	39.8	40.6	40.6	40.6	41.8	40.7	40.6	41.3	41.4
WOMEN									
Average weekly hours worked in main work	35.0	35.5	35.4	35.5	36.7	36.0	36.4	37.0	36.9
Average weekly hours worked in main and second work	35.4	35.9	35.7	35.8	37.0	36.1	36.6	37.2	37.1
BOTH SEXES									
Average weekly hours worked in main work	37.1	37.9	37.9	38.1	39.3	38.5	38.6	39.2	39.2
Average weekly hours worked in main and second work	37.8	38.4	38.3	38.5	39.6	38.7	38.8	39.4	39.5

Source: The Hungarian Labour Market, 2002. MTA KTK.

Table 20 shows the difference of average working hours between men and women. This difference narrowed by the end of the period represented in Table 20, because the slight increase in working hours was greater for women than for men. Currently, there is a trade union initiative to decrease working hours to 38 hours a week.

In Hungary part-time work and other forms of flexible work are unusual because of legislation and tradition. The Code of Social Insurance has declared that 1 insured day is equivalent to 8 working hours, which means that in part-time employment, an employee must work more than one day for one day of pension. On the other hand, the employer's health care contribution for part-time workers is equivalent to full-time workers. In other words, the employer has no incentive to employ two part-time workers instead of one full-time employee. The result can be seen in Table 21.

Table 21. Percent of employed people who worked less than 40 hours per week by gender

Year	Men	Women	Together
2000	2.7	8.5	5.0
2001	2.8	7.0	4.8
2003	2.9	8.0	5.3

Source: Labour Force Survey

Compared to EU countries, where part time workers represent more than 17% of employed people, in Hungary only about 5% of the working population works less than 40 hours per week. Other forms of flexible work, like telecommuting or flex hours are infrequent in Hungary. There is strong governmental effort to establish new opportunities for distance work through special tender competitions.

Working conditions: Country level findings on working conditions, and comparison with Foundation findings.

Concerning working conditions, all the EU Directives of this topic have already been harmonised in Hungary. Personal experiences of “harassment at work”, “violence at work” and “sexual discrimination” is a very difficult problem in each European country. In Hungary such tendencies and examples are still hidden. Now the obligation of proof is changing – i.e. the employer is obliged to certify in every case that s/he does not discriminate. The injured employee has only to mention an existing employer's rule or solution, which represents a certain kind of discrimination. In the opinion of the experts we must have more 3 – 5 years to collect juridical experience of such cases.

Regarding health and safety conditions, there was not evidence of significant differences between male- and female-dominated workplaces.

Household, Employment and Childcare.

Household demography

Hungarian families show similar tendencies as in other European countries: later marriages, decreasing birth rates, more single parents, and more female head of households. Table 22 represents the household demography of the last decade.

Table 22. % men and women who: married or co-habiting with dependent child; married or co-habiting without child; lone parent; single without children.

	1990	1995	2001
Men, % of Male population	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married/co-habiting with dependent child	44.3	47.2	45.3
Married/co-habiting without dependent child	30.3	30.6	30.9
Lone parent	2.7	2.2	1.9
Single without children	22.7	20.0	21.8
Women, % Female population	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married/co-habiting with dependent child	36.4	37.7	36.0
Married/co-habiting without dependent child	24.9	24.4	24.6
Lone parent	9.0	9.7	10.4
Single without children	29.7	28.2	29.0

Source: Census. Central Statistical Office, Hungary.

Single mothers increase each year, whereas single fathers are unusual and have decreased slightly. This is somewhat contradictory to the equal legal treatment of divorced parents.

Table 23 shows the typical male and female time table.

Table 23. Average daily time-table of the population aged 18-69 years, 1993 (minutes)

	Single	Married /co-habiting without children	Married /co-habiting with one child	Married /co-habiting with two or more children
	Women			
Socially obligatory time	570	614	638	655
Earning-producing activity	338	315	315	268
Learning, self-education	19	4	5	5
Household work, taking care of family	141	237	264	324
Transport	72	59	54	58
Physiological needs	646	635	631	620

Free Time	224	191	171	165
Total	1440	1440	1440	1440
	Single	Married /co-habiting without children	Married /co-habiting with one child	Married /co-habiting with two or more children
	Men			
Socially obligatory time	507	551	576	589
Earning-producing activity	331	391	404	370
Learning, self-education	6	7	5	5
Household work, taking care of family	89	84	102	150
Transport	81	69	65	64
Physiological needs	645	646	623	635
Free Time	287	243	242	216
Total	1440	1440	1440	1440

Source: Living standard 1988-1997. Central Statistical Office.

What is not in the Table 23: Compared to before 1990 time table with the latest one, the most important change is the big standard deviation of the time spent on earning-producing activity. Those who became unemployed or inactive this time decreased radically, and for those who are working this time increased. The difference between single women and women with children increased.

Social welfare

Motherhood is traditionally highly valued in Hungarian society, which is shown in the social benefits associated with small children. Table 24 comprises the elements of child-care support.

Table 24. System of Hungarian child-care support

Name of the support	Authorisation	Duration	Measure
Family tax-benefit	One of the parents with taxed income	From 91 st day of pregnancy up to the age 16 of the child	Fixed –detailed yearly in the Act of National Budget
Prenatal allowance	Insurance based	Once after childbirth	150 % of the yearly pension minimum
Maternity subsidy	Insurance based	168 calendar days	70 % of the daily allowance
Childcare fee	Insurance based	Up to age 2 of the baby	70 % of the daily allowance – maximum triple of yearly wage minimum. Any type of working is not allowed
Childcare allowance	Citizenship – preliminary insurance is	A) 3 years after the birth of the child	Fixed, yearly pension minimum.

	not needed	B) Up to the third year of child after maternity leave	Part-time working is allowed after 1.5 year age of the child.
Family allowance	Citizenship	From the birth up to the age of 16 of the child	Fixed, but A) higher for second and third children B) higher for single parent

The childcare support system was reconstructed in 1997 when the supports were divided into two main groups, namely:

- Supports upon insurance basis, and upon employment (income earning).
- Supports upon citizenship. It means that every Hungarian citizen is authorised for these supports, regardless of insurance or employment.

Insurance and employment based supports are as follows:

- Family tax-benefit. The circle of authorised families are, where the parents are bringing up one or more children until the age of 16, from the 91st day of pregnancy. The measure of tax-benefit is fixed by months and by number of children – detailed yearly in the Act of National Budget.
- Prenatal allowance: special support of childbirth – once, maximum 180 days after the birth – its upper limit is 150 % of the yearly pension minimum.
- Permanent material supports: Support of pregnancy and childbirth: it is a special support for pregnancy and childbirth for 168 calendar days “maternity/paternity subsidy” its measure is 70% of the daily allowance, but its maximum is the triple of net minimum wage. The term of such leave is insurance time. Maternity/paternity leave: after the time of pregnancy and childbirth to the age of 2 of the baby. For this support either mother or father is authorised. If maternity or paternity leave is taken, no type of work is allowed.

Childcare supports upon citizenship:

This support is for those who have no insured preliminary time and for those who want to stay at home with the children after the age of 2 to the age of 3.

The term of this support is 3 years for non-insured and 1 year for insured persons after maternity leave. The money amount of this support is fixed, it is equal with the yearly pension minimum.

Family allowance: it is a permanent support from the birth to the age of 16 of the child. It’s measure is fixed and for the second and third children it is higher, than for the first. The measure of family allowance is higher for lone parents.

Table 25 shows how much child-care support was spent in Hungary.

Table 25. Aggregate expenditure figures for family benefits

Year	Prenatal allowance	Maternity benefits*	Child-care		Family allowance	Schooling subsidy	Total	Payments as a % of GDP
			fee	allowance				
Million HUF								
1970	673	88	-	1 191	2 810	-	4 762	1.43
1980	1 535	360	-	3 913	13 561	-	19 369	2.69
1990	4 062	726	9 669	3 754	64 281	-	82 492	3.95
1995	8 904	2 030	20 384	11 264	100 188	-	142 770	2.54
1996	8 276	1 325	22 252	14 110	95 031	-	140 994	2.05
1997	6 013	1 649	12 713	26 909	105 262	-	152 546	1.79
1998	6 924	1 943	1 113	38 537	120 174	-	168 691	1.65
1999	7 768	2 084	-	44 501	121 201	10 544	186 098	1.63
2000	10 047	2 335	20 381	38 418	55 607	76 910	203 697	1.58
2001	12 470	2 524	29 646	39 109	52 187	81 793	217 729	1.46

*Up to 31 December, 1992 maternity grant; from 1 January, 1993 to April, 1996 pregnancy allowance; from 15 April, 1996 maternity subsidy.

Source: Yearbook of Welfare Statistic, Hungarian Central Statistical Office

Table 25 shows that there is a continuous decrease of family benefit expenditure as a percentage of GDP after 1990, which just in very small part can be explained by the decrease of the number of newly born babies. The decreasing budget for family benefits highlights the problem of distribution of this money. Up till now - with slight changes - the general principle was the entitlement upon insurance and/or citizenship. There is more and more support for mean-tested benefits. Income distribution has widened greatly in Hungary after 1990. Rich families, even if they have many children, do not need governmental support. Mothers in poor families struggle enormously to provide for their children. Their natural reaction to the circumstances is to have fewer children, in spite of the fact that there are relatively more children in poor families than in rich families. The decreasing birth rate of economically well-off women can be explained by other factors.

During the economic transition process, family benefits had different uses. Namely in the first decade of the 1990s – when the unemployment rate was the highest - the ruling tendency was, mostly for unskilled women, to obtain childcare allowance if unemployed. This is the reason why – however bad the national economy had been – the main goal of social benefits were material support for the unemployed and material support for the children of unemployed women. At the same time – similar to the European trends – a drop of number of births took place. Therefore – at least currently – one of the main goals of Governmental support concerning childcare is to stop the population decline and stimulate Hungarian families and women to bear more children.

Working women, on average, can count on less governmental support in childcare. As Table 26 shows number of places in infant nurseries has decreased.

Table 26. Main data of infant nurseries

Year	Number of institutions	Number of places	Number of places per hundred children aged 0-2 years
1990	10003	50250	13.7
1995	628	31020	9.0
1996	570	27826	8.3
1997	559	26956	8.4
1998	565	26947	8.8
1999	549	26071	8.9
2000	532	24965	8.7
2001	532	24394	8.6

Source: Yearbook of Welfare Statistic, Hungarian Central Statistical Office

While public sources of money spent on childcare decreased, some new measures helped mothers with children. Not only fathers became entitled to receive childcare allowances but grandparents, too. Grandparents initially became entitled to hold childcare allowances only if they do not receive a pension. As a result, very few – only 300 till 2003 – grandparents cared officially for their grandchild. The act 2003/IV modified this rule, and grandparents with pensions or similar allowances became entitled to receive childcare benefits instead of the mother or the father. The result of the modified act is not yet known.

Regarding passive and active policy measures coping with unemployment, there were lot of changes during 1990s. However there is no difference in general treatment of women and men regarding the consequence of this policy. The behaviour of unemployed women and men, if they are looking for job, is different. Berde, 2003 showed that women are ready to accept a job on average for 20% less income than men with the same qualification.

Those elements of active labour market programmes, which place emphasis on disadvantaged groups, always impact women. Supported territories by Equal European Union Initiative in the field of active labour market programs regarding women are as follows:

- Development of the so-called “social economy” (third sector) mainly concerning public services. This area could give work opportunities for women over 40 with low levels of education.
- Gender mainstreaming. Support of co-ordination of work and family life, with flexible and more effective working conditions.
- Decreasing labour market differences and segregation between men and women.

Before the economic transition retirement age for men was 60, and for women 55. After the re-construction of the Pension Insurance Fund from 1 Jan 1998, the retirement age is 62 regardless of gender.

Increasing of retirement age is continuous as Table 27 shows:

Table 27. Retirement age.

Women	
Time of birth	Retirement age
1940	55
1941	56
1942	57
1943	58
1944	59
1945	60
1946	61
1947 an over	62
Men	
Time of birth	Retirement age
Before 1938	60 years
1938	61 year
After 1938	62 years

During implementation of the new system, there were different schemes for early retirement, and many women (and men) used the system in case of unemployment or fear of unemployment. Women had more opportunity for this kind of "shelter", because their previous retirement age was lower. In the future this shelter will exist less and less. However there are some exemptions elaborated into the law:

If a person has 38 insured years s/he is authorised to retire at age 57. If at age 57, the person has fewer than 38 insured years his/her retirement provision is decreased. The retirement provisions are calculated upon the income obtained by the person in active ages. Because women's income level is about 20-30% less than men's income, this disadvantage affects women more in old age, when there is usually no other opportunity to earn money expect for the pension. Other disadvantages for women in old age are because of child-rearing. Women often spend a few or many years out of the labour market. This fact has two consequences: they receive less remuneration when they return to the labour market than those who never left. This drawback can remain till the end of their active ages. Another drawback is fewer years in the labour market and thus, fewer retirement provisions.

Gender Equality and the Legislative Framework.

Hungarian Legal Regulation concerning Gender Equality

The regulation are as follows:

Act XX of 1949 – The Constitution of the Hungarian Republic,

Code XXII of 1992 – Hungarian Labour Code, (partly)

Code XCIII of 1993 – Code on Occupational Health and Safety, (partly)

Act IV of 1991 – Code on Promoting Employment and Support of Unemployed (partly)

Act CXXV of 2003 – Act on Equal Treatment and Promoting Equal Opportunities.

Equal pay legislation (harmonisation with EU Directive – ‘equal value’ legislation).

Upon the rules of 75 /117 /EEC Directive rule Art 142 /A of the Hungarian Labour Code in the process of equal payment, unreasonable discrimination between employees is prohibited. In the definition of equal value, quantitative and qualitative characteristics of given tasks, working conditions, necessary skills, physical and mental experiences are only to be taken into consideration. (For the enumeration of legal elements regarding the legislative framework see Appendix 2.) These elements are frequently controlled by the National Labour Inspectorate.

Protective measures for women (pregnancy, raising small children).

Upon the Art 138 of the Hungarian Labour Code the expectant mother is authorised 24 weeks holiday for taking care of her newborn baby. Four weeks of this leave can be taken before birth, which leaves 20 weeks after birth. The employee is authorised for 3 years leave for raising small children, and also authorised for extra paid holidays. (Two days if she has 1 child, 5 days if she has 2 children, and 7 if she has more children, up to the age 16 of the child.)

There are special rules prohibiting pregnant women and young mothers to work under dangerous health conditions. Overtime employment of pregnant women, and young single parents is prohibited.

Sex discrimination legislation

Before the Act on Equal Treatment entered into force, there has been some precedence in Hungarian Labour jurisdiction on sex discrimination. For example, in one case, one employer employed only men where women could have been employed too. The judge ruled that in this case, the employer practiced sex discrimination and prohibited further discrimination.

We have no experiences concerning vocational training, redeployment and working conditions. Before the Equal Treatment Act such kinds of legal disputes were very extraordinary. On the other hand, on the surface, there are no direct contradictions with protective legislation. We neither have practical experiences on the efficiency of the Equal Opportunity Authority. In about 3 – 5 years, experience with the new Act will reveal, or at least, say something about its effectiveness.

Other laws, e.g. ‘Act of Equal Opportunities’

In the end of 2003 an Act (No. CXXV on Equal Treatment and Promoting Equal Opportunities) was accepted on equal opportunities and equal treatment. Considering the contents of the Act, it is a framework for equal treatment of the sexes. The rules of the Act make a distinction between direct or indirect discrimination. Indirect discrimination is more dangerous in Hungary since it where there are no visible and proven disadvantages for the person, but the person still was forced into more unfavourable conditions due to discrimination. The most important cases of discrimination in the act are: harassment, illegal segregation and punishment. At the same time, it is not illegal to give preferences to disadvantaged groups or persons.

The National Machinery for Monitoring and Implementing equal rights

The most important governmental institution on monitoring and implementing equal rights in Hungary is the National Equal Treatment Authority with its general authority. It has rights to investigate and determine whether someone was discriminated against in one or more respects enumerated in the Act.

The possible consequences available for the Authority are as follows:

- interruption of the illegal situation,
- making its ruling public,
- penalties,
- other consequences according to other acts concerned.

The penalised organisation or employer is allowed to appeal the Authority's ruling to a judge. The Ombudsman of Human Rights is authorised to investigate parallel with the Authority in order to help victims of discrimination.

Since the Act on Equal Treatment only entered into force on 27 January this year, we have no practical experiences of it, nor do we have experiences of co-operation between the Authority and women's NGOs. Currently, women's NGOs are very active in working on penal sanctions of family harassment. Due to the initiative of women's NGOs, there is a special case in Hungarian Penal Code for protection against family harassment. This rule entered into force at the end of 2003.

Concerning equal pay, the most important monitoring element is the Labour Inspectorate which has authority to examine working conditions and pay. We have no exact data on such kind of monitoring yet, but hopefully in the future we will know about these topics more. In public organisations, every employer over 50 employees is required – together with the trade union or works council - to create a fixed term equal opportunity action plan. The equal opportunity action plan is supposed to be implemented in private firms as well at some point in the future.

Gender and Employment: the Industrial Relations Context.

Industrial Relations: trade unions and collective bargaining.

Unionisation became weaker in all sectors and regions in Hungary after the economic transition, and this trend continues today. The young workforce seems not to be interested in unionisation and at the same time older employees are not satisfied with the programs and successes of trade unions. Therefore the level of unionisation has dropped to about 30% of all workers.

Before the economic transition, about 99% of employees were members of unions in Hungary. The decrease after economic transition is partly explained by the high level of unemployment at the beginning of 1990s and partly by the new circumstances. Hungarian trade unions had no experience in working in private firms.

Nowadays trade unions are quite strong at multi-national firms and they are very weak at SME's. In addition, trade union's historical legacy is important in some sectors such as the mining industry, chemical industry, pharmaceutical industry, light industry, construction industry and food industry.

Gender and trade unions.

Hungarian trade union confederations have not collected data of membership concerning gender yet. But there is a handbook edited by the experts of the National Confederation of Hungarian Trade Unions entitled 'EU Directives of Industrial Relations and Their Validation in the Hungarian Practice of Collective Bargaining` (See in the Bibliography). There is a separate chapter in the handbook on Gender equal opportunity and collective bargaining.

In Hungary there is an act on the European Works Councils but it will enter into force only on 1 May 2004. The general opinion of experts is that the European Works Councils efficiency will be similar in Hungary as in other member states.

In Hungary there are 6 national Trade Union Confederations. They are members of the Employee's Side of National Interest Reconciliation Council. Only one of these 6 confederations has a women's section, the National Confederation of Hungarian Trade Unions. This section has a sub-committee of Gender Equal Opportunities. Their last important event was the Third National Conference of Employed Women held in March 2003 where the participants could get a presentation on Equal Opportunity Policies of the EU.

Other issues and recent campaigns on women and EO were:

- EMCEF Conference was held in Budapest on 6-7 December 2002 entitled “Integration of Gender Mainstreaming into the Activities of European Works Councils”.
- ILO Conference was held in Budapest on 18 December 2003 entitled “Gender Mainstreaming on Workplaces”. This conference was held by the Hungarian National ILO Council. The two main presentations of the conference were on promoting gender mainstreaming generally, and promoting gender mainstreaming through collective bargaining.
- Budapest Local Authority has its own Gender Mainstreaming program for 2003.

Conclusions.

General overview of gender equality and employment.

There were big changes in the Hungarian labour market in 1990s. As a consequence the labour market had a new structure and there was a big loss of work force. Regarding female positions in the labour market we found:

- The unemployment rate for women rose less than for men. The cause was that more women than men who lost their jobs left the labour market and became inactive.
- The big loss of jobs in the 1990s was absorbed by the male and female workforces relatively equally.
- The economic changes did not ease occupational segregation by gender. The wage gap also has not disappeared and in some cases it became even larger.
- Hungarian women changed their attitude toward employment. There was not a significant shift, but nowadays there are a significant number of women who no longer see employment outside the home as a desirable objective.
- Gender segregation of occupation continued and in some fields increased more. The occupations where women are in the majority usually are connected with services, education and care.
- Women are underrepresented in senior and managerial positions, and in some cases their position has deteriorated even more. Women are well represented in the professional ranks, but they always bump into the 'glass ceiling'.
- Due to social insurance reform women save their material disadvantages accumulated during their active years. Those who earn less as employed people will earn less when they receive pensions proportional to income.

Key advances and key barriers to gender equality.

The Hungarian gender equality legislation has been almost entirely harmonised with EU legislation. This gives at least a legal framework and a great opportunity for women to protect their interests. In spite of the fact that this legislation is quite new and there is little evidence of it in practice or whether these rules will be enforced. Still, the legal harmonisation is one of the key advances in the field of gender equality.

Another advance in gender equality is the increasing level of educational attainment of women. In the most recent year of data, there were not only equal but even more women who graduated from universities and colleges than men.

Barriers to gender equality: The changes in the economy did not come together with the changes of job allocation regarding men and women. The job segregation has not disappeared. Women remained under-represented in senior and managerial position too. 'Glass ceiling' neither has disappeared nor increased.

The reform of social insurance was inevitable, but still has some unintentional consequence. The most important is that the disadvantageous remuneration due to women's familial responsibilities is reflected in the pension scheme.

The women themselves up till now did very little for obtaining equal treatment with men. There are only very few NGOs working for female-male equality. This is also true with respect to trade unions.

The Hungarian society has not learned yet democratic behaviour. Men and women are treated upon confusing rules, and the usual attitude of people toward legislating not to fulfil the requirement, instead saying: let's wait for a while and everything will change. Stop permanent changes the rules which once were elaborated could greatly increase the safety feelings of women.

Concluding: there is a lot to do in the field of gender equality, but the new framework of economy greatly facilitates the struggle of women.

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¹ The Bibliography contains not only the references used in the text but also the most important gender articles and books of the analysed period.

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Website of Hungarian EO Governmental Office (www.eselyegyenloseg.hu)

Other websites concerning gender equity are:

www.palya.hu,

www.romapage.hu,

www.civil.info.hu,

Appendix 1

Statistical Literature Review.²

1. CSO Labour Force Survey

The Hungarian Central Statistical Office has been conducting a labour force survey since January 1992 -using the experience of the pilot survey carried out in 1991 - to obtain ongoing information on the labour force status of the Hungarian population. The labour Force Survey (LFS) is a household survey which provides quarterly information on the non-institutional population aged 15-74. The aim of the survey is to observe employment and unemployment according to the international statistical recommendation based on the concepts and definitions recommended by the ILO independently from the existing national labour regulations or their changes.

In the LFS the population surveyed is divided into two main groups according to the economic activity performed by them during the reference week.

- economically active persons (labour force) and
- economically inactive persons.

The group of economically active persons consists of those being in the labour market either as employed or unemployed during the reference week.

According to ILO recommendations those designated employed are persons aged 15-74 who, during the reference week:

- worked one hour or more for pay, profit or payment in kind in a job or in a business (including on a farm)
- worked one hour or more without payment in a family business or on a farm (i.e. unpaid family workers),
- had a job from which they were temporarily absent the survey week.

Persons on child-care leave are classified according to their activity. Conscripts are considered as economically active persons, exceptions are marked in the footnotes of the table.

Unemployed persons are persons aged 15-74 who:

- were without work, i.e. neither had a job nor were at work (for one hour or more) in paid employment or a self-employment during the reference week
- had actively looked for work at any time in the four weeks up to the end of the reference week,
- were available for work within two weeks following the reference week or were waiting to start a new job following the reference week or were waiting to start a new job within 30 days.

The labour force comprises employed and unemployed persons.

² It is used Lázár, 2002.

Persons are defined economically inactive if they were neither employed nor unemployed, as defined.

The Labour force Survey is based on a multi-stage stratified sample design. The stages of sampling are defined as follows: primary sampling units (PSUs) are enumeration districts (EDs) and secondary sampling units (SSUs) are dwellings in settlements with 15,000 or more inhabitants, while PSUs are settlements, SSUs are Eds and ultimate sampling unit are dwellings in all other cases.

The sampling frame or address register of the LFS consists of 12,775 sample units (SUs), covers 751 settlements of the country, and contains about 626,000 addresses. The quarterly sample of the LFS is selected from the address register. From each of the 12,775 SU's, three addresses are selected by simple random sampling. The interviewers visit one address in each SU during one month. The main indicators of the labour market are representative for regions.

The LFS sample is basically a sample of dwellings, and in each sampled dwelling, labour market information is collected from each household and from each person aged 15-74 living there. The sample has a simple rotation pattern: any household entering the sample at some time is expected to provide labour market information for six consecutive quarters, then leaves the sample permanently. The samples of two consecutive periods tend to be less than 5/6, which would be obtained at a 100% response rate.

2. Wage Survey Database

The Employment Office (and its legal predecessors) has conducted since 1992, once a year, a representative survey to investigate individual wages and earnings. The present form of the survey exists only from 1994. The survey uses an enormous sample and is conducted at the request of the Ministry of Economic Affairs (formerly: Ministry of Labour and Ministry of Social and Family Affairs.)

The reference month of data collocations the months of May every year, but for the calculation of the monthly average of irregularly paid benefits (beyond the base wage/salary), the total amount of such benefits received during the previous year is used.

In the competitive sector, initially data collection only covered companies of over 20 persons; in this group it is incumbent on all companies to provide information, but the sample only includes employees born on certain days.

Data collection has covered companies of 10-19 since 1996, and companies of 5-9 have been covered since 1999, where the companies actually involved in data collection are selected at random (ca. 20%) and the selected ones have to provide information about all their full-time employees.

Data on basic wages and earnings structure can only be retrieved from the surveys in Hungary, this it is practically these huge, annually generated databases that can serve as the basis of the wage reconciliation negotiations conducted by the social partners.

In the budgetary sector all budgetary institutions provide information, regardless of their size, in a way that the decisive majority of the local budgetary institutions - the ones that are included in the central payroll accounting system - provide fully comprehensive information, and the remaining budgetary institutions provide information only about their employees who were born on certain days (regarded as the sample).

Data has only been collected on the professional members of the armed forces since 1999.

Prior to 1992, such data collection took place every three years, thus we are in possessions of an enormous data base of the years 1983, 1986 and 1989.

Of the employees included in the sample, the following data are available:

- the sector the employer operates in, headcount, employer's local unit, type of entity, ownership structure
- employee's wage category, job, male/female, age, educational background.

3. Unemployment Register Database

The huge database contains so called administrative records which are collected monthly and include the individual data of the registered unemployed.

The register actually contains all job seekers, but out of them, at a given pint of time, only those are regarded as registered unemployed who:

- had themselves registered with a local office of the Nationals Employment Office as unemployed (i.e. he/she has got no job but wishes to work, for which they seek assistance from the labour market organisation).
- at the point of time in question (on the closing days of the individual months), the person is not a pensioner or a full-time student, and is ready to co-operate with the local employment office in order to become employed.

If a person included in the register is working under any subsidised employment programme on the closing day, or is a participant of a labour market training programme, or has a short-term, temporary job her/his unemployed status is suspended.

If the client is not willing to co-operate with the local office he/she is removed from the register of unemployed.

Furthermore, detailed monthly statistics of participation in the different active programmes, number of participants and their inflow and outflow are prepared monthly, based on the support amounts actually paid.

The denominators of the unemployment rates calculated for the registered unemployed are the economically active population data published by the Central Statistical Office's labour market account, and its breakdown by region and country.

The number of registered unemployed and the registered unemployment rate are obviously different from the figures of the central Statistical Office's labour force survey. It is mainly conceptual approach and the fundamentally different monitoring/measuring methods that account for this variance.

Appendix 2

Equal treatment EU directives which have been harmonised in Hungarian law:

75/117/EEC, 92/85/EEC, 96/34/EC, 76/207/EEC, 79/7/EEC, 86/378/EEC, 86/613/EEC, 97/80/EC, 2000/43/EC, 2000/78/EC.