Workpackage 7

Evaluation of the National Frameworks of Women and Men in Science in Austria, Germany and Poland

Similarities, differences and main results

Andrea Rothe

March 2007

(GB_management)

Contents

1. Goals of the evaluation of the national frameworks of equal opportunities in science

The evaluation of the frameworks in Austria, Poland and Germany of the status of equal opportunities in science includes an overview over the main findings in the three nations. The main aim is to summarise the results in reference to the question how we can use the results for our further work on tools and indicators for a gender budgeting in scientific organisations.

Important topics that the analyses of the national frameworks focused on were the analysis of the career and social situation of women and men in scientific organisations. This includes an analysis of the professional career progress from school leaving qualifications until professorship of women and men, which clearly shows the typical gender pyramid. Further more important features of the income situation for academic women and men are summarised showing that more women than men are employed in lower paid positions, in part-time jobs or in temporary employments. Another part of this chapter shows general features of the social situation of women and men in science. One general feature which we could depict is that less women than men in a higher academic career level have children. A critical consideration of these analyses showed that there is partly an enormous lack of data on this topic.

In chapter 3 the main topic are the legal regulations for equal opportunities for women and men in science with a strong focus on the national laws for universities. This includes regulations on the organisational level as well as the regulations concerning the implementation of gender studies into the scientific activities.

In chapter 4 the financing of scientific organisations in general and of universities as examples are in the focus of the evaluation. A special focus is on how equal opportunity actions or measures are included. Again there are fundamental differences between the three nations but nevertheless general tendencies can be observed in respect to advancing women in science.

In the conclusion in chapter 5 the findings are summarised and conclusions are drawn as to the question where gender budgeting could be useful to improve equal opportunities of women and men in science.

2. Career and social situation of women and men in the scientific organisations

A general problem within the scientific community is that women tend to drop out of the scientific career the higher the positions get. This phenomenon is often called “the leaky pipeline“ as with every step in the scientific career the proportion of women decreases dramatically. As shown below the tendency that women drop out of the scientific career, is true in all three nations which were analysed within this project. Even with a very different historical background or with comparable high numbers of highly qualified women (PhD and higher) like in Poland, women are still not adequately represented in top positions.

2.1 From school leaving to professorship

If we look at the school-leaving qualification level of those who gain the qualification to enter university there is a clear tendency in all three analysed countries that women not only surpass the 50% but also have better examines then men. This tendency is also true for those entering university. In 2004 resp. 2005 the percentage of women among first-year students was as followed:

- Germany: 53% (2005)
- Poland 56,5 % (2005/2006)
- Austria: 53% (2004)

This rather equalised proportion changes however if we take a closer look at the universities and the scientific fields which are chosen by the female and male students. In Germany as in Poland and Austria women and men tend to show gender specific patterns. Women are overrepresented in languages and cultural studies, teaching (pedagogic), art and veterinary medicine while men are overrepresented in engineering and the majority of natural sciences. The numbers are relatively equal in law, economics and social sciences and in medicine. (GEW Genderreport 2004, Tab. 5.5, 37, NEWW-Polska according to GUS 30.XI.2005.Wroblewski et al. 2005, 18f.). As it is the fields of study chosen by female students are often considered as less attractive for future employers and less paid. However the percentage of underrepresentation of women in natural sciences and engineering is by far smaller in Poland than in Germany or Austria. Different to Germany and Austria in Poland female students were dominating among all kind of students, especially at post-graduate studies where in 2004/2005 they constituted more than 70% of all students. (Study of NEWW-Polska according to GUS)

If we look at the next career level in all three countries the “scissor” between women and men clearly widens. While women had been more than 50% of the first year students, their percentage drops considerably when is comes to passing the PhD. Germany brings up the rear with Austria a bit better but still below the EU average.

Table 1: Proportion of female PhD graduates 2003

	Proportion of female PhD graduates in %
EU-25	43
Germany	38
Poland	45
Austria	41

(She Figures 2006, 21-22)

The tendencies found in earlier education are also applicable for the researchers in the Higher Education Sector and in the Government Sector: the number of women decreases even more and women remain strongly underrepresented in natural sciences and engineering, again with the exception of Poland where women are quite well represented in most fields and are surpassing the EU-25 level in all fields. (She Figures 2006, 28 and 42, NEWW-Polska according to GUS 2005/2006)

Table 2: Proportion of female researchers in the higher education sector by academic discipline, 2003

	natural sciences	engineering and technologies	medical sciences	agricultural sciences	social sciences	humanities	Total
EU-25	29.1	21.3	39.9	39.7	39.3	38.3	35
D	17.7	11.5	34	30.5	29.8	29.8	25
A	21.6	12.6	35.8	40.9	36.3	42.8	30
PL	38	19.2	53.6	49.7	46	45	41

Source: She Figures 2006, 28 and 42

The proportion of female researchers in total in Germany in 2003 was 19% with a low general growth rate of researchers. In Austria a slow increase of female researchers can be observed. While there were around 18.7% female scientists in 1998, this number had grown to about 21% in 2003. Nevertheless while the proportion of researchers of the total labour force was raising the gender gap concerning female and male researchers is widening. (She Figures 2003, 27 and She Figures 2006, 24.) In Poland the average participation of women in science is higher. Among the academic staff women constitute 40%. The reason for this high percentage of women in science is not absolutely clear. An Enwise report from 2004 states, that women in pre-communist times in Poland had better access to education and political rights than women in Western European countries. And during the communist regime the official propaganda emphasised the equality of sexes even so no special consideration was given to women in science. During the socialist times as well as after the transition to market economy the position of women at universities and other research institutions stayed relatively strong as to quantities, but comparable only few women reached high positions in science. (Waste of talents, European Commission 2004 website) This is true for all three analysed nations.

Table 3: Proportion of female academic staff by grade[1] and total, 2004

	Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Grade D	Total
EU-25	15.3	32.2	42	43.3	36.4
Germany	9.2	16.1	25.9	35.6	29.2
Austria	9.5	16.2	35.6	37.9	29.7
Poland	19.5	27.4	41	:	34.9

Source: She Figures 2006, 57

Generally a more or less moderate increase of women in Grade-A positions is observable but nevertheless looking at Grade-A professorships there is still a long way until 50% are achieved. Germany and Austria even stay well below the EU-25 average in every academic

[1] The academic staff grades A-D refer to the division by the European Commission, see She Figures 2006, 100: Grade A: The single highest grade/post at which research is normally conducted. Grade B: Researchers working in positions not as senior as top position (A) but more senior than newly qualified PhD holders. Grade C: The first grade/post into which a newly qualified PhD graduate would normally be recruited. Grade D: Either postgraduate students not yet holding a PhD degree who are engaged as researchers, or researchers working in posts that do not normally require a PhD.

discipline mentioned in the EU ranking. Only in Poland a considerable higher number of women succeeded in getting a professorship. And again the academic fields show the typical gender pattern.

Table 4: Proportion of female grade-A staff by main academic discipline, 2004

	natural sciences	engineering and technologies	medical sciences	agricultural sciences	social sciences	humanities	Total
EU-25	11.3	5.8	15.6	14.9	16.6	23.9	15.3
D	5.6	3.8	5.8	8.9	8	16.3	9.2
A	4.4	3.7	8.9	5.6	9.6	19.1	9.5
PL	16.9	8.7	28.2	24.3	20.6	22.5	19.5

Source: She Figures 2006, 57 and 60

An important aspect is the budget which is given to researchers, the so called R&D expenditures. This comparison shows a reverse order. While the share of women in science in Poland is nearly 43%, the rate of expenditures is extremely low. In Germany it is the other way round and only Austria has a relatively high percentage of women researchers and high expenditures for the researchers.

Table 5: Rate of expenditure per researcher

	Total per year/€	Women share in %
Germany	19,925.00	16.00
Poland	1,862.00	42.90
Austria	19,703.00	31.90

(European Commission, Community Research 2004b, 81 and statistics for 2003 see CEWS)

For a European gender watch system which includes gender budgeting this feature should be taken into consideration as an important one. The same is true for an analysis of the working conditions. Even so the three countries are different otherwise here again typical discriminations show with female scientists often working in much more precarious working conditions than men. In Germany e.g. studies from the 1990s show that female academics and scientists in the non-professorial middle-range positions, tend to be in lower-status jobs that are frequently part-time, with shorter duration of contracts and equipped with fewer resources than men (Lind 2004, 107). At the same time the proportion of temporary positions in scientific organisations have a clear effect on the proportion of women employed. The more temporary jobs in the institutions, the higher the proportion of women will be. In Austria similar conditions show up with much more women working in precarious and temporary working conditions in non-university institutions. Nowadays the situation for women at universities becomes more similar to the non-university institutions due to new legal regulations and temporary and low-paid project positions have increased at universities as well. (Wroblewski et al 2005, 53ff.) The situation in Poland to this question is still to be researched.

The precarious working conditions are also connected with the sector in which academic women and men work. The general differentiation is Higher Educational Sector[2] (HES), Governmental Sector[3] (GOV) and Business Sector[4] (BES) and the percentage of women in the sectors is shown below.

[2] According to the European Commission the Higher Education Sector comprises all universities, colleges of technology and other institutes of post-secondary education (She Figures 2006, 96).
[3] The Government Sector is defined as including „all departments, offices and other bodies, which furnish but normally do not sell to the community those common services, other than higher education,

Table 6: Proportion of female researchers by sector 2003

	Higher Education Sector (HES)	Government Sector (GOV)	Business Enterprise Sector (BES)
EU-25	35%	35%	24%
Germany	25%	27%	12%
Poland	41%	41%	28%
Austria	30%	35%	10%

(She Figures 2006, 28)

So women in all three countries work much more often in the public sector which generally is the sector which is less good paid than the private business sector. For a gender budgeting further research is need on the question of why women stay in these jobs. Among others one reason may be that women think or hope in the public sector it is easier to arrange a work-life-balance with job and children. Another reason might be that the fields of study of most women are not very interesting for private industry.

2.2 Features of the income situation for academic women and men

For a gender budgeting analysis the income situation of women and men is an important feature. As indicated above, women are generally still a minority in Grade-A positions in scientific organisations even so they are by now a majority among the first year students. This might be partly due to a generation lack but in Poland e.g. the percentage of women in science has been high since quite a while and the percentage of women in top positions is still comparable low. And looking at the gender gap, also in Poland where the differences between minimum and maximum wages are quite high, on the lowest level a high percentage of the jobs are occupied by women. That means that in Poland relatively many women work in science but compared to other countries they receive little money. (Eurostat S&T Statistics. 2000)

In Germany the proportion of female professors varies considerably according to salary group and again the proportion of women in lower salary groups is much higher than in the well paid groups. Further more performance related earnings in addition to the basic salary have been introduced in Germany and it is expected that another pay gap among professors will open up in the future in disadvantage for women as was shown by other experiences with flexible salaries. (BuKoF 2003, 88) The same gender pattern can be observed in Austria concerning distribution of financial resources and income. Women in the research field are concentrated on jobs with lower salaries. (She Figures 2006, 70, 92)

Additional female researchers in Austria, Poland and Germany are still less likely to get research funding than men, another important feature which should be considered by a gender budgeting might in science.

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which cannot otherwise be conveniently and economically provided and administer the state and the economic and social policy of the community. (...); Non-profit institutes (NPIs) controlled and mainly financed by government“ (She Figures 2006, 96).

[4] The European Commission defines the Business Enterprise Sector as the field containing firms, organisations and institutions, whose primary activity is the market production of goods and services. (She Figures 2006, 96).

Looking at the income gap it is also important to look at the problem of equal pay for equal work. There are still considerable differences even so in science they seem to be less than in others fields of employment. In connection with equal pay attention should also be paid to the progress a career takes for women and men. Are there differences and time lags between the career of female and male scientists? And what are the reasons? Is it because these women or men have children to rise or is it independent from children but connected with the sex of the person?

2.3 Social situation of women and men in science

As many research studies of the near past showed the social situation of the parents has a big influence on the future career of the children. In Germany and Austria parents' educational attainment and their professional background are the most important factors on the question of education. In Germany female students are more likely to have parents with qualifications for higher education (54%) than male students (50%). (17. Sozialerhebung des DSW 2003, 90 – 120 and Schnitzer et al. 2001, 100- 118) In Poland no data is available on the social situation of students.

Among the students at German universities only 6% have children and in Austria they are 10%. The likeliness of having children is clearly growing with the age of the students.

Among the female scientific staff there is a big gender gap as to having children. In Germany and in Austria women who are trying to enter a university career are less likely to have children then men in equal positions. And female professors in Germany are more frequently single or divorced than are male professors. No data is available for Poland but generally the situation of working women in Poland is, to a large extent, still defined by the double role which women are expected to fill according to the stereotypical dominant model of family life.

Concerning the administrative personnel the situations is different and more women working in the administrative field have children than their male colleagues.

A qualitative study in Austria investigating the compatibility of science at the university and family confirms the supposition that the compatibility of children and profession gets harder in the course of the career. (Buchinger/Gödl/Gschwandtner 2002, 294)

A gender budgeting approach might be able to take a closer look at the needs of academics rising children – still mainly women – which may include child care facilities or flexible working conditions but also a different culture of "excellence" in academia.

2.4 Data availability

As gets clear from the examination of the situation of women and men in the scientific field and at universities there is still quite a bit data missing to allow a complex analysis of the whole state of affairs. In Germany there was a first report on the "Promotion of Women in Science" in 1989, which contained proposals and recommendations in particular on:

- the appointment of women's representatives at universities and non-university research institutions,
- on procedures to fill vacant positions,
- on specific support measures for female scientists and
- on the drawing up of women promotion schedules as well as on women's studies.

The report was updated in 1996 and now included the situation of the new *Länder* since 1990. In 2005 the Commission published the ninth continuation of its report on "Women in Decision Making at Universities and Non-University Research Institutions" (Bund-Länder-Kommission für Bildungsplanung und Forschungsförderung 2005b). These statistics are a valuable source for sex-disaggregated data in science.

The statistical evaluations refer to bipolar male-female categorisations. It is rare for several characteristics (such as origin, social situation, sex etc) to be linked so as to provide a more complex picture. More detailed gender differentiated research into the allocation of outside funding and the gender pay gap in science remains to be done.

In Poland there still exists very little sex-disaggregated data. In the pre-accession period there was little interest in researching the situation of women. This situation got a little bit better after the Beijing Conference 1995 with some new programs of the government and further improved with the process of accession to the EU. Unfortunately, as far as the situation of women in science is concerned no special effort was made by the authorities to develop any data. The most known research on the situation of women in science is the "Review of the situation in Poland" made by the Helsinki group on Women and Science in 2001, by the Enwise report from 2004 and by She Figures 2006.

In Austria there are two different fields of problems in respect to data about the situation of women at universities: Firstly concerning the data about the number of personnel at universities there is the difficulty of comparability. As the law regulating the university sector was amended in 1999 and 2002 with the consequence of introducing different kinds of employment, the data is difficult to compare concerning time series. But nevertheless it reveals the gender pyramid concerning the career opportunities of men and women. Further it is observable that female and male students are concentrated within a few "typical" female or male fields of studies. Regarding the career path upwards we can conclude that although an increase of women is taking place at all levels of the career path, women are still concentrated on the positions which are characterised by temporary employments and lower wages. (BMBWK 1999, BMBWK 2002a, BMBWK 2005c, Wroblewski et al 2005)

Secondly the availability of gender disaggregated data concerning income and research funding is quite unsatisfactory. So the conclusions about the differences in income were drawn from the data concerning gender differences among the scientific personnel. Similar deficiencies in the provision of data are ascertainable concerning women in decision making and regarding the social situation of women. The data available reveals that there is a low representation of women in decision-making boards. This is quite logical when we consider that high-ranking academics are preferably appointed in such boards. Regarding the social situation of women the data provided by the University of Vienna ascertains that it is harder for women to combine children and career in higher ranking position than for men and therefore women tend to abstain from having children or they resign from the career path.

3. Legal regulation for equal opportunities in science

All member states of the European Union have included equal opportunities and equal rights for women and men in their constitutions by now. Nevertheless legal regulations for equal opportunities are still very different within Europe even so all countries are officially supposed to introduce equal opportunities and gender mainstreaming. This is affirmed by the Helsinki Group (European Commission, the Helsinki Group on Women and Science 2002), who states that there is a considerable diversity among its member countries in terms of policies. This is also true for Austria, Germany and Poland and it is also true for the universities. This includes both the scientific infrastructure and the equality climate. According to an overview by the European Commission Germany has implemented the most diverse national policies to promote gender equality in science in comparison to all other European members. The following table shows the wide range of national policies to promote gender equality in science (2004), but it should be kept in mind that not all organisations use all policies at all times.

Table 11: Equality Measures in science by country

	DE	AT	PL
Equal treatment legislation (general)	X	X	X
Commitment to gender mainstreaming	X	X	X
National Committee on Women & Science	X	X	X
Women & Science Unit in Research Ministry	X	X	
Publication of Sex-disaggregated Statistics	X	X	
Development of Gender equality indicators	X	X	
Gender balance targets: public committees	X	X	
Gender balance targets on university committees	X		
Gender Equality Plans in Univ.& Research I.	X	X	
Gender or Women Studies & Research at Universities	X	X	X
Programmes on W&S, special funding available	X	X	
Nationwide Centres on Women & Science	X		

Source: European Commission, Community Research 2005, 11

An important new motivation to implement equal opportunities on all levels in all European countries was the Amsterdam Treaty in 1999. In Germany e.g. the federal government recognised the equality of women and men as a general guiding principle and several actions were started. However with the change of government towards a more conservative government in 2005, it is not yet clear in as far the gender mainstreaming process started in 1999 would be continued. In Poland the accession to the European Union was a major improvement as Poland had to adopt equal opportunity strategies of Europe but here the government changed as well towards an ultra right party and no further legal regulations for the advancement of women in science were introduced. The dependency on periodically changing governments is a real challenge for a continuous improvement of equal opportunities for women and men as it is always closely connected with legal decisions and budgets which are given or withdrawn from measures to improve the situation.

3.1 Legal regulation for equal opportunities for women and men in universities

To enforce equal opportunities in education and research Germany, Austria and Poland implemented some organisational structures on the level of the ministries responsible for education, science and research.

In Austria in the Ministry of Science there is the Women and Science/Gender Equality unit as well as a ministerial working group on Gender Mainstreaming. Additional several boards and committees have been established to implement equal opportunities on the level of universities. These are:

- the Working Committee on Equal Treatment (Arbeitskreises für Gleichbehandlungsfragen)
- the Working Group University Women (ARGE Universitätsfrauen)
- the Arbitration Commission (Schiedskommission)
- the Advisory Board for the Promotion of Women at Universities,
- a coordination unit at Universities and
- child care facilities and (3rd chapter, §§ 41-44).

In Poland in the Ministry of Science and Higher Education a Steering Committee on Women in Science had been introduced, but according to the research of Neww-Polska, the Committee is not visible or active at the moment, probably because of its low prestige and lack of support by the authorities of the Ministry.

On the level of the German Ministry for research and development (BMBF) a special department has been found to promote the implementation of equal opportunities for women and men in education and research. The department is part of the ministry's section for "strategy and fundamental issues". At the level of the *Bund-Länder* Commission for Educational Planning and Research Promotion (BLK), there used to be the working group "Promotion of Women in Science" till 2006, which was disposed of because of the reform of federalism. At the moment there is still

- the Federal Conference of Higher Education Institutions' Women's Representatives (BuKoF), an organisation of the women's representatives in the Federal Government and the *Länder*, and
- the *Länder* Conferences of Higher Education Institutions' Women's Representatives (LaKoF), an organisation of the women's representatives of the *Länder*.

The organisations are funded by the Federal Government and by some *Länder*.

Within the universities in Poland there are no special policies for the advancement of women and equal opportunities. The responsible ministry would be the Ministry of Science and Higher Education but it does not make efforts to introduce gender mainstreaming into their work. It can be hoped that international contracts and legislation of the European Union ratified by Poland impose an obligation on the state to advance legislative actions to ensure the principles of equal rights of women and men and gender mainstreaming in all social areas including science.

In Germany and Austria fundamental changes have taken/take place with the introduction of new laws. In Austria the legal basis is the new University Law in 2002 (Universitätsgesetz 2002; UG 2002). Equal treatment of women and men is a declared goal of the university reform (BMBWK 2005b, 134). The aim is to secure the legal standards which existed before and introduce gender equality considerations in the new logic of governance. In Germany the

so-called "Exzellenzinitiative" started in 2005 which allows the universities to apply for about 1.9 billion Euro funding for excellence. In this context the topic of equal opportunities experienced a new attention because one of the general criteria for evaluating applications is "measures taken for the equality of women and men"[5].

In Germany as well as in Austria the new laws have established a direct connection between equal opportunities and the budget for the universities. In Germany the amendment to the Framework Act for Higher Education (HRG) in 1998 mentions not only that there have to be women's and/or equal rights representatives but also introduces an evaluation and performance-oriented funding of universities. The appropriation of government funds will be geared to universities' performance in teaching and research, their support for young scientists and the enforcement of gender equality (§ 5 and § 6). It would be necessary to further research on the output and outcome of these regulations at the universities.

In Austria the newly established Working Committee on Equal Treatment has the right to draft a proposal of the affirmative action plan (§44 UG). It includes the duty to eliminate existing under-representation of women and the elimination of existing disadvantages for women in the context of its employment contract. Further more it supports women's and gender research, training and professional development as well as budgetary matters. Important instruments of the university management are performance agreements (*Leistungsvereinbarungen*) (§ 13 (1) UG), budgetary allocation according to formulas (*Formelbudget*) (§ 12 (8) UG) as well as balancesheet of knowledge (*Wissensbilanz*) (§ 13 (6) UG).

3.2 Gender studies and gender research at universities

The introduction of gender studies and gender research is generally seen as an important factor for the implementation of equal opportunities at universities as it is an additional anchorage of equal opportunities with its main focus on the scientific complexity of gender relations. Additional gender research can influence the process of university reform in a gender sensitive way with pilot schemes and scientific research projects.

In Germany women's and gender research is rooted in feminist movement of the 1970s. Today equal opportunities policy and women's and gender research are strongly interconnected and partially overlap. Women's and gender research seeks to contribute to the modernisation and democratisation of scholarship, science, technology and society. It is represented in almost all academic disciplines and has taken shape as an independent discipline since the 1990s. Nevertheless in terms of extent, resources and degree of institutionalisation throughout Germany, women's and gender research can only be described as marginal.

In Poland nowadays gender studies exist in the major academic centers like Krakow, Warsaw, Poznan, Lodz, Szczecin or Wroclaw. They were stared in the 1990s by feminists who were often both activists and academics. In most cases gender studies at universities are located in the departments of social science but in case of Krakow (The Feminist Academy) they are run by an NGO and students usually have to pay in order to attend courses. There is also a center at Warsaw University dealing with interdisciplinary research on gender. The interest from the students in gender studies is big but there is not much support from the au-

[5] „In allen drei Förderlinien ist die Eignung der Maßnahmen zur Förderung der Gleichstellung von Männern und Frauen in der Wissenschaft zu berücksichtigen." (Bund-Länder-Vereinbarung über die Exzellenzinitiative 2005, § 3 (1))

thorities or the universities themselves. Academics who want to run a gender course or start gender studies have to go through a lot of bureaucratic procedures.

In Austria women's and gender research has been established in many fields as part of the research agenda at universities over the years. (BMBWK 2006b, 57) In Austria there is even a legally regulation, the affirmative action plan of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (BGBl II 94/2001), that stipulates that women's and gender research has to be hold equivalent to any other research topic, when evaluating one's qualifications. The coordination units have been aimed at supporting research and teaching activities in women's and gender research. (Wroblewksi et al 2005, 109) In the 1990s the ministry established the research focus on gender studies and policy relevant university research. The gender studies focus aimed at feminist research on the analytical category gender, the analysis of gender norms and roles, whereas the policy relevant university research aimed at developing models and strategies for the improvement of the situation of women in science (compare Wroblewski et al 2005, 108ff).

4. Funding of universities and of the promotion of women and equal opportunity policies

The financing of the universities is a crucial point for gender budgeting. Generally the financing of scientific organisations is not only very diverse in different nations but may also be very different within single nations such as Germany which has 16 different university laws and budgeting systems due to its federal system. These inconsistencies within Europe make comparisons very difficult. Nevertheless as a general tendency it can be stated that only little attention is laid on equal opportunities measures or if there are any the gender indicators in the actual policies are not very powerful.

4.1 Financing of the university sector

In Germany the legal foundation for the 117 universities, 164 universities of applied sciences and 57 universities of art and music is laid down in the Framework Act for Higher Education (Hochschulrahmengesetz – HRG) at the federal level of the Ministry for education and research (BMBF) and in the Higher Education Laws of the states (*Länder)*. The power of the *Länder* increased lately with the reform of federalism. Nowadays business concepts like transparency, target orientation and controlling are decisive for scientific organisations and show the tendency towards an economisation of these organisations. Important keywords are internationalisation, competition and performance orientation which have become essential factors for running and financing universities.

The same tendencies are to be observed in Austria. The 15 scientific universities and 6 universities for the Arts are subject to the regulations of the new university law (UG 2002). Different to Germany, in Austria a uniform national legal framework for finances exists for all universities. The authority in charge of all issues concerning science and universities is the Ministry for Education, Science and Arts (BMBWK). However due to the UG 2002 numerous competences concerning decision making were transferred from the state level to the level of the universities. The universities became independent legal entities and henceforth they receive a "global budget". A performance orientated management (New Public Management)

was introduced and the universities are nowadays governed with the help of management instruments.

In Poland the system for financing university and the academic staff at universities is quite different from Austria and Germany. One important player is the Ministry for education which is responsible for financing all the teaching activities at the universities. The other player is the Minister of Science and Information Society Technologies (IST) which is responsible for research and which also saw quite a lot of changes in the financing of the universities in the last years. The Minister of Science and Information Society Technologies (IST) passed an Act on Principles of Financing Science and the Council of Science was introduced. This is very powerful in respect to the funding of scientific activities or research as it advises the ministry. Some other boards are included as well but with considerably less power.

4.2 Management instruments for financing and budgeting of universities

In Austria and in Germany scientific organisations including universities are governed by management instruments (new public management). This is a consequence of the general economisation of scientific organisations and the increased independence of the organisations.

In Germany most *Länder* have introduced new budget regulations in the last years. The budget of the university which is affected by these new regulations varies considerable from 5% to 95% of the public funding. The majority of the procedures to allocate funds to higher education institutions include the following 3 components:

- *Discretionary incremental components*
  In this type of funding the state fixes the size of the budget and the allocation of the funds. Funding by means of incremental extrapolation from a historically established budget takes annual increases into account. This type represents the most common form of basic funding for universities.
- *Indicator linked components (~performance indicators, formula based)*
  Here, the amount of state funding a university receives depends on its performance. It is calculated according to formulae. The proportion of funding allocated in this way varies greatly in the *Länder*
- *Contractual components (~ agreements on objectives and performance)*
  Agreements on objectives and performance are reached on a cooperative basis. The extent to which they have been successful in attaining their targets is examined and evaluated after a certain period. Financial allocations can be linked to certain measures or to the attainment of the agreed targets – however, this has hardly ever been put into practice between state and university yet.

In addition, there are *earmarked project funds (zweckgebundene Projektmittel)* which the universities have to compete for by submitting applications.

At the moment indicators on teaching dominate in all procedures. Equality is taken into account by almost all procedures. Generally up to now most indicators refer to quantitative aspects only. The allocation of budget is done by paying a fixed bonus for achieving certain situations ("*price model*") or by dividing a fixed amount up between the universities according to the indicator values ("*distribution model*").

In Austria the new model for the financing of the universities comes into force in 2007 and consists of several different management instruments. The performance agreements (legal

agreements between the Ministry of Education, Science and Arts and each university) and the budgetary allocation according to formulas are those two instruments which have direct influence on the allocation of the budget.

- *Performance agreements*
  They regulate the responsibilities between the universities and the Ministry for Education, Science and Arts. Indicators provide a basis for the description of the quantitative and qualitative performance of a university in order to measure the fulfilment of specific objectives. Important aspects are requirements of the universities (i.e. personnel, invested capital, replacement investment, maintenance), demands (e.g. the expected demand by the students and the graduates), performance in itself (fulfilment of the objectives concerning teaching and research as well as concerning the development and transmission of the arts and of advanced training) and societal objectives (measures in order to increase the proportion of women in leading positions of the university, offers for employed students, the development of art-, culture- and research fields etc.)
- *Budgetary allocation according to formulas based on indicators*
  The allocation of this part of the budget is dependent on the development of the actual status of specific indicators. In Austria there are indicators for teaching (number of active students, number of degrees of Baccelaureate, M.A. and Diploma Studies etc.), for the field of research and development of arts (number and degrees of PhD-Studies, income from research and development projects etc.) and for societal objectives (share of women among appointed professors, number of female PhD-graduate, number of students taking part in international mobility programmes etc.). The different indicators have a different weight as to how much money they are “worth”. Up to now there are only quantitative indicators.

As mentioned above the budget for the *teaching* activities at the universities in Poland comes from the Ministry of education and is distributed according to a certain fixed formula. The allocation of *research* budgets to universities in Poland is regulated in the Act of the Rules of Financing Science. If funding is needed by a university the demand has to be drafted in a proposal and send to the ministry. The Science Council then evaluates and selects proposals which get funding. Additional the following criteria are evaluated:

- In case someone applies for scientific activities, important criteria are the development of personnel, owing the rights to confer the scientific grades, owning laboratories with accreditation and quality systems, number of realised research projects, target projects, and international programmes, achievements – especially prizes,
- For the evaluation of the results of scientific activities, important points are: reviewed publications of employees, scientific monographies and academic manuals written by employees,
- For the evaluation of the practical usage of the results of scientific research and development works important points are: new technologies, materials, products, systems, services and methods, implementations, patents, protecting laws for utilization patterns.

4.3 Gender indicators and actual policies for the allocation of budgets for equal opportunities at universities

As the main question of our project is how with the help of the allocation of budgets scientific organisations can achieve more gender equality this is also the crucial question when looking at the national frameworks for the financing of scientific organisations in Austria, Poland and Germany.

In Poland there used to be no special measures or indicators for the allocation of budgets in favour of gender equality at the universities. However when Poland joined the European Union, the Polish government was obliged to implement EU law into the Polish legal system which included a commitment for gender mainstreaming policy as it is a EU priority. Nevertheless the research of NEWW-Polska in the Polish Ministries of Education and Science showed that no one was able to answer the question if any gender indicators are taken into account for the allocation of budgets in science. So up to now there is no special funding for the promotion of women at universities like e.g. provisions for women's offices, mentoring programmes, incentive systems which allocate budgets according to the success of the advancement of women etc. If there are special funds, incentives, provisions for the reconciliation of paid work and private care work or substitutes for persons in parental leave, they do not officially apply to the promotion of women in science.

With the introduction of management instruments Austria and Germany have build up steering instruments to influence the flow of funds. These include the advancement of the equality of women and men in science in several points. That is why the merging of scientific and administrative activity is seen as offering new starting-points for equality policy but also as bringing with it new inequalities, which need to be tackled.

In Austria with the new university law committees and boards attend to the distribution of budgets for this aim. E.g. the Gender Mainstreaming Working Group developed a guideline and checklists on integrating gender into research which is aimed at integrating Gender Mainstreaming into research funding (BMBWK 2004). Apart from the legal and institutional arrangements, a broad range of measures to promote the role of women and to enhance equal opportunities are financed, which can be categorized as follows (compare BMBWK 2006b, 56):

- measures with program character (programs of the ministry and EU programs): e.g. ESF, goal 3[6], Gender Mainstreaming in EU research programs, white paper on the promotion of women in science, program fFORTE[7] (women in science and engineering), call for tenders on gender studies for strategic studies.
- monetary and non-monetary individual support: stipend programs for different levels of qualification as well as awards to promote scientific development (Charlotte Bühler-Program, APART-Program, Hertha-Firnberg-Program, Doc-fFORTE, Gabriele-Possaner-award), promotion of women related publications, mentoring program, coaching program.
- accompanying structural measures: coordination units for women's and gender research; child care facilities, promotion of scientific events on women's and gender research.

Within the universities in Austria a lot of special programmes for the advancement of women in science have been financed over the last years. Additional performance agreements and the budgetary allocation according to formulas have been introduced, which include gender

[6] Informationen: http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/europa/esf/ziel3/massnahmen.xml#H11
[7] Informationen: http://www.fforte.at/home.php

specific aspects. However these aspects are mainly included in “sociality objectives” and refer mainly to measures in order to increase the proportion of women in leading positions of the university. Also women’s and gender research has been established and funded in many fields as part of the research agenda at universities. But looking at the amount which is used on different measures on equal opportunities at universities in Austria, the budget stays quite limited in comparison to the budgets of the universities and further cutbacks are possible.

In Germany there were from 1990 till 2000 the Special Funding Programmes for Higher Education and Research II and III (HSP) and from 2001 till 2006 the Academic Science Programme (HWP) by which a total of 30 million Euro annually was provided by the Federal Government and the *Länder* for the programme section "Equal Opportunities for Women in Science and Research". 75% were to support the qualification of women for leading positions at universities, 15% should be used for women's and gender studies and 10% were to support measures to motivate women in scientific and technical subjects. At least 80% of the women promotion programmes in higher education of the last years had been financed from HWP funds. That is why it is generally feared that after the end of the programme the measures for the promotion of women in science in Germany will collapse as in most universities it is not yet clear if and if yes who will take over the costs for the measures. Still there are a number of other and smaller programmes by foundations and since 2000 the "Centre of Excellence Women and Science" (CEWS) is opened. The centre aims at the increase of the proportion of women in executive positions in science and research, to increase the efficiency of measures for equal opportunities and to implement Gender Mainstreaming.

The universities themselves also include gender-sensible aspects in different fields of funding such as agreements on objectives, in the formula for the formula based budgeting, in incentive systems between universities or within universities etc. Some universities have several years of experience in using incentive systems, e.g. FU Berlin or Dortmund University. Ziegele (1997, 2000) lists several possibilities as to how equality targets might flow into the allocation procedure. He refers both to the discretionary allocation of funding from state central-pools (e.g. an innovation-pool or a women's promotion fund) and to the formula-based allocation of funding. Equality targets can be reflected either in terms of indicators of their own or by weighting existing indicators. Indicators can be developed in terms of absolute numbers or in terms of numbers based on relationships (referring to changes over time, in relationship to the mean, with regard to input and output as well as the degree of attainment). In the context of discretionary allocation of funding, Ziegele mentions the integration of equality in a general pool to be allocated by means of agreements on objectives or applications. Alternatively a separate budget would have the advantage to provide a clearly defined sum for promoting women's development (2000, 33ff).

However the gender budgeting models used by the universities up to now, are no more than "first steps" as the statistical development clearly shows. No German or Austrian university has as yet a working and successful budgeting system with the clear and measurable objective to achieve equal opportunities for women and men until a certain date and/or up to a fixed degree.

5. Conclusion

The main question of the conclusion is what do we desiderate from the national frameworks and how does the analysis help us in the advancement of gender budgeting in scientific organisations?

As became clear in chapter 2 the representation and participation of women in science in the three different countries is still not sufficient and does not correspond with the high percentage of women starting at the universities. One important tool to improve the situation is offers for women to advance their scientific qualification and thus guarantee that enough qualified women can apply for jobs in science. This precondition is necessary however it is not enough as can e.g. be seen in Poland where there are a lot of highly qualified women in science since quite a long time but the percentage of women in Grade-A-positions is still low. There still exists a “glass ceiling” or “leaky pipeline” for women.

Nevertheless more women than men tend to stay in the Higher Education Sector (HES) and/or the Government Sector (GOV) than in the Business Enterprise Sector (BES). It seems that many women still accept worse payments in exchange for more secure working conditions. This puts a focus on the fact that up to now the planning and rising of children still is mainly in the responsibility of mothers and favours fathers who can build up their career heedless of having children. Budgeting should be used to improve the work-life-conditions for women and men alike. For a European gender watch system it should also be asked how working conditions in the private sector can be improved to motivate more women to benefit from the opportunities of business enterprises. This might include legal measures as well as new orientations in the organisational culture.

For a more thorough analysis of the national frameworks on these topics more gender disaggregated data would be necessary which up to now is not provided by the states.

A description and analysis of the legal regulations for equal opportunities for women and men – chapter 3 – showed that Germany has the most and the most diverse measures and instruments for the advancement of equal opportunities in science and Poland by far the least. Nevertheless Poland has the highest percentage of women on all levels within science. This strongly suggests that there is – or was – a different social culture during socialist times which still motivates women to enter a scientific career in all scientific fields. This indicates that it is also necessary to look more closely at the organisational culture within the universities. It might be that in Austria and especially in Germany a learning of scientific organisations is necessary to support a gender sensitive inclusion of women in science.

When it comes to legal regulation for equal opportunities for women and men in universities Austria and Germany have passed new university laws lately which offer a good legal basis for the implementation of gender mainstreaming and the advancement of women in science. Yet the results are far from satisfying. At the level of the universities the allocation of budgets according to formula which refer to the promotion of women are not very effective because the budgets linked to these criteria are comparable low. Another instrument which could be powerful are agreements on objectives. In Bavaria e.g. they will be a powerful instrument of the Ministry for Science, Research and Art to control the efficiency of the universities. The agreements have to include objectives on equal opportunities. As it is different to most other agreements, the agreements on objectives on equal opportunities are generally formulated without measurable agreements. So again their output and outcome will not be high.

As far as gender studies are concerned, legal regulations exist only in Austria and most of the universities nowadays have implemented gender studies to different extends. In Germany gender studies are implemented in many universities as well, but looking at the amount of resources and the institutionalisation of this scientific field gender studies are still quite marginal. In Poland gender studies exist only in the big universities and even there only because of the personal engagement of some feminist professors.

Generally it can be stated that legal regulations are (still) necessary to advance equal opportunities in science. And there needs to be more trans-national common understanding as to the meaning of the laws and regulations from the EU on equal opportunities. More transnational learning from each other and an orientation on best practices would be helpful.

The financing of the universities – as described in chapter 4 – is quite different in Poland, Germany and Austria. In Poland the financing is separated between teaching activities and research activities. While the teaching activities of the university personnel are strictly done by formula and are equal for women and men, the money for research activities are mainly distributed according to the evaluation of the Council of Science. The criteria for the distribution of research funding are not stipulated and there are no gender indicators.

As to gender indicators in the actual policies for the allocation of budgets at the universities these do not exist in Poland. For our further work it might be an important point for the implementation of gender budgeting that formally the Polish government is obliged to implement EU law into the Polish legal system which includes a commitment for gender mainstreaming as an important priority of the EU.

In Germany the allocation of the budget of the universities differs extremely from one *Land* to the other. While in some *Länder* the universities have more or less a global budgeting, in other *Länder* only up to 5% of the money is not prefixed by the ministry. However all *Länder* tend to implement more and more management instruments from new public management such as performance indicators, formula based budgets or agreements on objectives. The same is true for Austria.

Compared to Poland there are already gender indicators in the actual policies for the allocation of budgets at the universities in Austria and Germany. These were strengthened by to implementation of new management tools such as performance agreements, formula based budgeting, agreements on objectives or incentive systems between universities or within universities. Up to now their output and outcome for equal opportunities is not satisfying, but they can be seen as good starting points for the introduction of gender budgeting. Our further research will show what is necessary to transfer these instruments into more powerful tools for the advancement of women in science and which other tools and instruments are needed to achieve gender equality.

Questions which arise from the analysis of the national frameworks in Poland, Austria and Germany and which need to be answered on the course of the project are how are the structures of the budgeting process in respect to transparency of power relations and decision making, democratic and communicative structures and what can we learn about the organisational cultures and the way universities as organisation learn.

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Deutscher Bildungsserver: www.bildungsserver.de
(www.bildungsserver.de/zeigen.html?seite=296 - Bildungsstatistiken der Bundesländer)

Hochschul-Informations-System (HIS): http://www.his.de
(http://evanet.his.de/infoboerse/index.php - Infobörse Mittelverteilung)

Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (HRK) (association of university rectors): http://www.hrk.de/

Hochschulverband (universities' association): www.hochschulverband.de/cms

Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK) (standing committee of the ministers of the Länder responsible for higher education): http://www.kmk.org/

Wissenschaftsrat (science council): http://www.wissenschaftsrat.de/

International Web-sites:

FP6 SCIENCE AND SOCIETY WEBSITE, Women & science:
http://cordis.europa.eu/science-society//women.htm
http://ec.europa.eu/research/science-society/page_en.cfm?id=3197
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BF - Stefan Batory Foundation: http://www.batory.org.pl/english/prog.htm
Council for Science:
http://meinen.mnii.gov.pl/meinen/index.jsp?place=Menu08&news_cat_id=426&layout=5

Financing of R & D -
http://meinen.mnii.gov.pl/meinen/index.jsp?place=Menu08&news_cat_id=313&layout=2

FNP – Fundacja Nauki Polskiej: http://www.fnp.org.pl/ang/ofundacji/wladze.html

GUS – Główny Urząd Statystyczny: http://www.stat.gov.pl/

GUS Wynagrodzenia – Przeciętne miesięczne wynagrodzenie w gospodarce narodowej w złotych w latach 1950-2005 (podstawa wymiaru emerytur i rent):
http://www.stat.gov.pl/dane_spol-gosp/praca_ludnosc/mies_wynagr/index.htm

IAF - Independent Academic Forum: http://www.nfa.pl/print.php?what=article&id=20

KAF - Konrad Adenauer Foundation: http://www.kas.pl/

Krajowy Punkt Kontaktowy: http://www.6pr.pl/kpk.html

MENiS – Ministerstwo Edukacji Narodowej i Sportu:
http://www.menis.gov.pl/menis_en/higher_education/strategy.php

MF - Józef Mianowski Fund: http://www.mianowski.waw.pl/programme.htm

Ministry of Science and Information Technology Home Page:
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7th Framework Programme: http://www.kpk.gov.pl/inauguracja7pr/english/
ECTS – European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System:
http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/socrates/ects/index_en.html
FF - Ford Foundation: http://www.fordfound.org/about/guideline.cfm
Fulbright - Fulbright Grants Program: http://www.fulbright.edu.pl/index.php?strona=74
GMF - German Marshall Fund of the United States: http://www.gmfus.org/grants/index.cfm
MCA - Marie Curie Actions: http://cordis.europa.eu/mariecurie-actions/
Sixth Framework Programme: http://ec.europa.eu/research/fp6/index_en.cfm?p=0
VF - Volkswagen Foundation: http://www.volkswagenstiftung.de/index.php?id=3&L=1
WSF - World Society Foundation: http://www.unizh.ch/wsf/foundation.html

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Appreviations

B-GBG	Federal Government Equal Opportunities Act (*Bundes-Gleichbehandlungsgesetzes*)
BGBl	Legal source of Austrian federal legal acts (*Bundesgesetzblatt*)
BMBWK	Federal Ministry for Education, Science and Culture (*Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur*)
B-VG	Austrian Constitutional Act (*Bundes-Verfassungsgesetz*)
comp.	compare
ESF	European Social Fund
UG 2002	University Law (*Universitätsgesetz 2002*)
UOG	University Organization Law (*Universitätsorganisationsgesetz*): most provisions of this law have been replaced by the University Law 2002, only some constitutional provisions remain in force.