Gender inequality in the Dutch and Spanish students' part-time workplace: a still unresolved socio-cultural matter

How do Dutch and Spanish students experience gender inequality in their part-time jobs?



Fernando Navarro Martinez 11019190 ES4-4A

Dissertation Supervisor: B. C. van der Sluijs 22 June 2015

Academy of European Studies
The Hague University of Applied Sciences

Unida en la diversidad

In verscheidenheid verenigd

United in diversity

I. Executive Summary

While the socio-cultural concept of gender inequality in the workplace has been an issue since time immemorial, it has received more and more attention in recent years. Gender inequality is considered to be an essentially contested concept in which biological and cultural differences form the underlying principle that represents its deep-entrenched roots. Because of the fact that biological and physical differences between men and women cannot be changed, the solution finds its way in non-inherited matters.

With respect to analyse, compare and improve this socio-cultural difficulty in the Dutch and Spanish part-time student's workplace, a clear view of the gender equality level in the general workplace was presented. According to the World Economic Forum and the European Institute for Gender Inequality, the most common gender inequalities females face in the workplace were in relation to remuneration differences and both vertical and horizontal segregation. Although the extent to which Dutch female and Spanish female employees experience gender inequality in the workplace does not show considerably high differences, research has proven that Spanish female workers experience more gender inequality than Dutch workers of the same sex, in virtually all fields of the workplace.

As the concept of culture is closely connected to the gender inequality differences, in The Netherlands and Spain, both national cultures were analysed utilising cultural theories, in order to investigate the reason behind these types of gender inequalities. By means of comparing the Dutch and the Spanish culture, with the aid of the two cultural theories of Hofstede and Hampden-Turner, it became apparent that the Spanish culture was more likely to maintain gender inequality than the Dutch culture. The theories' cultural dimensions that were related to the Spanish culture reflects a virtually conservative character, which means that traditions in the Spanish culture are preserved, problems are unsolved because stress to resolve them and innovation to improve them is avoided, rather than challenged; people cling to that what they already have, know and are.

Through analysis of student opinions and experiences about the existence of gender inequality in their student part-time workplaces, it appears that students of the same nationality and gender experience similar gender inequalities in the workplace. As both Dutch and Spanish students felt related to the theories' dimensions that pertain to their countries' cultures, the theories proved to be a reliable tool to measure gender inequality in different cultures with.

Finally, as a result of the establishment of both national and European legislations, the upward tendency concerning the inequalities women face in the workplace has been limited in order to respect the fundamental values of the European Union, although there is still a lot of room for improvement in order to receive what the Dutch and Spanish employees rightfully deserve; an equal workplace for all.

II. Table of Contents

I. Executive Sun	nmary				•					3
II. Table of Cont	ents .									4
III. Table of Com	nparison, F	igures	s, Graph	s and 1	Tables					8
IV. Abbreviations	s .									9
V. Preface .										10
VI. Introduction .										12
VII. Methodology	/								•	13
1. Equality, Ger	nder and	the Ec	uality o	f Gend	ler .					18
1.1. The importa	nce of rec	iproca	ited com	prehen	sion				•	18
1.2. The product	ive versus	s recep	otive voc	abulary	<i>/</i> .					18
1.3. Factual vers	sus norma	tive ed	quality						•	19
1.4. Equality as	essentially	/ conte	ested cor	ncept					•	20
1.5. Equality from	m a Europ	ean ai	ngle .						•	22
1.6. The sex of t	he brain									23
2. Types of Ger	nder Inequ	uality	•							25
2.1. Unalterable	physical o	dissimi	larities							25
2.1.1. Th	e nature-r	nurture	debate							25
2.1.2. Th	e perseve	rance	of gende	er inequ	uality					26
2.	1.2.1 Hist	ory's c	lim corric	dors of	women'	s subo	rdinatio	n .		26
2.	1.2.2. The	e biolo	gical rea	son for	women	to hav	e a prim	nary		
re	sponsibili	ty to ra	aise child	lren						27
2.	1.2.3. Res	sulting	consequ	uences	concerr	ning the	e balanc	e betw	een	
рі	rivate life a	and wo	ork .							27
2.2. Most freque	nt types o	f inequ	uality on	the wo	rkplace					28
2.2.1. Ov	erall outco	omes o	of the Glo	obal G	ender G	ap Rep	ort.			28
2.2.2. Ec	onomical	partici	pation ar	nd oppo	ortunity					29
2.2.3. Ec	onomical	partici	pation ar	nd oppo	ortunity a	and its	fourfold	distinc	tion.	29
2.	2.3.1. Lab	our fo	rce parti	cipation	n .					30
2.	2.3.2. Wa	ge equ	uality for	similar	work					30
2.	2.3.3. Est	imated	d earn ind	come						31
2.	2.3.4. Leg	jislatoi	s, senio	officia	ls and n	nanage	ers .			32
2.3. The Europe	an Institut	e for C	ender Ir	equali	tv					33

2.3.1. The area of work			33			
2.3.2. A Comparison of The Netherlands and Spain in relation	with					
the average of the European Union	•		34			
2.3.2.1. Participation	•		34			
2.3.2.1.1. Full Time Equivalent employment	•		34			
2.3.2.1.2. Duration of work life			35			
2.3.2.2. Segregation	•		35			
2.3.2.2.1. Sectorial Segregation			35			
3. Culture, Cultural Theories and a Cross-National Comparison			37			
3.1. Defining culture			37			
3.1.1. The collective programming of the mind			38			
3.1.2. Culture in four elementary parts			38			
3.1.3. Culture as a pyramid			39			
3.1.4. National culture divided in three dimensions			40			
3.2. Measuring culture			40			
3.2.1. Hofstede's approach			41			
3.2.1.1. Power Distance	•		41			
3.2.1.2. Individualism versus Collectivism			41			
3.2.1.3. Masculinity versus Femininity			41			
3.2.1.4. Uncertainty Avoidance			42			
3.2.1.5. Confucian Dynamism			42			
3.2.1.6. Indulgence versus Restraint			42			
3.2.2. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's approach						
3.2.2.1. Universalism versus Particularism			43			
3.2.2.2. Individualism versus Communitarianism .			43			
3.2.2.3. Specific versus Diffuse			44			
3.2.2.4. Neutral versus Emotional			44			
3.2.2.5. Achievement versus Ascription			44			
3.2.2.6. Sequential Time versus Synchronous Time			45			
3.2.2.7. Internal Direction versus Outer Direction .			45			
3.3. Relating culture through a cross-cultural comparison						
3.3.1. Cross-national comparison with Hofstede's cultural dimensions						
3.3.2. Cross-national comparison with Trompenaars and						
Hampden-Turner's			47			

cultural dimension

4. Dutch and Spanish students about culture and gender equality			
in the part-time workplace		•	50
4.1. Definition student			50
4.2. Definition part-time job			50
4.3. The outcomes of the students' questionnaires			51
4.3.1. General information about the questionnaires' respondents			51
4.3.2. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning ge	nder		
inequality in the workplace			52
4.3.2.1. The respondents' opinions and experiences			
concerning gender inequality in the workplace .			52
4.3.2.2. Respondents' opinions about a statement			
concerning gender inequality			52
4.3.2.3. Equal treatment concerning different sexes .			53
4.3.2.4. Preference of a female boss in the workplace			54
4.3.2.5. Gender inequality concerning task and remunerat	ion		55
4.3.2.6. The disadvantages and advantages a particular s	ex coul	d	
experience in the workplace			56
4.3.2.7. The level of equality measured per county.			58
4.3.3. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning			
equality and culture			59
4.3.3.1. The influence of culture on gender inequality			59
4.3.3.2. Statements concerning equality and culture			60
4.3.4. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning			
culture and the workplace			62
4.3.4.1. Statements concerning culture and the workplace	•	•	63
5. The European Union towards an equal Europe			66
5.1. How the European Union facilitates the way to equality			
in the workplace			66
5.1.1. The deterioration of women's subordination			
in the workplace			66
5.1.2. The influence of the principle of direct effect.			66

5.1.3.	The E	uropean	Comi	mission	as gua	ardian			
of fun	damen	tal rights	S .						67
	5.1.3.	1. Prev	ention						67
	5.1.3.	2. Infrin	gemei	nt proc	edures		•		67
	5.1.3.	3. The	situatio	on outs	ide the	scope o	of the C	harter	68
5.1.4.	The E	uropean	Comi	mission	i's actio	ns .			68
	5.1.4.	1. The	Europe	ean Co	mmissi	on's act	ions		68
	5.1.4.	2. Emp	loymeı	nt in Me	ember S	States	•		68
	5.1.4.	3. Gend	der ga _l	р.			•		69
	5.1.4.	4. Com	pany b	ooards					70
VIII. Conclusion							•		71
IX. Recommendation	าร								74
X. References									76
XI. Index .									88
XII. Appendices									89
1. Questionna	aire								89
2. Interview									94
3. Informed C							98		
4. Students E							99		

III. Table of Comparisons, Figures, Graphs and Tables

Comparisons Comparison 1. A cross-national comparison of The Netherlands and Spain with Hofstede's dimensions . 47 Comparison 2. Classification of the Dutch and Spanish culture by means of Hofstede's cultural dimensions 49 Comparison 3. Classification of the Dutch and Spanish culture by means of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turners' dimensions . 49 **Figures** Figure 1. Culture divided in four elementary parts 39 Hofstede's pyramid model of culture Figure 2. 39 Graphs Graph 1. General information concerning the questionnaires' respondents. 52 Graph 2. Statement concerning gender equality in the workplace 53 Graph 3. Equal treatment concerning different sexes in the current workplace 54 Graph 4. The preference to have a female boss. 55 Graph 5. Inequality in tasks and salary 56 Graph 6. Advantages and disadvantages for different sexes. 58 Graph 7. Level of gender inequality 57 Graph 8. The connection between gender inequality and culture 60 Graph 9. Cultural behaviour 62 Cultural behaviour and work . 65 Graph 10. **Tables** Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum, Table 1. Ranking: The Netherlands . 32 Table 2. Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum, Ranking: Spain 33

IV. Abbreviations

CoJ Court of Justice
EU European Union

EIGE European Institute for Gender Inequality

EOS The Executive Operation Survey

ESF European Social Fund

IDV Individualism versus CollectivismIDS Institute of Development Studies

IND Indulgence versus RestraintIOL International Labour OfficeIND Indulgence versus Restraint

LTO Long-term versus Short-term Orientation

MAS Masculinity versus Femininity

MS Member State(s)

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PDI Power Distance Index

TEU Treaty on European Union

TFEU Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union

UAI Uncertainty Avoidance Index

UN United Nations

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

WEF World Economic Forum

WHO World Health Organization

V. Preface

This part of the paper was divided in two sections. First the motivation and purpose of the scope of the research was provided to understand the author's interests in the topic. Secondly, in the next part of this chapter, acknowledgments were provided to express the author's gratefulness concerning the aid from persons involved in the process of creating the paper.

The author's motivation, scope and interest concerning the research

It might be considered somewhat exaggerated, however, people who have seen, or even better explained 'felt,' Edvart Munch's painting 'The Scream, ' might understand to what extent I sometimes could be drowned in thought. Nevertheless, in this expressionistic self-portrait three persons are depicted. As the name of the portrait already suggests, the main person in front of the painting is screaming due to some unpleasant experiences he has experienced in his life, he shows his mental sufferings and emotional torments by screaming. His friends continue walking, which may indicate that they do not have appeared to master why their friend is suffering, as he is screaming from inside instead of out loud.

It stands to reason that his noiseless scream from the inside represents a prisoners in its own thoughts. The relation between 'The Scream' and my interest in researching gender inequality in different cultures pertains to my personal cultural background, owing to the fact that my identity is characterised by two different nationalities: a Dutch and a Spanish. Omitting all the benefits this situation has provided me over the past years, I sometimes have the feeling that I am a similar prisoner that is caught in between two different worlds, like the main person of the portrait; namely, a perceptible and a psychological world. In other words, the influence of having two passports from two dissimilar countries, and identifying myself with those considerably different nations' cultures, causes confusing situations at times. I could not consider myself totally Dutch, nor am I able to describe myself as completely Spanish, which makes me fall between two stools too.

A second reason why this painting has called my attention when it comes to describing my interest in the field of gender inequality in relation with different cultures is because the scream reaches a high level of despondency, despair and anxiety. These same emotions enter my mind when I closely examine the world these days. Gender inequality is one of those problems that create astonishment, and even incomprehension. Because, while this problem seems to be fundamentally persistent, it is not impossible to combat.

The third reason, and in addition the previous paragraph, I selected this painting to describe the motivation, purpose and scope of my research in relation to this topic, is the fact that I also consider this painting to be a reflection of the world in general. Beyond overall inequalities, despair and anxiety, I have noticed an underlying thought to be presented in Munch's painting. The two boys that are pictured in black, on the background of the painting, are the friends of the main person. In the meantime, together with the main person, they symbolise the world's society. In turn, the main person on its own represents the differences in equality, as he wrestles with personal issues. When his friends would detect, discover and understand the problems of the main person, they would be able to provide their friend with aid and they could search together for a possible solution for the problem. For that reason, it is tremendously important to denounce this topic, as nowadays' society needs to recognise that equality is obviously not a matter of course, however, it is rather something humanity could only achieve by cooperating. "Many hands make light work."

Acknowledgement

Gratitude is a feeling. While people attempt to explain feelings by means of expressing words, the way in which a person feels gratitude cannot be encompassed by writing. However, in this section of the Foreword, I will do my utmost to express my sincere gratitude. It is namely a complete privilege acknowledging the aid of professors, colleagues and friends in this section of this paper.

Firstly, honoured and pleased I speak my words of gratitude to Mr. K. M. C. Triest. I have become to master knowledge about gender inequality in the course of my academic career of European Studies. The course Women and Society from Ms. K. M. C. Triest, which I followed with great interest, has opened my eyes with respect to see, reason and understand the world from a different angle. I can consider the Women and Society classes as the absolute driving factor to the creation of a cross-national gender inequality based research.

Secondly, I am honestly appreciative of the effort Mr. B. C. van der Sluijs made to steer my research proceedings in the right direction. Other than reviewing his supervision on my dissertation's process as valuable and instructive, he has taught me useful skills during the last semester's minor "Philosophy, Art and Culture." The motivation to acquire the ability of how to connect different cultures with each other has made my dissertation's research work.

Thirdly, I would like to thank Ms. M. J. Kooper-Huigen for the concretising of my ideas. The encouragement, advice and critical view she provided during the brainstorm session in the first semester of last year, has deeply motivated me to create a cross-national comparison between The Netherlands and Spain.

Fourthly, I would like to thank Pr. Elena Juaristi Basalduch for her openness and personal opinions during the interview. The results about gender inequality in the Spanish workplace and the information about the European actions towards an more equal European Union served to enrich the paper enormously.

Finally, I am delighted to add my appreciation for all the 100 Dutch and Spanish students

who completed my created questionnaire with a professional and open attitude, and with confidence in my discretion and with complete dedication.

VI. Introduction

By nature we, human beings, never could be equal for the full hundred per cent. Around nine billion people are living on earth whose all were born with different DNA and a different appearance. Both our characters, talents and thoughts and physical appearance will never be the same. Even identical twins are not completely identical. This because of a different upbringing, different circumstances or perhaps simply by chance, there is always a difference, even minimal. (GeneWatch UK, 2011, p. 1).

Omitting the unalterable physical differences that humans distinguish, this paper emphasises the differences that are changeable; the deeper cultural factors that differentiate people from each other. A considerable strong normative framework regarding gender inequality has been established over the last decades. This framework has anchored itself in important resolutions and legislations on both European and national level the last past decades. However, attempts to make this framework feasible in practical terms in order to create further development towards gender in equality in the workplace, has come to experience some difficulties. The reason why it has proven to be difficult to translate written rules into practical implementation, ties in closely with sociocultural matters that still seem to dominate societies. (Hyde, 2005, p. 588).

Along this line of reasoning, it can be stated that culture is one of the most prevailing aspects that includes a society, because it is describes its values, practices, behaviour and rituals. It stands to reason that these cultural characteristics are difficult to change, since they are taught and transmitted from one generation to the next. (Kipuri, 2009, p. 52). Moreover, the wider implications of culture are not to be omitted; while a part of the cultural characteristics is visible and conscious, a major part is not. For example, a country's culture is visible by its habits, language, history and behaviour; however, norms, values, (gender) roles, beliefs and ideologies are invisible for an outside observer, as those characteristics pertain to the unconscious elements of a nation's culture. (Hall, 1989, p. 57). In other words, culture is like a flower; while the flower is visible above the ground, the invisible roots feed themselves unconsciously under the ground in order to support the flower flourish and, above all, continue flourishing.

What this metaphor basically aims to denounce, is the complexity of changing cultural patterns because of its deeply-rooted cultural characteristics. Changing cultural habits is theoretically not seen impossible, whereas dealing with the invisible part of a culture might not be determined as a straightforward process. Because gender inequality is connected with cultural behaviour and derived from physical differences between men and women, the urge to understand, measure and compare cultures is fundamental in the search for an approach to combat gender inequality in the workplace.

VII. Methodology

While a combination of the author's interest in the topic "gender inequality" and an introduction to the topic were presented in the previous chapter, this chapter of the paper serves to highlight the research methods that were utilised during the entire process. Not only a clear distinction in relation with quantitative and qualitative methods was outlined in this section of the paper, even more important is to describe the reason for selecting the methods that were utilised.

In this part of the Methodology the main question and the sub-questions were written. The numbers that were given to each sub-questions function to symbolise the five different chapters in this paper. It stands to reason that the answers on the questions were presented in this same established chronological order in the paper.

How do Dutch and Spanish students experience gender inequality in their part-time workplace nowadays?

- 1. What is gender inequality?
- 2. What are the most frequent types of gender inequality female employees are facing nowadays?
- 3. Are Dutch or Spanish employees more expected to come in contact with gender inequality in the workplace, according to the cultural theories of Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner?
- 4. How could The Netherlands and Spain be ranked and compared based on the questionnaires' outcomes concerning gender inequality in the part-time students' workplace?
- 5. Which measures does the European Union take to combat gender inequality in the workplace?

The reason for answering the main and sub-questions?

With the aid of the research methods, which were explained in a further phase of this chapter, a quite broad topic as 'gender inequality' was converted into a understandable topic. As the delamination is considered to be one of the most important elements, when it comes to analysing a specific topic, every term of importance was provided with a broad description in this paper. In addition to the latter mentioned, to avoid miscommunication, each chapter of this paper served to explain definitions of importance in that particular part of the paper.

Besides, since the European Union is enriched with different cultures, it is expected that every country has its own different view on values, behaviour and (gender) inequality. While it is not impossible to scrutinise the views of all European Union countries, by means of delaminating the research of this paper, a comparison between The Netherlands and Spain was presented. This delimitation in relation to the hypothesis concerning the disparity in those cultures and values,

pertained to one of the most important driving factors to select, research and compare The Netherlands and Spain with each other. Even more defined, is the delimitation in socio-cultural disparity with regard to the differences between Dutch and Spanish, male and female, employees in the students' part-time workplace.

The outcomes of this study could serve to compare an overall cultural gender study with a quantitative student research in that same field. The research in this paper is applicable to the private sector interests, as companies in this sector have come to deal with such socio-cultural problems often. On the other hand, the outcomes of this study also serve to inform the public sector, as the influence to denounce and change such problems lies in state institutions. However, not only governmental institution may be interested in receiving information about socio-cultural disparity in the workplace, for example, *Het Cultureel Planbureau* or *Het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* consider to be appropriate stakeholders to share students experiences and opinions concerning gender inequality in the workplace with as well.

Furthermore, in the study it has appeared that socio-cultural disparity still plays an important part in both The Netherlands and Spain nowadays. Especially since students form the basis of a higher educated country, it is considered to be fundamentally relevant that this research is tested on this target group. If students gain more knowledge about the origins, persistence, current situation and effects on gender inequality, they will be able to identify, recognise, detect and raise the problem to resolve it more easily. This study is, therefore, not only useful for students, however, with the awareness of the study great political changes could be realised in the long-term.

The reason for structuring sub-questions

A well-structured sequence of sub-questions, in order to provide a transparent process of research and a clear answer to the main question, was explained in this section of the Methodology. In order to provide a reliable answer to the overarching question, five sub-questions were scrutinised in this paper. The order in which the sub-questions were presented, is considered to be chronologic and logical.

A relatively wide scope of research was denoted in the first chapter of the research, as the definition of the term 'equality" in relation with "gender" and "sex" was scrutinised. As it is seen important for the reader to understand the terminologies that were selected to utilise in this paper, a broad and academic explanation was provided in this first part.

In the second chapter the definition of "equality" was showed by means of demonstrating official statistics related to the current situation in The Netherlands and Spain. Although, in the beginning of this chapter, a clarification and link concerning the roots and persistence of gender inequality was briefly outlined. The first brick of the area of comparison was laid in this chapter. In

other words, after a both introductive and informative first chapter, slowly but surely, a begin to the area of comparison was establish by means of adding some more recent indebt research about gender inequalities between Dutch and Spanish employees in order to link the second chapter with the third chapter.

As the third chapter continued with the area of comparison which was already established in the second part of the paper, a more refined study in relation to the gender inequality problem was provided by means of explaining the diverse concept of culture. Moreover, within the context of the area of comparison, two academic cultural theories served to underpin the cross-national comparison between The Netherlands and Spain, that was established in order to measure and compare the obvious gender inequality differences in the students' workplace.

In the fourth chapter, which is considered as the last part of area of comparison, the obtained information of the three previous chapters was utilised to provide a clear and reliable answer to the overarching question. As a complementary research method, fifty Dutch and Spanish students completed the questionnaire in order to provide the previously gathered information with an increased level of trustworthy.

Finally, with the quantity of both qualitative and quantitative research information, the last chapter of the research served to highlight the European Union's actions in order to combat the gender inequality in the work place.

Which methods were utilised in which chapter?

In the first chapter, the research about different understandings of the word "equality" was presented. In order to obtain a trustworthy explanation of the definition, different sources were consulted. As those academic sources were retrieved from internet and Dutch and International Libraries' data bases, this part of the paper is considered to include qualitative research. On the other hand, the respondents of the questionnaire completed several questions about equality as well. The resulting information could be seen as consulted by quantitative research methods, as a questionnaire pertains to an author's own research area.

In the second qualitative research methods were realised, because this chapter had come to know a division between academic retrieved (internet) sources that served to provide background information. Besides, a comparison between the current equality situation in the Dutch and Spanish workplace was presented in two different official graphs. As both background information and graphs were retrieved from internet, in order to provide insight into the determination of the issue and in order to use these outcomes for the questionnaire, this second chapter was represented by qualitative research methods.

The third chapter was shaped by means of utilising both qualitative and quantitative research methods. As the information in the theoretical part of this chapter was consulted through

internet sources, for example: university's books, data bases, academic reviews and websites. These sources were utilised to provide the reader with understanding about the next section of this chapter; the area of comparison. In that part of the third chapter, academic cultural theories and a cross-cultural comparison was established. In order to connect the previous achieved information with results of the theories, a cross-national comparison was realised. Moreover, the respondents' results of the designed questionnaire had served to enrich the reliability of the cross-national comparison.

While in the first part of the fourth chapter background information about students and the workplace was provided, the rest of the section served to explain the outcomes of the student questionnaire concerning the students' view on gender inequality in their part-time workplaces. It goes without saying that the quantitative research in this chapter was far and foremost the most prevailing research methodology.

The last chapter of the paper, explains how the European Union's institution, in particular The European Commission, deal(s) with the fundamental rights of the citizens from the European Member States. Because of the fact that this chapter contains explanation about European legislations and describes legislative measures from the European Commission, only qualitative research was utilised.

The creation of a well-structured questionnaire

When it comes to creating a questionnaire, several elements were important to take into account. Firstly, the reliability of the questionnaire's answers largely depended on how the students had completed the questionnaire. In order to provide the student with clear, understandable and objective question, students were unconsciously more willing to provide the questionnaire with more veracious answers.

Secondly, the presented questions were as short as possible, to avoid miscommunication or doubts about the context. Moreover, this was aimed to prevent students from thinking more than necessary. The respondents should write those answers that immediately entered their minds by reading the question, as those answers are often more reliable.

Thirdly, because of the fact that the questions were categorised in a structured order, the questions became as specific as possible in order to facilitate the students' process of considering answers. In order to create specific questions, a well-thought, but then again quick, answer was presented. For that reason, the creation of a question including two completely different questions in one question was avoided, as that may mislead the respondent in its reasoning, and this would subsequently result in an unreliable answer.

Furthermore, it is extremely important to achieve trustworthy answers from the respondents, questions that refer to one specific moment in the past are more likely to receive a

unreliable answer. Therefore, the designed questionnaire was equipped with an actual topic and questions that referred to recent experiences.

Finally, beyond the terms: easy, clear, specific, organised and actual, the acceptability of the questionnaire's questions was also guaranteed. Because of the fact that respondents needed to provide some questions with their own opinion concerning their experience, sensitive questions were avoided, as such questions could result the respondent in discontinuing the questionnaire.

Interview

On 16 June 2015, the author of this paper interviewed Professor Dra. E. Juaristi Besalduch, which is an well-known investigator in the area of Public Administration and International Rights. Her doctoral thesis included the regulations of the European Union and the jurisprudence of the European union regarding the reconciliation about the personal, labour and family life analysed by an the specific angle of gender inequalities between men and women. She investigates developments and trends in this particular field. Moreover, she is teacher Public Administration and Human Rights in Master studies at the Cardenal Herrera University in Valencia, Spain.

The reason why the interview took place after the respondents of the questionnaire had completed the questions is because of the fact that the questions of the questionnaire were in relation with the questions that were asked to the interviewee. Moreover, as a result of the outcomes that the student's questionnaires provided, the questions could be adjusted and reformed. To obtain a reliable answer from professor Juaristi, the author of the paper had realised some research before the interview took place. The main reason for this technique ties in closely with the ability to check the answers that were given during the interview. Secondly, if the interviewee would provide the author of this report with a completely different answer, the author would have been able to compare the two answers with each other.

1. Equality, Gender and the Equality of Gender

In the first chapter of this paper, the concept of equality was outlined as essentially contested concept. This, because of the fact that the term "equality" has come to know a lot of different definitions, throughout the years. In the first part of this chapter the relevance of understanding different ideas was explained. By means of highlighting various views of equality, an official definition from a dominant European legal dimension was provided later in this chapter. While this chapter attempts to demonstrate the complexity of determining the multiform definition of "equality" in a theoretical way, it also serves to connect factual terminologies like: "sex" and "gender" with upcoming chapters of this paper.

1.1. The importance of reciprocated comprehension

One of the most challenging tasks human beings still try to accomplish in conversations is reciprocated comprehension. This does not only ensure success, it also determines the quality of the conversation. The reason why this task has proven to be so difficult to accomplish, is because of the fact that in conversations, in which miscommunication often occurs, an extremely high level of ethical and epistemological problems is demonstrated.

A discussion that ties in closely with such problems is the often considered question about justice and an equal society. Once, during a dialogue between the well-known philosopher Plato and his apprentice named Aristotle occurred the main problem: "What is meant by the term 'justice'?" At that moment all possible conceptions passed under review with the aim of ascertaining the exact definition of the term in the way that all interlocutors would consider it as a sustainable and acceptable description. To maintain transparency, the determined definition, the one chosen by the philosophers concerned, was to be respected throughout the dialogue and should for that reason not be modified. In the event of different definitions being changed, an ongoing linguistic confusion will appear, whilst answers are very likely to convert into spurious answers, which decreases the level of the dialogue. Thus, the perseverance in relation to the maintaining and adherence to the chosen definition is very important as it is a prerequisite to progress in reasoning. Here starts a preoccupation that will be characteristic for the entire Western culture: the desire to provide transparency and clarity through the consistent usage of clear and distinct concepts. However, given the fact that finding a satisfactory definition of such word is considered to be difficult, a lot of dialogues result in an aporia which means that the problem remains dissolved, at least, for the time being. (Mol, 2011, p. 16).

1.2. The productive versus receptive vocabulary

According to Edward E. Smith, Distinguished University's Professor of Psychology at Stanford University and Professor Stephen M. Kosslyn of Psychology at Harvard University, it has been

proven that definitions might be interpreted differently, when it comes to defining, using and understanding concepts. This because of the fact human beings are not always tended to be on the same wavelengths. In addition to the last mentioned, not every interlocutor disposes of an equivalent vocabulary, which makes it more challenging to determine the signification of a definition. (Smith & Kosslyn, 2007, p. 98). Besides, it has been proven that people dispose of two different types of discourses; one which is named the productive vocabulary and the so-called the receptive vocabulary. Both of the lexicons are considered to be important, although the differences are more than clear: The first one describes the words that language users are individually capable of utilising. In other words, the words are part of the productive vocabulary, which makes the language user able to utilise words in both writing and speaking language. In the second mentioned type of vocabulary, the words are understood by the language user, however this person is not able to utilise those words productively himself. (Benjamin & Crow, 2013, p. 88).

For example, people that have attended a foreign language course for a couple of weeks, will generally state that they are able to understand some sentences in that particular language when it comes to reading or listening to them, however they do not have the capacity to speak the language. So, if those people have spent some time in that particular foreign country, the country whose language was been studied, they are likely to inform that their reading comprehension and understanding skills in the language are better than their speaking skills or writing skills are.

Therefore, it is considered to be easier being in receptive control of a language than to be in productive control. Nevertheless one of the most essential consequences people tend to forget is that being in receptive control of words may lead to miscommunication and misunderstanding when it comes to reciprocated comprehension. (Benjamin & Crow, 2013, p. 88).

1.3. Factual versus normative equality

By hearing the word '(in)equality', people have the tendency to create their personal perceptions, assumptions and interpretations based on that what is considered to be justified, acceptable, fair or reasonable, or what is not. This because of the fact that this terminology is conveyed by its subjective character. In addition to that, a large part of the determination of this word is inextricably connected with time, as something that was considered to be equal fifty years ago, could be understood as very unequal nowadays.

To see the wood for the trees, some relevant philosophers will provide aid to determine the word '(in)equality.' The egalitarian American philosopher Ronald Dworkin speaks of an "abstract egalitarian plateau" by which he basically means that contemporary philosophers must take the people's equality as a philosophical premise. This well-thought theory claims that people tend to consider equality as righteous, in which righteous is seen as a positive word. Whereas, inequality is considered to be unrighteous this is perceived as something bad. Yet, the theory explains there are

two descriptions to determine the definition; a factual description and a normative description. (Freeberg, 2002, p. 8). For example, the statement that Spanish women are more likely to be victim of inequality in the workplace contains on one hand a factual meaning as it states women to be less represented in the Spanish workplace. People could consider this as normal, as it is normal that some people have blue eyes and others have brown eyes. However, some people may consider this as inappropriate or as disapproved, with the aim that this inequality, which is seen as unjustifiable, should immediately be combated. So, in this way, inequality obtains a normative significance, as both for instance Spanish women and Dutch women deserve even employment opportunities.

On the other hand, people could be in favour of equality without immediately being labelled and noticed as a proactive supporter of equality by one of the most contemporary philosophers. Equality without egalitarianism, without the search to a further clarification of what human beings are supposed to think, do and be. Equality without equal rights, equal opportunities, equal resources, equal prosperity. Nonetheless, people could be still in favour of equality, as this kind of formal egalitarianism had already been created by Aristotle approximately 350 years before Christ. In this Nicomachean ethics he defined its formal equality as: "treat similar cases equally." This basically means that quality should be noticed equivalent as a consistent method of treatment, even if relatives, friends or other important and/or emotional factors are involved in the fair consideration (Ross, 1999, p. 75).

1.4. Equality as essentially contested concept

Because of the fact that the meaning of the terminology has shown a lot of different significations, the concept of equality could be perfectly described as an essentially contested concept. Moreover, it is a time-bound concept because, depending on the time people live in, this definition is perfectly capable of adjusting to the spirit of the age in which views may show disparities. Over the years, new definitions of equality were invented to refine the definition. Despite it would be difficult to arrive at an exact definition; the five most important concept's perceptions are listed here below. (Sadursky, 2008, p. 100). Firstly, no one demands that people's character or appearance can no longer differ from each other; however ardent supporters of equality do have the opinion that people should be entitled to have the same degree of freedom, which means equivalence. Rights' equivalence has here the same meaning as 'equality concerns rights' means that the law applies to everyone on the same equal basis. Equality is a principle between the state and the citizen, regarding the application of the law. The law is basically intended to be applied to everyone, in a general way and without any exceptions included. (Verplaetse & Özen, 2014, p. 33).

The Equality of Opportunities Principle is the second interpretation of equality. Equality means that everyone should be entitled to a fair chance in society. People should be judged on relevant characteristics. Irrelevant characteristics are for example: religion, skin colour, sexual

orientation, gender. Only in exceptional cases those characteristics play an important part when it comes to applying for an special employment. It stands to reason that modelling agencies are allowed to make demands, however supermarkets have to respect a lot of employee rules. (Verplaetse & Özen, 2014, p. 13).

The third interpretation is called the equity compensation, which explains that everyone is offered an equal chance when the environmental factors are the same for everyone. It is allowed to make a selection based on talent, however to make a selection of possible jobs applicants as fair as possible, the position of the applicants should be equal and the job applicants' chance of education; training and development should not differ from each other either. (Verplaetse & Özen, 2014, p. In the theory of the 'Equality of Recourses', equality is not solely related to irrefutable 19). external influences, yet it is connected with factors a person cannot choose. In this theory it is believed that people are entitled to compensation to biological coincidences, which means not only for socio-economic or cultural coincidences. 'Resources do not only consist of external circumstances, however, they also consist of internal capabilities. In other words: not the chance but the only choice of people is allowed them to lead to inequalities. (Sadursky, 2008, p. 207). According to the American philosopher John Rawls, the 'difference principle' is the most important principle in this theory, as it states that an unequal distribution could be justified only if that works to the advantage of the least favoured. This principle acquires its full meaning in relation to the idea of equality or recourses, but to achieve an absolute equality the changes should be fundamentally distributed. This means that the primary basic commodities should apply to everyone, although not everyone has to get the same amount of these goods, everyone is entitled to a certain amount of it. (Piccard, 2005, p. 1). The five most important basic commodities according to John Rawls are the following:

- 1. Basic Freedoms (for example: freedom of expression, conscience and association, personal integrity, political freedom)
- 2. Freedom of movement and choice of career
- 3. The power and responsibility associated with posts and managerial positions
- 4. Income and wealth
- 5. The social basis for self-respect

Finally, 'Equality and Welfare' is the kind of equality that explains people should allocate an equal amount of wealth. People should not equate start situations, however redistributing end situations result in more equality. Everyone should have an equal prosperity, regardless of background, talent, effort and merit. (Sadursky, 2008, p. 224).

1.5. Equality from a European angle

Although, all of the aforementioned definitions of equality resemble the European Union's definition on it, there is no cloud in the sky for those who agree on one of the before mentioned interpretations of equality. Those interpretations militate in favour of equal conditions rather than equality itself. At the commencement, it has been explained in five different ways that everyone should be equal, nonetheless, there is still a divergent pattern visible when it comes to equality at the end of the day. As equality is described as an essentially contested concept earlier this chapter, it is relevant to provide people with some straws in the wind. By nature people have the tendency to create their own ideas, opinions and perceptions, although their minds are not completely free to do with it whatever they prefer. This because of the state's guidance in this labyrinth of humans' fantasies; that what is considered to be socially acceptable has been written by states' law. (Rodriguez Paniagua, 1997, p. 493).

This is actually a quite interesting point to make, as states' citizens should behave normal and obey the rules of the state to fit in society properly. But what does 'normal' means? And is it possible for everyone to fit in society in a way the state would love to see? In other words, the term 'normal' could be considered as something anaesthetic or indifferent. The word 'normal' does not only claim that there is a difference between normality and abnormality, it also creates a strict separation in society when it comes to the mainstream and the deviants: those who do not lie within that majority group of state's citizens. Human sciences have gathered empirical material concerning the people's behaviour, about the development of this behaviour and about the reason why this behaviour exists. Then, well-thought strategies were created to rectify and correct the 'bad' and 'oppressive' assumed conditions (conditions that results in abnormal behaviour) of the societies' deviants. In this way, citizens that differ from society's standards will be 'positively supported' to become 'normal' by the state and its governmental institutions. For example, a hospital cures patients physically, mental institutions cure its patients mentally and prisons try to make its patients choose the 'right and most socially accepted' path of live. The philosopher Paul-Michel Foucault encouraged every world's citizen to change the prevailing normality and normativity for the lunacy which is hidden in every single citizen and the same lunacy that enables citizens to create their own order (an order filled with personal ideas, opinions and perceptions), but yet on the border of the socially accepted. (Mol, 2011, p. 105).

If over time philosophers already experience difficulties in determining a valid, meaningful and justified description of the word 'equality,' who else should be capable of translating the profound political, social, economic and moral importance of this essentially contested concept? Philosophers have always created their own perceptions about the term. Those different opinions were disseminated by philosophers all over the world over years, yet the influence of those

perceptions is to be called into question, as this concerns an individual conception instead of an idea shared by a culture or a certain group of people, for example. In contrast, an organisation as the European Union (EU), the representative of more than 500 million European citizens divided over 28 countries, has its own norms, values and perceptions, as well. This well-oiled machine of economic corporation and social cohesion is also equipped with a broad legal dimension in which its values play a central role. According to Article 20 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, everyone is equal before the law. (Ooik & Vandamme *A*, 2013, p. 117.). On top of that, this same Article is followed by Article 21, in which equality is clearly stated as well:

- "-1. Any discrimination based on any ground of such sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or any other option, membership of a national minority, property, birth, disability, age or sexual orientation shall be prohibited.
- -2. Within the scope of application of the Treaties and without prejudice to any of their specific provisions, any discrimination on grounds of nationality shall be prohibited." (Ooik & Vandamme *B*, 2013, p. 117).

1.6. The sex of the brain

If the word "equality" appears in this paper, is ties in closely with discrimination. In the previous paragraph, the basic values of the European Union were explained in Article 21. Despite the fact that this paper endures and considers this law as equality, it still does not mean that it includes the concept of gender. Because of the fact that equality and gender are closely connected with each other in this paper, in this paragraph an official meaning of the word "gender" was provided in order to emphasis the differences. According to the UNESCO's Gender Mainstreaming Implementation

"Gender refers to socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities, attributes and responsibilities of men and women that are created in our families, our societies and our cultures. The concept of gender also includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). Gender roles and expectations are learned. They can change over time and they vary within and between cultures. Systems of social differentiation such as political status, class, ethnicity, physical and mental disability, age and more, modify gender roles. The concept of gender is vital because, applied to social analysis; it reveals how women's subordination (or men's domination) is socially constructed. As such, the subordination can be changed or ended. It is not biologically predetermined nor is it fixed forever." (UNESCO, 2003, p. 3.)

In other words, the inequality among different sexes is characterised by gender roles. As both definitions "gender" and "(in)equality" are not related to inherited matters, it is believed that these vary in every culture. Important to denote is that equality is considered to be an essentially contested concept, as it is interpreted differently in different cultures, however, the word "gender" is not. In return, both definitions' meanings differ in cultures. Because of the fact that gender is

taught, the definition sometimes is also called: the sex of the brain. This culture-related concept is often being confused with the term "sex," as defined in "inequality of sexes." While "gender" has been charged both socially and culturally, the meaning of 'sex' includes a more biological explanation. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) sex could be defined as following:

"Sex refers to the biological characteristics that define humans as female or male. While these sets of biological characteristics are not mutually exclusive, as there are individuals who possess both, they tend to differentiate humans as males and females." (World Health Organization, 2014.)

The utilisation of the term "sex" is habitually accompanied by a sexual charge, as people have the tendency to utilise the word to express something related with "sexual activity." However, the difference between the two definitions was establish quite recently. According the Institute of Development Studies (IDS), the English language has been enriched with the terms' distinction around 1960 when English psychiatrists were working with intersex and transsexual patients. Along this line "sex" is predetermined and could be considered in nature while "gender" is fluid and can be based in culture. (Esplen & Jolly, 2006, p. 2.). The reason why culture is closely connected with gender inequality is because both of these terms have found and developed its origins and significances in social environments, as both culture as gender inequality could be categorically defined as rather taught than inherited.

"Equality is the soul of liberty; there is, in fact, no liberty without it." –Frances Wright

2. Types of gender inequality

In the first chapter of this paper, the word "egalitarianism" was mentioned. This term, in relation with equality, does not only indicate that people should be equal in the political, social or ethical area, however, it declares that people will never be equal in the physical area, as the differences between the two sexes will continue to preserve. (Moss, 2009, p. 1). In this chapter of the paper, a more detailed comment on the maintenance of gender inequality will be provided, as this problem has proved to be originating from discrimination and upheld by culture. Another relevant part of this chapter, is the comparison between The Netherlands and Spain, concerning specific types gender inequality people face in the nowadays workplace. Information from both the World Economic Forum and the European Institute for Gender Equality had served to enrich this chapter with facts about the current situation for European Union's citizens.

2.1. Unalterable physical dissimilarities

One should not be highly qualified to be able to notice that the man and the female sex physically differ from each other. First and foremost, while women, on average, are smaller than men, they have a smaller body mass as well. When it comes to the sex organs, the size of breasts, hormone levels, the colour, size and width of the body hair and their muscle and fat rations, man and women show perceptible dissimilarities. Because of the bigger size of men's lungs and the heart, men in general are advantaged in having a greater physical strength in comparison with women. Furthermore, when it comes to genetically based differences a comparison between men and women could be made as well; while men normally are born with a Y and an X chromosome, women have two X chromosomes. In fact, due to all these visible and measurable divergent physical differences, human beings are sexually dimorphic. (Ferraro & Andreatta, 2010, p. 256).

2.1.1. The nature-nurture debate

With respect to the physical differences between men and women, a consensus could be reached easily, as those personal features could not be changed. However, the discussion about gender behaviour and the way in which the physical differences have come to benefit to develop gender inequality is seen as a debate in which the people's opinions are certainly more divided. The behaviour between the male and female sex is mostly characterised by the nature-nurture debate. The nature versus nurture, also sometimes known as construction-education-debate, has been the debate on the origin of the characteristics of an individual. In this discussion includes several positions that vary between two extremes: In the first place, all the properties of the individual

have been determined by the construction, for instance, the genetic material. On the other hand, nurture describes that all the properties of the individual are determined by education, particularly through the social environment. (Eagly & Wood, 2013, p. 1). Accordingly, this theory raises a consideration that is difficult to provide with an evident answer. However, the answer on the question, why the behaviour between men and women differs, is closely connected with the reason of the sex's genetic predisposition and because of the existence of different cultures in various societies. (Ferraro & Andreatta, 2010, p. 256).

As a result of these inherited and taught differences and because of the gender hierarchies that exist in practically every society, the female sex has experienced a lot of constraints when it comes to taking personal decisions and practicing social agency. (Kennedy, 2010, p. 203). It stands to reason that this pattern has not been easy to change, as gender inequality still plays a key role in cultures. To convert patriarchal dominated society into a society in which both women and men have the same rights, has never been achieved entirely. One of the main characteristic of patriarchal domination, which occurs in cultures where female subordination takes place, is gender inequality. (Sultana, 2010, p. 6).

2.1.2. The perseverance of gender inequality

2.1.2.1. History's dim corridors of women's subordination

While the roots of gender inequality continue living in the dim corridors of history, its consequences have always been visible. In practice, because of the fact that men and women have a special emotional connection with each other and because of the fact that women have been a great support in the their productive labour, might have restricted suppression to women, however patriarchal power was profoundly entrenched, systematically safeguarded, and almost undisputed. (Jackson, 2009, p. 36). The impacts of gender inequality have been noticeable in almost every sector of society. Women, over years, needed to accept that male workers were the persons that occupied the higher positions. When it comes to both family related affairs and political related affairs, in decision making men have always been the ones that were allowed to take the final decision. However, some women have had some elevated positions, in which they had the change to dominate over a specific population or in which they were given the power to control wealth. Taking into consideration that these occupations were given to women that were descendants of a hereditary monarchy, refutes the argument that women in general should have an inner urge to dominate man. Instead, men do have the tendency to prevail, as men have tried to achieve to obtain at least as much power as women. Because of the fact that this difference could not be considered as a happenstance, there must exist a theory that provides people some guidance. In order to analyse and compare cultures, societies and its beliefs, values and behaviour, a lot of disparity was discovered. The guideline in relation to the subject of subordination of women, explains three principle factors that help to understand the causes and persistence of gender inequality. The three factors are: biology, socialisation and tradition. *Biology* explains the differences in sex, appearance and physical strength between men and women. Especially the last mentioned characteristic has made it possible for men to dominate over women. Due to the existence of these fixed disparities, people started to look at each other in a different way, which consequently resulted in treating the other sex differently. In other words, *socialisation* involves the process that people think, act and develop themselves differently. Due to the honouring of recognised ideas in *traditions*, these gender biases and expectations were also transmitted from generation to generation. So, the reason the other sex has been discriminated against, since the emergence of the dim corridors of the history, is to be found in the three closely connected ideas that has influenced gender inequality until this day and age. (Jackson, 2009, p. 29).

2.1.2.2. The biological reason for women to have a primary responsibility to raise children

As the previous paragraphs also mentioned, gender roles derive from inherent biological properties that consist of a perseverance character, which has consequently resulted in unequal situations between male and female workers in the workplace. Because of the biological fact that it is only possible for women to become pregnant, conceive and to breastfeed their children, the male sex, has a different social relationship with their children in comparison with the mothers. Therefore, sociologists believe that women have the primary responsibility for raising children, as the child belongs' to the mother in a biological way. Moreover, given that a wide variety of cultures preserve and agree on this traditional approach, women do have more often the tendency to agree on executing domestic shores than men. However, this home bounded situation declares that women, those who that take care of their children, are more limited in their personal conduct. (Norton, 2009, p. 2). Throughout history, for most people the roles performed by men and women seem to be derived from inherent biological properties. However, it is biologically explainable that female sex become pregnant, is able to give birth and, moreover, is able to breastfeed their babies. Men, however, do not have the capacity to do this. Besides, while only women do have the knowledge that they are the ones who give birth to their babies, men do not always have the security whether they are the fathers or not, as this largely depends on the sexual behaviour of the mother. Although this fact is not considered to be prevailing and, even though it does not say anything about the differences in rights men or women have, it, however, describes a unwritten rule of nature that women are more entitled to take care of the baby as the baby comes from her body. For this reason, nature has indirectly decided that women are the ones that stay home to take care of the children and dedicate themselves to organise domestic chores. (Jackson, 2009, p. 2).

2.1.2.3. Resulting consequences concerning the balance between private life and work

In addition, and closely related to the last mentioned information, the balance between women' work and private life has been influenced enormously. As a result of childbearing women are more

likely to experience difficulties concerning the research of an equal balance of private life and work. Because of the fact that domestic responsibilities have still not come to know an equal share between men and women, female workers are for more than forty percent, in comparison with male workers, more likely to leave the labour market. The breach in relation to the male and female breadwinner of the families with children in the European Union, has come to know a significant percentage of disparity; almost 66% of the women decided to quit working, in comparison with 89% men. This, consequently resulted in the fact that women take care of the children and realise domestic chores at home. One of the main reasons families made this decision is because of the fact that men have higher remunerations in the labour market. This career interruption influenced the economic situation of the families, and results consequently in lower levels of expenditures. Therefore, women have the tendency to utilise the opportunity to choose a part-time job, in order to make a combination of work and private life. In the European Union, an average percentage of thirty-two women, compared to eight percent of male workers have chosen for a part-time occupation. Altogether, as these realities have come to result in occupational interruptions and a smaller amount of working hours for female employees, a dark shadow was casted over female workers, because they have been limited in achieving promotions and higher financially rewarded professions. (European Commission *B*, 2015).

2.2. Most frequent types of inequality on the workplace

While it has been indicated by the European Commission that one of the most common types of gender inequality is considered to be direct discrimination, undervaluation of the work that female employees realise and segregation in the labour market, it has also been investigated that these types are mainly caused by stereotypes and (cultural) traditions. The World Economic Forum comments in greater detail on these types of gender inequality, by means of selecting closely related disparities that could be compared between different countries. (European Commission *B*, 2015).

2.2.1. Overall outcomes of the Global Gender Gap Report

While gender inequality is a quite broad concept with, this paper merely focuses on gender inequalities that could occur in the nowadays' workplace. According to the Global Gender Gap Report 2014 created by the World Economic Forum (WEF), The Netherlands and Spain differ from each other in overall gender inequality rankings. The report namely measures four different areas of gender inequality; economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment. In order to achieve the countries' overall scores and ranks, all the results of the four areas were gathered and compared. These overall outcomes are just the average of all the outcomes from the four compared areas. While Spain was ranked on the 29th position, The Netherlands is among the ten best ranked countries, since it has reached the fourteenth place in this overall ranking. However, there is a small difference when it comes to the

equality scores of these two European countries, as Spain scores 0.7325 out of 1.000 and The Netherlands scores 0.7730 out of 1.000.

At first glance, the previously mentioned scores are considered to be extremely close to each other, whereas, a couple of pages further in the report a more specific description of the difference in scores was provided. Firstly, because of the fact that 142 countries were involved in the Gender Gap Report every decimal in comparison with other countries presents great differences in practice. While observing the differences in the countries' scores the difference seem to be small, in reality the scores between the lowest scoring country, Yemen with a score of 0.5145 out of 1.000, and the highest scoring country, Iceland with score of 0.8594 represent a huge gap. (World Economic Forum, 2014).

2.2.2. Economical participation and opportunity

Even more important is to identify in which areas gender inequality exactly occurs the most in The Netherlands and Spain. While the Global Gender Gap Report presents a broad comparison of all the 142 scrutinised countries, a comparison between The Netherlands and Spain was established in this paper. Moreover, as the report of the World Economic Forum presents four different areas in which gender inequality occurs, all four of them were considered to be in relation with gender inequality in the workplace. However, when it comes to selecting one of these four categories to start measuring gender in labour equality with, one is way out in front; the area of "economical participation and opportunity." As this area recapitulates the most common types of gender inequality in the workplace, and in the meantime it provides information about to what extent gender inequality occurs. So, because of the fact that the area "economic participation and opportunity ties in closely with gender inequality in the workplace this area will serve to compare The Netherlands and Spain. The official numbers of both countries were presented after subparagraph 2.2.3.4. which is called "Legislators, senior officials and managers." (World Economic Forum, 2014).

According to the Global Gender Gap Index, The Netherlands and Spain has come to know some remarkable differences when it comes to the overall outcomes of this area. The Netherlands scores a 0.7106 out of 1.0000 and Spain scores 0.6470 out of 1.0000, which means that The Netherlands ranks 51st and Spain ranks 84th out of 142 countries that were ranked. A remarkable fact can be observed when comparing the outcomes of the Global Gender Index's overall section with the section "economic participation and opportunity." While the scores and ranks from The Netherlands and Spain were closer to each other the in Global Gender Gap Index's overall results, the countries' gender inequality gap in the report's area "economical participation and opportunity" has multiplied by two. This basically means that the countries tend to underperform in this area, which subsequently describes an underperformance when it comes to compare gender equality with this area. (World Economic Forum. 2014).

2.2.3. Economical participation and opportunity and its fourfold distinction

As already mentioned in the previous paragraph, the most significant dissimilarities about the labour inequalities were revealed in the area of economical participation and opportunity. To explain this area in more detail, it is necessary to understand that this area consists of a ramification with each its own rankings, scores and comparison. The most important subdivisions of the ramification were presented in this paper; "labour force participation," "wage equality for similar work," "estimated earn income" and "legislators, senior officials and managers." These subdivisions are considered important because the most significant dissimilarities were revealed in these subjects. Furthermore, this fourfold subdivision consists of rankings, scores and averages in order to provide information about the current situation on labour inequality. Firstly, countries were ranked concerning the average scores of all participating countries. Secondly, countries were provided with a score that represents the female to male ratio in comparison with the other participants. Thirdly, a sample average concerning all the 142 ranked countries was given in order to compare countries whether they underperform or not. (World Economic Forum *C*, 2014).

2.2.3.1. Labour force participation

The first subdivision that was scrutinised in the Global Gender Gap Report is the "labour force participation. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), labour force participation is considered "to measure the extent of an economy's workingage population that is economically active." This can vary from age-groups to a distinction between sexes, and it outlines a division of the economically active population within a nation. (OECD, 2006, p. 16). Besides, according to the International Labour Office (ILO), not only people that actively entered the labour market, however, the results of people in search for work between the age of 15 and 64 were processes as well in this outcomes of this subdivision. On the other hand, outcomes of people that are currently working abroad were not measured. (International Labour Office, 2014, p. 29).

When it comes to the labour force participation's subdivision, the differences in scores do not seem to differ a lot, as The Netherlands scores 0.88 and Spain 0.85 out of 1.00. Secondly, the sample average of all the 142 scrutinised countries represents an outcome of 0.67 out of 1.00. Despite that the differences in labour force participation are not very opposing, the equality level of these two countries could not be considered as total similar neither. Finally, when it comes to ranking, The Netherlands is ranked number 37 world's most favourable labour force situation, while Spain is ranked as 53^{rd} in this part of the gender inequality ladder. (World Economic Forum A, 2014) (World Economic Forum B, 2014).

2.2.3.2. Wage equality for similar work

In this second subdivision labour rights are at the centre of the topic, as it was forbidden by the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) to create differences concerning remuneration. According to the Recast Directive:

"For the same work or for work to which equal value is attributed, direct and indirect discrimination on grounds of sex with regard to all aspects and conditions of remuneration shall be eliminated. In particular, where a job classification system is used for determining pay, it shall be based on the same criteria for both men and women and so drawn up as to exclude any discrimination on grounds of sex." (Burri & Prechal, 2013, p. 8).

This form of direct discrimination basically means that every employee of the European Union, male or female, is entitled to receive the same remuneration when it comes to executing equal tasks in the workplace. While the first European law concerning the equal remuneration regulations had entered into force in 1975, both The Netherlands and Spain have not completely succeeded implementing and respecting the law till now. The Executive Operation Survey (EOS) of the World Economic Forum, obtained the outcomes of this survey by asking the respondents the following question: "In your country, for similar work, to what extent are wages for women equal to those of men?" The respondents were able to rank their answer on a scale from one till seven, in which one means that the female remuneration are expressively lower than the remuneration of male employees and in which seven means that there are no differences concerning remunerations between male and female employees in the workplace. (Browne & Battista & Geiger, 2014).

According to the Global Gender Gap Index, The Netherlands and Spain show remarkable differences in the ranking part of the index. While The Netherlands was ranked 56th, Spain was ranked 117th. This means that the differences concerning remunerations in both countries vary considerably. The index revealed that The Netherlands is more women-friendly in relation to equality in salaries, although, the scores and sample average in the "wage equality for similar work" shows slightly divergent outcomes. While the average score of this subdivision is 0.61 out of 1.00, Spain underperforms representing a score of 0.54. The Dutch score of the index is above average, since The Netherlands scored 0.67. (World Economic Forum *A*, 2014) (World Economic Forum *B*, 2014).

2.2.3.3. Estimated earn income

The third subdivision in the ramification of the economical participation and opportunity includes the remuneration due to active participation in the workplace. This explains that a compensation is given in exchange for employment. Therefore, it entails wages, tips, taxes and similar taxable employee pay. (Campbell, 2012, p. 1). While the Human Development Report of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) does not measure remunerations of the self-employed workers or agricultural remunerations, it analyses the countries' index in the same way as the World Economic Forum. (Beckhouche & Zahidi, 2013, p. 107).

When it comes to ranking, Spain lags behind The Netherlands. The differences in this section of the Global Gender Gap Index are not as broad as in the previous subdivisions, however, inequality concerning gender inequality is noticeable. The Netherlands was ranked as 38th most equal country, while Spain does not achieve more progress than the 72nd place in the rankings. In the countries' scores is visible that Spain lags behind The Netherlands with 0.10 points, as The Netherland scores 0.70 out of 1.00 and Spain scored 0.60 out of 1.00. When male and female workers would receive an equal remuneration for the employment in which they actively participate the female to male ratio would be 1.00. However, according to the index's results on "estimated earn incomes," the average scores concerning the difference in sexes show a quantity of 0.53 out of 1.00, which means that the situation could be less satisfying, despite there remains a lot of room for improvement ahead for both The Netherlands and Spain. In fact, in those areas where gender inequality occurs, a Dutch woman would on average earn €25,68,- and Dutch man would earn €36,55- per hour. In Spain a woman earns €22.03,- against a male remuneration of €36,55which results in a disparity of $\in 3.65$,- when scrutinising the differences between the estimated earn incomes of The Netherlands and Spain. (World Economic Forum A, 2014) (World Economic Forum *B*, 2014).

2.2.3.4. Legislators, senior officials and managers

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), legislators and senior officials are engaged in the government policies' process or workers in charge in both national and international companies. On top of that, those professions are mostly completed by men, as it is considered easier for them to reach those top positions. (International, Labour Organisation, 2013, p. 1.)

In the last comparison of the economic participation and opportunity, a difference in ranking and scores was presented in the subdivision "legislators, senior officials and managers," as Spain has reached a higher position than The Netherlands in the rankings. The Netherlands was ranked 70th, while Spain was ranked in the 66th position. When it comes to the scores of the Global Gender Gap Index, The Netherlands scores 0.41, while Spain scores 0.43 in male and female ratio. Moreover, both The Netherlands and Spain represents a significantly equal situation in comparison with the other 142 countries, when it comes to female employees in top positions as the average score is 0.27. (World Economic Forum *A*, 2014) (World Economic Forum *B*, 2014).

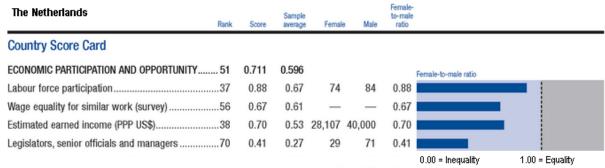


Table 1. Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum, Ranking: The Netherlands (World Economic Forum *A*, 2014)

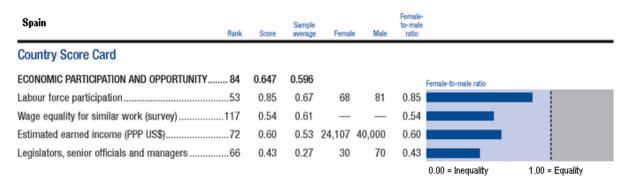


Table 2. Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum, Ranking: Spain (World Economic Forum B, 2014).

2.3. The European Institute for Gender Inequality

According to the European Institute for Gender Inequality, the overall differences between The Netherlands, Spain and the European Union do also differ. The Gender Inequality Index of this European institute created a Gender Inequality Index, whose information was retrieved from high quality sources like Eurostat, Eurofound and the European Commission Justice framework. Furthermore, the research relied to a solid and highly transparent methodology that was established by JRC European Commission and the OECD. The main purpose of this research was aimed to measure gender gaps in the European Union's Member States in relation with different themes. The level of achievement is one of these prevailing researches; the Gender Inequality report describes the extent to which Member States should develop in order to achieve gender equality. While the European Union's gender inequality index emphasises on six different domains in which gender inequality mainly occurs, this paper merely focuses on one of these domains. Time, Money, Education, Health, Power and Work, form the different domains, however, this paper merely focusses on the information provided in the last domain, as this section of the index provides information about de disparities between male and female workers in their workplaces. Moreover, statistics were provided whether a particular sex experiences in finding a job. On a scale from zero to hundred, European Member States were compared individually, to the average number of all Member States together. (EIGE D, 2013).

2.3.1. The area of work

The area of work was created to measure different inequalities related to work. Important themes that were treated in the Gender Inequality Index in relation to this paper are the following: Firstly, gender gaps in participation in the labour market, as this provides a clear percentage about the sex differences represented in the workplace. Secondly, the duration of working life for both sexes, as this provides an clear indication whether women continue working after maternity leave or not, for example. Moreover, it is visible whether women leave their job and start working part-time or not. Thirdly, sectorial segregation patterns, in which a division is visible between the number of female and male employees in a particular workplace's sector. Lastly, the quality of work, like flexibility of working days was presented in the Gender Inequality Index. The overall outcomes of these gender disparities in the work environment are still seen as somewhat disappointing, as is has been indicated that the segregation patterns persist and women are still not expected to participate in the labour area. This means that the measurement of quality concerning work in a gender sensitive approach, is considered to be indispensable in order to guarantee better jobs for everyone. (EIGE A, 2013).

2.3.2. A comparison of The Netherlands and Spain in relation with the average of the European Union

In this section a brief description of the two most important sub-domains for this paper of the work domain were provided. The two most important sub-domains consist of "participation" and "segregation." First an overall percentage will be provided in order to picture the overall equality level of the Member States. Later on, a more detailed information was provided in order to see the differences between The Netherlands and Spain in the concerning sub-domains. The latter mentioned section has been ranked the European Member States in a slightly different way than the overall ranking was realised. The specific sub-domains were shown in numbers from the 30:30;40 model. According to this model, the Member States' citizens were distributed in three categories: thirty percent of unemployed person, thirty percent of active persons (part-time work or self-employment) and forty percent of eternal employment. (Hutton, 1995).

2.3.2.1.Participation

While The Netherlands and Spain do not considerably differ from each other, the index provided that 73.1% of equality to The Netherlands and 61.3% of equality of Spain was assigned. In comparison with the average percentages of the European Member States percentage, it can be concluded that Spain slightly underperforms in comparison with The Netherlands, as the average percentage of the European member States presents an equality of 69.0% in the work domain. (EIGE B, 2013) (EIGE C, 2013).

2.3.2.1.1. Full Time Equivalent employment

In the section "FTE employment/Full Time Equivalent employment" of the sub-domain "participation" a slight difference between The Netherlands and Spain was presented. By means of Hutton's model of ranking, the European Institute for Gender Inequality, the following results were established: 35.7% of the Dutch women, 36.4% of Spanish women and 41% in the European Member States in relation with 41% of the Dutch and Spanish men and 56% of the European Union's Member States average. A small difference between The Netherlands and Spain was presented, however, in comparison with the average percentage of the European Union's Member States a difference of almost four percent was noticed. (EIGE B, 2013) (EIGE C, 2013).

2.3.2.1.2. Duration of work life

In the so-called section "Duration of work life" the following numbers of working years were provided: The average of working years for Dutch women is 36.2, for Spanish women 30.9 and the average working years for women in the European Union's Member States were presented by a number of 41.8 years. When it comes to the working years for men in The Netherlands, Spain and The European Union, the following results were presented: Dutch men work 41.8 years, Spanish men work 37.6 years and the average men's working years from the European Union's Member States is 37.3 years. While Dutch women almost work six years more than Spanish women, Dutch men only work four years longer than Spanish men. When it comes to comparing Dutch and Spanish male and female workers with each other, Dutch women work almost six years longer than Spanish women and Dutch man work four years longer than Spanish men. (EIGE B, 2013) (EIGE C, 2013).

2.3.2.2. Segregation

The concept of horizontal segregation is explained as a sort of concentration of male and female employees in altered categories and levels of activity and employment, in which female employees are represented to a thinner range of professions and services. This basically represents the number of women and the number of men in workplaces. The vertical segregation is in Glass Ceiling concept, which describes set rules in order to prevent certain people (mostly women) to reach top position. (Baxter & Wright, 2000, p. 275). Both horizontal segregation and vertical segregation pertain to the overarching term "occupational segregation," which explains the separation of people according to their sex in and beyond workplaces. (Busch, 2011, p.3).

2.3.2.2.1. Sectorial Segregation

In this section 38.8% of the Dutch women, 22.5% of the Spanish women, 10.0% of the Dutch men and 6.9% of the Spanish men have come in contact with horizontal segregation or vertical segregation in the workplace. A remarkable fact in this statistics is that Spanish women face less

sectorial segregation than Dutch women. The Netherlands underperforms in this section because the percentage's average of the European Union's Member States score is for women 29,4% and for men 7,9%. However, the differences between both Dutch and Spanish women in relation with the percentage of Dutch and Spanish men, proves enough to declare that the women in general face a lot of disparities when it comes to this section. (EIGE B, 2013) (EIGE C, 2013).

In short, female workers are considered to be the victims of gender inequality in the workplace, because of the fact that a lower level of equality was indicated in basically every work area of this paper; from equal representation in the workplace, horizontal and vertical segregation, to participation and wage concerning the female sex. Putting emphasis on obstructing the further breaching of the gap in the segregation section, is not only likely to benefit both male and female employees as this would result in a reduced gap in participation, it may subsequently affect the differences in remunerations as well. (EIGE, 2013, p, 21).

"Women have talent and intelligence but, due to social constraints and prejudices, it is still a long distance away from the goal of gender equality."—Pratibha Patil

3. Culture, Cultural Theories and a Cross-National Comparison

Having scrutinised the terminologies: "equality" and "gender" in the first chapter of this paper, it could be stated that gender inequality and gender equality are diametrically opposed to one other. Gender inequality is expected to succeed when male and female employees enjoy equal rights and opportunities. In general, this applies to all dimensions of society: the cultural, economic, political and social dimension. It stands to reason that gender inequality occurs in all sectors of society and that all those dimensions could influence each other. In fact, gender inequality has always existed; to comprehend the reason why gender inequality has persevered and the reason why it has transformed over years, people should analyse in detail the nowadays driving factors, in order to understand the maintenance of women's subordination. In chapter two of this paper, some biological explanations were provided that served to reason the maintenance of gender inequality. While, in the first place, biological differences had resulted in that people began to see each other in a different way. These biological differences were consequently leading people into sex distinctions, later on; it, slowly but surely, achieved to enter and influence culture in a dominant way. By means of two academic cultural theories, cultural differences between The Netherlands and Spain were explained, categorised and compared with each other. Therefore, it is worth emphasising the importance to analyse and understand the complexity of this sociocultural issue in order to attack the roots of the main problem of gender inequality's persistence: culture.

3.1. Defining culture

Looking at both before mentioned definitions "equality" and "gender"; it has since become apparent that gender inequality is considered to be just the inequality towards socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities, attributes and responsibilities of men and women that are created in families, societies and cultures. It goes without saying that all of these patterns were taught by other people and do not consist of an inherited framework. Now, it has come to know more clearly why gender inequality and culture are more closely linked with each other. While sharing the same genesis is considered to be a tremendously important reason for connection, another relevant factor is the maintaining of the values. In other words, in general, both culture and gender inequality has come to arise by means of people's activities, which means gender inequality, could be considered as part of a culture. In this paper the term "culture" is explained as followed:

"The collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another, which is passed from generation to generation, it is changing all the time because each generation adds something of its own before passing it on. It is usual that one's culture is taken for granted and assumed to be correct because

it is the only one, or at least the first, to be learned." (Hofstede, 1980, p. 21).

3.1.1. The collective programming of the mind

Even more interesting is examining what the collective programming of the mind exactly means. Following a commonly agreed line, a line which is represented by the same values, rituals, symbols, artefacts, myths, heroes, beliefs and attitudes, culture could be described as a collective phenomenon, as it derives from a social environment in which people live that share the same values. It stands to reason that these values were learnt and that people in those social environments were not born knowing all those values and habits. While culture's symbols, heroes and rituals could be incorporated under the name 'practices,' the term 'values' is the most remarkable term in this paper, because this term describes ideals and motives that are considered to be worthy of emulation in a society or group. Values are principles and conceptions about what is desirable and what is not. (Tharp, 2009, p. 2). In this paper, the intrinsic value is mainly emphasised, since this value describes values that should be pursued from the mind. Ethical values retain their meaning and validity, even if those are not actually worn by people and groups. Hence, intrinsic values could be considered as motives and principles to which the concrete norms are based on. (Spates, 1983, p. 27). A combination of values is presented in this paper, as culture mostly consists of ethical values due to the fact that culture is transmitted passed on from generation to generation. On the other hand, culture could be regarded as intrinsic values because culture is not something persons could be born with; is inherited and must be taught to descendants in order to transfer it. (Jervis, 2006, p. 2).

3.1.2. Culture in four elementary parts

One of the most important values a culture respects, is the concept of 'cultural relativism,' which basically means that there is a lack of scientific standards when it comes to measuring the importance of a certain group of people. In other words, the terminology explains that there is no culture in the whole world that consist of absolute criteria to critic the actions of another culture, nor to consider other cultures as more or less important, nor to classify them as "low" or "noble." (Howson, 2009, p. 2). Despite the fact that every culture and its differences manifest themselves in various ways, like: symbols rituals heroes and (the core of the culture:) values, it even stands to reason that every culture shall be respected by every EU citizen. According to Article 167, paragraph 1 and 4, of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) culture is something the European Member States (MS) should promote and respect at all times.

- "-1. The Union shall contribute to the flowering of the cultures of the Member States while respecting their national and regional diversity and at the same time bringing the common cultural heritage to the fore.
- -4. The Union shall take cultural aspects into account in its action under other provisions of the Treaties, in particular in order to respect and to promote the diversity of its cultures." (Ooik & Vandamme, 2013, p. 65).

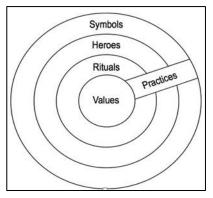


Figure 1. Culture divided in four elementary parts. (Hofstede, G. n.d. p, 2).

3.1.3. Culture as a pyramid

Aside from the fact that it is not possible to observe 'practices' in a culture, however, people have to delve more deeply into the meaning of culture by means of discovering the terminology's underlying thoughts. An interesting explanation in relation with culture was shown in Figure 2. It does not only describe culture, it also explains something about the limitation of cultural influence. The figure is in the shape of a pyramid divided in three different horizontal layers, which denotes that the bottom layer forms the basis of existence. As baby everyone was born as human being, which means 'human nature' is something universal and inherited all human beings share with each other. Secondly, due to education and upbringing, a ten year old child is perfectly able to understand both intrinsic and ethical values, the core of every culture. This is evidence of the fact that culture is learnt and that not every specific group shares the same values which make culture in that sense the opposite of the pyramid's bottom layer. Finally, on the top of the figure the end station of the human development is to be found: 'personality.' Relating to the content of the word, while this sociological and anthropological terminology, differs a lot per person, it applies to everyone that 'personality' is extremely specific to individuals. For that reason 'personality' could be considered as both inherited and learnt. It stands to reason that the 'collective programming of the mind' concerns the combination between the cultures' practices, values and the related personal development includes, without deviating from the three levels of uniqueness shown in the figure. (Waisfisz, 2011, p. 1)

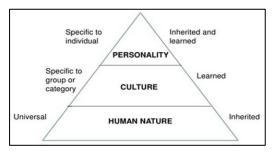


Figure 2. Hofstede's pyramid model of culture. Hofstede, n.d. p, 1).

Furthermore, to determine the terminology of mental programming it should be clear that a culture consists of different cultural layers, since people do usually belong to more groups than just one group or category. Due to different groups people consequently held inevitably a good quantity of difference stages of mental programming. The most important layers of this paper are the ones at national, ethic, sex, level, social class and organisational level, as they represent culture in its totality. Besides, because of its divergent cultural and social implications, these cultural layers have the contentious effect of arousing considerable unprecedented and unexpected moral disagreement, like discrimination and gender inequality in the workplace. (Brooks & Ali, 2010, p. 8).

3.1.4. National culture divided in three dimensions

Social anthropology states that all societies are doomed to face the same basic bottlenecks; just the solutions need to be found in different places. This also applies to gender inequality. These problems could not merely be applied to both traditional and modern societies; it mostly represents the common basic difficulties worldwide that influence functioning of societies, certain groups within those societies and certain single persons within those groups. Anthropologists categorised those social bottlenecks in three dimensions of national cultures to see whether not only cultures but also societies experience difficulties with these dimensions or not. The societies' relation with national authorities is seen as the first dimension. To what extent is the nation's government powerful, how to approach authorities like police or professors, for example. Secondly, the conception of self, which can be separated in two different cultural assumptions: the relationship between the individual and society and, on the other hand the review of the individual's idea of masculinity and femininity belong to the second phase. Finally, conflict management is seen as the last dimension. While the way in which people demonstrate and succeed in control their anxiety, anger or aggression is an important matter in this dimension, nevertheless, the way in which feelings and emotions are expressed in some cultures is even more important, as that reflects the practices and values of culture. National and regional differences with influence on the functioning of institutional organisations (such as governments, families, businesses and schools) were envisioned and measurable by Hofstede's cultural theories. The model aims to provide a better understanding of cultural differences, which consequently result in a way in which it will be less

difficult to make people cross that divide any longer. (Turner & Tompenaars, 2013, p. 157).

3.2. Measuring Cultures

People utilise measurements to obtain an indication of their length, their weight or their age. The results of these measurements refer to personal features that try to describe a particular person as accurate as possible. This indication is often being used to make a comparison between two or more measurements. For instance, if people want to know which garden has a larger surface area in comparison with the other garden, the length and width will be measured to achieve a fair answer. Similarly, cultures could be measured as well, although the names of the tools to measures with are not called: 'measuring tape,' a 'weight scale' or a 'calendar,' nonetheless, here they are called "dimensions." These dimensions to measure a culture with, could usually not be considered as physical measure instruments however, rather, could be seen as measure instruments to measure an cultural related attitude or value with. Therefore, the five cultural dimensions of Hofstede are also called the value dimensions. (Jandt, 2006, p. 181.)

3.2.1. Hofstede's approach

3.2.1.1. Power Distance

The first cultural dimension is the 'Power Distance Index (PDI)' which describes that the degree of power distance derives from the relative valuation of social inequality and hierarchy. This part of the theory declares that the less influential members of an institution (governments, families, businesses and schools) or organisations (people's workplaces) within a nation should remark, indicate and accept that power is not distributed equally, noticed by personal experiences. If a nation is marked as a: "low power distance country" in Hofstede's cultural theory, it means that the citizens in that particular country, in general, endeavour to distribute the power equally. (Faríaz, 2007, p. 90).

3.2.1.2. Individualism versus Collectivism

The second cultural dimension is the "Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)," in which a distinction is made between to what extent people take care of themselves and their direct families and the opposite of individualism namely: "collectivism," in which the ties between individuals are considered to be less loose and where societies and (mostly) families have the tendency to unite and where people live in socially strong and extremely cohesive communities that are also called in-groups. These groups serve to provide its members with more security and protection in exchange for wholehearted and lifelong loyalty. In other words, members of this sort of group can expect that their families take care of them, and that they will have to take care of their family as well. (Faríaz, 2007, p. 91).

3.2.1.3. Masculinity versus Femininity

The third cultural dimension is the "Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)," in which the degree of masculinity or femininity indicates how much importance is attached to traditional masculine and feminine qualities. Male values include competitively, assertiveness, ambition, and the accumulation of wealth and opulence, in contrast to feminine values as modest and formal behaviour, preference for cooperation, servanthood, and absolute solidarity in the form of carrying for the weak. In the nations where femininity prevails there is no distinction between specialised gender roles for males and females, however the rolls are in relation with each other. So, highly-ranked countries in this theory are considered to separate a lot of gender roles, while low-scoring countries belong to the more feminine part of the comparison and so are not likely to show a lot of differences in social gender roles. (Faríaz, 2007, p. 92).

3.2.1.4. Uncertainty Avoidance

The fourth cultural dimension is presented by the "Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)," which describes the extent to which members of a group are afraid, feel menaced or insecure in situation they have never ever faced before. The most important to measure is whether cultures have the tendency to avoid these uncertain situations or not. The degree of uncertainty avoidance relies to regulation, formal procedures and rituals. The higher the score of this cultural dimension, the more likely cultures could be considered to proceed in a scheming and organised way, because this is closely connected with the anxiety for the unknown. While high-scoring countries strive to have everything under control, low-scoring countries seem to dispose of a natural composure to accept things as they come to them. (Ríos, 2008, p. 4.).

3.2.1.5. Confucian Dynamism

The fifth cultural dimension is the 'Confucian Dynamism,' which is also sometimes regarded as the "long-term" versus "short-term" orientation (LTO). In this later added fifth dimension (Eastern) perseverance, created in the development and implementation of innovations, is opposite to the (Western) urge for truth and immediate results. For example, persistence, perseverance and a feeling that expresses shame belong to the "long-term orientation" while respect for traditions, personal control and stability and the reciprocation when it comes to greetings, special treatment and largesse have been holding sway ever since. Long-term orientation' cultures are basically concentrating on the future. Being members of such culture is could be noticed that they are absolutely willing to ignore short-term characteristics like: social achievement (having dinner with relatives every week) or emotional fulfilment (the acceptance and self-reflection of emotions), as these characteristics prevent people in their long-term orientation. While the last mentioned orientation is mainly focused on the future, the short-term orientation could be considered as the opposite, as it addresses direct fulfilment more important than long-term realisation. Short-term

orientation considers the past and the present more relevant than the future. (Ríos, 2008, p. 5).

3.2.1.6. Indulgence versus Restraint

The last cultural dimension is the "Indulgence versus Restraint (IND)," which explains to what extent nations' citizens are willing to live in a society that stands for liberating and cherishing the basic, elementary and human values in order to have fun and enjoy life to the fullest. In contract, in a country that remains reticent, those society's values will be ignored and oppressed by strict and high social standards. (Graça, 2011, p. 16).

3.2.2. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's approach

A second theory that is applicable when it comes to measuring cultures is the theory of Alfonsus Trompenaars and Charles Hampden-Turner, organisational theorists in the field of cross-cultural communication. This theory provides a model of cultural differences on national level and, however it mainly focusses on general business and management in a company, it is applicable to measure cultures outside the workplace as well. Because of the fact that one of the main layers, when it comes to describing culture, includes the part of habits people's behaviour during their work, doing business or trying to run a business is also considered to be in relation with their cultural values and habits. While this theory bears a resemblance to the theory of Hofstede they cannot not be lumped together because while Hofstede researched, visualised and measured both national and regional differences affect the functioning of institutional organizations (such as governments, families, businesses, schools), the theory of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner aims a different objective. This theory provides a model of national cultural differences and it mainly focusses on general business and management in a company. However, both of the theories could be considered as applicable to measure cultures in general as well. Moreover, these models aim to provide a better understanding of cultural differences in diverse nations by crossing the divide of them. (Balan, 2013, p. 95).

3.2.2.1. Universalism versus Particularism

Like Hofstede's model create different stages to measure a culture, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's model also includes different levels of comparison with a aim to bridge differences among cultures. The first dimension in called the "Universalism versus Particularism" in which rules and relationships are opposed to each other. In a universalist culture people consider rules, values and obligations to be more relevant than personal obligations and special circumstances. In particularistic cultures people tend to make more time for each other, as it important to know each other's personal circumstances, personal goals and personal interests before deciding to cooperate. This arises from cultural values and could be therefore seen as a form of respect to each other. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 29).

3.2.2.2. Individualism versus Communitarianism

The second pillar of the model carries the name of "Individualism versus Communitarianism," which could be compared with the political preferences. As individualism strives for a society in which people should be entitle to have more freedom, when it comes to decision-making and achievement, this point of view ties in closely with the right-wing political parties of Western Politics. On the other hand, communitarianism rather represents the thoughts of the left-wing political parties, since adherents of these ideologies would consider a group more important than an individual. Offering loyalty towards the group, the group is willing to offer protection, safety and aid. While in individualist cultures, one person could be rewarded for doing a good job, people in the communitarian cultures, believe that the reward should be divided, as every member has influence and contributed in the work's result. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 51).

3.2.2.3. Specific versus Diffuse

The third dimension of the theory is names "Specific versus Diffuse." Some characteristics of this dimension are the differences between to what extent people separate their work with their personal life and to what extent it is allowed to involve personal relationships to influence work. In the specific culture, employers should push their employees to develop their personnel's strengths in order to achieve targets and labour goals, instead of developing relationships with employees. On the other hand, in diffuse cultures familiarising with employees ameliorates business objectives, as the benefit of knowing each other makes it clearer for the employer to see which strengths and weaknesses the employee should develop. Along this line of thinking, beneficial and less favourable personal qualities could be efficiently utilised, or not. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 83).

3.2.2.4. Neutral versus Emotional

The fourth level of the cultural theory explains ties in closely with the way in which people express emotions. The name of this dimension is: "Neutral versus Emotional." While in neutral cultures, the reason seems to dominate the actions, in emotional cultures people have the tendency to express their emotions more easily both on the workplace and in private spheres. Like the aforementioned cultural dimensions "Communitarianism" and "Diffuse" also seek to achieve, the emphasise on knowing a person helps not only achieving business goals, however, it reinforces the personal bond between employees and it enhances the mutual confidence. It goes without saying that this last mentioned approach contradicts the neutral cultures' business related values, as its approach "stick to the point" perfectly describes. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 70).

3.2.2.5. Achievement versus Ascription

The fifth dimension is the "Achievement versus Ascription," which distinguishes achievement cultures from those cultures that consider the person behind its performances more important. In an achievement culture people tend to base people's worth on what they achieve, perform and on whether they are beneficial for the job, however, in an ascription culture the academic title, the amount of power a person has and the level of the job position is more important. Cultures where people only value others on what they achieve have the tendency to make often use of titles in order to emphasis the employee's status in a company, while people in achievement cultures, make less use of titles among each other because they view status obviously in a different way. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 105).

3.2.2.6. Sequential Time versus Synchronous Time

The sixth dimension advocates the idea of managing time. The name of this cultural pillar compares therefore "Sequential Time and Synchronous Time." In sequential-time cultures, like the Dutch culture, people create strict schedules and establish fixed deadlines to which employees should stick in order to achieve the best results. So, the planning of work and the punctuality of the employees is in the sequential-time one of the most important things. In contrary to the last mentioned, the synchronous-time cultures, consist of employees that interpret plans and obligations as more elastic. For example, while employees in sequential time cultures normally work on one project, workers form synchronous time cultures work on different projects at the same time, because in this last mentioned time culture the expression "time is money" is less prevalent. To maintain overview in their work, sequential time cultures are less willing to participate in several projects. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 123).

3.2.2.7.Internal Direction versus Outer Direction

Finally, the last theory of the seven dimension of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's cultural model is called the "Internal Direction versus Outer Direction." This last theory describes the way how people relate to their social environment, in which the 'locus of control' concept is considered to be the principle of the understanding in this dimension. Locus of control explains to what degree people in different cultures consider themselves to be in control or not. This basically means that employees' results are closely connected to the abilities, effort or even employees' behaviour. In this internal direction related culture people are certain of being able to change and influence the nature of their personal environment in order to succeed in accomplishing the company's objectives. In contrast to internal-direction culture, outer-direction cultures, consider the nature of their environment to be prevailing. This nature has the power to take over control over luck, chances or faith. (Daum & Wiebe, 2003, p.7). It stands to reason that internal direction cultures

refer to an internal locus of control and, controversy; outer direction cultures represent an external locus of control. (Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998, p. 145).

3.3. Relating culture through a cross-cultural comparison

In this section of the paper the assumptions and results of the two scrutinised cultural theories will be compared. While the cultural theories of Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner were not basically created to measure the gender inequality, they have laid the foundation stone in order to create assumptions about that students experience in real life which is presented in the next chapter of this paper.

3.3.1. Cross-national comparison with Hofstede's cultural dimensions

According to The Hofstede Centre, The Netherlands was ranked low (38 out of 100) when it comes to the first dimension: "Power Distance." This practically means that the country's culture aims equal rights, employees work independently and the power managers might have in organisations is considered to be decentralised. Spain, controversially, shows a number of 57 out of 100 which is almost a fifth part higher than The Netherlands. This means that Spain represents a relatively high hierarchy society that reveals inherent inequalities in the workplace and in which the power of the company is centralised most of the time. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).

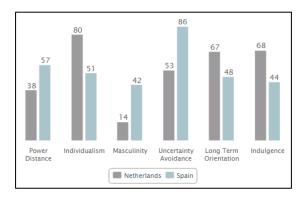
The research of the Hofstede Centre also suggests that The Netherlands, with its score of 80 out of 100, represents a high individual culture, while Spain scores almost 30 per cent less than on this dimension. This means that employees in The Netherlands are able to promote more easily, as the personal results of each employee count. In contrast to the Spanish workplace where people have the tendency to work more often together and to participate in more teamwork-based work, where results are achieved together. If an employee, male or female, achieves good results or merits for the organisation, the change that this person promotes is considerable bigger. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015). According to the research of The Hofstede Centre, Spain is considered to be a more masculine country than The Netherlands, as Spain scores 42 out of 100 against a percentage of 14 out of 100 in The Netherlands. In addition to the last mentioned dimension, this dimension also describes the roles of different sexes in the workplace. In The Netherlands is it desirable that the organisations' managers aim consensus and equality and solidarity is considered more important. Although the score of Spain remains relatively acceptable, it is still one-third of the Dutch score. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).

The Hofstede Centre measures Spain as quite unequal (with a score of 86 out of 100) in comparison with The Netherlands (with a score of 53). In addition to that, Spain is even ranked as second highest world's nation in this dimension, as confrontation are rather avoided than faced, because it would cause more concerns and new unexpected situations. With respect to gender inequality, it is very likely that the power balance between the two sexes would not change

quickly. The Hofstede Centre partly based its scores on a recent survey of young North American and Spanish employees. The young employees' willingness to work in civil service was gauged in this survey. Among 75% of the Spanish young employees admitted to be willing working in civil services, because that would provide them labour guaranty which would result in less stress to deal with. This, in contrast with the Northern American young employees, whose just 17% would like to work in civil service. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).

In relation to the long-term orientation, the Hofstede Centre describes Spain as a normative country with the characteristic to maintain traditions and to search quick solutions to problems. Concerns about the future are rather not welcome, as Spanish people try to live at the moment itself. This ties in closely with The Hofstede Centre's earlier mentioned information in the "Individualism versus Collectivism" dimension, as changes are not likely to occur on a large scale. While Spain is more careful when it comes to make changes, The Netherlands, representing a pragmatic nature, shows an willingness to adapt easily to changes and changing traditions. If a situation proves that rules or traditions should be changed, The Netherlands is more likely to welcome changes more rapidly than Spain, according to this dimension. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).

The last scores presented by The Hofstede Centre, are the scores related to indulgence. The Netherlands scores 68 points out of 100, which means that people in this cultures indulge themselves easily. Spain, in return, scores under the average with 44 points and represents in this case a restrained society. As this dimension explains the degree to which people tend to control their impulses and desires, Spanish people are less likely to step out their comfort zone. This is logically explainable because in the dimensions of Uncertainty Avoidance" and "Confucian dynamism" was already stated that the Spanish culture was not likely to change easily to something that goes beyond their habits or culture. While the Dutch culture is described as more individualistic, the Spanish culture would not allow its citizens easily to take decisions individually. As a result of that, their actions are seen as more restrained by social norms. This also means that the opinion of employers in the workplace is not very likely to change, because the culture's traditions and values must be defended and sustained. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).



Comparison 1. A cross-national comparison of The Netherlands and Spain with Hofstede's dimensions. (*The Hofstede Centre*, 2015)

3.3.2. Cross-national comparison with Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's cultural dimensions The seven cultural dimensions from Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner model also shows inequality related differences between the Dutch and the Spanish workplace. The first dimension is about the universalist cultures and the particularism cultures. In general, rules, values and laws are respected in universalist countries. Not only the rules the manager of an organisation establishes, however, rules, values and laws stand in a pretty high esteem within the workplace. Therefore, the workplaces in a universalist culture are not likely to present high rates of gender inequality. As the universalist mind-set is more often represented in Northern countries, The Netherlands could be rather categorised as a universalist country. In contrast with Spain, which is a more particularistic country. (Rethi, 2012, p. 77).

The second dimension explains the individualism versus de communitarianism cultures, which resembles the "Individualism versus Collectivism" dimension of Hofstede. Here, also counts that the Dutch and the Spanish culture vary widely from each other. While these two dimensions were given two different names, the meaning is basically similar to the second dimension of Hofstede. The Dutch individualistic culture against the communitarianism Spanish culture with its distinct preference for cohesion, as the tradition prescribes, are likely to show completely different images of equality in the workplace. (Rethi, 2012, p. 77).

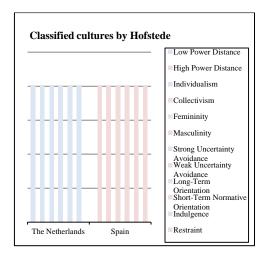
The Achievement versus Ascription dimension could be perfectly compared with the dimension of "Power Distance." Employees from achievement cultures have the tendency to respect their colleagues according to their knowledge which is manifested in their work and name their job titles only when that is important. On the other hand, the Spanish culture, an ascription-orientated culture, has more respect for hierarchical workplace structures in which generally female employees are not presented in top positions. (Rethi, 2012, p. 77).

In the "neutral versus emotional" dimension the way in which employees express their feeling. Moreover, this dimension ties in closely with cross-cultural communication as well. The reason gender inequality is more likely to occur in neutral cultures includes the way in which female employees could express themselves. Whether it is a stereotype or not, according to Ursula Hess and Sacha Senecal of the University of Quebec in Montreal, it is generally believed that women are more emotionally expressive than men. (Hess & Senecal, 2000, p. 610). Taking this into consideration with when it comes to communicating with neutral cultures, could occur miscommunication or even deterrence between the two different cultures. (Rethi, 2012, p. 77).

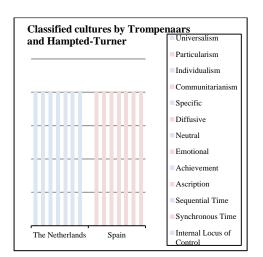
According to the "Specific versus Diffuse" dimension of Trompenaar and Hampden-Turner's cultural model, employees from more specific cultures, the Dutch culture, tend to distinguish work and private related affairs, while diffuse cultures the authority level during work time is able to correspond with the private area. This means that if the Spanish culture, considered as a diffuse culture, protects hierarchical systems or cultural traditions in its culture, this is not likely to change in the workplace neither. (Rethi, 2012, p. 77).

While people in the Sequential-Time" dimension could be considered as fairly punctual, another characteristic is that they also place a high value on respecting the rules. At the moment employees do not stick to the rules, the planning and team work could be negatively affected. This is a reasons why gender inequality in this dimension is not likely to occur more than in the Synchronous-Time dimension. In the last mentioned dimension, people consider the past, present and future to be equal. In other words, the business results that were positive in the past create a guarantee for the future as well, so there is no vital urge to change old cultural patterns. (Rethi, 2012, p. 78).

In the Internal versus Outer Direction dimension, the internal direction cultures have the tendency to try control their environment to realise objectives, while the outer direction cultures share the opinion that their environment prevails in the goals they achieve, or not. Because of the fact that the environment is a dominant factor is both private life and on the workplace, outer cultures try to avoid conflicts all the time, as this may affect their environment. While gender inequality might not be tolerated in such culture, however, the matter is more expected to be swept under the carpet as conflicts must be avoided. (Rethi, 2012, p. 78).



Comparison 2. Classification of the Dutch and Spanish culture by means of Hofstede's cultural dimension. (The Hofstede Centre, 2015)



Comparison 3. Classification of the Dutch and Spanish culture by means of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turners' cultural dimensions. (Nguyen, 2015, p. 6).

Gender inequality in the Dutch and Spanish students' part-time workplace	Fernando Navarro Martinez

"The role of a creative leader is not to have all the ideas; it's so create

culture where everyone can have ideas and feel that they are valued." -Ken Robinson

4. Dutch and Spanish students about culture and gender equality in the part-time workplace

In this section of the paper, outcomes of the student questionnaire's concerning gender inequality in the part-time workplace of students were provided. By means of the questionnaire's outcomes a clear division is visible, as both Dutch and Spanish male and female students were compared with each other. The respondents of the questionnaires were students that belong to the 18-26 age-old category, in order to scrutinise the differences given in chapter two of this paper. Beside the fact that the people in this target group are students, these respondents are employees of a part-time job as well. The questions in the questionnaire tie in closely with the previously mentioned types of gender inequalities, that were explained in the second chapter of this paper. Moreover, the questionnaire's results provide the reader also with understanding of the cultural differences between The Netherlands and Spain. These cultural differences were scrutinised with the aid of the two academic cultural theories, which were presented in the third chapter of this paper. The main purpose of this questionnaire is to measure and compare the experiences of both Dutch and Spanish students concerning gender inequality in their part-time workplace.

4.1. Definition student

A student is a person who follows a study in higher education, which means, at a university. In The Netherlands a student is someone that is enrolled in a so-called *Hogeschool* or university. However, as the Spanish education system differs from the Dutch one, only those who study at a university are enabled to call them students. (Serna & Figueroa & Hernández, 2011). When it comes to educational level the respondents of the questionnaires dispose of comparably equal levels at the end of their study, as a *Hogeschool* in The Netherlands is equivalent to a university in Spain. According to the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, the gap between different educational levels in Europe was bridged because of the Bologna Accords. This, in order to offer comparable diplomas. The Accord is basically a declaration of principles concerning the creation of a European Higher Education Area, signed by 29 European Ministers of Education in Bologna on 19 June 1999. (Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2009, p. 11).

4.2. Definition part-time job

Furthermore, only students with a part-time job were allowed to complete the questionnaire. When it comes to determining the definition of a part-time job, at national and international level there still seem to be some differences in relation to the national and international hours criterion. According to a recent report written by *Het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS)*, the main

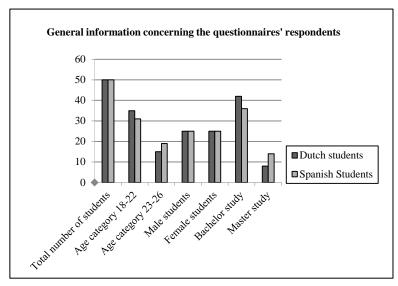
difference of the national definition with respect to the international guidelines relates to the so-called hours criterion. The ILO guidelines for compiling statistics on the labour force proceed from the notion of some work. This contrasts with the notion of "having a substantial number of hours' when it comes to the national definition. The operationalisation of both definitions tie in closely so. The Dutch state considers a part-time job as an occupation in which a student works twelve hours, however, a part-time job at national level just contains one compulsory hour in a month. (Dirven & Janssen, 2012, p, 82).

4.3. The outcomes of the students' questionnaires

In this subpart of the third paragraph the graph were presented in order to clarify the outcomes of the student questionnaire. The numbers on the right side of the graph represents the number of students. From both The Netherlands and Spain 50 students had completed the questionnaire. An equal separation consisting of twenty-five male and twenty-five male and female students was established.

4.3.1. General information about the questionnaires' respondents

In the first graph of this section of the paper, different general information between Dutch and Spanish respondents was showed. Because of the fact that 100 respondents were gathered to complete the questionnaire, the importance to categorise and divide the respondents' personal information is clearly presented to see the wood for the trees. Beside of the hundred respondents, the graph also shows an equal division between women and men respondents. A third division was made in the age category, where the graph shows that eighteen, nineteen, twenty, twenty-one and twenty two year-old students form a majority of the target group. Finally, while fourteen percent of the Spanish and eight percent of the Dutch students are currently enrolled in a master study, no less than 42 % of the Dutch and 36 percent of the Spanish respondents are students of a bachelor study.



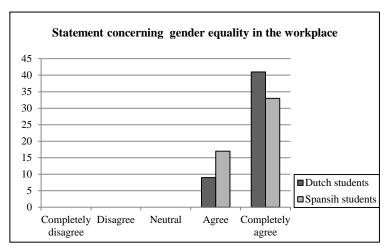
Graph 1. General information concerning the questionnaires' respondents. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.2. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning gender inequality in the workplace 4.3.2.1. The respondents' opinion about an definition of gender equality

To work along the same line with the other questions of the questionnaire, the opinion about a universal definition of gender inequality was considered important. According to the United Nations Entity for Gender Inequality and Empowerment for Women, the following explanation of gender inequality in the workplace was provided: "Gender equality in the work place refers to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of both male and female workers." (United Nations, 2015). This statement does not only provide an official description people should respect, it gauges the students' opinion in a cross-national comparison. Furthermore it demonstrates to what degree Dutch and Spanish employed students grant other students to be entitle to have the same rights and chance of promoting themselves in the workplace.

4.3.2.2. Respondents' opinions about a statement concerning gender equality

The second graph of this chapter shows that a substantial majority of the respondents claims to completely agree on this statement. Besides, the rest of the respondents agree on this statement as well. While 82% of the Dutch students is convinced about the complete veracity of this definition and 18% is believes in this statement. While a hundred percent of the Spanish students feel positive about this definition, the ounce of conviction in relation to the Dutch Students is considered to be stronger. The Spanish students' percentages are lower than the Dutch students' percentages; 34% agrees on the statement and 66% completely agrees on the statement, which is a difference in 14% of students that totally agree on this definition of gender in equality and a 16% disparity in students that agree on this statement.

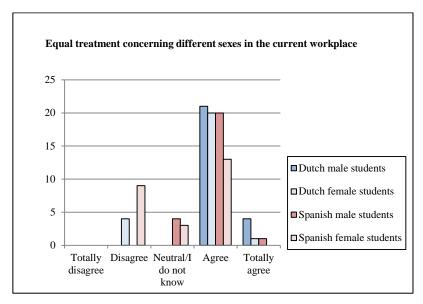


Graph 2. Statement concerning gender equality in the workplace. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.2.3. Equal treatment concerning different sexes

The third graph "Equal treatment concerning different sexes in the workplace," shows the degree to which respondents feel being treated equally in their workplace. Not only a cross-national comparison was presented, however the outcomes of the sex comparison are the most important matter in this graph. By means of measuring the differences in the equality of treatment the gender inequality variances could be estimated in a later section.

This research reveals that both Dutch and Spanish female employees feel that there are differences in treatment. Although, these disparities are not to be entitled considerable, they show that nine out of twenty-five Spanish female students feel treated less equally to their male employees. Also in The Netherland a divergent situation is noticeable, as four out of twenty-five students feel the same. In contrast, both Dutch and Spanish male employees do not have the same feeling as their female colleagues, because they feel that women and men are treated in an equal way. In other words, none of both nationalities' male employees disagree with the statement and a majority of them claims to feel being equally treated in comparison with their female colleagues in the workplace. While the highest number is presented by Spanish female employees that stated to feel an equal treatment, the highest number of all categories about unequal treatment has also been indicated by Spanish female employees. Besides, a remarkable fact is that both Spanish male and female workers indicated that they do not have an opinion about this matter.

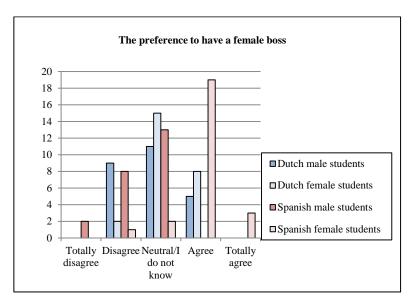


Graph 3. Equal treatment concerning different sexes in the current workplace. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.2.4. Preference of a female boss in the workplace

The main objective of this research is to gauge the respondents' opinion about their preference to work for a female boss. The questionnaire's question that belongs to this research is the following: "I prefer to have a female boss, as the likelihood of gender inequality will decrease." By means of proving this answer, a comparison could be made between male and female employees in The Netherlands and Spain. For example, if a majority of female workers claim to prefer having a female boss, it is suggested that they would feel more comfortable by working for a women, as they are expected to experience less gender inequality. On the other hand, if male workers claim to not prefer working for a female boss, it is assumed that they feel comfortable in the position they are currently working. Finally, if respondents selected the option "neutral/I do not know." It could be assumed that students do not experience gender inequality in their work place or that they do not have enough knowledge to judge their current workplace' situation.

In this graph, the most remarkable fact of this research is that nineteen Spanish female students agree on having a female boss in the workplace. While just eight female students in The Netherlands would prefer to work for a woman. On the other hand, in both The Netherlands and Spain male employees prefer to work for a man. A remarkable fact was shown in the "neutral/I do not know" section of the graph, as only two Spanish female students selected this option in comparison with twenty-six Dutch students and thirteen Spanish male students. An overwhelming majority of Spanish female students believes that working for a female boss would benefit their situation in the workplace.



Graph 4. The preference to have a female boss. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

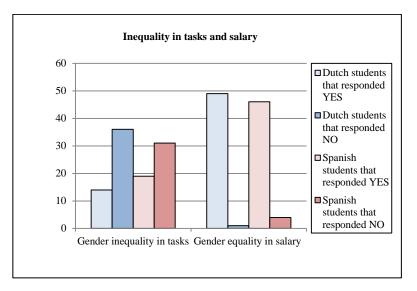
4.3.2.5. Gender inequality concerning task division and remuneration

The fifth graph of this section deals with two questions of the questionnaire as those question are considered to be connected with each other. The results of the following statements was implemented in this graph: "In my workplace there are tasks that are mainly performed by my male/female colleagues" and "My employer pays male and female employees the exact same salary for doing the same work." Respondents were able to choose between the following answers: "yes," "no" and "I do not know." Because of the fact that none of the respondents completed the last mentioned choice, this choice was left out of the graph. However, it stands to reasons that this received information provides a clear vision and comparison on the equal labour situation in the part-time workplace in both The Netherlands and Spain.

When it comes to analysing the gender inequality in task division in the workplace, a difference of 5 persons is visible between The Netherlands and Spain. While there seems to be a slight difference between Dutch and Spanish students that indicated to have experienced a unequal division in tasks at work, a difference of five persons is relatively high. A number of 36 Dutch students claim to work in an equal workplace, while 31 respondents from Spain indicated that their workplace is considered to be equal in this field. By converting this number into percentages, a 72% of the Dutch workplace are seen as equal, compared with a 61% of the Spanish students that categorised their workplace as equal.

When it comes to the second statement, an overwhelming majority, which consists of 49 Dutch students and 46 Spanish students, claims that their part-time occupation is equal. In percentages this means that 98% of the Dutch student jobs, occupied by the respondents of this questionnaire, pays its employees an exact similar salary. However, the part-time jobs in Spain

were classified a little bit less equal, as 18% of respondents shew that the equality in relation with salary could be considered as an area of greater concern.



Graph 5. Inequality in tasks and salary. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.2.6. The disadvantages and advantages a particular sex could experience in the workplace In the sixth graph, the results that were converted into a graph derive from the questionnaire's question: "Do you have the feeling that your sex gives you advantages or disadvantages in your workplace concerning the following matters..." The information presented in the graph serves to obtain a clear view on the labour situation of the respondents, as their thoughts about these matters are in relation with their part-time student job. The seven matters in this graph belong to one of the most common types of sex discrimination that women face in the workplace. The interest for asking students to share their thoughts about these subjects, made it possible render some possible problems in their workplace. Besides, the respondents were informed that the last three matters of the graph (pregnancy and maternity leave, sexual harassment and change of promotion) should be considered as hypothetical matters. If students chose the option "none" it describes that they do not have sufficient knowledge and/or experience related to the topic.

When it comes to the salary disadvantages and advantages, both Dutch and Spanish female students consider their position in the workplace to be less secure than their male employees. The research stated that six out of twenty-five Dutch and eight out of 25 Spanish female students consider to be disadvantaged regarding their salary in relation to their male colleagues. However, Dutch and Spanish male employees indicated that their sex is not likely to be disadvantaged when it comes to remunerations, as none of the respondents selected the box "disadvantage."

The section that described the possibility to negotiate working times with a boss, was

established to obtain a clear picture about the extent to what bosses are willing to take the preference of their employees into consideration. The outcomes in this stage of the research tie in closely with the sexes, instead of in the differences between the nationalities students. Female students in both The Netherlands and Spain have indicated that they consider themselves as advantaged in comparison with their male students. Although the level of Spain is a little bit higher than the number of Dutch students, in both countries female students are more willing to negotiate working times with their boss. This could be in relation with nightshifts or physical power. However, in the end of day, it still presents an unequal situation.

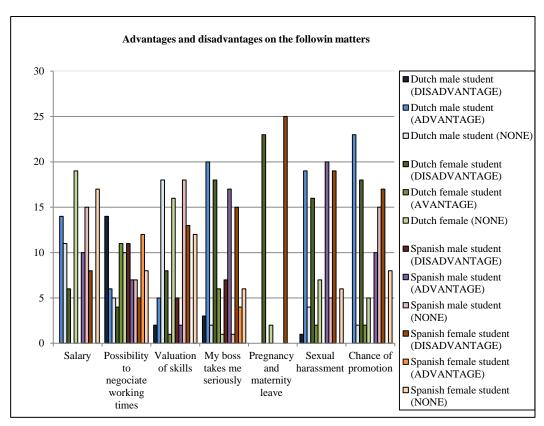
In the section "valuation of skills" the boss's assessment of female and male competences will be contrasted on the basis of students' expectations. "Are male employees be complemented quicker than female employees, or the other way around?" "Does the boss give the physical-related task to male employees?" "Is the boss is more likely to appreciate the work female or male employees deliver in the workplace?" While a majority of Dutch students and Spanish male students indicated not having experienced a false valuation of skills, thirteen Spanish female students stated to feel disadvantaged in comparison with their male colleagues when it comes to the valuation of their skills. Whether the boss takes their male and female employees seriously or not, ties in closely with the person's attitude against sex discrimination in the workplace. If a person tends to make sexual jokes, belittles one specific sex and/or undervalues a particular sex skill, this person is likely to have a less equal view on male and female employees. The graph shows that twenty out of 25 Dutch male students and 18 out of 25 Spanish male students feel advantaged compared with the female sex in this section. However, a majority of both Dutch and Spanish female employees feel disadvantaged in this field. As, only ten percent of all the questionnaire's respondents claimed that they do not have enough knowledge or experience about this topic, a clear division between male and female opinions was made able to be established.

Because of the fact that an overwhelming majority in the 18-26 year-old category of students does not have children, the respondents needed to complete this section in a hypothetical way. An overwhelming majority of both Dutch and Spanish female employees indicated that they consider themselves to be disadvantaged, at the moment they will be pregnant. While Dutch and Spanish women are entitled to have several weeks of maternity leave, female employees commented to feel insecure about the labour consequences after those weeks.

In this part of the most important research's results of the graph's statistics about "sexual harassment" were provided. Dutch and Spanish male workers do not feel disadvantaged to this matter, as only one (Dutch) male respondent indicated to feel disadvantaged in experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace due to its sex. On the other hand, both Dutch and Spanish female respondents feel considerably disadvantaged by their sex, to experience sexual harassment in the workplace. In facts, sixteen Dutch and nineteen Spanish students feel disadvantages in relation to

the opposite sex, when it comes to this matter.

This matter explains whether women and men feel disadvantaged concerning the opposite sex about the chance of promotion in the workplace. An overwhelming majority of twenty-three Dutch male students feel advantaged, while eighteen female students from the same nationality feels disadvantaged to the opposite sex. When it comes to Spanish students, zero male students consider their nationality to entail disadvantages, while seventeen out of twenty-five female students consider their sex to be in relation with disadvantages in this matter.



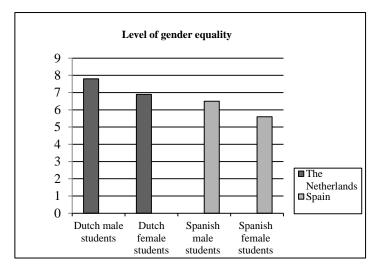
Graph 6. Advantages and disadvantages for different sexes. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.2.7. The level of equality measured per country

In the seventh graph, the level of gender equality was measured by the Dutch an Spanish respondents. The students were informed to bear in mind the seven matters mentioned in the previous question. It stands to reason that the Dutch questionnaire's respondents ranked the equality level of The Netherlands and Spanish students were only able to rank their country. This, because of the fact that the questionnaire results were aimed to be as reliable as possible. A division between male and female workers was made as well.

The most remarkable fact the graph shows is a decrease in satisfactory when it comes to equality in The Netherland and Spain. The respondents' opinion about the level of equality in their

country were presented in this graph in a special order; Dutch male employee, Dutch female employee, Spanish male employee and Spanish female employee. In this order an invisible decreasing line is presented. While male respondents consider their country quite equal, female scores present a persistent lower score. In the previous mentioned order, Dutch male respondents marked The Netherlands with an 7,8 out of nine and Dutch female respondents ranked The Netherlands with a 6,9 out of nine. Lower marks about the equality level of the country were given in Spain, as a 6,5 was provided by male students and a 5,6 was provided by female students.



Graph 7. Level of gender inequality. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

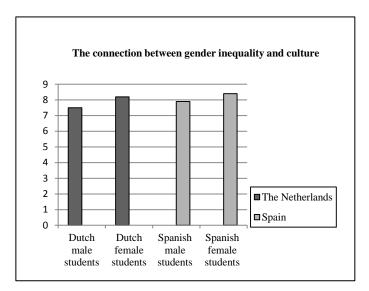
4.3.3. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning equality and culture

In this subpart, information about the questionnaire's third section was provided. The posed questions in the questionnaire were related to equality and culture, in order to obtain a clear view about the student's experiences with these two topics. For the respondents the questions looked normal, however, behind every question a different cultural theory was hidden, in order to measure behaviour with culture.

4.3.3.1. The influence of culture on gender inequality

In the eighth graph of this chapter, the relation between gender inequality and culture was presented. On a scale from one till ten, Dutch and Spanish students were able to rank their own country. By means of researching the respondents' opinion about the cultural influence on a country's equality level, provides a clear picture of the student's awareness of inequalities. In the last graphs, experienced inequalities were already picture, however, in this part students state to understand that inequalities derive from culture. While all of the four results do not differ a lot from each other, a difference was noticed in the sex distinction; both Dutch and Spanish female

students seem to be more convinces of the fact that culture has an effect on gender inequality. Dutch women provided a score of 82% and Spanish women are taking the lead with 83%. However, a lower score was noticed in the male distinction of this graph. While the average score of the twenty-five Dutch male student was the lowest of the four group, their opinion still states that culture has a 75% influence in gender inequality, followed by a Spanish male students' opinion of 79%.



Graph 8. The connection between gender inequality and culture. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.3.2. Statements concerning equality and culture

In the ninth graph of this chapter, cultural behaviour was pictured in order to establish a comparison between the cultural theory of Hofstede. In this theory he describes six unique aspects of a culture and highlights two sides of the aspect. These aspects were called 'dimension.' (See chapter three of this paper for more information on this subject). As every person in a specific culture has its own behaviour, this graph merely is focused on the behaviour of the respondents of the questionnaire; the Dutch and Spanish students with a part-time job. In the ninth graph, which merely focuses on cultural behaviour, a separation was established between Dutch and Spanish students, instead of one with different sexes. The outcomes of this graph serve to compare the Dutch culture with the Spanish culture. Moreover, because of the described cultural dimension behaviour relates to cultural tradition, the results of the graphs could also serve to enrich information about the Dutch and Spanish culture. of On the first statement the questionnaire's question, a majority of thirty-six Dutch students stated that this statement applied to their thoughts, together with a Spanish student's majority of twenty-six. This statement was associated with the first dimension of Hofstede's cultural dimension "Power Distance." As a majority of both Dutch and Spanish students consider hierarchical order as normal, this dimension does not outline a clear difference in Dutch or Spanish cultural behaviour.

In second statement, a majority of thirty-one Dutch students selected the option "true," which means that Dutch students consider themselves as individuals in the workplace. Taking care of themselves in the first place is considered to be more important than providing colleagues with aid. The scores in the Hofstede comparison that were established in the third chapter, were based on a more extensive comparison; a comparison that also included countries outside the European Union. In this research, the Spanish culture is seen by the students as rather collectivistic than individualistic, as fifteen Spanish students indicated the option "true" to be applicable to their culture.

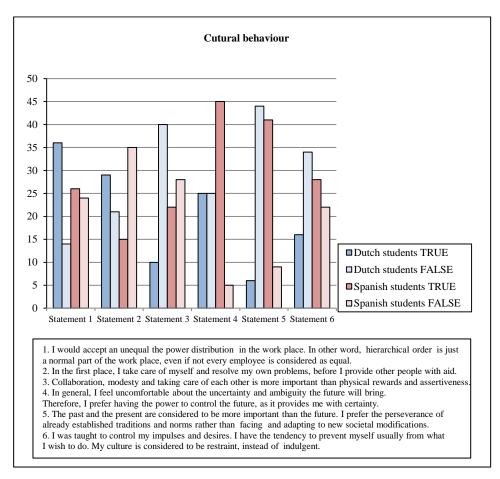
In relation to the third statement, a considerable minority of ten Dutch students chose "true", which means that students did not agree on the statement. While a minority of Spanish students selected the option "true", which also means that they were in favour of the statement, a multiplied number of Spanish students agreed on the statement. The statement was associated with the third dimension of Hofstede's cultural theory and explains the concept of masculine cultures. By selecting the option "false", the culture could be compared with a feminine culture. This culture is also associated with the gender inequality level of a country; the more a country's culture strives for competition, accomplishment and success, the more it is associated with masculinity, as these characteristic describe gender inequality more than the characteristics related to feministic cultures.

In the fourth statement, an absolutely overwhelming majority of Spanish 45 students chose to select the option "true." However, in the Dutch statistics an equal division between "true" and "false" was presented. This statement ties in closely with the fourth cultural dimension of Hofstede: "Uncertainty Avoidance." As only five students indicated differently, it could be suggested that the Spanish culture believe that uncertainty should be avoided. If the current system, situation, order of state of mind has resulted in positive outcomes, the Spanish culture people are absolutely not expected to change that easily. Changes are associated with additional stress, and stress is preferred to be avoided. When it comes to the process of reducing gender inequality in cultures, such state of mind is likely to throw a spanner in the works. In the likelihood of an existence of gender inequality, these characteristics hold tight to traditions, which mean that the way to change and combat patterns is not considered to be easy.

In the fifth statement, a clear difference between the Dutch culture and the Spanish culture was provided by the students' answers on the questionnaire. On the statement, 44 Dutch students answered "false", along a number of four Spanish students that chose the same option. This statement describes the "Long-Term versus Short-Term" dimension of Hofstede's model concerning cultural theory. Students that agree on this statement are likely to belong to the Short-Term dimension of the theory, as this explains that cultural traditions and norms should be uphold.

Societal modifications are not likely to occur, as it diverges from old traditional cultural patterns. Therefore, a problem taught such as gender inequality is not expected to change easily.

In the last statement, the thirty-four Dutch students had chosen to select the "false" option, while twenty-two Spanish students indicated the same option. This statement explain Hofstede's dimension on "Indulgence." An important characteristic of this cultural dimension is to control personal desires. If people in a culture control their desires, the culture could be called "restraint." With respect to gender inequality, the Spanish culture is less likely to change gender inequality, as people in a restraint culture have the tendency to, rather suppress their desires, instead of combating them.



Graph 9. Cultural behaviour. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

4.3.4. The respondents' opinions and experiences concerning culture and the workplace

In this subpart, information about the questionnaire's fourth section was provided. The posed questions in the questionnaire were related to culture and work, in order to obtain a rich view about the student's experiences with these two topics. For the respondents the questions looked normal, however, behind every statement a different cultural dimension was hidden, in order to measure cultural behaviour in the workplace. The main focus of this research is emphasised on the

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's cultural dimension

4.3.4.1. Statements concerning culture and the workplace

The tenth and last graph of this chapter discusses the results of the questionnaire's respondents on the seven statements associated with the theory of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner. In the first statement, a majority of thirty-one students selected the option "true" and a majority of twenty-nine Spanish students selected to option "false." This statement is related to the first dimension of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turners' model and describes the "Universalism versus Particularism" dimension. This means that the Dutch working environment ties in closely with the first mentioned option in that dimension and the Spanish working environment is more related to the particularism division of the theory. Because of the fact that the differences in this cross-national comparison are not considered to be extremely divergent, this dimension is not likely to occur sex discrimination.

On the second statement a minority of twenty four Dutch students and a majority of twenty-nine Spanish students answered "true." This statement is in relation with the "Individualism versus Communitarianism" dimension, which explains that teamwork in the workplace is more important in the Spanish working environment than in the Dutch working environment. If the group fails in achieving high labour results, the group in its totality fails, instead of only one person. The Spanish culture is considered to be related to communitarianism, while the Dutch culture shows more characteristics of individualism.

On the third statement, a majority of thirty-four Dutch students and a minority of nineteen Spanish students considered the statement to be true. As this statement was linked to the third dimension "Specific versus Diffuse", the Dutch working environment relates to the specific part of the dimension and the Spanish working environment is more in relation with the diffuse division of the dimension. Spanish students indicated to be more willing to consider clients and colleagues as friend, while Dutch students have a strong tendency to keep a certain personal distance when it comes to colleagues or clients. While some people interpret the Dutch approach more professional, other consider it as cold and unfriendly. However, because of the fact that Spanish people indicated that their work environment and their personal life is connected to each other, it could be assumed that rooted traditions are applicable in the both working environment and private spheres are upheld as well. In case gender inequality occurs in private environments, it is expected to occur in Spanish working environments too.

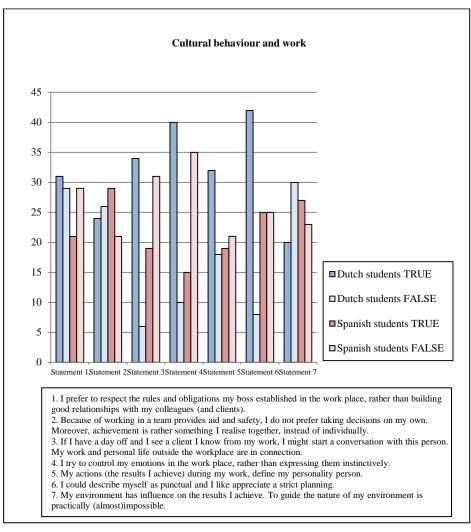
In relation to the fourth statement, a considerable difference in opinions was detected between Dutch and Spanish students, as forty Dutch students indicated to agree with the statement and thirty-five Spanish students indicated to not agree with the statement. The statement was linked to the fourth dimension of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turners' cultural model, as is

explained whether students try to control their emotions in the workplace or not. "Neutral versus Emotional" is the name of the dimension. Dutch students identify themselves more with the first division of the dimension and Spanish students have indicated to define themselves more as emotional. A possible reason why female employees are less likely to achieve top-positions in the workplace could be in relation with their emotional side. As the "men culture" in those positions is not used to emotional characteristics, women are not likely to be able to achieve such position.

When it comes to the fifth statement, a majority of thirty-two Dutch students and a minority of nineteen Spanish students indicated to agree on the statement. The statement is in relation with the "Achievement versus Ascription" dimension of the cultural theory. This describes that Dutch students consider valuation of performances more important than the character of people. In other words, in an achievement-related culture, to which the Dutch working environment relates, it does not matter if a male or a female employee has a top position, as long as this worker achieves high results for the company he or she is working for. Therefore, there is expected to occur less gender inequality in these working environments, as the targets and results are most prevailing.

On the sixth statement forty-two Dutch students indicated to agree on the statement, while twenty-five Spanish students disagreed on the statement. Workers in sequential time cultures are used to have strict planning and live alongside the slogan: "time is money." On the other hand, Spanish student are more likely to identify themselves with a synchronous time-related culture, as for them the past, the present and the future is are periods that are closely connected to each other. For this reason, the reason to live in the three times simultaneously, traditions and patterns of thinking are very likely to be maintained. This means again that workers are expected to face gender inequality in Spanish working environments.

The trueness of the last statement was responded with a minority twenty Dutch students against a majority of twenty-seven Spanish students. This statement relates to the last dimension of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turners' cultural theory and describes the two opposite of "Internal Direction and External Direction." Dutch students feel being more related with the Internal Direction, as this part of the dimension states that by means of achieving good results and high targets the nature of their environment could be changed. In contrast, Spanish employees claim that nature is a prevailing factor; nature controls environment, relationships and persons. Along this line of reasoning, the persistence and laborious change of gender inequality in the Spanish workplace could the identified perfectly. Another characteristic of the external direction is the avoidance of conflicts. As this would cause stress, old patterns are very like to be maintained.



Graph 10. Cultural behaviour and work. (Navarro Martinez, 2015).

"The roots of education are bitter, but the fruit is sweet." - Aristotle

5. The European Union towards an equal Europe

In this last chapter of the paper effective laws and actions of the European Union towards a more equal situation in the workplace were scrutinised. While, by means of the European supervision on the compliance with European law regarding gender inequality in the workplaces of the Member States, gender inequality has reduced in recent years. However, there is always room for improvement.

5.1. How the European Union facilitates the way to equality in the workplace

5.1.1. The deterioration of women's subordination in the workplace

Over time societies and culture have come to achieve a lot of progressive changes when it comes to the people's view on the position of women in society. An important factor of these changes is the slight exodus of the economic and political power, which was centred in the world, ruled my men. In conjunction with the last mentioned, the restructuring of separated business and political interest has occurred a more equal situation in the nowadays workplace. While the view on sex differences and cultural behaviour are not expected to change easily, one of the driving forces behind the slow but ongoing erosion of gender inequality in the workplace is the European Union and its actions.

5.1.2. The influence of the principle of direct effect

As mentioned in the first chapter of this paper, the European Union strives for an completely equal territory in which gender inequality will be eliminated in its twenty-eight Member States. Alongside this line of reasoning, the European Union is empowered to establish absolute laws, which means that every citizen of the Member States of the European Union is required to respect those rules. While not every Member State of the European Union has set such rules on related matters, the European Union did. Because of the fact that the power of European legislations is absolute, the European Union is able to make the final decision. This so-called principle of direct effect symbolises precedence of European law. (Martines, 2014, p. 129). As the in the first chapter already mentioned Article 20 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union declared that discrimination based on sex is strictly prohibited, every European citizen is forced to respect this law. Besides, to examine in detail on the matter of gender inequality in the workplace another legislation has been established. According to the Article 23 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union equality between men and female employees is of highly interest:

[&]quot;Equality between women and men must be ensured in all areas, including employment, work and pay. The principle of equality shall not prevent the maintenance or adoption of measures providing for specific advantages in favour of the under-represented sex." (Ooik & Vandamme, C 2014, p. 117).

As the principle of direct effect serves to equalise the rights of all European Union's citizens, it is not only easier for the European Union to establish laws, whereas projects managed by European Institutions, like the European Commission, take precedence as well. As such projects are subject to the framework of European's citizens basic rights development, the EU has provided its citizens with projects in order to combat the high level of gender inequality in the workplace. The level of equality in the European Union has come to know a huge growth spurt in recent years. (European Parliament, 2012, p, 3).

5.1.3. The European Commission as guardian of fundamental rights

The principle of direct effect would not have been so important if there were no national laws over which it could provide precedence. As the European laws concerning gender equality are presented in the European Union's Charter of Fundamental Rights and because of the fact these laws serve to protect the European citizens, the European Commission (EC) created an annual report for habitants of the European Union in order to inform them about the application of the Charter of Fundamental Rights. A second reason why the European Commission established this report is because of the fact that the citizens of the European Union's Member States are able to see the progress concerning the implementation of the European Union's Charter of Fundamental Rights. This Charter had come to receive its power of functioning on the first of December 2009, when the Treaty of Lisbon was converted into a legally binding treaty. As The Netherlands and Spain have largely agreed on the implementation of European laws, the Charter of Fundamental Rights is applicable to them as well. The maintenance and the degree to what European citizens respect the Charter of Fundamental Rights includes a mutual interest, as the confidence of the Member States should be protected and safeguarded in order to maintain its reliability. The European Commission emphasises the accomplishment and respect towards the Charter of the Fundamental Rights, by means of supervision of three legislative principles: Prevention, infringement procedures and situations outside the scope of the European Union's Charter of Fundamental Rights. (European Commission, 2014).

5.1.3.1. Prevention

In the prevention principle, the European Commission might intensify its preventive line of attack by means of reminding in some cases the authorities responsible for transposing legislation of the requirement to respect the Charter when it comes to executing the law, and by providing the responsible authority with aid to realise the transposition. (European Commission, 2010, p. 9).

5.1.3.2. Infringement procedures

If one of the countries of the European Union do not adhere to the realisation of the fundamental

rights of the European Union's Charter of Fundamental Rights, the European Commission, in its role as protector, is justified to finish the encroachment is entitled to present the event to the Court of Justice (CoJ). The European Commission is only justified to interfere if the, by a Member State, violated law has to do with the fundamental rights, described in the Charter. When it comes to gender inequality, the European Commission is allowed to intervene, as the strict European laws were established in this case. This may subsequently lead to an infringement procedure, which means that the European Commission investigates whether the Member State has respected the European legislation or not.(European Commission A, 2010, p. 10).

5.1.3.3. The situation outside the scope of the Charter

Because of the fact that Member States do also have their own governments that establish laws that respect the fundamental rights of their citizens, the European Commission does normally not replace these laws, because it is up to the Member State's national court of justice to ensure that the country's citizens respect those rules. As long as the Member States try to accomplish the fundamental rights, the European Commission is not allowed to intervene. (European Commission *B*, 2010, p. 10). However, Article 7 of the Treaty on the European Union (TEU), describes that the European Commission is able to intervene when there is a clear risk of violation one of the values mentioned in Article 2 of the Treaty on European Union. According to Article 2 of the Treaty of European Union:

The Union is founded on the values of respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights pf persons belonging to minorities. These values are common to the Member States in a society in which pluralism, non-discrimination, tolerance, justice, solidarity and equality between women and men prevail. (Ooik & Vandamme, 2013, p. 4.)

5.1.4. The European Commission's actions

5.1.4.1 Women in workforce

In comparison with 1997 the level of women in workforce has significantly increased with 13% in the European Union. While only 55% of the women were able to work in 1997, nowadays a percentage of 63 is presented. The employment rate for women has come to know a upward tendency. While The Netherlands is associated with a percentage of 72 women in the workplace, Spain still lags behind with 53%, however, both of the countries made significant increases in this field. (European Commission D, 2014).

5.1.4.2. Employment in Member States

In the Europe 2020 Strategy, all of the European Union's Member States signed the agreement in which was written that every European Union' Member State should increase their employment's rates to at least 75%. Besides, the European Social Fund (ESF) subsidises the improvement ideas

of the European Commission on the gender inequality problem. Several projects have been established that are supervised by the European Institution. Those projects carry the objective to serve to improve the situation in the European Member States. Firstly, one of the most important aid of the European Commission is supervising on improvements concerning the access and participation in the labour market in order to diminish the gender gaps that exist. (European Commission A, 2015). Because of the fact that some technical professions include almost only men employees, the European Commission supervises on the access and participating in technical professions as well. Secondly, decreasing the level of common stereotypes in the workplace. Thirdly, because of the fact that a lot of women give birth, and consequently decide to (partly) leave their jobs and to stay home in order to take care of their baby, the European Commission aims to make the access to childcare facilities easier. In this way, women are less predestined to stay home and could just continue working. In return, their bosses should not be afraid that their female employees will have to be replaced by other workers, because more women are likely to continue working in the same workplace. Therefore the private life in relation with the work life will be benefitted by this supported. (European Commission B, 2014).

5.1.4.3. Gender Gap

The European gender pay gap is symbolised by the average remunerations European male and female employees receive for performing the same tasks in the workplace. While the gender pay gap between The Netherlands and Spain knows a small differences of one percent in this section, the European Commission has still sought for solutions. Because of the fact that the gender pay gap is one of the biggest problems the European Union is still facing nowadays, the European Commission decided to implement legislative and non-legislative actions in order to report the continuing differences between the European countries. Supervision on the Member States' adherence concerning the European Legal Framework about equal pay within the Union's countries. (European Commission E, 2014). The European Commission raised awareness on the pay gap in the European Union by means of the publication of a transparent report for all the citizens of the European Union. In this report the obstacles in relation with the gender pay gap were addressed. In the report the consequences of this inequality were scrutinised and revealed for the European citizens. The main results of this investigation were related with the transparency of remuneration and a lack of knowledge about the fundamental rights habitants of the European Member States are entitled to. In other words, if employees are not acquainted of the fact that they are allowed to ask for transparency and if they are not acquainted of the fundamental rights about payments, the gap will continue to exist. This report highly stressed the implementation of the European Union's legislations about equal remuneration for every employee that is doing the same work. (European Commission A, 2014). Thirdly, by means of raising awareness for the "European Equal Pay Day," the European Commission is able to reach a broader group of people in order to

distribute knowledge about the inequalities concerning pay gaps the European Union's Member States have to deal with. (European Commission C, 2014). This idea is called The Recommendation on Strengthening the Principle of Equal Pay. Lastly, the European Commission provides aid to authorities on state level and its stakeholders. Some important tools to detect gender inequalities are the following: Firstly, software that permits businesses to demeanour statistical valuations of pay equality, that provides possible motives concerning the presence of different salaries in the concerned business. And secondly, an up-to-date website which provides information about the pay equality in the businesses. (European Commission, 2013).

5.1.4.4. Company boards

Two years ago the European Commission established a forty percent Directive about of the underrepresented sex in the boards of companies. In this Directive there is an exclusion of the small and
medium businesses, as the start of encouraging a higher number of women in those boards is easier
to achieve in large businesses. A remarkable difference was provided after this Directive, as the
percentage of 11.9 female employees turned in to 17.8% of female workers in the companies'
boards of large businesses, since the implementation of this Directive. The difference between The
Netherlands and Spain is quite high remarkable, as a percentage of 25.3% has been received in The
Netherlands, while Spain has not made more progression than at 14.8%. (European Commission,
2012). So, also here, Article 23 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights has benefited the situation in
plenty of the boards, as because European Commission ameliorated the gender balance in the
European Unions' Member States, however, there is room, and even more important, need for
improvement.

"Justice in the life and conduct of the State is possible only as first it resides in the hearts and souls of the citizens." -Plato

VIII. Conclusion

The answer to the research question "How do Dutch and Spanish students experience gender inequality in their part-time jobs?" was provided in this chapter of the paper. Due to the intercultural character of this study, related subjects to the theme were included in order to emphasise the importance of both internal and external factors that have influenced the differences in equalities between male and female employees accordingly.

Firstly, in chapter one of this paper, an all-encompassing description of the term *equality* was provided. The explanation of equality appeared to comprise an *essentially contested concept*, for the reason that the divergent perceptions between the Dutch and Spanish culture has resulted in different approaches to view gender inequality. By means of respecting European legislations concerning equal rights for the Member States' citizens, this essentially contested concept is able to transform into an egalitarian concept that endeavours a complete equality between men and women in every culture. Therefore, the importance of reciprocated comprehension prevails, in order to work in unison.

Secondly, in chapter two of this paper, the emergence and perseverance of gender inequality were described. Additionally, the most common gender inequalities Dutch and Spanish workers face in modern day were described as this highlighted the persistence of the issue. Because men and women physically differ from each other, scientists suggest that gender inequality has found its roots since the very beginning of the human race. For example, men have more physical power than women, the male sex was the head of the family, while the women took care of the According to the nature-nurture model, the emergence and persistence of gender inequality was divided in two principle parts; as nature distinguishes individuals physically, the nurture part describes that persons upheld traditions because of the education their social environment provides. In addition, the biology, socialisation and tradition model ties in closely with this aforementioned idea, as it appeared to reveal people to maintain tradition because of their education. Education subsequently teaches people how to behave in society. In societies, people put into practice what education has taught them to do, which consequently resulted in perseverance of traditions. Finally, in society, people copy each other's behaviour and transfer this from generation to generation, thus creating a 'tradition'. As a result of the latter mentioned, women have been subordinated over the years. Current examples of this discrimination were presented by the World Economic Forum and the European Institute for Gender Equality. The main gender inequalities women face in the labour market are indicated to be labour force participation, wage inequality, promotions to work in higher positions and segregation in the workplace. While The Netherlands and Spain do not differ a lot from each other, The Netherlands have shown to be more equal in virtually every mentioned field of concern.

Thirdly, in chapter three of this paper, a cross cultural comparison was established in order to compare the cultural influences on gender inequality in The Netherlands and Spain. Through utilisation of the two cultural theories designed by Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, a clear separation concerning the countries' difference in cultural perceptions and behaviour was observed. According to Hofstede's theory, the Netherlands consist of a low power distance orientated, feminine, individualistic, long-term orientation related and indulgent culture, compared with the Spanish culture which was described as an high power distance orientated, collectivistic, masculine, short-term orientated and restraint one. Additionally, according to the theory of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, The Netherlands includes a universalistic, individualistic, specific, neutral, achievement orientated, sequential time-related and internal direction orientated culture, while the Spanish one is explained as particularistic, communitarianism, diffusive, emotional-oriented, ascription-oriented, synchronous time-related and outer direction-oriented culture. Social anthropology states that societies are expected to face the similar social bottlenecks, however, cultures do not operate the same approaches in order to combat problems. Because of the culture-related classification when it comes to typical Dutch and Spanish characteristics, The Netherlands deals with problems in a different way than Spain does. Additionally, according to the theories, due to the high level of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance, short-term orientation related, diffusive, emotional, ascription based and external direction oriented character, the Spanish culture has proved to accept gender inequalities on a wider scale than the Dutch culture. The cultural dimensions that were related to the Spanish culture reflects a virtually conservative character, which means that traditions in the Spanish culture are preserved, problems are unsolved because stress to resolve them and innovation to improve them is rather avoided than challenged, and people cling/fit tightly/adhere/cohere to that what they already have, know and are.

Moreover, in chapter four of this paper, the opinions and experiences about gender inequality were examined by means of a student questionnaire. The results of this questionnaire proved that Dutch and Spanish female employees experience more gender inequality in the part-time workplace compared to their male colleagues. In addition, Spanish female employees have experienced more inequalities in this matter than Dutch female employees. For example, when it comes to segregation of working tasks, 72% of the Dutch, against 62% of the Spanish respondents indicated that in their part-time student job a division exists between tasks for male workers and female workers. Additionally, with respect to the equality of the gender pay gap, there is a difference of 6% between Dutch and Spanish students. Also according to the valuation of skills and the chance of promotion in the part-time students' workplace, male and females are considered to differ from each other by approximately 20%. Furthermore, Spanish female employees are expected to face the greatest struggle, as their scores in the questionnaires hit the top in relation

with Dutch female employees and Dutch and Spanish male employees. Moreover, regarding cultural theories of Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, the results of the questionnaires showed that the Dutch and Spanish students related themselves with the dimensions that corresponded with their culture. Taking this last mentioned result into consideration, compared with the circumstance provided, the Spanish male and female students experienced the highest level of gender inequality in virtually every single field of the questionnaire. This concludes that Spanish students experience more gender inequality in their part-time workplace than Dutch students, with the Spanish female employees being most affected.

Finally, in chapter five of this paper, measures against gender inequality were explained. There are three types of measures the European Union undertakes: legislative measures, supervision measures and actions. The legislative measures define the European legislation, which applies to every Member State of the European Union. Those written laws have realised a reduction of gender inequality in the European Union's Member States. This because of the fact that the *Principle of Direct Effect* has precedence over national law in order to safeguard the values of the European Union and to assure that the Member States respect the values and laws of the Charter of Fundamental Rights. On the other hand, if the European Commission notices that one of the Member States does not respect the rules, the European commission is entitled to: confront the Member State with European legislation, to start a procedure of infringement or, in case there is to intervene in case there is a clear risk of violation of the European Union's values. Nevertheless, a silver lining is clearly visible; for example, the action to raise more awareness for the problem by means of publishing transparent reports with regard to the current gender gap, has increased the workforce of women in the European Union's Member States with 13%.

IX. Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the research as presented in this paper and endeavour to reduce the gender inequalities, often faced by female workers, in the labour market. Both public and private oriented organisation could benefit from these recommendations. Additionally, the numbers that had been published in this paper serve to clarify the current situation and could be of great interest for official Bureaus for (Cultural and Social) Statistics.

Firstly, as Professor E. Juaristi Besalduch mentioned in the interview on 16 June 2015, education forms the basis of everything. Every European pupil, apprentice, student and scholar in all walks of life, should be taught that every job is accessible for both men and women. [When students make their study choice after high school, a high number of female students and a high number of male students choose completely different studies. This reflects to the labour market, as the more men are presented in technical jobs and more women are presented in healthcare related jobs. In other words, the students' choice should be supported by teachers, by means of mandatory and confidential private conversations about the competences and interests of the students. Even earlier in the stage of development teachers in primary and secondary schools should remove gender stereotypes by means of applying an obligatory correcting model that makes gender roles belong to the future. One of the most effective ways to alter stereotypes about gender differences is to combat the problem at the moment the student's mind is modifiable. In addition, as previously mentioned in the nature-nurture debate and in the biology, socialisation and tradition model, over time traditions are likely to be upheld by the world's societies because of values and norms that are taught in school. In order to make stereotypes about typical male and female jobs disappear, female students should be encouraged to learn technical studies and males should be greater encouraged to study health and administrative subjects. Despite the fact that the European Union is not entitled to oblige its Member States to stick to a certain way of providing education, the European Commission of Culture and Education could promote these ideas by means of implementing common European objectives.

Secondly, in order to combat the vertical and horizontal segregation problem in the modern workplace, the forty percent Directive designed by the European Commission for company boards, should be obligatory for all (part-time students') jobs. Although it has been stated that not every European Member State's enterprise, organisation or institution is unwilling to accept this measure, at least for students, the interest in an equal division between male and female employees in the workplace is at stake. Implementing a regulation whereby a minimum of 40% of the workforce must be female is considered to be a step forward in relation to respecting the European legislations on values and sex discrimination in the workplace, as described in Article 23 of the

Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union.

Thirdly, when it comes to the gender gap differences in equal pay, both Dutch and Spanish national governments should raise more awareness of the European Equal Pay Day in order to reduce the pay gap between male and female employees. While, France, Belgium, Austria and Switzerland have already established a Pay Day, The Netherlands and Spain are lagging behind. If the European Commission obliges these two last mentioned countries to introduce this event, more awareness of the unequal situation will be raised and the gender inequality in this field could be greater criticised by citizens.

Moreover, another solution which not only applies to students' part-time jobs but for all workplaces; a maternity/paternity job leave for both parents should be available in order to promote workforce equality between men and women. While a pregnant woman is entitled to stay home for four months, the father should also be entitled to leave his job temporarily in order to stay with the mother and provide care during those months. In this way, the woman will not be identified anymore with the sex 'that leaves the jobs to take care of the baby.' Moreover, this will subsequently decrease the risk that women will face discrimination when it comes to recruitment of personnel in the workplace. In addition to that, the establishment of more public day cares in The Netherlands and Spain would make it easier for parents to finance the often high costs when parents return to work. In short, with reference to, and in order to respect the values described in Article 23 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, these mentioned recommendations have proved to embrace a necessary character. Despite the fact that human beings physically will never be identical, when it comes to respecting and proactively implementing the laws, values and ideas of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, European society will change and receive what it deserves; an equal workplace for all.

X. References

- Balan, S. (2013). The Trompenaars' Seven-Dimension Cultural Model and Cultural Orientations, p. 95-98. Proceedings of the 7th International Management Conference 'New Management for the New Economy. Retrieved 12 May 2015, through: http://conferinta.management.ase.ro/archives/2013/pdf/11.pdf
- Baxter, J. & Wright, E. O. (2000). The Glass Ceiling Hypothesis. A Comparative Study of the United States, Sweden, and Australia, p. 275. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: https://www.ssc.wisc.edu/~wright/GenderGap.pdf
- Beckhouche, Y. & Zahidi, S. (2013). User's Guide: How Country Profiles Work. Gender Gap Subindexes. Estimated Earned Income, p. 107. Retrieved 5 May 2015, through: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR13/GGGR_UsersGuide_ 2013.pdf
- Benjamin, A. & Crow, J. (2013). Vocabulary at the core: Teaching the common core standards. Receptive Vs. Productive Vocabulary, p. 88-102. Consulted on 02 March 2015.
- Brooks, L. & Ali, M. (2010). Culture and National Cultural Dimensions. Cultural Elements (Layers), p. 8-10. Retrieved 5 May 2015, through: http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Maged_Ali2/publication/49401341_Culture_and_IS_National_cultural_dimensions within IS discipline/links/02e7e5372aa64e6959000000.pdf
- Browne, C. & Battista, A. & Geiger, T. & Gutknecht, T. (2014). The Executive Opinion Survey:

 The Voice of the Business Community. World Economic Forum. Retrieved 4 May 2015,
 through: http://reports.weforum.org/global-competitiveness-report -20142015/introduction-2/
- Burri, S. & Prechal, S. (2013). European Gender Inequality Law: Equal Rights for men and women, p. 8-9. European Commission, European Network of Legal experts in the Field of Gender Inequality. Retrieved 11 May 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/your_rights/eu_gender_equality_law_update2013_en.pdf
- Busch, A. (2011). Gender-Specific Occupational Segregation, Glass Ceiling Effects and Earning in Managerial Positions: Results of a Fixed Effects Model. Retrieved 8 June 2015, through: http://ftp.iza.org/dp5448.pdf

- Campbell, H. R. (2012).CITE. Earned Income, p. 1. Fuqua School of Business, Duke University. Retrieved 28 April 2015, through: http://people.duke.edu/~charvey/
- Daum, T. L. & Wiebe, G. (2003). Locus of Control, Personal Meaning, and Self-Concept Before and After an Academic Critical Incident: Locus of Control. P. 7-10. Trinity Western University. Retrieved 12 May 2015, through: https://www2.twu.ca/cpsy/theses/daumtanya.pdf
- Dirven, H. J. & Janssen, B. (2012). De Nederlandse beroepsbevolking: twee afbakeningen.

 Uitgangspunten internationale definitie, p. 81. Retrieved 28 May 2015, through:

 http://www.cbs.nl/NR/rdonlyres/728E4AB4-CB05-4433-B88F-B74B46F63A4D/0/2012k1
 v4p80art.pdf
- Eagly, A. H. & Wood, W. (2013). The Nature-Nurture Debates: 25 Years in Challenges in Understanding the Psychology of Gender. Perspectives on Psychological Science, p. 1-7. Retrieved 1 May 2015, through:http://dornsife.usc.edu/assets/sites/545/docs/Wendy_Wood _Research_Articles/Gender_Differences_in_Social_Behavior/eagly.wood.2013.nature-nurture_debates.pdf
- EIGE. (2013). Gender Inequality Index Report. Conceptual Framework. Domains of Gender Inequality: Domain 1: Work, p. 21. Retrieved 07 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/document/gender-equality-index-report
- EIGE (A). (2013). Gender Inequality Index. About the Gender Inequality Index. Main Findings. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/gender-equality index#/about
- EIGE (B). (2013). Gender Inequality Index. The Netherlands. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/gender-equality-index#/country/NL
- EIGE (C). (2013). Gender Inequality Index. Spain. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/gender-equality-index#/country/SP

- EIGE (D). (2013). Gender Inequality Index Area. The index explained in 5 minutes. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/activities/gender-equality-index
- Esplen, E. & Jolly, S. (2006). Gender and Sex: A sample of definitions, p. 2-5. Institute for Development Studies, BRIDGE. Retrieved 2 May 2015, through: http://www.iwtc.org/ideas/15_definitions.pdf
- European Commission. (2010). Strategy for the effective implementation of the Charter of Fundamental Rights by the European Union. Ensuring that Member States respect the Charter when implementing Union law. Prevention, p.9. Retrieved 9June 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/news/intro/doc/com 2010 573 en.pdf
- European Commission (A). (2010). Strategy for the effective implementation of the Charter of Fundamental Rights by the European Union. Ensuring that Member States respect the Charter when implementing Union law. Infringement procedures, p.10. Retrieved 9June 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/news/intro/doc/com_2010_573_en.pdf
- European Commission (*B*). (2010). Strategy for the effective implementation of the Charter of Fundamental Rights by the European Union. Ensuring that Member States respect the Charter when implementing Union law. Situations outside the scope of the Charter, p.10. Retrieved 9June 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/news/intro/doc/com_2010_573_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2012). Proposal on increasing Gender Equality in the Boardrooms of Listed Companies. Retrieved 05 June 2015, though: http://europa.eu/rapid/pressrelease_MEMO-12-860_en.htm
- European Commission. (2013). Instruments to decrease the gender pay gap in business companies.

 Retrieved 3 June 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/other-institutions/good-practices/review-seminars/seminars_2011/gender_pay_gap_instruments_en.htm
- European Commission (*A*). (2014). Commission Recommendation on pay transparency and the gender pay gap. What is the Commission doing to close the gap? Retrieved 14 June 2015, through: http:// europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-14-160_en.htm

- European Commission (*B*). (2014). Commission Recommendation on pay transparency and the gender pay gap. What is the EU doing to address the remaining challenges to employment in the Member States? Retrieved 14 June 2015, through: http://europa.eu/rapid/pressrelease_MEMO-14-160_en.htm
- European Commission (*C*). (2014). Equal Pay Day: Gender Pay Gap stagnates at 16.4% across Europe. Retrieved 10 June 2015, through: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-14-190_en.htm
- European Commission (D). (2014). Questions & Answers: Report on the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights and Progress Report on Gender Equality. What has the EU done in for women in the workforce? Retrieved 2 June 2015, through: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-14-284_en.htm
- European Commission (*E*). (2014). Questions & Answers: Report on the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights and Progress Report on Gender Equality. What is de gender gap and what has the EU done about it? Retrieved 2 June 2015, through: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-14-284_en.htm
- European Commission. (A). (2015). Country-specific recommendations 2015: Further efforts needed to support a robust recovery. The 2015 country-specific recommendations.

 Retrieved 01 June 2015, through: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-15-4975_en.htm
- European Commission (*B*). (2015). Justice. What are the causes? Retrieved 10 May 2015, through: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap/causes/index_en.htm
- European Parliament. (2012). Gender Inequalities in the European Union. Introduction, p. 3. Flash Eurobarometer 34. TNS Political and Social. Retrieved 1 June 2015, through: http://www.europarl.europa.eu/pdf/eurobarometre/2012/femme_mars/rapport_en.pdf
- Farías Nazel, P. (2007). *Cambios en las Distancias Culturales entre Países*: Un Análisis a las Dimensiones Culturales de Hofstede. Las Dimensiones de la Cultura Nacional, p. 90. Retrieved 7 May 2015.
- Farías Nazel, P. (2007). *Cambios en las Distancias Culturales entre Países*: Un Análisis a las Dimensiones Culturales de Hofstede. Las Dimensiones de la Cultura Nacional, p. 91. Retrieved 7 May 2015.

- Farías Nazel, P. (2007). *Cambios en las Distancias Culturales entre Países*: Un Análisis a las Dimensiones Culturales de Hofstede. Las Dimensiones de la Cultura Nacional, p. 92. Retrieved 7 May 2015.
- Ferraro, G. & Andreatta, S. (2010). Cultural Anthropology: An Applied Perspective. Sex and Gender, p. 256-264. Retrieved 2 May 2015, through: https://books.google.es/books?id= B6XO9Sgt9y8C&pg=PA256&hl=es&source=gbs_toc_r&cad=3#v=onepage&q&f=false
- Freeberg, E. M. (2002). *Regarding Equality*. Rethinking Contemporary Theories of Citizenships, Freedom and the Limits of Moral Pluralism. Retrieved 13 March 2015, through: https://books.google.es/books?id=c7YYg9U7Gh0C&pg=PA8&lpg=PA8&dq=Ronald+Dworkin +%22abstract+egalitarian+plateau%22&source=bl&ots=FDS5HMGNuY&sig=oBfkmmU XCrDYAhcxZHkzElx_ibg&hl=nl&sa=X&ei=1go5VaygIcaP7A:KuoH4Bg&ved=0CC UQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q=Ronald%20Dworkin%20%22abstract%20egalitarian%20 plateau%22&f=false
- GeneWatch UK. (2011). DNA Database and Human Rights. What is special about DNA? P. 2. Retrieved 2 April 2015, through: http://www.genewatch.org/uploads/f03c6d66a9b354535 738483c1c3d49e4/infopack_fin.pdf
- Graça, J. M. (2011). Hofstede's Cultural Negotiating Agents: Hofstede's Dimensional Model of Culture, p. 16. University of Lisbon publications. Retrieved 7 May 2015, through: http://repositorio.ul.pt/bitstream/10451/6393/1/ulfpie040099_tm.pdf
- Hall, E. T. (1989). Beyond Culture. Hidden Culture, p. 57-70. Retrieved 23 March 2015.
- Hampden-Turner, C. H. & Tompenaars, F. (2013). National Cultures and Corporate Cultures, p. 157-181. Retrieved 7 May 2015, through: http://ocan.yasar.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Riding-the-waves_Part-1.pdf
- Hess, U. & Senecal, S. (2000). Emotional expressivity in men and women: Stereotypes and self-perceptions. "Pure" emotions vs. emotion profiles, p. 610-613. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://psychophysiolab.com/uhess/pubs/CE1.pdf
- Hofstede, G. (n.d.) Cultures And Organizations. Software of the Mind. Culture, p. 1. Retrieved 11 April 2015, through: http://www.novsu.ru/file/1092483

- Hofstede, G. (n.d.) Cultures And Organizations. Software of the Mind. Symbols, heroes, rituals, and values, p. 2. Retrieved 11 April 2015, through: http://www.novsu.ru/file/1092483
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences*: International Differences in Work related Values. London: Sage Publications, p. 21-23.
- Howson, A. (2009). Cultural Relativism: Philosophy of Science & Cognitive Relativism, p. 2-5. EBSCO Research Starters. Retrieved 6 May 2015, through: https://www.ebscohost.com/uploads/imported/thisTopic-dbTopic-1247.pdf
- Hutton, W. (1995), The state we're in, London: Jonathan Cape. Retrieved 6 June 2015, through: http://eige.europa.eu/content/document/gender-equality-index-report
- Hyde, J. S. (2005). The Gender Similarities Hypothesis. The Importance of Context, pp. 588-589. The University of Wisconsin. Retrieved 23 April 2015, through: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.374.1723&rep=rep1&type=pdf
- International Labour Office. (2014). Key Indicators of the Labour Market. Labour Force

 Participation, p. 29. Eight Edition. Geneva. Retrieved 2 May 2015, through: http://kilm.ilo.

 org/2011/download/kilmcompleteEN.pdf
- International Labour Organisation. (2013). Major Group One: Legislators, senior officials and managers, p. 1. Retrieved 22 May 2015, through: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco88/1.htm
- Jackson, R. M. (2009). Down So Long. Chapter 2. Persistence. Analysing the Persistence of Gender Inequality: Gender Inequality's Persistence, p. 36. Retrieved 30 April 2015, through: http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jackson/future.of.gender/Readings/DownSoLong--Persistence&Origins.pdf
- Jackson, R. M. (2009). Down So Long. Chapter 2. Persistence. Analysing the Persistence of Gender Inequality: How to Think about the Origins, p, 29. Retrieved 30 April 2015, through: http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jackson/future.of.gender/Readings/DownSoLong--Persistence&Origins.pdf

- Jackson, R. M. (2009). Down So Long. Chapter 5. Gender Inequality. Nature and the Problem of Possible Variation, p. 2. Retrieved 22 April 2015, through: https://www.ssc.wisc.edu/~ wright/ContemporaryAmericanSociety/Chapter%2015%20--%20Gender%20inequality% 20--%20Norton%20August.pdf
- Jandt, V. (2006). Dimensions of Culture. From the Intercultural Perspective, p. 181. Sage Publications. Retrieved 6 May 2015, through: http://www.sagepub.com/upmdata/11711_Chapter7.pdf
- Jervis, N. (2006). What Is a Culture? Cultural Transmission, p. 2. Retrieved 7 May 2015, through: http://www.p12.nysed.gov/ciai/socst/grade3/anthropology.pdf
- Kennedy, P. (2010). *Local Lives and Global Transformations towards World Society*. Asserting and Protecting Local Lives: Urban and Rural Resistance. Woman against neo-liberalism and patriarchy, p. 203-204. Retrieved 3 May 2015.
- Kipuri, N. (2009). State of the World's Indegenous People. Culture, p. 52-55. Retrieved 17 April 2015, through: http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unpfii/documents/SOWIP/en/SOWIP_chap ter2.pdf
- Martines, F. (2014). Direct Effect of International Agreements of the European Union, p. 129. *The European Journal of International Law Vol. 25 no. 1*. Retieved 28 May 2015, through: http://www.ejil.org/pdfs/25/1/2466.pdf
- Mol, J. (2011). *Filosofen over het belang van kunst*. Plaatsbepaling. Foucault: De Orde Ontregelen, p. 05-114. Retrieved 19 March 2015.
- Mol, J. (2011). *Filosofen over het belang van kunst*. Plaatsbepaling. Plato: In het licht van de eeuwige schoonheid, p. 16-17. Retrieved 01 March 2015.
- Moss, J. (2009). Egalitarianism and the Value of Equality. Telic and Deontic Egalitarianism, p. 1-4. *Journal of Ethics and Social Philosophy*. Retrieved 22 April 2015, through: http://jesp.org/articles/download/EgalitarianismandtheValueofEquality.pdf
- Navarro Martinez, F. (2015). Questionnaires' results. Own research. Retrieved May 2015.

- Norton, A. (2009). Gender Inequality. Gender Nature and the Problem of Possible Variation, p. 2. Retrieved 30 April 2015, through: https://www.ssc.wisc.edu/~wright/Contemporary AmericanSociety/Chapter%2015%20--%20Gender%20inequality%20--%20Norton%20August.pdf
- Nguyen, H. (2015). Compare and contrast cultural frameworks developed by Geert Hofstede and Fons Trompenaars. Fons Trompenaars Research, p. 6. Retrieved 12 May 2015, through: http://www.academia.edu/7380042/Compare_and_contrast_cultural_frameworks_developed_by_Geert_Hofstede_and_Fons_Trompenaars
- OECD. (2006). Glossary of Statistical Terms. Participation Rate. P. 16. Retrieved 23 April 2015, through: https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=2008
- Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. (2009). The Bologna Process in Higher Education in Europe. Key indicators on the social dimension and mobility. Widening access, p. 11. Retrieved 24 May 2015, through: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/KS-78-09-653-EN.pdf
- Ooik, R. & Vandamme T. (A) (2013). *European Basis Treaties*. Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Title III, Article 20 Equality before the law, p. 117. Retrieved 1 May 2015.
- Ooik, R. & Vandamme T. (B) (2013). European Basis Treaties. Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Title III, Article 21 Non-discrimination, p. 117. Retrieved 1 May 2015.
- Ooik, R. & Vandamme T. (C) (2013). European Basis Treaties. Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Title III, Article 23 Equality between women and men, p. 117.

 Retrieved 16 May 2015
- Ooik, R. & Vandamme T. (2013). *European Basic Treaties*. Treaty on European Union. Title I, Article 2 Values E, p. 4. Retrieved 2 June 2015.
- Ooik, R. & Vandamme T. (2013). *European Basis Treaties*. Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. Title XIII, Article 167, 1 and 4, p. 65. Retrieved 5 May 2015.

- Piccard, D. (2005). A Theory of Justice. Principles of Justice. *The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press*, p. 1.
- Rethi, G. (2012). Cultural Perspectives of Corrupt Behaviour. Application of Trompenaars Model for Corruption. Culture and Cultural Dimensions, p. 77-78. Retrieved 17 May 2015, through: file:///C:/Users/startklaar/Downloads/TMP_2012_01_11_ Rethi_Gabor.pdf
- Rethi, G. (2012). Cultural Perspectives of Corrupt Behaviour. Application of Trompenaars Model for Corruption. Culture and Cultural Dimensions, p. 78. Retrieved 17 May 2015, through: file:///C:/Users/startklaar/Downloads/TMP_2012_01_11_Rethi_Gabor.pdf
- Ríos Figueroa, C., B. (2008). *Cultura y Dimensiones de Hofstede desde sus inicios hasta el presente:* Una revisión de literatura, p. 4. Rerieved 8 May 2015.
- Ríos Figueroa, C., B. (2008). *Cultura y Dimensiones de Hofstede desde sus inicios hasta el presente:* Una revisión de literatura, p. 5. Rerieved 8 May 2015.
- Rodriguez Paniagua, J. M. (1997). *Historia del Pensamiento Juridico II*. La filosofia juridica, p. 493. University Cumpultense Madrid. Rerieved 28 April 2015
- Ross, W. D. (1999). *Nicomachean Ethics*. Aristotle. Book V, p. 75-85. Retrieved 17 March 2015 through: http://socserv2.socsci.mcmaster.ca/econ/ugcm/3ll3/aristotle/Ethics.pdf
- Sadursky, W. (2008). *Equality and Legitimacy*. Legal Equality, p. 100-106. Retrieved 18 March 2015, through: https://books.google.es/books?id=FsVYoLl3dX4C&pg=PA100&lpg=PA100&dq=equality+essentially+contested+concept&source=bl&ots= nI8AzRbBPD &sig=eHj1HGGIctqKAaxSeeC10XMQ8Mk&hl=nl&sa=X&ei=tRE5VerAEKGS7AbQ v4GIDQ&ved=0CE4Q6AEwBA#v=onepage&q=equality%20essentially%20contested %20concept&f=false
- Sadursky, W. (2008). *Equality and Legitimacy*. Social Equality. Luck, Egalitarianism and Its Limits. Equality of Recourses, of Welfare, and the Status of Preferences, p. 207-224. Retrieved 18 March 2015, through: https://books.google.es/books?id=FsVYoLl3dX4C&pg =PA100&lpg=PA100&dq=equality+essentially+contested+concept& source=bl&ots =nI8AzRbBPD&sig=eHj1HGGIctqKAaxSeeC10XMQ8Mk&hl=nl&sa=X&ei=tRE5

- $\label{lem:content} Ver AEKGS7AbQv4GIDQ\&ved=0CE4Q6AEwBA\#v=one page \&q=equality \% 20 essentially \% 20 contested \% 20 concept \&f=false$
- Sadursky, W. (2008). *Equality and Legitimacy*. Social Equality. Luck, Egalitarianism and its Limits. Recourses and Welfare, p. 224-237. Retrieved 18 March 2015, through: https://books.google.es/books?id=FsVYoLl3dX4C&pg=PA100&lpg=PA100&dq=equality+essentially+contested+ concept&source=bl&ots=nI8AzRbBPD&sig=eHj1 HGGIctqKAaxSeeC10XMQ8Mk&hl=nl&sa=X&ei=tRE5VerAEKGS7AbQv4GID Q&ved=0CE4Q6AEwBA#v=onepage&q=equality%20essentially%20contested %20concept&f=false
- Serna, M. & Figueroa, J. & Hernández, A. & Merchán, A. & Reparaz, M. & Velasco, A. (2011). El Protocolo en las Instituciones. Escuela Internacional de Protocolo. En las Comunidades Autónomas, p 153. Retrieved 23 May 2015.
- Smith, E. E. & Kosslyn, S. M. (2007). *Cognitive Psychology*: Mind and Brain. Perceptions. Revisit and reflect, p. 98-102. Retrieved 6 March 2015.
- Spates, J. L. (1983). The Sociology of Values: Introduction, p. 27-38. Retrieved 01 May 2015, through: http://www.ics.uci.edu/~vid/Readings/Spates_1983_Sociology_of_Values.pdf
- Sultana, A. (2010). Patriarchy and Women's Subordination: A Theoretical Analysis. Women's Subordination, p 6-11. University of Dhaka. Retrieved 3 May 2015, through: http://www.bdresearch.org/home/attachments/article/nArt/A5_12929-47213-1-PB.pdf
- Tharp, B. M. (2009). Defining "Culture" and "Organizational Culture": From Anthropology to the Office. Aspects of Culture, p. 2-6.Retrieved 5 May 2015, through: http://www.ha worth.com/docs/default-source/white-papers/defining-culture-and-organizationa-culture_51-pdf-28527.pdf
- The Hofstede Centre. (2015). Strategy, Culture, Change. The Netherlands in comparison with Spain. Retrieved 29 April 2015, through: http://geert-hofstede.com/netherlands.html
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. Feelings And Relationships, p. 70-82. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/0786311258

- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. How Far Get We Involved p. 83-103. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/078 6311258
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. How We Accord Status, p. 105-120. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/078631 1258
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. How We Manage Time, p. 123-142. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/078631 1258
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. How We Relate To Nature, p. 145-158. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture Understanding/dp/07 86311258
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. Relations And Rules, p. 29-48. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/078 6311258
- Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, (1998). Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Global Business. The Group And The Individual, p. 51-70. Retrieved 16 May 2015, through: http://www.amazon.com/Riding-The-Waves-Culture-Understanding/dp/0786311258
- UNESCO. (2013, April). Gender Mainstreaming Implementation Framework: Baseline definitions of key concepts and terms, p. 1-3. Retrieved 29 March 2015, through: http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/BSP/GENDER/PDF/1.%2Baseline%20Definitions%20of%20key%20gender-related%20concepts.pdf

- United Nations. (2015). United Nations Entity for Gender Inequality and the Empowerment of Women. Gender Mainstreaming: Concepts and Definitions. Retrieved 29 May 2015, through: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsandefinitions.htm
- Verplaetse, J. & Özen, E. (2014). Politieke en Rechtsfilosofische Stromingen.

 Hetgelijkheidsbegin-sel. Compensatiegelijkheid, p. 19-22. Retrieved 19 March 2015
- Verplaetse, J. & Özen, E. (2014). Politieke en Rechtsfilosofische Stromingen. Het gelijkheidsbegin-sel. Gelijkheid, een allemansvriend, p. 1-12. Retrieved 19 March 2015.
- Verplaetse, J. & Özen, E. (2014). Politieke en Rechtsfilosofische Stromingen. Het gelijkheidsbegin-sel. Kansengelijkheid, p. 13-19. Retrieved 19 March 2015.
- Waisfisz, B. (2011). An Organisational Culture Perspective: The Different Levels of Culture, p.1-5). Retrieved 6 May 2015, through: http://geert-hofstede.com/tl_files/art%20organisational %20culture%20perspective.pdf
- World Economic Forum. (2014). Rankings. The Global Gender Gap Index. Retrieved 11 May 2015, through: http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/rankings/
- World Economic Forum (A). (2014). Economies. Country/Economy Profiles: The Netherlands Retrieved on 13 May 2015, through: http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/economies/#economy=NLD
- World Economic Forum (*B*). (2014). Economies. Country/Economy Profiles: Spain. Retrieved on 13 May 2015, through: http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/economies/#economy=ESP
- World Economic Forum (*C*). 2014. User's Guide: How Country Profiles Work. Retrieved 1 May 2015, through: http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/users-guide-how-country-profiles-work/
- World Health Organization. (2014). Sexual and Reproductive Health. Working definitions. Sex. Retrieved 2 May 2015, through: http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/topics/sexual_health/sh_definitions/en/

XI. Index

Absolute laws, 66 Labour force participation, 30

Abstract egalitarian plateau, 19 Legislators, senior officials and managers, 32

Achievement culture, 44, 48, Long-term orientation, 42, 26, 72

Ascription culture, 44, Masculinity, 23, 40, 41

Collectivism, 9, 41 Member State(s), 33, 34, 38, 68

Culture, 37 National culture, 40

Cultural layers, 40, Neutral culture, 44, 48

Cultural relativism, 38 Outer direction-related culture, 45, 49

Communitarian culture, 44 Particularistic culture, 43

Confucian dynamism, 42, 47 Personality, 39

Diffuse culture, 72 Power distance, 41, 46, 48, 61, 72

Direct discrimination, 28, 31 Pragmatic culture, 47 Egalitarianism, 20, 25 Pragmatic nature, 47

Emotional culture, 44 Principe of Direct Effect, 66, 67

Estimated earned income, 30-32, 76 Sequential-time culture, 45 48

Femininity, 23, 40, 41 Sex, 23, 24, 25

FTE Employment, 34 Sexually dimorphic, 25

Fundamental rights, 66, 67 Short-term orientation, 42, 72

Gender, 23 Specific culture, 48, 60

Gender inequality, 23 Prevention, 67

Human nature, 39 Synchronous-time culture, 45, 48 Horizontal segregation, 35, 74 Uncertainty avoidance, 42, 47, 61, 72

In-groups, 41 Universalist culture, 43, 47

Individualism, 43, 46, 48, 63 Values, 38-43, 47, 73

Individualist culture, 48 Vertical segregation, 45

Infringement procedure, 67, 68 Wage equality, 30, 31

Internal direction related culture, 45, 49, 64, 72 Women's subordination, 23, 26, 37

XII. Appendices

1. Questionnaire

This questionnaire mainly aims to paint a clear picture of the extent to what students experience gender inequality in their part-time workplaces, although the student's opinions, experiences and knowledge about related subjects (for example, equality in general or the influence of culture) to the main theme will, be gauged as well .

This questionnaire is merely designed for students that belong to the 18 until 26 age-old category, that also work part-time alongside their study.

Moreover, it stands to reason that the results of the questionnaires only serve to enrich the author's research. At first place, this means that the questionnaire should be completed anonymously. Secondly, it means that the questionnaire's author is only entitled to utilise and publish the obtained results in the dissertation. In return, as great importance is attached to the respondents' answers, the author relies on the reliability and honesty of the respondent's answers that will be provided.

This questionnaire consists of 20 questions and will take about 8 minutes of the respondent's time. Different types of questions were presented in the questionnaire; multiple-choice questions, "yes-or-no-questions," questions in which the respondent should classify answers based on personal importance and questions where the respondent should select the answer that applies to him/her. In every part (A, B, C and D) the respondent should select one option, unless is has been indicated differently. These parts were established to designate a distinction in subjects.

I hereby confirm and solemnly promise to complete the questionnaire in total veracity.

 $\ \square\ YES$

A. The following questions consist of general information about the respondent:

1		P.	lease,	choose	the	age	category	you	be.	long	to.
---	--	----	--------	--------	-----	-----	----------	-----	-----	------	-----

□ 18-22

□ 23-26

2. Please, select your sex.

□ Female

□ Male

3. Please, indicate your nationality. □ Dutch □ Spanish
4. Please, tick the box concerning the type of study you do. □ Bachelor study □ Master
B. The following questions are related to the respondent's opinion and experience
concerning gender equality in the part-time workplace:
5. I (dis)agree on the following statement: "Gender equality in the work place refers to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of both male and female workers."
(If no, please provide a brief description).
□ I totally disagree
□ I disagree
☐ I am neutral/I do not have an opinion
□ I agree
□ I totally agree
6. I believe I am treated equally at my current work place in comparison with the opposite sex.
□ I totally disagree
□ I disagree
☐ I am neutral/I do not have an opinion
□ I agree
□ I totally agree
7. I believe being a woman/man helped me to achieve this job.
□ I totally disagree
□ I disagree
□ I am neutral/I do not have an opinion
□ I agree
□ I totally agree

8. I prefer to have a female boss, as the likelihood of gender inequality will decrease.
□ I totally disagree
□ I disagree
☐ I am neutral/I do not have an opinion
□ I agree
\Box I totally agree
9. In my workplace there are tasks that are mainly performed by my male/female colleagues.
(If yes, please provide a brief description).
□ No
□ Yes,
10. My employer pays male and female employees the exact same salary for doing the same work
(If no, please provide a brief description).
□ No
□ Yes
□ I do not know

11. Do you have the feeling that your sex would give you advantages or disadvantages in your workplace concerning the following matters:

Matters	Disadvantages	None	Advantages
Salary			
The possibility to negotiate working times			
with your boss			
Valuation of your skills			
Taking me seriously/credibility			
Pregnancy and maternity leave			
(hypothetical)			
Sexual harassment (hypothetical)			
Chance of promotion (hypothetical)			

12. By means of providing an indication on a scale from 1 to 10, rank your country's level of gender equality. Please bear the seven matters of the previous question in mind. (1= absolutely unequal and 10 = completely equal).

The	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
Netherlands										
Spain	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

C. The following questions present a link between equality and culture:

The	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
Netherlands										
Spain	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

14. Please, indicate whether the following statements are applicable to you or not:

Statements	True	False
1. I would accept an unequal the power distribution in the work place. In other words, hierarchical		
order is just a normal part of the work place, even if not every employee is considered as equal.		
2. In the first place, I take care of myself and resolve my own problems, before I provide other		
people with aid.		
3. Collaboration, modesty and taking care of each other is more important than physical rewards and		
assertiveness.		
4. In general, I feel uncomfortable about the uncertainty and ambiguity the future will bring.		
Therefore, I prefer having the power to control the future, as it provides me with certainty.		
5. The past and the present are considered to be more important than the future. I prefer the		
perseverance of already established traditions and norms rather than facing and adapting to new		
societal modifications.		
6. I was taught to control my impulses and desires. I have the tendency to prevent myself usually		
from what I wish to do. My culture is considered to be restraint, instead of indulgent		

D. The following question presents a link between culture and the student's workplace:

15. Please, indicate whether the following statements are applicable to you or not:

Statements	True	False
1. I prefer to respect the rules and obligations my boss established in the work place, rather than		
building good relationships with my colleagues (and clients.)		
2. Because of working in a team provides aid and safety, I do not prefer taking decisions on my		
own. Moreover, achievement is rather something I realise together, instead of individually.		
3. If I have a day off and I see a client I know from my work, I might start a conversation with this		
person. My work and personal life outside the workplace are in connection.		
4. I try to control my emotions in the work place, rather than expressing them instinctively.		
5. My actions (the results I achieve) during my work, define my personality person.		
6. I could describe myself as punctual and I like appreciate a strict planning.		
7. My environment has influence on the results I achieve. To guide the nature of my environment is		
practically (almost) impossible.		

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

The end

2. Interview

On 16 June 2015, the author of this paper interviewed Professor Dra. E. Juaristi Besalduch, which is an well-known investigator in the area of Public Administration and International Rights. Her doctoral thesis included the regulations of the European Union and the jurisprudence of the European union regarding the reconciliation about the personal, labour and family life analysed by an the specific angle of gender inequalities between men and women. She investigates developments and trends in this particular field. Moreover, she is teacher Public Administration and Human Rights in Master studies at the Cardenal Herrera University in Valencia, Spain.

Despite the fact that the interview was held in Spanish, for this paper a literal translation was adjusted, in order to make the information more comprehensive for every reader. The letter F significates that the author of this paper is speaking. The letter E describes that the interviewee is responding on the asked question. The duration of the interview was 27.04 minutes.

- **F**. The first question I would like to ask is about your idea regarding gender inequality and how it has occurred?
- **E**. Do you mean the origins of gender inequality?
- **F**. Yes, what do you consider to be important factors concerning the establishment of gender inequality.
- **E**. Fundamentally, it is something cultural. The fact that men and women have assigned different roles has definitely to do with culture. Because of the fact that women are the ones that have to carry a child for nine months in their uterus, they necessitate physical rest. Men, in general, had to take care of the wife, because their wife was taking care of the children, which created different roles between men and women. Despite that cultural and biological disparities have resulted in different ways of dealing with this issue, the inequality which is occurred by maternity, has widen the field of disparities such as: of division of work task between the two sexes.
- **F**. What is the reason that gender inequality still occurs?
- **E**. The reason of persistence is linked with the stereotypes in different cultures and the anxiety to lose grip on cultural traditions. For example, Spanish people are generally people that are afraid to changes and matters on which they do not have sufficiently knowledge about. I do absolutely not want to say that Spanish people rather prefer gender inequality that an equal culture, rather I would like to highlight the importance of culture for Spanish people.
- **F.** When it comes to reducing the level of inequality between men and women, what is the position of the Spanish government in this matter?

E. It is important to know that the Spanish government had practically not undertaken action before the seventies. Because of the fact that Spain was suppressed by the totalitarian regime of Franco, the focus on economic and political positions was more relevant, than tackling social issues. The European Union had to come up with regulations about this topic, before Spain recognised the gender inequality problem as something serious. The European Union established three directives that were aimed to combat the gender inequality issue. One of the most important issue concerning these directives, is considered to be maternity, as this is the seen as one of the most fundamental biological causes for the gender inequality. The results of the existence of these directives were the creation of projects that stimulated the way to equality between men and women in the workplace. For example, the system of quotas which was subsequently introduced, established objectives of 40% in order to achieve more women in top functions such as: large businesses, Board of Directives, CEO-functions, however also in the public work sector, for example: governmental institutions or organs. Those quotas did aim an objective of a 40% or 50% to make the workplace a more interconnected place for male and female workers. This would lead till more equality and to more opportunities in the labour market. If you take a look at the Ibex 35, which represent the biggest enterprises of Spain, you will see only men on the pictures presented. One of the key characteristics of these remedies of equality, like the affirmative action attempt or setting quotes, is that these are temporarily. In other words, these two examples call for extinction. This because of the fact that these will have the power to work effectively for a long time, but once the objective is been achieved, they are no longer necessary anymore.

F. In which labour sectors are the gender inequality rates the highest, do you think?

E. First let me say that the biggest gap between male and female workers in to be found in the technical sectors, as there is a great surplus of male workers. The fundamental problem here is education. Education in both primary and secondary school is mainly important for children, as children at this ages are able to be taught to think differently. If you, for example, go to the University Politechnica (a university where 90% of the studies are focused on technical professions) on the other side of Valencia, you will notice that a mere percentage of the students between 2 and 5 is female. We can conclude from this, that the study choice students have to make at the end of their high school career, is reflected by the working field in which students are willing to work after their studies. It is impossible that this type of discrimination would exist in the labour sector, if this division was not made in high school or lower education. Therefore, education makes a child aware of the fact that typical boys and girl jobs should not, and do not, exist. If children were taught this, they will come to think differently and are likely to accept the fact that there are no typical men of women jobs. A possible solution for avoiding the distinguish in "men only" and "women only" jobs is to tackle the problem by its roots.

- **F.** Does gender inequality has something to do with maternity leave. If yes, could you please provide an explanation?
- E. A massive yes. Gender inequality is absolutely connected with maternity leave. I would like to start saying that women and men have the capacity to do the same work. This has nothing to with physical aspects, because the physical power between men and women is humanly measurable and does not differ in such wide extent that women are not able to not do tasks men could do easily. In other words, the level of capacities and competencies regarding to men and women are the same. What is more, when it comes to a comparison, a woman in general would overpower a man. This because of the fact that women on average achieve higher grades during their school career, the majority of the "the clever people" consist of female students and there are more female students that has achieved an academic diploma. It is quite weird that the only reason for sex discrimination is in relation with the fact that the female sex is able to give birth, which results in the fact that it is economically more beneficial for employers to select a man instead of a woman. Moreover, the problem lies not only in the discrimination of access of female workers, yet the problem lies also in the promotion. To promote in the workplace the employer requires the employee to accomplish some objectives. One of those objectives is to be responsible. I do not want to say that women are less responsible than men, or the other way around. However, women have often more responsibilities than men outside work, even when they do not have children. This is a sort of stereotype, although, it is the actual world we are living in and it calls for new legislations in order to change those unequal division of tasks. A quite effective change should be a compulsory and transferable paternity leave. In this way, both parents are able to take care of the baby and the selection with respect to hire a male or a female worker will reduce, ass both of the sexes have to leave the workplace for four months when it comes to maternity leave, instead of just the female worker. Because of the directive from 2010, that explains the right to transferability of the maternity leave, couples decide that the wife in the family should take the maternity leave for economic and social reasons. So, as long as the maternity leave is not compulsory for both men and women, the mother is considerably more expected to take the maternity leave. In this way, changes in the field of gender inequality are not likely to resolve. Therefore, new legislations should be brought.
- **F.** Do you think the "traditional idea" still exists? (The idea that explains that women should realise domestic shores and take care of the children against the men whose task it is to work hard in order to support the family).
- **E.** Yes, although, not very much anymore. It is comparable with culture; while Spanish people stick to their culture, Dutch people are more individualistic and do whatever they want. In other words,

sometimes I do not like to visit my family on Sunday, because I want to spend the day with my husband alone. Because of the fact that Sunday is the rest day of the week, it is a typical characteristic of our culture that Spanish people on Sundays visit their families, after a busy working week. As the culture's tradition says so, family is the most important element in the Spanish people's life, so people cherish them. Taking into mind that the Spanish culture is culture-bounded, changes are not likely to occur. Despite the fact that a lot of Spanish women do have a job, the progress in developments is always a little bit slower than in, for example, Northern countries of the European Union. The reason why the family is so important (and moreover the reason why the family, and, thus the traditions have become more relevant in recent years) is in relation with the fact that the crisis in Spain has strengthened the social cohesion of the nation's citizens and families. In other words, due to the strict family model in Spain, this country has endured the crisis. Family provides aid in socially and economically. I, therefore, think that both the Spanish government and the European Union should protect families, because in times of crisis, family is all we have.

- **F.** To what extent would this same traditional idea sustain forever?
- **E.** Despite the fact that I think that this idea is gradually fading, the difference between men and women would never disappear. On one hand we have the inequalities and on the other hand we have the differences between the sexes. A hundred percent of equality is simply impossible to achieve due to the biological characteristics of the two sexes. For example, a men is not going to stay home for four months to because there is something growing inside his body. However, an equal division between men and women we do can achieve on social, economic and political level.
- **F.** If you could make a new legislation in order to promote gender equality, what would it be?
- **E.** I would change the permission about the maternity and paternity leave. It would be very beneficial for both mother and father to be entitled to, or even to force them, to enjoy the pregnancy leave. In this way they are able to support each other, the baby receives all the attention he or she necessitates, and in this way, the difficulty for women to enter the labour market will be significantly reduced.

3. Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

Gender Inequality in the Dutch and Spanish (students' part-time) workplace

Gender inequality is a topic whose characteristics could be described as both persistent and never outdated. Because of its great, yet sometimes inconspicuous, impact on society, this issue applies to all Member States of the European Union. Nevertheless, this research aims to obtain a clear picture of the causes and consequences of common gender disparities (student) employees are facing in The Netherlands and Spain nowadays. Having obtained this information, the results will serve to enrich the comparison area of the paper with the information on the country profiles the World Economic Forum and the European Institute for Gender Inequality. While The Netherlands and Spain differ from each other in the field of culture, this study will also emphasises whether culture ties in closely with subjects as European legislations and the preference to uphold traditions.

If you agree to take part in this study please read the following statement and sign this form.

I am 16 years of age or older.

I can confirm that I have read and understood the description and aims of this research. The researcher has answered all the questions that I had to my satisfaction.

I agree to the audio recording of my interview with the researcher.

I understand that the researcher offers me the following guarantees:

All information will be treated in the strictest confidence. My name will not be used in the study unless I give permission for it.

Recordings will be accessible only by the researcher. Unless otherwise agreed, anonymity will be ensured at all times. Pseudonyms will be used in the transcriptions.

I can ask for the recording to be stopped at any time and anything to be deleted from it.

I consent to take part in the research on the basis of the guarantees outlined above.

Signed:

4. Students Ethics Form

Student Ethics Form

European Student Eth	
Your name: Fernando Navarro Martinez	
Supervisor: Mr. B. C. van der Sluijs	
Instructions/checklist Before completing this form you should read the APA E	Ethics Code
(http://www.apa.org/ethics/code/index.aspx). If you are also look at the sample consent form available in the Fir	planning research with human subjects you should nal Project and Dissertation Guide.
 a. [] Read section 3 that your supervisor will have to s section 1. 	ign. Make sure that you cover all these issues in
b. [] Complete sections 1 and, if you are using human c. [] Ask your project supervisor to read these sections	subjects, section 2, of this form, and sign it. (and the draft consent form if you have one) and
sign the form. d. [] Append this signed form as an appendix to your di	ssertation.
Section 1. Project Outline (to be completed by student)	
(i) Title of Project: Gender Inequality in the Dutch and	I Spanish (students') part-time workplace
(ii) Aims of project: The aims of this research is to high (students') workplace when it comes to gender in picture on this field of the differences between co	equality. The study is aimed to provide a clear
(iii) Will you involve other people in your project — discussions, questionnaires, internet surveys et been collected by another researcher — e.g. reco you by your supervisor, you should answer 'N	c. (Note: if you are using data that has already ordings or transcripts of conversations given to
YES	
If no: you should now sign the statement below and r completed this form.	return the form to your supervisor. You have
This project is not designed to include research with hum ethical clearance to interview people (formally or inform internet research (e.g. on chat rooms or discussion board my research.	ally) about the topic of my research, to carry out

If yes: you should complete the rest of this form.

Section 2 Complete this section only if you answered YES to question (iii) above.

- (i) What will the participants have to do? (v. brief outline of procedure):
- The participants of the questionnaires are required to respond to the questions the author of the paper designed. It is not only important to measure the respondent's opinions and experiences concerning gender inequality, the questionnaire also outlines four different subjects which are related to the information presented in the paper. The openness and honesty of the respondents serve to provide a high level of reliability when it comes to comparing these answers with official statistics that measure gender inequality.
- (ii) What sort of people will the participants be and how will they be recruited?
- The target group for the questionnaire concerns students in the age category from 18 till 26 years. These students must have a part-time job next to their study. Both male and female students are allowed participate in the questionnaire in order to point out the gender inequalities between the two sexes. Besides, students from The Hague University, The Cardenal Herrera University and The University of Valencia were recruited to complete the questionnaire. By means of handing out (at the Spanish universities) and sending (at The Hague University of Applied Sciences, through internet) the questionnaires, students were able to complete them.
- (iii) What sort stimuli or materials will your participants be exposed to, tick the appropriate boxes and then state what they are in the space below?
- Questionnaires[X]; Pictures[]; Sounds[]; Words[]; Other[Different types of questions were presented in the questionnaire; multiple-choice questions, "yes-or-no-questions," questions in which the respondent should classify answers based on personal importance and questions where the respondent should select the answer that applies to him/her].
- (iv) Consent: <u>Informed</u> consent must be obtained for all participants before they take part in your project. Either verbally or by means of an informed consent form you should state what participants will be doing, drawing attention to anything they could conceivably object to subsequently. You should also state how they can withdraw from the study at any time and the measures you are taking to ensure the confidentiality of data. A standard informed consent form is available in the Dissertation Manual.
- (vi) What procedures will you follow in order to guarantee the confidentiality of participants' data? Firstly, he confidentiality is guaranteed by the introductive information of the questionnaire. In this information behaviour of the students' conduct were written. On top of that, the students was allowed to tick box in order to confirm that every question would be answered in total veracity. In return, the author of the questionnaire promised to treat the respondents' data with respect and absolute privacy.

Student's signature: date: 16-06-18