



REPORT ON EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN 2009

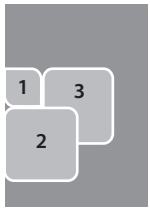


REPORT ON EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN 2009

European Commission
Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities
Unit G.1

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FOREWORD

Every year the European Commission reports to the European Council on progress in the field of gender equality and presents challenges and priorities for the future. The 2009 Report comes at a time when the overriding challenge is to address the economic crisis and its consequences for households and the economy at large. This inevitably means that other major policy areas are more likely to be overlooked than in more 'normal' times. Yet we know that gender equality is a precondition for growth, employment and social cohesion, so investing in equality between women and men is more important than ever if we want to reap the long-term benefits.

Further progress towards gender equality will depend on the elimination of all gender gaps and barriers to the full use of both women and men's skills and capabilities. Women still face more difficulties than men in balancing work and family life. Leave arrangements for both parents need to be improved and child care services expanded, but men also need to take on a greater share of family responsibilities. In 2008 the Commission proposed to improve maternity leave and the situation of self-employed women, and the European social partners started negotiations on other family-related leave. However, such measures need to be accompanied by a change of mentality and the dismantling of outdated stereotypes about the roles and abilities of women and men.

This Report highlights the constant challenge of correcting the gender imbalance in political and economic decision-making processes and positions. Women and men should both be responsible for setting the agenda and shaping decisions concerning the society in which they live and work. To reduce the negative impact of the current economic crisis on people's lives and jobs, policy responses should reflect the experience, knowledge and interest of women as well as of men. Therefore, when it comes to gender equality policies, we must not lower our guard: their contribution to economic and social development remains as crucial as ever.



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1. INTRODUCTION

At the request of the European Council, the European Commission reports each year on progress towards gender equality and presents challenges and priorities for the future. 2008 was the midpoint for the implementation of the Roadmap for Equality between women and men, which confirms the Commission's commitment to promoting gender equality. The Member States mirrored that commitment in the European Pact for Gender Equality. Shared efforts have produced positive results, particularly as regards female employment, but overall progress is still too slow in most areas and gender equality is far from being achieved. More women have entered the labour market, bringing the Lisbon objectives within reach, but the quantity objective ('more' jobs) has not been matched in quality ('better' jobs). Women still work part-time more than men; they predominate in less valued jobs and sectors; they are on average paid less than men and they occupy fewer positions of responsibility.

This report is adopted in the context of a global economic slowdown¹ linked to the financial crisis, with negative repercussions on growth and employment in the EU. To confront the economic downturn it will be more important than ever to invest in human capital and social infrastructure, enabling both women and men to use their full potential. In the Renewed Social Agenda² the Commission reinforced its commitment to creating more and better jobs within the framework of the European Strategy for Employment and Growth. Gender equality is a key factor for this strategy to succeed, and a necessary contribution to responding to labour shortages and new skills needs³. Today women account for nearly 60% of all university graduates in the EU, but their percentage of science and technology degrees remains low. However, there are still barriers preventing women from using their full potential and gaining access to jobs and positions for which they are qualified. The difficulty of balancing work and family life is one of the main barriers to women's employment and career advancement. Persisting gender stereotypes restrict women's and men's study and career choices, leading to a gender-segregated labour market.

Moreover, the economic slowdown is likely to affect women more than men, because women are more often in precarious jobs.

This report addresses the challenges and the policy responses for removing barriers to women's and men's full participation in the labour market. It also addresses the importance of correcting the gender imbalance in decision-making, especially as 2009 will entail major changes in the composition of decision-making structures at EU level, including the European Parliament and the Commission. Although the economic slowdown has changed the context, it is important to continue to strengthen gender equality policies. Decades of shared efforts have not only improved the situation and rights of women but also underpinned the economic and social development of our societies.

1 COM(2008) 800.
2 COM(2008) 412.
3 COM(2008) 868.

2. MAIN DEVELOPMENTS

2.1. Gender gaps

Equality between women and men is not just a goal in itself: it is a precondition for fulfilling the overall EU objectives of growth, employment and social cohesion. Increased participation by women in the labour market offers both a guarantee of their economic independence and a substantial contribution to economic development and the sustainability of social protection systems. As women are overrepresented in precarious jobs based on short-term contracts, they are more likely to be affected by the economic downturn on the labour market. It is crucial to pursue and reinforce gender mainstreaming in the area of employment and social policies, including flexicurity arrangements, and to continue efforts to remove barriers to women's and men's full participation in the labour market.

Female employment in the EU is now close to the Lisbon objective of 60% by 2010, having increased from 51.1% in 1997 to 58.3% in 2007. However, there are major differences between Member States, with figures varying from 36.9% to 73.2%. The average gap in employment rates between women and men is narrowing, and fell from 17.1 percentage points in 2000 to 14.2 points in 2007. But if one compares the **employment rate of women and men with children** under 12 to care for, this gender gap is almost doubled. Also, the employment rate of women falls by 12.4 points when they have children, but it rises by 7.3 points for men with children reflecting the unequal sharing of care responsibilities and the lack of childcare facilities and work-life balance policies.

The percentage of women employees working **part-time** was 31.2% in 2007, four times higher than for men. Although part-time and other flexible working arrangements may reflect personal preferences, the **unequal share of domestic and family responsibilities** leads more women than men to opt for such arrangements. In the EU more than 6 million women in the 25 to 49 age group say they are obliged not to work or to work only part-time because of their family responsibilities⁴.

Better reconciliation of work and private life for both women and men is essential not only to achieve gender equality, but also to reach the Lisbon objectives⁵. The development of affordable and quality childcare facilities is vital for enabling both parents to combine work and family life. To meet the targets set by Member States for the development of childcare facilities, the so-called Barcelona objectives, a lot remains to be done to achieve satisfactory levels of childcare provision, particularly for children under 3 years of age. Reconciliation policies are also important in terms of responding to the demographic challenges. The Member States with the highest birth rates are currently those which have also done the most to improve work-life balance for parents, and which have a high rate of female employment.

Women have also made progress in **education**: they accounted for 58.9% of university degrees in the EU in 2006 (56.7% in 2004). However, gender differences remain as regards the fields of study, especially in engineering (18% female graduates) and computing (20%), while women predominate in business, administration and law (60%). Women are still lagging behind men in the use of new technologies and have difficulties in accessing more specialist ICT-related jobs.

Women's high level of education is not directly reflected in the positions they hold in the labour market. Women are mainly working in 'feminised' sectors and professions and remain in lower job categories with less access to senior positions. **Occupational and sectoral segregation** has remained almost unchanged in most Member States over the last few years, indicating that the increase in female employment has taken place in sectors already dominated by women. A better gender balance across studies and occupations could contribute to meeting future skills and labour market needs.

One of the consequences of gender segregation on the labour market is the persisting gender **pay gap** (17.4% on average in the EU⁶), partly due to the fact that women are concentrated in less valued jobs and positions than men. Because women are more likely to work

4 Eurostat, Labour Force Survey 2006.

5 In March 2002 the European Council, meeting in Barcelona, invited Member States to 'remove disincentives to female labour force participation and strive, taking into account the demand for childcare facilities and in line with national patterns of provision, to provide childcare by 2010 to at least 90% of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age and at least 33% of children under 3 years of age'.

6 Eurostat, 2007 (figure based on a new harmonised EU-source) – see statistical annex (SEC(2009) 165)

part-time and interrupt their career for family reasons, they are likely to face negative consequences in terms of pay, career advancement and accumulated pension rights. This also has an impact on the risk of falling into poverty, especially for single parents, who in most cases are women (the at-risk-of-poverty rate is 32%), and for women over 65 (the at-risk-of-poverty rate is 21%, i.e. 5 points higher than for men). Women are also more at risk in times of rising unemployment since they are more often on fixed-term contracts than men (15% compared with 13.9%).

Despite the fact that more and more women are highly qualified and the labour market participation of women is on the increase, they are still largely outnumbered by men in positions of responsibility in politics and business, particularly at the top level. The number of **female managers**⁷ in the EU has remained stable over the last few years, averaging 30%, and figures are even lower in a majority of Member States. The proportion of women directors of top quoted company boards is 3% across the EU, while one in ten companyboardmembersisawoman. There are no female governors of the national Central Banks in the EU, while they account for only 16% of the highest decision-making bodies of these institutions. This is paradoxical when female students outnumber male in business, administration and law.

In politics, there have been positive developments in most EU countries over the last decade, but progress is slow and overall figures remain low. The average share of women **members of national parliaments** increased from 16% to 24% between 1997 and 2008, but national figures range from 9% to 46%. Eleven Member States are above 30%, which is deemed to be the minimum level necessary for women to exert meaningful influence on politics. In national governments, one out of four **senior ministers** is a woman, but variations between Member States range from zero to 60% female ministers. There has been some progress within the **European Institutions**, but women are still underrepresented in top positions. Only three out of ten members of the European Parliament are women.

2.2. Policy and legislative developments

One of the main initiatives in 2008 for achieving gender equality was the adoption by the European Commission of several measures aiming at supporting **better work-life balance**⁸. One proposal concerns the amendment of Directive 92/85/EEC on maternity protection⁹. The main changes proposed include increasing the minimum maternity leave from 14 to 18 weeks, in principle without loss of earnings. The Commission also proposed to strengthen the provisions of Directive 86/613/EEC¹⁰ for self-employed workers and 'assisting spouses' in family businesses. A Commission report¹¹ has reviewed progress in developing childcare facilities in Member States, concluding that most Member States will not meet the Barcelona targets by 2010.

Following a two-stage consultation launched by the Commission, the **social partners have started negotiations on family-related leave** other than maternity leave. Cooperation between Member States continued within the **European Alliance for Families**, which provides a platform at EU level for discussion between Member States on family policies and work-life reconciliation issues. Most Member States have recognised the importance of reconciliation policies in terms of responding to economic and demographic challenges. Several measures have been introduced, including wider availability of childcare services (Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands), better leave arrangements notably for fathers (Sweden, Germany, Greece, Lithuania and Spain) and awareness-raising about the role of fathers (Slovenia).

The Commission continued to collect comparable data at EU level on women and men in decision-making, and a recent report confirmed that women remain strongly underrepresented despite positive developments¹². Several Member States have implemented measures to promote a better gender balance in leadership positions (e.g. Spain, Finland, France, Portugal, Austria, Denmark, Poland and Cyprus). An **EU network to promote women in economic and political decision-making positions** was launched in 2008 to provide a platform for exchange of good practices between existing networks at EU level.

⁸ COM(2008) 635.

⁹ COM(2008) 637.

¹⁰ COM(2008) 636.

¹¹ COM(2008) 638.

¹² http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/publications/2008/ke8108186_en.pdf

⁷ Directors and chief executives and managers of smaller enterprises.

The equal participation of women and men in political decision-making was a priority topic under the Slovenian Presidency, as part of the follow-up to the Beijing Platform for Action. In June 2008 the Council of Ministers adopted conclusions on women in political decision-making, and on eliminating **gender stereotypes** in society; this was a priority theme of the Trio Presidency programme (Germany, Portugal and Slovenia). At the end of 2007 the Commission launched a training and awareness-raising initiative aiming to inform companies, particularly small and medium-sized enterprises, of the benefits of tackling gender stereotypes. It also runs a campaign to attract young girls and retain women in ICT-related professions.

EU legislation on **equal treatment** between women and men is also contributing to progress in this field. In 2008 the Commission closely monitored the implementation of Directives 2002/73/EC¹³ and 2004/113/EC¹⁴ and took the necessary steps to verify the timely and correct transposition of these directives in the Member States. The Commission engaged infringement proceedings against a certain number of Member States for incorrect transposition of Directive 2002/73/EC and 20 procedures remain open. For Directive 2004/113/EC, infringement proceedings for non-communication of national transposing measure were initiated against twelve Member States, seven of which are still open at the end of 2008.

The Commission is also in the process of reviewing the adequacy of EU current legislation on **equal pay** to tackle the gender pay gap, in line with the 2007 Communication¹⁵, and it has launched a campaign to raise awareness on the gender pay gap. Several Member States have addressed the gender pay gap through specific initiatives, for instance in the UK (gender duty on public authorities and Women and Work Commission), France (inclusion in wage bargaining at social partners' level), Finland (national equal pay strategy), Sweden (compulsory annual plan of action for equal pay for all companies with at least ten employees) and Belgium (annual reporting and introduction of gender-friendly job evaluation systems).

The **European Institute for Gender Equality** is in the process of being set up. Once up and running, the Institute will provide new technical assistance to the Community institutions and the Member States.

¹³ Directive 2002/73/EC amending Directive 76/207/EEC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions.

¹⁴ Directive 2004/113/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services.

¹⁵ COM(2007) 424.

3. CHALLENGES AND POLICY ORIENTATIONS

The overall challenge is to find efficient and sustainable responses to the economic slowdown and reduce the multiple short- and long-term consequences, including on the labour market. Women's employment has been a major driving force of the EU labour market since the launch of the Lisbon strategy. Therefore, gender equality concerns need to be integrated into the responses given to these challenges, because women and men might be affected differently. Gender equality policies have proven to be efficient responses to these challenges, and Member States should continue investing in a better use of both women's and men's skills and resources, including strengthening the gender dimension of flexicurity policies.

Persisting gender gaps confirm the importance of eliminating barriers to women's full participation in the labour market. It is important to combat deep-rooted gender stereotypes which shape women's and men's roles in society and influence the gender imbalance in paid and unpaid work. The unequal sharing of family responsibilities may induce women to a greater extent than men to opt for flexible working arrangements and to take career breaks, and may thus have a negative impact on their career development, income, pension rights and economic independence. Policies for promoting women's participation in the labour market must therefore have an integrated approach, including strategies for eliminating gender stereotypes and measures for improving the work-life balance of both women and men.

Gender stereotypes and difficulties in balancing work and family responsibilities also hamper women's access to positions of responsibility and leadership, in addition to visible and invisible discriminatory practices and structures. Policies aimed at promoting equal participation of women and men in decision-making processes and positions therefore need to be multifaceted and tackle the main causes of the problem. Areas where action is needed are outlined below.

3.1. Encouraging equal sharing of private and family responsibilities between women and men

Reconciliation policies are key responses to long-term economic and demographic challenges, and should therefore be reinforced to stimulate growth. A better work-life balance for both women and men requires a more equitable share of time spent on paid and unpaid work. Women's time is more tied up in domestic and family responsibilities than is the case for men. Reconciliation measures need to target men too, since the promotion of gender equality implies changes and new opportunities for both sexes.

- The development of affordable, accessible and quality care services for children and other dependants will allow more women to enter and remain in the labour market and to facilitate the work-life balance of both women and men. The potential of the Structural Funds and EAFRD¹⁶ for the financing of quality services should be fully utilised.
- Reconciliation policies need to allow for individual choices for both women and men as regards flexible working and leave arrangements. Measures such as paternity leave can encourage men to share parenting and other care responsibilities equally with women.
- Reconciliation policies need to be implemented at all levels in the workplace, so that a more equitable use of women's and men's time becomes the norm and attitudes to both women's and men's need to balance work and family life are better attuned.
- The proposals reviewing the two directives¹⁷ on maternity leave and rights of self-employed women need to be adopted swiftly by the legislator. They represent a concrete contribution to improving work-life balance in the EU.

¹⁶ European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development.
¹⁷ See footnotes 8 – 9.

3.2. Tackling stereotypes to enable women and men to use their full potential

Gender stereotypes are cultural and social attitudes towards what is traditionally considered 'male' or 'female' roles and functions. They may influence women's and men's choices of studies and jobs, and may lead to a gender-segregated labour market. These stereotypes influence the unequal sharing between women and men of working time, income and family responsibilities; they also constitute barriers to women's career advancement and appointment to decision-making positions. Combating gender stereotypes therefore means tackling the root cause of persisting gender gaps in the labour market.

- Children and young people need non-stereotyped role models of women and men in society. Discriminatory practices and attitudes should be removed from educational material and methods, teaching and vocational guidance.
- Training and awareness-raising at the workplace can eliminate gender-based prejudice and thereby change stereotyped working cultures as regards the roles and abilities of women and men, including attitudes towards women in leadership positions.
- The media, including the advertising industry, should be encouraged to transmit non-stereotyped images and content, in particular of women in decision-making positions.

3.3. Promoting equal participation of women and men in decision-making positions

An equal participation of women and men in decision-making processes is a democratic and economic necessity. In the current economic situation it is all the more important to mobilise all talents. This is not the time to waste skills and production potential because of

outdated perceptions of women's and men's roles and leadership abilities. Findings¹⁸ point to a positive relationship between women in management and financial and organisational performance. Investing in gender balance in business and management can improve corporate governance and profitability.

- The promotion of equality between women and men in decision-making needs stronger commitment and partnership at all levels: governments, regional and local authorities, political parties, social partners, business managers, human resources teams, NGOs, educational institutions, media, men and women.
- A more balanced participation in decision-making requires specific policies and effective measures in order to succeed, including where appropriate positive action, equality plans, mentoring and targeted training. All appointments, recruitment, job and skill evaluation, salaries and promotion should be transparent and gender-unbiased. It is important to work systematically to fight against discrimination and moral and sexual harassment.
- The collection, analysis and dissemination of comparable data existing at EU level broken down by sex must be improved in order to support the monitoring of gender equality in decision-making. Quantitative and qualitative studies are needed on the outcome of strategies put in place in the Member States, including positive measures such as quotas. The exchange and dissemination of good practice should be promoted, including the development of networks of women in leadership.
- Electoral systems have an impact on women's involvement and representation. Political parties and European and national parliaments should be encouraged, in accordance with their respective responsibilities, to take specific measures to involve more women and improve the balanced representation of women and men on voting lists and in nominations for elected offices.

¹⁸ For instance, Mc Kinsey Women Matter Report (2007); Vinnicombe, Susan, Singh, Val (2003); Catalyst (2004).

3.4. Creating higher awareness and better understanding of gender equality

Political commitment to gender equality has increased over the few past years both at EU and Member State levels. However, this commitment needs to be transformed into action and progress towards gender equality in all Member States. This requires knowledge and understanding among all actors about the factors leading to gender inequalities and the mechanisms and tools for reducing them. Adequate resources and structures are vital, and gender mainstreaming capacities need to be improved. More and better communication should create awareness and make gender issues more visible and understandable at all levels of society.

- Gender mainstreaming needs to be reinforced by intensified training and capacity-building for those involved in policy-making, aiming at more efficient use of this tool for integrating the gender perspective into all policies and actions.
- The development of gender statistics and indicators based on existing data, including the integration of a gender perspective in policy analysis and monitoring, will support such capacity-building.
- Better knowledge and understanding of gender issues at all levels of society, including through communication activities, will raise awareness among both stakeholders and the general public.

4. CONCLUSIONS

This report sets out the main progress recorded in the area of equality between women and men in 2008 and outlines the future challenges. The following need emphasising in this context:

- The importance of reinforcing the positive results in terms of political commitment to gender equality and of guaranteeing the basic principles and rights of all citizens through the correct implementation of EU legislation, including Directives 2002/73/EC on equal treatment in employment, 2004/113/EC on equal treatment in the access to goods and services and 2006/54/EC recasting seven equal treatment directives¹⁹;
- The two proposals amending Directives 92/85/EEC on maternity protection and 86/613/EEC for self-employed workers and 'assisting spouses' in family businesses;
- The negotiations initiated by the social partners to conclude an agreement on other family-related leave;

- The continuation of efforts to meet the Barcelona targets on the provision of childcare facilities and the development of other services for facilitating the work-life balance of both women and men;
- Support for the active promotion of balanced representation of women and men in the elections to the European Parliament in 2009 and the appointment of women to top political positions in the European Union institutions;

In view of the contribution that gender equality can make to growth, employment and social cohesion, the Commission invites the European Council to urge the Member States to respond without delay to the challenges outlined in this report by reaffirming their commitment to integrating the gender dimension in all policy fields in partnership with the social partners and civil society.

¹⁹ Directive 2006/54/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast).

STATISTICAL ANNEX

This statistical annex provides an overview of the situation of women and men in the EU (for the last year available and also compared to the past) and remaining gender gaps in various fields such as the labour market, education and work-life balance. Most of these indicators have already been presented in previous reports, to aid follow-up from one year to another.

Employment and unemployment rates

Over the last few years, female employment has increased regularly, at a rate that was consistently higher than for men. The female employment rate, at 58.3% in 2007, is very close to the 2010 Lisbon objective of 60%. It rose by almost 4 percentage points (p.p.) between 2002 and 2007, from 54.4% to 58.3%, whereas over the same period the employment rate of men increased by only 2.2 p.p., from 70.3% to 72.5%. As a result, the gap between women's and men's employment rates decreased from 15.9 p.p. in 2002 to 14.2 p.p. in 2007. At national level, significant differences exist across the EU: in three Member States (Malta, Italy and Greece) less than half of working-age women are in employment, whereas this proportion is above 70% in Denmark (73.2%) and Sweden (71.8%). The employment rate gap between women and men ranged from less than 5 p.p. in Finland and Sweden to more than 25 p.p. in Greece and Malta. In general, the employment rate gap increases with age and is the highest amongst older workers (55 to 64 years). In 2007, it was on average 17.9 p.p., down from 19.3 p.p. in 2002 due to the strong increase of the employment rate of women over 55, from 29.1% in 2002 to 36% in 2007. Unemployment rates of women have therefore fallen from 9.7% in 2002 to 7.8% and the gap between women's and men's unemployment rates is close to 1 p.p. This gap has been decreasing, especially in countries where it was the highest five years earlier (Spain, Italy, Greece, Malta and France), quite independently from their relative cyclical positions. By contrast, the gap has increased by at least 1.5 percentage points in Latvia, Bulgaria and Slovakia.

Part-time work

The increased participation of women in the labour market is largely characterised by a high proportion

of part-time work. In 2007, the percentage of women employees working part-time was 31.2% in the EU-27 while the corresponding figure for men was 7.7%. The share of female part-timers exceeded 30% in France, Ireland, Denmark and Luxembourg and 40% in Sweden, Belgium, Austria, United Kingdom and Germany and even reached 75% in the Netherlands. In those countries part-time work is more gender-balanced in Denmark and Sweden than in Austria, Germany, Belgium or Luxembourg. The share of part-timers among female workers (as among male workers) was very low in Bulgaria, Slovakia and Hungary.

Work-life balance, childcare services and sharing of domestic and family work

Parenthood has a significant long-term effect on women's participation in the labour market. This reflects women's predominant role in the care of children, elderly or disabled persons. In 2007, the employment rate for women aged 25-49 was 65.5% when they had children under 12, compared with 77.9% when they did not, a negative difference of 12.4 p.p. Interestingly, men with children under 12 had a significantly higher employment rate than those without, 91.7% compared with 84.4%, a positive difference of 7.3 p.p. In Germany, United Kingdom, Estonia, Malta and Ireland, the negative impact of parenthood on female employment is higher than 15 p.p. and higher than 20 p.p. in Slovakia, Hungary and Czech Republic.

An important factor impacting on the parents' (and especially the mother's) opportunity to participate in the labour market is the availability of childcare services for children under 3. In 2006, only five Member States (Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Belgium and Spain) had exceeded the Barcelona objective of a 33% coverage rate, while five others (Portugal, United Kingdom, France, Luxembourg and Slovenia) were approaching this target. In most of the other countries, much still needs to be done to meet the demand for childcare facilities, especially in eight Member States (Greece, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia, Lithuania, Austria, Czech Republic and Poland) that showed a coverage rate of 10% or less. In addition, attendance hours vary widely from one country to another, and in numerous countries a particularly high proportion of childcare facilities operate on a part-time basis only.

Gender distribution of time devoted to paid work vs unpaid domestic and family work is a crucial indicator of gender equality in a society. It appears that working women are still spending, on average, more time than working men in domestic and family work in all Member States while the opposite is true for paid employment. In addition, it appears that working women have on average more 'constrained time' (sum of hours spent in paid work and in unpaid domestic and family work) than working men. Countries displaying the more balanced distribution of hours spent in domestic and family work are Sweden, Denmark and Finland (with a difference of around 10 hours per week) while in Italy and Cyprus, this difference is higher than 23 hours per week. Both gender differences (in paid employment and in unpaid domestic and family work) would have been even more pronounced if the survey used (Fourth European Working conditions survey) had included non-working persons.

At-risk-of-poverty rate for older people

The disadvantaged position of women on the labour market increases the risk that they will be exposed to poverty. This was particularly true for those aged over 65, amongst whom the proportion living in households at risk of poverty (i.e. having an income below the threshold set at 60% of the national median income) was significantly higher for women than for men in EU-25 in 2006 (21% compared with 16%). This was a pattern in almost all Member States. The gap exceeds 10 p.p. in five countries: Slovenia, Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia but is zero in Luxembourg and Portugal, and negative in the Netherlands and Malta.

Education, fields of study and gender segregation of the labour market

While the average educational attainment of women and men is now similar over the entire working-age class, young women (20-24) record a higher educational attainment than men in all Member States. On average, 80.8% of young women (20-24) reached at least upper secondary school in the EU in 2007, against only 75.4% of young men. Furthermore, women represent as much as 59% of university graduates. However, study fields continue to be greatly segmented with a low presence of women in computing, engineering and physics.

Women represent around 60% of tertiary graduates in law and in business and administration and are highly over-represented in the following fields of study: journalism and information; humanities; health and welfare; education science.

The choice of study fields certainly impacts on the gender segregation of the labour market, as regards both occupations and economic sectors. Estonia, Slovakia, Latvia, Finland, and Bulgaria face high segregation in occupations, whilst segregation in sectors is highest in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Ireland, Slovakia and Finland. Consequently there is an under-representation of women in some private sectors that are crucial for economic growth. Moreover, it is expected that in the medium run, skill and labour shortages will affect mixed occupations less than male- or female-dominated occupations, which adds to the need for a more balanced distribution of occupations.

Gender pay gap

As a result of all above mentioned gender inequalities on the labour market, there is a persisting gender pay gap in the EU. The gender pay gap (defined as the difference between men's and women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's average gross hourly earnings) is estimated in 2007 at 17.4% on average in the EU. It exceeds 25% in two countries (Estonia and Austria) and 20% in seven countries (Slovakia, the Netherlands, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Germany, United Kingdom and Greece). However, it is below 10% in Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Belgium.

Following the communication adopted by the Commission in 2007²⁰, Eurostat, in collaboration with Member States, improved the methodology used to calculate the gender pay gap in the EU. Instead of a mix of various national sources, it is now an EU harmonised source (Structure of Earnings Survey) which is used, with the support of comparable national sources for the yearly estimates. It is to be noted that the apparent increase (from 15% in 2004, 2005 and 2006 with the old methodology to 17.4% in 2007 with the new one) does not correspond to a real increase of the indicator and is the result of the change in methodology.

²⁰ COM(2007) 424 final - 'Tackling the pay gap between women and men'.

Decision-making

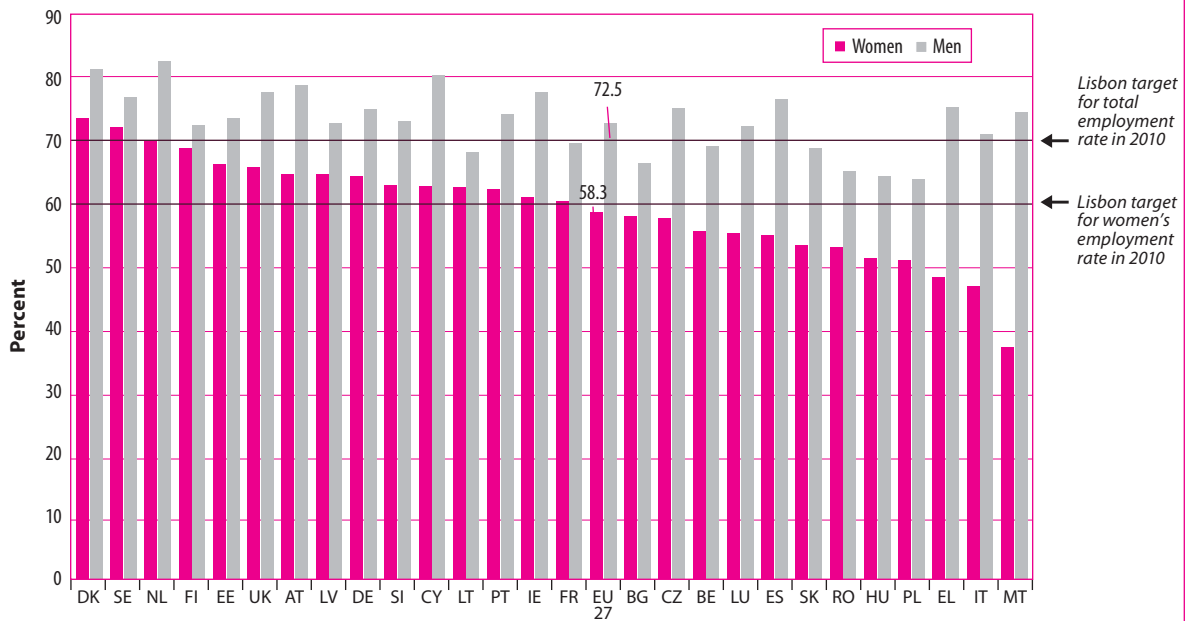
The average number of female members of national parliaments (single/lower houses) was 24% in 2008, one p.p. higher than in 2004. The percentage is above 35% in Spain, Belgium, Denmark and the Netherlands and above 40% in Finland and Sweden. However, it was below 15% in Ireland, Slovenia and Hungary and did not exceed 10% in Malta and Romania.

Among senior ministers of national governments (i.e. ministers with a seat in the cabinet), the share of women increased quite substantially from 22% in 2005 to 26% in 2008. Moreover, the increase was higher than 10 p.p. in Poland, Finland and Italy and higher than 15 p.p. in France and Belgium.

In the economic field, women represent on average almost one-third of leaders of businesses in the EU, but in most countries the share is lower than that. It is below 25% in Luxembourg, Ireland, Finland, Malta and Cyprus but above 35% in Spain, Italy, Poland and France.

As regards female membership of the boards ('highest decision-making body') of the largest publicly quoted companies, the situation is markedly different. Women represent on average only 11% of these board members at EU level. The percentage only exceeds 20% in Finland and Sweden; it is below 5% in Malta, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Portugal.

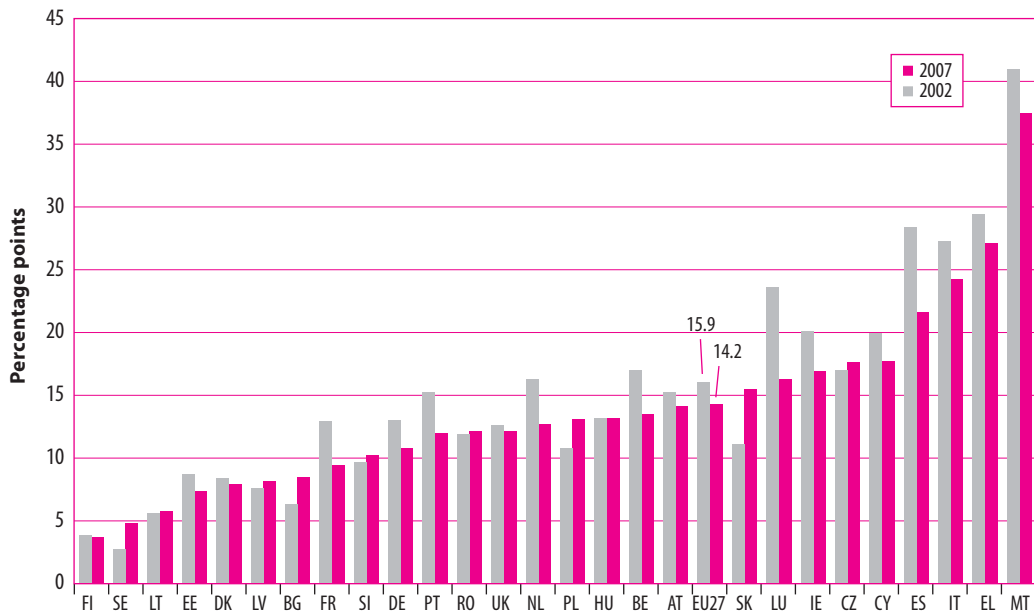
Employment rates (women and men aged 15 - 64) in EU Member States - 2007



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

Absolute gender gap in employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) in EU Member States - 2002 and 2007

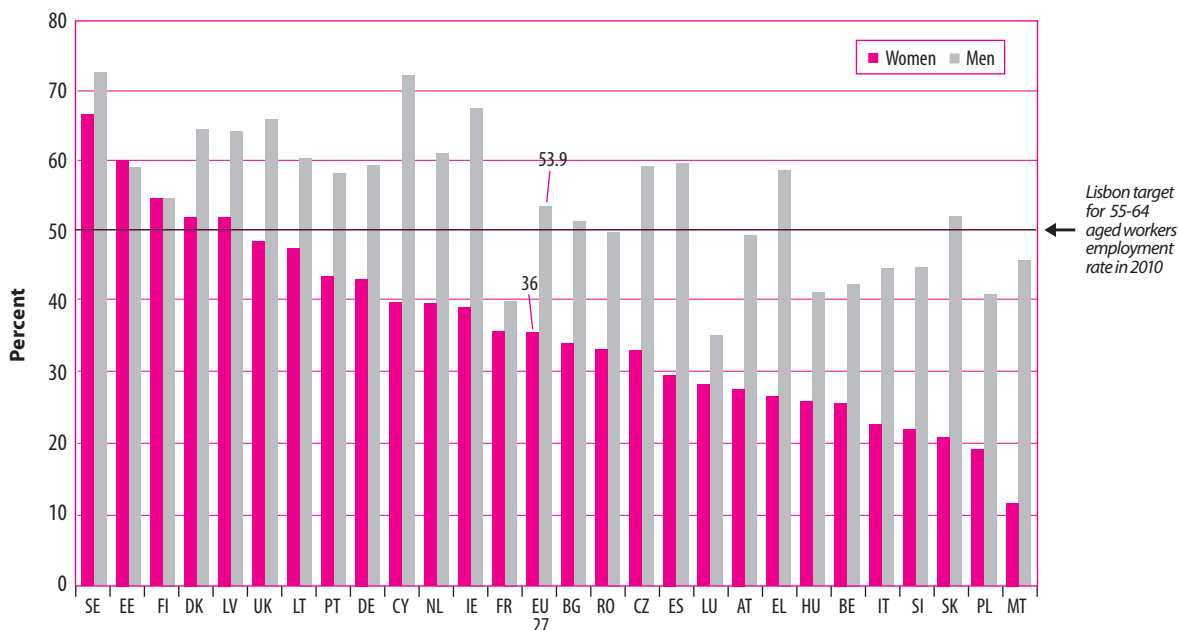
(Difference between men's and women's employment rates)



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

NB: A positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

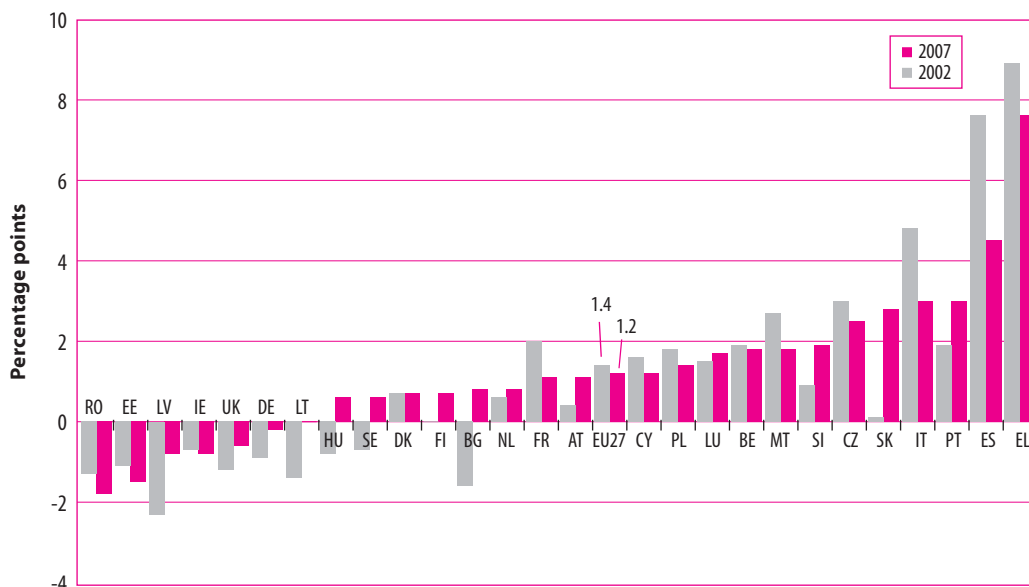
Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55 - 64) in EU Member States- 2007



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

Absolute gender gap in unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 years and over) in EU Member States - 2002 and 2007

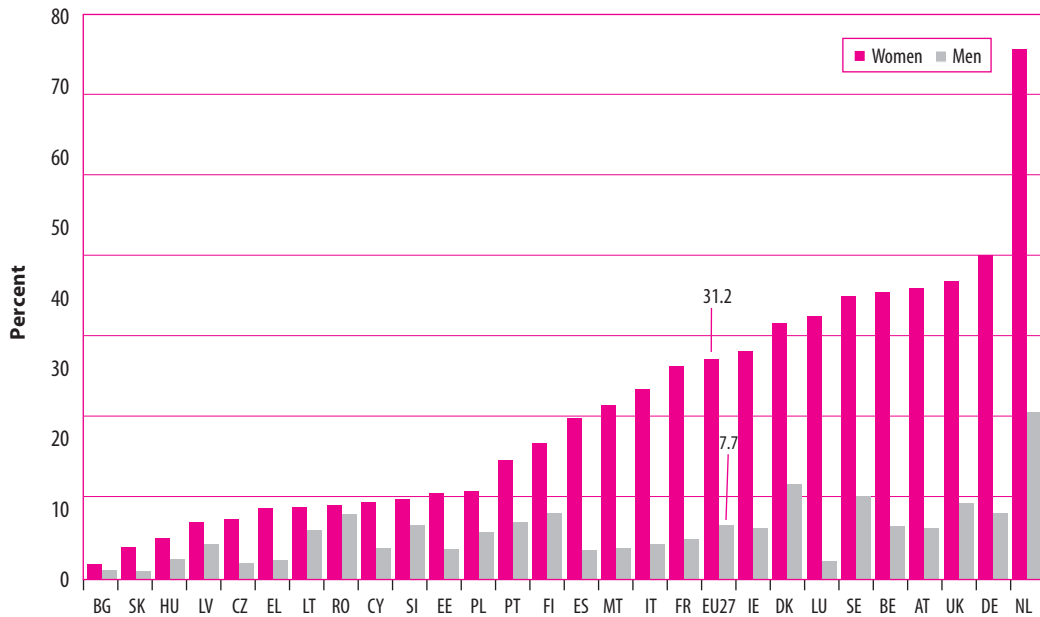
(Difference between women's and men's unemployment rates)



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

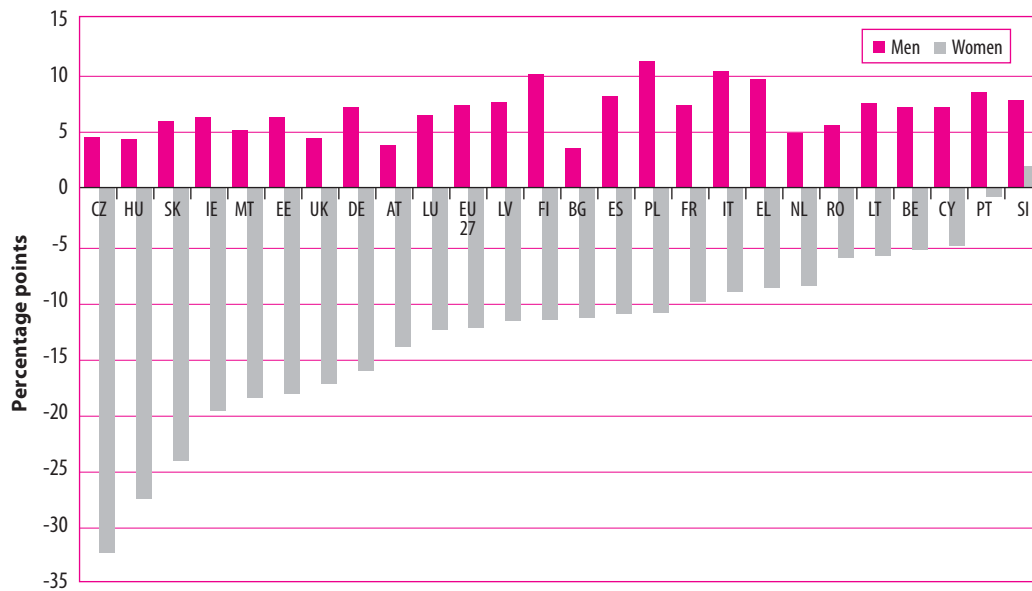
Notes: A positive gap indicates higher unemployment rates for women in comparison with men, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over) in EU Member States - 2007



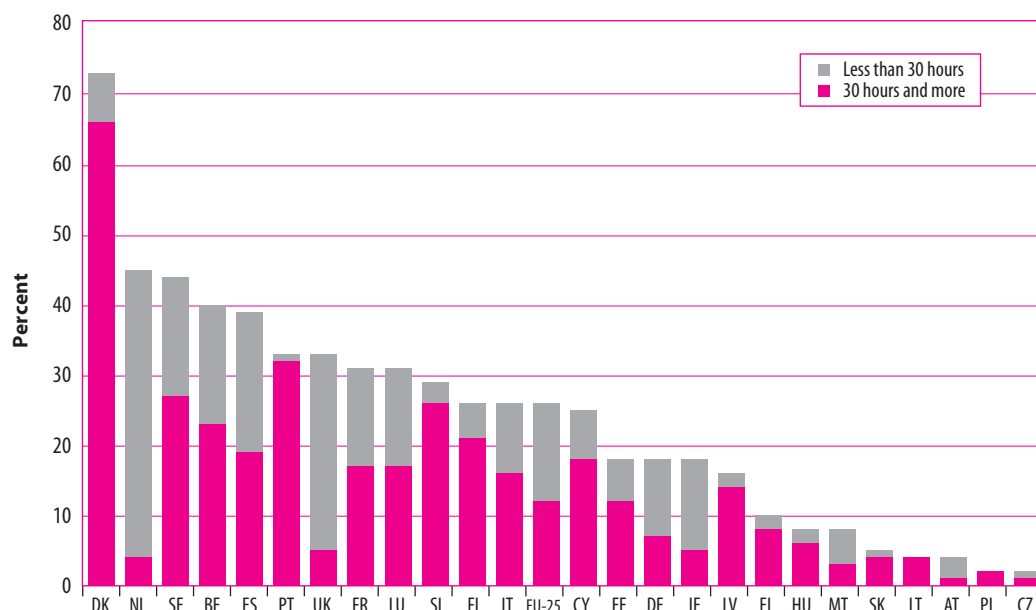
Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.
 IE: Provisional figures.

Employment impact of parenthood for women and men (aged 25-49) in 2007 (Difference in percentage points in employment rates with presence of a child under 12 and without the presence of any children)



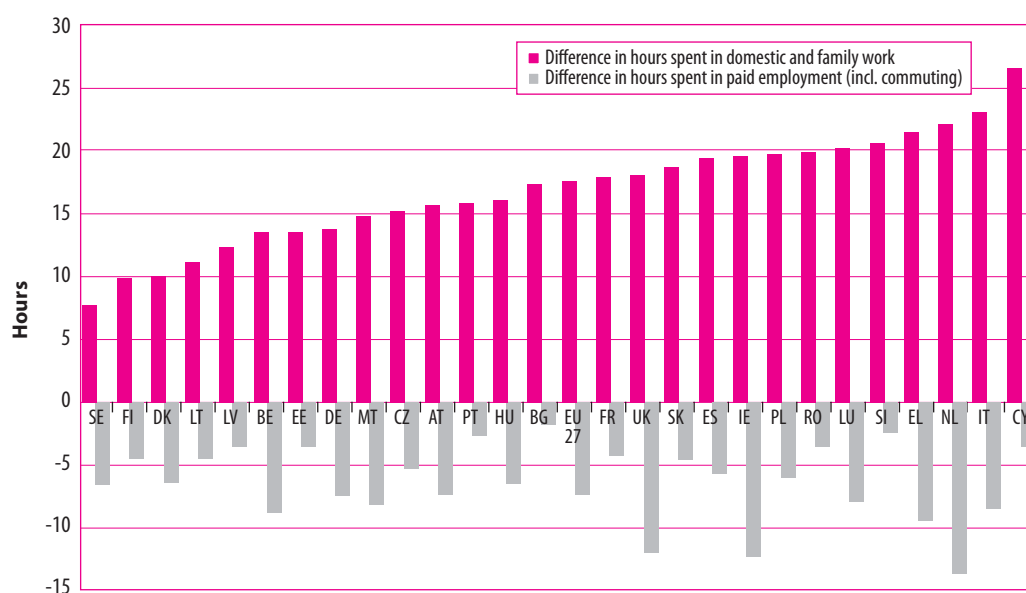
Source: Eurostat, labour force survey (LFS), Annual average.
 Note: no data available for DK and SE.

Proportion of children up to 3 years cared for by formal arrangements in 2006 up to 30 hours / 30 hours or more per usual week



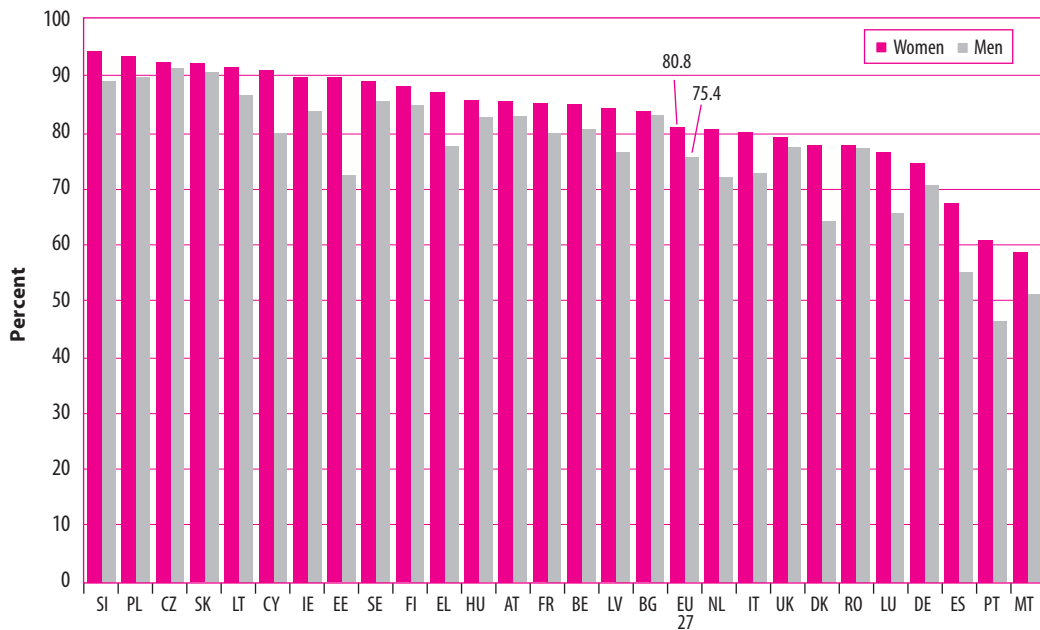
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC 2006. Provisional data for BE, DE, EL, FR, IE, LT, LU, LV, MT, NL, PL, PT, SE, SK and UK. BG and RO: no data available for 2006. "Formal arrangements" means EU-SILC reply categories 1 to 4 (pre-school or equivalent, compulsory education, centre-based services outside school hours, a collective crèche or another day-care centre, including family day-care, professional certified childminders).

Difference between working women's and men's average time spent in domestic and family work and in paid employment, in 2005 (by week)



Source: Fourth EWCS, 2005. A positive value indicates that more time is spent on average by women than by men (for the related activity), while the opposite is true for a negative value. It has to be noted that the sample used only includes people who were in paid employment in the reference week of the survey. Due to this limitation, caution should be exercised in interpreting the differences between women and men's average time spent for both paid employment and unpaid domestic and family work. For instance, as regards paid employment, gender differences mainly reflect different patterns in the gender distribution of part-time among EU Member States and not in the gender distribution of participation in employment in general. If all working age persons were included (and not only those in paid employment) one would expect that both differences in time-use between women and men would be more pronounced.

Educational attainment (at least upper secondary school) of women and men aged 20 - 24, in EU Member States - 2007

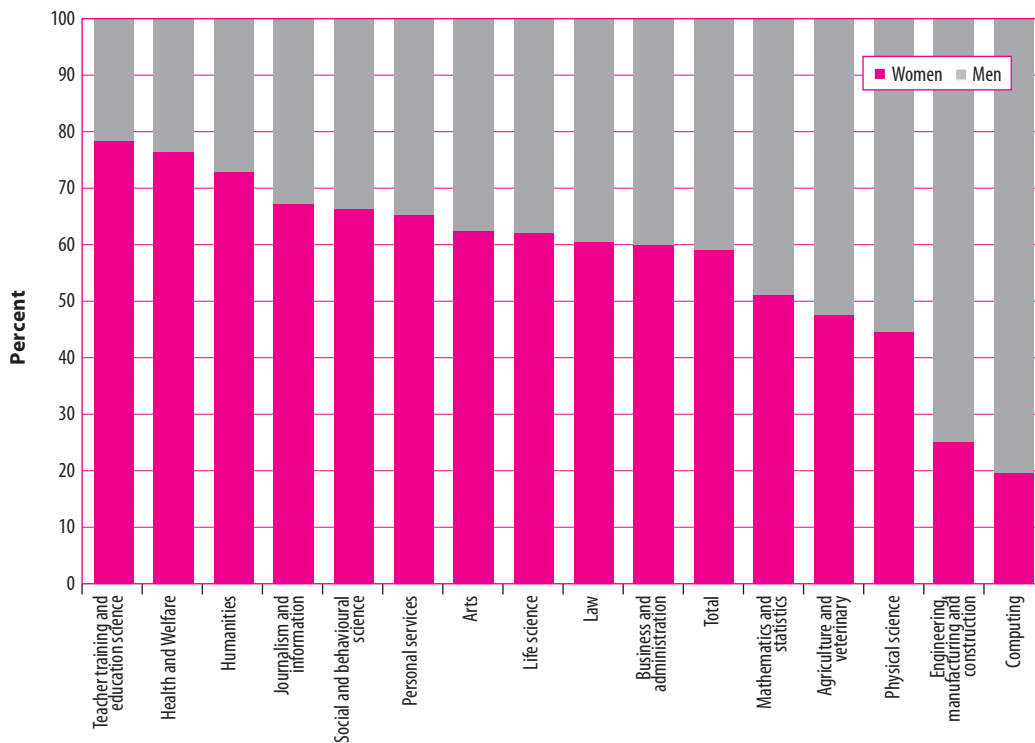


Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

NB: DK: Break in series

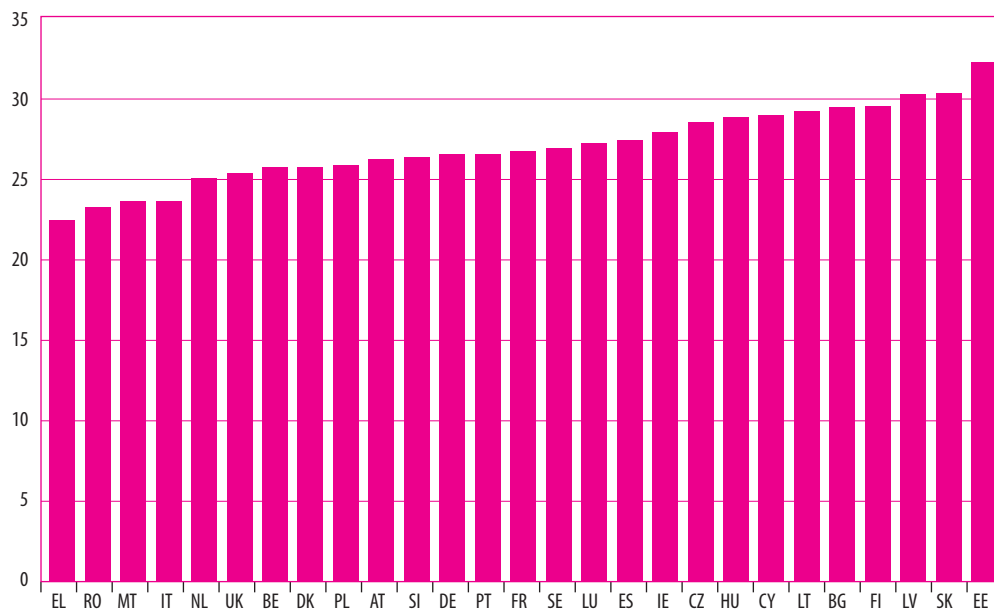
Students living abroad for one year or more and conscripts on compulsory military service are not covered by the EU Labour Force Survey, which may imply lower rates than those available at national level. This is especially relevant for CY.

Sex distribution of tertiary education graduates by field of study and in total, in EU-27, 2006



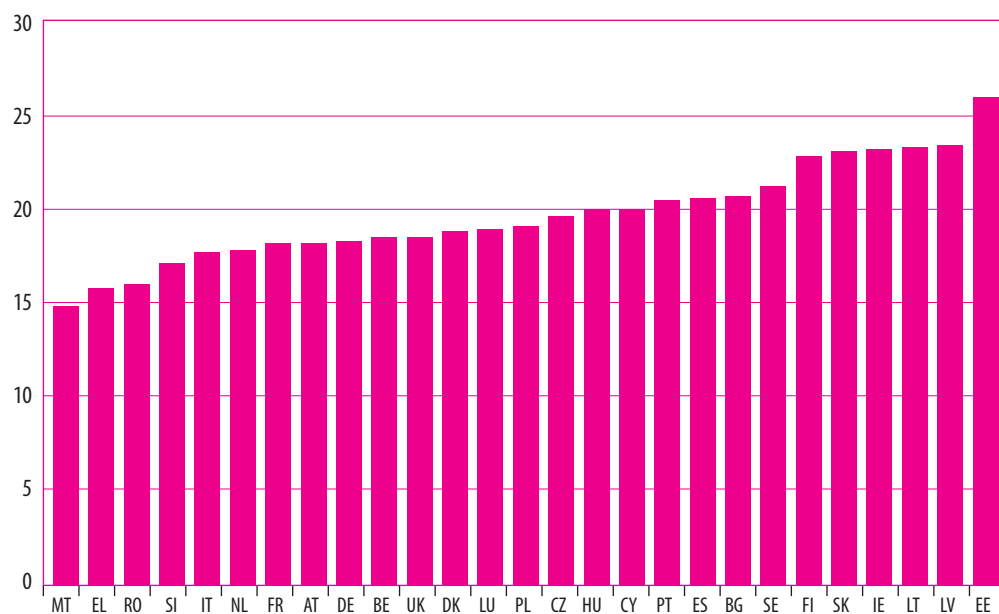
Source: Eurostat - Tertiary education graduates include all graduates of levels ISCED 5 and 6.

Gender segregation in occupations in EU Member States, in 2007



Source: Eurostat - LFS, Spring data. Gender segregation in occupations is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification).

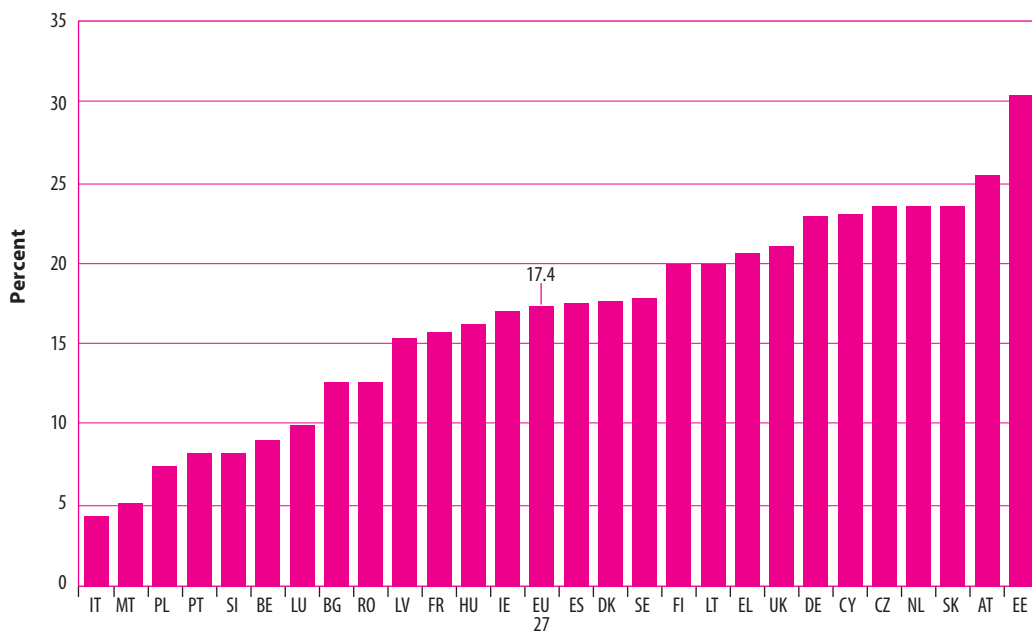
Gender segregation in economic sectors in EU Member States, in 2007



Source: Eurostat - LFS, Spring data. Gender segregation in sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (NACE classification).

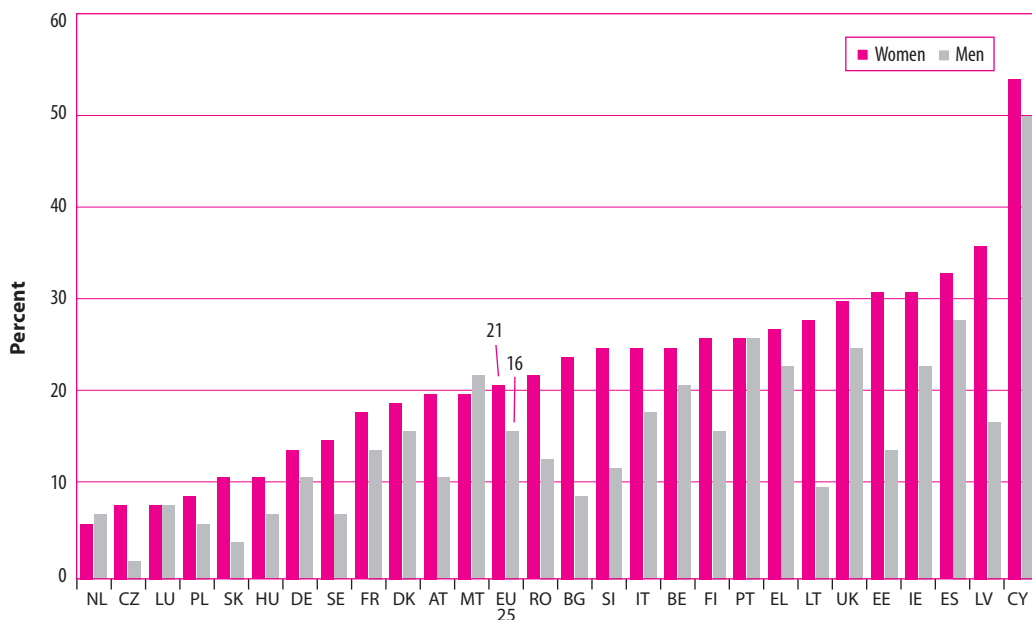
Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States - 2007

(Difference between men's and women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's average gross hourly earnings)



Source: Eurostat. Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and national sources (2007) for yearly SES-comparable estimates. Provisional data for EU-27, BE, BG, EE, EL, ES, FI, FR, IT, MT and UK. See introductory text of the statistical annex for detailed information.

At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers (1) for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over), in EU Member states, 2006

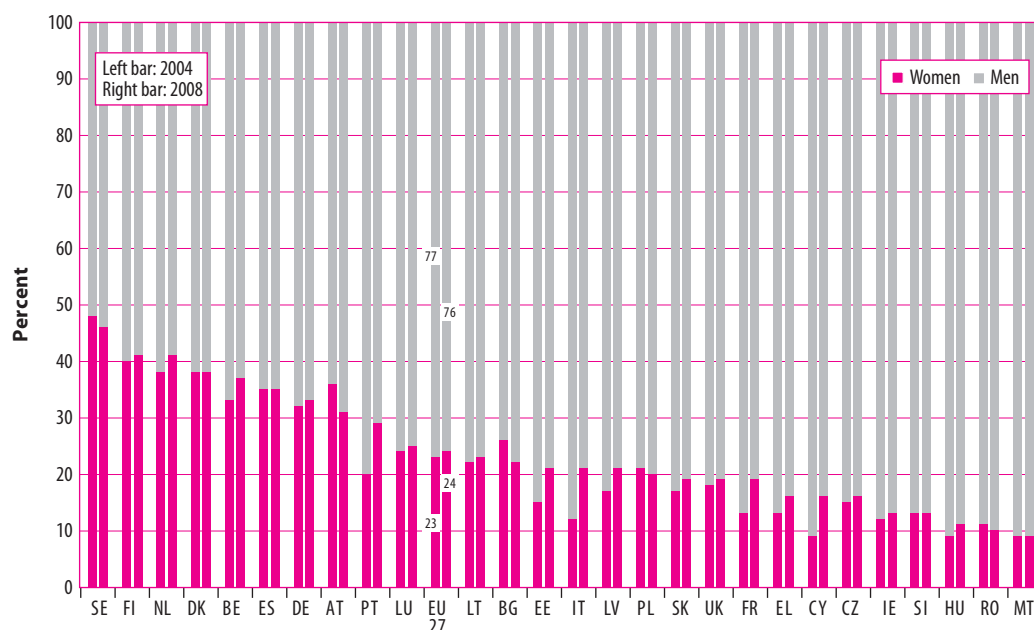


Source: Eurostat. SILC and national sources.

NB: (1) At risk of poverty rate for elderly persons: The share of persons aged 65+ with an income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median income. Income must be understood as equivalised disposable income (sum from all sources, adjusted for household size and composition). It should be noted that the risk-of-poverty indicator is computed using an income definition which does not yet include imputed rent of owner-occupiers. Comparisons between genders are based on the assumption of equal sharing of resources within households.

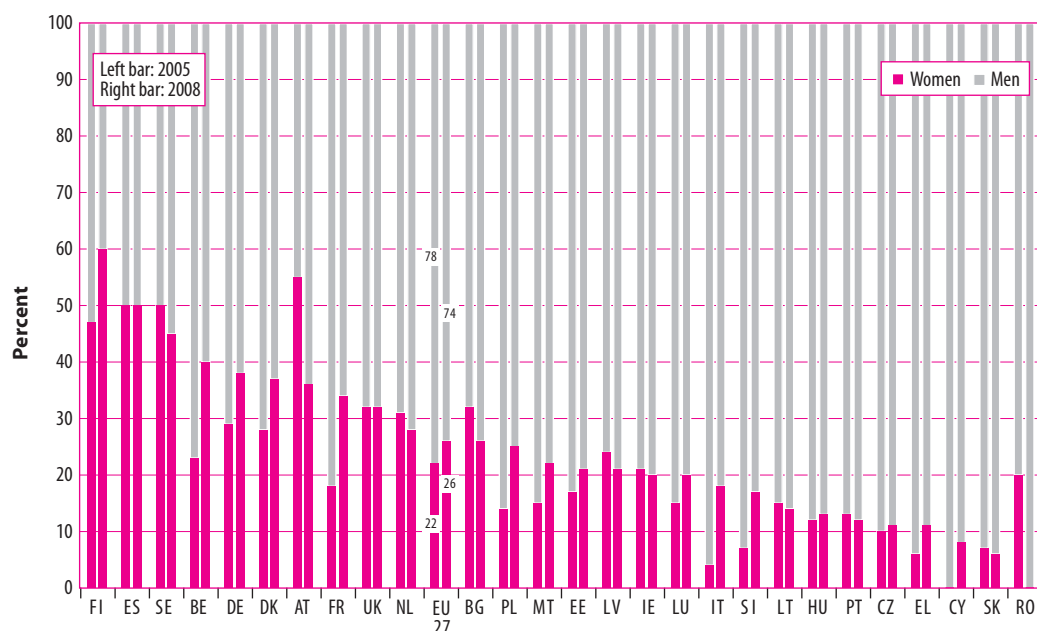
Source: EU-25: SILC(2006) Income data 2005. BG: National HBS 2006, income data 2006 and RO National HBS 2006, income data 2006. Exception to the income reference period UK: income year 2006 and IE: moving income reference period (2005-2006). EU aggregates are Eurostat estimates and computed as population weighted averages of national values.

Sex distribution of members of single/lower houses of national parliaments in EU Member States - in 2004 and 2008 (1)



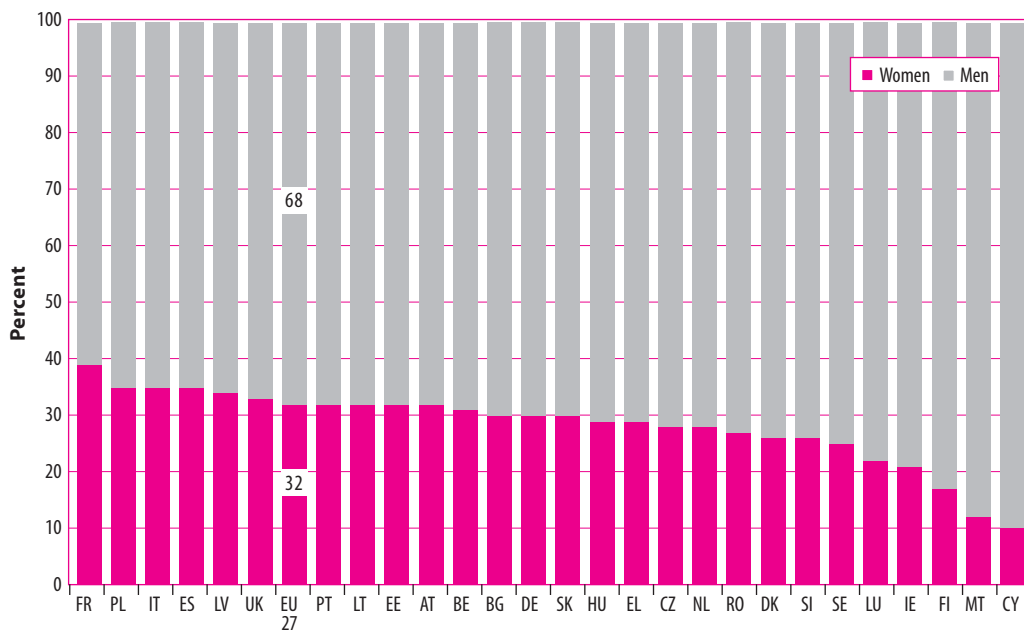
Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on Women and Men in Decisionmaking.
 NB: (1) Data for 2008 have been collected in October 2008. The indicator has been developed within the framework of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers. BG and RO: data for 2004 are extracted from the IPU database (collected in Sept. 2004) EU aggregate: for 2004, the value is for EU-25 and not EU-27.

Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments in EU Member States - in 2005 and 2008 (1)



Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on Women and Men in Decisionmaking.
 NB: (1) Data for 2005 have been collected in December 2005 and data for 2008 have been collected in October 2008. The indicator has been developed within the framework of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers. A senior minister is a minister in the national government that has a seat in the cabinet.

Sex distribution of leaders of businesses, in 2007

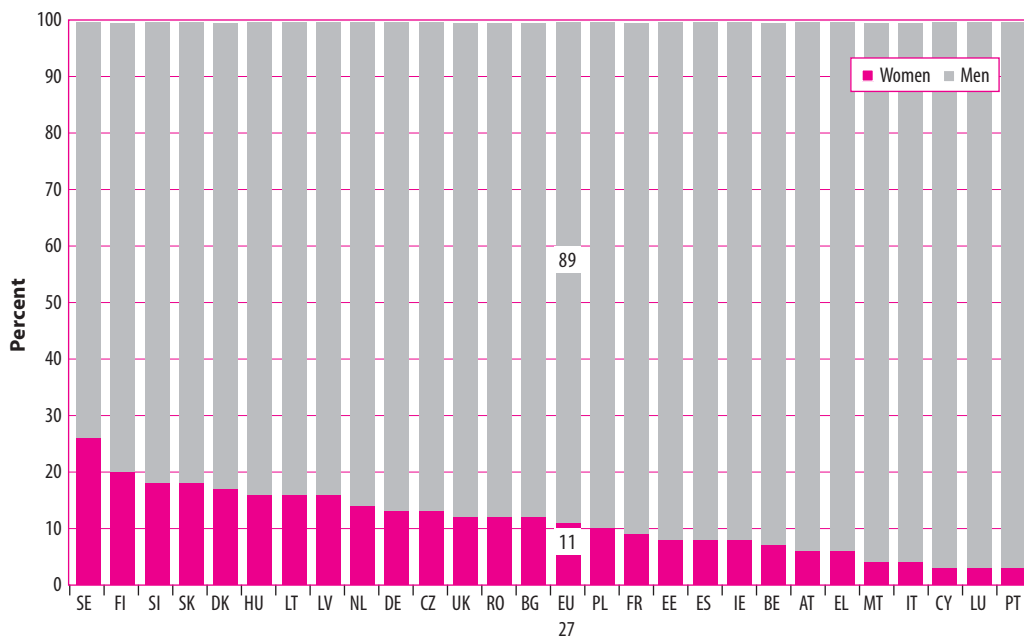


Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

NB: Leaders of businesses covers ISCO (International Standard Classification of Occupations) categories 121 (Directors and chief executives) and 13 (Managers of small enterprises).

FR: the figures exclude Directors and CEOs for which data are not available.

Sex distribution of members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies in 2008



Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data have been collected in October 2008. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) in EU Member States — 2002 and 2007						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2002	2007	2002	2007	2002	2007
EU-27	54.4	58.3	70.4	72.5	16	14.2
Belgium	51.4	55.3	68.3	68.7	16.9	13.4
Bulgaria	47.5	57.6	53.7	66	6.2	8.4
Czech Republic	57	57.3	73.9	74.8	16.9	17.5
Denmark	71.7	73.2	80	81	8.3	7.8
Germany	58.9	64	71.8	74.7	12.9	10.7
Estonia	57.9	65.9	66.5	73.2	8.6	7.3
Ireland	55.4	60.6	75.4	77.4	20	16.8
Greece	42.9	47.9	72.2	74.9	29.3	27
Spain	44.4	54.7	72.6	76.2	28.2	21.5
France	56.7	60	69.5	69.3	12.8	9.3
Italy	42	46.6	69.1	70.7	27.1	24.1
Cyprus	59.1	62.4	78.9	80	19.8	17.6
Latvia	56.8	64.4	64.3	72.5	7.5	8.1
Lithuania	57.2	62.2	62.7	67.9	5.5	5.7
Luxembourg	51.6	56.1	75.1	72.3	23.5	16.2
Hungary	49.8	50.9	62.9	64	13.1	13.1
Malta	33.9	35.7	74.7	72.9	40.8	37.2
Netherlands	66.2	69.6	82.4	82.2	16.2	12.6
Austria	61.3	64.4	76.4	78.4	15.1	14
Poland	46.2	50.6	56.9	63.6	10.7	13
Portugal	61.4	61.9	76.5	73.8	15.1	11.9
Romania	51.8	52.8	63.6	64.8	11.8	12
Slovenia	58.6	62.6	68.2	72.7	9.6	10.1
Slovakia	51.4	53	62.4	68.4	11	15.4
Finland	66.2	68.5	70	72.1	3.8	3.6
Sweden	72.2	71.8	74.9	76.5	2.7	4.7
United Kingdom	65.2	65.5	77.7	77.5	12.5	12

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55-64) in EU Member States — 2002 and 2007						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2002	2007	2002	2007	2002	2007
EU-27	29.1	36	48.4	53.9	19.3	17.9
Belgium	17.5	26	36	42.9	18.5	16.9
Bulgaria	18.2	34.5	37	51.8	18.8	17.3
Czech Republic	25.9	33.5	57.2	59.6	31.3	26.1
Denmark	50.4	52.4	64.5	64.9	14.1	12.5
Germany	30.6	43.6	47.3	59.7	16.7	16.1
Estonia	46.5	60.5	58.4	59.4	11.9	-1.1
Ireland	30.8	39.6	65	67.9	34.2	28.3
Greece	24	26.9	55.9	59.1	31.9	32.2
Spain	21.9	30	58.4	60	36.5	30
France	30.8	36.2	38.7	40.5	7.9	4.3
Italy	17.3	23	41.3	45.1	24	22.1
Cyprus	32.2	40.3	67.3	72.5	35.1	32.2
Latvia	35.2	52.4	50.5	64.6	15.3	12.2
Lithuania	34.1	47.9	51.5	60.8	17.4	12.9
Luxembourg	18.4	28.6	37.7	35.6	19.3	7
Hungary	17.6	26.2	35.5	41.7	17.9	15.5
Malta	10.9	11.6	50.8	45.9	39.9	34.3
Netherlands	29.9	40.1	54.6	61.5	24.7	21.4
Austria	19.3	28	39.6	49.8	20.3	21.8
Poland	18.9	19.4	34.5	41.4	15.6	22
Portugal	42.2	44	61.9	58.6	19.7	14.6
Romania	32.6	33.6	42.7	50.3	10.1	16.7
Slovenia	14.2	22.2	35.4	45.3	21.2	23.1
Slovakia	9.5	21.2	39.1	52.5	29.6	31.3
Finland	47.2	55	48.5	55.1	1.3	0.1
Sweden	65.6	67	70.4	72.9	4.8	5.9
United Kingdom	44.5	48.9	62.6	66.3	18.1	17.4

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

Unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 and over) in EU Member States — 2002 and 2007						
In this table, the gender gap is calculated as women's unemployment rate minus men's unemployment rate						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2002	2007	2002	2007	2002	2007
EU-27	9.7	7.8	8.3	6.6	1.4	1.2
Belgium	8.6	8.5	6.7	6.7	1.9	1.8
Bulgaria	17.3	7.3	18.9	6.5	-1.6	0.8
Czech Republic	9	6.7	6	4.2	3	2.5
Denmark	5	4.2	4.3	3.5	0.7	0.7
Germany	7.9	8.3	8.8	8.5	-0.9	-0.2
Estonia	9.7	3.9	10.8	5.4	-1.1	-1.5
Ireland	4.1	4.2	4.8	5	-0.7	-0.8
Greece	15.7	12.8	6.8	5.2	8.9	7.6
Spain	15.7	10.9	8.1	6.4	7.6	4.5
France	9.7	8.9	7.7	7.8	2	1.1
Italy	11.5	7.9	6.7	4.9	4.8	3
Cyprus	4.5	4.6	2.9	3.4	1.6	1.2
Latvia	11	5.6	13.3	6.4	-2.3	-0.8
Lithuania	12.8	4.3	14.2	4.3	-1.4	0
Luxembourg	3.5	5.1	2	3.4	1.5	1.7
Hungary	5.4	7.7	6.2	7.1	-0.8	0.6
Malta	9.3	7.6	6.6	5.8	2.7	1.8
Netherlands	3.1	3.6	2.5	2.8	0.6	0.8
Austria	4.4	5	4	3.9	0.4	1.1
Poland	21	10.4	19.2	9	1.8	1.4
Portugal	6.1	9.7	4.2	6.7	1.9	3
Romania	7.9	5.4	9.2	7.2	-1.3	-1.8
Slovenia	6.8	5.9	5.9	4	0.9	1.9
Slovakia	18.7	12.7	18.6	9.9	0.1	2.8
Finland	9.1	7.2	9.1	6.5	0	0.7
Sweden	4.6	6.4	5.3	5.8	-0.7	0.6
United Kingdom	4.5	5	5.7	5.6	-1.2	-0.6

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over), in EU Member States — 2002 and 2007				
	Women		Men	
	2002	2007	2002	2007
EU-27	28.5	31.2	6.6	7.7
Belgium	37.4	40.6	5.6	7.5
Bulgaria	3	2.1	2.1	1.3
Czech Republic	8.3	8.5	2.2	2.3
Denmark	30.3	36.2	11.1	13.5
Germany	39.5	45.8	5.8	9.4
Estonia	10.7	12.1	4.8	4.3
Ireland	30.6	(32.3)	6.5	(7.2)
Greece	8	10.1	2.3	2.7
Spain	16.8	22.8	2.6	4.1
France	29.8	30.2	5.2	5.7
Italy	16.9	26.9	3.5	5
Cyprus	11.3	10.9	4	4.4
Latvia	12	8	7.6	4.9
Lithuania	12.3	10.2	9.4	7
Luxembourg	25.3	37.2	1.8	2.6
Hungary	5.1	5.8	2.3	2.8
Malta	18.3	24.6	3.9	4.4
Netherlands	73.1	75	21.2	23.6
Austria	35.9	41.2	5.1	7.2
Poland	13.4	12.5	8.5	6.6
Portugal	16.4	16.9	7	8
Romania	13	10.4	10.9	9.2
Slovenia	7.5	11.3	4.9	7.7
Slovakia	2.7	4.5	1.1	1.1
Finland	17.5	19.3	8.3	9.3
Sweden	33.1	40	11.1	11.8
United Kingdom	43.8	42.2	9.6	10.8

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) – annual averages. Provisional data for IE in 2007.

Employment impact of parenthood for women and men (aged 25-49) in 2007 Difference in percentage points in employment rates with presence of a child under 12 and without any children		
	Women	Men
EU-27	-12.4	7.3
Belgium	-5.5	7.1
Bulgaria	-11.5	3.5
Czech Republic	-32.3	4.5
Germany	-16.2	7.1
Estonia	-18.2	6.2
Ireland	-19.7	6.2
Greece	-8.9	9.6
Spain	-11.2	8.1
France	-10.1	7.3
Italy	-9.2	10.3
Cyprus	-5.2	7.1
Latvia	-11.8	7.6
Lithuania	-6.0	7.5
Luxembourg	-12.6	6.4
Hungary	-27.5	4.3
Malta	-18.6	5.1
Netherlands	-8.7	4.8
Austria	-14.1	3.8
Poland	-11.1	11.2
Portugal	-0.8	8.4
Romania	-6.2	5.5
Slovenia	1.9	7.7
Slovakia	-24.2	5.9
Finland	-11.7	10.0
United Kingdom	-17.4	4.4

Source: Eurostat, labour force survey (LFS), Annual average. Note: no data available for DK and SE.

Proportion of children up to 3 years cared for by formal arrangements in 2006 (up to 30 hours / 30 hours or more per usual week)			
	Up to 30 hours	30 hours and more	Total
EU-25	14	12	26
Belgium	17	23	40
Czech Republic	1	1	2
Denmark	7	66	73
Germany	11	7	18
Estonia	6	12	18
Ireland	13	5	18
Greece	2	8	10
Spain	20	19	39
France	14	17	31
Italy	10	16	26
Cyprus	7	18	25
Latvia	2	14	16
Lithuania	0	4	4
Luxembourg	14	17	31
Hungary	2	6	8
Malta	5	3	8
Netherlands	41	4	45
Austria	3	1	4
Poland	0	2	2
Portugal	1	32	33
Slovenia	3	26	29
Slovakia	1	4	5
Finland	5	21	26
Sweden	17	27	44
United Kingdom	28	5	33

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC 2006. Provisional data for BE, DE, EL, FR, IE, LT, LU, LV, MT, NL, PL, PT, SE, SK and UK. "Formal arrangements" means EU-SILC reply categories 1 to 4 (pre-school or equivalent, compulsory education, centre-based services outside school hours, a collective crèche or another day-care centre, including family day-care, professional certified childminders).

Average time spent per week in domestic and family work and in paid employment, in 2005 (by sex)						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	Domestic and family work	Paid employment	Domestic and family work	Paid employment	Domestic and family work	Paid employment
EU-27	25.5	38.1	7.8	45.5	17.7	-7.4
Belgium	22.9	35.9	9.3	44.7	13.6	-8.9
Bulgaria	24.4	46.9	7.0	48.7	17.5	-1.8
Czech Republic	20.8	41.8	5.5	47.0	15.4	-5.3
Denmark	20.9	36.4	10.8	42.9	10.1	-6.5
Germany	18.7	37.4	4.8	44.9	13.9	-7.5
Estonia	25.3	42.5	11.6	46.1	13.6	-3.6
Ireland	27.2	34.3	7.5	46.7	19.7	-12.4
Greece	28.8	43.6	7.1	53.1	21.7	-9.5
Spain	24.4	40.3	4.8	46.1	19.5	-5.7
France	26.2	36.2	8.2	40.5	18.1	-4.3
Italy	31.0	36.3	7.7	44.8	23.3	-8.5
Cyprus	33.1	40.7	6.3	44.2	26.8	-3.5
Latvia	24.0	44.2	11.6	47.8	12.4	-3.6
Lithuania	16.6	42.2	5.3	46.7	11.2	-4.5
Luxembourg	32.9	36.9	12.5	44.8	20.4	-8.0
Hungary	26.3	43.1	10.0	49.6	16.2	-6.5
Malta	22.6	38.5	7.7	46.7	14.9	-8.2
Netherlands	36.6	29.5	14.3	43.2	22.3	-13.7
Austria	20.6	38.6	4.8	46.0	15.8	-7.4
Poland	28.0	44.4	8.1	50.4	19.9	-6.0
Portugal	25.4	43.6	9.5	46.3	15.9	-2.6
Romania	29.0	49.5	9.0	53.1	20.1	-3.5
Slovenia	30.9	43.7	10.1	46.1	20.7	-2.4
Slovakia	26.6	44.4	7.7	49.0	18.9	-4.6
Finland	18.8	38.6	8.8	43.1	10.0	-4.5
Sweden	17.4	38.2	9.6	44.8	7.8	-6.6
United Kingdom	28.7	32.0	10.5	44.1	18.2	-12.0

Source: Fourth EWCS, 2005. For the columns "gender gap", a positive value indicates that more time is spent on average by women than by men (for the related activity), while the opposite is true for a negative value. It has to be noted that the sample used only includes people who were in paid employment in the reference week of the survey. Due to this limitation, caution should be exercised in interpreting the differences between women and men's average time spent for both paid employment and unpaid domestic and family work. For instance, as regards paid employment, gender differences mainly reflect different patterns in the gender distribution of part-time among EU Member States and not in the gender distribution of participation in employment in general. If all working age persons were included (and not only those in paid employment) one would expect that both differences in time-use between women and men would be more pronounced.

Educational attainment (at least upper secondary school) of women and men aged 20 – 24, in EU Member States — 2002 and 2007				
	Women		Men	
	2002	2007	2002	2007
EU-27	79.3	80.8	74	75.5
Belgium	84.8	84.9	78.5	80.4
Bulgaria	79.5	83.6	75.2	83
Czech Republic	92	92.4	92.4	91.3
Denmark	82.6	77.7	74.3	64.2
Germany	73.8	74.4	72.6	70.6
Estonia	85.8	89.6	77.1	72.2
Ireland	87.3	89.7	80.7	83.7
Greece	86	87	76.1	77.5
Spain	70.3	67.3	57.4	55.1
France	82.8	85	80.5	79.8
Italy	74.3	80	64.8	72.7
Cyprus	89.5	91	76.7	79.8
Latvia	84.3	84.1	70	76.4
Lithuania	83.2	91.5	79.4	86.5
Luxembourg	65.5	76.4	74	65.6
Hungary	86.3	85.6	85.5	82.5
Malta	42.2	59.6	36.1	51.8
Netherlands	77.4	80.5	68.8	71.9
Austria	84.6	85.4	86.1	82.7
Poland	91.9	93.4	86.5	89.7
Portugal	52.9	60.8	36.1	46.3
Romania	77.7	77.7	74.8	77.1
Slovenia	93.3	94.3	88.3	89
Slovakia	95.4	92.1	93.5	90.5
Finland	89	88	82.6	84.8
Sweden	88.3	89	85.2	85.4
United Kingdom	77.6	79	76.6	77.2

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.
NB: DK: Break in series
Students living abroad for one year or more and conscripts on compulsory military service are not covered by the EU Labour Force Survey, which may imply lower rates than those available at national level. This is especially relevant for CY.

Gender segregation in occupations and in economic sectors in EU Member States, in 2002 and 2007				
	Gender segregation in occupations		Gender segregation in economic sectors	
	2002	2007	2002	2007
Belgium	25.3	25.7	18.2	18.6
Bulgaria	27.1	29.4	18.1	20.8
Czech Republic	29.6	28.5	19.3	19.7
Denmark	28.3	25.7	18.5	18.9
Germany	26.9	26.5	18.1	18.4
Estonia	30.4	32.2	22.5	26.1
Ireland	26.9	27.9	21.0	23.3
Greece	21.6	22.4	15.4	15.9
Spain	25.3	27.4	19.5	20.7
France	26.3	26.7	17.5	18.3
Italy	21.8	23.6	15.4	17.8
Cyprus	28.8	28.9	18.1	20.1
Latvia	28.6	30.2	21.7	23.5
Lithuania	27.3	29.2	21.5	23.4
Luxembourg	27.1	27.2	19.7	19.0
Hungary	28.1	28.8	19.5	20.1
Malta	24.5	23.6	18.0	14.9
Netherlands	24.5	25.0	16.7	17.9
Austria	27.8	26.2	20.4	18.3
Poland	25.3	25.8	13.7	19.2
Portugal	27.6	26.5	22.2	20.6
Romania	11.9	23.2	14.6	16.1
Slovenia	27.1	26.3	17.6	17.2
Slovakia	30.8	30.3	22.5	23.2
Finland	29.4	29.5	21.6	22.9
Sweden	27.8	26.9	21.5	21.3
United Kingdom	26.5	25.3	18.9	18.6

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) — Spring data. Data lack comparability due to changes in certain survey characteristics: For occupations, RO: based until 2004 on ISCO 1 digit. Break in series for FR, LU, IT, AT, DE, ES and SE. Gender segregation in occupations is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification). Gender segregation in sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (NACE classification).

Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States — 2007 (Difference between men's and women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's average gross hourly earnings)	
EU-27	17.4
Belgium	9.1
Bulgaria	12.7
Czech Republic	23.6
Denmark	17.7
Germany	23.0
Estonia	30.3
Ireland	17.1
Greece	20.7
Spain	17.6
France	15.8
Italy	4.4
Cyprus	23.1
Latvia	15.4
Lithuania	20.0
Luxembourg	10.0
Hungary	16.3
Malta	5.2
Netherlands	23.6
Austria	25.5
Poland	7.5
Portugal	8.3
Romania	12.7
Slovenia	8.3
Slovakia	23.6
Finland	20.0
Sweden	17.9
United Kingdom	21.1

Source: Eurostat. Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and national sources (2007) for yearly SES-comparable estimates. Provisional data for EU-27, BE, BG, EE, EL, ES, FI, FR, IT, MT and UK. See introductory text of the statistical annex for detailed information.

At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over) in EU Member States — 2006		
	Women	Men
EU-25	21	16
Belgium	25	21
Bulgaria	24	9
Czech Republic	8	2
Denmark	19	16
Germany	14	11
Estonia	31	14
Ireland	31	23
Greece	27	23
Spain	33	28
France	18	14
Italy	25	18
Cyprus	54	50
Latvia	36	17
Lithuania	28	10
Luxembourg	8	8
Hungary	11	7
Malta	20	22
Netherlands	6	7
Austria	20	11
Poland	9	6
Portugal	26	26
Romania	22	13
Slovenia	25	12
Slovakia	11	4
Finland	26	16
Sweden	15	7
United Kingdom	30	25

Source: Eurostat. SILC and national sources.
NB: At risk of poverty rate for elderly persons: The share of persons aged 65+ with an income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median income. Income must be understood as equivalised disposable income (sum from all sources, adjusted for household size and composition). It should be noted that the risk-of-poverty indicator is computed using an income definition which does not yet include imputed rent of owner-occupiers. Comparisons between genders are based on the assumption of equal sharing of resources within households.
Source: EU-25: SILC(2006) Income data 2005. BG: National HBS 2006, income data 2006 and RO National HBS 2006, income data 2006. Exception to the income reference period UK: income year 2006 and IE: moving income reference period (2005-2006). EU aggregates are Eurostat estimates and computed as population weighted averages of national values.

Members of single/lower houses of national parliaments in EU Member States — Distribution by sex 2004 and 2008 (1)				
	2004		2008	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	23	77	24	76
Belgium	33	67	37	63
Bulgaria	26	74	22	78
Czech Republic	15	85	16	84
Denmark	38	62	38	62
Germany	32	68	33	67
Estonia	15	85	21	79
Ireland	12	88	13	87
Greece	13	87	16	84
Spain	35	65	35	65
France	13	87	19	81
Italy	12	88	21	79
Cyprus	9	91	16	84
Latvia	17	83	21	79
Lithuania	22	78	23	77
Luxembourg	24	76	25	75
Hungary	9	91	11	89
Malta	9	91	9	91
Netherlands	38	62	41	59
Austria	36	64	31	69
Poland	21	79	20	80
Portugal	20	80	29	71
Romania	11	89	10	90
Slovenia	13	87	13	87
Slovakia	17	83	19	81
Finland	40	60	41	59
Sweden	48	52	46	54
United Kingdom	18	82	19	81

Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on Women and Men in Decision making.
 NB: (1) Data for 2008 have been collected in October 2008. The indicator has been developed within the framework of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers. BG and RO: data for 2004 are extracted from the IPU database (collected in Sept. 2004). EU aggregate: for 2004, the value is for EU-25 and not EU-27.

Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments in EU Member States — in 2005 and 2008 (1)				
	2005		2008	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	22	78	26	74
Belgium	23	77	40	60
Bulgaria	32	68	26	74
Czech Republic	10	90	11	89
Denmark	28	72	37	63
Germany	29	71	38	62
Estonia	17	83	21	79
Ireland	21	79	20	80
Greece	6	94	11	89
Spain	50	50	50	50
France	18	82	34	66
Italy	4	96	18	82
Cyprus	0	100	8	92
Latvia	24	76	21	79
Lithuania	15	85	14	86
Luxembourg	15	85	20	80
Hungary	12	88	13	87
Malta	15	85	22	78
Netherlands	31	69	28	72
Austria	55	45	36	64
Poland	14	86	25	75
Portugal	13	87	12	88
Romania	20	80	0	100
Slovenia	7	93	17	83
Slovakia	7	93	6	94
Finland	47	53	60	40
Sweden	50	50	45	55
United Kingdom	32	68	32	68

Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on Women and Men in Decision making.
 NB: (1) Data for 2005 have been collected in December 2005 and data for 2008 have been collected in October 2008. The indicator has been developed within the framework of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers. A senior minister is a minister in the national government that has a seat in the cabinet.

Sex distribution of leaders of businesses, in 2007

	Women	Men
EU-27	32.3	67.7
Belgium	30.8	69.2
Bulgaria	30.1	69.9
Czech Republic	27.6	72.4
Denmark	26.2	73.8
Germany	29.8	70.2
Estonia	31.9	68.1
Ireland	21.1	78.9
Greece	28.7	71.3
Spain	34.9	65.1
France	39.2	60.8
Italy	35.0	65.0
Cyprus	9.7	90.3
Latvia	34.2	65.8
Lithuania	32.1	67.9
Luxembourg	22.3	77.7
Hungary	28.9	71.1
Malta	12.3	87.7
Netherlands	27.5	72.5
Austria	31.9	68.1
Poland	35.0	65.0
Portugal	32.1	67.9
Romania	27.1	72.9
Slovenia	25.7	74.3
Slovakia	29.5	70.5
Finland	17.4	82.6
Sweden	24.5	75.5
United Kingdom	33.2	66.8

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

NB: Leaders of businesses covers ISCO (International Standard Classification of Occupations) categories 121 (Directors and chief executives) and 13 (Managers of small enterprises).

For MT and CY: data lack reliability due to small sample size.

FR: the figures exclude Directors and CEOs for which data are not available.

Sex distribution of members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies in 2008

	Women	Men
EU-27	11	89
Belgium	7	93
Bulgaria	12	88
Czech Republic	13	87
Denmark	17	83
Germany	13	87
Estonia	8	92
Ireland	8	92
Greece	6	94
Spain	8	92
France	9	91
Italy	4	96
Cyprus	3	97
Latvia	16	84
Lithuania	16	84
Luxembourg	3	97
Hungary	16	84
Malta	4	96
Netherlands	14	86
Austria	6	94
Poland	10	90
Portugal	3	97
Romania	12	88
Slovenia	18	82
Slovakia	18	82
Finland	20	80
Sweden	26	74
United Kingdom	12	88

Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data have been collected in October 2008. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Indicators for the candidate countries in 2007									
	Turkey			Croatia			FYROM		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
Activity rate (15-64)	26.1	74.4	48.3	56.4	70.4	14	50	75.4	25.4
Employment rate (15-64)	23.8	68	44.2	50	64.4	14.4	32.1	49.1	17
Employment rate of older workers (55-64) (1)	16.5	43	26.5	24.2	48.4	24.2	28.3	47.8	19.5
Unemployment rate 25-74 (2)	6.1	6.9	0.8	9.4	6.8	-2.6	35.7	34.9	-0.8
Unemployment on population aged 15-24	3.9	8.5	4.6	8.4	8.3	-0.1	54.9	56.4	1.5
Share of part-time workers	19.7	4.9	-14.8	11.3	6.4	-4.9	:	:	:
Share of employees with temporary contracts	12.4	12.6	0.2	13.2	12.2	-1	:	:	:
Educational attainment (upper secondary school, 20-24)	40	54.2	14.2	96.1	94.6	-1.5	:	:	:
Share of members of national parliaments (3)	9	91	-	22	78	-	31	69	-
Share of members of senior ministers of national governments(3)	4	96	-	22	78	-	9	91	-
Share among members of boards of top quoted companies(3)	9	91	-	12	88	-	9	91	-

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2007 except for FYROM for which the source is Labour force survey 2007 (2nd quarter) – Republic of Macedonia – State Statistical office (News release September 2008, n°2.1.8.29).

The gender gap is always calculated as the value for men minus the value for women.

(1) For FYROM, the employment rate is calculated among persons 50-64 (and not 55-64).

(2) For FYROM, the unemployment rate is calculated among persons 15-64 (and not 25-74).

(3) Source: European Commission, Employment, Social affairs and Equal opportunities DG, Database on Women and Men in Decision making. Data collected in October 2008.

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