

# Gender Equality Index 2015

Measuring gender equality  
in the European Union 2005-2012

## Report



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# Gender Equality Index 2015

Measuring gender equality in the European Union 2005-2012



# Slight advances on the way to gender equality

Gender equality has been at the heart of European Union (EU) policymaking since the inclusion of the principle of equal pay in the Treaty Establishing the European Economic Community in 1957. Despite the European Union's persistent and longstanding engagement with gender equality, progress in the area remains limited. Aiming to support more effective policymaking at EU level, the European Institute for Gender Equality developed the Gender Equality Index, first proposed in the European Commission's 'Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men 2006–10' and launched in 2013. The first Gender Equality Index revealed that the EU was only halfway towards reaching equality, demonstrating the need for further monitoring and more targeted gender equality policies.

The Gender Equality Index provides a comprehensive measure of gender equality, tailored to fit the EU policy context. Following the importance of cohesion across EU Member States, the Gender Equality Index ensures that higher gender equality scores can only be obtained in societies where there are small gender gaps and high levels of achievement.

I am proud to say that the present update includes scores for 2005, 2010 and 2012, for the first time allowing for an assessment of the progress made in the pursuit of gender equality in the European Union and individual Member States over time. Moreover, the present update makes a first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence by providing a composite indicator of direct violence against women, based on the data on violence against women collected by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights through the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women.

The results of the Gender Equality Index show that there have been visible, albeit marginal, improvements between 2005 and 2012 in the domains covered by the Gender Equality Index. With an overall score of 52.9 out of 100 in 2012, the EU remains only halfway towards equality, having risen from 51.3 in 2005. Progress needs to increase its pace if the EU is to fulfil its ambitions and meet the Europe 2020 targets.

The domains of time and power are particularly challenging. The unequal distribution of time between women and men when it comes to unpaid caring and domestic activities remains prevalent, as does men's over-representation

in all areas of decision-making, despite marked improvements in the political sphere.

The most pronounced, although marginal, improvements are evident in the domains of work and money, reflecting the EU's focus on economic and labour market policy. In order to reach gender equality and enable smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, a policy approach going beyond labour market and economic policy to include other key areas is therefore crucial.

The first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence indicates that violence against women is a persistent issue in the European Union that necessitates regular data collection to provide the foundation for reliable statistical assessments and to enable better and more effective policymaking.

The next update of the Gender Equality Index in 2017 will provide a more detailed assessment of the domain of intersecting inequalities. While this constitutes a challenging endeavour, since the intersections of different inequalities are highly complex and data are scarce, it is nevertheless an important area. Understanding the factors that underlie persistent gender inequalities can facilitate more targeted policymaking, able to account for the differences within groups of women and men.

On behalf of the Institute and its team, I would like to thank all institutions and experts who contributed to the first update of the Gender Equality Index, and especially to the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA); the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound); EIGE's Working Group on the Gender Equality Index; European Commission, in particular the Gender Equality Unit at the Directorate-General for Justice, Consumers and Gender Equality and Eurostat; and my colleagues at EIGE.

We firmly believe that the Index will continue to give impetus for broader debates on the challenges we face in reaching gender equality in the European Union and will contribute to making it a reality for all.

**Virginija Langbakk,**  
Director

The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)



# Contents

Country abbreviations	5
Glossary	6
1. Introduction	7
2. Update of the Gender Equality Index	11
3. Gender gaps, levels of achievements and trends between 2005 and 2012	27
4. The Gender Equality Index between 2005 and 2012	75
5. The bigger picture: the Gender Equality Index in context	99
6. Measuring violence against women within the framework of the Gender Equality Index	119
7. Conclusions	141
8. Annexes	151
9. References	181

# Abbreviations

## Country abbreviations

<b>AT</b>	Austria
<b>BE</b>	Belgium
<b>BG</b>	Bulgaria
<b>CY</b>	Cyprus
<b>CZ</b>	Czech Republic
<b>DE</b>	Germany
<b>DK</b>	Denmark
<b>EE</b>	Estonia
<b>EL</b>	Greece
<b>ES</b>	Spain
<b>FI</b>	Finland
<b>FR</b>	France
<b>HR</b>	Croatia
<b>HU</b>	Hungary
<b>IE</b>	Ireland

<b>IT</b>	Italy
<b>LT</b>	Lithuania
<b>LU</b>	Luxembourg
<b>LV</b>	Latvia
<b>MT</b>	Malta
<b>NL</b>	Netherlands
<b>PL</b>	Poland
<b>PT</b>	Portugal
<b>RO</b>	Romania
<b>SE</b>	Sweden
<b>SI</b>	Slovenia
<b>SK</b>	Slovakia
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>EU-27</b>	27 EU Member States (before HR accession to the EU)
<b>EU-28</b>	28 EU Member States



## Glossary

<b>AHP</b>	Analytic hierarchical process	<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organization
<b>CIA</b>	Central Intelligence Agency	<b>IPU</b>	Inter-Parliamentary Union
<b>CoE</b>	Council of Europe	<b>IPV</b>	Intimate partner violence
<b>CSO</b>	Civil society organisation	<b>ISCED</b>	International Standard Classification of Education
<b>EC</b>	European Commission	<b>MP</b>	Member of Parliament
<b>EC WMID</b>	European Commission Women and Men in Decision-Making database	<b>MS</b>	Member State
<b>EC-DG Justice</b>	European Commission Directorate- General for Justice	<b>NACE</b>	Nomenclature générale des activités économiques dans les Communautés européennes (General industrial classification of economic activities within the European Communities)
<b>ECJ</b>	European Court of Justice	<b>NEETs</b>	Young person who is 'Not in Education, Employment or Training'
<b>EHIS</b>	European Health Interview Survey	<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>EIGE</b>	European Institute for Gender Equality	<b>EU-OSHA</b>	European Agency for Safety and Health at Work
<b>EP</b>	European Parliament	<b>PCA</b>	Principal components analysis
<b>EPSCO</b>	Employment, Social Policy, Health and Consumer Affairs Council		Purchasing power standard, which is an artificial currency that accounts for differences in price levels between Member States
<b>EU</b>	European Union	<b>PPS</b>	
<b>EU-LFS</b>	European Union Labour Force Survey	<b>SES</b>	Structure of Earnings Survey
<b>Eurofound</b>	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions	<b>TEC</b>	Treaty Establishing the European Community
<b>EU-SILC</b>	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	<b>TFEU</b>	Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union
<b>EWCS</b>	European Working Conditions Survey	<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>FRA</b>	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights	<b>UN Instraw</b>	UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
<b>FTE</b>	Full-time equivalent	<b>UNDP</b>	United Nations Development Programme
<b>GDP</b>	Gross domestic product	<b>UNECE</b>	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
<b>GGI</b>	Gender Gap Index	<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>GPG</b>	Gender pay gap	<b>WB</b>	World Bank
<b>EWCS</b>	European Working Conditions Survey	<b>WEF</b>	World Economic Forum
<b>HETUS</b>	Harmonised European Time-Use Survey		

# 1. Introduction

Gender equality is a matter of rights and fairness. As a fundamental value of the European Union, it is enshrined in its Treaties, including the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union and going back to the 1957 Treaty of Rome. It is concerned with ensuring that all individuals have the possibility to realise their full potential regardless of their sex and/or gender. It does not solely focus on equality of outcomes, but extends to equal dignity and integrity. Evidence also suggests that gender equality plays a significant role in enhancing economic and social growth (Loko and Diouf, 2009; Duflo, 2012). The strong positive correlation between the Gender Equality Index and the gross domestic product across EU Member States — as outlined in the first Gender Equality Index report — is only one example of this relationship (EIGE, 2013). To reach the objectives set by the EU in the Europe 2020 growth strategy, gender equality has to occupy a central place within political debates in Europe.

Measuring gender equality is an integral part of effective policymaking and supports the assessment of the outcomes of policy measures on women and men. Suitable statistics, data and measures are essential components of evidence-based policymaking and successful gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is not a goal in itself but a strategy to achieve equality between women and men. It is used to integrate gender concerns into all policies and programmes of the European Union institutions and Member States, as opposed to relying solely on measures specifically targeting gender equality. The Gender Equality Index can therefore contribute to the recommended systematic approach to the gender mainstreaming strategy advocated by the Employment, Social Policy, Health and Consumer Affairs Council (EPSCO) as an indicator to measure progress in gender equality (Council of the European Union, 2009a).

To assist with the measurement of gender equality at EU level — and in order to demonstrate the success of promoting gender equality in each Member State — the creation of a composite indicator on gender equality, a Gender Equality Index, as a common assessment tool was initially introduced by the European Commission in 'The Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men (2006–10)' and proposed in the 'Action Plan of the Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010–15)' that followed (European Commission, 2006; European Commission, 2010a).

The elaboration of the Gender Equality Index became one of the main assignments undertaken by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) in its first Mid-term Work Programme (2010–12) (EIGE, 2010), following its establishment in 2010. The Gender Equality Index was launched on 13 June 2013, at the Council of the European Union, during a high-level conference dedicated to its findings. With a total of six core domains and two satellite domains, it offered a synthetic and easy-to-interpret measure that addressed the complexity of gender equality. It made an assessment of the status of gender equality in the European Union possible and showed that the EU overall was only half way towards equality, emphasising the need for increased and more effective policy measures. The present report expands on these findings and for the first time enables a comparison not only across Member States, but also over time by providing scores for 2005, 2010 and 2012. It also provides — for the first time — results for Croatia, the newest Member State to join the European Union in the summer of 2013. Furthermore, the report takes an important step in measuring violence against women. By drawing on data collected by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) it explores the possibilities for computing a measure for violence against women; an area left blank due to a lack of data in the first volume.

## 1.1. What is the Gender Equality Index?

The Gender Equality Index is a composite indicator that provides a measure — across Member States and over time — of the complex concept of gender equality. It measures gender gaps within a range of areas relevant to the EU policy framework (work, money, knowledge, time, power, health, violence and intersecting inequalities), where the selection of domains is guided by a conceptual framework. The Gender Equality Index is formed by combining these gender indicators into a single summary measure. As such, the Gender Equality Index is a sophisticated tool that synthesises this complexity into a user-friendly and easily interpretable measure.

The Gender Equality Index provides a measure that captures gender gaps, while also taking into account the levels of achievement in each country or the overall situation of





a country in the policy areas considered in each domain. As such, the Gender Equality Index takes into account the context and the different levels of achievement of Member States, ensuring that a good score is the reflection of both low gender gaps and high levels of achievement. It is therefore both a measure of gender equality and social cohesion across the Member States. This is fully in line with the principle of gender mainstreaming, which aims at institutionalising a gender perspective into policies that seek to increase levels of achievement (or social cohesion across Member States) more generally.

## 1.2. The Gender Equality Index and its approach to gender equality

Gender equality is a complex and multi-dimensional concept. Furthermore, gender equality constitutes a normatively and politically controversial subject, with a diversity of meanings across Europe (Verloo and Lombardo, 2007). Gender equality is not defined consistently in EU policy documents and, although definitions attempt to be gender neutral, there is a general tendency to conflate gender equality with women alone. In order to reconcile different approaches to gender equality, the Gender Equality Index adopts a pragmatic definition: 'equal share of assets and equal dignity and integrity between women and men'.

The Gender Equality Index consists of a composite measure that relies on sex-disaggregated indicators to allow for a gender analysis of the situation across the EU and over time. Sex refers to the biological differences between individuals, most often connected to differences in reproductive organs and functions. Gender refers to a socially and culturally constructed order, underpinned by a division on the basis of sex, often in reference to reproductive abilities and roles resulting in a gendered distinction between the public and private spheres. Sex and gender are commonly positioned within a hierarchical binary structure, where power differentials are established and sustained by assigned different values to those classified as female/women/feminine and those classified as male/men/masculine. The binary construction of gender has been strongly criticised, with calls to recognise the fluidity of sex and gender spatially, culturally and over time (Butler, 1990). At its core is the recognition that there is great heterogeneity among and within groups, with more similarities than differences between women and men. Empirical work, particularly from a quantitative perspective, is often ill-equipped to question the pervasiveness of the

gender-binary system. Statistics can only capture information disaggregated by sex (sex-disaggregated data) but it remains necessary to interpret them from a more elaborate and critical gender perspective (gender statistics).

The Gender Equality Index measures gaps between women and men, where the form of equality considered is the equality in outcomes. Exceptions arise where it is necessary to consider the particularities of women or other groups, for example, in the context of violence or social exclusion where the focus is on protecting the integrity and dignity of individuals, and where certain groups are more at risk of discrimination. By opening up a debate on the division of time between women and men, it also draws on a transformative approach to gender equality. A transformative approach to gender equality refers to problematising gender relations in society. Its aim is to challenge how the world is gendered and implies a change in the lives of both women and men.

It is, however, not possible to focus solely on gender gaps without accounting for levels of achievement. In light of the economic crisis for example, gender gaps have greatly reduced across the EU in some areas. Unfortunately, this increase in gender equality does not reflect improvements in a country, but rather is a reflection of how the lives of both women and men have been negatively affected over the past few years (European Commission, 2013e).

## 1.3. Added value of the Gender Equality Index

The Gender Equality Index provides a synthetic measure of gender equality that is both easy to understand and to communicate. This tool can play an important role by supporting decision-makers in assessing how far a given Member State is from reaching gender equality. The use of the Gender Equality Index allows meaningful comparisons to be made between different policy areas. Last but not least, it gives visibility to gender equality by making it possible to measure its progress over time.

Other gender equality indices exist. However, the Gender Equality Index provides a more comprehensive framework of gender equality compared with other indices. Its structure is flexible, as it relies on a core index which can be complemented by satellite accounts. Such a system can thus allow for additional *ad hoc* analyses. In addition, it also benefits from the highly developed statistical system in the EU, with a wide breadth of indicators (26 in total). Because it can draw on high quality harmonised data at EU

level, it is also able to measure gender equality in a meaningful way and to minimise the impact of different cultural and societal understandings across Member States.

In line with the EU's framework on gender equality for both women and men, the Gender Equality Index adopts a gender approach rather than focusing on women's empowerment. Moreover, the Gender Equality Index benefited from the consultation process with the national statistical offices and with the experts from the national machineries of the EU Member States. Their contribution has determined an important added value to this Index.

A limitation of existing global gender equality indices is their lack of precision within narrower geographic areas. The Gender Equality Index therefore offers a tool that can better examine gender equality in the context of Europe and is also closely aligned with domains pertinent to EU policy, since it gives preference to indicators that are connected to targets and strategic documents.

## 1.4. Structure of the report

Section 2 outlines the updates made to the methodological and measurement framework in the process of updating the Gender Equality Index. It also revisits the measurement framework and methodology employed for its calculation.

Section 3 provides an overview of the gender indicators used in the Gender Equality Index, for the EU-28, as well as for Member States individually. It examines gender gaps and levels in each domain and presents the trends over time for the period 2005 to 2012 for each indicator.

Subsequently, in Section 4 the report provides a detailed breakdown of the Gender Equality Index scores for each country and the EU-28 for 2005, 2010 and 2012.

Section 5 explores how the Gender Equality Index relates to selected topics relevant to the EU policy framework. It then analyses and contrasts the explanatory power of two composite gender equality indicators — the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index — to measure gender equality in the EU Member States.

Section 6 presents results in the area of violence against women, based on the data released by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights through its EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women. Results are contextualised at the level of Member States using other relevant variables to better understand differences between Member States.

Finally, Section 7 summarises the main findings of the Gender Equality Index and presents the main trends and progress achieved over time in the EU in relation to gender equality.

This report is complemented by a set of Country Profiles which provide an overview of the Gender Equality Index scores and indicators used to build it for each Member State, along with selected key contextual data at national level.

## 1.5. Summary

This section has provided the background and foundations of the work undertaken with the Gender Equality Index and has outlined the structure of the report. It briefly set out the pragmatic definition guiding the work on the Gender Equality Index and the approaches to gender equality that underpin it. The report now turns to an overview of how the Gender Equality Index is calculated, including the methodological and measurement updates that were made since it was first launched in 2013.

## 2. Update of the Gender Equality Index

The Gender Equality Index aims at providing a tailor-made measure of gender equality that is easy to understand and to communicate. This measure should allow for meaningful comparisons between different domains of gender equality, across Member States and over time. Finally, it should also provide a tool to support decision-makers in assessing the situation across the EU.

Several composite indicators of gender equality have been developed internationally, a full review of which is available in the first report on the Gender Equality Index. The Gender Equality Index adds value to policymaking and measuring gender equality in a number of ways. It is based on the policy framework of the European Union and maps the key policy areas relevant to gender equality. It thus relies on data that are pertinent to the European context. It employs a gender equality perspective, treating gaps between women and men equally instead of taking a women's empowerment perspective, although it recognises that the gaps and the power relations underlying them affect women in a different way.

The Gender Equality Index, at the outset, relies on a conceptual framework that maps key gender equality issues within the EU policy framework. It is based on a hierarchical structure consisting of domains and sub-domains, an outline of which is presented below.

Its update is a challenging exercise. In 2013, the first Gender Equality Index was built specifically in a way that could safeguard comparability. Comparability needs to be maintained while at the same time ensuring quality, robustness and consistency with the framework. In the process of updating the Gender Equality Index, minor adjustments have been made to the metric employed for its calculation. An overview of the methodology, including the small changes implemented, is provided in this section. In addition, data availability and conceptual concerns made it necessary to modify the measurement framework of the Gender Equality Index in the domain of work, and more specifically in the area of quality of work. These changes in the framework are also outlined in this section, first from a conceptual viewpoint, followed by how it is operationalised into a measurement framework and complemented by an assessment of the impact it has on the scores at different levels.

### 2.1. Conceptual framework of the Gender Equality Index

The Gender Equality Index adopts a gender perspective that reflects EU policy concerns and embraces different theoretical approaches to gender equality, drawing on both an equality approach and a transformative one. The scores of the Index reflect this position and provide information on gender gaps, instead of on the specific position of women and men individually. It is therefore not possible to derive information about either women or men from the scores. Not losing sight of the overwhelmingly disadvantaged position of women throughout society, it is however imperative that EU decision-makers engage in a reflective process of how to make gender equality a reality for both women and men.

The choice of domains was guided by in-depth reviews of key gender equality policy documents at EU and international level (such as the European Commission's Women's Charter 2010, the European Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010–15, the Council of the European Union Pact for Gender Equality 2011–20, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women or the Beijing Platform for Action), theoretical equality frameworks at international level and relevant literature on gender equality.

The structure of the conceptual framework of the Gender Equality Index consists of eight domains (Figure 2.1), the first six (work, money, knowledge, time, power, health) being combined into a core index, complemented by an additional two satellite domains (violence and intersecting inequalities). The satellite domains are conceptually related to gender equality, but cannot be included in the core index because they measure an illustrative phenomenon — that is, a phenomenon that only applies to a selected group of the population. This occurs when considering issues that are related to women only, for instance in the case of violence against women, or when examining gender gaps among specific population groups (people with a disability, lone parents, etc.).



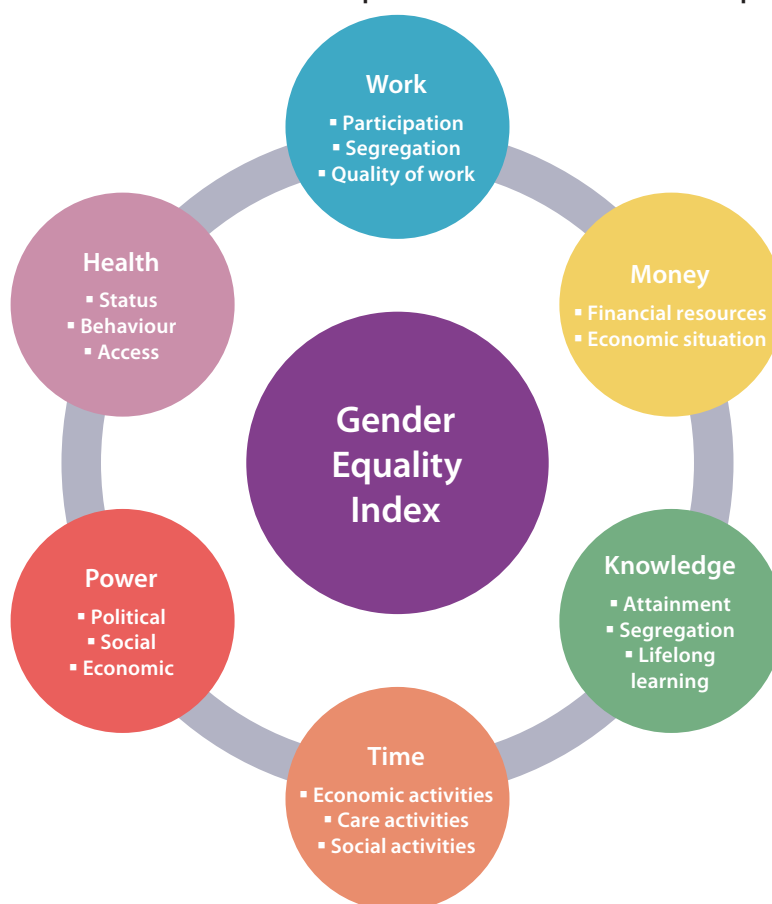
Figure 2.1. Domains of the Gender Equality Index



Each domain is further divided into sub-domains. These sub-domains cover the key issues within the respective thematic areas. A full conceptual framework is provided in

the first report of the Gender Equality Index (EIGE, 2013) and an outline of its main components is provided in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2. Domains and sub-domains of the conceptual framework: Core Gender Equality Index



## 2.2. Methodological overview

This section provides an overview of the methodology steps used to build the Gender Equality Index. Full details are available from the first Gender Equality Index report (EIGE, 2013). The Gender Equality Index is a synthetic indicator obtained when individual indicators are compiled into a single measure on the basis of a multidimensional concept. The Gender Equality Index relies on three essential components: a transparent and solid methodology, sound statistical principles and statistical coherence within the theoretical framework. It uses the 10-step methodology on building composite indicators developed by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (Nardo et al., 2008).

### 2.2.1. Indicator selection

The initial indicators for the Gender Equality Index were selected on a theoretical basis, from among over 200 variables available from different sources including Eurostat, the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) and DG Justice and Consumers (DG Justice). These variables have different time and country coverage and target populations, and are derived from data collected for different purposes. The variables focus on individuals, rather than on institutions or countries (for example, it is possible to include 'healthy life years', but not 'health care expenditure'). Furthermore, they consist of outcome variables that measure current status as opposed to process or input variables (for example, 'time spent on care activities', but not 'provision of childcare services').

In addition, strict data quality criteria are applied. Data need to be accessible, updated, comparable over time and available for all EU Member States. Moreover, data are required to have no more than 10 % of missing data points, with preference given to the indicators developed in the framework of the Beijing Platform for Action and endorsed by the Council of the EU or Europe 2020 indicators.

Resulting from this process, variables were selected and included as indicators in the Gender Equality Index. This update presents the situation in the EU on average and in all 28 Member States in 2005, 2010 and 2012. Data were available for most indicators for all Member States, as well as across time. Due to the recent accession of Croatia in 2013, data for the EU-28 were missing for 2005 in some cases and were replaced with the EU-27 average, where necessary (Table 2.1).

As the Gender Equality Index relies on data from various sources, availability of data across time can be an issue. Although data were available for most variables in the years considered, they could not be retrieved in two domains. Most notably, data for all indicators in the domain of time were available for 2005 and 2010 only, as they are retrieved from Eurofound's Working Conditions Survey, conducted every 5 years. In addition, the first indicator in the domain of money — mean hourly earnings — is retrieved from Eurostat's Structure of Earnings Survey, which was first conducted in 2006 and is set to be repeated every 4 years. Therefore, data were only available for 2006 and 2010. Finally, data for the share in regional assemblies is unavailable for 2005 and has been omitted from the calculation.

**Table 2.1. Data availability by indicator, 2005–12**

Indicator (X)	Periodicity	Data available	Total available	Notes on the missing data	Source
Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate (% , 15+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Duration of working life (years)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	-	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment in 'Education', 'Human health and social work activities' (% , 15–4 employed)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	-	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Working to tight deadlines (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey



Indicator (X)	Periodicity	Data available	Total available	Notes on the missing data	Source
Mean monthly earnings — NACE Rev. 2, categories B-S excluding O, 10 employees or more (PPS)	Every 4 years	2006, 2010	Yes	EU-28, EU-27 used; HR for 2006, 2010 data used	Eurostat — Structure of Earnings Survey
Mean equivalised net income (PPS, 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	No	EU-28, average calculated; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU Statistics on income and living conditions
Not at-risk-of-poverty, $\geq 60$ % of median income (% , 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU Statistics on income and living conditions
S20/S80 income quintile share (% , 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU Statistics on income and living conditions
Graduates of tertiary education (% , 15–74 population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Tertiary students in the fields of 'Education', 'Health and welfare', 'Humanities and arts' (ISCED 5-6) (% , tertiary students)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	LU for 2005 and 2010, 2011 data used; FR for 2005, 2006 data used	Eurostat — Unesco/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) questionnaires on educational statistics
People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (% , 15–74 population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for 1 hour or more (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for 1 hour or more (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (% , 15+ workers)	Every 5 years	2005, 2010	Yes	-	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Share of ministers (% , 18+ population)	Quarterly	2005, 2010, 2012	n/a	HR for 2005, 2007 data used	DG Justice — Women and men in decision- making
Share of members of Parliament (% , 18+ population)	Quarterly	2005, 2010, 2012	n/a	HR for 2005, 2007 data used	DG Justice — Women and men in decision- making
Share of members of regional assemblies (% , 18+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	n/a	2005 unavailable and omitted	DG Justice — Women and men in decision- making
Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies (supervisory board or board of directors) (% , 18+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	n/a	HR for 2005, 2007 data used	DG Justice — Women and men in decision- making
Share of members of central bank (% , 18+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	n/a	HR for 2005, 2007 data used	DG Justice — Women and men in decision- making

Indicator (X)	Periodicity	Data available	Total available	Notes on the missing data	Source
Self-perceived health, good or very good (% 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	HR for 2012, 2011 data used; EU-28 for 2005, EU27 used; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	No	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used	EU — Statistics on income and living conditions combined with Eurostat's demographic statistics
Healthy life years in absolute value at birth (years)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	No	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	EU — Statistics on income and living conditions combined with Eurostat's demographic statistics
Population without unmet needs for medical examination (% 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
Population without unmet needs for dental examination (% 16+ population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	EU-28 for 2005, EU-27 used; BG for 2005, 2006 data used; HR for 2005, 2010 data used; RO for 2005, 2007 data used	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
Employment of people born in a foreign country (% 15–64 corresponding population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	BG for 2012, 2013 data used; RO 2012, 2010, 2005, omitted; IE for 2005, omitted; HR for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment of country nationals (% 15–64 corresponding population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	BG for 2005, omitted; HR for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment of people aged 55–64 (% 55–64 population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	Data were calculated based on microdata by EIGE; MT for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment of people aged 15–54 (% 15–54 population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	Data were calculated based on microdata by EIGE; MT for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and one or more children (% 15–64 corresponding population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	CY men for 2012, omitted; MT men for 2010, omitted; DK, IE, SE for 2005, omitted; HR, CY, MT men for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and no children (% 15–64 corresponding population)	Annual	2005, 2010, 2012	Yes	DK, IE, SE for 2005, omitted	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Physical violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women
Sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women
Sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women





Indicator (X)	Periodicity	Data available	Total available	Notes on the missing data	Source
Psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women
Physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women
Sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide Survey on violence against women
Sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women)	One-off	2012	n/a	-	FRA — EU-wide survey on violence against women

## 2.2.2. Metric and computation

To calculate the Gender Equality Index, an initial metric was developed. It considers the position of women and men to each other, computing the ratio of the value for women to the average value, subtracting 1 and taking the absolute value. This produces a score bound between 0 and 1 which stands for the distance between women, or equivalently men, to the equality point, regardless of their representation in the population. This means that a gender gap where women are at a disadvantage compared to men (for example regarding earnings) is treated in the same way as a gap where men are at a disadvantage (for example educational attainment in third-level education). This metric is expressed in the following way:

$$Y_{(X_{it})} = \left| \frac{\tilde{X}_{it}^w}{\tilde{X}_{it}^a} - 1 \right| \quad (1)$$

where the calculation is carried out for the indicator  $X$  for country  $i$  in the period  $t$ . This is a relative indicator with values that fall in the interval  $[0; 1]$ . The metric  $Y_{(X_{it})}$  identifies the gender equality point at 0. For reasons of interpretability, this indicator is reversed by taking:

$$1 - Y_{(X_{it})} \quad (2)$$



This yields values where 1 stands for complete gender equality, with any value below that indicating a proportional lack of gender equality in a given indicator, with full gender inequality at 0.

Subsequently, the Gender Equality Index takes into account the context and the different levels of achievement of Member States, ensuring that a good score is the reflection of both low gender gaps and high levels of achievement. For example, a good score needs to be reflective of both a low gender gap and a high level of participation in the labour market or education. It is usually calculated by taking the quotient of the distance for each Member State of its total level in a given indicator to that of the highest performing Member State in that same indicator. Since the calculation of the first Gender Equality Index, this measure has been modified by taking the values for the total population (weighted average) instead of the average between women and men (unweighted average).

Totals were available for most indicators, with the exception of the indicators 'life years at birth', 'healthy life years at birth' and 'mean equivalised net income', for which the average is used instead of the total. Correcting coefficients,  $\alpha_{(X_{it})}$ , are calculated according to the following formula:

$$\alpha_{(X_{it})} = \frac{\tilde{X}_{it}^T}{\max \tilde{X}_{it}^T} \quad (3)$$

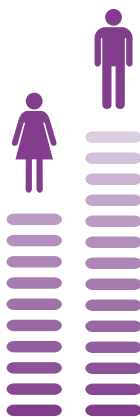




where  $\max \tilde{X}_{it}^T$  represents the maximum value of the total of each indicator, expressed in relative terms and reversed if necessary, observed across all Member States.

The final metric is obtained by multiplying the initial gap (equation 2) by levels of achievement (equation 3). For mathematical reasons (avoiding the presence of zeros which would impede possibilities to aggregate indicators, sub-domains and/or domains), the final metric is rescaled so that it is bound between 1 and 100. This final metric,  $\Gamma_{(X_{it})}$ , used in the calculation of the Gender Equality Index, can be expressed as:

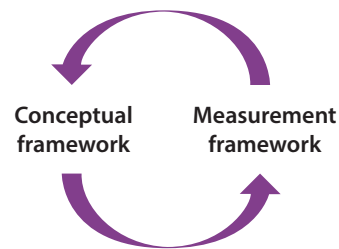
$$\Gamma_{(X_{it})} = 1 + [\alpha_{(X_{it})} \cdot (1 - \Upsilon_{(X_{it})})] \cdot 99 \quad (4)$$



In summary, the metric used is dimensionless (allowing comparability since measurement units of variables have been eliminated) and bound between [1; 100]. It satisfies the property of interpretability of each variable considered in terms of distance from the equality point, set at 100, and maintains comparability among indicators within each country.

### 2.2.3. Measurement framework

The indicators were selected on the basis that they conformed to a solid statistical structure. This is achieved by employing a multivariate analysis called a principal components analysis (PCA). The technique assesses the internal structure of the data and aims at providing statistical support to the conceptual framework by creating a measurement framework.



This initial analysis, resulting in the construction of the measurement structure of the Gender Equality Index, was concluded in late 2012, drawing on data from 2010, the latest year for which all indicators were available. The results of the multivariate analysis provided the final set of indicators, grouped into six domains, each further sub-divided into two sub-domains (resulting in a total of 12 sub-domains).

The comparison of the statistical structure of the data and the structure provided by the conceptual framework showed that the majority of sub-domains remained unchanged. Two sub-domains were left unmeasured, due to lack of data: the sub-domains measuring health behaviour and social power in decision-making, respectively. The sub-domain of time spent in economic activities was not included in the domain of time to prevent overlap with the domain of work that measures the participation of women and men in the labour market. Furthermore, indicators measuring segregation, in the domains of work and knowledge, are closely associated with other domains and were therefore merged with other indicators.

The comparison between the conceptual framework and this original measurement framework can be found in Table 2.2, and is complemented by the updated framework. The main conceptual and methodological reasons behind updating the framework, as well as their impact on the Gender Equality Index are the subject of the remaining part of this section.



**Table 2.2. Comparison of conceptual and measurement frameworks in the Gender Equality Index (original and updated structure, changes marked in bold)**

Domain	Conceptual framework	Measurement framework	Concept measured — original framework	Concept measured — updated framework
<b>Work</b>	Participation	Participation	FTE employment	FTE employment
			Duration of working life	Duration of working life
	Segregation	Segregation and quality of work	Sectoral segregation	Sectoral segregation
	Quality of work		<b>Flexibility of working time</b>	<b>Flexible personal/family arrangements</b>
			<b>Health and safety</b>	<b>Work intensity</b>
		<b>Training at work</b>	-	
<b>Money</b>	Financial resources	Financial resources	Earnings	Earnings
			Income	Income
	Economic situation	Economic situation	Poverty	Poverty
			Income distribution	Income distribution
<b>Knowledge</b>	Educational attainment	Educational attainment and segregation	Tertiary education	Tertiary education
	Segregation		Segregation	Segregation
	Lifelong learning	Lifelong learning	Lifelong learning	Lifelong learning
<b>Time</b>	Economic		-	-
	Care activities	Care activities	Childcare activities	Childcare activities
			Domestic activities	Domestic activities
	Social activities	Social activities	Sport, culture and leisure activities	Sport, culture and leisure activities
			Volunteering and charitable activities	Volunteering and charitable activities
<b>Power</b>	Political	Political	Ministerial representation	Ministerial representation
			Parliamentary representation	Parliamentary representation
			Regional assemblies representation	Regional assemblies representation
	Social	-	-	-
Economic	Economic	Members of boards	Members of boards	
		Members of central banks	Members of central banks	
<b>Health</b>	Status	Status	Self-perceived health	Self-perceived health
			Life expectancy	Life expectancy
			Healthy life years	Healthy life years
	Behaviour	-	-	-
	Access	Access	Unmet medical needs	Unmet medical needs
Unmet dental needs			Unmet dental needs	

Domain	Conceptual framework	Measurement framework	Concept measured — original framework	Concept measured — updated framework
Intersecting inequalities	Discrimination and other social grounds	Discrimination and other social grounds in employment	Employment rate of minorities and/or migrants	Employment of non-nationals vs nationals
			Employment rate of older workers	Employment of older workers vs workers aged 15 to 54
			Employment rate of lone parents/carers	Employment of lone parents vs single persons without children
Violence	Direct	Violence against women	-	Disclosed violence against women since the age of 15
			-	Disclosed violence against women over the 12 months prior to interview
	Indirect	Norms, attitudes, stereotypes	-	-

The measurement framework corresponds relatively well to the conceptual framework. Indicators measuring segregation have been merged with other sub-domains by the multivariate analysis in the domain of work (segregation together with quality of work) and in the domain of knowledge (segregation together with attainment). This suggests that a strong relationship exists between these issues (i.e. segregation and quality of work and segregation and educational attainment). As data covering the subdomains of social power and health behaviour continue to be unavailable, they are left unmeasured, as was already the case in 2010.

## 2.2.4. Calculation of the Gender Equality Index

Calculating the Gender Equality Index was based on a methodology aiming at eliminating as much subjectivity as possible, by computing the set of all potential indices, from which to select the most representative index. Different indices can be obtained through changing the ways in which indicators are imputed (estimation of missing data), aggregated (data are grouped according to the structure provided by the measurement framework) and weighted (assigns a relative importance to variables, sub-domains and domains). The selection of the best index was done by taking the one that was the most central, as measured by the median distance, among the 3 636 possible indices that were computed. The characteristics of the best index are given in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3. Characteristics of the Gender Equality Index**

	Variables	Sub-domains	Domains
Normalisation	Metric $\Gamma_{(\alpha_i)}$ by construction acts as a normalisation method		
Weighting	Equal	Equal	Analytic hierarchy process
Aggregation	Arithmetic	Geometric	Geometric



The aggregation relies on the arithmetic mean at the variable level, which means calculating the average in the usual sense of the terms. However, at sub-domain and domain level, the aggregation is done using the geometric mean, which minimises potential compensations between low and high values <sup>(1)</sup>.

The Gender Equality Index relies on experts' weights <sup>(2)</sup> at the domain level (Table 2.4), derived using a process called an analytic hierarchy process (which is based on ordinal pair-wise comparison of domains) and equal weights at the sub-domain and variable level.

**Table 2.4. Analytic hierarchy process weights used for the Gender Equality Index**

Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
0.19	0.15	0.22	0.15	0.19	0.10

Mathematically, it is expressed as:

$$I_i^* = \prod_{d=1}^6 \left\{ \prod_{s=1}^{12} \left( \sum_{v=1}^{26} w_v \Gamma(X_{idsv}) \right)^{w_s} \right\}^{w_d} \quad (5)$$

$i = 1, \dots, 28$   
 $d = 1, \dots, 6$   
 $s = 1, \dots, 12$   
 $v = 1, \dots, 26$   
 $w_v, w_s, w_d \in [0, 1]$   
 $\sum w = 1$

where  $I_i^*$  identifies the best Gender Equality Index for the  $i$ -th country.  $\Gamma(X_{idsv})$  is the metric described in (4) used at variable level ( $v$ ), sub-domain level ( $s$ ) and domain level ( $d$ ),  $w_v$  stands for equal weights computed at variable level and  $w_s$  for the weights at sub-domain level, while  $w_d$  stands for the experts' weights used at domain level and retrieved from the analytic hierarchy process.

However, since the scores range from 1 to 100 — where a score of 100 denotes full gender equality — the interpretation of the Gender Equality Index remains simple. For example, a score of 50 can be interpreted as halfway towards gender equality or 50 out of 100.

**Figure 2.3.**



Since the first Gender Equality Index, launched in 2013, other slight modifications have been made to the structure of how the Gender Equality Index measures quality of work. The remainder of this section outlines the rationale behind this change from a theoretical and measurement perspective, before providing the updated structure used by the Gender Equality Index.

## 2.3. Quality of work from a conceptual point of view

Despite the relative importance of the issue of quality of work in academia and in policy, particularly at EU level, the impact of gender on it has received little attention to date. Moreover, while discussions on how to measure quality of work have developed, these measures have not systematically been disaggregated by sex, nor has a gender analysis of these issues been provided.

<sup>(1)</sup> For example, the arithmetic average of two scores of 10 and 90 is 50. The value of the geometric average for the same scores is only 30, which means that it does not fully allow for compensations between the scores in different domains.

<sup>(2)</sup> The experts consulted consisted of members of EIGE's Working Group on the Gender Equality Index and EIGE's Expert Forum.

### 2.3.1. Concept: what is quality of work?

At EU level, the concept of quality of work is often captured in the catchy phrase ‘not only more jobs ... but also better jobs’. The focus on quality of work has gained in importance within the EU since the launch of the European Employment Strategy, although it has also gained prominence at the international level with the Decent Work Agenda developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2000; ILO, 2014).

However, defining quality of work is difficult because there needs to be an agreement on what the concept incorporates. The most commonly agreed standpoint is that quality of work constitutes a multifaceted concept that needs to be approached from several perspectives. The

concept remains a widely debated one, with different factors considered depending on the discipline that frames its analysis. From an economic perspective, a measure of quality of work can include working hours, as they relate to earnings and other time/financial benefits. The sociological approach tends to rely on ideas of prestige, autonomy and the use of skills. Lastly, assessments stemming from the discipline of psychology often focus on non-economic issues such as job satisfaction and well-being at work (Dahl et al., 2009). Thus, it is preferable to employ an interdisciplinary perspective which recognises the plurality of the concept and draws on each of these perspectives — including extrinsic, intrinsic and subjective measures — to analyse quality of work. The different factors that can be considered to represent a facet of the concept of quality of work have been compiled in Table 2.5.

**Table 2.5. Factors considered as part of the concept of quality of work**

Pay	Job security	Promotion	Gender equity
Fringe benefits	Job satisfaction	Training	Work intensity
Working time	Job content	Skills development	Representation
Work–life balance	Intrinsic job reward	Health and safety	Autonomy and control

Sources: Compiled from Davoine et al. (2008); Dahl et al. (2009); EIGE (2014b).

### 2.3.2. Quality of work or job quality?

Initially assessments in this area focused on quality of work and employment. More recently this has been complemented by an approach looking at the jobs instead. This

entails a shift in perspective from the outcomes of working conditions on individuals towards inputs. The conceptual work of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions illustrates this shift in perspective (Table 2.6).

**Table 2.6. Eurofound’s concepts of quality of work and job quality**

Eurofound (2002): quality of work	Eurofound (2012a): job quality
Career and employment security	Prospects (job security, career progression, contract quality)
Health and well-being	Intrinsic job quality (skills and autonomy, good social environment, good physical environment, work intensity)
Skills and competences	
Work–life balance	Working time quality

The aspects assessed by both approaches emphasise that they examine quality from two different perspectives. Examining quality of work allows for an assessment of issues such as well-being or economic development, whereas the focus on job quality allows for understanding

jobs themselves and ways of improving them (EIGE, 2014b). Due to the focus on individual outcomes within this report, the perspective adopted is that of quality of work rather than job quality.



### 2.3.3. Key trends in quality of work

Assessing whether quality of work has declined recently is an important question, in particular, in relation to the increase in the number of jobs created — many on a part-time basis — which may be of lower quality (Leschke et al., 2008). Concerns over a decline in quality of work relate to a changing landscape when it comes to economic and institutional factors (Dahl et al., 2009; EIGE, 2014b):

- The first notable trend is the profound demographic and societal changes that have taken place in the past few decades. This includes the feminisation of the labour force, the rise of the dual-earner household, as well as rising higher education levels for women and men, the growing migrant labour force, ageing population and falling fertility.
- The economic crisis which has been affecting Europe since 2007 can also play an important role; not least in parallel with increasing levels of globalisation and growing international competition. This can give rise to prolonged unemployment, job insecurity, greater work intensity and stress.
- Ways of working and how work is organised have also shifted dramatically. Recent years have seen a rise in self-directed work-teams, different employee involvement and task variety, greater autonomy and decreased physical effort. However, this also coincides with increases in incentive schemes, shift-work, pay-for-productivity and targets.
- Advances and changes in technology have also played a crucial role by shifting the skills requirements of many jobs and hence have created a mismatch between competencies and job requirements.

The polarisation between high and low skills is important to note, with two possible trends in thinking about increases or decreases in quality of work. There may have been an increase in jobs that provide low pay, security and advancement opportunities; however at the same time, there appears to have also been an increase in jobs that involve greater challenges, higher autonomy, increased pay and good working conditions (Dahl et al., 2009).

The factors incorporated in the multi-dimensional concept of quality of work are not gender neutral, nor are the key trends that may affect it. The feminisation of the labour force for example, as well as the rise of the dual-earner household can lead to work intensification and greater work–life balance issues for women. Another important aspect is the strong segregation of the labour force, which has been credited for heightening the differences in quality of work for women and men (European Commission 2009; EIGE, 2013).

It is therefore crucial to take into account the gender dimension of quality of work. The next section turns to an overview of how this is measured within the frame of the Gender Equality Index.

## 2.4. Measuring quality of work

The aim of this section is to operationalise a measure of gender equality and quality of work. It first presents the original framework before outlining the changes made. It concludes with a comparison the scores yielded by the two structures and shows the magnitude of the impact made by this change at the level of the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work, at the level of the domain of work and finally at the level of the Gender Equality Index.

### 2.4.1. Original framework

The Gender Equality Index is organised in a framework of six core domains (work, money, knowledge, time, power, health). The domain of work covers three key areas: participation, segregation and quality of work. Participation aims at capturing the differences between women and men in their working time and involvement over the life course, while segregation is concerned with the unequal representation of women and men across sectors and occupations. In line with the Eurofound (2002) framework, the Gender Equality Index originally considered, at the conceptual level, the following dimensions to measure quality of work: career and employment security; health and well-being; skills and competences and work–life balance.

To arrive at a measurement framework, variables were analysed using a multivariate analysis procedure (PCA or principal component analysis) in order to capture the latent correlation structure amongst variables of interest. The PCA finds natural groupings (factors or components) based on the correlations among variables. The difficulty resides in finding a suitable set of indicators forming together statistically coherent groupings that can be related to a common model: the conceptual framework.

This procedure yielded the measurement framework populated by a set of indicators provided in Table 2.7. The multivariate analysis identified participation as a stand-alone area, while it grouped segregation together with quality of work. While developing the original measurement framework, it was only possible to capture three elements of quality of work: flexibility of working time, representing a measure of work–life balance; health and safety; and finally training at work.

**Table 2.7. Original framework for the domain of work**

Domain	Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Work	Participation	FTE employment rate	Full-time equivalent employment (% , 15+ population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Duration of working life	Duration of working life (years)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Segregation and quality of work	Segregation	Employment in Education, Human health and Social work activities (% , 15–64 employed)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Flexibility of working time	Employees with a non-fixed start and end of a working day or varying working time as decided by the employer (% , 15–64 employed)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey ad hoc module
		Health and safety	Workers perceiving that their health or safety is not at risk because of their work (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — Working Conditions Survey
		Training at work	Workers having undergone training paid for or provided by their employer or by themselves if self-employed (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — Working Conditions Survey

Two data sources were used within this original framework: Eurostat’s Labour Force Survey (LFS), including the ad hoc module on reconciliation between work and family life, and Eurofound’s Working Conditions Survey (EWCS). All indicators refer to the year 2010. Nevertheless, there are difficulties in sustaining this framework because of concerns about the availability of data from the ad hoc module in the future. More specifically, relying on the LFS variable measuring flexibility is problematic since it was produced for the first time in 2005 and repeated in 2010, but will not be repeated until 2018. As a result, there is a need to change the measurement framework in the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work within the domain of work. The challenge is to arrive at an updated

measurement framework which is as complete as possible in terms of content, quality of measurement and sustainability over time.

#### 2.4.2. Development of the updated framework

The development of the updated framework also relied on the multivariate analysis (PCA). The process is used to find a structure of indicators that statistically support the conceptual framework. The results of the PCA are provided in Annex 3, and the resulting updated framework for the domain of work in Table 2.8.

**Table 2.8. Updated framework for the domain of work**

Domain	Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Work	Participation	FTE employment rate	Full-time equivalent employment (% , 15+ population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Duration of working life	Duration of working life (years)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Segregation and quality of work	Segregation	Employment in Education, Human health and Social work activities (% , 15–64 employed)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Flexible personal/family arrangements	Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — Working Conditions Survey
		Work intensity	Working to tight deadlines (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — Working Conditions Survey



The sub-domain of participation remains unchanged with both full-time equivalent employment rate and duration of working life included. As in the original framework, the PCA aggregates the areas of segregation and quality of work, suggesting that they share a common correlation structure.

The main differences lie in the indicators considered within the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work. Two new indicators – ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters and working to tight deadlines – are provided by the European Working Conditions Survey, which means that they should be available every 5 years (the next EWCS will be covering 2015).

### **Training at work**

Training at work, measuring the percentage of workers that have undergone training at work, is no longer included. This is primarily out of concerns over an overlap with the sub-domain of lifelong learning in the domain of knowledge, which relies on an indicator that captures the participation rate in education and training. This indicator combines both formal and non-formal education and training, including employer sponsored education and training (financed in total or at least partially by the employment and/or the use of work time for the purpose of education and training).

### **Work–life balance**

In addition, the LFS indicator measuring work–life balance has been replaced by an equivalent indicator from the EWCS: flexibility in the updated framework is measured by the percentage of workers that are able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters. As women and men divide their time in very different ways, also in relation to the different roles assigned to them by society, this area is highly gendered. Moreover, work–life balance is highly related to patterns of segregation, since for example, the ability to use flexible working hours is highly dependent on work sectors, with large proportions of women working flexible hours in certain sectors such as public administrations (European Commission, 2009).

### **Health and safety**

Another change in the domain of work is the replacement of the indicator measuring health and safety. The original indicator identified the proportion of workers that feel their health and safety is at risk because of their work. It has been replaced by an indicator that measures work

intensity, which provides data on the percentage of workers working to tight deadlines.

The conceptualisation of health and safety tends to be largely based on the model of men working in an industrial context, with the main risks associated with the (mostly physical) tasks carried out by men. The measurement of health and safety is therefore problematic because it ignores a number of areas.

Risk factors extend beyond physical risk and can include psychosocial ones. The trend towards greater flexibility in the labour market, with higher risk of unemployment and a sharp decrease in lifelong permanent employment (with women disproportionately involved in non-standard and/or precarious work), which may result in greater risk from stress and other psychosocial work-related risks (OSHA, 2013). Since women are more likely to be exposed to intense ways of work, while men are more at risk of factors such as noise, vibration, biological or chemical agents (Eurofound, 2012a), taking psychosocial risks into consideration is important.

Health and safety as a concept is often implicitly understood as more relevant to men given that their work is perceived to expose them to greater risk. Nevertheless, evidence suggests that the belief that women's work might be less physical or psychology demanding is a misconception (OSHA, 2013). For example, little is known about physical risks to women, such as for example lifting heavy loads in the nursing profession or exposure to chemical agents among hairdressers, among which women are over-represented. Worse, these aspects are often not considered at all.

Shifts in how work in the labour market and households is organised are also important to consider in the context of health and safety. The move from a manufacturing to a service-based economy is an important one because of the nature of the work that is being performed. As a result, there is lower emphasis on physical risks but psychosocial risks become more prominent. To some extent this also relates to changing ways of working, including the rise of technology, but also higher unemployment or changing forms of employment. The feminisation of the labour force is also an important element, since the lack of masculinisation of caring responsibilities puts women at a greater risk from a psychosocial perspective.

As a result, measuring work intensity was selected as a more relevant measure of gender equality of health and safety, particularly from a gender perspective. This can better recognise the impact of psychosocial risks, of gender biases in health and safety can be understood and of shifts in how the labour market and households are organised.



### 2.4.3. Updated scores for the domain of work

Assessing the impact that the changes in the framework for the domain of work can have on the scores of the

Gender Equality Index is an important step. Table 2.9 provides the scores for the domain of work and its sub-domains and the scores for the Gender Equality Index under both original and updated frameworks. (Table 2.9).

**Table 2.9. Comparison of scores in the domain of work — Original and updated structure, by Member States, 2010**

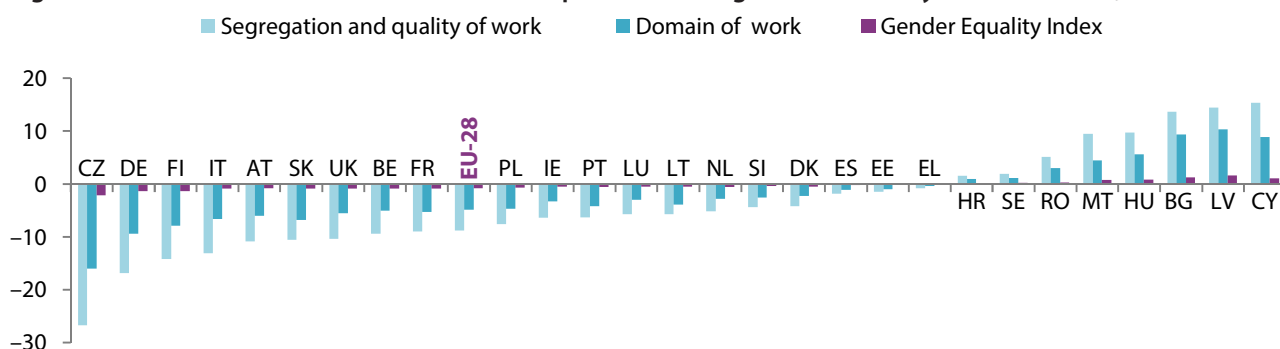
MS	Original				Updated			
	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Work	Index	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Work	Index
BE	68.6	62.2	65.3	59.2	68.6	52.8	60.2	58.3
BG	73.5	32.7	49.0	36.9	73.5	46.3	58.3	38.1
CZ	75.2	66.1	70.5	44.3	75.2	39.4	54.5	42.1
DK	87.5	73.9	80.4	73.2	87.5	69.7	78.1	72.7
DE	75.2	68.5	71.7	51.3	75.2	51.6	62.3	49.9
EE	82.7	47.8	62.8	49.8	82.7	46.3	61.8	49.7
IE	71.7	68.0	69.8	55.6	71.7	61.6	66.5	55.1
EL	64.6	54.1	59.1	39.9	64.6	53.3	58.7	39.8
ES	71.0	52.9	61.3	53.9	71.0	51.0	60.2	53.7
FR	75.8	59.2	67.0	56.8	75.8	50.2	61.7	55.9
HR	65.2	43.6	53.3	40.0	65.2	45.1	54.2	40.1
IT	56.5	63.4	59.9	40.5	56.5	50.3	53.3	39.6
CY	84.7	55.7	68.7	41.6	84.7	71.0	77.6	42.6
LV	80.6	32.8	51.4	43.7	80.6	47.2	61.7	45.3
LT	78.6	45.3	59.7	42.7	78.6	39.6	55.8	42.2
LU	69.3	62.5	65.8	50.6	69.3	56.8	62.8	50.1
HU	66.8	45.4	55.1	41.2	66.8	55.1	60.7	42.0
MT	52.3	55.1	53.7	41.7	52.3	64.5	58.1	42.4
NL	76.0	68.7	72.3	69.7	76.0	63.5	69.5	69.1
AT	77.3	68.9	73.0	49.9	77.3	58.0	67.0	49.1
PL	71.6	51.1	60.5	43.7	71.6	43.5	55.8	43.0
PT	83.0	49.9	64.4	40.7	83.0	43.6	60.2	40.1
RO	72.6	47.7	58.9	34.7	72.6	52.8	61.9	35.0
SI	80.5	57.3	67.9	55.3	80.5	52.9	65.3	54.9
SK	73.4	49.1	60.0	40.7	73.4	38.5	53.2	39.8
FI	86.0	76.2	80.9	72.8	86.0	62.0	73.0	71.4
SE	93.6	67.5	79.5	74.2	93.6	69.4	80.6	74.4
UK	78.3	73.1	75.6	59.8	78.3	62.7	70.0	58.9
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>61.9</b>	<b>67.1</b>	<b>53.2</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>62.2</b>	<b>52.4</b>



A comparative analysis illustrates the impact of the update of measurement framework for the domain of work. At EU level in 2010, the use of the updated structure for quality of work results in a decrease in the score for the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work from 61.9 to 53.1

points (down 8.8 points). Consequently, the score for the domain of work also decreases in a similar way from 67.1 to 62.2 (down 4.9 points). The overall impact on the Gender Equality Index is minimal, as it decreases from 53.2 to 52.4 (down 0.8 points).

**Figure 2.4. Difference in scores between the updated and original structure by Member States, 2010**



The change of structure has a minimal effect on the majority of Member States. Some of the most notable decreases in scores are observed for the Czech Republic, Finland and Germany although this equates to a loss of a few point at the level of the Gender Equality Index. On the other end of the spectrum is Latvia, which gains from the change of structure, although this only sums up to 1.6 points at the level of the Gender Equality Index (Figure 2.4).

area that needs to be monitored, particularly from a gender equality perspective.

Due to problems associated with the availability of indicators in the future, concerns about the comparability of the Gender Equality Index over time arose. Consequently, an updated framework was developed and presented in this section, along with a discussion of the differences with the original framework.

## 2.5. Summary

This section has presented the multidimensional nature of the concept of quality of work and the different debates that have informed the construction of the concept. It also outlined the key trends in quality of work that make this an

This updated framework allows for the computation of the Gender Equality Index, using a unified and hence fully comparable framework, at three different time points: 2005, 2010 and 2012. Full results are presented in Section 4, after a description of the main trends within the indicators used by the Gender Equality Index in the following section.

### 3. Gender gaps, levels of achievements and trends between 2005 and 2012

The Gender Equality Index provides a synthetic measure of the progress made in reducing gender gaps throughout EU Member States. The structure used for the Index — including the updates made to its measurement framework — have been summarised in the previous section (**Section 2**). A thorough overview of the conceptual framework, as well as the technical and methodological decisions inherent to the construction of the Gender Equality Index, is provided in the first Gender Equality Index report (EIGE, 2013).

This section presents the gender indicators used in the Gender Equality Index in the EU-28 and across Member States. Most of the indicators used remain the same as

in the first edition of the Gender Equality Index and thus complete definitions and frequencies of dissemination have been omitted, with the exception of the newly introduced indicators, as a full description is available in the first Gender Equality Index report (EIGE, 2013). This section examines gender gaps and the indicators used for the calculation of the levels of achievement in their original form in 2012 or the latest available year for all Member States (2010 in the case of indicators derived from the European Working Condition Survey or the Structure of Earnings Survey). It then provides an overview of the trends since 2005 at EU level for each indicator.



### 3.1. Work

The domain of work measures the extent to which women and men can benefit from equal access to employment and appropriate working conditions. These, together with the elimination of all forms of discrimination and segregation, allow equal access to economic resources and contribute to the elimination of poverty. The domain has been adjusted since the Gender Equality Index was first launched. While the conceptual structure and sub-domains remain the same (participation, segregation and quality of work), two indicators were replaced.

Participation is measured by two indicators: participation rates in employment in full-time equivalence (FTE) and duration of working life. The gender indicators measuring segregation and quality of work are aggregated into one sub-domain, due to the strong correlation between the sectoral segregation and working conditions indicators

identified during the multivariate analysis. This confirms the strong association between the two topics at conceptual level (European Commission, 2009; UNECE, 2014). Sectoral segregation is measured through the participation of women and men in the sectors of Education and Human health and social work activities. The indicators measuring quality of work include a measure of flexibility (workers' ability to take time off work for personal or family-related reasons) and work intensity (having to meet tight deadlines) (Table 3.1).

Vertical segregation is left unmeasured, since it is partly covered by the gender pay gap in the domain of money and the representation of women and men in the economic sphere covered by the domain of power. It is indeed methodologically essential to avoid overlaps in building composite indicators.

**Table 3.1. Measurement framework for the domain of work**

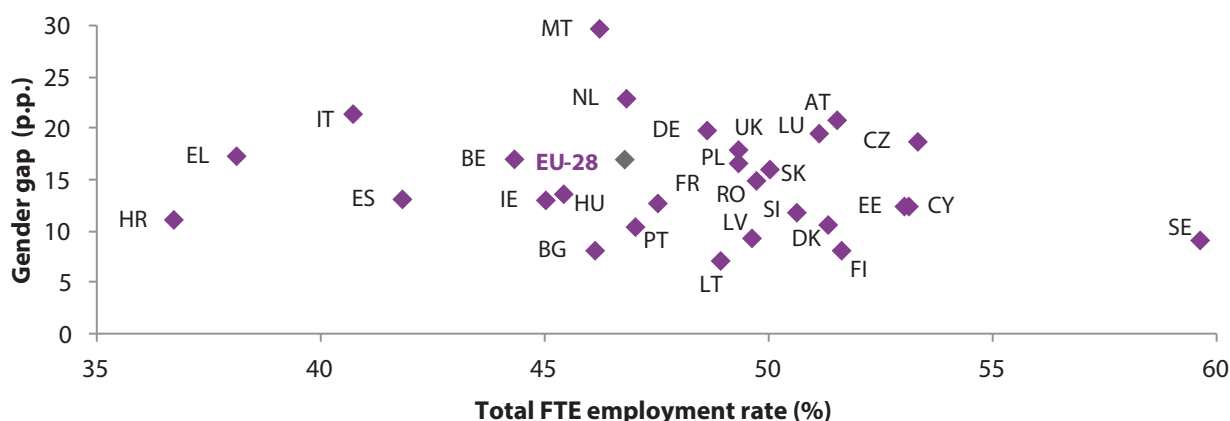
Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Participation	FTE employment rate	Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate (% , 15+ population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Duration of working life	Duration of working life (years)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
Segregation and quality of work	Sectoral Segregation	Employment in 'Education', 'Human health and social work activities' (% , 15–64 employed)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Flexible personal/family arrangements	Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
	Work intensity	Working to tight deadlines (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey

### 3.1.1. Full-time equivalent employment rate

The average gender gap in full-time equivalent employment rates of women and men over the age of 15 stood at 17 percentage points for the EU-28 in 2012. Across Member States it ranged from 7 percentage points in Lithuania to 30 percentage points in Malta, indicating considerable differences in relation to gender equality in full-time

equivalent employment across countries. Similarly, total levels of full-time equivalent employment achieved show substantial differences between Member States; with the highest level of FTE participation found in Sweden (60 %) and the lowest in Croatia (37 %).

**Figure 3.1. Gender gaps and full-time equivalent employment rate in EU Member States (15+), 2012**

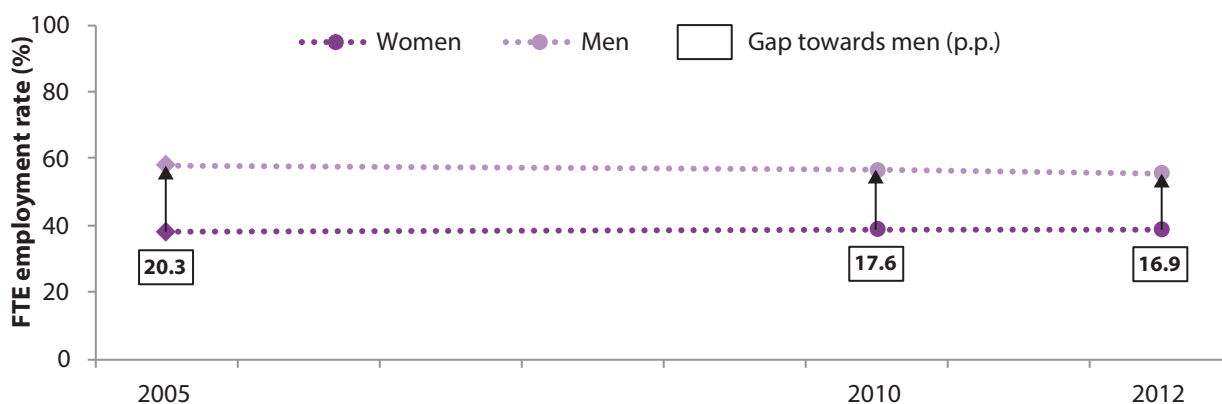


Source: Eurostat, LSF (data calculated by Eurostat at EIGE's request).

Full-time equivalent employment was systematically higher for men workers above the age of 15 in all Member States between 2005 and 2012, with an EU average of 56 % for men and 39 % for women in 2012 (Figure 3.2). Since 2005, the gender gap in full-time equivalent employment has decreased by 3 percentage points (from 20 p.p. in 2005

to 17 p.p. in 2012). The narrowing of the gender gap is due to a slight increase in women's and a decrease in men's FTE employment rate. Between 2005 and 2012, women's FTE employment rate increased by 1 percentage point (from 38 % to 39 %), while men's decreased by 2 percentage points (from 58 % to 56 %).

**Figure 3.2. Full-time equivalent employment by sex in the EU-28 (15+), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, LSF (data calculated by Eurostat at EIGE's request).

Note: Due to lack of data availability for the EU-28 in 2005, the EU-27 average was used.

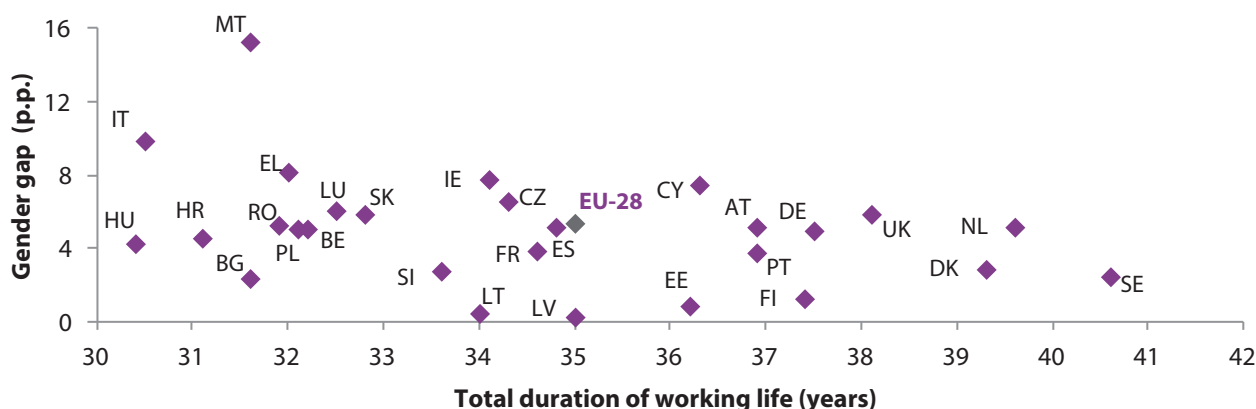


### 3.1.2. Duration of working life

With an average gender gap of 5 years, differences in women's and men's working lives were quite pronounced in 2012 (Figure 3.3). Gaps in the length of women's and men's working lives varied considerably, ranging from less than 1 year in Latvia to more than 15 years in Malta. The working lives of both women and men differed by less

than 10 years in most Member States. Average working lives varied considerably across Member States as well. While individuals in Hungary commonly participated in the labour market for 30 years, those in Sweden spent an average of 41 years working.

**Figure 3.3. Gender gaps and duration of working life in EU Member States, 2012**

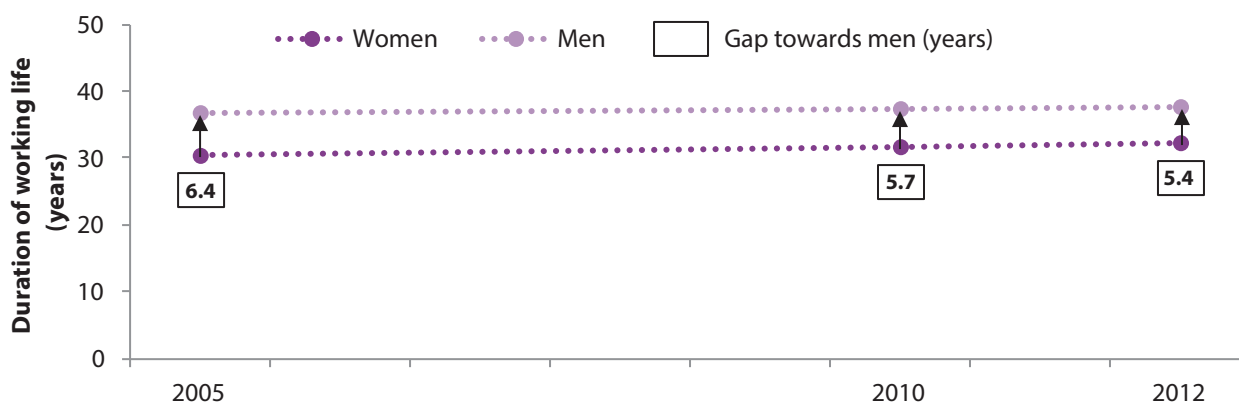


Source: Eurostat, LSF (lfsi\_dwl\_a).

The duration of both women's and men's working lives increased slightly between 2005 and 2012 (Figure 3.4). Since 2005, men's average duration of working life increased by about 1 year (from 36.7 to 37.6 years), while women's

working lives saw a slightly larger increase of about 2 years, from 30.3 years in 2005 to 32.2 years in 2010. As a result, the gender gap has narrowed slightly, decreasing by 1 year from 6.4 to 5.4 years for the EU-28 overall.

**Figure 3.4. Duration of working life by sex in the EU-28, 2005–12**



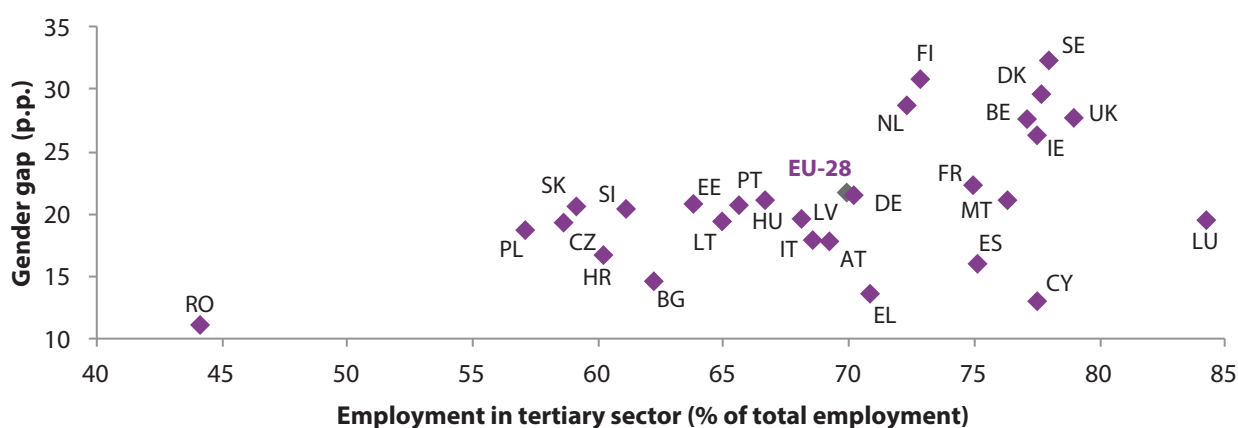
Source: Eurostat, LSF (lfsi\_dwl\_a).

### 3.1.3. Segregation

From 2005 to 2012, the sectors of ‘Human health and social work activities’ and ‘Education’ were the most women-dominated, with 30 % of women and 8 % of men employed in these sectors in the EU-28. This is reflected in a large gender gap of 22 percentage points between women and men workers aged 15 to 64 for the EU-28 and gaps ranging in size from 11 percentage points in Romania to 32 percentage points in Sweden (Figure 3.5). As this measure is concerned with gender segregation across

sectors, levels of achievement are not based on the indicator itself, but on the overall participation in the tertiary sector, as segregation patterns are linked to the labour market structure. The more developed the tertiary sector is in Member States, the more opportunities there are for segregation (Hakim, 1996; Charles and Bradley, 2002). Indeed, data show important differences across countries, with 44 % of workers employed in the tertiary sector in Romania and 84 % in Luxembourg.

**Figure 3.5. Gender gaps in employment in ‘Education’, ‘Human health and social work activities’ and employment in the tertiary sector in EU Member States (15–64), 2012**

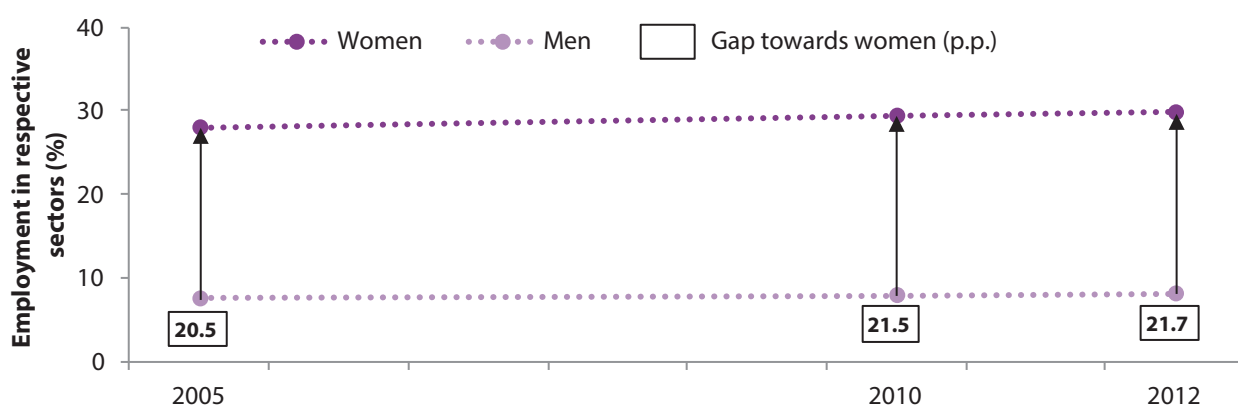


Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_egan2).

As this indicator is constructed based on women’s over-representation in these sectors, the gender gap of 21.7 percentage points in 2012 is not surprising in itself. However, it is worth noting the increase of the gap by 1.2 percentage

points between 2005 and 2012. While both women’s and men’s employment in the sector increased, the expansion of the gap is driven by a more substantial increase in women’s employment in the sectors considered (up 1.8 p.p.).

**Figure 3.6. Employment in ‘Education’, ‘Human health and social work activities’ by sex in the EU-28 (15–64), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_egan2).



### 3.1.4. Flexible personal/family arrangements

This is a new indicator, measuring flexibility as one aspect of quality of work. In order to do this, a gender indicator linked to work flexibility is used. Measuring work flexibility is crucial to account for the different ways in which women and men may need to organise their working time, particularly relating to the disproportionate share of care work and domestic work women commonly perform. Furthermore, flexibility has been linked to vertical and sectoral segregation (European Commission, 2009), as some sectors better support workers' work-life balance. Flexibility is measured by the ability of women and men to take a few hours off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters.

Indicator definition: Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (% , 15+ workers)

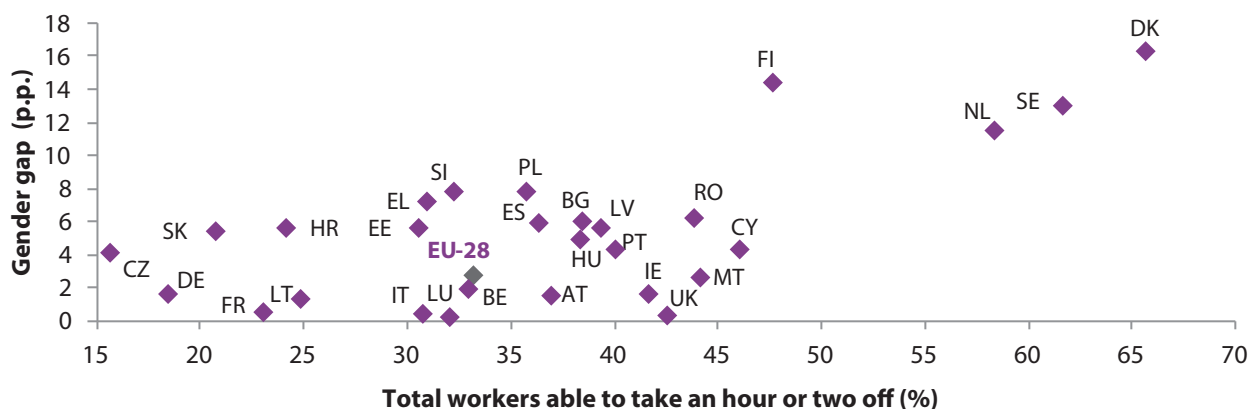
This indicator reflects the percentage of women and men in employment who responded with 'yes' to the statement 'Arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is not difficult at all' (Q43).

Data source: European Working Conditions Survey, Eurofound (Q43).

Periodicity: Every 5 years.

In 2012, women's and men's flexibility of working hours was close to equal in the EU-28 with a gender gap of three percentage points. At Member State level, gaps fall between 0.2 percentage points in Luxembourg and 16 percentage points in Denmark (Figure 3.7). Work flexibility differs substantially across countries. While only 16 % of workers in the Czech Republic feel they are able to take an hour or two off, more than half of workers in Denmark (65 %) experience this flexibility.

**Figure 3.7. Gender gaps and workers ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters in EU Member States (15+), 2010**



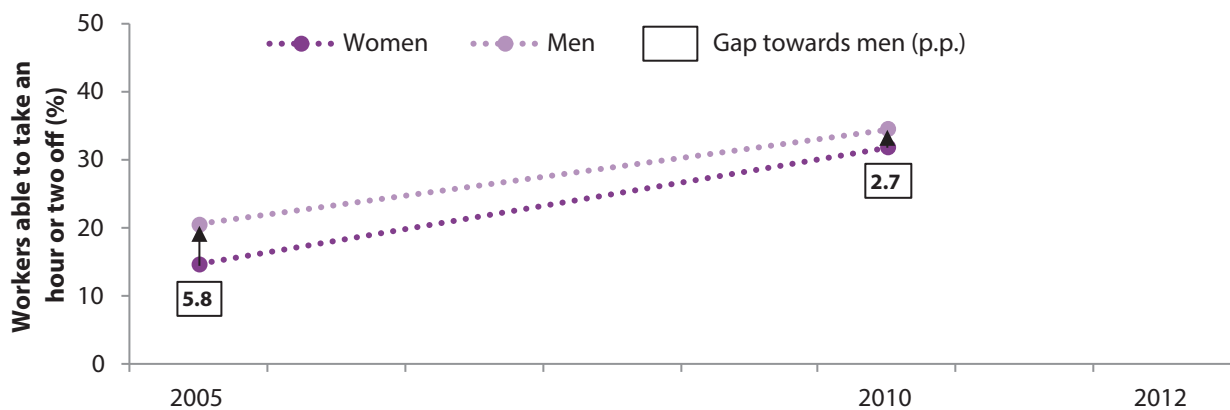
Source: Eurofound, European Working Conditions Survey (Q43).  
Note: As data from 2012 were not available, 2010 data were used.



Despite women being predominantly responsible for unpaid care and domestic work, men benefit from higher flexibility in the EU-28. In 2010, 32 % of women and 34 % of men indicated that they are able to take time off for family and personal matters. Studies have linked this pattern to sectoral segregation in the labour market, as women are often employed in sectors with lower flexibility (European Commission, 2009). From 2005 to 2010, the gender gap

has narrowed slightly — from 5.8 percentage points to 2.7 percentage points — and work flexibility has improved considerably for both women (up 17 p.p.) and men (up 14 p.p.). There are sizeable differences in the gender gap across Member States, with gender gaps of five percentage points in favour of women in Slovakia to 16 percentage points in favour of men in Denmark.

**Figure 3.8. Workers able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005–10**



Source: Eurofound, European Working Conditions Survey (Q43).



### 3.1.5. Working to tight deadlines

The fifth indicator is a new indicator aiming to assess work intensity based on the percentage of workers indicating that they are working to tight deadlines. It partly captures the issue of health and safety at work by assessing workers' exposure to psychosocial risks. It is an important facet to take into consideration, given the demographic and societal shifts that have taken place over the past decades; including new technologies, new ways of working and the rise of dual-earners households. Highly intensive labour effort is gendered as women are disproportionately involved in non-standard and/or precarious work, while men are most likely to hold higher — and at times more time-consuming — positions. Moreover, work intensity is linked with horizontal and vertical segregation, since it might be peculiar to certain sectors as well as positions. Working under constant pressure is a cause of major stress, which can lead to serious physical and mental health issues.

Indicator definition: Working to tight deadlines (%; 15+ workers)

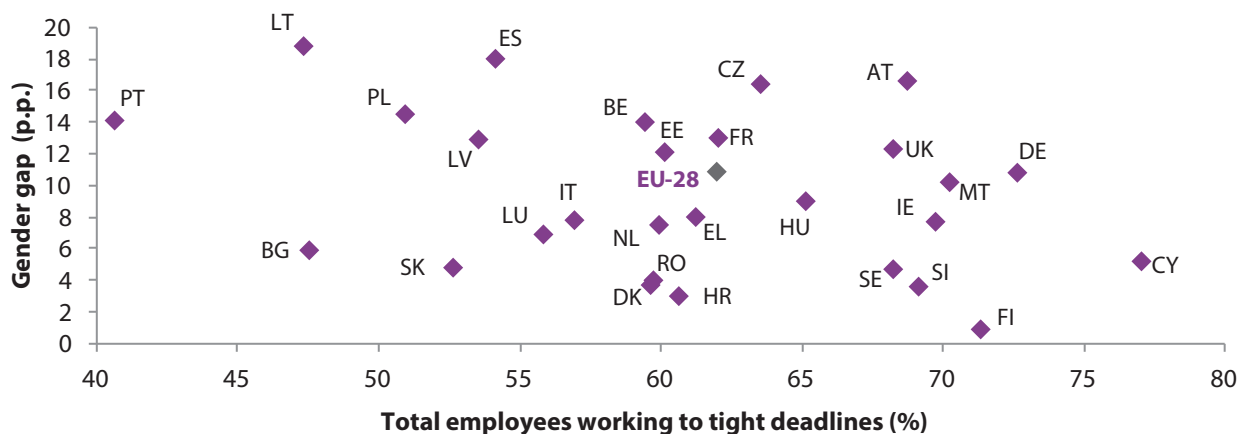
This indicator reflects the percentage of women and men in employment who responded with yes to the question 'Does your job involve working to tight deadlines?' (Q45b).

Data source: European Working Conditions Survey, Eurofound (Q45b).

Periodicity: Every 5 years.

In 2010, the gender gap for the EU-28 in work intensity was 10.9 percentage points on average (Figure 3.9). Across Member States, gender gaps vary in size, ranging from 0.9 percentage points in Finland to 18.8 percentage points in Lithuania. Work intensity is highest in Cyprus, with 77 % of workers indicating that they are working to tight deadlines, followed by Germany (73 %) and Finland (71 %). Work intensity and experiencing pressure at work in the form of tight deadlines is lowest for workers in Portugal (41 %) and workers in Lithuania (47 %).

Figure 3.9. Gender gaps and working to tight deadlines in EU Member States (15+), 2010

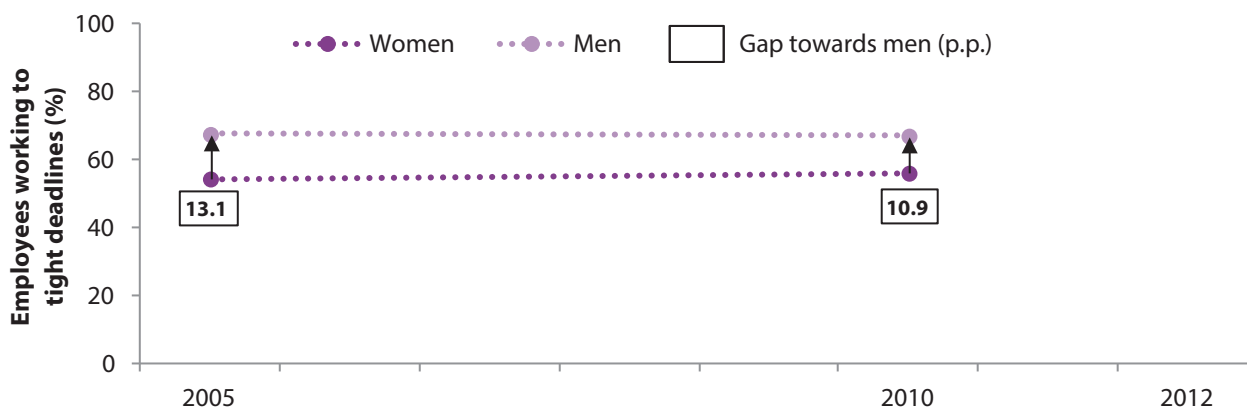


Source: Eurofound, EWCS (Q45b).

In 2010, 62 % of workers in the EU-28 were working to meet tight deadlines, with women workers being less likely (56 %) to experience intense working conditions than men (67 %). The gender gap narrowed by 2 percentage points between

2005 and 2010 and stands at 11 percentage points for the EU-28. The narrowing was mostly driven by an increase in the number of women workers experiencing tight deadlines at work, from 54 % in 2005 to 56 % in 2010.

**Figure 3.10. Working to tight deadlines by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005–10**



Source: Eurofound, EWCS (Q45b).

### 3.1.6. Key trends

The gender indicators used by the Gender Equality Index and presented in this section provide a description of gender issues relating to work. Gender gaps in full-time equivalent employment show the extent to which women and men differ in terms of labour force participation. Not only are women less likely to participate, but throughout all EU Member States, they also tend to work fewer hours when they do so and are likely to spend fewer years in work than men overall.

Gender gaps in sectoral segregation continue to be a prominent feature of the EU labour market, with women persistently representing a strong majority of those working in typically feminised sectors such as education, health services and social work.

Measuring the multiplicity of dimensions of quality of work is a difficult endeavour. The two indicators used show that men are more likely to face work intensity, and it is also men who are more likely to benefit from more flexibility at work. This needs to be understood from the perspective of a heavily segregated labour market, which contributes significantly to these gender differences.



## 3.2. Money

The second domain is money. Assessing the domain of money is important from a gender equality perspective, as ensuring women's and men's equal rights and access to financial resources is a prerequisite for reaching equal economic independence and for addressing the increasing feminisation of poverty specifically and growing income inequalities more generally.

This domain includes indicators that measure the gender gaps in the distribution of financial resources and regarding the economic situation of women and men. Each consists of two sub-domains, aligned with the conceptual framework. The first sub-domain — financial resources — is

measured by assessing the differences in monthly earnings between women and men, as well as gender gaps in equivalised net income. Due to the presence of various currencies across Member States, income and earnings are assessed in purchasing power standards (PPS), defined as an 'artificial currency' allowing to 'buy the same amount of goods and services in each country' (Eurostat, 2014c). The issues of poverty and unequal income distribution, the second sub-domain, are captured by indicators evaluating gender gaps relating to the population not at-risk-of-poverty and to the income quintile share ratio between the poorest and the richest parts of the population (indicators and data sources are presented in Table 3.2.).

**Table 3.2. Measurement framework for the domain of money**

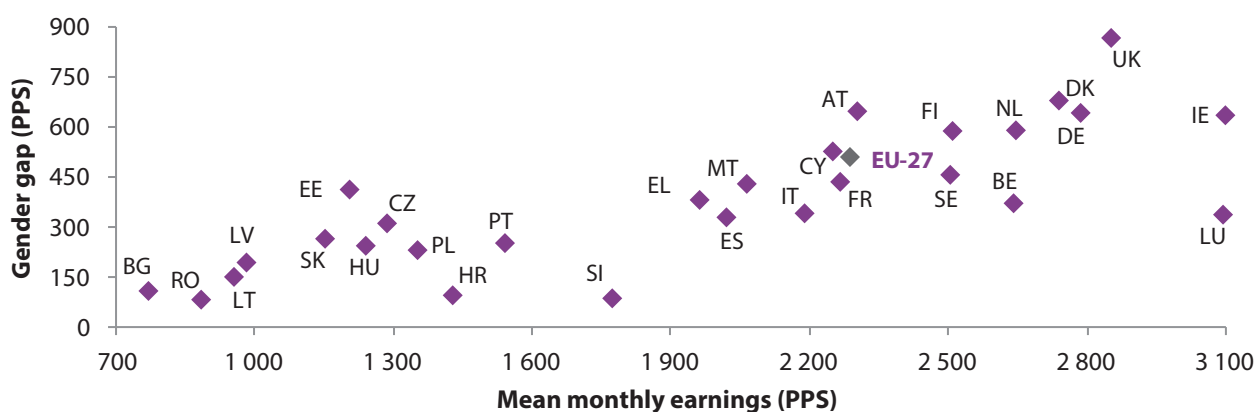
Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Financial resources	Earnings	Mean monthly earnings — NACE Rev. 2, categories B-S excluding O, 10 employees or more (PPS)	Eurostat — Structure of Earnings Survey
	Income	Mean equivalised net income (PPS, 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
Economic situation	Poverty	Not at-risk-of-poverty, $\geq 60$ % of median income (% , 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
	Income distribution	S20/S80 income quintile share (% , 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions

### 3.2.1. Earnings

With a gender gap in earnings of 510 PPS, gender differences in mean monthly earnings were small for the EU-27 on average in 2012 (EU-28 average unavailable). Yet, the size of gender gaps varied across Member States (Figure 3.11), with gaps in PPS ranging from 83 in Romania to 865 in the

United Kingdom. Furthermore, vast disparities in earnings exist between Member States. While people in Bulgaria earn 768 PPS per month on average, people in Ireland and Luxembourg earn roughly four times as much (respectively 3 097 PPS and 3 092 PPS).

**Figure 3.11. Gender gaps and mean monthly earnings (PPS) in EU Member States, 2010**

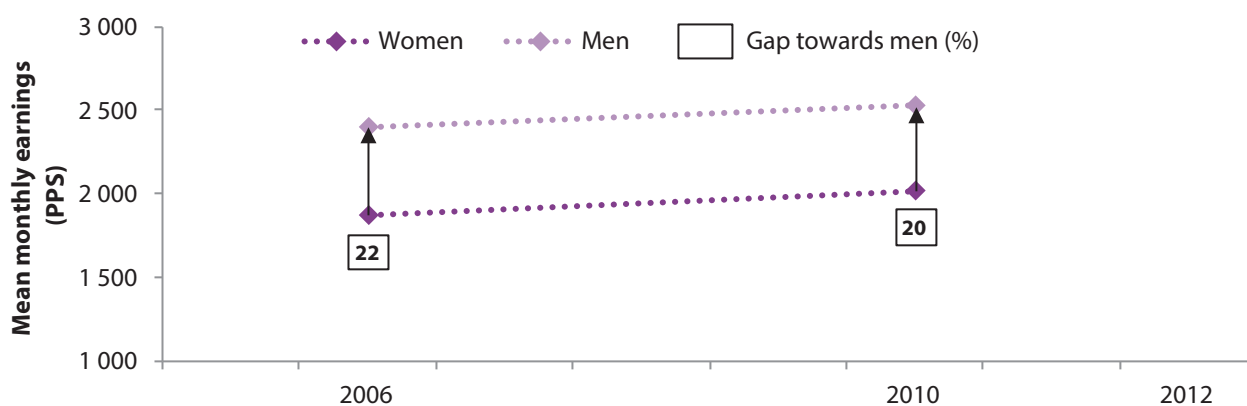


Source: Eurostat, SES (earn\_ses10\_20).  
Note: EU-28 average was not available for 2010, the EU-27 average was used instead.

On average, workers in the EU-27 earned 2 289 PPS monthly in 2010, with women on average earning less (2 018 PPS) than men (2 528 PPS). Between 2006 and 2010, the gender gap in mean monthly earnings has decreased, albeit slightly, from 22 % to 20 %; driven by a slightly more marked increase in women’s monthly earnings by 147 PPS compared with 129 PPS in men’s. The gender gap in mean

monthly earnings (20 % in 2010) is more pronounced than the unadjusted Gender Pay Gap (16 % in 2010) because it takes into account women’s greater propensity to work on a part-time basis. The unadjusted Gender Pay Gap, because it is based on mean hourly earnings, does not account for hours worked per week (Eurostat, 2014a).

**Figure 3.12. Mean monthly earnings (PPS) by sex in EU-27, 2006–10**



Source: Eurostat, SES (earn\_ses10\_20).  
Note: EU-28 average was not available for 2006 and 2010; the EU-27 average was used.

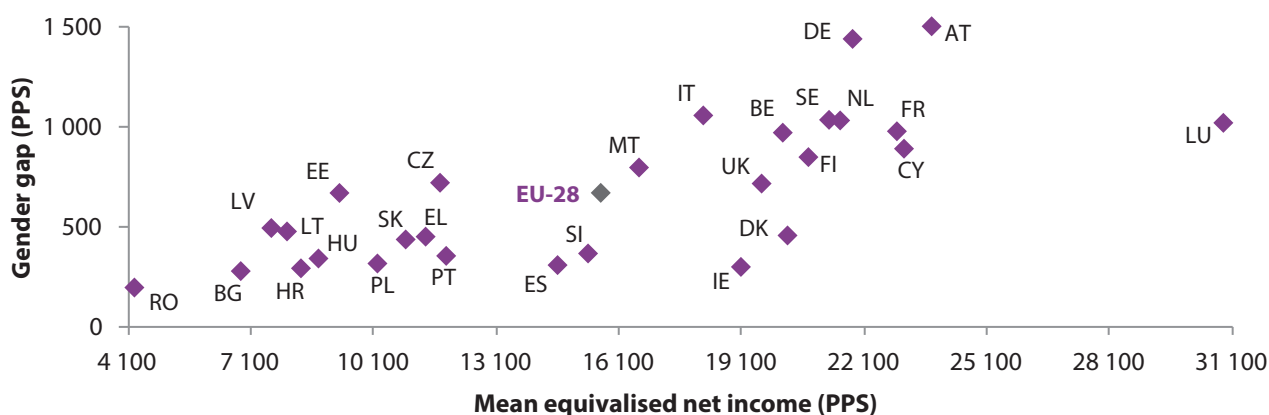


### 3.2.2. Income

With a gender gap of 667 PPS in mean equivalised net income in relation to an average income of 15 651 PPS, the EU-28 is considerably closer to reaching gender equality (Figure 3.13). Nevertheless, this measure is imperfect in the sense that it considers income at the household level, and assumes that resources are equally distributed within households. This results in a measure that is likely to underestimate the true extent of differences between

women and men. While the variance in gender gaps relative to overall income is small (gaps range from 195 PPS in Romania to 1 499 PPS in Austria), it is substantial in terms of levels of achievement in average income. Data indicate severe differences in income, with individuals in Luxembourg (30 872 PPS) benefiting from an income that is more than seven times higher than that of those in Romania (4 230 PPS).

**Figure 3.13. Gender gaps and mean equivalised net income (PPS) in EU Member States (16+), 2012**

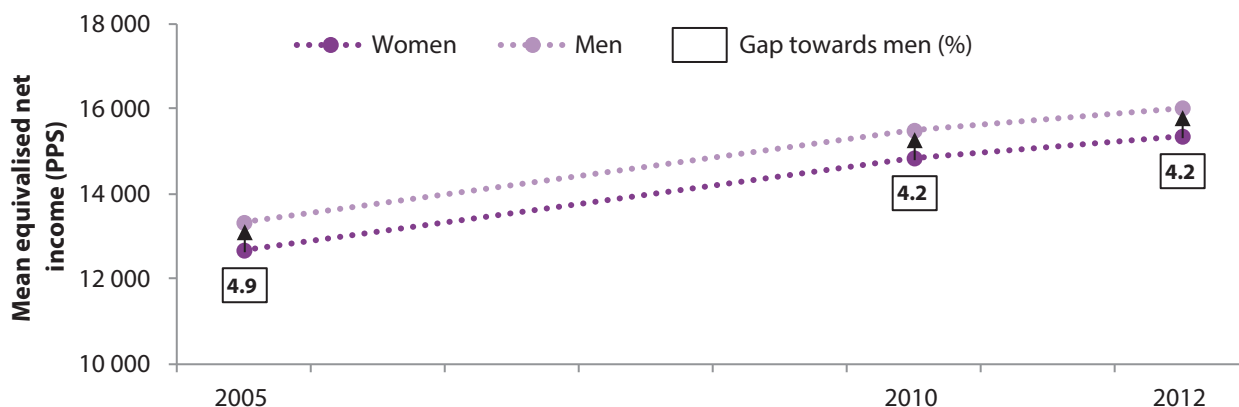


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di03).  
Note: EU-28 and EU-27 average were not available. EU-28 average was calculated.

In 2012, the mean equivalised income for women was 15 329 PPS and 15 997 PPS for men in the EU-28 on average, constituting a gender gap of 667 PPS or 4.2 % (Figure 3.14). While income levels in the EU-28 have increased between 2005 and 2012, the reverse is true for the gender

gap, which decreased from 4.9 % in 2005 to 4.2 % in 2012. Overall, gender gaps in net income are small (with a 4 % difference in 2012), however, as the measure relies on household level income, it may overestimate women's actual financial resources.

**Figure 3.14. Mean equivalised net income (PPS) by sex (16+) in EU-28, 2005–12**



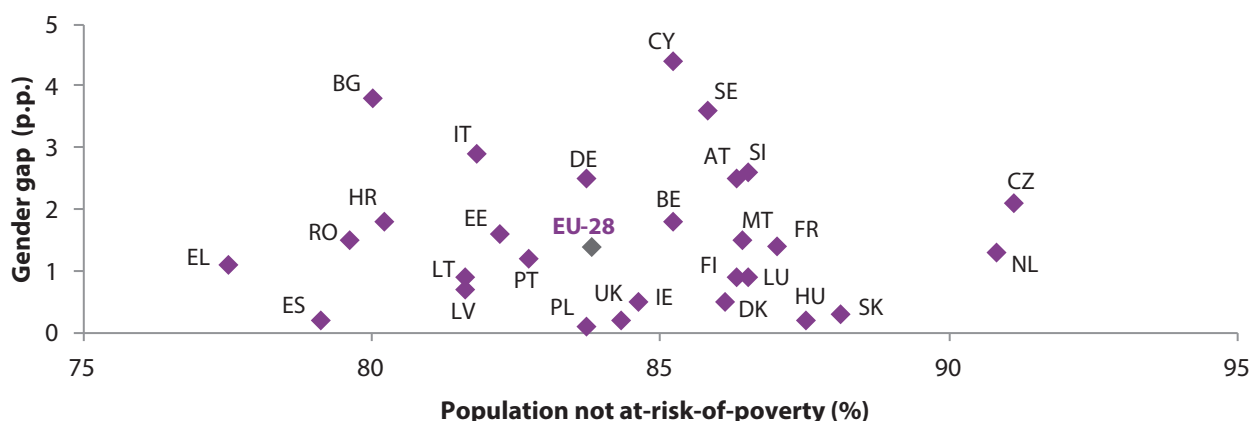
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di03).  
Note: EU-28 and EU-27 averages were not available, averages were calculated based on the data.  
Data for BG, HR, RO not available for 2005. BG (2006), HR (2010) and RO (2007) data were used instead.

### 3.2.3. Not at-risk-of-poverty

With an average gender gap of 1.4 percentage points between the percentage of women and men not at-risk-of-poverty in 2012, there are small gender differences in the EU. Despite these small differences in gender gaps across Member States — with gaps ranging from 0.1

percentage points in Poland to 4.4 percentage points in Cyprus — the overall number of individuals at-risk-of-poverty varies considerably across Member States, with 9 % of people in the Czech Republic at-risk-of-poverty in 2012, to as many as 23 % of people in Greece (Figure 3.15).

**Figure 3.15. Gender gaps and population not at-risk-of-poverty in EU Member States (16+), 2012**

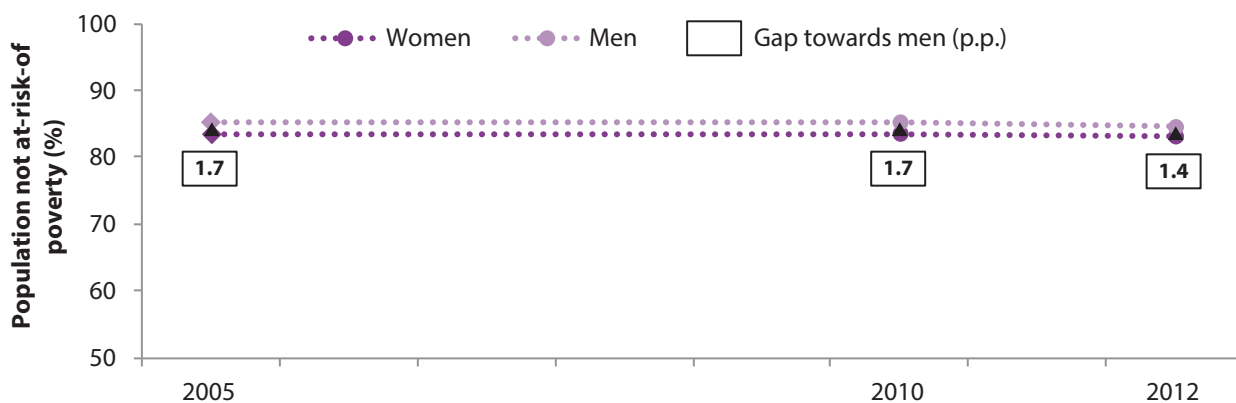


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_li02).

At EU level, gender differences in being at-risk-of-poverty were small in 2012. Overall, men are slightly more likely not to be at-risk-of-poverty than women. In the period from 2005 to 2012, the gender gap between women and men not at-risk-of-poverty has narrowed slightly by 0.3 percentage points, falling from 1.7 percentage points in 2005 to 1.4 percentage points in 2012. Simultaneously, the percentage of individuals considered not at-risk-of-poverty has

decreased slightly, resulting in an increase in the number of those at-risk-of-poverty. While 83.5 % of women were not at-risk-of-poverty in 2005, this decreased to 83.1 % in 2012. Similarly, 85.2 % of men were not at-risk-of-poverty in 2005, compared with 84.5 % in 2012. The narrowing of the gap appears to have been driven by a stronger decrease in the number of men that are not at-risk-of-poverty.

**Figure 3.16. Population not at-risk-of-poverty by sex in EU-28 (16+), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_li02).

Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.

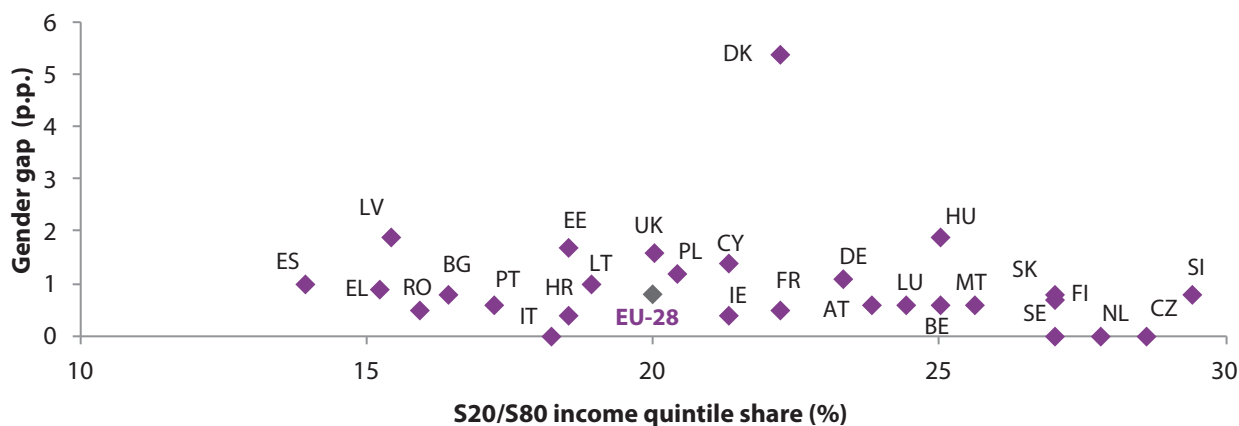


### 3.2.4. Income distribution

In 2012, gender differences in income distribution were small, reflected in a gender gap of 0.8 percentage points. While the EU-28 overall is close to reaching equality, there are marked differences between Member States. Although non-existent gender gaps (0 p.p.) indicate equality in a number of countries (CZ, IT, NL, SE), inequalities are present in other Member States, with the highest gap in Denmark (5 p.p.). Similarly, data show significant differences in

the levels of achievement in income distribution across the EU. The smallest differences in income distribution were in Slovenia, where the bottom quintile earned 29 % of the top quintile. Conversely, the bottom quintile earned 14 % of the top quintile in Spain; constituting a difference in equality of income distribution of 15 percentage points between Member States.

**Figure 3.17. Gender gaps and income distribution (S20/S80) ratio of the bottom and top quintile in EU Member States for the total population, 2012**

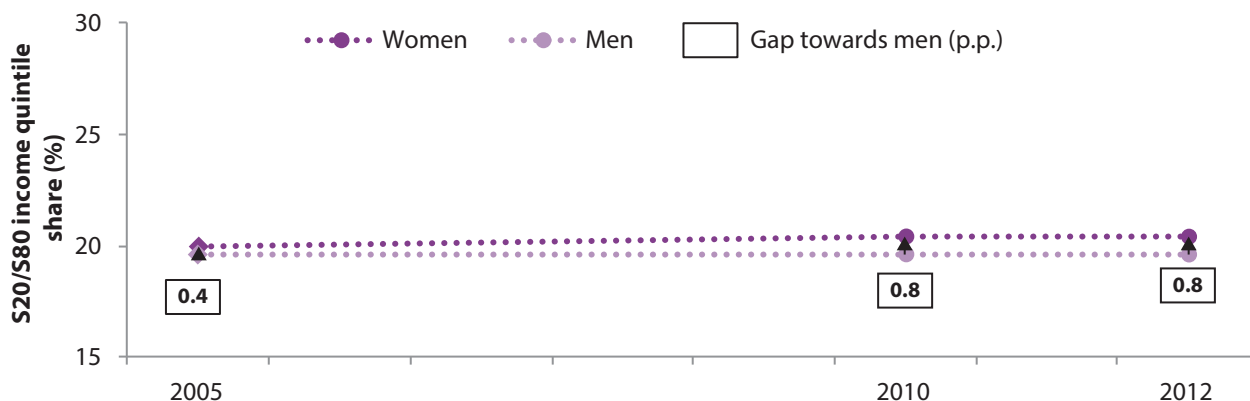


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di11).

Driven by an improvement in the distribution of income among women from 20.0 % in 2005 to 20.4 % in 2012, the average gender gap in the EU-28 has increased slightly; from 0.4 percentage points in 2005 to 0.8 percentage points in 2012. The distribution of income among men has remained unchanged (19.6 %). In the majority of Member

States income distribution is more equal among women, with noticeable variations across Member States. Gender gaps ranged from 1.4 percentage points towards men in Cyprus to 5.4 percentage points towards women in Denmark.

**Figure 3.18. Income distribution (S20/S80) ratio of the bottom and top quintile by sex for the total population in the EU-28, 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di11).

Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.



### 3.2.5. Key trends

An analysis of gender gaps in the domain of money shows that women are, with few exceptions, disadvantaged compared with men. In 2010, throughout the EU-27, women earned less than men, with progress in closing the gender gap relatively slow in the period since 2005. Across EU Member States, mean equivalised disposable income was also lower for women than for men in 2012 and data show that the gender gap has increased since 2005, despite a slight decrease in 2010. As a result, women on average were more likely than men to be at-risk-of-poverty, with the exception of five Member States. Moreover, the gender gap between women and men not at-risk-of-poverty decreased slightly since 2005, driven by a decrease in the number of men not at-risk-of-poverty. Finally, income inequalities were slightly more pronounced among men than women in the majority of Member States. Additionally, while income distribution was equal for both women and men in four countries, the gender gap increased in the EU-28 on average and the number of individuals not at-risk-of-poverty decreased slightly.

The domain of money shows the more precarious situation of women throughout the EU in terms of acquired financial resources and as a result their economic situation. However, caution should be exercised in analysing gender indicators which calculations are based on equivalised income as these indicators consider income at the household level and are likely to underestimate the true extent of the gender gap. This underestimation is because the calculation assumes that income is shared equally among all members of the household, thereby ignoring possible gender and power relations that may result in further disparities in the allocation of income. However, in the absence of a more suitable measure, these gender indicators provide a pertinent assessment of gender gaps in the domain of money.



### 3.3. Knowledge

The domain of knowledge examines differences between women and men in their access to and participation in education and training. This includes an assessment of equal access to and attainment of education, the presence of gender segregation in educational fields and provision of lifelong learning for both women and men.

The first sub-domain measures educational attainment and segregation. This combination is not surprising, because

notwithstanding differences between the two concepts, they are highly interrelated. It is measured by two gender indicators that examine the percentage of women and men that have a tertiary level educational attainment and the gendered segregation in educational fields. Following the conceptual framework, the second sub-domain covers the area of lifelong learning. It is covered by an indicator assessing women's and men's participation in formal or non-formal education and training (Table 3.3).

**Table 3.3. Measurement framework for the domain of knowledge**

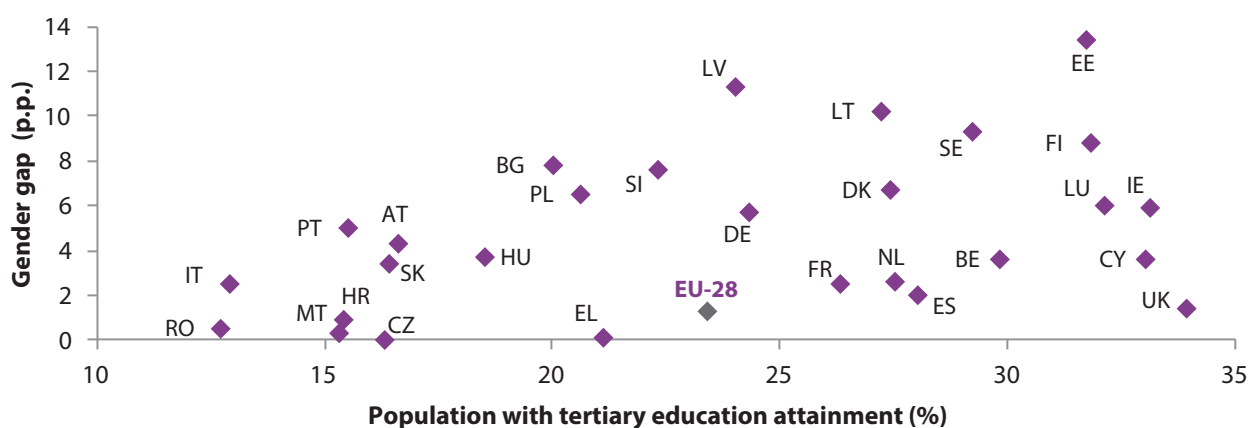
Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Educational attainment and segregation	Tertiary education	Graduates of tertiary education (% , 15–74 population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Segregation	Tertiary students in the fields of 'Education', 'Health and welfare', 'Humanities and arts' (ISCED 5-6) (% , tertiary students)	Eurostat — Unesco/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) questionnaires on educational statistics
Lifelong learning	Lifelong learning	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (% , 15–74 population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey

### 3.3.1. Tertiary education

With a 1.3 percentage point gap in women's and men's participation in tertiary education, the EU-28 is fairly close to equality (Figure 3.19). However, gender gaps vary significantly across Member States, ranging from no differences between women's and men's participation (0 p.p.) in the Czech Republic to 13.4 percentage points in Estonia.

Moreover, concerning the levels of achievement in the percentage of the population having access to and obtaining a tertiary degree, there are considerable differences between Member States. While 34 % of the population in the United Kingdom have a tertiary education attainment, only 13 % of the population in Romania do.

**Figure 3.19. Gender gaps in population (15–74) having attained first and second stage of tertiary education (levels 5 and 6 ISCED) and population with tertiary education attainment in EU Member States, 2012**

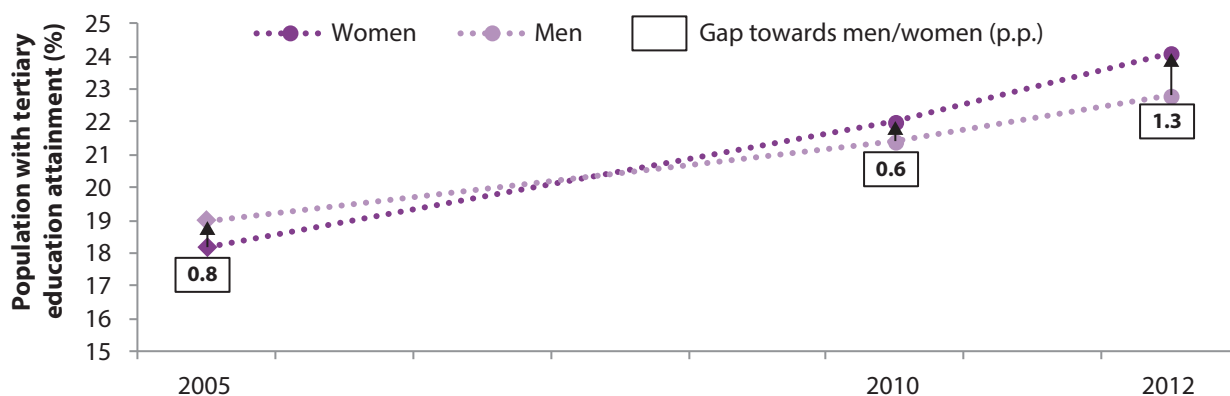


Source: Eurostat, SES (edat\_ifs\_9903).

Since 2005, the gender gap in educational attainment has not only increased markedly, but has also changed direction (Figure 3.20). While the gender gap represented 0.8 percentage points in 2005, with 18.2 % of women and 19 %

of men being enrolled in higher education, it increased to 1.3 percentage points in 2012, with 24.1 % of women and 22.8 % of men being enrolled in higher education. This reversal occurred around 2008.

**Figure 3.20. Population (15–74) having attained first and second stage of tertiary education (levels 5 and 6 ISCED) by sex in EU-28, 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, SES (earn\_ses10\_20).

Note: EU-28 average was not available in 2005, EU-27 average was used.

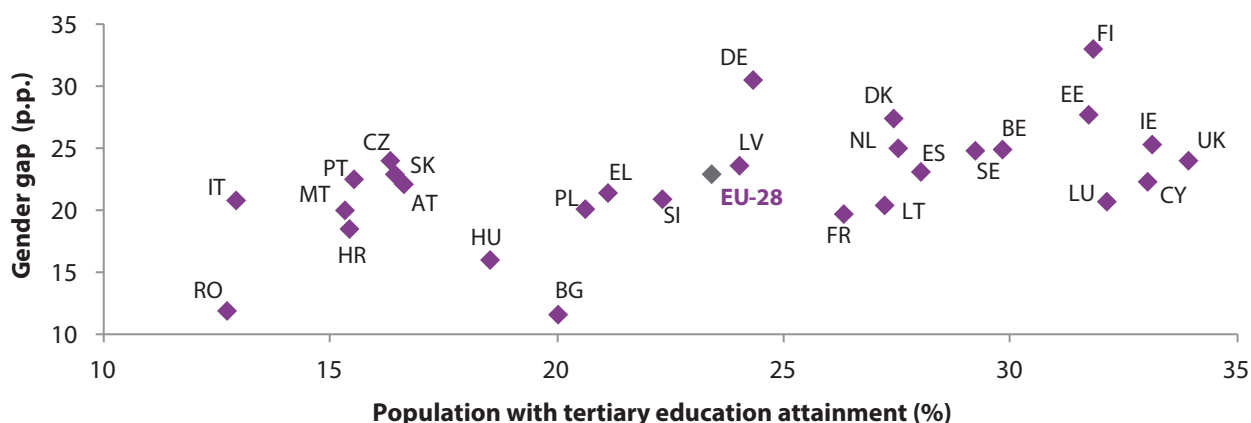


### 3.3.2. Segregation

In 2012, women in the EU-28 were over-represented in the educational fields of 'Education' (77 %), 'Health and welfare' (73 %) and 'Humanities and arts' (65 %). As the indicator is based on women's over-representation in these sectors, a gender gap of 23 p.p. — and a range from 11.7 percentage points in Bulgaria to 33.1 percentage points in Finland — is not surprising. Levels of achievement are not based on the variable itself, but instead on the total participation in

tertiary education, since there are more opportunities for segregation in Member States where tertiary education is more developed (Hakim, 1996; Charles and Bradley, 2002). The variable used for the levels of achievement is the same as the one used for tertiary education, which showed that it ranged from 13 % in Romania to 34 % in the United Kingdom.

**Figure 3.21. Gender gaps in sectoral segregation and population with tertiary education attainment in EU Member States, 2012**

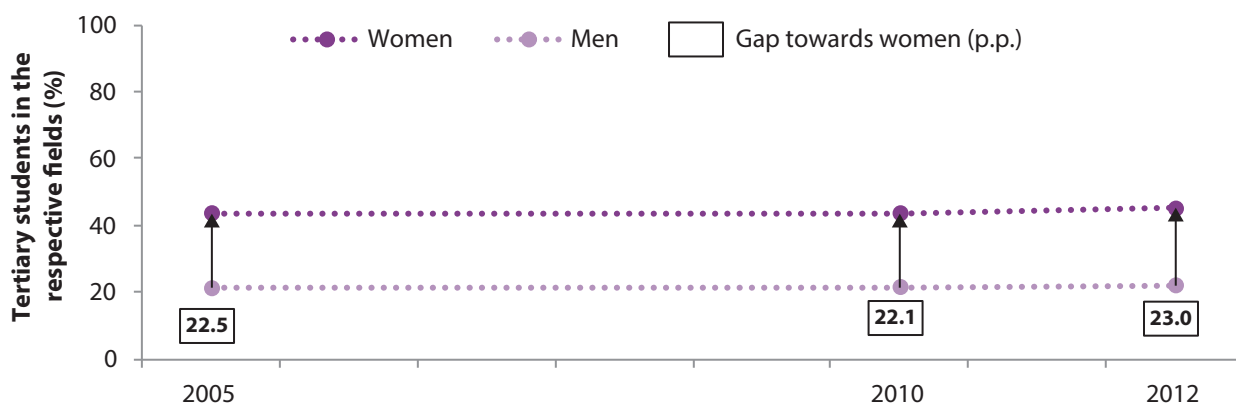


Source: Eurostat, Education Statistics (educ\_enr15).

At EU level, the gender gap has been relatively constant over time, with 22.5 percentage points in 2005 and 23 percentage points in 2012, reflecting women's persistent over-representation in these fields. Over time, both

women's and men's participation increased. In 2005, 44 % of women and 21 % of men engaged in tertiary education were enrolled in these fields of study, compared with 45 % of women and 22 % of men in 2012.

**Figure 3.22. Participation of tertiary students in the fields of 'Education', 'Health and welfare', 'Humanities and arts' (ISCED 5-6) by sex in EU-28, 2005–12**



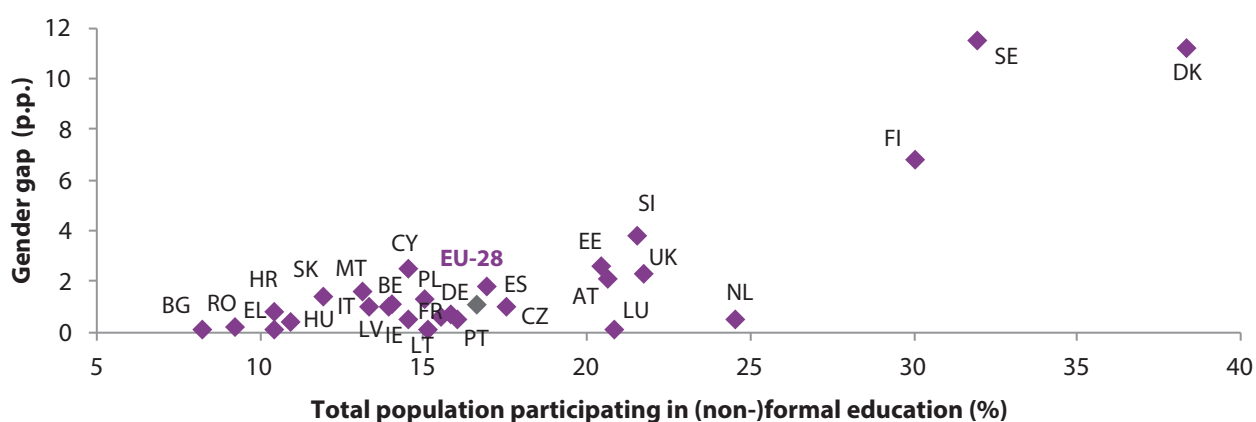
Source: Eurostat, Education Statistics (educ\_enr15).

### 3.3.3. Formal and non-formal education and training

The gender gap of 1.1 % for the EU-28 in 2012 indicates that gender inequalities in formal and non-formal education and training are small (Figure 3.23), but with marked differences in gaps, varying from 0.1 % in four Member States (BG, EL, LT, LU) to 11.5 % in Sweden. Furthermore, there is a significant gap between Denmark, Finland and Sweden and all other Member States, in terms of both

the gender gap and the provision of (non-)formal education, with levels of achievement in (non-)formal education varying noticeably across Member States. While 38 % of individuals in Denmark have benefited from formal or non-formal education or training at work, only 8 % of the people in Bulgaria have.

**Figure 3.23. Gender gaps and population participating in formal and non-formal education and training in EU Member States (15–74), 2012**

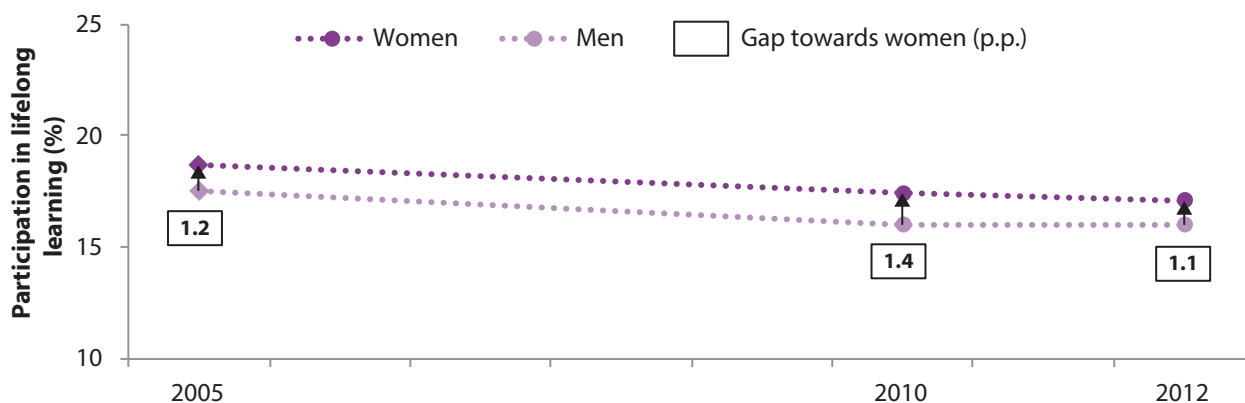


Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (trng\_lfs\_09).

Between 2005 and 2012, the EU-28 on average saw a decrease in the provision of formal and non-formal education and training. While 18.7 % of women and 17.5 % of men participated in lifelong learning in 2005, only 17.1 % of women and 16 % percent of men did so in 2012. The gender gap slightly increased between 2005 and 2010, from

1.2 to 1.4 percentage points but decreased to 1.1 percentage points in 2012. Therefore, while women and men in 2012 are more equal in terms of access to education and training, they are nevertheless less likely to benefit from training than they were in 2005.

**Figure 3.24. Participation in formal and non-formal education and training by sex in EU-28 (15–74), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, SES (earn\_ses10\_20).

Note: EU-28 average was not available in 2005, EU-27 average was used.



### 3.3.4. Key trends

While the majority of gaps in other domains act to the detriment of women, the situation is more nuanced in the domain of knowledge. Participation rates in tertiary education have reversed, and men are less likely to participate in tertiary education than women in the majority of Member States. In the long-run, this is bound to have implications for the labour market and the economy and society in general. It is crucial to consider the implications of this reversal in trends in the future. What remains largely unchanged is the gender-based pattern of segregation in education throughout Member States, with greater under-representation of women and men in certain fields, such as education for men, or engineering, manufacturing and construction for women. It is important to monitor segregation, given that it translates into gender inequality patterns at the level of labour market participation and society more generally.

Finally, there is a very diverse pattern of participation in lifelong learning across the EU-28. As identified by the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (Education and Training (ET) 2020), lifelong learning needs to be a priority, as it contributes greatly to employment, economic prosperity and employability, but also to providing the means for all citizens to realise their potentials (Council of the European Union, 2009b). However, in the majority of Member States, only a minority of women and men participated in learning and training. In the few Member States where participation is significantly higher, women avail most from it.

### 3.4. Time

The domain of time aims to capture the gendered nature of the way in which individuals allocate their time between economic, care and social activities. It is an important area from a gender perspective given the imperative to ensure better work–life balance for women and men. A strong trade-off exists between all types of activities (Miranda, 2011), meaning that measuring two types of activities is indicative of how individuals divide their time. Furthermore, since some gender indicators already measure aspects of participation in the labour market in the domain of work, no further gender indicators have been adopted for the sub-domain of economic activities.

The domain of time therefore incorporates two sub-domains (see Table 3.4). The first sub-domain, care activities, considers gaps between women and men workers' involvement in caring and educating their children or grandchildren, as well as their involvement in cooking and housework. The second sub-domain, concerned with social activities, measures gender gaps in the involvement of women and men in sporting, cultural or leisure activities on the one hand and their involvement in volunteering and charitable activities on the other.

**Table 3.4. Measurement framework for the domain of time**

Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Care activities	Childcare activities	Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for 1 hour or more (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
	Domestic activities	Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for 1 hour or more (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
Social activities	Sport, culture and leisure activities	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey
	Volunteering and charitable activities	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (% , 15+ workers)	Eurofound — European Working Conditions Survey

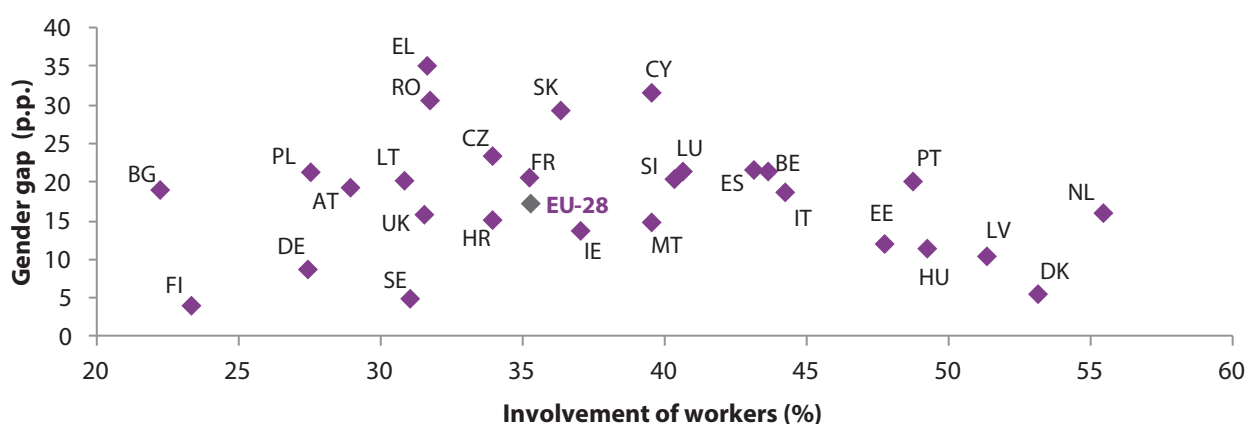


### 3.4.1. Care and education of children and/or grandchildren

The gap in women and men workers' engagement with childcare and education of children amounted to 17 percentage points in 2010 for the EU-28 on average, indicating that the EU as a whole is quite far from reaching equality. However, while women's and men's allocation of time to care and education is close to equal in Finland (4 p.p.), vast differences persist in other Member States, such as Greece

(35 p.p.). Similarly, differences in levels of achievement in terms of time spent on caring among the EU-28 countries are quite pronounced, with 22 % of workers in Bulgaria spending more than an hour a day caring or educating their children and/or grandchildren, in contrast to 55 % of workers in the Netherlands.

**Figure 3.25. Gender gaps and workers' involvement in the care and education of children and/or grandchildren, every day for an hour or more, in EU Member States (15+), 2010**

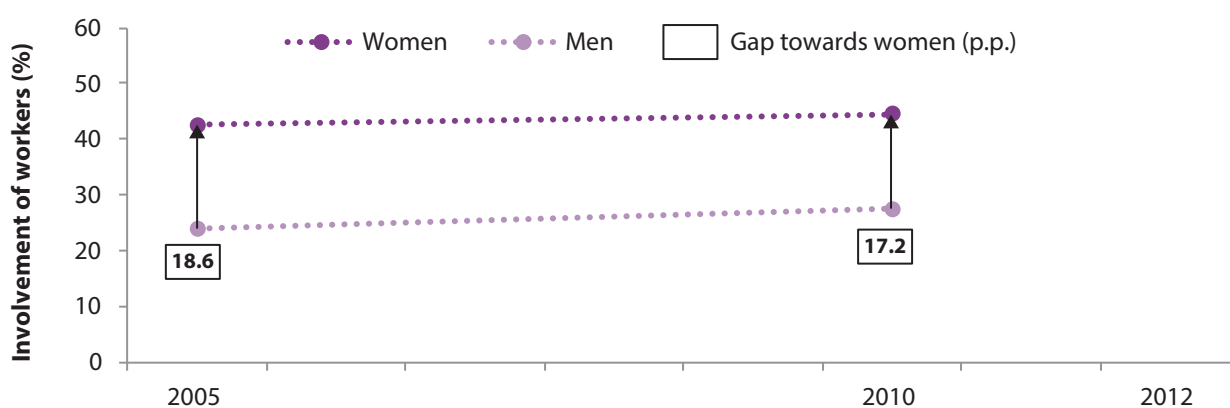


Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2c).

In the period from 2005 to 2010, the gender gap in time spent educating or caring for children and/or grandchildren has decreased by 1.4 percentage points in the EU-28 (from 18.6 p.p. to 17.2 p.p.). While both working women's and working men's involvement increased, the increase

was more pronounced for men. In 2005, 43 % of women workers spent time caring for children and/or grandchildren for at least an hour every day (45 % in 2010), while the corresponding figure for men workers was 24 % (27 % in 2010).

**Figure 3.26. Workers' involvement in the care and education of children and/or grandchildren, every day for an hour or more, by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005-10**



Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2c for 2010, ef4c for 2005).

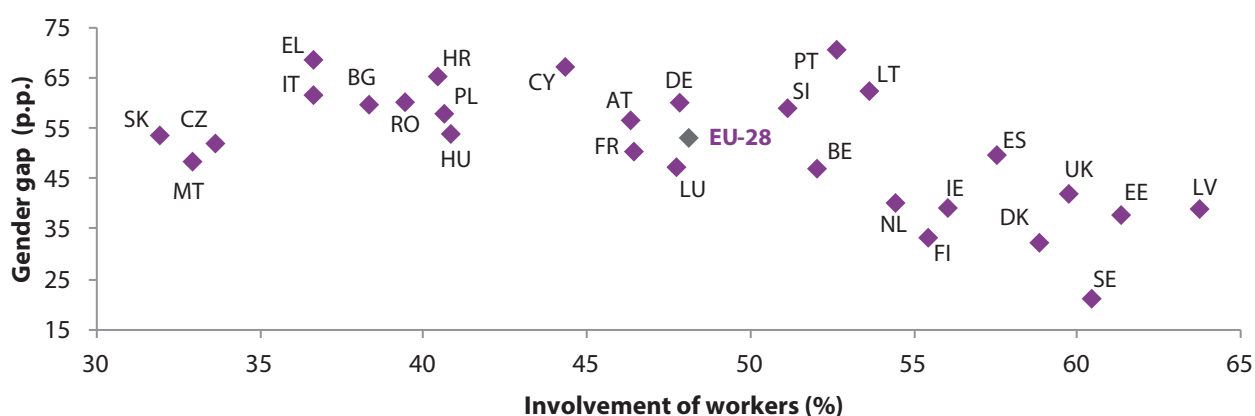


### 3.4.2. Cooking and housework

For the EU-28 overall, the gender gap in women’s and men’s engagement with housework activities was substantial, amounting to 53 percentage points in 2010 on average. Despite considerable differences in the size of gaps between countries — being highest in Portugal (71 p.p.) and lowest in Sweden (21 p.p.) — the EU-28 is far

from reaching equality in this crucial area. Correspondingly, levels in workers engagement in cooking or housework activities show marked differences across Member States. While 32 % of workers in Slovakia spend more than an hour cooking or doing housework every day, 64 % in Latvia do (Figure 3.27).

**Figure 3.27. Gender gaps and workers’ involvement in cooking and housework, every day for an hour or more, in EU Member States (15+), 2010**

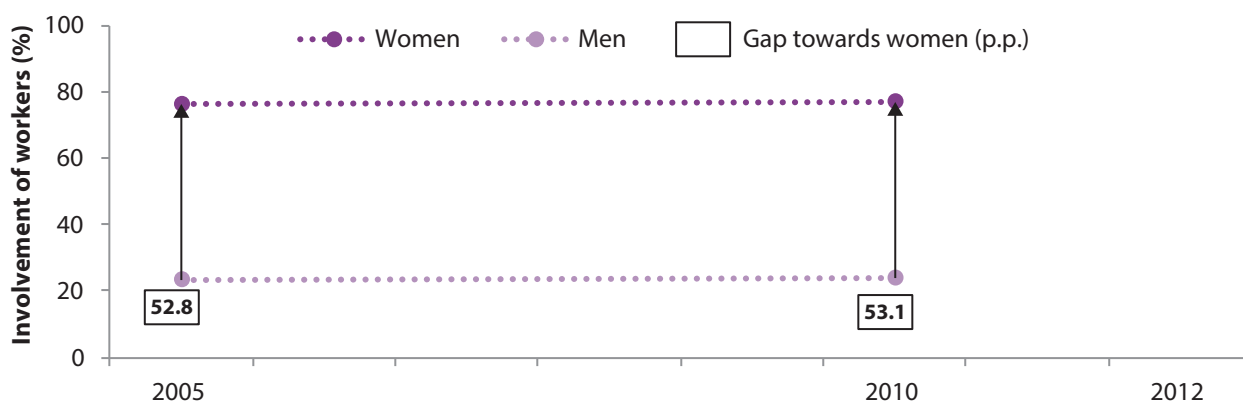


Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2d).

In 2010, 77 % of women workers and 24 % of men workers spent 1 hour or more on domestic activities daily in the EU-28, causing a considerable gender gap of 53 percentage points. Between 2005 and 2010 the gender gap has remained stable (with an insignificant increase of 0.3 p.p.).

Since 2005, working men’s engagement with domestic activities has increased only marginally, from 23.5 % of men workers in 2005 to 24 % in 2010, while women workers’ engagement increased even further, from 76.3 % to 77.1 %.

**Figure 3.28. Workers’ involvement in cooking and housework, every day for an hour or more, by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005–10**



Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2d for 2010, ef4d for 2005).

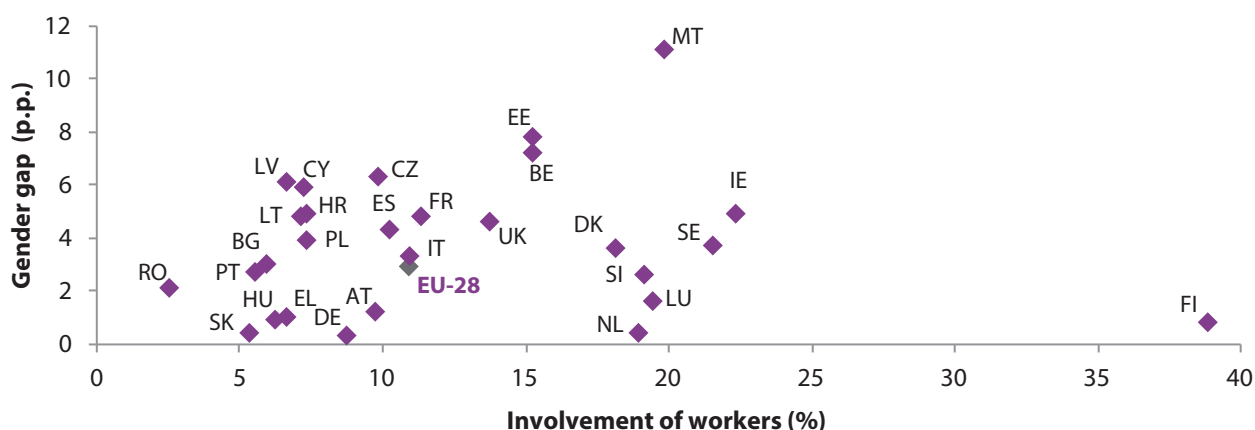


### 3.4.3. Sport, culture and leisure activities

In 2010, the gender gap stood at 3 % for the EU-28, with considerable differences in gaps between Member States, marked by the lowest gap of 0.3 % in Germany and the highest gap of 11 % in Malta (Figure 3.29). A comparison of the extent to which individuals across Member States

engage in cultural or leisure activities varies significantly. While nearly 40 % of workers in Finland participated in these activities at least every other day, only 3 % of workers in Romania did.

**Figure 3.29. Gender gaps and workers' involvement in sporting, cultural or leisure activities, at least every other day, in EU Member States (15+), 2010**

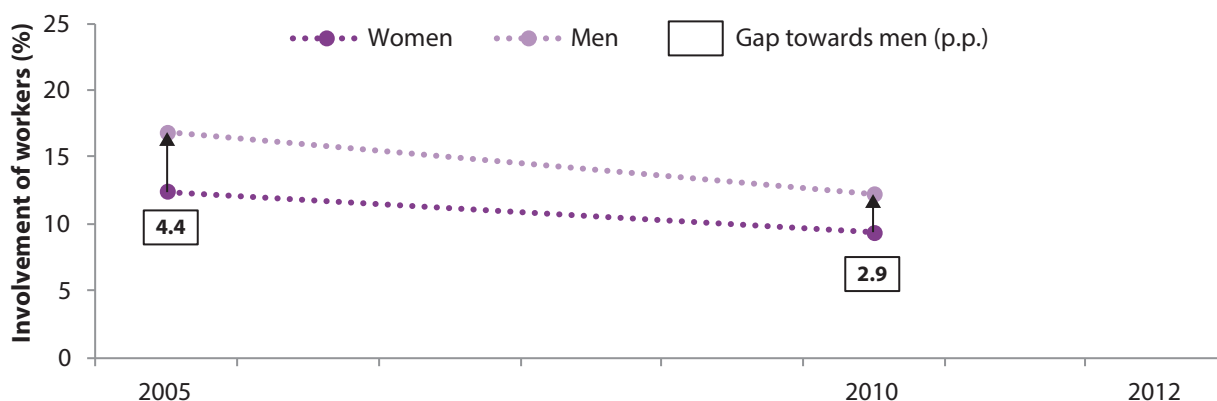


Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2g).

In 2010, 9 % of women workers and 12 % of men workers in the EU-28 participated in sporting cultural or leisure activities every day or every second day for less than an hour. Between 2005 and 2010 both gender gap and overall participation in sporting, cultural or leisure activities decreased. The gender gap narrowed from 4.4 percentage

points to 2.9 percentage points, driven by a more pronounced decrease in working men's engagement in sporting, cultural and leisure activities from 17 % in 2005 to 12 % in 2010, compared to a decrease in working women's activities from 12 % in 2005 to 9 % in 2010.

**Figure 3.30. Workers' involvement in sporting, cultural or leisure activities, at least every other day by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005–10**



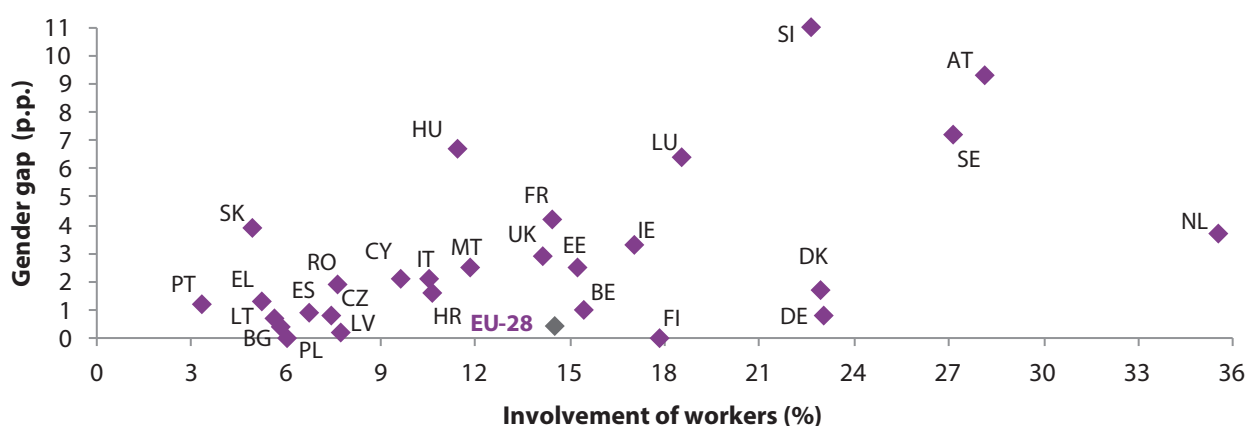
Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2g for 2010, ef4g for 2005).

### 3.4.4. Volunteering and charitable activities

Overall, the EU-28 was close to reaching gender equality in voluntary or charitable activities in 2010, with a gender gap of only 0.4 percentage points, whereas gaps range from a non-existent gap (0 p.p.) in Finland and Poland to 11 percentage points in Slovenia (Figure 3.31). Workers' involvement in voluntary and charitable activities differs

noticeably across Member States. Only 3 % of workers in Portugal were involved in such activities at least once a month, whereas workers in the Netherlands were about 10 times more likely to be engaged in volunteering or charitable work, with 36 % of workers participating on average.

**Figure 3.31. Gender gaps and workers' involvement in a voluntary or charitable activity, at least once a month, in EU Member States (15+), 2010**

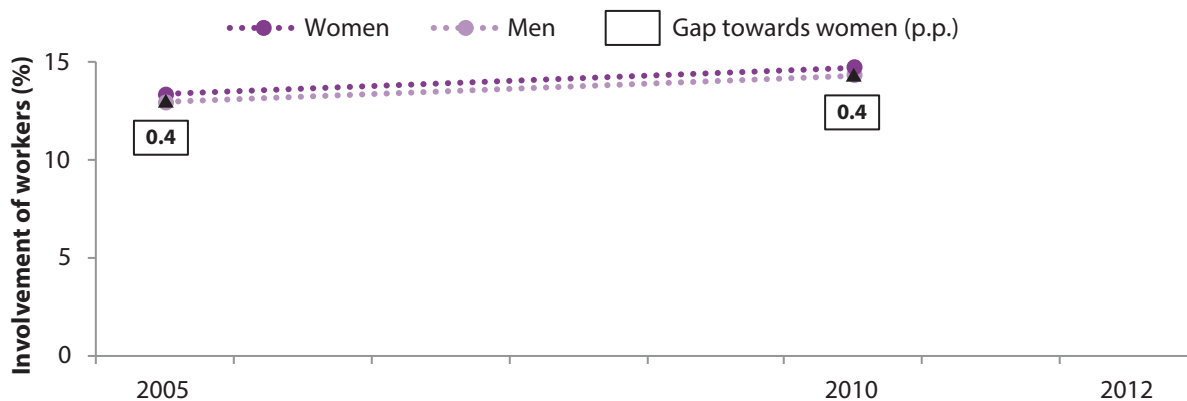


Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2a).

Both working women's and working men's involvement in voluntary or charitable activities has increased between 2005 and 2010, from 13.3 % to 14.7 % for women workers and from 12.9 % to 14.3 % for men workers (Figure 3.32). Even though the gender gap at EU level remained

unchanged over time at 0.4 percentage points and is nearly non-existent in the EU on average, considerable gaps exist in the Member States. Gender gaps vary between 6.7 percentage points in favour of women in Hungary to 11 percentage points in favour of men in Slovenia.

**Figure 3.32. Workers' involvement in a voluntary or charitable activity, at least once a month, by sex in EU-28 (15+), 2005–10**



Source: Eurostat, EWCS (ef2a for 2010, ef4a for 2005).



### 3.4.5. Key trends

The amount of time women and men in the EU-28 spend on activities other than paid work strongly differs by sex. This domain highlights the core of the division between women and men in the EU-28: the wide gender gap in activities related to care. Throughout all Member States, it was women that performed the bulk of these caring activities, with extremely wide gender gaps between the time spent on caring and educating children and grandchildren, as well as time spent on cooking and housework.

In 2010, men were more likely than women to participate in sporting, cultural or leisure activities on a regular basis in all Member States but one. The situation was more divided when it came to involvement in voluntary or charitable activities, as — although non-existent in some Member States — gender gaps existed in others, leaning towards either women or men.

### 3.5. Power

The domain of power focuses on the representation of women and men in decision-making positions. Gender-balanced representation in positions of power is crucial from a gender equality perspective: firstly, from the point of view of social justice, regarding the equal access of all and secondly, from a democratic point of view in terms of the importance of reaching a balanced representation of society as a whole. It is also necessary to consider the potential of women’s increased presence to disrupt and change institutional practices, when they access domains previously dominated by men, which in turn can effect positive changes in society.

At the conceptual level, three sub-domains of decision-making power were identified: political, social and

economic. Unfortunately, as the sub-domain of social power is not well covered by gender indicators, the domain of power only includes measures for political and economic power in the form of participation at a decision-making level.

The first sub-domain, political power, is measured by three gender indicators that examine representation in ministries, parliaments and regional assemblies. The second sub-domain, economic power, focuses on the share of women and men on the boards of the largest quoted national companies, in conjunction with the share of women and men in all key decision-making bodies in central banks across Member States (Table 3.5).

**Table 3.5. Measurement framework for the domain of power**

Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Political	Ministerial representation	Share of ministers (senior/junior) (% , 18+ population)	DG Justice — Women and men in decision-making
	Parliamentary representation	Share of members of parliament (both houses) (% , 18+ population)	DG Justice — Women and men in decision-making
	Regional assemblies representation	Share of members of regional assemblies (% , 18+ population)	DG Justice — Women and men in decision-making
Economic	Members of boards	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies (supervisory board or board of directors) (% , 18+ population)	DG Justice — Women and men in decision-making
	Members of central banks	Share of members of central bank (% , 18+ population)	DG Justice — Women and men in decision-making

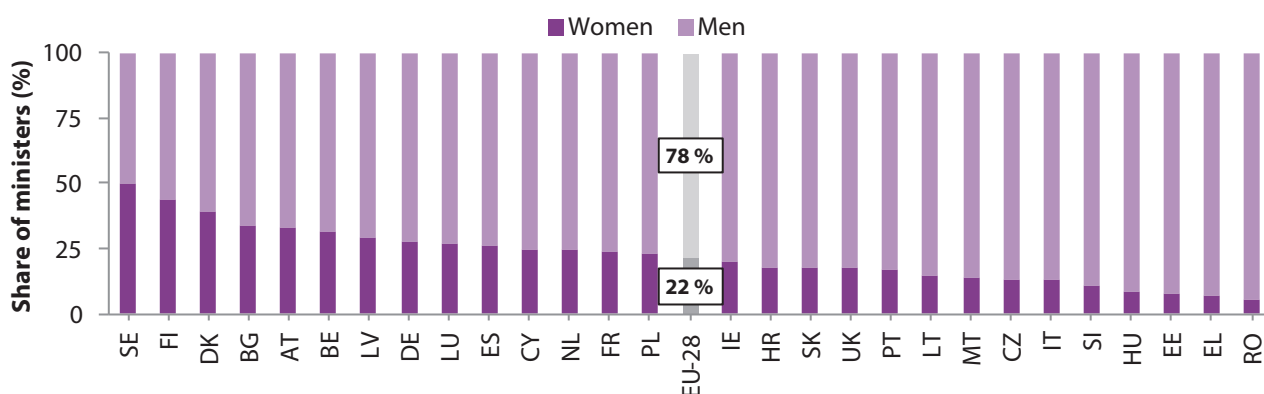


### 3.5.1. Ministerial representation

In 2012, men held more than three-quarters of all ministerial positions in the EU-28 (78 %) (Figure 3.33). However, considerable differences exist between countries, with men holding as many as 94 % of ministerial positions in Romania, but parity achieved in Sweden where women

and men had an equal share (50 %) of positions in 2012. In the majority of EU Member States, women hold less than 30 % of ministerial positions. Scores are not adjusted for levels in this domain.

Figure 3.33. Ministers by sex in EU Member States (18+), Q1 2012

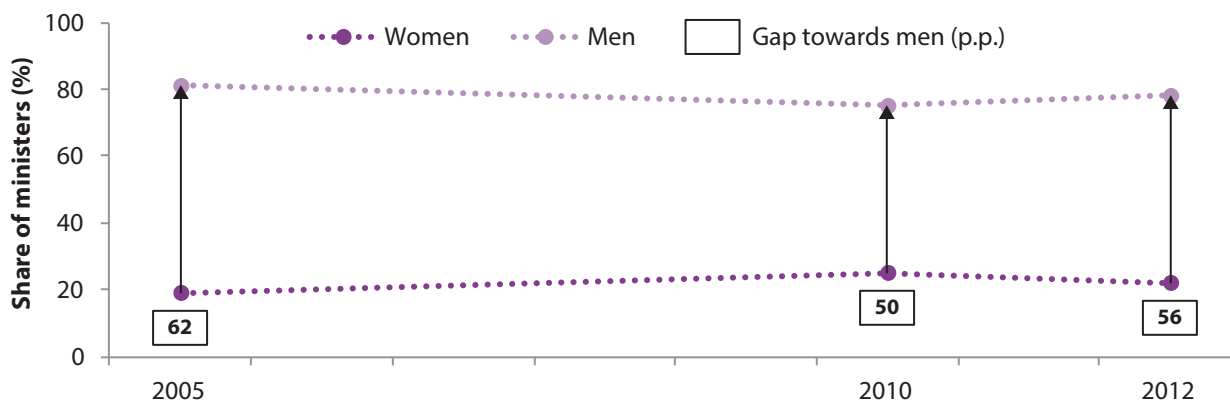


Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

In 2012, women accounted for 22 % of ministerial positions in the EU-28. Since 2005, the gender gap has decreased, from 62 percentage points in 2005 to 56 percentage points in 2012, but continues to strongly favour men. Women's

representation in ministerial positions was highest in 2010, when they accounted for a quarter of all ministers (25 %) in the EU-28 and the gender gap narrowed to 50 percentage points.

Figure 3.34. Ministers by sex in EU-28 (18+), Q1 2005-12



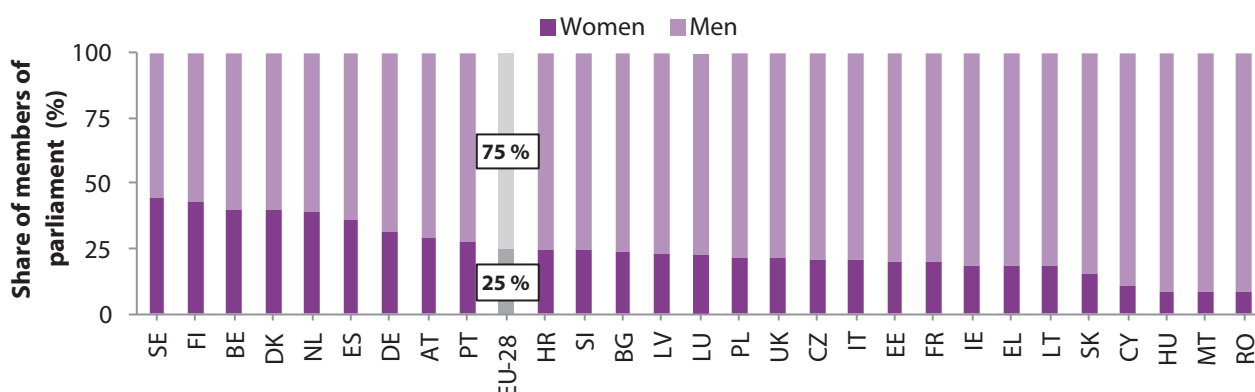
Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

### 3.5.2. Parliamentary representation

The significant over-representation of men in national parliaments signals severe inequalities, with men holding three-quarters (75 %) of all seats in the EU-28 in 2012. Despite a considerable range in women's and men's parliamentary representation across Member States — with

women constituting as little as 9 % of members of parliament in Hungary, Malta and Romania and as many as 45 % in Sweden — full equality is not within reach for the EU as a whole (Figure 3.35).

Figure 3.35. Members of parliament by sex in EU Member States (18+), Q1 2012

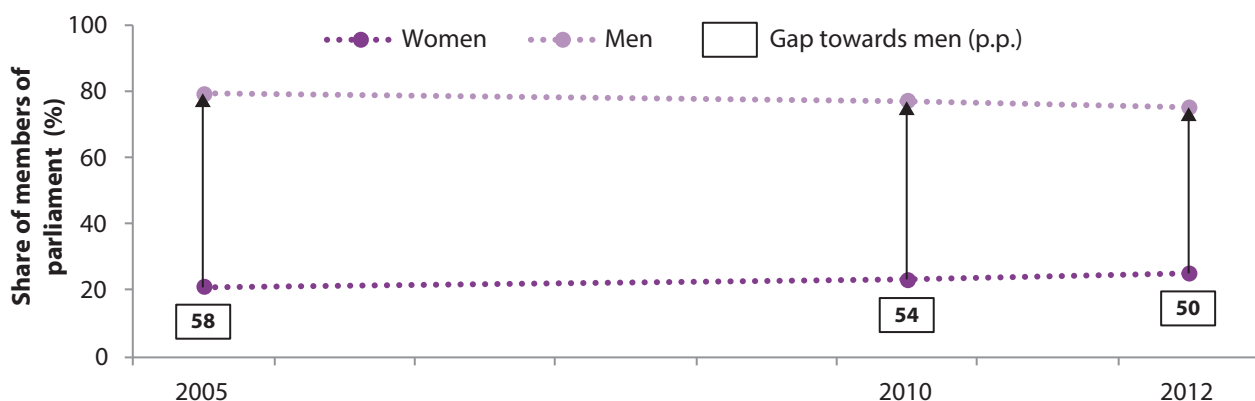


Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

Since 2005, the gender gap in parliamentary representation has slowly, but consistently narrowed; starting from 58 percentage points in 2005 and decreasing to 54 and 50 percentage points, in 2010 and 2012 respectively. While

women held only a fifth of seats in 2005 (21 %) they held one quarter of seats in 2012 (25 %) on average. Conversely, men persist to dominate national parliaments across Member States, constituting 75 % of assemblies on average.

Figure 3.36. Members of parliament by sex in EU-28 (18+), Q1 2005-12



Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

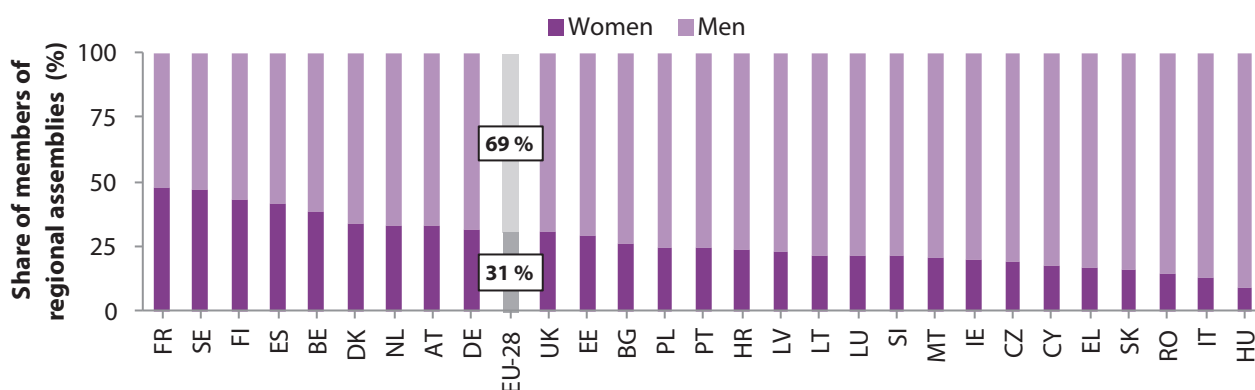


### 3.5.3. Regional assemblies representation

With women holding 31 % of seats in regional assemblies in 2012, representation is higher in this area than in national and ministerial representation. However, men still account for two-thirds of all regional assemblies on average in the EU-28. This is emphasised by the significant differences

in women's and men's representation in regional decision-making across Member States (Figure 3.37). While representation is close to equal in France (52 % men), regional level assemblies are highly dominated by men in Hungary (91 %).

**Figure 3.37. Members of regional assemblies by sex in EU Member States (18+), 2012**

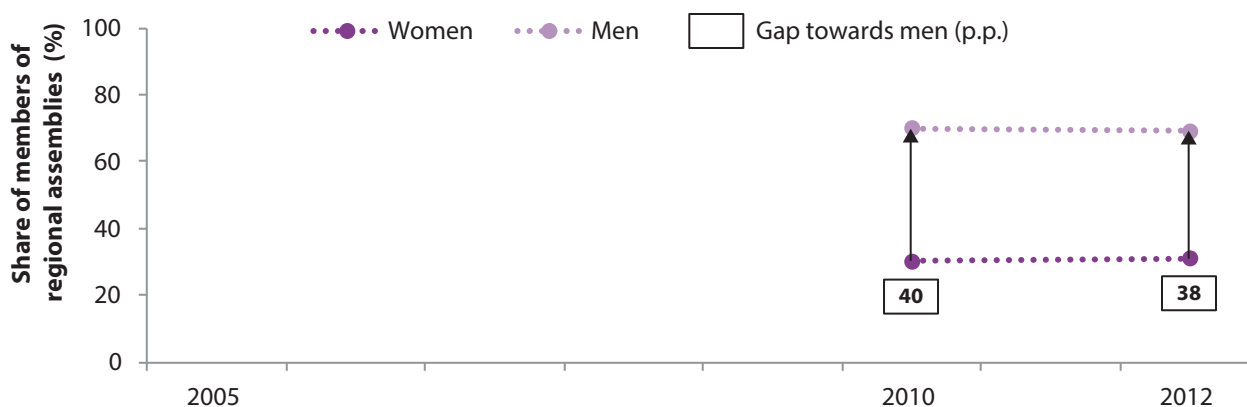


Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

In 2010, women held 30 % of the seats in regional assemblies in the EU-28 on average. By 2012, women's representation increased to 31 %, leading to a narrowing of the gender gap from 40 percentage points in 2010 to 38

percentage points in 2012, indicating a slow, but noticeable improvement in women's access to local positions in political decision-making.

**Figure 3.38. Members of regional assemblies by sex in EU-28 (18+), 2010–12**



Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.  
Note: Data for 2005 are not available.

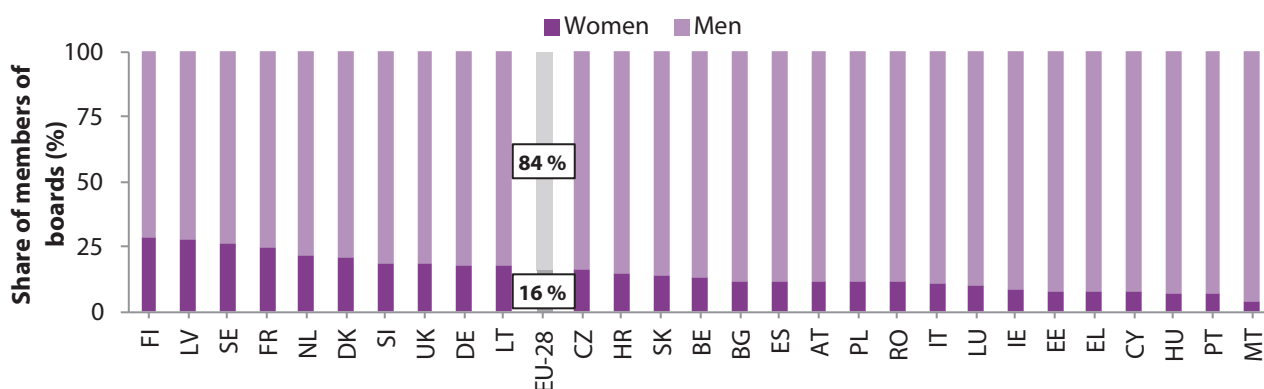


### 3.5.4. Members of boards

With women having accounted for only 16 % of board members in 2012 on average, the EU is far from achieving equal representation of women and men in positions of economic decision-making power. No Member State achieved a representation of women on boards of more than 30 %, with women in Malta holding as few as 4 %

of positions and women in Finland reaching the highest representation with about a third of board positions (29 %). Compared to political decision-making, men's over-representation in economic decision-making is even more pronounced. In 2012, women accounted for more than 20 % of members in only six Member States.

**Figure 3.39. Members of the boards of the largest quoted companies by sex in EU Member States (18+), 2012**

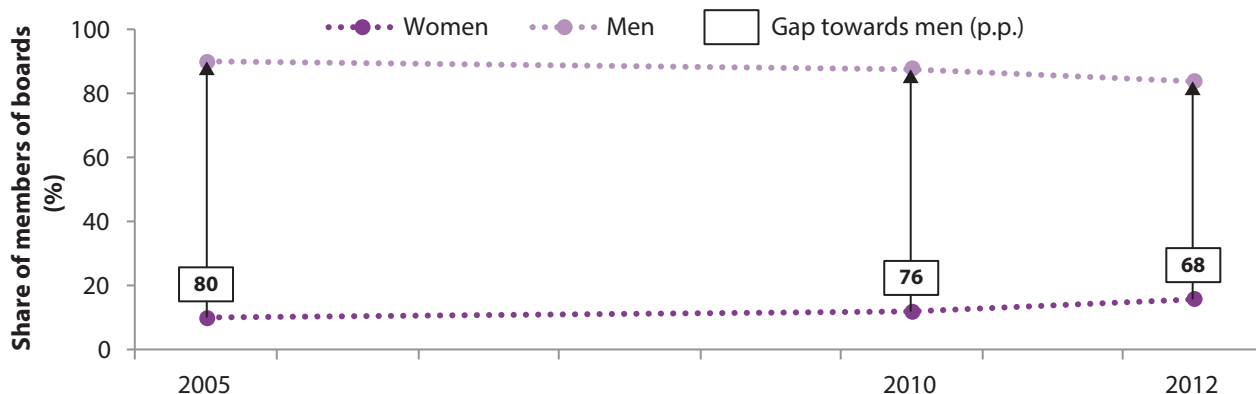


Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

Across Member States, men continue to be significantly over-represented in economic decision-making, with women accounting for 16 % of board members in the EU-28 in 2012. Despite a noticeable increase in women's access to economic decision-making from 10 % in 2005,

the representation of women on the boards of the largest quoted companies remains low. While the gender gap has narrowed since 2005, it remains considerable, with 68 percentage points in 2012 for the EU-28.

**Figure 3.40. Members of the boards of the largest quoted companies by sex in EU-28 (18+), 2005–12**



Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

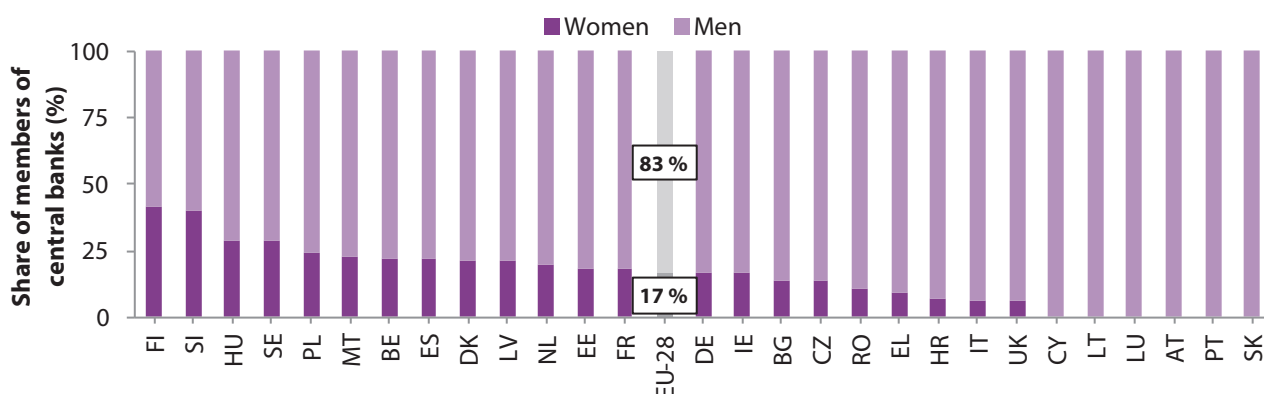


### 3.5.5. Members of key decision-making bodies of central banks

Men's over-representation in positions of power is most pronounced when assessing representation among key decision-making bodies of central banks. In the key decision-making bodies of central banks in the EU-28, gender equality is far from being a reality, with men accounting

for 83 % of members on average. Across Member States, men's general over-representation is the norm. While women account for as many as 42 % of central bank board members in Finland, men hold 100 % of positions in six Member States (CY, LT, LU, AT, PT, SK) (Figure 3.41).

**Figure 3.41. Members of the central banks by sex in EU Member States (18+), 2012**

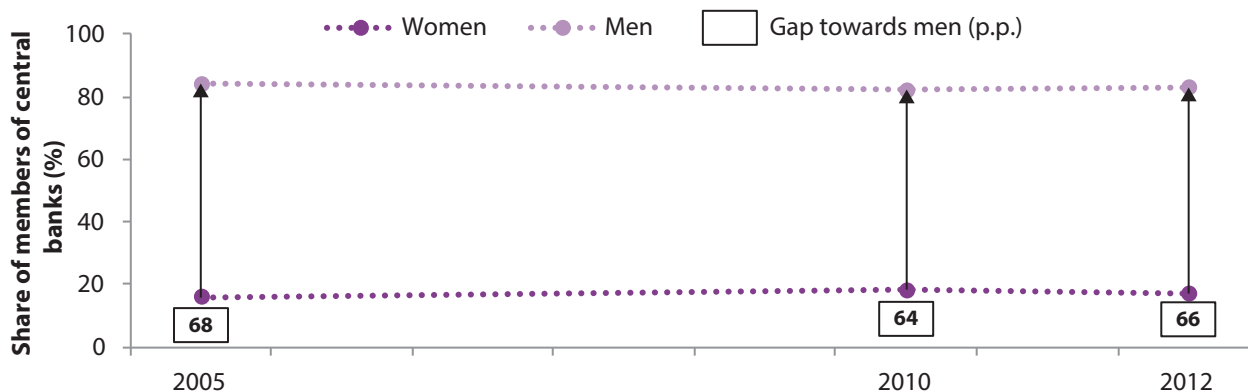


Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

The number of women members of central banks increased slightly from 16 % in 2005, to 17 % in 2012, on average, at the EU-28 level. Despite a slight increase in women members between 2005 and 2010, men's over-representation

appears to be consistent over time, with the gender gap continuously over 60 percentage points between 2005 and 2012 (Figure 3.42).

**Figure 3.42. Members of the central bank by sex in EU-28 (18+), 2005–12**



Source: EC-DG Justice, WMID.

### 3.5.6. Key trends

Women, compared with men, are grossly under-represented in some parts of political and economic decision-making. While slight increases in women's political representation are visible in the period from 2005 to 2012, men remain over-represented in ministries, parliaments and regional assemblies, with ministerial representation having seen a slight decrease in women's representation since 2010.

There is a significant dearth of women and an excess of men in representation in the political sphere, and this is even more pronounced in the economic sphere. Men are greatly over-represented among board members in the vast majority of Member States, with women accounting

for more than a fifth of members in only a few. Men's over- and women's under-representation in economic decision-making is even more amplified in the context of the decision-making bodies of central banks. Men's over-representation is considerable, with women not being present in these decision-making bodies in about a fifth of Member States, with trends over time indicating a further decrease, rather than an increase.

It is crucial to address these democratic and economic gaps to ensure that gender equality is seriously promoted by and addressed throughout policy in Member States and that both women and men are involved in the recovery following the current economic crisis.



## 3.6. Health

The final core domain examines issues related to gender and health. Conceptually, it includes three critical areas: health status, health behaviours and access to health structures.

Due to constraints in the availability of data, it is only possible to measure two of the three sub-domains described in the conceptual framework. Notably, the second sub-domain is not measured, as indicators related to health

behaviours either are not disaggregated by sex or the country coverage is not complete.

The gender indicators selected are thus divided into the first and third sub-domain. For health status, the gender indicators selected measure gender gaps in self-perceived health, life expectancy and healthy life years. As for access to health structures, the selected indicators examine gender gaps in unmet medical, as well as dental needs.

**Table 3.6. Measurement framework for the domain of health**

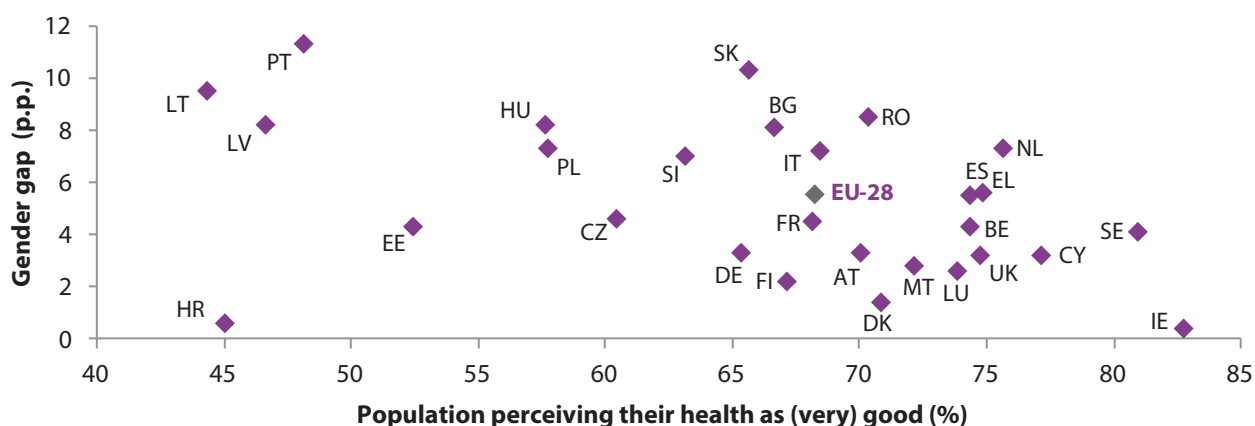
Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Status	Self-perceived health	Self-perceived health, good or very good (%; 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
	Life expectancy	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)	EU — Statistics on income and living conditions combined with Eurostat's demographic statistics
	Healthy life years	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth (years)	EU — Statistics on income and living conditions combined with Eurostat's demographic statistics
Access	Unmet medical needs	Population without unmet needs for medical examination (%; 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions
	Unmet dental needs	Population without unmet needs for dental examination (%; 16+ population)	Eurostat — EU statistics on income and living conditions

### 3.6.1. Self-perceived health

In 2012, the EU-28 is close to gender equality in self-perceived health, with an average gender gap of 5.5 percentage points and gaps ranging from 11 percentage points in Portugal to 0.4 percentage points in Ireland. Levels of self-perceived health differ considerably among the 28 EU

Member States. While 83 % of the population in Ireland would describe their health as good or very good, less than half in Lithuania perceive themselves to be in good or very good health (44 %).

**Figure 3.43. Gender gaps and population perceiving their health as good or very good in EU Member States (16+), 2012**

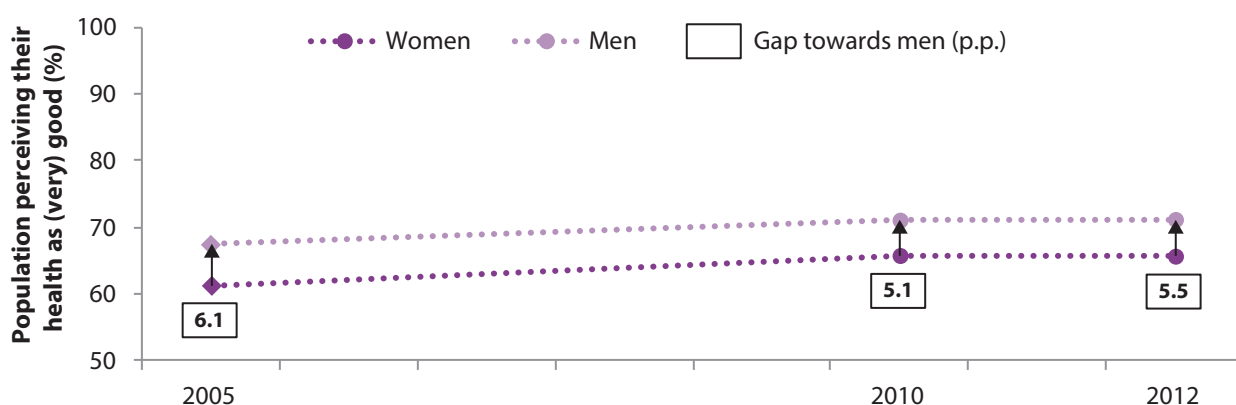


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_01).  
Note: 2012 data for HR men were missing, data from 2011 were used.

In the course of 7 years, self-perceived health improved in the EU-28 and the gender gap narrowed slightly from 6.1 percentage points to 5.5 percentage points. The gender gap in self-perceived health continues to favour men, with

61 % of women and 67 % of men having described their health as good or very good in 2005 and 67 % of women 71 % of men having done so in 2012.

**Figure 3.44. Population with good or very good self-perceived health by sex in EU-28 (16+), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_01).  
Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.

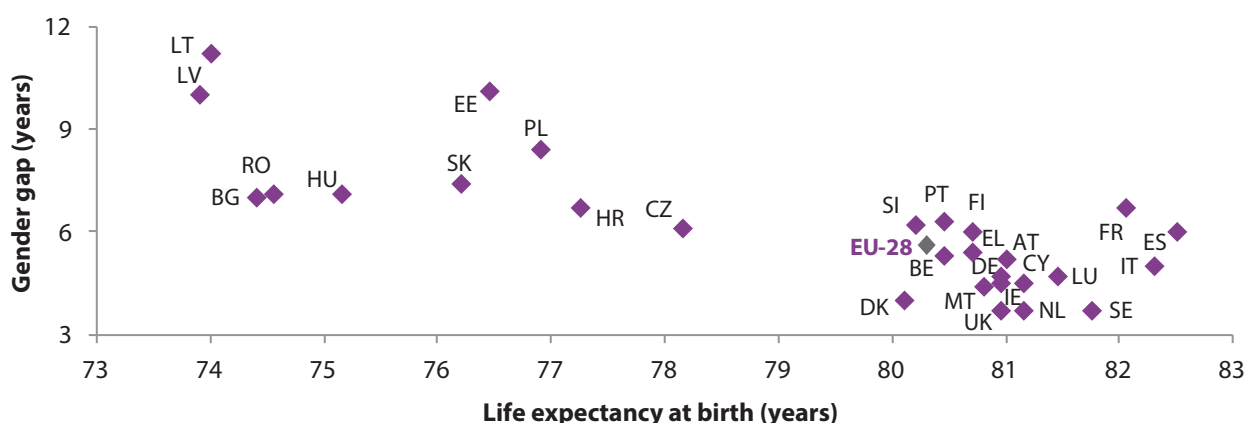


### 3.6.2. Life expectancy

In 2012, citizens of the EU-28 had a life expectancy at birth of 80 years on average, whereas women had a higher life expectancy of 83 years, compared with 78 years for men. The gender gap for the EU-28 was 6 years in 2012, with few differences between Member States (ranging from 4 years

in Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom to 11 years in Lithuania). In contrast, the levels of life expectancy differ, with people reaching an average age of 83 in Spain, while in Bulgaria, Latvia and Lithuania life expectancy attains 74 years.

**Figure 3.45. Gender gaps and life expectancy at birth in EU Member States, 2012**

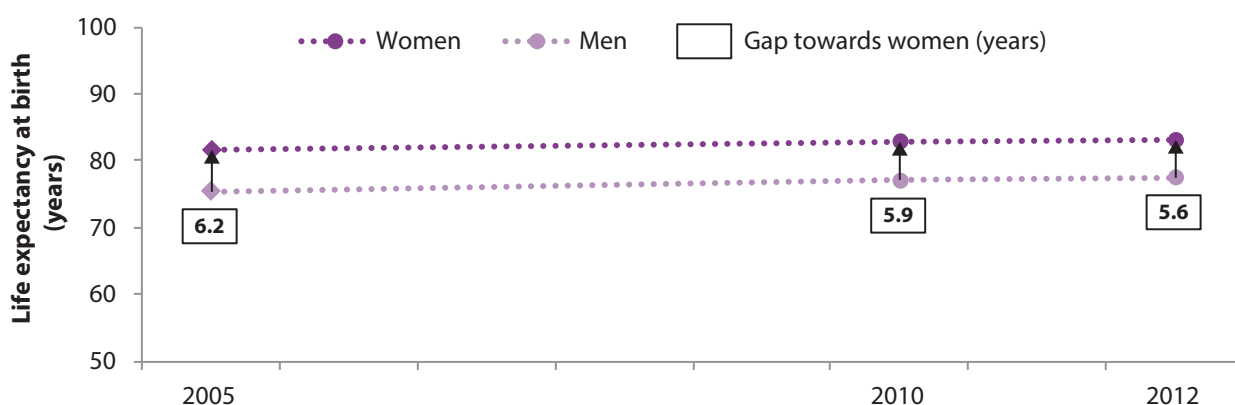


Source: Eurostat, Demographic Statistics (hlth\_hlye).  
 Note: No totals for life expectancy at birth available, average was used.

Since 2005, the gender gap has decreased by 1 year, with women in 2012 outliving men by an average of 5.6 years. The narrowing of the gap is due to an increase in men's

life expectancy by 3 years to 78 years in 2012 and a lesser increase by 1 year in women's life expectancy at birth to 83 years in 2012.

**Figure 3.46. Life expectancy at birth by sex in EU-28, 2005–12**



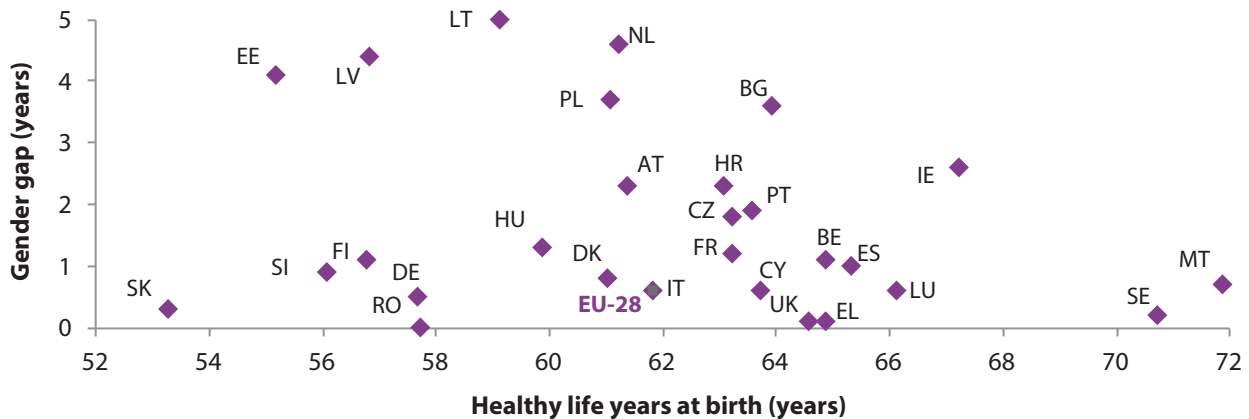
Source: Eurostat, Demographic Statistics (hlth\_hlye).  
 Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.

### 3.6.3. Healthy life years

In 2012, the gender gap in healthy life years stood at 0.6 years, indicating that the EU-28 on average is close to equality. The gender gaps range from non-existent in Romania to 5 years in Lithuania. Differences in levels of

achievement in healthy life years are more pronounced. While individuals in Slovakia spend 53 years of their lives healthy, individuals in Malta enjoy nearly 20 more healthy years (72 years).

**Figure 3.47. Gender gaps and healthy life years in EU Member States, 2012**



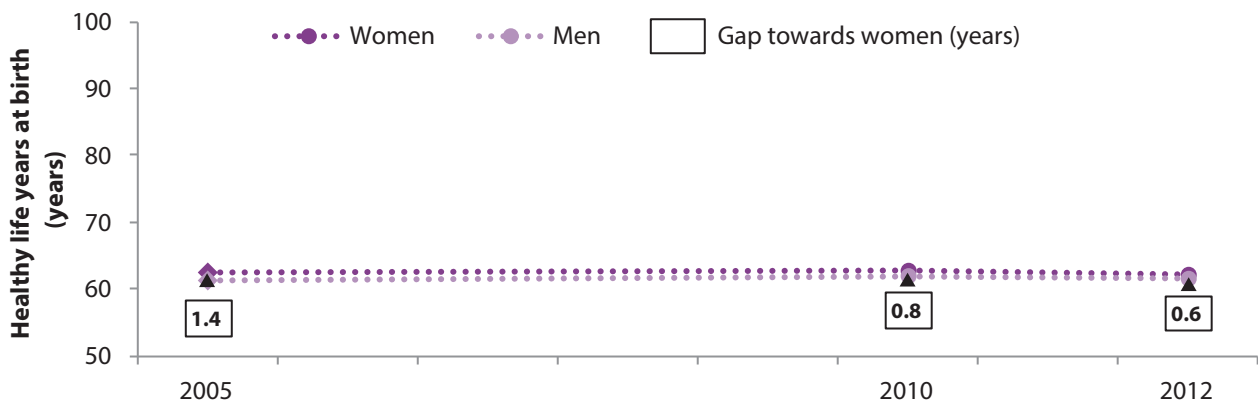
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_hlye).

Note: Eurostat does not provide a total for life expectancy at birth. The average was used instead.

Despite women's higher life expectancy, the gender gap in healthy life years was comparatively narrow (0.6 years) in 2012, with women spending 62.1 years of their lives in good health compared with 61.5 years for men. The

narrowing of the gender gap was driven by a 0.4 year increase in men's healthy life years and an equally sized decrease in the number of years women spend in good health over their lifetime.

**Figure 3.48. Healthy life years by sex in EU-28, 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_hlye).

Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.

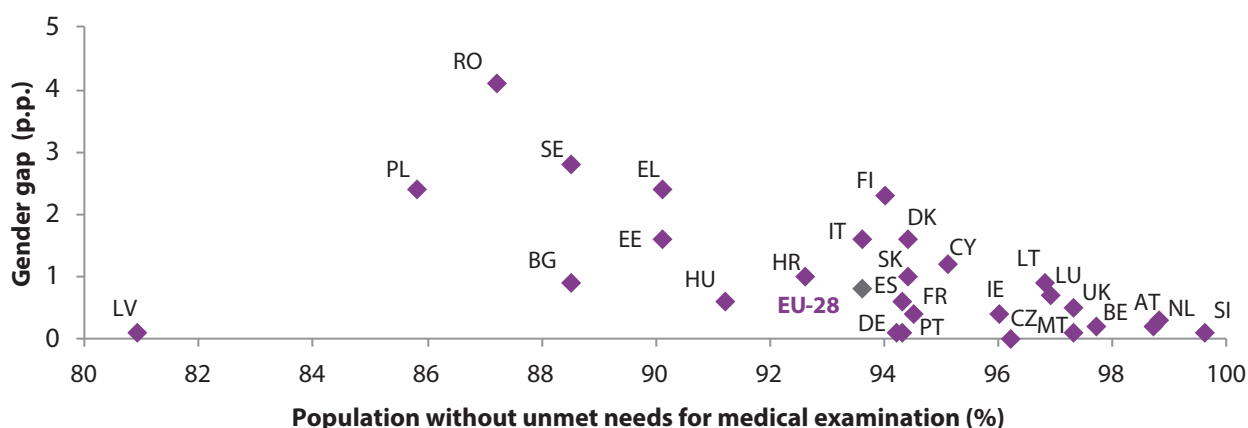


### 3.6.4. No unmet medical needs

In 2012, women and men across the EU-28 had almost equal access to the medical services they required, as emphasised by a gender gap of just 0.8 percentage points for the EU-28 and only slight differences between Member States (0 p.p. in the Czech Republic up to 4 p.p. in Romania).

Conversely, differences between Member States regarding the levels of achievement in meeting the medical needs of the total population are significant. While only 81 % of people in Latvia indicate not having unmet medical needs, 99.6 % of people in Slovenia do.

**Figure 3.49. Gender gaps and population without unmet medical needs in EU Member States (16+), 2012**

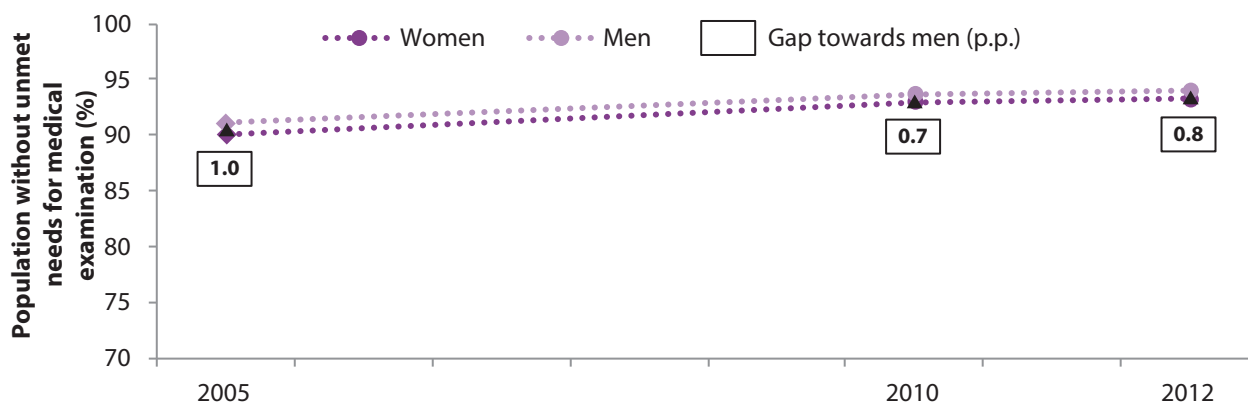


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_08).

Since 2005, the number of individuals without unmet medical needs increased across the EU-28, from 90.1 % to 93.2 % for women and from 91.1 % to 94 % for men.

Simultaneously, the gender gap narrowed slightly from 1 percentage point in 2005 to 0.8 percentage points in 2012, with men having marginally fewer unmet needs.

**Figure 3.50. Population without unmet medical needs by sex in EU-28 (16+), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_08).

Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.

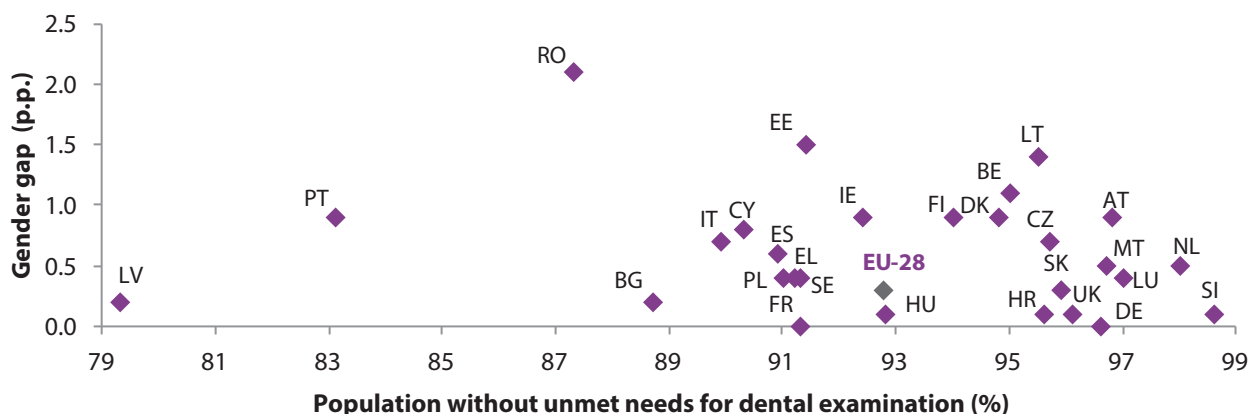


### 3.6.5. No unmet dental needs

With an EU-28 average gender gap of 0.3 percentage points and with gaps ranging from none in France and Germany to 2.1 percentage points in Romania, the EU as a whole is very close to equality. However, variations in achievement

levels in the perceived provision of dental care services are more pronounced. While 98.6 % of people in Slovenia feel that they do not have unmet dental needs, only 79.3 % of people in Latvia share this perception.

Figure 3.51. Gender gaps and population without unmet dental needs in EU Member States (16+), 2012

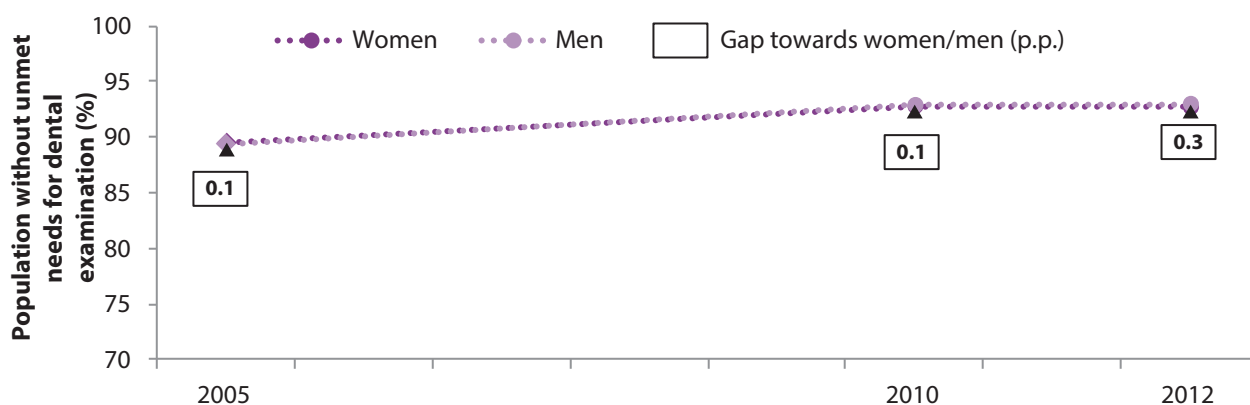


Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC(hlth\_silc\_09).

Between 2005 and 2012, the number of women and men without unmet dental needs increased by 3 and 4 percentage points, to 92.7 % for women and 93 % for men, respectively. At the same time, the almost inexistent gender gap

increased marginally from 0.1 percentage points in favour of women in 2005 to 0.3 percentage points in favour of men in 2012.

Figure 3.52. Population without unmet dental needs by sex in EU-28 (16+), 2005–12



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_09).

Note: EU-28 average not available for 2005, EU-27 average was used.



### 3.6.6. Key trends

The gender indicators used in the domain of health show that there is a large degree of truth, both at EU level and across Member States, to the old adage that ‘women get sicker and men die younger’. In terms of gender gaps, the domain of health presents a mixed picture. Although there are small or no gender gaps in terms of unmet needs, medical or dental, near equal access to health structures hardly translates into the same health status for women and men, where important gender gaps can be seen. Over time, improvements are visible in most indicators, with the exception of a marginal decrease in healthy life years, even though the life expectancy of both women and men increased between 2005 and 2012.

Furthermore, although the levels of indicators of health status and unmet needs are relatively high in some Member States, it appears that in others it remains necessary to focus on the health of women and men. Given that health is directly linked not only to economic independence, but also to physical integrity and dignity, it is therefore crucial to ensure that efforts continue in this direction, while at the same time maintaining small gender gaps or eliminating them altogether.

### 3.7. Intersecting inequalities

The domain of intersecting inequalities constitutes the first satellite domain identified in the Gender Equality Index report in 2013. This domain aims to examine gender gaps in specific groups in comparison to the overall population. The domain of intersecting inequalities is concerned with an illustrative and multi-dimensional phenomenon and as such cannot be included in the core index.

Intersecting inequalities are highly complex and multi-dimensional. While individuals can face discrimination on more than one ground — for instance gender and age — intersecting inequalities are more than the mere sum of different grounds of discrimination and thus are not quantifiable into an all-encompassing measure. Nevertheless, exploring how individuals belonging to different disadvantaged groups are faring in comparison to the rest of the population is crucial, as it provides an idea of the complexity of intersection inequalities and emphasises within group differences.

The indicators selected for the domain consist of proxies that provide information on the multi-faceted issue of intersecting inequalities. They explore employment rates

to illustrate how certain groups of women and men fare in the EU in terms of economic participation, as a means of tackling poverty and social exclusion. Furthermore, employment statistics in the EU are among the most developed and provide disaggregated data regarding specific groups.

The sub-domains of intersecting inequalities include different concepts (e.g. age, citizenship, disability, ethnicity or social class) all of which are complex in definition and difficult to measure. To allow for an indicative assessment, this section focuses on three illustrative groups: people born in a foreign country (as a proxy for minorities and/or migration background), people aged 55 to 64 (older workers) and people living in a household with a single adult and one or more children (as a proxy for lone parents or carers) (see Table 3.7). Measurements for these groups are then compared to contrasting groups.

As this is satellite domain, the selected indicators are only indicative of existing intersecting gender inequalities. This means that they are not combined into (sub-) indices and not aggregated into the core index.

**Table 3.7. Measurement framework for the satellite domain of intersecting inequalities**

Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Discrimination and other social grounds in employment	Minorities and/or migrants	Employment of people born in a foreign country (% , 15–64 corresponding population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Employment of country nationals (% , 15–64 corresponding population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Older workers	Employment of people aged 55–64 (% , 55–64 population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Employment of people aged 15–54 (% , 15–54 population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
	Lone parents/carers	Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and one or more children (% , 15–64 corresponding population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey
		Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and no children (% , 15–64 corresponding population)	Eurostat — EU Labour Force Survey



### 3.7.1. Intersecting inequalities in employment for people born in a foreign country

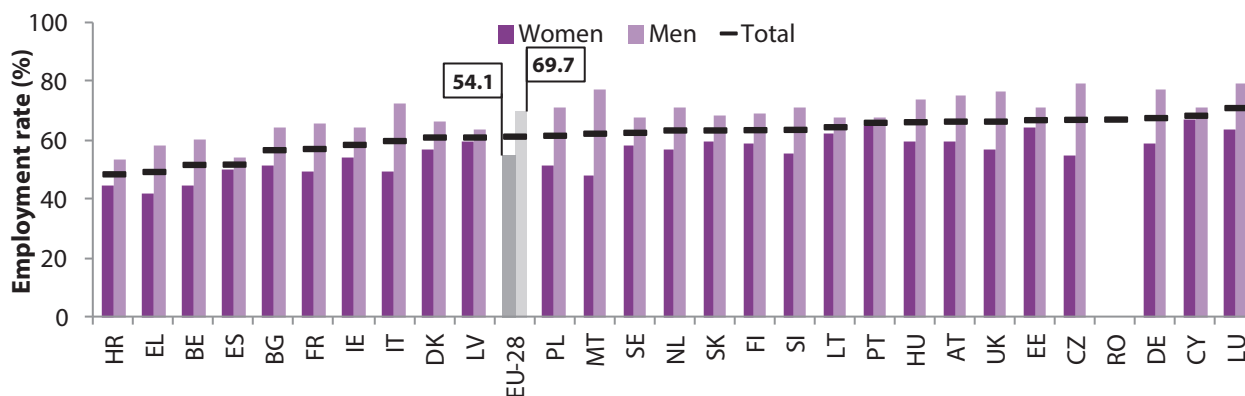
The first gender indicator focuses on people who are foreign-born — defined as those persons ‘whose place of birth (or usual residence of the mother at the time of birth) is outside the country of his/her usual residence’ (Eurostat, 2014d) — and their participation rate in employment in contrast to those born in the reporting country.

Measuring the impact of an individual’s migrant status and/or belonging to an (ethnic) minority group is difficult, as both ‘ethnic background’ and migration background are complex and not easily defined. The indicator ‘born in a country outside of the reporting country’ offers a proxy measure which provides some information on people that may be part of a minority and/or who are migrants. Definitions of what constitutes a migrant differ considerably and those born in the reporting country might belong to an ethnic minority group, while those born in a foreign

country might not. The indicator, therefore, constitutes an imperfect proxy measure, but nevertheless is an important indicator from a gender perspective, as women from a minority and/or migrant background tend to have lower rates of participation in employment; leading to greater disparities in income and a higher risk of poverty (FRA, 2010).

The average participation rate in employment for the EU-28 of individuals born in a foreign country was 54 % for women and 70 % for men, with an average of 62 % for the EU-28. Across Member States, men born in a foreign country were consistently more likely to be in employment than women, with employment rates ranging from 53 % in Croatia to 80 % in the Czech Republic (Figure 3.53). However, the employment rate for women reached as much as 67 % in Cyprus.

**Figure 3.53. Employment rates for people born in a foreign country by sex in EU Member States (15–64), 2012**



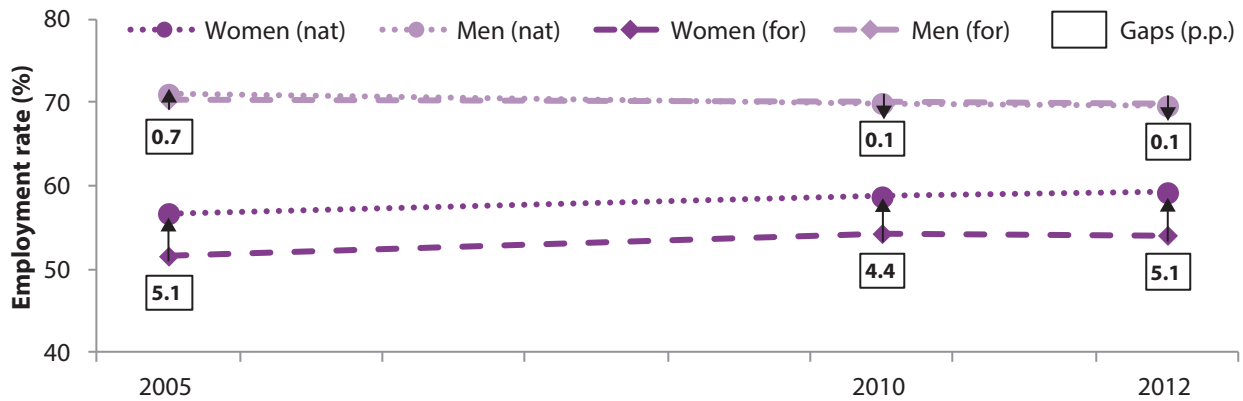
Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_ergacob).

Note: Data for BG not available for 2012, 2013 was used; data not available for Romania 2009–13.

When addressing intersecting inequalities, it is crucial to assess gender gaps within and also between groups. This shows that women nationals are more likely to be employed than those born in a foreign country, but that there are few differences for men between these groups (Figure 3.54). In 2005 and 2010, the gap in the EU-28 favoured men born in a foreign country by 0.1 percentage

points. Since 2005, employment rates decreased for both groups of men, with the gap falling from 0.7 percentage points in 2005 to 0.1 percentage points in 2012 in favour of men born in a foreign country. Overall gender gaps are more pronounced for workers born in a foreign country, with 15.6 percentage points in 2012, compared with national-born workers (10.4 percentage points).

**Figure 3.54. Employment rates for people born in a foreign country and nationals by sex in EU-28 (15–64), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_ergacob).

In contrast, the gap between women nationals and those born in a foreign country was more pronounced, with 5.1 percentage points in 2012. Since 2005, employment for both groups of women increased by 2.5 percentage points, with 59 % of women nationals and 54 % of foreign-born women being employed in 2012, compared

with 70 % of both men nationals and foreign-born men. However, an assessment of the employment rates of both groups at the country level shows considerable variation. In 15 Member States, men born in a foreign country are more likely to work.

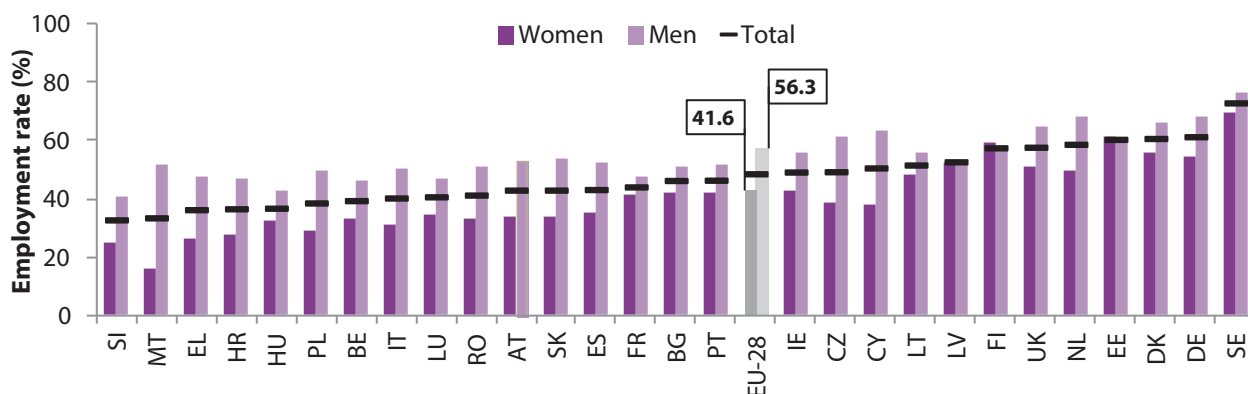


### 3.7.2. Intersecting inequalities in employment for older workers

The second indicator assesses employment rates among older workers (those aged between 55 and 64). Measuring the employment rate among older workers is crucial, as increasing older workers' labour market participation has

long been part of EU labour market policy. One example is the target of reaching at least 50 % employment for older workers by 2010 as set out in the Lisbon strategy (Hessel, 2008).

**Figure 3.55. Employment rates for older workers (55–64) by sex in EU Member States, 2012**

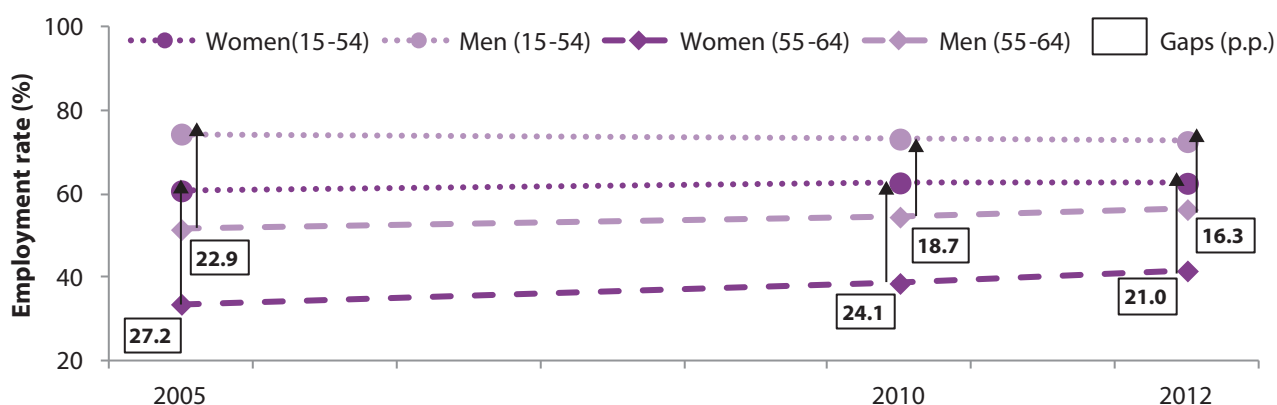


Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_ergacob).

With an average employment rate for those aged 55 to 64 of 49 % in 2012, the EU on average is close to reaching the 50 % target overall, while considerable differences persist between women and men, with 56 % of men and 42 % of women employed in 2012. Employment rates for older workers vary across countries, ranging from 16 % (MT) to

70 % (SE) for women and from 41 % (SI) to 76 % (SE) for men. The gender gap is most pronounced in Malta (36 percentage points) and while women are less likely to be employed in most Member States, they are more likely to be employed in Finland (59 % of women and 56 % of men) and in Estonia (61 % of women and 60 % of men).

**Figure 3.56. Employment rates for workers aged 15–54 and older workers (55–64) by sex in EU-28, 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_ergacob).

Important differences become visible when comparing older workers (55–64) to workers aged 15 to 54. Employment gaps are more pronounced among women, with a gap of 21 percentage points for women workers aged 15 to 54 and those aged 55 to 64. This contrasts with a difference

of 16.3 percentage points for men in these respective categories. Employment rates have only decreased for men aged 15–54 by 1.8 percentage points, but increased for all other groups, most notably by 8 percentage points for older women.

### 3.7.3. Intersecting inequalities in employment for lone parents or carers

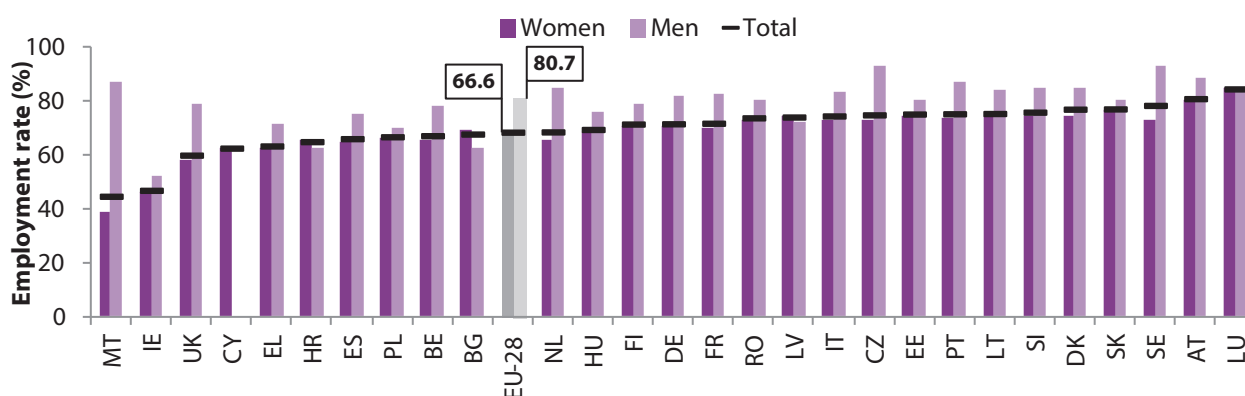
The final gender indicator used to illustrate intersecting inequalities examines employment rates among lone parents or carers compared with single individuals without dependants. As lone parents/carers are disproportionately women, this indicator is important from a gender perspective, as women may be less able to participate in the labour market and hence face higher risks of poverty (European Commission, 2010).

This indicator constitutes only a proxy measure for the employment of lone parents or carers. For instance, it does not capture married parents who do not cohabit, neither does it measure employment below 10 hours a week and thus is likely to underestimate women's employment, as they are more likely to work in so-called micro-jobs (EIGE, 2014b). In addition, as the indicator covers all single adults living with dependent children in the age group between 0 and 25, it does not sufficiently differentiate between young children or older ones. Given that the nature of care required can vary by age, this is an important aspect to consider. Moreover, as all dependent children living within a household are taken into account, it is possible that the indicator does not only cover lone

parents, but also cohabiting children; for instance, in cases where younger siblings (under 18 years old) are living with older siblings (above 25 years old). Lastly, it is not clear how shared custody arrangements are accounted for, for example in cases where children live with one parent during the week and with the other at the weekend, or where custody is shared.

In the EU-28 overall, 68 % of single adults caring for one or more children were employed, with rates being higher for men carers (81 %) than for women carers (67 %). As shown in Figure 3.57, there are considerable differences across countries, with women carers' employment rates ranging from 38 % in Malta to 85 % in Luxembourg for women and from 52 % for men in Ireland to 93 % men in Sweden living with dependent children. Moreover, employment rates of lone parents or carers show vast differences across countries, with 45 % of carers employed in Malta and 84 % in Luxembourg on average in 2012. Across the EU, men with dependent children are more likely to be employed, with the exception of four Member States (BG, HR, LV and LU). Gender gaps range from 7 percentage points in favour of women in Bulgaria to 48 percentage points in favour of men in Malta.

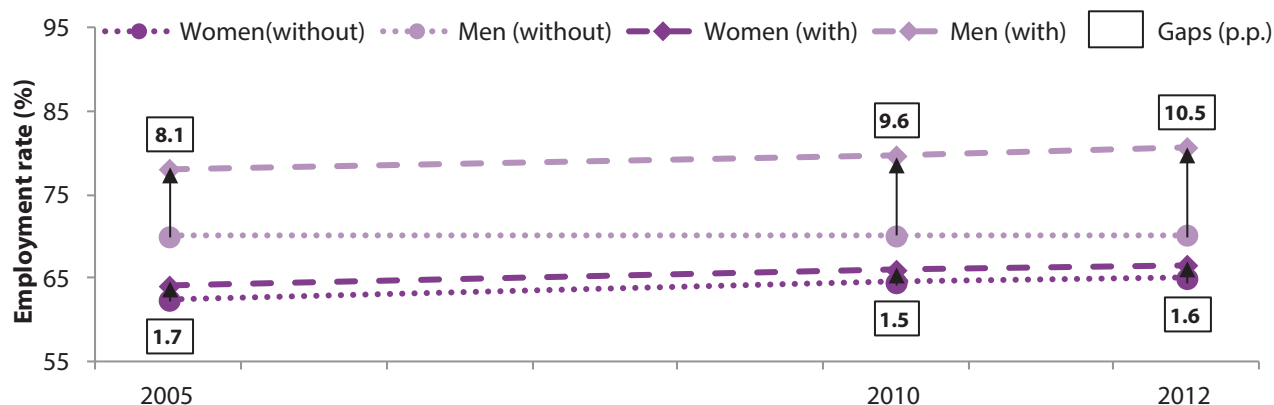
**Figure 3.57. Employment rate for persons living in a household containing a single adult with one or more children by sex in EU Member States (15–64), 2012**



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfst\_hheredy).



**Figure 3.58. Employment rate for persons living in a household containing a single adult with one or more children or without by sex in EU-28 (15–64), 2005–12**



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfst\_hheredty).

Men with dependent children (80.7 %) are most likely to be employed and women without dependent children (65 %) least likely (Figure 3.58). Both women and men with dependent children are more likely to work, with the gap more pronounced for men (10.5 p.p.) than for women (1.6 p.p.). Moreover, gender gaps are more marked for those with children (14 p.p.) as compared to single adults without dependent children (5.2 p.p.).

Between 2005 and 2012, employment rates increased for women and men in both groups, with an increase of around 3 percentage points for all groups with the exception of men without dependent children (0.2 p.p.). This however, is only reflective of the EU-level context. At Member State level, the employment rate of women with children has decreased in 13 Member States and in eight for men with children, out of the 25 Member States for which data are available (all MS except DK, IE, SE). Employment rates for women and men without dependent children decreased in 11 and 12 out of 25 Member States, respectively. Single adult women with children are more likely to be employed than their childless counterparts in all but six Member States. This is even more pronounced for single adult men with children, whose employment rates are higher than those of single adult men without children in 25 Member States.

This, however, does not indicate that single adult women with dependent children are more equal regarding their access to the labour market, specifically when seen in the context of the household composition of the EU. In 2011, single adult households accounted for 26 % of all households and those composed of a single adult with dependent children for only 4 % of all households in the EU-28. Moreover, women are more likely to live with dependent

children, with women accounting for 75 % of single adult households with dependent children and men for 25 % (Eurostat, 2014b).

### 3.7.4. Key trends

Examining gender gaps in employment rates among illustrative groups showed patterns of difference that provide a valuable initial reflection point. Among all the grounds taken into consideration by the gender indicator selected, that is country of birth (as a proxy for belonging to a minority group and/or being a migrant), being older or being a lone parent/carer, men on average were more likely to participate in the labour force than women. Regarding the effect of country of birth, age or lone parent status, results vary more considerably across Member States. Older workers are the only group considered in this section that faced lower employment rates in a systematic manner in all Member States. Older women are least likely to be in employment, which coincides with a much more pronounced gender gap among older workers than among workers below the age of 55. For foreign-born/country national and single adults with/without children, not only were gaps more pronounced between women, but women in both groups were also less likely to be employed than men counterparts.

Although relying on illustrative groups is not in itself sufficient to draw strong conclusions as to how intersecting inequalities contribute to gender equality overall, they represent an opportunity to debate this important area in greater depth. The indicators presented here provide a first step towards understanding the complex nature of the way in which different inequalities intersect.



### 3.8. Violence

Conceptual framework	Measurement framework
Direct violence	A discussion of possible indicators and a first measure of direct violence against women is provided in Section 6 of this publication.
Indirect violence	-

Violence constitutes the final satellite domain, identified in the first Gender Equality Index report in 2013. While both sub-domains of the domain of violence — direct and indirect violence — remained blank in 2013, due to a lack of harmonised data at EU level, this report takes a first step towards developing a composite measure of violence against women. Due to the broad nature of this endeavour, a separate section is dedicated entirely to the

satellite domain of violence (please refer to Section 6 of this publication). It includes a description of the data and indicators available to populate the domain of violence, the first step taken towards measuring violence against women through a composite indicator, and contextualises differences between Member States using other relevant variables. Indirect violence remains unmeasured.

### 3.9. Summary

This section has provided a descriptive analysis of the gender indicators included in the Gender Equality Index, as well as detailed definitions and the periodicity of the indicators newly introduced. It has presented the gender gaps and levels of achievements for 2012 (or the latest year for which data are available) and subsequently offered a description of trends since 2005 at EU level.

In doing so, this section has offered a detailed assessment of the foundation of the Gender Equality Index enabling a better understanding and interpretation of the scores it generates and which are presented in the following section.

# 4. The Gender Equality Index between 2005 and 2012

Building upon the methodology and the updated framework, and having reviewed the gender indicators used in the construction of the Gender Equality Index, the report now turns to the scores for the years 2005, 2010 and 2012.

The Gender Equality Index measures gender gaps adjusted for levels of achievements. This produces a score that ranges from 1 to 100, where 100 stands for the best situation in terms of levels of achievements and full gender equality. It should be interpreted with caution since it measures both how far women and men are from each other, but also the relative positions of Member States to the best achieved situation (the highest level achieved by Member States). As such it is not a 'pure' measure of gender equality as it also captures the level of social cohesion across Member States. To achieve a high score, it is necessary to ensure low gender gaps as well as proximity in levels to the best performing country for each indicator. The principle at the core of this measure is that there can be no equality without the opportunity for all individuals to realise themselves to the fullest of their capacity. The score for the EU on average needs to be interpreted slightly differently: it measures gender gaps in relation to the level of cohesion there is across the Member States. The EU score rises in line with a closing of the gender gaps on average and fewer differences in levels between the Member States (i.e. higher levels of cohesion).

## 4.1. Progress at EU level is marginal

In 2012, the EU-28 achieved an average score of 52.9 out of 100 points, showing that Europe is only halfway towards a gender-equal and cohesive society. Moreover, progress since 2005 has only been marginal, with the score having increased by less than two points since 2005, when the EU achieved a score of 51.3 on average.

Four countries (DK, FI, NL and SE) reach scores markedly above the EU average score and those of the other Member States, passing the bar of two thirds of the way towards equality (Table 4.1) in 2012. In contrast and at the other end of the scale, Romania is only one third of the way towards equality, with a score of 33.7. Over time the upper limit of scores has barely changed, with a maximum score of 74.4 for Sweden in 2010 and only marginal differences in

comparison to 2005 (72.8) and 2012 (74.2) scores. However, the lower limit has dropped slightly. While the lowest score of 36.0 was found in Romania in 2005, it dropped to 33.7 in Romania by 2012, showing a slight polarisation across Member States.

**Table 4.1. Results of the Gender Equality Index**

Country	2005	2010	2012
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>



Although the scores of the Gender Equality Index have slowly but steadily risen on average in the EU, patterns across Member States follow different scenarios. Score increases are marked through cells coloured in **green** and decreases in **red**.

Ten Member States follow the EU pattern with scores that have risen both between 2005 and 2010 and between 2010 and 2012 (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2. Member States where scores of the Gender Equality Index have risen in both periods 2005–10 and 2010–12**

Country	2005	2010	2012
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1

For a further nine Member States, scores have risen between 2005 and 2010, but subsequently decreased between 2010 and 2012 (Table 4.3). While the trend for these countries (except DK) has been positive overall — with a general increase visible between 2005 and 2012 — this trend is mitigated by decreases in scores between 2010 and 2012.

Four Member States have seen a setback between 2005 and 2010, followed by a rise between 2010 and 2012 (Table 4.4). For Malta and Luxembourg this is associated with an overall rise in the scores of the Gender Equality Index between 2005 and 2012. However, in Austria and Bulgaria, the overall trend between 2005 and 2012 is negative.

Finally, the scores of the Gender Equality Index have dropped in both time periods in five Member States (Table 4.5).

**Table 4.3. Member States where scores of the Gender Equality Index have risen between 2005–10, but decreased between 2010–12**

Country	2005	2010	2012
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9

**Table 4.4. Member States where scores of the Gender Equality Index have decreased between 2005–10 but risen between 2010–12**

Country	2005	2010	2012
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5

**Table 4.5. Member States where scores of the Gender Equality Index have decreased in both periods 2005–10 and 2010–12**

Country	2005	2010	2012
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7

Between 2005 and 2012, progress has been uneven across Member States. Some countries such as Cyprus, Germany, Ireland and Italy, have experienced increases of more than 5 points (Figure 4.1), while other Member States, for instance Slovakia and the United Kingdom, have seen a regression of 4 or more points.

**Figure 4.1. Scores of the Gender Equality Index by Member State, differences between 2005 and 2012**



This section provides the scores of the Gender Equality Index in all of the six core domains it measures. It first presents an overview of the progress (or otherwise) achieved at EU level between 2005 and 2012, at sub-domain level,

before providing a breakdown by Member States in the time period concerned, outlining different patterns and most noteworthy changes. Lastly, selected scores for the satellite domain of intersecting inequalities are introduced.

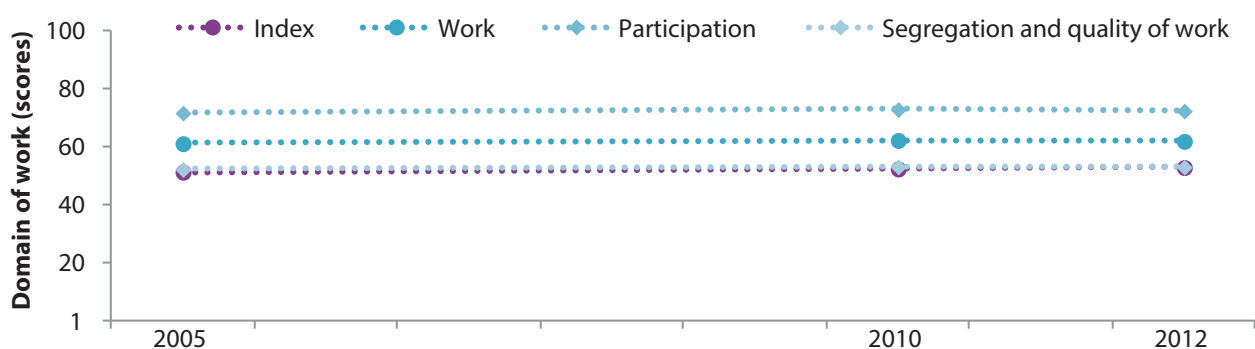


## 4.2. Work: moderate increase fuelled by better scores in segregation and quality of work

Scores within the domain of work have increased only marginally from 61.1 in 2005 to 62.2 in 2010 in the EU-28, followed by a small subsequent drop to 61.9 in 2012 (Figure 4.2). This increase is the result of the progress made in

both areas, with scores in the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work rising from 52.2 in 2005 to 53.0 in 2012 and in the sub-domain of participation from 71.6 in 2005 to 72.3 in 2012 in the EU-28.

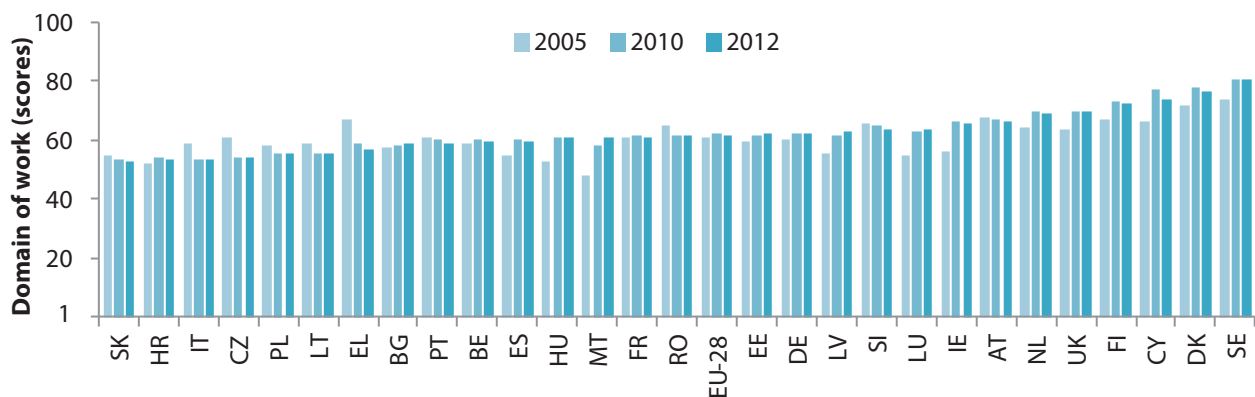
**Figure 4.2. Scores in the domain of work for the EU-28, 2005–12**



The range of scores has expanded between 2005 and 2012 across Member States. In 2005, scores ranged from 48.3 in Malta to 73.6 in Sweden (Figure 4.3). By 2012, the lowest scores were slightly higher with 52.8 in Slovakia, however, a

more pronounced increase is visible at the other end with a figure of 81.0 reached in Sweden, showing that differences between Member States have increased.

**Figure 4.3. Scores in the domain of work by Member States, 2005–12**



The Czech Republic, Greece and Italy stand out as the Member States experiencing the most significant drops of more than 5 points between 2005 and 2012 (going from 66.8 to 56.9 in Greece, from 61.0 to 54.2 in the Czech Republic and from 59.0 to 53.8 in Italy). On a more positive

note, however, there has been significant progress (5 points or more) in a number of Member States (CY, FI, HU, IE, LU, LV, MT, SE, UK). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6. Scores in the domain of work**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of work			Participation			Segregation and quality of work		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	59.2	60.2	59.5	65.9	68.6	66.9	53.1	52.8	52.9
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	57.6	58.3	58.7	70.0	73.5	72.9	47.4	46.3	47.2
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	61.0	54.5	54.2	77.4	75.2	75.3	48.1	39.4	39.0
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	72.1	78.1	76.8	90.2	87.5	85.3	57.7	69.7	69.2
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	60.2	62.3	62.2	71.6	75.2	75.9	50.7	51.6	51.0
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	59.5	61.8	62.0	84.4	82.7	83.6	41.9	46.3	46.0
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	56.4	66.5	65.8	74.0	71.7	69.8	42.9	61.6	61.9
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	66.8	58.7	56.9	63.1	64.6	59.5	70.6	53.3	54.4
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	54.8	60.2	59.6	66.9	71.0	69.5	44.9	51.0	51.1
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	61.2	61.7	61.3	74.6	75.8	75.0	50.2	50.2	50.0
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	52.0	54.2	53.6	67.1	65.2	62.0	40.3	45.1	46.4
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	59.0	53.3	53.8	56.8	56.5	57.1	61.3	50.3	50.6
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	66.1	77.6	74.0	78.8	84.7	79.6	55.4	71.0	68.8
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	55.3	61.7	63.3	80.1	80.6	80.8	38.2	47.2	49.6
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	59.1	55.8	55.6	79.6	78.6	79.8	43.9	39.6	38.7
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	55.1	62.8	63.6	64.8	69.3	71.3	46.8	56.8	56.6
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	53.1	60.7	60.7	67.1	66.8	67.5	42.1	55.1	54.5
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	48.3	58.1	60.7	45.6	52.3	56.2	51.1	64.5	65.6
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	64.2	69.5	69.0	73.2	76.0	75.6	56.2	63.5	62.9
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	67.5	67.0	66.5	74.4	77.3	77.0	61.3	58.0	57.4
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	58.5	55.8	55.5	67.8	71.6	71.1	50.5	43.5	43.3
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	61.0	60.2	59.1	84.0	83.0	78.4	44.2	43.6	44.6
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	65.3	61.9	61.6	73.9	72.6	71.8	57.8	52.8	52.9
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	65.9	65.3	63.6	80.9	80.5	77.4	53.7	52.9	52.2
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	54.7	53.2	52.8	73.6	73.4	72.3	40.6	38.5	38.6
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	67.3	73.0	72.6	86.6	86.0	85.3	52.3	62.0	61.9
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	73.6	80.6	81.0	89.1	93.6	94.7	60.8	69.4	69.3
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	63.7	70.0	69.5	79.4	78.3	77.4	51.2	62.7	62.4
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>61.1</b>	<b>62.2</b>	<b>61.9</b>	<b>71.6</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>72.3</b>	<b>52.2</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>53.0</b>

The Gender Equality Index provides a measure that captures gender gaps, while also taking into account the levels of achievement in each country or the overall situation of a country in the policy areas considered in each domain. As such, the Gender Equality Index takes into account the

context and the different levels of achievement of Member States, ensuring that a good score is the reflection of both low gender gaps and high levels of achievement. It is therefore both a measure of gender equality and social cohesion across the Member States. This is fully in line with



the principle of gender mainstreaming, which aims at institutionalising a gender perspective into policies that seek to increase levels of achievement (or social cohesion across Member States) more generally. At the level of the metric (before rescaling between 1 and 100 to allow for aggregation), it is possible to examine the individual effects of gender gaps and levels of achievement for each indicator. Scores at that level are bound between 0 and 1, where the best score is 1.

Differences in respective metrics between 2005 and 2012 are shown in Table 10.1 in Annex 10. The final metric in the EU-28 shows that progress is the result of an increase in both sub-domains, although progress is more driven by an

improvement in segregation and quality of work than by participation in the labour market. When it comes to levels of achievement, progress has only been achieved within the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work. There is however a decrease in average levels of achievements in participation, signalling a drop in cohesion at EU level.

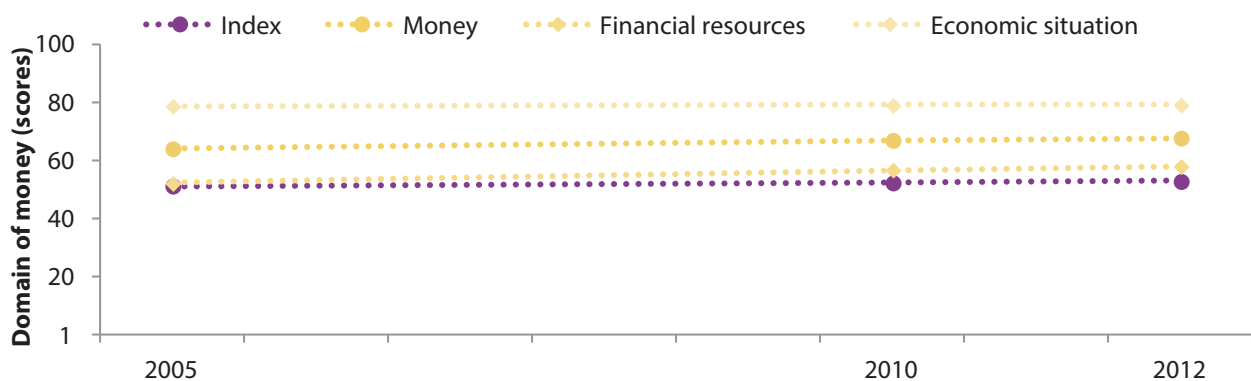
A closer look at Member State level shows that the score for Greece in the domain of work has declined because of a drop in their level of achievement, despite progress made in relation to gender gaps. The overall trend across Member States shows progress when it comes to gender gaps combined with a very uneven picture across levels of achievements.

### 4.3. Money: some progress, most notably in earnings and income

Scores in the domain of money have increased slightly in the EU-28, from 64.1 in 2005 to 67.8 in 2012 (Figure 4.4). Data on mean monthly earnings are not available for 2012 and the score for that year is thus calculated using the 2010 value. The scores are likely to mask the true extent of gender inequalities because many of the indicators the domain relies on consider the household level. Information is then derived at the personal level using an equivalised scale, which by construction cannot take into account gendered power relations within households and the

extent to which income is indeed shared equally between different members. Scores are higher for the area monitoring economic situation (income distribution and not being at risk of poverty), standing at 79.1 in 2012. Little change has taken place since 2005, with a rise in score of just 0.4 points. Instead, progress in this area is largely down to the area of financial resources (earnings and income). From an EU-28 score of 52.2 in 2005, it rose to 56.8 in 2010 and 58.0 in 2012.

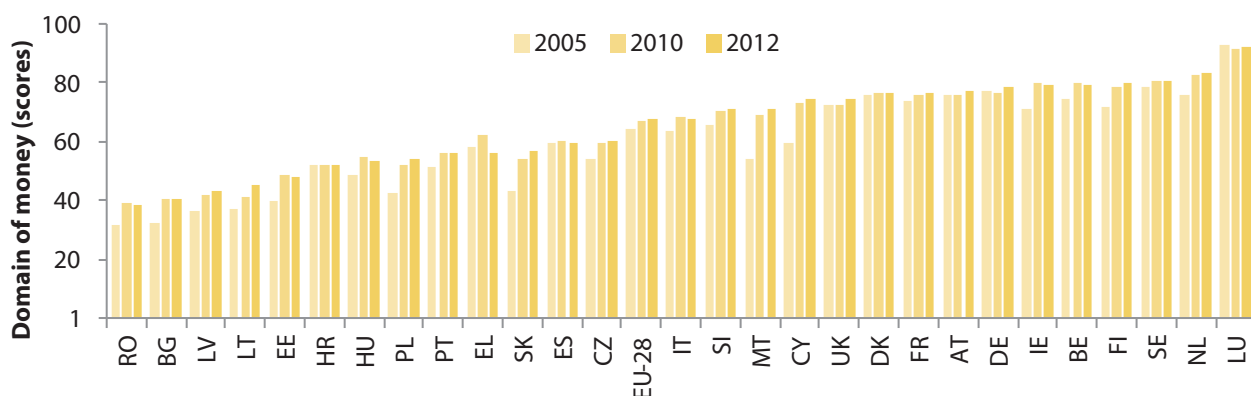
**Figure 4.4. Scores in the domain of money for the EU-28, 2005–12**



The range of scores has narrowed between 2005 and 2012 in the domain of money (Figure 4.5). In 2005, the lowest score was 31.6 in Romania and reached 93.0 in

Luxembourg. By 2012, Romania's score has risen to 38.4 and that of Luxembourg decreased slightly to 92.3.

**Figure 4.5. Scores in the domain of money by Member States, 2005–12**



Greece stands out because its score decreased by 1.8 points between 2005 and 2012, with only two other Member States seeing small decreases (LU down 0.7 points and ES down 0.1 points). In all others, there has been progress over

this time period, with some significant progress in Poland (up 11.8 points), Slovakia (up 13.5 points), Cyprus (up 14.7 points) and Malta (up 17.1 points). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.7.





**Table 4.7. Scores in the domain of money**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of money			Financial resources			Economic situation		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	74.8	79.8	79.6	65.6	70.4	71.6	85.4	90.3	88.3
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	32.6	40.7	40.3	13.5	23.3	23.1	78.6	71.1	70.4
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	54.3	59.4	60.4	31.5	36.3	37.2	93.6	97.2	98.0
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	75.9	76.9	76.4	61.4	70.5	72.4	93.8	83.9	80.5
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	77.6	76.7	78.4	66.8	71.2	73.1	90.0	82.6	84.0
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	39.7	48.9	48.4	22.2	30.6	31.3	71.0	78.1	75.0
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	71.0	80.3	79.0	66.7	77.6	75.8	75.6	83.1	82.3
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	58.2	62.4	56.4	47.3	52.7	47.1	71.7	74.0	67.6
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	59.9	60.1	59.7	48.7	54.2	53.6	73.5	66.7	66.5
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	73.6	76.2	76.9	60.9	67.4	69.6	88.8	86.2	84.9
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	52.0	51.9	52.0	37.3	36.8	36.1	72.6	73.2	75.0
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	63.9	68.6	68.0	55.6	60.8	61.5	73.4	77.3	75.3
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	59.9	73.4	74.6	44.2	66.4	69.0	81.2	81.1	80.8
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	36.4	42.1	43.2	20.0	26.5	26.9	66.6	66.9	69.4
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	37.1	41.5	45.6	20.6	26.8	27.4	67.1	64.2	76.0
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	93.0	91.6	92.3	96.0	96.1	96.4	90.0	87.3	88.3
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	48.6	54.6	53.8	26.9	30.7	32.6	87.8	97.1	89.0
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	54.3	68.8	71.4	33.2	55.1	56.5	88.9	85.8	90.1
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	75.7	82.5	83.6	64.4	72.3	72.2	89.0	94.2	96.7
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	76.0	75.9	77.6	63.3	67.4	69.3	91.2	85.5	86.8
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	42.4	52.4	54.2	26.2	34.9	36.8	68.5	78.8	79.8
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	51.6	56.4	56.0	39.2	42.6	42.3	67.8	74.8	74.1
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	31.6	39.2	38.4	15.8	21.2	21.1	63.3	72.5	70.1
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	65.9	70.3	71.3	46.0	51.6	52.9	94.4	95.9	96.1
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	43.2	54.1	56.7	20.8	32.1	34.3	89.8	91.4	93.7
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	72.0	78.5	79.9	55.9	66.5	69.0	92.8	92.7	92.5
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	78.4	80.5	80.6	62.3	68.2	70.6	98.6	95.1	92.1
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	72.8	72.7	74.6	74.2	69.8	70.4	71.4	75.8	79.1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>64.1</b>	<b>67.0</b>	<b>67.8</b>	<b>52.2</b>	<b>56.8</b>	<b>58.0</b>	<b>78.7</b>	<b>79.0</b>	<b>79.1</b>

Note: the sub-domain score for financial resources in 2012 is partly based on 2010 data and the score in 2005 is partly based on 2006 data, as data for the indicator 'Mean monthly earnings' is only available for 2006 and 2010.

Differences in respective metrics between 2005 and 2012 are shown in Table 10.2 in Annex 10. The final metric in the EU-28 shows that progress is mostly driven by the sub-domain of financial resources, and to a small extent in economic situation.

Examining the gender gap metric, however, shows that there has been no progress on average in the EU-28, and that progress is linked to an increase in levels of achievements in financial resources. This means that there has

been no progress in equality between women and men, but that there is greater cohesion throughout the EU-28 in the domain of money.

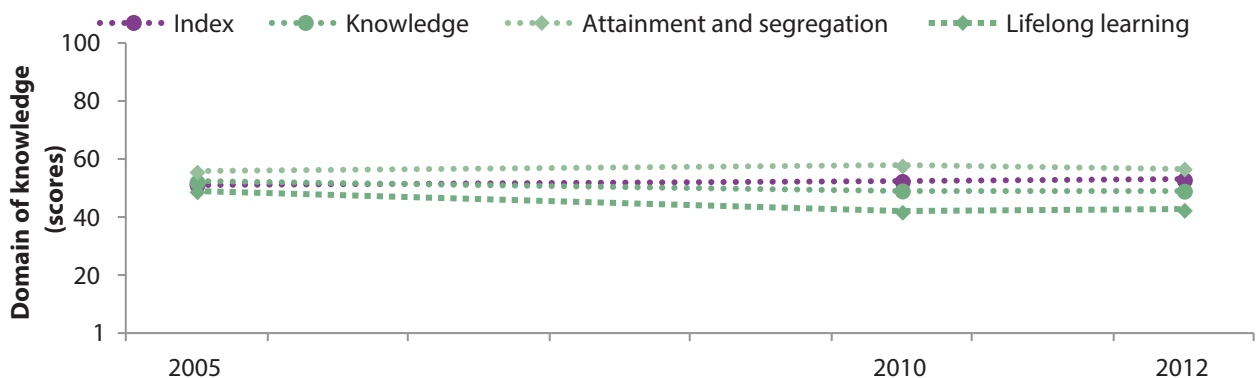
At the Member State level, changes in the metric measuring gender gaps are small. However, for levels of achievements, the metric shows much more variation, particularly in relation to financial resources. Cyprus and Malta for example have seen some important increases, driving up their score for the domain of money.

## 4.4. Knowledge: scores decreasing in lifelong learning

The score for knowledge, although slightly higher at 49.1 also shows the need for more progress in this area. There has been a slight decrease from 52.1 in 2005 (Figure 4.6). In the sub-domain capturing attainment and segregation, there has been a small amount of progress in the EU-28, with a score of 55.6 in 2005, rising to 57.7 in 2010 but

decreasing again slightly to 56.7 in 2012. The drop in the score of knowledge is largely due to a drop in the scores associated with lifelong learning. In 2005, the score for this area was 48.9, dropping to 41.8 in 2010 but increasing moderately to 42.5 by 2012.

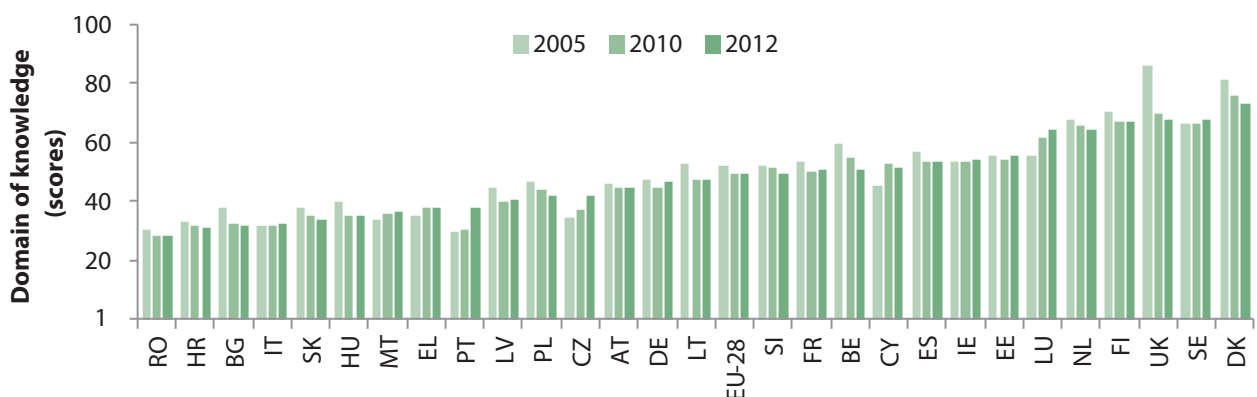
**Figure 4.6. Scores in the domain of knowledge for the EU-28, 2005–12**



The lower scores in the domain of knowledge have remained constant. Portugal, which had the lowest score in 2005 with 29.9, increased its score to 37.8, as a result of better scores in attainment and segregation as well as in lifelong learning (Figure 4.7). In 2012, the lowest score belongs to Romania with 28.2 points, down 2.3 points

since 2005. Nevertheless, scores at the top end of the distribution have dropped significantly, notably because of the United Kingdom dropping from 86.0 points in 2005 to 67.5 in 2012. The highest score for 2012 is obtained by Denmark, with 73.2 points.

**Figure 4.7. Scores in the domain of knowledge by Member States, 2005–12**



Apart from the United Kingdom's substantial drop, a number of other Member States have also significantly decreased in score between 2005 and 2012. For example, Belgium went from 59.9 to 51.0 (down 8.9 points) and Denmark from 81.6 to 73.2 (down 8.4). Only a minority of Member States have experienced an increase. The most important increases concern Cyprus (from 45.3 to 51.5), the Czech Republic (34.5 to 42.0), Portugal (29.9 to 37.8) and

Luxembourg (55.6 to 64.6). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.8.

Differences in respective metrics between 2005 and 2012 are shown in Table 10.3 in Annex 10. The final metric in the EU-28 shows that the decline in the overall score in this domain is the result of decreased scores in lifelong learning, despite slight progress in attainment and segregation.



**Table 4.8. Scores in the domain of knowledge**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of knowledge			Attainment and segregation			Lifelong learning		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	59.9	54.7	51.0	78.0	78.5	72.8	46.0	38.1	35.8
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	38.0	32.6	31.8	50.3	46.7	45.7	28.8	22.8	22.1
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	34.5	37.5	42.0	29.7	36.4	39.2	40.1	38.6	44.9
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	81.6	75.8	73.2	80.2	67.9	62.7	83.0	84.7	85.5
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	47.1	44.8	46.7	51.3	51.4	53.2	43.3	39.0	40.9
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	55.7	53.9	55.4	65.3	60.0	60.9	47.5	48.4	50.4
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	53.4	53.7	54.3	71.0	78.5	77.8	40.3	36.7	37.8
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	35.0	37.6	37.6	44.5	51.0	51.0	27.5	27.7	27.8
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	56.6	53.8	53.4	71.3	69.7	67.4	45.0	41.6	42.4
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	53.8	49.9	50.7	65.0	65.3	63.7	44.5	38.1	40.3
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	33.2	31.6	31.0	35.7	39.6	35.7	30.9	25.2	26.8
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	31.9	32.0	32.5	29.8	31.2	31.0	34.1	32.9	34.1
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	45.3	52.9	51.5	61.6	73.6	75.3	33.3	38.0	35.2
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	44.4	39.6	40.3	40.7	47.1	45.5	48.4	33.4	35.6
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	53.0	47.2	47.6	56.1	58.5	56.9	50.1	38.1	39.9
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	55.6	61.7	64.6	63.5	73.5	76.3	48.7	51.8	54.6
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	39.8	35.3	35.3	43.3	43.0	43.5	36.6	29.1	28.7
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	33.6	35.6	36.3	31.8	39.0	40.2	35.6	32.5	32.8
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	68.1	65.8	64.6	70.7	68.2	65.5	65.5	63.5	63.7
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	46.3	45.0	44.5	40.0	40.2	38.5	53.5	50.2	51.5
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	46.5	43.8	41.8	39.7	46.0	45.8	54.6	41.7	38.1
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	29.9	30.4	37.8	26.6	29.6	34.2	33.5	31.1	41.7
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	30.5	28.7	28.2	26.7	31.9	32.4	34.9	25.8	24.5
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	52.3	51.4	49.4	43.7	46.4	47.2	62.7	57.0	51.7
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	37.6	34.9	34.0	31.7	37.9	38.7	44.6	32.1	30.0
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	70.8	67.3	67.3	68.8	68.1	64.9	72.9	66.6	69.8
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	66.6	66.6	67.6	68.8	69.0	66.6	64.6	64.3	68.6
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	86.0	69.7	67.5	82.2	83.4	84.3	90.0	58.3	54.1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>52.1</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>55.6</b>	<b>57.7</b>	<b>56.7</b>	<b>48.9</b>	<b>41.8</b>	<b>42.5</b>

At EU level, with regard to the gender gap metric, the two sub-domains remained approximately constant between 2005 and 2012. The changes in the domain are therefore wholly driven by a decrease in the levels of achievement in the area of lifelong learning. This suggests that the differences between Member States have increased during this time period.

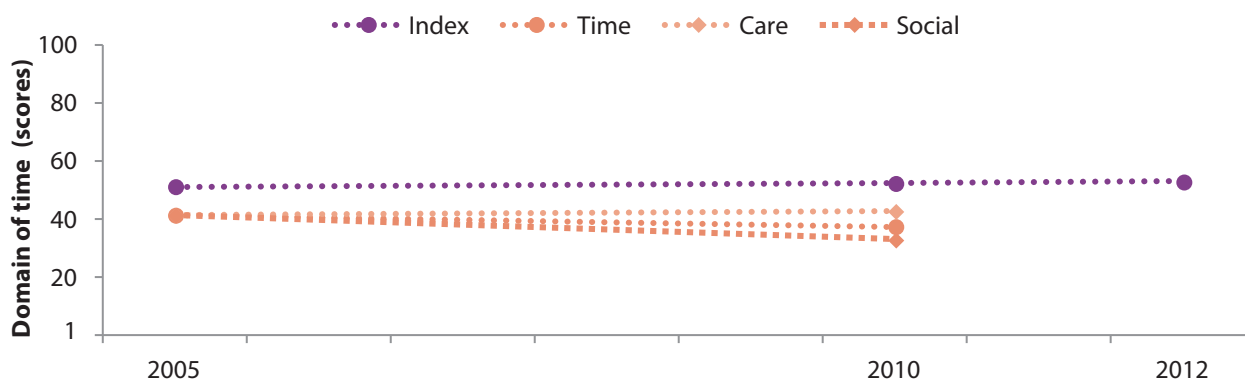
At the Member State level, there are important differences between 2005 and 2012 in gender gaps. Some Member States have seen significant improvements in attainment and segregation (CY, CZ, EL), while at the same time there have been setbacks in others (PL). However, for lifelong learning, a significant number of Member States have experienced a decline, with the United Kingdom showing the most pronounced one.

## 4.5. Time: persistent and worsening inequalities

The lowest scores can be found in the domain of time (37.6), showing that it remains the most problematic area in terms of gender equality in the EU. However, it is important to note that the domain of time contains indicators for the year 2010 (EWCS) and thus the assessment of progress can only be made between 2005 and 2010. A striking

finding is that the score has decreased during that time from 41.5 in 2005 to 37.6 in 2010 (Figure 4.9). At EU level, in 2010, scores are lower when it comes to the division of time within social activities (33.0 points) than for care activities (42.8 points).

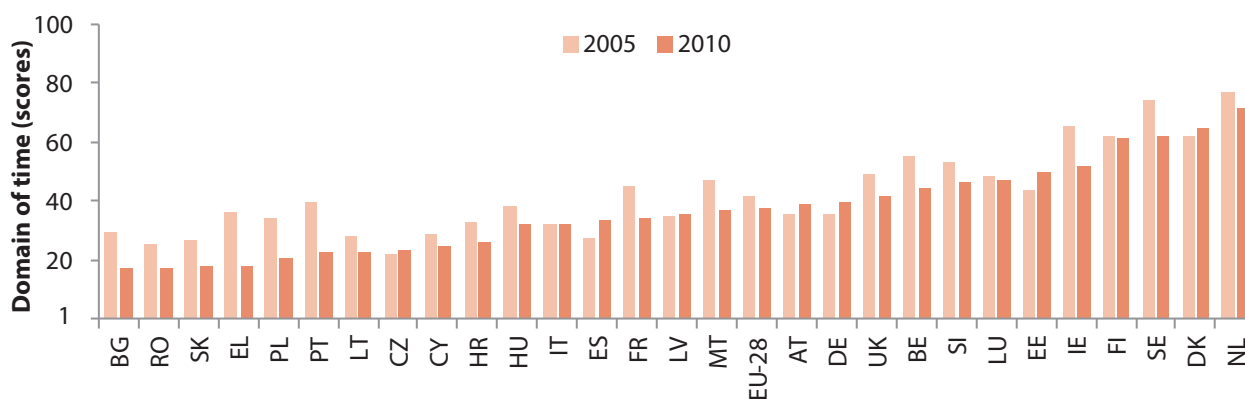
**Figure 4.8. Scores in the domain of time for the EU-28, 2005–12**



In Bulgaria, Greece, Romania and Slovakia, scores in the domain of time are below 20, but they are above 70 in the Netherlands (Figure 4.9). Scores in the domain of time have

significantly decreased across the majority of Member States. Greece and Portugal saw the most dramatic drop in scores with a loss of 18.3 and 17.0 points respectively.

**Figure 4.9. Scores in the domain of time by Member State, 2005–10**



Worsening scores are the result of a decrease in scores in both sub-domains in the majority of Member States. On average the EU experienced a slight increase of 1.3 points in the score for the sub-domain of care (up from 41.5 to

42.8), while the score for the domain of social activities decreased significantly by 8.5 points between 2005 and 2010 (down from 41.5 to 33.0). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.9.



**Table 4.9. Scores in the domain of time**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of time			Care			Social		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	55.1	44.1	44.1	62.2	53.5	53.5	48.9	36.4	36.4
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	29.4	17.0	17.0	45.1	20.1	20.1	19.2	14.4	14.4
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	22.2	23.5	23.5	19.6	29.1	29.1	25.2	19.0	19.0
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	61.8	64.5	64.5	74.3	79.3	79.3	51.3	52.5	52.5
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	35.4	39.7	39.7	29.9	36.5	36.5	42.0	43.3	43.3
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	43.8	49.8	49.8	56.7	70.9	70.9	33.8	35.0	35.0
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	65.5	52.0	52.0	61.3	56.7	56.7	70.0	47.7	47.7
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	36.2	17.9	17.9	40.1	21.1	21.1	32.7	15.2	15.2
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	27.2	33.5	33.5	23.5	56.5	56.5	31.5	19.8	19.8
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	45.0	34.5	34.5	45.1	40.3	40.3	44.8	29.4	29.4
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	32.9	25.9	25.9	36.2	32.1	32.1	29.9	20.9	20.9
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	32.2	32.4	32.4	32.9	40.4	40.4	31.4	26.0	26.0
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	28.6	24.4	24.4	38.7	32.9	32.9	21.2	18.1	18.1
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	34.5	35.2	35.2	61.2	76.4	76.4	19.4	16.2	16.2
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	27.7	22.8	22.8	36.1	36.2	36.2	21.2	14.4	14.4
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	48.3	47.1	47.1	51.3	48.0	48.0	45.4	46.2	46.2
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	38.3	31.9	31.9	51.8	51.8	51.8	28.4	19.7	19.7
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	47.3	36.7	36.7	46.2	40.6	40.6	48.3	33.2	33.2
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	76.9	71.2	71.2	75.9	70.6	70.6	77.9	71.9	71.9
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	35.5	38.6	38.6	29.0	33.0	33.0	43.4	45.1	45.1
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	34.1	20.8	20.8	42.8	26.9	26.9	27.2	16.0	16.0
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	39.4	22.4	22.4	63.9	50.2	50.2	24.3	10.0	10.0
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	25.5	17.4	17.4	51.7	25.5	25.5	12.6	11.9	11.9
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	53.4	46.6	46.6	39.6	45.9	45.9	72.0	47.4	47.4
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	26.8	17.7	17.7	31.1	26.7	26.7	23.1	11.8	11.8
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	61.9	61.3	61.3	50.0	50.2	50.2	76.7	74.8	74.8
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	74.1	61.9	61.9	61.5	65.3	65.3	89.3	58.8	58.8
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	48.8	41.8	41.8	52.5	52.7	52.7	45.4	33.1	33.1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>37.6</b>	<b>37.6</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>33.0</b>	<b>33.0</b>

Note: data from year 2010 (EWCS) were used to calculate the scores for the domain of time for 2012, due to a lack of available data.

Differences in respective metrics between 2005 and 2012 are shown in Table 10.4 in Annex 10. The final metric in the EU-28 shows that the decline in the overall score in this domain is mainly the result of a decrease in social activities, despite a small improvement in care activities.

At EU level, the gender gap metric shows that there has been a minor improvement between 2005 and 2012 in the division of time between women and men when it comes to care activities, mirrored to a lower extent by social activities. Levels of achievement — that is the extent to which

individuals are able to devote time to these activities — have declined within social activities and to a lesser extent within care activities.

At the Member State level, there have been significant declines between 2005 and 2012 in gender gaps, observed

in the majority of countries. However, the situation is more uneven when it comes to levels of achievements, since — despite some strong declines between 2005 and 2012 — some progress is nevertheless observed in certain Member States. Overall, scores in this domain are driven by lower opportunities for people to engage in social activities.

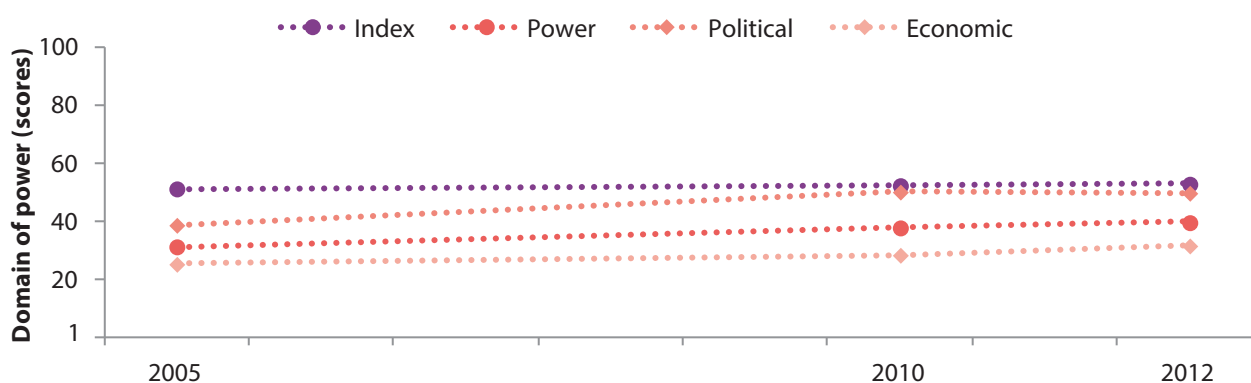


## 4.6. Power: important gender imbalance in representation continues despite marked progress

In 2012, the domain of power shows the second lowest scores (39.7), demonstrating the high imbalance that is prevalent in the EU in representation (Figure 4.10). Contrary to the domain of time, there is a rise from 31.4 in 2005 to 39.7 in 2012 in the domain of power, an increase of 8.3 points in the space of 7 years. There is greater equality

in representation in the political sphere, with an average score at EU level that has risen from 38.8 in 2005 to 49.8 in 2012. In the economic sphere, there is a more modest rise from a low level of just 25.4 points in 2005 to a score of 31.7 in 2012.

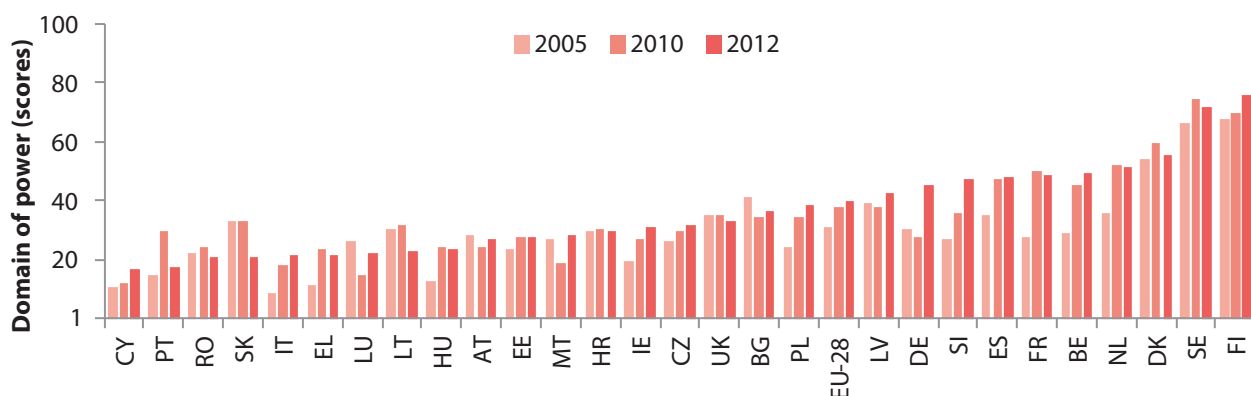
**Figure 4.10. Scores in the domain of power for the EU-28, 2005–12**



The range of scores shifted upwards between 2005 and 2012. The lowest score increased from 8.7 points in Italy in 2005 to 16.9 in 2012 in Cyprus, although this still represents

a very low score. In the same time period, gender equality in representation increased from 68.1 in 2005 to 75.7 in Finland (Figure 4.11).

**Figure 4.11. Scores in the domain of power by Member States, 2005–12**



In the EU, on average, progress is more marked in the sub-domain of political decision-making (up 11 points) than in the sub-domain of economic decision-making (up by 6.3 points) between 2005 and 2012. Progress is very uneven across (and within) Member States, with countries such as Germany or Spain experiencing a marked increase in one and a large decrease in the other sub-domain, while still seeing an overall improvement in the domain of power. Several countries have strongly increased their scores in

the political sub-domain such as France (up 23.8 points), while others have experienced an important decrease, as in the case of Germany (down 14.8 points). The same applies to economic decision-making with a worsening situation in Slovakia (down 28.2 points) while Hungary and the Netherlands both see notable increases (up 23.2 and 23.1 points respectively). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10. Scores in the domain of power**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of power			Political			Economic		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	29.0	45.3	49.5	55.7	65.5	71.3	15.1	31.3	34.3
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	41.5	34.4	36.8	50.7	48.3	53.4	34.0	24.5	25.4
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	26.1	29.7	31.8	25.5	34.1	34.1	26.7	25.8	29.6
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	54.4	59.9	55.7	64.1	78.1	74.2	46.2	45.9	41.9
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	30.2	28.0	45.1	74.8	59.2	60.0	12.2	13.2	33.9
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	23.3	28.0	27.9	24.3	35.1	33.4	22.3	22.3	23.3
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	19.4	27.0	31.4	24.2	31.0	38.7	15.6	23.5	25.5
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	11.1	23.8	21.9	16.1	40.9	28.3	7.6	13.9	17.0
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	35.0	47.5	47.8	79.7	75.8	68.0	15.3	29.7	33.7
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	28.0	50.4	48.8	34.7	64.1	58.5	22.6	39.7	40.7
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	30.0	30.5	29.7	45.1	42.2	41.8	20.0	22.0	21.1
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	8.7	18.2	21.8	20.4	31.1	29.6	3.7	10.6	16.1
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	10.4	12.1	16.9	14.6	31.4	34.1	7.5	4.7	8.3
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	39.1	38.2	42.5	37.4	38.4	42.6	40.8	38.1	42.4
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	30.6	31.6	22.8	29.7	35.0	32.6	31.6	28.5	16.0
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	26.4	14.7	22.6	44.3	44.6	47.8	15.8	4.8	10.7
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	12.9	24.4	23.5	17.2	15.2	16.8	9.7	39.0	32.9
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	27.2	18.8	28.3	26.5	30.2	29.4	27.9	11.7	27.3
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	36.0	52.4	51.3	70.7	69.6	63.5	18.3	39.4	41.4
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	28.6	24.2	27.1	63.7	62.7	60.6	12.8	9.3	12.1
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	24.0	34.2	38.5	27.4	34.8	44.0	21.1	33.5	33.7
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	14.5	29.7	17.6	33.0	43.2	43.0	6.4	20.4	7.2
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	22.2	24.5	20.7	20.1	19.6	19.2	24.5	30.6	22.2
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	26.7	35.9	47.2	18.9	43.0	38.5	37.6	29.9	58.0
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	33.0	33.3	21.1	25.8	31.9	31.7	42.2	34.7	14.0
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	68.1	68.8	75.7	82.3	86.2	83.6	56.3	54.9	68.5
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	66.6	74.5	71.7	83.7	91.6	93.5	53.0	60.6	55.0
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	35.5	35.0	33.2	39.1	51.7	45.6	32.2	23.6	24.2
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>37.9</b>	<b>39.7</b>	<b>38.8</b>	<b>50.2</b>	<b>49.8</b>	<b>25.4</b>	<b>28.5</b>	<b>31.7</b>

Note: the sub-domain score for political power for 2005 has been calculated without the indicator 'Share of members of regional assemblies', due to unavailability of data.



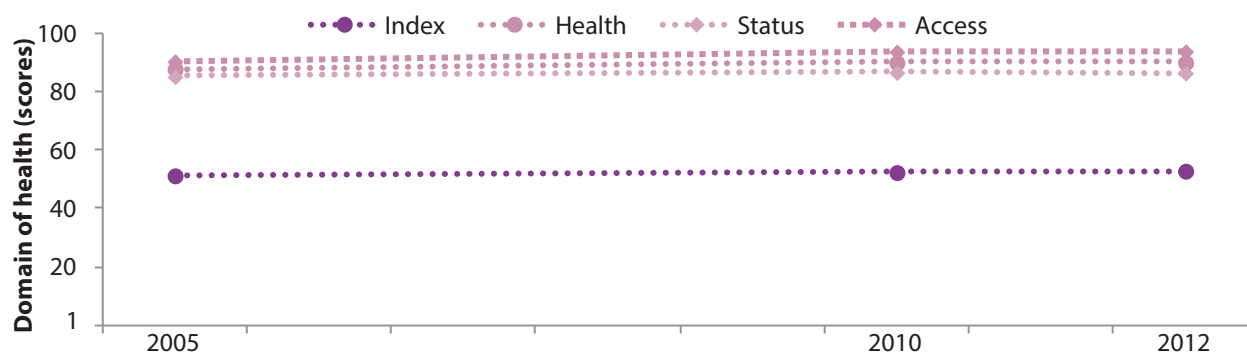


## 4.7. Health: better scores in health status and access to structures

Scores in the domain of health have risen slightly since 2005 from 87.8 in the EU-28 to 90.0 in 2010 and 2012 (Figure 4.12). It is the result of an increase in both the sub-domains that make up the domain of health. Health status

rose from 85.2 in 2005 to 86.6 in 2010, before dropping slightly to 86.4 in 2012. Scores for access to health structures rose from 90.4 in 2005 to 93.7 in 2010 and 93.8 in 2012.

**Figure 4.12. Scores in the domain of health for the EU-28, 2005–12**



The range of scores in the domain of health has narrowed between 2005 and 2012. The lowest score for both years is obtained by Latvia, with 66.7 points in 2005 rising to 75.6 in 2012 (Figure 4.13). Maximum scores remain at a similar level

over the same period. In 2005 the highest score was in Ireland with 96.0 points, decreasing slightly to 95.6 points in Malta by 2012.

**Figure 4.13. Scores in the domain of health by Member States, 2005–12**



Scores have risen in the majority of Member States between 2005 and 2012. These are significant in Lithuania (up 5.1 points), Germany (up 6.9 points), Hungary (up 8.4 points), Bulgaria (up 8.4 points) and Latvia (up 8.9 points). However, exceptions exist in Greece (down 2.7 points) and Denmark (down 4 points). Full results by Member States are provided in Table 4.11.

the EU-28 shows that progress in the overall score in this domain is the result of an increase in health status and even more of improved access to health structures.

Differences in respective metrics between 2005 and 2012 are shown in Table 10.5 in Annex 10. The final metric in

At EU level, the gender gap metric shows very little change between 2005 and 2012. The biggest change is a rise of the levels of achievements in access to health structures, suggesting that much of the rise in scores in this domain, on average in the EU, is linked to an increase in the number of people who do not have unmet medical or dental needs.

**Table 4.11. Scores in the domain of health**

Country	Gender Equality Index			Domain of health			Status			Access		
	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012	2005	2010	2012
BE	55.6	58.3	58.2	94.0	94.0	93.6	89.7	89.2	90.4	98.6	99.1	96.9
BG	42.3	38.1	38.5	77.6	84.6	86.0	82.6	83.0	82.8	72.9	86.2	89.2
CZ	40.3	42.1	43.8	87.1	89.7	89.5	80.7	83.4	82.8	94.0	96.4	96.7
DK	71.1	72.7	70.9	95.4	92.1	91.4	93.8	87.9	88.0	96.9	96.5	94.9
DE	49.7	49.9	55.3	83.1	89.9	90.0	81.2	84.5	84.2	85.1	95.5	96.3
EE	45.3	49.7	49.8	79.5	83.7	82.0	71.6	74.3	74.0	88.2	94.3	90.9
IE	50.8	55.1	56.5	96.0	96.2	95.2	95.1	95.8	95.7	96.9	96.7	94.8
EL	38.2	39.8	38.3	93.5	92.4	90.8	93.4	92.2	90.7	93.7	92.6	90.9
ES	48.7	53.7	53.6	90.1	90.9	92.2	87.8	89.5	91.1	92.4	92.5	93.2
FR	52.5	55.9	55.7	91.7	90.4	90.6	88.2	86.7	87.5	95.2	94.2	93.7
HR	41.6	40.1	39.8	81.7	81.4	85.3	76.0	75.4	76.8	87.7	87.9	94.7
IT	34.6	39.6	41.1	88.7	90.3	89.5	86.1	89.4	87.0	91.4	91.2	92.1
CY	38.5	42.6	44.9	89.5	90.6	92.4	88.5	91.0	91.8	90.5	90.3	93.1
LV	44.0	45.3	46.9	66.7	74.9	75.6	63.8	70.9	70.6	69.7	79.1	80.9
LT	43.6	42.2	40.2	77.2	84.7	82.3	66.9	74.0	70.2	89.0	96.9	96.5
LU	53.7	50.1	55.2	93.2	94.2	94.6	90.6	91.4	91.8	95.8	97.2	97.6
HU	37.2	42.0	41.6	76.8	84.2	85.2	70.5	75.8	78.2	83.6	93.6	92.7
MT	43.4	42.4	46.8	94.1	93.4	95.6	92.4	91.5	93.5	96.0	95.4	97.8
NL	63.6	69.1	68.5	93.8	94.7	93.6	91.9	90.6	88.5	95.9	99.0	99.1
AT	50.5	49.1	50.2	92.8	91.4	92.7	87.7	86.4	87.3	98.3	96.7	98.4
PL	42.7	43.0	43.7	81.3	83.2	83.6	79.2	78.6	78.8	83.4	88.1	88.6
PT	37.4	40.1	37.9	82.6	83.2	83.3	74.9	75.3	77.6	91.2	91.8	89.3
RO	36.0	35.0	33.7	82.8	83.8	84.4	83.5	81.9	82.3	82.1	85.8	86.6
SI	52.7	54.9	57.3	88.4	88.7	90.1	78.2	78.7	81.2	99.9	100.0	100.0
SK	41.5	39.8	36.5	83.4	86.1	86.7	75.1	77.3	78.5	92.5	95.8	95.7
FI	70.0	71.4	72.7	89.0	89.7	89.0	83.6	85.3	84.2	94.7	94.4	94.1
SE	72.8	74.4	74.2	89.1	93.5	93.3	92.1	96.8	96.9	86.1	90.3	90.0
UK	62.0	58.9	58.0	93.4	95.6	94.4	92.3	93.9	91.4	94.5	97.4	97.5
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>87.8</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>85.2</b>	<b>86.6</b>	<b>86.4</b>	<b>90.4</b>	<b>93.7</b>	<b>93.8</b>

At the Member State level, there is very little change in gender gaps. Changes, both negative and positive are more prevalent in the levels of achievement within the area of health status. Scores in this area have decreased in Denmark between 2005 and 2012, although in many other

Member States such as Hungary or Latvia, they have risen. Overall, the most substantial changes are in the levels of achievements for access to health structures, where there has been significant progress, such as for example in Bulgaria, Latvia or Germany.



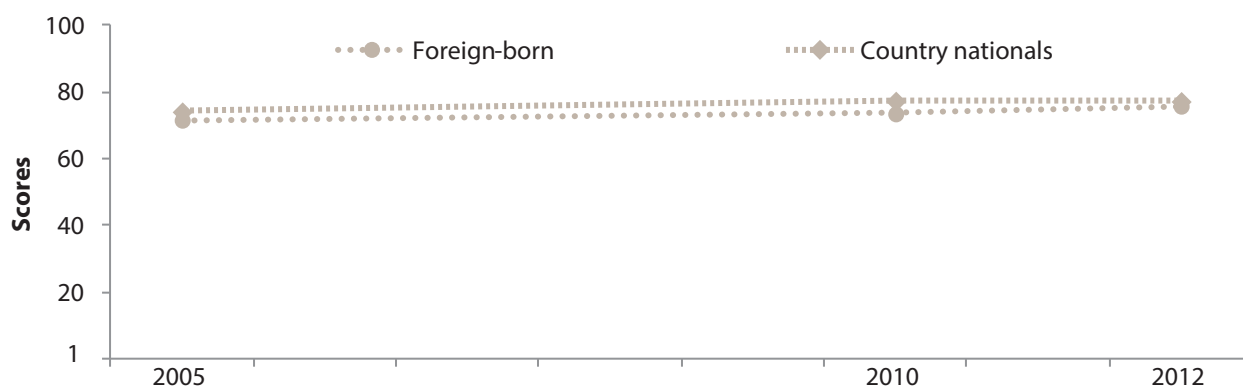
## 4.8. Intersecting inequalities

Scores in the domain of intersecting inequalities show how different grounds for discrimination intersect with gender. For this purpose, scores assess gender gaps in the employment rates among three groups of individuals in comparison to their respective counter groups: people born in a foreign country outside of the country in which they are currently employed (as a proxy for belonging to an ethnic minority and/or being a migrant); older workers (aged 55–64) and people in households consisting of a single adult with one or more children (as a proxy for lone parents/carers). Since these represent illustrative groups only and since this structure has not been reified through a

multivariate analysis, the scores are not aggregated (nor by extension weighted) into the core Gender Equality Index.

Between 2005 and 2012, levels of gender equality in employment have been persistently, albeit marginally, higher for people who are nationals of the country they work in, in contrast to those born in a foreign country (Figure 4.14). In 2012, the score for employment of foreign-born individuals (75.8) was 1.4 points lower than that of country nationals on average in the EU-28 (77.2). Gender Equality Index scores between the two groups at EU level are very close. Levels of equality between the two groups are close to equal with 75.8 for those born in a foreign country and 77.2 for country nationals for the EU-28 on average in 2012.

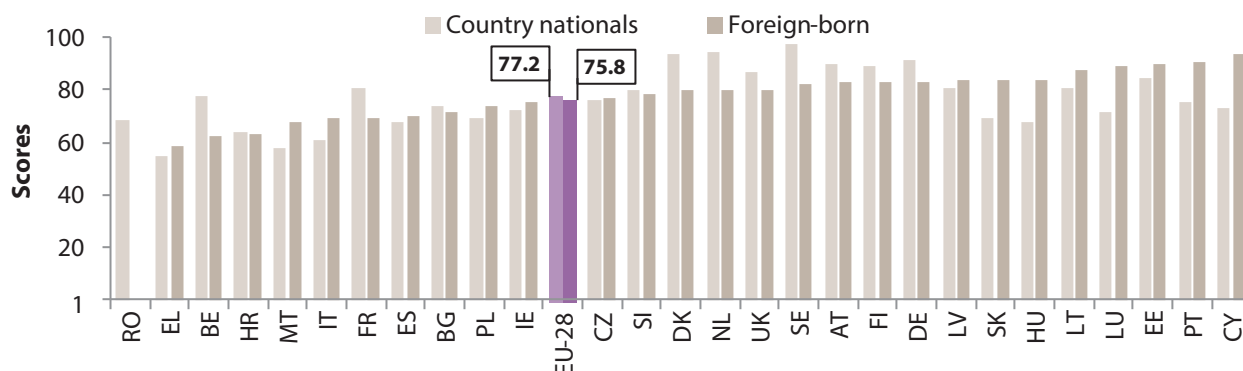
**Figure 4.14. Gender Equality Index scores for ‘employment of foreign-born born in comparison to country nationals’, EU-28, 2005–12**



Across Member States, considerable differences in the way in which gender and being born in a foreign country intersect are noticeable (Figure 4.15). The gap in equality scores stood at 20.5 points in favour of foreign-born workers in Cyprus, but to 15.5 points in favour of country nationals in Sweden. These scores need to be interpreted carefully, due to the different migration patterns and regimes in

respective Member States — including the proportion of women and men migrants and gendered patterns in migration (Kofman et al., 2000) — as well as concerning the indicator itself, as it does not include people with a migrant background born in the respective country (including second or subsequent generation migration).

**Figure 4.15. Gender Equality Index scores for ‘employment of foreign-born individuals in comparison to country nationals’ in EU Member States, 2012**



**Table 4.12. Gender Equality Index scores for ‘employment of foreign-born workers born and country national workers’, 2005–12**

Country	2005		2010		2012	
	Foreign-born	Country nationals	Foreign-born	Country nationals	Foreign-born	Country nationals
BE	55.2	73.2	61.1	77.3	62.5	77.5
BG	:	:	64.5	74.3	71.3	73.5
CZ	71.7	73.7	76.7	74.2	77.1	76.2
DK	77.4	95.4	81.8	95.4	79.5	93.8
DE	67.1	81.0	75.2	89.7	83.0	90.9
EE	91.5	81.4	79.3	80.4	89.8	84.4
IE	:	76.1	73.4	74.0	75.5	72.4
EL	68.9	59.8	69.3	62.8	58.5	54.7
ES	82.7	66.5	73.8	69.4	70.2	67.3
FR	66.6	77.8	67.6	80.5	69.3	80.3
HR	:	:	65.4	69.3	62.7	64.0
IT	65.5	59.1	66.5	60.5	69.0	61.2
CY	90.6	73.7	95.4	79.0	93.8	73.3
LV	83.1	75.4	80.5	76.0	83.4	80.8
LT	81.1	77.7	81.3	74.1	87.6	80.5
LU	80.9	66.2	84.8	69.7	89.0	71.8
HU	74.6	66.4	83.6	65.9	83.7	67.4
MT	54.9	43.8	62.6	52.0	67.8	57.6
NL	72.6	89.5	78.1	93.4	79.7	94.6
AT	74.8	82.8	80.8	89.2	82.7	90.1
PL	33.8	61.4	58.7	69.4	73.4	69.4
PT	92.8	79.5	86.8	79.7	90.8	75.4
RO	:	67.3	:	68.5	:	68.7
SI	85.5	80.1	81.5	82.7	78.4	79.7
SK	51.7	66.7	53.0	69.1	83.4	68.8
FI	70.5	87.3	74.7	88.7	82.8	89.3
SE	81.8	94.5	75.8	95.6	82.1	97.6
UK	78.4	87.3	78.3	86.2	80.0	86.5
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>71.6</b>	<b>74.1</b>	<b>73.5</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>77.2</b>

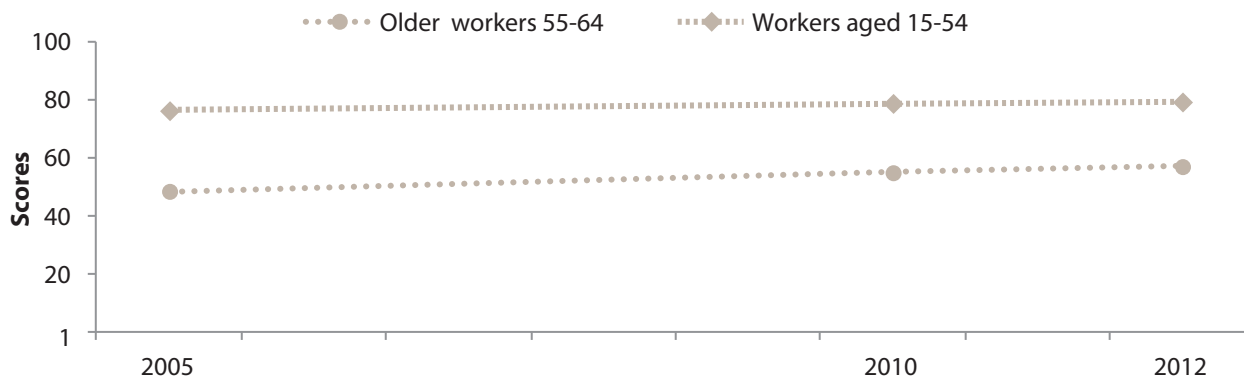
Note: ‘:’ indicates that data for women, men or both were not available, thus scores could not be calculated.

Scores assessing the levels of equality in employment among older workers (55–64) and workers aged between 15 and 54 show considerable differences between these groups over time (Figure 4.16). With a score of 57.1 for older workers for the EU-28 in 2012, compared with 79.3 for those belonging to the group of workers aged 15 to

54, gender inequality in employment is more pronounced among older workers. This pattern appears to have become less pronounced over time, with the differences in scores shrinking since 2005; from a difference of 27.7 points in favour of workers between 15 and 54 in 2005 to 22.2 points in 2012.



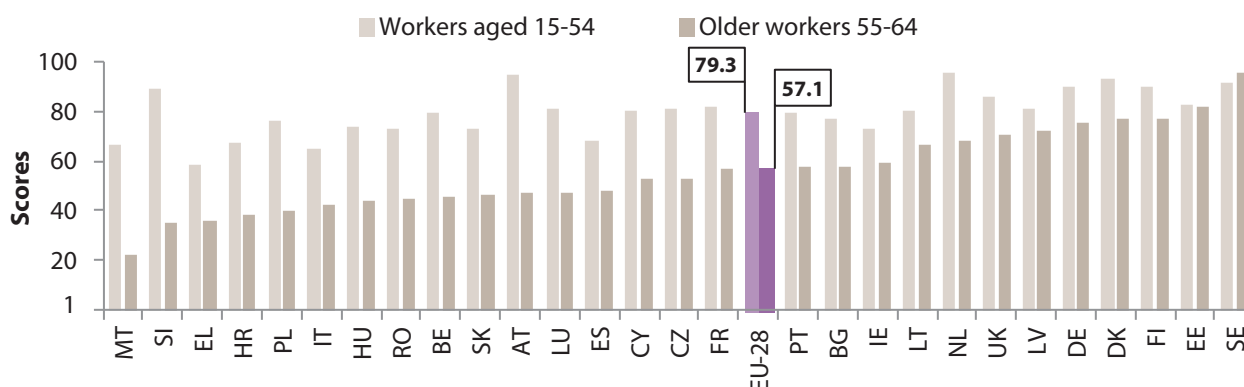
**Figure 4.16. Gender Equality Index scores for 'employment of older (55–64) individuals in comparison to workers aged 15 to 54', EU-28, 2005–12**



In 2012, gender inequalities were more pronounced, without exception, among older workers. Equality was the lowest for older workers in Malta (22.3) and the highest in Sweden (95.5). The biggest difference can be found in

Slovenia, with a gap of 53.7 points between workers aged 15 and 54 (88.7 points) and older workers (35.0 points), although in Sweden this difference was only marginal (Figure 4.17).

**Figure 4.17. Gender Equality Index scores for 'employment of older workers (55–64) in comparison to workers aged 15 to 54 in EU Member States', 2012**



Women's and men's access to employment has consistently been more equal for adults without dependent children (Figure 4.18), with an equality score of 82.4 for workers without and a score of 73.6 for workers with dependent children in 2012. The gap in equality scores between the two groups has increased over time, reaching its highest point in 2010, with a gap of 11.5 in favour of single adults

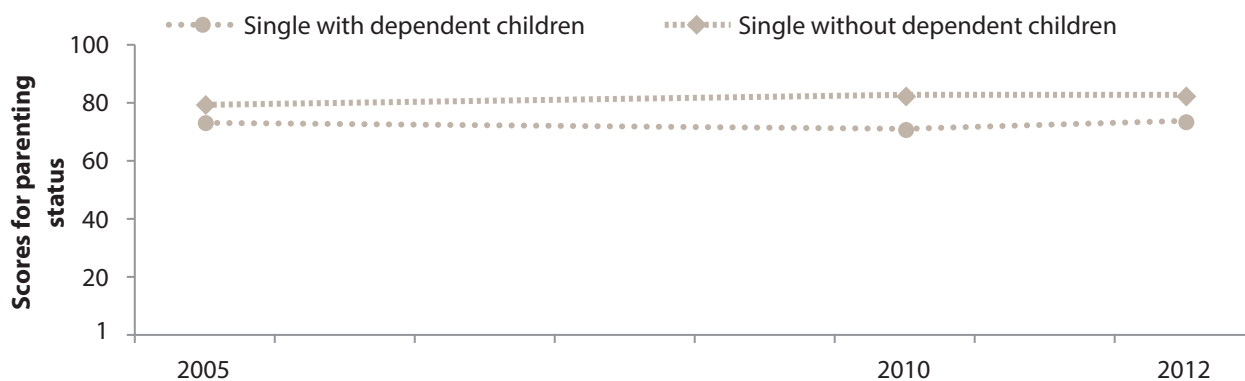
without dependent children, compared to the gap in 2005 of 6.3 points. Improvements in levels of gender equality over time are more pronounced for adults without dependent children, with an improvement by 2.9 points since 2005, compared with 0.4 points for single adults with dependent children.

**Table 4.13. Scores for employment of older workers (55–64) and workers aged 15 to 54, 2005–12**

Country	2005		2010		2012	
	Older workers (55–64)	Workers aged 15–54	Older workers (55–64)	Workers aged 15–54	Older workers (55–64)	Workers aged 15–54
BE	32.4	75.8	42.0	79.1	45.8	79.2
BG	36.6	72.9	53.6	77.0	57.9	77.0
CZ	44.5	78.6	50.4	78.0	52.7	80.7
DK	77.3	95.8	76.3	94.7	76.6	92.9
DE	54.5	80.7	72.6	87.2	75.1	89.9
EE	76.8	79.9	74.7	77.7	81.9	82.9
IE	54.5	77.1	60.3	73.1	59.0	72.7
EL	37.2	63.5	41.3	66.4	35.9	58.3
ES	39.7	70.0	47.0	70.8	48.0	68.3
FR	51.8	79.1	54.2	82.1	56.9	81.8
HR	34.1	69.5	38.8	70.5	38.1	67.5
IT	30.3	64.1	37.5	64.1	42.6	64.8
CY	45.5	79.1	60.6	83.8	52.7	80.1
LV	64.6	78.3	68.0	76.9	72.1	81.3
LT	59.1	78.9	64.3	72.0	66.1	80.4
LU	36.6	74.0	44.5	78.0	47.6	81.0
HU	38.4	71.1	42.8	70.7	44.1	73.3
MT	:	:	19.2	58.7	22.3	66.2
NL	51.3	91.8	61.3	95.2	68.3	95.6
AT	33.4	88.0	48.1	91.8	47.0	94.3
PL	28.5	65.2	34.4	75.4	40.0	76.0
PT	62.8	82.2	61.7	81.8	57.7	79.4
RO	47.6	69.0	46.8	70.8	44.9	73.0
SI	27.3	87.4	35.5	90.0	35.0	88.7
SK	22.3	71.7	40.5	72.3	46.0	72.8
FI	76.0	89.2	77.2	87.7	77.2	89.4
SE	96.2	89.4	95.0	88.3	95.5	91.6
UK	69.6	86.9	69.9	84.9	70.3	86.0
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>48.6</b>	<b>76.3</b>	<b>55.0</b>	<b>78.8</b>	<b>57.1</b>	<b>79.3</b>



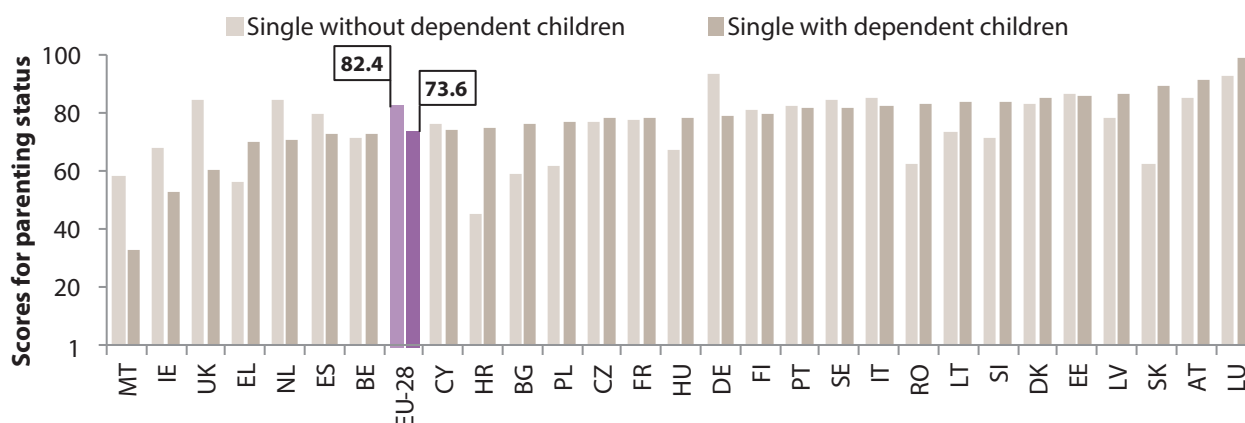
**Figure 4.18. Gender Equality Index scores for 'employment of single adults living with one or more children in comparison to single adults without', EU-28, 2005–12**



In 2012, differences in levels of equality are visible across Member States, with an EU-28 average score of 73.6 for single adults with children, compared with a score of 82.4 for those without (Figure 4.19). Equality scores for single adults with dependent children are lowest in Malta, with 33.2 points and highest in Luxembourg, with 99.2 points. While individuals without children are more equal in terms of employment than those within Malta (58.4), the reverse

is true for single adults without children (92.8) in Luxembourg. Furthermore, considerable differences in gaps in levels of equality exist across Member States. The gap in equality scores reaches as much as 29.6 points in Croatia, with conditions being more equal for single adults with children, but reaches as much as 23.7 points in the United Kingdom and 25.2 points in Malta, in favour of those without children.

**Figure 4.19. Gender Equality Index scores for 'employment of single adults living with one or more children in comparison to single adults without' in EU Member States, 2012**



**Table 4.14. Scores for employment of single workers with and without dependent children, 2005–12**

Country	2005		2010		2012	
	Single with dependent children	Single without dependent children	Single with dependent children	Single without dependent children	Single with dependent children	Single without dependent children
BE	63.8	70.0	67.8	72.2	72.8	71.3
BG	85.7	51.2	79.8	63.9	76.3	59.1
CZ	82.8	68.6	75.2	74.7	78.2	77.1
DK	:	:	89.0	85.9	85.2	83.2
DE	73.0	86.1	72.4	93.4	78.8	93.3
EE	89.3	78.3	83.8	82.4	86.0	86.4
IE	:	:	49.6	74.9	52.8	67.9
EL	83.8	58.3	77.4	64.2	70.2	56.4
ES	84.1	88.1	77.9	80.3	72.6	79.5
FR	83.8	78.6	75.7	79.3	78.2	77.9
HR	85.8	47.2	77.9	46.8	75.2	45.6
IT	86.7	77.3	79.1	81.9	82.6	85.5
CY	86.4	78.6	80.5	84.2	74.3	76.5
LV	93.2	78.4	86.8	73.5	86.7	78.4
LT	94.8	76.6	79.0	70.7	83.8	73.3
LU	86.4	93.9	95.0	89.7	99.2	92.8
HU	83.8	63.2	75.8	63.5	78.4	67.4
MT	51.0	35.9	55.1	50.5	33.2	58.4
NL	72.0	85.4	72.2	84.3	71.1	84.8
AT	92.6	82.1	86.3	87.2	91.3	85.4
PL	67.0	52.8	77.5	58.6	77.3	61.6
PT	99.5	83.2	86.3	84.1	81.8	82.7
RO	84.1	62.8	84.2	60.5	83.1	62.5
SI	96.2	55.9	86.0	63.8	84.0	71.8
SK	85.0	52.7	78.9	65.9	89.4	62.5
FI	85.6	80.1	81.7	79.1	80.1	81.2
SE	:	:	74.1	85.4	81.9	84.5
UK	57.1	86.2	56.9	82.6	60.6	84.3
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>73.2</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>70.9</b>	<b>82.4</b>	<b>73.6</b>	<b>82.4</b>

Note: ':' indicates that data for women, men or both were not available, thus scores could not be calculated.





## 4.9. Summary

This section has provided the scores of the Gender Equality Index over three different time points: 2005, 2010 and 2012. It shows that progress has been achieved over that time period, but only with a marginal increase.

Overall, some progress can be noted in the majority of domains and sub-domains. The greatest increase has been in the domain of power, although levels of representation remain very low over all. Much remains to be done when it comes to achieving a better gender balance in representation in decision-making. Two areas have seen a significant decrease in scores: the domain of time (both sub-domains

capturing the division of tasks in social and care activities) and that of knowledge (largely owing to a decrease in the sub-domain of lifelong learning).

The following section proposes further analyses based on the updated Gender Equality Index and considers these scores in relation to key policy areas in the EU framework. It then provides a comparative analysis of the scores of the Gender Equality Index in relation to those of the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index for the EU Member States.

# 5. The bigger picture: the Gender Equality Index in context

In this section the Gender Equality Index is approached in a broader context. Linking the scores of the Gender Equality Index with other variables or measures contributes to a better understanding of how gender equality relates to other phenomena. Enhancing the explanatory power of a composite indicator is an important step outlined in the international methodology developed by the OECD and the JRC of the European Commission, and used to construct the Gender Equality Index.

The first part of this section explores how the Gender Equality Index relates to selected topics of relevance to the EU policy framework. The second part of this section analyses and contrasts the explanatory power of two composite gender equality indicators: the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index and EIGE's Gender Equality Index.

## 5.1. The Gender Equality Index in the context of selected EU policy areas

The scores of the Gender Equality Index are examined in relation to relevant contextual variables within each of its core domains:

- Work: GDP as a marker of economic performance;
- Money: social protection expenditure;
- Knowledge: young persons not in employment, education or training (NEETs);
- Time: formal childcare provision as set out by the Barcelona targets;
- Power: women's representation in academia at the highest grade;
- Health: health care expenditure.

### 5.1.1. Europe 2020 strategy and economic growth

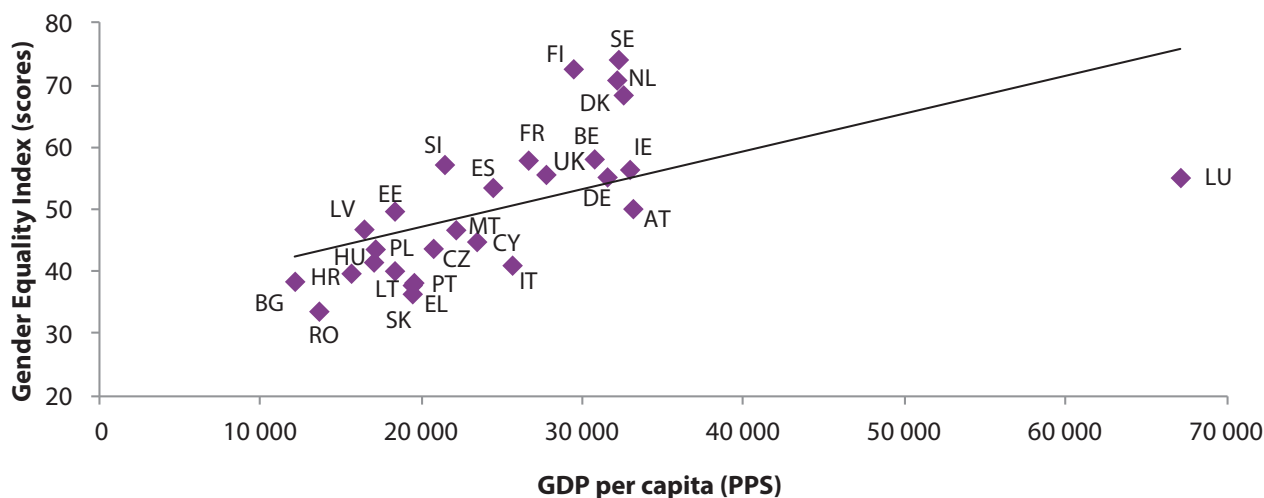
The Europe 2020 strategy highlights smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. One of its targets is increasing employment to 75 % of individuals aged 20 to 64 by 2020. The focus on employment participation is linked to its capacity to contribute to the overall goal of the Europe 2020 strategy of promoting economic growth, and is often measured by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Although GDP has been highly criticised as being an imperfect measure (Stiglitz et al., 2009), until now there are no widely accepted alternatives to capture the economic performance of Member States and the EU overall.

Economic prosperity is measured through GDP per inhabitant in purchasing power standard (PPS), which is an artificial currency that accounts for differences in price levels between Member States. GDP per capita varies across the EU, from as little as 12 100 PPS in Bulgaria to almost six times as much in Luxembourg (67 100 PPS).

The Gender Equality Index positively correlates with GDP per capita ( $r = 0.56$ ) (Figure 5.1). This suggests that there is greater economic development in countries where there are also higher levels of gender equality. The relationship is affected by Luxembourg, which is a strong outlier. This is likely to be related to atypical characteristics of the Luxembourgish sectoral labour market, characterised by a very large financial sector combined with international organisations. This results in a very high GDP per capita compared to other Member States. The closest country in terms of GDP per capita is the Austria with a GDP almost two times smaller (33 100 PPS).



Figure 5.1. Gender Equality Index scores (2012) and GDP per capita (PPS) by Member States, 2012

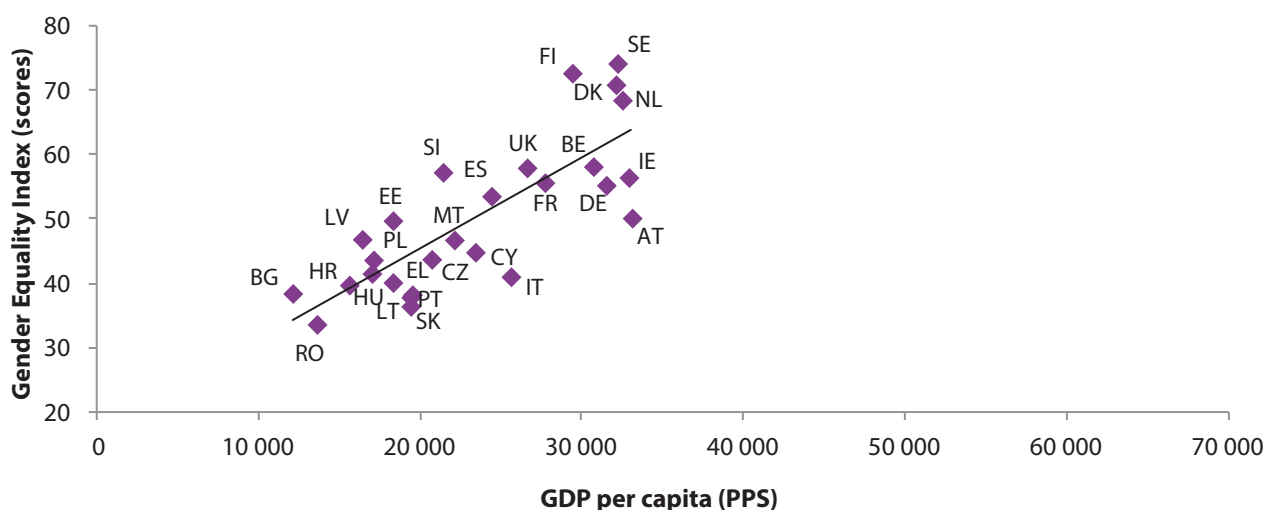


Source: Eurostat (prc\_ppp\_ind).

When Luxembourg is removed, the correlation improves significantly ( $r = 0.80$ ) showing a much stronger association between the scores of the Gender Equality Index and economic performance (Figure 5.2). However, it is important to note that although the association between these two phenomena is rather high, there are many differences

among Member States in terms of their economic performance. Some Member States, which share similar levels of economic wealth score very differently in the Gender Equality Index (for example comparing DK, NL, FI, SE with BE, DE, IE, AT).

Figure 5.2. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and GDP per capita (PPS) by Member State (Luxembourg omitted), 2012



Source: Eurostat (prc\_ppp\_ind).

These results show the importance of introducing a gender perspective in the Europe 2020's growth agenda. Full convergence in employment participation between women and men could increase GDP per capita by over 12 % by 2030 in the majority of EU Member States (OECD,

2012). However, analysing gender patterns in employment rates cannot be done without recognising that employment rates underestimate the true extent of the gender gap, since women are much more likely than men to work on a part-time basis (EIGE, 2014b).

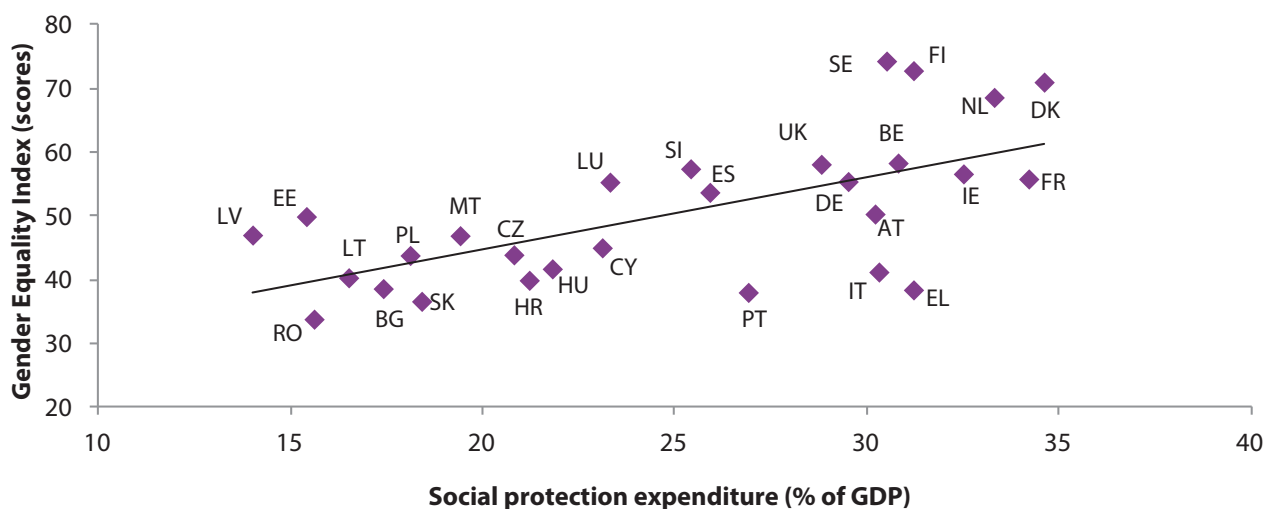
### 5.1.2. Europe 2020 strategy and social protection expenditure

The Europe 2020's 10-year growth and jobs strategy seeks to decrease the number of people in or at-risk-of-poverty and social exclusion by at least 20 million by the end of 2020 (European Commission, 2010b). In 2012, on average almost every fourth person in the EU was at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion. This represents a threat to their dignity and integrity which are in themselves prerequisites of social citizenship. Member States spend a proportion of their public budgets to provide a social safety net, invest in human capital and combat poverty and social exclusion. Social protection spending includes cash benefits and benefits in kind designed to ensure people's livelihood and protect them from poverty and social exclusion in cases such as sickness, disability, old age, family support needs, unemployment or homelessness. The share of spending

on social protection as a proportion of GDP varies from as little as 14 % in Latvia up to 35 % in Denmark. However, Member States with similar levels of spending on social protection achieve different results in terms of how many people are at-risk-of-poverty and social exclusion. This is because what matters are not only the resources allocated to social benefits and social services, but also the design of social protection systems.

The scores of the Gender Equality Index have a positive association with social protection expenditure as a proportion of GDP ( $r = 0.65$ ), demonstrating that tackling poverty and social exclusion needs to incorporate a gender dimension (Figure 5.3). Interestingly, the relationship is not straightforward, as the Nordic countries show markedly higher scores for the Gender Equality Index than other Member States for similar levels of social spending.

**Figure 5.3. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and social protection expenditure as percentage of GDP by Member States, 2012**



Source: Eurostat (spr\_exp\_sum).

Gender equality is an important aspect of spending on social protection, particularly since social policies have different consequences for women and men. Women remain less likely than men to be economically active due to care responsibilities and even when they are active, are nevertheless more likely to work on a part-time basis and to have periods of career interruptions. Consequently, if social security systems are designed in such a way that entitlements to various social benefits are highly dependent on participation in formal labour market and previous earnings, women are likely to find themselves more

at-risk-of-poverty and social exclusion than men overall. Moreover, some groups may be disproportionately exposed to the risk of poverty and social exclusion. This is the case for lone parents among whom women are disproportionately represented, young women (16–24) and older women (65 and over) (EIGE, 2014a). In the latter case, the cumulative effect of discrimination over a lifetime results in an EU-28 average gender gap in pensions of 38 % in 2012 (EIGE, 2015a). Gender equality and greater social cohesion across Member States are therefore essential to achieve a fairer and more inclusive society for all.



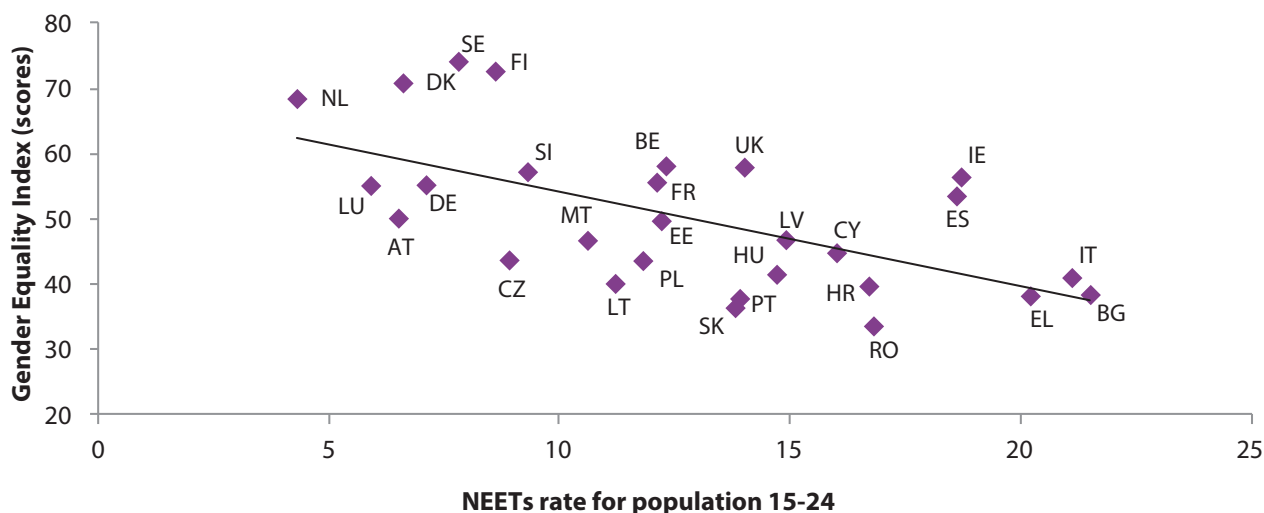
### 5.1.3. Europe 2020 and young people not in employment, education nor training (NEETs)

Participation in employment, education or training is important for young people to become self-sustaining, have more choices in their lives and to fully engage with society. The lack of both education and work experience puts them in a much worse situation compared to more experienced people during economic downturns and reduce their chances of entering the labour market. According to Eurofound's estimations, in 2008 the total annual cost of NEETs across the EU amounted to €8.8 billion of public finance cost and €111.3 billion of resource costs. If expressed as a percentage of GDP, the losses ranged from 0.3 % in Luxembourg to 2.4 % of GDP in Bulgaria (Eurofound, 2012b, p. 75). This is inefficient not only in economic terms but also has social implications as people who are not in employment nor in education or training

are more likely to experience social and political exclusion (Eurofound, 2012b).

NEETs consist of young people aged between 15 and 24 years who were not in employment, education or training. The average NEET rate stood at 13 % for both women and men in 2012 in the EU-28. NEET rates vary from as little as 4 % in the Netherlands up to as much as 22 % in Bulgaria. The overall gender gap in the EU is very small at only 0.5 percentage points. However, in some Member States such as Cyprus or Lithuania, NEET rates are higher for men than women by over 3 percentage points. In other Member States, as is the case in Romania, the opposite is true with higher NEET rates for women in excess of 3 percentage points. NEET rates show a negative association with the Gender Equality Index ( $r = -0.61$ ), suggesting that there are fewer young people who are not in employment, education or training in countries where there are higher levels of gender equality (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and NEETs rate (15–24) by Member States, 2012



Source: Eurostat(edat\_lfse\_20).

To unleash the potential of all young people, and tackle the social disengagement caused by NEETs, a number of policy responses have been developed in the EU. These include the Europe 2020 flagship initiative 'Youth on the Move' and the 2012–13 'Youth Opportunities Initiative'. These responses focus largely on providing access to education and training, coupled with providing access to work experience to promote successful transitions to the labour market. Since the results show that NEET rates are linked to the scores of the Gender Equality Index, introducing a gender perspective is an essential part of engaging young people fully in the society.

### 5.1.4. Barcelona objectives and formal childcare provision

The first Gender Equality Index report showed the extent of the unequal division of time and distribution of tasks between women and men. Worryingly, little has changed between 2005 and 2010, although an assessment of the situation with the next iteration of the European Working Condition Survey in 2015 will provide a better long-term perspective on how gender equality is evolving in this domain.

The objectives set at the European Council in Barcelona in 2002 have not been met. These objectives stipulate that to facilitate women’s participation in the labour force, Member States needed to ensure that by 2010 childcare is

provided 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.

**Barcelona target I**  
Ensuring suitable childcare provision for at least 33 % of children under 3 years of age.

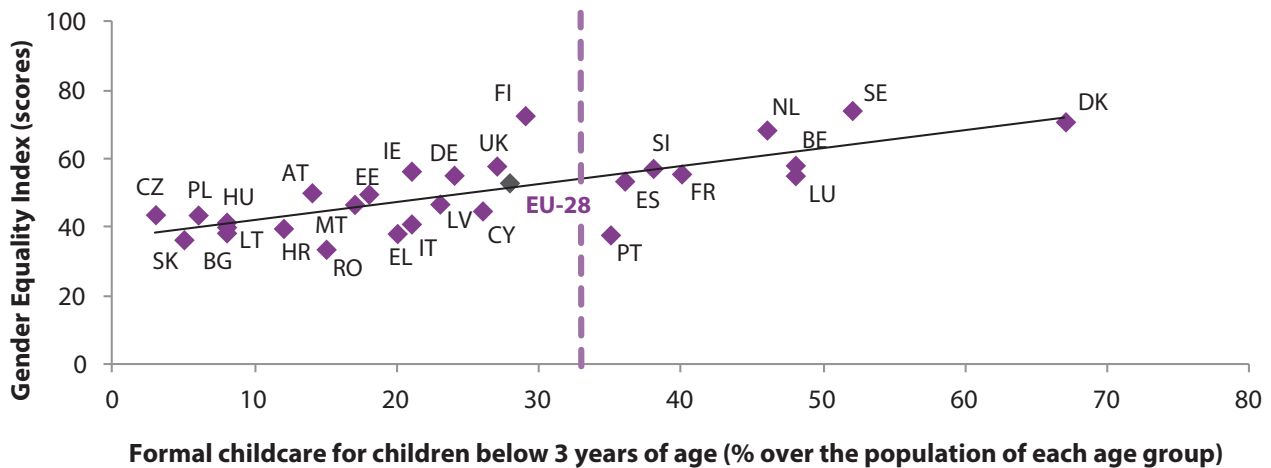
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**Barcelona target II**  
Ensuring suitable childcare provision for at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age.

Access to affordable quality services is also highlighted in the Commission’s recommendations against child poverty (European Commission, 2013b) which are part of the social investment package. Investing in children at a very early age, especially those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds, is put forward as the best means of addressing social inequalities and therefore breaking the cycle of disadvantage.

In 2012, only nine Member States met the first Barcelona target (formal childcare provision for 33 % of children aged below 3 years). Similarly, only 11 Member States met the second Barcelona target (formal childcare provision for 90 % of children aged between 3 years and mandatory school age). Meeting the Barcelona targets is highly associated with the Gender Equality Index, particularly when it comes to the first target (Figure 5.5). Countries where formal childcare provision for children under the age of three is highest also tend to score well in the Gender Equality Index ( $r = 0.76$ ).

**Figure 5.5. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and formal childcare provision for children below 3 years of age (% over the population of each age group) by Member States, 2012**



Source: Eurostat, EU SILC (ilc\_caindformal).

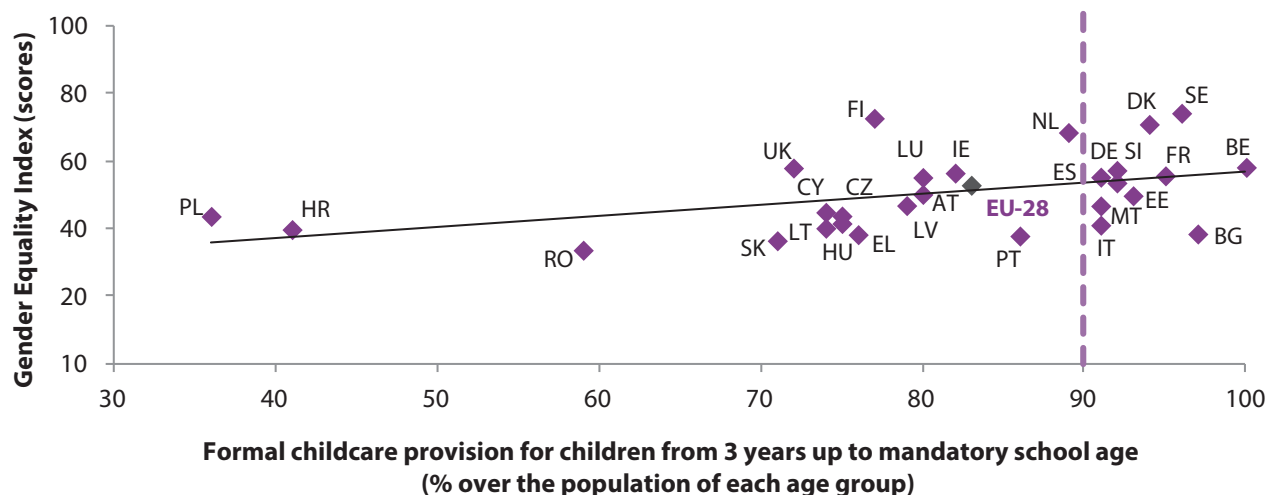
Note: Data for IE refer to 2011, data for PT refer to 2011 for provision of less than 29 hours and 2012 for provision of 30 hours or more (added up to calculate total provision).

The relationship also holds when it comes to the second Barcelona target, although it is somewhat weaker ( $r = 0.44$ ), pointing to the importance of the relationship between

formal childcare provision and gender equality, particularly in relation to children below the age of three (Figure 5.6).



Figure 5.6. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and formal childcare for children between 3 years of age and the mandatory school age (% over the population of each age group) by Member State, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU SILC, (ilc\_caindformal).  
Note: Data for IE were not available in 2012, 2011 were used instead.

Women continue to shoulder the main caring roles within families, with women aged 25 to 44 spending three times more time caring for children each day than men (EIGE, 2011). This is problematic because of the negative impact this has on women's employment opportunities, particularly where little support with childcare provision or its cost is provided (European Commission, 2013a; European Commission, 2014). Investments in affordable and high quality child care services have a positive impact not only in the short-term as more women can enter and remain in the labour market, but also in the long run, by contributing to smart, sustainable and inclusive economic growth.

### 5.1.5. Horizon 2020 and women's representation in research and higher education

Conceptually the domain of power consists of three sub-domains: political, social and economic decision-making. Social power is left unmeasured because of the unavailability of data and due to incomplete country coverage. It is nevertheless very relevant to look at the associations between the Gender Equality Index scores and women's representation in top positions on scientific boards as this reflects one type of symbolic power in society.

Data on the representation of women on scientific boards (<sup>1</sup>) and of women as heads of universities or assimilated institutions delivering PhDs are used to correlate with the Gender Equality Index ('She Figures 2012', European Commission, 2013d). Data on women in scientific boards cover 24 Member States while the data on women as heads of universities and assimilated institutions only 21 Member States, both representing year 2010.

The proportion of women on scientific boards ranges from as little as 12 % in the Czech Republic to almost half of board members (49 %) in Sweden. Nevertheless, for the vast majority of Member States, that data show that men play a predominant role in setting the agenda for future research in the EU. The Gender Equality Index is positively associated with the proportion of women on scientific boards, with a moderate correlation ( $r = 0.46$ ) (Figure 5.7).

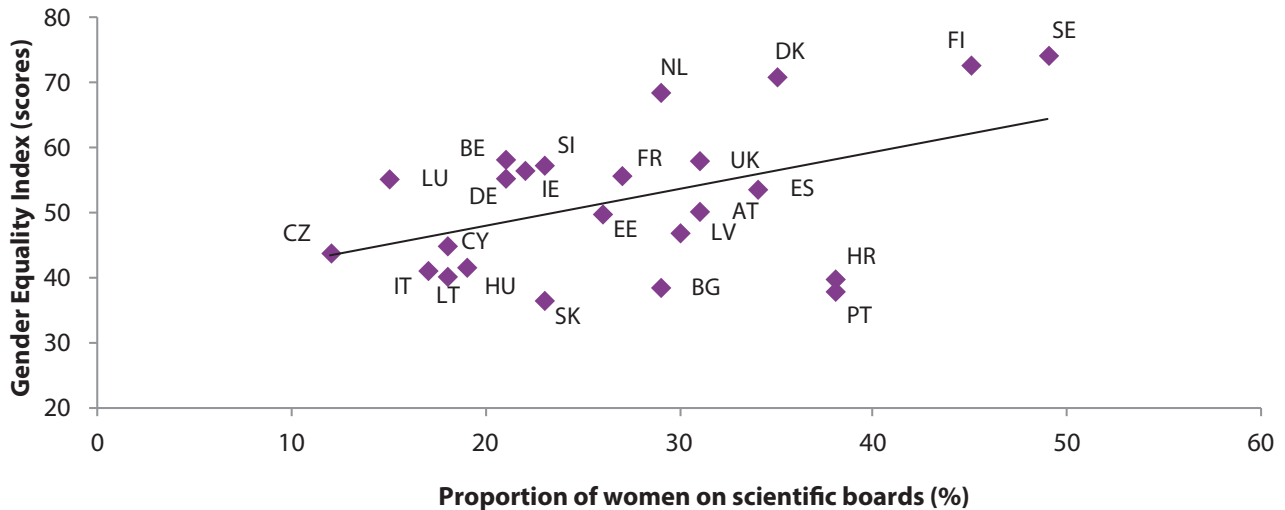
The Gender Equality Index scores are also positively associated with the proportion of women heads of universities or assimilated institutions which are accredited to deliver PhDs ( $r = 0.5$ ) (Figure 5.8). However, representation in this area is much lower. In Cyprus, Hungary and Luxembourg (LU has only one university) no single university or assimilated institution is headed by a woman. The highest shares of women rectors (above 30 %) are in Finland and Sweden. These are the Member States also showing the highest scores for the Gender Equality Index. Although in 2005 the Council set a goal for women to be in 25 % of leading

(<sup>1</sup>) This includes scientific commissions, research and development (R & D) commissions, boards, councils, committees and foundations, academy assemblies and councils, as well as different field-specific boards, councils and authorities.

public sector research positions (Council of the European Union, 2005), in 2010 the proportion of women heading higher education institutions on average in the EU was

15.5 % (or only 10 % if universities and affiliated institutions accredited to deliver PhDs are taken into account).

**Figure 5.7. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and proportion of women on scientific boards, 2010**

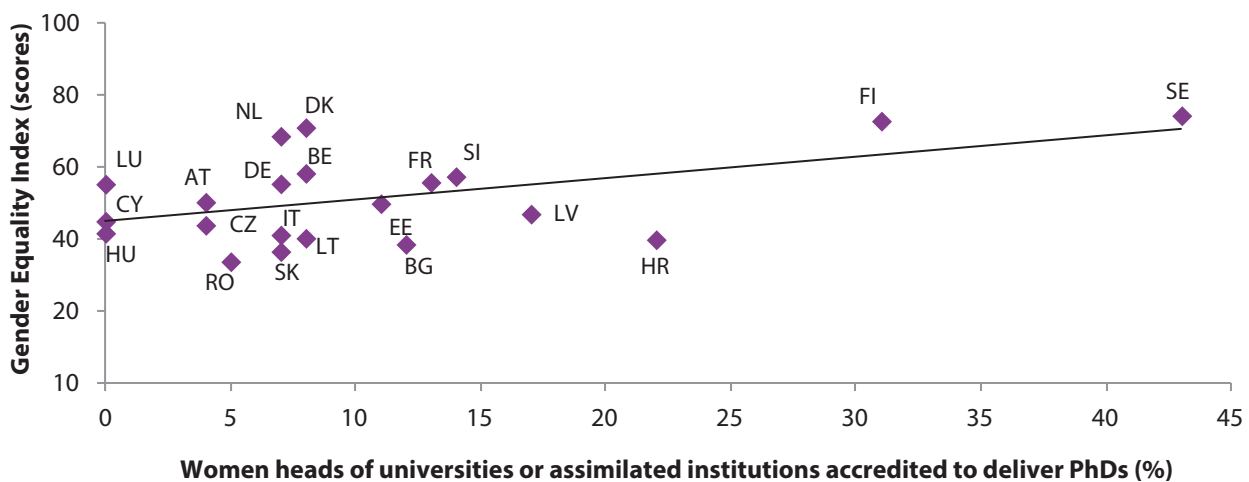


Source: European Commission (2013d), She Figures 2012 (p. 117).  
Note: data for EL, MT, PL, RO, EU-28 are not available

Both variables show the lack of parity in decision-making in academia. Although women outnumber men in tertiary education, the pipeline starts to leak at the PhD level with more men receiving PhD degrees on average in the EU (EIGE, 2014a). Differences become even more pronounced in the top positions of academia. Tackling women's under-representation on scientific boards and as rectors can contribute to improving the quality of research

and the relevance to all members of society ('She Figures 2012' — European Commission, 2013d). To do so, Horizon 2020 notes that improvements must be made to tackle legal and other barriers to recruitment, together with promoting the retention and career progression of women researchers. Member States are invited to ensure 40 % of the under-represented sex in all its expert groups, panels and committees (European Research Arena, 2013).

**Figure 5.8. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and proportion of women heads of universities or assimilated institutions which are accredited to deliver PhDs in 21 Member States, 2010**



Source: European Commission, She Figures 2012 (p. 116).  
Note: data for IE, EL, ES, MT, PL, PT, UK, EU-28 are not available.





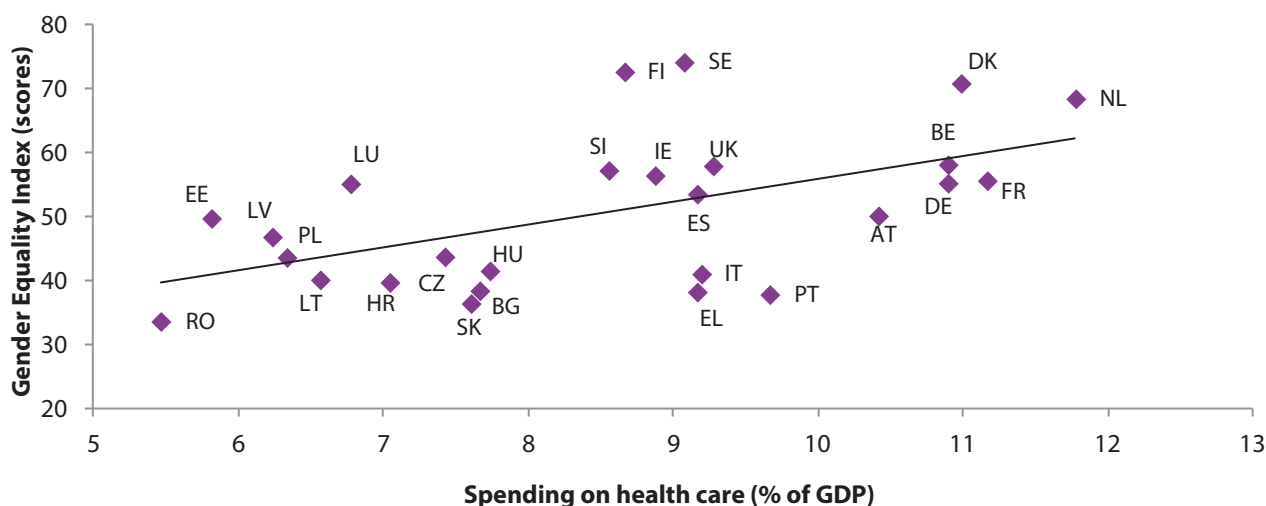
### 5.1.6. Europe 2020 and health care expenditure

The EU Health Strategy is a key pillar of the Europe 2020 strategy as achieving smart sustainable and inclusive growth in the economy requires a population in good health. It relies on two approaches. The first, 'investing in health' aims at spending smarter, but not necessarily more, working towards sustainable health systems; investing in health, particularly health-promotion initiatives; investing in health coverage, and ensuring the inclusivity of health systems. The second, 'together for health' focuses on strengthening coordination and cooperation across the EU; and complementing national health policies and work towards 'improving public health, preventing physical and mental illness and diseases, and obviating sources

of danger to physical and mental health' (see TFEU, Article 168, ex Article 152 TEC).

Member States priorities vary when it comes to public spending and priorities given to particular sectors. Health care expenditure ranges from 6 % of GDP in Romania up to twice as much in the Netherlands (almost 12 % of GDP). By no means does higher spending translates into higher efficacy and more favourable health outcomes as these are very much dependent on particular institutional settings and how the health sector is organised. Member States which spend a greater proportion of their GDP on health care achieving on the whole better Gender Equality Index scores, although there is significant variation, as evidenced by a positive association between Gender Equality Index scores and health care expenditure ( $r = 0.54$ ) (Figure 5.9).

Figure 5.9. Gender Equality Index scores, 2012, and spending on health care as percentage of GDP, 2012



Source: Eurostat, hlth\_sha1p; OECD (2015), Health spending (indicator)

Note: Data for BG, SI, SK refer to 2011; LT, PT for 2011 are provisional; LV for 2009; the source of data for DK, IE, IT, UK is OECD and the data refer to 2012; data for CY and MT are not available.

The focus on investing in health called for in Europe 2020 strategy sees health as a precondition for prosperity and states that growth can result from efficient spending in this area. These results show that there is a gender dimension to health that needs to be better taken into consideration to promote and work towards growth in the EU. Health is already included in key policy documents on gender equality at EU level, such as the Roadmap for Equality

between Women and Men (2006–10) and subsequently, the Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010–15) which highlighted the inequalities within health care and health outcomes, and the need for adapting to the specific needs of women and men to a greater extent. However, despite the effect that sex and/or gender can have upon health issues, the gender perspective is largely absent from the mainstream policy dimension.

## 5.2. Measuring Gender Equality in the European Union: Comparing the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index

Several attempts have been made to measure gender equality internationally with the use of a composite indicator. Indeed, a composite measure provides a synthetic measure of how far a given country is from achieving gender equality that is easy to understand and to communicate. It also allows for meaningful comparisons between different gender equality domains and to track progress over time. There are different manners by which indicators can be selected, depending on the scope and the approach taken. Equally, gender equality can be conceptualised and measured according to a multitude of dimensions, depending on the intended use of the index.

This sub-section provides a comparative analysis of two prominent international indices of gender equality: the Gender Equality Index presented in this report and the Gender Gap Index released in 2014 (World Economic Forum, 2014). The geographical coverage of the Gender Equality Index focuses on the European Union (EU) Member States, while the Gender Gap Index has a global focus. This comparison is done solely on EU Member States. Despite different conceptual and analytical approaches the two indices provide similar results, demonstrating that both are able to successfully measure gender equality.

An overview of the two indices is first presented, before analysing the similarities and differences of their conceptual base. Their respective measurement framework is then compared, as well as the scores they produce. This section concludes with a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of both measures.

### 5.2.1. Overview of the two indices

The need for a Gender Equality Index was initially introduced by the European Commission in the 'Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men 2006–10'. The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) undertook this task as one of its major assignments as part of its very first Mid-Term Work Programme 2010–12. The first Gender Equality Index was launched in June 2013, only 3 years after the start of the European Institute for Gender Equality's operations. It aims to measure gender equality within the EU policy framework and among EU Member States, thereby providing key stakeholders such as policymakers, civil society or academia with a powerful tool to monitor the effectiveness of gender equality policy at EU and

national level. Its methodology and results can inform on where gender equality policy leads to progress, and where measures and actions need to be taken. The Gender Equality Index is updated every 2 years, with this report presenting the results of its first update.

The World Economic Forum introduced the Global Gender Gap report in 2006, to report on gender disparities around the world as measured by the Gender Gap Index. It provides a measure of gender gaps in 142 countries, representing well over 90 % of the world's population. Furthermore, it is updated on a yearly basis, providing valuable information over time for the 115 countries that have been included since the first Gender Gap Index in 2006. Its aim is to raise awareness of how gender gaps create both challenges and opportunities. It is geared towards a global audience, encompassing business professionals, policymakers and academia which can use its methodology, analysis and results to design and implement effective measures (World Economic Forum, 2014).

### 5.2.2. Conceptual base of the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index

The theoretical positions of various gender indices are different and have developed from several perspectives including human development, women's empowerment or gender equality in general. The two indices compared in this section differ significantly.

#### Theoretical approaches

The Gender Equality Index departs from a gender perspective where gender equality is posited as relevant to both women and men, and while not underplaying the unequal relations of power harming women in society, it emphasises that all gender gaps are detrimental to both women and men within society. If achieving gender equality and well-being is about transforming gender relations, then it is as much women as men that need to change. The approach of the Gender Gap index is different in that it predominantly deals with the situation of women, by measuring the extent to which they have attained parity with men. This means that instances where women attain 50 % of outcomes will be scored in the same way as instances where women actually overtake men.



### **Implications for operationalisation**

How these two perspectives are operationalised is very different. The Gender Equality Index takes into account absolute gaps between women and men, since it regards them as equally detrimental. The Gender Gap Index opts to convert the data into ratios, which are truncated at the equality benchmark when women achieve parity. Furthermore, there are divergent positions adopted by the two indices when it comes to taking into consideration levels, such as for instance, levels of educational attainment. The Gender Gap Index measures gender gaps without taking levels into account, in order to be more independent from international levels of development, since richer countries can provide greater opportunities and resources that would increase overall levels.

On the contrary, the Gender Equality Index asserts that the goal of policy overall is to improve levels of achievements in gender equality, for example ensuring greater participation of women and men in tertiary education. Gender gaps cannot be regarded positively where they have narrowed but as a result of worsening conditions for both women and men. Its basis is that the will to achieve a gender equal society entails that gender gaps are addressed while levels are raised overall. This provides an informative measure of gender equality that can be used to design policy.

### **Focus on outcome variables**

When it comes to the type of variables taken into account, both indices focus on outcome variables rather than input or means variables. The idea behind this choice is that it is better from a gender equality point of view to focus on what has been achieved and what the outcomes of basic rights and capabilities are. Input or means variables, including institutional variables such as childcare provision, are not included as part of the measures. The aim is not to disregard the efforts that countries are making, but instead to measure the outcomes resulting from policy measures for individual women and men.

### **Geographical and context-specific approaches**

Indices are socially produced, in time and space, for different purposes. International gender equality indices are therefore very sensitive to location. The mandates of the two indices mean that they need to cater to very different geographical areas. While the remit of the Gender Gap Index is to provide a global measurement of gender equality, the Gender Equality Index is bound to EU Member States (although it is possible to extend, at least partially, the measurement to other countries included in

the European statistical system). By aligning itself to the EU policy framework, it can provide a valuable opportunity for governments, social partners, civil society or academia to monitor the effectiveness of gender equality over time and across Member States.

### **Implications for the selection of gender indicators**

Geographical coverage greatly affects the selection of indicators. As a measure of gender equality within the EU policy framework, the Gender Equality Index gives preference to indicators that are connected to targets and strategic documents. Moreover, within the context of the European Union, some of the indicators used in other indices may have less relevance. Examples of such indicators include the sex ratio at birth used by the Gender Gap Index which measures the phenomenon of 'missing women' prevalent in many countries with a strong son preference, something which has less relevance for the EU. Other indicators, such as literacy rate produce scores clustered at the top end of the distribution, which fails to provide a picture of meaningful differences among EU Member States.

Since the Gender Gap Index is a much wider measure of gender equality geographically, the scope for measuring different aspects of gender equality is greatly hampered by the availability of gender indicators. Conversely, the Gender Equality Index, since it focuses predominantly on EU Member States, benefits greatly from harmonised and comparable data already processed at EU level by various institutions. This process of harmonisation also ensures that it attempts to deal with what may be different cultural and societal understandings of the concepts that are being measured and contribute to the measurement of achievements within commonly agreed policy objectives.

### **Implications for the conceptual frameworks**

There is therefore a very strong trade-off within gender indices between their geographical range and the extent to which they measure gender equality in different domains. Larger coverage presents greater challenges in terms of gender equality issues that need to be measured, for example from what can sometimes be very different developmental and cultural contexts. Practices in data collection are also greatly hampered at global level, since this leads to challenges in harmonising how indicators are understood and defined, but also the resources that can be allocated to actual fieldwork and analysis.

A further difference between the two indices is that the geographical range means that their conceptual frameworks are driven by different approaches. Indeed, the

Gender Gap Index adopts a data-driven approach since there is a strong need to ensure that a simple data framework covers the majority of its countries. However, the policy focus of the Gender Equality Index entails that it is conceptually driven, measuring what needs to be measured rather than by what can be measured, and thereby being able to identify data gaps where there is no suitable data.

### 5.2.3. Differences in conceptual frameworks

Conceptually, this results in very different frameworks. The remainder of this section focuses on a comparison of the similarities and differences between the two (Table 5.1).

#### Comparison of domains

The Gender Gap Index examines gender gaps in four domains: economic participation and opportunity,

educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment and relies on 14 variables. In comparison, the measurement framework of the Gender Equality Index consists of six core domains: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health. Each domain is further divided into two sub-domains. In total, the core index comprises 26 variables.

The structure of the Gender Equality Index is complemented by satellite domains. These are conceptually related to gender equality, but their scores cannot be included in the core index because they take a women's (or men's) perspective or apply to a selected group of the population. Such a system also allows for *ad hoc* analyses that can complement the core index. To date, two satellite domains have been considered: violence (gender-based violence against women and the norms, attitudes and stereotypes that underpin them) and intersecting inequalities (gender equality issues for specific population groups).

**Table 5.1. Comparison between the conceptual frameworks of the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index**

Gender Equality Index		Gender Gap Index
Domains	Sub-domains	Domains
Work	Segregation and quality of work	Economic participation and opportunity
	Participation	
Money	Financial resources	
	Economic situation	
Power	Economic decision-making	
	Social decision-making	
	Political decision-making	
Knowledge	Educational attainment and segregation	Educational attainment
	Lifelong learning	
Time	Care activities	
	Social activities	
Health	Status	Health and survival
	Behaviour	
	Access to health structures	
Violence	Direct	
	Indirect	
Intersecting inequalities	Opening up the analytical space	

Source: World Economic Forum (2014).



A comparative analysis shows that there are several overlapping areas in the two indices, and therefore some degree of similarity in the way they both measure gender equality. These areas concern economic participation, political representation, educational attainment and health. These areas are commonly included in the frameworks of other international gender equality indices. It is nevertheless important to consider that other domains are of relevance and to recognise that it would be useful to expand the perspective, regardless of data constraints.

### Comparison of indicators and data sources

The framework of gender equality measured by the Gender Equality Index is much broader (26 indicators) than the Gender Gap Index (14 indicators), not only in terms of the domains it considers but also in the number of gender indicators it relies on, as shown in Table 5.2.

This is in part due to the ability of the Gender Equality Index to draw on a rich source of harmonised data at EU level and lower geographical range. The three sources of data used by the Gender Equality Index include Eurostat (e.g. Labour Force Survey, Statistics on Income and Living Conditions), the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (European Working Conditions Survey) and the European Commission (Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers database on women and men in decision-making). In addition, this also allows the Gender Equality Index to adhere to strong methodological criteria and rely only on data for the year 2012.

The Gender Gap Index is very powerful in pulling together gender indicators at the global level. Sources include the International Labour Organization; the World Economic Forum Executive Opinion Survey; the United Nations Development Programme, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics; the World Bank; the Central Intelligence Agency; and the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

In the domains covered by both indices, the gender indicators adopted tend to refer to similar concepts. Exceptions exist in cases where indicators used in the Gender Gap Index refer to an issue that is pertinent to human development, such as literacy rates for example, and which is less

relevant in the EU context. In other instances, the Gender Equality Index introduces both new domains that are populated by additional indicators compared with the Gender Gap Index.

In summary, the conceptual base of the two indices overlap somewhat although the scope of the Gender Equality Index is wider, feasibly because of its premise to rely on what needs to be measured as opposed to what can be measured. From a practical standpoint, in terms of measurement, the frameworks relate to their geographical scope and the different contexts that they need to capture. This means that this affects both the breadth of gender indicators adopted, but also the concept they aim to capture and measure. In order to explore how these different perspectives translate into actual scores, the section now turns to a comparative analysis of the results given by the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index.

### 5.2.4. Comparative results

This section provides a comparative overview of the results for the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index (2014). The data for the Gender Equality Index covers mostly the year 2012, with the exception of data from the European Working Conditions Survey and the Structure of Earnings Survey which refer to 2010. The reference years for the Global Gap Index range from 2009 to 2014. The overall scores of the two indices of gender equality are provided in Table 5.3.

#### Interpretation of the scores

The scores of the two indices are calculated on different scales, but can overall be interpreted in very similar ways. The final value of the Gender Gap Index lies between 0 and 1 and the Gender Equality Index between 1 and 100, where the lowest value in both stands for inequality and the highest for equality, as set out in their respective approaches. Setting the maximum provides a benchmark over time to monitor the progress made. Another notable feature of these scores is the ease of interpretation they lend themselves to: the scores can be seen as approximately representing the extent to which a given country has managed to achieve gender equality.

**Table 5.2. Comparison between the conceptual and measurement frameworks of the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index**

		Gender Equality Index		Gender Gap Index			
		Domains	Sub-domains	Concepts measured	Concepts measured	Domains	
Core	Power	Political decision-making	Ministerial level	Minister-level positions	Gender ratio of years in executive office (prime minister or president) for the last 50 years.	Political empowerment	
			Parliamentary level	Parliamentary positions			
			Regional assemblies level				
		Social decision-making					
			Economic decision-making	Members of central banks			
		Work	Segregation and quality of work	Members on boards	Advancement gap	Economic participation and opportunity	
	Sectoral segregation						
	Work intensity						
	Participation		Participation in the labour market				
	Flexible personal/family arrangements						
	Money	Financial resources	FTE participation	Remuneration gap			
			Duration of working life				
		Economic situation	Earnings				
	Knowledge	Educational attainment and segregation	Income				
			Not at-risk-of-poverty				
		Lifelong learning	Income distribution				
			Tertiary educational attainment	Primary-, secondary- and tertiary-level education gap			
	Time	Care activities	Segregation	Literacy rate gap	Educational attainment		
			Childcare activities				
		Social activities	Leisure and sport activities				
			Charitable and volunteering activities				
			Life expectancy				
Healthy life years			Healthy life expectancy				
Health	Status	Self-perceived health		Health and survival			
			Ratio at birth (phenomenon of 'missing women' prevalent in many countries with a strong son preference)				
	Behaviour						
	Access to health structures	Unmet medical needs					
Satellites	Violence	Unmet dental needs					
		Direct					
Intersecting inequalities	Opening up the analytical space	Indirect					

Source: World Economic Forum (2014).



**Table 5.3. Scores for the Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index by Member State**

Gender Gap Index (2014)		Gender Equality Index (2015)	
Country	Score	Country	Score
FI	0.8453	SE	74.2
SE	0.8165	FI	72.7
DK	0.8025	DK	70.9
IE	0.7850	NL	68.5
BE	0.7809	BE	58.2
DE	0.7780	UK	58.0
NL	0.7730	SI	57.3
LV	0.7691	IE	56.5
FR	0.7588	FR	55.7
BG	0.7444	DE	55.3
SI	0.7443	LU	55.2
UK	0.7383	ES	53.6
LU	0.7333	AT	50.2
ES	0.7325	EE	49.8
AT	0.7266	LV	46.9
PT	0.7243	MT	46.8
LT	0.7208	CY	44.9
HR	0.7075	CZ	43.8
PL	0.7051	PL	43.7
EE	0.7017	HU	41.6
IT	0.6973	IT	41.1
RO	0.6936	LT	40.2
SK	0.6806	HR	39.8
EL	0.6784	BG	38.5
HU	0.6759	EL	38.3
CY	0.6741	PT	37.9
CZ	0.6737	SK	36.5
MT	0.6707	RO	33.7

Source: World Economic Forum (2014)

Note: data for the Gender Gap Index refer to 2009-14 and for the Gender Equality Index to 2012

### Comparison of the scores

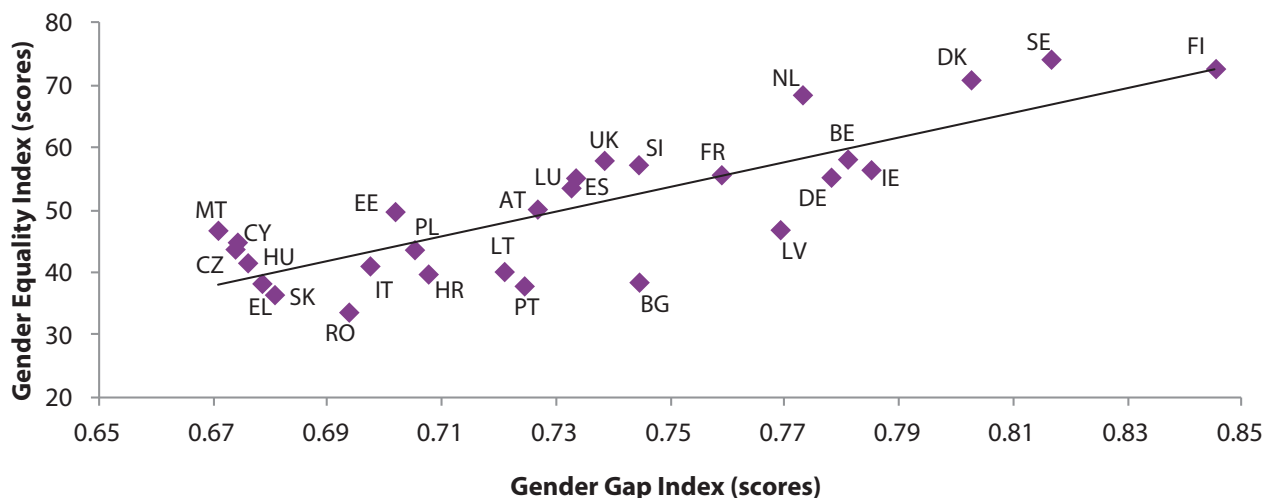
Nevertheless, scores are somewhat different, both in their range and in the country rankings they produce. This section will explore these differences in more detail.

When comparing two indices measuring the same multi-dimensional concept, it is crucial to remember that they should both point to the same result, but that there may be differences because of the approaches that they adopted in their construction. In practice, this means that if both the Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index aim

at measuring gender equality, then there must be a close relationship between the rankings they produce. A correlation equal to 0.82 provides strong evidence that both composite indices capture the concept of gender equality in a similar way. Graphically, this relationship between the

two indices can be seen in Figure 5.10. It shows that EU Member States which tend to do well in one of the indices also tend to do well in the other. As a result it also demonstrates unequivocally that both indices are very powerful measures of gender equality.

**Figure 5.10. Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index in the EU Member States**



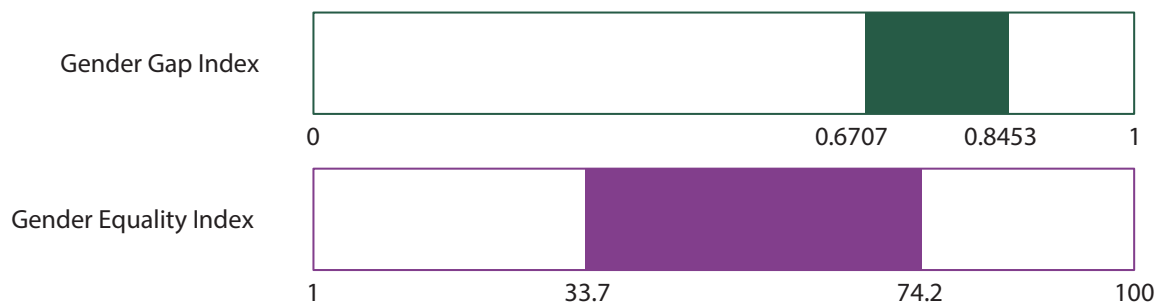
Source: World Economic Forum (2014),  
 Note: data for the Gender Gap Index refer to 2009–14 and for the Gender Equality Index to 2012.

**Distribution of scores**

The range of scores is important because it is a measure of how EU Member States differ from each other and also how far they are from reaching the gender equality

benchmark. This range is very different between the two indices, with the Gender Equality Index ranging from 33.7 to 74.2 (on a scale ranging from 1 to 100) and the Gender Gap Index from 0.6707 to 0.8453 (on a scale ranging from 0 to 1) (Figure 5.11).

**Figure 5.11. Distribution of scores in the Gender Gap Index and Gender Equality Index in the EU Member States**



Source: World Economic Forum (2014).  
 Note: data for the Gender Gap Index refer to 2009–14 and for the Gender Equality Index to 2012.

This distribution of scores is the result of the design of the two indices, their framework and the gender indicators that were chosen in light of their respective geographical coverage. The scores of the Gender Gap Index are narrower than the Gender Equality Index and as such provide

less information as to how the EU Member States vary in terms of achieving gender equality.

At the same time, the distribution of scores also shows that the gender indicators selected lead to higher scores than the ones adopted by the Gender Equality Index. This could





have implications in terms of the ability of the Gender Gap Index to grasp the complexity of gender equality and to be used as a measure that can support EU Member States to identify areas in which improvements are needed. In order to examine these more fully, it is necessary to look at the scores in greater detail at the domain level, which the section now turns to.

### 5.2.5. Scores by domains

This section presents the scores of the Gender Gap Index and Gender Equality Index by domain for their 2014 and 2015 editions respectively, followed by an analysis of the range of scores that their indicators cover. A breakdown of those scores is presented in Tables 5.4 and 5.5.

**Table 5.4. Scores of the Gender Gap Index by domains**

Country	Gender Gap Index	Economic participation and opportunity	Educational attainment	Health and survival	Political empowerment
FI	0.8453	0.7859	1.0000	0.9789	0.6162
SE	0.8165	0.7989	0.9974	0.9694	0.5005
DK	0.8025	0.8053	1.0000	0.9741	0.4306
IE	0.7850	0.7543	0.9979	0.9739	0.4140
BE	0.7809	0.7577	0.9921	0.9789	0.3948
DE	0.7780	0.7388	0.9995	0.9739	0.3998
NL	0.7730	0.7106	1.0000	0.9699	0.4116
LV	0.7691	0.7931	1.0000	0.9796	0.3038
FR	0.7588	0.7036	1.0000	0.9796	0.3520
BG	0.7444	0.7288	0.9934	0.9791	0.2764
SI	0.7443	0.7827	0.9999	0.9730	0.2214
UK	0.7383	0.7140	0.9996	0.9699	0.2698
LU	0.7333	0.7529	1.0000	0.9678	0.2123
ES	0.7325	0.6470	0.9973	0.9719	0.3139
AT	0.7266	0.6704	1.0000	0.9789	0.2573
PT	0.7243	0.7192	0.9933	0.9724	0.2124
LT	0.7208	0.7384	0.9942	0.9791	0.1714
HR	0.7075	0.6753	0.9938	0.9791	0.1817
PL	0.7051	0.6808	0.9995	0.9791	0.1609
EE	0.7017	0.7055	1.0000	0.9791	0.1221
IT	0.6973	0.5738	0.9939	0.9737	0.2479
RO	0.6936	0.6825	0.9939	0.9791	0.1190
SK	0.6806	0.6431	1.0000	0.9730	0.1061
EL	0.6784	0.6434	0.9954	0.9785	0.0961
HU	0.6759	0.6683	0.9924	0.9791	0.0636
CY	0.6741	0.6560	0.9978	0.9738	0.0690
CZ	0.6737	0.6216	1.0000	0.9791	0.0940
MT	0.6707	0.5686	1.0000	0.9695	0.1447

Source: World Economic Forum (2014).  
Note: data for the Gender Gap Index refer to 2009-14.

**Table 5.5. Scores of the Gender Equality Index by domains**

Country	Gender Equality Index	Domain of work	Domain of money	Domain of knowledge	Domain of time	Domain of power	Domain of health
SE	74.2	81.0	80.6	67.6	61.9	71.7	93.3
FI	72.7	72.6	79.9	67.3	61.3	75.7	89.0
DK	70.9	76.8	76.4	73.2	64.5	55.7	91.4
NL	68.5	69.0	83.6	64.6	71.2	51.3	93.6
BE	58.2	59.5	79.6	51.0	44.1	49.5	93.6
UK	58.0	69.5	74.6	67.5	41.8	33.2	94.4
SI	57.3	63.6	71.3	49.4	46.6	47.2	90.1
IE	56.5	65.8	79.0	54.3	52.0	31.4	95.2
FR	55.7	61.3	76.9	50.7	34.5	48.8	90.6
DE	55.3	62.2	78.4	46.7	39.7	45.1	90.0
LU	55.2	63.6	92.3	64.6	47.1	22.6	94.6
ES	53.6	59.6	59.7	53.4	33.5	47.8	92.2
AT	50.2	66.5	77.6	44.5	38.6	27.1	92.7
EE	49.8	62.0	48.4	55.4	49.8	27.9	82.0
LV	46.9	63.3	43.2	40.3	35.2	42.5	75.6
MT	46.8	60.7	71.4	36.3	36.7	28.3	95.6
CY	44.9	74.0	74.6	51.5	24.4	16.9	92.4
CZ	43.8	54.2	60.4	42.0	23.5	31.8	89.5
PL	43.7	55.5	54.2	41.8	20.8	38.5	83.6
HU	41.6	60.7	53.8	35.3	31.9	23.5	85.2
IT	41.1	53.8	68.0	32.5	32.4	21.8	89.5
LT	40.2	55.6	45.6	47.6	22.8	22.8	82.3
HR	39.8	53.6	52.0	31.0	25.9	29.7	85.3
BG	38.5	58.7	40.3	31.8	17.0	36.8	86.0
EL	38.3	56.9	56.4	37.6	17.9	21.9	90.8
PT	37.9	59.1	56.0	37.8	22.4	17.6	83.3
SK	36.5	52.8	56.7	34.0	17.7	21.1	86.7
RO	33.7	61.6	38.4	28.2	17.4	20.7	84.4

Note: data for the Gender Equality Index refer to 2012

The distributions of the scores across domains presented above are set out in Figures 5.12 and 5.13 for the Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index.

A brief analysis of the distribution of scores for the Gender Gap Index demonstrates that the equality point has been largely met by all EU Member States in some domains such as health and survival (measured by healthy life

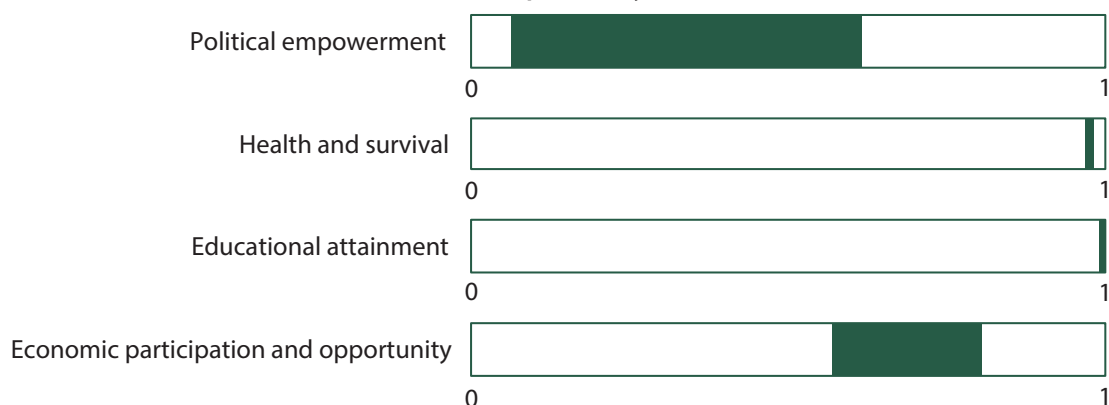
expectancy and the ratio at birth — the phenomenon of ‘missing women’ prevalent in many countries with a strong son preference) and educational attainment (measured by the gap in primary, secondary and tertiary education as well as the gap in literacy rates). However, it is important to remember that this reflects the choice of both the theoretical approach adopted and the gender indicators it incorporates. The distribution of scores therefore suggests that



the variables adopted by the Gender Gap Index are weaker in allowing the identification of areas in which to target actions, although they point to the fact that EU Member

States have largely addressed women's parity for these gender indicators.

**Figure 5.12. Distribution of scores in the Gender Gap Index by domains**



Source: World Economic Forum (2014).  
Note: data for the Gender Gap Index refer to 2009–14

**Figure 5.13. Distribution of scores in the Gender Equality Index by domains**



Note: data for the Gender Equality Index refer to 2012 (except EWCS: 2010 and SES: 2010).

In summary, the scores of gender equality achieved by the Gender Gap Index for EU Member States are driven almost exclusively by two domains. These are political empowerment (measured by the representation of women and men in minister-level and parliamentary positions as well as the gender ratio of years in executive office — prime minister or president — for the past 50 years) and economic participation and opportunity (measured by the advancement gap, participation in the labour market and the remuneration gap). This somewhat restricts its scope and use in the context of the EU. By contrast, examining the distribution of scores for the Gender Equality Index shows that it uses

more targeted indicators which are better at showing differences across EU Member States.

Overall, both indices indicate that the EU Member States suffer from an imbalance of women in political decision-making, that there remain challenges in terms of economic independence (labour market and economic resources) and finally that equality in educational attainment and survival has been largely achieved. The Gender Gap Index includes several pertinent indicators not covered in the Gender Equality Index such as the advancement gap or the gender ratio of years in executive office.

Because of its EU focus, larger conceptual framework and a larger number of indicators, the Gender Equality Index nevertheless allows gender equality to be measured in a number of additional areas, such as for example lifelong learning or the division of time.

## 5.2.6. Comparison

### Two robust measures of gender equality catering to different perspectives

The purpose of this section was to show that the Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum and the Gender Equality Index developed by the European Institute for

Gender Equality provide robust measurements of gender equality that can help EU Member States to monitor the achievements of policy objectives and identify areas where actions and measures should be targeted, using a methodology which can be replicated at national level. Despite differences in their approach, conceptual framework and gender indicators, there is a strong relationship between their respective results: this means that as an EU Member State tends to do well in one index, it also tends to do well in the other. At the methodological level, this is an important finding, since it strengthens and confirms the ability of both indices to measure gender equality. A summary table of their main characteristics, and how they compare, is provided in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.6. Characteristics of the Gender Equality Index and the Gender Gap Index**

	Gender Equality Index	Gender Gap Index
<b>Institution</b>	European Institute for Gender Equality	World Economic Forum
<b>Purpose</b>	Development of a tool that allows for the monitoring of EU policy effectiveness	Raising awareness of how gender gaps create challenges and opportunities among business professionals, decision- and policymakers as well as academia
<b>Publication year</b>	2015	2014
<b>Years of data coverage</b>	2012 with the exception of EWCS and SES data which refer to 2010	2009–14
<b>Update</b>	Every 2 years	Every year
<b>Country coverage</b>	28 EU Member States	115 originally 142 by 2014
<b>Theoretical approach</b>	Equality between women and men	Women's parity with men
<b>Domains</b>	Six core domains: Work Money Knowledge Time Power Health Two satellite domains so far: Violence Intersecting inequalities	Four domains: Political empowerment Economic participation and opportunity Educational attainment Health and survival
<b>Indicators</b>	26	14

### Trade-off between the indicators adopted and geographical coverage

The main differences that are present relate to having to carefully negotiate the balance between the gender indicators that can be incorporated and the geographical coverage sought. On the one hand, the Gender Gap Index provides a very valuable composite measure of gender equality at global level, together with indicators that are

pertinent to the global issues pertinent to gender equality. On the other, the Gender Equality Index by focusing solely on EU Member States is able to provide a more detailed picture of gender equality within this narrower geographical area with indicators that take into account the specific policy issues of the European context and to benefit from the harmonised and comparable EU wide data provided by the European Statistical system.



### **Measuring gender equality as a solid base upon which to design and implement action**

Although the analysis shows that the Gender Equality Index is more apt for examining gender equality differences and problems that remain to be addressed within EU Member States, a strong asset of the Gender Gap Index is that it clearly positions the EU Member States within a global perspective. Measuring gender equality both in the European Union as well as globally remains more important than ever. Composite indicators have a major role to play in this since they are a very powerful tool that can bring attention to the situation and evolution of gender inequalities, and ultimately stimulate action to tackle this. They also play a major role in encouraging countries to collect, analyse and disseminate gender statistics with greater rigour and frequency. Measuring the situation provides a solid base upon which to design and implement action to ensure that equality becomes a reality for women and men in the European Union and beyond.

## **5.3. Summary**

This section explored how the Gender Equality Index relates to selected topics, relevant to the EU policy framework. The Gender Equality Index is associated with economic growth, social protection expenditure, NEETs rate, formal childcare provision, women's representation in academia and health care expenditure. This demonstrates the importance of introducing a gender perspective in the Europe 2020's growth agenda and EU policy more generally. The section then analysed the explanatory power of two composite gender equality indicators — the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index and the Gender Equality Index — for the EU context.

The next section provides a first analysis of the area of violence against women, within the perspective of a composite indicator. It provides preliminary results based on data released by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), before providing a contextual analysis using relevant variables.

## 6. Measuring violence against women within the framework of the Gender Equality Index

Violence against women includes ‘all acts of gender-based violence that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life’, as defined by Article 3a of the Istanbul Convention (Council of Europe, 2011). Violence against women is prevalent in all societies and is based on unequal power relations between women and men, which reinforce men’s dominance over women. The elimination of violence against women involves challenging the unequal division of social, political, and economic power held by women and men, and the ways in which this inequality is perpetuated through institutions at all levels of societies (Pickup, 2001). The Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (Istanbul Convention) acknowledges this by including, for the first time in a regional legal instrument, a gender-based definition of violence against women: ‘gender-based violence against women shall mean violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately’ (Council of Europe, 2011, Article 3d). This definition highlights the fact that violence against women cannot be understood outside the social structures, gender norms and roles that underpin gender inequalities and thus normalise it. They are the root causes, or structural forms, of violence against women.

Addressing violence against women is a declared goal of the EU institutions and all EU Member States, as affirmed in the European Commission’s Women’s Charter (2010), the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011–20, the European Commission’s Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010–15, and the Stockholm programme for 2010–14. The EU Member States have committed to several international agreements: in December 1995, the Council of the European Union acknowledged the European Union’s commitment to the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA), and its implementation is reviewed across the Member States on a yearly basis (United Nations, 1995b). Ten EU Member States (AT, DK, ES, FI, FR, IT, MT, PT, SE, SI) have, to date, ratified the Istanbul Convention that

entered into force in August 2014. When EIGE developed the first Gender Equality Index in 2013, the domain of violence remained empty, emphasising the largest statistical gap in measuring progress in achieving gender equality at EU level (EIGE, 2013). The release of the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women carried out by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) in March 2014 marked a major advance in measuring violence against women at EU level. To date, this survey is the only attempt aiming to capture the prevalence of violence against women in a harmonised and comparable way across all EU Member States. The questions asked in the survey relate to women’s personal experience of various forms of violence, the severity and frequency of their experience of certain types of violence, and the consequences the acts of violence has had on their lives (FRA, 2014b). Data were collected through interviews with over 42 000 women in the EU-28 (approximately 1 500 in each Member State), who were randomly selected from the general population of women.

This section presents a first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence by constructing a composite indicator of direct violence against women, based on prevalence data collected through the FRA’s EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women. As the focus is not on ranking EU Member States, this section does not provide scores for individual Member States but instead clusters them into three broad groups according to their levels of disclosed violence in relation to the EU average.

It is crucial to note that the prevalence of violence captured in all victimisation surveys, including surveys on violence against women, represents disclosed violence only — that is, experiences of violence that respondents were willing to share during the interviews — and can therefore not provide a complete picture of the actual prevalence of violence against women. Reasons that can account for the differences between disclosed and actual prevalence of violence can be explored by looking at contextual indicators. This can allow for a better understanding of how disclosed violence relates to different societal and cultural contexts. This is done by exploring the relationship between the results of the composite indicator of direct



violence, the scores of the Gender Equality Index, and data from the Eurobarometer Survey providing information on attitudes and perceptions of violence against women, as well as trust in the police and justice institutions.

## 6.1. Data collection on violence against women

The collection of data related to violence against women has been recognised as an important topic by the EU, the Council of Europe and, at international level, by the United Nations in their commitment to eradicate violence against women. However, in contrast to other policy areas, data collection on violence against women is not specifically underpinned by EU legislation. Binding EU regulations, such as the Victims' Directive <sup>(1)</sup> (EU Directive 2012/29/EU of 25 October 2012) — to date the only binding document with regard to data collection on violence against women — and the European Protection Order Directive <sup>(2)</sup> (EU Directive 2011/99/EU of 13 December 2011) are not focused on measuring violence against women as such, but can enhance data collection on violence against women at Member State level.

Data on violence against women can be obtained through different sources, including sample surveys as the closest proxy to real prevalence or incident rates (disclosed prevalence), or through administrative institutions dealing with reported cases of violence against women (reported prevalence). Both survey-based and administrative data on violence against women are crucial for the monitoring of the Victims' Directive (Article 28, Directive 2012/29/EU) in all Member States, and of the Istanbul Convention (Article 13) for those Member States that have ratified it. Official statistics are compiled and produced, usually by the National Statistical Offices, based on data from surveys and/or administrative sources, capturing only partially the actual prevalence and incidence of violence against women.

The difference between actual prevalence and incidence of violence on one hand, and disclosed violence recorded by sample survey on the other is a 'grey zone', as illustrated

below (Figure 6.2). It is difficult to assess the extent of the gap between actual and disclosed prevalence of violence. In all likelihood, actual prevalence is larger in magnitude than that of the disclosed violence recorded by sample surveys, which in turn is wider than reported violence recorded by the authorities, or official statistics provided by national statistical offices or other institutions.

Accordingly, the concept referred to in this chapter is that of 'disclosed violence' rather than 'violence'. The characteristics, advantages and challenges of different data and its sources to measure violence against women, particularly in a comparable way across the EU, are discussed below.

### 6.1.1. Survey-based data on violence against women

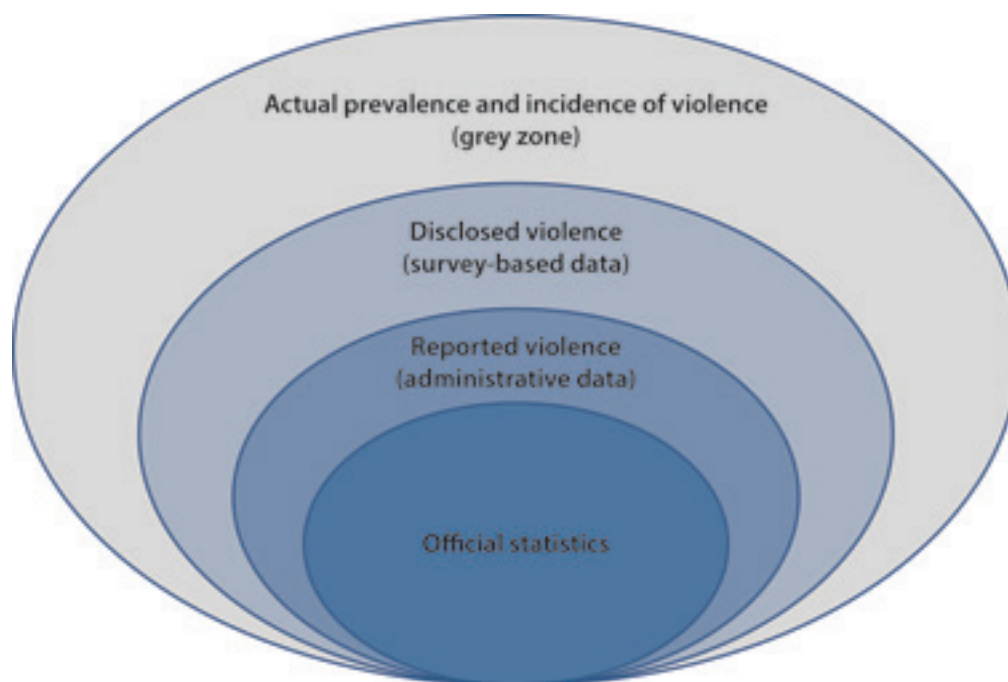
Survey-based data can provide pertinent information usually on prevalence, but also incidence, severity and frequency of violence. However, this approach depends on the willingness of the respondent to disclose any violence she has experienced. Surveys therefore tend to underestimate actual prevalence rates. Under-reporting is a common issue faced by all sample surveys or opinion surveys independent of the focus of the exercise. Sample surveys are affected by three main types of bias which need to be taken into account in order to reach a representative sample:

- Non-response bias which occurs when individuals selected in the survey sample cannot or will not complete the survey;
- Coverage bias which occurs when the observed value deviates from the population parameter due to differences between covered and non-covered units; and
- Selection bias which occurs when some units have a differing probability of selection in the sample that is unaccounted for by the researcher (De Leeuw, Hox, and Dillman, 2008).

These forms of biases, particularly non-response bias, tend to be amplified while dealing with surveys on violence against women due to the sensitivity of the topic.

<sup>(1)</sup> Article 28 requires Member States to communicate data on how victims (including victims of gender-based violence) have accessed the rights set out in the directive from 2017 and every 3 years thereafter. The preamble adds to this that statistical data should at least include the number and type of the reported crimes and, as far as such data are known and are available, the number and age and gender of the victims.  
<sup>(2)</sup> Article 22 of this directive requires Member States to communicate data on protection orders, including the number of European protection orders requested, issued and/or recognised.

**Figure 6.1. Types of data to measure violence against women**



Various factors can affect the extent to which women disclose the violence they have experienced (Flores-Macias and Lawson, 2008). These factors can include the level of awareness of violence against women in the society; social and institutional responses to it; the extent to which it is considered a private issue; respondent's sense of safety and security during an interview; methodology of the survey; and the ability of the interviewer to ensure confidentiality, safety, and a trustful relation (United Nations, 2013a).

As these factors vary among groups, communities, regions, and Member States, they must be considered in the analysis of the results and when conducting further work. It is therefore important to distinguish between actual prevalence rates (the violence experienced by women) and disclosed prevalence rates (the violence experienced by women that they are willing to disclose, for example through a survey interview).

The majority of EU Member States have conducted national surveys on violence against women, either in the form of a dedicated survey or as a module on violence against women included in another type of survey (for example, victimisation or health survey) during the period 2007–14. However, differing concepts, methodologies, time periods, sample group characteristics, and forms of violence asked about in surveys hinder the comparability of results and make the measuring of prevalence across the EU on the basis of the existing national surveys impossible (EIGE, 2012).

### **6.1.2. Administrative data on violence against women**

Administrative data comprise information from the police, justice, health and social services, and other agencies, such as civil society organisations (CSOs), which come into contact with cases of violence against women. The police and the justice systems are the most advanced in the availability, quality and comparability of administrative data (EIGE, 2014d). Administrative data complements prevalence survey data by providing information on cases reported to these institutions.

Significant differences between Member States in terms of laws and legal definitions, data collection methodologies, and methodologies for compiling and producing statistics on violence against women, make comparison between and across Member States impossible (EIGE, 2014d).

Furthermore, in many EU Member States, statistics based on police or justice data do not include relevant information on certain aspects of violence against women. For instance, in some Member States, official crime statistics are not disaggregated by the sex and age of the victim and perpetrator, or by the relationship between the victim and perpetrator, which means that instances of violence against women, such as intimate partner violence and other forms of domestic violence are not easily identifiable.





Finally, administrative data only reflects violence that is reported to the police or other institutions, and thus gives only a partial picture of violence against women. Nevertheless, administrative data are an important source of information on violence against women in the EU for monitoring and evaluating purposes. Some forms of violence, such as femicide or trafficking of women for sexual exploitation, can only be gathered through administrative data sources. It is important for them to be measured to provide a more complete picture of the complexity and diversity of forms of violence against women.

Having outlined the different types of data available on violence against women, the next section presents how violence against women can be conceptualised. Due to the challenges and limitations discussed above in relation to the comparison of data from both national sample surveys and national data from administrative institutions across the Member States, to date only data from the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women can be used to measure violence against women in a comparable way across the EU.

## 6.2. Conceptualising violence against women

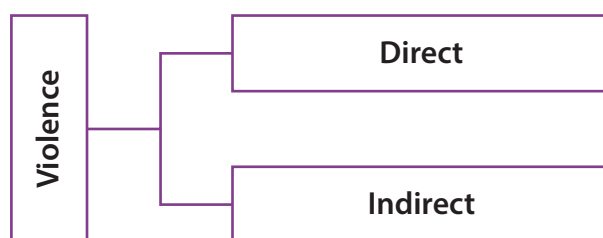
EIGE's conceptual framework on violence against women (EIGE, 2013) aims to provide a structure to adequately map

and understand the different forms of violence against women within the framework of EU policy, EU gender equality policy and EU policies on violence against women. This framework understands violence as the interplay between two main forms of violence against women — direct and indirect violence.

The domain of violence constitutes a satellite domain of the Gender Equality Index, as it is conceptually related to gender equality, but is not included in the core Index. This is because unlike the core domains, it measures a phenomenon that only applies to a selected group of the population. As such, the satellite domain of violence departs from the approach of the core Index in that the domain of violence does not focus on gender gaps between women and men, but levels of violence against women. Indeed, the aim is not to reduce the gaps of violence between women and men, but to eradicate violence against women altogether (EIGE, 2013).

In the first edition of the Gender Equality Index, the domain of violence consisted of two sub-domains (Figure 6.1), one related to direct violence, which focuses on 'all acts of gender-based violence that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to an individual' (EIGE, 2013, p. 32). The second sub-domain refers to indirect violence, and focuses on 'attitudes, stereotypes and cultural norms that underpin gendered practices' (EIGE, 2013, p. 32).

**Figure 6.2. Domain of violence and its sub-domains**



### 6.2.1. Direct violence

Direct violence against women includes physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence. A comprehensive picture of the different forms of gender-based violence against women is outlined in the EU Council Conclusions of 5 and 6 June 2014 on preventing and combating all forms of violence against women and girls, including female genital mutilation. The Conclusions refer to the following as forms of gender-based violence against women: violence in close relationships, sexual violence (including

rape, sexual assault and harassment in all public and private spheres of life), trafficking in human beings; slavery; sexual exploitation; harmful practices such as child and forced marriages, female genital mutilation and crimes committed in the name of so-called 'honour'; as well as emerging forms of violations, such as online harassment, various form of sexual abuse instigated or facilitated through the use of information and communication technologies, stalking and bullying (Council of the European Union, 2014).

However, the Council Conclusions do not fully reflect the realm of violence against women in its entirety. Specifically, psychological and economic violence are not visible as they are not explicitly mentioned. Psychological violence includes ‘threats, humiliation, mocking and controlling behaviours’ (United Nations Statistical Commission, 2010, p. 9). Economic violence involves denying access of the victim to financial resources, property, health care, education, and the labour market, and denying them participation in economic decision-making (United Nations Statistical Commission, 2010).

The relationship to the perpetrator involved in acts of violence is also of great relevance. Intimate partner violence is one of the most widespread forms of direct violence against women, and includes a range of sexual, psychological and physical coercive acts used against adult and adolescent women by a current or former intimate partner, without her consent.

Direct violence against women should be understood through the lens of normative gender roles and unequal power relations between women and men. Violence is often normalised and perpetuated due to structural inequalities. Hence, the historical and contemporary subordination of women in economic, social and political life must be acknowledged when attempting to explain the prevalence of direct violence against women in our societies. As a result, this means shifting the focus from an actor-oriented perspective of violence to a structure-oriented perspective.

### 6.2.2. Indirect violence

Indirect violence encompasses what the UN defines as ‘any form of structural inequality or institutional discrimination that maintains a woman in a subordinate position, whether physical or ideological, to other people within her family, household or community’ (United Nations, 2011, p. 8). It can be understood as a type of structural violence, characterised by norms, attitudes and stereotypes surrounding gender in general and violence against women in particular. Indirect violence operates within the larger societal context; institutions, and the individuals within and outside these institutions, are all engaged in the production and reproduction of attitudes which normalise violence against women (United Nations, 1992). Looking at these attitudes can provide insight into the way in which these indirect forms of violence are created and sustained, and even more importantly, how they contribute to and support direct forms of violence against women.

As highlighted by the UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women (United Nations, 2011; United Nations, 2013b), a holistic approach for the elimination of all forms of violence against women requires understanding violence as a continuum that spans direct and indirect violence. Direct violence must be understood in relation to indirect violence, as these acts are underpinned by beliefs about the perpetrator’s right to control or harm another, and are based on societal notions of gender roles and relations. Thus, structural gender inequalities rationalise direct violence and the latter cannot be prevented unless the underlying roots are addressed (Confortini, 2006). This holistic approach to understanding violence against women is needed in order to explain direct violence and its prevalence within societies.

To date, there is no consensus on the terminology adopted, or on the relationship between direct and indirect violence. While some see it as an integral part of violence against women, it is contested by others. Much work needs to be done in this area to better understand, and ultimately measure structural forms of inequalities.

The conceptual approach outlined in this section is used to guide the development of a first composite indicator of direct violence. In the next section, the methodological steps adopted to construct this composite indicator are discussed, followed by a presentation of the indicators selected and the results obtained.

## 6.3. Towards a composite indicator of direct violence

The original structure of the Gender Equality Index distinguishes between direct and indirect violence. In this section, however, only the sub-domain of direct violence is considered. This report, building on the newly available data from the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women (FRA, 2014a; FRA, 2014b), proposes a first measure of violence against women as a composite indicator. While the survey certainly offers invaluable insights and a significant first step towards measuring violence against women, further assessment of the data is needed at the Member State level – for example, with respect to rarer incidents of violence that women may experience over a 12 month period – before a more comprehensive composite indicator can be developed.

Prevalence surveys — because they deal with a sensitive topic and capture only those experiences of gender-based violence that women are willing to disclose



— only partially capture what they seek to measure. The EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women is based on a substantial sample size of 42 000 women from the general population of all Member States. Prevalence surveys on violence — because they deal with a sensitive topic and capture only those experiences of gender-based violence that women are willing to disclose — only partially capture what they seek to measure. The EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women is based on a substantial sample size of 42 000 women from the general population of all Member States. However, sample size and the number of responses to specific questions at the Member State level (with 1,500 women interviewed in each Member State) need to be taken into consideration when developing a composite indicator. As FRA indicates in its survey report (FRA, 2014b), when the number of responses to a specific survey question are small (fewer than 30) ‘results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable’. This is important to note – particularly when using data relating to rarer responses (or rarer incidents of violence) at the Member State level – because a composite measure is not only a statistical tool, but also a communication and policymaking tool. It is therefore of importance, as noted in the FRA survey report (2014b), to not merely rank Member States but to offer possible explanatory factors that can help to understand better the phenomenon of violence against women in order to support better and more effective policy measures.

Therefore, this section provides results for the EU average, and information at Member State level on whether they are positioned below, at, or above the EU average, using indicators already developed by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights. This first tentative step needs to be further refined from the methodological and data point of view in the future.

### 6.3.1. Methodological steps

The steps involved in constructing the composite indicator of direct violence are briefly presented below. A fuller description of the methodology is available in the first report on the Gender Equality Index (EIGE, 2013) and in the OECDs/JRC’s Handbook on Constructing Indicators (Nardo et al., 2008). Since this composite indicator does not measure gender gaps, it is based on a different metric than the Gender Equality Index.

The development of the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women was underpinned by the core indicators for measuring violence against women identified and agreed upon at the international level (United Nations Statistical Commission, 2010), with the exception of the indicator relating to female genital mutilation. These indicators, outlined in Table 6.1 below, are used as the basis for constructing a measurement framework for direct violence.

**Table 6.1. Core indicators for measuring violence against women identified by the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on indicators on violence against women**

1	Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to physical violence in the past 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.
2	Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to physical violence during their lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.
3	Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence in the past 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.
4	Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence during their lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.
5	Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the past 12 months by frequency.
6	Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner during their lifetime by frequency.
7	Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by an intimate partner.
8	Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by an intimate partner.
9	Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to female genital mutilation.

Source: United Nations Statistical Commission on Indicators on Violence against Women (2010).

Indicators providing information on the prevalence of violence against women in the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women were extracted from the online database (FRA, 2014a). These indicators cover physical, sexual and

psychological violence. Information on what aspects are used to measure physical, sexual and psychological violence is provided in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2. Aspects covered by the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women — Physical, sexual and psychological violence**

Form of violence	Questions
<b>Physical violence</b>	<p><b>How often has someone:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ pushed or shoved you?</li> <li>▪ slapped you?</li> <li>▪ thrown a hard object at you?</li> <li>▪ grabbed you or pulled your hair?</li> <li>▪ beaten you with a fist or a hard object, or kicked you?</li> <li>▪ burned you?</li> <li>▪ tried to suffocate you or strangle you?</li> <li>▪ cut or stabbed you, or shot at you?</li> <li>▪ beaten your head against something?</li> </ul>
<b>Sexual violence</b>	<p><b>How often has someone:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ forced you into sexual intercourse by holding you down or hurting you in some way? (if needed: by sexual intercourse we mean here forced oral sex, forced anal or vaginal penetration)</li> <li>▪ apart from this, attempted to force you into sexual intercourse by holding you down or hurting you in some way? (if needed: by sexual intercourse we mean here forced oral sex, forced anal or vaginal penetration)</li> <li>▪ apart from this, made you take part in any form of sexual activity when you did not want to or you were unable to refuse?</li> <li>▪ or have you consented to sexual activity because you were afraid of what might happen if you refused?</li> </ul>
<b>Psychological violence</b>	<p><b>How often would you say that your current or has any previous partner ever:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ tried to keep you from seeing your friends?</li> <li>▪ tried to restrict your contact with your family of birth or relatives?</li> <li>▪ insisted on knowing where you are in a way that goes beyond general concern?</li> <li>▪ got angry if you spoke with another man (or another woman if your partner is a woman)?</li> <li>▪ become suspicious that you are unfaithful?</li> <li>▪ prevented you from making decisions about family finances and from shopping independently?</li> <li>▪ forbidden you to work outside the home?</li> <li>▪ forbidden you to leave the house, taken away car keys or locked you up?</li> <li>▪ belittled or humiliated you in front of other people?</li> <li>▪ belittled or humiliated you in private?</li> <li>▪ done things to scare or intimidate you on purpose, for example yelling and smashing things?</li> <li>▪ made you watch or look at pornographic material against your wishes?</li> <li>▪ threatened to take the children away from you?</li> <li>▪ threatened to hurt your children?</li> <li>▪ hurt your children?</li> <li>▪ threatened to hurt or kill someone else you care about?</li> <li>▪ threatened to hurt you physically?</li> </ul>

Source: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (2014c).

To build a composite indicator, a set of indicators must be chosen in a way that verifies a certain number of strict statistical principles. The first step is to construct a measurement framework based on a principal component analysis (PCA) that outlines the correlation structure underpinning the indicators.

The measurement framework proposed relies on seven indicators developed by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and derived from the multivariate analysis (Annex 12) and presented in Table 6.3.



**Table 6.3. Measurement framework for the domain of violence**

Domain	Measurement framework	Concept measured	Indicator	Source
Violence	Violence against women	Violence since the age of 15	Physical violence by a partner since the age of 15	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
			Sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
			Sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
			Psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
		Violence in the past 12 months prior to the interview	Physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
			Sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
			Sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women
	Norms, attitudes, stereotypes	-	-	-

The indicators selected capture incidents of violence that took place during the 12 months prior to the survey interview taking place, as well as those experienced since the age of 15. This means that it is possible to measure both lifetime violence and recent levels of violence against women. Distinguishing between lifetime violence and violence in the past 12 months is particularly important because they can differ significantly. The disclosure of lifetime prevalence can be affected, for instance, by differences in interpretation of violence over generations/years, or recall bias. Respondents ‘may not be indicating all instances of physical and/or sexual violence over the years, possibly because some incidents would have occurred many years ago (in some cases, these incidents may have taken place over 30 years ago)’ (FRA, 2014b, p. 35). It can also be affected by shifts in risk factors and cultural and social changes over time, including the progress towards gender equality in a society. For example, younger women reported significantly higher lifetime prevalence than older women, even though older women’s longer lifespan should be reflected in a higher proportion of incidents of violence (FRA, 2014b, p. 35).

The distinction between lifetime violence and violence in the last 12 months is particularly relevant in a policy context since it can take up to a generation to see significant changes in lifetime prevalence, while recent prevalence

might be more appropriate for measuring the progress made in eradicating violence against women. For example, data related to violence in the last 12 months is what is relevant to studies that attempt to estimate the cost of violence (EIGE, 2014c).

The calculation of the composite indicator of direct violence against women is done based on a min–max normalisation, where  $i$  represents the Member States ( $i = 1 \dots 28$ ):

$$Y_{(X_i)}^{\text{violence against women}} = 1 + 99 \times \left( 1 - \frac{X_i - \min(X_i)}{\max(X_i) - \min(X_i)} \right) \quad (1)$$

This metric generates a value falling in the interval between 1 and 100, where higher scores mean that there are lower levels of disclosed violence against women. The next step aggregates indicators together by using an arithmetic average, while it uses a geometric mean at component level to minimise potential compensations between lifetime violence and violence over the past 12 months. It is expressed as:

$$I_i^{\text{violence against women}} = \prod_{s=1}^3 \left( \sum_{v=1}^6 w_v Y_{(X_i)}^{\text{violence against women}} \right)^{w_s} \quad (2)$$

where  $Y$  identifies the metric described in (1) and  $w_v$  stands for equal weights computed at variable level and  $w_s$  for equal weights at sub-domain (component) level ( $w_v, w_s \in$

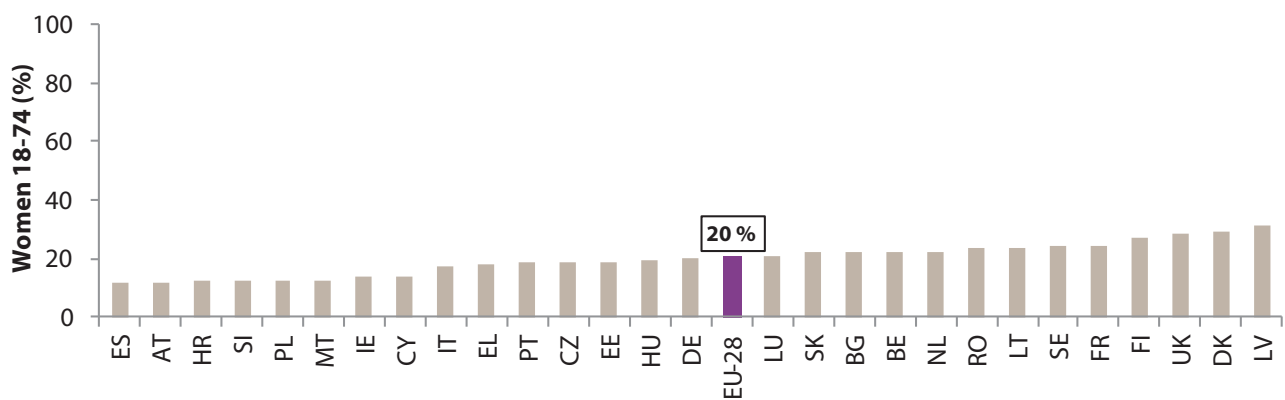
[0,1] and  $\sum w = 1$ ). The resulting correlation structure is provided in Annex 13.

### 6.3.2. Indicators

This section briefly describes the indicators, developed by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, which were used to compute this composite indicator of direct violence against women. An overview of the prevalence of disclosed violence is given, along with what this

represents in number terms. This is established on the basis that in 2012 there were approximately 185 million women in the EU according to Eurostat figures (demo\_pjangroup), 177 million of which have ever had an intimate partner if the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women proportion is extrapolated to the population of the EU. These indicators are described in depth in the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women report, where further details can be obtained (FRA, 2014b).

**Figure 6.3. Physical violence by a partner since the age of 15, 2012**

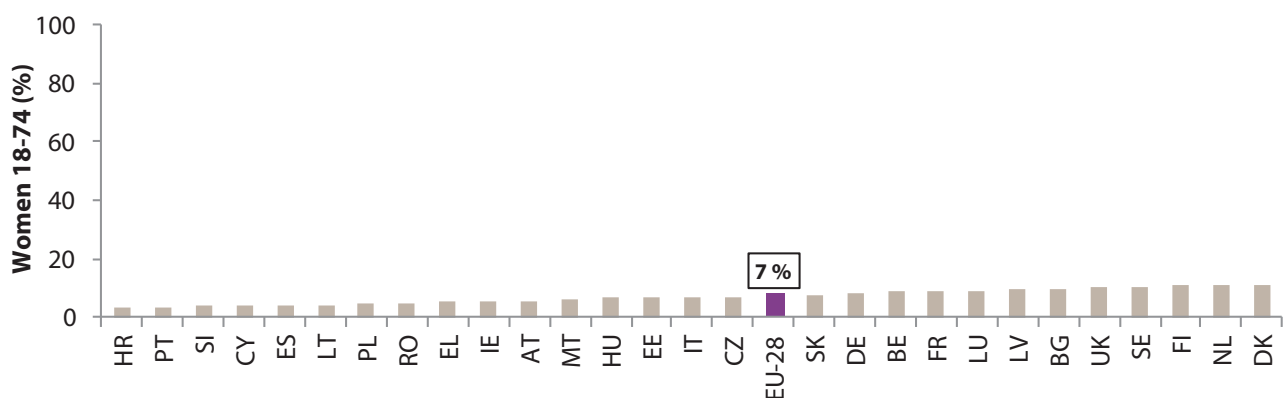


Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A08).

In the EU-28, 20 % of women disclosed having experienced physical violence by a partner since the age of 15, ranging from 12 % in Spain, Croatia, Austria, Poland and Slovenia to

31 % in Latvia (Figure 6.3). This means that **in 2012, over 35 million women in the EU had been victims of violence from their partner since the age of 15.**

**Figure 6.4. Sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15, 2012**



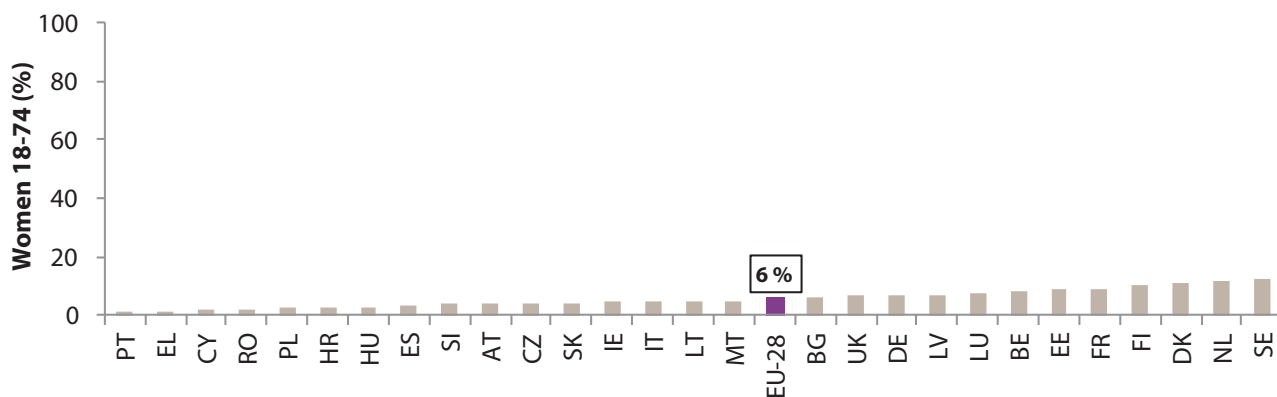
Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A09).

In total, 7 % of women in the EU disclosed having experienced sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15. The lowest proportions were in Croatia and Portugal with 3 % each, but this rose to 11 % in Denmark, the Netherlands and

Finland (Figure 6.4). Overall, **at least 12 million women in the EU-28 have been victims of sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15.**



Figure 6.5. Sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15, 2012

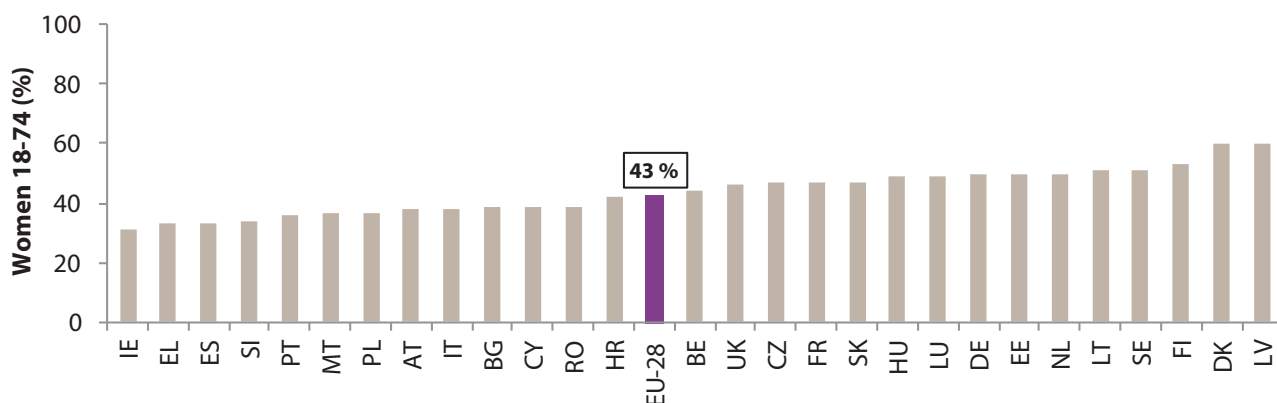


Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A15).

The proportion of women disclosing sexual violence by a person other than a current or previous partner since the age of 15 is generally lower than the proportion of women disclosing incidences of violence where the perpetrator was a current or previous partner. This suggests that sexual violence is more likely to come from an intimate partner. In the EU, on average, 6 % of women disclosed having

experienced sexual violence by a person that was not a current or previous partner, ranging from 1 % in Greece and Portugal to 12 % in the Netherlands and Sweden (Figure 6.5). In numerical terms, this means that **in the EU at least 11 million women have experienced sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15.**

Figure 6.6. Psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15, 2012

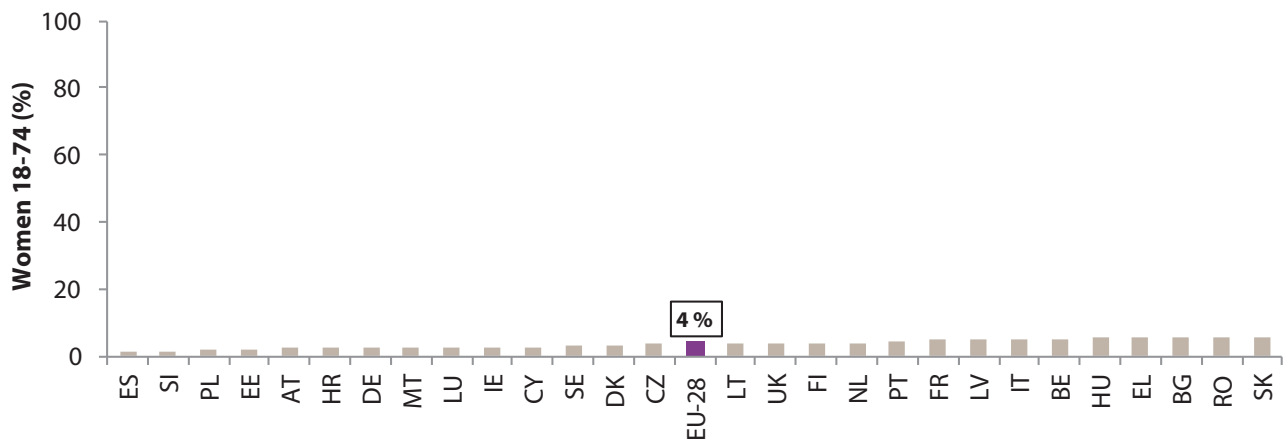


Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_C01).

The disclosed prevalence of psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15 is much higher than sexual and physical violence. In the EU-28, on average, 43 % of women disclosed having been subjected to psychological violence by a partner. In Ireland, this concerned 31 % of women,

but in Denmark or Latvia as many as 60 % of women (Figure 6.6). **Overall in the EU, this means that at least close to 76 million women have been subjected to psychological violence by a partner.**

**Figure 6.7. Physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview, 2012**

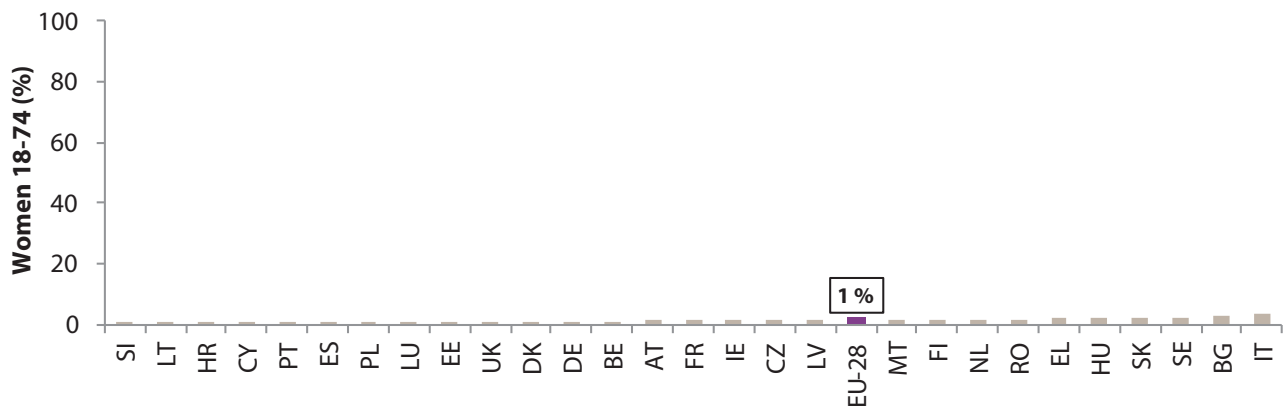


Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A11).

Disclosed prevalence over the past 12 months, as opposed to lifetime disclosed prevalence (since the age of 15), generates much smaller proportions in nominal terms. However, these figures provide important information on current levels of violence against women. In the EU on average, 4 % of women disclosed having been the victim of physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to

the interview. This was lowest in Spain with 1 % and most common in Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia with 6 % of women disclosing having experienced this type of violence (Figure 6.7). This translates to **at least 7 million women in the EU who have experienced physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the survey.**

**Figure 6.8. Sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview, 2012**



Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A12).

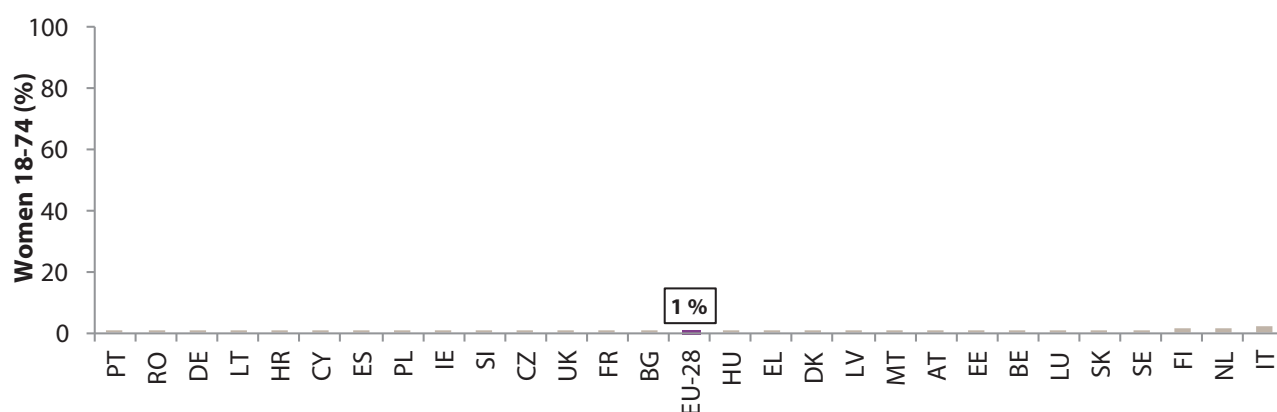
In the EU-28, 1 % of women in the EU-28 disclosed having been the victim of sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview. In some Member States (HR, LT or SI), few of these types of incidents of violence were disclosed, but in Italy 4 % of women disclosed having

experienced this form of violence (Figure 6.8). This means that, overall **at least 1.8 million women have experienced sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the survey.**





**Figure 6.9. Sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview, 2012**



Source: FRA (2014a), EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women database (DVS\_A18).

In the EU-28 on average 1 % of women in the EU-28 disclosed having experienced sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview. More cases were disclosed in Finland, the Netherlands and Italy, with 2 % of women (Figure 6.9). **This means that in the EU, at least 1.9 million women have experienced sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the survey.**

### 6.3.3. Levels of disclosed violence against women across the EU

Aggregating these indicators into a composite indicator of direct violence against women in the EU provides a

measure of disclosed violence against women. However, in line with the concerns outlined earlier on the reliability of indicators at the Member States level with respect to rarer incidents of violence – rather than providing results for individual countries – scores are grouped into three categories: similar to the EU average levels of disclosed violence (within 5 points on either side of the EU score), higher than EU average levels of disclosed violence (scores lower than 5 points below the EU score) and lower than EU average levels of disclosed violence (scores higher than 5 points above the EU score).

**Table 6.4. Distribution of the scores for Member States in relation to the EU score for the composite indicator of direct violence**

Rank	Member States
Member States where there are higher levels of <b>disclosed violence</b> than in the EU overall	BE, FR, LV, NL, SK, FI, SE
Member States where levels of <b>disclosed violence</b> are close to the EU score	BG, CZ, DK, DE, EE, EL, IT, LT, LU, HU, RO, UK
Member States where there are lower levels of <b>disclosed violence</b> than in the EU overall	IE, ES, HR, CY, MT, AT, PL, PT, SI

Accounting for the difference between lifetime violence and violence perpetrated in the 12 months prior to the interview provides more useful measures as to where Member States stand in relation to lifetime and 12-month prevalence (Table 6.5).

Since prevalence surveys can only rely on disclosed violence, and are likely to underestimate the true prevalence

of violence against women, the social and cultural context can greatly affect the extent to which incidents of violence are disclosed. Hence, the results — particularly at the Member State level — need to be interpreted with caution. To better understand how these scores relate to the context of Member States, the remainder of this section examines the scores obtained in relation to other relevant variables.

**Table 6.5. Distribution of scores for Member States in relation to the EU score for the components measuring lifetime violence and violence in the last 12 months**

Rank	Component measuring lifetime violence (since the age of 15)	Component measuring violence in the 12 months prior to the interview
Member States with a score higher than the EU overall	BE, DK, DE, FR, LV, LU, NL, FI, SE, UK	BG, EL, IT, HU, NL, SK, FI
Member States with a score close to the EU overall	BG, CZ, EE, LT, HU, SK	BE, CZ, FR, LV, LU, MT, PT, RO, SE, UK
Member States with a score lower than the EU overall	IE, EL, ES, HR, IT, CY, MT, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI	DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, HR, CY, LT, AT, PL, SI

## 6.4. Contextualising the level of disclosed violence against women

Violence against women is a complex phenomenon. As it is rooted in gender power relations, it has to be understood within the context of societal and cultural structures. The aim of this section is to contextualise the results of the composite indicator of direct violence developed from the results of the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women. To this end, some factors that may be related to the levels of disclosure of violence in the survey are explored in relation to the composite indicator of direct violence. This is a first step towards exploring some of the factors that might be interlinked with the rates of disclosure of direct violence against women across EU Member States.

### 6.4.1. Structural factors considered to contextualise levels of violence against women throughout the Member States

This section assesses the relationship of the composite indicator of direct violence — and its two components measuring lifetime violence and violence experienced in the last 12 months — with a range of factors which may account for some of the variance in levels of disclosed violence. First, the relationship between the Gender Equality

Index and the composite indicator of direct violence is examined. Then, this relationship is further contextualised by drawing on contextual variables measuring attitudes towards and awareness of violence against women, as well as variables evaluating the level of trust in justice institutions and the police in a given society. To provide an assessment of these contextual variables they are related not only to the composite indicator of direct violence, but also to the Gender Equality Index.

Attitude surveys represent a relevant source of data to assess this issue. The special Eurobarometer 73.2 (344) (European Commission, 2012b) provides data for 2010 on attitudes towards domestic violence against women and Eurobarometer 74.2 (European Commission, 2013e) examines people’s trust in state institutions in 2010. This section uses these results and crosses them with the scores for the composite indicator of direct violence, to explore the differences in levels of disclosed violence across Member States. However, a major drawback of using these sources is that these surveys are not conducted on a regular basis (usually once-off for special modules). Moreover, related and relevant topics may be covered in different years, leading to issues with their comparability.

The contextual variables used in this section are described in Table 6.6. More specifically, this section draws on four contextual variables, namely: the level of acceptability of domestic violence, the level of awareness of domestic violence in one’s social environment, the overall level of trust a population has in the police and the overall trust a population has in the justice system.



**Table 6.6. Contextual variables from the Eurobarometer Surveys used**

Contextual variable	Item	Eurobarometer question	Answers considered	Source and reference year
Acceptability of domestic violence against women	QC5	In your opinion, is domestic violence against women ...?	(1) Acceptable in all circumstances (2) Acceptable in certain circumstances	Eurobarometer 73.2 (344), 2010
Awareness of a case of domestic violence in social environment	QC11/QC12	Do you know of any women who have been a victim of any form of domestic violence?	(1) In your circle of friends and family: yes (2) In your immediate area/ neighbourhood: yes (3) Where you work or study: yes	
		Do you know of anyone who has subjected a woman to any form of domestic violence ...?	(1) In your circle of friends and family: yes (2) In your immediate area/ neighbourhood: yes (3) Where you work or study: yes	
Overall trust in the police	QC12A	I would like to ask you a question about how much trust you have in certain institutions. For each of the following institutions, please tell me if you tend to trust it or tend not to trust it:	(5) Tend to trust: justice	Eurobarometer 74.2, 2010
Overall trust in the justice system			(6) Tend to trust: the police	

The selected indicators provide a measure of how violence against women is perceived within a society and the extent to which people feel that they can rely on state institutions which are key in the protection from/prosecuting of violence against women. Since the composite indicator of direct violence deals with disclosed violence, relating it to attitudes of how accepted domestic violence against women is, how willing people are to talk about domestic violence to others in their social environment, or to approach the police or justice institutions, are crucial.

Data for the first two contextual variables are retrieved from the Special Eurobarometer 344/wave 73.2 (European Commission, 2012b). The first variable is based on question number QC5. The second contextual variable, assessing whether people in a given society are aware of cases of domestic violence in their social environments, is also retrieved from the Special Eurobarometer 344/wave 73.2 (European Commission, 2012b). It combines questions QC11 and QC12, and includes all respondents who know a woman who has been a victim of, or know anybody who has subjected a woman to, any form of domestic violence in their circle of family and friends, their immediate area/ neighbourhood, or at their place of work/study. This Eurobarometer Survey relies on interviews with 27 800 European citizens, both women and men, conducted between February and March 2010 in the EU-27 (the accession of HR took place in 2013 and it is thus not yet included in this survey).

The third and fourth contextual variables are drawn from question item QC12A in Eurobarometer 74.2 (European Commission, 2013e), asking respondents to indicate

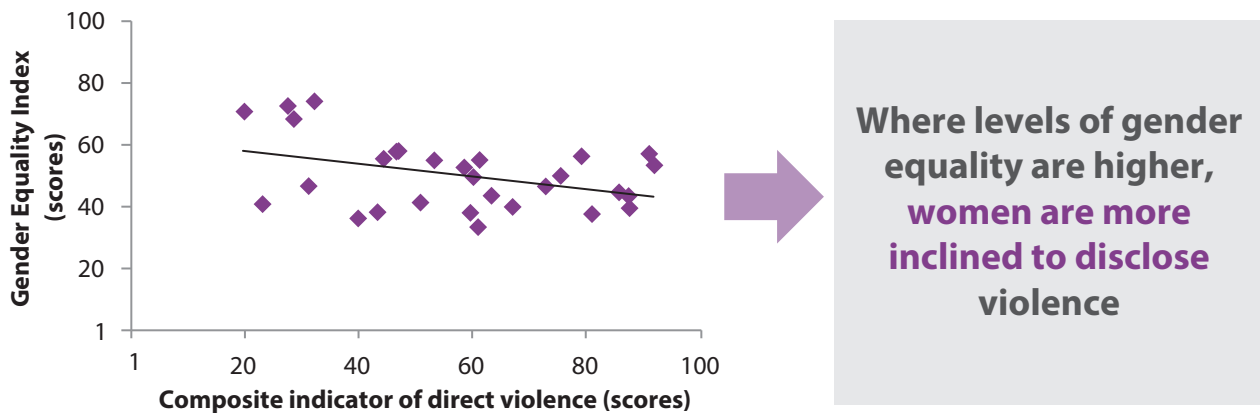
whether they tend to trust in a list of different institutions. For the purpose of this assessment, respondents tending to trust in justice institutions and those tending to trust in the police are taken into account. This Eurobarometer survey relied on an overall sample of 30 580 interviews with European citizens, both women and men, in 2010 across the 27 EU Member States and Croatia.

The analysis is conducted without labelling Member States. The distribution of Member States in relation to the EU average is provided in Annex 14.

#### 6.4.2. Levels of gender equality

One of the main findings noted by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, attempting to explain country differences for the results of the survey, was the correlation between the levels of violence against women and the Gender Equality Index. It noted that Member States with higher levels of violence against women also scored higher in the first Gender Equality Index. The reason identified by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights to explain this phenomenon was a possible connection between gender equality and women choosing to disclose violence. This could be the result of greater awareness in a society, but also better institutional and structural mechanisms to report incidents of violence to the police or during a survey interview (FRA, 2014b). Indeed, when assessing the correlation between the composite indicator of direct violence and the scores of the Gender Equality Index, results indicate a moderate negative relationship ( $r = -0.39$ ) (Figure 6.10).

Figure 6.10. Gender Equality Index and the composite indicator of direct violence, 2012



When analysing the relationship between disclosed violence and the Gender Equality Index, the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights focused on lifetime violence (FRA, 2014b). However, examining the relationship between each component of the composite indicator of direct violence and the scores of the Gender Equality Index provides a more nuanced picture. The relationship between the Gender Equality Index and the composite indicator of violence against women is the result of a strong negative relationship between the Gender Equality Index and the component measuring disclosed lifetime violence ( $r = -0.62$ ), even though there is no relationship between the component measuring disclosed violence against women in the 12 months prior to the interview and the Gender Equality Index. The relationship between the Index and the composite indicator is thus more strongly driven by the component measuring lifetime violence.

The relevance of these findings is that differentiating between lifetime violence and violence during the previous 12 months matters. Disclosed lifetime prevalence rates are higher in Member States where there are higher levels of gender equality as measured by the Gender Equality Index, although this relationship does not hold for disclosed violence in the past 12 months. A possible explanation is that lifetime experiences are more readily

disclosed in societies which are more gender equal, where there are higher levels of awareness and the issue of violence against women is debated and presented in public discourse (FRA, 2014b).

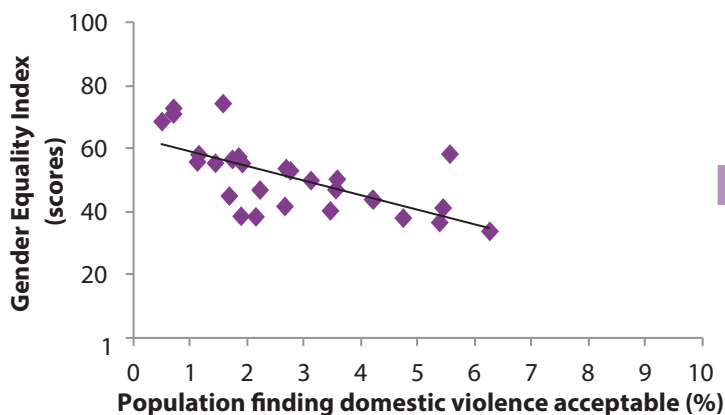
The results emphasise that lower levels of disclosed violence may not necessarily reflect lower levels of actual prevalence, but rather may mean that attitudes towards violence against women within society preclude the disclosure of violence.

### 6.4.3. Acceptability of domestic violence against women in society

The first factor that can enable a more nuanced understanding, concerns the percentage of the population that finds domestic violence acceptable in all or in certain circumstances. The relationship between acceptability and the Gender Equality Index is examined first, followed by an assessment of the relationship with the component of the composite indicator measuring disclosed lifetime prevalence. The composite indicator of direct violence and the component measuring violence in the past 12 months are not discussed in detail, as neither correlate significantly with the level of acceptability of domestic violence in society in a meaningful way.



Figure 6.11. Gender Equality Index and acceptability of domestic violence in society, 2010



**Domestic violence is seen as less acceptable where levels of gender equality are higher**

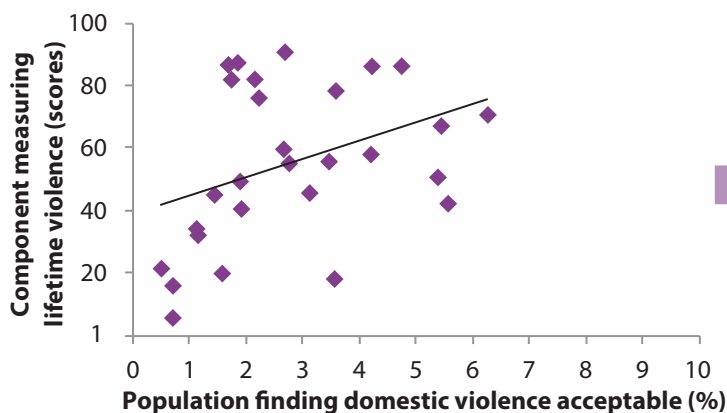
Source: European Commission (2012b), Eurobarometer 73.4 (344).

Note: percentage of the population finding domestic violence acceptable in all or in certain circumstances (QC5); data for EU-27, HR not available.

The correlation between the Gender Equality Index and the level of acceptability of domestic violence in society is strong and negative ( $r = -0.66$ ) (Figure 6.11). In other words, the higher the percentage of the population finding that

domestic violence is acceptable in all or in certain circumstances; the lower the level of gender equality in a Member State.

Figure 6.12. Component measuring lifetime violence and acceptability of domestic violence in society, 2010



**Where domestic violence is seen as more acceptable, women are less likely to disclose violence**

Source: European Commission (2012b), Eurobarometer 73.4 (344).

Note: percentage of the population finding domestic violence acceptable in all or in certain circumstances (QC5); data for EU-27, HR not available.

The negative correlation between levels of gender equality and societal acceptability of domestic violence provides a better understanding of the relationship between the level of acceptability of domestic violence within the population and the composite indicator of direct violence. While the composite indicator itself and the component measuring disclosure of violence experienced in the last 12 months are not significantly associated with the level of acceptability of violence against women, the component measuring lifetime violence shows a moderate and positive relationship with the indicator ( $r = 0.37$ ) (Figure 6.12). This illustrates that levels of disclosed lifetime violence are

higher in the Member States where levels of acceptability of violence are lower.

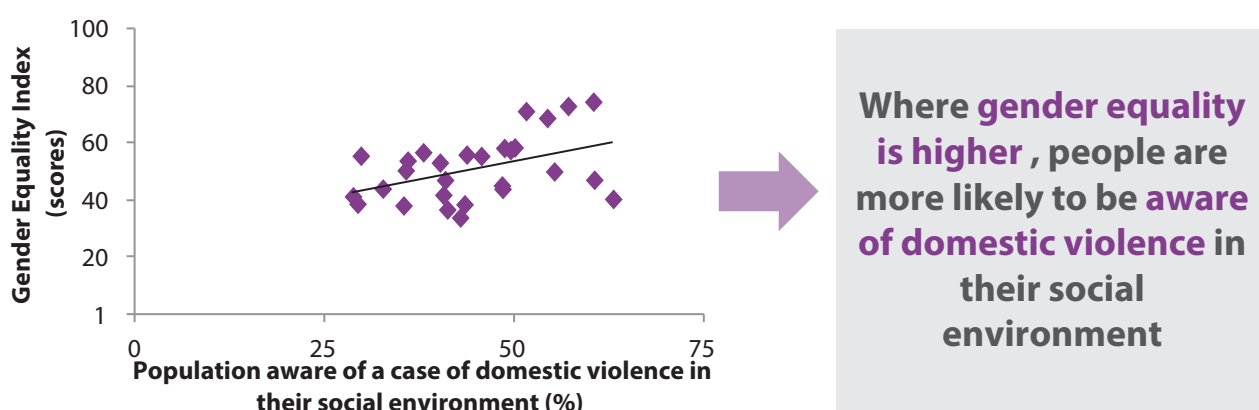
As prevalence surveys capture disclosure rather than actual prevalence, lower scores for the composite indicator of direct violence have to be understood as showing disclosure rather than actual levels of violence. As higher levels of gender equality are associated with lower levels of acceptability, these findings indicate that more gender equal societies are more likely to be aware of the serious nature of domestic violence, thus leading to women being more inclined to disclose incidents of violence against women.

#### 6.4.4. Level of awareness of domestic violence within the social environment

The second indicator used to contextualise differences in scores for the composite indicator of direct violence across Member States is awareness of domestic violence in the population. Assessing the extent to which people are aware of domestic violence in their social environment provides information not only on their own perception of their social context, but also carries information on whether or not

it is usual to talk with other people about experiences of domestic violence against women. As the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (2014b, p. 25) suggests: 'the subject of violence against women could be considered as something you do not talk about in certain settings and with certain people — including an interviewer who has just entered your home to conduct a survey'.

**Figure 6.13. Gender Equality Index and awareness of domestic violence within the social environment, 2010**



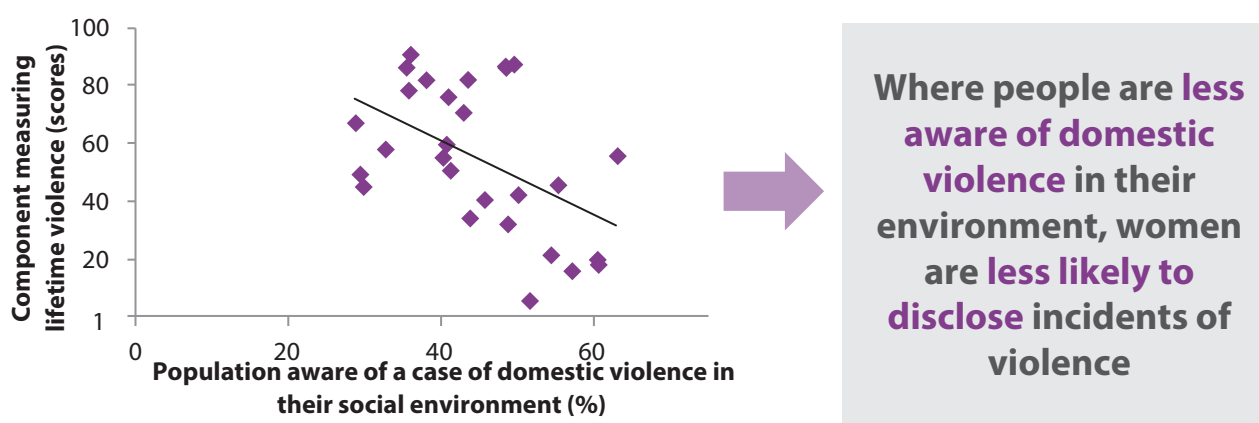
Source: European Commission (2012b), Eurobarometer 73.4 (344).

Note: Percentage of the population who knows a woman who has been a victim of or anybody who has subjected a woman to any form of domestic violence in their circle of family and friends, their immediate area/neighbourhood and at their work or place of study (QC11, QC12); data for EU-27, HR not available.

Indeed, higher levels of gender equality appear to be associated with greater awareness of cases of domestic violence in the respective Member States, as supported by the positive moderate correlation of  $r = 0.44$  (Figure 6.13). Alternatively, and following the assessment by

the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, this could indicate that in settings where gender equality is higher, women are more comfortable disclosing violence in their social environment.

**Figure 6.14. Component measuring lifetime violence and awareness of domestic violence in social environment, 2010**



Source: European Commission (2012b), Eurobarometer 73.4 (344).

Note: percentage of the population who know a woman who has been a victim of or anybody who has subjected a woman to any form of domestic violence in their circle of family and friends, their immediate area/neighbourhood and at their work or place of study (QC11, QC12); data for EU-27, HR not available.



The composite indicator of direct violence as well as the component measuring disclosed violence in the previous 12 months, do not have a significant relationship with the awareness of cases of domestic violence. The component measuring disclosed lifetime violence, however, is moderately and negatively correlated ( $r = -0.49$ ) with the level of awareness in society (Figure 6.14). In other words, in Member States where levels of disclosed lifetime violence are higher (i.e. the score of the component measuring lifetime violence) the population is more likely to be aware of a case of domestic violence. The relationship can be explained by women being more likely to disclose violence in a survey when doing so is acceptable within their respective culture.

#### **6.4.5. Trust in the police and justice institutions**

The third and fourth variables used to provide a more detailed understanding of the differences between Member States in the composite indicator of direct violence are concerned with the extent to which people trust in state institutions — more specifically the police and justice institutions — since they play a central role in dealing with violence against women.

The extent to which people trust in justice institutions can hold important explanatory value when assessing the levels of disclosed violence, as women who trust in justice institutions might be more likely to disclose violence, as they perceive their rights to be upheld. According to the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women ‘up to about 30 % of the most serious incidents come to the attention of the police in those countries where reporting to the police is most common, but in countries where reporting to the police is less common, only about 10 % of the most serious incidents come to the attention of the police’ (FRA, 2014b, p. 60). However, trust is a very complex phenomenon and depends on the social, political and historic context of a country.

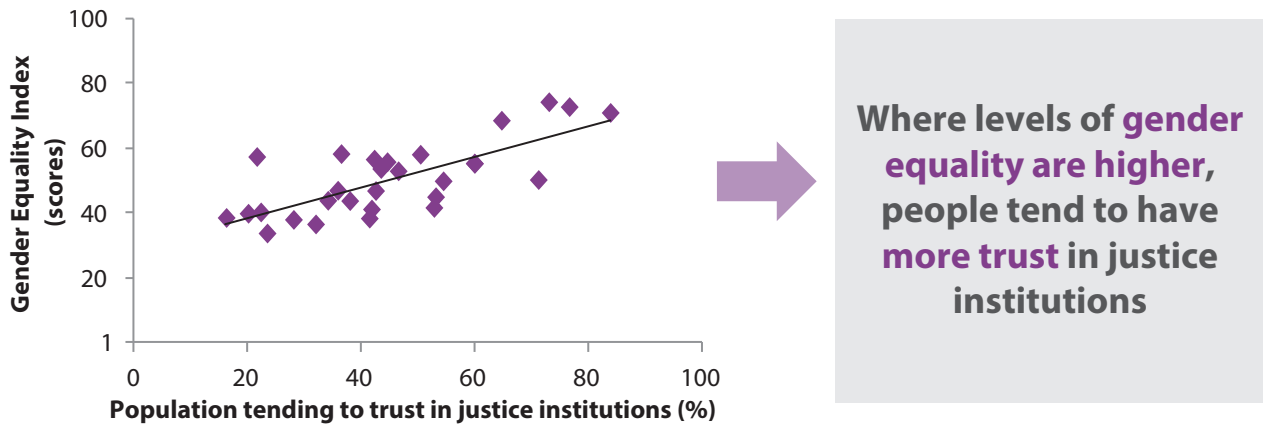
Research has shown that a possible explanation for higher levels of trust in justice institutions overall might be the perceived functioning of institutions (e.g. efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability), and the honesty of officials. Trust in institutions has also been linked with the level of corruption and perceived equality in a society. It has been observed that ‘poor and inegalitarian countries [...] find themselves trapped in a situation of continuing inequality, mistrust and dysfunctional institutions’ (Rothstein and Uslander, 2005, p. 71). Societies which experience high levels of inequality generally tend to perceive inequalities as a failure of their government and its inability to ensure social cohesion between all members of society. At the micro level, this translates into lower levels of trust in other people in general and state officials and institutions in particular (Rothstein and Uslander, 2005).

Equality levels are associated with the level of trust in society, both in other individuals and in state officials or institutions. Furthermore, as Zmerli and Newton (2013, p. 70) state, ‘trust in the police and in the courts is closely correlated with general social trust, probably because the law enforcement system is the social institution that is mainly responsible for maintaining the trustworthy behaviour of the population’. Social trust, in turn, has been associated with people’s perception of fairness in a given society, including greater equality (Alesina and Ferrara, 2002).

#### **Trust in justice institutions**

An assessment of the Gender Equality Index and the percentage of the population who tend to trust in justice institutions shows that the two are strongly and positively correlated ( $r = 0.74$ ), indicating that in Member States where levels of gender equality are higher, people are more likely to trust in justice institutions (Figure 6.15). However, while the reasons discussed above provide an explanation for this relationship, a more in-depth analysis of plausible causes of this high association between the Gender Equality Index and trust in justice institutions would help to better understand this phenomenon.

**Figure 6.15. Gender Equality Index and percentage of the population tending to trust in justice institutions, 2010**

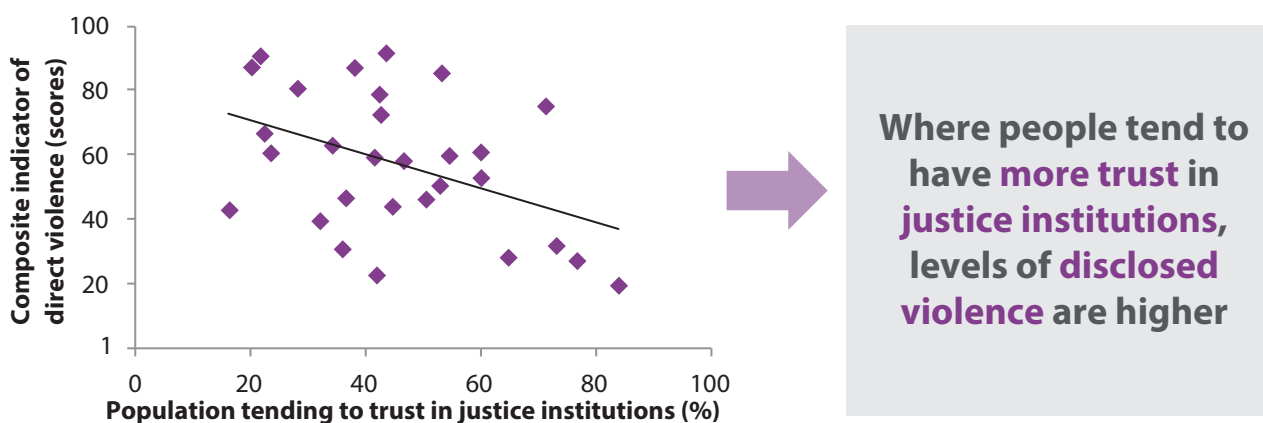


Source: European Commission (2013e), Eurobarometer 74.2.  
 Note: Percentage of citizens who tend to trust in justice (QC12A).

When analysing the relation between trust in justice institutions and the composite indicator of direct violence, results show a negative relationship with a moderate correlation ( $r = -0.43$ ) (Figure 6.16). This illustrates that in the Member States where trust in justice institutions is higher, there is also a higher level of disclosed violence. On the level of components, the relationship is significant only for the component related to lifetime violence ( $r = -0.53$ ), but not for the component measuring the disclosure of

violence experienced in the last 12 months. This suggests that women are more likely to disclose lifetime violence in a societal context where trust in justice institutions is high. Moreover, as the correlation between the component measuring lifetime violence and trust in justice institutions is stronger than that of trust in justice institutions and the composite indicator of direct violence, the results suggest that the overall correlation is driven by the relationship between trust in justice and disclosed lifetime violence.

**Figure 6.16. Composite Indicator of violence and percentage of the population tending to trust in justice institutions, 2010**



Source: European Commission (2013e), Eurobarometer 74.2.  
 Note: Percentage of citizens who tend to trust in justice (QC12A).





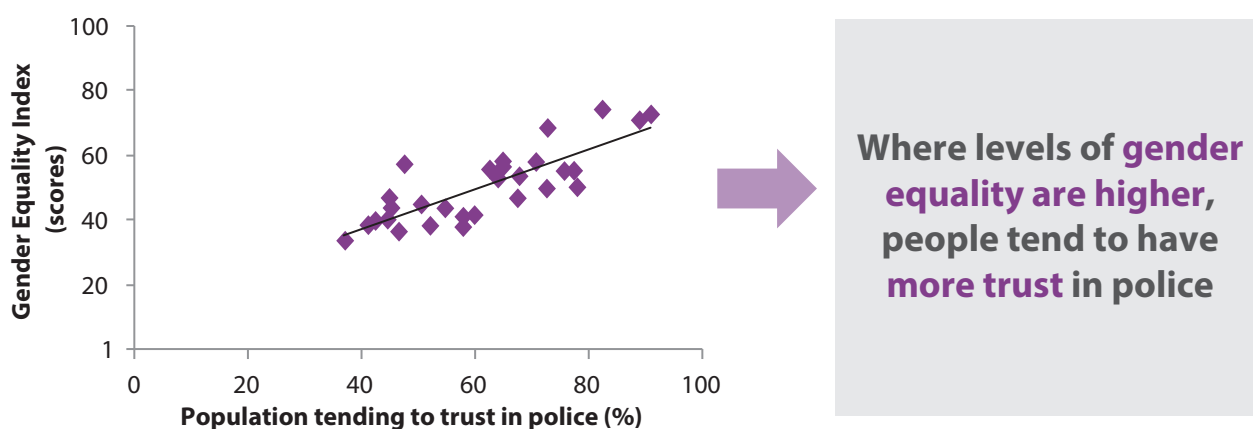
## Trust in police

The fourth and last variable assesses the percentage of the population tending to trust in the police. In parallel to trust in justice institutions, overall higher levels of trust in the police can increase the likelihood of women to disclose violence, as they are confident of finding support when approaching the police. This could then be reflected in their willingness to disclose violence in general or, for

example, in an interview conducted as part of a prevalence survey (FRA, 2014b).

The data show that the Gender Equality Index and the percentage of the population tending to trust in police share a strong and positive correlation ( $r = 0.81$ ) (Figure 6.17). Those living in Member States with higher levels of gender equality are more likely to trust in police.

**Figure 6.17. Gender Equality Index and percentage of the population tending to trust in police, 2010**

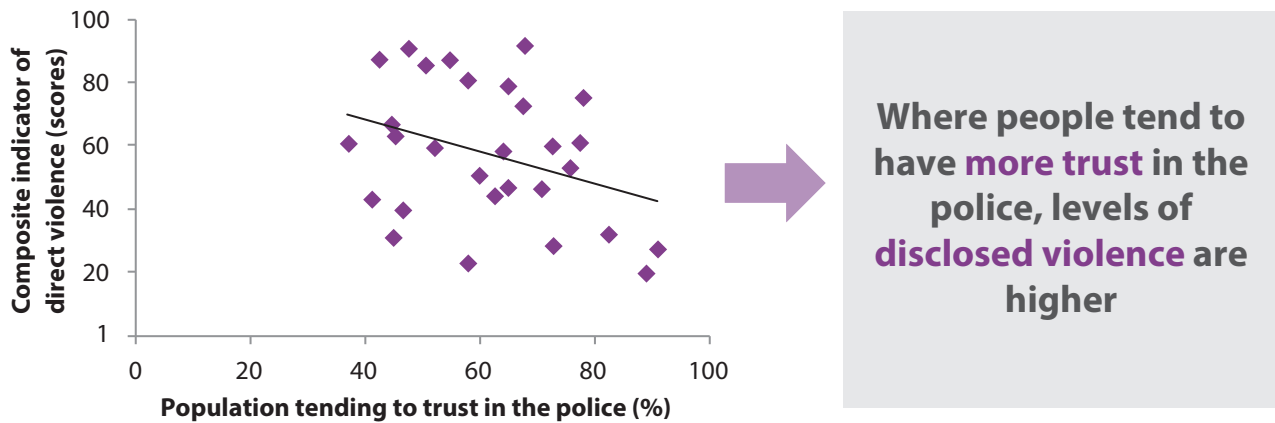


Source: European Commission (2013e), Eurobarometer 74.2.  
Note: Percentage of citizens who tend to trust in police (QC12A).

In line with the findings regarding the composite indicator of direct violence and a society's trust in justice institutions, scores of the composite indicator of violence are negatively and moderately correlated ( $r = -0.34$ ) with societies' level of trust in the police (Figure 6.18). This shows that levels of disclosed violence are higher in those societies that generally tend to trust in the police. In other words, in a societal context where people tend to have more trust in the police women appear to be more inclined to disclose violence.

Consistent with the other indicators discussed in relation to the composite indicator of direct violence, the component measuring disclosed violence in the past 12 months is not correlated with the extent of trust in the police present in a given population, while the component measuring lifetime violence exhibits a stronger relationship to the contextual indicator than the composite indicator of direct violence ( $r = 0.49$ ). The correlation between trust in the police and violence appears to be driven by the strong relationship between trust in the police and lifetime violence.

Figure 6.18. Composite Indicator of violence and percentage of the population that tend to trust in the police, 2010



Source: European Commission (2013e), Eurobarometer 74.2.  
 Note: Percentage of citizens who tend to trust in police (QC12A).

## 6.5. Summary

In this section, a composite indicator measuring direct violence against women across the EU has been presented. The development of this composite indicator represents a first step in building a tool that can support the monitoring of progress in the eradication of violence against women. It is based on a conceptual framework on violence against women which develops the connection between direct and indirect forms of violence against women. This is used to select suitable indicators from the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women and aggregated to provide a

composite measure. Scores are provided only in relation to the EU average. Lastly, the results of this composite indicator were analysed within the context of other relevant indicators, including attitudes surrounding the general acceptability of domestic violence, awareness of incidents of domestic violence within the social environment, as well as the level of trust in police and justice institutions. In the next section, the report draws to a close, providing the main conclusions of the first update of the Gender Equality Index.

# 7. Conclusions

The update of the Gender Equality Index provides a detailed assessment of where the EU and its Member States stand with respect to gender equality, and what progress has been achieved in the period 2005 to 2012. Although based on the same theoretical background and methodology as the first release of the Gender Equality

Index, this report has proposed a slightly modified metric and framework in the area of quality of work. The Gender Equality Index consists of six core domains (work, money, knowledge, time, power and health) supplemented by two satellite domains (violence and intersecting inequalities) (Figure 7.1).

**Figure 7.1. Domains of the Gender Equality Index**



The core Gender Equality Index is concerned with gender gaps between women and men, understanding gender equality as equality of outcomes for all individuals. The approach considers gaps that are to the detriment of either women or men as equally problematic. As the Gender Equality Index is inscribed in a vision of the European Union whereby development, growth and cohesion for all individuals is a main principle, tackling gender gaps is not enough when it means that both women and men fare

equally badly. The core Gender Equality Index measures gender equality taking into account both gender gaps and adjusting them for levels of achievement, producing a composite measure that is fully aligned with the principles of gender mainstreaming. It provides an overall score that lies between 1 and 100, as well as a score for each domain and sub-domain, where 100 represents full gender equality (Figure 7.2).

**Figure 7.2. Interpretation of the metric of the Gender Equality Index**



The update of the Gender Equality Index shows that gender equality remains far from reality, with only marginal

progress between 2005 and 2012. The most problematic areas for gender equality remain in the domains of time



and power. In the first release of the Gender Equality Index in 2013 violence was identified as the 'biggest gap of all,' due to lack of harmonised and comparable data at the EU level. It is addressed for the first time in this report thanks to the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women (FRA 2014b), released by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights in March 2014, providing new opportunities and insights for this important domain. This section outlines the main results in each domain, along with their policy relevance. It then provides some concluding remarks on potential avenues for the future.

## 7.1. Time

### **The distribution of time for care activities remains unequal between women and men**

The domain of time highlights the core of the division between women and men in the EU-28, showing large gender disparities when it comes to responsibilities for care activities. As it is based on data from the European Working Conditions Survey, results cover the years 2005 and 2010 only.

Results show that in 2010 both women workers and men workers were more likely to spend time caring for children and/or grandchildren than in 2005, with a slight decrease in the gender gap due to minor progress among men workers. Conversely, when it comes to involvement in housework tasks, unequal division of housework between women and men remains – women still perform the majority of these tasks. Involvement in charitable activities, for women workers and men workers, has remained largely the same between 2005 and 2010. The most striking feature is the reduced involvement of workers in sporting, cultural or leisure activities between 2005 and 2010. The gender gap was reduced in 2010, but as the result of a drop for both women and men workers, more pronounced for the latter.

These changes result in a decreasing score for the domain of time from 41.5 in 2005 to 37.6 in 2010 and represents the lowest score for the EU-28 overall. Much of the drop comes from inequalities in social activities (from 41.5 in 2005 to 33.0 in 2010) despite a slight increase in care activities from 41.5 in 2005 to 42.8 in 2010.

### **Better implementation of legislation may contribute to improvements in this area**

The first Gender Equality Index report called for the promotion of long-lasting change and a fairer distribution of tasks. Little has changed between 2005 and 2010, although an assessment of the situation with the next iteration of the European Working Condition Survey in 2015 will provide a better long-term perspective on how gender equality is evolving in this domain.

Meeting the objectives set at the European Council in Barcelona in 2002 is important to promote sustainable and inclusive growth. In order to facilitate women's participation in the labour force, Member States need to ensure that by 2010 childcare is provided 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. Although some progress has been made since 2002, the provision of childcare facilities in the EU still fell short of these targets in 2011, in particular for children under three (COM (2013) 322 final).

The European Pact for Equality between Women and Men 2011–20 reaffirms the EU's commitments to promote better work–life balance for women and men and urges Member States and the European Union to take measures to improve the supply of affordable and high quality childcare services and promote flexible working arrangements. The need to support work–life balance for women and men, particularly through the provision of care services for children and other dependants and the introduction and/or development of paternity leave and non-transferable parental/care leave have also been noted by the Council Conclusions of 2014 on 'Women and the economy' (Council of the European Union, 2014a).

The Council Conclusions of 2014 also note that women are over-represented in part-time work, which not only increases the risk of in-work poverty, but also reinforces the role of women as primary carers of children and other dependent family members (Council of the European Union, 2014a). It is important to ensure that care responsibilities and part-time work are equally shared between women and men so that both women and men have the freedom to use their time as they see appropriate and can equally develop their full potential. Without a gender balance in this respect, gender inequality is reinforced more generally (EIGE, 2014b).

At EU level, a framework was agreed upon in cooperation with social partners paving the way for the Council directive of June 1996 on the framework agreement on

parental leave (96/34/EC) (Council of the European Union, 1996). The main pillar of the directive was the establishment of the non-transferable rights for women and men workers to at least 3 months' parental leave for childcare purposes (distinct from maternity leave) after the birth or adoption of a child until a given age. Subsequently, social partners agreed upon an extended framework leading to Council Directive of 8 March 2010 implementing the revised Framework Agreement on parental leave (2010/18/EU) and repealing Directive 96/34/EC (Council of the European Union, 2009c). Its most relevant feature is to extend the period of parental leave from 3 to 4 months for each parent, irrespective of the type of employment.

Amidst these positive developments the results reignite the need to resume work on amending Council Directive 92/85/EEC on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding. Following a proposal by the European Commission, the European Parliament adopted the resolution in October 2010 (European Parliament, 2010), although the text is still under review at the level of the Council to this date.

These legislative developments can pave the way for a more equal division of tasks for women and men in the future. However, it is perhaps not surprising that little is changing in the domain of time where the Barcelona targets remain largely unmet and where the division of care for children and other dependants remains unequal.

### **A harmonised EU-level Time-Use Survey could better measure how women and men divide their time**

As already noted in the first issue of the Gender Equality Index, the domain of time would greatly benefit from indicators produced in the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS). The majority of Member States carry out time-use surveys, however, with sometimes important differences. Nevertheless, harmonisation was undertaken at EU level with the support of Eurostat, yielding to what is known as the first wave of the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS 2000). It was carried out between 1998 and 2006 in 13 Member States (BE, BG, DE, EE, ES, FI, FR, IT, LT, LV, PL, SI, UK) as well as Norway. The main concern to date is thus less about harmonisation than ensuring full EU coverage.

A general recommendation exists to carry out this survey every 5 to 10 years. Preparations for HETUS 2008 are underway, with data expected to be released by Eurostat

by 2017. Despite these positive developments, including time-use data in the Gender Equality Index will remain problematic as long as time-use data does not cover all Member States and do not provide a measurement for a single reference year.

## **7.2. Power**

### **Gender gaps in decision-making have narrowed, but women still account for a minority on company boards**

The domain of power shows the greatest signs of progress of all domains of the core Gender Equality Index, although men's over-representation in decision-making positions remains prevalent in all Member States and all areas. The large imbalance that persists in the area of power and decision-making is demonstrated by a score of just 39.7 in the EU-28 for 2012. It has nevertheless risen from 31.4 in 2005, showing that progress is not only possible but also achieved in this area.

Results show that the most progress has been achieved within the representation of women on the boards of publicly quoted companies, although progress has been less marked for gender-equal representation with the boards of central banks. Within the political sphere, there has been steady, albeit slow progress in representation between 2005 and 2012.

### **Legislative and policy measures can bring improvements to gender balance in decision-making**

On 1 March 2011, the European Commission launched the 'Women on Board Pledge for Europe' (European Commission, 2011), calling publicly listed companies in the EU to sign a voluntary commitment to reach a level of representation of women of 30 % by 2015, increasing to 40 % by 2020. As part of the pledge, the European Commission announced a yearly review of the situation starting in March 2012, including the possibility to consider legislation.

In November 2012, the European Commission adopted a proposal for a directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on improving the gender balance on corporate boards (European Commission, 2012c; European Commission, 2012d). Its main features included a minimum objective of a 40 % presence of the under-represented sex among the non-executive directors to be reached by 2020 for companies listed on stock exchanges and 2018 for



listed public undertakings. It was devised as a temporary measure, with an expiration date set at 2028. The proposal for a directive was accompanied by a Communication on 'Gender balance in business leadership: a contribution to smart, sustainable and inclusive growth' (COM (2012) 614 final; COM (2012) 615 final), which complements the proposed legislation with policy measures to address the root causes of gender imbalance in management (European Commission, 2012a).

On 20 November 2013, the European Parliament backed the proposal. However, at the Employment, Social Policy, Health and Consumer Affairs Council (EPSCO), held on 19 and 20 June 2014 in Luxembourg, ministers supported the principle of a greater gender balance on boards, but did not agree on how it would be best achieved (Council of the European Union, 2014a).

A new draft directive was produced by the European Commission, revising the initial version by no longer providing for mandatory quotas, but instead on fairer selection mechanisms. At the EPSCO Council, held in Brussels on 11 December 2014, ministers discussed the draft directive but were unable to reach an agreement (Council of the European Union, 2014b).

The results of the Gender Equality Index confirm the necessity and urgency to devise policy addressing the large imbalance in the area of representation in decision-making positions. Sound measures at the EU level can provide forays into a more equitable situation of power and decision-making between men and women.

### **Indicators for social power and decision-making remain unavailable**

Indicators to measure the sub-domain of social power remain absent from the Gender Equality Index due to the absence of suitable indicators. Sex-disaggregated data that are harmonised and comparable across all Member States are not available.

This is another important area for future development in the EU policy framework. For example, at present only one policy document focuses on increasing the participation of women in science and research. Increasing competitiveness and maximising innovation potential is one of the EU goals of achieving at least a quarter of women in leading positions in the public research sector (Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010–15 (COM(2010) 491 final). Other areas in which indicators are needed include media, religious organisations, social partners and civil society (European Commission, 2010a).

## **7.3. Knowledge**

### **Women's educational attainment is rising, but progress is held back by strong segregation and a decrease in lifelong learning**

The domain of knowledge also shows the extent to which it remains a priority area for gender equality policy, with a small decrease in score. From 52.1 in 2005, it went down to 49.1 in 2012. This decrease is largely the result of a drop in the scores for the sub-domain of lifelong learning over that period. Overall, women remain slightly more likely than men to participate in lifelong learning.

Lifelong learning remains underused in many Member States, with significant gender gaps in those Member States where levels of lifelong learning are higher. However, participation in lifelong learning has decreased slightly between 2005 and 2012. In a context of rapid technological change, and where there has been a profound transformation in the labour market, lifelong learning is an area of crucial importance for both women and men.

Educational attainment is rising and women are now outnumbering men at graduate level. Data show that between 2005 and 2012, there has been not only an increase in educational attainment but also a reversal of the gender gap. Nevertheless, there remains much to be done when it comes to gender stereotypes and segregation in education.

### **Gender equality in education and training contributes to achieving smart, sustainable and inclusive growth**

Rising educational attainment contributes significantly towards increasing the share of the population aged 30 to 34 having completed tertiary education to 40 % in 2020, one of the key targets of the Europe 2020 Strategy (European Commission, 2010b). Segregation patterns, however, may seriously undermine the European Union's ability to develop individuals and foster innovation.

Closing gender gaps in education falls under one of the three areas of great relevance to gender equality emphasised in the European Pact for Equality between Women and Men 2011–20. The Council conclusions of 2014 on 'Women and the Economy' call Member States and the Commission to reduce gender segregation at all levels in education and employment, as it contributes to

inequalities in terms of the economic independence of women and men. Member States are invited to consider possible ways to address gender stereotypes and segregation in education such as developing gender-sensitive education and career counselling, and undertaking media campaigns encouraging and enabling women and men to choose so-called non-traditional educational paths and occupations.

Increasing participation in lifelong learning can promote adaptability, employability, active citizenship and both personal and professional fulfilment for women and men. However, the majority of Member States remain far from the objectives of the European Cooperation in Education and Training (ET, 2020) which aim for 15 % of adults aged 20 to 64 to be involved in lifelong learning (Council of the European Union, 2009b). The consistent consideration of the gender perspective when examining participation in lifelong learning is crucial because only then can it be established whether policies promoting the increased participation in lifelong learning do justice to both women and men (Council of the European Union, 2007).

## 7.4. Work

### Only small improvements have been made in the labour market

The domain of work shows a more promising picture than the previous three domains although the EU-28 score is just 61.9 in 2012, rising from 61.1 in 2005 and thus representing only a small improvement. Since the first release of the Gender Equality Index, the concept of quality of work was revised, although this does not significantly impact overall scores.

When it comes to participation, only little progress can be noted, with evidence of a convergence in fulltime equivalent employment rates. However, rates remain far from the Europe 2020 target aiming at 75 % of the adult population (20 to 64 years) in employment (IP/10/255). Moreover, from a gender perspective, the unequal division of part-time work between women and men means that this target is even more unattainable when employment rates are measured in full-time equivalent rather than by headcount (EIGE, 2014b).

This is echoed by the marginal progress made in the sub-domain measuring segregation and quality of work, rising from 52.2 in 2005 to 53.0 in 2012. These scores show

that the quality of work and, in particular, the segregation of work remain pervasive areas of gender inequalities.

### Gender inequalities in work hamper the potential for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth in the EU

The results of the Gender Equality Index point to the need to consider the gender perspective in addressing the Europe 2020 target of bringing the employment rate to 75 % by 2020. Moving forward, there is a need to consider gendered patterns of working time, segregation and quality of work. Employment is recognised as playing a major role in tackling poverty and social exclusion, particularly among young people, women and older workers as noted in the Council Conclusions of 1 and 2 March 2012 on the implementation of the EU's economic strategy and reiterated in the Council Conclusions of 14 and 15 March 2013 (Council of the European Union, 2012; Council of the European Union, 2013). In 2014 the Council reaffirmed that ensuring women's economic independence and empowerment is a prerequisite for gender equality and also a way of advancing economic development. The Conclusions on women and the economy noted that in order to fully tap into Europe's growth potential in the science and technology sectors, it is important to overcome gender stereotypes and combat educational and occupational segregation (Council of the European Union, 2014a).

Importantly, the Council Conclusion of 14 and 15 March 2013 calls on Member States to take full account of the European Commission's Country Specific Recommendations as part of the European Semester process and the work of the Employment Committee and the Social Protection Committee in this regard (European Commission, 2015). The Gender Equality Index aims at complementing and informing this process through its measure of gender equality in the domain of work.

## 7.5. Money

### Some progress in gender equality in earnings and income has been made

Equality in economic independence is a prerequisite for all individuals to exercise control and make genuine choices in their lives. The domain of money continues to show that inequalities remain prevalent in this area. There has been a slight increase in the domain of money between 2005 and 2012, with scores for the Gender Equality Index rising from 64.1 in 2005 to 67.8 in 2012. Progress is linked to an





overall increase in levels through the EU and a corresponding slight narrowing of the gender gap over that period.

The results of the Gender Equality Index call for renewed emphasis on ensuring equal pay for women and men for equal work and work of equal value, as inscribed in the Lisbon Treaty (Article 157). With a wider scope, these results also need to be interpreted within the remit of the Europe 2020 strategy, and its emphasis on ensuring adequate income support from social security and pensions systems in the EU. Recent work has shown that the Gender Gap in Pensions remains far from closing, standing at 39 % in 2010 and only narrowing by 1 percentage point to 38 % in 2012 (EIGE, 2015a).

As concluded by the Council in 2014, the gender gap in earnings is a reflection of gender inequalities and of discrimination that women face in the labour market (Council of the European Union, 2014a). It can only be tackled by addressing the underlying factors of gender stereotypes and through a comprehensive, mainstreaming approach, including measures on pay transparency and awareness-raising activities.

### **Lower earnings and income among women can mean greater risk of poverty**

Although scores are slightly higher than in other domains in the area of risk of poverty and income disparities, it is women who are more likely to be economically vulnerable. The Europe 2020 target (IP/10/225) to reduce the number of individuals below the national poverty line by 25 % by 2020, therefore needs to be seen from a gender perspective. Moreover, working towards a fairer society is directly related to gender differences in earnings and income, and should not be overlooked.

### **Differences are likely to be underestimated because indicators rely on household incomes**

A major limitation in the domain of money is that most of its indicators (3 out of 4: mean equivalised disposable income, income distribution, at risk of poverty) rely on data which is considered at the household level. This means that data on income are collected within a household and then divided (using a rule called an equivalised scale) between all members of the household. It therefore assumes that income is shared equally among all its members. However, the way gender roles and relations are played out within a household may make this unlikely to take place in practice. It is thus likely that gender differences are much higher than what is recorded in official statistics. Individual

indicators would thus provide much more gender-sensitive information.

Moreover, as already flagged in the first report on the Gender Equality Index, these data only provide a partial picture since no information is available on resources from other financial assets, such as bonds or real estate. Providing these measures would provide a more complete picture by assessing women's and men's financial resources and economic situation with a more long-term perspective.

## **7.6. Health**

### **Better scores in health status and access to health structures have been achieved**

There has been a slight rise in scores since 2005, from 87.8 in 2005 to 90.0 in 2012. Progress has been achieved both in health status and in access to health structures. The domain of health is particular, because it is characterised by low gender gaps and high levels of achievements. The domain of health needs to be understood in the context of both demographic shifts towards an ageing population across the EU Member States and that of an economic crisis that has meant some Member States have implemented cuts in public expenditure for health, both of which have affected women and men in different ways. Continuing to monitor gender gaps together with keeping high levels of health status and access to health structures should thus remain an important priority.

### **Data on determinants of health cannot be included due to lack of data**

Going beyond the biological aspect of health, and thinking what the impact of gender on health can be is important. Data on determinants of health can provide valuable information on health behaviours. The European Health Interview Survey (EHIS) is conducted on a 5 yearly-basis, with the last round conducted between 2007 and 2009 within 17 Member States. It provides information on topics such as body mass index, physical activity, consumption of fruits and vegetables as well as tobacco and alcohol consumption, for which sex-disaggregation is available. Insufficient availability across Member States and time means that it is for the moment not possible to include it in the Gender Equality Index, although it remains a promising avenue of development for the future. This reaffirms the importance of promoting and strengthening the comparability and compatibility of gender-specific information on health across Member States and at EU level through



the development of appropriate data, as stipulated in the Council Conclusions on Women's Health in 2006 (2006/C 146/02).

## The impact of gender on health needs to be addressed

Biological differences between women and men invariably mean that sex specificities exist between female and male bodies. On one hand, some diseases exist that are sex-specific, such as prostate cancer. On the other hand, other illnesses such as heart disease can take on very different forms among women and men (Schiebinger et al., 2013). This area is important from the point of view of the Health 2020 policy framework adopted by 53 member states of the WHO European Region in September 2012, which suggests new ways to identify health gaps and efforts to reduce them at the individual or collective level (WHO, 2015). It specifically integrates an equity element into its structure, recognising that every individual should have the opportunity to fully realise themselves irrespective of their gender.

The most obvious aspect to consider from a gender perspective relates to reproductive health, which remains glaringly absent from the Gender Equality Index, not least because of the difficulties of tackling this subject within the remit of the EU policy framework. Reproductive health can be approached from a broader perspective that is of concern to both women and men, including safer sex, contraception methods or consent. Moving forward, it is difficult to justify this absence from a tool such as the Gender Equality Index, which aims at developing a measure of what needs to be measured, as opposed to what can be measured. Introducing a satellite domain to capture this aspect could provide a valuable way forward.

## 7.7. Intersecting inequalities

Women and men are not homogeneous groups, and it is generally acknowledged that there are many more similarities than differences among individuals than what is artificially imposed based on expectations of gender. The division of individuals into two different groups, women and men, is not neutral. It is inscribed in power relations, with social domination being exhibited by one group over the other.

## Intersecting inequalities are difficult to capture from a statistical perspective

Assessing gender-based discrimination does not provide exhaustive insights about how power relations interact with other factors, such as disability, ethnicity, age or sexuality. The combined effect of these characteristics is not additive, but cumulative, with intersecting inequalities exacerbating the extent to which individuals are discriminated against.

Intersecting inequalities is a complex domain from a statistical perspective, as many categories of interest, are left unmeasured (for example ethnicity, which is not specified by the European statistical system) or under-measured (small sample size not allowing for analysis due to the unreliability it creates in the data). This report selects illustrative groups and analyses the employment rates of those born outside of the EU, older workers and sole adults living with one or more children, disaggregated by sex and in comparison to their respective contrasting population groups, shows that differences are visible within and across groups.

## Gender equality scores are lower among all the intersectional groups considered

Differences between selected illustrative groups point towards the importance of understanding the different and gendered patterns of migration present across Member States. There are lower scores for foreign-born workers than country nationals. This may result from the fact that migration has become increasingly more feminised, with women being more likely to migrate in their own right as workers, rather than as dependants. Many of these women are migrating to work as carers, for example as nannies, which raises questions about the distribution of care work and social power dynamics (UN INSTRAW, 2007).

Older workers constitute the only group experiencing both lower access to employment and higher levels of gender inequality systematically in all Member States. Understanding the dynamics involved in both gender-based and age-based discrimination patterns and their inter-linkage is crucial, not only to reach the targets set by Europe 2020 and to meet increased pension ages, but also in order to address poverty among older workers; specifically women.

The category women and men living with one or more children and no other adult is used as a proxy for lone parents/carers. Both women and men living with one or more children are more likely to be in employment in the EU-28 on average than single persons without dependent



children. However income from employment may not be sufficient to keep lone parent households from becoming at risk of poverty. The fact that poverty levels are higher for lone-parent households than for the whole population is also attributable to the weak social security systems and to the lack of access to affordable childcare. Gender equality levels are lower among lone parents/carers as compared to single adults without children, although these results have to be viewed with caution, due to data limitations.

### **Better understanding of intersecting inequalities is important for EU gender equality policy**

Assessing the ways in which different forms of social discrimination intersect with one another and with gender is crucial, as understanding these intersections and addressing all forms of discrimination is necessary to effectively address (gender) inequalities. This is incorporated into EU policy and legislation, dating back to the proposal for a Council directive establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation (COM(1999) 565 final), which included religion and ethnic and racial origin as grounds for discrimination, as well as gender and nationality, among others. With the inclusion of the issue of ‘multiple discrimination’ in Directives 2004/43/EC and 2000/78/EC, the intersection of inequalities was recognised in EU law by the European Commission. However, engagement with intersecting inequalities is still limited and to date has found little to no reflection in the case-law of the ECJ (Burri and Schiek, 2009).

Although the Gender Equality Index provides only a limited analysis of the ways in which inequalities intersect, the broad priorities defined in the upcoming Mid-Term Work Programme of EIGE for the Period 2016 to 2018 foresee that it will become a priority area in the forthcoming report to be released in 2017 (EIGE, 2015b). Developing a methodology for the assessment of intersecting inequalities and the collection of data relevant to the area are also crucial steps towards the development of more effective equality policy.

## **7.8. Violence**

Violence against women is based on unequal power relations between women and men, reinforcing men’s dominance over women. Violence against women cannot be understood outside the social structures, and the gender norms and roles that underpin gender inequalities and thus normalise violence. They are the root causes, or structural forms, of violence against women. When EIGE

developed the first Gender Equality Index in 2013, the domain of violence — composed of the two subdomains direct and indirect violence — remained empty, emphasising the largest statistical gap in measuring progress in achieving gender equality in the EU. This report presents a first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence by constructing a composite indicator of direct violence against women, at EU level only, based on prevalence data collected through the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women conducted by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights in 2012.

Both the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women and the composite indicator on violence computed by EIGE reveal that violence against women is a serious issue and continuous efforts to understand and address it are crucial. Although disclosed prevalence rates differ among countries, there is no place where this can be considered positive: even the lowest prevalence rate is too high.

### **Survey-based data focusing on prevalence of violence against women do not fully capture actual prevalence of violence against women**

Measuring violence against women is a very complex issue. The EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women released in March 2014 marked a major advance in measuring violence against women at the EU level. To date, this survey is the only attempt at capturing the prevalence of violence against women in a harmonised and comparable way across all EU Member States. It is essential to note that the prevalence of violence captured in this survey, as in any cross-sectional survey, likely underestimates actual prevalence rates. It is difficult to know the true extent of the gap between actual prevalence rates and disclosed violence rates.

Disclosure of violence may be affected by a number of factors. There can be individual factors, such as a victim’s sense of shame, lack of awareness or self-blame, or the fear of disclosing. Disclosing violence to someone else and/or reporting it to any institution can be difficult for victims, and a woman’s right to choose whether or not to disclose violence must be respected. There can also be methodological factors, including the methods for data collection employed (whether the survey was conducted by phone, e-mail or through face-to-face interviews); the competence of the interviewers; and the levels of assurance provided concerning confidentiality and safety. Finally, disclosure can be related to social factors, such as cultural and social norms, roles and values, including attitudes towards

violence against women in a society and levels of awareness of other cases of violence against women within one's social environment.

### **Social and cultural context can affect the extent of disclosed violence**

Levels of disclosed violence are positively related to the scores of the Gender Equality Index, which shows that more incidents of violence are disclosed in the Member States where there are higher scores of gender equality. In Member States where domestic violence is seen as more acceptable, women are less likely to disclose violence. In addition, in the Member States where there are higher levels of awareness of cases of domestic violence, levels of disclosed lifetime violence are higher. This demonstrates the importance of structural factors such as acceptability and awareness in understanding and interpreting prevalence data on violence against women. The institutional context also matters, as evidenced by the fact that in the Member States where there is a higher level of trust in institutions such as police and justice — key institutions in the context of violence against women — this is associated with higher disclosed prevalence rates of violence against women.

### **Differentiating between lifetime violence and violence that has taken place in the past 12 months is important**

The report of the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women distinguishes between lifetime violence (incidents that have occurred since the age of 15) and violence experienced during the last 12 months (the 12 months preceding the survey). There are important distinctions between the two, and each is subject to a different set of factors that affect disclosure (or non-disclosure). Disclosure of lifetime violence, for instance, can be affected by differences in interpretation of violence over generations/years, or by recall bias, whereas recent violence may be affected by individual factors such as trauma and self-blame, and/or structural factors such as continued dependency on the perpetrator. It is important to explore both as the difference between lifetime violence and violence experienced during the last 12 months can also be affected by cultural and social changes over time, including the progress made towards gender equality in a society.

From a policy perspective, while lifetime prevalence provides a measure of the extent of the problem of violence against women within and across societies, measuring recent violence might be more relevant to monitor progress in eradicating it. Violence experienced during the

last 12 months may be a better measure of current levels of violence and therefore more meaningful for monitoring changes in the situation over time, which is also useful for policy evaluation. Ensuring sufficient sample sizes, however, is important because rarer responses may be less reliable from a statistical viewpoint. Nevertheless, both types of measures need to be considered in tandem to allow a better assessment of the complexity of violence against women.

### **Improved data on violence against women is needed**

The eradication of violence against women is a declared goal of the EU and its Member States. This commitment needs to be supported by evidence in the form of systematic, comparable and harmonised data. Directive 2012/29/EU establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime; Directive 2011/99/EU on the European protection order; Directive 2002/73/EC on sexual harassment; and Directive 2011/36/EU on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings together comprise the existing binding legal framework on violence against women at EU level. Together with the Istanbul Convention, these directives play a key role in this aim.

The majority of EU Member States have conducted national surveys related to violence against women, either in the form of a dedicated survey on violence against women or as a module on violence against women included in another type of survey (for example, victimisation or health survey) during the period 2007–14. However, different concepts, methodologies, time periods, sample group characteristics, and forms of violence covered hinder the comparability of the results of these surveys, and make the measuring of prevalence across the EU on the basis of the existing national surveys impossible (EIGE, 2012).

For the monitoring of the implementation of these regulations across EU Member States, both survey-based and administrative data are required. Femicide, for example, cannot be captured in a survey, nor can trafficking of women for sexual exploitation. The collection of sex-disaggregated administrative information from police, justice, health, social services and other relevant institutions is needed to provide a more complete picture of the situation of violence against women and to enable monitoring.

The EU-wide survey on Violence against Women is an important step forward in measuring violence, upon which the EU can build. A regular European survey on violence against women, containing modules on prevalence and specific types of crime and safety of citizens (similar to



SASU, the EU Safety Survey), could be an effective option for the future.

## 7.9. Gender Equality Index: a review of the progress of gender equality between 2005 and 2012

The results of the Gender Equality Index show that some progress, although marginal, has been achieved between 2005 and 2012. The two most challenging areas continue to be the division of tasks between women and men (with a drop in scores in the time period examined) as well as the representation of women and men in decision-making positions (which has seen steady progress, even if men remain greatly over-represented). Despite progress being made in educational attainment, segregation remains widespread and there has been a drop in lifelong learning, showing that progress must also be achieved in this domain.

Although slow, steady progress has been achieved in the domains of work and money. Tackling gender inequalities is important for the promotion of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth throughout the EU by ensuring that working time is shared equally, occupational segregation eradicated and that individuals have access to better jobs. Meeting the Barcelona targets, and ensuring adequate childcare provision is an essential requirement for progress. Economic and financial gender equality also shows signs of improvement, although individual level indicators may provide a less optimistic picture. Gender inequalities in income and earnings are most problematic, as epitomised in the Gender Gap in Pensions of 38 % in 2012, which can be seen as the cumulative effect of gender inequalities over the lifecourse (EIGE, 2015a).

These results reflect the predominant focus of EU policy towards economic matters, where the emphasis has historically been on the labour market and economic independence, supported by education and health. The results show that to achieve a more gender-equal society and continue to promote smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, attention needs to be widened to other key areas,

not least representation in power and decision-making and allowing for a transformation in how activities and time are divided between women and men.

Stereotypes are known to play a major role throughout gender inequalities in all domains and need to be understood as a mechanism that creates, strengthens and maintains gender inequalities in society. Great attention to this root problem at the policy level, together with a system for their measurement, can give Member States the opportunity to engage with more transformative work in society.

A significant development in terms of measuring gender equality since the first Gender Equality Index report has been the release of the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women in March 2014. The satellite domain of violence, identified in 2013 as the biggest gap of all due the dearth of comparable and harmonised data at EU level, can now be populated by the first indicators. In parallel, EIGE will continue to work towards the identification of other sources of reliable data to develop a fuller satellite domain of violence.

Other data gaps persist. Thus far, the Gender Equality Index is hampered by the availability of data in a number of areas. Better data is needed on time (for example HETUS), income (data at individual level and in a greater selection of areas), health determinants (for example EHIS), social power (for example WMID), violence against women (for example the EU-wide Survey on Violence against Women or EU Safety Survey (SASU)). Supported by political will and adequate resources, the EU statistical system, one of the most developed in the world, provides an ideal infrastructure to develop these areas.

Further work on the Gender Equality Index will focus on the completion of the satellite domains of violence against women and intersecting inequalities, breaking down scores and conducting further analysis where possible by taking into account other categories. This is a challenging exercise because of the lack of statistical indicators and small sample sizes likely to be encountered. However, it is imperative to open up the space for analysis and discussion, in full recognition that women and men are not homogeneous groups. The next update of the Gender Equality Index will develop this area more fully.

# 8. Annexes

## Annex 1: Descriptive statistics of the final Metric $\Gamma_{(X_{it})}$ used in calculating the Gender equality Index

Table 1.1. Descriptive statistics of the final metric, 2012

ID	Indicators	N	mean	sd	min	p25	p50	p75	max
v1	Full-time equivalent employment rate	28	68.6	9.8	50.1	61.6	69.7	75.6	92.4
v2	Duration of working life	28	79.2	9.2	59.3	72.9	79.5	86.3	96.9
v3	Employment in Education, Human Health and Social Work activities	28	34.9	8.5	21.1	28.4	35.5	42.2	52.4
v4	Workers able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters	28	52.6	16.5	21.3	42.3	52.8	62.5	87.6
v5	Workers perceiving having to work to tight deadlines	28	73.2	12.6	44.1	66.3	73.9	83.6	96.7
v6	Mean monthly earnings - NACE Rev. 2, categories B-S excluding O, 10 employees or more	28	570	20.6	23.8	36.8	60.1	75.5	94.4
v7	Mean equivalised net income	28	50.1	20.8	14.3	30.5	51.2	67.1	98.4
v8	Not at-risk-of-poverty, $\geq 60\%$ of median income	28	91.8	3.7	84.6	89.2	92.4	94.3	99.0
v9	S20/S80 income quintile share	28	72.6	15.6	46.1	60.9	71.1	85.7	98.6
v10	Graduates of tertiary education	28	63.0	18.5	35.0	45.9	63.1	79.3	98.0
v11	Tertiary students in the fields of Education, Health and welfare, Humanities and Arts	28	45.3	13.2	26.7	34.1	43.0	54.7	70.6
v12	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training	28	43.2	15.1	22.1	33.1	40.1	51.6	85.5
v13	Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for one hour or more	28	52.8	18.1	24.0	39.5	50.1	63.0	91.0
v14	Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for one hour or more	28	379	20.3	12.7	20.1	32.7	57.6	78.6
v15	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day	28	28.0	19.8	4.4	13.4	23.2	40.9	99.0
v16	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month	28	35.4	20.9	8.4	18.6	29.5	47.3	94.9
v17	Share of Ministers	28	42.9	21.9	11.1	25.3	41.4	54.4	98.9
v18	Share of members of Parliament	28	47.1	20.3	16.5	35.4	42.0	60.8	88.4
v19	Share of members of Regional Assemblies	28	51.2	20.3	16.8	37.2	45.6	64.3	93.0
v20	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors	28	28.5	12.7	8.7	18.7	24.7	37.3	56.2
v21	Share of members in all key decision-making bodies of Central Bank	28	29.8	22.4	1.0	11.2	32.3	43.4	80.9
v22	Self-perceived health, good or very good	28	76.8	13.7	48.5	66.9	79.9	87.2	99.8
v23	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth	28	92.3	4.4	83.1	88.1	94.5	95.6	96.9
v24	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth	28	85.2	6.4	74.2	80.2	86.0	89.8	99.5
v25	Population without unmet needs for medical examination	28	93.5	4.6	81.4	90.2	94.5	96.9	100.0
v26	Population without unmet needs for dental examination	28	93.8	4.5	80.5	92.0	94.5	97.4	99.9

Note: data for variables v3 – v6 and v13 to v16 were not available for 2012, 2010 data are presented.



Table 1.2. Descriptive statistics of the final metric, 2010

ID	Indicators	N	mean	sd	min	p25	p50	p75	max
v1	Full-time equivalent employment rate	28	70.3	9.6	49.8	64.0	70.6	76.2	91.1
v2	Duration of working life	28	79.2	9.8	54.7	72.9	79.5	87.1	96.0
v3	Employment in Education, Human Health and Social Work activities	28	34.8	9.0	20.7	25.4	35.8	42.8	53.0
v4	Workers able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters	28	52.6	16.5	21.3	42.3	52.8	62.5	87.6
v5	Workers perceiving having to work to tight deadlines	28	73.2	12.6	44.1	66.3	73.9	83.6	96.7
v6	Mean monthly earnings - NACE Rev. 2, categories B-S excluding O, 10 employees or more	28	57.0	20.6	23.8	36.8	60.1	75.5	94.4
v7	Mean equivalised net income	28	48.7	20.1	14.5	28.7	49.3	64.3	97.8
v8	Not at-risk-of-poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income	28	91.5	3.8	85.3	88.1	91.8	93.7	98.7
v9	S20/S80 income quintile share	28	73.0	16.2	41.8	61.1	73.7	87.0	98.6
v10	Graduates of tertiary education	28	63.5	19.5	33.5	45.9	61.1	81.3	97.0
v11	Tertiary students in the fields of Education, Health and welfare, Humanities and Arts	28	45.9	13.6	25.8	35.1	43.4	56.8	69.8
v12	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training	28	42.4	14.8	22.8	32.2	38.1	51.4	84.7
v13	Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for one hour or more	28	52.8	18.1	24.0	39.5	50.1	63.0	91.0
v14	Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for one hour or more	28	37.9	20.3	12.7	20.1	32.7	57.6	78.6
v15	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day	28	28.0	19.8	4.4	13.4	23.2	40.9	99.0
v16	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month	28	35.4	20.9	8.4	18.6	29.5	47.3	94.9
v17	Share of Ministers	28	47.7	24.5	1.0	32.2	42.7	63.7	99.7
v18	Share of members of Parliament	28	44.8	20.3	18.1	33.1	38.3	59.5	92.2
v19	Share of members of Regional Assemblies	28	50.5	20.2	23.0	35.8	43.6	65.5	92.8
v20	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors	28	23.9	12.4	4.9	13.6	22.7	30.0	51.5
v21	Share of members in all key decision-making bodies of Central Bank	28	30.8	19.0	1.0	16.3	30.8	43.9	69.7
v22	Self-perceived health, good or very good	28	76.8	12.9	53.3	66.6	79.1	86.5	99.3
v23	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth	28	91.9	4.6	82.7	87.3	94.0	95.6	96.9
v24	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth	28	85.3	7.0	73.2	80.5	85.3	90.2	99.6
v25	Population without unmet needs for medical examination	28	93.1	5.4	78.1	91.6	94.1	96.6	100.0
v26	Population without unmet needs for dental examination	28	93.7	4.7	80.1	91.2	95.1	97.1	100.0



Table 1.3. Descriptive statistics of the final metric, 2005

ID	Indicators	N	mean	sd	min	p25	p50	p75	max
v1	Full-time equivalent employment rate	28	69.6	10.4	44.1	60.3	70.5	79.4	85.2
v2	Duration of working life	28	77.6	10.5	47.2	71.9	78.1	86.0	96.6
v3	Employment in Education, Human Health and Social Work activities	28	33.4	7.7	21.5	25.8	33.3	40.0	49.4
v4	Workers able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters	28	42.0	16.4	21.4	30.2	38.2	50.0	81.5
v5	Workers perceiving having to work to tight deadlines	28	76.2	11.2	58.5	68.0	75.3	85.5	97.4
v6	Mean monthly earnings - NACE Rev. 2, categories B-S excluding O, 10 employees or more	28	51.3	22.9	14.7	28.4	53.3	71.1	93.6
v7	Mean equivalised net income	28	40.6	20.3	11.9	19.7	42.5	53.6	98.5
v8	Not at-risk-of-poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income	28	92.0	4.5	84.0	88.0	93.0	95.7	99.4
v9	S20/S80 income quintile share	28	70.6	17.3	42.6	54.4	75.5	84.5	98.5
v10	Graduates of tertiary education	28	62.1	21.9	30.0	44.0	56.8	83.9	96.6
v11	Tertiary students in the fields of Education, Health and welfare, Humanities and Arts	28	42.7	14.8	22.6	30.0	40.6	56.1	67.8
v12	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training	28	47.9	15.9	27.5	35.1	44.8	54.3	90.0
v13	Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for one hour or more	28	55.9	17.8	14.6	45.6	58.8	64.9	89.2
v14	Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for one hour or more	28	37.7	17.0	13.7	22.8	32.7	52.5	69.4
v15	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day	28	40.5	21.9	9.8	24.9	34.2	50.8	99.8
v16	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month	28	40.7	23.2	11.6	22.0	39.4	53.4	99.1
v17	Share of Ministers	28	40.1	26.8	1.0	18.9	37.6	53.2	97.7
v18	Share of members of Parliament	28	42.0	19.8	16.5	27.4	34.7	60.0	88.8
v19	Share of members of Regional Assemblies	28							
v20	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors	28	20.4	10.5	6.5	12.9	20.2	24.6	47.2
v21	Share of members in all key decision-making bodies of Central Bank	28	28.1	21.6	1.0	12.3	23.1	43.1	72.2
v22	Self-perceived health, good or very good	28	72.9	16.1	36.9	61.5	77.5	87.0	99.0
v23	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth	28	91.5	5.0	81.0	87.2	94.2	95.3	97.2
v24	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth	28	86.0	8.0	69.8	80.1	87.7	91.4	98.7
v25	Population without unmet needs for medical examination	28	90.9	8.0	67.7	84.0	93.6	96.4	100.0
v26	Population without unmet needs for dental examination	28	90.2	7.0	71.6	87.3	92.2	94.9	99.9

Note: data for v6 not available for 2005, 2006 data are presented.



## Annex 2: Correlation matrix of the final Metric $\Gamma_{(X_{it})}$ used in calculating the Gender Equality Index

Table 2.1. Correlation matrix of the final metric, 2012

	v1	v2	v3	v4	v5	v6	v7	v8	v9	v10	v11	v12	v13	v14	v15	v16	v17	v18	v19	v20	v21	v22	v23	v24	v25	v26	
v1	-																										
v2	0.70***	-																									
v3	-0.28	-0.02	-																								
v4	0.25	0.38**	0.33*	-																							
v5	0.1	0.07	0.24	0.24	-																						
v6	-0.11	0.19	0.76***	0.37*	0.48***	-																					
v7	0.06	0.25	0.73***	0.29	0.46**	0.91***	-																				
v8	0.23	0.19	0.01	0.10	0.27	0.31	0.44**	-																			
v9	0.23	0.1	-0.04	0.00	0.47**	0.34*	0.46**	0.84***	-																		
v10	0.23	0.42**	0.53***	0.31	0.33*	0.64***	0.58***	0.18	0.10	-																	
v11	0.26	0.38**	0.56***	0.4**	0.23	0.66***	0.61***	0.19	0.12	0.95***	-																
v12	0.50***	0.74***	0.26	0.52***	0.25	0.54***	0.56***	0.46**	0.39**	0.45**	0.45**	-															
v13	-0.01	0.25	0.16	0.40**	-0.06	0.19	0.12	0.30	0.05	0.11	0.11	0.39**	-														
v14	0.48**	0.72***	0.23	0.55***	0.14	0.41**	0.32*	0.16	0.05	0.62***	0.64***	0.72***	0.52***	-													
v15	0.24	0.35*	0.26	0.39**	0.48***	0.62***	0.57***	0.41**	0.53***	0.48***	0.45**	0.71**	0.17	0.57***	-												
v16	0.16	0.54***	0.29	0.45**	0.50***	0.65***	0.64***	0.45**	0.52***	0.38**	0.39**	0.71***	0.33*	0.54***	0.62***	-											
v17	0.43**	0.56***	0.34*	0.47**	0.19	0.47**	0.53***	0.17	0.24	0.37*	0.45**	0.58***	0.02	0.51***	0.52***	0.53***	-										
v18	0.22	0.63***	0.24	0.34*	0.05	0.51***	0.44**	0.15	0.24	0.34*	0.37*	0.70***	0.21	0.59***	0.58***	0.63***	0.77***	-									
v19	0.28	0.61***	0.34*	0.27	0.12	0.47**	0.49***	0.14	0.18	0.48***	0.50***	0.59***	0.03	0.59***	0.49***	0.53**	0.74***	0.79***	-								
v20	0.46**	0.66***	-0.05	0.18	0.19	0.21	0.24	0.28	0.30	0.27	0.24	0.59***	0.08	0.55***	0.47**	0.48***	0.58***	0.61***	0.62***	-							
v21	0.2	0.2	-0.1	0.25	0.36*	0.13	0.02	0.23	0.37*	0.14	0.12	0.36*	0.23	0.42**	0.59***	0.35*	0.30	0.41**	0.40**	0.45**	-						
v22	-0.08	-0.01	0.61***	0.46**	0.57***	0.73***	0.67***	0.19	0.27	0.53***	0.59***	0.28	-0.11	0.21	0.44**	0.46**	0.39**	0.27	0.34*	0.04	0.15	-					
v23	-0.21	0.1	0.72***	0.31	0.46**	0.87***	0.83***	0.24	0.31	0.42**	0.42**	0.43**	0.10	0.20	0.48***	0.50***	0.36*	0.46**	0.46**	0.09	0.10	0.74***	-				
v24	-0.25	-0.25	0.68***	0.35*	0.17	0.49***	0.40**	-0.03	0.04	0.24	0.35*	0.01	-0.08	0.02	0.11	0.05	0.24	0.10	0.23	-0.22	-0.03	0.58***	0.60***	-			
v25	-0.21	-0.01	0.34*	-0.07	0.23	0.52***	0.56***	0.50***	0.53***	0.28	0.27	0.27	0.06	-0.05	0.31	0.36*	-0.02	0.16	0.15	-0.08	-0.11	0.30	0.54***	0.20	-		
v26	-0.16	-0.05	0.19	-0.15	0.42**	0.43**	0.44**	0.51***	0.67**	0.24	0.23	0.31	-0.13	-0.08	0.38**	0.48***	0.06	0.19	0.15	0.08	0.11	0.32*	0.36*	0.09	0.73***	-	

Level of significance for N=28: \*\*\* p<0.01; \*\*p<0.05; \* p<0.10



Table 2.2. Correlation matrix of the final metric, 2010

	v1	v2	v3	v4	v5	v6	v7	v8	v9	v10	v11	v12	v13	v14	v15	v16	v17	v18	v19	v20	v21	v22	v23	v24	v25	v26	
v1	-																										
v2	0.73***	-																									
v3	-0.12	0.02	-																								
v4	0.26	0.36*	0.34*	-																							
v5	0.10	0.07	0.34*	0.24	-																						
v6	-0.10	0.17	0.80***	0.37*	0.48***	-																					
v7	-0.01	0.18	0.84***	0.29	0.43**	0.93***	-																				
v8	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.04	0.31	0.32*	0.36*	-																			
v9	0.16	0.07	0.12	0.09	0.55***	0.36*	0.38**	0.85***	-																		
v10	0.25	0.44**	0.60***	0.35*	0.33*	0.64***	0.59***	0.14	0.08	-																	
v11	0.21	0.38**	0.62***	0.41**	0.22	0.66***	0.60***	0.15	0.09	0.95***	-																
v12	0.43**	0.66***	0.36*	0.54***	0.32*	0.55***	0.52***	0.41**	0.39**	0.53***	0.52***	-															
v13	-0.05	0.24	0.12	0.40**	-0.06	0.19	0.10	0.29	0.13	0.13	0.35*	0.35*	-														
v14	0.40**	0.69***	0.22	0.55***	0.14	0.41**	0.31	0.14	0.05	0.65***	0.66***	0.70***	0.52***	-													
v15	0.18	0.31	0.29	0.39**	0.48***	0.62***	0.56***	0.43**	0.52***	0.51***	0.47**	0.70***	0.17	0.57***	-												
v16	0.09	0.50***	0.37*	0.45**	0.5***	0.65***	0.62***	0.45**	0.50***	0.41**	0.43**	0.72***	0.33*	0.54***	0.62***	-											
v17	0.31	0.56***	0.40**	0.36*	0.20	0.51***	0.53***	0.08	0.19	0.42**	0.43**	0.72***	-0.01	0.49***	0.60***	0.56***	-										
v18	0.22	0.63***	0.25	0.38**	0.00	0.45**	0.4**	0.14	0.20	0.39**	0.41**	0.59***	0.25	0.58***	0.49***	0.60***	0.74***	-									
v19	0.22	0.55***	0.42**	0.28	0.18	0.48***	0.47**	0.13	0.20	0.57***	0.58***	0.55***	0.06	0.58***	0.48***	0.54***	0.78***	0.77***	-								
v20	0.43**	0.49***	-0.37*	0.21	0.14	-0.12	-0.21	0.16	0.20	0.06	0.04	0.34*	-0.01	0.38**	0.28	0.23	0.40**	0.44**	0.32*	-							
v21	0.37*	0.41**	-0.17	0.35*	-0.09	-0.02	-0.14	0.33*	0.30	0.25	0.28	0.43**	0.34*	0.53***	0.39**	0.20	0.35*	0.44**	0.49***	0.57***	-						
v22	-0.04	0.05	0.66***	0.46**	0.51***	0.76***	0.71***	0.26	0.29	0.61***	0.65***	0.39**	-0.14	0.27	0.46**	0.48***	0.42**	0.29	0.40**	0.00	-0.03	-					
v23	-0.17	0.04	0.75***	0.31	0.46**	0.85***	0.83***	0.22	0.35*	0.40**	0.38**	0.38**	0.08	0.17	0.45**	0.47**	0.48***	0.38**	0.46**	-0.27	-0.10	0.71***	-				
v24	-0.24	-0.26	0.64***	0.38**	0.26	0.54***	0.51***	-0.04	0.06	0.31	0.39**	0.09	-0.13	0.07	0.21	0.14	0.23	0.16	0.26	-0.28	-0.08	0.70***	0.67***	-			
v25	-0.01	0.13	0.44**	-0.01	0.15	0.51***	0.55***	0.55***	0.44**	0.33*	0.32*	0.40**	0.15	0.09	0.37*	0.37*	0.17	0.15	0.20	-0.36*	-0.01	0.34*	0.49***	0.10	-		
v26	-0.19	0.01	0.34*	-0.11	0.32*	0.50***	0.44**	0.58***	0.54***	0.34*	0.37*	0.46**	0.02	0.11	0.47**	0.48***	0.22	0.16	0.25	-0.08	0.07	0.38**	0.35*	0.10	0.76***	-	

Level of significance for N=28: \*\*\* p<0.01; \*\*p<0.05; \* p<0.10



Table 2.3. Correlation matrix of the final metric, 2005

	v1	v2	v3	v4	v5	v6	v7	v8	v9	v10	v11	v12	v13	v14	v15	v16	v17	v18	v19	v20	v21	v22	v23	v24	v25	v26
v1	-																									
v2	0.77***	-																								
v3	-0.42**	-0.13	-																							
v4	-0.15	-0.06	0.06	-																						
v5	0.18	0.23	0.24	0.09	-																					
v6	-0.13	0.28	0.69***	0.03	0.16	-																				
v7	-0.21	0.07	0.82***	-0.04	0.25	0.88***	-																			
v8	0.04	0.23	0.31	-0.29	0.46**	0.32	0.35*	-																		
v9	0.05	0.15	0.38**	-0.22	0.59***	0.41**	0.46**	0.88***	-																	
v10	0.28	0.46**	0.44**	-0.24	0.17	0.55***	0.48***	0.12	0.19	-																
v11	0.12	0.39**	0.51***	-0.22	0.14	0.65***	0.52***	0.28	0.26	0.89***	-															
v12	0.38**	0.64***	0.17	-0.13	0.38**	0.47**	0.35*	0.36*	0.31	0.58***	0.61***	-														
v13	0.01	0.03	0.12	0.05	-0.01	-0.02	0.04	0.06	-0.07	0.07	0.12	-0.01	-													
v14	0.40**	0.63***	0.06	-0.12	0.05	0.42**	0.23	0.09	0.02	0.62***	0.68***	0.66***	0.39**	-												
v15	0.17	0.34*	0.20	-0.04	0.45**	0.55***	0.43**	0.34*	0.50***	0.43**	0.46**	0.58***	-0.06	0.46**	-											
v16	-0.02	0.32*	0.38**	-0.06	0.44**	0.63***	0.57***	0.58***	0.61***	0.46**	0.55***	0.47**	0.30	0.55***	0.63***	-										
v17	-0.08	0.35*	0.34*	-0.17	0.13	0.47**	0.35*	0.36*	0.36*	0.36*	0.48**	0.39**	-0.24	0.33*	0.45**	0.36*	-									
v18	0.17	0.58***	0.29	-0.03	0.27	0.47**	0.33*	0.43**	0.40**	0.49***	0.60***	0.52***	0.02	0.50***	0.47**	0.49***	0.81***	-								
v19	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	-						
v20	0.56***	0.56***	-0.46**	-0.07	0.36*	-0.16	-0.34*	0.17	0.19	0.06	0.06	0.35*	-0.09	0.31	0.33*	0.17	0.23	0.36*	:	-						
v21	0.40**	0.35*	-0.12	-0.31	0.31	-0.05	-0.09	0.34*	0.34*	0.23	0.28	0.61***	-0.07	0.46**	0.46**	0.17	0.27	0.34*	:	0.52***	-					
v22	-0.16	0.03	0.66***	0.23	0.45***	0.63***	0.70***	0.23	0.40**	0.52***	0.57***	0.28	0.06	0.29	0.46**	0.54***	0.25	0.34*	:	-0.19	0.05	-				
v23	-0.31	-0.01	0.73***	0.21	0.36*	0.76***	0.82***	0.29	0.49***	0.33*	0.36*	0.21	-0.04	0.11	0.54***	0.52***	0.37*	0.32*	:	-0.31	-0.13	0.77***	-			
v24	-0.47**	-0.33*	0.55***	0.44**	0.09	0.34*	0.40**	0.05	0.12	0.08	0.29	0.03	0.17	0.07	0.19	0.17	0.08	0.12	:	-0.32*	0.00	0.64***	0.62***	-		
v25	-0.04	0.03	0.48**	0.04	0.34*	0.52***	0.59***	0.27	0.41**	0.36*	0.29	0.31	0.01	0.07	0.47**	0.38**	0.01	0.07	:	-0.46**	0.02	0.57***	0.64***	0.29	-	
v26	-0.15	-0.03	0.48***	-0.04	0.35*	0.60***	0.62***	0.34*	0.52***	0.24	0.23	0.30	-0.15	-0.02	0.54***	0.41**	0.09	0.07	:	-0.36*	0.06	0.53***	0.65***	0.26	0.91***	-

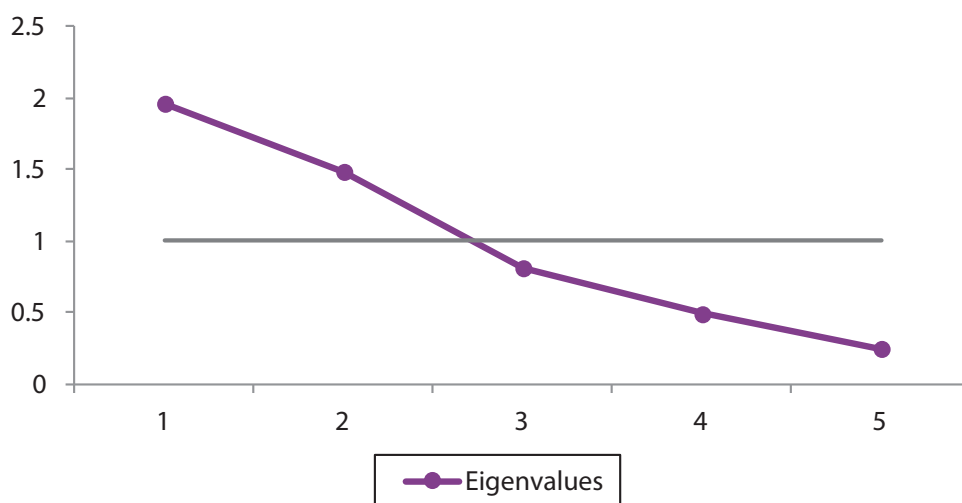
Level of significance for N=28: \*\*\* p<0.01; \*\*p<0.05; \* p<0.10  
 Note: ":" indicates data were not available for v20 (Share of members of Regional Assemblies)

## Annex 3: Principal component analysis for the domain of work

Work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work
Full-time equivalent	0.6704	-0.1241
Duration of working life	0.6424	0.0601
Employment in <i>Education, Human health and social work activities</i>	-0.2117	0.6701
Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters	0.3002	0.5292
Working to tight deadlines	0.0548	0.5019

% of variance explained	0.69
KMO	0.52

Screplot: Work





## Annex 4: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of work

Country	Index	Work	Participation	Gap adjusted by level of achievement		Segregation and quality of work	Gap adjusted by level of achievement		
				FTE employment	Duration of working life		Sectoral segregation	Flexibility of working time	Work intensity
BE	58.2	59.5	66.9	60.5	73.3	52.9	41.2	49.2	68.4
BG	38.5	58.7	72.9	70.8	75.1	47.2	28.1	55.1	58.3
CZ	43.8	54.2	75.3	74.0	76.6	39.0	23.9	21.3	71.9
DK	70.9	76.8	85.3	77.4	93.3	69.2	44.6	87.6	75.3
DE	55.3	62.2	75.9	65.5	86.3	51.0	38.1	27.6	87.4
EE	49.8	62.0	83.6	79.0	88.2	46.0	24.4	42.9	70.6
IE	56.5	65.8	69.8	65.1	74.6	61.9	37.6	62.5	85.7
EL	38.3	56.9	59.5	50.1	69.0	54.4	46.7	42.1	74.5
ES	53.6	59.6	69.5	59.5	79.5	51.1	43.4	51.3	58.7
FR	55.7	61.3	75.0	69.4	80.6	50.0	42.5	35.3	72.3
HR	39.8	53.6	62.0	52.8	71.2	46.4	29.0	33.1	77.0
IT	41.1	53.8	57.1	51.0	63.2	50.6	35.8	47.0	69.1
CY	44.9	74.0	79.6	78.8	80.3	68.8	42.7	67.1	96.7
LV	46.9	63.3	80.8	75.7	86.0	49.6	31.2	56.1	61.6
LT	40.2	55.6	79.8	76.3	83.3	38.7	29.0	37.4	49.8
LU	55.2	63.6	71.3	69.9	72.8	56.6	52.4	49.1	68.3
HU	41.6	60.7	67.5	65.1	69.9	54.5	30.2	54.4	79.0
MT	46.8	60.7	56.2	53.1	59.3	65.6	46.5	65.6	84.6
NL	68.5	69.0	75.6	60.0	91.2	62.9	35.3	80.2	73.2
AT	50.2	66.5	77.0	69.4	84.6	57.4	38.1	55.6	78.6
PL	43.7	55.5	71.1	69.2	73.0	43.3	24.1	48.9	57.0
PT	37.9	59.1	78.4	70.5	86.3	44.6	31.6	58.1	44.1
RO	33.7	61.6	71.8	71.2	72.3	52.9	21.1	62.4	75.2
SI	57.3	63.6	77.4	75.3	79.5	52.2	25.3	43.7	87.6
SK	36.5	52.8	72.3	70.8	73.8	38.6	22.0	28.2	65.6
FI	72.7	72.6	85.3	80.0	90.6	61.9	31.7	61.9	92.1
SE	74.2	81.0	94.7	92.4	96.9	69.3	38.1	84.1	85.7
UK	58.0	69.5	77.4	68.2	86.7	62.4	41.4	64.9	80.8
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>61.9</b>	<b>72.3</b>	<b>64.9</b>	<b>79.7</b>	<b>53.0</b>	<b>36.2</b>	<b>49.0</b>	<b>73.7</b>

## Annex 5: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of money

Country	Index	Money	Financial resources		Gap adjusted by level of achievement		Economic situation	Gap adjusted by level of achievement	
			Earnings	Income	Not at-risk-of-poverty	Income distribution			
BE	58.2	79.6	79.4	63.9	88.3	92.6	84.1		
BG	38.5	40.3	23.8	22.5	70.4	85.9	54.8		
CZ	43.8	60.4	37.0	37.4	98.0	98.9	97.2		
DK	70.9	76.4	79.8	65.1	80.5	94.3	66.8		
DE	55.3	78.4	77.5	68.6	84.0	90.6	77.5		
EE	49.8	48.4	33.0	29.6	75.0	89.5	60.5		
IE	56.5	79.0	89.9	61.7	82.3	92.7	71.8		
EL	38.3	56.4	57.5	36.7	67.6	84.6	50.5		
ES	53.6	59.7	60.0	47.3	66.5	86.9	46.1		
FR	55.7	76.9	66.4	72.8	84.9	94.8	75.0		
HR	39.8	52.0	45.0	27.2	75.0	87.2	62.8		
IT	41.1	68.0	65.4	57.5	75.3	88.3	62.2		
CY	44.9	74.6	64.4	73.5	80.8	91.2	70.3		
LV	46.9	43.2	29.3	24.5	69.4	89.3	49.6		
LT	40.2	45.6	29.1	25.8	76.0	89.2	62.7		
LU	55.2	92.3	94.4	98.4	88.3	94.5	82.1		
HU	41.6	53.8	36.7	28.5	89.0	96.0	82.0		
MT	46.8	71.4	60.2	52.9	90.1	94.1	86.2		
NL	68.5	83.6	76.1	68.3	96.7	99.0	94.5		
AT	50.2	77.6	64.0	74.7	86.8	93.4	80.2		
PL	43.7	54.2	40.4	33.1	79.8	91.9	67.6		
PT	37.9	56.0	46.2	38.5	74.1	90.2	58.0		
RO	33.7	38.4	27.9	14.3	70.1	86.7	53.6		
SI	57.3	71.3	56.2	49.6	96.1	93.6	98.6		
SK	36.5	56.7	33.5	35.2	93.7	96.6	90.8		
FI	72.7	79.9	71.8	66.1	92.5	94.3	90.7		
SE	74.2	80.6	73.7	67.4	92.1	92.3	92.0		
UK	58.0	74.6	78.3	62.6	79.1	92.5	65.6		
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>67.8</b>	<b>66.0</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>79.1</b>	<b>91.3</b>	<b>67.0</b>		



## Annex 6: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of knowledge

Country	Index	Knowledge	Educational attainment and segregation	Gap adjusted by level of achievement		Lifelong learning		Gap adjusted by level of achievement Lifelong learning
				Tertiary education	Segregation			
BE	58.2	51.0	72.8	82.8	62.9	35.8	35.8	35.8
BG	38.5	31.8	45.7	48.0	43.4	22.1	22.1	22.1
CZ	43.8	42.0	39.2	48.6	29.9	44.9	44.9	44.9
DK	70.9	73.2	62.7	71.3	54.1	85.5	85.5	85.5
DE	55.3	46.7	53.2	63.7	42.7	40.9	40.9	40.9
EE	49.8	55.4	60.9	73.8	48.0	50.4	50.4	50.4
IE	56.5	54.3	77.8	89.0	66.6	37.8	37.8	37.8
EL	38.3	37.6	51.0	62.5	39.5	27.8	27.8	27.8
ES	53.6	53.4	67.4	79.8	55.0	42.4	42.4	42.4
FR	55.7	50.7	63.7	74.1	53.3	40.3	40.3	40.3
HR	39.8	31.0	35.7	44.7	26.7	26.8	26.8	26.8
IT	41.1	32.5	31.0	35.0	26.9	34.1	34.1	34.1
CY	44.9	51.5	75.3	92.1	58.4	35.2	35.2	35.2
LV	46.9	40.3	45.5	54.3	36.7	35.6	35.6	35.6
LT	40.2	47.6	56.9	65.4	48.3	39.9	39.9	39.9
LU	55.2	64.6	76.3	86.0	66.6	54.6	54.6	54.6
HU	41.6	35.3	43.5	49.6	37.4	28.7	28.7	28.7
MT	46.8	36.3	40.2	45.2	35.1	32.8	32.8	32.8
NL	68.5	64.6	65.5	77.5	53.6	63.7	63.7	63.7
AT	50.2	44.5	38.5	43.2	33.8	51.5	51.5	51.5
PL	43.7	41.8	45.8	51.6	39.9	38.1	38.1	38.1
PT	37.9	37.8	34.2	38.9	29.4	41.7	41.7	41.7
RO	33.7	28.2	32.4	37.4	27.4	24.5	24.5	24.5
SI	57.3	49.4	47.2	55.0	39.4	51.7	51.7	51.7
SK	36.5	34.0	38.7	43.9	33.4	30.0	30.0	30.0
FI	72.7	67.3	64.9	81.0	48.8	69.8	69.8	69.8
SE	74.2	67.6	66.6	72.7	60.4	68.6	68.6	68.6
UK	58.0	67.5	84.3	98.0	70.6	54.1	54.1	54.1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>56.7</b>	<b>67.4</b>	<b>45.9</b>	<b>42.5</b>	<b>42.5</b>	<b>42.5</b>

## Annex 7: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of time

Country	Index	Time	Gap adjusted by level of achievement			Social activities		Gap adjusted by level of achievement	
			Care activities	Childcare activities	Domestic activities	Sport, cultural and leisure activities	Volunteering and charitable activities		
BE	58.2	44.1	53.5	60.2	46.8	36.4	30.3	42.6	
BG	38.5	17.0	20.1	24.0	16.2	14.4	12.2	16.6	
CZ	43.8	23.5	29.1	41.5	16.7	19.0	17.5	20.6	
DK	70.9	64.5	79.3	91.0	67.7	52.5	42.5	62.5	
DE	55.3	39.7	36.5	42.2	30.7	43.3	22.7	64.0	
EE	49.8	49.8	70.9	75.3	66.6	35.0	30.0	39.9	
IE	56.5	52.0	56.7	55.0	58.4	47.7	51.6	43.9	
EL	38.3	17.9	21.1	29.1	13.1	15.2	16.5	13.8	
ES	53.6	33.5	56.5	59.2	53.7	19.8	21.3	18.3	
FR	55.7	34.5	40.3	45.7	35.0	29.4	23.8	35.1	
HR	39.8	25.9	32.1	48.2	16.0	20.9	13.3	28.5	
IT	41.1	32.4	40.4	63.9	16.9	26.0	24.5	27.5	
CY	44.9	24.4	32.9	44.3	21.5	18.1	11.4	24.8	
LV	46.9	35.2	76.4	83.3	69.6	16.2	10.2	22.3	
LT	40.2	22.8	36.2	37.8	34.6	14.4	13.0	15.7	
LU	55.2	47.1	48.0	55.1	41.0	46.2	48.4	44.0	
HU	41.6	31.9	51.8	78.7	24.8	19.7	15.6	23.8	
MT	46.8	36.7	40.6	59.1	22.1	33.2	36.0	30.5	
NL	68.5	71.2	70.6	85.8	55.3	71.9	48.9	94.9	
AT	50.2	38.6	33.0	35.6	30.5	45.1	24.1	66.0	
PL	43.7	20.8	26.9	31.7	22.1	16.0	14.4	17.7	
PT	37.9	22.4	50.2	70.1	30.3	10.0	11.6	8.4	
RO	33.7	17.4	25.5	31.4	19.6	11.9	4.4	19.4	
SI	57.3	46.6	45.9	55.1	36.6	47.4	46.4	48.4	
SK	36.5	17.7	26.7	40.7	12.7	11.8	14.0	9.5	
FI	72.7	61.3	50.2	39.0	61.4	74.8	99.0	50.6	
SE	74.2	61.9	65.3	52.0	78.6	58.8	51.1	66.4	
UK	58.0	41.8	52.7	43.4	62.1	33.1	29.9	36.3	
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>37.6</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>49.0</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>33.0</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>41.0</b>	



## Annex 8: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of power

Country	Index	Power	Political	Gap adjusted by level of achievement				Economic	Gap adjusted by level of achievement	
				Ministerial representation	Parliamentary representation	Regional assemblies representation	Members of boards		Members of Central Banks	
BE	58.2	49.5	71.3	61.2	77.1	75.6	34.3	25.5	43.1	
BG	38.5	36.8	53.4	65.0	45.4	49.7	25.4	23.3	27.5	
CZ	43.8	31.8	34.1	24.6	40.8	37.0	29.6	31.2	28.0	
DK	70.9	55.7	74.2	76.8	79.0	66.8	41.9	41.4	42.3	
DE	55.3	45.1	60.0	54.9	62.9	62.2	33.9	35.2	32.6	
EE	49.8	27.9	33.4	13.9	34.9	51.5	23.3	14.4	32.1	
IE	56.5	31.4	38.7	39.3	37.4	39.3	25.5	18.2	32.9	
EL	38.3	21.9	28.3	14.9	36.9	33.1	17.0	16.0	18.1	
ES	53.6	47.8	68.0	51.4	70.5	82.0	33.7	23.8	43.5	
FR	55.7	48.8	58.5	45.6	38.4	91.4	40.7	47.1	34.3	
HR	39.8	29.7	41.8	34.2	46.0	45.1	21.1	28.3	13.9	
IT	41.1	21.8	29.6	24.9	39.2	24.8	16.1	21.1	11.1	
CY	44.9	16.9	34.1	47.5	20.7	34.3	8.3	15.7	1.0	
LV	46.9	42.5	42.6	49.2	39.3	39.3	42.4	48.2	36.6	
LT	40.2	22.8	32.6	26.5	33.2	38.0	16.0	31.0	1.0	
LU	55.2	22.6	47.8	53.0	46.5	43.9	10.7	20.5	1.0	
HU	41.6	23.5	16.8	17.0	16.5	16.8	32.9	13.3	52.5	
MT	46.8	28.3	29.4	28.7	17.8	41.8	27.3	8.7	45.8	
NL	68.5	51.3	63.5	49.1	76.7	64.7	41.4	43.3	39.4	
AT	50.2	27.1	60.6	63.9	54.7	63.2	12.1	23.3	1.0	
PL	43.7	38.5	44.0	43.5	41.2	47.2	33.7	22.9	44.5	
PT	37.9	17.6	43.0	30.8	52.2	46.1	7.2	13.4	1.0	
RO	33.7	20.7	19.2	11.1	17.9	28.6	22.2	23.0	21.4	
SI	57.3	47.2	38.5	22.3	49.9	43.3	58.0	37.5	78.4	
SK	36.5	21.1	31.7	34.2	30.3	30.7	14.0	27.0	1.0	
FI	72.7	75.7	83.6	84.9	82.5	83.5	68.5	56.2	80.9	
SE	74.2	71.7	93.5	98.9	88.4	93.0	55.0	51.7	58.3	
UK	58.0	33.2	45.6	34.1	42.8	60.0	24.2	36.9	11.4	
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>39.7</b>	<b>49.8</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>47.0</b>	<b>59.4</b>	<b>31.7</b>	<b>30.8</b>	<b>32.5</b>	



## Annex 9: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of health

Country	Index	Health	Status	Gap adjusted by level of achievement			Access	Gap adjusted by level of achievement	
				Self-perceived health	Life expectancy	Healthy life years		Unmet medical needs	Unmet dental needs
BE	58.2	93.6	90.4	87.4	94.4	89.6	96.9	98.0	95.8
BG	38.5	86.0	82.8	75.9	86.1	86.6	89.2	88.5	90.0
CZ	43.8	89.5	82.8	70.6	91.1	86.8	96.7	96.6	96.7
DK	70.9	91.4	88.0	84.9	94.7	84.5	94.9	94.0	95.7
DE	55.3	90.0	84.2	77.2	95.3	80.1	96.3	94.6	98.0
EE	49.8	82.0	74.0	61.2	86.7	74.2	90.9	89.8	92.0
IE	56.5	95.2	95.7	99.8	95.4	91.8	94.8	96.2	93.3
EL	38.3	90.8	90.7	87.2	94.6	90.3	90.9	89.4	92.5
ES	53.6	92.2	91.1	86.7	96.4	90.3	93.2	94.4	92.0
FR	55.7	90.6	87.5	79.8	95.4	87.3	93.7	94.7	92.7
HR	39.8	85.3	76.8	54.5	89.7	86.3	94.7	92.5	96.9
IT	41.1	89.5	87.0	78.6	96.8	85.7	92.1	93.2	90.9
CY	44.9	92.4	91.8	91.4	95.7	88.4	93.1	94.9	91.3
LV	46.9	75.6	70.6	51.9	83.7	76.2	80.9	81.4	80.5
LT	40.2	82.3	70.2	48.5	83.1	79.0	96.5	96.8	96.2
LU	55.2	94.6	91.8	87.8	95.9	91.7	97.6	97.0	98.2
HU	41.6	85.2	78.2	65.1	86.9	82.6	92.7	91.4	94.1
MT	46.8	95.6	93.5	85.6	95.3	99.5	97.8	97.7	97.8
NL	68.5	93.6	88.5	87.1	96.2	82.2	99.1	99.1	99.1
AT	50.2	92.7	87.3	82.8	95.1	83.9	98.4	99.0	97.7
PL	43.7	83.6	78.8	65.7	88.2	82.6	88.6	85.1	92.2
PT	37.9	83.3	77.6	51.9	93.8	87.3	89.3	94.7	84.0
RO	33.7	84.4	82.3	80.1	86.2	80.5	86.6	85.6	87.6
SI	57.3	90.1	81.2	72.4	93.5	77.6	100.0	100.0	99.9
SK	36.5	86.7	78.5	73.4	88.0	74.2	95.7	94.3	97.1
FI	72.7	89.0	84.2	80.0	94.2	78.4	94.1	93.3	94.9
SE	74.2	93.3	96.9	95.4	96.9	98.3	90.0	87.6	92.4
UK	58.0	94.4	91.4	88.5	95.9	89.9	97.5	97.5	97.4
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>86.4</b>	<b>79.4</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>85.7</b>	<b>93.8</b>	<b>93.6</b>	<b>94.0</b>



## Annex 10: Differences between 2005 and 2012 in Metrics by domains

Table 10.1. Differences between 2005 and 2012 for the domain of work

Country	Gender gaps metric		Levels of achievement metric		Final metric	
	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work
BE	0.03	0.06	-0.02	-0.03	0.95	-0.16
BG	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.03	2.96	-0.20
CZ	0.00	0.04	-0.03	-0.02	-2.07	-9.04
DK	0.02	0.06	-0.07	0.05	-4.92	11.51
DE	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.01	4.27	0.38
EE	-0.01	0.06	0.00	-0.05	-0.83	4.04
IE	0.07	0.18	-0.12	0.07	-4.20	18.98
EL	0.05	0.03	-0.1	-0.14	-3.60	-16.17
ES	0.09	0.05	-0.07	0.02	2.55	6.22
FR	0.02	0.07	-0.01	0.00	0.45	-0.20
HR	0.02	0.02	-0.07	0.13	-5.09	6.07
IT	0.04	0.05	-0.03	0.00	0.34	-10.64
CY	0.07	0.12	-0.07	0.07	0.72	13.38
LV	0.03	0.09	-0.02	0.13	0.73	11.45
LT	0.02	0.03	-0.02	-0.06	0.23	-5.17
LU	0.06	0.16	0.02	0.09	6.52	9.84
HU	0.01	0.09	-0.01	0.18	0.41	12.45
MT	0.11	0.17	0.03	0.25	10.54	14.45
NL	0.04	0.02	-0.01	0.05	2.41	6.69
AT	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.06	2.62	-3.88
PL	0.00	0.02	0.04	-0.04	3.34	-7.17
PT	0.03	0.00	-0.09	0.13	-5.62	0.39
RO	-0.01	0.03	-0.01	-0.02	-2.09	-4.92
SI	0.01	-0.04	-0.05	0.05	-3.51	-1.54
SK	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.07	-1.34	-2.02
FI	0.01	0.05	-0.02	0.05	-1.34	9.56
SE	0.02	0.00	0.04	0.11	5.56	8.45
UK	0.02	0.11	-0.04	0.05	-1.93	11.17
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>-0.02</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>0.80</b>

Table 10.2. Differences between 2005 and 2012 for the domain of money

Country	Gender gap metric		Levels of achievement metric		Final metric	
	Financial resources	Economic situation	Financial resources	Economic situation	Financial resources	Economic situation
BE	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.01	6.05	2.93
BG	0.00	-0.01	0.10	-0.08	9.61	-8.28
CZ	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.04	5.71	4.38
DK	0.01	-0.05	0.11	-0.10	11.08	-13.27
DE	0.00	0.00	0.06	-0.06	6.24	-6.02
EE	0.01	0.01	0.10	0.03	9.09	3.92
IE	0.03	0.02	0.08	0.05	9.07	6.67
EL	0.02	0.00	-0.01	-0.04	-0.16	-4.16
ES	0.01	0.00	0.05	-0.07	4.93	-7.07
FR	0.00	0.00	0.09	-0.04	8.69	-3.96
HR	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.02	-1.19	2.33
IT	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	5.90	1.86
CY	0.01	0.01	0.27	-0.01	24.71	-0.45
LV	0.00	0.02	0.07	0.02	6.94	2.88
LT	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.08	6.86	8.89
LU	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.02	0.33	-1.66
HU	-0.01	0.00	0.06	0.01	5.64	1.13
MT	-0.01	0.00	0.26	0.01	23.30	1.28
NL	0.01	0.02	0.07	0.06	7.77	7.74
AT	0.00	-0.01	0.06	-0.04	6.03	-4.40
PL	0.00	0.01	0.11	0.11	10.58	11.23
PT	-0.01	0.00	0.04	0.07	3.11	6.33
RO	-0.01	-0.01	0.06	0.07	5.29	6.84
SI	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.01	6.92	1.69
SK	0.02	0.00	0.14	0.04	13.58	3.91
FI	0.01	0.00	0.14	-0.01	13.08	-0.24
SE	-0.01	0.00	0.09	-0.07	8.31	-6.48
UK	0.01	0.01	-0.05	0.07	-3.75	7.69
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.06</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>5.83</b>	<b>0.45</b>



Table 10.3. Differences between 2005 and 2012 for the domain of knowledge

Country	Gender gap metric		Levels of achievement metric		Final metric	
	Attainment and segregation	Lifelong learning	Attainment and segregation	Lifelong learning	Attainment and segregation	Lifelong learning
BE	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	-0.09	-5.18	-10.21
BG	-0.03	0.02	-0.04	-0.07	-4.57	-6.69
CZ	0.06	-0.01	0.09	0.06	9.49	4.83
DK	-0.03	-0.05	-0.19	0.08	-17.54	2.48
DE	0.04	0.01	-0.01	-0.03	1.88	-2.32
EE	0.00	-0.06	-0.06	0.06	-4.44	2.86
IE	0.00	0.04	0.09	-0.04	6.86	-2.42
EL	0.06	0.00	0.04	0.00	6.45	0.23
ES	0.00	0.02	-0.04	-0.04	-3.86	-2.67
FR	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.04	-1.25	-4.19
HR	0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.04	0.00	-4.10
IT	-0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00	1.20	0.00
CY	0.07	-0.02	0.10	0.03	13.64	1.97
LV	-0.02	0.05	0.10	-0.16	4.83	-12.80
LT	-0.03	0.03	0.04	-0.12	0.76	-10.18
LU	0.00	0.00	0.16	0.06	12.79	5.91
HU	-0.05	-0.02	0.04	-0.07	0.23	-7.89
MT	0.01	-0.03	0.09	-0.02	8.41	-2.81
NL	0.04	-0.01	-0.11	-0.02	-5.19	-1.86
AT	0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-1.51	-1.98
PL	-0.05	-0.02	0.12	-0.16	6.11	-16.52
PT	0.03	0.01	0.09	0.08	7.53	8.17
RO	0.01	-0.01	0.07	-0.10	5.71	-10.39
SI	-0.03	-0.04	0.07	-0.10	3.57	-11.00
SK	0.01	-0.06	0.08	-0.13	6.95	-14.67
FI	0.00	-0.01	-0.05	-0.03	-3.90	-3.17
SE	0.01	-0.04	-0.04	0.08	-2.17	4.01
UK	-0.01	0.05	0.03	-0.43	2.06	-35.92
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>-0.07</b>	<b>1.06</b>	<b>-6.38</b>

Table 10.4. Differences between 2005 and 2012 for the domain of time

Country	Gender gap metric		Levels of achievement metric		Final metric	
	Care activities	Social activities	Care activities	Social activities	Care activities	Social activities
BE	-0.01	-0.04	-0.11	-0.12	-8.66	-12.47
BG	-0.13	0.03	-0.31	-0.08	-25.06	-4.76
CZ	0.09	-0.07	0.09	-0.04	9.54	-6.11
DK	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.01	5.03	1.18
DE	0.03	0.11	0.08	-0.03	6.55	1.37
EE	0.16	-0.02	0.00	0.03	14.25	1.13
IE	0.02	-0.05	-0.08	-0.21	-4.55	-22.26
EL	-0.17	0.02	-0.14	-0.22	-18.97	-17.48
ES	0.19	-0.03	0.38	-0.14	33.02	-11.63
FR	0.02	-0.10	-0.12	-0.13	-4.82	-15.38
HR	0.05	-0.06	-0.14	-0.11	-4.12	-8.98
IT	0.00	0.09	0.08	-0.12	7.50	-5.45
CY	0.00	0.04	-0.11	-0.05	-5.84	-3.11
LV	0.11	-0.02	0.07	-0.05	15.21	-3.17
LT	0.03	-0.03	-0.02	-0.07	0.05	-6.85
LU	0.05	0.05	-0.10	-0.02	-3.30	0.84
HU	0.05	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.02	-8.70
MT	-0.04	-0.05	-0.03	-0.16	-5.67	-15.09
NL	-0.04	0.00	-0.03	-0.05	-5.32	-6.01
AT	0.08	0.13	-0.01	-0.06	4.06	1.66
PL	-0.04	-0.08	-0.23	-0.11	-15.85	-11.21
PT	-0.10	-0.02	-0.07	-0.17	-13.71	-14.33
RO	-0.14	0.16	-0.31	-0.09	-26.14	-0.75
SI	0.06	-0.08	0.03	-0.22	6.25	-24.65
SK	-0.04	-0.02	-0.07	-0.14	-4.40	-11.34
FI	0.06	0.00	-0.04	-0.02	0.23	-1.92
SE	0.10	-0.07	-0.04	-0.27	3.79	-30.51
UK	0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.12	0.24	-12.27
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>-0.01</b>	<b>-0.10</b>	<b>1.29</b>	<b>-8.51</b>



Table 10.5. Differences between 2005 and 2012 for the domain of health

Country	Gender gap metric		Levels of achievement metric		Final metric	
	Health status	Access to health structures	Health status	Access to health structures	Health status	Access to health structures
BE	0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.77	-1.66
BG	0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.15	0.26	16.38
CZ	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.02	2.18	2.65
DK	0.01	0.00	-0.07	-0.02	-5.80	-2.00
DE	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.11	2.99	11.15
EE	0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.03	2.43	2.70
IE	0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.61	-2.11
EL	0.00	0.00	-0.03	-0.02	-2.69	-2.73
ES	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.01	3.29	0.80
FR	0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	-0.70	-1.54
HR	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.06	0.80	7.04
IT	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.96	0.69
CY	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.03	3.31	2.64
LV	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.10	6.82	11.28
LT	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.07	3.25	7.48
LU	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	1.17	1.81
HU	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.09	7.67	9.15
MT	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.02	1.13	1.79
NL	-0.01	0.00	-0.03	0.03	-3.39	3.24
AT	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.45	0.12
PL	0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.05	-0.37	5.19
PT	0.00	0.01	0.03	-0.03	2.73	-1.82
RO	0.01	0.00	-0.02	0.05	-1.25	4.55
SI	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	2.93	0.02
SK	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.03	3.38	3.23
FI	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.59	-0.63
SE	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.04	4.75	3.86
UK	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.03	-0.91	2.98
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>1.16</b>	<b>3.42</b>

## Annex 11: Indicators included in the Gender Equality Index

Table 11.1. Indicators and gaps for the domain of work

Country	Subdomain: Participation						Subdomain: Segregation and quality of work								
	Full-time equivalent employment (rate, 15+population) (1)			Duration of working life (years, 15+population) (2)			Employed people in Education, Human Health and Social Work activities (%; 15-64 employed) (3)			Working to tight deadlines (%; 15+ workers) (4)			Workers able to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (%; 15+ workers) (4)		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
BE	36.3	53.4	-17.1	29.6	34.7	-5.1	38.7	11.0	27.7	51.7	65.7	-14.0	31.9	33.8	-1.9
BG	42.1	50.3	-8.2	30.3	32.7	-2.4	19.0	4.3	14.7	44.3	50.2	-5.9	35.7	40.6	-4.9
CZ	44.2	63.0	-18.8	30.9	37.5	-6.6	24.2	4.8	19.4	54.1	70.5	-16.4	13.2	17.3	-4.1
DK	46.3	57.0	-10.7	37.8	40.7	-2.9	43.3	13.6	29.7	57.7	61.4	-3.7	57.0	73.3	-16.3
DE	39.2	59.1	-19.9	34.9	39.9	-5.0	30.4	8.8	21.6	66.8	77.6	-10.8	19.3	17.7	1.6
EE	47.4	59.9	-12.5	35.7	36.6	-0.9	25.6	4.7	20.9	54.3	66.4	-12.1	27.8	33.4	-5.6
IE	39.0	52.1	-13.1	30.1	37.9	-7.8	35.3	8.9	26.4	65.6	73.3	-7.7	40.7	42.3	-1.6
EL	29.8	47.2	-17.4	27.8	36.0	-8.2	22.0	8.3	13.7	56.4	64.4	-8.0	26.6	33.8	-7.2
ES	35.4	48.6	-13.2	32.1	37.3	-5.2	23.6	7.5	16.1	44.0	62.0	-18.0	33.0	38.9	-5.9
FR	41.6	54.4	-12.8	32.6	36.5	-3.9	32.4	10.0	22.4	55.2	68.2	-13.0	22.7	23.2	-0.5
HR	31.4	42.6	-11.2	28.7	33.3	-4.6	22.3	5.5	16.8	59.0	62.0	-3.0	21.1	26.7	-5.6
IT	30.6	52.1	-21.5	25.4	35.3	-9.9	24.9	6.9	18.0	52.3	60.1	-7.8	30.9	30.5	0.4
CY	47.1	59.6	-12.5	32.4	39.9	-7.5	18.6	5.5	13.1	74.1	79.3	-5.2	43.6	47.9	-4.3
LV	45.4	54.8	-9.4	34.9	35.2	-0.3	25.7	6.0	19.7	47.3	60.2	-12.9	36.6	42.2	-5.6
LT	45.7	52.9	-7.2	34.2	33.7	0.5	26.8	6.0	20.8	38.2	57.0	-18.8	25.4	24.1	1.3
LU	41.8	61.4	-19.6	29.4	35.5	-6.1	30.2	10.6	19.6	51.9	58.8	-6.9	32.1	31.9	0.2
HU	39.0	52.7	-13.7	28.2	32.5	-4.3	25.5	6.0	19.5	60.3	69.3	-9.0	35.2	41.2	-6.0
MT	31.5	61.3	-29.8	23.7	39.0	-15.3	32.1	10.9	21.2	63.4	73.6	-10.2	42.4	45.0	-2.6
NL	36.1	59.1	-23.0	37.0	42.2	-5.2	38.6	9.8	28.8	55.9	63.4	-7.5	52.1	63.6	-11.5
AT	41.8	62.7	-20.9	34.2	39.4	-5.2	25.4	7.5	17.9	59.8	76.4	-16.6	36.1	37.6	-1.5
PL	41.4	58.1	-16.7	29.5	34.6	-5.1	23.7	4.9	18.8	42.9	57.4	-14.5	31.4	39.2	-7.8
PT	42.1	52.6	-10.5	35.0	38.8	-3.8	28.0	6.8	21.2	33.1	47.2	-14.1	37.7	42.0	-4.3
RO	42.5	57.5	-15.0	29.2	34.5	-5.3	14.8	3.6	11.2	57.4	61.4	-4.0	40.3	46.5	-6.2
SI	44.8	56.7	-11.9	32.1	34.9	-2.8	25.7	5.2	20.5	67.2	70.8	-3.6	28.0	35.8	-7.8
SK	42.3	58.4	-16.1	29.7	35.6	-5.9	25.2	4.5	20.7	49.9	54.7	-4.8	23.7	18.3	5.4
FI	47.7	55.9	-8.2	36.7	38.0	-1.3	39.5	8.6	30.9	70.8	71.7	-0.9	40.2	54.6	-14.4
SE	55.3	64.5	-9.2	39.3	41.8	-2.5	43.4	11.0	32.4	65.7	70.4	-4.7	54.8	67.8	-13.0
UK	40.9	58.9	-18.0	35.1	41.0	-5.9	38.5	10.7	27.8	61.7	74.0	-12.3	42.4	42.7	-0.3
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>38.8</b>	<b>55.7</b>	<b>-16.9</b>	<b>32.2</b>	<b>37.6</b>	<b>-5.4</b>	<b>29.8</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>21.7</b>	<b>56.1</b>	<b>67.0</b>	<b>-10.9</b>	<b>31.7</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>-2.7</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men

Source: (1) Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request; (2) Eurostat, LFS (lfsi\_dw1\_a); (3) calculations based on Eurostat LFS (lfsa\_egan2); (4) Eurofound, EWCS 2010



Table 11.2. Indicators and gaps for the domain of money

Country	Subdomain: Financial resources						Subdomain: Economic situation					
	Mean monthly earnings (PPS) (1)			Mean equivalised net income (16+ population) (PPS) (2)			Not-at-risk-of-poverty, ≥60% of median income (% 16+ population) (3)			S20/S80 income quintile share (% 16+ population) (4)		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
BE	2 430	2 801	-371	19 621	20 589	-968	84.3	86.1	-1.8	25.0	25.6	-0.6
BG	713	822	-109	6 699	6 976	-277	78.2	82.0	-3.8	15.9	16.7	-0.8
CZ	1 114	1 425	-311	11 361	12 079	-718	90.1	92.2	-2.1	28.6	28.6	0.0
DK	2 479	3 120	-641	19 985	20 440	-455	86.4	85.9	0.5	25.0	19.6	5.4
DE	2 360	3 038	-678	21 107	22 543	-1 436	82.5	85.0	-2.5	23.8	22.7	1.1
EE	1 025	1 437	-412	8 947	9 614	-667	81.5	83.1	-1.6	19.2	17.5	1.7
IE	2 790	3 424	-634	18 923	19 221	-298	84.8	84.3	0.5	21.7	21.3	0.4
EL	1 759	2 140	-381	11 136	11 585	-449	77.0	78.1	-1.1	15.4	14.5	0.9
ES	1 831	2 260	-429	14 432	14 739	-307	79.2	79.0	0.2	14.5	13.5	1.0
FR	2 030	2 465	-435	22 419	23 394	-975	86.3	87.7	-1.4	22.2	21.7	0.5
HR	1 375	1 471	-96	8 167	8 458	-291	79.3	81.1	-1.8	18.9	18.5	0.4
IT	1 993	2 334	-341	17 641	18 695	-1 054	80.4	83.3	-2.9	18.2	18.2	0.0
CY	1 970	2 496	-526	22 632	23 520	-888	83.1	87.5	-4.4	20.8	22.2	-1.4
LV	897	1 091	-194	7 361	7 853	-492	81.3	82.0	-0.7	16.4	14.5	1.9
LT	885	1 036	-151	7 750	8 225	-475	81.2	82.1	-0.9	19.2	18.2	1.0
LU	2 872	3 209	-337	30 366	31 383	-1 017	86.1	87.0	-0.9	24.4	23.8	0.6
HU	1 113	1 357	-244	8 574	8 914	-340	87.6	87.4	0.2	26.3	24.4	1.9
MT	1 820	2 149	-329	16 183	16 977	-794	85.7	87.2	-1.5	25.6	25.0	0.6
NL	2 343	2 932	-589	20 990	22 019	-1 029	90.1	91.4	-1.3	27.8	27.8	0.0
AT	1 919	2 565	-646	23 007	24 506	-1 499	85.1	87.6	-2.5	24.4	23.8	0.6
PL	1 228	1 459	-231	10 025	10 340	-315	83.7	83.6	0.1	20.8	19.6	1.2
PT	1 411	1 663	-252	11 692	12 045	-353	82.1	83.3	-1.2	17.5	16.9	0.6
RO	837	920	-83	4 137	4 332	-195	78.9	80.4	-1.5	16.1	15.6	0.5
SI	1 724	1 811	-87	15 149	15 514	-365	85.2	87.8	-2.6	28.6	29.4	-0.8
SK	1 014	1 279	-265	10 658	11 093	-435	87.9	88.2	-0.3	27.0	26.3	0.7
FI	2 236	2 823	-587	20 309	21 155	-846	85.9	86.8	-0.9	27.8	27.0	0.8
SE	2 281	2 737	-456	20 723	21 755	-1 032	84.0	87.6	-3.6	27.0	27.0	0.0
UK	2 412	3 277	-865	19 227	19 941	-714	84.2	84.4	-0.2	20.8	19.2	1.6
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>2 018</b>	<b>2 528</b>	<b>-510</b>	<b>15 329</b>	<b>15 997</b>	<b>-668</b>	<b>83.1</b>	<b>84.5</b>	<b>-1.4</b>	<b>20.4</b>	<b>19.6</b>	<b>0.8</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men

Source: (1) Eurostat, SES 2010 (earn\_ses10\_20); (2) Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di03); (3) Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_li02); (4) Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc\_di11)



Table 11.3. Indicators and gaps for the domain of knowledge

Country	Subdomain: Attainment and segregation				Subdomain: Lifelong learning				
	Graduates of tertiary education (%, 15–74 population) (1)		Tertiary students in the fields of Education, Health and Welfare, Humanities and Art (%, tertiary students) (2)		People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (%, 15–74 population) (3)				
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
BE	31.6	28.0	3.6	55.8	30.8	25.0	14.6	13.5	1.1
BG	23.9	16.1	7.8	27.1	15.4	11.7	8.3	8.2	0.1
CZ	16.3	16.3	0.0	42.7	18.6	24.1	18.0	17.0	1.0
DK	30.8	24.1	6.7	54.8	27.3	27.5	43.9	32.7	11.2
DE	21.5	27.2	-5.7	52.3	21.7	30.6	15.4	16.1	-0.7
EE	38.1	24.7	13.4	42.1	14.3	27.8	21.6	19.0	2.6
IE	36.0	30.1	5.9	52.2	26.8	25.4	14.7	14.2	0.5
EL	21.1	21.0	0.1	39.4	17.9	21.5	10.3	10.4	-0.1
ES	29.0	27.0	2.0	45.7	22.5	23.2	17.8	16.0	1.8
FR	27.5	25.0	2.5	40.9	21.1	19.8	15.8	15.2	0.6
HR	15.8	14.9	0.9	31.0	12.4	18.6	10.0	10.8	-0.8
IT	14.1	11.6	2.5	44.0	23.1	20.9	13.8	12.8	1.0
CY	34.7	31.1	3.6	38.9	16.5	22.4	15.7	13.2	2.5
LV	29.3	18.0	11.3	36.0	12.3	23.7	14.4	13.4	1.0
LT	32.0	21.8	10.2	35.6	15.1	20.5	15.2	15.1	0.1
LU	29.1	35.1	-6.0	45.0	24.2	20.8	20.8	20.9	-0.1
HU	20.3	16.6	3.7	32.7	16.6	16.1	10.7	11.1	-0.4
MT	15.5	15.2	0.3	52.5	32.4	20.1	13.9	12.3	1.6
NL	26.2	28.8	-2.6	48.9	23.8	25.1	24.8	24.3	0.5
AT	14.5	18.8	-4.3	45.4	23.2	22.2	21.6	19.5	2.1
PL	23.8	17.3	6.5	38.7	18.5	20.2	15.6	14.3	1.3
PT	17.9	12.9	5.0	41.7	19.1	22.6	16.2	15.7	0.5
RO	13.0	12.5	0.5	26.8	14.8	12.0	9.1	9.3	-0.2
SI	26.1	18.5	7.6	36.2	15.2	21.0	23.4	19.6	3.8
SK	18.1	14.7	3.4	47.1	24.1	23.0	12.6	11.2	1.4
FI	36.2	27.4	8.8	50.6	17.5	33.1	33.4	26.6	6.8
SE	33.9	24.6	9.3	53.5	28.6	24.9	37.7	26.2	11.5
UK	34.6	33.2	1.4	52.6	28.5	24.1	22.8	20.5	2.3
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>22.8</b>	<b>1.3</b>	<b>45.0</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>23.0</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>16.0</b>	<b>1.1</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men

Source: (1) Eurostat, LFS (edat\_lfs\_9903); (2) Eurostat, Education Statistics (educ\_enr15); (3) Eurostat, LFS (trng\_lfs\_09)



Table 11.4. Indicators and gaps for the domain of time

Country	Subdomain: Care						Subdomain: Social					
	Workers caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, every day for one hour or more (% 15+ workers)			Workers doing cooking and housework, every day for one hour or more (% 15+ workers)			Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day (% 15+ workers)			Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (% 15+ workers)		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
BE	55.4	33.9	21.5	77.7	30.8	46.9	11.2	18.4	-7.2	16.0	15.0	1.0
BG	32.2	13.1	19.1	69.8	10.2	59.6	4.3	7.3	-3.0	6.0	5.6	0.4
CZ	47.0	23.5	23.5	63.1	11.2	51.9	6.2	12.5	-6.3	7.9	7.1	0.8
DK	56.1	50.5	5.6	75.7	43.5	32.2	16.2	19.8	-3.6	22.0	23.7	-1.7
DE	32.1	23.3	8.8	80.0	20.0	60.0	8.5	8.8	-0.3	22.6	23.4	-0.8
EE	53.4	41.3	12.1	79.4	41.7	37.7	11.5	19.3	-7.8	16.4	13.9	2.5
IE	44.4	30.6	13.8	77.1	38.0	39.1	19.6	24.5	-4.9	18.8	15.5	3.3
EL	52.6	17.4	35.2	77.8	9.3	68.5	6.0	7.0	-1.0	6.0	4.7	1.3
ES	55.2	33.5	21.7	85.3	35.7	49.6	7.8	12.1	-4.3	7.2	6.3	0.9
FR	46.0	25.3	20.7	72.7	22.4	50.3	8.8	13.6	-4.8	12.2	16.4	-4.2
HR	41.9	26.7	15.2	75.4	10.2	65.2	4.7	9.6	-4.9	11.5	9.9	1.6
IT	55.3	36.5	18.8	73.4	11.9	61.5	8.9	12.2	-3.3	11.8	9.7	2.1
CY	56.8	25.1	31.7	81.3	14.2	67.1	3.9	9.8	-5.9	8.4	10.5	-2.1
LV	56.3	45.8	10.5	82.6	43.7	38.9	3.6	9.7	-6.1	7.8	7.6	0.2
LT	40.6	20.3	20.3	83.3	21.0	62.3	4.8	9.6	-4.8	5.3	6.0	-0.7
LU	52.9	31.4	21.5	74.8	27.6	47.2	18.5	20.1	-1.6	22.2	15.8	6.4
HU	55.3	43.8	11.5	69.9	16.1	53.8	6.6	5.7	0.9	15.1	8.4	6.7
MT	49.5	34.6	14.9	65.2	16.9	48.3	12.4	23.5	-11.1	13.5	11.0	2.5
NL	64.1	48.0	16.1	76.1	36.0	40.1	18.7	19.1	-0.4	37.5	33.8	3.7
AT	39.1	19.7	19.4	76.2	19.7	56.5	9.0	10.2	-1.2	23.1	32.4	-9.3
PL	39.1	17.7	21.4	72.3	14.5	57.8	5.1	9.0	-3.9	6.0	6.0	0.0
PT	59.2	39.0	20.2	90.2	19.7	70.5	4.1	6.8	-2.7	3.9	2.7	1.2
RO	48.6	17.9	30.7	73.2	13.1	60.1	1.3	3.4	-2.1	6.5	8.4	-1.9
SI	51.4	30.9	20.5	82.9	24.0	58.9	17.7	20.3	-2.6	16.7	27.7	-11.0
SK	52.7	23.3	29.4	61.8	8.3	53.5	5.1	5.5	-0.4	7.1	3.2	3.9
FI	25.4	21.3	4.1	72.3	39.1	33.2	38.4	39.2	-0.8	17.8	17.8	0.0
SE	33.7	28.7	5.0	71.4	50.3	21.1	19.6	23.3	-3.7	23.3	30.5	-7.2
UK	40.0	24.1	15.9	82.2	40.3	41.9	11.2	15.8	-4.6	15.6	12.7	2.9
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>44.6</b>	<b>27.4</b>	<b>17.2</b>	<b>77.1</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>12.2</b>	<b>-2.9</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>0.4</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men  
Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010

Table 11.5. Indicators and gaps for the domain of power

Country	Subdomain: Political				Subdomain: Economic			
	Share of Ministers (%)		Share of members of Parliament (%)		Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (%)		Share of members of Central Bank (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
BE	32	68	40	60	13	87	22	78
BG	34	66	24	76	12	88	14	86
CZ	13	87	21	79	16	84	14	86
DK	39	61	40	60	21	79	21	79
DE	28	72	32	68	18	82	17	83
EE	8	92	20	80	8	92	18	82
IE	20	80	19	81	9	91	17	83
EL	7	93	19	81	8	92	9	91
ES	26	74	36	64	12	88	22	78
FR	24	76	20	80	25	75	18	82
HR	18	82	25	75	15	85	7	93
IT	13	87	21	79	11	89	6	94
CY	25	75	11	89	8	92	0	100
LV	29	71	23	77	28	72	21	79
LT	15	85	19	81	18	82	0	100
LU	27	73	23	77	10	90	0	100
HU	9	91	9	91	7	93	29	71
MT	14	86	9	91	4	96	23	77
NL	25	75	39	61	22	78	20	80
AT	33	67	29	71	12	88	0	100
PL	23	77	22	78	12	88	24	76
PT	17	83	28	72	7	93	0	100
RO	6	94	9	91	12	88	11	89
SI	11	89	25	75	19	81	40	60
SK	18	82	16	84	14	86	0	100
FI	44	56	43	57	29	71	42	58
SE	50	50	45	55	26	74	29	71
UK	18	82	22	78	19	81	6	94
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>83</b>

Note: \* If the regional parliament does not exist in the country, data on local/municipal councils are presented (year: 2013)  
Source: European Commission database on Women and men in decision-making



Table 11.6. Indicators and gaps for the domain of health

Country	Subdomain: Status						Subdomain: Access								
	Self-perceived health, good or very good (% 16+ population) (1)			Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years) (2)			Healthy life years in absolute value at birth (years) (2)			Population without unmet needs for dental examination (% 16+ population) (4)					
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap			
BE	72.2	76.5	-4.3	83.1	77.8	5.3	65.4	64.3	1.1	97.6	97.8	-0.2	95.5	94.4	1.1
BG	62.7	70.8	-8.1	77.9	70.9	7.0	65.7	62.1	3.6	88.0	88.9	-0.9	88.6	88.8	-0.2
CZ	58.4	63.0	-4.6	81.2	75.1	6.1	64.1	62.3	1.8	96.2	96.2	0.0	96.0	95.3	0.7
DK	70.0	71.4	-1.4	82.1	78.1	4.0	61.4	60.6	0.8	95.2	93.6	1.6	95.3	94.4	0.9
DE	63.8	67.1	-3.3	83.3	78.6	4.7	57.9	57.4	0.5	94.2	94.1	0.1	96.6	96.6	0.0
EE	50.7	55.0	-4.3	81.5	71.4	10.1	57.2	53.1	4.1	89.4	91.0	-1.6	90.7	92.2	-1.5
IE	82.6	83.0	-0.4	83.2	78.7	4.5	68.5	65.9	2.6	95.8	96.2	-0.4	91.9	92.8	-0.9
EL	72.2	77.8	-5.6	83.4	78.0	5.4	64.9	64.8	0.1	88.9	91.3	-2.4	91.5	91.1	0.4
ES	71.6	77.1	-5.5	85.5	79.5	6.0	65.8	64.8	1.0	94.6	94.0	0.6	90.6	91.2	-0.6
FR	65.9	70.4	-4.5	85.4	78.7	6.7	63.8	62.6	1.2	94.3	94.7	-0.4	91.3	91.3	0.0
HR	44.7	45.3	-0.6	80.6	73.9	6.7	64.2	61.9	2.3	92.1	93.1	-1.0	95.7	95.6	0.1
IT	65.0	72.2	-7.2	84.8	79.8	5.0	61.5	62.1	-0.6	92.8	94.4	-1.6	89.6	90.3	-0.7
CY	75.6	78.8	-3.2	83.4	78.9	4.5	64.0	63.4	0.6	94.5	95.7	-1.2	90.7	89.9	0.8
LV	43.0	51.2	-8.2	78.9	68.9	10.0	59.0	54.6	4.4	80.9	81.0	-0.1	79.4	79.2	0.2
LT	40.4	49.9	-9.5	79.6	68.4	11.2	61.6	56.6	5.0	96.4	97.3	-0.9	94.9	96.3	-1.4
LU	72.5	75.1	-2.6	83.8	79.1	4.7	66.4	65.8	0.6	97.2	96.5	0.7	97.2	96.8	0.4
HU	53.7	61.9	-8.2	78.7	71.6	7.1	60.5	59.2	1.3	91.5	90.9	0.6	92.8	92.7	0.1
MT	70.7	73.5	-2.8	83.0	78.6	4.4	72.2	71.5	0.7	97.2	97.3	-0.1	96.5	97.0	-0.5
NL	72.1	79.4	-7.3	83.0	79.3	3.7	58.9	63.5	-4.6	98.6	98.9	-0.3	97.8	98.3	-0.5
AT	68.4	71.7	-3.3	83.6	78.4	5.2	62.5	60.2	2.3	98.8	98.6	0.2	97.3	96.4	0.9
PL	54.3	61.6	-7.3	81.1	72.7	8.4	62.9	59.2	3.7	84.7	87.1	-2.4	91.2	90.8	0.4
PT	42.7	54.0	-11.3	83.6	77.3	6.3	62.6	64.5	-1.9	94.3	94.4	-0.1	82.7	83.6	-0.9
RO	66.3	74.8	-8.5	78.1	71.0	7.1	57.7	57.7	0.0	85.3	89.4	-4.1	86.3	88.4	-2.1
SI	59.7	66.7	-7.0	83.3	77.1	6.2	55.6	56.5	-0.9	99.7	99.6	0.1	98.7	98.6	0.1
SK	60.7	71.0	-10.3	79.9	72.5	7.4	53.1	53.4	-0.3	93.9	94.9	-1.0	96.1	95.8	0.3
FI	66.0	68.2	-2.2	83.7	77.7	6.0	56.2	57.3	-1.1	92.8	95.1	-2.3	93.6	94.5	-0.9
SE	78.9	83.0	-4.1	83.6	79.9	3.7	70.6	70.8	-0.2	87.1	89.9	-2.8	91.4	91.0	0.4
UK	73.2	76.4	-3.2	82.8	79.1	3.7	64.5	64.6	-0.1	97.0	97.5	-0.5	96.0	96.1	-0.1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>65.6</b>	<b>71.1</b>	<b>-5.5</b>	<b>83.1</b>	<b>77.5</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>62.1</b>	<b>61.5</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>93.2</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	<b>92.7</b>	<b>93.0</b>	<b>-0.3</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men

Source: (1) Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_01); (2) Eurostat (hlth\_hlye); (3) Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_08); (4) Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth\_silc\_09)

Table 11.7. Indicators and gaps for the domain of intersecting inequalities

	Migrants/foreign born			Older/younger workers			Single adults with/without children											
	Employment rates of people born in a foreign country (% corresponding population) (1)*			Employment rates of people aged 55–64 (% 55–64 population) (2)			Employment rates of people aged 15–54 (% 15–54 population) (2)			Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and one or more children (% corresponding population) (3)			Employment rates of people living in a household with one adult and no children (% corresponding population) (3)					
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap			
BE	44.5	60.0	-15.5	59.4	68.2	-8.8	33.1	46.0	-12.9	62.4	71.7	-9.3	65.1	77.7	-12.6	56.0	63.0	-7.0
BG	51.6	64.6	-13.0	56.3	61.3	-5.0	42.2	51.1	-8.9	60.7	63.9	-3.2	69.0	62.2	6.8	46.3	55.2	-8.9
CZ	54.6	79.5	-24.9	58.3	74.5	-16.2	38.6	61.5	-22.9	63.5	78.1	-14.6	72.6	92.4	-19.8	60.3	78.5	-18.2
DK	56.8	66.4	-9.6	72.0	76.3	-4.3	55.8	65.9	-10.1	73.4	77.3	-3.9	74.0	84.5	-10.5	65.7	68.5	-2.8
DE	59.2	77.0	-17.8	69.8	78.1	-8.3	54.7	68.3	-13.6	71.0	79.5	-8.5	70.3	81.3	-11.0	73.9	75.1	-1.2
EE	64.4	70.9	-6.5	64.8	69.5	-4.7	61.2	59.5	1.7	65.5	71.7	-6.2	74.5	79.9	-5.4	69.7	68.5	1.2
IE	53.9	64.2	-10.3	55.4	62.3	-6.9	42.7	55.8	-13.1	57.3	63.9	-6.6	46.4	52.2	-5.8	63.5	54.1	9.4
EL	41.6	58.0	-16.4	41.8	60.3	-18.5	26.0	47.6	-21.6	45.7	63.5	-17.8	62.2	71.3	-9.1	43.7	59.2	-15.5
ES	49.9	54.5	-4.6	51.4	61.4	-10.0	35.0	52.4	-17.4	53.7	61.6	-7.9	64.5	75.0	-10.5	62.7	65.7	-3.0
FR	49.5	66.0	-16.5	61.6	68.2	-6.6	41.3	47.3	-6.0	64.6	73.1	-8.5	69.7	82.1	-12.4	61.5	66.8	-5.3
HR	44.5	53.2	-8.7	49.0	59.1	-10.1	27.8	46.7	-18.9	53.1	57.8	-4.7	65.3	62.1	3.2	36.0	47.3	-11.3
IT	49.7	72.3	-22.6	46.7	65.8	-19.1	30.9	50.4	-19.5	51.0	70.2	-19.2	73.1	83.2	-10.1	67.3	75.7	-8.4
CY	67.1	70.9	-3.8	56.1	70.2	-14.1	38.2	63.5	-25.3	63.4	71.8	-8.4	62.7	:	:	61.0	76.8	:
LV	59.6	63.6	-4.0	62.0	64.5	-2.5	52.5	53.2	-0.7	64.1	66.6	-2.5	74.2	72.3	1.9	64.9	62.0	2.9
LT	62.6	67.5	-4.9	61.8	62.1	-0.3	48.5	55.9	-7.4	65.0	63.5	1.5	74.3	84.2	-9.9	57.9	60.1	-2.2
LU	63.4	79.2	-15.8	54.9	66.3	-11.4	34.3	47.2	-12.9	63.9	77.2	-13.3	84.6	83.2	1.4	72.6	84.0	-11.4
HU	59.9	73.8	-13.9	51.7	61.4	-9.7	32.2	42.6	-10.4	57.8	67.1	-9.3	68.5	75.5	-7.0	53.5	64.3	-10.8
MT	48.2	77.2	-29.0	43.8	73.6	-29.8	15.8	51.7	-35.9	51.8	78.7	-26.9	38.4	86.5	-48.1	44.8	63.2	-18.4
NL	57.0	71.2	-14.2	72.6	81.0	-8.4	49.6	68.0	-18.4	75.5	82.5	-7.0	65.5	84.7	-19.2	67.0	70.2	-3.2
AT	59.3	75.2	-15.9	69.2	78.4	-9.2	34.1	52.5	-18.4	74.6	83.1	-8.5	80.1	88.0	-7.9	67.5	76.9	-9.4
PL	51.7	71.1	-19.4	53.1	66.3	-13.2	29.2	49.3	-20.1	59.8	70.4	-10.6	66.4	69.8	-3.4	49.3	61.5	-12.2
PT	64.8	68.0	-3.2	57.9	64.2	-6.3	42.0	51.5	-9.5	62.7	67.8	-5.1	73.4	86.8	-13.4	67.0	65.7	1.3
RO	:	:	:	52.6	66.5	-13.9	32.9	51.2	-18.3	57.4	69.6	-12.2	72.6	80.3	-7.7	49.4	70.2	-20.8
SI	55.2	71.4	-16.2	61.0	67.0	-6.0	25.0	40.7	-15.7	70.1	74.1	-4.0	74.3	84.9	-10.6	56.1	65.6	-9.5
SK	59.7	68.4	-8.7	52.7	66.7	-14.0	33.6	53.6	-20.0	57.3	69.4	-12.1	76.7	80.0	-3.3	49.6	69.8	-20.2
FI	59.1	68.9	-9.8	68.6	70.6	-2.0	59.0	56.2	2.8	70.6	74.3	-3.7	70.2	78.5	-8.3	71.3	64.5	6.8
SE	58.5	67.5	-9.0	75.0	77.4	-2.4	69.6	76.3	-6.7	72.4	75.5	-3.1	73.1	92.9	-19.8	66.6	71.1	-4.5
UK	57.2	76.9	-19.7	66.4	74.7	-8.3	51.3	64.7	-13.4	67.9	76.9	-9.0	57.8	78.4	-20.6	66.7	68.4	-1.7
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>54.1</b>	<b>69.7</b>	<b>-15.6</b>	<b>59.2</b>	<b>69.6</b>	<b>-10.4</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>56.3</b>	<b>-14.7</b>	<b>62.6</b>	<b>72.6</b>	<b>-10.0</b>	<b>66.6</b>	<b>80.7</b>	<b>-14.1</b>	<b>65.0</b>	<b>70.2</b>	<b>-5.2</b>

Note: The gap is calculated as value for women minus value for men; “:” indicates data were not available; \* data for BG from 2013  
Source: (1) Eurostat, LFS (lfsa\_ergacob); (2) Eurostat, LFS, calculations based on micro data; (3) Eurostat, LFS (lfst\_hheredy)



Table 11.8. Indicators and gaps for the domain of violence

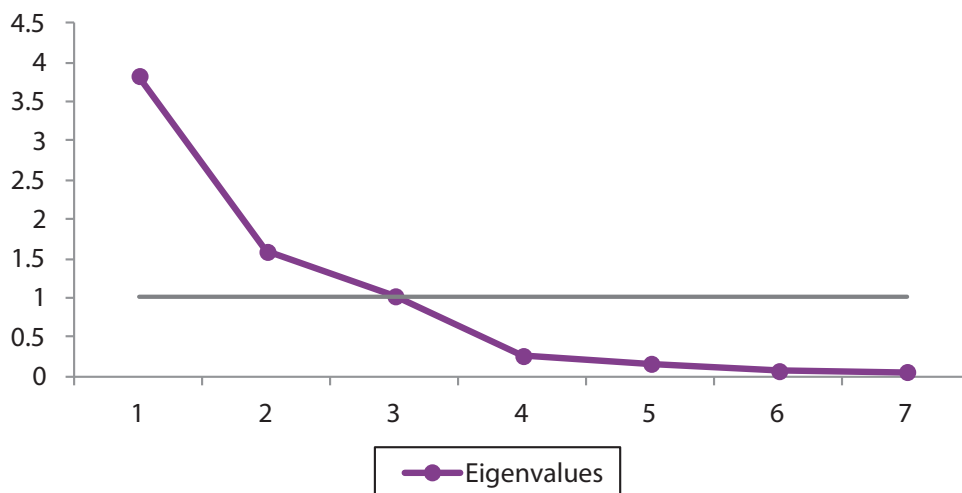
Country	Percentage of women who experienced:						
	Physical violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women population)	Sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women population)	Sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women population)	Psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15 (18–74 women population)	Physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women population)	Sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women population)	Sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview (18–74 women population)
BE	22	9	8	44	5	1	1
BG	22	9	6	39	6	3	1
CZ	19	7	4	47	4	1	0
DK	29	11	11	60	3	1	1
DE	20	8	7	50	3	1	0
EE	19	7	9	50	2	1	1
IE	14	6	5	31	3	1	0
EL	18	5	1	33	5	2	1
ES	12	4	3	33	1	1	0
FR	25	9	9	47	5	1	1
HR	12	3	3	42	3	0	0
IT	17	7	5	38	5	4	2
CY	14	4	2	39	3	1	0
LV	31	9	7	60	5	1	1
LT	24	4	5	51	4	0	0
LU	21	9	8	49	3	1	1
HU	19	7	3	49	5	2	1
MT	13	6	5	37	3	1	1
NL	22	11	12	50	4	2	2
AT	12	6	4	38	2	1	1
PL	12	4	2	37	2	1	0
PT	18	3	1	36	4	1	0
RO	23	5	2	39	6	2	0
SI	12	4	4	34	2	0	0
SK	22	8	4	48	6	2	1
FI	27	11	11	53	4	1	2
SE	24	10	12	51	3	2	1
UK	28	10	7	46	4	1	1
<b>EU-28</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>

## Annex 12: Principal component analysis for the components measuring violence

Violence	Disclosed violence against women since the age of 15	Disclosed violence against women over the 12 months prior to interview
Physical violence by a partner since the age of 15	0.4440	0.0865
Sexual violence by a partner since the age of 15	0.4724	0.1360
Sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15	0.5208	- 0.0892
Psychological violence by a partner since the age of 15	0.5245	- 0.1471
Physical violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	- 0.0144	0.5591
Sexual violence by a partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	- 0.0629	0.6759
Sexual violence by a non-partner in the 12 months prior to the interview	0.1710	0.4183

% of variance explained	0.77
KMO	0.67

Screplot: Violence





## Annex 13: Correlation matrix for the sub-index of violence against women

	P_p_15_r	S_p_15_r	Psy_all_P_15_r	S_np_15_r	P_P_12	S_P_12	S_np_12_r	15+	12	sub-index
P_p_15_r	-									
S_p_15_r	0.76***	-								
Psy_all_P_15_r	0.78***	0.69***	-							
S_np_15_r	0.61***	0.87***	0.69***	-						
P_P_12	0.56***	0.32*	0.19	-0.02	-					
S_P_12	0.23	0.41**	0.01	0.16	0.62***	-				
S_np_12_r	0.27	0.59***	0.29	0.55***	0.28	0.67***	-			
15+	0.88***	0.93***	0.88***	0.89***	0.29	0.24	0.48***	-		
12	0.45**	0.53***	0.20	0.25	0.81***	0.91***	0.76***	0.41**	-	
sub-index	0.81***	0.88***	0.68***	0.71***	0.59***	0.64***	0.73***	0.86***	0.79***	-

Level of significance for N=28: \*\*\* p<0.01; \*\*p<0.05; \* p<0.10



## Annex 14: Distribution of the factors used to contextualise the composite indicator of violence by Member States in relation to the EU-28 average

	Acceptability towards violence against women (*)	Awareness of cases of domestic violence in social network (*)	Trust in justice (**)	Trust in the police (**)
Member States with higher percentage than the EU overall	BE, CZ, EE, IT, LV, LT, AT, PL, PT, RO, SK	BE, DK, EE, EL, FR, HR, CY, LV, LT, LU, NL, PL, RO, SI, FI, SE, UK	DK, DE, EE, CY, LU, HU, NL, AT, FI, SE, UK	DK, DE, EE, ES, LU, MT, NL, AT, FI, SE, UK
Member States with the percentage close to the EU overall	ES, HU	HU, MT, SK	FR	BE, IE, FR
Member States with lower percentage than the EU overall	BG, DK, DE, IE, EL, FR, HR, CY, LU, MT, NL, SI, FI, SE, UK	BG, CZ, DE, IE, ES, IT, AT, PT	BE, BG, CZ, IE, EL, ES, HR, IT, LV, LT, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK	BG, CZ, EL, HR, IT, CY, LV, LT, HU, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK

Source: (\*)Eurobarometer 73.2 (344), European Commission (2012b), ; (\*\*) Eurobarometer 74.2, European Commission, (2013e). All data refer to 2010.  
 Note: Acceptability: percentage of the population finding domestic violence acceptable in all or in certain circumstances (QC5); awareness: percentage of the population who know a woman who has been a victim of, or anybody who has subjected a woman to any form of domestic violence in their circle of family and friends, their immediate area/neighbourhood and at their work or place of study (QC11, QC12); trust in justice: percentage of citizens who tend to trust in justice (Q12A); trust in police: percentage of citizens who tend to trust in police (Q12A); higher percentage than the EU overall means at least 5 % higher than EU average; percentage close to the EU overall means within 5 % on either side of the EU percentage; lower percentage than the EU overall means at least 5 % lower than EU average

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