



**COUNCIL OF
THE EUROPEAN UNION**

Brussels, 18 April 2012

**8905/12
ADD 2**

**FREMP 61
JAI 265
COHOM 81
JUSTCIV 144
EJUSTICE 31
DROIPEN 45
COPEN 91
JAIEX 20
PI 44
DRS 63
SOC 294
CULT 63**

COVER NOTE

from:	Secretary-General of the European Commission, signed by Mr Jordi AYET PUIGARNAU, Director
date of receipt:	18 April 2012
to:	Mr Uwe CORSEPIUS, Secretary-General of the Council of the European Union

No Cion doc.:	SWD(2012) 85 final
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Subject:	COMMISSION STAFF WORKING DOCUMENT Progress on equality between women and men in 2011 <i>Accompanying the document</i> Report from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions 2011 Report on the application of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights
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Delegations will find attached Commission document SWD(2012) 85 final.

Encl.: SWD(2012) 85 final



EUROPEAN COMMISSION

Brussels, 16.4.2012
SWD(2012) 85 final

COMMISSION STAFF WORKING DOCUMENT

Progress on equality between women and men in 2011

Accompanying the document

Report from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions

2011 Report on the application of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights

{COM(2012) 169 final}
{SWD(2012) 84 final}

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Part I: Progress on equality between women and men in 2011

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2011, hit by a financial, economic and social crisis, the everyday lives of many European citizens, men and women, have been profoundly changed and the European Union is still facing one of its greatest challenges. The crisis and the responses to the crisis have had different impacts on women and men. As there is high pressure to fight the economic downturn, progress towards gender equality risks being considered as an objective that can be postponed. However, the equal treatment of women and men should be understood as contributing to economic success.

The present Report on progress on equality between women and men is a part of the Strategy for equality between women and men (2010-2015)¹. For the first time, this year it is annexed to the Communication on the Application of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights. It provides an overview of the performance and activities organised at EU level in 2011 in the five areas of the Strategy namely: equal economic independence; equal pay for equal work and work of equal value; equality in decision-making; dignity, integrity and ending gender-based violence, and gender equality in external action policy. The following dimensions are emphasised:

- the economic and business case for gender equality,
- the efforts made to promote gender equality in the follow-up to the Europe 2020 strategy,
- the consequences of the crisis and recovery measures for women and gender equality,
- the advantage of tackling the gender pay gap at EU level, both for economic growth and meeting poverty targets,
- the economic case for promoting a balanced representation of women and men in economical decision-making,
- the human and economic costs of violence,
- the EU's clear commitment to gender equality when dealing with third countries and international organisations.

In what follows, these aspects are illustrated by examples of actions carried out at EU level and by Member States individually. The report also provides the most recent EU comparable statistics enabling an overview of the situation for women and men, the changes occurring over time, and remaining gender gaps in the European Union.

2. EQUAL ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE

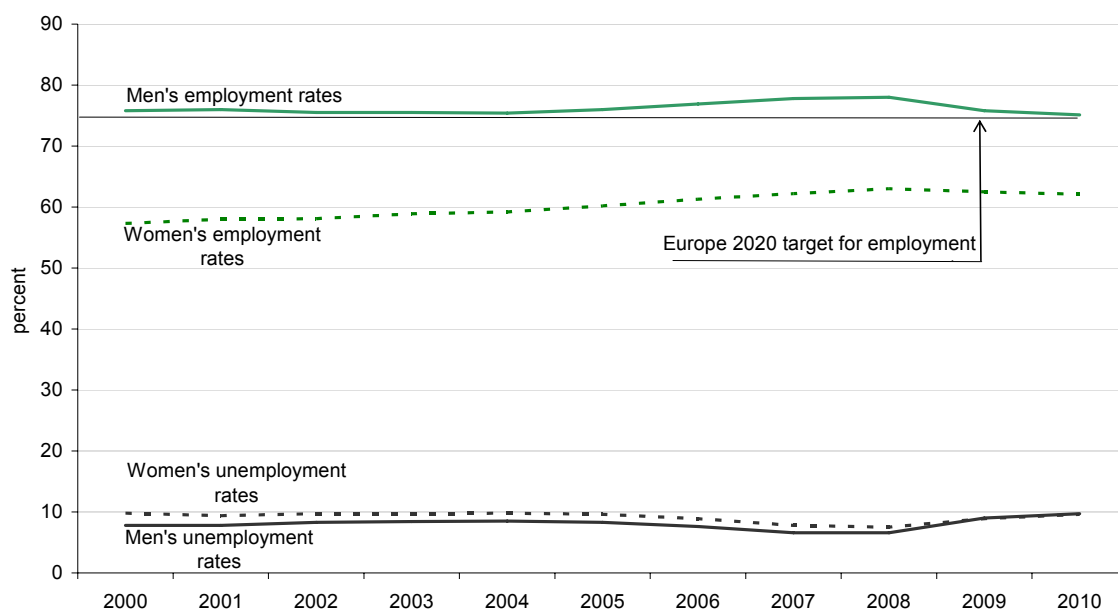
With an employment rate reaching 75.1% for men and 62.1% for women² (Figure 1), it is broadly agreed that the EU can only reach the Europe 2020 headline target (75% of the population aged 20-64 should be employed by 2020) if there is a clear commitment to gender

¹ COM(2010) 491 final.

² Eurostat 2010.

equality. Twelve EU Member States³ have already reached the target which has been set for male employment; however, when it comes to women, the vast majority of Member States have still not reached the 75% target.

Figure 1: employment and unemployment rates (women and men aged 20-64) in EU Member States – 2000-2010



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

Moreover, if employment is measured in full-time equivalent⁴, figures show that, in several countries, less than half of the female workforce is employed. The availability of childcare services seems to play an important role (Figure 2) in determining these figures.

³ Sweden, Denmark, Netherlands, Germany, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Portugal, UK, Greece.

⁴ Eurostat defines Full Time Equivalent (FTE) as a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker. A full-time person is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.

Figure 2: Female employment and coverage of childcare services



Source: EU-silc 2009, LFS 2010

Employment rates of migrant women are not only substantially lower than the average employment rate, but are also lower than the employment rates of migrant men. The latter is what motivated the Commission, in its European Agenda for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals, to call on Member States to address the specific needs of migrant women, promote their participation in the labour market and strengthen their economic independence⁵.

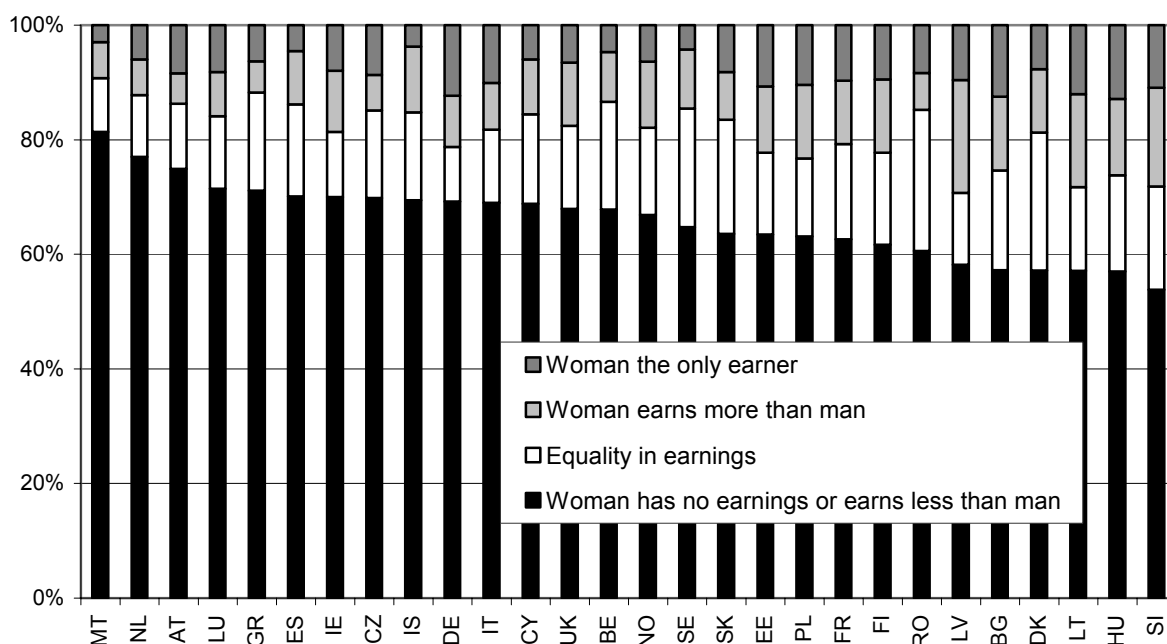
2.1. Second earners

In 2011, the EU launched the **first European Semester** and adopted its first Annual Growth Survey⁶, anchored in the Europe 2020 Strategy. It highlighted the worryingly low labour market participation rate of **second earners** (the spouse who earns less in two-earner couples). Indeed, in many Member States, financial disincentives such as tax and benefit systems combined with excessive childcare costs make it more attractive for the spouse with relatively lower earnings (who tend in general to be women, as can be seen in Figure 3) to choose between either inactivity or limited activity. The labour supply of spouses is interconnected and married women's decision to enter the labour market is often influenced by the total income of the household. As a result, women may enter or leave the workforce depending on family income needs. They are consequently more sensitive to policies affecting their participation in the labour market than policies addressing hours of work.

⁵ COM(2011) 455 final: European Agenda for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals.

⁶ COM(2011)11 final.

**Figure 3: Secondary and primary earners in Europe.
Percentage distribution of couples by share of female earnings, 2009***



* Woman earns less/more than man if her income is below 45% / above 55% of the joint income in the couple. Only couples with at least one working partner are considered. Couples in which at least one partner is self-employed or retired are excluded. Source: Bettio and Verashchagina, University of Siena, using EU-SILC 2009, income data for 2008.

On 7 June 2011, in the context of the Europe 2020 Strategy, the Commission made country-specific suggestions for Council recommendations⁷. The Commission, when addressing Member States, placed the emphasis on taking the necessary measures in order to:

- promote a reconciliation of work and private life by providing available and affordable childcare services,
- enable access to more flexible working arrangements,
- establish adequate tax and benefit systems in order to enhance female participation rates.

The Commission took stock of the progress made when implementing country specific recommendations, first at EU level in the Annual Growth Survey 2012 adopted in November 2011⁸, and then for each Member State in the set of guidelines for next year.

⁷ In accordance with Article 121 and 148 of the TFEU.

⁸ COM(2011) 815 final

2.2. Pensions

When pension systems were initially developed, men spent a lifetime in the labour market and women mostly stayed home. The resulting income inequality in pensions was addressed by allowing wives to draw on their husbands' contributions. Over recent decades, women have entered the labour market in great numbers. However, inequalities remain and those have an impact on the adequacy of their pensions. Women are more likely than men to be outside the labour market at any age, to work part-time or under atypical contracts. Career breaks often lead to a reduction in lifetime earnings¹⁰ and on average women earn less than men. For all these reasons, women pensioners typically have lower pension benefits than male pensioners.

*According to a **German study**⁹ the gender pension gap in Germany is 59.6%, meaning that women receive on average 59.6% less individual pensions than men (i.e. excluding derived entitlements like survivor's pension). For the EU-15 the same study reveals a gap ranging between 16.8% and 46.4% (including derived entitlements).*

Demographic changes in Europe (an ageing population and a shrinking working population) and the financial and economic crises have created a major challenge for the future of pension systems. An important trend in recent pension reforms in Member States is to try and improve the financial sustainability of pensions systems by tightening the link between contributions and benefits in earnings-related pension schemes. This is done mainly through the lengthening of contribution periods required to qualify for a full pension and by changing the reference for the calculation of benefits from "best years" to lifetime earnings. As a consequence, pension benefits will increasingly depend upon the workers' entire career. In parallel, the gender pay gap leads to negative consequences on the reference salary generally used when the statutory pension is calculated. This impedes women from contributing to complementary retirement savings.

2.3. Reconciliation between work and private life.

Reconciling work, family and private life is still a great challenge for many European women. The labour market participation of mothers is 12.1 percentage points lower than that of women without children, while the rate for fathers is 8.7 percentage points higher than that for men without children. There was limited progress in the negotiations following the proposal for a Directive amending Directive 92/85/EEC (**Pregnant Workers Directive**). The European Parliament, in its first reading report adopted in 2010, proposed – among other things – to raise the length of maternity leave up to 20 fully paid weeks and to introduce a two weeks fully paid paternity leave. This has brought many Member States to oppose the proposal. The Council has not yet adopted its first reading position.

⁹ *Gender Pension Gap. Developing an indicator measuring fair income opportunities for women and men. German Federal Ministry for Families, Elderly, Women and Youth, January 2012.*

¹⁰ Projections carried out by DG ECFIN estimated that the effect of a three-year long career break for childcare on pension benefits is much larger than the effect of a three-year long unemployment spell in a few Member States.

Reconciliation between work and care obligations not only concerns parents of small children. Challenges are noticeable through the life-cycle. In some Member States, elderly workers retire earlier so as to help their adult children in raising their families. Women with grandchildren and elderly relatives therefore require special attention.

The Council conclusions on the "reconciliation of work and family life as a precondition for equal participation in the labour market"¹¹ were adopted under the Polish Presidency, in the framework of the Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. In this context, a report¹² prepared by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) underlines that increases in childcare services and fathers' take-up of parental leave have a positive bearing on the labour supply for main carers, who are usually women. Both measures promote a better share of gender-equal unpaid care work. However, changes in the labour-market (from industry to services) and short-term macroeconomic developments may increase the share of female primary earners.

In 2011, Bulgaria passed a law amending the Labour Code. The law foresees equal rights and opportunities for distance workers and gives a legal definition of distance work.

The Netherlands introduced a quality mark to reward companies which are ahead in the implementation of flexible work arrangements.

3. EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK AND WORK OF EQUAL VALUE

The pay gap between women and men is slowly narrowing but remains high. Figure 4 shows that on average, women earn 16.4%¹³ less than men for every hour worked with considerable variations among Member States. The gender pay gap (GPG) is caused by multiple factors¹⁴, such as labour market segregation and differences in work patterns. Differences in educational choices and biased evaluation and pay systems also play a role.

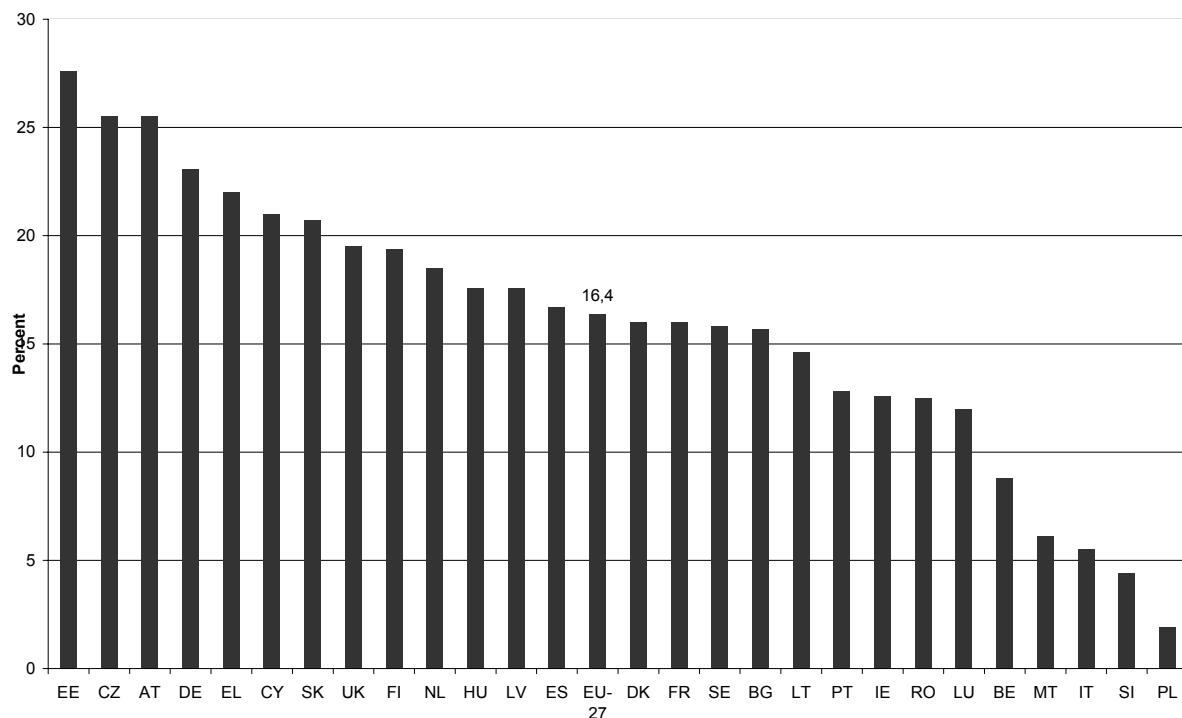
¹¹ Annexed to Council conclusions (7166/11).

¹² EIGE 2011: Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action: Women and the Economy.

¹³ Eurostat 2010.

¹⁴ Information on the causes of the gender pay gap is available in the Communication "Tackling the pay gap between women and men" (COM(2007) 424 final) or on the European Commission website: <http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap>.

**Figure 4: Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form
in EU Member States - 2010**



Source: Eurostat. The unadjusted Gender Pay Gap (GPG) represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. EE and EL: data from 2008. EU27, BE, IE, ES, FR, IT, CY, AT: provisional data.

The EU-wide information campaign on the GPG launched in March 2009 was continued throughout 2011. Building on previous achievements, results and the experience gained during the two previous years of implementation, the current phase of the campaign further develops awareness-raising activities. The first European Equal Pay Day took place on 5 March 2011. The date marked the 64 days women had to work more in 2010 to earn a man's average annual pay. The European Equal Pay Day will be held each year and the date will change according to the latest GPG figure. In 2012, Equal Pay Day fell on 2 March. The European Commission is planning a two-year communication campaign aimed at attracting and retaining more women in scientific careers, at showing them that they can have a successful career and that science can benefit from a higher participation of women.

In Austria, since 1 March 2011 companies are obliged to present an income report. Since 1 January 2011 there is an obligation to indicate the minimum wage and, where appropriate, the possibility of overpayment in job announcements. A consequence of contravening these regulations is a first warning fine of up to 360 €. A Salary Calculator¹⁵ was made available to the public on the website of the minister of women and civil service to compare the salary for women and men on average.

4. EQUALITY IN DECISION-MAKING

The equal participation of women and men in decision-making processes and positions is a prerequisite for the advancement of women and the achievement of substantive gender equality. It is recognised as a necessary basis for effective democracy and good governance in all fields. Even though progress has been made, the underrepresentation of women continues

¹⁵ www.gehaltsrechner.gv.at

to be an area of concern in many EU Member States. The situation varies between them and is very often worse in the corporate world.

4.1. More women on corporate boards as an economic and business imperative

In January 2012, only 13.7% of board seats of EU Member States' largest publicly listed companies¹⁶ were filled by women (Figure 5). The pace of progress has been slow, though there has been an improvement of 1.9 percentage points compared to the EU average in 2010. The underrepresentation of women in leadership positions constitutes an untapped potential source of highly qualified human resources as evidenced by the discrepancy between the high number of female graduates and their absence from top-level positions. The Europe 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth leans on knowledge, competences and innovations, i.e. human capital. One of the ways of improving Europe's competitiveness is the equal representation of women and men in economic decision-making positions, which contributes to a more productive and innovative working environment and helps improve performance. In addition, there is an increasing body of research showing that gender diversity pays off and that there is a positive correlation between women in leadership and business performance¹⁷.

Moreover, a large majority of European citizens (88%) believe that, given that women are equally competent, they should be equally represented in positions of leadership and 75% are in favour of legislation that would ensure a more balanced representation between women and men (under the condition that qualification is taken into account without automatically favoring one of either gender)¹⁸.

2011 was an important year for gender equality in corporate boardrooms. **Vice-President Reding**, Commissioner for Justice, Fundamental Rights and Citizenship challenged business leaders to increase women's presence on corporate boards by self-regulation. The goal is 30% women on the boards of the major European companies in 2015 and 40% by 2020. All EU publicly listed companies were asked to sign the "Women on the Board Pledge for Europe"¹⁹ and to develop their own ways of getting more women into top jobs. A number of **ministers** and organisations supported this call for action, encouraging national listed companies to make more efforts to increase women's representation on their boards by signing the Pledge. The **European Parliament** supported the Commission's approach through a resolution adopted in July 2011²⁰. In addition, four EU Member States (France, the Netherlands, Italy and Belgium) have adopted binding measures to improve the situation. Other Member States have encouraged self-regulatory measures.

¹⁶ Source: European Commission database on women and men in decision-making. The data on companies cover the largest (by market capitalization) nationally registered constituents of the blue-chip index maintained by the stock exchange in each country. In countries with unitary (one-tier) systems, the board of directors is counted (including non-executive and executive members). In countries with two-tier systems, only the supervisory board is counted.

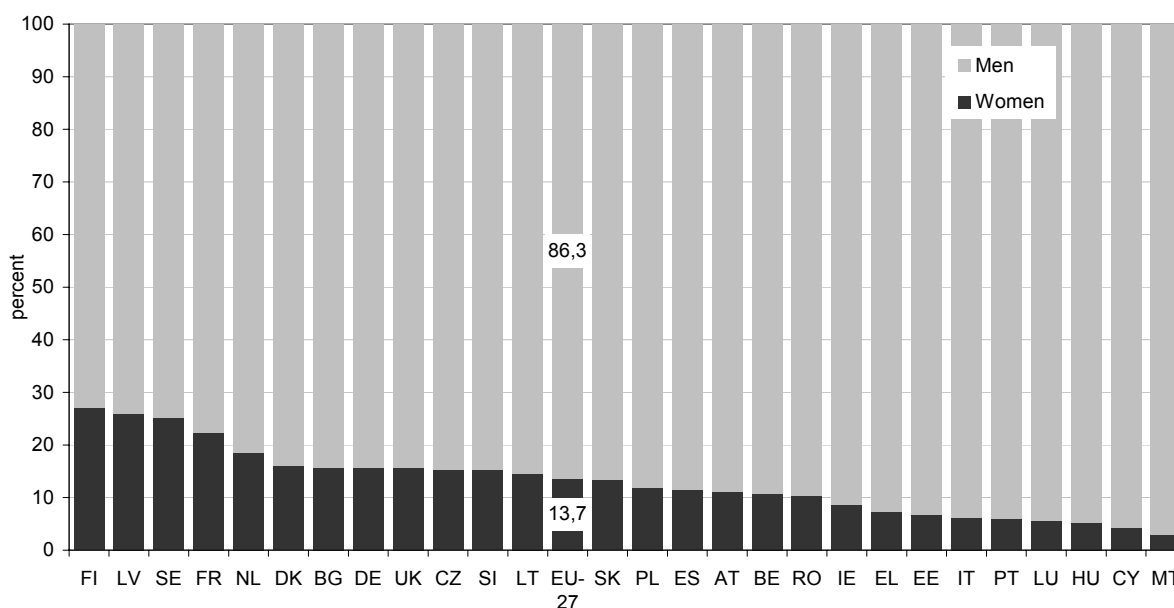
¹⁷ Catalyst, McKinsey & Company, Lord Davies report, etc.

¹⁸ Special Eurobarometer 376 – Women in decision-making positions, September 2011.

¹⁹ Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/commission_2010-2014/reding/womenpledge.

²⁰ European Parliament resolution of 6 July 2011 on women and business leadership (2010/2115(INI)).

Figure 5: Share of women and men members of the highest decision-making body of the largest publicly listed companies, 2012



Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in January 2012. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

In March 2012, the Commission published a report²¹ showing that, one year after the call to action, limited progress had been made towards increasing the number of women on company boards. To identify appropriate measures for addressing the persistent lack of gender diversity in boardrooms of listed companies in Europe, the Commission launched a public consultation²² which will serve to gather views on possible action at EU level, including legislative measures, to redress the gender imbalance on company boards. The public consultation will run until 28 May 2012. Following this input, the Commission will take a decision on further action later in 2012.

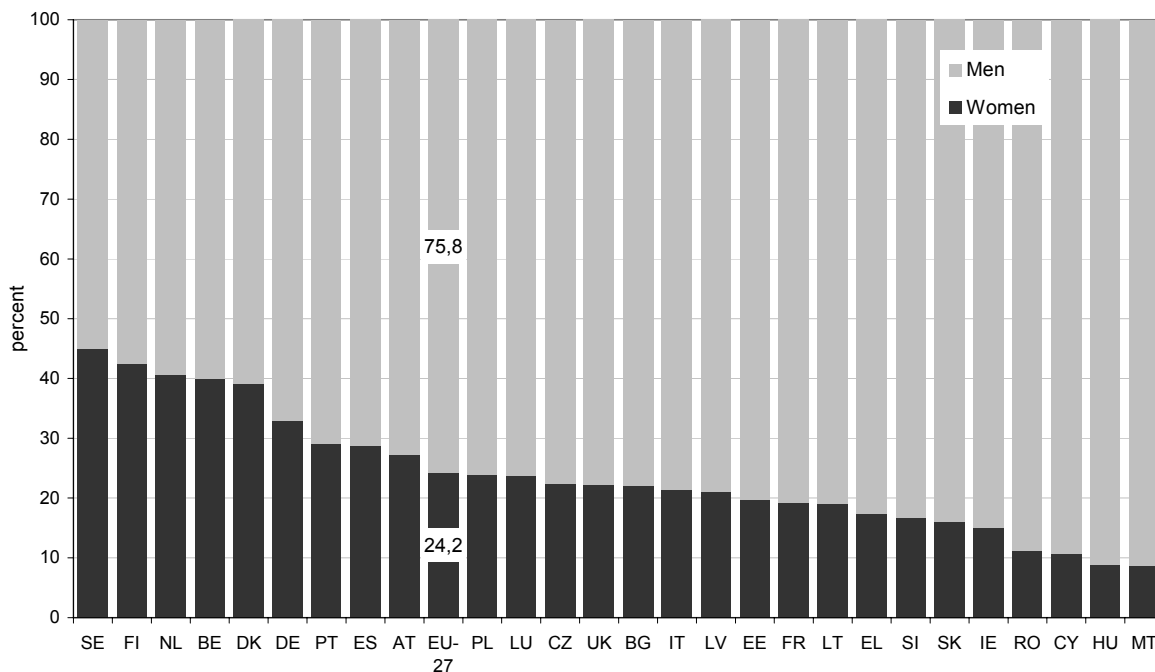
4.2. Gender balance in political decision-making: more progress is needed

Data shows that there has been progress made towards better gender balance in **parliaments** at European and national levels. The **European Parliament** has a better gender composition (35% women and 65% men) than national and regional parliaments (24% and 32% women respectively).

²¹ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/women-on-boards_en.pdf

²² http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/gender-equality/opinion/120528_en.htm

Figure 6: Women and men in national Parliaments (single/lower houses), 2011



Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in October 2011.

From 2005 to 2011, the proportion of women members in the **Lower/Single houses of national parliaments** around the EU has risen steadily, albeit slowly, from 22% to just under 25%. Only **Belgium, the Netherlands, Finland** and **Sweden** have more than 40% of women in their parliaments and 19 Member States still have less than the critical mass of 30% of women in their parliaments (Figure 6). Positive developments in 2011 include the great progress made in **Slovenia**, where women's representation doubled from around 16% to 32% and in **Poland** where women now account for around 24% of parliamentarians (+ 4 percentage points). Part of the progress can be pointed to quota legislation adopted in both countries and strong campaigning from women's organisations.

There has been an improvement in the gender composition of EU Member States **governments** over time, but the pace of change remains slow in many countries. On average, the share of women senior ministers²³ is only around 24%²⁴.

Inside the EU, only **Sweden** achieved parity in government. **Austria** and **Finland** have more than 40% women senior ministers. By contrast, the figure is under 10% in the governments of **Estonia, Slovenia, Czech Republic** and **Greece**. In **Hungary**, there are no female senior ministers in the government.

*The most recent quota law for gender balance in politics is from **Poland**. It was passed in January 2011 and stipulates that women candidates should make up at least 35% of all electoral lists. The sanction for not complying with this requirement is a refusal from the list. The women's movement played a crucial role in getting the law passed.*

²³ Members of the government who have a seat in the Cabinet or Council of Ministers.

²⁴ See figures in part II.

5. DIGNITY, INTEGRITY AND ENDING GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

5.1. Ending gender-based violence

Gender-based violence is a major violation of fundamental rights and entails a high cost for society. The fact that there is no comparable data on violence against women in the different Member States increases the difficulty of addressing this phenomenon. Voices have been raised to warn against the potential threat the financial crisis represents as it may sweep away much of the progress achieved in terms of public expenditure for supporting victims of violence.

An important step towards the objective of ending gender-based violence was the adoption on 18 May 2011 of a package of measures aimed at strengthening the rights of victims of crime. The package consists of a proposal for a horizontal Directive establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime²⁵, a proposal for a

*Member States are taking action against violence against women (VAW). In **France**, the third action plan against VAW for the first time condemns gender-based workplace violence, rape and sexual assault and the use of prostitution. Many countries have also initiated campaigns: in **Cyprus**, 365 posters depicting all forms of VAW were showed; **Denmark**, inspired by **Spain**, introduced a film with well-known Danish football players spreading the message of eliminating VAW; the **Greek** campaign focused on a telephone line for victims; the slogan of the **Spanish** campaign was "Don't skip the signals. Choose life".*

Regulation on the mutual recognition of civil law protection measures²⁶ (complementing the Directive on the European Protection Order) and a Communication setting out the Commission's position on actions in relation to victims of crime.

This is a general and comprehensive reform package which applies to all victims; including women. It provides a range of measures that should be put in place to ensure that victims receive proper treatment from the moment they report a crime to the final outcome of criminal proceedings. A number of measures and provisions will have a positive impact, especially on women suffering from different forms of violent and sexual crime.

For example, the proposal for a Directive puts in place a mechanism based on an individual need assessment to determine whether a victim is in a situation of specific vulnerability and needs special protection. Typically, women who are victims of domestic and sexual violence will be considered vulnerable because of the nature of the crime they have suffered or their relationship to / dependence on the offender. In those cases special protection measures will be available during their participation in criminal proceedings to ease their difficulties during interviews, hearings and trial. Negotiations between the co-legislators are ongoing.

Another measure that will benefit many women is the mutual recognition of protection measures, for example measures which aim to protect a person from harassment, stalking and other forms of indirect coercion. It is important that protection measures issued in one Member State can be easily and speedily be recognised in another Member State. In this way, women do not lose their protection from a violent partner if they move or travel and they don't have to go through heavy formalities. To this end, the proposal for a Regulation relating to the mutual recognition of civil law protection measures will complete the proposal for a Directive on the mutual recognition of criminal law protection measures. Negotiations on the proposal for a Regulation have started under the Polish Presidency and will continue under the Danish Presidency.

²⁵ COM(2011) 275 final

²⁶ COM(2011) 276 final

A Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence²⁷ was adopted on 7 April 2011 in the framework of the Council of Europe. The Convention:

- introduces a comprehensive legal framework to prevent and criminalise all forms of violence against women, to protect victims and to punish perpetrators;
- promotes an integrated approach to violence prevention and victims' protection based on targeted measures according to the type of violence and specific needs along with the involvement and cooperation of all the relevant actors to create a safety net around the victim provided by specifically trained professionals;
- urges the justice system to be more responsive.

5.2. Health

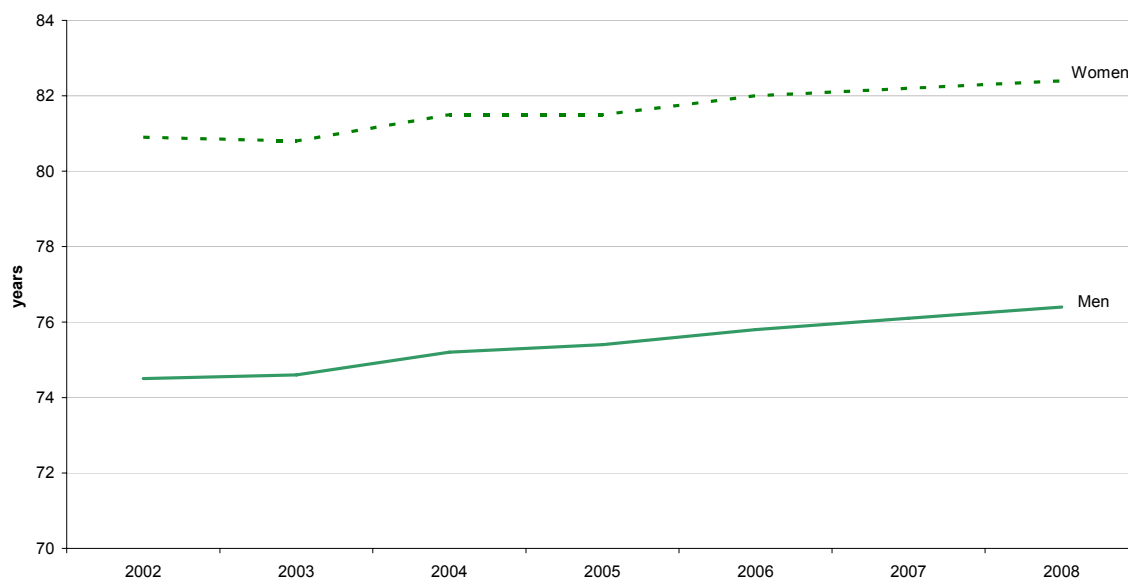
Following the 2010 Women's Health report²⁸, the Commission presented a Men's Health report in 2011²⁹ showing that both men and women's perspectives should be taken into account in developing health policy. Although men's overall life expectancy in Europe as a whole is increasing (Figure 7), some Member States have seen a reversal of this trend in the past decade. Life expectancy is lower for men than for women across the EU, a difference that ranges from 11.2 years for Lithuania to 4.1 years in Sweden. A key message of the report is that there are high levels of premature morbidity and mortality in men, due to lifestyle choices and risk-taking behaviours. In all Member States, men who live in poor material and social conditions are likely to eat less healthily, exercise less, be overweight or obese, drink more alcoholic beverages and be more likely to smoke, engage in substance abuse (or drug abuse) and have more high-risk sexual behaviour than women. The report also concludes that a man's poorer knowledge and awareness of health issues underlines the need for targeted health information aimed at men.

²⁷ Available at: <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/EN/Treaties/HTML/DomesticViolence.htm>.

²⁸ European Commission 2010, "Data and information on women's health in the EU".

²⁹ "The State of Men's Health in Europe", European Union, 2011.

Figure 7: Life expectancy at birth in EU Member States - 2009



Source: Eurostat

6. GENDER EQUALITY IN EXTERNAL ACTIONS

The Gender Inequality Index was designed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to show the loss in human development due to inequality between women and men. It measures women's disadvantages in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market³⁰. It shows that Norway, Australia and New Zealand have achieved the highest degree of gender equality and that **Ireland, The Netherlands, Sweden and Germany** are among the ten countries that score highest in the world. Indeed, the EU has been at the forefront of gender equality policy and has also contributed to promoting gender equality beyond its borders.

In January 2011, the **Human Rights and Democracy Department** of the European External Action Service (EEAS) was established. The Department strives for consistency between internal and external policies. This is of particular relevance in the field of human rights and as regards the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women. It shows how EU achievements related to gender equality and women's empowerment have a global dimension. Specific gender focus points have been selected in more than seventy EU-delegations around the world and a growing number of delegations in partner countries are engaging in dialogue with a strong gender equality component. For instance, in India, 40% of the Multiannual Indicative Programme is allocated to education with a strong gender equality component. The EU continues to actively promote women's human rights through human rights dialogues and consultations with partner countries, such as the **African Union, the EU candidate countries, Canada, China, Indonesia, Japan, the Republic of Moldova, New Zealand, South Africa, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan**.

³⁰

The index excludes aspects of decision-making in politics, information on employment, additional burdens (care and housekeeping), asset ownership and VAW.

Implementing the *EU Guidelines on Violence against Women and Girls and Combating All Forms of Discrimination against them*³¹ is an important part EU Delegations' mission. By the end of 2010, more than 130 delegations had reported on the guidelines, a vast majority having identified concrete actions to be implemented in their countries of residence. The EEAS continues to contribute to their implementation through the thematic European Instrument for Democracy and Human Rights (EIDHR) programme. From October 2011 until January 2012, the EEAS will launch regional campaigns about women's participation in politics (North Africa and Middle East) and forced/early marriages (Asia).

Gender Equality is essential for growth and poverty reduction and is key to reaching the Millennium Development Goals. This is why the EU development policy contains a strong commitment to accelerating progress in this important area. For the period 2007 - 2013, the EU external co-operation in the field of gender equality and women empowerment is financed not only - as cross cutting issues - through geographical instruments (European Development Fund, Development Cooperation Instrument and European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument) at national and regional level but also by thematic instruments, such as the "Investing in People" programme and the "Instrument for Democracy and Human Rights". The focus is on gender equality and women empowerment, and the aim is to achieve equal rights (political, economic, employment, social and cultural right) for all; equal access to and control over resources for women and men; equal opportunities to achieve political and economic influence for women and men. The first report on the implementation of the Action Plan on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment³² was published in 2011. It gives a clear idea of what is being done in partner countries by the EU Delegations and the Member States to promote gender equality and women's empowerment.

The priority theme of the 55th session (2011) chosen by the **United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (CSW)** was "*Access and participation of women and girls to education, training, science and technology, including for the promotion of women's equal access to full employment and decent work*" and conclusions³³ were agreed that reflect the EU gender equality *acquis*.

7. HORIZONTAL ISSUES

The Strategy for Equality between women and men commits the Commission to implementing gender mainstreaming as an integral part its policy making. It stipulates that the next EU Multiannual Financial Framework (MFF) will provide the support necessary to implement the actions foreseen in the Strategy after 2013. In May 2011, the Advisory Committee on equal opportunities between women and men adopted an opinion on key recommendations for the future funding programmes covering the period of 2014-2020.

The Commission has adopted legislative proposals for the future budget programs. Gender equality is included in the Rights and Citizenship programme³⁴. The objective of this program is to promote and protect the rights of persons and in particular the principles of non-discrimination and equality between women and men. The proposal will be discussed with the Council and with the European Parliament in 2012.

³¹ General Affairs Council of 8 December 2008.

³² <http://capacity4dev.ec.europa.eu/topic/gender>

³³ Available at: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw55/agreed_conclusions/AC_CSW55_E.pdf.

³⁴ COM(2011)758

PART II: GRAPHS AND TABLES

This part gives an overview of the situation of women and men, its evolution over time, and remaining gender gaps in the European Union.

Given the importance of a broad approach to gender equality, indicators have been chosen according to two main criteria: their relevance in covering aspects of the lives of women and men, and the availability of comparable and reliable data. Some indicators have been developed in the framework of the annual review of the Beijing Platform for Action and others by the Commission for monitoring progress in different policy areas, such as employment, social inclusion, education and research. The Europe 2020 indicators are also proposed where sex disaggregated statistics are available. If nothing else is mentioned, the source of the data is Eurostat.

1. GRAPHS

1.1. Europe 2020 indicators

Figure 8 – Employment rates (women and men aged 20-64) in EU Member States – 2010

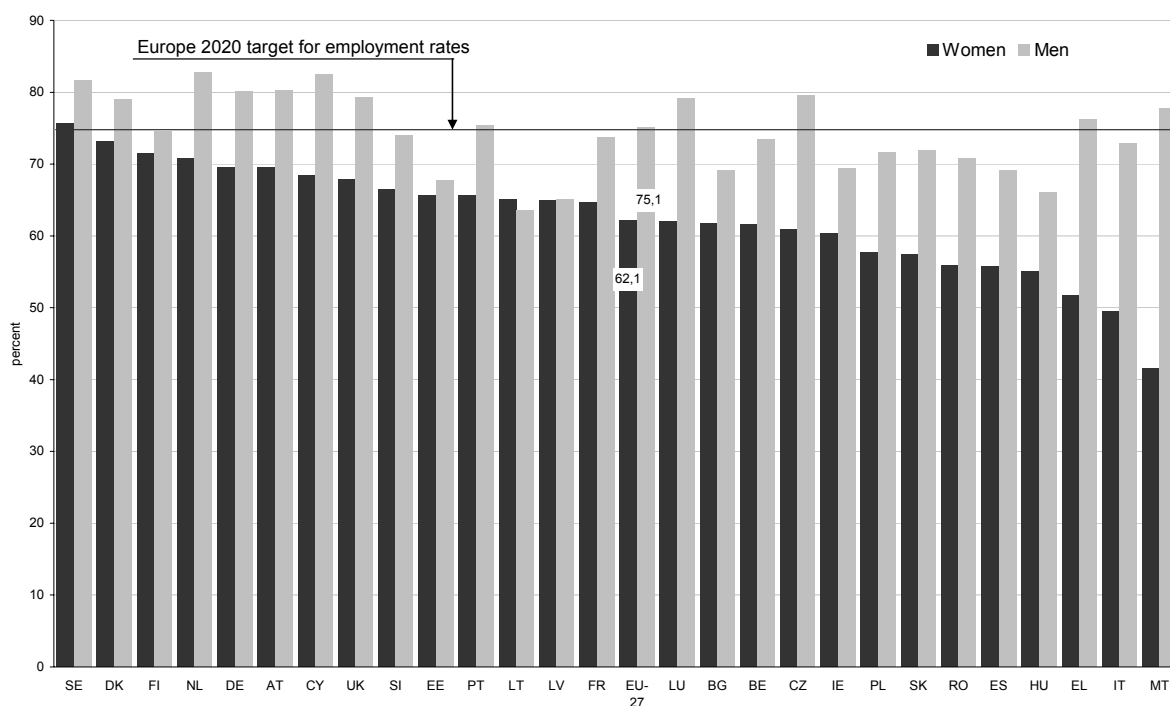


Figure 9 – Early leavers from education and training in EU Member States – 2010
(Percentage of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training)

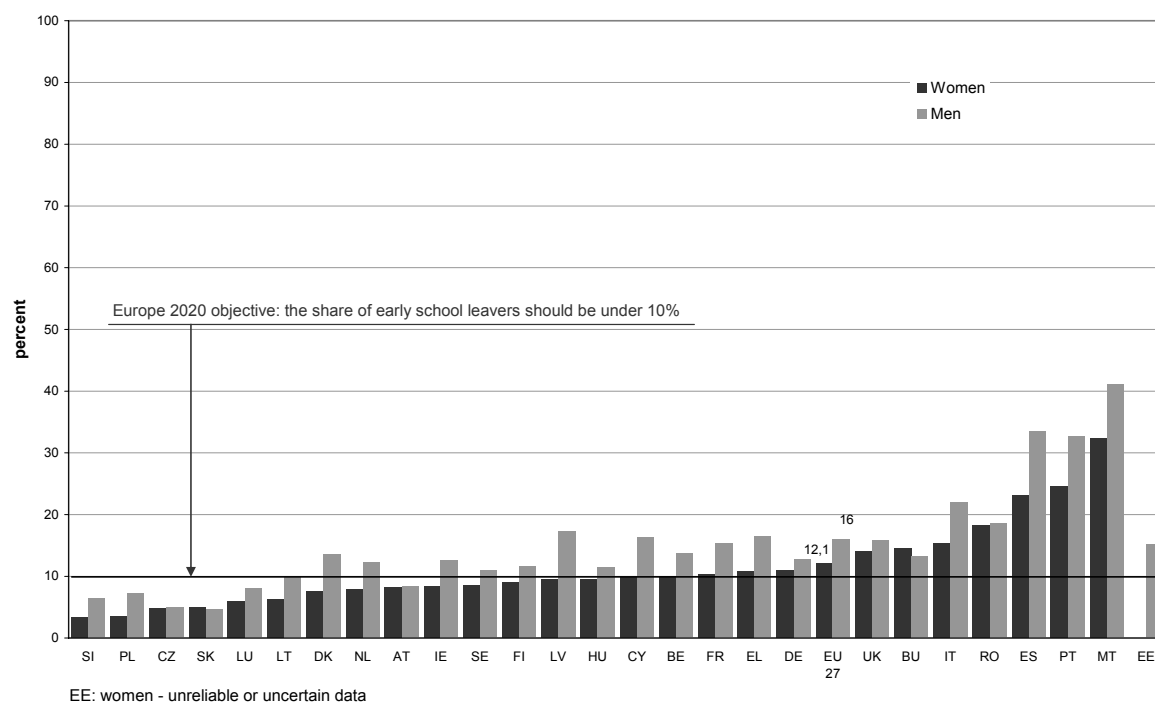


Figure 10 – Tertiary educational attainment by sex, age group 30-34 – 2010

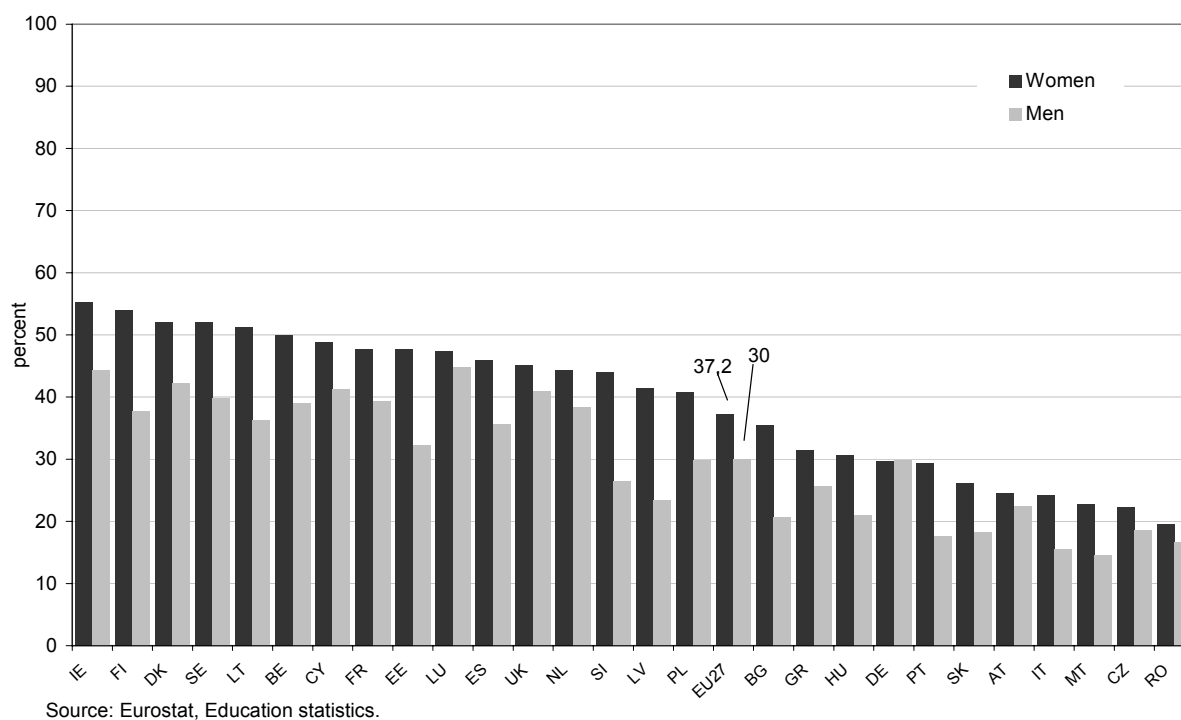
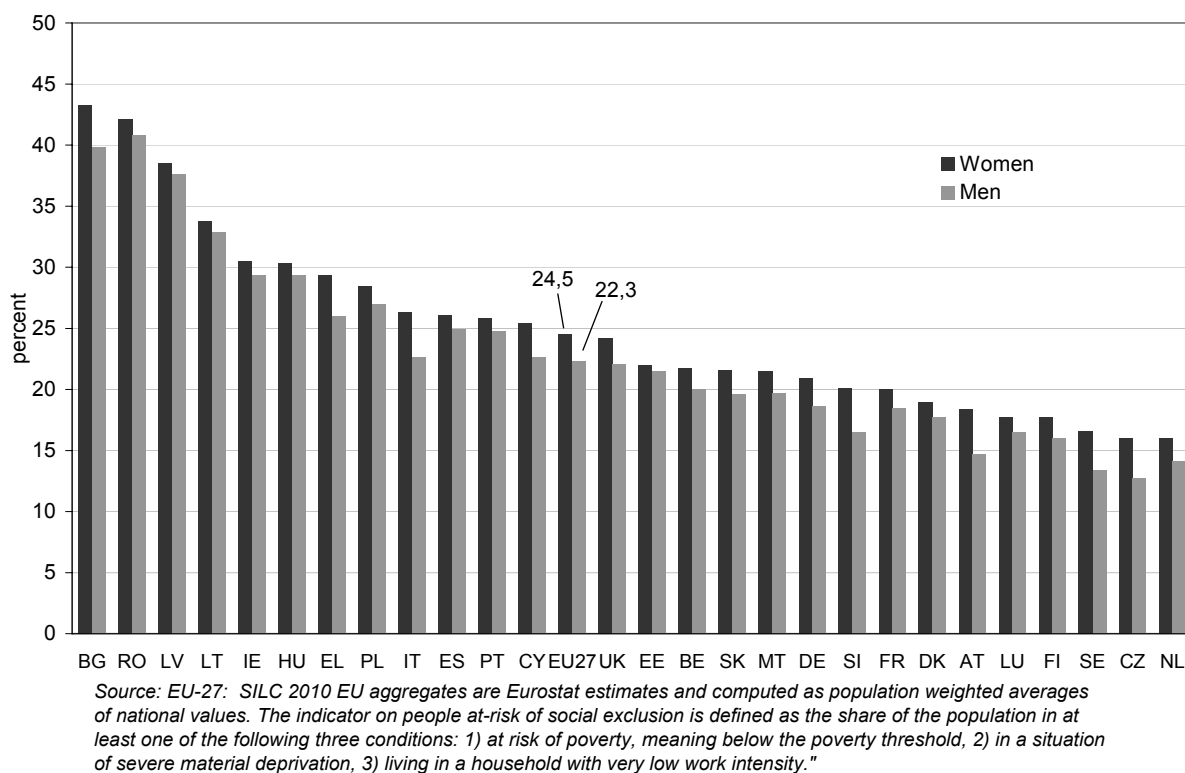


Figure 11 - People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion – 2010



1.2. Employment

Figure 12 – Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55-64) in EU Member States – 2010

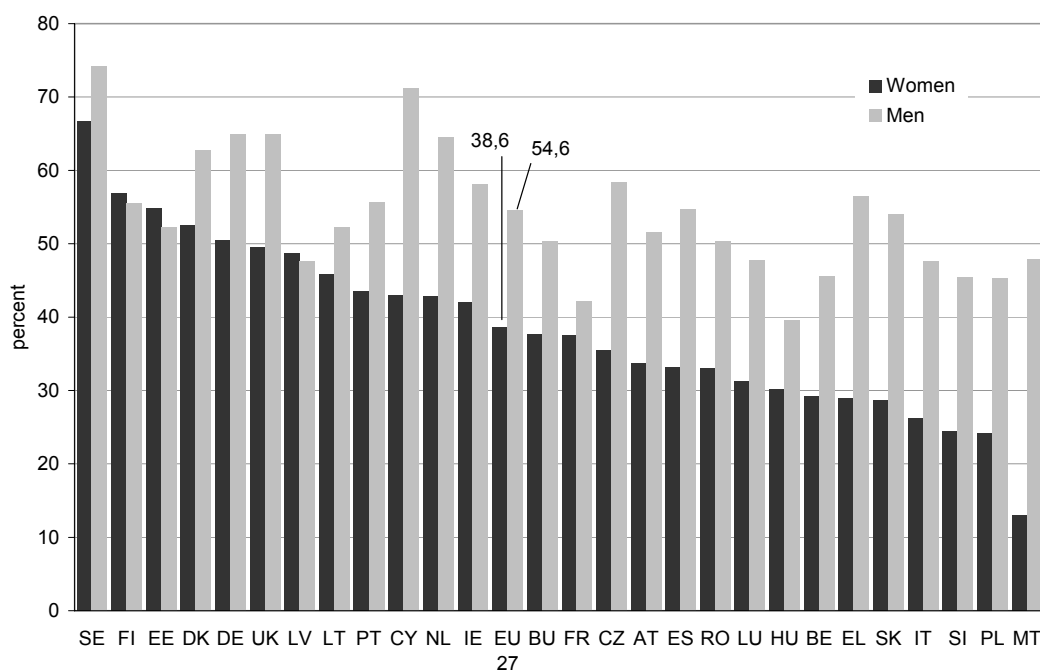
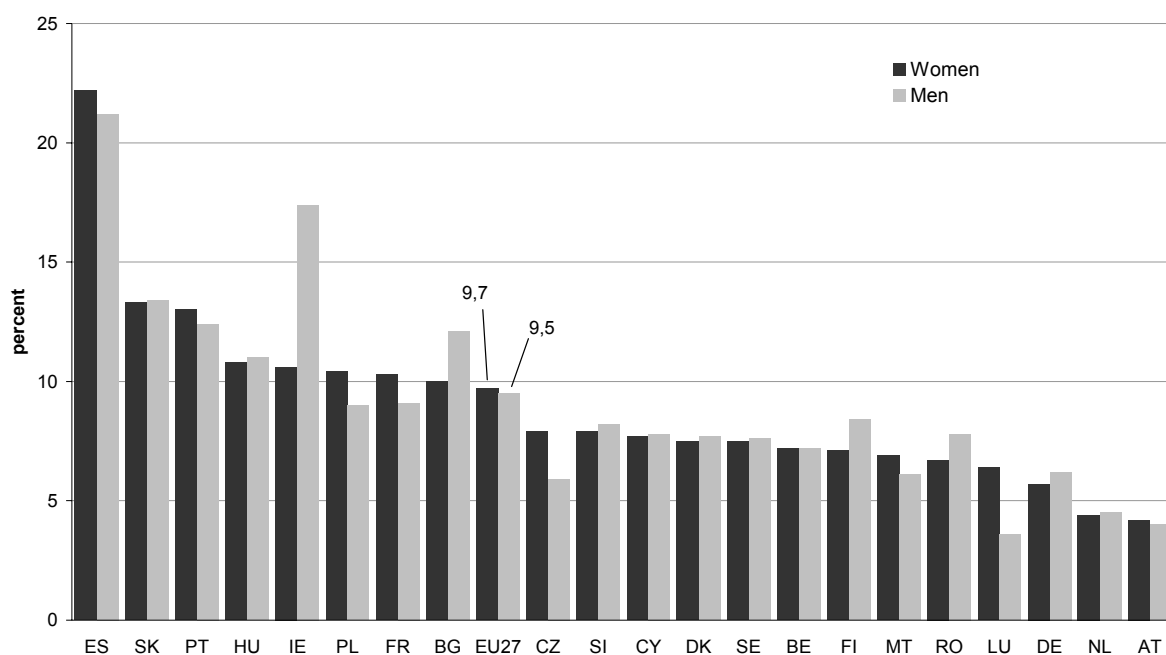
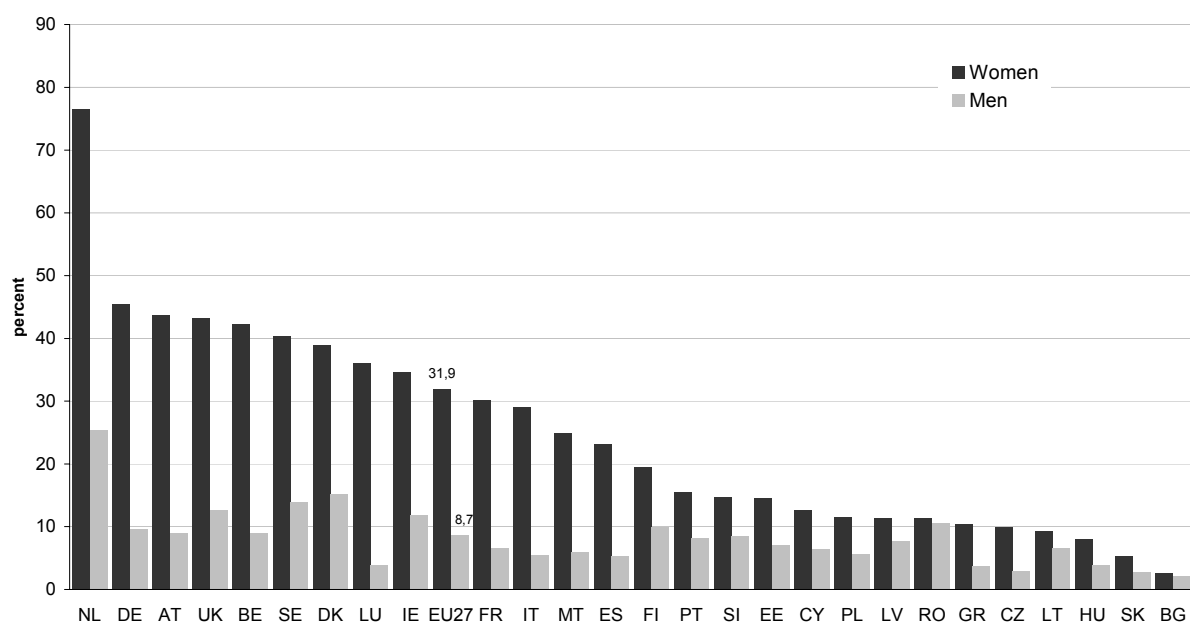


Figure 13 – Unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 years and over) in EU Member States – 2011



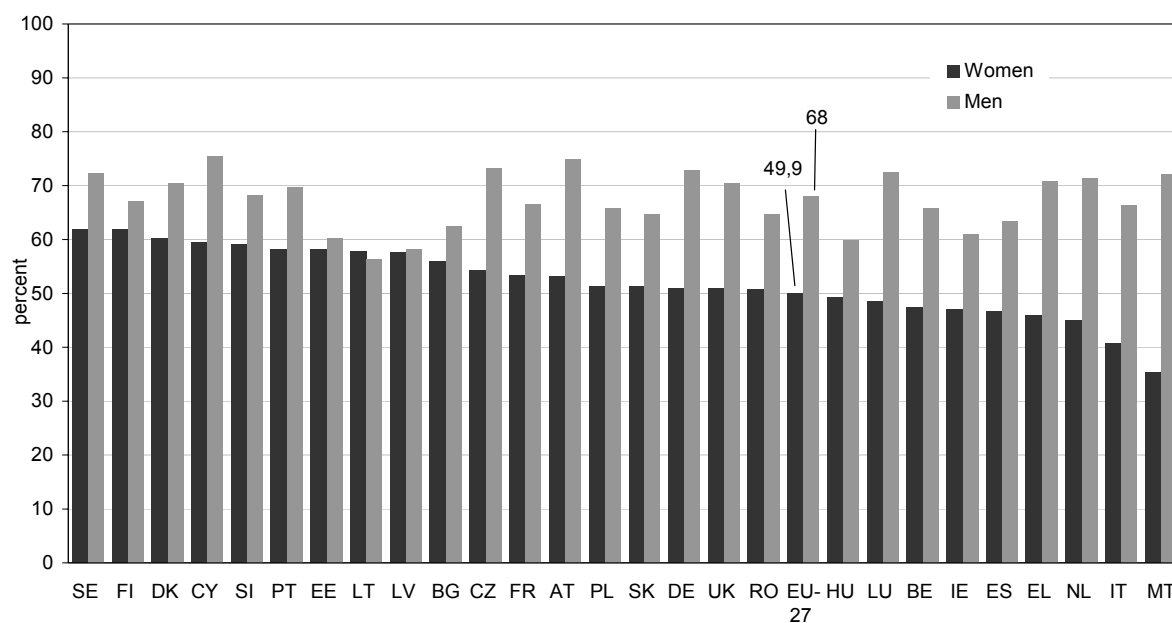
Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages. UK, LT, LV, IT, EL, EE: not available.

Figure 14 – Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over) in EU Member States – 2010



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

Figure 15 – Employment rates of men and women aged 15-64, measured in full time equivalent in EU Member States – 2010



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

Figure 16 – Inactivity and part-time work among women due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons (% of total female population having care responsibilities) – 2010

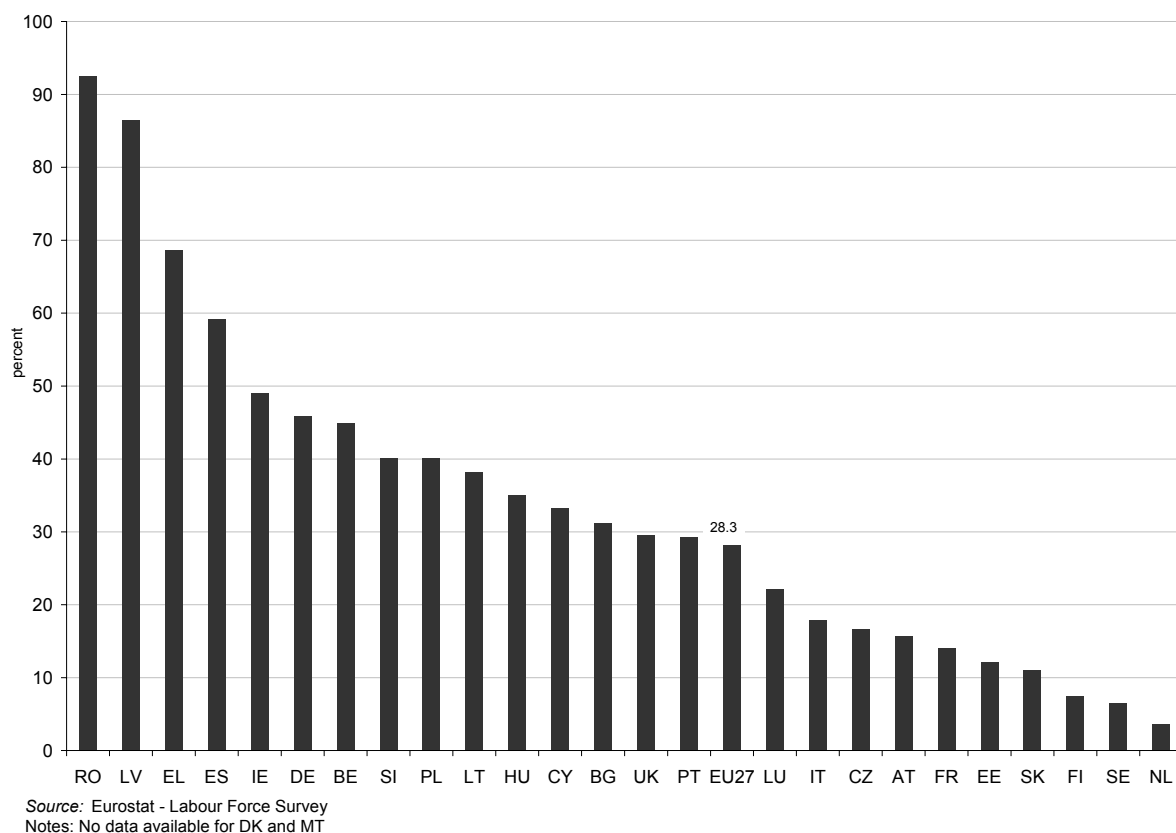


Figure 17 – Employment rates of men aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) – 2010

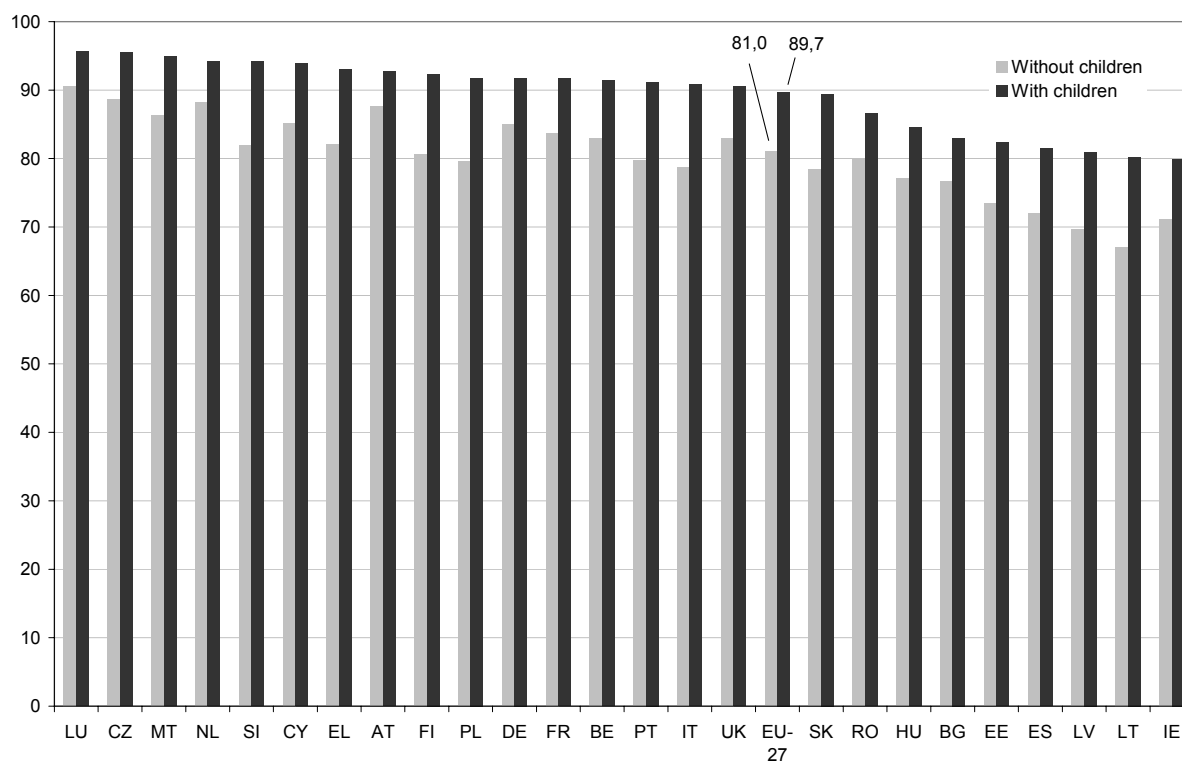
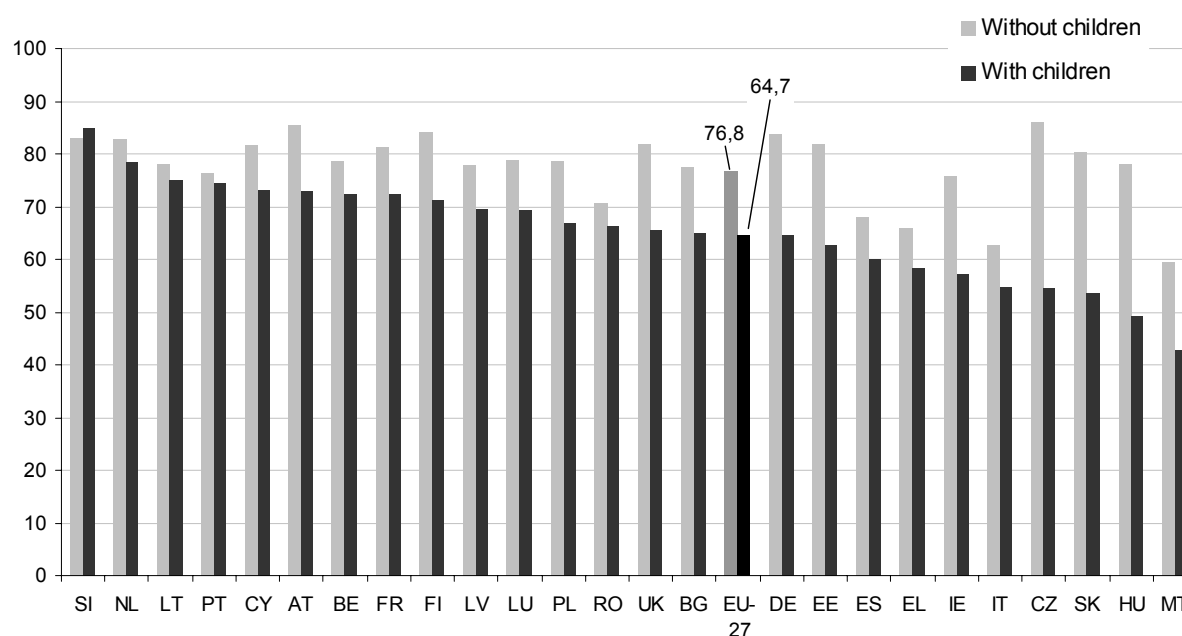
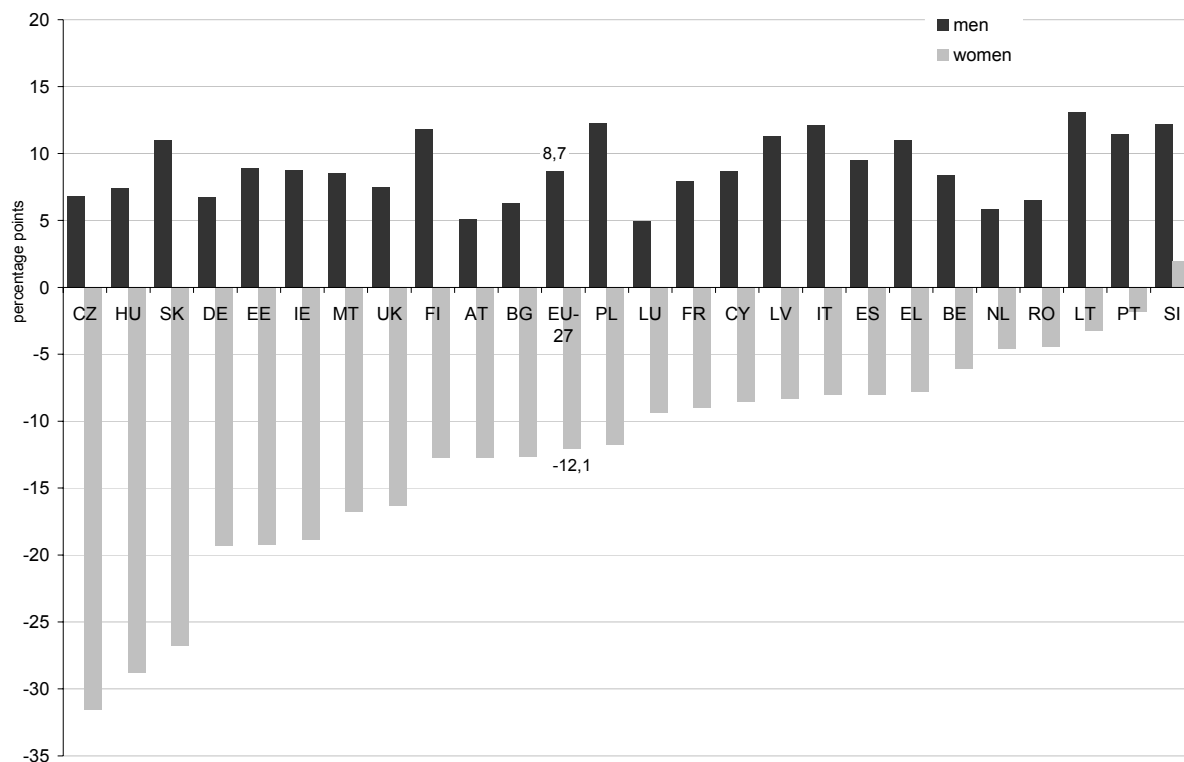


Figure 18 – Employment rates of women aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) – 2010

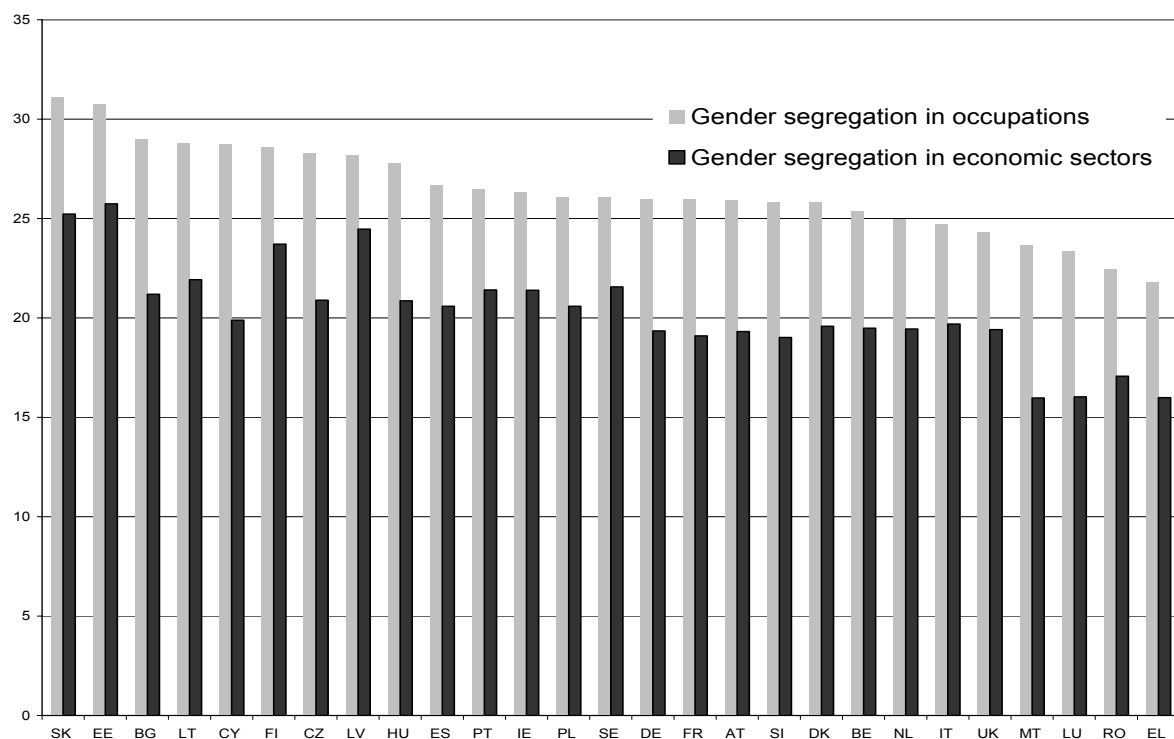


**Figure 19 – Employment impact of parenthood for women and men (aged 25-49) – 2010
(Difference in percentage points in employment rates with presence of a child under 12
and without the presence of any children)**



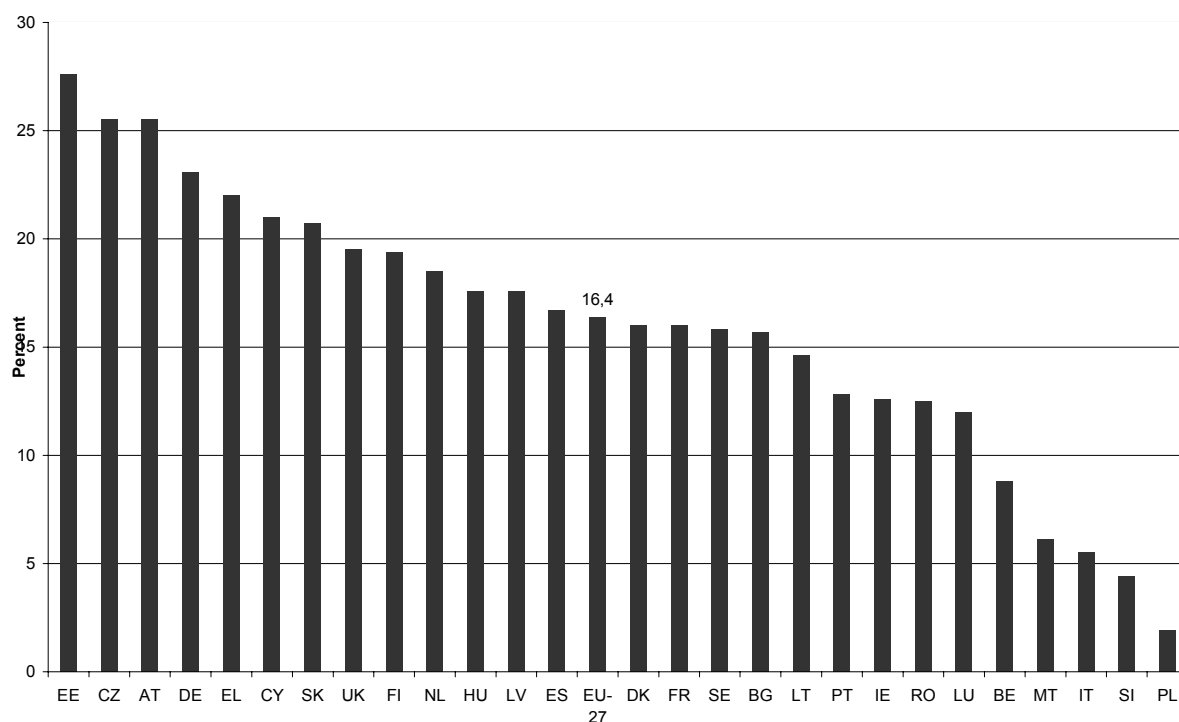
Source : Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual average.
Notes : No data available for DK and SE

Figure 20 – Gender segregation in occupations and in economic sectors in EU Member States – 2010



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

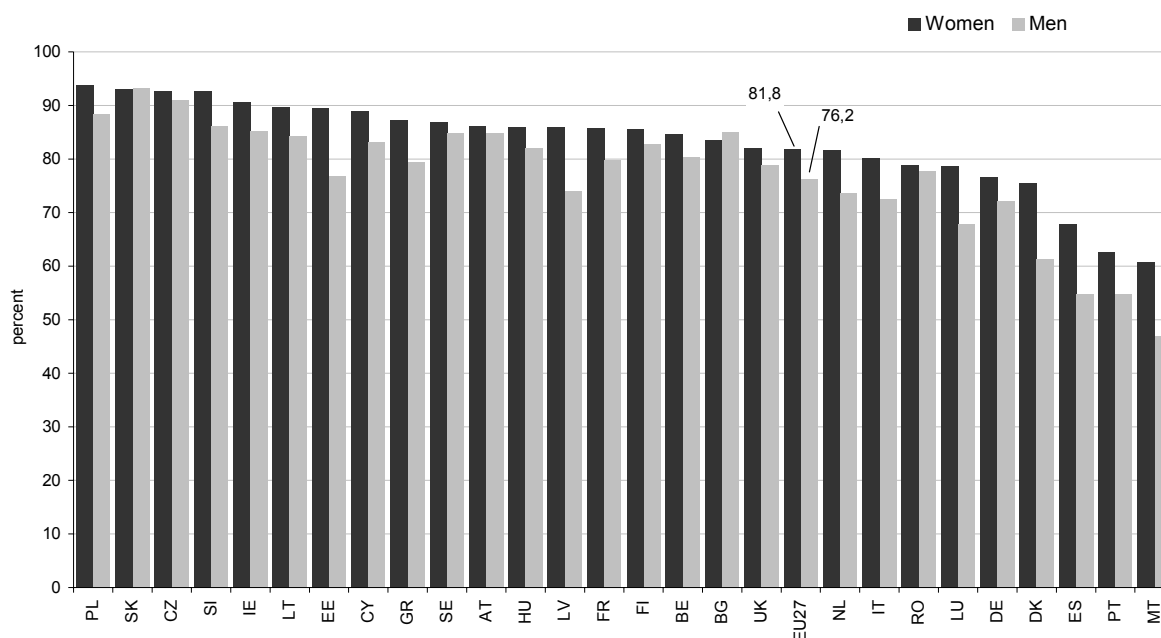
Figure 21 – Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States – 2010



Source: Eurostat. The unadjusted Gender Pay Gap (GPG) represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. EE and EL: data from 2008. EU27, BE, IE, ES, FR, IT, CY, AT: provisional data.

1.3. Education

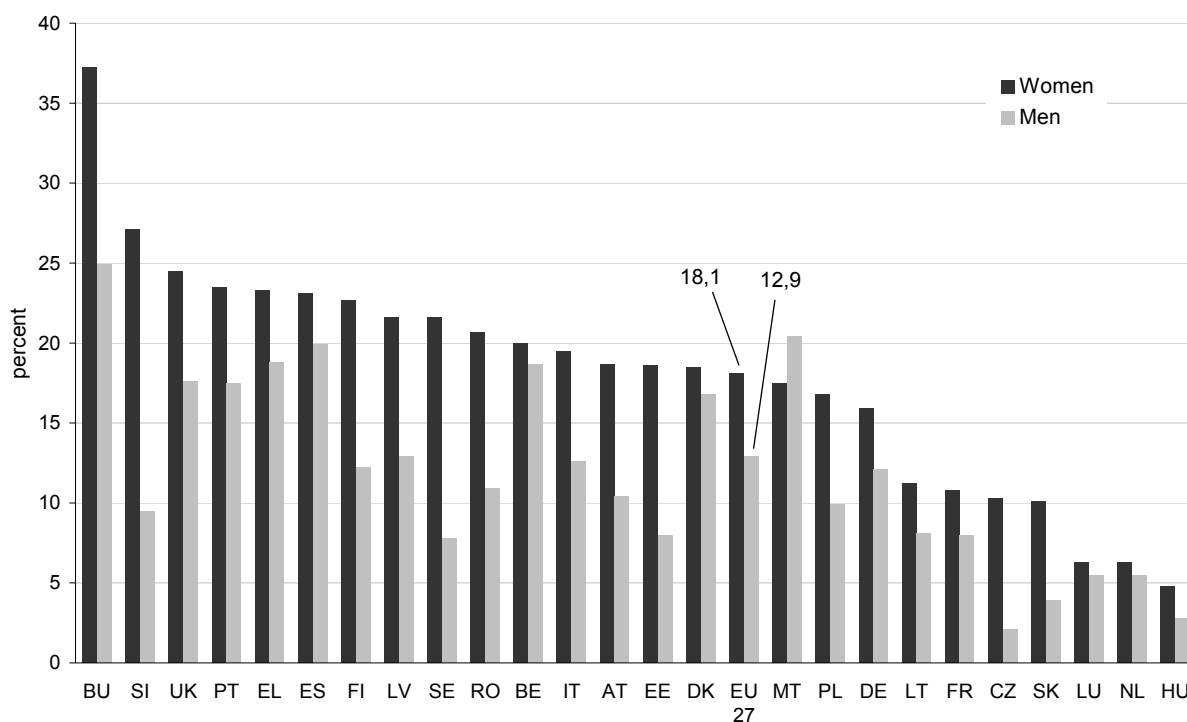
Figure 22 – Educational attainment (at least upper secondary level) of women and men aged 20-24, in EU Member States – 2010



Source: Eurostat, Education statistics.
LU, MT and NL: provisional.

1.4. Poverty

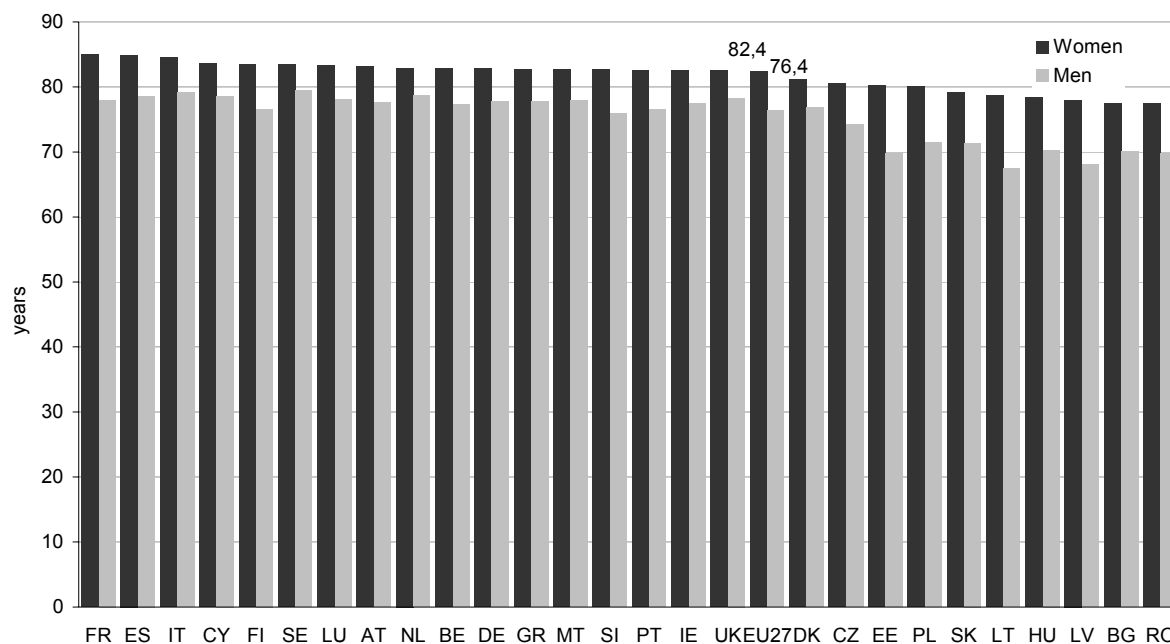
Figure 23 – At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over) in EU Member States – 2010



Source: EU-27: SILC 2010.

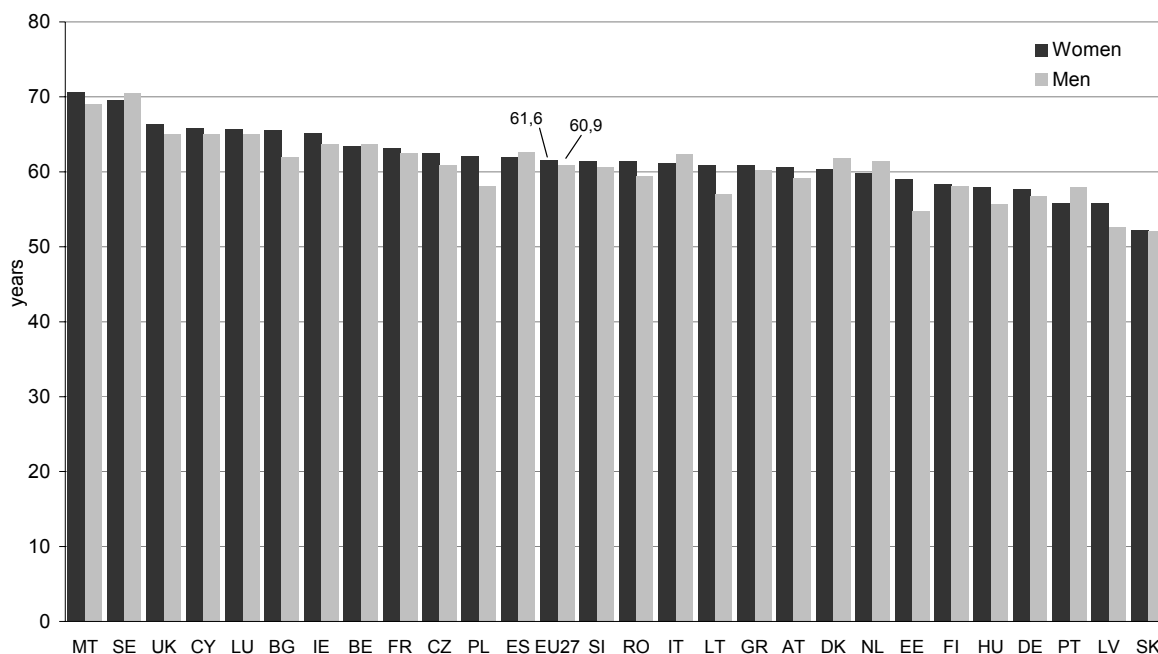
1.5. Health and demography

Figure 24 – Life expectancy at birth in EU Member States – 2009



Source: Eurostat. It and EU 27: 2008 data.

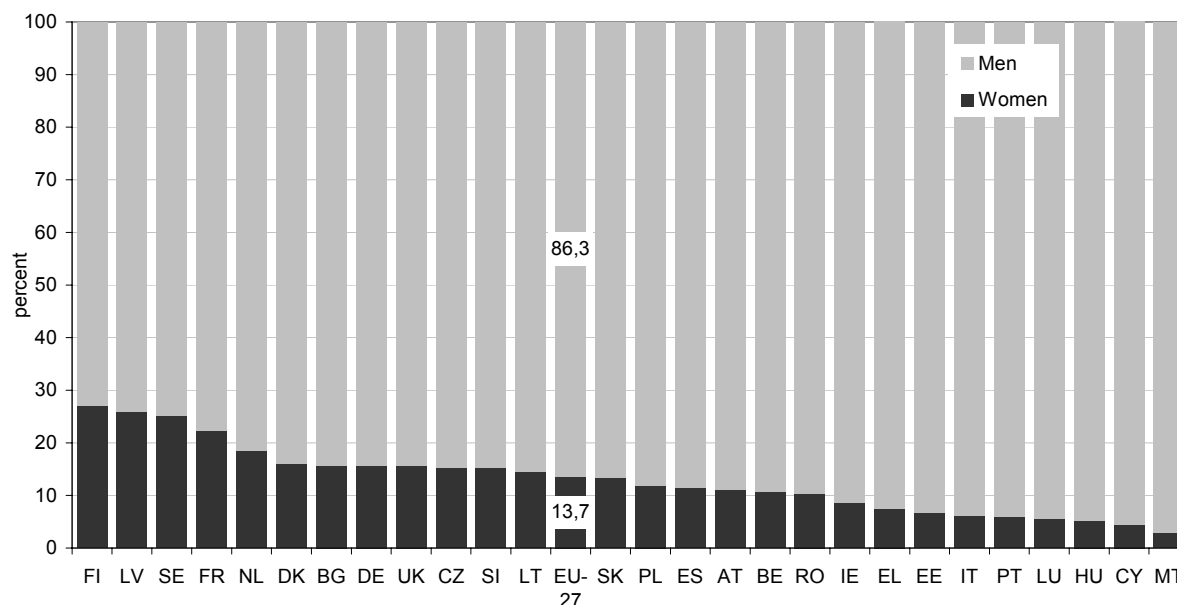
Figure 25 – Healthy life years in EU Member States – 2009



Source: Eurostat. EU 27: Provisional data. UK and IT: 2008 data.

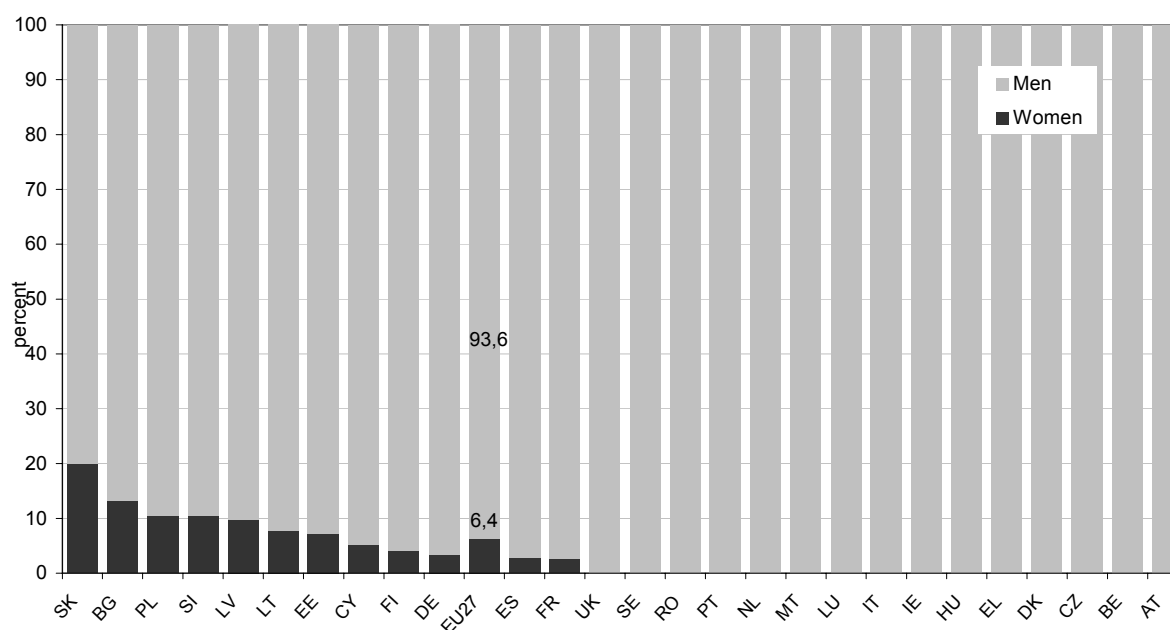
1.6. Decision making

Figure 26 – Members of boards of largest publicly quoted companies – 2012



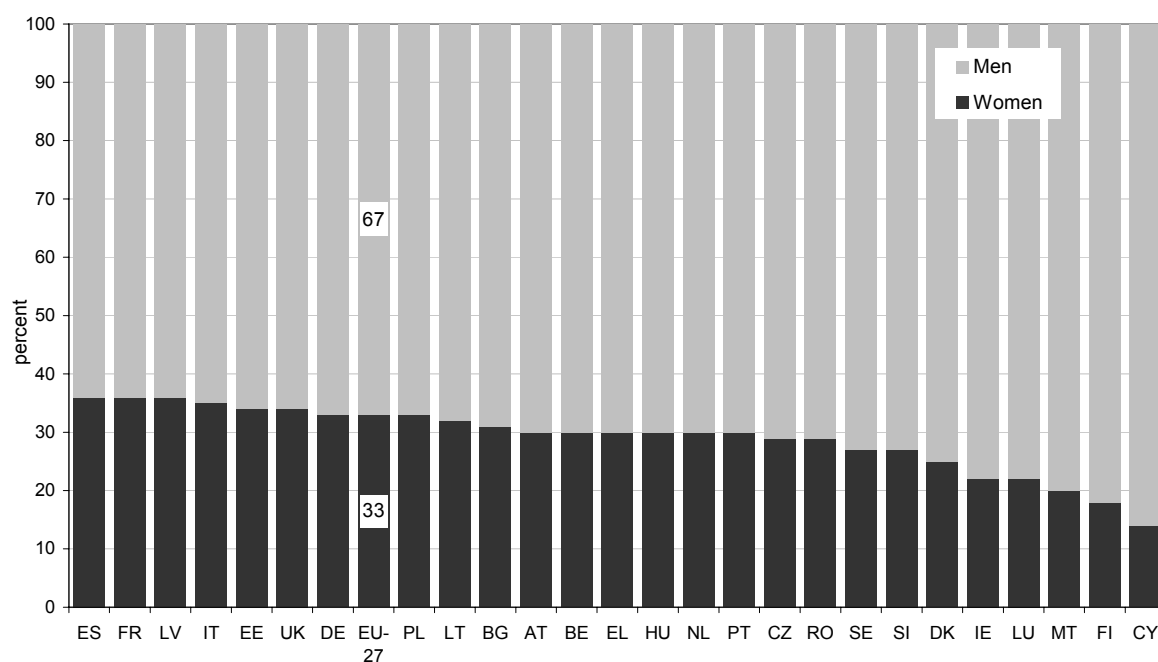
Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in January 2012. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Figure 27 – Presidents of the highest decision-making body of the largest publicly quoted companies – 2012



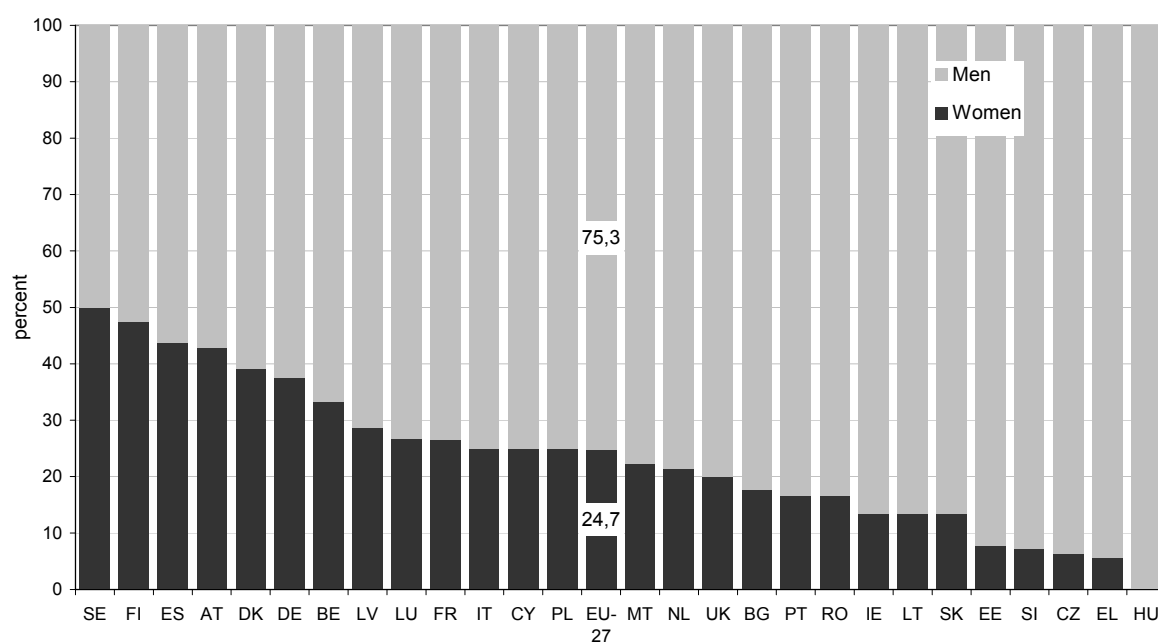
Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in January 2012. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Figure 28 – Leaders of businesses – 2010



Source: Eurostat, EU LFS. NB: leaders of businesses covers ISCO (International Standard Classification of Occupations) categories 121 (Directors and chief executives) and 13 (Managers of small enterprises). SK: not available.

Figure 29 – Senior ministers in national governments – 2011



Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in October 2011. The indicator has been developed as part of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers. A senior minister is a minister in the national government who has a seat in the cabinet.

Figure 30 – Members of regional assemblies – 2011

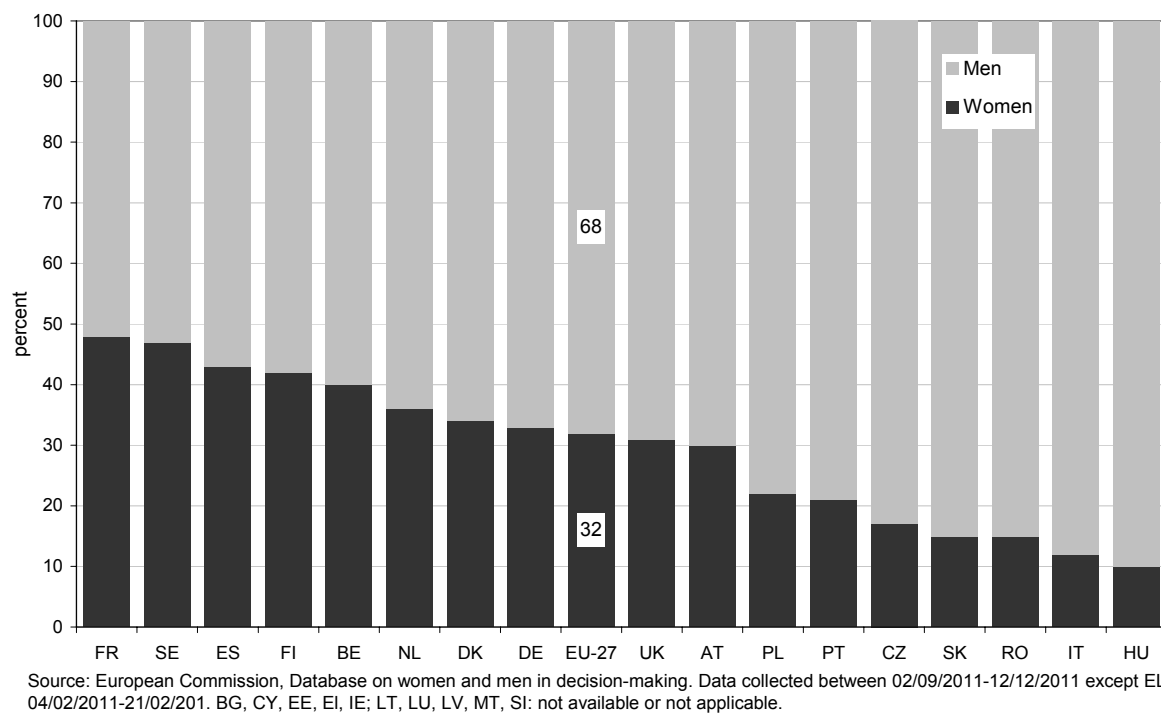
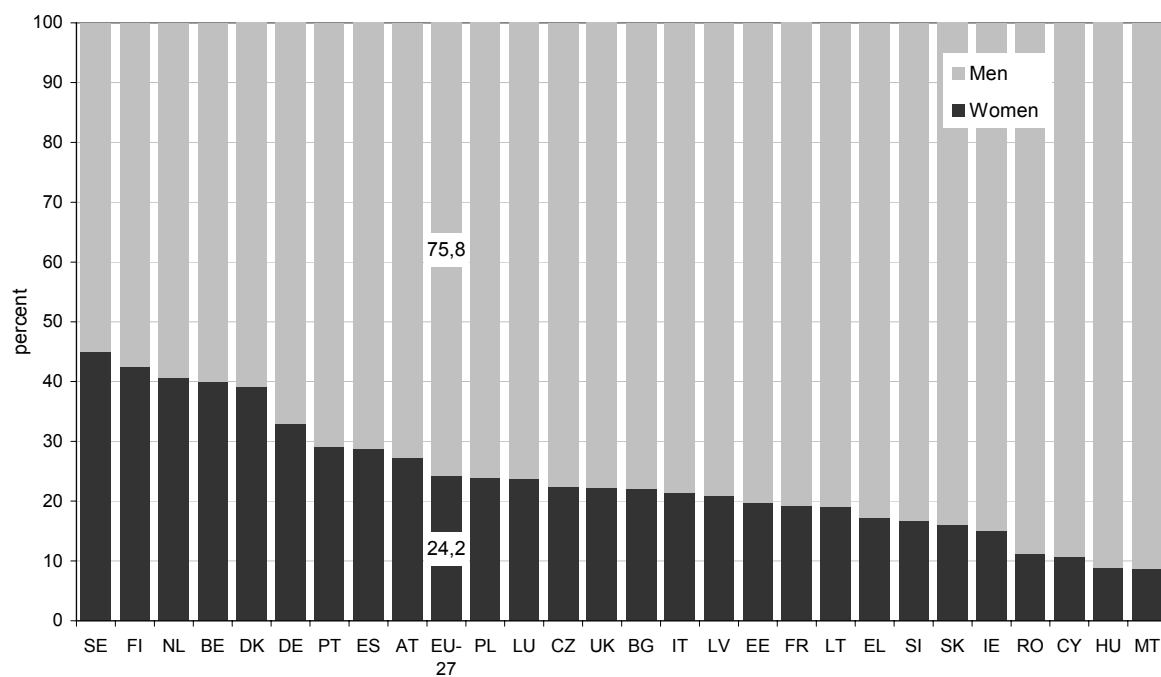


Figure 31 – Members of single / lower houses in national parliaments – 2011



2. TABLES

2.1. Europe 2020 indicators

Table 1 – Employment rates (women and men aged 20-64) in EU Member States – 2005 and 2010

	Women		Men		Gap	
	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010
EU-27	60	62.1	76	75.1	-16	-13
Belgium	58.6	61.6	74.3	73.5	-15.7	-11.9
Bulgaria	57.1	61.7	66.8	69.1	-9.7	-7.4
Czech Republic	61.3	60.9	80.1	79.6	-18.8	-18.7
Denmark	73.7	73.1	82.3	79	-8.6	-5.9
Germany	63.1	69.6	75.6	80.1	-12.5	-10.5
Estonia	69	65.7	75.4	67.7	-6.4	-2
Ireland	62.4	60.4	82.8	69.4	-20.4	-9
Greece	49.6	51.7	79.8	76.2	-30.2	-24.5
Spain	54.4	55.8	79.9	69.1	-25.5	-13.3
France	63.7	64.7	75.3	73.7	-11.6	-9
Italy	48.4	49.5	74.8	72.8	-26.4	-23.3
Cyprus	63.8	68.5	85.5	82.5	-21.7	-14
Latvia	65.7	64.9	75.4	65.1	-9.7	-0.2
Lithuania	66.6	65.1	74.9	63.6	-8.3	1.5
Luxembourg	58.4	62	79.4	79.2	-21	-17.2
Hungary	55.6	55	69.2	66	-13.6	-11
Malta	35.1	41.6	80.6	77.8	-45.5	-36.2
Netherlands	67.6	70.8	82.4	82.8	-14.8	-12
Austria	64.9	69.6	78.5	80.2	-13.6	-10.6
Poland	51.7	57.7	65.1	71.6	-13.4	-13.9
Portugal	66	65.6	78.7	75.4	-12.7	-9.8
Romania	56.9	55.9	70.4	70.8	-13.5	-14.9
Slovenia	66.2	66.5	75.8	74	-9.6	-7.5
Slovakia	56.7	57.4	72.5	71.9	-15.8	-14.5
Finland	70.8	71.5	75.1	74.5	-4.3	-3
Sweden	75.5	75.7	80.7	81.7	-5.2	-6
United Kingdom	68.5	67.9	82	79.3	-13.5	-11.4

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

Table 2 – Early leavers from education and training in EU Member States – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	12.1	16
Belgium	10	13.8
Bulgaria	14.5	13.2
Czech Republic	4.8	4.9
Denmark	7.5	13.6
Germany	11	12.7
Estonia	:	15.2
Ireland	8.4	12.6
Greece	10.8	16.5
Spain	23.1	33.5
France	10.3	15.4
Italy	15.4	22
Cyprus	9.8	16.2
Latvia	9.4	17.2
Lithuania	6.2	9.9
Luxembourg	6	8
Hungary	9.5	11.5
Malta	32.4	41
Netherlands	7.9	12.2
Austria	8.2	8.4
Poland	3.5	7.2
Portugal	24.6	32.7
Romania	18.2	18.6
Slovenia	3.3	6.4
Slovakia	4.9	4.6
Finland	9	11.6
Sweden	8.5	10.9
United Kingdom	14	15.8

Source: Eurostat, Education statistics. EE: women: unreliable or uncertain data.

Table 3 – Tertiary educational attainment by sex, age group 30-34 – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	37.2	30.0
Belgium	50.0	39.0
Bulgaria	35.5	20.7
Czech Republic	22.3	18.6
Denmark	52.1	42.2
Germany	29.7	29.9
Estonia	47.7	32.2
Ireland	55.3	44.4
Greece	31.4	25.7
Spain	45.9	35.7
France	47.7	39.3
Italy	24.2	15.5
Cyprus	48.9	41.3
Latvia	41.4	23.4
Lithuania	51.2	36.3
Luxembourg	47.4	44.8
Hungary	30.7	21.0
Malta	22.7	14.6
Netherlands	44.4	38.4
Austria	24.5	22.5
Poland	40.8	29.8
Portugal	29.4	17.7
Romania	19.6	16.7
Slovenia	44.0	26.4
Slovakia	26.2	18.2
Finland	54.0	37.7
Sweden	52.1	39.8
United Kingdom	45.1	40.9

Source: Eurostat, Education statistics.

Table 4 – People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	24.5	22.3
Belgium	21.7	20.0
Bulgaria	43.3	39.8
Czech Republic	16.0	12.7
Denmark	19.0	17.7
Germany	20.9	18.6
Estonia	22.0	21.5
Ireland	30.5	29.3
Greece	29.3	26.0
Spain	26.1	24.9
France	20.0	18.5
Italy	26.3	22.6
Cyprus	25.4	22.6
Latvia	38.5	37.6
Lithuania	33.8	32.9
Luxembourg	17.7	16.5
Hungary	30.3	29.4
Malta	21.5	19.7
Netherlands	16.0	14.1
Austria	18.4	14.7
Poland	28.5	27.0
Portugal	25.8	24.8
Romania	42.1	40.8
Slovenia	20.1	16.5
Slovakia	21.6	19.6
Finland	17.7	16.0
Sweden	16.6	13.4
United Kingdom	24.2	22.1

The indicator on people at-risk of social exclusion is defined as the share of the population in at least one of the following three conditions: 1) at risk of poverty, meaning below the poverty threshold, 2) in a situation of severe material deprivation, 3) living in a household with very low work intensity.

2.2. Employment

Table 5 – Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55-64) in EU Member States – 2005-2010

	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010
EU 27	33.6	38.6	51.6	54.6	-18.0	-16.0
Belgium	22.1	29.2	41.7	45.6	-19.6	-16.4
Bulgaria	25.5	37.7	45.5	50.3	-20.0	-12.6
Czech Republic	30.9	35.5	59.3	58.4	-28.4	-22.9
Denmark	53.5	52.5	65.6	62.7	-12.1	-10.2
Germany	37.6	50.5	53.6	65.0	-16.0	-14.5
Estonia	53.7	54.9	59.3	52.2	-5.6	2.7
Ireland	37.3	42.0	65.7	58.1	-28.4	-16.1
Greece	25.8	28.9	58.8	56.5	-33.0	-27.6
Spain	27.4	33.2	59.7	54.7	-32.3	-21.5
France	35.7	37.4	41.5	42.1	-5.8	-4.7
Italy	20.8	26.2	42.7	47.6	-21.9	-21.4
Cyprus	31.5	43.0	70.8	71.2	-39.3	-28.2
Latvia	45.2	48.7	55.2	47.6	-10.0	1.1
Lithuania	41.7	45.8	59.1	52.3	-17.4	-6.5
Luxembourg	24.9	31.3	38.3	47.7	-13.4	-16.4
Hungary	26.7	30.1	40.6	39.6	-13.9	-9.5
Malta	12.4	13.0	50.8	47.9	-38.4	-34.9
Netherlands	35.2	42.8	56.9	64.5	-21.7	-21.7
Austria	22.9	33.7	41.3	51.6	-18.4	-17.9
Poland	19.7	24.2	35.9	45.3	-16.2	-21.1
Portugal	43.7	43.5	58.1	55.7	-14.4	-12.2
Romania	33.1	33.0	46.7	50.3	-13.6	-17.3
Slovenia	18.5	24.5	43.1	45.5	-24.6	-21.0
Slovakia	15.6	28.7	47.8	54.0	-32.2	-25.3
Finland	52.7	56.9	52.8	55.6	-0.1	1.3
Sweden	66.7	66.7	72.0	74.2	-5.3	-7.5
United Kingdom	48.0	49.5	65.9	65.0	-17.9	-15.5

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

Table 6 – Unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 years and over) in EU Member States – 2006 and 2011

	Women		Men	
	2006	2011	2006	2011
EU-27	9.0	9.7	7.6	9.5
Belgium	9.3	7.2	7.4	7.2
Bulgaria	9.3	10.0	8.7	12.1
Czech Republic	8.9	7.9	5.8	5.9
Denmark	4.5	7.5	3.3	7.7
Germany	10.2	5.7	10.3	6.2
Estonia	5.6	:	6.2	:
Ireland	4.2	10.6	4.6	17.4
Greece	13.6	:	5.6	:
Spain	11.6	22.2	6.3	21.2
France	10.1	10.3	8.5	9.1
Italy	8.8	:	5.4	:
Cyprus	5.4	7.7	3.9	7.8
Latvia	6.2	:	7.4	:
Lithuania	5.4	:	5.8	:
Luxembourg	6.0	6.4	3.6	3.6
Hungary	7.8	10.8	7.2	11.0
Malta	8.6	6.9	6.1	6.1
Netherlands	5.0	4.4	3.9	4.5
Austria	5.2	4.2	4.3	4
Poland	14.9	10.4	13.0	9
Portugal	9.3	13.0	7.9	12.4
Romania	6.1	6.7	8.2	7.8
Slovenia	7.2	7.9	4.9	8.2
Slovakia	14.7	13.3	12.3	13.4
Finland	8.1	7.1	7.4	8.4
Sweden	7.2	7.5	6.9	7.6
United Kingdom	4.9	:	5.8	:

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages. UK, LT, LV, IT, EL, EE: not available

Table 7 – Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over) in EU Member States – 2005 and 2010

	Women		Men	
	2005	2010	2005	2010
EU-27	30.9	31.9	7.4	8.7
Belgium	40.5	42.3	7.6	9.0
Bulgaria	2.5	2.6	1.7	2.2
Czech Republic	8.6	9.9	2.1	2.9
Denmark	33.0	39.0	12.7	15.2
Germany	43.8	45.5	7.8	9.7
Estonia	10.6	14.5	4.9	7.1
Ireland	31.8	34.7	6.4	11.8
Greece	9.3	10.4	2.3	3.7
Spain	24.2	23.2	4.5	5.4
France	30.3	30.1	5.8	6.7
Italy	25.6	29.0	4.6	5.5
Cyprus	14.0	12.7	5.0	6.5
Latvia	10.4	11.4	6.3	7.8
Lithuania	9.1	9.3	5.1	6.7
Luxembourg	38.2	36.0	2.5	4.0
Hungary	5.8	8.0	2.7	3.9
Malta	21.1	25.0	4.5	6.0
Netherlands	75.1	76.5	22.6	25.4
Austria	39.3	43.8	6.1	9.0
Poland	14.3	11.5	8.0	5.7
Portugal	16.2	15.5	7.0	8.2
Romania	10.5	11.4	10.0	10.6
Slovenia	11.1	14.7	7.2	8.6
Slovakia	4.1	5.4	1.3	2.8
Finland	18.6	19.6	9.2	10.0
Sweden	39.6	40.4	11.5	14.0
United Kingdom	42.6	43.3	10.4	12.6

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

Table 8 – Employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) measured in full-time equivalent rates, in EU Member States – 2010

	Women	Men	<i>Gender gap</i>
EU-27	49.9	68.0	<i>-18.1</i>
Belgium	47.4	65.8	<i>-18.4</i>
Bulgaria	55.9	62.5	<i>-6.6</i>
Czech Republic	54.3	73.2	<i>-18.9</i>
Denmark	60.3	70.5	<i>-10.2</i>
Germany	50.9	72.8	<i>-21.9</i>
Estonia	58.1	60.3	<i>-2.2</i>
Ireland	47.0	60.9	<i>-13.9</i>
Greece	46.0	70.7	<i>-24.7</i>
Spain	46.6	63.4	<i>-16.8</i>
France	53.3	66.6	<i>-13.3</i>
Italy	40.7	66.4	<i>-25.7</i>
Cyprus	59.5	75.5	<i>-16.0</i>
Latvia	57.7	58.1	<i>-0.4</i>
Lithuania	57.8	56.3	<i>1.5</i>
Luxembourg	48.5	72.4	<i>-23.9</i>
Hungary	49.3	59.9	<i>-10.6</i>
Malta	35.3	72.1	<i>-36.8</i>
Netherlands	45.1	71.4	<i>-26.3</i>
Austria	53.1	74.8	<i>-21.7</i>
Poland	51.3	65.7	<i>-14.4</i>
Portugal	58.2	69.6	<i>-11.4</i>
Romania	50.7	64.6	<i>-13.9</i>
Slovenia	59.0	68.2	<i>-9.2</i>
Slovakia	51.3	64.6	<i>-13.3</i>
Finland	61.8	67.0	<i>-5.2</i>
Sweden	61.9	72.3	<i>-10.4</i>
United Kingdom	50.9	70.4	<i>-19.5</i>

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

Table 9 – Inactivity and part-time work among women due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons (% of total female population having care responsibilities) – 2010

EU-27	28.3
Belgium	44.9
Bulgaria	31.3
Czech Republic	16.7
Germany	45.9
Estonia	12.2
Ireland	49.1
Greece	68.6
Spain	59.2
France	14.0
Italy	18.0
Cyprus	33.4
Latvia	86.5
Lithuania	38.3
Luxembourg	22.1
Hungary	35.1
Netherlands	3.7
Austria	15.7
Poland	40.1
Portugal	29.4
Romania	92.5
Slovenia	40.2
Slovakia	11.0
Finland	7.5
Sweden	6.5
United Kingdom	29.6

Source: Eurostat - Labour Force Survey
No data available for DK and MT

Table 10 – Employment rates of men and women aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) – 2010

	Women			Men		
	Without children	With children	Gap	Without children	With children	Gap
EU-27	76.8	64.7	-12.1	81.0	89.7	8.7
Belgium	78.5	72.4	-6.1	83.0	91.4	8.4
Bulgaria	77.5	64.8	-12.6	76.7	83.0	6.3
Czech Republic	86.0	54.4	-31.6	88.6	95.5	6.9
Germany	83.8	64.5	-19.3	85.0	91.7	6.7
Estonia	81.9	62.6	-19.2	73.5	82.4	8.9
Ireland	76.0	57.2	-18.8	71.2	80.0	8.8
Greece	66.1	58.2	-7.8	82.1	93.0	11.0
Spain	68.1	60.1	-8.0	71.9	81.5	9.5
France	81.3	72.3	-9.0	83.7	91.7	8.0
Italy	62.7	54.7	-8.0	78.7	90.8	12.1
Cyprus	81.7	73.1	-8.6	85.2	93.9	8.7
Latvia	77.9	69.6	-8.4	69.6	81.0	11.3
Lithuania	78.2	74.9	-3.2	67.1	80.2	13.1
Luxembourg	78.8	69.4	-9.4	90.6	95.6	5.0
Hungary	78.2	49.3	-28.8	77.1	84.5	7.5
Malta	59.4	42.6	-16.7	86.4	94.9	8.5
Netherlands	82.8	78.2	-4.6	88.2	94.1	5.9
Austria	85.5	72.8	-12.7	87.6	92.7	5.1
Poland	78.6	66.8	-11.8	79.5	91.8	12.3
Portugal	76.5	74.6	-1.9	79.8	91.2	11.5
Romania	70.8	66.3	-4.5	80.0	86.5	6.5
Slovenia	83.0	84.9	1.9	81.9	94.1	12.2
Slovakia	80.4	53.7	-26.7	78.4	89.4	11.0
Finland	84.1	71.4	-12.7	80.6	92.4	11.8
United Kingdom	81.9	65.6	-16.3	83.0	90.5	7.5

Source: Eurostat, European Labour Force Survey, annual averages

No data available for DE and SE

Table 11 – Gender segregation in occupations and in economic sectors in EU Member States – 2010

	Gender segregation in occupations	Gender segregation in economic sectors
Belgium	25.4	19.5
Bulgaria	29.0	21.2
Czech Republic	28.3	20.9
Denmark	25.8	19.6
Germany	26.0	19.3
Estonia	30.7	25.7
Ireland	26.3	21.4
Greece	21.8	16.0
Spain	26.7	20.6
France	26.0	19.1
Italy	24.7	19.7
Cyprus	28.8	19.9
Latvia	28.2	24.5
Lithuania	28.8	21.9
Luxembourg	23.4	16.0
Hungary	27.8	20.9
Malta	23.7	16.0
Netherlands	25.0	19.4
Austria	25.9	19.3
Poland	26.1	20.6
Portugal	26.5	21.4
Romania	22.5	17.1
Slovenia	25.8	19.0
Slovakia	31.1	25.2
Finland	28.6	23.7
Sweden	26.1	21.6
United Kingdom	24.3	19.4

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

Table 12 – Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States – 2010

EU-27	16.4
Belgium	8.8
Bulgaria	15.7
Czech Republic	25.5
Denmark	16
Germany	23.1
Estonia	27.6
Ireland	12.6
Greece	22
Spain	16.7
France	16
Italy	5.5
Cyprus	21
Latvia	17.6
Lithuania	14.6
Luxembourg	12
Hungary	17.6
Malta	6.1
Netherlands	18.5
Austria	25.5
Poland	1.9
Portugal	12.8
Romania	12.5
Slovenia	4.4
Slovakia	20.7
Finland	19.4
Sweden	15.8
United Kingdom	19.5

Source: Eurostat, The unadjusted Gender Pay Gap (GPG) represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees.

EE and EL: data from 2008, EU-27, BE, IE, ES, FR, IT, CY and AT: provisional data.

2.3. Education

Table 13 – Educational attainment (at least upper secondary level) of women and men aged 20-24 in EU Member States – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	81.8	76.2
Belgium	84.7	80.3
Bulgaria	83.6	85.0
Czech Republic	92.8	91.1
Denmark	75.6	61.4
Germany	76.7	72.2
Estonia	89.5	76.9
Ireland	90.6	85.3
Greece	87.2	79.5
Spain	67.9	54.7
France	85.8	79.8
Italy	80.2	72.6
Cyprus	89.0	83.2
Latvia	85.9	74.1
Lithuania	89.7	84.2
Luxembourg	78.7	67.9
Hungary	85.9	82.0
Malta	60.8	47.0
Netherlands	81.6	73.7
Austria	86.2	84.9
Poland	93.8	88.4
Portugal	62.7	54.8
Romania	78.8	77.7
Slovenia	92.8	86.1
Slovakia	93.1	93.2
Finland	85.6	82.8
Sweden	86.9	84.9
United Kingdom	82.0	78.9

Source: Eurostat, Education statistics

LU, MT and NL: provisional data.

2.4. Poverty

Table 14 – At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over) in EU Member States – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	18.1	12.9
Belgium	20	18.7
Bulgaria	37.2	24.9
Czech Republic	10.3	2.1
Denmark	18.5	16.8
Germany	15.9	12.1
Estonia	18.6	8
Ireland	10.3	10.9
Greece	23.3	18.8
Spain	23.1	19.9
France	10.8	8
Italy	19.5	12.6
Cyprus	47.5	42.5
Latvia	21.6	12.9
Lithuania	11.2	8.1
Luxembourg	6.3	5.5
Hungary	4.8	2.8
Malta	17.5	20.4
Netherlands	6.3	5.5
Austria	18.7	10.4
Poland	16.8	9.9
Portugal	23.5	17.5
Romania	20.7	10.9
Slovenia	27.1	9.5
Slovakia	10.1	3.9
Finland	22.7	12.2
Sweden	21.6	7.8
United Kingdom	24.5	17.6

Source: Eurostat, SILC

2.5. Health and demography

Table 15 – Life expectancy at birth in EU Member States – 2009

	Women	Men	Gender gap
EU-27	82.4	76.4	6
Belgium	82.8	77.3	5.5
Bulgaria	77.4	70.1	7.3
Czech Republic	80.5	74.2	6.3
Denmark	81.1	76.9	4.2
Germany	82.8	77.8	5
Estonia	80.2	69.8	10.4
Ireland	82.5	77.4	5.1
Greece	82.7	77.8	4.9
Spain	84.9	78.6	6.3
France	85	78	7
Italy	84.5	79.1	5.4
Cyprus	83.6	78.6	5
Latvia	78	68.1	9.9
Lithuania	78.7	67.5	11.2
Luxembourg	83.3	78.1	5.2
Hungary	78.4	70.3	8.1
Malta	82.7	77.9	4.8
Netherlands	82.9	78.7	4.2
Austria	83.2	77.6	5.6
Poland	80.1	71.5	8.6
Portugal	82.6	76.5	6.1
Romania	77.4	69.8	7.6
Slovenia	82.7	75.9	6.8
Slovakia	79.1	71.4	7.7
Finland	83.5	76.6	6.9
Sweden	83.5	79.4	4.1
United Kingdom	82.5	78.3	4.2

Source: Eurostat.

EU 27 and IT: data from 2008

Table 16 - Healthy life years in EU Member States – 2009

	Women	Men
EU-27	61.6	60.9
Belgium	63.5	63.7
Bulgaria	65.6	61.9
Czech Republic	62.5	60.9
Denmark	60.4	61.8
Germany	57.7	56.7
Estonia	59	54.8
Ireland	65.2	63.7
Greece	60.9	60.2
Spain	61.9	62.6
France	63.2	62.5
Italy	61.2	62.4
Cyprus	65.8	65.1
Latvia	55.8	52.6
Lithuania	60.9	57
Luxembourg	65.7	65.1
Hungary	58	55.7
Malta	70.6	69.1
Netherlands	59.8	61.4
Austria	60.6	59.2
Poland	62.1	58.1
Portugal	55.9	58
Romania	61.4	59.5
Slovenia	61.5	60.6
Slovakia	52.3	52.1
Finland	58.4	58.1
Sweden	69.5	70.5
United Kingdom	66.3	65

Source: Eurostat

Eu 27: Provisional data, IT: data from 2008

2.6. Decision-making

Table 17 – Members of boards of largest publicly quoted companies (% total board members) – 2003-2012

	Women		Men	
	2003	2012	2003	2012
EU-27	9.0	13.7	91.0	86.3
Belgium	6.8	10.7	93.2	89.3
Bulgaria	18.3	15.6	81.7	84.4
Czech Republic	10.6	15.4	89.4	84.6
Denmark	11.3	16.1	88.7	83.9
Germany	11.7	15.6	88.3	84.4
Estonia	15.5	6.7	84.5	93.3
Ireland	5.6	8.7	94.4	91.3
Greece	7.3	7.4	92.7	92.6
Spain	4.2	11.5	95.8	88.5
France	5.9	22.3	94.1	77.7
Italy	2.5	6.1	97.5	93.9
Cyprus	6.6	4.4	93.4	95.6
Latvia	9.9	25.9	90.1	74.1
Lithuania	11.3	14.5	88.7	85.5
Luxembourg	4.3	5.7	95.7	94.3
Hungary	8.9	5.3	91.1	94.7
Malta	2.3	3.0	97.7	97.0
Netherlands	4.9	18.5	95.1	81.5
Austria	6.0	11.2	94.0	88.8
Poland	9.1	11.8	90.9	88.2
Portugal	4.1	6.0	95.9	94.0
Romania	17.2	10.3	82.8	89.7
Slovenia	19.0	15.3	81.0	84.7
Slovakia	8.4	13.5	91.6	86.5
Finland	16.3	27.1	83.7	72.9
Sweden	21.3	25.2	78.7	74.8
United Kingdom	13.2	15.6	86.8	84.4

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making.

Data were collected in January 2012. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Table 18 – Sex distribution of the presidents of the highest decision-making body – largest publicly quoted companies – 2004-2011

	Women		Men	
	2004	2012	2004	2012
EU-27	2.6	3.2	97.4	96.8
Belgium	0	0	100	100
Bulgaria	2.6	13.3	97.4	86.7
Czech Republic	6.3	0	93.7	100
Denmark	0	0	100	100
Germany	0	3.3	100	96.7
Estonia	0	7.1	100	92.9
Ireland	2.1	0	97.9	100
Greece	3.9	0	96.1	100
Spain	1.9	2.9	98.1	97.1
France	4.1	2.7	95.9	97.3
Italy	2.0	0	98	100
Cyprus	0	5.3	100	94.7
Latvia	6.7	9.7	93.3	90.3
Lithuania	0	7.7	100	92.3
Luxembourg	0	0	100	100
Hungary	2.1	0	97.9	100
Malta	8.3	0	91.7	100
Netherlands	0	0	100	100
Austria	2.1	0	97.9	100
Poland	10.2	10.5	89.8	89.5
Portugal	4.2	0	95.8	100
Romania	0	0	100	100
Slovenia	8.1	10.5	91.9	89.5
Slovakia	8.7	20	91.3	80
Finland	2.0	4.2	98	95.8
Sweden	0	0	100	100
United Kingdom	0	0	100	100

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making.

Data were collected in January 2012. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Table 19 – Sex distribution of leaders of businesses – 2010

	Women	Men
EU-27	33	67
Belgium	30	70
Bulgaria	31	69
Czech Republic	29	71
Denmark	25	75
Germany	33	67
Estonia	34	66
Ireland	22	78
Greece	30	70
Spain	36	64
France	36	64
Italy	35	65
Cyprus	14	86
Latvia	36	64
Lithuania	32	68
Luxembourg	22	78
Hungary	30	70
Malta	20	80
The Netherlands	30	70
Austria	30	70
Poland	33	67
Portugal	30	70
Romania	29	71
Slovenia	27	73
Slovakia	:	:
Finland	18	82
Sweden	27	73
United Kingdom	34	66

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making.
Data were collected in November 2010

Table 20 – Senior ministers in national governments – 2011

	Women	Men
EU-27	24.7	75.3
Belgium	33.3	66.7
Bulgaria	17.6	82.4
Czech Republic	6.3	93.8
Denmark	39.1	60.9
Germany	37.5	62.5
Estonia	7.7	92.3
Ireland	13.3	86.7
Greece	5.6	94.4
Spain	43.8	56.3
France	26.5	73.5
Italy	25.0	75.0
Cyprus	25.0	75.0
Latvia	28.6	71.4
Lithuania	13.3	86.7
Luxembourg	26.7	73.3
Hungary	0	100
Malta	22.2	77.8
Netherlands	21.4	78.6
Austria	42.9	57.1
Poland	25.0	75.0
Portugal	16.7	83.3
Romania	16.7	83.3
Slovenia	7.1	92.9
Slovakia	13.3	86.7
Finland	47.4	52.6
Sweden	50	50
United Kingdom	20	80

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making.
Data were collected in October 2011.

Table 21 – Sex distribution of members of regional assemblies – 2011

	President		Members	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	14	86	32	68
Belgium	40	60	40	60
Bulgaria	-	-	-	-
Czech Republic	14	86	17	83
Denmark	40	60	34	66
Germany	19	81	33	67
Estonia	-	-	-	-
Ireland	-	-	-	-
Greece	8	92	17	83
Spain	35	65	43	57
France	8	92	48	52
Italy	9	91	12	88
Cyprus	-	-	-	-
Latvia	40	60	21	79
Lithuania	-	-	-	-
Luxembourg	-	-	-	-
Hungary	10	90	10	90
Malta	-	-	-	-
The Netherlands	8	92	36	64
Austria	11	89	30	70
Poland	6	94	22	78
Portugal	0	100	21	79
Romania	2	98	15	85
Slovenia	-	-	-	-
Slovakia	0	100	15	85
Finland	25	75	42	58
Sweden	25	75	47	53
United Kingdom	50	50	31	69

- = not applicable, : = not available. Data collected between 02/09/2011-12/12/2011 except EL 04/02/2011-21/02/2011.

Table 22 – Sex distribution of members of single/lower houses in national parliaments – 2011

	Women	Men
EU-27	24.2	75.8
Belgium	40	60
Bulgaria	22.1	77.9
Czech Republic	22.4	77.6
Denmark	39.1	60.9
Germany	32.9	67.1
Estonia	19.8	80.2
Ireland	15.1	84.9
Greece	17.3	82.7
Spain	28.7	71.3
France	19.2	80.8
Italy	21.4	78.6
Cyprus	10.7	89.3
Latvia	21.0	79.0
Lithuania	19.1	80.9
Luxembourg	23.7	76.3
Hungary	8.8	91.2
Malta	8.7	91.3
Netherlands	40.7	59.3
Austria	27.3	72.7
Poland	23.9	76.1
Portugal	29.1	70.9
Romania	11.2	88.8
Slovenia	16.7	83.3
Slovakia	16.0	84.0
Finland	42.5	57.5
Sweden	45.0	55.0
United Kingdom	22.2	77.8

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making.
Data were collected in October 2011.