



# REPORT ON EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN 2010



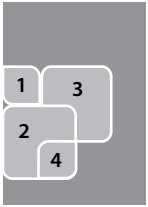


# **REPORT ON EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN 2010**

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

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## FOREWORD

While both women and men have lost jobs during the downturn, women face a higher risk of remaining unemployed and are in a generally weaker position on the labour market. That emerges from this edition of the European Commission's report on equality between women and men, which underlines the persisting challenges for gender equality in Europe and calls for a stronger gender dimension as part of the EU's future strategy for growth and jobs.

The report shows that considerable progress was made in women's employment from 1998 to 2008, with the female employment rate rising 7.1 percentage points to 59.1%. Despite a general trend towards more equality in society and on the labour market in the EU, however, progress in eliminating gender inequalities remains slow. Gender gaps persist in employment rates, pay, working hours, positions of responsibility, the sharing of care responsibilities and poverty. However, we need to ensure that the economic crisis does not stop the trend towards greater equality.

The recession represents both an opportunity and a potential threat for women's employment. Yet gender equality is a precondition for growth, employment and social cohesion, and must therefore be considered part of the solution to exiting the crisis.

This year's report also focuses on the need to prevent and combat violence against women. It is estimated that at least two women in every ten across the EU have experienced physical violence at least once in their adult lives, and around one in ten has suffered sexual violence. Efforts to eliminate this intolerable violation of women's fundamental right to life, security and integrity need to be stepped up.

2010 is an opportunity to make further progress. This year the Commission will present a new strategy for gender equality to follow up the current Roadmap for equality between women and men. A strong commitment to gender equality, supported actively by the social partners and civil society, is needed at both EU and Member State level. And most importantly, both women and men need to be convinced that gender equality is the basis for a better life and a sustainable future for all.



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# 1. INTRODUCTION

The European Commission reports each year to the Spring European Council on developments towards gender equality in the EU Member States and presents future challenges and priorities. Equality between women and men is a fundamental right and a common principle of the European Union. The EU has made a major contribution to the advancement of women and the improvement of women's and men's lives through a substantial body of equal treatment legislation and the explicit integration of the gender dimension into EU policies and instruments. There is a positive trend towards a more gender-equal society and labour market, yet gender inequalities persist, mainly to the disadvantage of women.

The current economic crisis has raised concerns that the achievements in gender equality are at risk and that the effects of the recession will put greater pressure on women. The downturn could be used as a reason to limit or cut gender equality measures, and analysis of national responses to the crisis confirms this risk. However, these times of crisis offer a unique opportunity for change, given that gender equality is a precondition for sustainable growth, employment, competitiveness and social cohesion. Policy makers

have the opportunity to implement policies to make the labour market and society more gender-equal in the future.

Although the economic and social context has changed, the crisis has not altered the underlying challenges, such as the better functioning of labour markets, the sustainability and adequacy of social protection, the ageing of society. Gender equality policies are part of the response to these challenges but the crisis reinforces the need for these policies to demonstrate their cost-effectiveness.

In 2010, the European Commission will renew its commitment to promoting gender equality by adopting a gender equality strategy to follow up the current Roadmap for equality between women and men. The Lisbon Strategy for Growth and Jobs will also be updated and it is important that gender equality is consolidated in the EU 2020 strategy. 2010 is also the European Year dedicated to combating poverty and social exclusion, which will highlight the need for effective measures to include vulnerable groups. It is furthermore the 15th anniversary of the Beijing Platform of Action when progress under the different areas for action will be assessed. This opens up the possibility to create stronger synergy between the different strategies to be revised in 2010.

## 2. MAIN DEVELOPMENTS

### 2.1. Gender gaps

Combating persisting gender inequalities in all spheres of society is a longer-term challenge, since it entails structural and behavioural changes and a redefinition of the roles of women and men. Progress is slow, and gender gaps persist as regards employment rates, pay, working hours, positions of responsibility, share of care and household duties, and risk of poverty.

The **increasing participation of women** in the labour market is a positive development, representing an important contribution to economic growth in the EU, accounting for a quarter of annual economic growth since 1995<sup>1</sup>. The female employment rate increased by 7.1 percentage points over the last decade and reached 59.1% in 2008, which is close to the Lisbon target (60% in 2010), though this rate varies between Member States, from below 40% to above 70%. The average gap between female and male employment rates fell to 13.7 percentage points in 2008 from 18.2 points in 1998.

Interrupting this positive trend, however, the **economic crisis** has had serious repercussions on the labour market and unemployment figures. Between May 2008 and September 2009, the unemployment rate at EU level rose more rapidly for men (from 6.4% to 9.3%) than for women (7.4% to 9%). The male-dominated sectors of industry and construction have been hit hard. However, in recent months female and male unemployment rates have been increasing at the same pace, reflecting probably an extension of the crisis to other sectors, more gender-mixed than the ones first hit. Moreover, in a dozen Member States, unemployment remains higher among women. Finally, as women's jobs are concentrated in the public sector, they could be disproportionately affected by job losses due to budget cuts.

Experience from past crises shows that men's employment generally recovers more quickly than women's<sup>2</sup>. For persons who become unemployed, the **risk of not being re-employed is higher for women**. Focusing

on the evolution of unemployment rates during the recession is important but may hide other less visible trends, including the over-representation of women among inactive persons (women represent more than two thirds of the 63 million persons between 25-64 who are inactive in the EU) or among part-time unemployed (part-timers who would like to work more hours) who are not necessarily registered as unemployed.

Women are more likely to have a **disadvantaged position on the labour market** e.g. due to higher incidence of precarious contracts, involuntary part-time and a persistent unfavourable pay gap (17.6% on average in the EU in 2007), with repercussions on their lifetime earnings, social security protection and pensions, resulting in higher at-risk-of-poverty rates, especially once in retirement. In 2007, the at-risk-of-poverty rate was higher for women (17%) than men (15%) and this gap was especially high for older persons (22% for women compared to 17% for men) and single parents (34%). The situation of those facing multiple disadvantages is particularly difficult. Finally, households will be more severely affected by a loss of income (due to job losses) in those countries where a male-breadwinner model still predominates, underlining the need for further support for the dual-earner model.

Beyond the current economic crisis and its effects on women and men, it is necessary to consider the **longer-term challenges** affecting gender equality in the labour market. Although the level of education among women has increased considerably in recent years, and women now outnumber men among university graduates (59% of graduates in all subjects in 2006 in the EU), women continue to be concentrated in traditionally feminised and often lower-paid sectors (health and care services, education, etc.) and occupy fewer positions of responsibility in all spheres of society. Lack of access to care services for dependent persons (children, disabled, elderly), adequate leave schemes and flexible working arrangements for both parents often hinder women from participating in the labour market or from working full-time. In 2008, 31.1% of women worked part-time compared to 7.9% of men. Taking account of the employment rate in full-time equivalents, the gender gap has been only slightly reduced since 2003 and has even widened in nine Member States.

1 OECD (2008) Gender and sustainable development. Maximising the economic, social and environmental role of women.

2 Smith, M. (2009) 'Analysis Note: Gender equality and recession', EGGE.

Women with children work less (-11.5 p.p. in the employment rate) than women without children, while men with children work more than men without children (+6.8 points). This strong influence of parenthood on employment participation is linked to traditional gender roles and the **lack of childcare facilities** in many Member States. Despite an increase in the provision of childcare over the last few years, in line with the European targets<sup>3</sup>, the coverage rates remain below these targets in many countries, especially for children under 3 years of age. **Caring for other dependants** also has a strong influence on the possibility of women and men to remain on the labour market, a challenge aggravated by the ageing of the population. In 2005, more than 20 million Europeans aged 15-64 (12.8 million women and 7.6 million men) had care responsibilities for adult dependent persons. This care responsibility plays a role in the low employment rate of women aged 55-64 (36.8% in 2008, 18.2 points lower than men's rate). The lack of adequate work-life balance measures may also influence women's and men's decision not to have children or to have fewer children, which is problematic as regards the ageing of the population and the future labour market supply, and consequently economic growth. In countries with favourable conditions for childcare, parental leave and flexible working arrangements, both female employment rates and birth rates are higher.

While there has been an increase in the number of women involved in **decision-making** or appointed to **decision-making** posts in the EU over the last years, power is still firmly in men's hands in the political and economic spheres. In the EU, on average, only one out of four members of national parliaments and senior ministers in national governments is a woman, even if the situation varies across Member States. Some progress came after the 2009 elections to the European Parliament, where the share of women rose from 31% to 35%. In the economic sector, figures are less positive and, for instance, women represent only one out of 10 board members in European blue-chip companies and 3% among the leaders of the boards.

## 2.2. Policy and legislative developments

2009 was marked by the impact of the global economic and financial crisis on the real economy and labour markets. The EU adopted at the end of 2008 a European recovery plan<sup>4</sup> including measures for maintaining women and men in employment. In May 2009, a Jobs Summit discussed the impact of the crisis and adequate policy responses. The Commission proposed 'A shared commitment for employment'<sup>5</sup> which aimed to limit the social impact of the crisis, and recognised the need to reinforce gender equality in the responses to the crisis. Recent analysis of national responses to the crisis confirms the risk of downgrading the status of equality policies or reducing budgets allocated to these policies<sup>6</sup>. Some gender equality measures have been cancelled or delayed and possible future cuts in public budgets may have a negative effect on female employment and on the promotion of equality. However, good practices have also been recorded in some Member States which have launched programmes to support the care sector<sup>7</sup>.

The Advisory Committee on equal opportunities for women and men adopted an opinion on the gender perspective of the response to the economic and financial crisis<sup>8</sup>, including recommendations on gender mainstreaming of recovery measures and the EU 2020 strategy.

Under the Swedish Presidency, the Council adopted conclusions<sup>9</sup> on the strong contribution that gender equality policies can bring to sustainable growth, employment and social inclusion and the need to strengthen the gender dimension in the EU 2020 strategy. The Council also adopted conclusions<sup>10</sup> on the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action on the basis of a report prepared by the EU Presidency.

The Council reached a political agreement on the proposal for a directive implementing the revised framework agreement on parental leave concluded by the European social partners<sup>11</sup>. This will increase the length

4 [http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms\\_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/104692.pdf](http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/104692.pdf)

5 COM(2009) 257.

6 Smith M. and Villa P. (2009) Gender equality, employment policies and the crisis in EU Member States, EGGE.

7 idem.

8 <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=2878&langId=en>

9 Council document 15488/09.

10 Council document 15992/09.

11 COM(2009) 410.

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

of parental leave, make part of it non-transferable to encourage fathers to take advantage of parental leave and offer a right to request flexible working arrangements for a set period of time when returning from parental leave. The Council also reached a political agreement with a view to a common position on the proposed revision of the directive on equal treatment of self-employed and assisting spouses<sup>12</sup>, a joint text still having to be agreed by the European Parliament and the Council, while the proposal for a revision of the directive on maternity leave<sup>13</sup> is under discussion by the EU legislators. The Commission adopted a report on the implementation of Directive 2002/73/EC<sup>14</sup> on equal treatment between women and men in the field of employment, vocational training and promo-

tion, and working conditions. Progress is being made in implementing the directive but efforts are still needed in a number of Member States to achieve correct transposition.

The Commission adopted a proposal for a Council Framework Decision on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings, and protecting victims.<sup>15</sup> 2009 was also the first year of implementation of the 'EU Guidelines on violence against women and girls and combating all forms of discrimination against them', which provide guidance on the strategies the Member States and the EU must implement in their external action to prevent violence, protect victims and prosecute perpetrators of such violence.

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12 COM(2008) 636.  
13 COM(2008) 600/4.  
14 COM(2009) 409.

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15 COM(2009) 136.

### 3. CHALLENGES AND POLICY ORIENTATIONS

Gender equality is not only a question of diversity and social fairness, it is also a precondition for meeting the objectives of sustainable growth, employment, competitiveness and social cohesion. Investing in gender equality policies pays off in terms of higher female employment rates, women's contribution to GDP, tax revenues and sustainable fertility rates<sup>16</sup>. It is important that gender equality continues to be a core element of the EU 2020 strategy, because equality between women and men has proven to be a sustainable solution to old and new challenges. Gender equality policies should therefore be considered as a long-term investment and not as a short-term cost.

The political responses given to the recession represent an opportunity as well as a potential threat for women's employment and gender equality. There is a risk that the current recession will delay advances, or even reverse progress, with longer-term consequences on the sustainability of the economy and the social protection systems, social inclusion, and demography.

Efficient gender equality policies must be considered as part of the solution for exiting the crisis, supporting recovery and building a stronger economy for the future. The basis for a sustainable recovery and for sound public finances is structural reforms aimed at ensuring increased labour force participation<sup>17</sup>. Investing in women's employment and economic independence and in work-life balance measures for both women and men has shown to pay off in terms of economic and social development<sup>18</sup>.

#### 3.1. Strengthening the synergy between gender equality and employment to stimulate recovery and sustainable growth

*Removing persisting inequalities between women and men through gender equality policies can be seen as a*

*factor for driving growth and not as a cost for society. Gender equality on the labour market can enable Member States to take advantage of the full potential labour supply, notably in view of future skills shortages. It will also contribute to the success of the policy reforms in employment policies, including flexicurity strategies.*

- Efforts to eliminate gender inequalities in employment must be continued and intensified as part of the new strategy for growth and jobs to be adopted in 2010, so as to significantly narrow the gaps in terms of employment, pay and decision-making, providing better jobs, as well as reducing labour market segregation and poverty risk.
- Reducing the gender pay gap and tackling the underlying causes<sup>19</sup> should remain a priority. Action in this area should involve all parties concerned and combine all available instruments, including the effective implementation of existing legislation, transparent evaluation of pay systems, raising awareness and combating stereotypes and reviewing job classifications.
- Tax and benefit systems should provide financial incentives for women and men to take up, remain in and return to work. Where needed, these systems should be reformed to remove financial disincentives to labour market participation of secondary earners and main carers and to ensure equal economic independence for women and men, also with regard to the earning of pension rights, while still protecting those with atypical career patterns.
- In order to limit the negative repercussions of the economic crisis on the equal participation of women and men in the labour market, policy makers have to build their policy responses on a gender-sensitive analysis of the labour market as well as systematic gender impact assessments and evaluations. Investments in social infrastructure can be a productive factor and transform economies in recovery.

<sup>16</sup> Smith, M. and Bettio, F. (2008) 'Analysis Note: The economic case for gender equality', EGGE.

<sup>17</sup> Council document 16214/09.

<sup>18</sup> Löfström, Å. (2009).

<sup>19</sup> COM(2007) 424.

### 3.2. Supporting reconciliation between work and private and family life for both women and men

*A good work-life balance for both women and men depends on modern work organisation, the availability of affordable quality care services, and a more equal sharing of family responsibilities and domestic tasks. The possibility of reconciling work and family has a direct impact on women's employment and positions in the labour market, earnings and economic independence over the life-cycle. A major challenge is to focus on policies and incentives to encourage and enable men to take up more care and family responsibilities. Policies also need to take into account the increasing number of lone-parent households, mainly headed by women.*

- Efforts to develop affordable, accessible and quality care services for children, in line with European targets, and other dependants should be continued and intensified. The potential of the Structural Funds and the EAFRD<sup>20</sup> for the financing of quality services should be fully utilised.
- The agreement of the European social partners on parental leave<sup>21</sup> shows progress in this area. Men should be encouraged to share parenting equally with women, and both women's and men's need to balance work and family life must be better recognised in the workplace.
- The economic downturn should not be used as a reason to slow down progress on reconciliation policies and to cut budgets allocated to care services and leave arrangements, affecting labour market access by women in particular.
- The proposals reviewing the two directives<sup>22</sup> on maternity leave and rights of self-employed women need to be rapidly adopted by the EU legislators.

### 3.3. Promoting social inclusion and gender equality

*Women are at a higher risk of poverty than men, partly due to lower earnings, higher prevalence in less valued and precarious employment conditions, and unpaid caring responsibilities. Poverty especially affects women in vulnerable situations, such as lone mothers, elderly single women, women with disabilities as well as women with immigrant and ethnic minority backgrounds. Roma women are at particular risk of marginalisation and exclusion.*

- Quality full-time employment is the best safeguard against poverty and social exclusion. In order to effectively ensure a stable link to the labour market, it is crucial to design and implement policies, including access to enabling services, that respond to the respective needs of women and men.
- Particularly in times of recession when poor people are at risk of falling deeper into poverty, special attention should be paid to protecting those groups facing multiple disadvantages, and to ensure their inclusion into society.
- In the context of the 2010 European Year, dedicated to combating poverty and social exclusion, it is important to address gender equality challenges in planned activities.

### 3.4. Preventing and combating gender-based violence

*Women are the main victims of gender-based violence. Across the EU, it is estimated that at least two in ten of all women have experienced physical violence at least once in their adult lives, and around one in ten have suffered forced sexual violence<sup>23</sup>. The majority of these violent acts are carried out by men in their immediate social environment, most often by partners and ex-partners. Apart from the human suffering it causes, such violence also has serious social and financial consequences, with high costs for the health sector, social services, the police and judiciary and for the labour market.*

<sup>20</sup> European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development.

<sup>21</sup> COM(2009) 410.

<sup>22</sup> COM(2008) 636 and COM(2008) 637.

<sup>23</sup> Council of Europe (2006) Combating violence against women.

- Efforts to develop preventative methods to combat gender-based violence, including trafficking in human beings for sexual and labour exploitation, should be intensified<sup>24</sup>. Prevention of gender-based violence in all its forms is essential and requires education, training and awareness, including cooperation between social services, health workers, police and the judiciary.
- Targeted action, including legislation, is needed to eliminate customary or traditional harmful attitudes and practices, including female genital mutilation, early and forced marriages, and honour crimes.
- While data is limited, findings show that gender-based violence increases in times of economic crises, with stress and job loss being leading factors<sup>25</sup>. Tackling violence and investing in women need to be given priority so that increased violence will not be a hidden consequence of the crisis.

### 3.5. Transforming commitment to gender equality into action and results

*Gender equality can only be achieved if there is a strong and clear commitment at the highest political level, be it the European institutions, governments or social partners. Progress requires turning commitment into action*

*through efficient mechanisms and structures for implementation. It is important that gender equality becomes a visible and central concern in policy and planning, and that gender mainstreaming becomes a more efficient tool in policy making.*

- A strong commitment to further progress towards gender equality needs to be sustained at both EU and Member State levels, through a follow-up strategy to the European Commission's Roadmap for equality between women and men<sup>26</sup>, the European Pact for Gender Equality<sup>27</sup> adopted by the European Council, and the Framework of actions on gender equality agreed by the European social partners<sup>28</sup>.
- Improved training and capacity building is necessary for convincing and enabling those involved in policy making to include a gender perspective in their respective areas of competence and to assess the specific impact of policies on women and men. This also requires the development of gender statistics, indicators, tools and manuals, including the exchange of best practice.
- Both women and men need to take ownership of gender issues and be convinced of the benefits for society as a whole of efficient gender equality policies. Better synergy between policies and instruments is also important for further progress.

<sup>24</sup> The Commission has put forward a proposal for a Council Framework Decision on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings, and protecting victims (COM(2009) 136).

<sup>25</sup> Lubrani, O. (2009) 'The world economic and financial crisis: What will it mean for gender equality', UNIFEM.

<sup>26</sup> COM(2006) 92.

<sup>27</sup> [http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms\\_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/89013.pdf](http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/89013.pdf)

<sup>28</sup> <http://www.etuc.org/r/704>

## 4. CONCLUSIONS

In view of the contribution that gender equality can make to sustainable growth, employment, competitiveness and social cohesion, the Commission considers that the gender dimension should be strengthened in all parts of the post-Lisbon strategy.

The Commission invites the European Council to urge the Member States to respond without delay to the challenges outlined in this report, in particular the following:

- strengthen the gender dimension in all parts of the EU 2020 strategy, including more efficient use of gender mainstreaming, and specific actions and targets for gender equality within the European Employment Strategy;
- reduce the gender pay gap through specific strategies combining all available instruments, including targets where appropriate;
- ensure that diversity in boards of listed companies fosters a balanced and long-term oriented decision-making environment and that women are encouraged to take on the challenge of board membership in listed companies;
- improve reconciliation measures for both men and women, including family-related leaves, care services, flexible working arrangements, and encourage equal sharing of private and family responsibilities, to facilitate full-time employment for both women and men;
- intensify efforts to prevent and combat gender-based violence;
- ensure that policies pay attention to women in particularly vulnerable positions – for example, women in precarious jobs, older women workers, single parents, disabled women, migrant/ethnic minority and Roma women;
- ensure that the gender perspective is mainstreamed in the responses to the recession at the European and national levels, taking into account the differentiated impact of the crisis on women and men;
- renew the commitment taken by the Member States in the European Pact for Gender Equality and reinforce partnership and synergy between the European institutions, social partners and civil society.



## STATISTICAL ANNEX

This statistical annex provides an overview of the situation of women and men in the EU, its evolution over time and remaining gender gaps in various fields such as the labour market, work-life balance, social inclusion, education and presence in decision-making positions. Most of these indicators have already been presented in previous reports in order to facilitate the follow-up from one year to another.

### Female participation in the labour market and gender gaps

The European Strategy for Jobs and Growth set the target of reaching an employment rate for women of 60% by 2010. Over the last few years, female employment has increased steadily, at a rate that was consistently higher than for men. The employment rate of women rose by 4.2 percentage points (p.p.) between 2003 and 2008, from 54.9% to 59.1%, whereas over the same period the employment rate of men increased by 2.5 p.p., from 70.3% to 72.8%. As a result, the gap between women's and men's employment rates decreased from 15.4 p.p. in 2003 to 13.7 p.p. in 2008. At national level, significant differences exist across the EU: in three Member States (Malta, Italy and Greece) less than half of working-age women are in employment, whereas this proportion is above 70% in Denmark (74.3%), Sweden (71.8%) and the Netherlands (71.1%).

The employment rate gap between women and men ranged from less than 5 p.p. in Finland and Sweden to more than 25 p.p. in Greece and Malta. Between 2003 and 2008, it narrowed in all Member States, except in seven (Slovakia, Poland, Sweden, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Romania and Finland) where it widened.

In general, the gender gap in employment rate increases with age and is highest among older workers (55 to 64 years). In 2008, it was on average 18.2 p.p., down from 19.5 p.p. in 2003 due to the strong increase in the employment rates of women above 55 years, from 30.7% in 2003 to 36.8% in 2008.

Until the economic and financial crisis (see specific analysis below), the unemployment rates of both women and men had been decreasing, from 2003 to 2008. However,

the decline was quicker for women (from 9.8% to 7.5%) than men (from 8.4% to 6.6%) and therefore the gender gap has been reduced, from 1.4 p.p. in 2003 to 0.9 p.p. in 2008. This decrease occurred notably in countries where the gap was the highest in 2003 (Spain, Malta, Italy, Greece and the Czech Republic).

### Part-time employment and full-time equivalent employment rates

Women's participation in the labour market is still largely typified by a high and increasing share of part-time work. In 2008, the share of women employees working part-time was 31.1% in the EU-27 while the corresponding figure for men was 7.9%. The share of female part-timers exceeded 35% in Denmark and Luxembourg, 40% in Belgium, Sweden, Austria, the United Kingdom and Germany and even exceeded 75% in the Netherlands. Conversely, the share of part-timers among female workers was very low in Bulgaria, Slovakia, Hungary, Latvia, the Czech Republic and Lithuania.

Because of the high prevalence of part-time employment among female workers, the positive evolution of female labour market participation described above has to be qualified. In particular the employment rates measured in full-time equivalent have increased at a much slower pace than the traditional measure (in headcounts). When measured in full-time equivalent, not only is the gender gap much higher, but it has only slightly reduced over the last five years (from 21.2 p.p. in 2003 to 20.2 p.p. in 2008) and has even widened in nine Member States (Poland, Slovakia, Sweden, Bulgaria, Romania, Lithuania, Finland, the Czech Republic and Hungary).

### Growth potential of eliminating gender gaps in employment

Many studies<sup>29</sup> in the last decade have shown the positive impact that gender equality has on economic development. Gender equality can be a productive factor and female participation in the labour market has many economic and social benefits. Several studies have estimated the impact of an increase in female employment (or of a reduction of the gender gaps in

<sup>29</sup> For a summary of the existing studies, see e.g. the analysis note by the Network of experts in gender and employment issues : M. Smith and F. Bettio, *The economic case for gender equality, 2008* (available at : <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=748&langId=en>).

employment) on economic growth. One of the most recent studies<sup>30</sup> estimates the potential increase in GDP that would occur following the elimination of gender gaps, i.e. if women's rates were to reach the level of men's rates in terms of employment, part-time work and productivity (measured by wages). It concludes that there could be a gain in GDP of almost 30% for the EU as a whole if gender gaps were eliminated<sup>31</sup>. The gain ranges from less than 20% in Slovenia, Bulgaria, Portugal, Latvia and Finland to 35% or more in Ireland, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Greece and Malta. Even if the limitations of these calculations and the risk of overestimation are recognised in this study, these figures show the great economic potential of reducing gender gaps (not only in employment rates but also in part-time working and in pay) in all EU Member States.

### Recent trends arising from the financial and economic crisis

The economic and financial crisis is having a strong impact on the labour market situation of both women and men. Initially, the impact on men's employment was greater than on women's employment because the hardest-hit sectors since the crisis began, besides the financial sector, are manufacturing, construction and transport where male workers still account for the largest employment share.

The EU average men's unemployment rate has been rising faster than the women's rate and even exceeded it in recent months. From May 2008 (when unemployment rates started to rise) to September 2009, the men's unemployment rate rose from 6.4% to 9.3% while the female rate rose from 7.4% to 9%. However, women's unemployment rates remain higher than men's rates in half of the Member States. Moreover, on average in the EU, the women's unemployment rate remains higher than the men's rate among persons aged 25 and more, reflecting the fact that it is especially among young people that men are more affected by unemployment than women.

It is important to consider not only the evolution of the unemployment rates but also the employment rates, since not every person losing his/her job becomes registered as unemployed and in times of crisis the risk of exiting the labour market is significant. In one year (between second quarter 2008 and second quarter 2009), male employment rates decreased by 2.1 p.p., while female employment rates stagnated (-0.3 p.p.). In most Member States, the male employment rate has decreased faster.

However, it should be noted that the full impact of the crisis on the labour market situation of women and men is not yet known. For instance, public administration is the fourth largest sector in terms of planned net job losses (after manufacturing, transport and the financial sector)<sup>32</sup> and is highly feminised. It is therefore likely that the extension of the crisis to other sectors (i.e. other than the male dominated ones that were first hit by the recession) will have a strong impact on female employment, notably in the public sector, due to the likely reduction of public spending<sup>33</sup>.

### Reconciliation between work, private and family life

Parenthood has traditionally a significant long-term impact on women's participation in the labour market. This reflects women's predominant role in the care of children, elderly or disabled persons. In 2008, the employment rate for women aged 25-49 was 67% when they had children under 12, compared to 78.5% when they did not, a negative difference of 11.5 p.p. Interestingly, men with children under 12 had a significantly higher employment rate than those without, 91.6% vs. 84.8%, a positive difference of 6.8 p.p. In the United Kingdom, Estonia and Malta, the negative impact of parenthood on female employment is higher than 15 p.p.; it is higher than 20 p.p. in Ireland and Slovakia and higher than 25 p.p. in Hungary and the Czech Republic. On the contrary, the impact of parenthood on the female employment rate is limited (less than 5 p.p.) in Belgium, Portugal and Slovenia and is even slightly positive in Denmark (women with

30 Löfström, Å. *Gender equality, economic growth and employment*, 2009. This report was presented at the conference held under the Swedish Presidency 'What does gender equality mean for growth and employment?', Stockholm, 15-16 October 2009, and is available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=3988&langId=en>

31 For the EU-27 as a whole, the non-weighted average is 27% but the average weighted with population size of each Member State would be 28% and the average weighted with GDP would be 29%.

32 Source : European Restructuring Monitor.

33 Concerning the impact of the recession on gender equality, see e.g. the analysis note by the Network of experts in gender and employment issues : M. Smith, *Gender equality and recession*, 2009 (available at : <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=748&langId=en>) and the forthcoming report : Smith M. and Villa P. (2009) *Gender equality, employment policies and the crisis in EU Member States*, EGGE.

children having a higher employment rate than women without). There is much less variation in the impact on men, with the positive impact ranging from 3.5 p.p. in Bulgaria to 11.3 p.p. in Luxembourg.

An important factor affecting parents' (and especially the mother's) opportunity to participate in the labour market is the availability of care services for children and other dependent persons. Some progress has been observed in the proportion of children under 3 covered by formal care services, with the share increasing on average from 25% in 2005 to 30% in 2007 (EU-25 average), thus moving towards the Barcelona target of 33%. However, this share varies across countries and these services are not always available on a full-time basis or affordable. In the EU, around 30% of working-age women having care responsibilities are inactive or work part-time (but would like to work more hours) due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons. This share is below 10% in the Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark but is higher than 60% in Spain and Greece and even higher than 80% in Latvia and Romania.

### Education and research

While the average educational attainment of women and men is now similar over the entire working-age population, young women (20-24) record a higher level of educational attainment than men in almost all Member States. On average, 81.3% of young women (20-24) reached at least upper secondary school in the EU in 2008, against only 75.6% of young men. Furthermore, women represent as much as 59% of university graduates in the EU. This share is higher than 50% in all Member States and even higher than 65% in Hungary, Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia. While this trend will most probably have a positive impact on women's outcomes on the labour market in the future, it is to be noted that until now the generally high skills levels of women have not been fully reflected in their employment outcomes. Indeed, even if the gender gap in employment rates is lower among women and men having tertiary education (than among women and men having a lower level of education), gender gaps seem also to follow a lifecycle pattern, with the level of education having a limited influence. Gender gaps in employment, part-time work and pay tend to

rise between the age of 25 and the age of 35, reflecting the high impact of family responsibilities on female employment.

Finally, although women now outnumber men among university graduates, they are under-represented among researchers and academic staff. Men outnumber women among PhD students and graduates, especially for science, mathematics and computing and for engineering, manufacturing and construction. Furthermore, women represent only 18% of the professors in public universities<sup>34</sup>.

### Gender segregation of the labour market

The choice of study fields certainly impacts on the gender segregation of the labour market, as regards both occupations and economic sectors. There has not been much positive evolution in aggregate levels of segregation in sectors and occupations since 2003. In 2008, Estonia, Slovakia, Lithuania, Latvia and Finland faced high segregation in occupations and the same five countries (though in another order) have the highest levels of segregation in sectors. Consequently, women are under-represented in certain private sectors that are crucial for economic growth. Moreover, it is expected that in the medium run, skill and labour shortages will affect mixed occupations less than male- or female-dominated occupations, which adds to the need for a more balanced distribution of occupations<sup>35</sup>. This concerns for instance the female-dominated occupations of service workers and sales assistants, clerical staff and care workers and home helpers and the male-dominated occupations of engineers, plant and machine operators and assemblers.

### Pay gap

As a result of all the above mentioned gender inequalities in the labour market (some of them resulting from personal choices by women and men), there is a persistent gender pay gap in the EU. The gender pay gap (defined as the difference between men's and women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's

<sup>34</sup> European Commission, *She Figures 2009 – Statistics and Indicators on Gender Equality in Science, 2009*, available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/research/science-society/document\\_library/pdf\\_06/she\\_figures\\_2009\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/research/science-society/document_library/pdf_06/she_figures_2009_en.pdf)

<sup>35</sup> See the recently published report by the EC's Network of experts on gender and employment issues: F. Bettio and A. Verashchagina, *Gender segregation in the labour market – Root causes, implications and policy responses in the EU, 2009*.

average gross hourly earnings) was estimated in 2007 at 17.6% on average in the EU. It exceeded 25% in two countries (Estonia and Austria) and 20% in seven countries (Slovakia, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Germany, the United Kingdom and Greece). However, it was below 10% in Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Belgium.

### At-risk-of-poverty rates

The disadvantaged position of women on the labour market has consequences in terms of their higher exposure to the risk of poverty. This was particularly true for persons above 65 years, among whom the share of people living in households at risk of poverty (having an income below the threshold set at 60% of the national median income) was significantly higher for women than for men in the EU-27 in 2007 (22% vs. 17%). This was a pattern in almost all Member States. The gap exceeds 10 p.p. in Slovenia and Bulgaria and 15 p.p. in Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania and Romania.

When considering at risk of poverty rates among the working age population (18 to 64), the gender gap is limited (2 p.p., 16% for women compared to 14% for men in the EU-27) and is mainly due to the highest prevalence of poverty among single-parent households (34% on average for the EU-27), headed in majority by women. Indeed, the at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated at household level and it is assumed that all members of a given household have the same level of poverty. Comparisons between the sexes are based on the assumption of equal sharing of resources within households. However, due to the fact that women are often secondary earners or do not earn any salary<sup>36</sup> and that they devote more time to unpaid domestic and family work, their economic independence is often

limited and some of them face a high risk of poverty in the event of break-up, divorce or death of their partner<sup>37</sup>. Therefore, the current figures of at-risk-of-poverty rates at household level cannot fully reflect the individual situation of women and men.

### Women in decision-making positions

The average number of female members of national parliaments (single/lower houses) was 24% in 2009, one p.p. higher than in 2005. The percentage is above 35% in Spain, Denmark, Belgium and Finland and above 40% in the Netherlands and Sweden. However, it was below 15% in Ireland, Hungary and Romania and did not exceed 10% in Malta.

Among senior ministers of national governments (i.e. ministers with a seat in the cabinet), the share of women increased from 22% in 2005 to 26% in 2009. The increase was higher than 10 p.p. in Slovakia, Italy, Finland and Denmark, higher than 15p.p in Poland and Slovenia and even reached 20 p.p. in France.

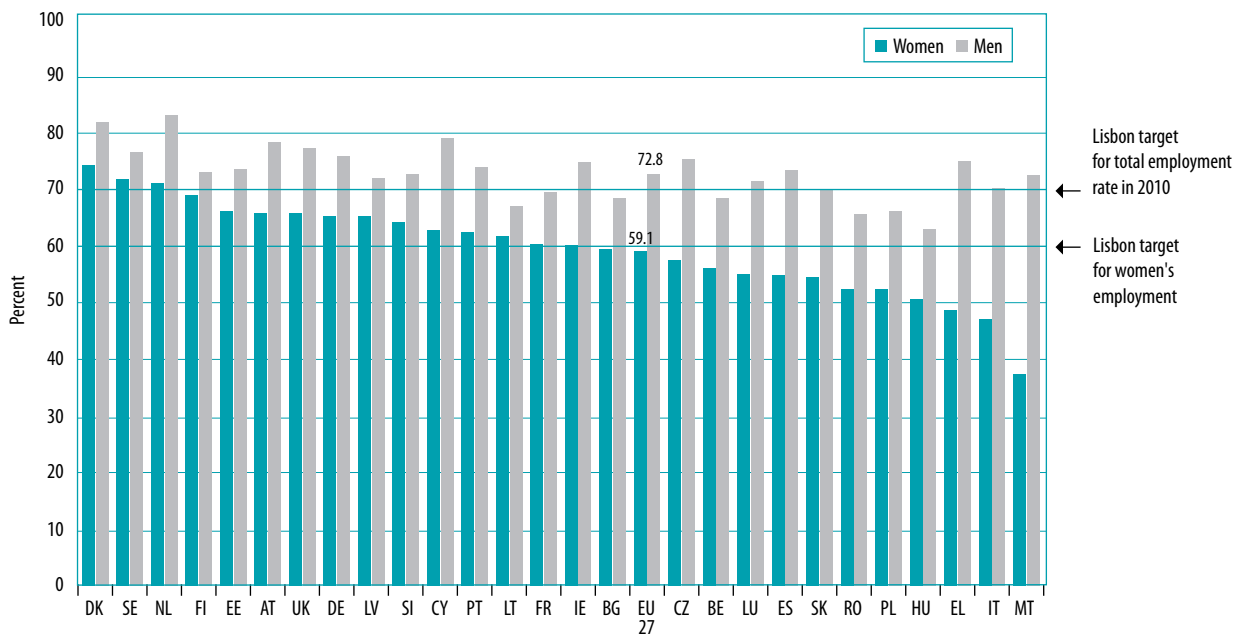
In the economic field, women represent on average almost one-third of leaders of businesses in the EU, but in most countries the share is lower than that. It is below 25% in Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Malta and Cyprus but above 35% in Spain, Latvia and France.

As regards female membership of the boards ('highest decision-making body') of the largest publicly quoted companies, the situation is markedly different. In 2009, women represented, on average, only 11% of these board members at EU level. The percentage exceeded 20% only in Finland (24%) and Sweden (27%); it was below 5% in Malta, Italy, Portugal, Cyprus and Luxembourg.

<sup>36</sup> According to a report by the EC's Network of experts on gender and employment issues (F. Bettio and A. Verashchagina, *Fiscal systems and female employment*, 2009, forthcoming) based on EU-SILC data, the share of couples in which the woman is the secondary earner (brings less than 45% of the household earnings) or does not earn any salary is 63.5% in the EU on average (non weighted). It ranges from 53% in Slovenia to 81% in Austria.

<sup>37</sup> The Belgian Gender and Income Analysis (BGIA) project has calculated individualised at risk of poverty rates (based on individualised income of women and men) which lead to much higher gender gaps between women and men. For Belgium in 2007, this individualised risk of poverty would be 36% for women and 11% for men, compared to 16% for women and 13% for men in the measurement based on households. Although these calculations are based on the strong hypothesis of absence of sharing of resources between household members (instead of the hypothesis of total sharing of resources), they reflect certain gaps in the economic independence of women and men and the risk of poverty women would face in the event of break-up, divorce or death of their partner.

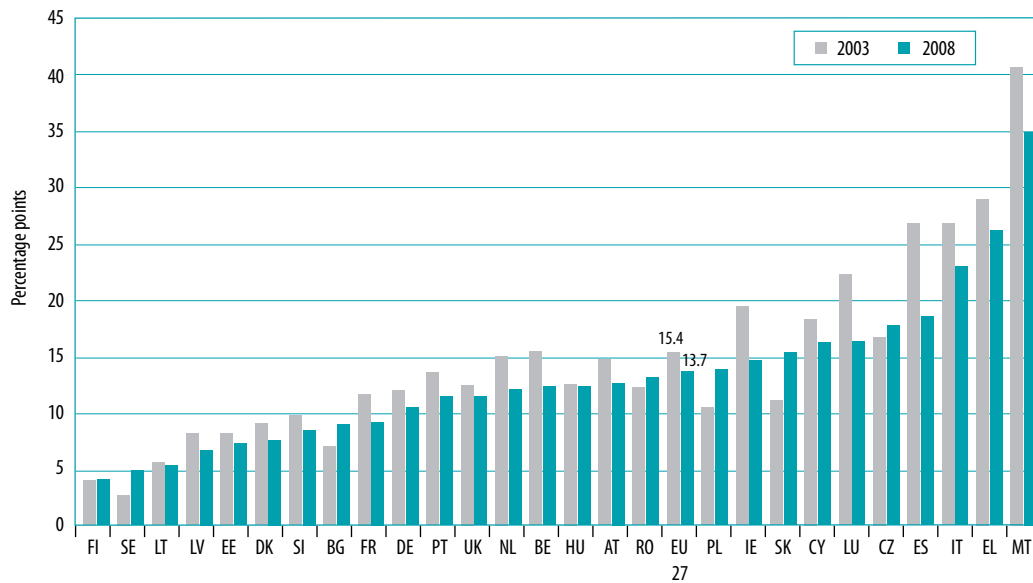
### Employment rates (women and men aged 15 - 64) in EU Member States – 2008



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

### Absolute gender gap in employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) in EU Member States – 2003 and 2008

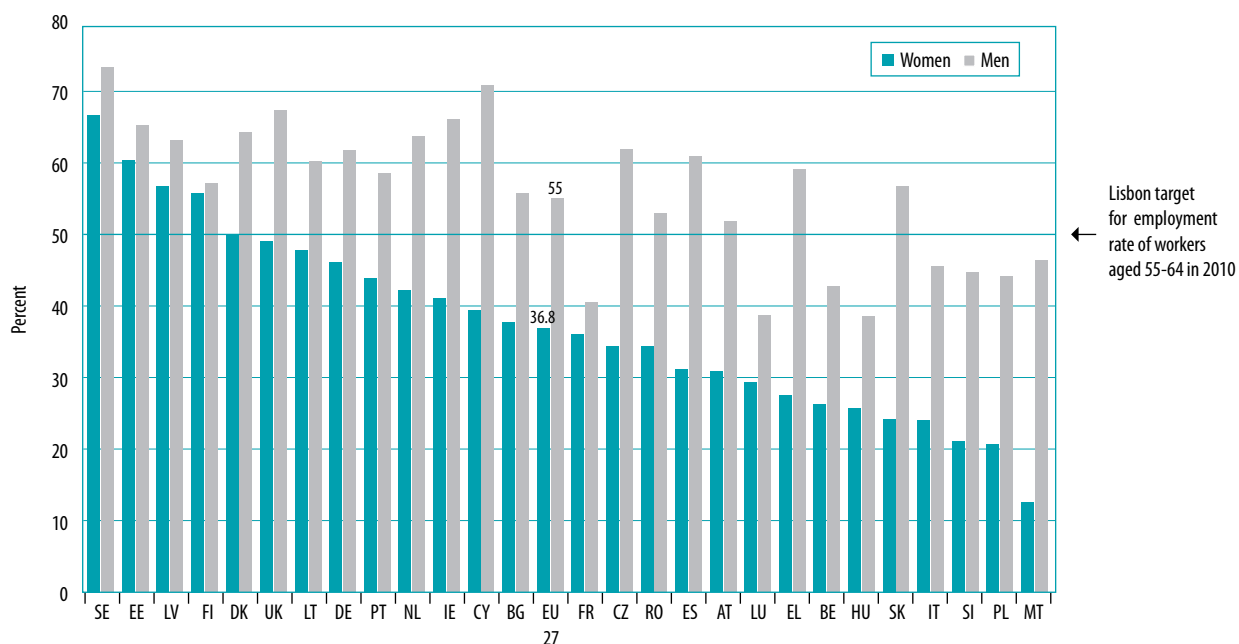
(Difference between men's and women's employment rates)



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

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

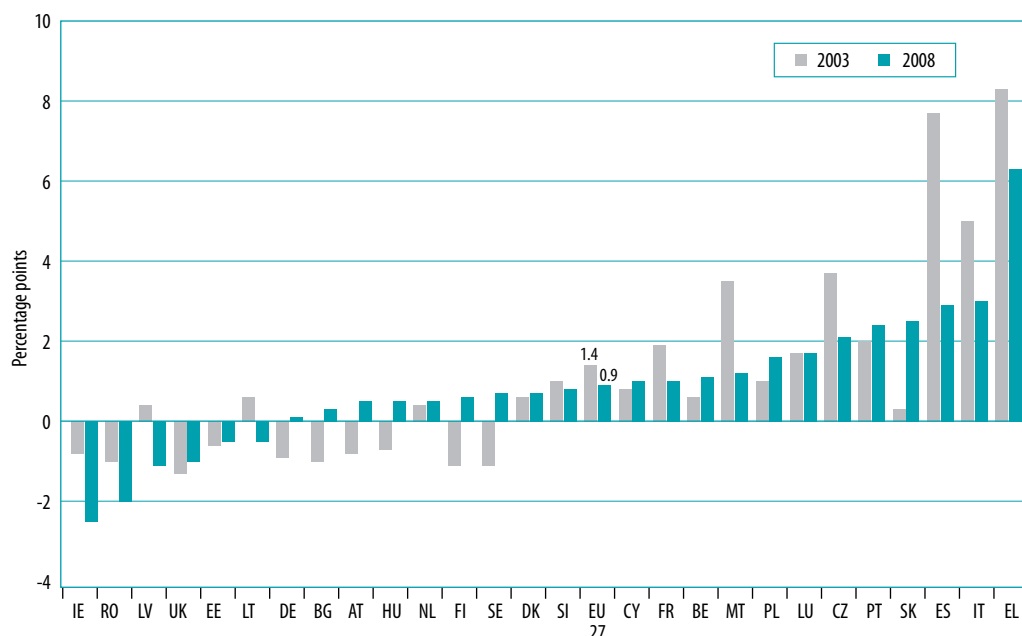
### Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55 - 64) in EU Member States – 2008



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

### Absolute gender gap in unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 years and over) in EU Member States – 2003 and 2008

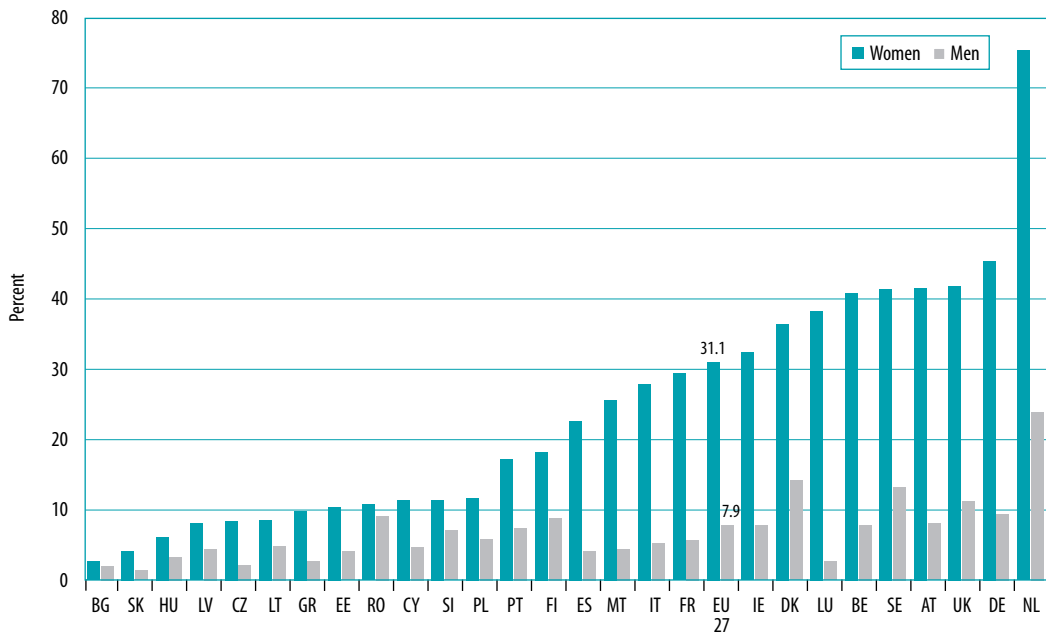
(Difference between women's and men's unemployment rates)



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

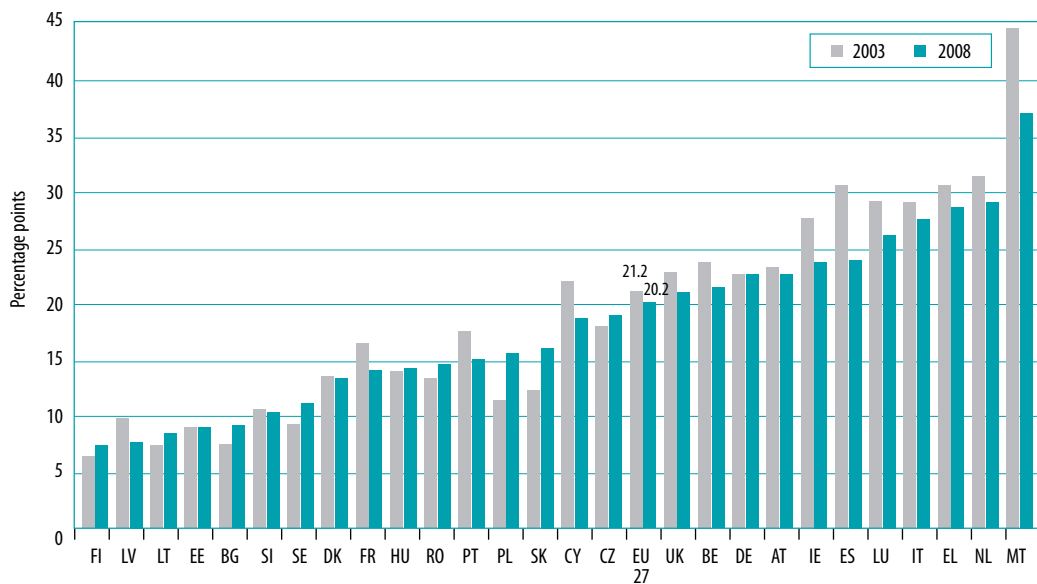
Notes: A positive gap indicates higher unemployment rates for women in comparison with men, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

### Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over) in EU Member States – 2008



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

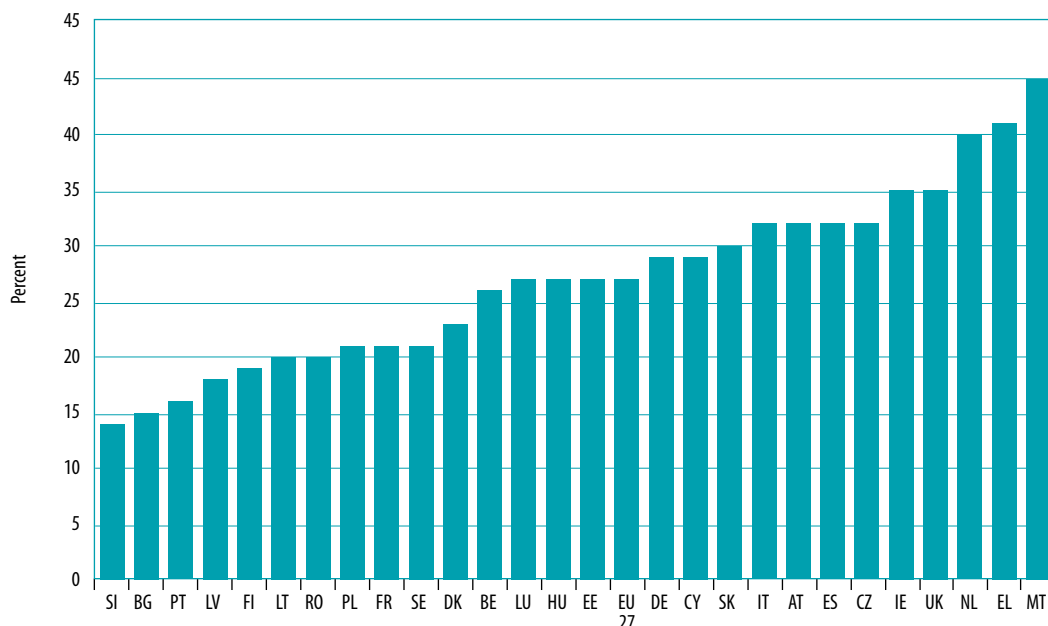
### Absolute gender gap in employment rates, measured in full time equivalent (women and men aged 15-64) in EU Member States – 2003 and 2008 (Difference between men's and women's employment rates)



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

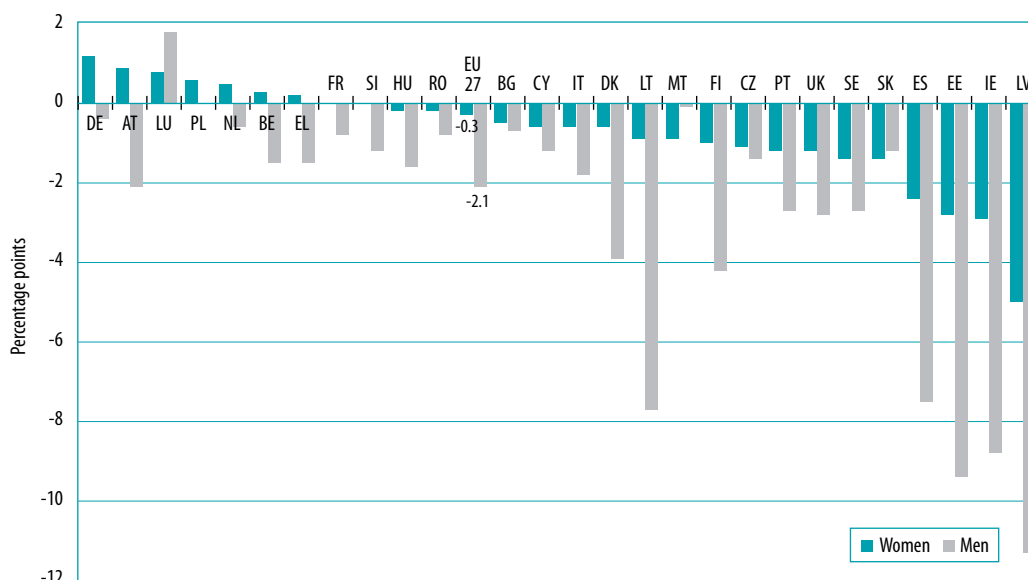
NB: A positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

### Potential growth in GDP in the EU Member States following a transition to full equality in the labour market, in % of GDP



Source: Löfström, Å. 'Gender equality, economic growth and employment, 2009'. This report was presented at the conference held under the Swedish Presidency 'What does gender equality mean for growth and employment?', Stockholm, 15-16 October 2009. These figures are an estimation of the potential increase in GDP that would occur following the elimination of gender gaps, i.e. if women's rates were to reach the level of men's rates in terms of employment, part-time work and productivity (measured by wages).

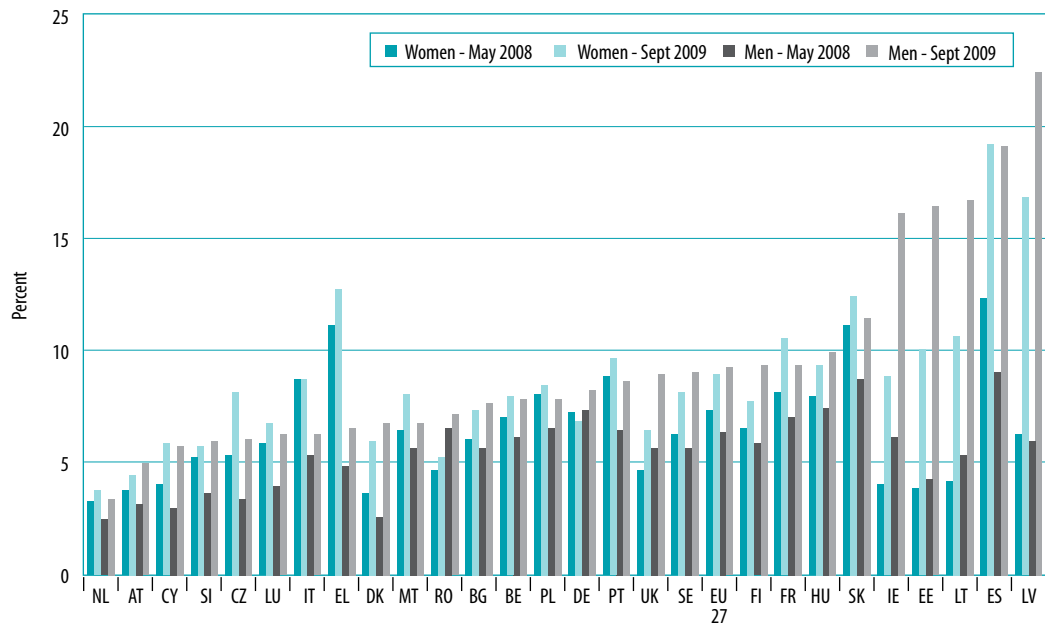
### Evolution of employment rates between 2008 and 2009 (second quarter) for women and men (aged 15-64) in EU Member States



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), quarterly data.



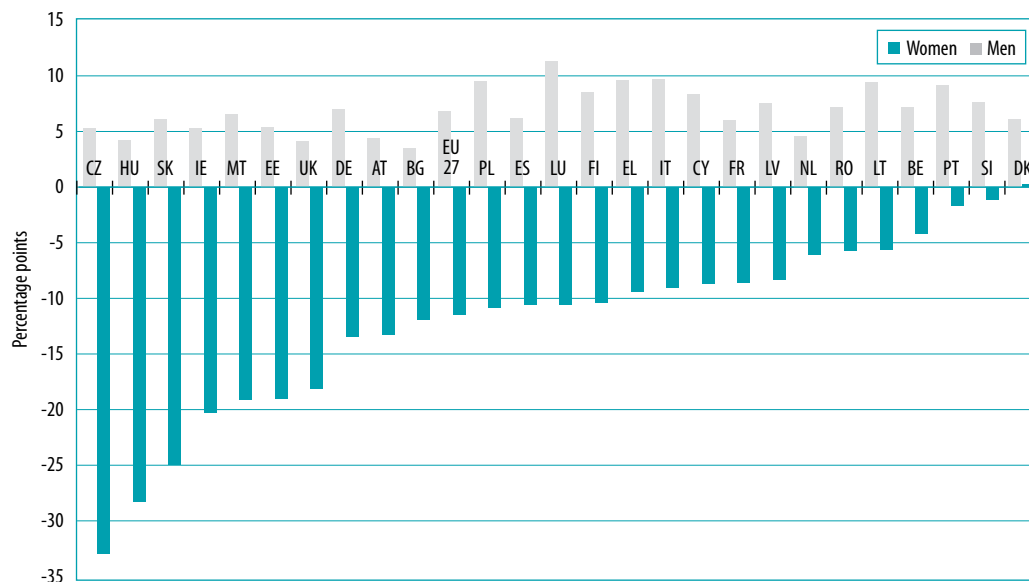
### Unemployment rates among women and men in EU Member States, in May 2008 and September 2009 <sup>(1)</sup>, seasonally adjusted, in %



Notes: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.

(1) Exception to the reference period : UK : July 2009; EL, LT, RO : 2nd quarter 2009; EE : 3rd quarter.

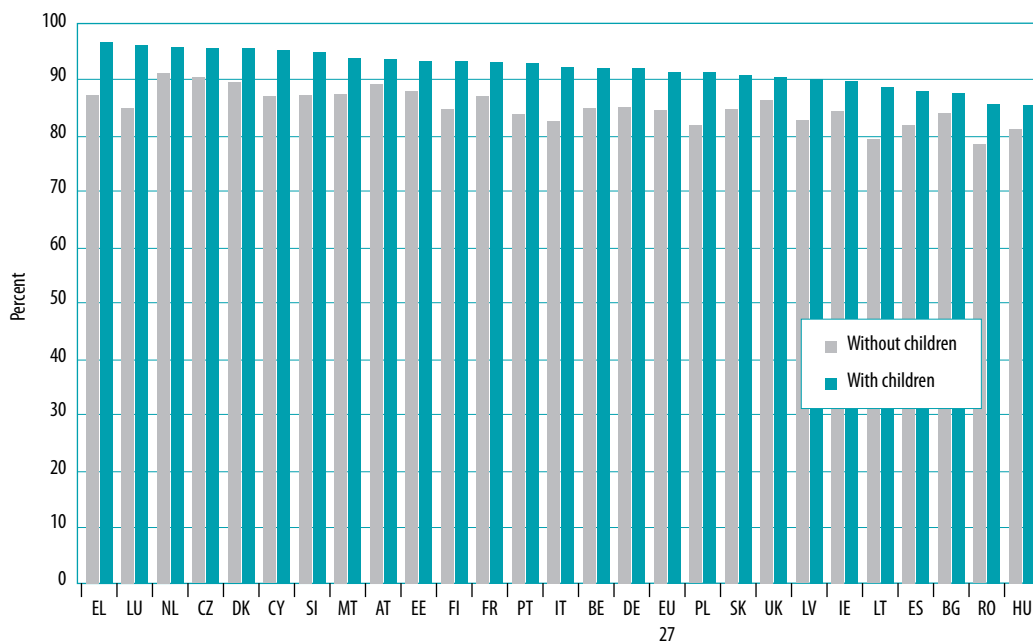
### Employment impact of parenthood for women and men (aged 25-49) in 2008 Difference in percentage points in employment rates with presence of a child under 12 and without the presence of any children



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

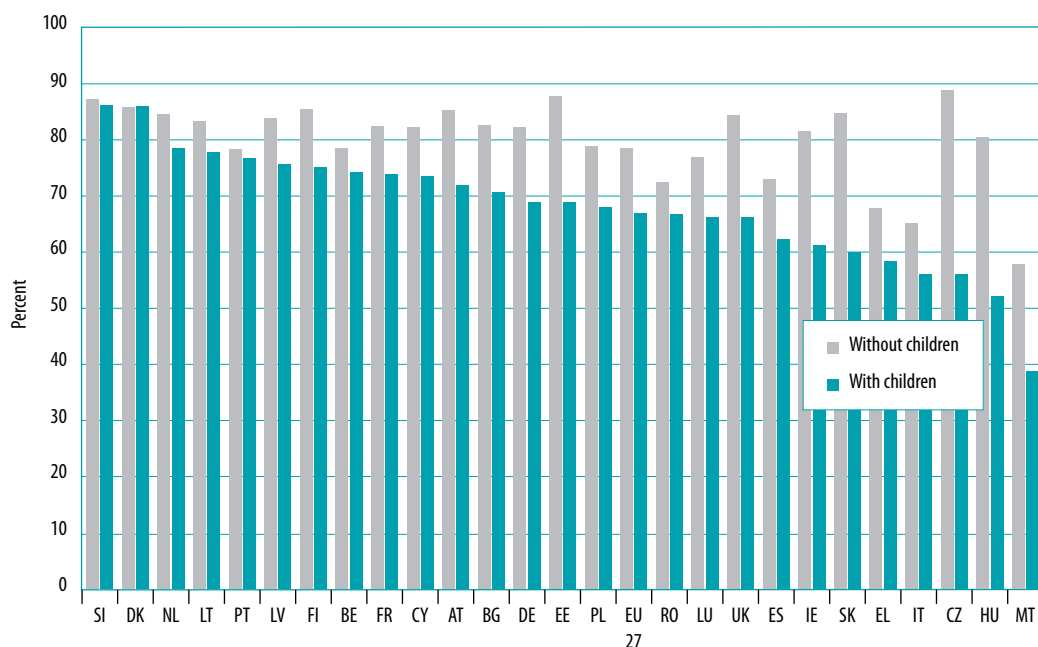
Notes: no data available for SE.

### Employment rates of men aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) – 2008



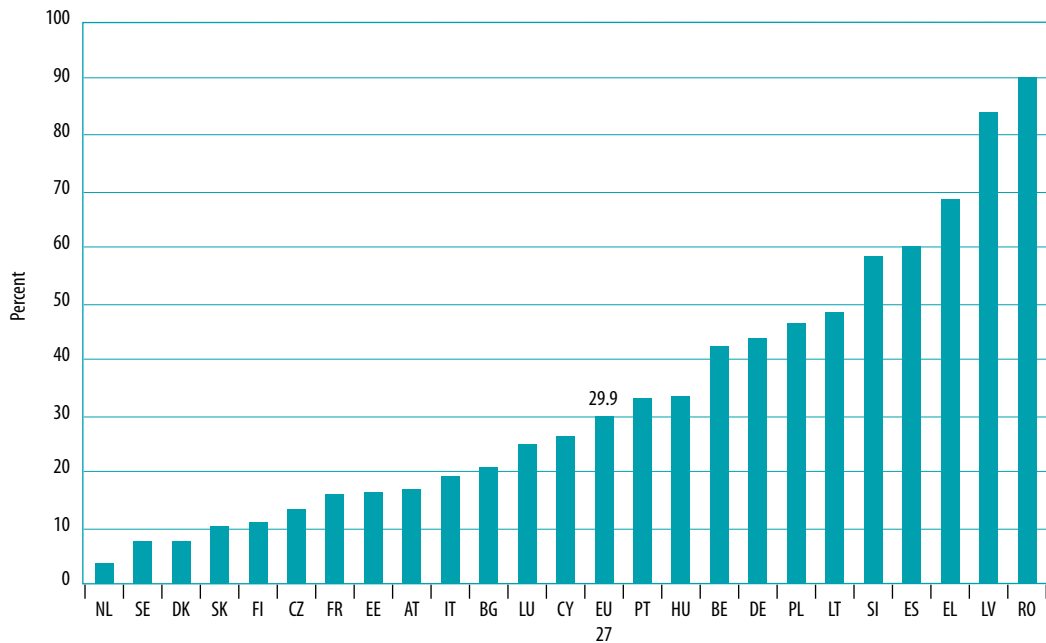
Source: Eurostat, European Labour Force Survey, annual averages.  
Notes: No data available for SE.

### Employment rates of women aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) – 2008



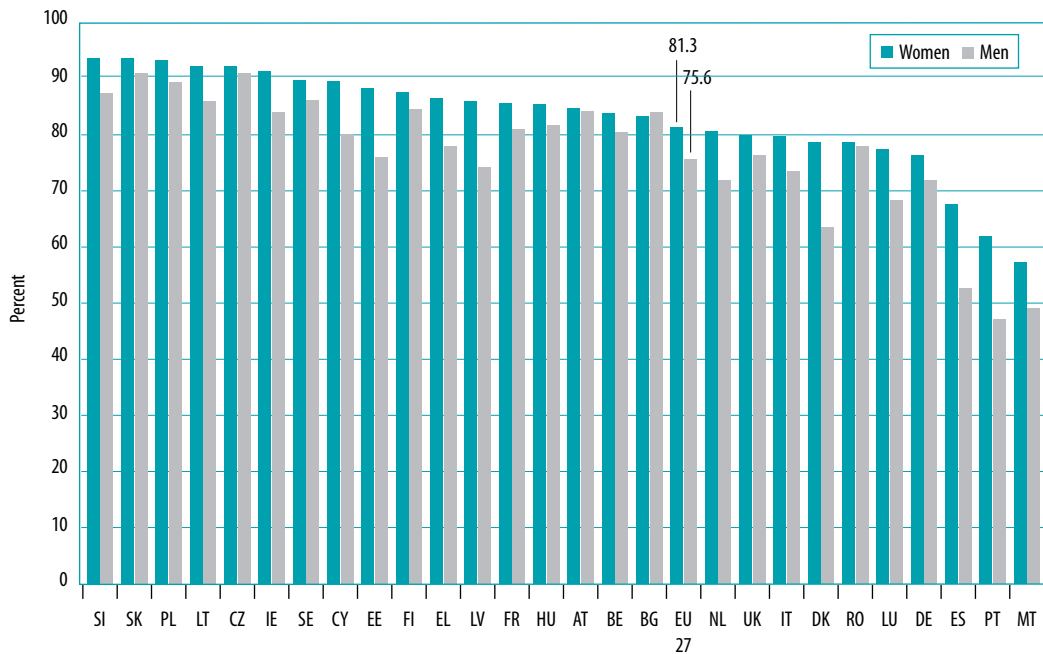
Source: Eurostat, European Labour Force Survey, annual averages.  
Notes: No data available for SE.

### 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), in 2008



Source: Eurostat - Labour Force Survey. IE, MT, UK : data not available.

### Educational attainment (at least upper secondary school) of women and men aged 20-24, in EU Member States – 2008

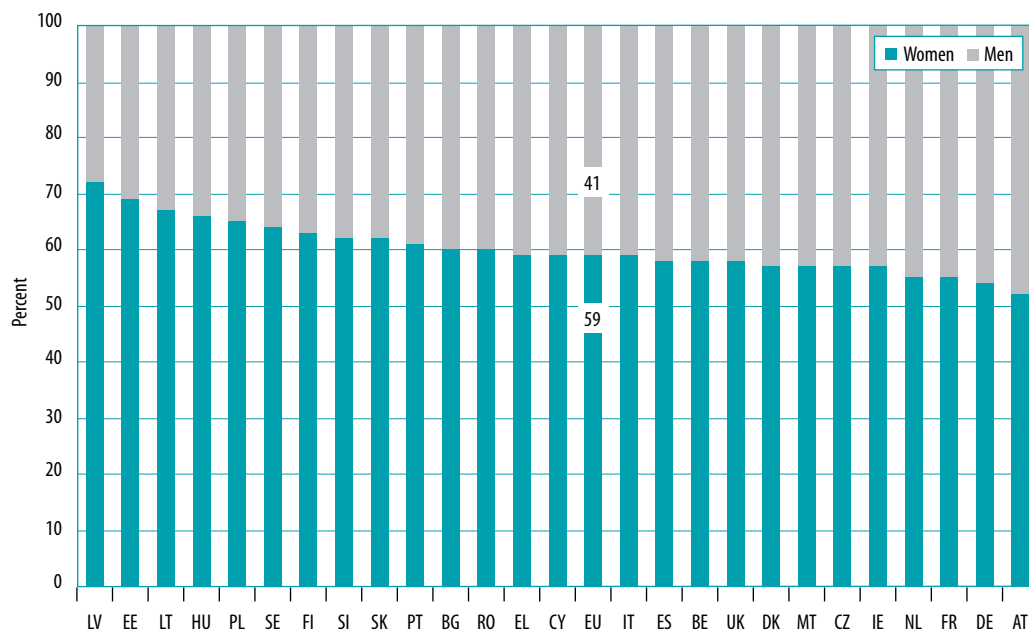


Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages.

NB: FI: provisional values.

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

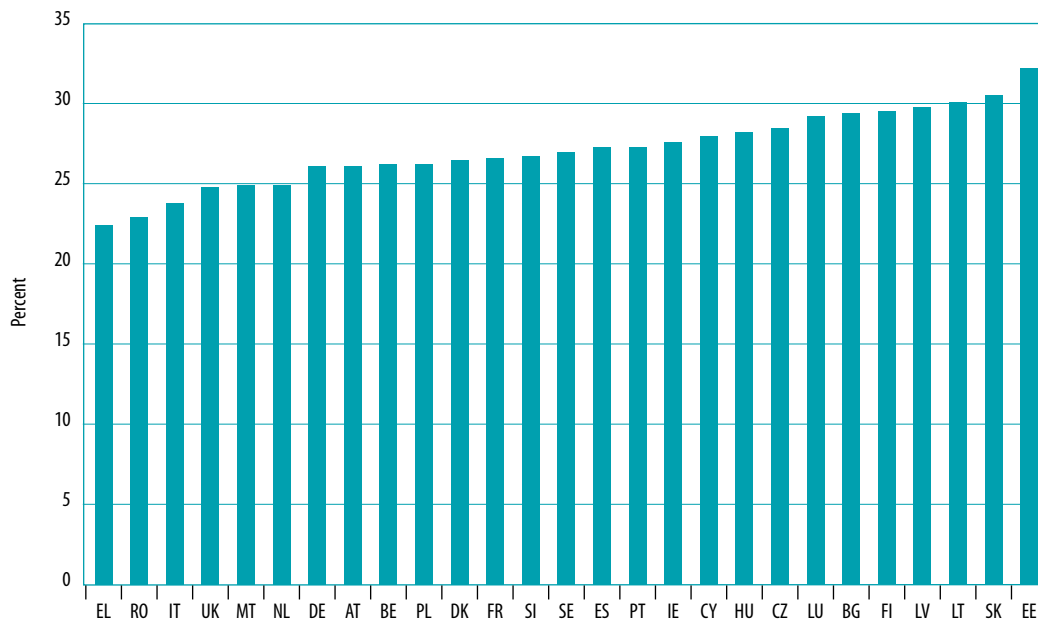
### Sex distribution of tertiary education graduates, for EU Member States, in 2007



Source: Eurostat, Education statistics.

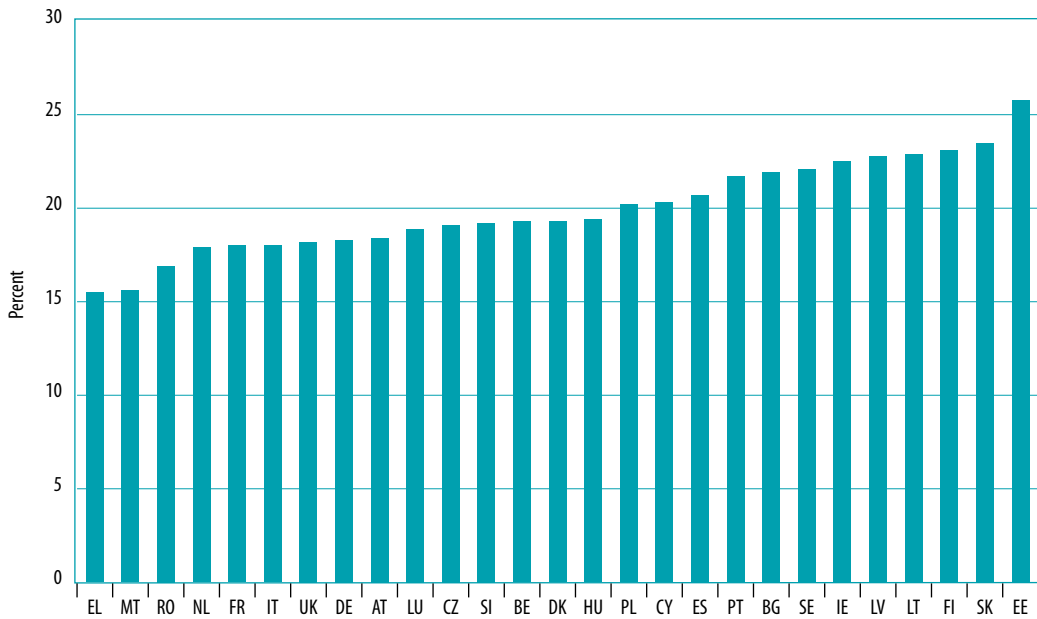
Note: LU: no data available. The EU-27 value is calculated on the basis of all countries except LU.

### Gender segregation in occupations in EU Member States, in 2008



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

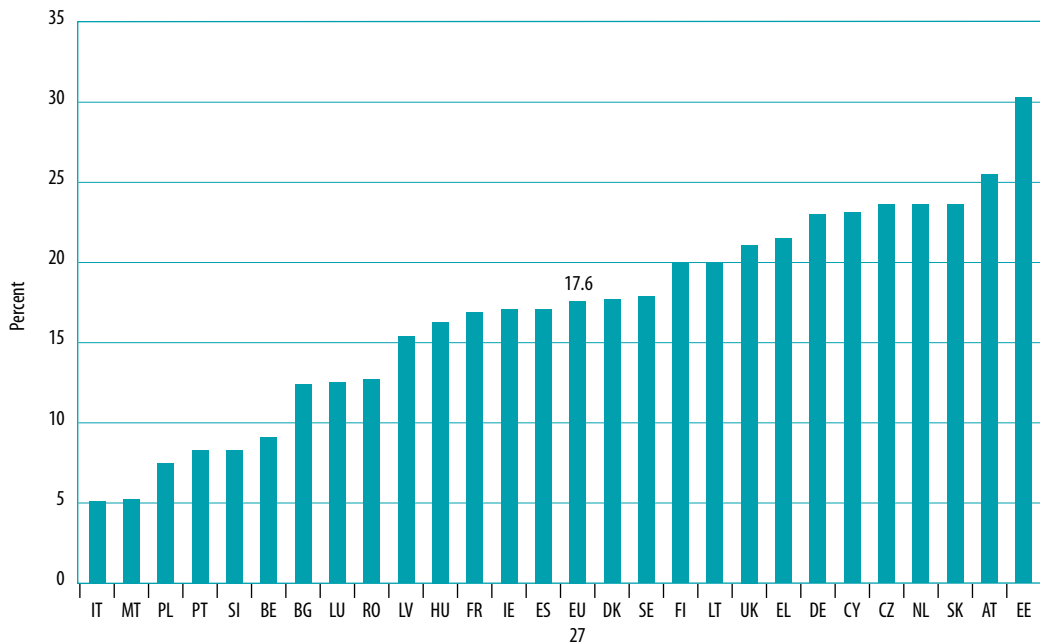
### Gender segregation in economic sectors in EU Member States, in 2008



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

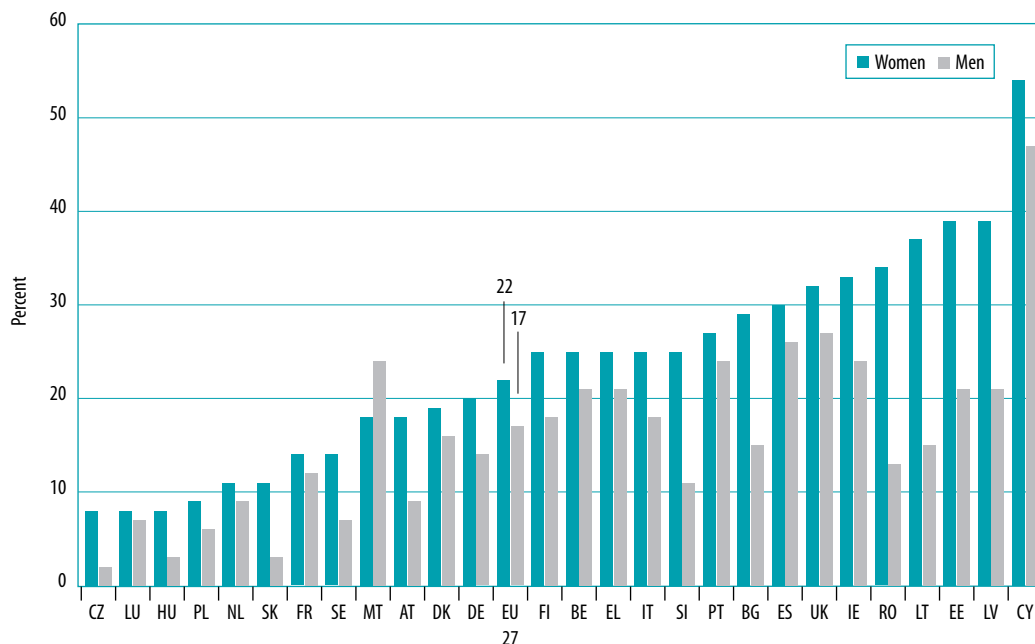
### Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States – 2007

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



Source: Eurostat. Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and national sources (2007) for yearly SES-comparable estimates.

### At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers <sup>(1)</sup> for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over), in EU Member States, 2007

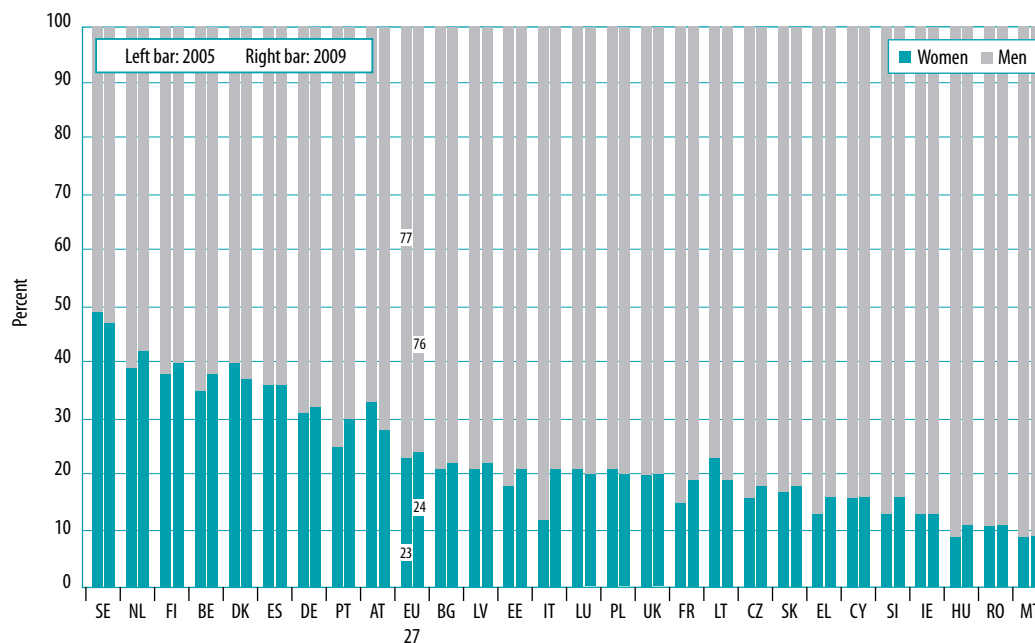


Source: Eurostat. SILC.

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

Source: EU-27: SILC 2007, Income data 2006; except for UK, income year 2007 and for IE moving income reference period (2006-2007). EU aggregates are Eurostat estimates and computed as population weighted averages of national values.

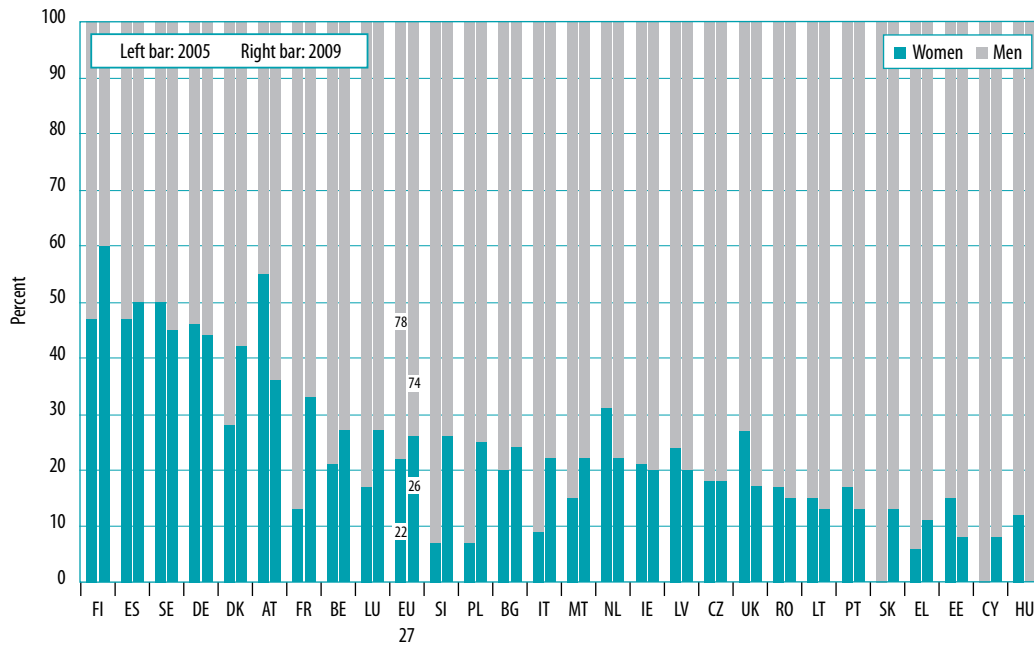
### Sex distribution of members of single/lower houses of national parliaments in EU Member States - in 2005 and 2009 <sup>(1)</sup>



Source: European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision-making

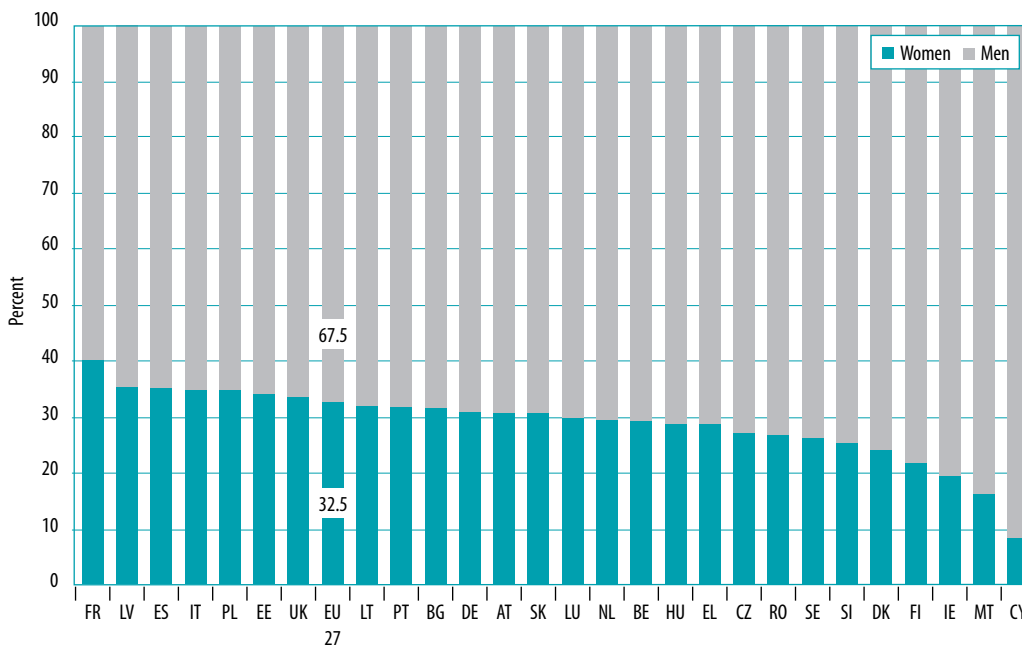
NB: (1) Data for 2009 were collected in August 2009. The indicator was developed as part of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers.

### Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments in EU Member States – in 2005 and 2009 <sup>(1)</sup>



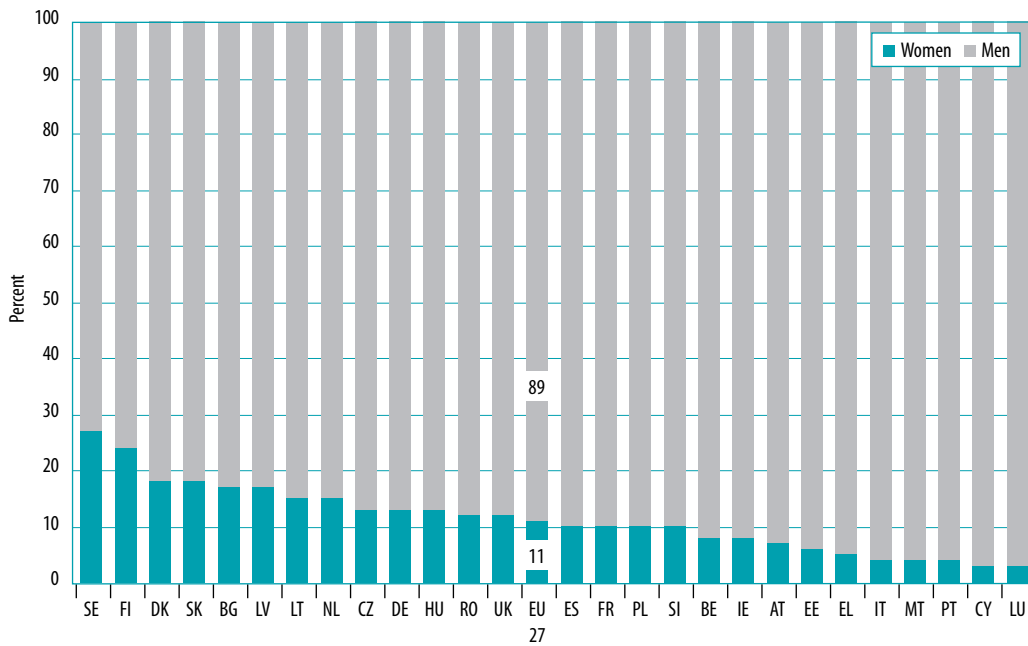
Source: European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision-making  
 NB: (1) Data for 2005 were collected in August 2005 and data for 2009 were collected in August 2009. The indicator has been developed as part of the follow-up of the Beijing 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.

### Sex distribution of leaders of businesses, in 2008



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS). NB: leaders of businesses covers ISCO (International Standard Classification of Occupations) categories 121 (Directors and chief executives) and 13 (Managers of small enterprises).  
 For MT and CY: data lack reliability due to small sample size.  
 FR: the figures exclude Directors and CEOs, for which data are not available

### Sex distribution of members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies in 2009



Source: European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision-making. Data were collected in August 2009. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.



Employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	54.9	59.1	70.3	72.8	15.4	13.7
Belgium	51.8	56.2	67.3	68.6	15.5	12.4
Bulgaria	49	59.5	56	68.5	7	9
Czech Republic	56.3	57.6	73.1	75.4	16.8	17.8
Denmark	70.5	74.3	79.6	81.9	9.1	7.6
Germany	58.9	65.4	70.9	75.9	12	10.5
Estonia	59	66.3	67.2	73.6	8.2	7.3
Ireland	55.7	60.2	75.2	74.9	19.5	14.7
Greece	44.3	48.7	73.4	75	29.1	26.3
Spain	46.3	54.9	73.2	73.5	26.9	18.6
France	58.2	60.4	69.9	69.6	11.7	9.2
Italy	42.7	47.2	69.6	70.3	26.9	23.1
Cyprus	60.4	62.9	78.8	79.2	18.4	16.3
Latvia	57.9	65.4	66.1	72.1	8.2	6.7
Lithuania	58.4	61.8	64	67.1	5.6	5.3
Luxembourg	50.9	55.1	73.3	71.5	22.4	16.4
Hungary	50.9	50.6	63.5	63	12.6	12.4
Malta	33.6	37.4	74.5	72.5	40.9	35.1
Netherlands	66	71.1	81.1	83.2	15.1	12.1
Austria	61.6	65.8	76.4	78.5	14.8	12.7
Poland	46	52.4	56.5	66.3	10.5	13.9
Portugal	61.4	62.5	75	74	13.6	11.5
Romania	51.5	52.5	63.8	65.7	12.3	13.2
Slovenia	57.6	64.2	67.4	72.7	9.8	8.5
Slovakia	52.2	54.6	63.3	70	11.1	15.4
Finland	65.7	69	69.7	73.1	4	4.1
Sweden	71.5	71.8	74.2	76.7	2.7	4.9
United Kingdom	65.3	65.8	77.8	77.3	12.5	11.5

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

Employment rates of older workers (women and men aged 55-64) in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	30.7	36.8	49.9	55	19.2	18.2
Belgium	18.7	26.3	37.8	42.8	19.1	16.5
Bulgaria	21	37.7	40.5	55.8	19.5	18.1
Czech Republic	28.4	34.4	57.5	61.9	29.1	27.5
Denmark	52.9	49.8	67.3	64.3	14.4	14.5
Germany	31.6	46.1	48.2	61.8	16.6	15.7
Estonia	47.3	60.3	58.9	65.2	11.6	4.9
Ireland	33.1	41.1	64.6	66.1	31.5	25
Greece	25.5	27.5	58.7	59.1	33.2	31.6
Spain	23.3	31.1	59.2	60.9	35.9	29.8
France	33.3	36.0	40.8	40.5	7.5	4.5
Italy	18.5	24	42.8	45.5	24.3	21.5
Cyprus	32.7	39.4	68.9	70.9	36.2	31.5
Latvia	38.8	56.7	51.3	63.1	12.5	6.4
Lithuania	36.7	47.8	55.3	60.2	18.6	12.4
Luxembourg	20.6	29.3	39.7	38.7	19.1	9.4
Hungary	21.8	25.7	37.8	38.5	16	12.8
Malta	13	12.5	53.8	46.4	40.8	33.9
Netherlands	31.8	42.2	56.7	63.7	24.9	21.5
Austria	20.8	30.8	40.4	51.8	19.6	21
Poland	19.8	20.7	35.2	44.1	15.4	23.4
Portugal	42.4	43.9	62.1	58.5	19.7	14.6
Romania	33.3	34.4	43.5	53	10.2	18.6
Slovenia	14.6	21.1	33.2	44.7	18.6	23.6
Slovakia	11.2	24.2	41	56.7	29.8	32.5
Finland	48.3	55.8	51	57.1	2.7	1.3
Sweden	66.3	66.7	70.8	73.4	4.5	6.7
United Kingdom	46.3	49	64.8	67.3	18.5	18.3

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

Unemployment rates (women and men aged 15 and over) in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008						
In this table, the gender gap is calculated as women's unemployment rate minus men's unemployment rate						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	9.8	7.5	8.4	6.6	1.4	0.9
Belgium	8	7.6	7.4	6.5	0.6	1.1
Bulgaria	13.2	5.8	14.2	5.5	-1	0.3
Czech Republic	9.6	5.6	5.9	3.5	3.7	2.1
Denmark	5.7	3.7	5.1	3	0.6	0.7
Germany	9.3	7.5	10.2	7.4	-0.9	0.1
Estonia	10.4	5.3	11	5.8	-0.6	-0.5
Ireland	4	4.6	4.8	7.1	-0.8	-2.5
Greece	14.3	11.4	6	5.1	8.3	6.3
Spain	15.9	13	8.2	10.1	7.7	2.9
France	9.6	7.9	7.7	6.9	1.9	1
Italy	11.9	8.5	6.9	5.5	5	3
Cyprus	4.6	4.2	3.8	3.2	0.8	1
Latvia	10.8	6.9	10.4	8	0.4	-1.1
Lithuania	13.2	5.6	12.6	6.1	0.6	-0.5
Luxembourg	4.7	6	3	4.3	1.7	1.7
Hungary	5.4	8.1	6.1	7.6	-0.7	0.5
Malta	9.9	6.8	6.4	5.6	3.5	1.2
Netherlands	3.8	3	3.4	2.5	0.4	0.5
Austria	4.3	4.1	5.1	3.6	-0.8	0.5
Poland	19.9	8	18.9	6.4	1	1.6
Portugal	7.2	9	5.2	6.6	2	2.4
Romania	6.4	4.7	7.4	6.7	-1	-2
Slovenia	7	4.8	6	4	1	0.8
Slovakia	17.3	10.9	17	8.4	0.3	2.5
Finland	9.9	6.7	11	6.1	-1.1	0.6
Sweden	5	6.6	6.1	5.9	-1.1	0.7
United Kingdom	4.1	5.1	5.4	6.1	-1.3	-1

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

Share of part-time workers in total employment (persons aged 15 and over), in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008				
	Women		Men	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	29.1	31.1	6.8	7.9
Belgium	39.7	40.9	6.3	7.9
Bulgaria	2.9	2.7	2	2
Czech Republic	8.5	8.5	2.3	2.2
Denmark	32.0	36.5	11.4	14.2
Germany	40.8	45.4	6.1	9.4
Estonia	10.6	10.4	5.5	4.1
Ireland	31.3	32.4	6.7	7.8
Greece	7.4	9.9	2.1	2.8
Spain	17.4	22.7	2.7	4.2
France	29.7	29.4	5.6	5.8
Italy	17.2	27.9	3.3	5.3
Cyprus	13.2	11.4	5.5	4.8
Latvia	13.7	8.1	6.5	4.5
Lithuania	11.2	8.6	7	4.9
Luxembourg	30.7	38.3	1.6	2.7
Hungary	6.1	6.2	2.8	3.3
Malta	21.0	25.6	4.2	4.5
Netherlands	74.2	75.3	22	23.9
Austria	35.4	41.5	4.8	8.1
Poland	13.1	11.7	7.9	5.9
Portugal	17.3	17.2	7.1	7.4
Romania	13.0	10.8	11.1	9.1
Slovenia	8.5	11.4	4.9	7.1
Slovakia	3.7	4.2	1.3	1.4
Finland	17.8	18.2	8.3	8.9
Sweden	35.4	41.4	11.3	13.3
United Kingdom	44.2	41.8	10.4	11.3

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

Employment rates (women and men aged 15-64) measured in full-time equivalent rates, in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	47.7	50.7	68.9	70.9	21.2	20.2
Belgium	42.9	46.9	66.7	68.4	23.8	21.5
Bulgaria	48.8	59	56.3	68.2	7.5	9.2
Czech Republic	55.1	56.1	73.2	75.1	18.1	19
Denmark	61.8	63.8	75.4	77.2	13.6	13.4
Germany	46.2	49.5	68.9	72.2	22.7	22.7
Estonia	57	64.3	66	73.3	9	9
Ireland	46.7	51.1	74.4	74.9	27.7	23.8
Greece	43.2	47	73.9	75.7	30.7	28.7
Spain	41.9	49.1	72.6	73.1	30.7	24
France	51.8	53.7	68.3	67.8	16.5	14.1
Italy	39.9	41.8	69	69.4	29.1	27.6
Cyprus	57.2	60.3	79.3	79.1	22.1	18.8
Latvia	56.5	66	66.3	73.7	9.8	7.7
Lithuania	58.4	60.3	65.8	68.8	7.4	8.5
Luxembourg	43.7	47.7	72.9	73.9	29.2	26.2
Hungary	50	49.2	64	63.5	14	14.3
Malta	30.6	34.5	75.3	71.6	44.7	37.1
Netherlands	41.7	45.4	73.2	74.5	31.5	29.1
Austria	51.6	52.1	74.9	74.8	23.3	22.7
Poland	44.7	50.6	56.1	66.2	11.4	15.6
Portugal	57.9	59.3	75.5	74.4	17.6	15.1
Romania	51.8	51.6	65.2	66.3	13.4	14.7
Slovenia	55.5	60.8	66.1	71.2	10.6	10.4
Slovakia	50.9	52.9	63.2	69	12.3	16.1
Finland	62	65	68.4	72.4	6.4	7.4
Sweden	63	62.5	72.3	73.7	9.3	11.2
United Kingdom	50.7	52.2	73.6	73.3	22.9	21.1

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

Potential growth in GDP in the EU Member States following a transition to full equality in the labour market, in % of GDP	
EU-27 (non weighted average)	27
Belgium	26
Bulgaria	15
Czech Republic	32
Denmark	23
Germany	29
Estonia	27
Ireland	35
Greece	41
Spain	32
France	21
Italy	32
Cyprus	29
Latvia	18
Lithuania	20
Luxembourg	27
Hungary	27
Malta	45
Netherlands	40
Austria	32
Poland	21
Portugal	16
Romania	20
Slovenia	14
Slovakia	30
Finland	19
Sweden	21
United Kingdom	35

Source: Löfström, Å., 'Gender equality, economic growth and employment, 2009'. This report was presented at the conference held under the Swedish Presidency 'What does gender equality mean for growth and employment?', Stockholm, 15-16 October 2009. These figures are an estimation of the potential increase in GDP that would occur following the elimination of gender gaps, i.e. if women's rates were to reach the level of men's rates in terms of employment, part-time work and productivity (measured by wages).

Evolution of employment rates between 2008 and 2009 (second quarter) for women and men (aged 15-64) in EU Member States				
	Women		Men	
	2008-II	2009-II	2008-II	2009-II
EU-27	59.1	58.8	73.0	70.9
Belgium	55.7	56	68.3	66.8
Bulgaria	59.5	59	68.4	67.7
Czech Republic	57.8	56.7	75.3	73.9
Denmark	74.4	73.8	82.4	78.5
Germany	65	66.2	75.6	75.2
Estonia	66.1	63.3	73.8	64.4
Ireland	60.5	57.6	75.6	66.8
Greece	49	49.2	75.4	73.9
Spain	55.2	52.8	74.4	66.9
France	60.6	60.6	69.7	68.9
Italy	47.5	46.9	70.8	69
Cyprus	63.3	62.7	79.3	78.1
Latvia	66.2	61.2	72.9	61.6
Lithuania	61.3	60.4	68	60.3
Luxembourg	55.8	56.6	72.8	74.6
Hungary	50.1	49.9	63.1	61.5
Malta	38.5	37.6	71.6	71.5
Netherlands	70.9	71.4	83.3	82.7
Austria	65.7	66.6	79	76.9
Poland	52.1	52.7	66	66
Portugal	63.1	61.9	74.3	71.6
Romania	53.1	52.9	66.4	65.6
Slovenia	63.7	63.7	72.6	71.4
Slovakia	54.2	52.8	69.2	68
Finland	70	69	74.7	70.5
Sweden	72.3	70.9	77.2	74.5
United Kingdom	65.9	64.7	77.4	74.6

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), quarterly data.

Unemployment rates among women and men in EU Member States, in May 2008 and September 2009 <sup>(1)</sup> , seasonally adjusted, in % (In this table, the gender gap is calculated as women's unemployment rate minus men's unemployment rate)						
	Women		Men		Gender gap	
	May 2008	Sept. 2009	May 2008	Sept. 2009	May 2008	Sept. 2009
EU-27	7.4	9	6.4	9.3	1	-0.3
Belgium	7.1	8	6.2	7.9	0.9	0.1
Bulgaria	6.1	7.4	5.7	7.7	0.4	-0.3
Czech Republic	5.4	8.2	3.4	6.1	2	2.1
Denmark	3.7	6	2.6	6.8	1.1	-0.8
Germany	7.3	6.9	7.4	8.3	-0.1	-1.4
Estonia	3.9	11.9	4.3	18.4	-0.4	-6.4
Ireland	4.1	8.9	6.2	16.2	-2.1	-7.3
Greece	11.2	12.8	4.9	6.6	6.3	6.2
Spain	12.4	19.3	9.1	19.2	3.3	0.1
France	8.2	10.6	7.1	9.4	1.1	1.2
Italy	8.8	9.2	5.4	6.9	3.4	2.5
Cyprus	4.1	5.9	3	5.8	1.1	0.1
Latvia	6.3	16.9	6	22.5	0.3	-5.6
Lithuania	4.2	10.8	5.4	16.8	-1.2	-6.1
Luxembourg	5.9	6.8	4	6.3	1.9	0.5
Hungary	8	9.4	7.5	10	0.5	-0.6
Malta	6.5	8.1	5.7	6.8	0.8	1.3
Netherlands	3.3	3.8	2.5	3.5	0.8	0.4
Austria	3.8	4.5	3.2	5	0.6	-0.5
Poland	8.1	8.5	6.6	7.9	1.5	0.6
Portugal	8.9	9.7	6.5	8.7	2.4	1
Romania	4.7	5.3	6.6	7.2	-1.9	-1.9
Slovenia	5.3	5.8	3.7	6	1.6	-0.2
Slovakia	11.2	12.5	8.8	11.5	2.4	1
Finland	6.6	7.9	5.9	9.3	0.7	-1.6
Sweden	6.4	8.3	5.8	9.1	0.6	-0.9
United Kingdom	4.8	6.5	5.7	9	-0.9	-2.5

Notes: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey. (1) Exception to the reference period: UK: July 2009; EE, EL, IT, LT, RO: 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter 2009; EE: 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter.



Employment rates of women and men (aged 25-49), with or without children (under 12) in 2008						
	With children		Without children		Difference (in p.p.)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	67.0	91.6	78.5	84.8	-11.5	6.8
Belgium	74.3	92.3	78.5	85.2	-4.2	7.2
Bulgaria	70.7	87.8	82.6	84.3	-11.9	3.5
Czech Republic	56.0	95.9	88.8	90.6	-32.9	5.3
Denmark	86.0	95.8	85.8	89.7	0.2	6.1
Germany	68.9	92.3	82.3	85.3	-13.4	7.0
Estonia	68.8	93.5	87.8	88.1	-19.0	5.4
Ireland	61.2	89.9	81.5	84.6	-20.3	5.3
Greece	58.4	97.0	67.8	87.5	-9.4	9.6
Spain	62.3	88.2	72.9	82.1	-10.6	6.2
France	73.8	93.3	82.4	87.3	-8.6	6.0
Italy	56.1	92.5	65.1	82.8	-9.0	9.7
Cyprus	73.6	95.6	82.2	87.2	-8.7	8.3
Latvia	75.6	90.4	83.9	82.9	-8.3	7.5
Lithuania	77.8	88.9	83.4	79.5	-5.6	9.4
Luxembourg	66.2	96.5	76.9	85.2	-10.6	11.3
Hungary	52.2	85.7	80.5	81.4	-28.3	4.2
Malta	38.8	94.1	57.8	87.6	-19.1	6.5
Netherlands	78.5	96.0	84.6	91.4	-6.1	4.6
Austria	71.9	93.9	85.2	89.5	-13.3	4.4
Poland	68.0	91.5	78.8	82.0	-10.8	9.5
Portugal	76.7	93.1	78.4	84.0	-1.7	9.1
Romania	66.8	85.8	72.5	78.6	-5.7	7.2
Slovenia	86.1	95.1	87.2	87.5	-1.1	7.6
Slovakia	59.9	91.0	84.8	84.9	-24.9	6.1
Finland	75.1	93.5	85.5	84.9	-10.4	8.5
United Kingdom	66.2	90.7	84.3	86.6	-18.1	4.1

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual average. Note: no data available for SE.

<b>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), in 2008</b>	
	2008
EU-27	29.9
Belgium	42.4
Bulgaria	20.8
Czech Republic	13.3
Denmark	7.5
Germany	43.8
Estonia	16.3
Greece	68.5
Spain	60.1
France	15.9
Italy	19.1
Cyprus	26.2
Latvia	84
Lithuania	48.4
Luxembourg	24.9
Hungary	33.4
Netherlands	3.7
Austria	16.9
Poland	46.4
Portugal	33
Romania	90.2
Slovenia	58.4
Slovakia	10.2
Finland	11
Sweden	7.5

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey. IE, MT, UK: data not available.

Educational attainment (at least upper secondary school) of women and men aged 20 – 24, in EU Member States — 2003 and 2008				
	Women		Men	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
EU-27	79.4	81.3	74.4	75.6
Belgium	84.6	83.9	77.9	80.5
Bulgaria	77.3	83.4	75.4	84.0
Czech Republic	91.5	92.2	92.8	91.0
Denmark	78.5	78.6	73.8	63.6
Germany	73.4	76.4	71.6	71.9
Estonia	85.1	88.3	77.9	76.0
Ireland	88.5	91.3	81.6	84.1
Greece	86.8	86.6	76.6	78.0
Spain	69.2	67.6	55.5	52.7
France	83.0	85.7	79.7	81.0
Italy	75.1	79.7	66.8	73.5
Cyprus	87.0	89.5	71.3	80.1
Latvia	80.9	86.0	70.1	74.3
Lithuania	87.9	92.3	80.6	85.9
Luxembourg	75.6	77.4	69.7	68.3
Hungary	86.1	85.5	83.4	81.7
Malta	48.8	57.3	41.3	49.1
Netherlands	78.0	80.6	72.0	71.9
Austria	83.4	84.8	85.1	84.2
Poland	92.8	93.3	87.9	89.3
Portugal	55.5	61.9	40.4	47.1
Romania	75.7	78.6	74.3	77.9
Slovenia	94.0	93.6	87.7	87.4
Slovakia	94.5	93.6	93.7	91.0
Finland	87.6	87.6	83.0	84.6
Sweden	87.2	89.7	84.3	86.2
United Kingdom	78.9	80.0	78.4	76.4

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

NB: FI: provisional values for 2008. DK, FR, HU, LU and MT: break in series.  
Students living abroad for one year or more and conscripts on compulsory military service are not covered by the EU Labour Force Survey, which may lead to lower rates than those available at national level. This is especially relevant for CY.

Sex distribution of tertiary education graduates, for EU Member States, in 2007		
	Women	Men
EU-27	59	41
Belgium	58	42
Bulgaria	60	40
Czech Republic	57	43
Denmark	57	43
Germany	54	46
Estonia	69	31
Ireland	57	43
Greece	59	41
Spain	58	42
France	55	45
Italy	59	41
Cyprus	59	41
Latvia	72	28
Lithuania	67	33
Hungary	66	34
Malta	57	43
Netherlands	55	45
Austria	52	48
Poland	65	35
Portugal	61	39
Romania	60	40
Slovenia	62	38
Slovakia	62	38
Finland	63	37
Sweden	64	36
United Kingdom	58	42

*Source:* Eurostat, Education statistics.

*Note:* LU: no data available. The EU-27 value is calculated on the basis of all countries except LU.

Gender segregation in occupations and in economic sectors in EU Member States, in 2003 and 2008				
	Gender segregation in occupations		Gender segregation in economic sectors	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
Belgium	26.3	26.2	19.2	19.3
Bulgaria	27.8	29.4	19.3	21.9
Czech Republic	29.4	28.5	19.5	19.1
Denmark	27.4	26.5	18.3	19.3
Germany	26.7	26.1	18.2	18.3
Estonia	32.1	32.2	24	25.8
Ireland	27.1	27.6	21.1	22.5
Greece	21.7	22.4	15.9	15.5
Spain	26.4	27.3	20.2	20.7
France	26.3	26.6	17.2	18
Italy	22.3	23.8	15.7	18
Cyprus	28.6	28	18.1	20.3
Latvia	27.8	29.8	20.9	22.8
Lithuania	27.5	30.1	21.9	22.9
Luxembourg	24.7	29.2	18.6	18.9
Hungary	28.8	28.2	19.7	19.4
Malta	23.8	24.9	15.9	15.6
Netherlands	25.3	24.9	18	17.9
Austria	27.7	26.1	20.8	18.4
Poland	25.2	26.2	14.1	20.2
Portugal	27.4	27.3	22	21.7
Romania	11.8	22.9	14.3	16.9
Slovenia	27.2	26.7	17.8	19.2
Slovakia	30.5	30.5	22.7	23.5
Finland	29.5	29.5	21.9	23.1
Sweden	27.7	27	21.6	22.1
United Kingdom	26.5	24.8	18.9	18.2

*Source:* Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) — Spring data (except for LU in 2003: annual average data). Data lack comparability due to changes in certain survey characteristics: for occupations, RO: based until 2004 on ISCO 1 digit. Break in series for IT, AT, DE, ES and SE. Gender segregation in occupations is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification). Gender segregation in sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (NACE classification).

Pay gap between women and men in unadjusted form in EU Member States — 2007 and 2008 (Difference between men's and women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's average gross hourly earnings)		
	2007	2008
EU-27	17.6	-
Belgium	9.1	-
Bulgaria	12.4	-
Czech Republic	23.6	26.2
Denmark	17.7	-
Germany	23.0	23.2
Estonia	30.3	-
Ireland	17.1	-
Greece	21.5	22.0
Spain	17.1	17.1
France	16.9	19.2
Italy	5.1	4.9
Cyprus	23.1	21.6
Latvia	15.4	13.4
Lithuania	20.0	21.6
Luxembourg	12.5	12.4
Hungary	16.3	17.5
Malta	5.2	-
Netherlands	23.6	-
Austria	25.5	25.5
Poland	7.5	14.3
Portugal	8.3	-
Romania	12.7	9.0
Slovenia	8.3	8.5
Slovakia	23.6	20.9
Finland	20.0	20.0
Sweden	17.9	17.1
United Kingdom	21.1	21.4

Source: Eurostat. Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and national sources (2007) for yearly SES-comparable estimates. 2008: Provisional data for ES, CY, FR and FI.

At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over) in EU Member States —2007		
	Women	Men
EU-27	22	17
Belgium	25	21
Bulgaria	29	15
Czech Republic	8	2
Denmark	19	16
Germany	20	14
Estonia	39	21
Ireland	33	24
Greece	25	21
Spain	30	26
France	14	12
Italy	25	18
Cyprus	54	47
Latvia	39	21
Lithuania	37	15
Luxembourg	8	7
Hungary	8	3
Malta	18	24
Netherlands	11	9
Austria	18	9
Poland	9	6
Portugal	27	24
Romania	34	13
Slovenia	25	11
Slovakia	11	3
Finland	25	18
Sweden	14	7
United Kingdom	32	27

*Source:* Eurostat. EU-27: SILC 2007, Income data 2006; except for UK, income year 2007 and for IE moving income reference period (2006-2007). EU aggregates are Eurostat estimates and computed as population weighted averages of national values. At-risk-of-poverty rate for elderly persons: the share of persons aged 65+ with an income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median income. Income must be understood as equivalised disposable income (sum from all sources, adjusted for household size and composition). It should be noted that the risk-of-poverty indicator is computed using an income definition which does not yet include imputed rent of owner-occupiers. Comparisons between sexes are based on the assumption of equal sharing of resources within households.

Members of single/lower houses of national parliaments in EU Member States — distribution by sex 2005 and 2009				
	2005		2009	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	23	77	24	76
Belgium	35	65	38	62
Bulgaria	21	79	22	78
Czech Republic	16	84	18	82
Denmark	40	60	37	63
Germany	31	69	32	68
Estonia	18	82	21	79
Ireland	13	87	13	87
Greece	13	87	16	84
Spain	36	64	36	64
France	15	85	19	81
Italy	12	88	21	79
Cyprus	16	84	16	84
Latvia	21	79	22	78
Lithuania	23	77	19	81
Luxembourg	21	79	20	80
Hungary	9	91	11	89
Malta	9	91	9	91
Netherlands	39	61	42	58
Austria	33	67	28	72
Poland	21	79	20	80
Portugal	25	75	30	70
Romania	11	89	11	89
Slovenia	13	87	16	84
Slovakia	17	83	18	82
Finland	38	62	40	60
Sweden	49	51	47	53
United Kingdom	20	80	20	80

*Source:* European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision making.  
*NB:* Data for 2009 were collected in August 2009. The indicator was developed as part of the follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Council of Ministers.



Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments in EU Member States — in 2005 and 2009				
	2005		2009	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	22	78	26	74
Belgium	21	79	27	73
Bulgaria	20	80	24	76
Czech Republic	18	82	18	82
Denmark	28	72	42	58
Germany	46	54	44	56
Estonia	15	85	8	92
Ireland	21	79	20	80
Greece	6	94	11	89
Spain	47	53	50	50
France	13	87	33	67
Italy	9	91	22	78
Cyprus	0	100	8	92
Latvia	24	76	20	80
Lithuania	15	85	13	87
Luxembourg	17	83	27	73
Hungary	12	88	0	100
Malta	15	85	22	78
Netherlands	31	69	22	78
Austria	55	45	36	64
Poland	7	93	25	75
Portugal	17	83	13	87
Romania	17	83	15	85
Slovenia	7	93	26	74
Slovakia	0	100	13	87
Finland	47	53	60	40
Sweden	50	50	45	55
United Kingdom	27	73	17	83

*Source:* European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision making.  
*NB:* Data for 2005 were collected in August 2005 and data for 2009 were collected in August 2009. The indicator was 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.

Sex distribution of leaders of businesses, in 2008		
	Women	Men
EU-27	32.5	67.5
Belgium	29.2	70.8
Bulgaria	31.4	68.6
Czech Republic	26.9	73.1
Denmark	24.0	76.0
Germany	30.8	69.2
Estonia	34.0	66.0
Ireland	19.2	80.8
Greece	28.5	71.5
Spain	35.1	64.9
France	40.0	60.0
Italy	34.7	65.3
Cyprus	8.2	91.8
Latvia	35.3	64.7
Lithuania	31.8	68.2
Luxembourg	29.6	70.4
Hungary	28.6	71.4
Malta	16.0	84.0
Netherlands	29.3	70.7
Austria	30.5	69.5
Poland	34.7	65.3
Portugal	31.7	68.3
Romania	26.7	73.3
Slovenia	25.2	74.8
Slovakia	30.5	69.5
Finland	21.6	78.4
Sweden	26.0	74.0
United Kingdom	33.4	66.6

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS). NB: leaders of businesses covers ISCO (International Standard Classification of Occupations) categories 121 (Directors and chief executives) and 13 (Managers of small enterprises).

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

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

Sex distribution of members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies in 2009		
	Women	Men
EU-27	11	89
Belgium	8	92
Bulgaria	17	83
Czech Republic	13	87
Denmark	18	82
Germany	13	87
Estonia	6	94
Ireland	8	92
Greece	5	95
Spain	10	90
France	10	90
Italy	4	96
Cyprus	3	97
Latvia	17	83
Lithuania	15	85
Luxembourg	3	97
Hungary	13	87
Malta	4	96
Netherlands	15	85
Austria	7	93
Poland	10	90
Portugal	4	96
Romania	12	88
Slovenia	10	90
Slovakia	18	82
Finland	24	76
Sweden	27	73
United Kingdom	12	88

*Source:* European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision making. Data were collected in August 2009. The list of the largest publicly quoted companies is based for each country on current membership of the blue-chip index. In countries for which the blue-chip index includes a small number of companies (for instance LU, SK), at least the 10 largest companies were covered.

Indicators for the candidate countries in 2008									
	Turkey			Croatia			Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
Activity rate (15-64)	26.9	74.8	47.9	56.6	70	13.4	50.2	76.6	26.4
Employment rate (15-64)	24.3	67.7	43.4	50.7	65	14.3	32.9	50.7	17.8
Employment rate of older workers (55-64)	16.5	43	26.5	25.5	49	23.5	21.1	43	21.9
Unemployment rate 25-74	7.0	7.8	0.8	8.4	5.5	-2.9	30.9	30.3	-0.6
Unemployment in population aged 15-24	4.4	9.2	4.8	7.7	7.5	-0.2	16.1	24.1	8
Share of part-time workers	20.8	5.6	-15.2	11.5	6.7	-4.8	7.6	4.7	-2.9
Share of employees with temporary contracts	12.5	11.6	-0.9	12.3	11.9	-0.4	12.4	16.2	3.8
Educational attainment (upper secondary school, 20-24)	40.9	56.4	15.5	96.3	94.6	-1.7	77.6	81.7	4.1
Sex distribution of members of national parliaments <sup>(1)</sup>	9	91	-	24	76	-	32	68	-
Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments <sup>(1)</sup>	7	93	-	20	80	-	9	91	-
Sex distribution of leaders of businesses	7	93	-	23.5	76.5	-	27.8	72.2	-
Share among members of boards of top quoted companies <sup>(1)</sup>	9	91	-	15	85	-	16	84	-

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2008, except (1), for which the source is European Commission, Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Database on women and men in decision making (data collected in August 2009). The gender gap is always calculated as the value for men minus the value for women.

European Commission

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