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# REPORT FROM THE COMMISSION TO THE COUNCIL, THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT, THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE AND THE COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS 

Equality between women and men - 2010
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## STATISTICAL ANNEX TO THE ANNUAL REPORT ON EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN 2010

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 ${ }^{1}$ 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 employment) on economic growth. One of the most recent studies ${ }^{2}$ 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 ${ }^{3}$. 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,

[^0]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) ${ }^{4}$ 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 ${ }^{5}$.

## 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 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

[^1]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 (2024) 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 underrepresented 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 ${ }^{6}$.

## 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 ${ }^{7}$. 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.

[^2]
## 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 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 ${ }^{8}$ 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 ${ }^{9}$. Therefore, the current figures of at-risk-of-poverty rates at household level cannot fully reflect the individual situation of women and men.

[^3]
## 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.

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.
$N B$ : 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)


[^4]Potential growth in GDP in the EU Member States following a transition to full equality in the labour market, in \% of GDP


Source: A. Löfgren, Gender equality, economic grow th and employment, 2009. This report was presented at the conference held under the Sw edish Presidency 'What does gender equality mean for grow th and employment?', Stockholm, 15-16 October 2009. These figures are an estimation of the potential increase in GDP that w ould occur follow ing the elimination of gender gaps, i.e. if women's rates w ere to reach the level of men's rates in terms of employment, part-time w ork 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


[^5]Unemployment rates among women and men in EU Member States, in May 2008 and September 2009(1), 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

Employment rates of men aged 25-49, depending on whether they have children (under 12) - 2008
$\square$ Without children $\quad$ With children


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
$\square$ Without children $\quad$ With children


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


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 .


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).


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

At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers ${ }^{1}$ for older people (women and men aged 65 years and over), in EU Member States, 2007

Women Men


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 (1)


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.


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 December 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 |

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 |

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 |

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 |
| Unted Kingdom | 44.2 | 41,8 | 10,4 | 11,3 |

[^6]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 |

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 |

[^7]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 (1), 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: $2^{\text {nd }}$ quarter 2009; EE: 3rd 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 (LrS), annual average. Note: 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

|  | 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 |
|  |  |

[^8]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

| EU | 2007 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men |
| Belgium | 59 | 41 |
| Bulgaria | 60 | 42 |
| 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


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 |

[^9] 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 December 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

|  | 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

|  | 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 |  |  | FYROM |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 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 <br> (1) | 9 | 91 | - | 24 | 76 | - | 32 | 68 | - |
| Sex distribution of senior ministers in national governments(1) | 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(1) | 9 | 91 | - | 15 | 85 | - | 16 | 84 | - |

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2008, except (1), for which the source is European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, 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.


[^0]:    1 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)
    2 A. Löfgren, 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.
    $3 \quad$ 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 $29 \%$.

[^1]:    4 Source : European Restructuring Monitor
    5 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

[^2]:    6 European Commission, She Figures 2009 - Statistics and Indicators on Gender Equality in Science, 2009, available at: http://ec.europa.eu/research/sciencesociety/document library/pdf_06/she_figures 2009_en.pdf
    $7 \quad$ 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.

[^3]:    8 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.
    $9 \quad$ 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.

[^4]:    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.

[^5]:    Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), quarterly data.

[^6]:    Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS), annual averages

[^7]:    Source: A. Löfgren, 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).

[^8]:    Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey. IE, MT, UK: data not available.

[^9]:    Source: European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG, Database on women and men in decision making. NB: Data for 2009

