European Institute for Gender Equality

Gender Equality Index 2017

Measuring gender equality in the European Union 2005-2015

Report

Acknowledgements

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Measuring gender equality in the European Union 2005-2015

Foreword

For a strong and democratic Europe, gender equality must go hand in hand with policy initiatives. The Europe 2020 strategy and the European Pillar of Social Rights both provide a good opportunity for the EU to consolidate its efforts in this area. The Gender Equality Index is a useful and robust measurement tool that can help monitor the impact of these policies over time. The Index gives more visibility to areas that need improvement and ultimately supports policymakers to design more effective gender equality measures.

Gender equality is vital for the smart and sustainable growth of the European Union. It not only fosters economic development but also contributes to overall well-being and a more inclusive and fairer Europe for both women and men. Although much progress has been made in improving the level of gender equality, there is still more work to be done in all Member States. Gender gaps persist and in some domains they are even bigger compared to a decade ago. With an average score of 66.2 for gender equality, the EU is still a long way off from reaching a gender-equal society.

The third edition of the Gender Equality Index contains several new elements. Important methodological updates have strengthened the way of measuring gender equality and offered a more accurate picture of the situation in the EU.

This edition looks beyond gender by putting a focus on intersecting inequalities. Such an approach provides a deeper analysis of the gender equality situation for specific groups of women and men, based on age, (dis)ability, country of birth, family status and education. The Index also provides a wider perspective on decision-making, by introducing gender gaps in the areas of research, media and sports. The domain of health contains new data on healthy and risk behaviours of women and men.

One of the most serious forms of gender inequality is violence against women, which is rooted in the unequal power relations between women and men. For the first time, a comprehensive measurement framework has been put in place for the satellite domain of violence. It presents scores for each Member State and can support the monitoring of violence against women in the EU and in each Member State.

The biggest improvement to gender equality over the past decade has been in the domain of power, especially in economic decision-making. This reflects recent political pressure to improve gender balance, especially on the boards of the largest publicly listed companies. The overall score has increased by nearly 10 points to 48.5 in the last 10 years. However, while it has made the most progress, its score remains the lowest of all domains.

The least amount of progress in gender equality has been in the time domain, where the division of time spent on caring and household work has worsened. This growing inequality is already attracting the attention of policymakers. The European Commission's proposed work-life balance package presents concrete measure to address the issue.

Since EIGE started producing the Gender Equality Index, there has been an update every 2 years. However, from 2019 we plan to update the Index every year, focusing on one specific domain. We believe that an annual update will make the Gender Equality Index more up-to-date and provide important highlights on gender equality in the EU. We will continue to expand the scope of the Index by further developing the intersectional approach across each domain.

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

I firmly believe that the Gender Equality Index will help contribute to a stronger, more inclusive EU, where women and men can enjoy the same level of well-being and opportunities in all domains of life, regardless of their differences.

Virginija Langbakk,
Director
The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)

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Country abbreviations

AT	Austria
BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CY	Cyprus
CZ	Czech Republic
DE	Germany
DK	Denmark
EE	Estonia
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FI	Finland
FR	France
HR	Croatia
HU	Hungary
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SE	Sweden
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
UK	United Kingdom
EU-28	28 EU Member States

Glossary

AES	Adult Education Survey
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEO	chief executive officer
DESI	Digital Economy and Society Index
DG	directorate-general
EHIS	European Health Interview Survey
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EIGE WMID	Women and Men in Decision Making (EIGE's Gender Statistics Database)
EQLS	European Quality of Life Survey
ET 2020	strategic framework 'Education and training 2020'
EU LFS	European Union Labour Force Survey
Eurofound	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
EU SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
FRA	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights
FTE	full-time equivalent
GDP	gross domestic product
ICT	information and communications technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPV	intimate partner violence
JRC	European Commission's Joint Research Centre
LGBT	lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender
MS	Member State
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
p.p.	percentage point(s)
PPS	Purchasing Power Standard
R & D	research and development
SES	Structure of Earnings Survey
SII	Summary Innovation Index of the European Innovation Scoreboard
STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
TFEU	Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union
WHO	World Health Organisation

Highlights of the Gender Equality Index 2017

Main findings

- Progress towards gender equality in the EU-28 is rather slow — the Gender Equality Index score increased from 62 points in 2005 to 65 points in 2012 and 66.2 points in 2015. Each Member State has room for improvement and faces particular obstacles to achieving gender equality. The Index helps Member States identify these issues and points out which population groups face additional challenges.
- Out of the Index's six core domains, the most improvement was made in the domain of power, while gender inequalities have increased in the domain of time over the past 10 years.
- For the first time, the Gender Equality Index adds to the analysis an intersectional perspective which shows that gender inequalities vary across age, education, family composition and parenthood, country of birth and disability. The evidence calls for an intersectional approach in policymaking to target unique experiences of discrimination and disadvantage for both women and men.

Domain of work

- With 71.5 points, the domain of work has the third-highest score, but progress has stagnated: the score improved by only 1.5 points over the past decade, of which 0.5 points since 2012.
- Gender segregation in employment persists and there are still barriers to accessing the labour market, especially for women with disabilities and women with low qualifications.
- Limited work-life balance negatively affects both women and men, but women with children are particularly affected. Only 23 % of women and 27 % of men can very easily take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal and family matters.

Domain of money

- The score for the domain of money has improved by 5.7 points since 2005, reaching 79.6 points, mainly due to gains in the sub-domain of financial resources. However, this is only a 1.2 point improvement from 2012.
- In 2014 the gender gap in earnings in the EU-28 was 20 %, and nearly twice as high for couples with children and lone parents, pointing to an enduring 'motherhood pay gap' and 'fatherhood premium'. Over the life course, these inequalities lead to increased exposure to poverty for women in old age and a gender pension gap of 40 %.
- The share of the EU population at risk of poverty has slightly increased over the past 10 years. 17 % of women and 16 % of men over the age of 16 are at risk of poverty. A fifth or more of the female population is at risk of poverty in nine Member States. Among women and men born outside the EU, the risk of being in poverty is more than twice as high as among the EU-born population.

Domain of knowledge

- The score rose from 60.8 points in 2005 to 62.8 points in 2012 and 63.4 points in 2015, reflecting mostly an increasing educational attainment but persisting gender segregation in education.
- In 2015, more young women have higher educational attainment relative to men and the gender gap is increasing to the detriment of men. Gender segregation in tertiary education remains a challenge: two to almost three times more women than men choose to study education, health and welfare, and this trend has not changed since 2005.
- Despite a greater need to upscale one's skills through lifelong learning, the average participation rate of women and men in the EU is the same as 10 years ago. Less than a tenth of women and men aged 50-64 take part in education and training.

Domain of time

- Gender inequalities in time use are persistent and growing — at 65.7 points, a 1.0 point decrease from 2005 to 2015, this domain has the third lowest score in the Gender Equality Index.
- Gender gaps in unpaid care persist: only every third man engages daily in cooking and housework for 1 hour or more. The care burden is especially high among non-EU born women. More importantly, over the last 10 years, there has been almost no improvement towards gender equality in this area across the EU.
- The gender gap in engagement in unpaid domestic work decreases with educational level. That is to say, the higher the educational level, the lower the gender gap.

Domain of power

- While the domain of power has the lowest score in the Index (48.5 points in 2015), it also shows the most improvement (an increase of 9.6 points since 2005).
- Improvements in the scores of the sub-domains of political and economic power, as shown by narrowing gender gaps in national parliaments and on corporate boards, were largely driven by legislative action and/or intensive public debates on the issue.
- The sub-domain of social power, which is populated with data for the first time, reveals that decision-making positions in research-funding organisations, media and sports organisations are all still dominated by men. This can be attributed partly to the fact that these imbalances lack the same level of visibility as the other sub-domains, despite the symbolic importance of research, media and sports and their role in shaping social norms.

Domain of health

- The domain of health displays a relatively high score (87.4 points), but this score improved by only 0.2 points from 2012 and there are still inequalities between and within Member States.
- Gender inequalities are most prominent in the sub-domain of health behaviour, with a score of 75.4 points. Men are more physically active than women, but men are more involved in risk behaviour such as smoking and alcohol consumption.
- Some population groups face challenges in accessing adequate healthcare: over one tenth of both lone mothers and people with disabilities had unmet medical needs.

Satellite domain of violence

- Violence against women is rooted in historically unequal power relations between women and men, and remains the most brutal manifestation of gender inequality. For statistical and conceptual reasons, it is treated as a satellite domain in the Gender Equality Index.
- This (third) edition of the Gender Equality Index 2017 has further developed the composite indicator of violence against women. It enables the monitoring of the extent of the most common and widely criminalised forms of violence against women (i.e. sexual and physical violence and femicide) across the EU. The composite indicator is accompanied by indicators on other forms of violence (e.g. female genital mutilation, forced marriage, stalking, etc.), for which comparable and reliable data are very limited, and contextual factors that include some of the root causes of violence against women and information on governments' efforts to combat it. The full theoretical and measurement framework of the domain of violence is described in details in EIGE's forthcoming publication *Gender Equality Index 2017: Measurement framework of violence against women* to be released in November 2017 (EIGE, 2017d).

Introduction

This report documents the third edition of the Gender Equality Index of the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE). Since its launch in 2013, the Gender Equality Index has been recognised for its notable contribution to policy debates and increased awareness about gender equality at the EU and national levels. The Gender Equality Index has played an important role in informing policy developments in the European Union — through Council conclusions; European Parliament reports, resolutions and opinions; reports by the European Commission; national governmental reports; opinions of civil society organisations; and statistical yearbooks and research findings. The European Parliament recently called for the EU institutions to introduce the Gender Equality Index in the monitoring system of the proposed EU mechanism on democracy, the rule of law and fundamental rights (European Parliament, 2016b).

The Index is a comprehensive measure for assessing the state of the art and monitoring progress in gender equality across the EU over time. The third edition provides scores for 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015. It relies on a conceptual framework that embraces different theoretical approaches to gender equality and integrates key gender equality issues within the EU policy framework (EIGE, 2013). The Index measures gender gaps and takes into account the context and different levels of achievement of Member States within a range of relevant policy areas: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health. Additionally, it gives insights into violence against women and intersecting inequalities. It shows the different outcomes of EU and national policies for women and men and supports the development and implementation of evidence-based policymaking in the area of gender equality.

The third edition of the Gender Equality Index provides a broader scope for understanding trends and progress in gender equality. It is the first time that all domains of the core Index have been filled out with data. The new edition also went through several important methodological updates, which have strengthened the measurement of gender equality and the overall quality of the Index. In line with these updates, the previous scores of the Gender Equality Index (based on 2005, 2010 and 2012 data) have been recalculated to keep the time series intact and allow meaningful comparisons over time.

For the first time, this edition of the Index measures gender gaps in decision-making in research, media and sports, aimed at strengthening public debate and policy initiatives on gender equality in these social domains. Persistent gender imbalances in decision-making in research and cultural institutions require more visibility and action because of their symbolic and educational importance, and their powerful role in shaping social norms, public opinion and perceptions about gender equality.

In addition, in the context of the recently launched data of the European Health Interview Survey (EHIS) by Eurostat, the third edition of the Gender Equality Index also presents new data on health/risk behaviour of women and men. The Index aims to strengthen the understanding of gender as an important social determinant of health with a view to making health policies and strategies more responsive to women's and men's needs across the life course.

To reflect the premise that freedom from gender-based violence is an integral part of gender equality, the domain of violence is elaborated into a comprehensive measurement framework of violence against women. It is designed to facilitate the monitoring of the extent of violence against women in the EU on a regular basis and across all EU Member States. More generally, it seeks to support Member States in meeting their commitment to eradicate violence against women.

The new edition of the Gender Equality Index further extends its scope by giving particular attention to the satellite domain of intersecting inequalities. It monitors a complex reality of gender equality for specific groups of people, facilitating the planning and implementation of more targeted and efficient policy measures. The Gender Equality Index unmasks some of the explicit differences within groups of women and men by accounting for some of the relevant social factors: age, (dis)ability, migrant background (measured by the country of birth), education and family composition.

Chapter 1 briefly presents the conceptual framework and methodology of the Gender Equality Index. The results of the third edition of the Index and the main trends over the past ten years are presented in Chapter 2. Chapters 3 to 8 present the main findings of the core domains of the Index. The satellite domain of violence, including its concept, updated measurement framework and main findings, is introduced in Chapter 9. Chapter 10 summarizes the main conclusions of the Gender Equality Index.

1. What is the Gender Equality Index?

The Gender Equality Index is a composite indicator that measures the complex concept of gender equality and, based on the EU policy framework, assists in monitoring progress of gender equality across the EU over time. Measuring progress of gender equality is an integral part of effective policymaking. The Gender Equality Index supports the development and implementation of evidence-based gender equality policies and legislation and shows the different outcomes of those policies for women and men. It also increases awareness of progress and challenges in implementing gender equality policies among decision-makers and the general public. Finally, the Index highlights data gaps and calls for harmonised, comparable and reliable data that are both disaggregated by sex and available for all Member States.

The Gender Equality Index measures gender gaps between women and men. It considers gaps that are to the detriment of either women or men as being equally problematic. As the Gender Equality Index is based on a vision of the European Union whereby development, growth and cohesion for all individuals is a main principle, tackling gender gaps is not enough when it means that both women and men fare equally badly (EIGE, 2015a). The Index also takes into account the country context and the different levels of achievement of Member States in various areas. A high overall score reflects both small (or absent) gender gaps and a good situation for all (e.g. high involvement of both women and men in employment).

The Gender Equality Index consists of eight domains. The six domains of work, money, knowledge, time, power and health are combined into a core Index that is complemented by two additional, equally important, satellite domains of violence and intersecting inequalities. They belong to the framework of the Gender Equality Index in all respects, but do not impact the overall score. Each domain is further divided into sub-domains which cover the key issues within the respective thematic areas. The full conceptual framework is presented in the first edition of the Index (EIGE, 2013).

Using this framework, 31 indicators have been chosen to monitor developments in gender equality in the six core domains in every Member State as well as the EU-28 in total. The Gender Equality Index is formed by combining these indicators into a single summary measure, which allows for the complex issue of gender equality to be synthesised into one easy-to-understand measure.

The six core domains (work, money, knowledge, time, power and health) of the Gender Equality Index assign scores for Member States of between 1 for total inequality and 100 for full equality. The indicators used for each domain and sub-domain can be found in Figure 1. As mentioned above, the Gender Equality Index counts inequalities faced by women, and also identifies areas where men are unequal.

Figure 1: Indicators used for the Gender Equality Index 2017 and the structure of the Index

Indicator	Sub-domain	Domain	
1. Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate	Participation	Work	Gender Equality Index
2. Duration of working life			
3. Employed in education, human health and social work	Segregation and quality of work		
4. Ability to take time off for personal or family matters			
5. Career Prospects Index			
6. Mean monthly earnings	Financial resources	Money	
7. Mean equivalised net income			
8. Not at-risk-of-poverty	Economic situation		
9. S20/S80 income quintile share			
10. Population with tertiary education	Attainment and participation	Knowledge	
11. Formal or non-formal education and training			
12. Tertiary students in education, health and welfare, humanities and arts	Segregation		
13. Caring for children or grandchildren or older or people of disabilities	Care activities	Time	
14. People doing cooking and/or housework			
15. Sporting, cultural or leisure activities	Social activities		
16. Voluntary or charitable activities			
17. Share of ministers	Political	Power	
18. Share of members of parliament			
19. Share of members of regional assemblies			
20. Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies	Economic		
21. Share of board members of central bank			
22. Share of board members of research funding organisations	Social		
23. Share of board members in publicly owned broadcasting organisations			
24. Share of members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sport organisations			
25. Self-perceived health	Status	Health	
26. Life expectancy			
27. Healthy life years			
28. Smoking and harmful drinking	Behaviour		
29. Physical activities and/or consuming fruits and vegetables			
30. Unmet needs for medical examination	Access		
31. Unmet needs for dental examination			

The third edition of the Gender Equality Index monitors developments in gender equality over 10 years, from 2005 to 2015. It measures how far (or close) the EU and its Member States were from achieving gender equality in 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015. It provides results for each domain and sub-domain, which helps every Member State to identify in which fields most progress has been made or where greater efforts are needed to make a positive contribution to gender equality. Due to very strict quality and comparability criteria, only data from large EU-wide surveys are used for the Index, and this includes data collected and surveys coordinated by Eurostat and surveys by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) as well as data collected by EIGE Gender Statistics Database, Women and Men in Decision-Making.

The third edition also has made significant developments in the two satellite domains of the Gender Equality Index. For the first time, it presents Member States' scores under a composite measure for violence against women and provides further intersectional analysis of the domains of the Gender Equality Index. This allows, in addition to measuring overall gender gaps, further investigation of how social factors, such as age, family composition, country of birth, educational level or disability, can affect progress towards the achievement of gender equality. For the first time, the sub-domain of social power is populated with data, collected by EIGE, and data for the sub-domain of health behaviour are also included in the Index for the first time.

The Gender Equality Index is based on a robust methodology, the computation for which is based on the widespread and internationally accepted 10-step methodology on building composite indicators developed by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (JRC) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Several aspects of the methodology of the Gender Equality Index were updated in 2017, which means that the scores in the third edition are not comparable with the results of previous editions. In order to rectify this, all scores for the previous years were recalculated using the new methodology. Methodological updates are described in Annex 1 and in the separate methodological report (EIGE, 2017e). The list and detailed description of indicators that are used to calculate the Gender Equality Index is presented in Annex 2. Index scores for the years 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015 for all EU Member States (including domain and sub-domain scores) are presented in the Annex 3 and Annex 4 presents all data used to calculate the Index for 2015. Annex 5 presents changes in Index and domain scores in the EU Member States from 2005 to 2015 and 2012 to 2015.

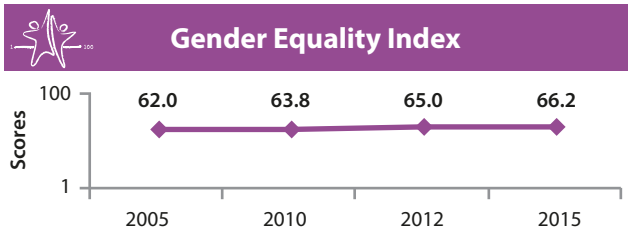
2. What trends does the Gender Equality Index show over the past 10 years?

There is room for improvement in every Member State

The score for the EU-28 for the Gender Equality Index in 2015 stood at 66.2 out of 100; significant improvements are still needed in all Member States in order to attain gender-equal societies where both women and men can enjoy equal levels of well-being in all domains of life. This is a relatively small improvement since 2005, when the Index stood at 62.0 (Figure 2).

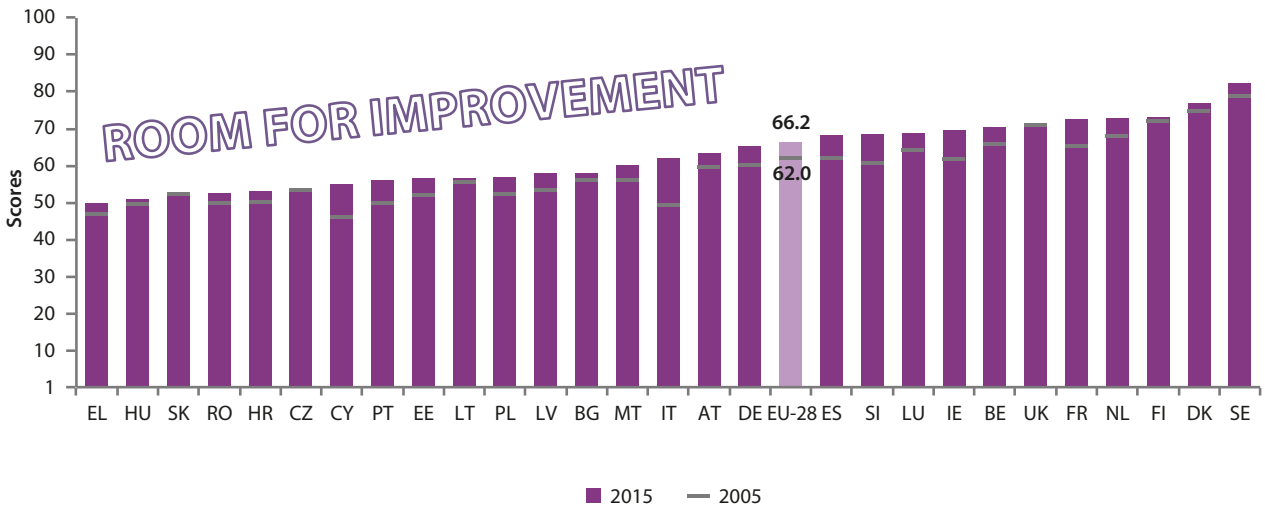
There are variations across Member States, and as Figure 3 shows, the three Nordic Member States and the Netherlands were the most gender-equal Member States in 2015. Sweden and Denmark have been the most gender-equal societies throughout the 10-year period of 2005 to 2015, and both Member States have slightly improved their scores, Sweden to 82.6 points and Denmark to 76.8 points. They are followed by Finland and the Netherlands.

Figure 2: Scores of the Gender Equality Index, EU-28, 2005-2015



The country where the most improvement in gender equality is needed is Greece, which holds the bottom position with a score of 50.0 in 2015. Hungary (50.8 points) and Slovakia (52.4 points) are also near the bottom of the scoreboard. Scores increased in all of the other Member States, except for the Czech Republic, Slovakia and the United Kingdom, where there has been no progress.

Figure 3: Gender Equality Index, scores for the EU Member States, 2005 and 2015



Progress towards gender equality in the EU remains slow

In the last 10 years, nearly all EU Member States have moved in the direction of becoming more gender equal. The largest improvement can be seen in Italy (+ 12.9 points), raising the country from the 26th position to the 14th, followed by Cyprus, whose score increased by 9.2 points, lifting the country from the last position to 22nd. Despite large improvements, both Member States are below the EU-28 average. France's score (72.6) marks an improvement of 7.4 points, lifting the country from 7th to 5th position. While Ireland and Slovenia were below the average EU-28 score in 2005, steady improvements (of 7.6 points in both Member States) have lifted both Member States above the EU-28 score.

Except for Cyprus, which has made the most significant progress in the domain of knowledge, in all of these aforementioned Member States, the main driver for the improvement has been in the domain of power. In particular, the share of women in decision-making positions has increased significantly in politics, the economy or both, depending on the country (Chapter 7). Figure 4 shows this progress over 10 years.

While the situation improved in all other Member States, in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and the United Kingdom the situation in 2015 is nearly the same as it was in 2005. Moreover, the scores of the Czech Republic went down by 3.1 points between 2012 and 2015, ending the progress made up to 2012. A similar slight drawback took place in the last 3 years in Finland and the Netherlands, which lost 1.4 and 1.1 points respectively.

Most Member States improved gender equality in three or four domains

The Gender Equality Index makes it possible to map progress and trends across the different domains of gender equality. The situation across the EU is relatively stable in most domains, as illustrated in Figure 5. The domain of power holds the lowest scores, but despite this it is also the only domain with rapid improvements, with the score for the EU-28 rising from 38.9 in 2005 to 48.5 in 2015. The share of women in decision-making has increased in 23 Member States, no noticeable change took place in only two Member States (LT and MT) and in a further three

Figure 4: Scores of the Gender Equality Index by EU Member State in 2015 and progress over 10 years (2005-2015)

Member States there was a decrease in the score (CZ, SK and FI) (see Chapter 7).

In the last few years, progress in gender equality has been halted, largely as a result of a reversed trend in the domain of time, where the score dropped by 3.2 points. This means that, compared to 10 years ago, the way in which women and men organise their time has become more unequal. This regression has happened in 12 Member States. However, in eight Member States the score increased (CZ, ES, HR, CY, LV, MT, AT, RO) (see Chapter 6).

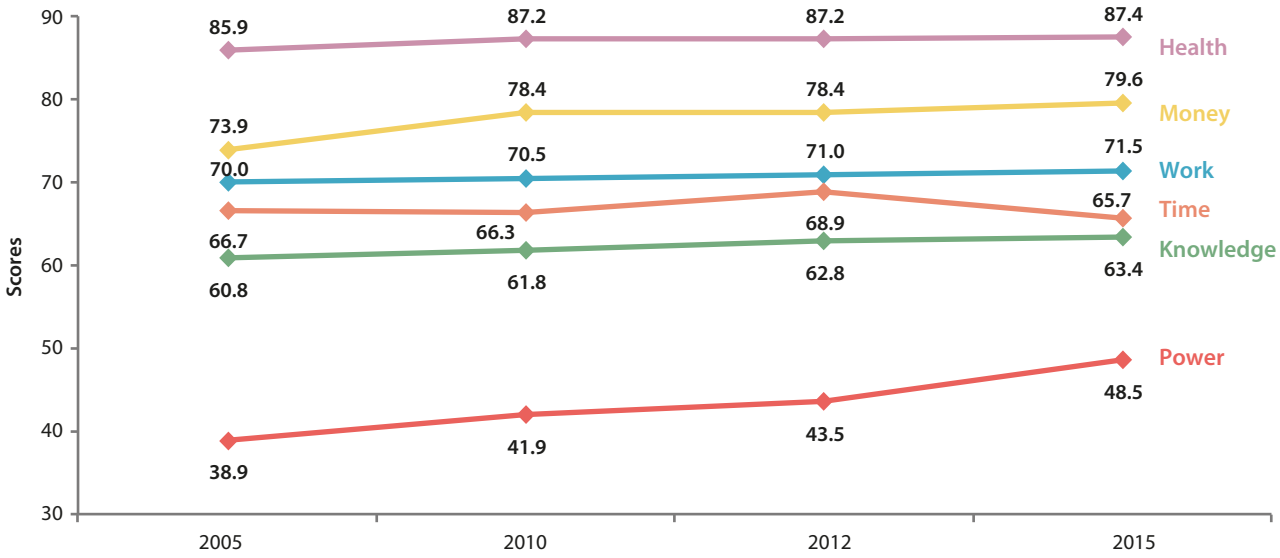
In 10 years, the majority of Member States progressed in either three or four domains. As Table 1 shows, during this time, four Member States improved in all domains (ES, HR, CY, LV) and three Member States progressed in five domains (MT, AT and SE). Overall, only a few Member States experienced severe drawbacks in gender equality in the past 10 years. In 12 Member States, none of the domain scores dropped in the 10-year period; however, a further 12 Member States had reduced scores (– 1 or more points) in one domain. Finland, Germany and Slovakia had reduced scores in two domains, and Greece in three domains, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: EU Member States by number of domains that increased and decreased between 2005 and 2015

Decreased between 2005 and 2015	
0 domains decreased	EE, IE, ES, HR, IT, CY, LV, MT, AT, PT, SI, SE
1 domain decreased	BE, BG, CZ, DK, FR, LT, LU, HU, NL, PL, RO, UK
2 domains decreased	DE, SK, FI
3 domains decreased	EL
Increased between 2005 and 2015	
6 domains increased	ES, HR, CY, LV
5 domains increased	MT, AT, SE
4 domains increased	BE, BG, CZ, EE, IE, FR, IT, LU, HU, NL, PL, PT, RO, SI
3 domains increased	DE, EL, LT, SK, UK
2 domains increased	DK, FI

Note: Only increases/decreases of 1 point or more are considered.

Figure 5: Scores of the domains, EU-28, 2005-2015



Gender equality has decreased the most in time-use for care and household work since 2005

As mentioned above, the biggest decrease in scores over 10 years can be observed in the domain of time. Although the score for the EU average went down only by 1 point, there was a backslide in the scores of 12 Member States in this domain. Most countries improved in the domain of money where all Member States, except for Germany and Greece, progressed. Health is a domain where changes are least likely to happen — the score remained constant in 12 Member States over 10 years. Table 2 shows the changes in these scores over the past 10 years.

Since 2012, gender equality in decision-making has progressed the most

Looking at the last few years, it is evident that the overall Index score in the EU-28 went up by 1.2 points from 2012 to 2015, as set out in Table 3. However, 4 Member States saw a regression during these years, the largest of which occurred in the Czech Republic (– 3.1 points) mostly due to a large decrease in the number of women in economic decision-making. Other changes in the domain of power also led to a decrease of the Index scores in Finland and the Netherlands (– 1.4 points and – 1.1 points respectively). Both Member States also lost points in the domain of time.

Table 2: Changes in the scores of the domains for the EU Member States from 2005 to 2015

	SCORE INCREASED	NO CHANGE	SCORE DECREASED
Work	BE, BG, DE, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU, HU, MT, NL, AT, PL, PT, SE, UK	CZ, DK, SI, SK, FI	RO
Money	BE, BG, CZ, DK, EE, IE, ES, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU, HU, MT, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE, UK	DE	EL
Knowledge	BE, CZ, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LU, MT, NL, AT, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE	BG, DK, LT, HU, PL	DE, UK
Time	CZ, ES, HR, CY, LV, MT, AT, RO	DK, EE, IE, IT, PT, SI, SE, UK	BE, BG, DE, EL, FR, LT, LU, HU, NL, PL, SK, FI
Power	BE, BG, DK, DE, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LU, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SE, UK	LT, MT	CZ, SK, FI
Health	BG, CZ, DE, ES, HR, CY, LV, LT, HU, MT, PL, SI, SK, SE	BE, EE, IE, FR, IT, LU, NL, AT, PT, RO, FI, UK	DK, EL

Note: 'No change' refers to very small changes (less than 1 point).

Table 3: Changes in the scores of the domains for the EU Member States from 2012 to 2015

	SCORE INCREASED	NO CHANGE	SCORE DECREASED
Work	BE, HR, CY, LU, MT, SE, UK	BG, CZ, DK, DE, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, IT, LV, LT, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI	
Money	BE, BG, CZ, EE, FR, HR, LV, LT, LU, MT, AT, PL, SK, FI, SE	DK, DE, IE, EL, ES, IT, HU, NL, PT, RO, SI, UK	CY
Knowledge	BG, DK, EL, ES, FR, HR, IT, LT, HU, AT, RO, FI, SE	BE, CZ, EE, CY, LV, LU, NL, PL, PT, SI, SK	DE, IE, MT, UK
Time	CZ, EE, CY, LV, MT, PT, SK, SE	EL, HU, SI	BE, BG, DK, DE, IE, ES, FR, HR, IT, LT, LU, NL, AT, PL, RO, FI, UK
Power	BE, BG, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU, MT, AT, PT, RO, SI, SE, UK	EL, PL	CZ, HU, NL, SK, FI
Health	DE, CY, SE	BE, BG, CZ, DK, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, HR, IT, LV, LT, HU, MT, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, UK	LU

Note: 'No change' refers to very small changes (less than 1 point).

Rapid changes also place between 2012 and 2015 in the domain of time, where 16 Member States dropped in their scores, and in the domain of power, where 21 Member States improved their score.

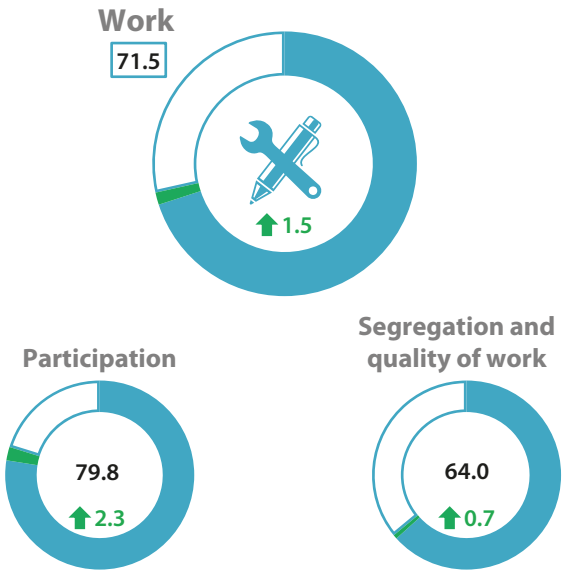
Over the last decade in the domains of knowledge and money convergence can be observed, marked by a narrowing of differences between Member States. However, differences between Member States is largest in the domain of power (in 2015, the scores ranged from 18.7 points to 79.5 points), which is reflected in the rapid improvements in recent years of some Member States.

3. Domain of work

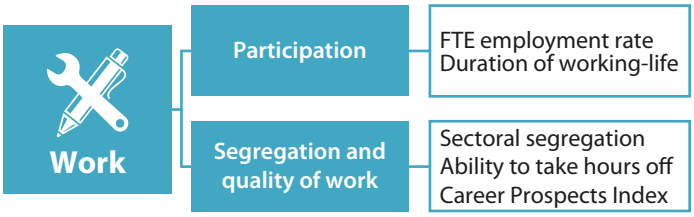
Gender equality in employment is crucial for women's and men's economic independence, social inclusion, health and well-being and the overall achievement of their personal aspirations. Nevertheless, gender inequality, including the unequal recognition and distribution of work, continues to structure the world of both unpaid work (domain of time) and paid work (domain of work). Removing barriers in access to the labour market also means facilitating the distribution of care responsibilities and fair remuneration (EIGE, 2013). The increasing concerns about precarious employment heighten the need for improvements in the quality and security of employment and improved working conditions if gender equality is to be achieved (EIGE, 2017g). Similarly, reducing gender segregation in the labour market is crucial for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. It could greatly benefit if women's and men's potential were fully realised without being constrained by unequal gender roles and harmful gender stereotypes.

Equal access to the labour market, fair working conditions and work-life balance have become key areas of priority in current employment and social policies in the EU. The European Pillar of Social Rights establishes gender equality as one of its key principles and encourages the integration of gender mainstreaming in the main areas of the Pillar, including active support to employment, secure and adaptable employment, fair wages, work-life balance and social dialogue (European Commission, 2017c). Work-life balance is high on the EU policy agenda, and as part of the Pillar, the European Commission has introduced a new initiative addressing the challenges faced by working parents and carers. Included in this is the proposed directive on work-life balance for parents and carers (European

Figure 6: Scores of the domain of work, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



The domain of work measures the extent to which women and men can benefit from equal access to employment and good working conditions. The sub-domain of participation combines two indicators: the rate of full-time equivalent (FTE) employment and the duration of working life. The FTE employment rate takes into account the higher incidence of part-time employment among women and is obtained by comparing each worker's average number of hours worked with the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker (EIGE, 2014b).



Gender segregation and quality of work are included in the second sub-domain. Sectorial segregation is measured through the participation of women and men in the sectors of education, human health and social work activities. The quality of work is measured by flexible working time arrangements and job prospects. Flexibility of work is captured by the ability of women and men to take an hour or two off during their working time to take care of personal or family matters. The Career Prospects Index captures continuity of employment, defined in relation to type of employment contract, job security (the possibility of losing a job in the next 6 months), career advancement prospects and development of the workplace in terms of the number of employees. It is measured on a scale between 0 and 100 points, where 100 is the maximum and indicates the best job prospects.

Commission, 2017h), which will be supplemented by a set of non-legislative measures. In addition, these new initiatives aim to support the EU in reaching the Europe 2020 target of achieving a 75 % employment rate for women and men aged 20-64 by 2020.

The need to tackle precarious employment is addressed in the Council conclusions on enhancing skills of women and men, with a particular focus on gender discrimination and intersectional disadvantages faced by certain groups of women, as well as the gender pay gap and gender segregation (Council of the European Union, 2017a). Recent policy documents reinforce and expand on the principles set out in the social investment package (European Commission, 2013), as well as the European Pact for Gender Equality (2011-2020) (Council of the European Union, 2010) and the 'Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019' (European Commission, 2015a).

3.1. Ten years of slow progress in the domain of work

With a score of 71.5 points, the domain of work has the third highest score in the Gender Equality Index. However, progress in this area has been slow, with only a 1.5 point rise in the last 10 years (Figure 7). The participation of women in employment remains much lower than the participation of men, and labour markets across all Member States show persistent and significant gender segregation. This perpetuates gender inequalities and has the effect of limiting the life choices of women and men in Europe.

From 2005 to 2015, most Member States experienced at least some minor progress in the area of paid work. Only in Romania did the score drop slightly (– 1.5 points), while in five Member States no change took place during these 10 years (Czech Republic, Denmark, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland). Major improvements can be found in Malta (+ 10.2 points) and Luxembourg (+ 5.9 points). Member States with the highest scores in the domain of work have retained their position over time — Sweden (82.6), Denmark (79.2) and the Netherlands (76.7) are still the leaders in gender equality in employment. Overall, there is significant room for improvement across the EU; this presents policymakers with a range of challenges and opportunities for further action to remove gender gaps in employment.

With a score of 79.8, the sub-domain of participation in the labour market has reached the highest level in 10 years (Figure 8). The 2.3 point increase in the score over the last 10 years points to a small narrowing of gender differences in the duration of working lives in the EU, although significant variations exist across Member States. From 2005 to 2015, the most significant progress was observed in Malta (+17.5), where a substantial percentage of women entered the labour market, significantly lowering the gender employment gap, although it is still among the three largest employment gaps in the EU-28. The situation also improved notably in Luxembourg (+ 11.1) and Spain (+ 7.1) and smaller progress was observed in most other Member States. In only two Member States — Denmark (– 1.3) and Romania (– 1.8) — did the score decrease slightly.

Figure 7: Scores of the domain of work, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015

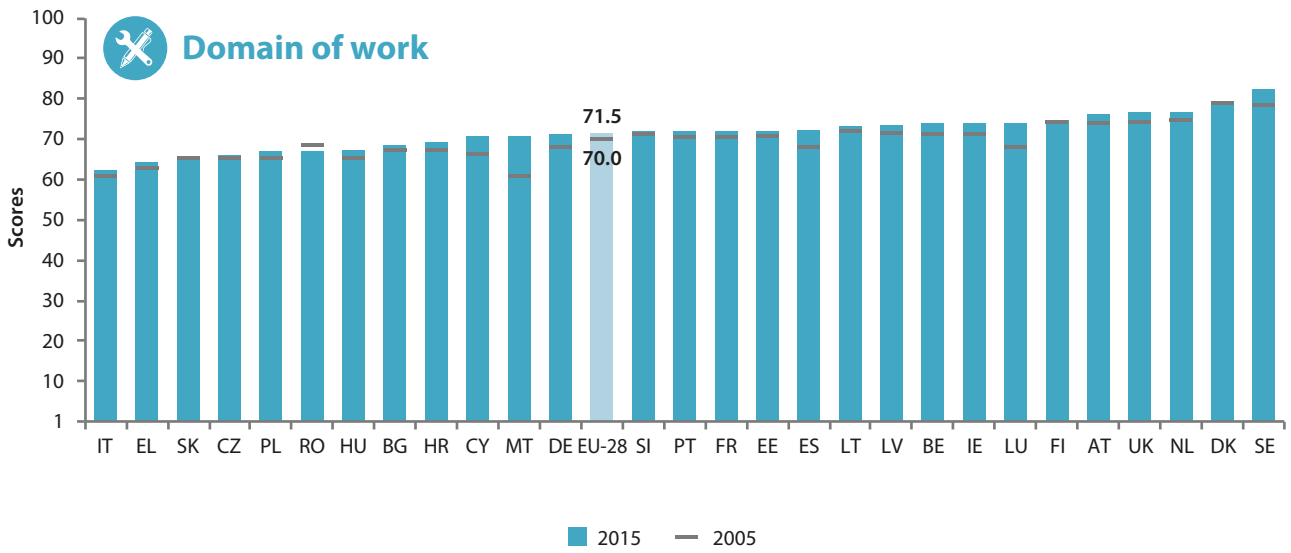
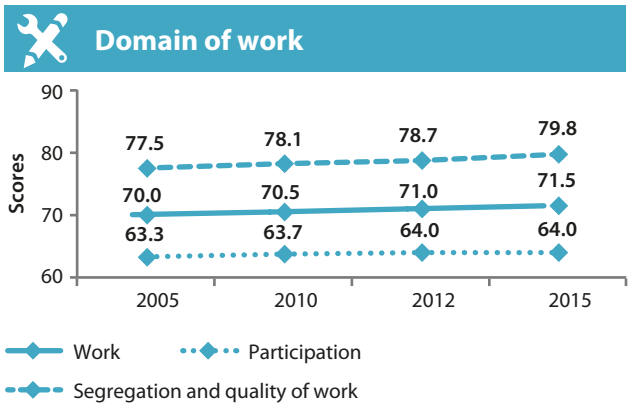


Figure 8: Scores of the domain of work and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015



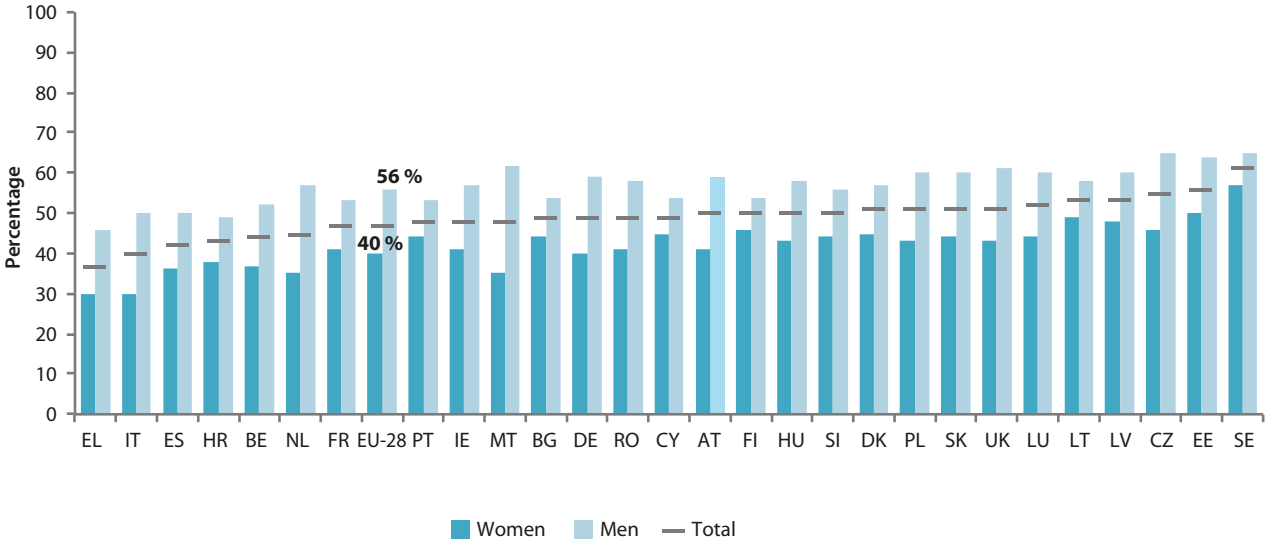
The sub-domain of segregation and quality of work, with the score of 64.0, remains almost the same as 10 years ago, pointing to persisting challenges across the Member States. Gender gaps in the quality of work and work-life balance highlight important concerns about the opportunities available to women and men to have stable and prospective careers, and also to be able to reconcile work and private life. These concerns are reinforced by deteriorating progress in gender equality in the domain of time. The scores in the sub-domain covering gender segregation and quality of work also vary a lot across Member States, with Slovakia (53.2), the Czech Republic (53.5) and Poland (56.2) being the Member States that have the biggest room for improvement in the area. In addition to having the lowest scores, the situation has also slightly worsened in these Member States over the last 10 years.

3.2. Participation in employment is particularly low for women with disabilities and women with low qualifications

In 2015, the overall FTE employment rate in the EU-28 was 40 % for women and 56 % for men. The gap reflects the persistent barriers faced by women in access to the labour market, coupled with their predominance in part-time work. The situation is particularly challenging for women with low levels of qualifications, women with disabilities and older women, and it particularly affects women with children when compared to men with children. Gender gaps in employment affect possibilities for women to gain economic independence and to live their lives free from the risk of poverty, as is reflected in the domain of money.

The gender gap in FTE employment rate varies across the Member States. In 2015, the smallest gap was in Finland and Sweden (7 p.p. and 8 p.p. gap), while the largest gap was in Malta (27 p.p.). Gender gaps have mostly narrowed across the Member States over the last 10 years, with the exception of Bulgaria (0 p.p.), Estonia (+ 4 p.p.), Poland (+ 2 p.p.) and Romania (+ 4 p.p.). This is partially due to lower FTE employment rates over the last 10 years, which have declined by 1 p.p. for women and 3 p.p. for men in the EU-28. These reduced FTE employment rates reflect the enduring impact of the economic crisis, which includes the increased take-up of part-time jobs during

Figure 9: Full-time equivalent employment rate by sex and EU Member State (15+ population, %), 2015



Source: Eurostat's calculation, EU LFS.

this period, especially by men (EIGE, 2014b). In general, Member States differ a lot in terms of FTE employment rates, with the highest rate being in Sweden (61 %) and the lowest in Greece (37 %) (2015), as illustrated in Figure 9.

The intersection of gender with educational attainment, age, disability and family type reveals a significant effect in access to the labour market. The lower the educational level, the lower the FTE employment rate for both women and men and the higher the gender gap. Labour market participation of women with low levels of qualifications is only half the participation of low-qualified men (17 % and 34 % respectively) (Figure 10). At the same time, low levels of qualifications imply higher risks of long-term unemployment and precarious employment in terms of low pay, short working hours (up to 10 hours per week) and low job security. Almost every second woman (45 %) and every fifth man (26 %) with low qualifications in the EU works in a precarious job and there are 6 million women and 2 million men with low educational attainment that have never been employed (EIGE, 2017).

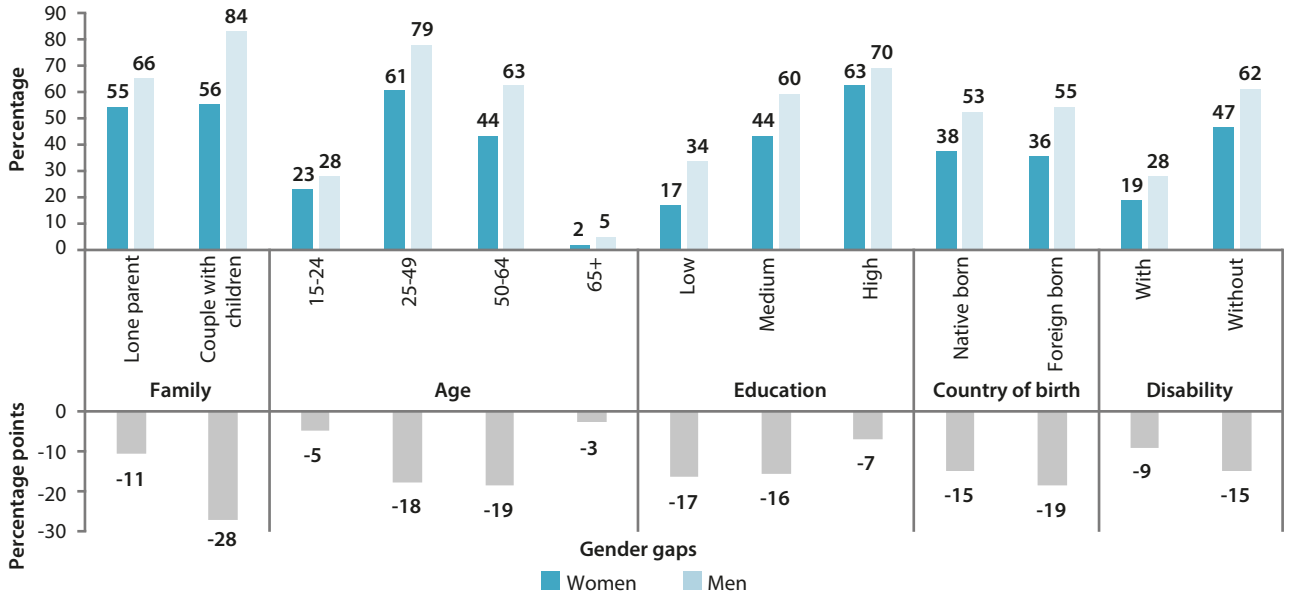
Labour market participation is significantly lower among women and men with disabilities relative to people without disabilities. While the FTE employment rate for women with disabilities is 19 %, for men with disabilities it is 9 p.p. higher. The disability gap is partially attributed to the fact that there are more older people who have difficulties with everyday activities. Still, even in the working age population (20-64 years old) gender differences persist — almost half (45 %) of working age women with disabilities are economically inactive compared to 35 % of men in the same situation. Low labour market participation, low work intensity and discrimination are among the main underlying factors that result in a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion among people with disabilities relative to the general population (EIGE, 2016c).

Older women also experience a high risk of poverty and social exclusion, which is a consequence of accumulated gender inequalities over the life course. Women, who are often expected to take care of family members and are vulnerable to age bias, experience particular disadvantages prior to retirement, which is reflected in their low participation in the labour market. The FTE employment rate of women in pre-retirement age (50-64) is just 44 %, with a gender gap as high as 19 p.p..

3.3. Women with children would benefit most from improved work-life balance

Family formation affects women´s and men´s participation in paid work differently. Lone mothers participate in the labour

Figure 10: Full-time equivalent employment rate by sex, age, family type, level of education, country of birth and disability (15+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU LFS.

Note: Calculated as: (sum of total working hours/mean working hours on full time jobs)/ population. Disability status based on EU SILC.

market to the same extent as women with children living in a couple (55 % and 56 %, FTE employment rate). While having a partner does not support the labour market participation of women with children, the same cannot be said about men. The participation of men in a couple with children is much higher compared to the participation of lone fathers. While the gender gap in the FTE employment rate among couples with children is 28 p.p. in favour of men, the gender gap among one-parent families is 11 p.p. in the same direction. These gender gaps, which are even more pronounced when unpaid domestic work is taken into account, can be addressed by improved work-life balance measures.

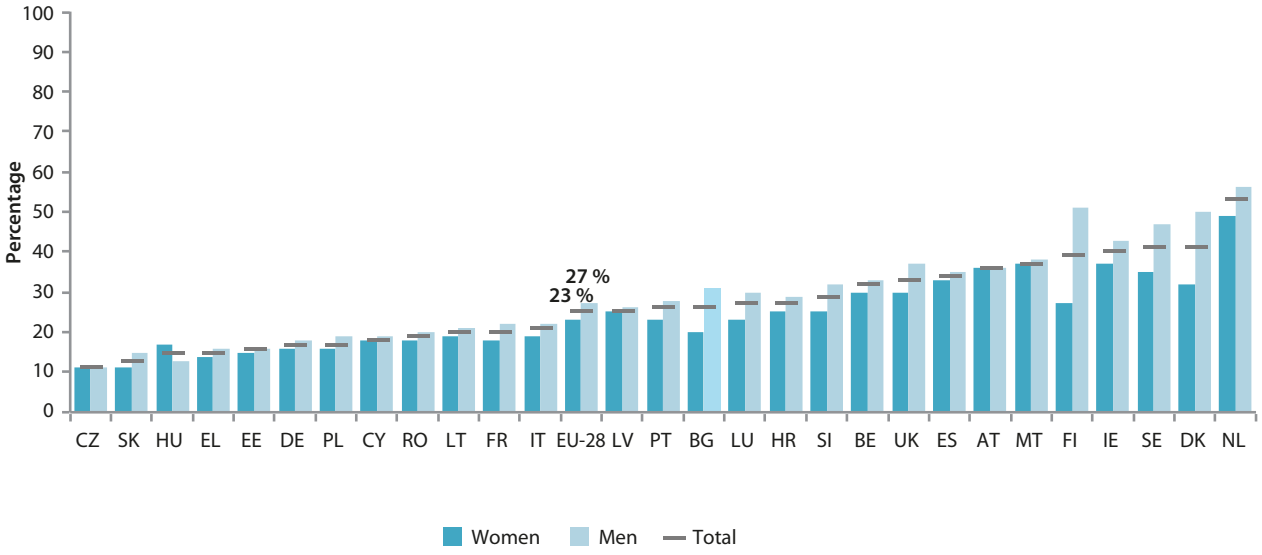
Only 27 % of men and 23 % of women in the EU-28 can very easily take some time off during their working hours to take care of their personal or family matters (Figure 11). Fewer workers have the ability to take time off for personal or family matters in the Czech Republic (11 %), Slovakia (13 %) and Greece and Hungary (both 15 %). In contrast, the most flexible workplaces are found in the Netherlands (53 %), Denmark and Sweden (both 41 %) and Ireland (40 %). Due to a slight change in the formulation of the survey question, the situation cannot be compared with previous years. Gender differences in flexibility of work differ widely between Member States. In the Czech Republic and Austria there is no gender gap, while there is a wide gender gap in Finland (24 p.p.) and Denmark (18 p.p.).

In addition to being able to reconcile private and work life, other aspects of the quality of work are for the first time assessed through a composite measure on job prospects in the Gender Equality Index. This captures the continuity of employment, defined in relation to employment status and type of contract, job security and career prospects. The results are measured on a scale from 0 (worst career prospects) to 100 points (best career prospects). With scores of 64 points for women and 63 points for men, the Career Prospects Index displays a large room for improvement for quality of work for both women and men. While variations in the gender gap are quite small across Member States, Figure 12 shows differences in the level of achievement, which ranges from 52 points in Greece and Cyprus to 72 points in Denmark.

The main gender difference in terms of job prospects concerns career advancement. Men consider their jobs to have better prospects more often than women (40 % and 36 %, respectively), and at the same time a higher proportion of women believe that their job does not offer good prospects for them (42 % for women, against 36 % for men).

As Figure 13 shows, around half of young women (51 %) and of young men (54 %) aged 15-24 agree that their job offers good prospects for career advancement. The gender gap increases with the age, reaching the highest value for older people.

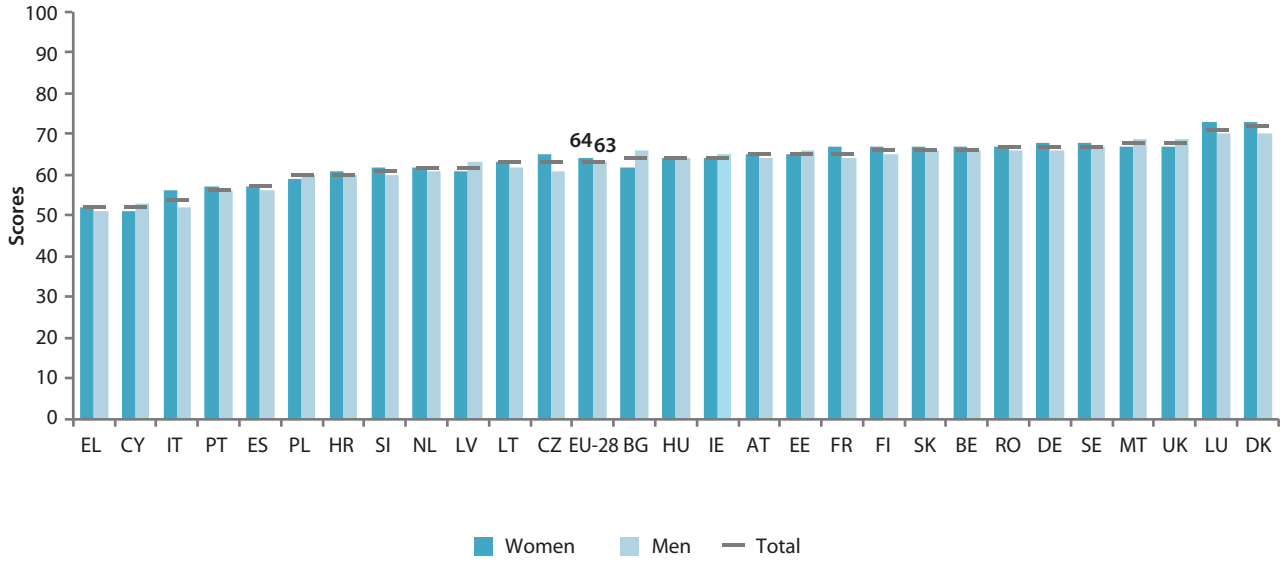
Figure 11: Ability to 'very easily' take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters by sex and EU Member State (15+ workers, %), 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EWCS.

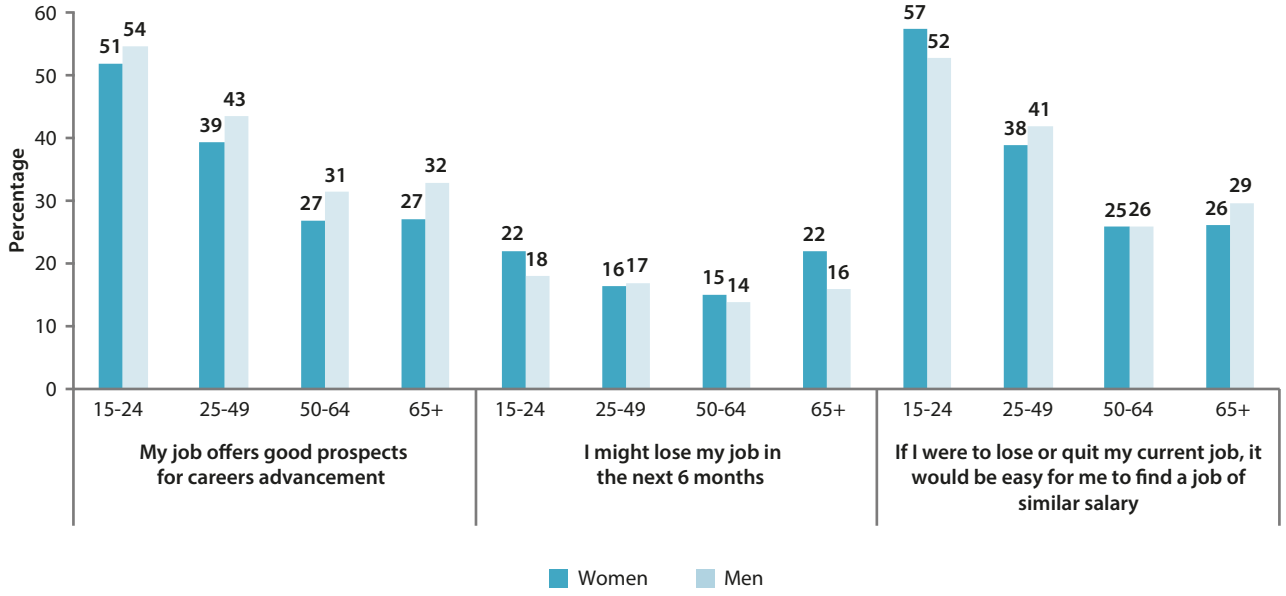
As additional information to the prospects of jobs index, employability can be considered. In relation to employability, more than half (57 %) of young women and 41 % of young men agree that it would be easy for them to find a job with a similar salary. Positive assessment of employability decreases sharply in older age groups. Just 26 % of women in the pre-retirement age group, and the same proportion of men, agree that they would be able to find a job with a similar salary.

Figure 12: Scores of the Career Prospects Index by sex and EU Member State, 2015



Source: Eurofound, EWCS.

Figure 13: Dimensions of quality of jobs (15+ workers, % of people agreeing), EU-28, 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation Eurofound, EWCS.

3.4. Gender segregation in employment is resistant to change

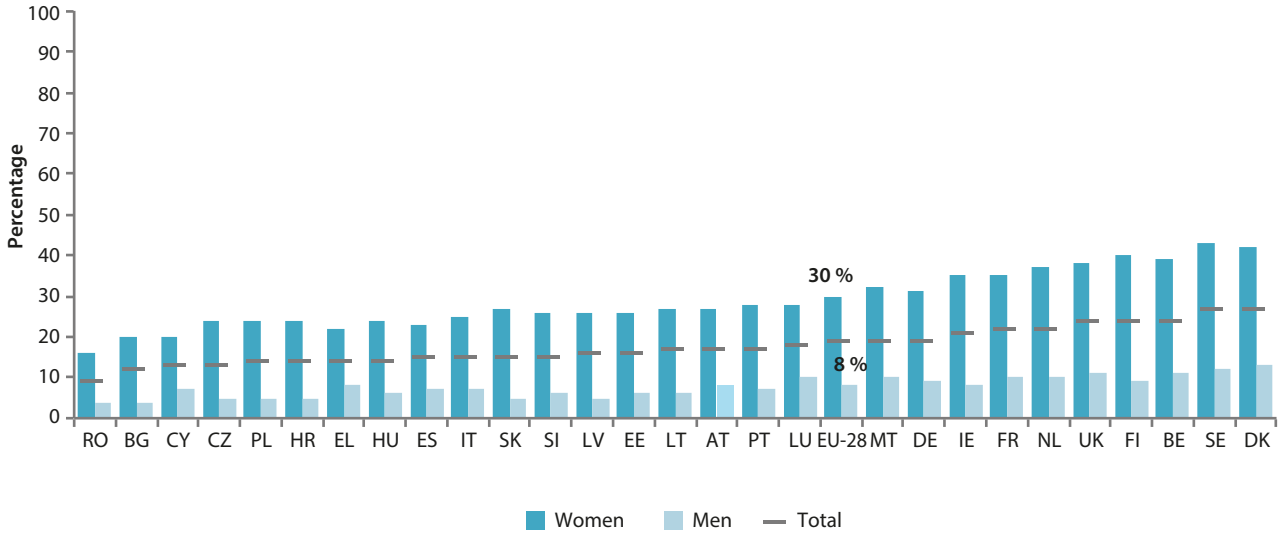
Despite reinforced political commitments by the European Commission and Member States to reduce gender segregation in the labour market, there has been little progress made in this field. Women usually take jobs in sectors that are generally characterised by low pay, low status, low value with poor career prospects, fewer options for upskilling and often have informal working arrangements. Women's and men's concentration in different sectors and occupations is one of the major causes of the gender pay gap, the pension gap and women's overall economic dependence throughout the life course (EIGE, 2017f).

In 2015, the average gender gap for employment in the sectors of education, human health and social work, where women are usually over-represented, was as high as 22 p.p., which is 2 p.p. higher than in 2005. Over the past 10 years, men's share of employment in education, health and social work has remained stable at 8 % of employed men, in contrast to the share of women employed in these sectors (30 %), which increased by 2 p.p. (Figure 14).

In relation to the gender gap in these women-dominated occupations across the Member States in 2015, this ranged from the smallest gap in Romania (12 p.p.) to the widest gaps in Finland and Sweden (31 p.p.). It is notable that since 2005 only two Member States, Hungary and Sweden, saw a slight narrowing of the gender gap, while the gender gap increased more significantly in Croatia (by 5 p.p.), and in Ireland, France and Portugal (by 4 p.p.).

Gender segregation in education, health and welfare is closely related to gender distribution across other sectors, including science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM). In STEM sectors, men have been over-represented, with no change over time. The share of women in STEM occupations was 14 % in 2014, which is only one percentage point higher than 10 years ago ([1]).

Figure 14: Employed people in education, human health and social work activities by sex and EU Member State (15+ employed, %), 2015



Source: Eurostat, EU LFS (lfsa_egan2).

([1]) For more information about gender segregation, see EIGE's report *Gender segregation in education, training and the labour market. Review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Member States* (preliminary title, forthcoming in 2017).

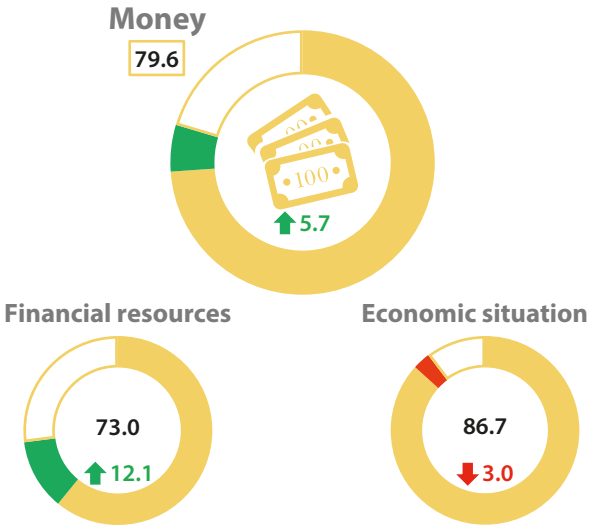
4. Domain of money

As most European economies are recovering from the economic downturn (OECD, 2016; Council of the European Union, 2017b), it is essential that recovery processes contribute to closing gender inequalities in the financial and economic realm.

The European Pillar of Social Rights introduces several measures aiming at combating poverty and social exclusion, including minimal income benefits that would ensure a life with dignity, social protection and unemployment benefits and adequate pensions for women and men. Addressing poverty, social exclusion and inequalities is an integral part of policy priorities for 2017, as set out by the Council in its Recommendations on the economic policy of the euro area, which is part of the European Semester (Council of the European Union, 2017).

Equal access to financial resources over the life course is a prerequisite for achieving economic independence and self-fulfilment of women and men. In response to this, policy measures to address gender inequalities in employment, pay and pensions have been introduced as an integral part of the European Commission's 'Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019' (2015a), as well as the Council's European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020 (2010).

Figure 15: Scores of the domain of money, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



The domain of money measures gender inequalities in access to financial resources and women's and men's economic situation. The first sub-domain of financial resources includes women's and men's monthly earnings and income measured through two indicators. The first is mean monthly earnings from work and the second is mean equivalised net income, which besides earnings from paid work includes pensions, investments, benefits and any other source of income. Both are expressed in the purchasing power standard (PPS), which is an artificial currency that accounts for differences in price levels between Member States. The second sub-domain of economic situation captures women's and men's risk of poverty and the income distribution amongst women and men. Indicators included are the percentage of the population not at risk of poverty (whose income is above or equal to 60 % of median income in the country) and the ratio of the bottom and top quintile by sex. The latter indicator is used to measure the level of income inequality among women and among men.

Financial resources	Mean monthly earnings (PPS) Mean equivalised net income (PPS)
Economic situation	Not at-risk-of-poverty S20/S80 income quintile share

4.1. Poverty reduction remains a challenge despite increases in average income

With a score of 79.6 in 2015, the domain of money shows an improvement of 5.7 points since 2005. It is the second-fastest improving domain of the Gender Equality Index in the EU. This evolution is mainly due to the significant progress observed in the sub-domain of financial resources (+ 12.1 points), while the sub-domain of economic situation has been declining continuously over this period (Figure 16 and 17).

The majority of Member States have improved their score for the domain of money since 2005, bringing women and men closer to equal access to economic independence. The fastest progress has been observed in Slovakia (+ 12.5 points), Malta (+ 12.1 points) and Poland (+11.9 points) since 2005, while seven Member States (Germany, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, United Kingdom) show marginal progress (progress of less than 3 points). Only one country, Greece, has a deteriorating score over the 10-year period (-1.2 points).

For all Member States, except Croatia and the UK, progress has been driven by improvements in the sub-domain of financial resources. In this domain, 12 Member States have progressed by 10 points or more, with the highest progression observed in Malta (20.3 points) and Slovakia (16.3 points). These results show a positive development towards the narrowing of earnings and income gaps.

The sub-domain on economic situation, which measures both risk of poverty and income inequality, shows a slight decrease of 3 points in the EU-28 since 2005. This setback is much more pronounced in certain Member States, and particularly in Bulgaria (8.6 points) and Germany (6.7 points).

Figure 17: Scores of the domain of money and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015

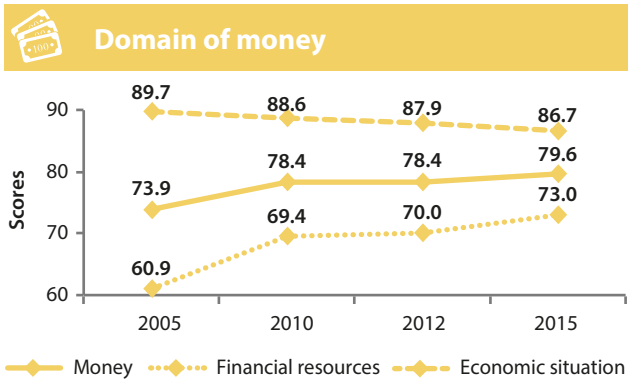
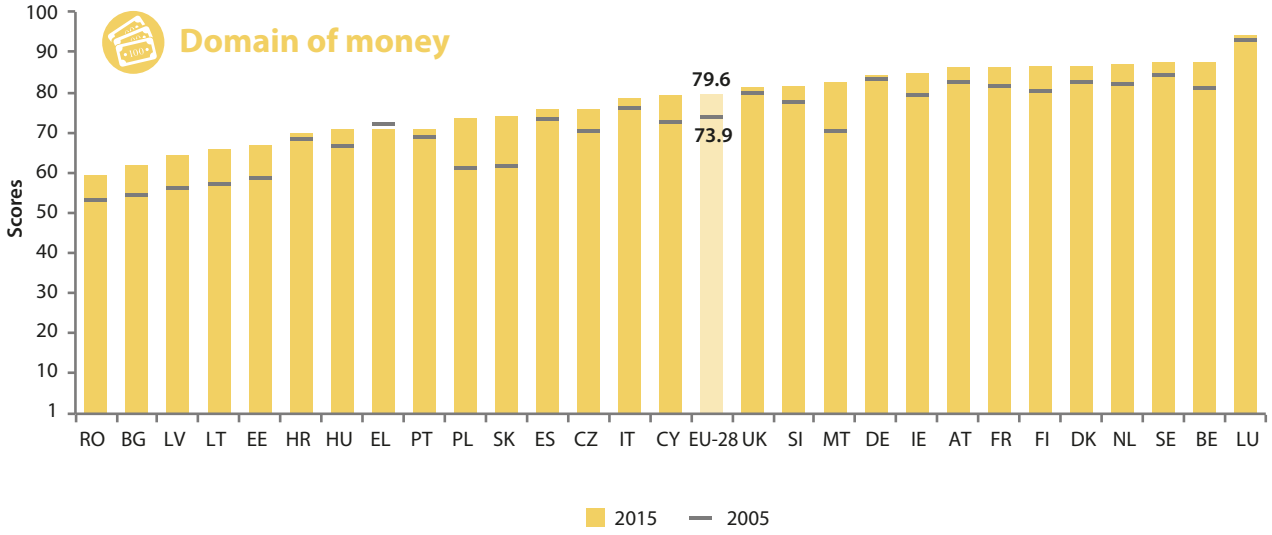


Figure 16: Scores of the domain of money, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015



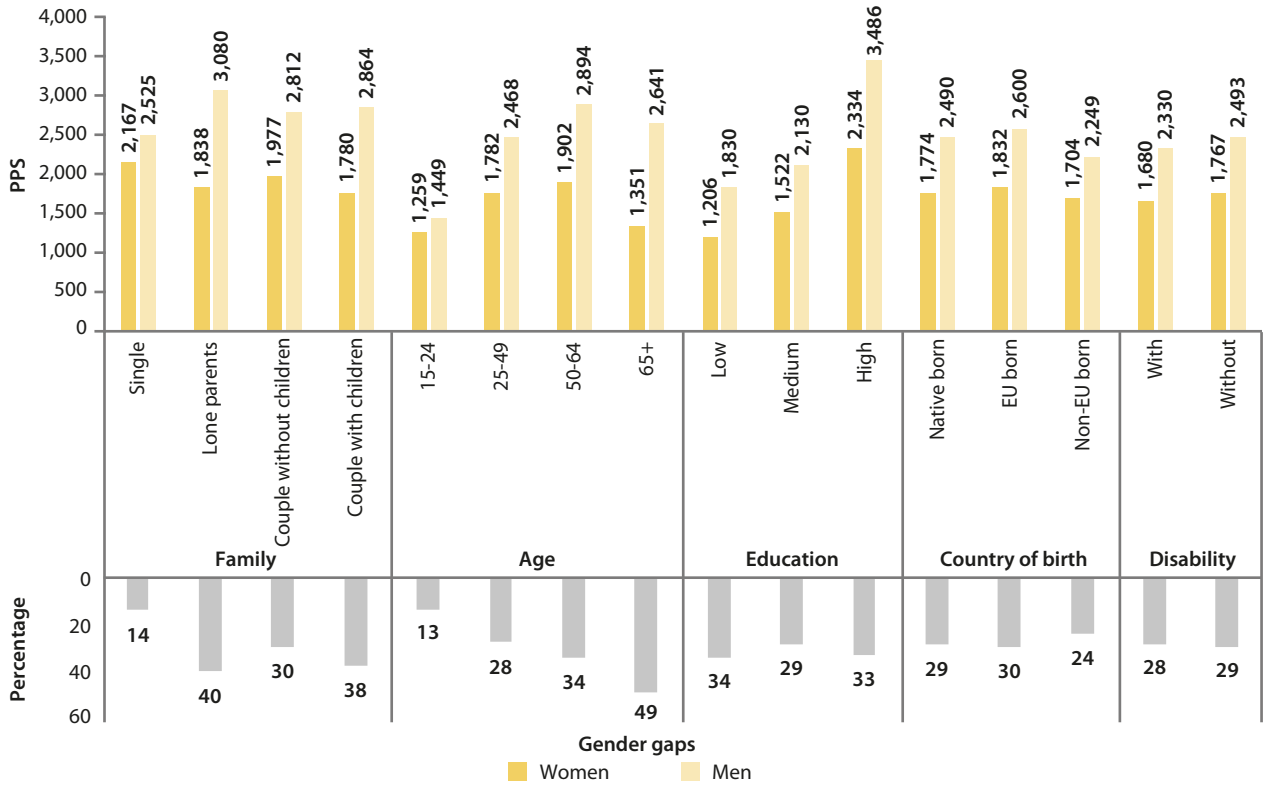
4.2. Having children means a financial penalty for women and an earnings boost for men

In the last 10 years, monthly earnings have increased gradually for both women and men. However, women's earnings have increased at a faster pace than men's, especially from 2006 to 2010 (overall + 765 PPS for women and + 364 PPS for men). This progress in women's earnings has substantially decreased gender gaps in monthly earnings from 39 % in 2006 to 21 % in 2010. Gender gaps decreased more modestly between 2010 and 2014 to 20 %. In 2014, women workers in the EU earned on average 80 % of male workers: 2,266 PPS a month compared to 2,831 PPS a month. This EU average masks wide disparities at the national level, where gender gaps range from a 50 PPS gap in Romania to a 752 PPS gap in Germany, to the detriment of women's monthly earnings.

The gap between women's and men's earnings is affected by a range of factors such as age, country of birth, education, disability and most particularly family type (Figure 18 and Figure 19). A single man earns on average 14 % more a month than a single woman, whereas the gap widens amongst couples and even further when there are children present. This amounts to a gap of 30 % among people in a couple without dependent children, and is much higher with the presence of a dependent child or children — both among people living in a couple (38 %) and among lone parents (40 %). It is interesting to note that family formation means higher monthly earnings for men, which is not the case for women, even when men raise children as a lone father. This may be partly explained by the fact that lone fathers' earnings are the highest across all groups — on average lone fathers earn 555 PPS more a month than single men.

For women, every family type, except being single, involves lower earnings. While lone fathers tend to earn 555 PPS more than single men, in the case of women, lone mothers

Figure 18: Mean monthly earnings in PPS by sex, age, family type, level of education, country of birth and disability and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: Gender gaps are calculated as the difference between the mean monthly earnings of men and of women as a percentage of the mean monthly earnings of men.

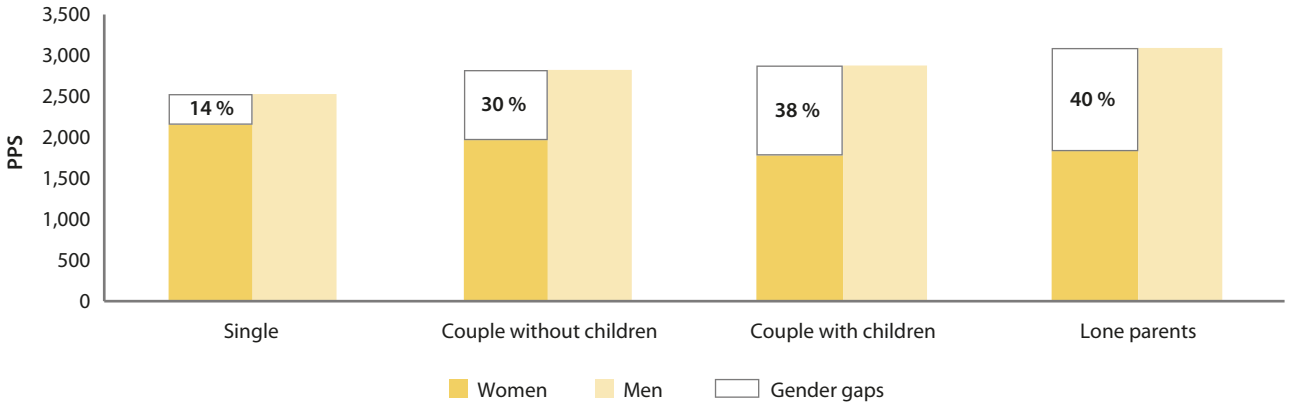
EU-born and non-EU born are based on EU-23, (data on DE, EE, LV, MT and SI missing).

earn 328 PPS less than single women a month, which places lone mothers and their children at significant risk of poverty. As a result, gender gaps in earnings vary across family types due to both the decrease in women's earnings and the increase in men's earnings that come with family formation.

Single women are the highest earners of all groups of women. While a single woman earns on average 2,167 PPS a month, a woman living in a couple with no children earns 1,977 PPS, a mother living in a couple with children earns 1,780 PPS and a lone mother 1,838 PPS. These figures show that women in a couple with no children earn 91 % of a single woman's earnings, but this drops to 82 % for women in a couple with children and 85 % for lone mothers.

The fact that women earn similar amounts when they raise their children, both living in a couple and when they raise

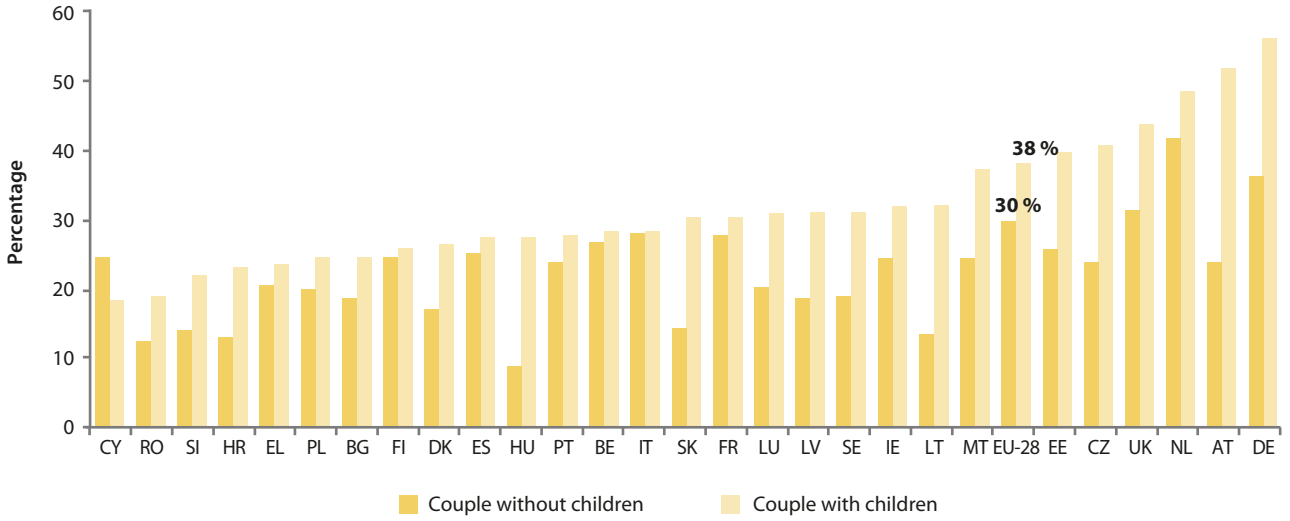
Figure 19: Mean monthly earnings in PPS by sex and family type and gender gaps (%), EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: Gender gaps are calculated as the difference between the mean monthly earnings of men and of women as a percentage of the mean monthly earnings of men

Figure 20: Gender gaps in earnings by family type (couples with or without children) by EU Member State (%), 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: Gender gaps are calculated as the difference between the mean monthly earnings of men and of women as a percentage of the mean monthly earnings of men

them alone, suggests, as discussed in the domain of work (Chapter 3), that this is closely connected to similar lower levels of FTE employment rate for these two groups (55 % for mothers living in a couple and 56 % for lone mothers, see Figure 10). As a result, having a partner does not affect the labour market participation of women with children in any significant way.

Across the Member States, gender gaps tend to be significantly higher among women and men living in families, compared to gender gaps among single women and men. Figure 20 highlights the different gender gaps in earnings observed for couples with or without dependent children across Member States.

This shows, with the exception of Cyprus and Italy, that the presence of children within the family means a larger gap in women's and men's monthly earnings. Six Member States show gender gaps for couples with children that are above the EU-28 average of 38 % (Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Netherlands, Austria, United Kingdom). The difference between the gender gaps in the two family types considered reaches 28 p.p. in the case of Austria and 20 p.p. in the case of Germany.

These figures support the notion that having children awards men and results in a financial penalty for women. These effects are often referred to as the 'motherhood pay gap' and 'fatherhood premium' (ILO, 2015). This may in part be explained by the fact that family planning may involve postponing having children until the family income is high enough and when parents (mostly fathers) have decent jobs and pay. Additionally, women and men living in a couple with no dependent children are either younger couples who are at the beginning of their careers or older couples whose children are already grown up. These data further highlight the need to consider the heterogeneity of mothers and fathers and how gender and family type intersect and affect their finances.

The fact that women living in a family have lower earnings than single women is in line with the findings of the domain of work that women with children are far less likely to be employed than men with children. With a 56 % employment rate for women with children and 84 % for men with children ([2]), the gender gap in employment for this group reaches 28 p.p., the highest of all the groups, as was shown in Figure 10. Having breaks in their careers while children are small further impacts women's career progression and incomes when they return to the labour market.

([2]) As measured by the indicator 'Full time equivalent employment rate by gender and family type' (15+ population, 2014, EU-28). Source: EU-LFS 2014.

This finding is also supported by the results of the two specific measures of work-life balance included in the Gender Equality Index. First, the data show that men are more likely than women to very easily take an hour or two off work to deal with personal matters ([3]). Second, the analysis of the domain of time (Chapter 6) underlines the fact that women continue to shoulder the majority of household activities, making juggling work and family responsibilities far more difficult for women ([4]). These data show that both the unequal sharing of domestic activities and the presence of children in the family are highly detrimental to women's employment and financial situations.

4.3. Poverty risk is more than double for those born outside the EU

Between 2005 and 2015, gender differences in women's and men's exposure to poverty remained marginal with a gender gap to the detriment of women of 1.8 p.p. in 2005 and of 1 p.p. in 2015. In 2015 twelve Member States show a gender gap above the EU-28 average (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Sweden) but only in Latvia is the gender gap higher than 5 p.p.. The share of the EU-28 population at risk of poverty has not decreased over the past 10 years, with 17 % of women and 16 % of men over the age of 16 being at risk of poverty ([5]) in 2015, compared to 16 % of women and 14 % of men in 2005. At the national level, contrasting tendencies have been at play across Member States in the last decade. The share of women at risk of poverty has increased by at least 5 p.p. in five Member States (Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Latvia and Sweden) in the last decade. The most important progress was seen in Ireland, where the share of women at risk of poverty decreased by 4 %.

In 2015, the share of women and men at risk of poverty varies greatly, ranging from 10 % of women and 7 % of men in the Czech Republic to 25 % of women and 19 % of men in Latvia (Figure 21). Nine Member States count a fifth or more of their female population as being at risk of poverty (Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Latvia,

([3]) 27 % of men and 23 % of women in the EU-28 indicated that they can very easily take some time off during their working hours to take care of their personal or family matters (see Figure 11).

([4]) 79 % of women engage in cooking and housework every day for 1 hour, in comparison with 34 % of men (see Figure 38).

([5]) This means that their income is below or equal to 60 % of the median income in the country as measured by the indicator 'Not at risk of poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income (% 16+ population)' from Eurostat EU statistics on income and living conditions.

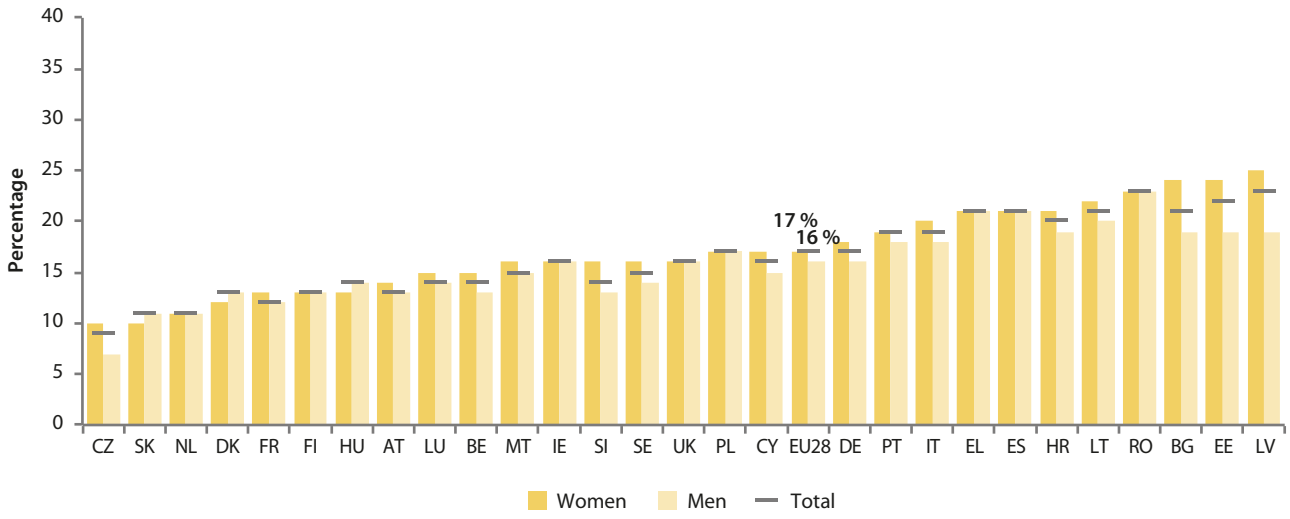
Lithuania and Romania), compared to four Member States where there is a similar share of the male population in poverty (Greece, Spain, Lithuania and Romania).

Women's and men's risk of poverty is affected by a range of intersecting inequalities (Figure 22). The groups showing the highest risks of poverty (above the EU-28 average), regardless of sex, include single people, foreign born people, lone parents, young people (15-24), people with low educational levels and people with disabilities. Among these groups, gender differences in exposure to poverty are minimal, with the exception of lone parents. Approximately one in three lone mothers is at risk of poverty in the EU, compared to one in five of lone fathers.

Women and men born outside the EU are twice more likely to be at risk of poverty (36 % for women and 38 % for men) than people born in the country where they live, highlighting how the migration process affects the possibility for women and men to achieve economic independence. Women and men with high educational levels have the lowest rates of risk of poverty (8 %) of all groups examined.

When this is looked at by income levels, the intersectional analysis highlights again lone mothers' financial and economic vulnerability (Figure 23). Lone mothers in the EU have the lowest income of all groups, earning on average 13,333 PPS compared to 17,564 PPS for women in general. In addition to the risk of poverty, the gender gap in income between lone mothers and lone fathers is the highest among all groups (26 %).

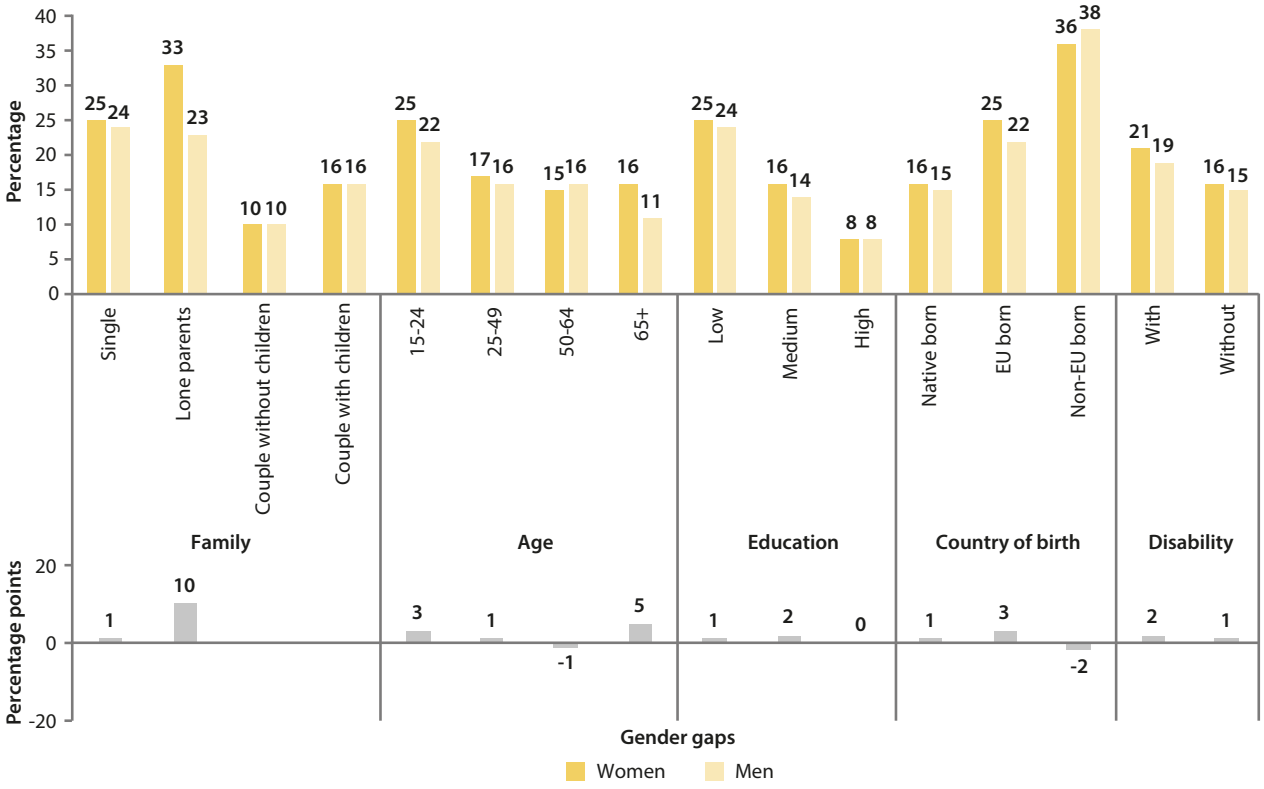
Figure 21: Population at risk of poverty by sex and EU Member State (%), 2015



Source: Eurostat, EU SILC (ilc_li02).

Note: Member States are listed in ascending order of the female population at risk of poverty in 2015.

Figure 22: Population at risk of poverty by sex, family type, age, level of education, place of birth and disability (16+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: Data on country of birth (ilc_li31, 18+, 2015).

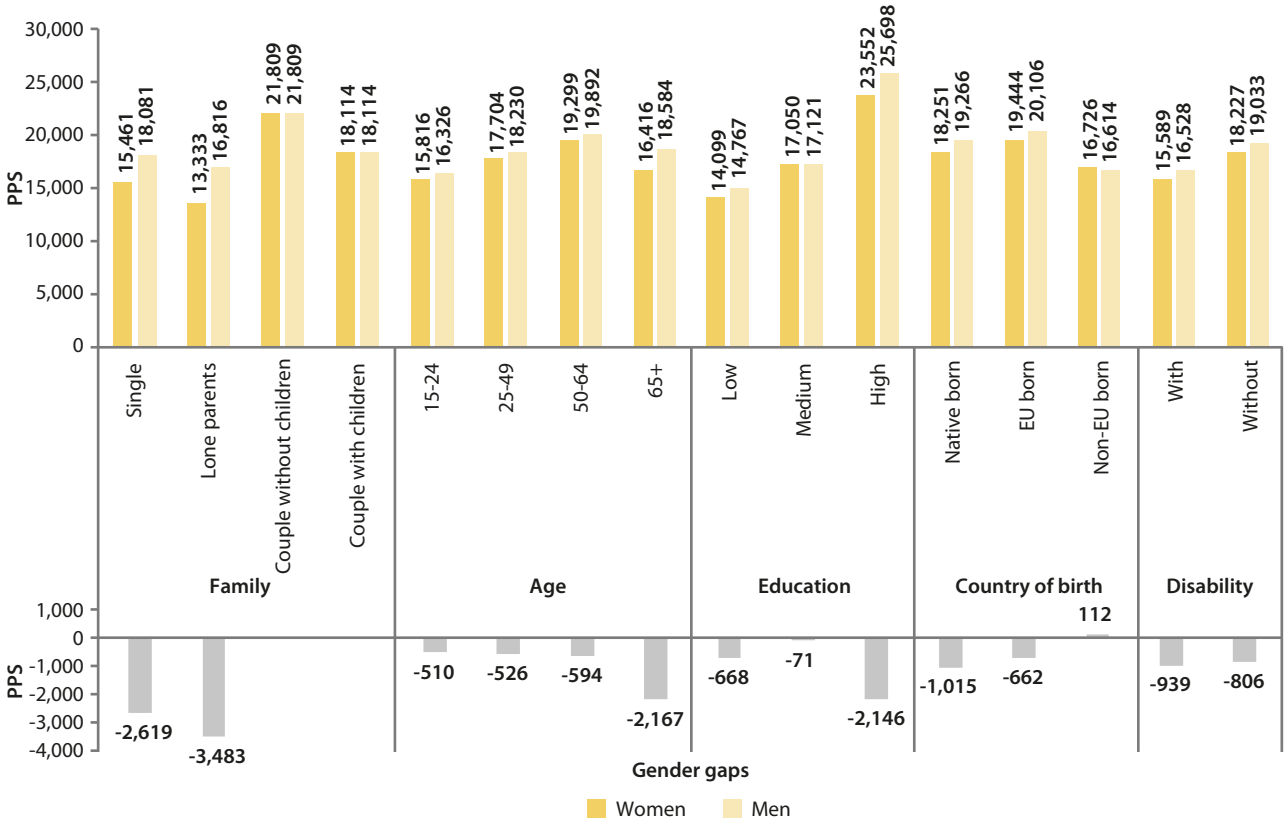
4.4. Lifetime inequalities lead to acute gender gaps in older age

Lower employment rates, higher levels of economic inactivity, part-time work, career breaks, segregation in the labour market and direct and indirect discrimination lead to persisting gender pay gaps in earnings and income, which undermine economic independence throughout women's lives.

In most Member States, retirement pensions are based on the principle of continuous full-time paid employment, which generally privilege men. In addition, in recent years, pension reforms have introduced longer periods of gainful employment as criteria to qualify for pension benefits. As women's life course often involve periods of unpaid care work and working lives that are on average 5 years shorter than men's, they face a significant risk of poverty in old age. The tendency for men to receive higher pensions than women is observed in all Member States. In 2012, the gender gap in pensions amounted to 38 % in the EU-28 on average, ranging from 5 % in Estonia to 45 % in Germany (EIGE, 2015b). By 2014, the average gender pension gap reached 40 % in the EU (European Parliament, 2016c). Unequal access to financial resources in old age is reflected in the income for specific groups of women and men. The income gender gap between women and men over 65 years of age is the highest of all age groups (12 p.p., compared to 4 p.p. for the general population).

The poverty rate of women aged 50–64 (15 %) is the lowest of all age groups (see Figure 22), but it increases with age and reaches 18 % for those aged 75 and over. There are remarkable differences across the Member States in the rate of women aged 75 and over who are at risk of poverty, ranging from 4 % in Hungary and 9 % in the Netherlands to 47 % in Bulgaria and Latvia and 50 % in Estonia (Figure 24).

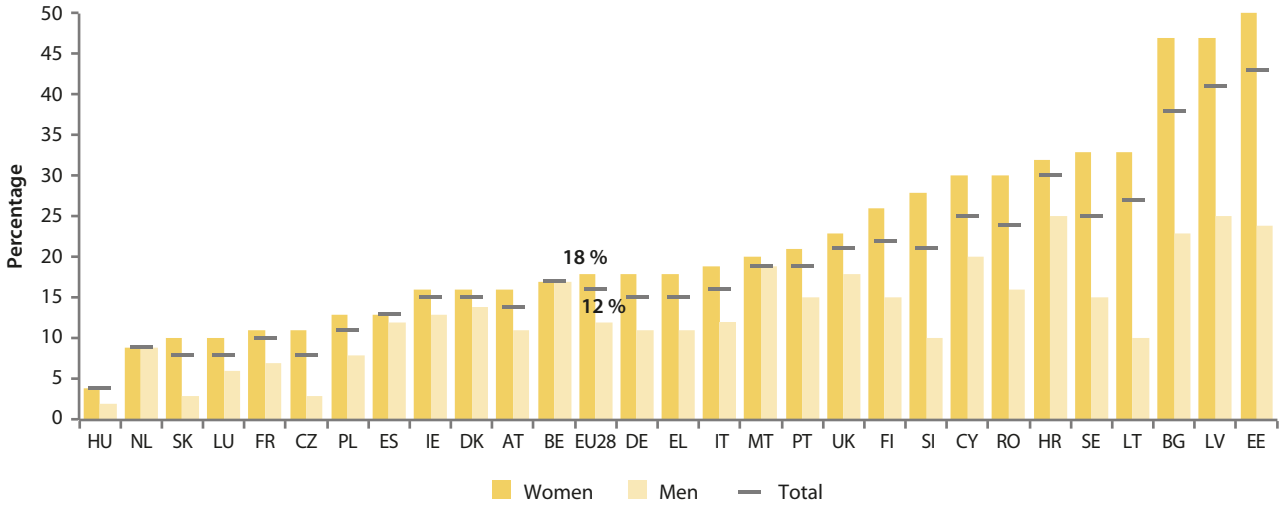
Figure 23: Mean equivalised net income by sex, family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability (in PPS), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC. Data on country of birth (ilc_di16, 18+, 2015).

Note: The equivalised net income is calculated at the household level, taking into account all sources of income of all members of the household. Therefore, the total income is split evenly between the male and female members of the couple, hence the absence of gender gap for couples.

Figure 24: At-risk-of-poverty rate of older people by sex and EU Member State (75+ population, %), 2015



Source: Eurostat, EU SILC (ilc_li02).

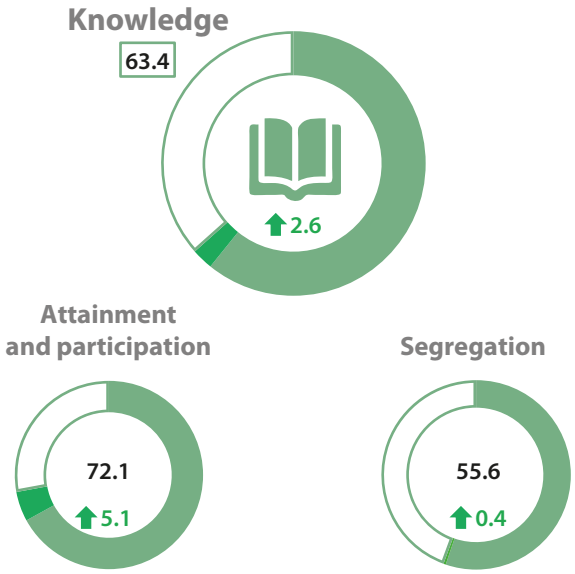
5. Domain of knowledge

Education and training throughout the life course provide women and men with knowledge and skills that enable their participation in society, and in secure and quality jobs. Education is a driver for social change and it can be a powerful tool for achieving gender equality, social inclusion and the elimination of poverty (EIGE, 2016c; EIGE, 2017f). While achieving gender equality in education is of crucial importance, the educational process can also provide an opportunity to promote gender equality principles.

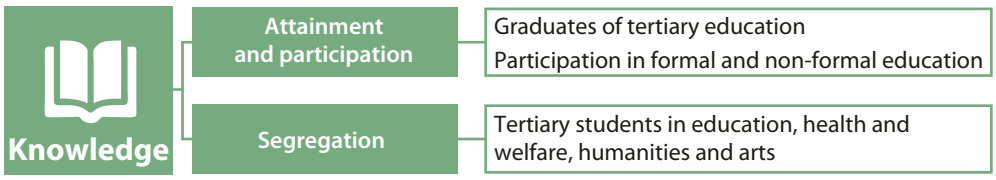
Everybody has a right to education and training throughout their life course and this is reflected in an increased focus of the EU on promoting the quality and inclusiveness of education and training (e.g. EU Education Ministers, 2015). Gender equality is an intrinsic part of high-quality education. Therefore, in order to ensure good education and training provision, EU policies and the European Pillar of Social Rights need to address the issue of gender inequalities in the school and academic environment. Gender stereotypes continue to limit the life choices of women and men and contribute to gender segregation in vocational and tertiary education, as well as in the labour market. Challenging the harmful effects of gender stereotypes throughout the educational cycle, from primary school to lifelong learning, can play an important role in reducing gender inequalities in other spheres of life (EIGE, 2017f). Tackling gender stereotypes and gender segregation is also central to the modernisation of the European higher education system (European Commission, 2011b) and is a precondition for achieving the Europe 2020 target — increasing the proportion of young people aged 30-34 with tertiary degree to at least 40 % by 2020.

To improve the connection between knowledge, skills and the labour market, the New skills agenda for Europe launched a number of actions, including those aimed at supporting adults in upscaling their skills (European Commission, 2016a). Mainstreaming a gender equality perspective in these planned measures could, for instance, contribute to an increased participation of parents and carers in lifelong learning and to narrowing gender segregation in the labour market. Gender mainstreaming thus has a role to play in facilitating the achievement of a benchmark set in the strategic framework Education and Training 2020 (ET 2020) of a participation rate of at least 15 % of adults in lifelong learning (Council of the European Union, 2009).

Figure 25: Scores of the domain of knowledge, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



The domain of knowledge measures gender inequalities in educational attainment, participation in education and training over the life course and gender segregation. The sub-domain of educational attainment is measured by two indicators: the percentage of women and men tertiary graduates, and participation of women and men in formal and non-formal education and training over the life course. The second sub-domain targets gender segregation in tertiary education by looking at the percentage of women and men among students in fields of education, health, welfare, humanities, and arts.



5.1. Despite improving educational attainment, gender segregation persists

The overall score for the domain of knowledge is 63.4, representing the need for greater improvements in promoting gender equality in education and training. Over the last 10 years, the score for the domain of knowledge has increased only by 2.6 points. This is one of the domains where a reversal of gender gap has been observed during the last decade — women are outperforming men in educational attainment in most Member States.

Overall in the EU-28, there is an equal proportion of women and men tertiary graduates and an equal share of women and men participating in education and lifelong learning, the latter of which is generally very low. However, gender segregation in education is a persistent challenge, which seriously holds back progress in gender equality in the area of knowledge.

From 2005 to 2015, as illustrated in Figure 26, the situation in the domain of knowledge improved in most Member States. The largest progress can be found in Cyprus (+ 15.1), followed by Greece (+ 8.4), Luxembourg (+ 7.4) and Italy (+ 7.3). Drops in the score can be observed in the United Kingdom (– 4.0) and Germany (– 2.4).

Over the last 10 years, the score of the sub-domain on educational attainment and participation went up from 67.0 to 72.1 (Figure 27). The most significant improvement was achieved by Luxembourg, with a rise of 18.6 points, driven mostly by increased levels of qualifications, as well as an increased proportion of women and men participating in education and training over the life course. While the scores increased by more than 10 p.p. in a further five Member States (Czech Republic, France, Malta, Austria, Portugal), the situation slightly deteriorated in three Member States (Latvia, Poland, United Kingdom).

Gender segregation remains a persistent challenge for gender equality in the EU. In 2015, the score of the sub-domain of segregation was 55.6, which is almost the same as it was 10 years ago. A positive trend can be observed in Cyprus, where the score has risen by 17.9 points, mostly because of an increased proportion of men studying the

Figure 27: Scores of the domain of knowledge and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015

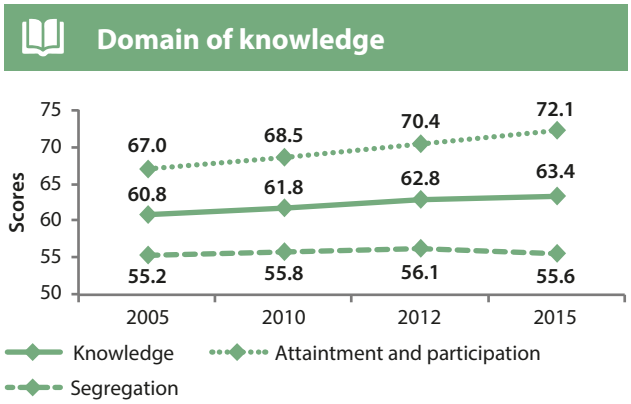
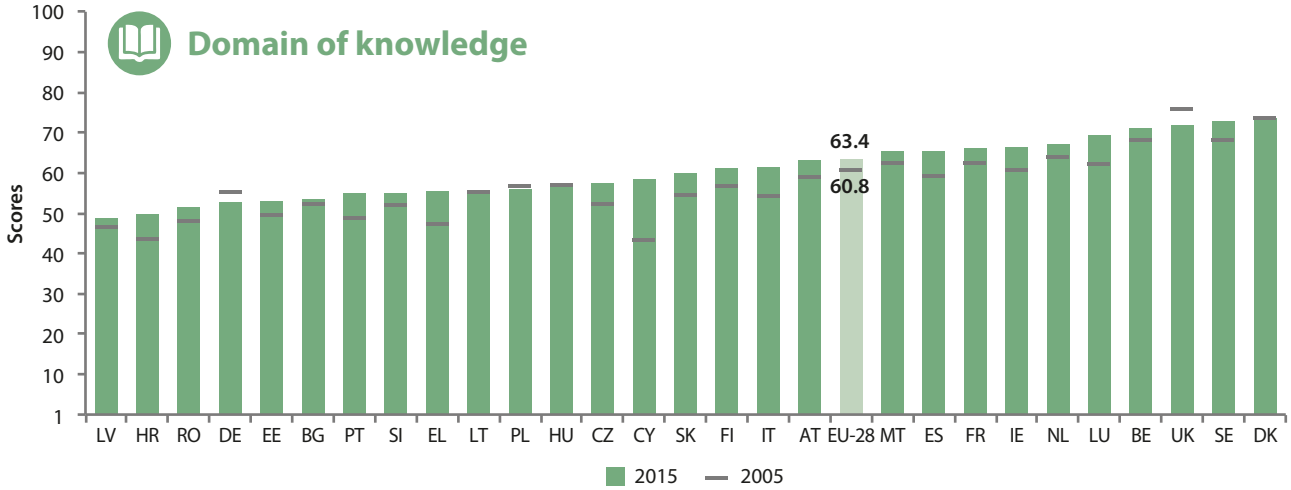


Figure 26: Scores of the domain of knowledge, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015



fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and the arts (from 9 % in 2005 to 17 % in 2015). On the other hand, the score dropped substantially for Germany (– 8 points) and Malta (– 7.6 points).

5.2. Young men are losing out on educational attainment

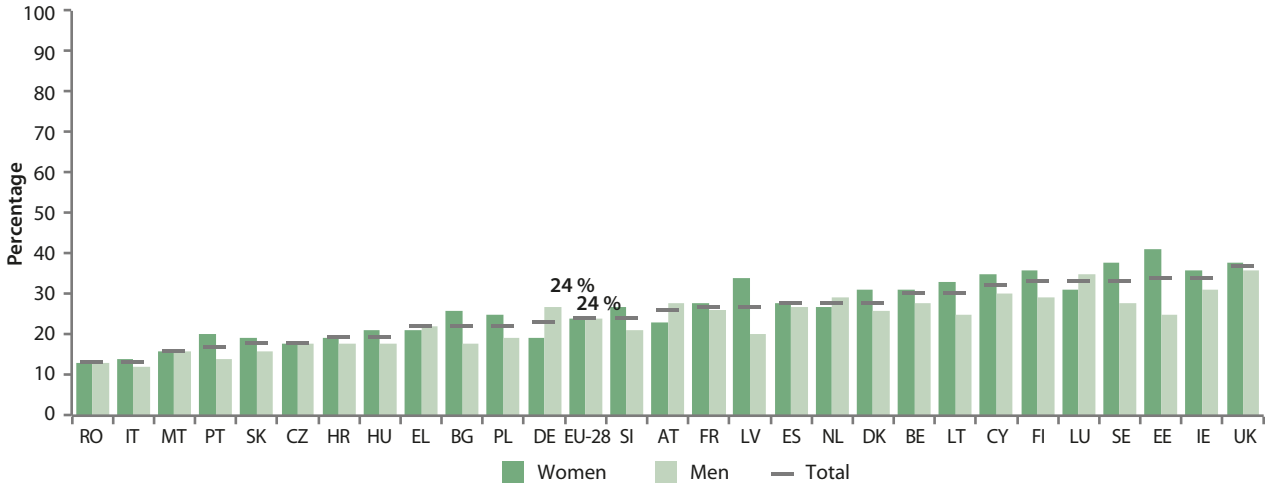
From 2005 to 2015, the proportion of women and men graduating from tertiary education in the EU-28 rose evenly by 6 p.p. to 24 %. However, the percentage of graduates varied across Member States in 2015, ranging from 13 % in Italy and Romania to 37 % in the United Kingdom (Figure 28). In relation to the gender gap, while there was no gender difference in the Czech Republic, Greece, Malta and Romania, it reached 10 p.p. in Estonia, Latvia and Sweden. Although the gender gap increased in favour of women in all Member States in the last 10 years, the most significant change is observed in Latvia (+ 8 p.p.) and Estonia (+ 7 p.p.).

The intersection of gender and age uncovers generational differences in educational attainment. While in older generations more men than women have achieved tertiary education, the gender gap is reversed among younger people (aged 25-49) (Figure 29). Women aged 30-34 have already reached the Europe 2020 target set at 40 %, while the proportion of women with tertiary education was 43 % in 2015. The percentage of men with tertiary education in the same age group was 9 p.p. lower. This marks a widening of the gender gap since 2005, when it was 4 p.p.

Looking at educational attainment through the intersection of gender and disability reveals that while the highest percentage of tertiary graduates is among women without disabilities (29 %), the lowest proportion of those with tertiary education is among women with disabilities (13 %). The gender gap among people with disabilities is 4 p.p. to the advantage of men; however, the gender gap among people without disabilities is reversed and as low as 2 p.p.. Even though this lower educational attainment can be partially explained by a higher proportion of the older population among people with disabilities, the disability gap is also observed in younger generations. About 30 % of persons with disabilities aged 30-34 have completed tertiary education compared to 43 % for people without disabilities in the same age group (European Commission, 2017g).

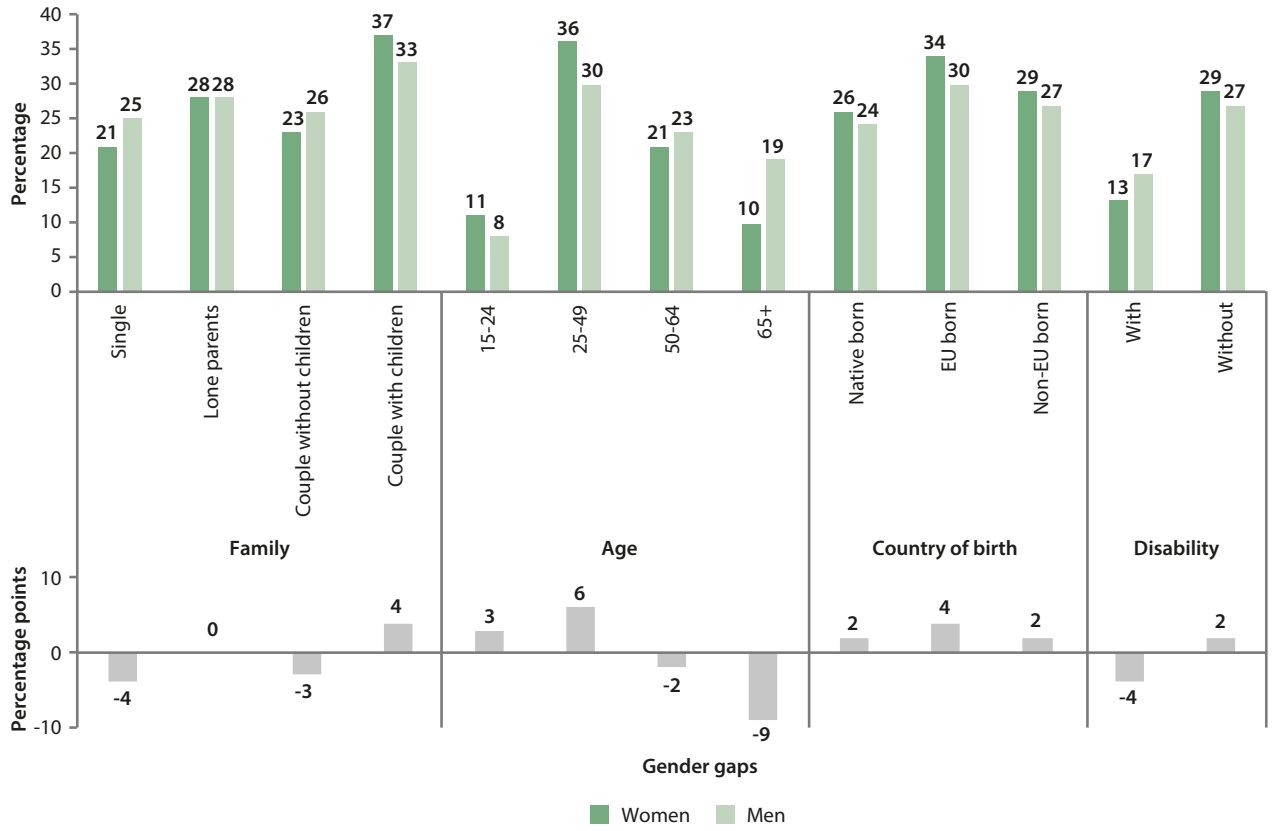
With few exceptions across population groups, women in general, irrespective of whether they are national or foreign born, have higher educational attainment relative to men. Nonetheless, their opportunities to exercise knowledge and skills in the labour market are far more limited, often working in sectors and occupations where their knowledge and skills are not fully utilised or recognised. In comparison to men, women withdraw from the labour market more frequently, they face precarious employment more often, as well as lower pay (EIGE, 2017g), and are more affected by the 'glass ceiling' or the 'sticky floor', preventing their occupational progression (EIGE Gender

Figure 28: Graduates of tertiary education by sex and EU Member State (15+ population, %), 2015



Source: Eurostat's calculation, EU LFS.

Figure 29: Graduates of tertiary education by sex, family type, age, country of birth* and disability (15+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE'S calculations, EU LFS, Eurostat, (edat_lfs_9912).

Note: Country of birth refers to year 2015; age group 15-74.

Equality Glossary and Thesaurus). Building more synergies and consistency between educational and labour market policies from a gender equality perspective could help to address this discrepancy.

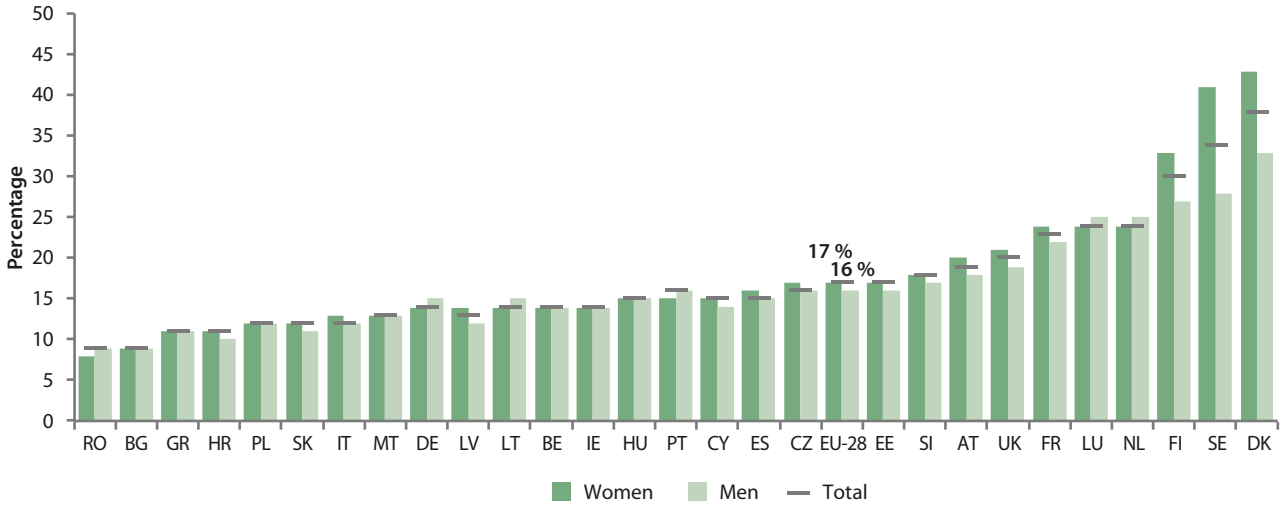
5.3. No progress in participation in lifelong learning

Increasing levels of educational attainment for women and men is good news for Europe; however, there are 64 million women and men aged 25-64 with low levels of qualifications. Many face challenges in participation in the labour market and experience higher risks of poverty and social exclusion (EIGE, 2017g). At the same time, regardless of the level of qualification, it is increasingly important to update skills in order to keep up with the changing labour market and job requirements (European Commission, 2016a). Despite the importance of education and training over the life course, the average participation of women and men in formal and non-formal education and training in the EU-28 is as low as it was in 2005 (17 % and 16 %, respectively) (Figure 30).

There are also wide variations across Member States. In 2015, the proportion of people attending formal and non-formal education and training varied from 9 % in Bulgaria and Romania to 38 % in Denmark. The Member States with the highest participation rate also had the widest gender gap in favour of women: Sweden (13 p.p.), Denmark (10 p.p.) and Finland (6 p.p.). In this context, more attention should be paid in the future to monitoring participation in education and training in the EU-28 and to implementing measures that would prevent a further widening of the gender gap.

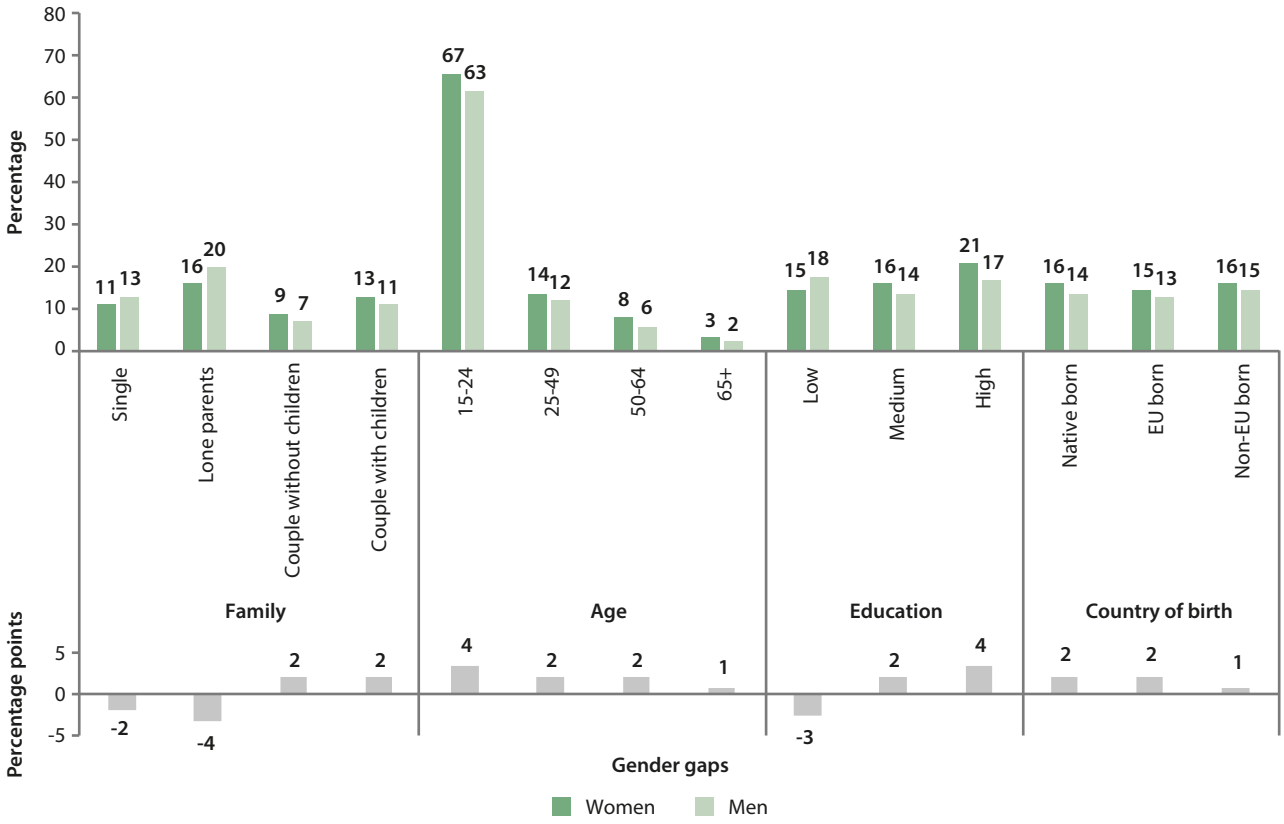
Figure 31 illustrates a range of intersecting inequalities affecting participation in education and training. The intersection of gender and age shows that participation in education and training decreases with age. In the age group 15-24 years, 67 % of women and 63 % of men take part in

Figure 30: Participation in formal and non-formal education and training by sex and EU Member State (15+ population, %), EU-28, 2015



Source: Eurostat's calculation, EU LFS.

Figure 31: Participation in formal or non-formal education and training by sex, family type, age, level of education, and country of birth (15+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU LFS

Note: Country of birth Eurostat database (2015; age group 15-74, (trng_lfs_13). Data on participation in formal/non-formal training are not available for people with disabilities.

education and training, but most of them have not finished their studies at high school or university. Participation in lifelong learning is particularly low for people approaching the retirement age (50-64), where only 8 % of women and 6 % of men take part in education and training. Regardless of age group, the participation of men is lower relative to women, which also means that men have more difficulties in achieving the benchmark of a 15 % participation rate in lifelong learning (for the population of 25-64 years old), as set out in the strategic framework *Education and Training 2020*.

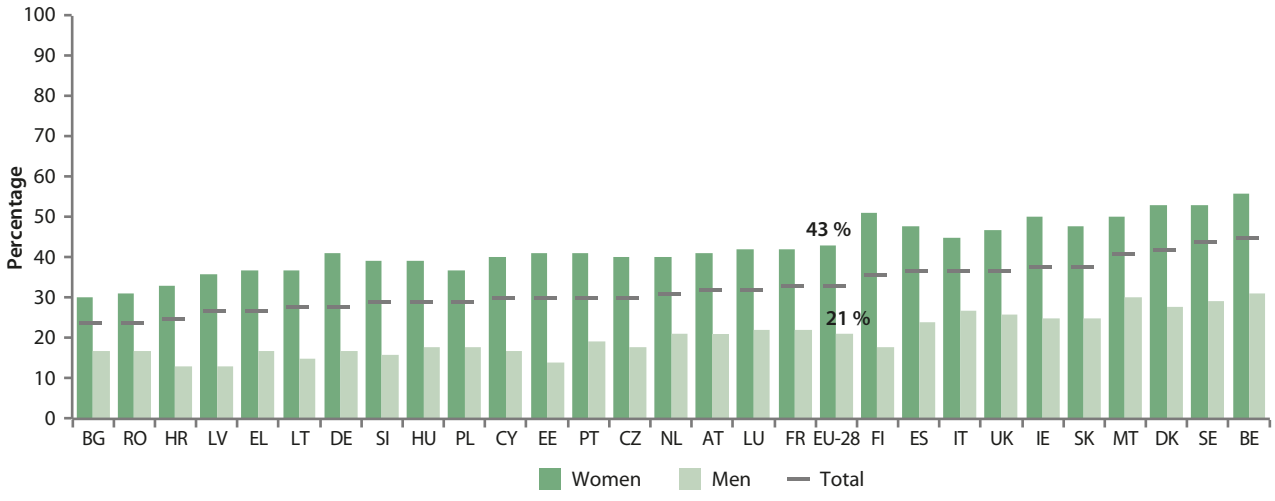
Lifelong learning, as highlighted in the Europe 2020 strategy, is an opportunity to acquire and develop skills throughout the life course, and is of particular importance for people with low levels of qualifications, often detached from the labour market or working in precarious employment (EIGE, 2017g). Currently, among those aged 15 and over, only 15 % of women with low educational levels participate in education and training, compared to 21 % of women with higher levels of qualifications. Participation of men with low and high educational attainment is almost the same. Special attention also needs to be given to reversing the gender gap among those with low (in favour of men) and high (in favour of women) educational qualifications. Among the working age population (aged 25-64), differences are even more pronounced. While just 4 % of women and men with low levels of qualifications participate in education and training, participation is five times higher for women who have completed tertiary education (21 %) and four times higher for men with tertiary education (17 %) ([6]).

Adult women and men often do not participate in education and training because they do not think they need it (Council of the European Union, 2016b). Gender differences — closely related to results in the domain of time — are pronounced in the area of reconciliation of education and family matters. The share of women who consider family responsibilities an obstacle to participation in education and training is almost double the share of men (25-64, EU-28, 2011) ([7]).

5.4. Decreasing interest among men in studying education, health and welfare

Gender stereotypes and different expectations towards women and men, reflected in the educational choices of girls and boys, contribute to gender segregation in education. It further leads to gender divisions in the labour market and reinforces the undervaluation of work, skills and competences traditionally attributed to women. Gender segregation in tertiary education is most pronounced in the

Figure 32: Women and men studying in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and the arts by EU Member State (%, out of all male and female tertiary students), 2015



Source: Eurostat, Education Statistics (educ_uoe_enrt03).

([6]) Eurostat, EU LFS, 2015 (trng_lfse_03).
([7]) Eurostat, Adult Education Survey (AES), 2011 (trng_aes_176).

fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM), where men are over-represented, whereas women are over-represented in education, health, welfare, humanities and the arts. In the Gender Equality Index, gender segregation is measured by the gender gap in the latter, where women represent around three quarters of tertiary students in the fields of education (78 %), health and welfare (71 %) and humanities and the arts (65 %) in the EU.

Nearly half of all women (43 %) in tertiary education studied either education, health and welfare, humanities or the arts, in contrast to only 21 % of male tertiary students who were enrolled in these fields in 2015 (Figure 32). The level of gender segregation also varies among Member States, with the lowest gender gaps in Bulgaria (13 p.p.), Romania (14 p.p.) and Italy (17 p.p.). The sharpest gender differences are in Finland (33 p.p.), Estonia (27 p.p.) and Belgium, Denmark and Ireland (25 p.p.). The average gender gap in 2015 was 22 p.p. in the EU-28.

While in the EU-28 these gender differences have been steady over the last 10 years, significant changes occurred in some Member States. For instance, the gender gap has narrowed most in the Netherlands (– 10 p.p.), Denmark and Germany (both - 6). In these cases the share of women and men studying in these fields decreased, but more so for women. At the same time, the gender gap increased in 9 Member States (Belgium, Bulgaria, Ireland, Spain, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia).

Gender segregation is particularly strong in STEM study fields, with a high over-representation of men. Women constitute about 30 % of graduates with a STEM tertiary education level and about 14 % at STEM vocational education level (EIGE, 2017f). When specific STEM subfields are looked at, the lowest share of women can be observed in ICT and engineering, manufacturing and construction, whereas a gender-balanced or even women-dominated distribution of graduates is noted in the natural sciences, mathematics and statistics. During the last decade, stalled progress in reducing gender segregation within STEM study fields in the EU-28 masks a particularly deteriorating sitaution within the ICT field (EIGE, 2017).

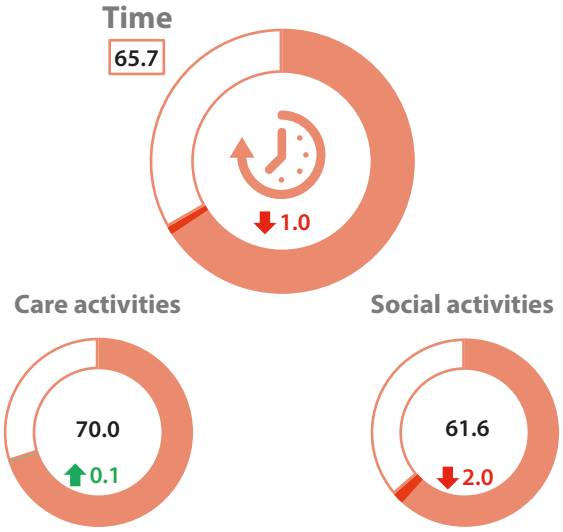
6. Domain of time

There are big differences in the time women and men devote to caring for themselves or caring for others. This is affected by gender stereotypes which associate domestic and care work with women and paid work with men, and which have the effect of devaluing care work. Women spend a disproportionate amount of time carrying out unpaid care and housework, even though women's labour force participation has increased significantly. Moreover, the share of time devoted to work, whether this be paid or unpaid work, also impacts on an individual's capacity to participate in social, personal, leisure and civic activities (Eurofound, 2006).

The unequal division of labour between women and men and the devaluation of care work contributes to continuing gender segregation in education and in the labour market. It has a strong effect in perpetuating women's lower labour force participation over the life course and women's disproportionate participation in precarious employment, and reinforces the gender gap in pay and pensions (EIGE, 2015b; EIGE, 2016c; EIGE, 2017f). It also limits women's possibilities to participate in lifelong learning and to develop skills and qualifications needed to enter the labour market or new occupations.

In order to address the disadvantages faced by parents and people with care responsibilities in accessing the labour market and to facilitate the equal sharing of care responsibilities between women and men, the European Commission proposed in 2017 a new work-life balance initiative under the umbrella of the European pillar of social rights. The proposed directive on work-life balance for parents and carers introduces paternity leave and carers' leave,

Figure 33: Scores of the domain of time, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



strengthens parental leave and extends the right to request flexible working arrangements (European Commission, 2017h). The initiative also proposes a set of non-binding measures, such as encouraging equal take-up of care leave by women and men and investment in long-term care and childcare services through European funding programmes.

The EU has still not met the objectives on childcare set by the Council and reaffirmed in the European Pact for Gender Equality, known as the Barcelona targets (Council of the European Union, 2010). By 2015, only nine Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Luxembourg,

The domain of time measures gender inequalities in the allocation of time spent doing care and domestic work and social activities. The first sub-domain, concerned with care activities, measures gender gaps in the involvement of women and men in caring for and educating their children or grandchildren and older and disabled people, as well as their involvement in cooking and housework. The second sub-domain explores how many women and men engage in social activities. Concretely, it measures gender gaps in women's and men's engagement in sport, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, combined with their engagement in voluntary and charitable activities.

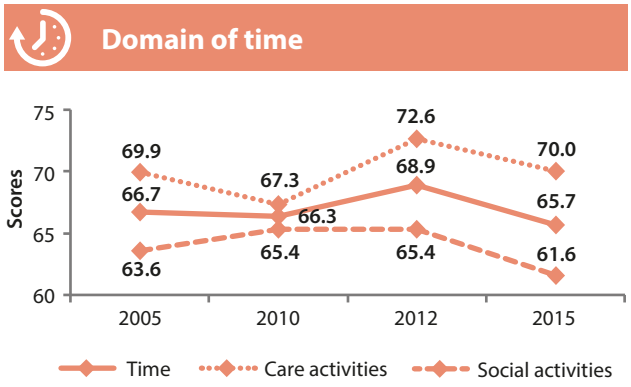
Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden) met the first target of providing childcare to at least 33 % of children under 3 years of age. Only nine Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, France, Estonia, Ireland, Spain, Slovenia, Netherlands) met the second target to provide childcare for at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age.

6.1. Gender inequalities in time use are persistent and growing

The scores in the domain of time reveal persistent and growing gender inequalities in women's and men's time use in Europe. With a score of 65.7, the domain of time has the third lowest score in the Gender Equality Index. The score in 2015 was 1 point lower than in 2005 and a further 3.2 points lower than the score of 2012. This shows that changes in the organisation of time between women and men are not linear and that in 2015 the situation had become more unequal than it was 10 years ago.

The score in the domain of time varies significantly among Member States (Figure 34) ranging from a low score in Bulgaria (42.7 points) to a high score in Sweden (90.1 points) in 2015. Several Member States have seen substantial changes in the score over the last 10 years — it is the only domain where as many as 12 Member States saw a decline in their score, while only eight Member States had some increase. The biggest drop in the score took place in Slovakia (– 9.1 points), followed by Belgium (9 points) and Bulgaria (– 8.3 points).

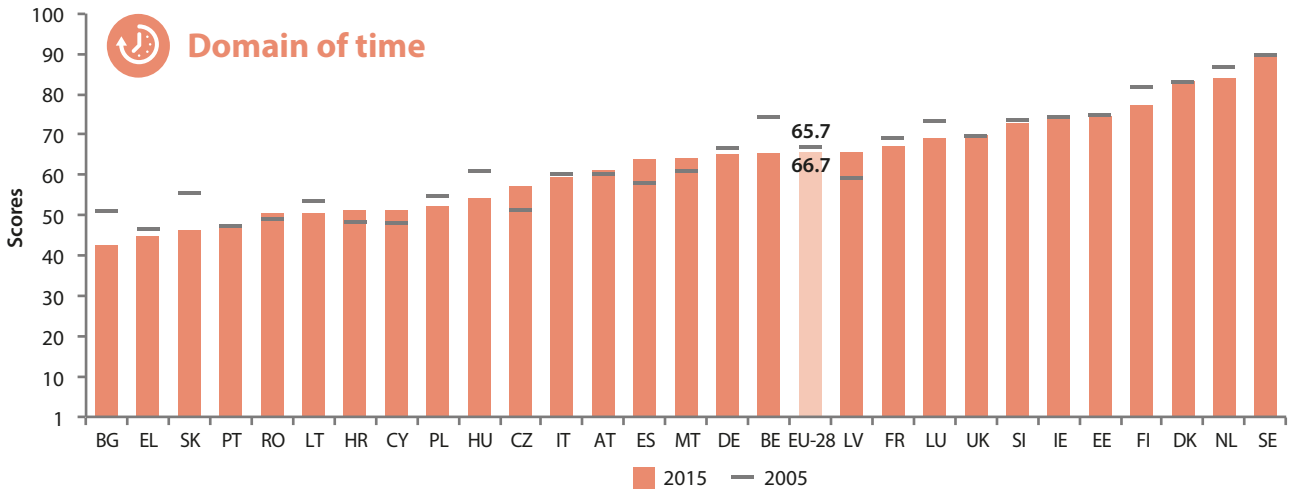
Figure 35: Scores of the domain of time and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015



The overall score has increased in the last decade most significantly in Latvia (+ 6.7 points), the Czech Republic and Spain (+ 6 points). Over the past 3 years, the score decreased the most in Belgium (– 6.5 points), Lithuania (– 5.1 points) and Bulgaria (– 4.7 points), while it increased most significantly in Sweden (+ 6.6 points), Malta (+ 5.5 points), Cyprus (+ 5.4 points) and Latvia (+ 5.0 points).

Within the domain of time, the Index provides an insight into the allocation of time in care and domestic activities, on the one hand, and social activities, on the other hand. Based on the data from 2015, the score for these two sub-domains are 70.0 and 61.6 respectively. As illustrated in Figure 35, gender gaps have widened especially

Figure 34: Scores of the domain of time, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015



in the latter sub-domain, where the score has reduced by 2 points in 10 years. Preventing the further deterioration of this situation requires urgent attention from policymakers.

6.2. Unpaid care burden is especially high among non-EU born women

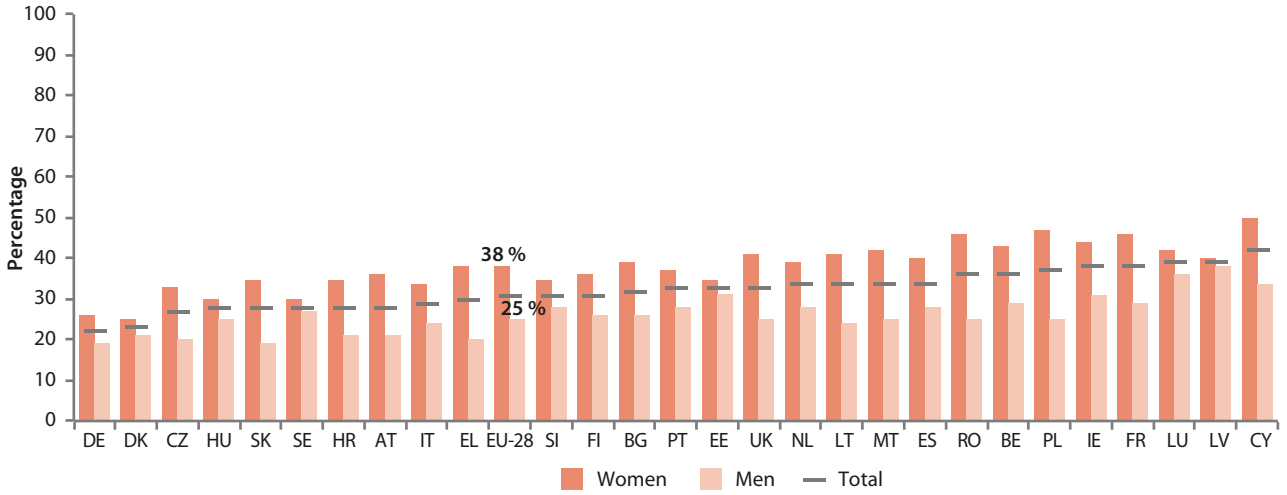
While the engagement of both women and men in unpaid care work was slightly lower in 2015 than it was in 2005, substantially more women continue to devote their time to these activities than men. According to the data from 2015, as many as 38 % of women were engaged in care for children, grandchildren, older people and/or people with disabilities every day for 1 hour or more, compared to a quarter of men in the EU (25 %). There are large variations across the Member States — in Germany 26 % of women and 19 % of men spend at least 1 hour on caring and educating activities, while in Cyprus this is the case for 50 % of women and 34 % of men (Figure 36).

The Member States with the lowest gender gap (below 10 p.p.) in unpaid care over the last 10 years are Denmark and Sweden, whereas the largest gender gap (above 20 p.p.) can be found in Cyprus, Romania and Greece. Latvia and Luxembourg show the biggest improvements in closing the gender gap over the past 10 years (+15 p.p.), while it has widened the most in Poland (+ 10 p.p.) and Romania (+ 9 p.p.). Furthermore, in Latvia and Estonia the gender gap narrowed substantially, especially between 2012 and 2015 (where the gap narrowed by 14 p.p. and 13 p.p. respectively).

Not only do children need care, many people with disabilities have care and support needs, and with an ageing population, more older people today require care. Although most often women care for children (27 %), the percentage of women caring for older people and people with disabilities is also high (10 %). Due to demographic trends in the EU, it can be expected that the percentage of women caring for older people will increase in the future. It is for this reason that the EU would greatly benefit from intensified policy efforts in developing accessible and quality care services, while also taking into account the needs of informal carers. For example, an analysis by the International Trade Union Confederation shows that an increased investment of 2 % of GDP in the care industry by seven OECD countries would lead to an increase of women's employment from 3.3 to 8.2 p.p. (and by 1.4 to 4.0 p.p. for men) (ITUC, 2016; EIGE, 2017b).

The distribution of care responsibilities between women and men also varies depending on a range of other factors. Substantial differences can be observed when this is looked at in relation to the country of birth of the person, and whether the person was born inside or outside of the

Figure 36: People caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, older people and people with disabilities, every day for 1 hour or more, by sex and EU Member State (18+ population, %), EU-28, 2016



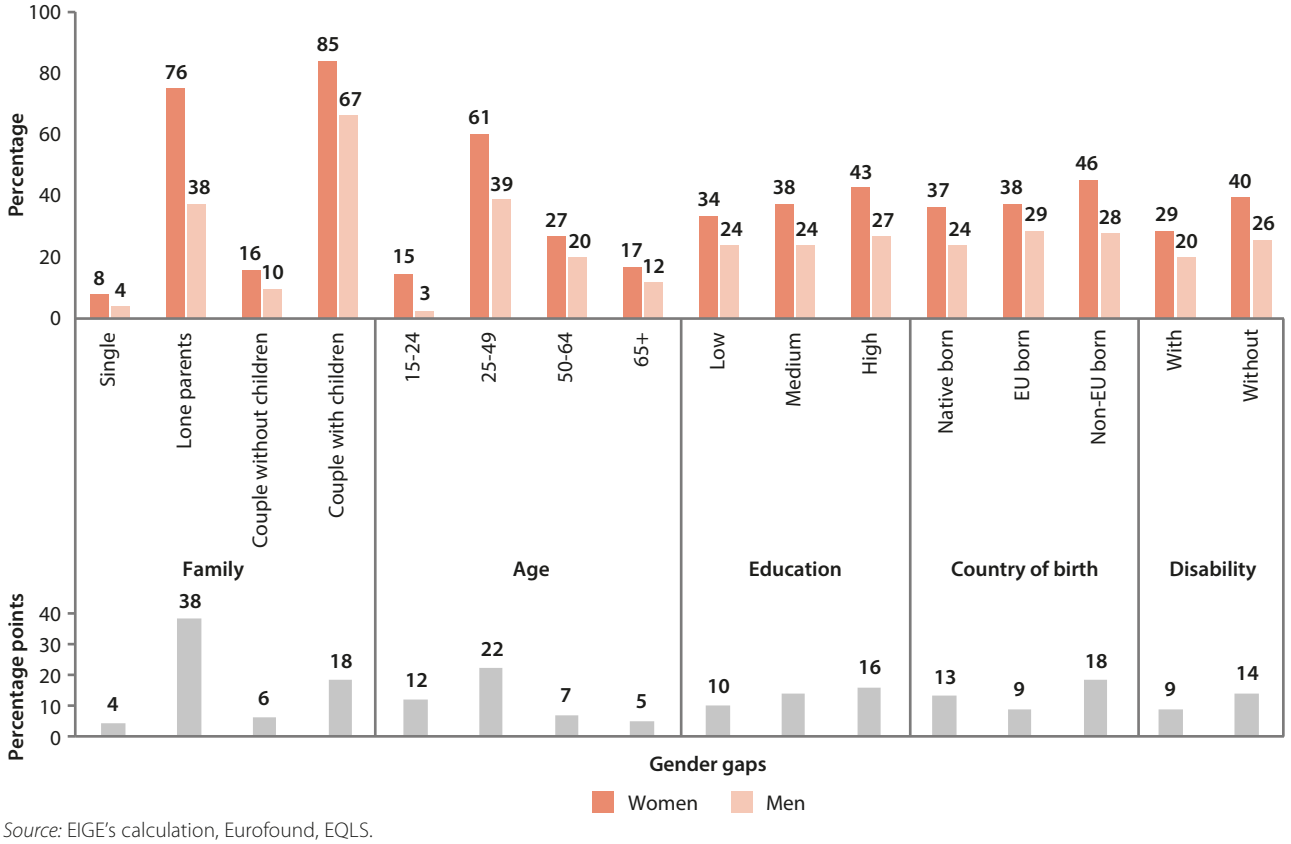
Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.

EU (Figure 37). When compared to native-born people, women and men who have moved within the EU (i.e. born in one EU country and now living in another) share care responsibilities more equally. At the same time close to half (46 %) of women, compared to 28 % of men, who are born outside of the EU have care responsibilities. This is also reflected in the fact that within the EU, women who are born outside of EU have very high inactivity rates (39 % of women and 20 % of men were inactive in 2015). Low female employment rates among this group have economic consequences for whole families and this is also reflected in their higher poverty rates (EIGE, 2016c). These differences in the division of care among women and men born outside of the EU are not necessarily only caused by differences in culture or traditions, but also because of the different life situation of people or social-demographic differences between these groups (e.g. age composition and share of fertile age people among the groups, average number of children, employment rate). Regardless of the causes, family-work reconciliation policies, as well as care policies, are crucial to support the labour market participation and integration of women born outside of the EU and, in particular, to facilitate the integration of newly arrived migrants.

Most care work is done by younger people in the age group 25-49, for the most obvious reason that they are the ones who most likely have children. As Figure 37 shows, as many as 61 % of women in this age group spend at least 1 hour per day caring for someone, compared to only 39 % of men. Furthermore, even in cases where they live in a couple and have children, men report significantly less time spent on caring for or educating a child or other dependent person than women do (85 % and 67 % respectively) in 2016. A similar difference can be seen in the case of lone parents, where only 38 % of lone fathers spend an hour per day caring for their children. This may be (partially) explained by the fact that lone fathers more often have older children than lone mothers do — children are considered to be children until they are 18 years old, or 24 years if they are still in education. Also, the 16 % of women and 10 % of men who live in a couple, who do not have any children but have regular care responsibilities, may be caring, for instance, for their parents, adult children, relatives or friends who have care needs, or their own partners in the later stages of their lives.

Care responsibilities frequently pose challenges for family-life balance. In the EU-28 as many as 10 % of women in

Figure 37: Population involved in care at least 1 hour per day by sex, family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (18+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.

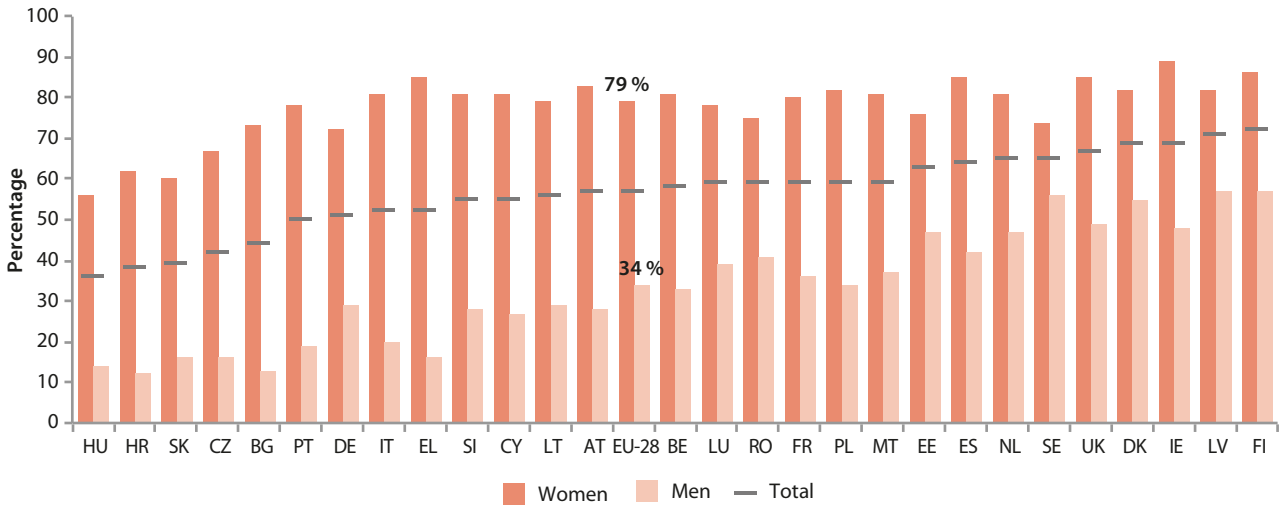
working age (15-64), compared to 0.5 % of men, either do not work or work part-time because of care responsibilities ([8]) Working women are the highest percentage of people carrying out unpaid care work. Almost every second working woman (46 %) spends at least 1 hour or more caring for and educating children, grandchildren, older people or people with disabilities, compared to around one third of working men (32 %), non-working women (30 %) and non-working men (14 %) ([9]). These figures confirm the urgent need for effective work-life balance policies in the EU-28 and for this to go in hand in hand with policies to incentivise men's engagement in unpaid care.

Although most EU policy efforts to improve work-life balance predominantly focus on addressing women's under-representation in employment, the data also reveal significant gender gaps in care involvement among young women and men aged 15-24 — the age group most likely to be engaged in education and training. However, as research shows, educational institutions and national policies in this area often fail to recognise barriers faced by young people who have care responsibilities, and many are not as independent and mobile as policymakers assume (Brooks, 2012). Because of inadequate attention to this group, young people with care responsibilities may face barriers in accessing educational and training opportunities or, once in education, they may encounter further challenges in the reconciliation of education with care responsibilities, which can in turn influence their educational attainment. Given that five times as many young women aged 15-24 are engaged in care work as young men of this age, the lack of policy focus on this group has particularly gendered consequences, which are likely to affect the opportunities of these young women in the next stage of their lives.

6.3. Only every third man engages daily in cooking and housework

Regardless of whether or not a person has care responsibilities, cooking and housework are an everyday reality in the majority of households. The gender gap in women's and men's engagement in cooking and housework activities has been consistently and strikingly high for the EU-28 overall, as well as for most Member States. Only 34 % of men engage in cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more, in comparison with 79 % of women (Figure 38). More importantly, over the last 10 years, there have been almost no improvements towards gender equality in this area across the EU. The gender gap in 2005 was as high as 46 p.p., and it has narrowed by only 1 p.p. in 10 years.

Figure 38: People doing cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more by sex and EU Member State (18+ population, %), 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.

([8]) EIGE's calculation on LFS, 2014.
([9]) EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EQLS 2016.

In the last 10 years, Sweden and Denmark have consistently had the lowest gender gap, of below 30 %, while the highest gaps of 60 % and over are found in Bulgaria, Greece, Italy and Portugal. During this time considerable improvements have taken place in Croatia and Spain, where the gender gap narrowed by 13 p.p., and in Poland (12 p.p.). In contrast, in Belgium and Lithuania the gender gap widened in the last 10 years (13 p.p. and 14 p.p. respectively).

These significant gender gaps in engagement in housework exist across all social groups, with few variations (Figure 39). The widest gender gap can be found in couples with children. However, even in couples without children, the difference between women's and men's engagement in housework is strikingly high. In contrast, the smallest gender differences in housework engagement are among single women and men and lone parents.

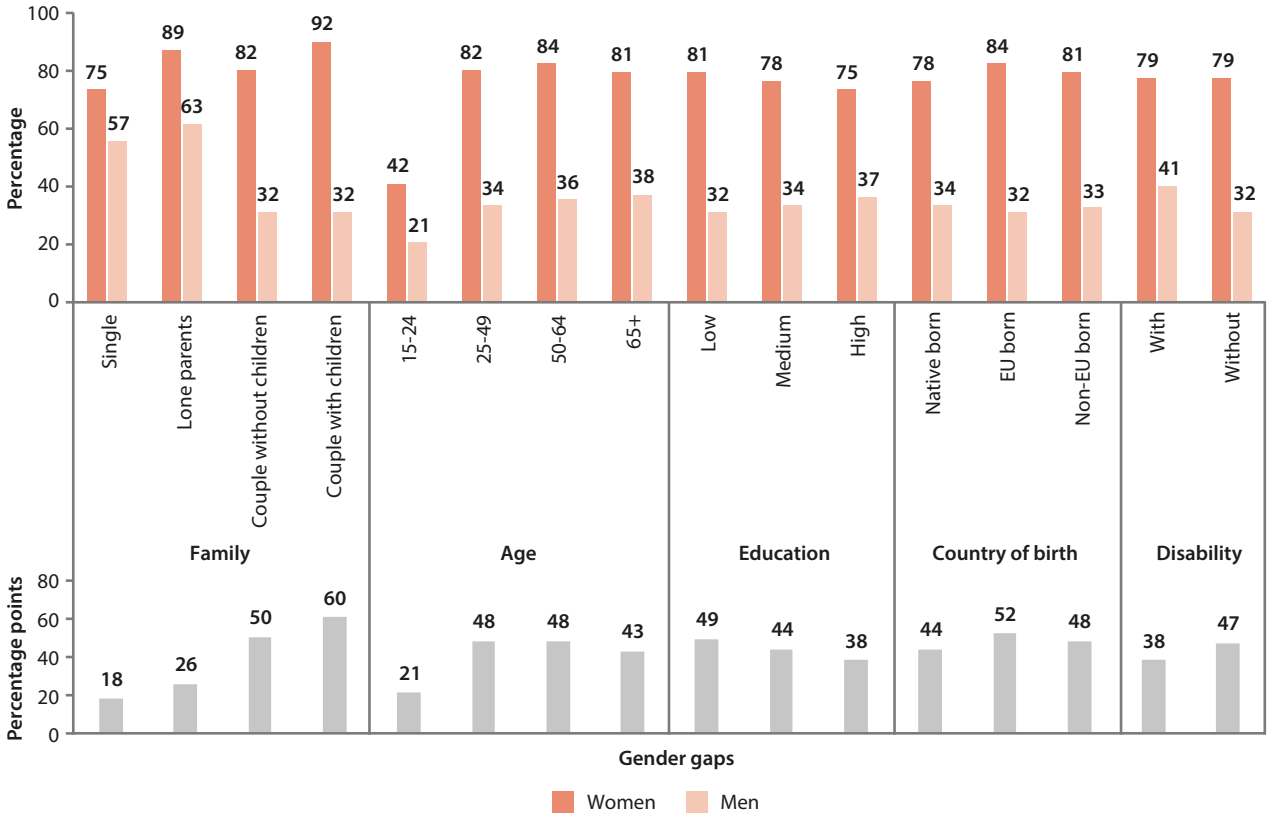
The data also reveal that the gender gap in engagement in unpaid domestic work decreases with educational level. That is to say, the higher the educational level, the lower the gender gap. Lastly, men with disabilities engage more in housework than men without disabilities, yet much less often than women overall. These findings confirm the importance of introducing measures encouraging men's participation in unpaid domestic labour.

Finally, not only do women engage in unpaid work more often, but their overall working time (counted as both paid and unpaid work) is higher than men's. In other words, when the time spent on unpaid work is added to working hours spent on paid work, women continue to perform more work in total, i.e. 55 hours per week in comparison with 49 hours worked by men (Eurofound, 2016).

6.4. Men have more time for sporting, cultural or leisure activities

The unequal division of time between women and men affects their capacity to spend time on other activities, such as sporting, cultural or leisure activities. Due to data availability, the Gender Equality Index only looks at the

Figure 39: Population doing cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more by sex, family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (18+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.

time-use of the working population and finds that in 2015, the gender gap in workers' involvement in sporting, cultural or leisure activities, outside of their home, amounted to 4 percentage points to the detriment of women. In the EU-28, 28 % of women workers and 32 % of men workers participate in these activities at least every other day (Figure 40). In general, more men are engaged in sporting, cultural and leisure activities outside of their home in all Member States, except in Finland, Hungary and Denmark. The popularity of these activities, as well as the gender gap, however, varies significantly between Member States — the gender gap ranges from 12 p.p. towards men in Cyprus to 15 p.p. towards women in Finland.

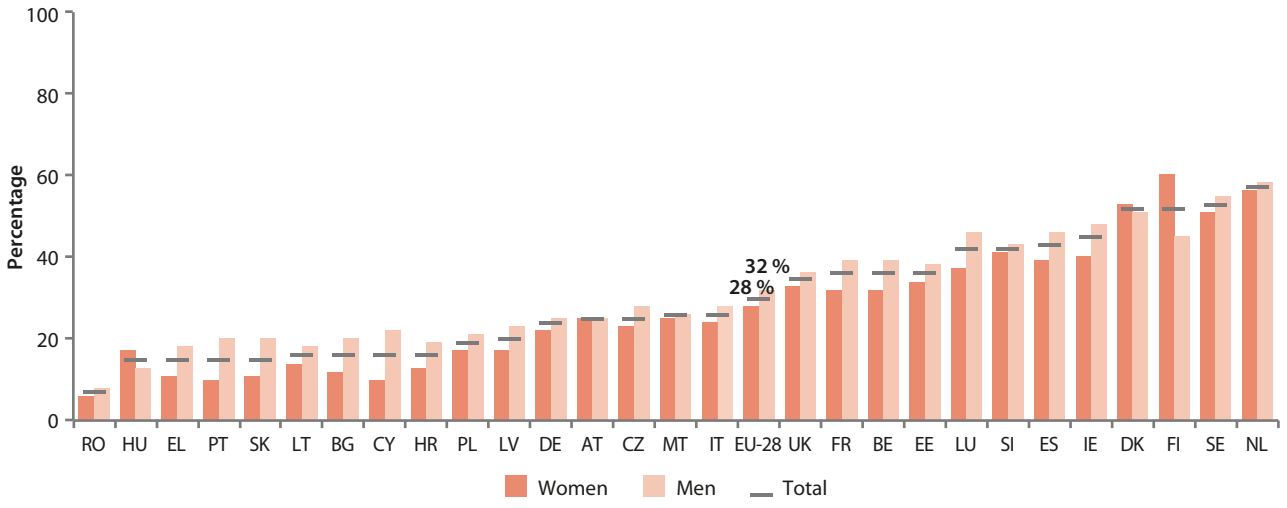
Similarly, the extent to which workers overall engage in sporting, cultural or leisure activities differs greatly across the Member States. While more than 50 % of workers participate in these activities in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the Netherlands, this was only the case for 7 % of workers in Romania and around 15 % of workers in Hungary, Greece, Portugal and Slovakia.

The largest gender gap can be found among young workers (aged 15-24), where 39 % of young women and 56 % of young men carry out sporting, cultural or leisure activities. More highly educated women and men are involved in more activities, but men more so than women. 37 % of highly educated women and 43 % of men do sports or are involved cultural or leisure activities, compared to 20 % of lowly educated women and 21 % of lowly educated men.

The participation of workers in the EU-28 in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month, has been, on the whole, very low and is a further area where gender gaps are observed in some Member States. In 2015 many more workers in total were engaged in voluntary or charitable activities in Sweden, the Netherlands and Slovenia (at least 20 %), in contrast to workers in Bulgaria, Spain and Lithuania (5 % or below). Gender gaps towards men vary between 12 p.p. in Luxembourg and 3 p.p. in Germany, towards women in Slovakia and the United Kingdom.

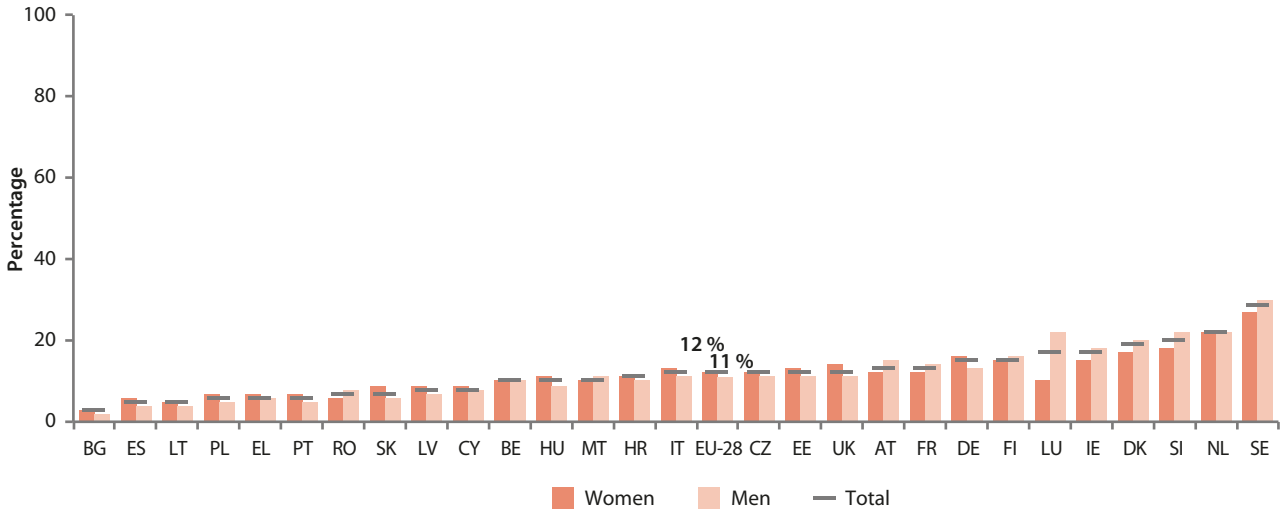
Moreover, the involvement of both women and men workers in voluntary or charitable activities decreased between 2010 and 2015, from 15 % to 12 % for working women and from 14 % to 11 % for working men (Figure 41). Although the gender gap in the EU-28 has been consistently low over the past 10 years (below 1 p.p.), it has varied over time among the Member States. Between 2005 and 2015, the gender gap narrowed in Austria (– 10 p.p.) and Romania (– 9 p.p.) in particular, but widened in Luxembourg (+ 10 p.p.). A significant variation can be found in Luxembourg, where the gender gap widened from 6 p.p. towards women to 12 p.p. towards men between 2010 and 2015, i.e. by 18 p.p. altogether over 5 years.

Figure 40: Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least every other day, by sex and EU Member State (15+ workers, %), 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EWCS.

Figure 41: Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month, by sex and EU Member State (15+ workers, %), 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurofound, EWCS.

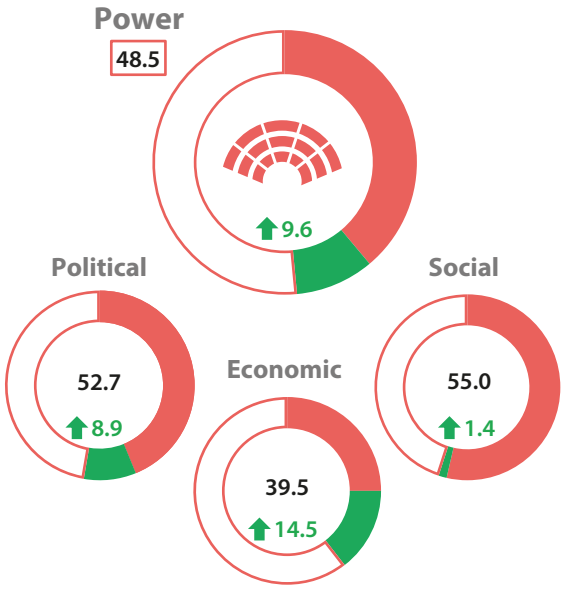
Finally, it is important to note that time is not the only resource influencing the daily organisation of unpaid care, domestic work and leisure time. Other important factors include financial resources or state support in the form of benefits and the provision of services. It can be argued that the intersection of gender with other social factors, such as class and ethnicity, influences women's and men's organisation of daily life as well as their access to resources for childcare or other services. Therefore, it is crucial to integrate an intersectional perspective into any efforts that strive to improve women's and men's work-life balance.

7. Domain of power

Women's participation in public life has evolved — from early struggles for women's right to vote, to important political commitments to ensure women's full engagement in all areas of public life. Gender balance in political participation is a fundamental feature of stable and transparent democracies. However, this has not yet been achieved. Macroeconomic decision-making has long been dominated by men, although it has far-reaching societal implications for the allocation of resources, fiscal and monetary policies, which concerns both women and men. Persistent gender imbalances in decision-making in social domains, such as research, media and sports organisations, similarly require more visibility and action because of their symbolic and educational importance and powerful role they play in shaping social norms, public opinion and perceptions about gender equality (European Commission, 2012c).

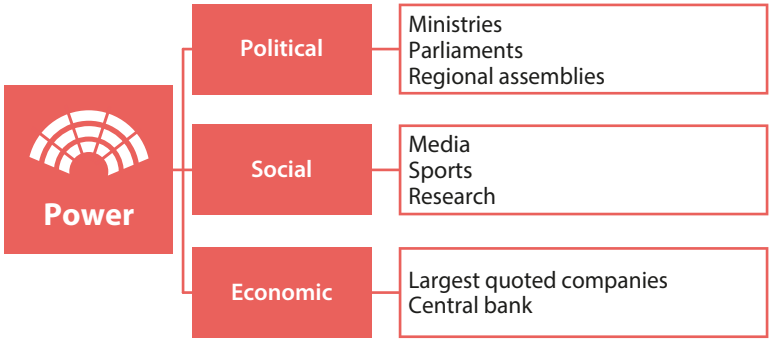
The EU's policy commitment to gender equality in decision-making can be found in a number of strategic documents and actions. In November 2012, the Commission adopted a proposal for a directive on improving the gender balance among non-executive directors of companies (European Commission, 2012b). Its main features include a minimum objective of a 40 % presence of the under-represented sex among non-executive directors, to be reached by 2020 for companies listed on stock exchanges and by 2018 for listed public undertakings. In the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020, the Council specifically seeks to 'promote women's empowerment in political and economic life' (Council of the European Union, 2010). In practice, these overarching policy aims have served as a foundation for more concrete actions, for example, binding quotas for political decision-making positions in some Member States.

Figure 42: Scores of the domain of power, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



Gender equality is a key priority of the European Research Area. The communication on *A reinforced European Research Area: partnership for excellence and growth* (European Commission, 2012a) invites organisations performing research and research funding organisations to take action to promote gender equality in research and innovation by implementing institutional changes relating to human resources

The domain of power measures gender equality in decision-making positions across the political, economic and social spheres. The sub-domain of political power examines the representation of women and men in national parliaments, government and regional/local assemblies. The sub-domain of gender balance in economic decision-making is measured by the proportion of women and men on corporate boards of the largest nationally registered companies listed on stock exchanges and national central banks. The Gender Equality Index for the first time presents data in the sub-domain of social power, which includes data on decision-making in research funding organisations, media and sports.



management, funding, decision-making and research programmes. Enhancing women's scientific careers and their role in decision-making is a necessary precondition for the Commission's most ambitious policy for stimulating research and innovation — the Innovation union flagship initiative. This initiative is one of the cornerstones of the Europe 2020 strategy to stimulate smart, sustainable and inclusive growth.

The Council conclusions on 'Advancing women's roles as decision-makers in the media' emphasised that 'an increased presence of women in decision-making roles in the media is likely to lead to more gender-sensitive media content and programming, presenting a more balanced picture of women's and men's lives and women's contribution to society, which would have a positive impact on public policies, private attitudes and behaviour' (Council of the European Union, 2013). In its conclusions on 'Gender equality in sport' the Council encourages sports organisations to improve the gender balance on executive boards and committees and in management and coaching, and to remove non-legislative obstacles preventing women from taking up such roles (Council of the European Union, 2014).

7.1. Gender balance in decision-making makes slow but steady progress

The EU's efforts to boost gender equality in decision-making in recent decades have had some notable results. The domain of power has made the biggest progress of all domains of the Gender Equality Index since 2005, although the over-representation of men in positions of power in the political, economic and social domains persists in all Member States. The score of the domain of power, at (48.5), is still the lowest of all domains. However, it has steadily increased by 9.6 points since 2005. Sweden, France and Finland have overall achieved the greatest gender balance in political, economic and social areas in the EU-28, whereas Hungary, Greece, the Czech Republic and Slovakia are the Member States that have the largest over-representation of men in political, economic and social decision-making (Figure 43).

In the last 10 years, the majority of Member States, with the exception of the Czech Republic (– 7.0), Slovakia (– 3.8), Finland (– 3.1), Lithuania (– 0.7) and Malta (– 0.4), improved their scores in the domain of power. The most significant progress was achieved in Italy (+ 29.2), France (+ 24.6) and Slovenia (+ 24.1). A further six Member States (Germany, Ireland, Belgium, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain) improved their gender balance in decision-making by more than 10 p.p..

As Figure 44 shows, the most substantial progress has been achieved in the sub-domain on the representation of women in economic decision-making (+ 14.5). This progress has largely been driven by improved gender balance on the boards of the largest publicly quoted companies, and can partly be explained by the relatively recent political pressure to resolve gender inequality in this area. Political decision-making (52.7) has a higher score than economic decision-making (39.5) and shows a steady move towards gender balance. Nevertheless, men continue to dominate political and economic decision-making by holding on

Figure 43: Scores of the domain of power, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015

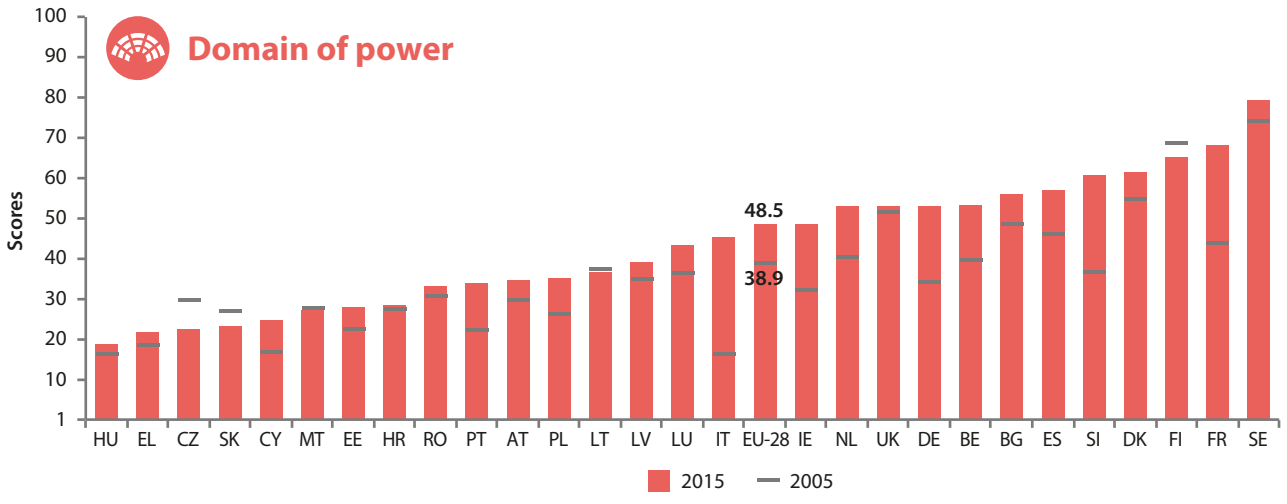
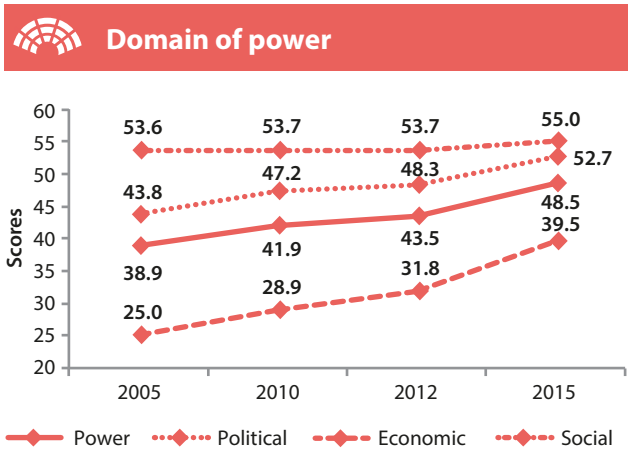


Figure 44: Scores of the domain of power and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015



average more than two thirds of all parliamentary seats and four out of five seats on corporate boards in the EU-28. Women's representation in decision-making in research, media and sports is the highest of all sub-domains (55.0), but it is still only just over halfway towards gender equality. It is also very unevenly distributed across different areas. While the proportion of women on the highest decision-making bodies of national research funding organisations is 40 %, their share on boards of major national sports federations is only 14 %. The assessment of progress in social power is not possible, because the first data were collected in 2015.

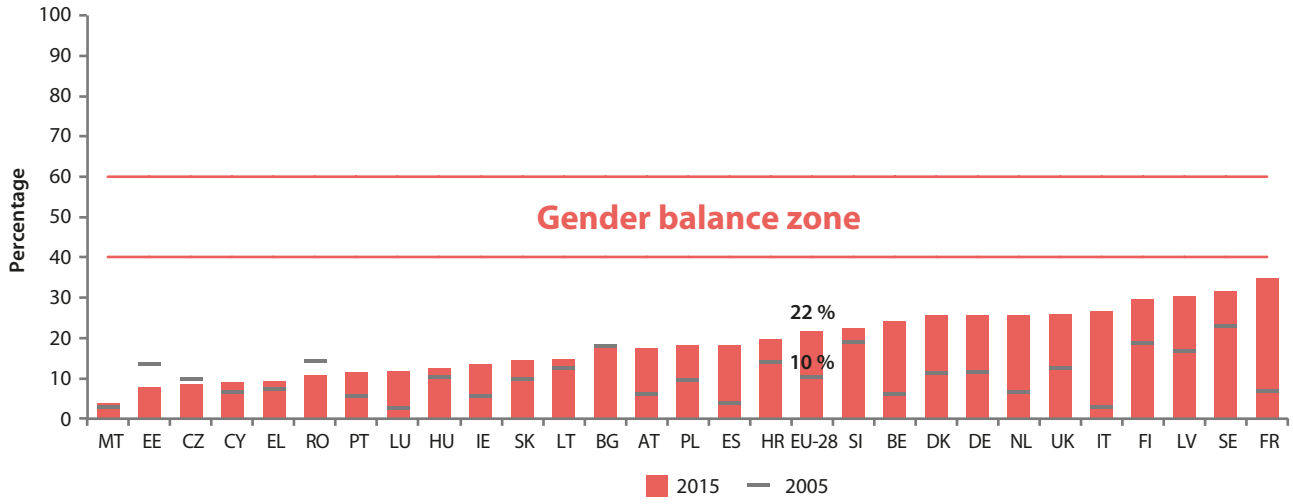
7.2. Progress in gender equality is most pronounced on corporate boards

The proportion of women on the boards of the largest listed companies in the EU-28 more than doubled from 10 % in 2005 to 22 % in 2015 (Figure 45). The largest increases were recorded in France, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Denmark, and Germany. The progress, particularly since 2010, can be largely attributed to major legislative initiatives taken both at the national and EU levels and the extensive public debates in this area, when the issue also became a priority on the European's Commission political agenda.

France stands closest to the proposed target of the European Commission of a 40 % presence of the under-represented sex among non-executive directors. Twelve Member States have at least 20 % women in corporate board rooms (France, Sweden, Latvia, Finland, Italy, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, Belgium, Slovenia, Croatia), but in five Member States women account for less than 10 % of board members (Malta, Estonia, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Greece).

The proportion of the largest companies with all-male boards has dropped to 21 % compared to 50 % in 2005.

Figure 45: Share of women on the boards of largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors, by EU Member State (%), 2005 and 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Note: 2005 (3-year average 2004, 2005, 2006), 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016).

In 2015, 60 % of the largest companies had more than one woman on their board.

In 2015, there was a higher share of women amongst non-executive positions (25 %) than in executive roles (14 %) in the EU-28 as a whole. Looking at non-executive positions, in light of the target of the European Commission's proposed directive, only just under a fifth (19 %) of the largest companies in the EU-28 in 2017 meet the objective of at least 40 % of each gender. Most of the companies in France (80 %) and around half in Sweden and Italy (52 % and 49 % respectively) have at least 40 % of women amongst non-executives, but in six Member States (Austria, Hungary, Luxembourg, Cyprus, Greece, Romania) none of the largest publicly quoted companies had at least 40 % women amongst non-executives. Women are also still heavily under-represented among the top-level positions in the largest companies in the EU-28, accounting for only 7 % of board chairs/presidents and only 6 % of CEOs.

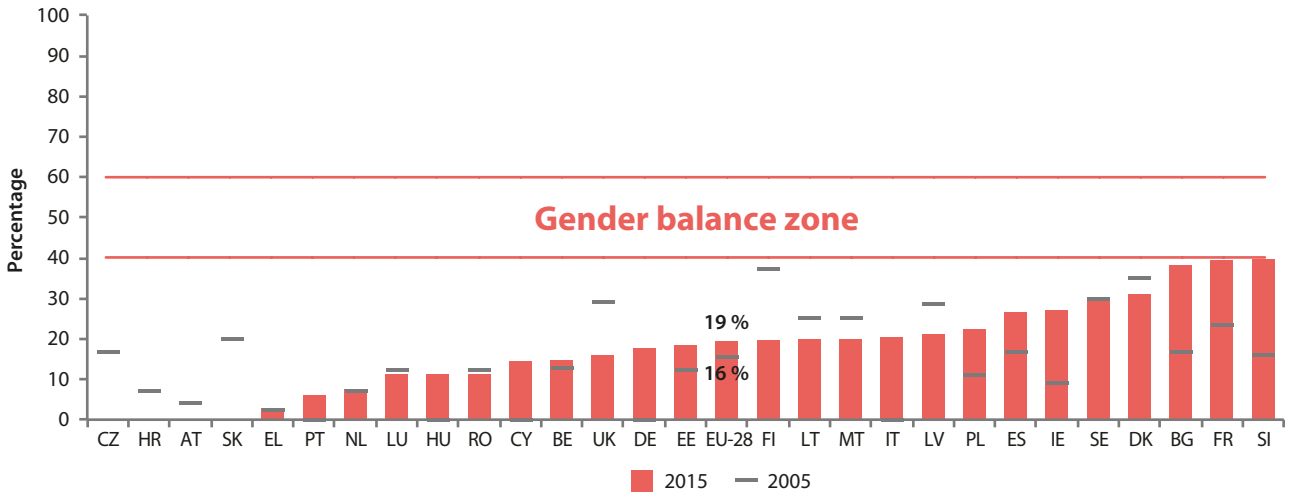
The progress in financial decision-making is less promising. Men dominate central banks and finance ministries. In 2015, central banks across the EU were almost entirely led by men. Of the 28 central bank governors, only one — from Cyprus — was a woman and there were only two women finance ministers — from Romania and Sweden. Women's share of the boards of national central banks has increased only fractionally, from 16 % in 2005 to 19 % in 2015 (Figure 46).

Women's representation in financial decision-making at the EU level is even lower. The highest position, the president of the European Central Bank, has been consistently occupied by men, and women's membership of the board has remained below 10 %. On the Board of Governors of the International Monetary Fund, all governors representing EU Member States are men (four alternate governors are women).

7.3. Legislative quotas seem to accelerate progress in political decision-making

On average, in the EU-28, the number of women holding positions in national parliaments has been gradually increasing over the last 10 years, from 21 % in 2005 to 28 % in 2015 (Figure 47). Regional parliaments/local assemblies followed the overall national trend of steady progress, with women's representation slowly increasing from 26 % in 2010 to 28 % in 2015. The under-representation of women is most pronounced in the top leadership of these assemblies. Twice as many men as women act as speakers of national parliaments (in single and lower houses), nearly four times more men than women lead regional assemblies and six times as many men lead local/

Figure 46: Share of women members of boards of central bank by EU Member State (%), 2005 and 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Note: 2005 (3-year average 2004, 2005, 2006), 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016).

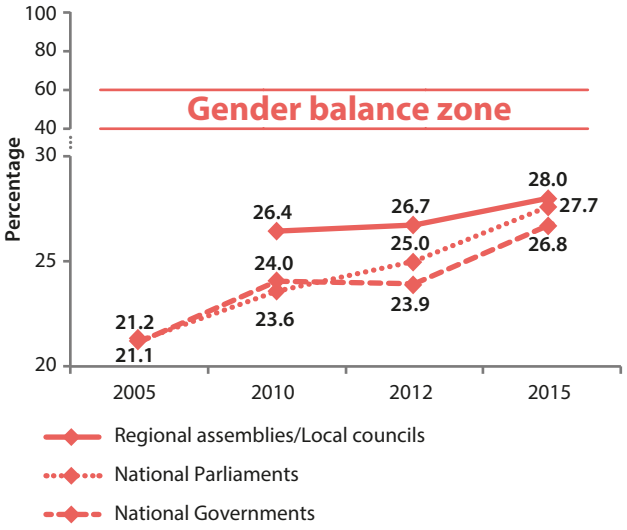
municipal councils. The progress at all levels of political decision-making is far too slow.

In 2005, Sweden was the only country in the EU-28 with a gender-balanced parliament (47 % women). By 2015, Belgium (41 %) and Finland (42 %) had also achieved gender balance, and Denmark, Germany, Spain and the Netherlands are close to achieving gender balance (Figure 48).

The trajectories towards gender equality are very uneven across the Member States. For example, In Italy women's share of parliamentary seats more than doubled from 12 % in 2005 to 30 % in 2015, while it rose from 12 % to 27 % in Slovenia and from 14 % to 26 % in France. In Bulgaria, the proportion of women in parliament decreased from 25 % to 21 % between 2005 and 2015. In Hungary, Romania and Malta women's representation has been consistently the lowest in the EU-28 (at around 10 %) since 2005.

Much of the success in the Member States demonstrating notable improvements since 2005 can be attributed to the implementation of either a gender quota law or voluntary party quotas. Currently, there are nine EU Member States with legislative quotas applicable to national parliaments (Belgium, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia,

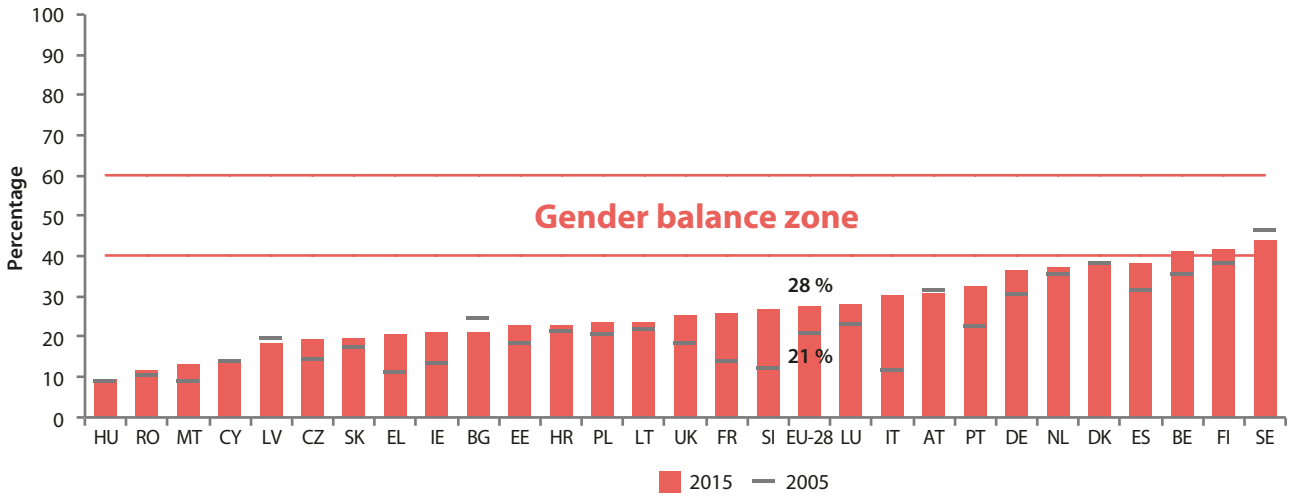
Figure 47: Share of women in political power, EU-28 (%), 2005-2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Notes: Data for regional assemblies/local councils are available only from 2010. 2005 (3-year average 2004, 2005, 2006), 2010 (3-year average 2009, 2010, 2011), 2012 (3-year average 2011, 2012, 2013), 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016).

Figure 48: Share of women members of parliament by EU Member State (%), 2005 and 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Note: 2005 (3-year average 2004, 2005, 2006), 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016).

Poland, Portugal, Slovenia) ([10]). Most progress occurred in Member States in which quotas have been in place for the longest (Belgium, France, Portugal, Slovenia). In recent election results (including 2017), just four Member States (Spain, France, Portugal, Slovenia) met or are close to meeting a quota target. In other Member States, substantial improvements are needed to meet the target: Poland is 8 p.p. below the target, Greece 13 p.p. and Croatia 19 p.p. ([11]).

As regards gender balance in executive power, the share of women among senior/junior ministers increased from 21 % in 2005 to 27 % in 2015. The number of gender-balanced governments increased from four in 2005 (Germany, Spain, Finland, Sweden) to five in 2015 (Germany, France, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden). Slovenia has made impressive progress over women's representation, which has risen from 9 % in 2005 to 41 % in 2015. In Greece, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia, men are persistently over-represented in national governments (up to 98 % in Hungary).

A look behind the numbers shows that gender imbalance is further reflected in the division of ministers' portfolios. Women dominate ministries with sociocultural functions (42 % of portfolios), reinforcing traditional stereotypes about women's roles and expertise. Men tend to be designated to higher-status and more traditionally 'masculine' areas such as foreign affairs, finance and defence.

7.4. Men take decisions in research funding, media and sports

Data on gender equality in research indicates that despite similar proportions of both women and men amongst graduates and postgraduates, representation is skewed towards men amongst researchers and, in particular, in the highest decision-making bodies of research performing and research funding institutions (European Commission, 2016c).

The opportunities to influence the research agenda are determined by access to funding. Research funding organisations, therefore, have a key part to play. Figures on applications for funding from national and EU sources show a lower success rate for women than for men (European Commission, 2016c; European Research Council, 2016). According to a 2009 report by the Gender and Excellence expert group established by the European Commission, better gender balance in research funding decision-making not only provides more equal access to opportunities to shape the research agenda on all levels, but demonstrates that women are full members of the system. Ensuring that women are involved in the funding process and decision-making could also have an impact by improving their application rates (European Commission, 2009b).

In 2016, EIGE collected a harmonised and comparable dataset on women and men in decision-making positions in research funding organisations covering all Member States ([12]). For the first time the data are included in the Gender Equality Index and provides a missing piece of the information needed to monitor progress towards gender equality in this area.

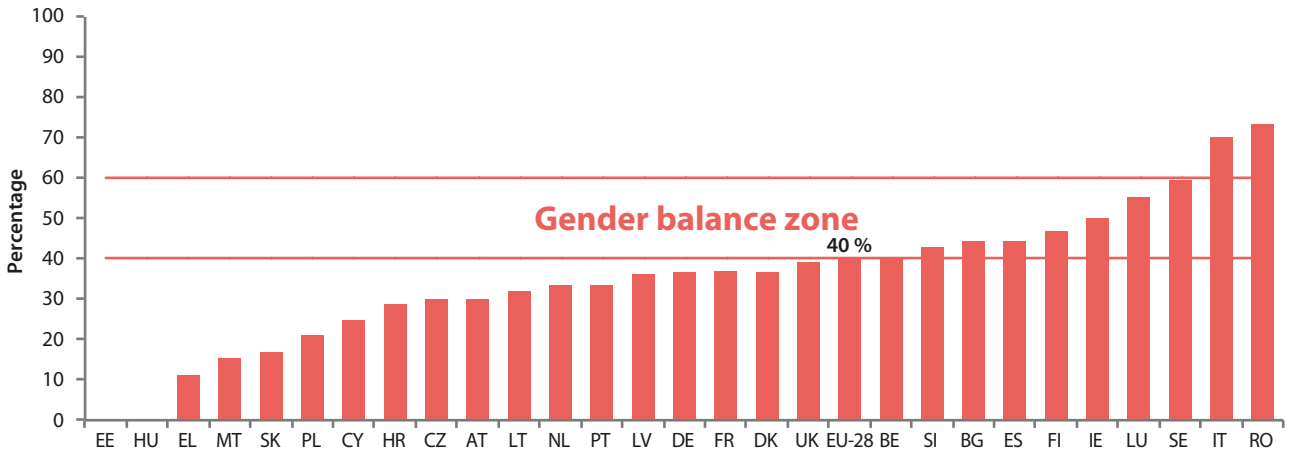
Figure 49 shows that in 2016 women accounted for 40 % of members and 27 % of heads of decision-making bodies of research funding organisations in the EU. There are some disparities between Member States. In 10 Member States (Romania, Italy, Sweden, Luxembourg, Ireland, Finland, Spain, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Belgium), the proportion of women and men in decision-making positions was balanced (at least 40 % of each gender), and in the United Kingdom gender balance has almost been reached (39 % women). However, in 11 Member States, women account for less than one third of decision-making bodies'

([10]) As regards Ireland, the 2016 general election was the first where legislated candidate quotas applied. The lower house of parliament, Dáil Éireann, passed legislation in 2012 that incentivised political parties to send at least 30 % female candidates and 30 % male candidates, or lose half of their state funding. The threshold will increase to 40 % from 2023 onwards. This law only applies to candidates standing for election in the lower house; the upper house is comprised of a mixture of elected and nominated members. All except one party fulfilled or surpassed this condition. Overall, 163 out of 551 (29.6 %) candidates were women, a 14.4 % increase from the 2011 election. A total of 35 women were elected, and 22 % of the Dáil Éireann now consists of women — the highest proportion of women deputies in the history of the state. See http://blogs.lse.ac.uk/europpblog/2016/03/16/the-2016-irish-election-demonstrated-how-gender-quotas-can-shift-the-balance-on-female-representation/

([11]) Information on legislative and voluntary quotas in place in countries around the world can be found in the Quota database: http://www.quotaproject.org/

([12]) The data cover self-governed funding organisations allocating national public funds to research organisations, programmes or projects in the Member States covered. Data exclude organisations allocating only international (e.g. EU), regional or private funds; funding only individuals/individual costs (e.g. scholarships, salaries, training, etc.); or whose funds can only be allocated to certain regions or institutions. Data include public foundations, established with a government endowment (i.e. not from national state budget). As regards the positions, the data cover the president (chairperson of the highest decision-making body in each organisation) and members (members of the highest decision-making body in each organisation) (count includes the president). The highest decision-making body is identified from the statutes or equivalent document (e.g. charter) of the organisations covered. Due to the diversity of organisational types and governance structures the type of decision-making body covered varies considerably. Bodies covered include boards of directors, boards of trustees, councils, management boards, presidiums, steering committees, scientific boards or committees and supervisory boards.

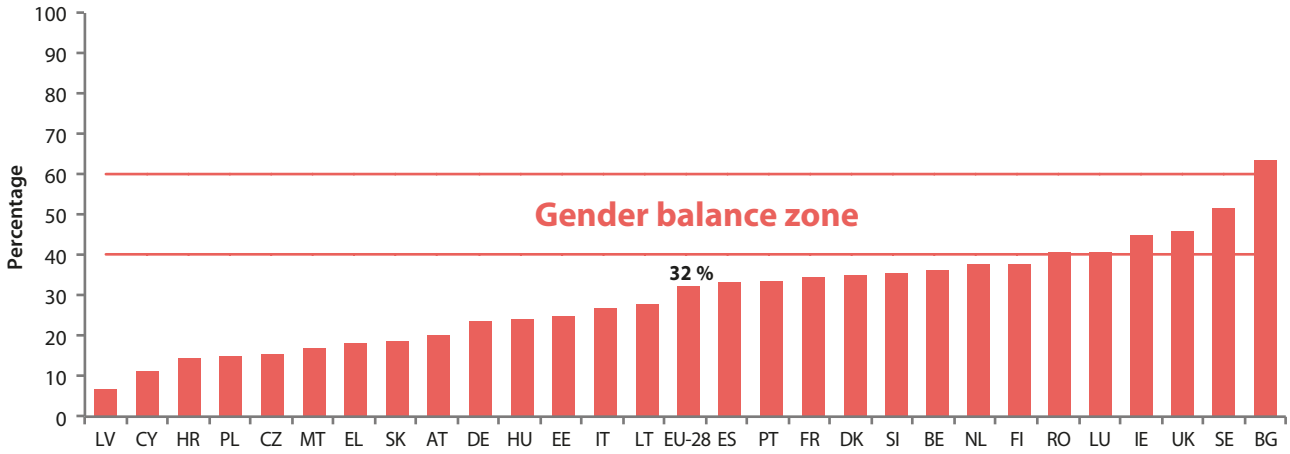
Figure 49: Share of women in decision-making in research funding organisations by EU Member State (%), 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Note: In Italy and Romania there are no research funding organisations fulfilling the selection criteria. The relevant branch/department of the key ministry with the research funding role has been included instead. For Romania, a contact from the organisation provided the total number of employees in the department and an estimate proportion of women but not the exact number.

Figure 50: Share of women in decision-making in media by EU Member State (%), 2015



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

Note: 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016).

members, with no women at all in decision-making bodies of the organisations in Hungary and Estonia.

Gender imbalance is also common across the EU media landscape. Although nearly two thirds of graduates from journalism courses are women, few tend to advance to senior posts compared to men. Only one third of board memberships of public broadcasters across the EU are held by women. A positive trend has been noted where the percentage of women holding board seats went up from 31 % in 2014 to 35 % in 2016. Nevertheless, like in other areas, women are heavily under-represented in the top-level positions, accounting only for 22 % of board presidents.

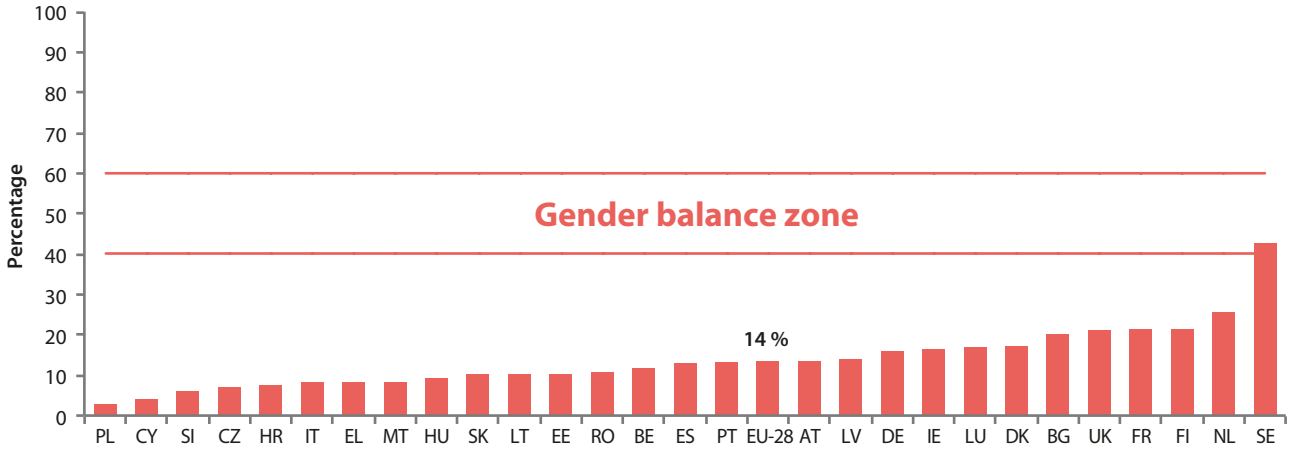
During 2014-2016, women held positions as the presidents of the highest decision-making bodies in 10 Member States (Italy, Luxembourg, Sweden, Ireland, Bulgaria, Belgium, Germany, United Kingdom, Czech Republic, France). Based on a 3-year average, women filled more than 40 % of the positions as board members in only six Member States (Bulgaria, Sweden, United Kingdom, Ireland, Luxembourg, Romania).

The percentage of women employed in the media sector increases as the seniority of the position decreases. On average during 2014-2016 women accounted for 14 % of CEOs, while the proportion more than doubled for lower positions. Women represented 32 % of all executive members of the highest-level board and 33 % of non-executive directors in the two highest decision-making bodies.

The representation of women in top decision-making positions in sports federations is the lowest of all three areas (Figure 51). On average, in 2015, only 14 % of top positions were occupied by women, ranging from 42 % in Sweden to 3 % in Poland. In the majority of Member States, the share of women on boards is below 20 %. Similar to other areas, vertical segregation is particularly notable in decision-making in sports — the gender gap widens as the seniority of the position increases. Only 5 % of presidents of sports federations are women.

The deeply entrenched vertical segregation by gender in research funding organisations, public broadcasters and major sports federations shows that invisible barriers (social structures, gender roles, prejudices and stereotypes) play a key role allowing women to progress only to a certain point in their career. It is a persistent problem that the highest positions are seemingly out of reach for many women.

Figure 51: Share of women in decision-making in sport, by EU Member State (%), 2015



Source: Data collected by EIGE, EIGE's Gender Statistics Database, WMID (Women and Men in Decision-Making).

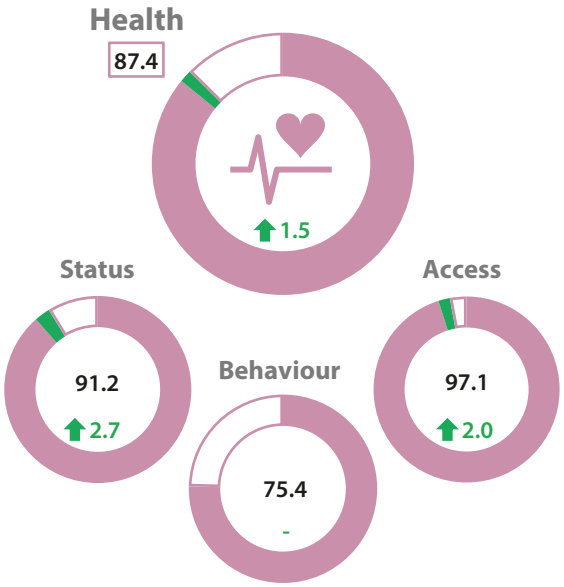
8. Domain of health

Good health is a major resource for social, economic and personal development and an important dimension of quality of life. Health is shaped by political, economic, social, cultural, environmental, behavioural and biological factors (WHO, 1986), which are all gender related. A gender perspective is important for promoting healthy lifestyles, investing in prevention of disease and improving access to and the quality of healthcare. The importance of a gender equality approach is reaffirmed in the third EU health programme (2014-2020) (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2014).

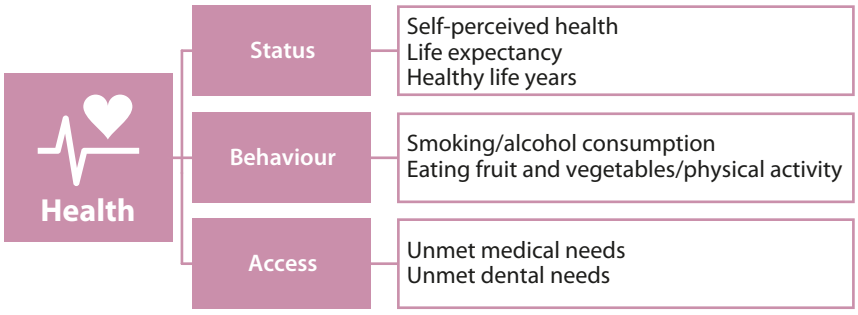
Health is considered a value in itself and is also a precondition for economic prosperity. The European Semester spring package for 2017 underlines the importance of ensuring that economic reforms take social challenges into account in order to build economic growth, reinforcing the fact that equality and sustainable growth go hand in hand. Tackling income inequality and poverty requires comprehensive policies that include equal access to healthcare. Following the principles set out in the European Pillar of Social Rights, it is important that gender equality is mainstreamed throughout all measures to ensure a high level of protection of health and safety at work, as well as equal and timely access to affordable preventive and curative healthcare of good quality.

An understanding of gender differences in health status and health behaviour is integral to the main health challenges addressed in the EU. Obesity is one of these major concerns, which is addressed in the 'Strategy for Europe on nutrition, overweight and obesity-related health issues'. It aims to address the root causes associated with poor diet and limited physical activity (European Commission, 2007b). A special focus has also been given to reducing childhood obesity in the EU action plan on childhood obesity for 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2014a). Regardless of age, physical activity and healthy diet are among main ways to ensure better health and decrease obesity. The Council conclusions on nutrition and physical activity stress the importance of integrating a gender perspective when raising awareness on healthy diet and physical activity. The Gender Equality Index shows that men generally

Figure 52: Scores of the domain of health, EU-28, 2015 and change from 2005



The domain of health measures three health-related aspects of gender equality: health status, health behaviour and access to health services. Health status looks at the differences in life expectancy of women and men together with self-perceived health and healthy life years (also called disability-free life expectancy). This is complemented with a set of health behaviour factors, based on WHO recommendations on healthy behaviour, namely fruit and vegetable consumption, physical activity and smoking and alcohol consumption. Access to health services is measured by the percentage of people who report unmet medical and/or dental needs.



have more time for sporting and other leisure activities. In addition, a focus is placed on population ageing in health-related policies, including the promotion of active ageing in line with the Europe 2020 strategy.

Significant gender differences in mental health are addressed in the European Parliament's resolution on promoting gender equality in mental health and clinical research (European Parliament, 2017). It points to the need for a holistic strategy on mental health and well-being that would include the life cycle and a gender perspective. Besides other actions, it calls for the development of specific tailored policies in order to provide mental health services to groups of women in marginalised communities and to take account of intersecting inequalities, by addressing the mental health needs of refugee and migrant women, women facing poverty and social exclusion, intersex and transgender persons, ethnic minority women, women with disabilities, older women and women in rural areas.

8.1. Gender inequalities in health are an increasing challenge for ageing societies

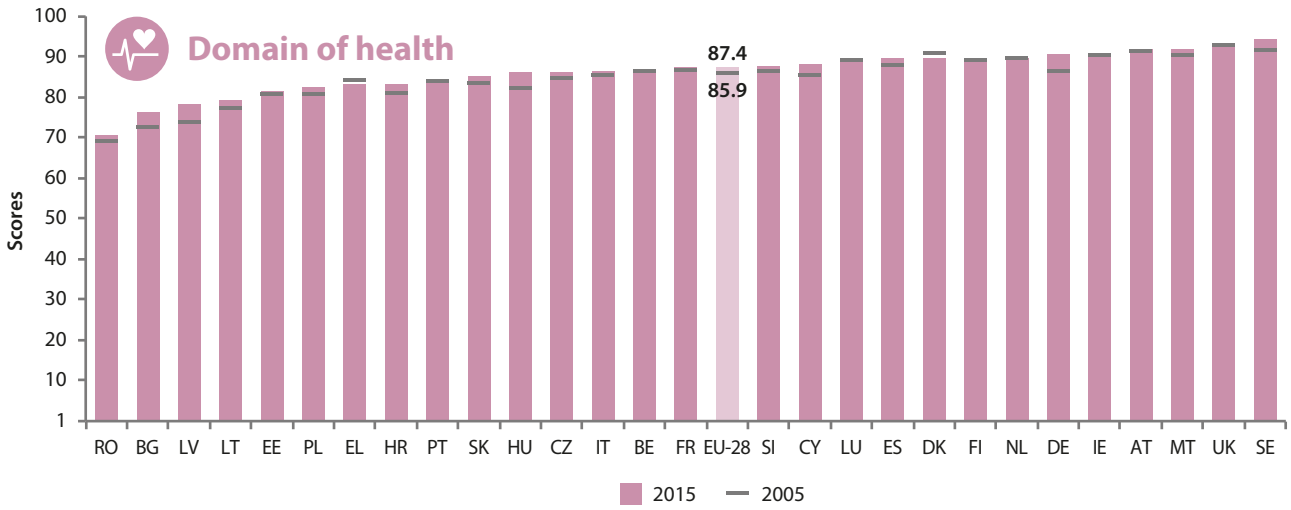
The domain of health displays a relatively high score, at 87.4, but there are still differences visible between and within Member States and in the past 10 years, where the score improved only by 1.5 points in total. The scores in the domain of health vary among Member States, from a score of 70.4 in Romania to a score of 94.1 in Sweden in 2015 (Figure 53).

Only a few Member States have improved their score by more than 2 points in 10 years up to 2015 (Bulgaria, Germany, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Sweden), while Denmark lost 1.5 points and Greece 1.4 points. Change in the health domain is very slow, and since 2012 only three countries have shown some improvement (DE, CY, SE).

Gender inequalities are most prominent in the sub-domain of health behaviour, which has a score of 75.4 (Figure 54). There are variations between Member States ranging from the lowest score in Romania (42.5) to the highest score in Sweden (89.3). Health and risk behaviour data do not allow comparison over time as only data for 2014 are available. Consequently, the change over time in the domain of health depends on developments in health status and access to services ([13]).

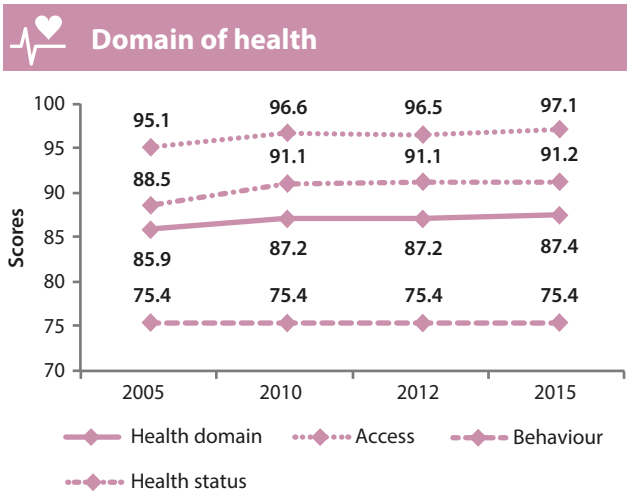
As regards the sub-domain of access to healthcare and dental services, Bulgaria shows the largest improvement, with a score that has increased by 12.5 points, taking it from the second lowest up to nearly the EU average. The score dropped in Greece (– 4.3) Denmark (-2.0), Estonia (-1.9), Belgium (-1.2) and Portugal (-1.0).

Figure 53: Scores of the domain of health, EU Member States, 2005 and 2015



([13]) It is not possible to make comparisons as data on changes over time in health and risk behaviour were not collected prior to 2014. For this reason, these two variables are kept constant for all years.

Figure 54: Scores of the domain of health and its sub-domains, EU-28, 2005-2015



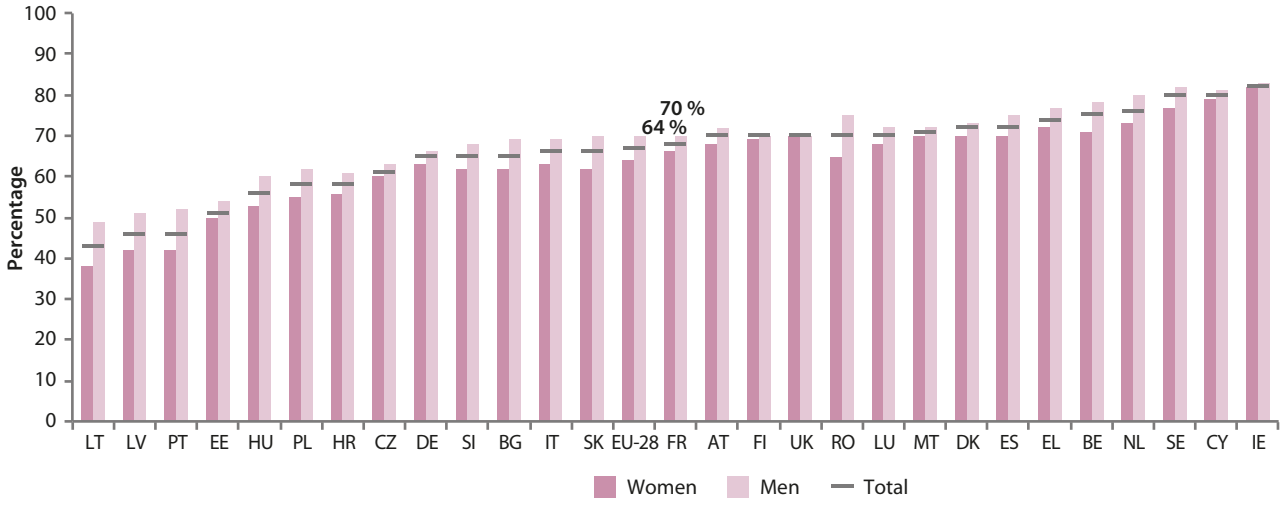
The score of the sub-domain of health status increased by 2.6 points between 2005 and 2010 in the EU-28, but progress has stalled since then. In the majority of the Member States, there has been some gradual improvement, but mostly the 10-year improvement remains below 3 points. The country with the biggest improvement in health status is Hungary (+ 5.7 points).

8.2. Low education means poorer health, especially for women

There are differences across the Member States in how women and men assess their health (Figure 55). For instance, while just 38 % of women and 43 % of men consider their health to be good or very good in Lithuania, the same is true for 83 % of men and 82 % of women in Ireland. Overall, the health of both women and men has improved over the past 10 years, but the share of men whose self-perceived health is either good or very good is somewhat higher than the share of women.

There are differences in perceptions of health among different age groups (Figure 57). Younger people are more likely to assess their health as being good or very good, whereas this is the case for about half of women and men in the pre-retirement age (50-64 years), posing a challenge for active ageing policies. As a result, it is clear that gender and age intersect and create different health situations for ageing women and ageing men — women live longer and they are less likely to assess their health as good or very good.

Figure 55: Self-perceived health 'good' or 'very good', by sex and EU Member State (15+ population, %), 2015



Source: Eurostat, EU SILC (hlth_silc_01).

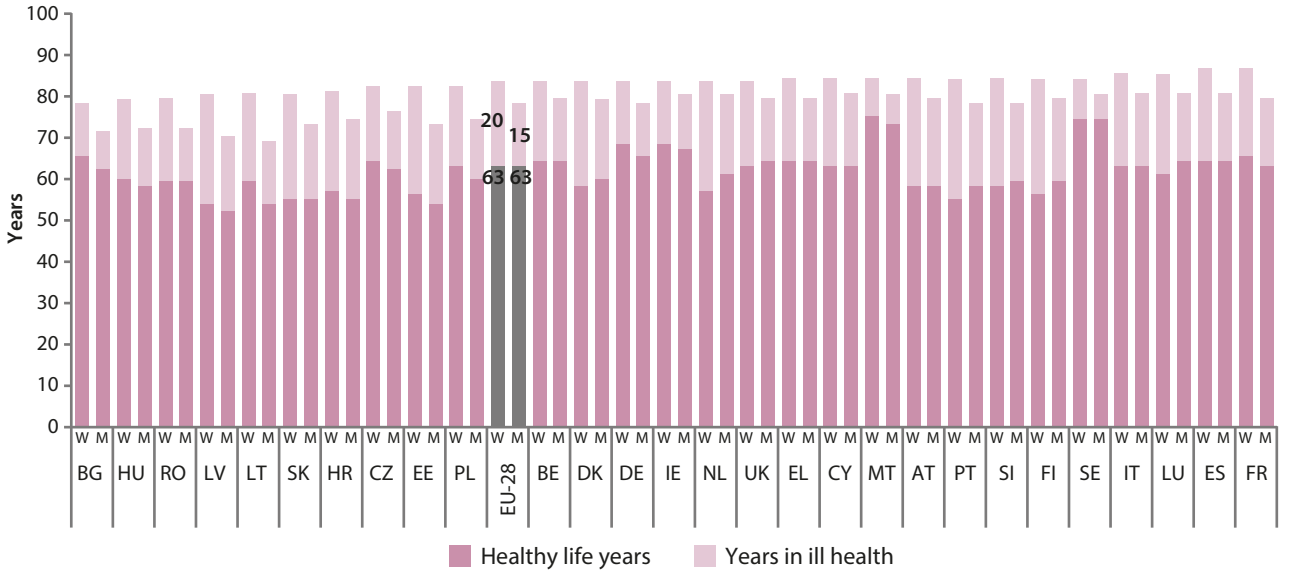
In 2015, 19 % of the population in the EU-28 was aged 65 years and more and the share of older women among the oldest age group (85+) was 69 % ([14]). Part of the average poorer assessment of health by women can be attributed to a gender imbalance in the structure of the population. This is affected by the premature death and shorter life expectancy of men, which is a significant public health policy challenge across Member States. On average, men in the EU-28 live 5.4 years less than women (77.9 years and 83.3 years respectively), and in some Member States men live about 10 years less long, on average, than women. The largest gaps in life expectancy are in Lithuania (10.5 years), Latvia (9.8 years) and Estonia (9.0); the first two are also the Member States with the lowest life expectancy for men in the EU-28. The smallest gender differences in life expectancy are in the Netherlands (3.3 years), the United Kingdom (3.6 years) and Sweden (3.7 years).

The indicator of Healthy Life Years measures how many years a person is expected to live in a healthy condition and without disability ([15]). It shows that despite women's longer life expectancy, the number of healthy life years does not differ between women and men — both live disability-free until 63 years (2015), which is followed by an expected average of 20 years in ill health for women and 15 years for men (European Commission, 2011d). The Healthy Life Years indicator, therefore, highlights the fact that men tend to spend a greater proportion of their lives in a healthy condition (80 % of life expectancy for men, compared to 76 % for women, out of total life expectancy).

As well as age, there are other factors that play a role. Quite expectedly, older people (particularly those older than 85 years) as well as women and men with disabilities are least likely to assess their health to be good or very good. Although these two groups partially overlap — many older people also have disabilities — the self-assessed health of working-age people with disabilities (aged 16-64) is not particularly good either. Only 27 % of men and 25 % of women with disabilities assessed their health as good or very good in 2015. The health of people with a migrant background (born outside of the country where they live) is somewhat better than the health of native-born people, and is partly explained by the younger age distribution of the migrant population.

The health of women and men also depends greatly on their economic situation and education — the higher the

Figure 56: Healthy life years and years in ill health by sex and EU Member State (in years), 2015

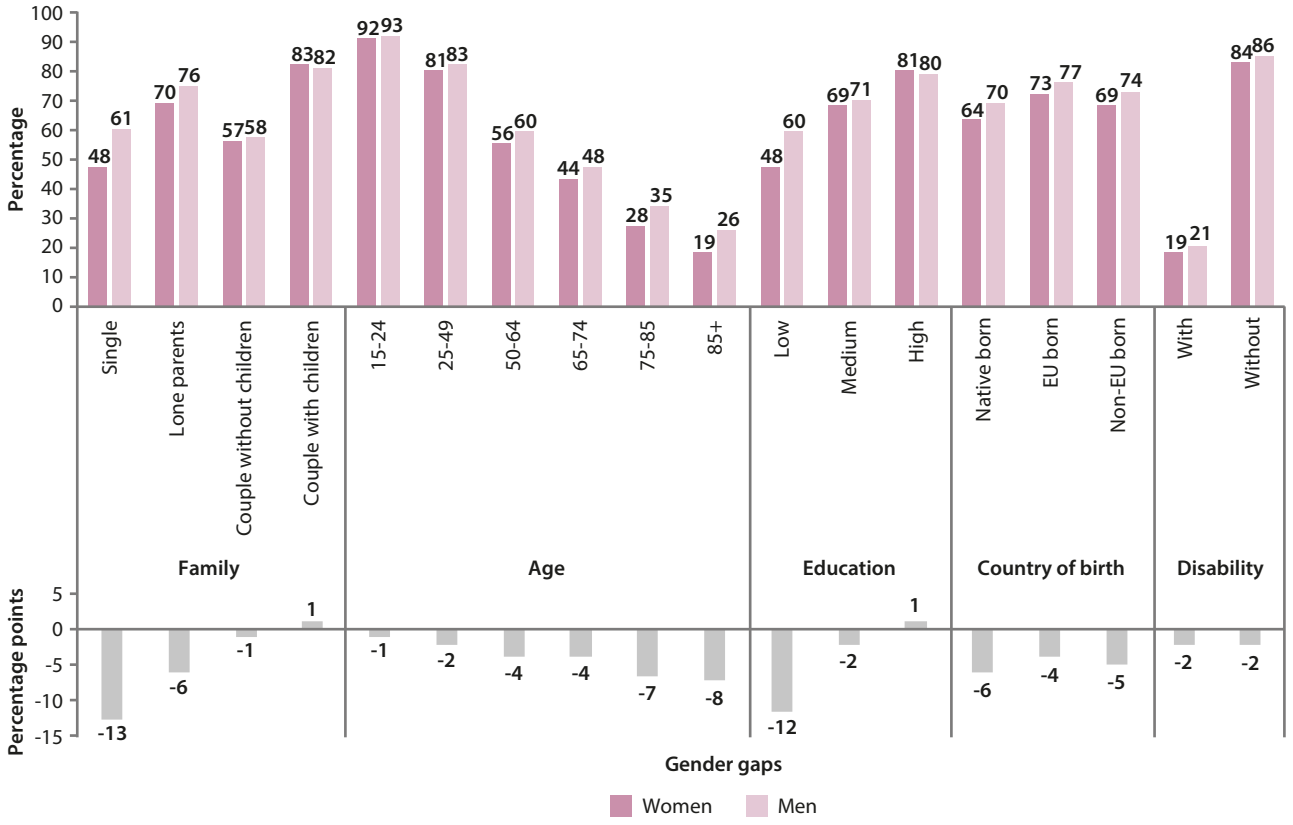


Source: Eurostat, EU SILC (hlth_hlye).

Note: Years in ill health is defined as a difference between life expectancy at birth and healthy life years. Healthy life years and years in ill health add up to expected life expectancy at birth.

([14]) Eurostat, (demo_pjanbroad)
([15]) A healthy condition is defined as one without limitation in functioning and without disability.

Figure 57: Self-perceived health 'good' or 'very good', by sex, family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (16+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: Data on EU-born and non-EU born are based on EU-23, no data available for DE, EE, LV, MT and SI

income or the higher the education achievement, the better their health. Also, the gender gap is the largest for those with the lowest education — 81 % of women and 80 % of men with high levels of qualifications perceive their health to be good or very good, while just 48 % of women and 60 % of men with low education feel healthy (resulting in a gender gap of 12 p.p.) (Figure 57). This puts low-educated women in particularly poor situations regarding their health, compared with both low-educated men and higher-educated women.

The gender differences in self-perceived health also vary across Member States. In Ireland, 58 % of men and 51 % of women aged 85 and over say their health is good or very good, while this is only the case for 2 % of men and 5 % of women of this age in Lithuania. There are a few Member States where women perceive their health to be slightly better (Denmark, Estonia, Croatia, Lithuania) while in other Member States men have much better health. The largest gender gap is in Luxembourg and Austria at 17 p.p. — in both of these Member States, 31 % of men and 14 % of women aged 85+ indicate that their health is good or very good. Interestingly this shows that age and old age may have different meanings and implications for women and men across different Member States. As a result, the process of population ageing poses bigger challenges in societies where the health of the older population is poorer. Active ageing policies similarly need to consider the implications of a gender imbalance of the older population, where the majority of are women.

8.3. Men are more physically active than women, but smoke and drink more

Two sides of health-related behaviours are considered. Eating fruits and vegetables and engaging in physical exercise are important health-enhancing activities, while smoking and excessive drinking are risky behaviours that can lead to

the deterioration of health. Men are involved more often in risky behaviour, but also slightly more in health-enhancing behaviour than women. The share of men who are either sufficiently physically active or who are eating enough fruit and vegetables or do both is higher than that of women (42 % and 36 % respectively), as illustrated in Figure 58. It is of concern, however, that these levels are low for both women and men.

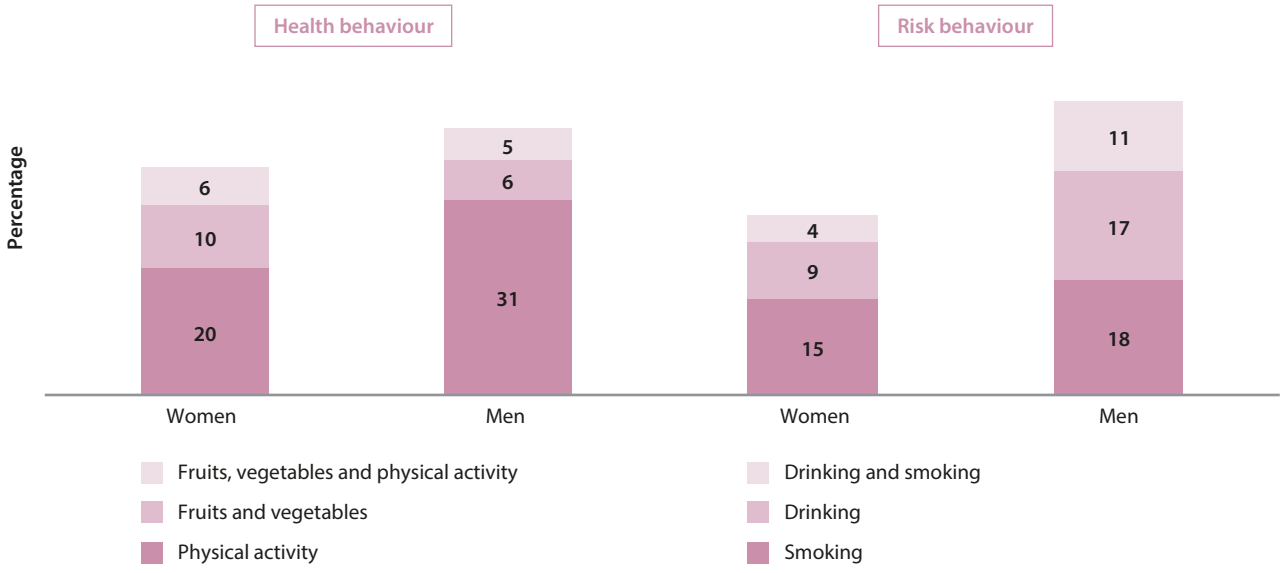
In relation to health behaviour, it is apparent that women eat healthily more often than men (16 % of women and 11 % of men consume the suggested amount of fruits and vegetables per week), while men are more often physically active. In total 36 % of men and 26 % of women in the EU-28 meet the WHO recommendations for physical activities (i.e. at least 150 minutes of moderate aerobic physical activity each week). In addition, 12 % of men and 4 % of women are involved in heavy work-related physical activity.

In 2014, 57 % of men (15+) and 44 % of women were overweight (there are no gender differences in obesity) ([16]). As the activity rate decreases with age, weight increases (71 % of men and 56 % of women aged 55-64 are overweight compared with 15 % of men and 13 % of women aged 15-19). The activity rate of men is higher in all age groups and young women and men are most physically active. The widest gender gap, of 19 p.p., is among young people (aged 15-24 years) (Figure 59).

The intersection with gender and other social groups can also be seen in differences in healthy eating (Figure 60). Highly educated women eat fruits and vegetables most often, but at the same time the gender gap is highest among highly educated people. The same goes for income — the higher the income, the higher the fruit consumption, but this is true only for women. In the case of men, income does not determine fruit and vegetable consumption. Also, older generations eat more fruit and vegetables than younger generations.

Men's diets are generally less healthy and less nutritiously balanced than women's diets (European Commission, 2011d). Diet evolves over time, and it is evident that it is influenced by a range of other factors such as income, food prices (which will affect the availability and affordability of healthy foods), individual preferences and beliefs and cultural traditions, as well as geographical, environmental, social and economic factors. These interact in a complex way to shape individual dietary patterns (WHO, 2015a). In turn, they are also affected by broader societal factors, including gender norms, which, for example, influence access to and control over resources needed to attain optimal health (WHO, 2015b).

Figure 58: Share of women and men involved in health and risk behaviour (16+ population, %), EU-26, 2014

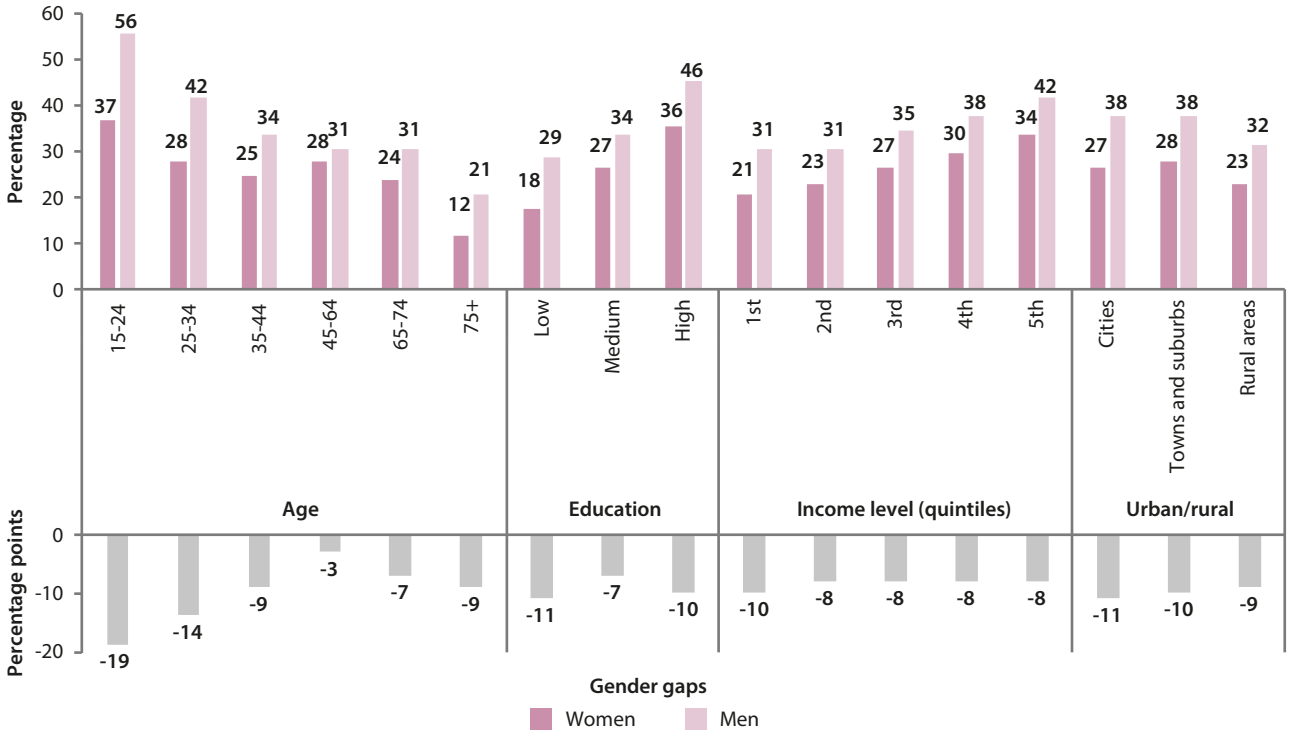


Source: Eurostat, EHIS.

Note: Data for health and risk behaviour is based on EU-26, no health behaviour data available FR and NL, no risk behaviour available for BE and NL.

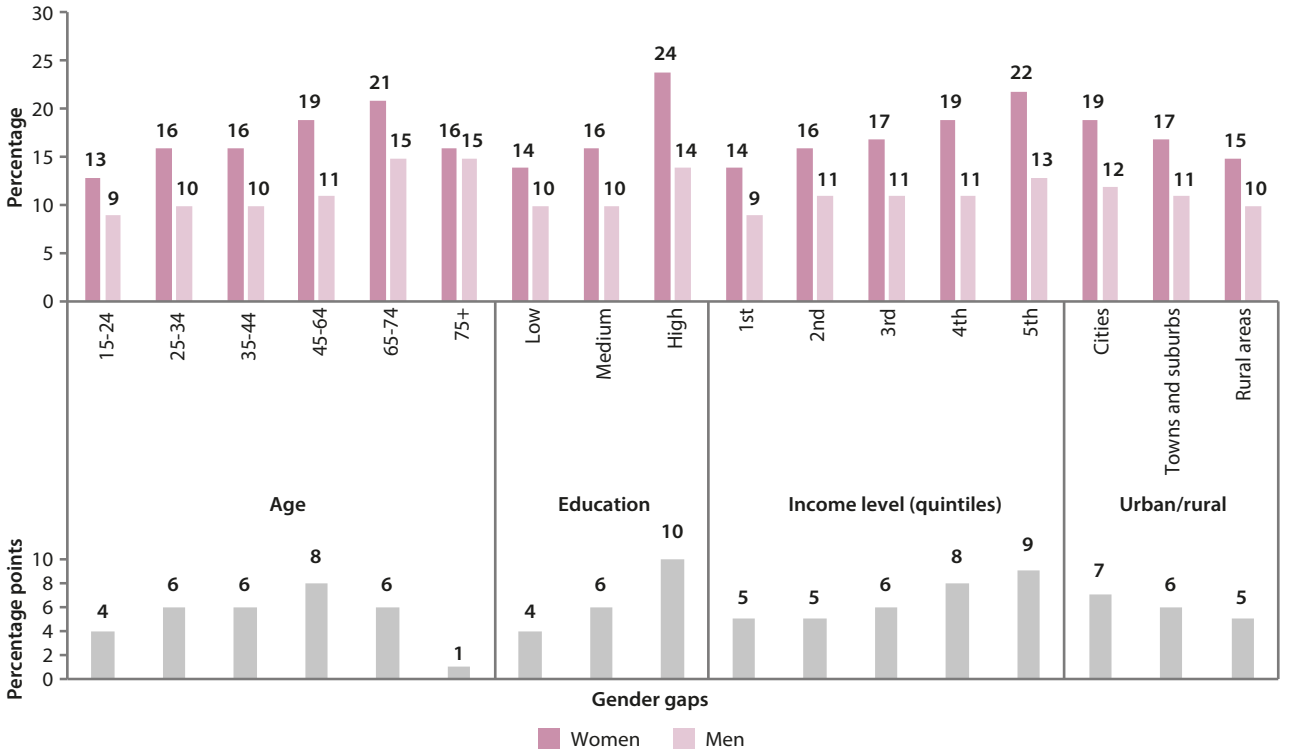
([16]) Body mass index (BMI) by sex, age and educational attainment level (hlth_ehis_bm1e).

Figure 59: People involved in physical activity by sex, level of education, age, income and urban/rural status (15+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: Eurostat, European Health Interview Survey (EHIS), (hlth_ehis_pe2e), (hlth_ehis_pe2i), (hlth_ehis_pe2u).

Figure 60: People eating at least five portions of fruits and vegetables per day by sex, education, age, income and urban/rural status (15+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



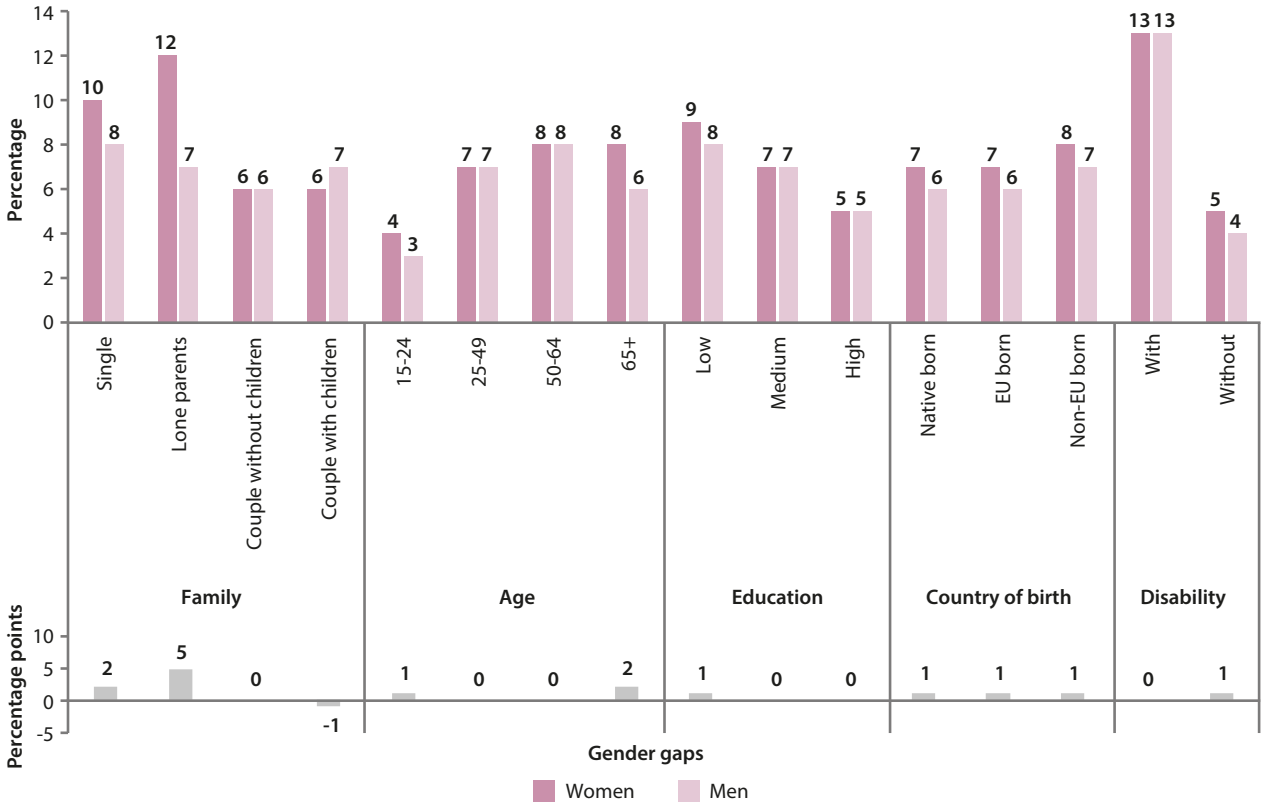
Source: Eurostat, EHIS (hlth_ehis_fv3e), (hlth_ehis_fv3i), (hlth_ehis_fv3u).

8.4. Medical and dental care needs of lone mothers and people with disabilities are often unmet

Across Europe, the share of people stating that they have unmet medical or dental needs is relatively small. Overall, the majority of the population feel that they have sufficient access to healthcare and only 5 % of women and men said that they have unmet needs for medical examination ([17]) in 2015, which is an improvement from 2005 (9 %). In addition, access to dental care has improved and in 2015 just 6 % of both, women and men had unmet needs (relative to 10 % in 2005). However, there are some groups that have more problems accessing healthcare (Figures 61 and 62).

For example, 12 % of lone mothers had unmet medical needs in the EU-28 in 2014 and 14 % had unmet dental needs (compared to 7 % and 10 % of lone fathers and to 5 % and 6 % of women in total). Some Member States stand out as having a very high share of lone mothers reporting unmet medical needs - Greece (30 %), Latvia (27 %), France (19 %), Estonia (18 %) and Poland (17 %). Access to dental care for lone mothers is even more limited than general medical care. One third of lone mothers report unmet dental needs in Greece (34 %), followed by Portugal (30 %) and Latvia (29 %).

Figure 61: People who report unmet medical needs by sex, family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (16+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU SILC.

Note: EU born and non-EU born are based on EU-23, missing data for Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Malta and Slovenia.

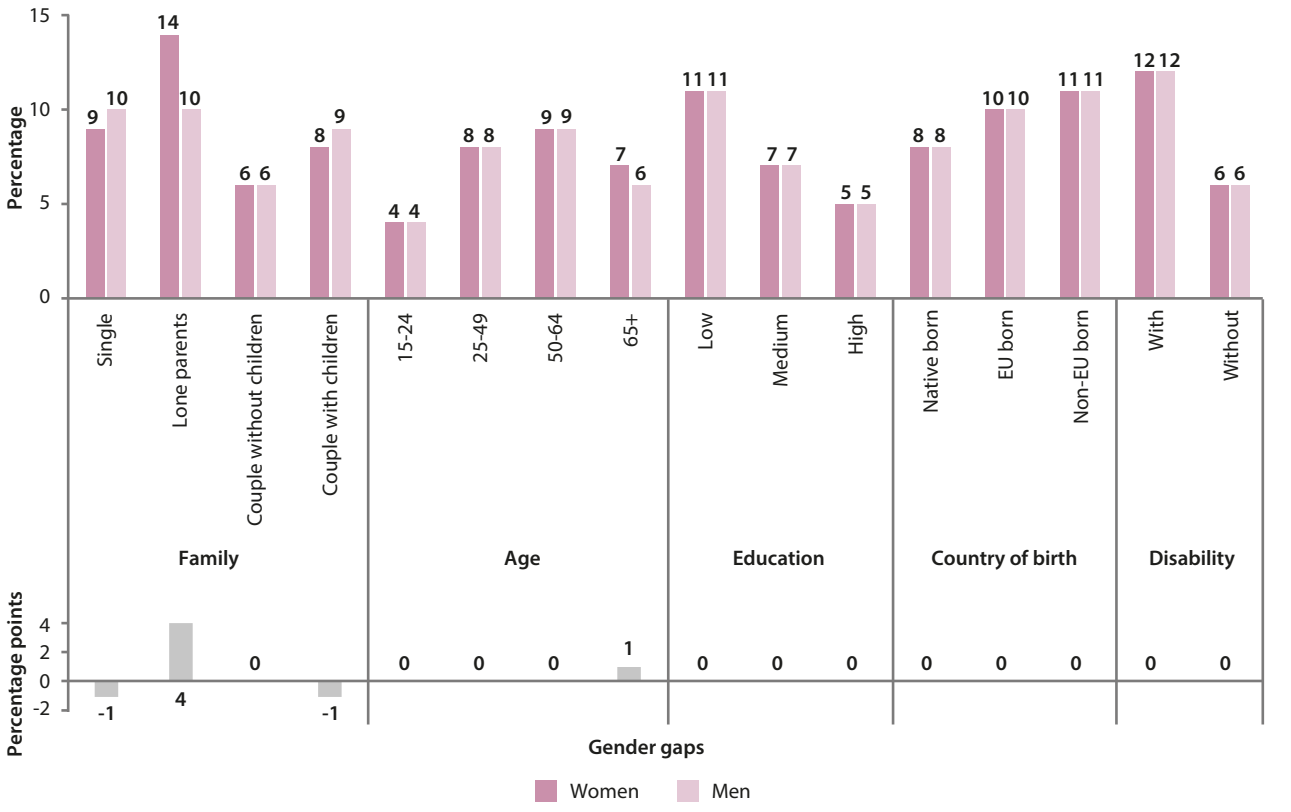
([17]) Note on the interpretation by Eurostat: The indicator is derived from self-reported data so it is, to a certain extent, affected by respondents' subjective perception as well as by their social and cultural background. Another factor playing a role is the different organisation of healthcare services, be it national or local. All these factors should be taken into account when analysing the data and interpreting the results.

People with disabilities most often experience unmet medical needs — 13 % of both women and men reported unmet medical needs and 12 % dental needs in 2014 (Figure 61 and Figure 62). Further examination of the data shows that the situation is better for those people with disabilities who are already of retirement age (65+) when compared to working age people with disabilities. In 2014, 15 % of working-age people with disabilities had unmet needs for medical examination, as was the case for 9 % of older men and 11 % of older women with disabilities ([18]).

Overall, women are more likely than men to face barriers in accessing healthcare, such as the cost of medical care, time restrictions and geographical barriers ('could not afford', 'waiting list', 'too far to travel'), while men are more likely than women to declare other reasons ('could not take time', 'fear', 'wait-and-see strategies', 'didn't know any good specialist or doctor') (European Commission, 2009a). Although tax-based public health insurance schemes are the principal source of funding for public healthcare, the incidence of out-of-pocket payments have been increasing in the EU-28 (OECD/European Commission, 2016).

Although in all Member States there is a high overall coverage for a core set of health services and goods for the population, there are still some groups in the population that have difficulties in accessing necessary healthcare. There are still inequalities, especially due to a lack of insurance coverage, the cost of certain (specialised) types of care (such as dental) which may not be covered by social insurance schemes and the increasing role of private insurance schemes and of out-of-pocket costs for care (Franklin, 2017). These add further barriers to accessing quality healthcare for women and men living on low incomes. For example, Roma women and men or undocumented migrants have additional barriers to accessing healthcare and services, including difficulties in identification and lack of insurance (European Commission, 2014b) or lack of legal status (European Parliament, 2016d).

Figure 62: People who report unmet dental needs by sex, familyt type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (16+ population, %), and gender gaps, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU-SILC.

Note: EU born and non-EU born are based on EU-23, missing data for DE, EE, LV, MT and SI.

([18]) Eurostat database (hlth_dh030).

9. Satellite domain of violence

The root cause of violence against women lies in unequal power relations between women and men, which have reinforced male dominance over women and women's subordinate status in societies. The first legally binding European instrument on violence against women, the Council of Europe's Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (Istanbul Convention) adopted in 2011, frames violence against women as a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women (Council of Europe, 2011). For the first time in a legislative framework, the convention includes a definition of 'gender-based violence against women' as: 'violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately' (Article 3d). By basing the definition on gender relations, it highlights the historical power imbalance between women and men and gives visibility to the oppressive pattern of coercive control which deprives women of fundamental freedoms.

Eliminating violence against women is a profound, but also evolving political challenge, because it necessitates challenging the unequal social, political, and economic power held by women and men, and the ways in which these inequalities are perpetuated through institutions at all levels of society (Pickup, 2001). Structural imbalances of power and inequality between women and men can be seen as both the cause and context of violence against women; therefore, the links between economic, social and political subordination need to be acknowledged. Eradicating gender-based violence against women is a priority of the EU and its Member States, which have taken a range of actions — in particular legal and policy measures — to criminalise violence against women and

Violence against women in the Gender Equality Index

Violence against women is included in the Gender Equality Index as a satellite domain. This status stems from both conceptual and statistical considerations. First, conceptually, acts of violence targeting women are the corollary of structural inequalities experienced by women in the fields of work, health, money, power, education and time use. From this point of view, violence against women brings an important aspect to the core domains of the Gender Equality Index. From a statistical perspective, the domain of violence cannot be treated in the same way as the core domains of the Gender Equality Index because it does not measure gaps between women and men. Rather, it measures a phenomenon – violence against women - that applies to women only. Unlike other domains, the overall objective is not to reduce gaps between women and men, but to eradicate violence altogether (EIGE, 2013). This fundamental difference between the domains of the Gender Equality Index and the violence against women domain justifies the fact that this domain is treated as a satellite.

When the Gender Equality Index was first developed in 2013, the satellite domain of violence was left empty due to the lack of comparable data across all EU Member States. The empty domain of violence was qualified by the authors as the 'largest statistical gap in measuring the progress on gender equality at EU level' (EIGE, 2013, p. 139). The completion of an EU-wide survey on violence against women by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) in 2012 constituted an unprecedented advance in assessing the magnitude of the issue in the EU (FRA, 2014).

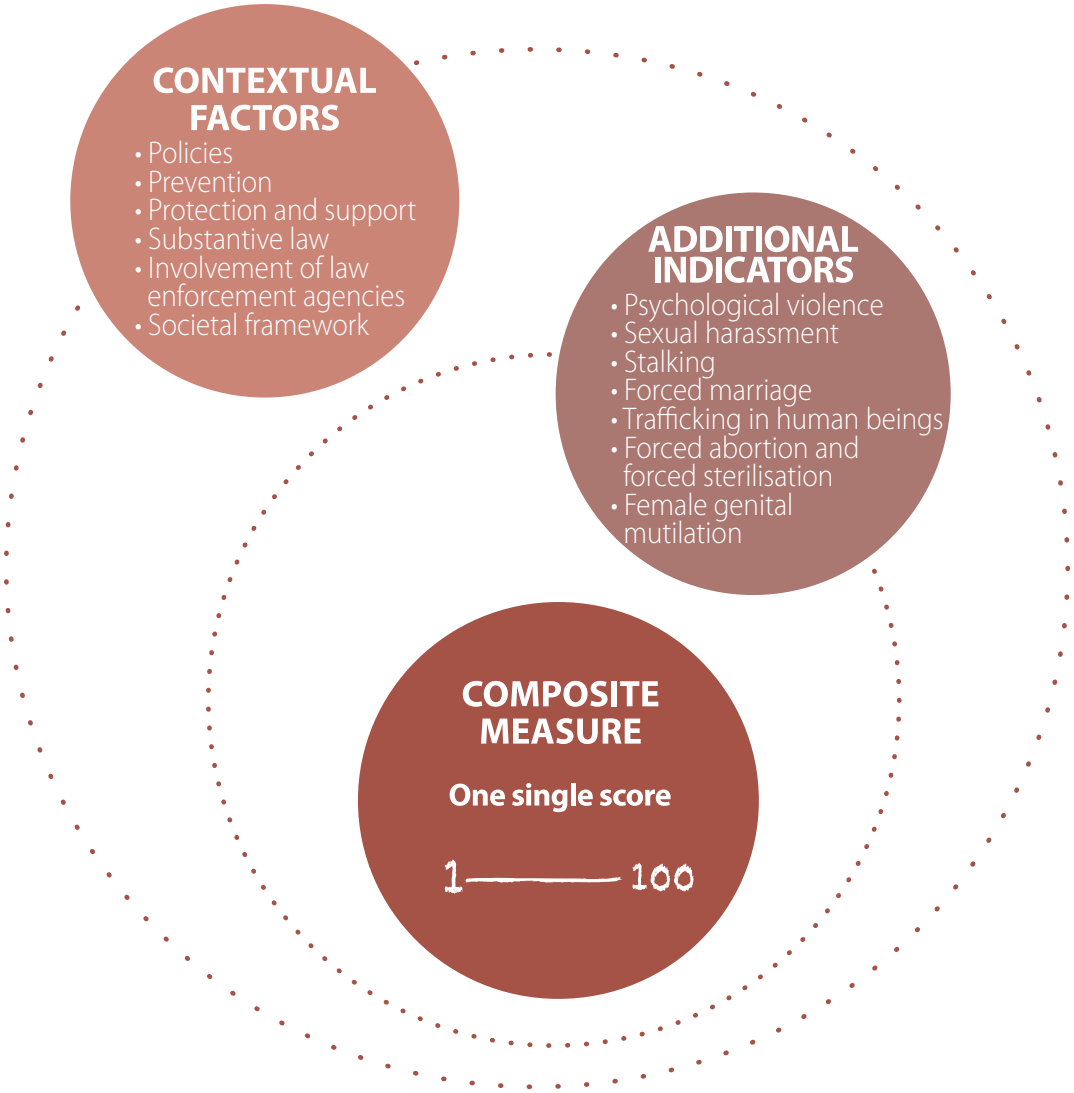
Building on the FRA survey findings, the second edition of the Gender Equality Index presented a first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence by constructing a composite indicator of direct violence against women. This (third) edition of the Gender Equality Index has further developed the composite indicator of violence against women and presents scores for each Member State for the first time. This composite measure is accompanied by indicators on other forms of violence (e.g. female genital mutilation, forced marriage, stalking, etc.) in need of regular monitoring and contextual factors that include some of the root causes of violence against women and information on governments' efforts to combat it.

to protect and support women who have experienced it, along with other commitments such as improved data collection. These commitments are affirmed in the major EU gender equality policy documents, such as the European Pact for Gender Equality (Council of the European Union, 2010), the European Commission's 'Strategy for equality between women and men 2010–15' (European Commission, 2010c) and the European Commission's 'Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016–2019' (European Commission, 2014a).

The European Parliament adopted a resolution in 2015 calling on the Council to integrate violence against women into Article 83(1) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) (European Parliament, 2015). In March 2016, the European Commission submitted a proposal for the signature and ratification of the Istanbul Convention, which was followed in May 2017 with two decisions from the EU Council confirming the EU's willingness to join the Istanbul Convention. On 13 June 2017, Commissioner Věra Jourová signed the Convention on behalf of the EU in Strasbourg. Having the EU join the Convention will improve complementarity between national and EU levels on crucial aspects relating to an integrated approach to combating violence against women, including research and data collection.

The domain of violence provides of a set of indicators that can assist Member States in assessing the extent and nature of violence against women and enable the monitoring and evaluation of the institutional response to this phenomenon. To provide the most complete and reliable

Figure 63: Measurement structure of the domain of violence



picture of violence against women in the EU, a three-tier structure of measurement was defined including: (1) a set of indicators on the extent of violence against women that will form the composite measure; (2) a set of additional indicators covering a broader range of forms of violence against women; (3) a set of context indicators, which can provide insights on some of the causes and circumstances surrounding violence against women. The structure is presented in Figure 63.

The indicators identified for the composite measure are aggregated to obtain a single score for each country. This single score enables the monitoring of the extent of the most common and widely criminalised forms of violence against women (i.e. sexual and physical violence and femicide ([19])) across the EU.

Additional indicators cover broader range of forms of violence described in the Istanbul Convention (i.e. psychological violence, sexual harassment, stalking, forced marriage, female genital mutilation, forced abortion and forced sterilisation) as well as trafficking in human beings for which EU wide comparable data are very limited.

Contextual factors enable analysis over time and across Member States of the policy context and of the effects of prevention, protection and prosecution measures on the extent of violence. Defined to monitor the compliance of the Member States concerning the obligations set out in the Istanbul Convention, they will cover six dimensions, namely: policies, prevention, protection and support, substantive law, involvement of law enforcement agencies and societal framework.

The full theoretical and measurement framework of the domain of violence, including the rationale behind the choice of variables, steps taken to compute the composite measure on violence against women and data analysis for all indicators, is described in detail in EIGE's forthcoming publication *Gender Equality Index 2017: Measurement framework of violence against women* (EIGE, 2017d) to be released in November 2017.

([19]) Due to data not being available for all EU Member States, femicide has been excluded from calculations of the composite measure on violence against women.

10. Conclusions

Progress towards gender equality in the EU remains slow. The score of the Gender Equality Index in 2015 stood at 66.2 out of 100, showing the need for significant improvement in all Member States. This is a relatively small improvement since 2005, when the Index stood at 62.0 points. Out of the Index's six core domains, the most improvement was made in the domain of power, while gender inequalities increased in the domain of time over the previous 10 years.

The recent decade witnessed a generally positive development towards gender equality. The largest improvements were noted in Italy and Cyprus. While the situation improved in most Member States, in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and the United Kingdom it remained the same as in 2005 and a couple of countries experienced slight drop of the score in the last 3 years (Finland, Netherlands).

Domain of work

The domain of work has the third-highest score in the Gender Equality Index, although progress in this area has been very slow (an increase of 1.5 points in the score in the last 10 years). The gender gap in the FTE employment rate is as high as 16 p.p., reflecting a lower overall participation of women in the labour market and a higher take-up of part-time jobs by women relative to men. The labour market participation of women with low educational attainment is only half the participation rate of low-qualified men, and women with low levels of qualifications are at high risk of long-term unemployment and precarious employment. Employment participation is also limited for women with children, regardless of whether they live with a partner or raise children on their own. The gender gap in the FTE employment rate is 11 p.p. among one-parent families and 28 p.p. among couples with children, in both instances disadvantaging women.

Low participation in the labour market is pronounced among certain groups of women, hampering the achievement of the Europe 2020 target of a 75 % employment rate. At the same time, it presents an opportunity for new policy initiatives, such as the European Pillar of Social Rights that has established gender equality as one of its key principles. Results of the Gender Equality Index 2017 stress the need to mainstream gender equality principles throughout all areas of the Pillar, including active support to employment, secure and adaptable employment, fair wages and work-life balance.

With increasing concerns about precarious employment in the EU and its gender dimension (EIGE, 2017g), it is not just access to the labour market but also fair working conditions for all women and men that are now more important than ever before. For instance, control over one's working time is of particular interest. Only 23 % of women and 27 % of men can take some time off during their working hours to take care of family or personal matters. Considering that women are primary caregivers, challenges in achieving work-life balance impact mostly on their participation in employment and their employment conditions. An opportunity is therefore presented in the new initiative on work-life balance by the European Commission, with new standards for parental, paternity and carer´s leave across the EU Member States. Through legislative and non-legislative measures, the New Start initiative aims to enable parents and other people with caring responsibilities to better balance their employment and personal life and to improve the sharing of care work between women and men.

The sectors of the labour market in which men are over-represented are also less prone to part-time work. These characteristics can contribute to the low involvement of men in care and domestic work and also to persisting gender segregation in the labour market. Work-life balance provisions available for women and men in all sectors and occupations could therefore facilitate the reduction of gender divisions in employment (EIGE, 2017g). STEM sectors and education, health and social activities remain highly segregated fields with almost no change over the past 10 years. Gender segregation in the labour market needs to be tackled early by addressing gender segregation in education. Lifelong learning and job-related training, as addressed in the New Skills Agenda for Europe, are an opportunity to tackle the over- and under-representation of women and men in certain sectors and occupations.

Domain of money

Despite steady progress of the domain of money over the last decade, Chapter 4 showed that the share of women and men at risk of poverty remains very large (16 % of men

and 17 % of women), and reaches alarming rates for certain groups. Among them are women and men born outside the EU, who are more than twice at risk of poverty than the general population. Women's heightened exposure to poverty stems in part from their disproportionately low pay (EIGE, 2016c). This constitutes the most serious barrier to achieving economic independence; almost every fifth woman employee receives pay below the first quintile, compared to every 12th man (EIGE, 2017g). EU policies tend to favour job creation as the main course for poverty reduction. However, if more jobs are needed to support economic recovery, more attention needs to be paid to the quality and stability of employment, as well as improved gender equality in reconciling work and childcare. Women also bear the disproportionate burden of caring duties, frequently pushing them out of the labour market or into part-time and low-paid work.

The quality of work also concerns skills and competences, and their under-utilisation in work. For example, migrant women are more likely to have a tertiary education than migrant men, but they are often underemployed and their skills and qualifications are not fully utilised (Kofman, 2012). The Skills profile tool for third-country nationals, developed by the European Commission as part of the New Skills Agenda for Europe, will provide refugees, migrants and other third-country nationals with a streamlined tool to present their skills, qualifications, and experiences in a way that is understood across the EU (European Commission, 2017f). This could provide a step towards improving access to economic independence for these groups. The quality and stability of work, and the gender dimension therein, should become an immediate and long-term policy focus of the EU and Member States.

Inequalities in the labour markets in terms of participation, part-time work, gender segregation and higher risks of inactivity among women result in persistent gender gaps in earnings, income and risk of poverty, to the detriment of lone mothers in particular. Over the life course, such entrenched gender differences often lead to acute gender inequalities, affecting older women most severely. In the light of the current shift towards more private pensions, inequalities could widen further, particularly as men are more likely to be financially capable of investing in private pensions, owing to higher wages and less involvement and participation in childcare (EIGE, 2015b, European Parliament, 2016c).

Pension reforms should, therefore, be approached from a gender perspective and should account for both women's and men's lived experiences, employment paths and life courses. For the gender gap in pensions to be adequately measured and monitored, the Council has called for the Social Protection Committee to develop an indicator specific to the gender pension gap (Council of the European Union, 2015). More broadly, social protection systems need to adapt to the needs of an ageing population, changing family structures, evolving migration patterns and the diversification of forms of employment (EIGE, 2016c).

Finance remains one of the most staunchly male-dominated sectors of public policy, with men dominating central banks, finance ministries and top posts of the largest companies — women hold only one in every 25 top positions throughout the EU. Supporting the participation of women in finance and economic policy design, implementation and evaluation and systematically including gender mainstreaming and gender budgeting principles in public policy are critical for gender inequalities to regress. Gender equality gains are known to benefit economic development at large (EIGE, 2017b) and gender equality is fostered by sound economies. A stronger emphasis on gender equality would support the recovery efforts of European economies, while also improving social justice for women and men across the EU.

Domain of knowledge

Over the past 10 years, progress in gender equality in the area of knowledge has been slow. The main driver of change is increasing educational attainment for both women and men. However, while young women (aged 30-34) have already reached the Europe 2020 target (43 % have graduated from tertiary education), the proportion of men tertiary graduates in the same age group is 9 p.p. lower. Moreover, the gender gap in educational attainment among the young generation has been widening to the detriment of men. Further challenges are faced by women and men with disabilities, underlining the importance of access to high-quality inclusive education, as aimed for in the European Pillar of Social Rights, for which a gender perspective is crucial.

Increasing educational attainment among the younger generation is good news for Europe. However, the Gender Equality Index 2017 reaffirms the importance of gender mainstreaming, an intersectional perspective in policies and policy measures on education and training over the life course. Of concern is that the overall participation rate in formal and non-formal education and training is lower than 10 years ago and it also decreases with age. In the EU, 10 % of men and 12 % of women aged 25-64 participate in education and training, which is still below the benchmark set in the ET 2020. Participation in education and training is often low for those who could benefit from

it most; for instance, women with low levels of qualifications participate in education and training less often than women with high educational attainment (15 % and 21 % respectively). Furthermore, education and training is less available to women and men who work in precarious jobs, which further limits their career prospects (EIGE, 2017g). Tailored learning, as proposed in Upskilling pathways: opportunities for adults, could therefore benefit those needing to upscale their skills (Council of the European Union, 2016b). In ensuring equal access to education and training over the life course, measures aiming at reducing barriers to participation in training should also consider the ability of participants to balance their training, work and family responsibilities. Synergies between education and training policies and a new initiative on work-life balance, from a gender perspective, could be highly beneficial to increased participation in lifelong learning as well as breaking segregation in education and the labour market.

The most pronounced challenge for gender equality in the area of knowledge is persisting gender segregation. The share of men studying in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and the arts is not increasing and the gender gap in the EU-28 is as high as 22 p.p. A call for more inclusive and quality education set forth in the European Pillar of Social Rights is a new opportunity to effectively address gender segregation, especially as it has been resistant to change in the last decade. The right to education free from gender bias should be considered an essential part of quality education and needs to be reflected in policies planned and implemented at both EU and Member State levels. Such policies could actively contribute to narrowing gender segregation in education, thus broadening the opportunities for women and men in the EU.

Moreover, EIGE's study on the economic benefits of gender equality (EIGE, 2017b) shows that reducing gender segregation in STEM education alone could lead to an additional 1.2 million jobs in the EU. These jobs are estimated to come about mostly in the long term, as employment is likely to be affected only after new women STEM graduates choose to work in STEM fields. In parallel, the higher productivity of acquired STEM jobs is likely to result in higher wages for newly graduating women — affecting the gender pay gap as well as income and living standards of men, women, children and their extended families (European Parliament, 2015).

Domain of time

Gender inequality in time use is a persistent and growing problem. Not only is it the domain with the third lowest Gender Equality Index score, but it has also dropped by 1 point in 10 years. The gender gap in unpaid care work is particularly large and a significant contribution to persistent gender inequalities in the labour market.

In its current form, women's and men's division of time is being debated in EU policy circles as a challenge of work-life balance faced by parents and caregivers. The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union explicitly recognises the right to reconcile family and professional life as a fundamental right. In addition, it is set as a key driver for increasing women's labour market participation and equal economic independence of women and men in the Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019.

More equal division of time-use, particularly care and household responsibilities, is needed in order to tackle issues such as the gender pay and pension gaps, women's economic independence, equality in employment and career progression. The proposed Directive on work-life balance for parents and carers introduces paternity leave and carers' leave, enhances the existing parental leave and extends the right to request flexible working arrangements (European Commission, 2017h). The EU also promotes the establishment of affordable and quality care services and infrastructure for children and other dependents. The directive points out that the current legal framework at the EU and Member State level provides limited provisions for men to assume an equal share of caring responsibilities with women.

For this purpose, the Barcelona targets on the provision of childcare services (as discussed above) have yet to be fully met by all Member States. By 2012, less than half of the Member States met the first Barcelona target (of childcare coverage of at least 33 % in relation to children under 3 years of age) and it remains unchanged since. As for the second Barcelona target (of childcare provision for at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age), the number of complying Member States (nine) decreased since 2012. Childcare provision is particularly relevant for the achievement of gender equality. That is to say that Member States where formal care provision for children is highest also tend to score well in the Gender Equality Index.

Women continue to shoulder the main responsibility for care for children (27 % of all women in the EU care daily for children), older people and people with disabilities (10 % of women). An increase in these care roles is forecast, given that the share of older people who are potentially in need of care is increasing. Equality in health is also relevant in this context, underscoring the need to improve the health

and active ageing of older women. Another important aspect in designing work-life balance policies and services is the need to take account of the fact that care responsibilities are particularly prevalent among women who are born outside of the EU.

Equality in time use also concerns rest and leisure time, civic and political participation and care for oneself. There is evidence that women spend more hours in paid and unpaid work, which leaves them with less time for rest or leisure activities. The time spent on leisure has also shrunk due to increasingly flexible work arrangements causing a spill-over and time pressure on private life (European Parliament, 2016a). More men than women participate in sports, cultural or leisure activities in almost all Member States. Among other things, sports and physical activities, as recommended by the WHO, are a very important part of health-enhancing behaviour, and men are significantly more involved in physical aerobic activities. The gender gap in physical activity is particularly large among young women and men, with women much less involved than men.

Domain of power

Despite high political visibility and the EU's commitment to gender equality, as well as extensive debates and numerous targeted actions since 2010, the domain of power still has the lowest score of all the domains. Women make up nearly half of the workforce and account for more than half of tertiary graduates, yet decision-making is perpetuated by an old pattern of unequal power relations.

Progress in gender-balanced decision-making is most pronounced on corporate boards, where the proportion of women more than doubled from 10 % in 2005 to 22 % in 2015. The majority of the progress occurred in just a few Member States, principally as a result of governments taking legislative or other forms of action to promote gender balance. The Commission's proposed directive on the issue has a target of at least 40 % of each gender among non-executive directors being reached by 2020 for companies listed on stock exchanges and by 2018 for listed public undertakings. In 2016, just under one in five of the largest listed companies in Member States met this target. Although this represents a significant improvement compared to October 2012 (8 %), it still means that recent progress may be an exception rather than the rule.

Better overall representation of women on company boards is seriously hampered by the persistence of gender stereotypes in corporate culture, which shape the way leadership and those holding positions of power are perceived. These perceptions are reflected in an institutional culture where formal and informal practices work to the advantage of men.

There is an even bigger gender gap in decision-making in the financial sector as decision-making in European and national central banks is almost completely dominated by men. Women's share of positions on the boards of national central banks has increased only by a fraction, from 16 % in 2005 to 19 % in 2015. The position of President of the European Central Bank (ECB) has been consistently occupied by men, and women's membership of the board has always been below 10 %. The European Parliament has, in a number of resolutions, called for more women in governing positions in the central banks and financial institutions in Member States, while also noting its concern about the under-representation of women on the ECB's executive board (European Parliament, 2011).

Despite gradual progress toward gender equality in political decision-making since 2005, men continue to dominate bodies of political power, holding on average more than two thirds of all parliamentary seats and government positions. In Member States demonstrating a notable improvement since 2005, progress can be attributed to the implementation of a gender quota law or voluntary party quotas. Currently, there are nine Member States with legislative quotas applicable to national parliaments. The most progress occurred in the four Member States in which the quotas have been in place for the longest amount of time (Belgium, France, Portugal, Slovenia).

Data on decision-making in research funding organisations indicate that women's opportunities to influence the research agenda and ensure equal access to funding for both women and men are limited. Men dominate the highest decision-making positions in the main research funding organisations across the EU. In 11 Member States, women account for less than one third of members of the top decision-making bodies of those organisations. In this respect, one of the objectives of the European Commission's 'Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019' is to tackle the under-representation of women in decision-making positions in research organisations and to improve data collection on this topic (European Commission, 2015a). Amongst other actions, the Horizon 2020 framework programme for research and innovation also aims to promote gender equality by setting gender balance targets for advisory groups (50 %) and evaluation panels (40 %), and to publish results in monitoring reports.

The proportion of women involved in top-level decision-making in media organisations is also low, although women's employment in the media sector has been gradually increasing over the course of two decades. In 2015, women accounted for 46 % of employment in the sector, and women on average represent two thirds of graduates from journalism and information courses. However, women occupy less than one third (32 %) of top decision-making positions in public broadcasting organisations across the EU. The Council acknowledged that the media has an enormous capacity to contribute positively to the achievement of gender equality at all levels and has confirmed its commitment to advance women's roles in decision-making in the media (Council of the European Union, 2013).

Although women's participation in sports is increasing, women are frequently absent from sports decision-making bodies. On average in the EU-28 women hold 14 % of decision-making positions in the most popular sports federations, ranging from 3 % in Poland to 42 % in Sweden. Several international and continental federations responsible for the promotion and development of sports in Europe have already shown a commitment to gender equality by introducing gender quotas. In 2015, nine of the 28 European confederations had a gender quota for the highest decision-making body (executive committee, presidium or board of directors). At the national level, voluntary targets for gender balance in the governing structures of sports federations have been proposed or have already been introduced in five Member States (Germany, France, Sweden, Finland, United Kingdom (England)).

Domain of health

Despite the constantly improving health and life expectancy of Europeans, there are clear, gendered challenges regarding inequalities in health that Member States need to take into account, particularly in light of the ageing process. Health expenditure is an important part of public budgets, representing almost one third of social policy budgets; public expenditure on healthcare and long-term care is expected to increase by one third by 2060 (European Commission, 2013).

In light of increasing retirement ages and employment targets, the importance of maintaining health throughout the life course is stressed. By pre-retirement age, a large share of women already suffer from ill health, while a worrying proportion of men die prematurely. Nearly half of these deaths could be prevented by well-targeted public policy measures. Overall, more than 1.2 million deaths could be avoided through better public health and prevention policies or more effective and timely healthcare (OECD/European Commission, 2016).

While early and preventable deaths are one of the main concerns for the male population, women live longer, but for a significant number of those years they are in poor health. Therefore, approaching the challenges of the ageing population, diminishing workforce and pressure on welfare systems in a gender-specific way could contribute to effective solutions of the health-related differences faced by women and men. For men, it is, among other things, a question of prevention of risk behaviour, such as smoking and drinking during the whole lifespan. For women, who make up a larger share of older people, sustaining health through active ageing and ensuring sufficient resources for care are most important.

Although women and men are unable to directly control many of the determinants of their health, such as genetics, access to health services, their physical environment or their economic situation, they can influence their lifestyle choices and behaviour. There are gender differences in rates of smoking and alcohol consumption as well as healthy diet, which may be risk factors for premature deaths. Behaviour, as well as other health factors, is strongly affected by gender norms and access to resources to attain optimal health. Additionally, access and control over resources needed to attain optimal health, including economic (income, credit), social (social networks), political (leadership, participation), information and education (health literacy), time (access to health services) and internal factors (self-confidence/esteem) are all important (WHO, 2015a). The relevance of these issues can be exemplified by the fact that lone mothers, who very often lack several of these resources, most often have problems accessing appropriate healthcare. Also, low-educated and low-income people show the poorest levels of health, women more so than men.

The high score in the sub-domain of access to healthcare reflects the fact that all Member States are committed to ensuring access to adequate healthcare and in 2009, it was concluded that all Member States had achieved almost universal coverage for healthcare costs for at least a core set of services (Thompson et al., 2009). However, there are variations between Member States and out-of-pocket payments have been increasing in the EU (OECD/European Commission, 2016), making access to good-quality healthcare more difficult for those who are living in economically challenging situations. People in lower income quintiles are in general more likely to have unmet needs for accessing healthcare services (European Commission, 2009a). Moreover, the data reflect only part of the reality

and does not analyse other aspects such as timeliness and quality of services, motherhood and pregnancy-related services, mental health issues or the high rate of death by suicide of men.

Satellite domain of violence

Violence against women is rooted in unequal power relations between women and men and is linked to structural inequalities experienced by women in the fields of work, health, money, power, knowledge and time use. It is embedded in a structural system of patriarchal values by which violence against women is tolerated, legitimised and even trivialised (European Women's Lobby, 2010). Efforts to eradicate it cannot be disconnected from efforts to eliminate gender gaps and discrimination in all spheres.

With the EU's accession to the Istanbul Convention, a comprehensive framework for monitoring the implementation of the convention is needed more than ever. Detailed and comparable information on Member States' policies, service provisions, judicial activities, criminalisation of forms of violence against women and the societal framework are urgently needed to better understand the drivers of change in reducing violence against women. Furthermore, better-quality contextual information and complementary survey data on the prevalence of violence will enable Member States to make progress in their efforts to eradicate violence against women.

Intersecting inequalities

Although the Gender Equality Index focuses on inequality between women and men as the most pervasive and entrenched form of inequality worldwide, it also acknowledges diversities within societies and among genders. The population consists of people with very different characteristics which, in combination with other aspects, can consequently create inequalities and influence the life experiences of women and men differently. In a democratic and fair society these characteristics should never predetermine people's life chances and well-being (Platt, 2011). By analysing the intersections of these identities, additional challenges for both women and men in the EU were unmasked, the highlights of which are reiterated below.

The theoretical framework of the Gender Equality Index took a broad and inclusive approach to intersecting inequalities. An intersectional analysis of the Index showed how that gender intersects with age, education, family composition and parenthood, county of birth and disability. However, due to the limited availability of high-quality EU-wide comparative data, the actual analysis presented a limited number of intersections and was not available for certain social factors, such as sexuality, ethnicity, nationality or religion. At present, analysis of the Roma minority and a more detailed approach to migrant background or different disabilities also proved to be impossible.

A more thorough overview of the intersecting inequalities approach is available in a separate publication *Gender Equality Index 2017: Intersecting inequalities* (EIGE, 2017c, forthcoming).

Country of birth

Compared to the general population, women and men born outside the EU face double the risk of poverty; however, men have a slightly higher at-risk-of-poverty rate than women (38 % for men, 36 % for women). These poverty rates are striking when compared with the risk of poverty of native-born women and men, of whom 16 % of women and 15 % of men live in poverty. This is despite the fact that non-EU-born people are actually, on average, slightly more often highly educated than native-born people and their employment rate is nearly equal to that of native-born people. There are no differences in participation in lifelong learning according to country of birth. The earnings gap between women and men born outside of the EU is smaller than among native-born people, although the earnings are overall slightly lower for those who are born outside of the EU. This is different for foreign-born people who are born in another EU country, where the mean earnings are higher than for native-born people.

The distribution of care responsibilities between women and men also varies depending on country of birth. Women born outside of the EU often have more care responsibilities than those who are born within the country (46 % and 37 %, respectively). As a result, work-life balance policies are of particular importance to migrant women. Men, on the other hand, are involved in care (as well as cooking) in equally low proportions, irrespective of their country of birth.

Comparing the migrant population with the native-born population across Member States is a challenging task. Further in-depth analysis where more attention could be given to the specific characteristics and barriers faced by migrant women and men at the Member State level would enable the support of better-informed decision-making.

Disability

Women with disabilities have a particularly low employment participation, with a FTE employment rate of only 19 %, compared to 28 % for men with disabilities. Almost half (45 %) of working age women with disabilities (aged 20-64) were economically inactive compared to 35 % of men in the same situation in 2015. Working people with disabilities earn somewhat less than those without disabilities, although the gender pay gap is as large for people with disabilities as it is for those who do not have disabilities.

Women with disabilities have the lowest levels of tertiary education in the EU (13 %), which can contribute to their poor economic situation. This is particularly true for older people with disabilities, but is also the case for working-age people with disabilities who face barriers both in the labour market and also in acquiring education and training.

One of the main issues for people with disabilities is health. People with disabilities have low levels of self-assessed health — only 27 % of working-age (aged 16-64) men with disabilities and 25 % of women with disabilities assessed their health as being 'good' or 'very good' in 2015. Many people with disabilities also face problems accessing good-quality healthcare — as many as 15 % of working-age women and men with disabilities had unmet needs for medical examinations.

Lastly, men with disabilities engage more in housework than men without disabilities, yet much less often than women overall. 29 % of women with disabilities reported fulfilling domestic tasks and care responsibilities as the main reason for being inactive, compared with only 1 % of inactive men (EIGE, 2016c). These findings confirm the importance of introducing measures encouraging men's participation in unpaid domestic labour.

Education

The development of measures to support the participation of women with low qualifications in employment is an important issue for policymakers, particularly as many low-educated women represent a great untapped potential for society. Only a small share of low-educated women are in the labour market and if they are, their earnings are the lowest across all the groups. They are also the least likely to participate in education or training. A quarter of women and men with low qualifications are in poverty, while this is the case for 8 % of high-educated women and men. Having unmet needs for medical or dental healthcare services is also strongly associated with educational levels — while 5 % of women and men report having dental needs that are unmet, this is the case for 11 % of women and men with low educational attainment.

Health behaviour is also strongly related to education levels, and low-educated people in general report that they feel worse about their health and are less often involved in physical activity, which is particularly the case for women. While older women are over-represented among the low-educated, many inequalities exist for working-age people with low qualifications.

Age

Age clearly intersects with gender, leading to different inequalities for women and men of different ages in several domains of life. Age is not only a biological characteristic, but is also a social determinant with different social and economic effects at different life stages and in different generations. Generational effects are evident in relation to educational achievement; in previous generations men were more often higher educated, but today it is young women who are predominantly higher educated.

Age discrimination and age-related prejudices exist in Europe — especially regarding older women and men. However, they are not the only ones impacted by this prejudice. The disadvantaged situation of women often stems from their family situation and the unequal division of care responsibilities throughout their life cycle. For instance, in the case of employment, women are disadvantaged throughout their lives, but particularly during their fertile years, when they are more often out of the labour market or working part-time. As many as 61 % of women aged 25-49 have regular care responsibilities, compared to 39 % of men in this age group. The care gap is smaller before and after this period. Also, women in this age group are most often victims of violence.

These inequalities accumulate over the life course and put older women in a disadvantaged position — their incomes are much lower, the pension gap is vast and they are at the greatest risk of living in poverty in old age. This issue connects with health inequalities as men live, on average, much shorter lives than women, while women live longer, but often in poorer health, alone and at a greater risk of poverty.

Family type

Women and men have different family life experiences. Having children is the main factor leading to women's lower participation in employment. Caring for children

and other dependent family members continues to fall on women, leading to difficulties in reconciling work and life. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to work when they have children, and although they may be involved in some aspects of care work, women still shoulder the burden of cooking and other housework, whether they have children or not.

Lone mothers and fathers are particularly under pressure in many regards. Even though lone fathers work less often and have lower incomes than fathers who also have a partner, lone mothers are even further disadvantaged — they are more often out of the labour market, have lower pay and frequently experience poverty, and have additional difficulties accessing health and dental care. Lone fathers, however, do not report having daily caring responsibilities as often as lone mothers, which confirms that lone fathers, on average, have older children than lone mothers and therefore the impact of lone parenthood on them is not as severe.

The results of the Gender Equality Index support the need for further strengthening work-life balance policies. Lessening the disproportionately negative impact of parenthood on women requires not only state provision of care services and leave policies, but also supporting and encouraging a more equal division of care between parents. An individual entitlement to parental leave clearly encourages men's take-up of the leave and them taking full responsibility for the care of children, but other policy measures and normative, life-course and workplace factors also shape the care division between men and women (Wall and O'Brien, 2017). Dissolving traditional gender roles, stereotypes and division of work around family and parenthood can be possibly a key to achieving gender equality.

Annexes

Annex 1: What is new in the Gender Equality Index 2017?

Intersecting inequalities

Although the Gender Equality Index focuses on gender inequality as the most pervasive and entrenched form of inequality worldwide, it also acknowledges diversities within societies and among genders. The population consists of people with very different characteristics that intersect, which can consequently create and influence the life experiences of different groups of women and men. For this purpose, the Gender Equality Index incorporates the satellite domain of intersecting inequalities to highlight the complexity of gender inequalities by pointing out that some women and men face group-based inequalities rooted in other social and cultural power differentials such as age, ethnicity, race, class, nationality, sexuality or religion (Kabeer, 2010).

A full understanding of gender inequalities requires that they are addressed hand in hand with other power asymmetries in society. The Gender Equality Index measures gender gaps in areas relevant to EU policy, but for better policymaking and a thorough understanding of the inequalities, the diversity among women and men needs to be taken into account. In order to produce effective and non-exclusive policy measures and social interventions, systemic social inequalities and their causes and consequences need to be examined.

Intersectional analysis is applied to the whole Index at the variable level — variables are disaggregated by gender and one more intersection at a time (e.g. age and gender; age and education) to the extent that the data availability allows. This allows for analysis of the levels/situations of different sub-groups separately as well as gender gaps within sub-populations. A situation where the gender gap varies across the groups (e.g. educational groups) would be a clear indication of intersectionality. From a policy perspective, it becomes possible to identify which groups of women and men are least/most disadvantaged and to indicate further targeted policy measures.

As a first stage, a theoretical overview of intersectionality was carried out (EIGE, 2017c) in order to identify possible intersections (social-demographic characteristics) that would be relevant from the point of view of the Index. Based on theoretical considerations, previous research and data availability, five intersections were selected for further investigation: family type, age, country of birth, disability and education. The intersectional approach is not possible for the domain of power, due to lack of data. A more thorough overview of the intersectional approach applied to the Index is published in a separate document *Gender Equality Index 2017: Intersecting inequalities* (EIGE, 2017c) and the methodological report of the Index (EIGE, 2017e).

Satellite domain of violence

The commitment of the EU and its Member States to collect regular and sustainable data on violence against women is a key factor towards its eradication. The systematic monitoring of progress is rarely possible due to a lack of an integrated approach, and where regular data collection and research is not a part of policymaking and its implementation. The EU institutions have noted the strong need to further develop tools to measure the extent of violence against women and increase knowledge of its causes, nature and consequences.

When the Gender Equality Index was first developed in 2013, the satellite domain of violence was left empty due to a lack of comparable data across all EU Member States. Building on the FRA survey findings, the second edition of the Gender Equality Index 2015 presented a first attempt at populating the satellite domain of violence by constructing a composite indicator of direct violence against women. Since the elimination of violence against women is a key dimension of achieving gender equality, more work was needed for the composite indicator of violence against women to be reflected in the monitoring of Member States' performance on gender equality.

To support this development, EIGE built a comprehensive measurement framework of violence against women in the EU (EIGE, 2017d). It provides the foundation for reliable and comparable statistical assessment of the extent of violence, which will facilitate more effective policymaking and monitoring of progress. The measurement framework presents a few sets of indicators: (1) a set of indicators on the extent of violence against women that will form the composite measure; (2) a set of additional indicators covering a broader range of forms of violence against women; and (3) a set of context factors, which can provide insights

on some of the causes and circumstances surrounding violence against women. To reflect the notion that freedom from violence is an integral part of gender equality, the core set of indicators is aggregated into a composite measure of violence, which reflects the extent of violence against women in Member States.

Figure 64 highlights the changes made to the conceptual and measurement frameworks of the domain of violence in the 2017 edition of the Gender Equality Index compared to the previous edition ([20]).

Domain of health

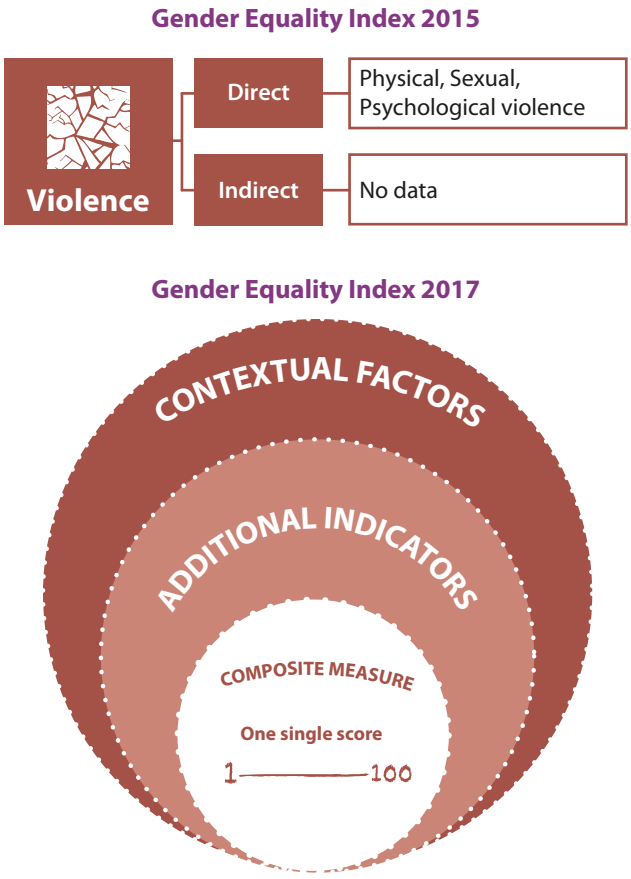
The domain of health focuses on gender differences in health outcomes, but also on factors influencing health, such as health behaviour and access to healthcare. It is important to go beyond the biological aspect of health and consider the impact of health structures and institutions as well as social factors affecting health behaviour.

Due to a lack of suitable data, the Gender Equality Index 2015 did not include differences in health-related behaviours of women and men. In the context of the recently launched data of the European Health Interview Survey (EHIS) of 2014, a conceptual and measurement framework of health/risk behaviours was developed. Four indicators on health-related behaviours included in the new edition of the Gender Equality Index have health-related consequences, which contribute significantly to disease burden as well as (preventable) deaths and mortality. Poor diet, smoking, alcohol use and physical inactivity are among the most important behaviour-related factors leading to premature death and increased risk of disability. For instance, in the EU and European Free Trade Area (EFTA) Member States, the disease burden from many non-communicable causes, including ischaemic heart disease, lung cancer and diabetes, has increased over time, probably due to the persistence of poor diets, high blood pressure, smoking, and high body mass index as leading risk factors.

For these reasons, the sub-domain of health behaviour is now populated with data and includes two indicators that cover four health-related behaviours:

- health behaviour — daily consumption of fruit and vegetables and/or regular physical activity;
- risk behaviour — smoking and/or harmful alcohol consumption.

Figure 64: Evolution of the structure of the satellite domain of violence, 2015-2017



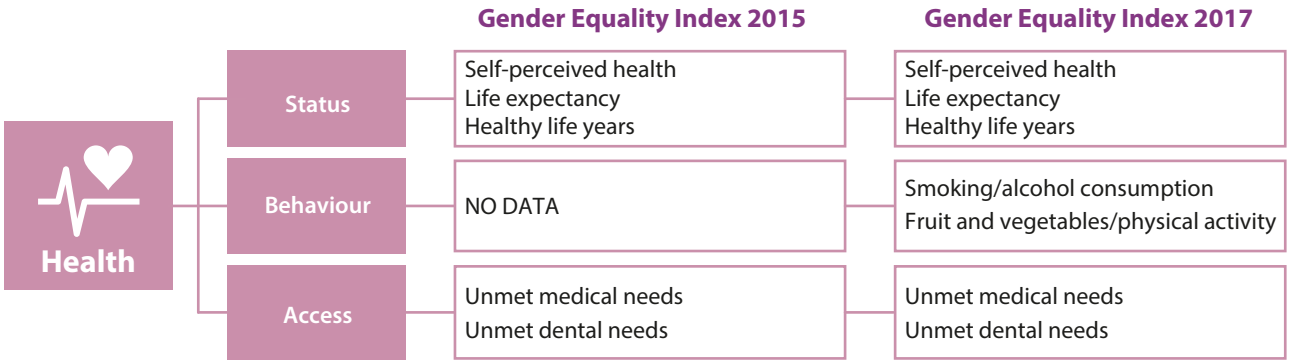
Behaviours can affect health with either positive or negative outcomes. Health behaviour is defined as patterns of behaviour, actions and habits that relate to health maintenance, health restoration and health improvement (Mosby's Medical Dictionary, 2009). Broadly defined, health behaviour is any action taken by a person to maintain, attain or regain good health and to prevent illness. Risk behaviour or risky behaviour can be seen as behaviour that has either uncertainty about its outcome or (proven) negative outcomes to or costs for physical, economic or psychosocial well-being. Moreover, not engaging in health-enhancing activities such as being physically active or having a proper diet can be regarded as risk behaviour.

Although conceptually these two behaviours are one sub-domain of the Index, health behaviour and risk behaviour are treated as two separate sub-domains in the measurement. All indicators included in the measurement meet WHO recommendations.

The first dimension of health behaviour is a healthy diet, measured by sufficient consumption of fruit and

([20]) For more details, please refer to EIGE's forthcoming publication (2017d), *Gender Equality Index 2017: Measurement framework of violence against women.*

Figure 65: Evolution of the structure of the domain of health, 2015-2017



vegetables. The WHO recommends that adults consume five portions (400 g) of fruit and vegetables daily, excluding starchy vegetables such as potatoes (WHO, 2015b). The second dimension of health behaviour is physical activity. In its physical activity guidelines, the European Commission follows the official recommendation of the WHO that adults should undertake at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity aerobic physical activity per week ([21]).

The first aspect of risk behaviour is smoking, which is the major cause of preventable deaths in Europe. It has been estimated that 15 % of all deaths in the EU — including 25 % of all cancer deaths — could be attributed to smoking (European Commission, 2011c). According to the WHO, smoking kills up to half of its users and also harms those exposed to second-hand smoke (WHO, 2017).

The second dimension of risk behaviour is harmful levels of alcohol consumption, which is estimated to be responsible for approximately 195,000 deaths each year in the EU as a result of cancer, cirrhosis of the liver, road traffic and other accidents, homicides, suicides and neuropsychiatric conditions. Harmful alcohol use is the third largest cause of early death and illness in the EU, after tobacco use and high blood pressure (European Commission, 2007a). Harmful drinking is defined as having more than six drinks (more than 60 g of pure ethanol in total) on a single occasion every month or more often during the past 12 months (European Commission, 2010a). A drink is defined as a glass of wine or beer, a shot of vodka, etc.

([21]) Eurostat defines time spent on health-enhancing (non-work-related) aerobic physical activity and distribution of the population according to the time spent on health-enhancing (non-work-related) aerobic physical activity (in minutes per week). Physical activities included are sports and cycling to get to and from places.

Domain of power

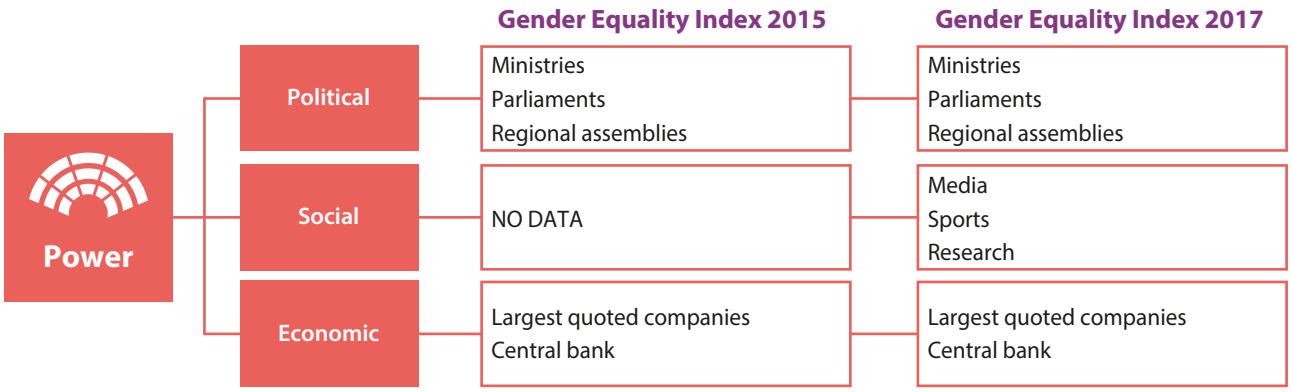
The domain of power focuses on the representation of women and men in decision-making positions. Gender-balanced representation in positions of power is crucial from a gender equality perspective: firstly, from a social justice point of view, regarding the equal access of all, and secondly, from a democratic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

The Gender Equality Index 2017 for the first time covers the sub-domain of social power, which was left empty in the previous editions due to a lack of EU-wide comparable data. Social power is defined as access to decision-making in institutions that have a particular influence on social norms, attitudes and values in the society. It focuses on decision-making in three areas: media, sports and research. Media impacts public opinion, political attitudes and social relations, including gender norms, through agenda setting. In recent years media and sports have become increasingly intertwined, multiplying sports' social, political and economic importance. Additionally, norms, attitudes and values are being constantly shaped by academia and research institutions responsible for knowledge production.

For the Gender Equality Index 2017, the following indicators have been selected:

- members of the highest decision-making bodies of research funding organisations;

Figure 66: Evolution of the structure of the domain of power, 2015-2017



- board members of publicly owned broadcasting organisations;
- board members of national Olympic sport organisations.

Decision-making in research will be measured by the proportion of women and men in the highest decision-making bodies of the largest public institution/s that finance/s basic (fundamental) and/or applied research of public research organisations and universities. Research funding organisations have a crucially important role to play in addressing gender inequalities and strengthening the gender dimension in research programmes. They also have a key role in enabling all researchers — regardless of gender, career stage or field of research — to realise their potential. Data on applications for funding from national and EU sources show a lower success rate for women than for men (European Commission, 2016c).

Decision-making in the media is covered by the indicator on the proportion of women and men on the boards of public broadcasters in the EU. Boards are generally strategic decision-making bodies of media organisations, and in some instances may also have executive decision-making responsibilities. The board members form the most senior external oversight committee, either of the organisation or of its parent company, and in many cases are not paid employees of the media organisation. In the framework on the EU's follow-up of the Beijing Platform for Action, this indicator was endorsed by the Council of the EU during the Irish Presidency in 2013.

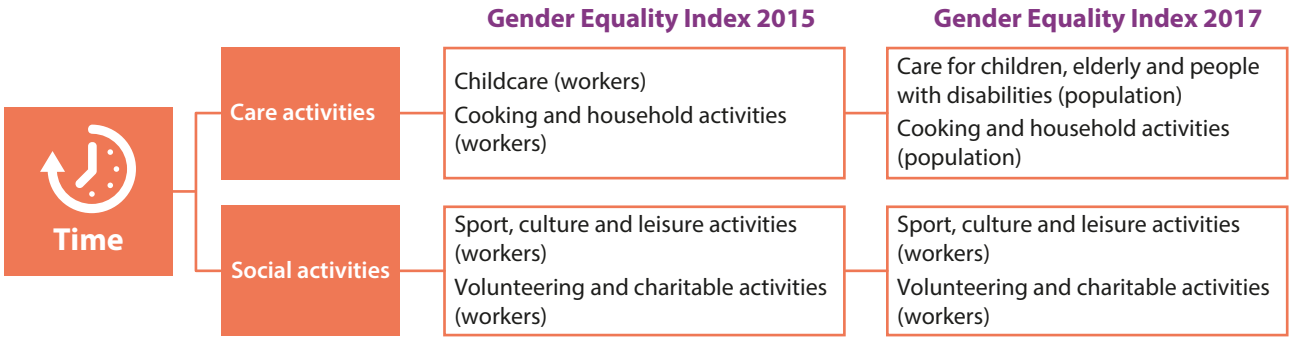
To measure decision-making in sports, an indicator on decision-making in national Olympic sports federations will be used. The governing bodies of sports federations are usually responsible for the strategic planning and promotion of the sport, overseeing rules and regulations, increasing participation and developing talent. Only organisations representing Olympic sports (both summer and winter) are included in data collection at the national level. Narrowing the focus to Olympic sports increases the comparability of data to those sporting organisations that participate in the Olympic Games and enables a consistent (and easily accessible) sampling frame of sporting organisations through membership of national Olympic committees.

The proportion of women and men in decision-making positions is often based on small numbers at the Member State level — for example, there are fewer than 20 ministerial positions in 10 Member States and fewer than 10 positions in the decision-making body of the central bank in half of the Member States. As an outcome, some Member States have fluctuations in a time series in the domain of power, depending on which year is included in the Index. To mitigate this effect, the Gender Equality Index 2017 will use 3-year averages for variables included within political and economic power (except regional-level political decision-making for which data are not available before 2011 and are then collected only every second year).

Domain of time

The domain of work measures two dimensions — care activities and social activities. The sub-domain of care activities has been modified from the previous edition. While in 2015 the Index looked at the share of working people who were involved in childcare and domestic activities, the 2017 Index considers the whole population. In addition, care activities are more broadly defined. While in 2015, only childcare was counted, the new edition broadens the approach to care for children, older people and people with disabilities. This was done in order to respond to the growing care needs of ageing societies and to capture different types of care-giving. In the ageing society, the needs for care for older people and people with disabilities in the family is increasing. In

Figure 67: Evolution of the structure of the domain of time, 2015-2017



particular, women are increasingly involved in caring for children and grandchildren, but also in caring for older and disabled relatives. As a consequence, women are increasingly and disproportionately involved in unpaid caring activities connected to the needs of different family members across the generations. It is for this reason that care of older people and people with disabilities is relevant in the context of women's and men's patterns of time use.

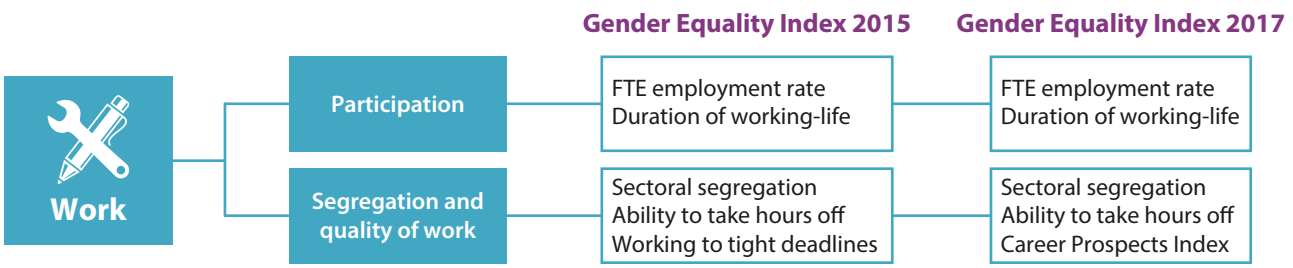
Social activities are measured by the share of the working population doing sports, culture and leisure activities and volunteering and charitable activities. Although it would, conceptually, be appropriate to extend this sub-domain to the whole population, and not just the working population, there are data limitations which do not allow the measurement to be expanded.

Domain of work

The domain of work covers three dimensions in total — participation in the labour market, gender segregation in the labour market and quality of work. In the previous edition of the Index, quality of work measured two dimensions of quality of work — work-life balance and work intensity. A variable of 'working to tight deadlines' was used to measure work intensity. Further analysis of the characteristics of jobs which have 'tight deadlines' indicates that it may not be most appropriate to analyse gender differences in terms of work intensity. Namely, having deadlines is specific only to certain types of jobs, but not to jobs with other characteristics, such as those in the service sector. This is also confirmed by the data — tight deadlines are most common for craft workers, plant and machinery operators and managers, while they are least of an issue for service, sales and agricultural workers. Having deadlines in service jobs where most of the workers are women is not often even possible, due to the characteristics of the jobs.

Therefore, another dimension of job quality that is more universal and applicable to all jobs and workers was chosen: job security and the prospect of career advancement. This is one of indexes developed by Eurofound in order to analyse different aspects of job quality. Career development and perspectives is one of the key issues in achieving gender equality in the labour market. Moreover, job insecurity is recognised as a significant cause of stress and can have damaging effects on workers' career paths and health and well-being (Eurofound, 2016). The Career Prospects Index measures the continuity of employment as assessed through a person's employment status (self-employed or employee) and type of contract, the prospects for career advancement as perceived by the worker, the perceived likelihood of losing one's job and experience of downsizing the organisation.

Figure 68: Evolution of the structure of the domain of work, 2015-2017



Annex 2: List of indicators of the Gender Equality Index

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Work	Participation	1	Full-time equivalent employment rate (%, 15+ population)	The Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable even though they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.	Eurostat, EU LFS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average	2010	2012	2015
		2	Duration of working life (years, 15+ population)	The duration of working life indicator (DWL) measures the number of years a person aged 15 is expected to be active in the labour market throughout his/her life. This indicator is calculated with probabilistic model combining demographic data (Life tables available from Eurostat to calculate the survival functions) and labour market data (Labour Force Survey activity rates by single age group). Exact calculation methodology can be requested from Eurostat.	Eurostat, EU LFS Duration of working life - annual data [lfsi_dwl_a]	2005	2010	2012	2015
	Segregation and quality of work	3	Employed people in education, human health and social work activities (%, 15+ employed)	Percentage of people employed in the following economic activities out of total employed (based on NACE Rev 2) are included: P. Education + Q. Human health and social work, as percentage from TOTAL activities (All NACE activities).	Eurostat, EU LFS Employment by sex, age and economic activity (from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2) – 1,000 [lfsa_egan2] Employment by sex, age and economic activity (1983-2008, NACE Rev. 1.1) (1,000) [lfsa_egana]	2005	2010	2012	2015
		4	Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (%,15+ workers)	Q47. Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ... ? 1 Very easy; 2 Fairly easy; 3 Fairly difficult; 4 Very difficult Percentage of persons who answered 'very easy' out of total (1, 2, 3, 4).	Eurofound, EWCS EIGE's calculation with microdata	2015	2015	2015	2015
		5	Career Prospects Index (points, 0-100)	The Prospects Index is one of job quality indexes developed by the Eurofound. It combines the indicators of employment status (self-employed or employee), type of contract, the prospects for career advancement as perceived by the worker, perceived likelihood of losing one's job and experience of downsizing in the organisation. It is measured at the scale of 0-100 where the higher the score, the higher the job quality. Exact methodology can be requested from Eurofound.	Eurofound, EWCS Calculated by Eurofound	2015	2015	2015	2015

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Money	Financial resources	6	Mean monthly earnings (PPS, working population)	Mean monthly earnings in PPS (Purchasing Power Standard), in the sectors of Industry, construction and services (except public administration, defence, compulsory social security) (NACE_R2: B-S_X_O, total age group, working in companies 10 employees or more)	Eurostat, SES Mean monthly earnings by economic activity, sex, age [earn_ses06_20] Mean monthly earnings by sex, age and economic activity [earn_ses10_20] Mean monthly earnings by sex, age and economic activity [earn_ses14_20]	2006 EU-28: EU-27 used HR 2010	2010	2010	2014 EL and HR 2010
		7	Mean equivalised net income (PPS, 16+ population)	Equivalised disposable income in PPS (Purchasing Power Standard), is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale.	Eurostat, EU SILC Mean and median income by age and sex [ilc_di03]	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010 EU-28: Non-weighted average	2012 EU-28: Non-weighted average	2015 EU-28: Non-weighted average
	Economic situation	8	Not at-risk-of-poverty, ≥60 % of median income (%,16+ population)	Reversed indicator of 'at-risk-of poverty rate, calculated as 100 minus "at-risk-of-poverty rate". The at-risk-of-poverty rate is the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfers) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.	Eurostat, EU SILC At-risk-of-poverty rate by poverty threshold, age and sex [ilc_li02]	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010	2012	2015
		9	Income distribution S20/ S80 (%, 16+ population)	Calculated as 1/ "S80/S20 income quintile share ratio" * 100. The income quintile share ratio (also called the S80/S20 ratio) is a measure of the inequality of income distribution. It is calculated as the ratio of total income received by the 20 % of the population with the highest income (the top quintile) to that received by the 20 % of the population with the lowest income (the bottom quintile). For the Index, a 'reversed' version of this indicator is used.	Eurostat, EU SILC Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2007, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010	2012	2015 IE 2014

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Knowledge	Attainment and participation	10	Graduates of tertiary education (%, 15+ population)	Educational attainment measures the share of high-educated people among men and women. People with tertiary education as their highest level successfully completed (levels 5-8), percentage from total +15 population	Eurostat, EU LFS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average	2010	2012	2015
		11	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (%, 15+ population)	Percentage of people participating in formal or non-formal education and training, out of total population of 15+ Lifelong learning encompasses all purposeful learning activity, whether formal, non-formal or informal, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence. The reference period for the participation in education and training is the four weeks preceding the interview	Eurostat, EU LFS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average	2010	2012	2015
	Segregation	12	Tertiary students in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts (tertiary students) (%, 15+ population)	Percentage of persons who are studying in the following areas: EF14 (Teacher training and education science) + EF2 (Humanities and arts) + EF7 (Health and Welfare) out of total students. Until 2012 levels ISCED 5-6, after that ISCED 5-8	Eurostat, Education statistics Tertiary students (ISCED 5-6) by field of education and sex (2005-2012) [educ_enrl5] Students enrolled in tertiary education by education level, programme orientation, sex and field of education (2013-2015) [educ_uoe_enrt03]	2005 EU-28 calculated with original variables FR 2006, LU 2011	2010 EU-28 calculated with original variables LU 2011	2012	2015 EU-28 calculated with original variables EL, IE, 2014

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Time	Care activities	13	People caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, elderly or people with disabilities, every day (%, 18+ population)	Percentage of people involved in at least one of these caring activities outside of paid work every day: care for children, grandchildren, elderly and disabled people. Question: (in general) how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? 2016: Q42a Caring for and/or educating your children; Q42b Caring for and/or educating your grandchildren; Q42d Caring for disables or infirm members, neighbours or friends under 75 y.o.; Q42e Caring for disables or infirm members, neighbours or friends aged 75 or over; 2012: Q36a caring for your children/grandchildren; Q36c Caring for elderly or disables relatives; 2007: Q36c Caring for elderly or disables relatives; 2003: Q37a Caring for and educating children; Q37c Caring for elderly or disables relatives	Eurofound, EQLS EIGE's calculation with microdata	2003 EU-28 calculated with original variables CZ, ES, HR, PL, 2007	2007	2012	2016
		14	People doing cooking and/ or housework, every day (%, 18+ population)	Percentage of people involved in cooking and/or housework outside of paid work, every day. Questions: How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? 2016: Q42c Cooking and/or housework; 2012 Q36b Cooking and/ or housework; 2007: Q36b Cooking and housework; 2003:Q37b Housework	Eurofound, EQLS EIGE's calculation with microdata	2003 EU-28 calculated with original variables CZ, ES, HR, PL, 2007	2007	2012	2016
	Social activities	15	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least daily or several times a week (%, 15+ workers)	Percentage of working people doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities at least every other day (daily+several times a month out of total). Question: 2015 On average, how many hours per day do you spend on the activity? Q95g Sporting, cultural or leisure activity outside your home.	Eurofound, EWCS EIGE's calculation with microdata	2015	2015	2015	2015
		16	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (%, 15+ workers)	Percentage of working people involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month. Questions: 2015 On average, how many hours per day do you spend on the activity? Q95g Voluntary or charitable activities; daily; several times a week; several times a month; Less often; Never. (1-3 out of total (who answered 1-5)). 2005 (EF4.1a), 2010 (EF3a) In general, how often are you involved in voluntary or charitable activity outside your home outside work? 1 Every day for 1hour or more; 2 Every day or every second day for less than 1 hour; 3 Once or twice a week; 4 Once or twice a month; 5 Once or twice a year; 6 Never. (1-4 out of total (who answered 1-6)).	Eurofound, EWCS EIGE's calculation with microdata	2005	2010	2010	2015

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Power	Political	17	Share of ministers (% W, M)	Share of ministers. Ratio based on three year averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). National governments (all ministers: junior ministers + senior ministers). Population statistics is based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2004-2005-2006, HR: 2007-2008-2009	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016
		18	Share of members of parliament (% W, M)	Share of members of parliament. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). National parliaments (both houses). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2004-2005-2006, HR: 2007-2008-2009	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016
		19	Share of members of regional assemblies (% W, M)	Share of members of regional assemblies. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). If regional assemblies do not exist in the country, local level politics are included. Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	Regional assembly 2009-2010-2011 Local level politics 2011	Regional assembly 2009-2010-2011 Local level politics 2011	Regional assembly 2011-2012-2013 Local level politics 2013	Regional assembly 2014-2015-2016 Local level politics 2015
	Economic	20	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (% W, M)	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2004-2005-2006, HR: 2007-2008-2009	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016
		21	Share of board members of central bank (% W, M)	Share of board members of central bank. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2004-2005-2006 HR: 2007-2008-2009	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016
	Social	22	Share of board members of research funding organisations (% W, M)	Members of the highest decision-making bodies of research funding organisations Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2016	2016	2016	2016
		23	Share of board members in publically owned broadcasting organisations (% W, M)	Share of board members in publically owned broadcasting organisations. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2014	2014	2014	2014-2015-2016
		24	Share of members of highest decision making body of the national Olympic sport organisations (% W, M)	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the 10 most popular national Olympic sport organisations. Ratio based on three years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics are based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID Data collected by EIGE	2015	2015	2015	2015

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Health	Status	25	Self-perceived health, good or very good (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people assessing their health as "Very good" or "Good" out of total. The concept is operationalized by a question on how a person perceives his/her health in general using one of the answer categories very good/good/ fair/bad/very bad.	Eurostat, EU SILC Self-perceived health by sex, age and labour status (%) [hlth_silc_01]	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010	2012 HR, 2011 (M)	2015
		26	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)	Life expectancy at a certain age is the mean additional number of years that a person of that age can expect to live, if subjected throughout the rest of his or her life to the current mortality conditions (age-specific probabilities of dying, i.e. the death rates observed for the current period).	Eurostat, Mortality data Healthy Life Years (from 2004 onwards) [hlth_hlye], indicators F_0_LE - Life expectancy in absolute value at birth - females and M_0_LE - Life expectancy in absolute value at birth.	2005 Total: average of women and men EU-28: Non-weighted average	2010 Total: average of women and men IT 2009	2012 Total: average of women and men SE 2011	2015 Total: average of women and men
		27	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth (years)	Healthy life years measures the number of remaining years that a person of specific age is expected to live without any severe or moderate health problems. HLY is a composite indicator that combines mortality data with health status data from health mini-module (EU-SILC): the self-perceived question, which aims to measure the extent of any limitations, for at least six months, because of a health problem that may have affected respondents as regards activities they usually do.	Eurostat, EU SILC and mortality data Healthy Life Years (from 2004 onwards) [hlth_hlye], indicators F_0_DFLE - Healthy life years in absolute value at birth - females and M_0_DFLE - Healthy life years in absolute value at birth - males	2005 Total: average of women and men EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010 Total: average of women and men IT 2009	2012 Total: average of women and men SE 2011	2015 Total: average of women and men
	Behaviour	28	People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people who are not involved in risk behaviour i.e. don't smoke and are not involved in heavy episodic drinking. Heavy episodic drinking is Intake of 6 drinks or 60+ grams of pure alcohol on one occasion, monthly or more often, during the past 12 months. A drink is defined as a glass of wine, glass of beer, shot of whiskey etc. Everyone either smoking and/or is involved in harmful drinking is regarded to exercise risk behaviour.	Eurostat, EHIS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average FR, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average FR, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average FR, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average FR, NL: EIGE estimation
		29	People doing physical activities and/or consuming fruits and vegetables (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people who are physically active at least 150 minutes per week and/or consume at least 5 portions of fruit and vegetables per day. Both reflect the official recommendation of the WHO. Eurostat provides info on the time spent on health-enhancing (non-work-related) aerobic physical activity (in minutes per week), including sports and cycling to get to and from places. Five portions (400g) fruit and vegetables exclude juices from concentrates and potatoes (starches).	Eurostat, EHIS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average BE, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average BE, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average BE, NL: EIGE estimation	2014 EU-28: Non-weighted average BE, NL: EIGE estimation

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	2005	2010	2012	2015
Health	Access	30	Population without unmet needs for medical examination (%, 16+ population)	Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination. The variables refer to the respondent's own assessment of whether he or she needed examination or treatment, but did not have it. Percentage of persons "No unmet needs to declare", Medical care: refers to individual health care services (medical examination or treatment excluding dental care) provided by or under direct supervision of medical doctors or equivalent professions according to national health care systems.	Eurostat, EU SILC Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination by sex, age, detailed reason and income quintile (%) [hlth_silc_08]	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010	2012	2015
		31	People without unmet needs for dental examination (%, 16+ population)	Self-reported unmet needs for dental examination. The variables refer to the respondent's own assessment of whether he or she needed the examination or treatment, but did not have it. Percentage of persons "No unmet needs to declare". Dental care: refers to individual health care services provided by or under direct supervision of stomatologists (dentists). Health care provided by orthodontists is included.	Eurostat, EU SILC Self-reported unmet needs for dental examination by sex, age, detailed reason and income quintile (%) [hlth_silc_09]	2005 EU-28: Non-weighted average BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007	2010	2012	2015
Additional variable			Population in age group 18 and older	Number of people in age 18 and older in country	Eurostat, population statistics (1) Population on 1 January by broad age group and sex [demo_pjanbroad] (2) Population on 1 January by age and sex [demo_pjan]	2004-2005-2006	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016

Annex 3: Scores of the Gender Equality Index

Table 4: Scores of the Gender Equality Index, ranks and changes in score by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	SCORES (POINTS)				RANKS				DIFFERENCES	
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005-2015	2012-2015
EU-28	**62.0**	**63.8**	**65.0**	**66.2**	**–**	**–**	**–**	**–**	**4.2**	**1.2**
BE	66.0	69.3	70.2	70.5	6	5	5	7	4.5	0.3
BG	56.0	55.0	56.9	58.0	14	17	15	16	2.0	1.1
CZ	53.6	55.6	56.7	53.6	17	14	17	23	0.0	– 3.1
DK	74.6	75.2	75.6	76.8	2	2	2	2	2.2	1.2
DE	60.0	62.6	64.9	65.5	12	11	12	12	5.5	0.6
EE	52.2	53.4	53.5	56.7	21	21	22	20	4.5	3.2
IE	61.9	65.4	67.7	69.5	10	9	8	8	7.6	1.8
EL	46.8	48.6	50.1	50.0	27	28	28	28	3.2	– 0.1
ES	62.2	66.4	67.4	68.3	9	8	9	11	6.1	0.9
FR	65.2	67.5	68.9	72.6	7	7	6	5	7.4	3.7
HR	50.3	52.3	52.6	53.1	22	25	23	24	2.8	0.5
IT	49.2	53.3	56.5	62.1	26	22	18	14	12.9	5.6
CY	45.9	49.0	50.6	55.1	28	27	27	22	9.2	4.5
LV	53.4	55.2	56.2	57.9	18	16	19	17	4.5	1.7
LT	55.8	54.9	54.2	56.8	16	18	21	19	1.0	2.6
LU	64.4	61.2	65.9	69.0	8	12	11	9	4.6	3.1
HU	49.5	52.4	51.8	50.8	25	24	25	27	1.3	– 1.0
MT	56.0	54.4	57.8	60.1	15	19	14	15	4.1	2.3
NL	67.8	74.0	74.0	72.9	5	3	4	4	5.1	– 1.1
AT	59.5	58.7	61.3	63.3	13	13	13	13	3.8	2.0
PL	52.4	55.5	56.9	56.8	20	15	16	18	4.4	– 0.1
PT	49.9	53.7	54.4	56.0	23	20	20	21	6.1	1.6
RO	49.9	50.8	51.2	52.4	24	26	26	25	2.5	1.2
SI	60.8	62.7	66.1	68.4	11	10	10	10	7.6	2.3
SK	52.5	53.0	52.4	52.4	19	23	24	26	– 0.1	0.0
FI	72.0	73.1	74.4	73.0	3	4	3	3	1.0	– 1.4
SE	78.8	80.1	79.7	82.6	1	1	1	1	3.8	2.9
UK	71.2	68.7	68.9	71.5	4	6	7	6	0.3	2.6

Table 5: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and ranks, by domain and EU Member State, 2005

Country	SCORES (POINTS)							RANKS						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	**62.0**	**70.0**	**73.9**	**60.8**	**66.7**	**38.9**	**85.9**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	66.0	71.0	81.3	68.1	74.3	39.8	86.3	6	11	8	4	6	9	14
BG	56.0	67.3	54.3	52.5	50.9	48.4	72.6	14	20	27	19	23	5	27
CZ	53.6	65.3	70.2	52.2	51.2	29.6	84.6	17	23	18	20	22	17	17
DK	74.6	78.9	82.7	73.7	82.7	54.7	91.1	2	1	4	2	3	3	4
DE	60.0	68.1	83.3	55.3	66.6	34.0	86.6	12	16	3	15	12	14	12
EE	52.2	71.0	58.4	49.5	74.6	22.5	81.0	21	12	24	22	5	23	23
IE	61.9	71.1	79.5	60.8	74.2	32.1	90.4	10	10	11	9	7	15	6
EL	46.8	62.5	71.9	47.2	46.2	18.2	84.6	27	26	16	25	28	25	18
ES	62.2	68.1	73.6	59.3	58.0	45.9	88.1	9	18	14	10	18	6	10
FR	65.2	70.5	81.6	62.3	69.1	43.6	86.9	7	14	7	7	11	7	11
HR	50.3	67.5	68.6	43.6	48.3	27.4	81.4	22	19	20	27	25	20	22
IT	49.2	60.8	76.2	54.1	60.1	16.1	85.8	26	27	13	18	16	28	15
CY	45.9	66.3	72.6	43.4	47.7	16.4	85.8	28	21	15	28	26	26	16
LV	53.4	71.7	56.3	46.6	59.1	34.8	73.8	18	8	26	26	17	13	26
LT	55.8	71.9	57.0	55.1	53.5	37.3	77.6	16	7	25	16	21	10	25
LU	64.4	68.1	93.1	62.0	73.2	36.2	89.2	8	17	1	8	9	12	8
HU	49.5	65.4	66.5	56.9	61.1	16.3	82.4	25	22	21	12	13	27	21
MT	56.0	60.8	70.3	62.4	60.8	27.8	90.7	15	28	17	6	14	19	5
NL	67.8	74.8	82.2	63.9	86.4	40.3	89.7	5	3	6	5	2	8	7
AT	59.5	73.7	82.5	58.9	60.2	29.5	91.4	13	6	5	11	15	18	3
PL	52.4	65.2	61.4	56.7	54.6	26.3	80.6	20	25	23	13	20	22	24
PT	49.9	70.6	68.8	48.6	47.3	22.2	83.8	23	13	19	23	27	24	19
RO	49.9	68.6	53.2	47.9	48.9	30.7	69.5	24	15	28	24	24	16	28
SI	60.8	71.2	77.7	52.1	73.4	36.5	86.3	11	9	12	21	8	11	13
SK	52.5	65.3	61.5	54.5	55.3	26.9	83.5	19	24	22	17	19	21	20
FI	72.0	74.2	80.1	56.6	81.6	68.4	89.2	3	4	9	14	4	2	9
SE	78.8	78.7	84.1	68.1	89.6	74.1	91.7	1	2	2	3	1	1	2
UK	71.2	74.2	79.7	75.8	69.4	51.4	93.1	4	5	10	1	10	4	1

Table 6: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and ranks, by domain and EU Member State, 2010

Country	SCORES (POINTS)							RANKS						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	**63.8**	**70.5**	**78.4**	**61.8**	**66.3**	**41.9**	**87.2**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	69.3	72.7	85.5	70.6	70.3	47.9	86.5	5	8	4	4	8	7	14
BG	55.0	67.9	60.8	50.4	43.9	45.8	75.3	17	20	25	24	25	8	27
CZ	55.6	64.9	73.8	55.4	53.8	31.0	85.7	14	25	18	17	20	16	17
DK	75.2	79.8	83.6	73.2	80.4	58.0	90.3	2	2	7	2	3	3	6
DE	62.6	70.0	83.2	56.3	69.8	38.3	89.3	11	18	9	15	10	11	10
EE	53.4	71.2	65.5	51.6	73.7	21.9	82.7	21	15	24	23	5	26	22
IE	65.4	73.5	85.5	65.3	70.8	37.2	90.7	9	7	3	8	7	12	4
EL	48.6	63.6	75.3	53.4	35.6	22.3	84.3	28	27	17	22	28	25	20
ES	66.4	71.8	77.1	63.5	60.8	52.6	88.6	8	12	16	9	14	5	11
FR	67.5	71.5	83.5	62.0	66.6	52.4	86.7	7	13	8	10	12	6	13
HR	52.3	67.2	68.6	49.9	49.8	28.4	81.5	25	21	23	26	23	21	24
IT	53.3	61.3	78.9	53.8	55.1	25.2	86.3	22	28	15	21	16	23	16
CY	49.0	70.5	80.7	55.5	45.9	15.4	86.4	27	17	11	16	24	28	15
LV	55.2	72.6	58.9	49.2	62.0	34.8	77.3	16	9	28	27	13	14	26
LT	54.9	72.6	60.8	54.3	52.2	32.9	80.4	18	10	26	20	21	15	25
LU	61.2	70.9	91.8	66.3	70.2	25.6	89.8	12	16	1	6	9	22	8
HU	52.4	66.0	70.8	54.5	54.1	23.5	85.4	24	23	20	19	19	24	18
MT	54.4	65.1	79.2	65.4	54.3	20.9	90.6	19	24	14	7	17	27	5
NL	74.0	76.3	86.6	66.9	85.9	56.9	90.3	3	3	2	5	1	4	7
AT	58.7	75.3	82.8	58.9	56.0	28.4	91.1	13	4	10	12	15	20	3
PL	55.5	66.3	69.5	57.8	54.2	30.6	81.6	15	22	22	14	18	18	23
PT	53.7	71.4	71.8	50.1	38.7	34.9	84.3	20	14	19	25	27	13	21
RO	50.8	67.9	59.8	47.2	50.6	30.8	69.9	26	19	27	28	22	17	28
SI	62.7	71.9	80.3	55.0	68.3	41.1	86.8	10	11	12	18	11	10	12
SK	53.0	64.8	70.2	59.5	39.9	29.5	84.8	23	26	21	11	26	19	19
FI	73.1	74.5	84.1	58.6	80.1	69.1	89.5	4	6	6	13	4	2	9
SE	80.1	80.4	85.3	70.7	84.5	77.8	93.2	1	1	5	3	2	1	2
UK	68.7	75.1	79.8	73.3	72.1	42.4	94.1	6	5	13	1	6	9	1

Table 7: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and ranks, by domain and EU Member State, 2012

Country	SCORES (POINTS)							RANKS						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	**65.0**	**71.0**	**78.4**	**62.8**	**68.9**	**43.5**	**87.2**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	70.2	72.8	85.6	70.6	71.8	50.5	86.4	5	9	4	4	8	8	16
BG	56.9	68.7	60.5	51.9	47.4	49.4	75.8	15	19	26	25	24	9	27
CZ	56.7	65.3	74.0	57.7	55.5	32.0	85.7	17	25	17	15	19	16	18
DK	75.6	79.7	85.7	71.3	85.4	57.5	90.2	2	2	3	2	2	3	6
DE	64.9	70.6	84.0	57.1	67.8	46.0	89.4	12	17	8	16	12	10	9
EE	53.5	71.4	64.9	53.8	70.1	22.0	82.1	22	15	24	24	11	26	23
IE	67.7	73.7	84.4	67.7	76.5	40.7	90.4	8	8	7	6	5	12	5
EL	50.1	63.6	71.1	54.3	45.2	22.3	83.9	28	27	20	23	27	25	21
ES	67.4	72.3	76.0	64.2	65.8	52.9	89.1	9	12	16	9	13	6	11
FR	68.9	71.9	83.7	62.4	70.3	55.1	86.8	6	13	9	10	10	5	14
HR	52.6	68.3	68.9	48.5	54.7	27.3	82.8	23	20	23	28	22	22	22
IT	56.5	62.4	78.7	56.7	61.4	29.4	86.5	18	28	15	17	15	19	15
CY	50.6	68.9	81.7	58.2	45.9	17.4	87.1	27	18	11	14	26	28	13
LV	56.2	74.3	59.6	48.8	60.8	37.9	77.9	19	7	27	27	16	13	26
LT	54.2	72.6	64.3	54.7	55.7	27.7	79.6	21	10	25	21	18	21	25
LU	65.9	72.5	92.1	68.7	71.5	34.9	90.0	11	11	1	5	9	14	7
HU	51.8	66.4	69.8	54.3	55.2	21.9	85.9	25	24	22	22	21	27	17
MT	57.8	68.2	80.6	66.3	58.7	25.0	91.6	14	21	13	8	17	24	3
NL	74.0	76.2	87.0	66.9	86.7	56.6	89.7	4	3	2	7	1	4	8
AT	61.3	75.6	83.6	59.9	65.3	30.8	91.5	13	4	10	11	14	17	4
PL	56.9	66.6	70.3	56.5	55.3	34.8	81.7	16	23	21	18	20	15	24
PT	54.4	71.4	71.7	54.9	46.0	29.7	84.4	20	14	19	20	25	18	20
RO	51.2	67.8	59.2	50.2	53.2	28.8	70.2	26	22	28	26	23	20	28
SI	66.1	71.3	81.3	54.9	72.4	51.5	87.3	10	16	12	19	7	7	12
SK	52.4	64.9	72.1	59.6	43.4	25.4	85.0	24	26	18	12	28	23	19
FI	74.4	74.8	84.8	59.5	81.0	73.2	89.3	3	6	6	13	4	2	10
SE	79.7	81.4	85.3	70.9	83.5	75.2	93.0	1	1	5	3	3	1	2
UK	68.9	75.4	80.5	73.5	73.2	42.0	93.7	7	5	14	1	6	11	1

Table 8: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and ranks, by domain and EU Member State, 2015

Country	SCORES (POINTS)							RANKS						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	**66.2**	**71.5**	**79.6**	**63.4**	**65.7**	**48.5**	**87.4**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	70.5	73.8	87.5	71.1	65.3	53.4	86.3	7	9	2	4	12	8	15
BG	58.0	68.6	61.9	53.3	42.7	56.0	76.4	16	21	27	23	28	7	27
CZ	53.6	66.1	75.9	57.3	57.3	22.6	86.0	23	25	16	16	18	26	17
DK	76.8	79.2	86.6	73.6	83.1	61.5	89.6	2	2	5	1	3	4	9
DE	65.5	71.4	84.2	52.9	65.0	53.0	90.5	12	17	10	25	13	9	6
EE	56.7	72.1	66.7	53.2	74.7	28.2	81.5	20	13	24	24	5	22	24
IE	69.5	73.9	84.7	66.4	74.2	48.6	90.6	8	8	9	7	6	12	5
EL	50.0	64.2	70.7	55.6	44.7	21.7	83.1	28	27	21	20	27	27	22
ES	68.3	72.4	75.9	65.3	64.0	57.0	89.6	11	12	17	9	15	6	10
FR	72.6	72.1	86.1	66.1	67.3	68.2	87.1	5	14	7	8	10	2	14
HR	53.1	69.4	69.9	49.8	51.0	28.5	83.3	24	20	23	27	22	21	21
IT	62.1	62.4	78.6	61.4	59.3	45.3	86.3	14	28	15	12	17	13	16
CY	55.1	70.7	79.2	58.5	51.3	24.7	88.2	22	19	14	15	21	24	12
LV	57.9	73.6	64.3	48.9	65.8	39.0	78.4	17	10	26	28	11	15	26
LT	56.8	73.2	65.6	55.8	50.6	36.6	79.1	19	11	25	19	23	16	25
LU	69.0	74.0	94.4	69.4	69.1	43.5	89.0	9	7	1	5	9	14	11
HU	50.8	67.2	70.7	56.9	54.3	18.7	86.0	27	22	22	17	19	28	18
MT	60.1	71.0	82.4	65.2	64.2	27.4	91.8	15	18	11	10	14	23	3
NL	72.9	76.7	86.8	67.3	83.9	52.9	89.9	4	3	4	6	2	11	7
AT	63.3	76.1	85.9	63.2	61.2	34.9	91.7	13	5	8	11	16	18	4
PL	56.8	66.8	73.3	56.0	52.5	35.1	82.2	18	24	19	18	20	17	23
PT	56.0	72.0	70.9	54.8	47.5	33.9	83.6	21	15	20	22	25	19	20
RO	52.4	67.1	59.4	51.8	50.3	33.2	70.4	25	23	28	26	24	20	28
SI	68.4	71.8	81.6	55.0	72.9	60.6	87.7	10	16	12	21	7	5	13
SK	52.4	65.5	74.0	60.0	46.3	23.1	85.3	26	26	18	14	26	25	19
FI	73.0	74.7	86.4	61.3	77.4	65.3	89.7	3	6	6	13	4	3	8
SE	82.6	82.6	87.5	72.8	90.1	79.5	94.1	1	1	3	2	1	1	1
UK	71.5	76.6	81.2	71.8	69.9	53.0	93.1	6	4	13	3	8	10	2

Table 9: Scores of the domain of work and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)											
	Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**70.0**	**70.5**	**71.0**	**71.5**	**77.5**	**78.1**	**78.7**	**79.8**	**63.3**	**63.7**	**64.0**	**64.0**
BE	71.0	72.7	72.8	73.8	72.3	75.7	75.4	77.5	69.8	69.8	70.4	70.2
BG	67.3	67.9	68.7	68.6	77.9	81.3	82.0	82.7	58.1	56.7	57.6	56.9
CZ	65.3	64.9	65.3	66.1	79.6	78.9	79.9	81.8	53.6	53.3	53.3	53.5
DK	78.9	79.8	79.7	79.2	88.5	88.5	88.3	87.2	70.3	71.9	72.1	72.0
DE	68.1	70.0	70.6	71.4	75.6	79.0	80.2	81.9	61.4	62.1	62.1	62.2
EE	71.0	71.2	71.4	72.1	87.2	87.3	87.7	88.6	57.9	58.1	58.1	58.7
IE	71.1	73.5	73.7	73.9	75.1	77.4	77.3	78.3	67.4	69.8	70.2	69.7
EL	62.5	63.6	63.6	64.2	68.0	71.1	69.4	71.0	57.5	57.0	58.4	58.0
ES	68.1	71.8	72.3	72.4	70.9	77.0	77.5	78.0	65.4	66.9	67.4	67.3
FR	70.5	71.5	71.9	72.1	79.1	81.1	81.4	82.3	62.9	63.1	63.5	63.2
HR	67.5	67.2	68.3	69.4	74.5	75.0	75.5	78.5	61.1	60.3	61.8	61.4
IT	60.8	61.3	62.4	62.4	63.8	64.9	66.7	66.7	58.0	57.8	58.5	58.4
CY	66.3	70.5	68.9	70.7	78.5	85.2	83.4	84.7	55.9	58.3	56.9	59.0
LV	71.7	72.6	74.3	73.6	83.6	86.9	86.9	87.8	61.4	60.7	63.5	61.8
LT	71.9	72.6	72.6	73.2	84.1	86.0	86.8	88.2	61.5	61.3	60.8	60.7
LU	68.1	70.9	72.5	74.0	70.2	74.8	77.7	81.3	66.1	67.3	67.7	67.4
HU	65.4	66.0	66.4	67.2	74.8	75.8	76.9	79.6	57.2	57.5	57.4	56.7
MT	60.8	65.1	68.2	71.0	51.4	58.6	63.2	68.9	71.8	72.3	73.7	73.1
NL	74.8	76.3	76.2	76.7	75.1	78.5	78.6	79.2	74.5	74.1	73.9	74.3
AT	73.7	75.3	75.6	76.1	77.0	80.3	80.9	81.4	70.6	70.6	70.6	71.2
PL	65.2	66.3	66.6	66.8	75.1	77.9	78.3	79.5	56.7	56.5	56.5	56.2
PT	70.6	71.4	71.4	72.0	84.4	85.6	84.1	85.4	59.0	59.5	60.6	60.8
RO	68.6	67.9	67.8	67.1	79.3	78.8	78.5	77.5	59.3	58.6	58.5	58.1
SI	71.2	71.9	71.3	71.8	83.5	84.4	83.7	83.5	60.7	61.3	60.7	61.7
SK	65.3	64.8	64.9	65.5	78.2	79.0	78.8	80.6	54.6	53.1	53.4	53.2
FI	74.2	74.5	74.8	74.7	88.2	88.9	89.2	89.2	62.5	62.4	62.7	62.6
SE	78.7	80.4	81.4	82.6	88.7	91.9	93.8	95.4	69.9	70.4	70.6	71.5
UK	74.2	75.1	75.4	76.6	80.4	81.1	81.6	83.6	68.4	69.5	69.6	70.2
	Ranks											
	Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	11	8	9	9	23	23	25	24	6	6	6	6
BG	20	20	19	21	15	10	10	11	20	25	23	24
CZ	23	25	25	25	10	16	15	14	28	27	28	27
DK	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	6	4	3	3	3
DE	16	18	17	17	17	15	14	13	14	13	14	13
EE	12	15	15	13	4	4	4	3	22	21	22	20
IE	10	7	8	8	18	20	22	22	8	7	7	8
EL	26	27	27	27	26	26	26	26	23	24	21	23
ES	18	12	12	12	24	21	21	23	10	10	10	10
FR	14	13	13	14	12	11	12	12	11	11	12	11
HR	19	21	20	20	22	24	24	21	16	17	15	16
IT	27	28	28	28	27	27	27	28	21	22	20	21
CY	21	17	18	19	13	8	9	8	26	20	25	19
LV	8	9	7	10	7	5	5	5	15	16	11	14
LT	7	10	10	11	6	6	6	4	13	14	16	18
LU	17	16	11	7	25	25	20	16	9	9	9	9
HU	22	23	24	22	21	22	23	18	24	23	24	25
MT	28	24	21	18	28	28	28	27	2	2	2	2
NL	3	3	3	3	19	18	17	20	1	1	1	1
AT	6	4	4	5	16	13	13	15	3	4	4	5
PL	25	22	23	24	20	19	19	19	25	26	26	26
PT	13	14	14	15	5	7	7	7	19	18	18	17
RO	15	19	22	23	11	17	18	25	18	19	19	22
SI	9	11	16	16	8	9	8	10	17	15	17	15
SK	24	26	26	26	14	14	16	17	27	28	27	28
FI	4	6	6	6	3	2	2	2	12	12	13	12
SE	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	5	5	4
UK	5	5	5	4	9	12	11	9	7	8	8	7

Table 10: Scores of the domain of money and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)											
	Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**73.9**	**78.4**	**78.4**	**79.6**	**60.9**	**69.4**	**70.0**	**73.0**	**89.7**	**88.6**	**87.9**	**86.7**
BE	81.3	85.5	85.6	87.5	73.9	77.9	78.6	82.7	89.5	94.0	93.3	92.6
BG	54.3	60.8	60.5	61.9	33.5	44.7	44.2	48.2	88.1	82.8	82.7	79.5
CZ	70.2	73.8	74.0	75.9	50.6	55.1	55.8	58.8	97.4	98.7	98.1	98.1
DK	82.7	83.6	85.7	86.6	71.2	78.3	80.4	82.4	96.1	89.3	91.4	91.1
DE	83.3	83.2	84.0	84.2	73.7	77.1	78.1	81.2	94.1	89.8	90.2	87.4
EE	58.4	65.5	64.9	66.7	41.4	49.5	50.2	56.4	82.2	86.7	84.0	79.0
IE	79.5	85.5	84.4	84.7	73.6	81.1	80.7	81.0	85.8	90.2	88.2	88.6
EL	71.9	75.3	71.1	70.7	62.2	66.7	62.7	61.4	83.2	84.9	80.7	81.4
ES	73.6	77.1	76.0	75.9	63.5	70.4	69.6	71.0	85.4	84.4	82.9	81.2
FR	81.6	83.5	83.7	86.1	71.4	75.9	77.2	80.4	93.2	91.8	90.6	92.3
HR	68.6	68.6	68.9	69.9	56.2	56.2	55.7	57.1	83.8	83.8	85.2	85.6
IT	76.2	78.9	78.7	78.6	68.0	72.5	72.8	73.0	85.4	86.0	85.1	84.6
CY	72.6	80.7	81.7	79.2	60.5	74.8	76.4	72.1	87.1	87.1	87.4	87.1
LV	56.3	58.9	59.6	64.3	40.2	43.5	43.5	51.9	78.7	79.8	81.5	79.5
LT	57.0	60.8	64.3	65.6	40.7	47.8	48.4	53.5	80.1	77.3	85.5	80.4
LU	93.1	91.8	92.1	94.4	91.2	91.2	91.6	97.0	95.1	92.5	92.7	92.0
HU	66.5	70.8	69.8	70.7	47.3	51.0	52.5	55.2	93.4	98.3	92.9	90.5
MT	70.3	79.2	80.6	82.4	53.0	68.6	69.5	73.3	93.3	91.3	93.3	92.8
NL	82.2	86.6	87.0	86.8	72.6	77.7	77.6	79.1	93.1	96.5	97.5	95.4
AT	82.5	82.8	83.6	85.9	71.9	74.7	75.8	79.8	94.6	91.8	92.2	92.5
PL	61.4	69.5	70.3	73.3	46.2	54.6	56.2	61.4	81.4	88.5	88.0	87.5
PT	68.8	71.8	71.7	70.9	58.0	60.4	60.7	60.3	81.5	85.3	84.8	83.5
RO	53.2	59.8	59.2	59.4	36.1	42.5	42.7	45.7	78.4	84.2	82.1	77.3
SI	77.7	80.3	81.3	81.6	62.9	67.3	68.3	69.8	95.9	95.8	96.7	95.5
SK	61.5	70.2	72.1	74.0	40.1	51.9	53.9	56.4	94.5	95.1	96.4	97.2
FI	80.1	84.1	84.8	86.4	67.9	74.6	76.2	78.5	94.6	94.9	94.4	95.2
SE	84.1	85.3	85.3	87.5	72.2	75.9	77.4	82.3	98.0	95.8	93.9	93.1
UK	79.7	79.8	80.5	81.2	77.1	74.4	75.1	77.0	82.5	85.7	86.3	85.6
	Ranks											
	Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	8	4	4	2	3	4	4	2	14	8	8	8
BG	27	25	26	27	28	26	26	27	15	26	25	25
CZ	18	18	17	16	20	20	20	20	2	1	1	1
DK	4	7	3	5	10	3	3	3	3	15	12	12
DE	3	9	8	10	4	6	5	5	9	14	14	16
EE	24	24	24	24	23	24	24	23	23	18	23	27
IE	11	3	7	9	5	2	2	6	17	13	15	14
EL	16	17	20	21	15	17	17	17	21	22	28	22
ES	14	16	16	17	13	14	14	15	19	23	24	23
FR	7	8	9	7	9	7	8	7	12	10	13	10
HR	20	23	23	23	18	19	21	21	20	25	20	19
IT	13	15	15	15	11	13	13	13	18	19	21	20
CY	15	11	11	14	16	9	9	14	16	17	17	17
LV	26	28	27	26	25	27	27	26	27	27	27	26
LT	25	26	25	25	24	25	25	25	26	28	19	24
LU	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	9	10	11
HU	21	20	22	22	21	23	23	24	10	2	9	13
MT	17	14	13	11	19	15	15	12	11	12	7	7
NL	6	2	2	4	6	5	6	9	13	3	2	4
AT	5	10	10	8	8	10	11	8	7	11	11	9
PL	23	22	21	19	22	21	19	18	25	16	16	15
PT	19	19	19	20	17	18	18	19	24	21	22	21
RO	28	27	28	28	27	28	28	28	28	24	26	28
SI	12	12	12	12	14	16	16	16	4	5	3	3
SK	22	21	18	18	26	22	22	22	8	6	4	2
FI	9	6	6	6	12	11	10	10	6	7	5	5
SE	2	5	5	3	7	8	7	4	1	4	6	6
UK	10	13	14	13	2	12	12	11	22	20	18	18

Table 11: Scores of the domain of knowledge and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)											
	Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**60.8**	**61.8**	**62.8**	**63.4**	**67.0**	**68.5**	**70.4**	**72.1**	**55.2**	**55.8**	**56.1**	**55.6**
BE	68.1	70.6	70.6	71.1	70.7	73.3	72.5	73.3	65.7	68.1	68.8	68.9
BG	52.5	50.4	51.9	53.3	53.0	53.9	54.6	56.1	51.9	47.1	49.3	50.7
CZ	52.2	55.4	57.7	57.3	52.0	61.4	66.3	66.9	52.4	50.0	50.2	49.2
DK	73.7	73.2	71.3	73.6	81.1	81.7	80.5	82.1	67.0	65.6	63.1	66.0
DE	55.3	56.3	57.1	52.9	56.7	59.9	62.7	61.0	53.9	53.0	51.9	45.9
EE	49.5	51.6	53.8	53.2	66.7	67.4	70.5	67.9	36.8	39.5	41.1	41.7
IE	60.8	65.3	67.7	66.4	67.1	72.7	74.0	74.1	55.1	58.6	62.0	59.6
EL	47.2	53.4	54.3	55.6	54.3	59.8	60.7	63.9	41.0	47.7	48.5	48.4
ES	59.3	63.5	64.2	65.3	68.8	71.8	73.0	73.3	51.1	56.2	56.6	58.1
FR	62.3	62.0	62.4	66.1	67.1	67.9	69.7	77.5	57.9	56.6	55.8	56.4
HR	43.6	49.9	48.5	49.8	52.5	57.5	58.7	59.3	36.3	43.3	40.0	41.8
IT	54.1	53.8	56.7	61.4	51.8	53.7	54.4	56.1	56.6	53.9	59.2	67.1
CY	43.4	55.5	58.2	58.5	65.5	73.6	73.2	73.3	28.7	41.9	46.2	46.6
LV	46.6	49.2	48.8	48.9	60.2	60.5	62.2	59.1	36.1	40.0	38.3	40.5
LT	55.1	54.3	54.7	55.8	66.8	65.0	66.2	68.4	45.5	45.4	45.3	45.4
LU	62.0	66.3	68.7	69.4	65.6	74.8	78.6	84.1	58.7	58.7	60.1	57.2
HU	56.9	54.5	54.3	56.9	59.0	59.2	59.6	64.6	55.0	50.1	49.5	50.0
MT	62.4	65.4	66.3	65.2	50.6	59.2	60.2	61.3	77.0	72.3	73.0	69.5
NL	63.9	66.9	66.9	67.3	73.4	77.1	78.0	80.9	55.7	58.1	57.5	56.0
AT	58.9	58.9	59.9	63.2	58.9	61.2	61.8	72.0	58.9	56.6	58.1	55.5
PL	56.7	57.8	56.5	56.0	63.0	62.3	61.5	61.3	50.9	53.6	51.9	51.1
PT	48.6	50.1	54.9	54.8	48.5	50.8	59.1	59.5	48.7	49.5	51.0	50.6
RO	47.9	47.2	50.2	51.8	49.2	50.1	52.7	52.9	46.6	44.4	47.9	50.7
SI	52.1	55.0	54.9	55.0	67.9	68.4	67.1	67.4	39.9	44.2	45.0	44.9
SK	54.5	59.5	59.6	60.0	55.7	59.1	58.8	58.8	53.3	59.9	60.3	61.2
FI	56.6	58.6	59.5	61.3	77.8	78.3	79.5	81.4	41.2	43.9	44.6	46.1
SE	68.1	70.7	70.9	72.8	70.6	74.4	75.6	78.5	65.8	67.1	66.6	67.5
UK	75.8	73.3	73.5	71.8	85.7	80.6	81.7	82.2	67.0	66.7	66.0	62.7

Country	Ranks											
	Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	4	4	4	4	5	8	10	11	5	2	2	2
BG	19	24	25	23	22	25	26	27	16	20	19	15
CZ	20	17	15	16	24	16	14	16	15	17	17	19
DK	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	3	5	5	5
DE	15	15	16	25	19	19	16	21	13	15	15	23
EE	22	23	24	24	12	13	11	14	25	28	26	27
IE	9	8	6	7	9	9	7	8	11	8	6	8
EL	25	22	23	20	21	20	20	18	23	19	20	20
ES	10	9	9	9	7	10	9	10	17	12	12	9
FR	7	10	10	8	10	12	12	7	8	10	13	11
HR	27	26	28	27	23	24	25	23	26	25	27	26
IT	18	21	17	12	25	26	27	26	9	13	9	4
CY	28	16	14	15	14	7	8	9	28	26	22	21
LV	26	27	27	28	16	18	17	24	27	27	28	28
LT	16	20	21	19	11	14	15	13	21	21	23	24
LU	8	6	5	5	13	5	4	1	7	7	8	10
HU	12	19	22	17	17	21	22	17	12	16	18	18
MT	6	7	8	10	26	22	21	20	1	1	1	1
NL	5	5	7	6	4	4	5	5	10	9	11	12
AT	11	12	11	11	18	17	18	12	6	11	10	13
PL	13	14	18	18	15	15	19	19	18	14	14	14
PT	23	25	20	22	28	27	23	22	19	18	16	17
RO	24	28	26	26	27	28	28	28	20	22	21	16
SI	21	18	19	21	8	11	13	15	24	23	24	25
SK	17	11	12	14	20	23	24	25	14	6	7	7
FI	14	13	13	13	3	3	3	4	22	24	25	22
SE	3	3	3	2	6	6	6	6	4	3	3	3
UK	1	1	1	3	1	2	1	2	2	4	4	6

Table 12: Scores of the domain of time and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)											
	Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**66.7**	**66.3**	**68.9**	**65.7**	**69.9**	**67.3**	**72.6**	**70.0**	**63.6**	**65.4**	**65.4**	**61.6**
BE	74.3	70.3	71.8	65.3	76.9	72.6	75.7	68.9	71.8	68.1	68.1	61.9
BG	50.9	43.9	47.4	42.7	64.7	48.6	56.6	55.7	40.1	39.7	39.7	32.6
CZ	51.2	53.8	55.5	57.3	55.8	55.8	59.4	56.8	47.1	51.9	51.9	57.7
DK	82.7	80.4	85.4	83.1	89.4	75.8	85.5	86.1	76.5	85.3	85.3	80.2
DE	66.6	69.8	67.8	65.0	69.5	70.1	66.1	71.3	63.8	69.6	69.6	59.3
EE	74.6	73.7	70.1	74.7	83.2	80.7	73.0	85.9	66.9	67.2	67.2	65.0
IE	74.2	70.8	76.5	74.2	69.9	69.9	81.6	76.2	78.6	71.8	71.8	72.1
EL	46.2	35.6	45.2	44.7	50.3	34.2	55.1	50.9	42.5	37.1	37.1	39.3
ES	58.0	60.8	65.8	64.0	60.9	60.9	71.4	74.5	55.2	60.6	60.6	55.0
FR	69.1	66.6	70.3	67.3	70.9	70.3	78.5	70.4	67.4	63.0	63.0	64.4
HR	48.3	49.8	54.7	51.0	53.0	53.0	63.9	54.4	44.0	46.7	46.7	47.9
IT	60.1	55.1	61.4	59.3	65.7	54.5	67.6	61.2	55.0	55.7	55.7	57.4
CY	47.7	45.9	45.9	51.3	55.0	52.6	52.7	65.7	41.3	40.0	40.0	40.0
LV	59.1	62.0	60.8	65.8	77.5	78.2	75.1	89.8	45.1	49.2	49.2	48.2
LT	53.5	52.2	55.7	50.6	78.4	65.4	74.5	64.0	36.4	41.7	41.7	40.0
LU	73.2	70.2	71.5	69.1	75.2	72.1	74.8	79.4	71.1	68.3	68.3	60.2
HU	61.1	54.1	55.2	54.3	75.6	68.7	71.6	65.0	49.3	42.6	42.6	45.4
MT	60.8	54.3	58.7	64.2	56.5	49.7	57.9	69.0	65.4	59.4	59.4	59.8
NL	86.4	85.9	86.7	83.9	78.4	76.5	78.0	79.3	95.2	96.4	96.4	88.7
AT	60.2	56.0	65.3	61.2	59.5	44.9	61.0	62.7	60.9	69.8	69.8	59.7
PL	54.6	54.2	55.3	52.5	63.0	63.0	65.6	64.1	47.2	46.5	46.5	43.0
PT	47.3	38.7	46.0	47.5	67.4	49.3	69.5	63.3	33.2	30.4	30.4	35.7
RO	48.9	50.6	53.2	50.3	84.8	70.9	78.1	70.7	28.2	36.2	36.2	35.8
SI	73.4	68.3	72.4	72.9	67.7	64.5	72.3	69.5	79.5	72.4	72.4	76.4
SK	55.3	39.9	43.4	46.3	79.1	52.7	62.5	56.5	38.7	30.2	30.2	37.9
FI	81.6	80.1	81.0	77.4	89.3	84.2	86.0	82.2	74.7	76.3	76.3	72.9
SE	89.6	84.5	83.5	90.1	88.1	84.6	82.6	90.9	91.1	84.3	84.3	89.3
UK	69.4	72.1	73.2	69.9	72.7	78.4	80.8	75.1	66.3	66.3	66.3	65.1

Country	Ranks											
	Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	6	8	8	12	10	8	9	16	7	10	10	10
BG	23	25	24	28	20	26	26	26	24	24	24	28
CZ	22	20	19	18	25	19	24	24	19	17	17	15
DK	3	3	2	3	1	7	2	3	5	2	2	3
DE	12	10	12	13	16	12	19	11	13	8	8	14
EE	5	5	11	5	5	3	13	4	10	11	11	8
IE	7	7	5	6	15	13	4	8	4	6	6	6
EL	28	28	27	27	28	28	27	28	22	25	25	24
ES	18	14	13	15	22	18	16	10	15	14	14	17
FR	11	12	10	10	14	11	6	13	9	13	13	9
HR	25	23	22	22	27	21	21	27	21	19	19	19
IT	16	16	15	17	19	20	18	23	16	16	16	16
CY	26	24	26	21	26	23	28	17	23	23	23	22
LV	17	13	16	11	9	5	10	2	20	18	18	18
LT	21	21	18	23	7	15	12	20	26	22	22	23
LU	9	9	9	9	12	9	11	6	8	9	9	11
HU	13	19	21	19	11	14	15	18	17	21	21	20
MT	14	17	17	14	24	24	25	15	12	15	15	12
NL	2	1	1	2	8	6	8	7	1	1	1	2
AT	15	15	14	16	23	27	23	22	14	7	7	13
PL	20	18	20	20	21	17	20	19	18	20	20	21
PT	27	27	25	25	18	25	17	21	27	27	27	27
RO	24	22	23	24	4	10	7	12	28	26	26	26
SI	8	11	7	7	17	16	14	14	3	5	5	4
SK	19	26	28	26	6	22	22	25	25	28	28	25
FI	4	4	4	4	2	2	1	5	6	4	4	5
SE	1	2	3	1	3	1	3	1	2	3	3	1
UK	10	6	6	8	13	4	5	9	11	12	12	7

Table 13: Scores of the domain of power and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)															
	Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**38.9**	**41.9**	**43.5**	**48.5**	**43.8**	**47.2**	**48.3**	**52.7**	**25.0**	**28.9**	**31.8**	**39.5**	**53.6**	**53.7**	**53.7**	**55.0**
BE	39.8	47.9	50.5	53.4	65.7	65.8	70.0	70.2	18.9	32.8	36.0	38.0	50.7	50.9	51.0	57.1
BG	48.4	45.8	49.4	56.0	49.1	50.3	53.4	49.2	33.2	27.6	32.7	53.2	69.2	69.3	69.3	67.0
CZ	29.6	31.0	32.0	22.6	28.6	30.7	31.7	36.6	25.8	27.4	29.0	9.2	35.1	35.6	35.6	34.2
DK	54.7	58.0	57.5	61.5	65.8	75.1	76.1	71.2	45.7	47.5	45.6	55.7	54.6	54.8	54.8	58.7
DE	34.0	38.3	46.0	53.0	67.4	60.2	59.9	71.5	11.9	19.0	33.0	42.1	49.1	49.2	49.1	49.5
EE	22.5	21.9	22.0	28.2	36.0	34.9	33.7	44.9	22.9	21.6	22.7	23.2	13.8	13.9	13.9	21.4
IE	32.1	37.2	40.7	48.6	29.9	32.9	37.0	39.8	15.3	21.7	25.4	39.9	72.3	72.1	71.7	72.4
EL	18.2	22.3	22.3	21.7	24.3	34.3	30.7	34.7	10.4	13.6	15.3	12.1	24.1	23.8	23.6	24.2
ES	45.9	52.6	52.9	57.0	79.4	73.7	69.7	72.3	20.6	33.3	35.8	43.5	59.2	59.4	59.2	58.9
FR	43.6	52.4	55.1	68.2	52.4	64.1	70.8	77.1	29.0	41.2	43.2	70.2	54.6	54.6	54.6	58.4
HR	27.4	28.4	27.3	28.5	45.3	40.2	40.0	38.7	20.0	24.8	22.2	19.0	22.8	22.9	22.9	31.6
IT	16.1	25.2	29.4	45.3	23.5	31.7	35.8	47.4	3.7	10.6	14.8	44.7	47.8	47.8	47.8	43.7
CY	16.4	15.4	17.4	24.7	23.6	30.1	30.2	25.8	7.2	4.7	6.8	22.6	26.0	25.9	25.7	25.8
LV	34.8	34.8	37.9	39.0	36.8	38.1	43.7	40.5	38.8	37.5	42.1	44.2	29.5	29.5	29.5	33.2
LT	37.3	32.9	27.7	36.6	35.1	34.0	34.8	40.0	33.0	23.7	13.9	30.1	44.7	44.3	44.2	40.9
LU	36.2	25.6	34.9	43.5	42.7	45.3	47.6	51.1	15.4	5.2	12.5	23.5	71.8	71.5	71.2	68.2
HU	16.3	23.5	21.9	18.7	20.3	16.1	15.9	14.3	10.0	37.8	31.0	22.1	21.4	21.4	21.5	20.9
MT	27.8	20.9	25.0	27.4	31.5	30.0	29.1	30.5	27.9	12.4	21.9	24.4	24.3	24.5	24.6	27.5
NL	40.3	56.9	56.6	52.9	69.4	69.5	66.0	70.6	14.4	40.4	41.8	33.1	65.7	65.8	65.8	63.4
AT	29.5	28.4	30.8	34.9	59.4	60.3	60.3	59.1	10.7	9.3	11.8	17.4	40.5	40.7	40.8	41.1
PL	26.3	30.6	34.8	35.1	32.1	36.6	43.5	46.1	19.9	27.5	33.8	38.2	28.5	28.6	28.6	24.4
PT	22.2	34.9	29.7	33.9	36.1	41.9	42.4	48.7	6.1	20.4	12.6	16.4	49.9	49.6	49.3	48.9
RO	30.7	30.8	28.8	33.2	25.3	23.5	26.5	32.9	25.8	28.0	20.4	21.4	44.4	44.4	44.4	51.8
SI	36.5	41.1	51.5	60.6	28.2	44.5	46.3	65.4	33.7	29.9	56.4	61.5	51.4	52.3	52.3	55.3
SK	26.9	29.5	25.4	23.1	28.2	31.0	28.4	29.0	28.6	34.1	23.7	14.6	24.2	24.3	24.4	29.1
FI	68.4	69.1	73.2	65.3	81.2	86.1	86.3	84.8	54.1	52.5	62.0	47.6	72.8	73.1	73.2	68.9
SE	74.1	77.8	75.2	79.5	89.9	92.1	93.0	93.9	52.1	58.7	52.6	60.8	86.9	87.1	87.1	87.8
UK	51.4	42.4	42.0	53.0	48.5	47.5	45.7	53.0	40.0	22.9	23.0	40.8	70.1	70.2	70.2	68.8

Country	Ranks															
	Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	9	7	8	8	7	6	5	8	18	10	8	14	12	12	12	11
BG	5	8	9	7	10	10	10	13	7	13	12	5	6	6	6	6
CZ	17	16	16	26	21	24	22	22	13	15	14	28	19	19	19	19
DK	3	3	3	4	6	3	3	6	3	3	4	4	9	9	9	9
DE	14	11	10	9	5	9	9	5	22	22	11	10	14	14	14	14
EE	23	26	26	22	16	18	21	17	14	20	18	19	28	28	28	27
IE	15	12	12	12	20	21	18	20	20	19	15	12	3	3	3	2
EL	25	25	25	27	25	19	23	23	24	23	22	27	25	25	25	26
ES	6	5	6	6	3	4	6	4	15	9	9	9	8	8	8	8
FR	7	6	5	2	9	7	4	3	9	4	5	1	10	10	10	10
HR	20	21	22	21	12	15	17	21	16	16	19	23	26	26	26	21
IT	28	23	19	13	27	22	19	15	28	25	23	7	15	15	15	16
CY	26	28	28	24	26	25	24	27	26	28	28	20	22	22	22	24
LV	13	14	13	15	14	16	14	18	5	7	6	8	20	20	20	20
LT	10	15	21	16	17	20	20	19	8	17	24	16	16	17	17	18
LU	12	22	14	14	13	12	11	12	19	27	26	18	4	4	4	5
HU	27	24	27	28	28	28	28	28	25	6	13	21	27	27	27	28
MT	19	27	24	23	19	26	25	25	11	24	20	17	23	23	23	23
NL	8	4	4	11	4	5	7	7	21	5	7	15	7	7	7	7
AT	18	20	17	18	8	8	8	10	23	26	27	24	18	18	18	17
PL	22	18	15	17	18	17	15	16	17	14	10	13	21	21	21	25
PT	24	13	18	19	15	14	16	14	27	21	25	25	13	13	13	15
RO	16	17	20	20	24	27	27	24	12	12	21	22	17	16	16	13
SI	11	10	7	5	22	13	12	9	6	11	2	2	11	11	11	12
SK	21	19	23	25	23	23	26	26	10	8	16	26	24	24	24	22
FI	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	6	2	2	2	3
SE	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	3	1	1	1	1
UK	4	9	11	10	11	11	13	11	4	18	17	11	5	5	5	4

Table 14: Scores of the domain of health and sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015

Country	Scores (points)															
	Domain of health				Status				Behaviour				Access			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	**85.9**	**87.2**	**87.2**	**87.4**	**88.5**	**91.1**	**91.1**	**91.2**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**95.1**	**96.6**	**96.5**	**97.1**
BE	86.3	86.5	86.4	86.3	92.1	92.6	93.4	93.3	70.3	70.3	70.3	70.3	99.2	99.3	98.1	98.0
BG	72.6	75.3	75.8	76.4	86.6	88.1	88.4	88.1	52.3	52.3	52.3	52.3	84.4	92.6	94.1	96.9
CZ	84.6	85.7	85.7	86.0	86.7	89.1	89.0	89.6	72.3	72.3	72.3	72.3	96.7	97.9	98.0	98.2
DK	91.1	90.3	90.2	89.6	94.3	92.2	92.6	91.6	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	98.2	97.8	96.9	96.2
DE	86.6	89.3	89.4	90.5	87.5	90.4	90.2	91.8	80.9	80.9	80.9	80.9	91.9	97.5	97.9	99.7
EE	81.0	82.7	82.1	81.5	80.7	83.4	83.2	84.1	70.1	70.1	70.1	70.1	93.7	96.8	94.7	91.9
IE	90.4	90.7	90.4	90.6	95.3	96.5	96.5	96.8	79.0	79.0	79.0	79.0	98.1	98.0	97.0	97.3
EL	84.6	84.3	83.9	83.1	94.0	94.1	93.5	93.4	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.6	96.6	95.7	94.8	92.3
ES	88.1	88.6	89.1	89.6	90.8	92.4	93.6	93.2	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	95.8	95.7	96.2	98.3
FR	86.9	86.7	86.8	87.1	90.9	91.0	91.6	91.6	74.0	74.0	74.0	74.0	97.5	96.8	96.6	97.6
HR	81.4	81.5	82.8	83.3	84.7	85.1	85.7	86.4	68.3	68.3	68.3	68.3	93.1	93.1	97.0	97.8
IT	85.8	86.3	86.5	86.3	89.4	91.1	91.3	91.3	74.2	74.2	74.2	74.2	95.3	94.9	95.5	94.8
CY	85.8	86.4	87.1	88.2	91.3	93.7	94.4	95.5	73.0	73.0	73.0	73.0	94.8	94.4	96.0	98.4
LV	73.8	77.3	77.9	78.4	74.6	80.0	80.5	79.8	65.5	65.5	65.5	65.5	82.3	88.3	89.7	92.3
LT	77.6	80.4	79.6	79.1	76.9	81.9	79.7	78.5	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	93.8	98.1	97.7	97.5
LU	89.2	89.8	90.0	89.0	92.9	93.8	94.4	92.0	78.5	78.5	78.5	78.5	97.5	98.3	98.4	97.7
HU	82.4	85.4	85.9	86.0	80.1	84.2	85.9	85.8	76.8	76.8	76.8	76.8	91.0	96.3	96.0	96.5
MT	90.7	90.6	91.6	91.8	93.6	93.8	95.3	95.6	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	97.6	97.0	98.6	99.0
NL	89.7	90.3	89.7	89.9	93.1	93.6	91.8	91.7	79.3	79.3	79.3	79.3	97.7	99.2	99.3	99.9
AT	91.4	91.1	91.5	91.7	91.1	91.0	91.7	91.3	84.6	84.6	84.6	84.6	99.1	98.1	98.8	99.8
PL	80.6	81.6	81.7	82.2	84.9	85.8	85.9	86.6	67.9	67.9	67.9	67.9	90.9	93.4	93.6	94.5
PT	83.8	84.3	84.4	83.6	82.3	83.3	84.6	82.6	75.5	75.5	75.5	75.5	94.9	95.2	94.2	93.9
RO	69.5	69.9	70.2	70.4	88.0	87.9	88.5	88.6	42.5	42.5	42.5	42.5	89.7	91.6	92.1	92.9
SI	86.3	86.8	87.3	87.7	85.0	86.3	87.9	89.1	75.9	75.9	75.9	75.9	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.8
SK	83.5	84.8	85.0	85.3	83.2	85.4	86.1	87.4	73.1	73.1	73.1	73.1	95.9	97.6	97.5	97.3
FI	89.2	89.5	89.3	89.7	89.2	90.5	90.2	91.1	81.9	81.9	81.9	81.9	97.0	96.6	96.4	96.8
SE	91.7	93.2	93.0	94.1	93.4	95.7	95.7	97.4	89.3	89.3	89.3	89.3	92.3	94.5	94.2	95.8
UK	93.1	94.1	93.7	93.1	93.9	95.6	94.3	93.7	88.5	88.5	88.5	88.5	97.0	98.4	98.4	97.5

Country	Ranks															
	Domain of health				Status				Behaviour				Access			
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015	2005	2010	2012	2015
EU-28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	14	14	16	15	9	9	9	7	20	20	20	20	2	2	7	9
BG	27	27	27	27	19	18	19	20	27	27	27	27	27	26	25	17
CZ	17	17	18	17	18	17	17	17	19	19	19	19	12	9	8	8
DK	4	6	6	9	2	11	10	12	6	6	6	6	4	10	14	20
DE	12	10	9	6	17	16	15	10	7	7	7	7	23	12	9	4
EE	23	22	23	24	25	25	26	25	21	21	21	21	20	15	22	28
IE	6	4	5	5	1	1	1	2	9	9	9	9	5	8	13	15
EL	18	20	21	22	3	4	8	6	24	24	24	24	13	18	21	27
ES	10	11	11	10	13	10	7	8	10	10	10	10	15	19	17	7
FR	11	13	14	14	12	13	13	13	16	16	16	16	9	14	15	12
HR	22	24	22	21	22	23	24	23	22	22	22	22	21	25	12	10
IT	15	16	15	16	14	12	14	14	15	15	15	15	16	21	20	22
CY	16	15	13	12	10	7	5	4	18	18	18	18	18	23	18	6
LV	26	26	26	26	28	28	27	27	25	25	25	25	28	28	28	26
LT	25	25	25	25	27	27	28	28	26	26	26	26	19	6	10	13
LU	8	8	7	11	8	5	4	9	11	11	11	11	8	5	5	11
HU	21	18	17	18	26	24	23	24	12	12	12	12	24	17	19	19
MT	5	5	3	3	5	6	3	3	5	5	5	5	7	13	4	5
NL	7	7	8	7	7	8	11	11	8	8	8	8	6	3	2	1
AT	3	3	4	4	11	14	12	15	3	3	3	3	3	7	3	2
PL	24	23	24	23	21	21	22	22	23	23	23	23	25	24	26	23
PT	19	21	20	20	24	26	25	26	14	14	14	14	17	20	24	24
RO	28	28	28	28	16	19	18	19	28	28	28	28	26	27	27	25
SI	13	12	12	13	20	20	20	18	13	13	13	13	1	1	1	3
SK	20	19	19	19	23	22	21	21	17	17	17	17	14	11	11	16
FI	9	9	10	8	15	15	16	16	4	4	4	4	11	16	16	18
SE	2	2	2	1	6	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	22	22	23	21
UK	1	1	1	2	4	3	6	5	2	2	2	2	10	4	6	14

Table 15: Indicators included in the domain of work, by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Participation								Segregation and quality of work											
	Full-time equivalent employment rate (15+population)				Duration of working life				Employed people in education, human health and social work activities (15+ employed)				Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (%,15+ workers)				Career Prospects Index (points, 0-100)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-28	**39.6**	**55.8**	**47.2**	**– 16.2**	**32.8**	**37.9**	**35.4**	**– 5.1**	**30.4**	**8.3**	**18.5**	**22.1**	**22.8**	**27.3**	**25.1**	**– 4.5**	**63.7**	**62.6**	**63.2**	**1.1**
BE	37.4	51.6	43.9	– 14.2	30.4	34.6	32.6	– 4.2	38.9	11.0	24.0	27.9	29.5	33.2	31.5	– 3.7	66.5	66.2	66.4	0.3
BG	43.9	53.7	48.6	– 9.8	30.7	33.4	32.1	– 2.7	19.8	4.1	11.5	15.7	20.3	31.3	25.8	– 11.0	62.3	65.6	63.9	– 3.3
CZ	46.0	64.5	55.0	– 18.5	31.9	38.2	35.1	– 6.3	24.1	5.1	13.4	19.0	11.0	10.6	10.8	0.4	65.4	60.9	63.1	4.5
DK	45.2	57.1	50.9	– 11.9	37.5	40.9	39.2	– 3.4	42.1	13.4	26.9	28.7	31.8	50.1	41.4	– 18.3	72.9	70.4	71.7	2.4
DE	40.2	58.9	49.1	– 18.7	35.8	40.1	38.0	– 4.3	30.9	9.1	19.3	21.8	15.8	18.2	17.0	– 2.4	67.9	65.5	66.7	2.4
EE	49.5	63.8	56.0	– 14.3	36.4	37.6	37.0	– 1.2	26.0	5.6	15.6	20.4	15.4	15.8	15.6	– 0.4	64.8	65.8	65.3	– 1.0
IE	40.9	57.0	48.4	– 16.1	30.9	38.9	35.0	– 8.0	34.9	8.3	20.5	26.6	37.1	43.4	40.4	– 6.3	64.1	64.6	64.3	– 0.5
EL	29.8	45.5	37.3	– 15.7	28.9	35.6	32.3	– 6.7	22.3	8.1	14.1	14.2	14.4	16.1	15.4	– 1.7	52.2	51.0	51.6	1.2
ES	35.7	49.7	42.4	– 14.0	32.5	37.2	34.9	– 4.7	23.4	7.4	14.7	16.0	32.9	35.3	34.2	– 2.4	57.3	56.1	56.8	1.2
FR	41.4	52.6	46.5	– 11.2	33.0	36.6	34.9	– 3.6	35.2	10.1	22.2	25.1	17.9	22.1	20.0	– 4.2	66.7	63.8	65.3	2.9
HR	37.5	48.9	42.9	– 11.4	30.7	34.5	32.6	– 3.8	24.1	5.4	14.0	18.7	25.1	29.4	27.3	– 4.3	61.0	59.8	60.4	1.2
IT	30.0	50.3	39.5	– 20.3	25.7	35.4	30.7	– 9.7	25.4	7.0	14.7	18.4	19.3	22.0	20.8	– 2.7	55.7	51.9	54.0	3.8
CY	45.1	53.9	49.3	– 8.8	33.7	39.0	36.4	– 5.3	19.6	6.9	13.1	12.7	17.5	18.5	18.0	– 1.0	50.8	53.0	51.9	– 2.2
LV	48.1	59.6	53.2	– 11.5	35.0	35.4	35.2	– 0.4	25.8	5.1	15.5	20.7	24.9	26.0	25.4	– 1.1	60.7	62.7	61.8	– 2.0
LT	48.6	57.7	52.6	– 9.1	35.1	34.5	34.8	0.6	26.5	6.4	16.6	20.1	19.0	21.0	19.9	– 2.0	63.2	61.9	62.5	1.3
LU	44.4	60.2	52.0	– 15.8	31.0	35.8	33.5	– 4.8	27.9	9.8	18.1	18.1	22.7	30.0	26.5	– 7.3	72.5	70.1	71.3	2.4
HU	42.6	58.0	49.8	– 15.4	30.0	34.9	32.6	– 4.9	24.1	5.6	14.1	18.5	16.5	13.4	15.0	3.1	63.5	64.4	64.0	– 0.9
MT	35.4	61.8	48.4	– 26.4	26.7	39.9	33.4	– 13.2	32.1	10.3	18.8	21.8	36.5	37.8	37.3	– 1.3	67.0	69.0	67.8	– 2.0
NL	35.4	57.1	45.4	– 21.7	37.2	42.5	39.9	– 5.3	36.7	9.8	22.2	26.9	48.5	56.3	52.6	– 7.8	62.4	61.0	61.7	1.4
AT	41.0	59.4	49.5	– 18.4	34.5	38.8	36.7	– 4.3	26.8	8.2	17.0	18.6	35.5	36.4	35.9	– 0.9	65.4	64.3	64.9	1.1
PL	43.2	59.8	51.1	– 16.6	29.9	35.2	32.6	– 5.3	24.2	4.9	13.6	19.3	16.1	18.8	17.4	– 2.7	59.2	60.1	59.7	– 0.9
PT	43.6	53.4	48.2	– 9.8	35.3	38.3	36.8	– 3.0	28.3	6.7	17.2	21.6	23.4	28.3	25.7	– 4.9	57.0	55.6	56.3	1.4
RO	40.8	57.9	49.1	– 17.1	29.4	36.0	32.8	– 6.6	15.6	3.5	8.7	12.1	18.2	20.2	19.2	– 2.0	67.1	66.0	66.6	1.1
SI	43.9	56.4	50.0	– 12.5	32.8	35.7	34.3	– 2.9	26.4	6.1	15.3	20.3	25.1	31.8	28.5	– 6.7	61.5	60.4	61.0	1.1
SK	43.5	59.6	51.3	– 16.1	30.9	35.9	33.5	– 5.0	27.4	4.6	14.7	22.8	11.0	15.1	13.0	– 4.1	66.8	65.7	66.2	1.1
FI	46.3	53.6	49.7	– 7.3	37.2	38.1	37.6	– 0.9	40.1	8.6	23.9	31.5	26.7	50.7	38.5	– 24.0	66.7	65.4	66.1	1.3
SE	57.0	65.4	60.9	– 8.4	40.1	42.2	41.2	– 2.1	42.8	11.8	26.6	31.0	34.9	47.1	41.3	– 12.2	68.1	66.7	67.4	1.4
UK	43.4	60.5	51.4	– 17.1	35.9	41.2	38.6	– 5.3	38.1	11.3	23.8	26.8	29.7	36.5	33.4	– 6.8	67.1	69.2	68.1	– 2.1
	Source: Eurostat, EU LFS, 2015. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU LFS, (lfsi_dwl_a), 2015.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU LFS, (lfsa_egan2, 2015).				*Source*: Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source*: Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. Calculated by Eurofound.			

Table 16: Indicators included in the domain of money, by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Financial resources								Economic situation							
	Mean monthly earnings (PPS, working population)				Mean equivalised net income (PPS,16+ population)				Not at risk of poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income (% 16+ population)				Income distribution S20/S80 (%, 16+ population)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-28	**2,266**	**2,831**	**2,560**	**– 565**	**16,469**	**17,196**	**16,820**	**– 727**	**82.9**	**83.9**	**83.4**	**– 1.0**	**19.8**	**18.8**	**19.3**	**1.0**
BE	2,771	3,108	2,959	– 337	21,238	22,713	21,959	– 1,475	84.7	86.7	85.7	– 2.0	27.0	25.0	26.0	2.0
BG	830	970	900	– 140	8,188	8,829	8,497	– 641	76.5	80.8	78.6	– 4.3	14.9	14.4	14.6	0.5
CZ	1,244	1,624	1,452	– 380	12,792	13,570	13,167	– 778	89.9	92.6	91.2	– 2.7	29.1	29.9	29.3	– 0.8
DK	2,719	3,347	3,014	– 628	22,339	23,010	22,670	– 671	87.7	86.9	87.3	0.8	25.0	22.6	23.8	2.4
DE	2,602	3,354	3,001	– 752	22,651	24,067	23,336	– 1,416	82.2	83.8	83.0	– 1.6	20.8	19.8	20.3	1.0
EE	1,199	1,692	1,409	– 493	12,138	12,885	12,480	– 747	75.7	80.6	77.9	– 4.9	17.4	15.0	16.2	2.4
IE	2,808	3,423	3,090	– 615	20,098	20,847	20,464	– 749	84.0	84.0	84.0	0.0	20.5	19.9	20.2	0.6
EL	1,754	2,134	1,954	– 380	10,125	10,414	10,265	– 289	79.5	79.4	79.5	0.1	16.6	15.1	15.8	1.5
ES	1,937	2,345	2,150	– 408	16,791	17,123	16,952	– 332	79.5	78.8	79.2	0.7	15.6	14.8	15.2	0.8
FR	2,310	2,818	2,577	– 508	23,422	24,171	23,780	– 749	87.1	88.2	87.6	– 1.1	23.0	22.8	22.9	0.2
HR	1,364	1,460	1,416	– 96	9,147	9,487	9,309	– 340	79.4	80.8	80.1	– 1.4	19.3	18.6	19.0	0.7
IT	2,134	2,589	2,388	– 455	17,284	18,279	17,762	– 995	80.2	82.5	81.3	– 2.3	17.8	17.4	17.6	0.4
CY	1,845	2,244	2,043	– 399	18,834	19,324	19,069	– 490	83.1	84.9	84.0	– 1.8	18.9	18.8	18.8	0.1
LV	1,047	1,283	1,149	– 236	9,261	10,082	9,627	– 821	74.8	80.7	77.5	– 5.9	16.3	15.2	15.8	1.1
LT	1,036	1,228	1,125	– 192	10,132	10,756	10,414	– 624	78.0	80.0	78.9	– 2.0	14.6	14.2	14.6	0.4
LU	3,322	3,601	3,492	– 279	32,772	34,152	33,457	– 1,380	85.5	86.5	86.0	– 1.0	24.1	23.3	23.7	0.8
HU	1,285	1,524	1,410	– 239	8,986	9,296	9,131	– 310	86.9	85.6	86.3	1.3	24.7	22.4	23.6	2.3
MT	1,932	2,266	2,127	– 334	18,687	19,282	18,984	– 595	84.4	85.4	84.9	– 1.0	24.7	24.3	24.5	0.4
NL	2,398	3,029	2,721	– 631	21,609	22,330	21,965	– 721	89.0	88.9	88.9	0.1	26.3	25.7	26.0	0.6
AT	2,235	2,947	2,652	– 712	24,393	25,997	25,171	– 1,604	86.4	87.4	86.9	– 1.0	25.5	23.9	24.7	1.6
PL	1,577	1,916	1,755	– 339	11,389	11,604	11,492	– 215	83.4	82.8	83.1	0.6	21.5	19.8	20.7	1.7
PT	1,398	1,670	1,528	– 272	12,120	12,691	12,387	– 571	80.8	82.1	81.4	– 1.3	17.2	16.4	16.8	0.8
RO	953	1,003	980	– 50	5,108	5,323	5,212	– 215	76.7	77.2	76.9	– 0.5	13.4	12.3	12.8	1.1
SI	1,845	2,021	1,938	– 176	15,824	16,575	16,194	– 751	84.0	87.3	85.6	– 3.3	27.6	27.8	27.6	– 0.2
SK	1,210	1,527	1,372	– 317	10,871	11,231	11,045	– 360	89.6	89.2	89.4	0.4	30.8	28.5	29.6	2.3
FI	2,381	2,952	2,642	– 571	21,211	21,994	21,592	– 783	87.0	87.1	87.0	– 0.1	27.9	26.5	27.2	1.4
SE	2,626	3,085	2,850	– 459	22,474	23,421	22,940	– 947	83.7	86.3	84.9	– 2.6	26.2	25.4	25.7	0.8
UK	2,242	2,942	2,594	– 700	21,240	22,033	21,627	– 793	83.6	84.4	84.0	– 0.8	19.4	17.8	18.6	1.6
	Source: Eurostat, SES, (earn_ses14_20), 2014. EL and HR, 2010.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU SILC, (ilc_di03), 2015. EU-28: non-weighted average.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU SILC, (ilc_li02), 2015.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU SILC, 2015. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request IE, 2014.			

Table 17: Indicators included in the domain of knowledge, by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Attainment and participation								Segregation			
	Graduates of tertiary education (%, 15+ population)				People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (%, 15+ population)				Tertiary students in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts (tertiary students) (%, 15+ population)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-28	**24.3**	**23.9**	**24.1**	**0.4**	**16.9**	**16.1**	**16.6**	**0.8**	**42.8**	**21.4**	**33.0**	**21.4**
BE	30.7	28.2	29.5	2.5	14.4	14.3	14.3	0.1	55.7	30.8	44.7	24.9
BG	25.8	18.4	22.2	7.4	8.6	8.8	8.7	– 0.2	29.6	16.5	23.7	13.1
CZ	18.0	17.9	17.9	0.1	16.7	16.0	16.3	0.7	40.0	17.6	30.4	22.4
DK	31.3	25.5	28.4	5.8	43.2	32.7	37.9	10.5	52.6	28.4	42.2	24.2
DE	18.5	27.3	22.8	– 8.8	13.6	15.0	14.3	– 1.4	40.7	17.1	28.4	23.6
EE	41.4	25.0	33.5	16.4	17.0	16.0	16.5	1.0	41.0	14.4	30.0	26.6
IE	36.4	30.9	33.7	5.5	14.4	14.1	14.2	0.3	49.7	25.1	37.5	24.6
EL	21.2	22.0	21.6	– 0.8	10.5	10.6	10.5	– 0.1	36.8	17.4	26.8	19.4
ES	28.1	26.9	27.5	1.2	15.5	15.0	15.3	0.5	47.7	23.7	36.5	24.0
FR	27.8	25.8	26.8	2.0	24.2	21.6	23.0	2.6	42.0	21.6	32.7	20.4
HR	19.4	17.5	18.5	1.9	11.3	10.4	10.9	0.9	33.1	13.4	24.5	19.7
IT	14.1	12.2	13.2	1.9	12.5	12.3	12.4	0.2	44.5	27.4	37.0	17.1
CY	34.6	29.7	32.3	4.9	15.3	14.3	14.8	1.0	39.5	16.5	29.6	23.0
LV	33.7	19.6	27.1	14.1	13.9	12.2	13.1	1.7	35.7	13.1	26.6	22.6
LT	33.3	25.2	29.6	8.1	14.0	14.9	14.4	– 0.9	36.5	15.4	27.6	21.1
LU	31.1	34.6	32.9	– 3.5	24.2	24.7	24.4	– 0.5	41.5	22.2	32.0	19.3
HU	20.7	18.0	19.4	2.7	14.7	15.1	14.9	– 0.4	38.9	18.1	29.4	20.8
MT	16.0	15.6	15.8	0.4	12.8	12.9	12.8	– 0.1	49.5	29.8	40.8	19.7
NL	26.5	29.2	27.8	– 2.7	24.3	24.6	24.4	– 0.3	40.0	21.2	31.0	18.8
AT	23.4	27.8	25.5	– 4.4	19.7	18.4	19.1	1.3	41.3	21.2	31.9	20.1
PL	25.1	19.2	22.3	5.9	12.0	11.7	11.9	0.3	37.3	17.9	29.4	19.4
PT	19.6	14.3	17.1	5.3	14.9	16.2	15.5	– 1.3	40.5	18.7	30.3	21.8
RO	13.1	13.1	13.1	0.0	8.3	8.8	8.5	– 0.5	30.9	16.8	24.4	14.1
SI	27.2	21.1	24.2	6.1	18.4	16.6	17.5	1.8	39.2	15.6	29.3	23.6
SK	18.7	16.4	17.6	2.3	12.0	11.1	11.5	0.9	47.7	24.6	38.4	23.1
FI	35.8	29.1	32.5	6.7	33.1	26.7	29.9	6.4	51.3	18.4	36.0	32.9
SE	38.3	27.7	32.9	10.6	40.5	28.3	34.3	12.2	53.4	29.2	43.5	24.2
UK	38.1	35.5	36.8	2.6	21.0	18.8	19.9	2.2	46.6	25.6	37.4	21.0
	Source: Eurostat, EU LFS, 2015. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. EE (W, M), LV (W, M), UK (W, M, T): low reliability. LU: break in data series.				*Source*: Eurostat, EU LFS, 2015. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. CZ (W, M, T), DK (W), LV (W, T), HU (W), FI (W, T): low reliability. LU, HU: break in data series.				*Source*: Eurostat, Education statistics, (educ_uoe_enrt03), 2015. EL, IE, 2014. EU-28 calculated with original variables.			

Table 18: Indicators included in the domain of time, by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Care activities								Social activities							
	People caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, elderly people or people with disabilities, every day (%, 18+ population)				People doing cooking and/or housework, every day (%, 18+ population)				Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least daily or several times a week (%, 15+ workers)				Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (%, 15+ workers)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-28	**37.5**	**24.7**	**31.3**	**12.8**	**78.7**	**33.7**	**57.0**	**45.0**	**27.5**	**31.9**	**29.8**	**– 4.4**	**12.2**	**11.4**	**11.8**	**0.8**
BE	43.1	28.7	36.1	14.4	81.2	32.5	57.5	48.7	32.3	38.7	35.7	– 6.4	9.5	9.9	9.7	– 0.4
BG	38.5	25.8	32.4	12.7	72.9	13.0	44.1	59.9	11.7	19.5	15.6	– 7.8	2.9	2.4	2.7	0.5
CZ	33.2	19.8	26.7	13.4	67.4	15.8	42.3	51.6	22.6	27.8	25.2	– 5.2	12.3	11.3	11.8	1.0
DK	25.0	21.3	23.2	3.7	82.3	55.0	68.9	27.3	52.8	50.5	51.6	2.3	17.3	20.3	18.9	– 3.0
DE	25.5	18.7	22.2	6.8	72.3	29.1	51.3	43.2	21.8	25.2	23.5	– 3.4	15.8	13.3	14.5	2.5
EE	34.6	31.0	32.9	3.6	75.8	47.4	62.8	28.4	33.5	38.4	35.7	– 4.9	12.5	11.4	12.0	1.1
IE	44.1	30.5	37.5	13.6	88.7	48.0	68.9	40.7	40.4	48.4	44.6	– 8.0	15.4	17.9	16.7	– 2.5
EL	38.2	20.2	29.6	18.0	85.3	16.0	52.0	69.3	11.0	17.6	14.7	– 6.6	6.6	5.7	6.1	0.9
ES	39.8	27.7	33.9	12.1	84.5	41.9	63.8	42.6	39.3	45.5	42.6	– 6.2	5.7	3.8	4.7	1.9
FR	45.6	29.4	37.9	16.2	79.6	35.6	58.6	44.0	32.1	39.0	35.6	– 6.9	12.3	14.1	13.2	– 1.8
HR	34.9	21.3	28.4	13.6	62.4	11.9	38.2	50.5	12.5	19.1	15.9	– 6.6	10.8	10.3	10.5	0.5
IT	34.1	24.0	29.3	10.1	80.9	19.7	51.6	61.2	23.6	28.2	26.1	– 4.6	12.8	10.8	11.7	2.0
CY	50.1	34.1	42.4	16.0	80.8	26.6	54.8	54.2	9.7	21.7	15.8	– 12.0	8.8	8.0	8.4	0.8
LV	39.9	38.0	39.0	1.9	81.7	56.6	70.5	25.1	17.4	22.6	19.9	– 5.2	8.5	7.4	7.9	1.1
LT	41.3	24.2	33.6	17.1	79.0	28.8	56.4	50.2	13.5	17.9	15.5	– 4.4	5.2	4.4	4.9	0.8
LU	41.5	35.6	38.5	5.9	78.3	38.6	58.5	39.7	36.8	45.8	41.5	– 9.0	10.4	22.2	16.5	– 11.8
HU	30.1	24.5	27.5	5.6	55.8	13.8	36.3	42.0	16.6	12.5	14.6	4.1	11.3	8.7	10.0	2.6
MT	42.3	24.9	33.7	17.4	80.5	37.3	59.1	43.2	25.4	26.2	25.9	– 0.8	10.0	10.7	10.4	– 0.7
NL	38.5	28.2	33.5	10.3	81.4	47.4	64.7	34.0	56.0	58.3	57.2	– 2.3	22.3	22.3	22.3	0.0
AT	35.6	20.8	28.4	14.8	83.3	28.4	56.8	54.9	24.6	25.3	24.9	– 0.7	11.6	14.8	13.1	– 3.2
PL	47.0	25.0	36.5	22.0	81.7	33.5	58.7	48.2	16.9	21.3	19.0	– 4.4	6.5	4.7	5.7	1.8
PT	36.5	28.1	32.5	8.4	78.1	18.8	50.4	59.3	10.3	19.6	14.7	– 9.3	6.9	5.1	6.1	1.8
RO	45.8	25.0	35.8	20.8	75.3	40.6	58.5	34.7	6.3	8.4	7.4	– 2.1	6.1	7.6	6.9	– 1.5
SI	35.2	27.5	31.4	7.7	81.0	27.5	54.7	53.5	41.4	42.7	42.0	– 1.3	18.0	21.5	19.8	– 3.5
SK	35.3	19.2	27.5	16.1	59.5	15.7	38.6	43.8	10.6	19.9	15.2	– 9.3	8.6	6.3	7.4	2.3
FI	36.3	26.3	31.4	10.0	85.7	57.2	71.8	28.5	60.1	44.5	52.4	15.6	14.9	15.9	15.4	– 1.0
SE	29.5	26.7	28.1	2.8	73.6	56.1	64.9	17.5	51.0	55.0	53.1	– 4.0	27.2	29.8	28.5	– 2.6
UK	41.1	25.3	33.4	15.8	84.6	49.0	67.2	35.6	33.4	35.8	34.7	– 2.4	13.5	11.4	12.4	2.1
	Source: Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.			

Table 19: Indicators included in the domain of power, by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Political									Economic						Social								
	Share of ministers (% W, M)			Share of members of parliament (% W, M)			Share of members of regional assemblies (% W, M)			Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (% W, M)			Share of members of central bank (% W, M)			Share of members of public research funding (% W, M)			Share of board members in publicly owned broadcasting organisations (% W, M)			Share of members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sport organisations (% W, M)		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
EU-28	**26.8**	**73.2**	**100.0**	**27.7**	**72.3**	**100.0**	**28.0**	**72.0**	**100.0**	**21.7**	**78.3**	**100.0**	**19.4**	**80.6**	**100.0**	**39.9**	**60.1**	**100.0**	**32.2**	**67.8**	**100.0**	**13.6**	**86.4**	**100.0**
BE	25.2	74.8	**100.0**	41.4	58.6	**100.0**	41.7	58.3	**100.0**	24.2	75.8	**100.0**	14.8	85.2	**100.0**	40.0	60.0	**100.0**	36.4	63.6	**100.0**	11.7	88.3	**100.0**
BG	30.6	69.4	**100.0**	21.1	78.9	**100.0**	25.6	74.4	**100.0**	17.5	82.5	**100.0**	38.1	61.9	**100.0**	44.4	55.6	**100.0**	63.3	36.7	**100.0**	20.2	79.8	**100.0**
CZ	17.2	82.8	**100.0**	19.6	80.4	**100.0**	19.7	80.3	**100.0**	8.7	91.3	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	30.0	70.0	**100.0**	15.3	84.7	**100.0**	7.2	92.8	**100.0**
DK	32.4	67.6	**100.0**	37.7	62.3	**100.0**	38.3	61.7	**100.0**	25.5	74.5	**100.0**	31.0	69.0	**100.0**	37.0	63.0	**100.0**	35.1	64.9	**100.0**	17.1	82.9	**100.0**
DE	41.7	58.3	**100.0**	36.7	63.3	**100.0**	32.0	68.0	**100.0**	25.7	74.3	**100.0**	17.6	82.4	**100.0**	36.6	63.4	**100.0**	23.7	76.3	**100.0**	16.1	83.9	**100.0**
EE	21.8	78.2	**100.0**	22.9	77.1	**100.0**	31.1	68.9	**100.0**	7.8	92.2	**100.0**	18.2	81.8	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	25.0	75.0	**100.0**	10.5	89.5	**100.0**
IE	19.7	80.3	**100.0**	20.9	79.1	**100.0**	20.4	79.6	**100.0**	13.7	86.3	**100.0**	27.0	73.0	**100.0**	50.0	50.0	**100.0**	44.9	55.1	**100.0**	16.2	83.8	**100.0**
EL	14.3	85.7	**100.0**	20.6	79.4	**100.0**	19.7	80.3	**100.0**	9.3	90.7	**100.0**	2.8	97.2	**100.0**	11.1	88.9	**100.0**	18.2	81.8	**100.0**	8.4	91.6	**100.0**
ES	28.7	71.3	**100.0**	38.4	61.6	**100.0**	44.7	55.3	**100.0**	18.2	81.8	**100.0**	26.7	73.3	**100.0**	44.4	55.6	**100.0**	33.3	66.7	**100.0**	13.1	86.9	**100.0**
FR	47.6	52.4	**100.0**	25.8	74.2	**100.0**	48.3	51.7	**100.0**	34.8	65.2	**100.0**	39.4	60.6	**100.0**	36.8	63.2	**100.0**	34.5	65.5	**100.0**	21.5	78.5	**100.0**
HR	16.4	83.6	**100.0**	22.9	77.1	**100.0**	22.3	77.7	**100.0**	19.7	80.3	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	28.6	71.4	**100.0**	14.3	85.7	**100.0**	7.3	92.7	**100.0**
IT	27.2	72.8	**100.0**	30.2	69.8	**100.0**	17.3	82.7	**100.0**	26.7	73.3	**100.0**	20.4	79.6	**100.0**	70.0	30.0	**100.0**	26.9	73.1	**100.0**	8.2	91.8	**100.0**
CY	8.3	91.7	**100.0**	14.1	85.9	**100.0**	17.8	82.2	**100.0**	9.2	90.8	**100.0**	14.3	85.7	**100.0**	25.0	75.0	**100.0**	11.1	88.9	**100.0**	4.0	96.0	**100.0**
LV	25.5	74.5	**100.0**	18.7	81.3	**100.0**	26.3	73.7	**100.0**	30.2	69.8	**100.0**	21.1	78.9	**100.0**	36.4	63.6	**100.0**	6.7	93.3	**100.0**	14.1	85.9	**100.0**
LT	21.0	79.0	**100.0**	23.8	76.2	**100.0**	24.6	75.4	**100.0**	14.8	85.2	**100.0**	20.0	80.0	**100.0**	32.1	67.9	**100.0**	27.8	72.2	**100.0**	10.4	89.6	**100.0**
LU	25.9	74.1	**100.0**	28.2	71.8	**100.0**	22.2	77.8	**100.0**	11.8	88.2	**100.0**	11.1	88.9	**100.0**	55.6	44.4	**100.0**	40.7	59.3	**100.0**	16.8	83.2	**100.0**
HU	1.5	98.5	**100.0**	9.7	90.3	**100.0**	11.3	88.7	**100.0**	12.7	87.3	**100.0**	11.1	88.9	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	24.0	76.0	**100.0**	9.4	90.6	**100.0**
MT	10.1	89.9	**100.0**	13.1	86.9	**100.0**	22.0	78.0	**100.0**	3.8	96.2	**100.0**	20.0	80.0	**100.0**	15.4	84.6	**100.0**	16.7	83.3	**100.0**	8.6	91.4	**100.0**
NL	37.9	62.1	**100.0**	37.2	62.8	**100.0**	32.7	67.3	**100.0**	25.7	74.3	**100.0**	7.7	92.3	**100.0**	33.3	66.7	**100.0**	37.8	62.2	**100.0**	25.6	74.4	**100.0**
AT	29.7	70.3	**100.0**	30.6	69.4	**100.0**	31.7	68.3	**100.0**	17.5	82.5	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	30.2	69.8	**100.0**	20.0	80.0	**100.0**	13.6	86.4	**100.0**
PL	24.9	75.1	**100.0**	23.6	76.4	**100.0**	24.7	75.3	**100.0**	18.2	81.8	**100.0**	22.2	77.8	**100.0**	21.0	79.0	**100.0**	14.7	85.3	**100.0**	2.6	97.4	**100.0**
PT	22.9	77.1	**100.0**	32.5	67.5	**100.0**	24.3	75.7	**100.0**	11.7	88.3	**100.0**	5.9	94.1	**100.0**	33.3	66.7	**100.0**	33.3	66.7	**100.0**	13.2	86.8	**100.0**
RO	23.8	76.2	**100.0**	12.0	88.0	**100.0**	15.3	84.7	**100.0**	10.8	89.2	**100.0**	11.1	88.9	**100.0**	73.3	26.7	**100.0**	40.5	59.5	**100.0**	10.6	89.4	**100.0**
SI	41.3	58.7	**100.0**	26.7	73.3	**100.0**	31.8	68.2	**100.0**	22.5	77.5	**100.0**	40.0	60.0	**100.0**	42.9	57.1	**100.0**	35.3	64.7	**100.0**	6.0	94.0	**100.0**
SK	10.2	89.8	**100.0**	19.9	80.1	**100.0**	15.0	85.0	**100.0**	14.7	85.3	**100.0**	0.0	100.0	**100.0**	16.7	83.3	**100.0**	18.5	81.5	**100.0**	10.1	89.9	**100.0**
FI	45.2	54.8	**100.0**	41.8	58.2	**100.0**	43.7	56.3	**100.0**	29.5	70.5	**100.0**	19.4	80.6	**100.0**	46.7	53.3	**100.0**	38.0	62.0	**100.0**	21.6	78.4	**100.0**
SE	51.2	48.8	**100.0**	44.1	55.9	**100.0**	48.3	51.7	**100.0**	31.7	68.3	**100.0**	29.4	70.6	**100.0**	59.8	40.2	**100.0**	51.5	48.5	**100.0**	42.5	57.5	**100.0**
UK	24.3	75.7	**100.0**	25.6	74.4	**100.0**	32.0	68.0	**100.0**	25.8	74.2	**100.0**	16.0	84.0	**100.0**	39.4	60.6	**100.0**	45.7	54.3	**100.0**	20.9	79.1	**100.0**
	Source: EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016). National governments (all ministers: junior. ministers + senior ministers). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016). National parliaments (both houses). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016) Regional assemblies (2014, 2015, 2016), if regional assemblies do not exist in the country, local-level politics are included. Local-level politics (2015). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2016. EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015 (3-year average 2014, 2015, 2016). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, WMID, 2015. Data collected by EIGE.		

Table 20: Indicators included in the domain of health by EU Member State, 2015

Country	Status												Behaviour								Access							
	Self-perceived health, good or very good (%, 16+ population)				Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)				Healthy life years in absolute value at birth (years)				People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking (%, 16+ population)				People doing physical activities and/or consuming fruits and vegetables (%, 16+ population)				People without unmet needs for medical examination (%, 16+ population)				Population without unmet needs for dental examination (%, 16+ population)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-28	**64.4**	**69.6**	**66.9**	**– 5.2**	**83.3**	**77.9**	**80.6**	**5.4**	**63.3**	**62.6**	**63.0**	**0.7**	**72.4**	**52.2**	**62.8**	**20.2**	**36.1**	**40.1**	**38.0**	**– 4.0**	**94.5**	**95.4**	**95.0**	**– 0.9**	**93.7**	**94.0**	**93.9**	**– 0.3**
BE	71.4	77.9	**74.6**	– 6.5	83.4	78.7	**81.1**	4.7	64.0	64.4	**64.2**	– 0.4	68.3	50.1	**59.5**	18.2	29.5	36.4	**32.9**	– 6.9	96.8	97.4	**97.1**	– 0.6	94.5	94.7	**94.6**	– 0.2
BG	61.7	69.4	**65.4**	– 7.7	78.2	71.2	**74.7**	7.0	65.0	61.5	**63.3**	3.5	67.5	46.7	**57.9**	20.8	9.4	18.2	**13.5**	– 8.8	93.3	93.8	**93.5**	– 0.5	93.7	93.9	**93.8**	– 0.2
CZ	59.6	63.4	**61.2**	– 3.8	81.6	75.7	**78.7**	5.9	63.7	62.4	**63.1**	1.3	72.7	54.2	**63.8**	18.5	30.1	37.5	**33.6**	– 7.4	95.2	95.6	**95.4**	– 0.4	97.3	97.1	**97.2**	0.2
DK	70.1	73.0	**71.5**	– 2.9	82.7	78.8	**80.8**	3.9	57.6	60.4	**59.0**	– 2.8	60.7	43.7	**52.3**	17.0	68.2	59.1	**63.6**	9.1	93.0	92.9	**92.9**	0.1	94.8	92.5	**93.7**	2.3
DE	63.1	66.0	**64.5**	– 2.9	83.1	78.3	**80.7**	4.8	67.5	65.3	**66.4**	2.2	63.3	46.6	**55.1**	16.7	50.8	53.1	**51.9**	– 2.3	99.1	99.0	**99.1**	0.1	98.9	98.8	**98.9**	0.1
EE	50.0	53.5	**51.4**	– 3.5	82.2	73.2	**77.7**	9.0	56.2	53.8	**55.0**	2.4	74.0	43.2	**58.2**	30.8	35.4	35.8	**35.6**	– 0.4	83.7	87.4	**85.4**	– 3.7	87.0	89.1	**88.0**	– 2.1
IE	81.7	82.9	**82.3**	– 1.2	83.4	79.6	**81.5**	3.8	67.9	66.6	**67.3**	1.3	65.8	46.5	**56.3**	19.3	48.4	47.2	**47.8**	1.2	96.3	97.1	**96.7**	– 0.8	93.2	94.4	**93.8**	– 1.2
EL	71.8	77.2	**74.4**	– 5.4	83.7	78.5	**81.1**	5.2	64.1	63.9	**64.0**	0.2	70.4	54.2	**62.8**	16.2	19.8	24.7	**22.2**	– 4.9	84.8	86.8	**85.8**	– 2.0	85.6	86.3	**86.0**	– 0.7
ES	69.6	75.3	**72.4**	– 5.7	85.8	80.1	**83.0**	5.7	64.1	63.9	**64.0**	0.2	75.9	61.6	**68.9**	14.3	36.1	46.0	**40.9**	– 9.9	98.8	98.7	**98.8**	0.1	93.7	94.2	**94.0**	– 0.5
FR	65.6	70.3	**67.8**	– 4.7	85.5	79.2	**82.4**	6.3	64.6	62.6	**63.6**	2.0	69.7	54.2	**62.2**	15.5	32.0	38.7	**35.2**	– 6.7	96.4	96.4	**96.4**	0.0	93.4	93.9	**93.7**	– 0.5
HR	55.6	60.9	**58.2**	– 5.3	80.5	74.4	**77.5**	6.1	56.8	55.3	**56.1**	1.5	72.5	57.2	**65.3**	15.3	21.1	28.0	**24.4**	– 6.9	94.3	95.4	**94.8**	– 1.1	97.0	96.8	**96.9**	0.2
IT	62.6	68.9	**65.6**	– 6.3	84.9	80.3	**82.6**	4.6	62.7	62.6	**62.7**	0.1	79.9	65.6	**73.1**	14.3	24.5	30.4	**27.3**	– 5.9	91.4	92.9	**92.1**	– 1.5	88.4	89.4	**88.9**	– 1.0
CY	79.0	81.3	**80.2**	– 2.3	83.7	79.9	**81.8**	3.8	63.4	63.1	**63.3**	0.3	81.4	53.9	**68.4**	27.5	33.0	38.6	**35.7**	– 5.6	97.9	98.0	**97.9**	– 0.1	94.8	95.0	**94.9**	– 0.2
LV	42.2	51.3	**46.2**	– 9.1	79.5	69.7	**74.6**	9.8	54.1	51.8	**53.0**	2.3	76.4	43.5	**61.9**	32.9	28.7	34.0	**31.1**	– 5.3	87.8	88.7	**88.2**	– 0.9	84.1	82.7	**83.4**	1.4
LT	38.4	49.2	**42.6**	– 10.8	79.7	69.2	**74.5**	10.5	58.8	54.1	**56.5**	4.7	81.5	45.0	**65.0**	36.5	27.6	33.6	**30.3**	– 6.0	95.2	96.4	**95.7**	– 1.2	95.1	96.0	**95.5**	– 0.9
LU	68.4	72.3	**70.4**	– 3.9	84.7	80.0	**82.4**	4.7	60.6	63.7	**62.2**	– 3.1	65.1	45.6	**55.3**	19.5	48.0	51.5	**49.7**	– 3.5	95.5	94.8	**95.1**	0.7	97.4	96.1	**96.8**	1.3
HU	53.3	59.6	**56.2**	– 6.3	79.0	72.3	**75.7**	6.7	60.1	58.2	**59.2**	1.9	75.7	59.4	**68.1**	16.3	32.7	37.7	**35.1**	– 5.0	92.7	92.0	**92.4**	0.7	93.8	93.6	**93.7**	0.2
MT	70.0	71.7	**70.8**	– 1.7	84.0	79.7	**81.9**	4.3	74.6	72.6	**73.6**	2.0	70.0	56.3	**63.2**	13.7	42.7	45.1	**43.9**	– 2.4	97.8	98.2	**98.0**	– 0.4	97.4	97.5	**97.4**	– 0.1
NL	72.6	80.1	**76.2**	– 7.5	83.2	79.9	**81.6**	3.3	57.2	61.1	**59.2**	– 3.9	72.2	58.4	**65.4**	13.8	37.0	41.0	**38.9**	– 4.0	99.7	99.6	**99.6**	0.1	99.4	99.2	**99.3**	0.2
AT	68.0	71.9	**69.8**	– 3.9	83.7	78.8	**81.3**	4.9	58.1	57.9	**58.0**	0.2	65.3	53.3	**59.4**	12.0	51.5	54.7	**53.1**	– 3.2	99.3	99.4	**99.3**	– 0.1	99.0	99.0	**99.0**	0.0
PL	54.7	61.5	**57.8**	– 6.8	81.6	73.5	**77.6**	8.1	63.2	60.1	**61.7**	3.1	74.5	51.9	**64.1**	22.6	23.4	26.2	**24.7**	– 2.8	86.3	88.2	**87.2**	– 1.9	92.3	92.3	**92.3**	0.0
PT	41.8	51.5	**46.4**	– 9.7	84.3	78.1	**81.2**	6.2	55.0	58.2	**56.6**	– 3.2	84.5	62.6	**74.3**	21.9	29.7	35.0	**32.2**	– 5.3	95.1	95.7	**95.4**	– 0.6	81.2	82.4	**81.8**	– 1.2
RO	65.3	74.8	**69.9**	– 9.5	78.7	71.5	**75.1**	7.2	59.4	59.0	**59.2**	0.4	73.4	36.2	**55.4**	37.2	7.4	16.3	**11.7**	– 8.9	86.1	91.0	**88.5**	– 4.9	88.8	90.5	**89.6**	– 1.7
SI	61.6	68.1	**64.8**	– 6.5	83.9	77.8	**80.9**	6.1	57.7	58.5	**58.1**	– 0.8	72.2	54.0	**63.3**	18.2	37.0	45.6	**41.3**	– 8.6	99.7	99.5	**99.6**	0.2	98.9	99.1	**99.0**	– 0.2
SK	62.3	69.7	**65.9**	– 7.4	80.2	73.1	**76.7**	7.1	55.1	54.8	**55.0**	0.3	75.6	53.2	**64.8**	22.4	33.0	39.7	**36.2**	– 6.7	93.9	94.5	**94.2**	– 0.6	95.4	95.0	**95.2**	0.4
FI	69.3	70.3	**69.8**	– 1.0	84.4	78.7	**81.6**	5.7	56.3	59.4	**57.9**	– 3.1	69.9	45.7	**58.4**	24.2	60.1	56.9	**58.6**	3.2	93.8	95.7	**94.7**	– 1.9	93.7	94.0	**93.9**	– 0.3
SE	77.0	82.3	**79.7**	– 5.3	84.1	80.4	**82.3**	3.7	73.8	74.0	**73.9**	– 0.2	76.3	61.3	**68.8**	15.0	58.0	55.8	**56.9**	2.2	90.4	92.0	**91.2**	– 1.6	94.8	93.4	**94.1**	1.4
UK	69.7	69.8	**69.8**	– 0.1	82.8	79.2	**81.0**	3.6	63.3	63.7	**63.5**	– 0.4	73.6	58.5	**66.6**	15.1	55.0	55.4	**55.2**	– 0.4	94.5	95.5	**95.0**	– 1.0	95.1	95.1	**95.1**	0.0
	Source: Eurostat, EU SILC, (hlth_silc_01), 2015.				*Source:* Eurostat, mortality data, (hlth_hlye), 2015. Total: average of Women and Men.				*Source:* Eurostat, mortality data, (hlth_hlye), 2015. Total: average of Women and Men				*Source:* Eurostat, EHIS, 2014. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. FR, NL: EIGE estimation. EU-28: non-weighted average.				*Source:* Eurostat, EHIS, 2014. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. BE, NL: EIGE estimation. EU-28: non-weighted average.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU SILC, (hlth_silc_08), 2015.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU SILC, (hlth_silc_09), 2015.			

Table 21: Population on 1 January, by sex (number and %), (average 2014, 2015, 2016)

Country	Additional variable				
	Population on 1 January (average 2014, 2015, 2016)				
	Women	Men	Total	% Women	% Men
EU-28	**213,784,337**	**199,340,866**	**413,125,203**	**0.52**	**0.48**
BE	4,597,186	4,359,690	**8,956,876**	0.51	0.49
BG	3,124,248	2,892,703	**6,016,950**	0.52	0.48
CZ	4,447,546	4,214,360	**8,661,907**	0.51	0.49
DK	2,279,774	2,213,367	**4,493,141**	0.51	0.49
DE	35,008,683	33,200,470	**68,209,153**	0.51	0.49
EE	580,931	489,488	**1,070,419**	0.54	0.46
IE	1,764,286	1,685,945	**3,450,231**	0.51	0.49
EL	4,660,372	4,295,845	**8,956,217**	0.52	0.48
ES	19,584,375	18,537,066	**38,121,442**	0.51	0.49
FR	27,033,563	24,613,458	**51,647,021**	0.52	0.48
HR	1,813,204	1,645,751	**3,458,955**	0.52	0.48
IT	26,372,718	24,287,825	**50,660,543**	0.52	0.48
CY	354,340	327,079	**681,419**	0.52	0.48
LV	904,824	731,751	**1,636,575**	0.55	0.45
LT	1,318,013	1,074,644	**2,392,657**	0.55	0.45
LU	225,806	223,939	**449,745**	0.50	0.50
HU	4,319,911	3,810,575	**8,130,486**	0.53	0.47
MT	178,150	176,029	**354,178**	0.50	0.50
NL	6,853,925	6,619,595	**13,473,520**	0.51	0.49
AT	3,657,800	3,435,520	**7,093,320**	0.52	0.48
PL	16,250,331	14,857,879	**31,108,210**	0.52	0.48
PT	4,561,588	3,992,640	**8,554,228**	0.53	0.47
RO	8,342,875	7,783,462	**16,126,336**	0.52	0.48
SI	865,908	836,767	**1,702,675**	0.51	0.49
SK	2,290,720	2,128,363	**4,419,084**	0.52	0.48
FI	2,253,295	2,141,738	**4,395,033**	0.51	0.49
SE	3,910,212	3,849,921	**7,760,133**	0.50	0.50
UK	26,229,753	24,914,996	**51,144,749**	0.51	0.49

Source:
Eurostat, population statistics.
(1) Population on 1 January by broad age group and sex (demo_pjanbroad).
(2) Population on 1 January by age and sex (demo_pjan).
Population data are used in the computation of the metric for the domain of power. The metric for the indicators is calculated as a ratio of the indicators (share of women and men) and the share of women and men in the population.

Table 22: Maximum values in 2005, 2010, 2012 and 2015 for the indicators (total population) used for the correcting coefficient

Domain	Work					Money				Knowledge			Time			
Sub-domain	Participation		Segregation and quality of job			Financial resources		Economic situation		Attainment and participation		Segregation	Care activities		Social activities	
Indicator	FTE	Duration	Segregation	Flexibility	Prospects	Earnings	Income	Poverty	S20/S80	Graduates	Participation	Segregation	Care	Cooking	Leisure	Voluntary
MAX 2005-2015	60.9	41.2	27.7	52.6	71.7	3,492	33,457	91.8	29.8	36.8	39.0	48.2	-	-	57.2	35.5

Domain	POWER								HEALTH						
Sub-domain	Political			Economic		Social			Status			Behaviour		Access	
Indicator	Ministers	Parliaments	Regional assemblies	Boards	Central bank	Research	Media	Sport	Self-perceived health	Life expectancy	Healthy life years	Risk behaviour	Healthy behaviour	Medical	Dental
MAX 2005-2015	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	82.8	83.0	73.9	74.3	63.6	99.7	99.3

Note: Caring and cooking indicators in the domain of time, as well as all the indicators in the domain of power, are not corrected, and no correcting coefficient is needed.

Annex 5: Change in Index and domain scores in EU Member States

Table 23: Change in scores of the EU Member States from 2005 to 2015, Index and domains (points)

	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	4.2	1.5	5.7	2.6	-1.0	9.6	1.5
BE	4.5	2.8	6.2	3.0	-9.0	13.6	0.0
BG	2.0	1.3	7.6	0.8	-8.2	7.6	3.8
CZ	0.0	0.8	5.7	5.1	6.1	-7.0	1.4
DK	2.2	0.3	3.9	-0.1	0.4	6.8	-1.5
DE	5.5	3.3	0.9	-2.4	-1.6	19.0	3.9
EE	4.5	1.1	8.3	3.7	0.1	5.7	0.5
IE	7.6	2.8	5.2	5.6	0.0	16.5	0.2
EL	3.2	1.7	-1.2	8.4	-1.5	3.5	-1.5
ES	6.1	4.3	2.3	6.0	6.0	11.1	1.5
FR	7.4	1.6	4.5	3.8	-1.8	24.6	0.2
HR	2.8	1.9	1.3	6.2	2.7	1.1	1.9
IT	12.9	1.6	2.4	7.3	-0.8	29.2	0.5
CY	9.2	4.4	6.6	15.1	3.6	8.3	2.4
LV	4.5	1.9	8.0	2.3	6.7	4.2	4.6
LT	1.0	1.3	8.6	0.7	-2.9	-0.7	1.5
LU	4.6	5.9	1.3	7.4	-4.1	7.3	-0.2
HU	1.3	1.8	4.2	0.0	-6.8	2.4	3.6
MT	4.1	10.2	12.1	2.8	3.4	-0.4	1.1
NL	5.1	1.9	4.6	3.4	-2.5	12.6	0.2
AT	3.8	2.4	3.4	4.3	1.0	5.4	0.3
PL	4.4	1.6	11.9	-0.7	-2.1	8.8	1.6
PT	6.1	1.4	2.1	6.2	0.2	11.7	-0.2
RO	2.5	-1.5	6.2	3.9	1.4	2.5	0.9
SI	7.6	0.6	3.9	2.9	-0.5	24.1	1.4
SK	-0.1	0.2	12.5	5.5	-9.0	-3.8	1.8
FI	1.0	0.5	6.3	4.7	-4.2	-3.1	0.5
SE	3.8	3.9	3.4	4.7	0.5	5.4	2.4
UK	0.3	2.4	1.5	-4.0	0.5	1.6	0.0
Increased	**25**	**22**	**26**	**21**	**8**	**23**	**14**
No change	**3**	**5**	**1**	**5**	**8**	**2**	**12**
Decreased	**0**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**12**	**3**	**2**

Note: green – increase; red – decrease; yellow- – no change (less than 1 point)

Table 24: Change in scores of the EU Member States between 2012 and 2015, Index and domains (points)

	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-28	1.2	0.5	1.2	0.6	-3.2	5.0	0.2
BE	0.3	1.0	1.9	0.5	-6.5	2.9	-0.1
BG	1.1	-0.1	1.4	1.4	-4.7	6.6	0.6
CZ	-3.1	0.8	1.9	-0.4	1.8	-9.4	0.3
DK	1.2	-0.5	0.9	2.3	-2.3	4.0	-0.6
DE	0.6	0.8	0.2	-4.2	-2.8	7.0	1.1
EE	3.2	0.7	1.8	-0.6	4.6	6.2	-0.6
IE	1.8	0.2	0.3	-1.3	-2.3	7.9	0.2
EL	-0.1	0.6	-0.4	1.3	-0.5	-0.6	-0.8
ES	0.9	0.1	-0.1	1.1	-1.8	4.1	0.5
FR	3.7	0.2	2.4	3.7	-3.0	13.1	0.3
HR	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.3	-3.7	1.2	0.5
IT	5.6	0.0	-0.1	4.7	-2.1	15.9	-0.2
CY	4.5	1.8	-2.5	0.3	5.4	7.3	1.1
LV	1.7	-0.7	4.7	0.1	5.0	1.1	0.5
LT	2.6	0.6	1.3	1.1	-5.1	8.9	-0.5
LU	3.1	1.5	2.3	0.7	-2.4	8.6	-1.0
HU	-1.0	0.8	0.9	2.6	-0.9	-3.2	0.1
MT	2.3	2.8	1.8	-1.1	5.5	2.4	0.2
NL	-1.1	0.5	-0.2	0.4	-2.8	-3.7	0.2
AT	2.0	0.5	2.3	3.3	-4.1	4.1	0.2
PL	-0.1	0.2	3.0	-0.5	-2.8	0.3	0.5
PT	1.6	0.6	-0.8	-0.1	1.5	4.2	-0.8
RO	1.2	-0.7	0.2	1.6	-2.9	4.4	0.2
SI	2.3	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.5	9.1	0.4
SK	0.0	0.6	1.9	0.4	2.9	-2.3	0.3
FI	-1.4	-0.1	1.6	1.8	-3.6	-7.9	0.4
SE	2.9	1.2	2.2	1.9	6.6	4.3	1.1
UK	2.6	1.2	0.7	-1.7	-3.3	11.0	-0.6
Increased	**17**	**7**	**15**	**13**	**8**	**21**	**3**
No change	**7**	**21**	**12**	**11**	**3**	**2**	**24**
Decreased	**4**	**0**	**1**	**4**	**17**	**5**	**1**

Note: green – increase; red – decrease; yellow – no change (less than 1 point)

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