

Gender in employment



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The European Institute for Gender Equality created the online Platform on Gender Mainstreaming to support the EU institutions and governmental bodies with the integration of a gender perspective in their work. The Platform provides insights on the relevance of gender in a variety of policy areas and offers online tools for gender mainstreaming.

The Platform helps to improve individual and institutional competences to mainstream gender into the different sectorial areas and throughout the different stages of the development of any policy/programme/project. Understanding how to design, plan, implement, monitor and evaluate policies from a gender perspective will strengthen EU policies, increasing their societal relevance and responsiveness.

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The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) is the EU knowledge centre on gender equality. EIGE supports policy makers and all relevant institutions in their efforts to make equality between women and men a reality for all Europeans by providing them with specific expertise and comparable and reliable data on gender equality in Europe.

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Contents

1. Relevance of gender in the policy area.....	3
2. Issues of gender inequalities in the policy area	4
Gender employment gap ()	4
Part-time work ()	4
Involuntary part-time work ().....	5
Division of unpaid care between women and men	5
Reconciliation ().....	5
Childcare facilities	6
Parental and maternity leave ().....	6
Gender pay gap	7
Inequality in decision-making positions.....	8
Economic independence.....	9
3. Gender equality policy objectives at the EU and international levels	11
EU level.....	11
Gender balance in management positions.....	13
European Parliament and the Council of the European Union	14
International level.....	14
Gender mainstreaming within the decent work () and the global employment () agendas.....	15
4. How and when? Employment and the integration of the gender dimension into the policy cycle	16
Define.....	16
Plan	20
Act.....	21
Check.....	22
5. Want to know more?.....	25
6. Current policy priorities at EU level	26
Resources	26
Other resources.....	30
Websites.....	31
Other organisations and institutions.....	31
7. Some concepts specifically related to gender and employment	33

1. Relevance of gender in the policy area

While considerable progress has been made in relation to women's labour market participation over the past decades, deeply entrenched inequalities persist. They are the result of discriminatory norms and attitudes, the unequal distribution of care responsibilities in the household and the way institutional structures consider and integrate gender. While women's activity rate has increased during the past years, men's activity rate (1) has remained largely stable. The slow tempo of changes in the sharing of unpaid work represents a serious constraint for women's equal access to the labour market and their equal control over economic resources.

Gender gap is the term used to describe the unequal outcomes achieved by women and men in the labour market, as well as women's restricted access to rights and assets worldwide. No country in the world has fully closed the gender gap. The main gender gaps in the labour market concern differences in:

- employment rate;
- part-time work;
- unpaid care and family responsibilities;
- access to rights and assets (professions and decision-making positions);
- working conditions;
- hourly wages (gender pay gap (GPG));
- the possibilities for economic independence.

(1) The activity rate is the percentage of the economically active population aged 15-64 years of the total population of the same age. The economically active population (also called labour force) is the sum of employed and unemployed persons.

2. Issues of gender inequalities in the policy area

Gender employment gap ⁽²⁾

In all Member States and in most accession countries employment and participation rates for women, even if increasing in the last decades, are still systematically lower than for men. The employment rate for women in the EU Member States is approximately 62 %, versus 75 % for men. Looking at the average number of working hours of women and men, the gender gap in employment is much larger than the general trend shown by the employment rate: almost a third (32 %) of employed women across Europe work part time ⁽³⁾.

Women's increased activity rates do not translate into greater employment rates, which remained relatively stable between 2008 and 2012. In parallel, there has been a gradual meeting of women's and men's employment rates, largely driven by a relative decrease in the employment rates for men (3 percentage points), due to the impact of the economic crisis.

Despite the convergence in employment rates, gender-based segregation in employment is still a problem, with women and men over/under-represented in various sectors and occupations. In 2012, women accounted for only 9 % of workers in the construction sector, in contrast to over 66 % of those working in arts, entertainment and recreation-related sectors. As for occupations, in 2012, only 11 % of workers in crafts and related trades were women, 17 % of plant and machine operators or assemblers and 33 % of managers were female.

Gender-based occupational segregation is linked to a number of factors, such as differences in knowledge, skills and abilities stemming from education and training; differences in household roles and the distribution of unpaid work; entry barriers and organisational culture and practices; gender identity, norms, attitudes and stereotypes.

As a result, women and men have been affected differently by the economic crisis. Women's engagement in non-trading and public sectors meant they did not face increases in unemployment during the initial stages of the crisis. However, recent and more restrictive government fiscal policies and the delayed effects of cuts in public budgets have led to employment losses for women.

Part-time work ⁽⁴⁾

Although women have entered the labour force in great numbers, their working hours constitute a fundamental difference in their participation in the labour market compared to men.

The distribution of part-time work between women and men is a useful measure from a gender equality perspective. It is both derived from, and reinforces, norms attached to the roles of women and men in the domestic sphere and how these relate to their participation in the labour force. In the EU-28 on average in 2012, although women represented 46 % of those in employment, they accounted for 76 % of those working on a part-time basis and conversely only 38 % of those working full time.

Much of the increase in women's employment that occurred before the financial crisis is related to part-time employment. Men still account for less than a quarter of part-time employees. The share of men working part time is small (8.2 %). The involvement in part-time work is heavily influenced by the number and the age of children: female part-time workers with children aged 6 or below make up about 40 % of the total female workers.

Gender differences are also high when considering transitions from full-time to part-time jobs. In the EU-28, only 2 % of men have moved to a part-time contract from a full-time contract, while this percentage is more than 3 times higher for women (7 %). Countries where more women have moved to part-time jobs are the Netherlands (13 %), the United Kingdom (13 %) and Italy (12 %). Transitions from full-time to part-time work have been increasing as a result of the crisis from 1 % for men and 4 % for women in 2008, possibly as a way to contain reductions in employment.

⁽²⁾ European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), *Gender equality and economic independence: part-time work and self-employment*, 2014, <http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH0414228ENC.pdf>.

EIGE, *Gender equality and economic independence, main findings*, 2015, <http://eige.europa.eu/rdc/eige-publications/gender-equality-and-economic-independence-part-time-work-and-self-employment-main-findings>.

⁽³⁾ European Commission, *Report on progress on equality between women and men in 2013*, 2014, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/swd_2014_142_en.pdf.

⁽⁴⁾ EIGE, *Gender equality and economic independence: part-time work and self-employment*, 2014, <http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH0414228ENC.pdf>.

Involuntary part-time work ⁽⁵⁾

Part-time work is considered involuntary when respondents report that the main reason for working part time is that they are unable to find full-time work. During economic downturns, the involuntary component of part-time work typically increases, due to the reduction in demand for labour that drives down the number of hours worked, and increases the unemployment rate.

The share of involuntary part-time employment out of total part-time employment in the EU Member States increased from 25 % in 2008 to 28 % by 2012. In general, men working part-time are on average more likely to be involuntary part-time workers compared to women.

Working part time has long-term effects on pay and prospects, including lower pensions and increased risk of poverty. Women's general disadvantaged position in the labour market makes mothers more likely than fathers to work part time and take on childcare responsibilities. Gender imbalances will have less impact on pay inequalities when fathers take a more active role in sharing the responsibility for the care of children and other dependents.

Division of unpaid care between women and men

As the European Commission ⁽⁶⁾ has stated, a major reason for women's low employment rates is the challenge of reconciling work, family and private life. The labour market participation of mothers is 11.5 % lower than that of women without children, while the rate for fathers is 8.5 % higher than that for men without children.

There is a clear linkage between childcare and women's and men's employment rates. On average in 2009, the employment rate of women with children under the age of 12 dropped by 12 percentage points (p.p.). For men the rate increased by 9.1 p.p. What is more, in a majority of Member States the employment rate for women decreases as the number of children increases ⁽⁷⁾. According to the latest European Commission report on the progress on gender

equality ⁽⁸⁾, on average at the EU-27 level, almost one third of women with care responsibilities are either in part-time work or inactive because of the lack of care services available for children and other dependents. In addition, poorly designed tax and benefit systems, in particular joint taxation, can — in combination with a lack of affordable and high-quality childcare facilities — create strong disincentives for second earners to take up work.

According to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) ⁽⁹⁾, women spend 26 hours per week in unpaid work, against 9 hours for men. Between 2005 and 2010 the unpaid work gap between women and men workers shrank: in 2005, the average EU-28 female worker spent 20 hours more than the average male worker on unpaid work, while in 2010 this difference fell to 17 hours. However, this reduction was mainly due to the decrease in the number of hours female workers spent on unpaid work (children, housework, caring for adults), since the time men spent on unpaid work increased by only half an hour per week. According to the recent European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), among people who undertake housework or provide care at least once or twice a week, women estimate that on average they spend 28 hours providing childcare compared with 18 hours for men while housework occupies 14 hours a week for women and 11 hours for men ⁽¹⁰⁾.

'An important difference between women and men's employment rates is the different impact of parenthood. Whereas men with children tend to work more than men without children, the opposite is true for women: women without children have higher employment rates than women with children.' ⁽¹¹⁾

Reconciliation ⁽¹²⁾

The reconciliation of work, family and private life is recognised at the EU level as a priority for achieving gender equality, increasing women's participation in the labour market and promoting the sharing of caring responsibilities between women and men.

⁽⁵⁾ EIGE, *Gender equality and economic independence: part-time work and self-employment*, 2014, <http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH0414228ENC.pdf>.

⁽⁶⁾ European Commission Justice, *Report on progress on equality between women and men in 2010. The gender balance in business leadership*, 2011, http://europa.eu/epic/docs/report_equalwomen_en1.pdf.

⁽⁷⁾ EIGE, *Review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action: women and the economy: women and the economy reconciliation of work and family life as a condition of equal participation in the labour market*, 2013, http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/mh0213042enc_002.pdf.

⁽⁸⁾ European Commission, *Report on equality between women and men 2014*, 2015, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/annual_reports/150324_annual_report_2014_web_en.pdf.

⁽⁹⁾ Eurofound, *Women, men and working conditions in Europe*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, 2013, http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_publication/field_ef_document/ef1349en.pdf.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Eurofound, *Quality of life in Europe: impacts of the crisis*, third ELQS, 2012.

⁽¹¹⁾ Bettio, F., Platenga, J. and Smith, M. (eds.), *Gender and the European labour market*, Routledge, London and New York, 2011, pp. 94-95.

⁽¹²⁾ EIGE, *Review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action: women and the economy: reconciliation of work and family life as a condition of equal participation in the labour market*, 2013, http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/mh0213042enc_002.pdf.



Reconciliation is also a key element for achieving the Europe 2020 target of raising the employment rate of women and men aged between 20 and 64 to 75 %. This signifies the necessity to address the barriers to women's participation in the labour market and to increase men's involvement in caring duties in the implementation of the strategy.

Policies aimed at promoting reconciliation include leave arrangements, flexible working-time arrangements, the provision of childcare and (formal) long-term care services for children, elderly and/or other dependent relatives allowing women and men to participate more actively in all areas of social life.

In particular, flexible working arrangements can be a strong tool in retaining women in the workforce. However, at the same time the concentration of women in specific employment contracts (such as, for example, part-time) especially if extended for a long time, can have a negative effect on earnings, career progression and pension entitlements.

The status of women's working life is more likely to be affected by the care needs of others, which can be explained by a higher take-up of parental leave or by the position of women in the labour market — for instance, a higher frequency of part-time work as well as a higher rate of inactivity for women ('inactivity' refers to the percentage of persons who are classified neither as employed nor as unemployed in the labour market). Patterns of inequality are reflected in various EU Member State policies for the improvement of women's access to and position in the labour market. These policies promote more equal sharing of caring duties and the achievement of a better work-life balance.

Childcare facilities

It is recognised that the lack of promotion of work-life balance policies in general, and the lack of childcare facilities in particular, present a major obstacle to the economic independence of women. 'Reconciliation policies' in general and the provision of childcare facilities in particular enable both women and men to achieve economic independence. As stated by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) ⁽¹³⁾, the greatest pay differences can be observed in countries where there is little provision of childcare facilities for young children.

The importance of providing affordable and good-quality childcare has been recognised at the EU level as an important measure to improve the reconciliation of work, family and private life and to foster labour market participation and gender equality.

⁽¹³⁾ OECD, *Closing the gender pay gap: Act now*, OECD Publishing, 2012, <http://www.oecd.org/gender/closingthegap.htm>.

At the 2002 Barcelona Summit ⁽¹⁴⁾, the European Council agreed that the Member States should remove disincentives to women's participation in the labour market and, by 2010, strive to provide childcare to at least 90 % of children between the age of 3 and the mandatory school age, and to at least 33 % of children below the age of 3. The importance of the Barcelona targets ⁽¹⁵⁾ was reaffirmed in 2010 in the employment guidelines ⁽¹⁶⁾ adopted by the Council of the European Union and in the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020 ⁽¹⁷⁾. The importance of improving the supply of childcare services is also recognised in the Commission's strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 ⁽¹⁸⁾.

However, the effect of childcare provision on women's employment is complex and it is not yet clear how far current childcare arrangements are designed to support the employment of both parents. The target that childcare systems should provide 33 % coverage for children under 3 years of age was achieved by 10 Member States by 2014, while 90 % coverage for children aged between 3 and the compulsory school age was achieved by nine Member States by 2014. Of these, six Member States have achieved both targets ⁽¹⁹⁾.

Parental and maternity leave ⁽²⁰⁾

The Directive on Parental Leave ⁽²¹⁾ gives each working parent the right to at least 4 months of leave after the birth or adoption of a child (previously up to 3 months). At least 1 of the 4 months cannot be transferred to the other parent — which means it will be lost if not taken — which gives an incentive for fathers to take the leave. The directive also provides for better protection against discrimination and a smoother return to work. Member States had until 8 March 2013 to transfer it into national law. The European Commission is monitoring the compliance of the Member States.

⁽¹⁴⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/invest-in-research/pdf/download_en/barcelona_european_council.pdf

⁽¹⁵⁾ European Commission, *Barcelona objectives. the development of childcare facilities for young children in Europe with a view to sustainable and inclusive growth*, 2013, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/documents/130531_barcelona_en.pdf.

⁽¹⁶⁾ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32010D0707&from=EN>

⁽¹⁷⁾ https://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lsa/119628.pdf

⁽¹⁸⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/strategy_equality_women_men_en.pdf

⁽¹⁹⁾ Source: Eurostat, *ilc_caindformal*, http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database?node_code=ilc_caindformal.

⁽²⁰⁾ EIGE, *Review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action: women and the economy: reconciliation of work and family life as a condition of equal participation in the labour market*, 2013, http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/mh0213042enc_002.pdf.

⁽²¹⁾ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:068:0013:0020:en:PDF>

Notwithstanding the fact that there has been significant progress in the extension of parental leave in EU Member States, women make up the majority of parental leave recipients. The proportion of all parental leave allocated to employed men compared to the leave allocated to employed women is a key indicator that links the reconciliation of work, private and family life to gender equality.

The data show a notable variation among countries in fathers' take-up of parental leave. For example, in 2007 in Sweden, there were 77 fathers for every 100 mothers taking parental leave, while in Germany, Estonia, France, Cyprus, Slovakia and Finland there were fewer than 10 fathers for every 100 mothers in parental leave. Fathers' use of parental leave is particularly low if parental leave is organised along family lines (not as an individual and non-transferable right) and if it is not well paid. However, the ratio of fathers taking paternity leave is higher than those taking parental leave, especially in France or Finland where paternity leave is relatively short and well paid compared to the parental leave benefit. A higher share of parental leave allocated to fathers is likely to ensure a stronger effect on a more gender-equal distribution of care work within families.

Maternity leave is regulated at the EU level by the 1992 directive, which lays down a minimum of 14 weeks. In October 2008, the Commission proposed to review the current legislation, as part of the work-life balance package, based on the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) maternity protection convention of 2000. The Maternity Leave Directive would have increased the compulsory maternity leave period in the EU from 14 to 18 weeks.

In October 2010 the European Parliament closed its first reading and submitted the amended legislation to the Council to extend maternity leave from 14 to 20 weeks on full pay and introduce 2 weeks of fully paid paternity leave. The text has remained in the Council ever since.

The European Commission issued an ultimatum in December 2014: the text would be scrapped if no progress was made within 6 months. The European Parliament, in a resolution voted on in May 2015, pressed the European Commission not to withdraw a draft EU Directive on maternity leave, despite 4 years of deadlock over it in the EU Council of Ministers. Nevertheless, in July 2015 the European Commission announced that with 'no prospect of progress', the bill would now be consigned to the scrapheap with 73 other draft laws on which no agreement was reached by the end of the last 2009-2014 legislature.

In August 2015 the Commission published a road map for the initiative *A new start to address the challenges of work-life balance faced by working families*, which will replace the 2008 Commission proposal to amend the Maternity Leave Directive. To this end, in November 2015, the European Commission launched a first stage consultation with EU social partner organisations on how to improve work-life balance and reduce obstacles to women's participation in the labour market. The consultation document gives an overview of the main challenges arising from work-life balance for parents and people with caring responsibilities; it takes stock of the current EU-level legislation already existing in the area of work-life balance such as maternity leave, parental leave and part-time work, and invites the social partners to identify possible improvements to existing EU-level legislation.

Gender pay gap

In spite of more than 30 years of equal pay legislation the GPG has remained persistent across all Member States regardless of the overall level of women's employment, national welfare models or equality legislation. A gender-segregated labour market, the difficulty of balancing work and family life, the undervaluation of women's skills and work are some of the complex causes of the persistent GPG.

State of Play

Men's monthly earnings are higher than women's in every occupation. Moreover, earnings in male-dominated occupations tend to be higher than in female-dominated occupations, and especially so for men in white-collar jobs. On average, per hour of work, women are paid 16.4 %⁽²²⁾ less than men. In 2013, across Member States, the GPG varied by 26.7 percentage points, ranging from 3.2 % in Slovenia to 29.9 % in Estonia⁽²³⁾.

The GPG⁽²⁴⁾ differs between Member States and between full-time and part-time jobs. In 2013, for full-time workers the highest pay gaps are observed in Hungary (above 20 %), and the lowest, less than 2 %, in Italy. In 2013 in the EU, the lowest GPGs for part-time workers were recorded as Malta (8.2 %), and the highest was Spain (33.7 %). In addition, women are more likely to work part-time and to interrupt their careers to care for others. As a result, the gender gap in

⁽²²⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Gender_pay_gap_statistics#Gender_pay_gap_levels

⁽²³⁾ Eurofound, *Third European quality of life survey*, 2013, <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys/european-quality-of-life-surveys/european-quality-of-life-survey-2012>.

⁽²⁴⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Gender_pay_gap_statistics#Gender_pay_gap_levels



pensions stands at 39 %⁽²⁵⁾. As highlighted by the European Commission⁽²⁶⁾, widows and lone parents — mainly mothers — are a particularly vulnerable group, and more than a third of lone parents are poor⁽²⁷⁾.

Research studies suggest that, even with all characteristics being equal (same length of service, same age, working in the same sector, same occupation and same level of education, etc.), women generally earn less than men — the so-called unexplained part in the pay gap which does not result from identifiable differences in characteristics observed⁽²⁸⁾. Furthermore, lower relative wages of women create a vicious circle⁽²⁹⁾. A lower wage encourages more women to stay at home and take family responsibility in unpaid work. As such, women are less involved in the labour market. As a consequence, the pay gap results in both a consequence and a cause of the lower hours worked by women.

Equal access to economic and financial resources is very important for a number of economic outcomes, including poverty reduction and social inclusion. On average, women in the EU-28 earn 16 % less than men. Sectoral and occupational segregation, women's over-representation in unpaid and part-time work and gender-based discrimination contribute to the pay gap, which increases in old age, as reflected in the gender gap in pensions of 39 %.

Inequality in decision-making positions

In the economy, women still have difficulties in reaching decision-making positions. Women business owners make up only 33.2 % of self-employed people, and women are still over-represented in lower-paid sectors across the EU. Management boards are dominated by men. Despite an intense public debate and some voluntary initiatives at

national and European level, only marginal improvements have been noted: an incremental average increase in the number of women on boards of just 0.6 percentage points per year has been recorded since 2003. At the governmental level, women account for 27 % of senior government ministers and 27 % of members of national parliaments⁽³⁰⁾.

Large companies across the EU continue to be disproportionately led by men, despite the strong economic and business advantages of gender balance and the presence of qualified and talented women. Data collected by the European Commission in 2014⁽³¹⁾ show that women account for an average of 20.2 % of top-level board members in the largest publicly listed companies registered in each of the EU Member States. There are only four countries — France, Latvia, Finland and Sweden — in which women account for at least a quarter of board members. Moreover, there are very few women in the most influential positions: only 3.3 % of chief executive officers are women.

There is considerable variation between Member States, ranging from 32 % of board members being women in France to just over 2 % in Malta. Although no Member State has yet achieved gender balance in the boardroom, there has been slight progress over the last decade thanks to intense debate and regulatory pressure. In October 2003, only two of the current Member States (Romania and Slovenia) had governing boards made up of at least 20 % women board members. 10 years on, 10 Member States have surpassed this level. However, there are still six Member States in which men hold more than 90 % of board positions.

Improvement has been made since 2010, when the European Commission⁽³²⁾ first announced that it would consider targeted initiatives to improve gender diversity in companies, stimulating debate and action across Europe.

⁽²⁵⁾ EIGE, *Gender gap in pensions in the EU*. Research note to the Latvian Presidency, 2015, http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH0415087ENN_Web.pdf.

⁽²⁶⁾ European Commission, *Report on progress on equality between women and men in 2013*, 2014, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/swd_2014_142_en.pdf.

⁽²⁷⁾ European Commission, *Report on progress on equality between women and men in 2013*, 2014, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/swd_2014_142_en.pdf.

⁽²⁸⁾ Belgian Presidency Report, *The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators*, 2010, http://igvm-iefh.belgium.be/sites/default/files/downloads/53%20-%20Gender%20pay%20gap%20in%20the%20member%20states%20of%20the%20EU_ENG.pdf.

Anderson, T., Forth, J., Metcalf, H. and Kirby, S., *The Gender Pay Gap: Final Report to the Women and Equality Unit*, The Cabinet Office, London, 2001.

⁽²⁹⁾ Belgian Presidency Report, *The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators*, 2010, http://igvm-iefh.belgium.be/sites/default/files/downloads/53%20-%20Gender%20pay%20gap%20in%20the%20member%20states%20of%20the%20EU_ENG.pdf.

⁽³⁰⁾ European Commission, *Women in economic decision-making in the EU: progress report*, 2012, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/women-on-boards_en.pdf.

⁽³¹⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/business-finance/index_en.htm

⁽³²⁾ European Commission, *Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015*, 2010, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/strategy_equality_women_men_en.pdf.

Economic independence

Equal economic independence is vital for gender equality, as well as economic growth and prosperity. It can generally be achieved through equal access to, and control over, critical economic resources and opportunities and through equal access to employment.

Studies show a strong positive correlation between economic growth and gender equality⁽³³⁾. Consistently, EIGE's Gender Equality Index⁽³⁴⁾ shows a clear positive relationship between gender equality and GDP in the EU Member States. Furthermore, women's ability to develop their full labour market potential has been associated with significant macroeconomic gains⁽³⁵⁾. Conversely, the loss in GDP per capita due to the GPG has been estimated to amount to as much as 27 % in parts of the EU⁽³⁶⁾. Increasing women's labour market participation could thus lead to increases in GDP. Additionally, increases in labour market participation can reduce poverty among women and will widen the tax base, specifically if the wage gap is effectively addressed⁽³⁷⁾.

Women are instead less likely than men to be self-employed, due to traditional perceptions of gender roles, but also to the greater difficulties women have in accessing financial funds, training, networking and in reconciling business and family.

While women are under-represented in self-employment, they are more likely to be involved in 'bogus' (i.e. not genuine) self-employment, which is linked with higher risks of poverty and defined by dependency on only one client, the presence of regular payments and the lack of capacity to freely hire new workers and/or make important business decisions⁽³⁸⁾.

Overall, women are substantially under-represented among self-employed workers, while simultaneously being more likely to be self-employed on their own account. Moreover, self-employment leads to much lower earnings and income for women and can lead to a greater risk of poverty over the life course, as women are more likely to work in more labour-intensive and less profitable sectors than men. The GPG between women and men in self-employment vividly illustrates the disparities, standing at 45 % at EU level⁽³⁹⁾.

A clearer differentiation between entrepreneurship and self-employment can aid the implementation and monitoring of policies promoting women's entrepreneurship.

Women face a number of difficulties and obstacles in setting up and maintaining businesses. Although most of these difficulties are common to both sexes, in many cases they tend to be more significant for women entrepreneurs. These include access to finance, unfavourable business regulations, cultural barriers, choice of business types and sectors, information and training gaps, lack of contacts and access to social support and networking, differences in the way women and men approach entrepreneurship, educational and occupational segregation and competing demands on time (double burden of home and work responsibilities)⁽⁴⁰⁾.

Overall, women are less likely than men to be entrepreneurs, due to traditional perceptions of gender roles, but also to the greater difficulties women have in accessing financial funds, training, networking and in reconciling business and family. As highlighted by the European Commission⁽⁴¹⁾ the proportion of female entrepreneurs, at 33 % (30 % in start-ups), is some way short of optimal and most women still do not consider entrepreneurship as a relevant career option.

⁽³³⁾ Duflo, E., 'Women Empowerment and Economic Development,' *Journal of Economic Literature*, Vol. 50, No 4, American Economic Association, Nashville, 2012, pp. 1051-1079.

Loko, B., Diouf, M.A., 'Revisiting the Determinants of Productivity Growth: What's New?', *IMF Working Paper 09/225*, Washington, 2009.

⁽³⁴⁾ <http://eige.europa.eu/news-and-events/news/eige-launches-gender-equality-index-2015-marginal-improvements-gender-equality>

⁽³⁵⁾ International Monetary Fund, *Women, work, and the economy: Macroeconomic gains from gender equity*, 2013, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/sdn/2013/sdn1310.pdf>.

⁽³⁶⁾ Cuberes, D. and Teignier, M., 'Gender Gaps in the Labor Market and Aggregate Productivity', *Sheffield Economic Research Paper SERP 2012017*, 2012.

⁽³⁷⁾ EIGE, *Gender equality and economic independence: part-time work and self-employment*, 2014, <http://eige.europa.eu/rdc/eige-publications/gender-equality-and-economic-independence-part-time-work-and-self-employment-report>.

⁽³⁸⁾ Eurofound, *Women, men and working conditions in Europe*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, 2013.

⁽³⁹⁾ EIGE, *Gender equality and economic independence: part-time work and self-employment*, 2014, <http://eige.europa.eu/rdc/eige-publications/gender-equality-and-economic-independence-part-time-work-and-self-employment-report>.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ EIGE, *Good practices in the area of women's entrepreneurship*, http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/MH0414409ENN_Web.pdf.

⁽⁴¹⁾ European Commission, *Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015*, 2010, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/strategy_equality_women_men_en.pdf.



Realising both women's and men's full labour market potential can lead to significant macroeconomic gains. However, despite the progress made in women's economic empowerment through increases in educational attainment and the share of paid work, the unequal distribution of unpaid work and the gender segregation in employment and education hinder equal access to economic resources for women and men. Employed women are over-represented in the service sectors and in occupations that are characterised by lower status, career opportunities and pay, as well as in part-time work.

As the Commission's strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 points out, economic independence is a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives.

'There has been progress in most areas, but achieved at an uneven pace. At this rate of change, it will take almost 30 years to reach the EU's target of 75 % of women in employment, over 70 years to make equal pay a reality, over 20 years to achieve parity in national parliaments (at least 40 % of each gender), over 20 years to achieve gender balance on the boards of Europe's biggest companies and almost 40 years to ensure that housework is equally shared' ⁽⁴²⁾.

Equal access to economic and financial resources is very important for a number of economic outcomes, including poverty reduction and social inclusion. Sectoral and occupational segregation, women's over-representation in unpaid and part-time work and gender-based discrimination contribute to the pay gap (on average, women in the EU-28 earn 16 % less than men), which increases in old age, as is reflected in the gender gap in pensions of 39 % in 2009.

Furthermore, due to women's over-representation in unpaid work, they are more likely than men to cite family, personal or care reasons as the main reason for not seeking employment or for working part time.'

⁽⁴²⁾ Report on progress on equality between women and men in 2013, Brussels, 14.4.2014 SWD(2014) 142 final, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/swd_2014_142_en.pdf.

3. Gender equality policy objectives at the EU and international levels

EU level

Both equal economic independence and gender equality are fundamental principles of EU policy, going back to the introduction of the principle of equal pay with the 1957 Treaty of Rome. Since then the EU's approach to economic independence and gender equality in the labour market has expanded significantly in scope, in both soft and hard law.

The 1997 European employment strategy (EES) was a significant policy development, as it relied on a greater awareness of women's potential economic contribution and the detrimental effect gender inequality could have on jobs and growth ⁽⁴³⁾.

The introduction in 2010 of the Europe 2020 employment strategy, aiming to achieve smarter, more sustainable and more inclusive economic growth, marked another important turning point in the evolution of European employment policy. In contrast to the 1997 EES, Europe 2020 shows a rather limited consideration of gender as it sets a headline target for employment of 75 % for the population aged 20-64, which may be difficult to achieve if gendered labour market participation or the impact of gendered norms and attitudes are not specifically taken into consideration.

The employment guidelines ⁽⁴⁴⁾ include several considerations on gender equality. In *Guideline 5: boosting demand for labour*, mention is made of the promotion of entrepreneurship and in particular to the support to the creation and growth of small enterprises in order to increase the employment rate of women and men. In *Guideline 6: enhancing labour supply and skills*, gender equality including equal pay is said to be ensured in the labour market as well as access to affordable quality early childhood education and care. *Guideline 7: enhancing the functioning of labour markets* mentions work-life balance. *Guideline 8: ensuring fairness, combating poverty and promoting equal opportunities* stresses the need to reform the pension systems in order to secure their sustainability and adequacy for women and men.

In September 2010 the European Commission published the *Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015* ⁽⁴⁵⁾, which includes the following actions that address some of the remaining gender gaps:

- Improving women's participation in the labour market by facilitating work-life balance.
- Promoting female entrepreneurship and working with Member States on the availability of affordable high-quality childcare.
- Equal pay, e.g. working with European social partners to improve the transparency of pay schemes.
- Ensuring that women's careers are not blocked by a glass ceiling effect. The European Commission will work together with the private sector to raise the number of women in economic decision-making positions — either through self-regulation or an EU initiative.

The European Pact for Gender Equality (2011-2020) ⁽⁴⁶⁾ reaffirms the EU's commitments to closing gender gaps in employment, education and social protection, promoting better work-life balance for women and men and combating all forms of violence against women.

In addition to the European Commission's strategy acknowledging equal economic independence as 'a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and to make genuine choices', the EU has adopted a number of directives relating to equal economic independence.

Given that women are generally disadvantaged financially and exposed to greater risks of social exclusion, the elimination of the GPG has long been a priority for the EU in a number of policy areas.

⁽⁴³⁾ European Commission, *Gender Equality, employment policies and the crisis in EU Member States*, 2009.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Brussels, 2.3.2015 COM(2015) 98 final ANNEX 1 Integrated guidelines to the Proposal for a Council Decision on guidelines for the employment policies of the Member States.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ European Commission, *Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015*, 2010, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/strategy_equality_women_men_en.pdf.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Council of the European Union, *Council conclusions on the European pact for gender equality for the period 2011-2020*, 2011, https://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lsa/119628.pdf.



The principle of equal pay was first introduced with the 1957 Treaty of Rome. Directive 2006/54/EC (recast) ⁽⁴⁷⁾ expanded on this ⁽⁴⁸⁾ and introduced the principle of the equal treatment of women and men in employment and occupations.

The European Commission's Communication of 2007 on the GPG ⁽⁴⁹⁾ proposed a series of actions to tackle this problem. These included a better application of existing legislation, fighting the GPG in employment policies, promoting equal pay among employers and through social partnership, and supporting the exchange of good practices across the EU. A new measurement methodology (based on the structure of earnings survey (SES)) has been implemented in order to obtain harmonised and comparable data on the unadjusted GPG across Member States. Moreover, a major communication campaign was launched on International Women's Day 2009, including exchanges of good practice between Member States on counselling services for employers and employees and on awareness raising.

In Europe, the principle of equal pay was first introduced with the 1957 Treaty of Rome and it was successfully invoked in 1975 to defend Gabrielle Defrenne, who was an air hostess working for the Belgian national airline. The rights stemming from the Defrenne case are an unshakeable legacy for women in the EU, since the case led to the adoption of the first European directives on gender equality ⁽⁵⁰⁾. Directive 2006/54/EC (recast) ⁽⁵¹⁾ expanded on this and introduced the principle of the equal treatment of women and men in employment and occupations.

In 2012 and 2013 the Commission funded *Equality pays off* ⁽⁵²⁾, which supported employers in their efforts to tackle the GPG by organising training activities for companies in

34 European countries. As part of this project, a business forum ⁽⁵³⁾ was held on 21 March 2013 in Brussels. It enabled 165 representatives of companies, multiplier organisations and institutions to exchange knowledge and strategies on how to best foster gender equality.

Other directives have been concerned with employees' work-life balance (Directive 1992/85/EC ⁽⁵⁴⁾ and the Parental Leave Directive 96/34/EC amended by Directive 2010/18/EU ⁽⁵⁵⁾ and the safety of employed mothers ⁽⁵⁶⁾.

As anticipated before, in August 2015 the Commission published a road map for the initiative *A new start to address the challenges of work-life balance faced by working families*, which will replace the 2008 Commission proposal to amend the maternity leave directive.

In light of the rising engagement of both women and men in non-traditional forms of employment (e.g. part-time work), the EU has adopted legislation on the equal treatment of part-time and fixed-term workers (Directive 1997/81/EC ⁽⁵⁷⁾; Directive 1999/70/EC ⁽⁵⁸⁾). The directive on part-time work establishes a framework to eliminate discrimination against part-time workers and to promote the quality of part-time work. It also aims to facilitate the development of part-time work on a voluntary basis and to contribute to the flexible organisation of working time in a manner that takes into account the needs of both employers and workers. Both directives are based on framework agreements between EU social partners. Framework agreements are major joint inputs by the social partners into European labour law and practice.

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Directive 2006/54/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast), <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006L0054&from=EN>.

⁽⁴⁸⁾ Council Directive of 9 February 1976 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions (76/207/EEC).

⁽⁴⁹⁾ European Commission COM(2007) 424 final, Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, Tackling the pay gap between women and men, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52007DC0424&from=EN>.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ Council Directive of 9 February 1976 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions (76/207/EEC), <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31976L0207&from=EN>.

⁽⁵¹⁾ Directive 2006/54/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast), <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006L0054&from=EN>.

⁽⁵²⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/eu_funded-projects/equality-pays-off/index_en.htm

⁽⁵³⁾ <http://ec.europa.eu/justice/events/equality-pays-off-forum-2013/>

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Council Directive 92/85/EEC of 19 October 1992 on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding (tenth individual Directive within the meaning of Article 16(1) of Directive 89/391/EEC), <https://osha.europa.eu/en/legislation/directives/10>.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ Council Directive 2010/18/EU of 8 March 2010 implementing the revised Framework Agreement on parental leave concluded by BUSINESSEUROPE, UEAPME, CEEP and ETUC and repealing Directive 96/34/EC, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:068:0013:0020:en:PDF>.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Council Directive 92/85/EEC of 19 October 1992 on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding (tenth individual Directive within the meaning of Article 16 (1) of Directive 89/391/EEC), <https://osha.europa.eu/en/legislation/directives/10>.

⁽⁵⁷⁾ Council Directive 97/81/EC of 15 December 1997 concerning the Framework Agreement on part-time work concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC — Annex: framework agreement on part-time work.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ Council Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June 1999 concerning the framework agreement on fixed-term work concluded by ETUC, UNICE and CEEP, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex:31999L0070>.

The European social partners — the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), BusinessEurope (formerly UNICE), the European Association of Craft, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (UEAPME) and the European Centre of Enterprises with Public Participation and of Enterprises of General Economic Interest (CEEP) — adopted a framework of actions on gender equality on 22 March 2005. The joint text highlights four priorities for national social partners to focus on over the coming five years: addressing gender roles, promoting women in decision making, supporting work-life balance and tackling the GPG.

Directive 2010/41/EU⁽⁵⁹⁾ extends the principle of equal treatment between women and men to self-employed workers and aims to improve the protection of self-employed women and their assisting spouses or life partners, for instance by introducing maternity leave and allowances of at least 14 weeks.

In response to the high level of unemployment in Europe, in April 2012 the European Commission launched a set of measures to boost jobs, the so-called *Employment package*⁽⁶⁰⁾. It identifies the EU's biggest potential areas for jobs and the most effective ways for EU countries to create more jobs. It also builds on Europe 2020's agenda for new skills and jobs. All Member States have committed to achieving Europe 2020 targets and have translated them into national targets and growth-enhancing policies.

In 2013, in light of these developments, the EU took significant actions to accelerate progress towards genuine equality. In the framework of the Europe 2020 strategy for growth, country-specific recommendations aimed at promoting female employment were addressed to 13 Member States. To support Member States, significant co-funding possibilities will be offered through the 2014-2020 European Structural and Investment Funds to invest in childcare facilities and promote women's participation in the labour market.

In 2012 the European Commission⁽⁶¹⁾ adopted a proposal for a directive with an objective of 4 % of the under-represented sex among non-executive directors by 2020, and the European Parliament supported its objective and approach

in 2013⁽⁶²⁾. The directive must now be agreed in Council by EU Ministers to become law⁽⁶³⁾.

Gender balance in management positions

A 2009 analysis showed that of the more than 35 000 employees of the European Commission, the majority (53.5 %) were women, but also that women are under-represented in three areas: senior management posts (21.4 %), middle management posts (23.2 %) and non-management posts (40.4 %). Therefore, the equal opportunity strategy 2010-2014⁽⁶⁴⁾ fixed targets for 31 December 2014: 25 % women for senior management, 30 % for middle management and 43 % for non-management administrative posts. The strategy is based on the following principles.

- Commitment of management: managers are the main key to success and must be visible models in terms of equality both within and outside the institution. Creating an environment that favours equal opportunities requires a collective effort by everyone — directors-general, directors and heads of unit — to bring about a general change in behaviour.
- Participation of all staff: staff must be at the centre of this strategy so they understand and share the ambition and objectives, and become agents for change at their level.
- Collaboration: success relies on pooling the ideas and capacities of all stakeholders. This strategy will support the directorates-general and services in their efforts to ensure that their organisation and operations are in line with the commitments made under this strategy and favour their implementation.
- Accountability: in return, the services and individual managers must play an active role, and, as part of local as well as central reporting procedures, they must report on their performance, including the progress they have achieved and not just the actions taken.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ Directive 2010/41/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 July 2010 on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity in a self-employed capacity and repealing Council Directive 86/613/EEC, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:180:0001:0006:en:PDF>.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ European Commission, COM(2012) 173 final, communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions towards a job-rich recovery, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:52012DC0173>.

⁽⁶¹⁾ European Commission COM(2012) 614 final, proposal for a directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on improving the gender balance among non-executive directors of companies listed on stock exchanges and related measures, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2012:0614:FIN:en:PDF>.

⁽⁶²⁾ <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+REPORT+A7-2013-0340+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>

⁽⁶³⁾ http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-15-4563_en.htm

⁽⁶⁴⁾ European Commission, SEC(2010) 1554/3, Communication to the Commission on the strategy on equal opportunities for women and men within the European Commission (2010-2014), http://ec.europa.eu/civil_service/docs/equal_opp/strategie_1554_en.pdf.



The strategy is built around three pillars: talent management, a respectful working environment and a flexible working environment. To meet the targets, throughout this period half of all appointments to replace retiring senior or middle management workers must be women, and for all services half of the first recruitments should be women.

In a press release to mark International Women's Day 2014 ⁽⁶⁵⁾, the European Commission stated it had achieved its equal opportunity targets 11 months ahead of schedule: 'The latest figures show that all 3 targets were achieved on 1 February 2014: 27.9 % of senior managers are now women, 30.3 % of middle managers [are women] and 43.2 % of non-management administrators [are women]. These percentages are expected to continue rising. They represent a significant improvement compared to 1995, when just 4 % of senior managers were women, 10.7 % of middle managers [were women] and 23.9 % of non-management administrators [were women].'

European Parliament and the Council of the European Union

The European Parliament ⁽⁶⁶⁾ has called for action on gender gaps in economic governance. A report in June 2011 on women and business leadership from the Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality was followed in July 2011 by the European Parliament adopting a resolution which supported the Commission's action in March 2011 ⁽⁶⁷⁾. The resolution called for the Commission to propose legislation, including quotas, by 2012 if the steps taken by companies and Member States to reach the targets of 30 % female representation in management bodies by 2015 and 40 % by 2020 are found to be inadequate. It also called for data on female representation in all types of companies in the EU, and measures taken to increase representation. The resolution referred to previous actions in this area, including the report and resolution on corporate governance in financial institutions. The resolution on corporate governance ⁽⁶⁸⁾ recognised that while a 'one size fits all' approach would be inappropriate given the diversity of both corporate structures and approaches to their regulation across the EU, strong minimum standards were nevertheless required to ensure good governance across the financial sector.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-14-222_en.htm.

⁽⁶⁶⁾ Directorate-General for Internal Policies, *Gender quotas in management boards*, 2012, <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/document/activities/cont/201202/20120216ATT38420/20120216ATT38420EN.pdf>.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ European Parliament resolution of 6 July 2011 on women and business leadership, 2011, <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//NONGMML+TA+P7-TA-2011-0330+0+DOC+PDF+V0//EN>.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ European Parliament resolution of 11 May 2011 on corporate governance in financial institutions. <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//NONGMML+TA+P7-TA-2011-0223+0+DOC+PDF+V0//EN>.

International level

United Nations

This section outlines a number of important international work-related policy instruments and agreements with particular emphasis on gender equality.

Economic independence is a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and to make genuine choices. Paragraph 26 of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) mentions a clear commitment of states to 'promote women's economic independence, including employment, and eradicate the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women by addressing the structural causes of poverty through changes in economic structures, ensuring equal access for all women, including those in rural areas, as vital development agents, to productive resources, opportunities and public services.' Area F (Women and economy) of the BPfA makes specific reference to women's employment (and in particular female access to different type of contracts and working conditions) from the perspective of women's economic independence.

Two of the International Labour Organization's (ILO) eight core conventions, which all Member States are required to respect and work towards, deal directly with gender equality:

- Convention No 100 on the Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value 1951.
- Convention No 111 ⁽⁶⁹⁾ concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupations, 1958. The latter is particularly broad-ranging and covers many aspects of discrimination in working life.

These conventions are part of the ILO's *Fundamental principles and rights at work* ⁽⁷⁰⁾. In addition, there are other ILO conventions and recommendations that also specifically refer to promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in employment. Some of the main ones are listed in the following box.

⁽⁶⁹⁾ http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C111

⁽⁷⁰⁾ <http://www.ilo.org/declaration/lang-en/index.htm>

Work and family	C103 Maternity Protection Convention (Revised), 1952 C183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 C156 Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981
Employment promotion	C122 Employment Policy Convention, 1964 C142 Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 C158 Termination of Employment Convention, 1982
Working conditions	C089 Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1948 C177 Home Work Convention, 1996 C175 Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 C097 Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949

Gender mainstreaming within the decent work ⁽⁷¹⁾ and the global employment ⁽⁷²⁾ agendas

In addition to its conventions and recommendations, gender equality cuts across the ILO's Decent Work Agenda and provides a framework for promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in the world of work.

The Global Employment Agenda (GEA) is the ILO's strategy for operationalising decent work in employment within the Decent Work Agenda. The GEA establishes decent work as a productive factor in itself and as a key strategy for productive job creation, sustainable development and poverty reduction.

Within the GEA, employment is placed at the heart of economic and social policies. There is a firm principle that there can be no trade-offs between the quantity and quality of employment. The GEA seeks to show that discrimination is a violation of human rights. It also has macroeconomic implications (i.e. where female labour is not appropriately used or rewarded there will be less productivity and more poverty than there might otherwise be).

The GEA is composed of 10 core elements, each with implications for the position of women in the labour force.

The Decent Work Agenda and gender equality are being mainstreamed into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Specifically, SDG 8 ⁽⁷³⁾ — to 'promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all' — includes a target aiming to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value by 2030.

International Labour Organisation

The ILO Equal Remuneration Convention in 1951 (No 100) was the first international instrument on women's and men's right to equal pay for work of equal value. It was no coincidence that the convention was adopted after the Second World War, as women had been on the front-line of production during the war in many countries. The ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention ⁽⁷⁴⁾ 1958 (No 111) is closely linked to Convention No 100 and prohibits distinctions, exclusions or preferences made on various grounds, including sex, that have the effect of impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation. The accompanying recommendation refers to the need to formulate a national policy for the prevention of discrimination in employment and occupation.

⁽⁷¹⁾ <http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm>

⁽⁷²⁾ http://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/WCMS_DOC_EMP_ARE_GEA_EN/lang--en/index.htm

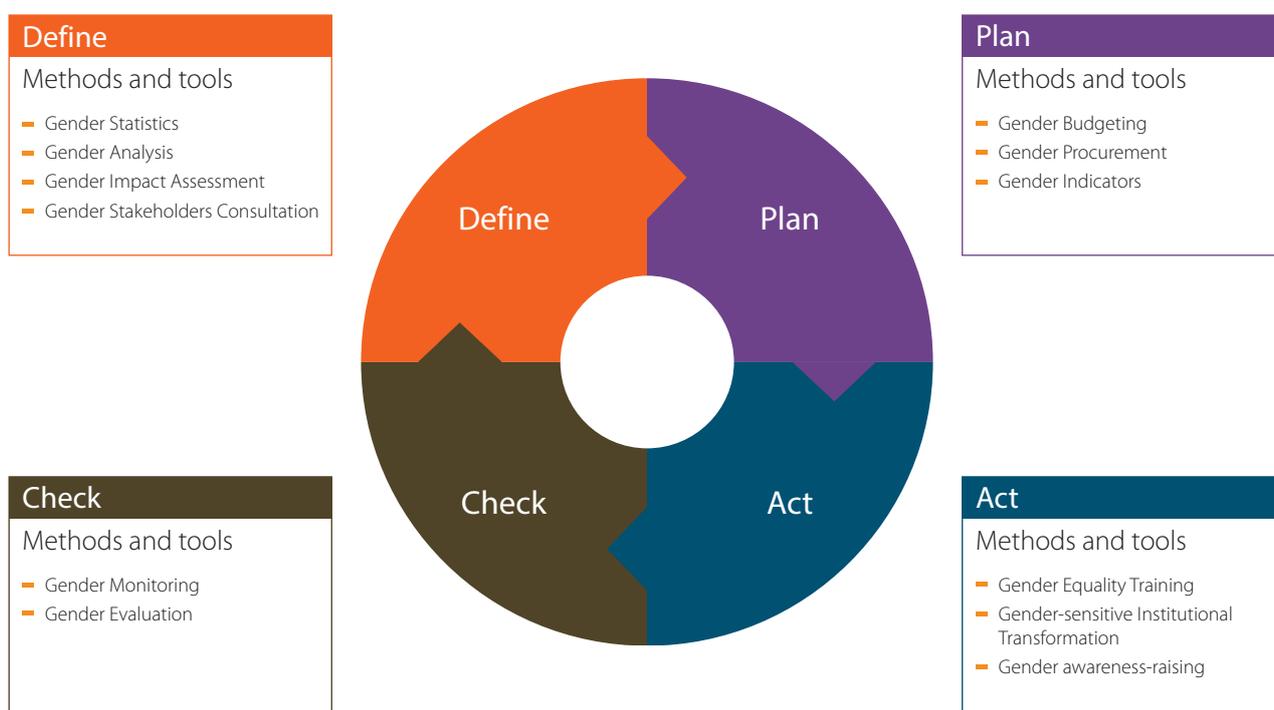
⁽⁷³⁾ <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgsproposal>

⁽⁷⁴⁾ http://www.businessanddisability.org/images/pdf/ilo_c111.pdf

4. How and when? Employment and the integration of the gender dimension into the policy cycle

The gender dimension can be integrated in all phases of the policy cycle.

Below, you can find useful resources and practical examples for mainstreaming gender into research policies. They are organised according to the most relevant phase of the policy cycle they may serve.



Define

In this phase, it is recommended that information is gathered on the situation of women and men in a particular area. This means looking for sex-disaggregated data and gender statistics, and checking for the existence of studies, programme or project reports and/or evaluations from previous periods.

Examples of gender and employment statistics

Eurostat

The European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) provides the main aggregated statistics on labour market outcomes in

the EU. The EU-LFS is the main data source for employment and unemployment. Tables on population, employment, working hours, permanency of job, professional status, etc. are included. It provides disaggregated statistics by sex, age groups, economic activity, education attainment and field of education, type of employment (part-time, full-time), type of occupation (temporary) from which it is possible to measure the characteristics of the labour force of women. Starting from 1999, every year the survey has included an ad hoc module on specific topics. In 2005 and 2010, the module was on reconciliation of work and family life. <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/microdata/european-union-labour-force-survey>

The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions's (EU-SILC) European Union Living Conditions Survey is the main source for the compilation of statistics on income, social inclusion and living conditions at the EU-28 level.

EU-SILC was launched in 2003 in seven countries under a gentleman's agreement and was later gradually extended to all EU countries and beyond. The EU-SILC survey has been conducted in 32 countries, i.e. the 28 EU countries plus Iceland, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, and tested in two further countries (the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Serbia). These cover objective and subjective aspects of the themes in both monetary and non-monetary terms, for households and individuals. It contains, among other things, information on wages, incomes, working hours and use of childcare.

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/microdata/european-union-statistics-on-income-and-living-conditions>

Unpaid family work and the use of time. Traditionally, harmonised data on time use are rather scarce. However, the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS) enables an illustration of how the daily time of European women and men is distributed among different activities, highlighting gender gaps and cross-national differences. HETUS contains harmonised information on the use of time by each member of the household. The list of domestic activities available in HETUS is fairly comprehensive. In 2008, Eurostat released an updated version of the guidelines on HETUS, the purpose of which is to provide a solid methodological basis for countries intending to carry out time use surveys, to ensure that the results are comparable between countries and hence to greatly increase the value of the data.

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/en/web/products-manuals-and-guidelines/-/KS-RA-08-014>

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/ramon/statmanuals/files/KS-RA-08-014-EN.pdf>

The European Union Structure of Earnings Survey (EU-SES). The EU-SES is a large enterprise sample survey providing detailed and comparable information on the relationships between the level of remuneration and individual characteristics of employees (sex, age, occupation, length of service, highest educational level attained, etc.) and those of their employer (economic activity, size and location of the enterprise). This is the basis for collecting data on earnings and the GPG in EU-28 Member States. The data collection is based on legislation and data became available approximately 2 years after the end of the reference period. Earnings statistics vary with regard to periodicity of the data collection (biannual, annual and 4-yearly), coverage (economic activity, enterprise size) and units of measurement (hourly, monthly or yearly earnings). In particular, EU-SES provides information on annual gross earnings, net earnings and tax rate, GPG and minimum wages. Data are broken down by economic activity (NACE: Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community), form of economic and financial control (public/private) of the enterprise and age classes of employees. Data and indicators are included in the Eurostat earnings database.

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/microdata/structure-of-earnings-survey>

Eurofound

The European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS). To date the survey, which interviews both employees and self-employed people on key issues relating to their work and employment, has been carried out five times. Themes covered today include employment status, working-time duration and organisation, work organisation, learning and training, physical and psychosocial risk factors, health and safety, work-life balance, worker participation, earnings and financial security, as well as work and health.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/european-working-conditions-surveys-ewcs>

The European Quality of Life Survey is undertaken every 4 years by Eurofound. It includes questions on how often individuals are involved in any activities outside paid work (e.g. caring for children, housework, caring for elderly, disabled relatives) and how many hours and days individuals are involved in those activities.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/qualityoflife/eqls/index>

The online salary check/wage indicator started in the Netherlands and is now available for 60 different countries. Workers, employers and policymakers can check whether there is equal pay for equal work. The aim is to provide the most reliable wage information for any specific occupation and worker profile. By providing reliable information about empirically observed gender pay differentials, the wage indicator hopes to contribute to a more transparent and equitable labour market. The salary checker calculation uses the gross hourly wage rate computed from gross earnings and the number of hours worked. The wage indicator collects data by means of a strictly voluntary web-based survey available at national wage indicator sites. The wage indicator questionnaire has been translated into 20 languages so far and operates in 60 countries. The survey questionnaire is similar to those used by statistical agencies for standard labour force surveys; it is designed to be easily understood and involves only multiple-choice questions. The collected data are anonymised, and strictly applied measures ensure data security. The wage indicator recognises more than 1 700 different occupations. The classification of occupations is based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) provided by the ILO.

<http://www.wageindicator.org/main>



United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE):
The UNECE Statistics Database

This website aims to bring together both gender statistics and policies. Focus is on the production, dissemination and use of gender-related data. In addition to statistics, the website outlines some of the main gender issues relevant to the UNECE region, and provides examples of policies and other initiatives. It also contains thematic pages on topics consisting of important methodologies and examples of survey instruments. The UNECE Gender Statistics Database helps to monitor the situation of women and men in all UNECE member countries. It contains data on employment and unemployment disaggregated by sex.

<http://www.unece.org/statistics/areas-of-work/statssochtml/gender-statistics.html>

International Labour Organisation

The ILO Database of Labour Statistics ((Ilostat)) database provides multiple datasets with annual and intra-annual labour market statistics for over 100 indicators and 230 countries, areas and territories.

http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/oracle/webcenter/portallapp/pagehierarchy/Page131.jspx?_afLoop=2249312998901475&clean=true#%40%3F_afLoop%3D2249312998901475%26clean%3Dtrue%26_adf.ctrl-state%3D1514sxfqdr_9

Examples of studies, research and reports

European Commission, *Gender mainstreaming of employment policies: a comparative review of 30 European countries*, 2007

This report provides a checklist for effective gender mainstreaming and analyses the most relevant employment policy domains from a gender perspective.

<http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=2059&langId=en>

Gender equality, employment policies and the crisis in EU Member States, 2009

This report analyses the gendered impact of the recession and underlines why it is important to keep gender equality central to responses at both the European and Member State level since losing sight of equality issues risks undermining EU long-term strategic goals. Gender mainstreaming in labour market analyses and policy reactions can be considered an important tool in this time of crisis for effective responses to help both men and women in European labour markets.

<http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=5630&langId=en>

European Commission, *The impact of the economic crisis on the situation of women and men and on gender equality policies*, 2012

This report provides an assessment of the impact of this crisis on the situation of women and men in Europe and on gender equality policies. It covers 27 Member States, the European Economic Area-European Free Trade Agreement countries and three candidate countries: Turkey, Croatia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The core reference period for analysis of the labour market impact is the (nearly) 4 years between the second quarter of 2008 — when the crisis technically started for the EU as a whole — and the first quarter of 2012.

http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/130522_crisis_report_en.pdf

Tax Deductions for Domestic Service Work in Sweden

On 1 July 2007, household-related services became tax-deductible. The deduction effectively reduces the cost of buying such services by around 50 %. One of the aims of introducing tax relief in this area is to enable members of the household to increase their time in gainful employment and to make it easier for women and men to combine family life and working life on equal terms. One of the positive effects of tax relief for household-related services reported by the government in the government bill of 2011 was that a large percentage of those who work and have started working as a result of this deduction were women of foreign origin, who generally have a very weak position in the labour market.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/observatories/emcc/case-studies/tackling-undeclared-work-in-europe/tax-deductions-for-domestic-service-work-sweden>

One of the first steps to take when defining your policy/project/programme is to gather information and analyse the situation of women and men in the respective policy area. The information and data you collect will allow an understanding of the reality and assist you in designing your policy, programme or project. Specific methods that can be used in this phase are gender analysis and gender impact assessment.

Examples of gender analysis

Gender pay gap in Estonia: Empirical analysis; Gender pay gap in Estonia: Policy recommendations

The first article provides an overview of the development trends of the GPG in Estonia and in the other EU Member States, and analyses the consequent results on the size of the explained and unexplained pay gap. It is accompanied by an article that covers recommendations regarding measures to reduce the GPG for the following topics: a general change in attitudes, a more precise determination of rights and obligations, reconciliation of work and family life, reducing gender segregation in the labour market and education, organisational practices and monitoring the changes in the pay gap.

<http://www.gendercop.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/Gender-Pay-Gap-in-Estonia-Empirical-analysis.pdf>

<http://www.gendercop.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/Gender-Pay-Gap-in-Estonia-Policy-recommendations.pdf>

Examples of gender impact assessments

Gender Impact Assessment and the Employment Strategy, Austria.

The report provides a gender impact assessment analysis of the employment policy planned and implemented in Austria until 2000 by Federal Government and PES (Public Employment Services).

http://www.forba.at/data/downloads/file/22-FORBA_FB_00-4.pdf

Gender Equality Impact Assessment of Recruitment and Selection Policies, Processes and Practices for Internal Staff, the Open University.

This equality impact assessment of the recruitment and selection policy for internal staff in respect of gender was sponsored by the Director of Human Resources. One of the Open University's strategic priorities is to diversify its staff base to reflect an increasingly diverse student body. The policy is designed to provide a fair, robust and efficient recruitment and selection process which complies with current legislation and best practice. It operates within the framework of equality and diversity policies to ensure job applicants at all stages of the process are treated solely on the basis of their merits, regardless of age, disability, family circumstance, gender, political opinion, race, colour, nationality, ethnic or national origin, religion or belief, sexual orientation, socioeconomic background, trade union membership or other distinctions.

<http://www.open.ac.uk/equality-diversity/sites/www.open.ac.uk/equality-diversity/files/files/ecms/web-content/GENDER-EQIA-report-internal-recruitment-policy-practices-and-processes-March-2011.pdf>

Consider consulting stakeholders (e.g. gender experts, civil society organisations) on the topic at hand, to share and validate your findings and to improve your policy or programme proposal. This will enhance the learning process on the subject for all those involved and will improve the quality of the work performed at the EU level.

Examples of stakeholders that can be consulted

European Network to Promote Women's Entrepreneurship (WES)

The WES is a policy network with members from 31 European countries (the EU-28, Iceland, Norway and Turkey). The delegates represent national governments and institutions. They are responsible for promoting and supporting female entrepreneurship at national level. WES members provide advice, support, information and contacts regarding existing support measures for female entrepreneurs. They also help identify good practices.

http://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/we-work-for/women/support-networks/index_en.htm

European Network of Mentors for Women Entrepreneurs

The European Network of Mentors for Women Entrepreneurs provides advice and support to women entrepreneurs on the start-up, management and growth of their businesses in the early phases (from the second to the fourth year of existence of a new woman-run and owned enterprise).

http://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/we-work-for/women/support-networks/index_en.htm

The European Network of Female Entrepreneurship Ambassadors

The European Network of Female Entrepreneurship Ambassadors was inaugurated in 2009. It is made up of around 270 entrepreneurs from 22 European countries. The aim of the ambassadors is to act as role models by telling their story to raise awareness and encourage entrepreneurship as a career option for women of all ages.

http://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/we-work-for/women/support-networks/index_en.htm



Eurofound

The European Foundation for the Improvement of living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) is a tripartite EU Agency whose role is to provide knowledge in the area of social and work-related policies. Eurofound's role is to provide information, advice and expertise — on living and working conditions, industrial relations and managing change in Europe — for key actors in the field of EU social policy on the basis of comparative information, research and analysis. <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/about-eurofound>

International Labour Organization (ILO)

The ILO is devoted to promoting social justice and internationally recognised human and labour rights, pursuing its founding mission that labour peace is essential to prosperity. Today, the ILO helps advance the creation of decent work and the economic and working conditions that give working people and business people a stake in lasting peace, prosperity and progress.

Plan

DESIGN PLAN ACT CHECK

In this phase, it's appropriate to analyse budgets from a gender perspective. Gender budgeting is used to identify how budget allocations contribute to promoting gender equality. Gender budgeting brings visibility to how much public money is spent for women and men respectively. Thus, gender budgeting ensures that public funds are fairly distributed between women and men. It also contributes to accountability and transparency about how public funds are being spent.

Example of gender budgeting in employment

Gender-budget analysis of social protection and active employment policies in the Republic of Macedonia

The objective of the programme is to initiate the process of incorporation of gender perspectives in the budget policies at national level, leading to proper and gender responsive allocation of resources, and better transparency and accountability of the government's budget in terms of gender equality.

<http://www.mtsp.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/Rodova%20Analiza%20ANGLISKI%2001%20MART%202010.pdf>

Examples of indicators for monitoring gender and employment

Analyses often consider the question of employment and the participation rate of women and men without considering the quality of their working situation and the segregation issue. In some circumstances the consideration of only one dimension might give a misleading picture of the situation and lead to the idea that women's situation in the labour market is better than men's.

Indeed, as traditional measures of employment rely on headcount measures for employment, they fail to account for women's over-representation in part-time work. In order to assess the impact of gender norms and women's and men's labour force participation with regard to part-time work and self-employment, new indicators have been developed, as explained below.

The full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate

Employment can be measured in terms of the number of persons or jobs, in terms of FTE employment or in hours worked. Traditional measures of employment usually rely on headcount measures and as such do not reflect the heterogeneity of working hours among employees, thereby tending to overestimate women's employment. The FTE employment rate addresses this by accounting for hours worked, which is particularly relevant when addressing gender gaps. It offers a more accurate measure of labour market participation. The FTE employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as 1 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.

As such it takes into account the higher incidence of part-time employment among women. Headcount measures not only overestimate women's labour market participation, but also labour market participation in general. The data show that that when accounting for part-time work, employment rates for both men (67 %) and women (50 %) are well below the Europe 2020 target of 75 %. It is therefore important that future targets are disaggregated by sex in order to monitor the progress made in closing the gender gap in access to the labour market.

Part-time employment as a percentage of total employment

Generally, part-time work can be beneficial for all workers, as it allows them to adjust their work schedules to meet their life-course needs. However, part-time work arrangements — if not equally shared between women and men — can be seen as a way of perpetuating traditional gender roles, resulting in disadvantages for career development.

In 2012 in the EU-28, women accounted for 76 % of those working part-time, while only about 38 % of full-time workers are women. Due to the lower income associated with part-time work, as well as women's likely inability to move out of part-time work, part-time work can have significant negative effects on women's economic independence. Moreover, women's greater responsibilities for care can represent an important source of involuntary part-time work.

Self-employment as a percentage of total employment

Self-employment is not only linked to economic growth, but can also provide more flexibility in terms of work-life balance issues, while maintaining the same hours. However, a clearer differentiation between entrepreneurship and self-employment can aid the implementation and monitoring of policies promoting women's entrepreneurship. Overall, women are substantially under-represented among self-employed workers, while simultaneously being more likely to be self-employed on their own account. Moreover, self-employment leads to much lower earnings and income for women and can lead to a greater risk of poverty over the life course, as women are more likely to work in more labour-intensive and less profitable sectors than men. The GPG between women and men in self-employment vividly illustrates the disparities, standing at 45 % at EU level.

The structural indicator gender pay gap in unadjusted form on an annual basis

As an unadjusted indicator, the GPG gives an overall picture of gender inequalities in terms of pay and measures as a concept which is broader than the concept underlying the principle of equal pay for equal work.

As stated by Eurostat, the indicator measures wage discrepancies between women and men, indicating the extent of unequal opportunities in the labour market. To some extent the indicator also reflects the incompatible requirements of career and family as well as the poverty risk of single-parent households, problems which mostly women face.

Act

DESIGN PLAN **ACT** CHECK

In the implementation phase of a policy or programme, ensure that all those involved are sufficiently aware about the relevant gender objectives and plans. If not, set up briefings and capacity-building initiatives according to staff needs. Think about including researchers, proposal evaluators, monitoring and evaluation experts, scientific officers, programme committee members, etc.

Example of capacity-building initiatives about gender and employment

Guidelines for gender-sensitive policing, Women Police Officers Network

Guidelines for gender-sensitive policing with an emphasis on the recruitment, selection and professional development of women in police services. The goal of this document is to provide concrete and operational guidelines on how to mainstream gender equality in specific employment policy areas.

<http://www.seesac.org/res/files/publication/812.pdf>

Guidelines of good practice in reconciling family and work for workers, employers and policymakers.

These guidelines have been developed to help policy decision makers, employers, trade unions, non-governmental organisations and individual workers that are parents or are planning to be parents to understand and develop their own work and family reconciliation strategies in their particular surroundings and according to their particular needs. <http://gap.lt/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/guidelines-of-good-practice.pdf>

Checklist for gender neutrality in job evaluation and classification (Institute for Equality of Women and Men, Belgium).

This checklist was developed to use as a gauge to detect sex discrimination in job classification systems. It consists of two parts: a checklist and an accompanying text. The accompanying text provides further explanations and justification about the questions included in the checklist. In addition to being an evaluation instrument, the manual also serves as a recommendation when drawing up evaluation systems.



Equality in the Enterprise, Spain

Equality in the Enterprise is a Spanish government initiative to support enterprises in the design of gender equality plans, or other initiatives, to promote gender equality at work.

<http://www.igualdadenlaempresa.es/>

Examples of awareness-raising in gender and employment

Equal Pay Day

Raising awareness is also crucial with respect to equal pay. The European Commission introduced a European Equal Pay Day from 2011 so that every year it can visualise how much longer women need to work than men to earn the same amount.

http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap/national-action/raise-awareness/index_en.htm

Breaking gender stereotypes in employment: Boys' Day

In Germany and Austria an annual nationwide Boys' Day is organised. Its objectives are to increase the number of men in typically female occupations; to break down gender stereotypes; to improve the image of the social work occupations in society; and to support men in developing a positive male identity.

On Boys' Day, boys aged 12 and above learn about new opportunities beyond gender-stereotyped career choices. In parallel, a Girls' Day is also organised.

<http://www.boysday.at/>

<http://www.boys-day.de/>

Check

DESIGN PLAN ACT CHECK

A policy cycle or programme should be checked both during — monitoring, and at the end — evaluation, of its implementation.

Monitoring the ongoing work allows for the follow up of progress and for remedying unforeseen difficulties. This process should take into account the indicators delineated in the planning phase and realign data collection based on those indicators.

At the end of a policy cycle or programme, a gender-sensitive evaluation should take place. Make your evaluation publicly accessible and strategically disseminate its results to promote learning potential.

Example of gender monitoring and evaluation on employment

The Code of Practice Equality Act 2010, UK

The UK Code of Practice Equality Act 2010 includes a model for carrying out an equal pay audit that may be the most effective method of ensuring that a pay system is free from unlawful bias. An audit should:

- compare the pay of women and men doing equal work, ensuring this considers work that is the same or broadly similar, work rated as equivalent, and work that can be shown to be of equal value or worth;
- identify and explain any pay differences;
- eliminate pay inequalities that cannot be explained on non-discriminatory grounds.

An equal pay audit is not simply a data collection exercise. It entails a commitment to put right any unjustified pay inequalities. This means that the audit must have the involvement and support of managers who have the authority to deliver the necessary changes. The validity of the audit and the success of subsequent action taken will be enhanced if the pay system is understood and accepted by the managers who operate the system, as well as by employees and their unions. Employers should, therefore, aim to secure the involvement of employees and, where possible, trade union and other employee representatives when carrying out an equal pay audit. The model is built around five steps:

- Step 1: Decide the scope of the audit and identify the information required.
- Step 2: Determine where women and men are doing equal work.
- Step 3: Collect and compare pay data to identify any significant pay inequalities between roles of equal value.
- Step 4: Establish the causes of any significant pay inequalities and assess the reasons for them.
- Step 5: Develop an equal pay action plan to remedy any direct or indirect pay discrimination.

Evaluation on policy: promotion of women innovators and entrepreneurship (European Commission).

The aim of the evaluation was to assess the effectiveness, efficiency, utility and constraints on promotion activities across Member States as the basis for policy recommendations to support the contribution of women innovators and entrepreneurship to the Lisbon agenda.

Evaluation of the European Social Fund's support to Gender Equality

The European Commission conducted an evaluation of the European Social Fund's (ESF) (2007-2013) support for gender equality. The evaluation is gathered in one single document, which consists of reports for each Member State and six thematic reports on *Enhancing women's access to employment*, *Vertical segregation*, *Horizontal segregation*, *Work and private life reconciliation*, *Participation of women in enterprise creation and growth* and *Education and training*.
<http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=6643&langId=en>

Practical examples of gender mainstreaming in the employment sector

Malta

The Maltese Equality Mark ⁽⁷⁵⁾ is a national gender equality initiative aimed at increasing women's participation in employment (the women's employment rate in Malta is low),

by promoting practices amongst employers that facilitate the reconciliation of work and care roles. The initiative is led by the National Commission for the Promotion of Equality (NCPE) which launched the mark in 2010. The initiative established a standard for 'gender equality employers' and runs a certification scheme for public and private bodies which show that they implement gender equality in employment, including family friendly measures, and also in the way they provide goods and services.

The methodology includes an audit and a questionnaire to employees. Award of the Equality Mark is based on assessment of minimum criteria that entities need to fulfil. It has provided a standard and a brand, and helps employers to develop their policies.

The mark's launch was accompanied by an effective media campaign which ran until the end of 2012. So far 55 employers employing some 16 000 people have qualified for the mark.

The initiative is innovative in the Maltese context, and could be replicated in other countries. As the programme was considered a success, NCPE decided to continue with its promotion after 2012, when the EU co-funded project which was financing the initiative came to an end.

⁽⁷⁵⁾ <http://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/good-practices/malta/equality-mark-promotes-equal-opportunity-employers>

5. Want to know more?

Timeline

Seen over a 5-year period, the EU economy has experienced a double-dip recession (see Figure 1), with negative growth interrupted by a timid recovery between the end of 2009 and the beginning of 2011 (EU, 2014). In the second half of 2013 the number of unemployed people in the EU rose again, hitting a new historic high of 26.9 million in September 2013 — an unemployment rate of 11 % of the active population (12.2 % in the Euro area), compared to less than 7 % before the crisis. <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=13404&langId=en>

The European Commission and the EU Member States share responsibility for policy in the field of employment, social affairs and inclusion. The European Commission coordinates and monitors national policies; promotes the sharing of best practices in areas such as employment, poverty and social exclusion, and pensions; and makes laws and monitors their implementation in areas such as rights at work and coordination of social security schemes. The employment guidelines (Council of the European Union, 2012) offer policy guidance to Member States on how to respond to employment and social challenges against the background of current trends and with a view to reaching

Treaty establishing the European Economic Community, Rome, 25 May 1957, Article 119 EEC Treaty, The principle of equal pay between men and women for equal work, now Article 141 EC Treaty of the Function of the European Union. Available at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/resource.html?uri=cellar:41f89a28-1fc6-4c92-b1c8-03327d1b1ecc.0007.02/DOC_1&format=PDF.

1957

Council Directive 75/117/EEC of 10 February 1975 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:31975L0117:FR:HTML>.

1975

Council Directive 76/207/EEC of 9 February 1976 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion and working conditions. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:31976L0207:EN:HTML>. Amended by Directive 2002/73.

1976**2010**

Directive 2010/18/EU of 8 March 2010 implementing the revised Framework Agreement on parental leave concluded by BUSINESSEUROPE, UEAPME, CEEP and ETUC and repealing Directive 96/34/EC (amendment of the Directive 96/34/EC of 3 June 1996 on the framework agreement on parental leave concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC). Available at:

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:068:0013:0020:en:PDF>.

Directive 2010/41/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 July 2010 on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity in a self-employed capacity and repealing Council Directive 86/613/EEC. Available at:

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:180:0001:0006:en:PDF>.

2008

Directive 2008/104/EC, of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 November 2008 on temporary agency work, Available at:

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:327:0009:0014:EN:PDF>.

European employment objectives. The Annual Growth Survey sets out the priorities and policy guidance for Member States submitting their national reform programmes in the framework of the European semester. The national reform programmes are reviewed accordingly, and the Council, on the basis of the Commission's proposals, issues country-specific recommendations. The Employment and Social Protection Committees review the Member States' performance and progress in responding to relevant challenges through the application of the employment performance

monitor and the social protection performance monitor. The subsequent policy reforms are assessed in the context of the next European semester. The European Social Fund supports efforts to achieve the EU's employment goals through actions to fight unemployment, with a special focus on vulnerable and/or under-represented groups in the labour market.

Key milestones on equal treatment in employment in the EU:

Council Directive 79/7/EEC of 19 December 1978 on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31979L0007&from=EN>.

1979

Council Directive 86/378/EEC of 24 July 1986 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in occupational social security schemes (amended by Directive 96/97). Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31986L0378&from=EN>.

Council Directive 86/613/EEC of 11 December 1986 on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity, including agriculture, in a self-employed capacity and on the protection of self-employed women during pregnancy and motherhood. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31986L0613&from=EN>.

1986

Council Directive 92/85/EEC of 19 October 1992 on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding (10th individual directive within the meaning of Article 16(1) of Directive 89/391/EEC). Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31992L0085&from=EN>.

1992

Council Directive 96/34/EC of 3 June 1996 on the framework agreement on parental leave concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31996L0034&from=EN>.

Council Directive 96/97/EC of 20 December 1996 amending Directive 86/378/EEC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in occupational social security schemes. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:31996L0097:EN:HTML>.

1996

Directive 1997/81/EC of 15 December 1997 concerning the Framework Agreement on part-time work concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC — Annex: Framework agreement on part-time work Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:31997L0081:EN:HTML>.

1997

Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June 1999 concerning the framework agreement on fixed-term work concluded by ETUC, UNICE and CEEP, Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:31999L0070&from=EN>.

1999

2006

Directive 2006/54/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast), OJ L 204, 26.7.2006, pp. 23-36. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2006:204:0023:0036:en:PDF>.

2004

Council Directive 2004/113/EC of 13 December 2004 implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2004:373:0037:0043:en:PDF>.

2002

Directive 2002/73/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 September 2002 amending Council Directive 76/207/EEC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion and working conditions, OJ L 269, 5.10.2002, pp. 15-20. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2002:269:0015:0020:en:PDF>.

6. Current policy priorities at EU level

The Lisbon strategy, launched in 2000, was a response to the challenges of globalisation and ageing. The European Council defined the objective of the strategy for the EU as 'to become the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world by 2010, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion and respect for the environment' (European Commission, 2010a). The strategy was re-launched in 2005 — following a mid-term review — to provide a greater sense of prioritisation. It focused on growth and jobs. A new governance structure based on a partnership approach between the Member States and the EU institutions was put into place.

The partnership concept has had a positive impact on the cooperation and division of responsibilities between the EU institutions and the Member States:

'The resulting dialogue between the Commission and the Member States developed into a constructive exchange of views whereby the Commission advised Member States on policy options, often drawing on its experience with other parts of the Union, while Member States offered a national perspective, highlighting opportunities for reform as well as identifying constraints' (ibid.).

http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/lisbon_strategy_evaluation_en.pdf

In 2010 the Europe 2020 strategy built on lessons learnt from the earlier strategy, recognising its strengths (the right goals of growth and job creation, with 18 million new jobs created since 2000) but addressing its weaknesses (poor implementation, with big differences between EU countries in the speed and depth of reform). The new strategy also reflects changes in the EU's situation since 2000 — in particular the immediate need to recover from the economic crisis (European Commission, 2013a). Europe 2020 sets out a vision for Europe's social market economy over the next decade, based on three interlocking and mutually reinforcing priority areas:

- smart growth, developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation;
- sustainable growth, promoting a low-carbon, resource-efficient and competitive economy;
- inclusive growth, fostering a high-employment economy delivering social and territorial cohesion.

http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/services/faqs/index_en.htm

Progress towards these objectives will be measured against the following five representative headline EU-level targets, which Member States will be asked to translate into national targets reflecting their starting points:

- 75 % of the population aged 20-64 should be employed;
- 3 % of the EU's GDP should be invested in research and development;
- the '20/20/20' climate/energy targets should be met;
- the share of early school leavers should be under 10 %, and at least 40 % of the younger generation should have a degree or diploma;
- 20 million fewer people should be at risk of poverty.

To meet the targets, the European Commission proposes a Europe 2020 agenda consisting of a series of flagship initiatives. Implementing these initiatives is a shared priority, and action will be required at all levels: EU-level organisations, Member States and local and regional authorities. In brief, central to the EU's 2020 strategy is the implementation of a modern organisation of work, a knowledge economy, competitiveness, and more and better jobs (European Commission, 2010b).

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex:52010DC2020>

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EU law and other public EU documents — authentic electronic Official Journal of the EU — in 24 languages: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/homepage.html?locale=en>.

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A new information system which brings together information on international labour standards (such as ratification information, reporting requirements, comments of the ILO's supervisory bodies, etc.) as well as national labour and social security laws: <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:1:0::NO:::>

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<http://standard.gendercop.com/>

Gender Equality Index

<http://eige.europa.eu/content/gender-equality-index#/about>

Gender Pay Gap website

http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap/index_en.htm

Other organisations and institutions

EurLife — an interactive database on quality of life in Europe, offering data drawn from Eurofound's own surveys and other published sources.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/qualityoflife/eurlife/index.php>

Gender-CoP — a community dedicated to integrating the gender dimension into the ESF programmes (2014-2020) in relation to the Europe 2020 targets. The ESF — or the 10/10/10 fund (10 % of the EU budget, EUR 10 billion each year, helping 10 million Europeans annually) — plays a key role in fulfilling the vision of a society that offers women and men equal opportunities. The aim of Gender-CoP is to integrate gender mainstreaming into ESF management to improve ESF management and the possibilities to reach gender equality objectives set by the EU, national governments and the managing authorities.

<http://www.gendercop.com/>

European Economic and Social Committee — a consultative body of the EU. <http://www.eesc.europa.eu>

Eurofound — a tripartite EU agency whose role is to provide knowledge in the area of social and work-related policies. Eurofound was established in 1975 by Council Regulation (EEC) No 1365/75 to contribute to the planning and design of better living and working conditions in Europe. Eurofound offers the possibility of accessing all information available on the subject of your choice, drawing on relevant data and analysis from the European observatories. www.eurofound.europa.eu

European Industrial Relations Observatory — a monitoring instrument offering news and analysis on European industrial relations, which has been published online since 1997. <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/>

EIGE — an EU agency which supports the EU and its Member States in their efforts to promote gender equality, to fight discrimination based on sex and to raise awareness about gender equality issues. Its tasks are to collect and analyse comparable data on gender issues, to develop methodological tools, in particular for the integration of the gender dimension in all policy areas, to facilitate the exchange of best practices and dialogue among stakeholders, and to raise awareness among EU citizens.

<http://eige.europa.eu/content/about-eige>

European Monitoring Centre on Change — an information resource established to promote an understanding of changes in the world of work, employment and restructuring.

<https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/lt/observatories/emcc>

European Network of Experts on Gender Equality (ENEGE) — aims to contribute to the development of comprehensive European-level policies on gender equality based on the current European policy framework, namely:

- for the Europe 2020 strategy for the EU to become a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy with high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion;
- the European Commission's Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015, and in particular its first four priorities (promoting equality; female entrepreneurship and self-employment; assessing workers' rights with regard to leave for family reasons; and Member States' performance with regard to childcare facilities).

ENEGE is financed by the European Commission Directorate-General for Justice, Unit D2 Gender Equality.

<http://www.enege.eu/>



European Platform for Investing in Children — provides information about all policies that can help strengthen the capacities of children and their families to face the unprecedented challenges that exist in the current economic climate in Europe.

http://europa.eu/epic/studies-reports/reconciliation-work-family-life/index_en.htm

European Working Conditions Observatory — provides regular information on quality of work and employment issues in the EU Member States and at the EU level. It is supported by an extensive network of correspondents covering all EU countries, plus Norway, and was set up in 2003.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/>

ILO — this is the only tripartite United Nations agency where governments, employers and worker representatives of 185 Member States can freely and openly debate and elaborate labour standards and policies. Established in 1919, the ILO is devoted to promoting social justice and internationally recognised human and labour rights, pursuing its founding mission that labour peace is essential to prosperity. Today, the ILO helps advance the creation of decent work and the economic and working conditions that give working people and business people a stake in lasting peace, prosperity and progress. Its tripartite structure provides a unique platform for promoting decent work for all women and men. Its main aims are to promote rights at work, encourage decent employment opportunities, enhance social protection and strengthen dialogue on work-related issues. The ILO has four strategic objectives:

- promote and realise standards and fundamental principles and rights at work;
- create greater opportunities for women and men to decent employment and income;
- enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all;
- strengthen tripartism and social dialogue.

International labour standards and the broad policies of the ILO are set by the International Labour Conference, which meets annually. International labour standards are backed by a supervisory system that helps to ensure that countries implement the conventions they ratify.

<http://www.ilo.org/global/lang—en/index.htm>

OECD — aims to promote policies that will improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world. The OECD uses its wealth of information on a broad range of topics to help governments foster prosperity and fight poverty through economic growth and financial stability. Its work is based on continued monitoring of events in member countries as well as outside the OECD area, and

includes regular projections of short- and medium-term economic developments. The OECD Secretariat collects and analyses data, after which committees discuss policy regarding this information, the Council makes decisions then governments implement recommendations. The OECD publishes regular outlooks, annual overviews and comparative statistics to disseminate its intellectual output.

<http://www.oecd.org/eu/>

7. Some concepts specifically related to gender and employment

Active labour market policies (ALMPs): Government programmes that intervene in the labour market to help the unemployed find work. ALMPs include (a) efforts to generate employment through employment intensive public works schemes, (b) hiring subsidies, (c) the promotion of small and medium-sized enterprises and self-employment, (d) vocational training and retraining, and (e) skills and employability development programmes.

Activity rate: The percentage of economically active population aged 15-64 years on the total population of the same age. According to the definitions of the ILO for the purposes of the labour market statistics people are classified as employed, unemployed or economically inactive. The economically active population (also called labour force) is the sum of employed and unemployed persons.

Affirmative action: Specific actions in recruitment, hiring, upgrading and other areas designed and taken for the purpose of eliminating the present effects of past discrimination, or to prevent discrimination.

'Bogus' self-employment: This can be captured through a set of specific questions, particularly among the self-employed without employees (developed by Eurofound's EWCS). These questions measure:

- the degree of dependency on only one client (assuming that income for 'genuine' self-employment usually comes from different sources);
- the presence of regular payments;
- the capacity to freely hire new workers;
- the possibility to make important decisions related to the business.

Care work: Providing for the needs of well-being of another person. Encompasses care provided to the elderly, the sick and the disabled in care institutions or in the home of the person requiring care. Informal care of the care economy is unpaid care work performed by family members and friends.

Decent work: The primary goal of the ILO today is to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. Operationally decent work is related to four pillars: rights, employment, social protection and social dialogue.

FTE: A unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker. A full-time person is therefore counted as 1 FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE. (Source: Eurostat, Glossary). The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries, except for the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway, where part-time is determined on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are fewer than 35, while full-time on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are 35 or more, and in Sweden where this criterion is applied to the self-employed persons as well. (Source: Eurostat, LFS metadata)

Gender gap: In the context of economic inequality, gender gap generally refers to the systemic differences in the social and economic roles and wages of men and women, or boys and girls. There is a debate to what extent this is the result of gender differences, lifestyle choices or because of discrimination. The gender gap in pensions is calculated as the difference in pensions between women and men excluding zero pensions (Source: European Commission 2013). The GPG refers to the difference in average wages between women and men. The unadjusted GPG is calculated as the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of female and male paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. (Source: Eurostat, Glossary)

Gender predominant jobs: Jobs that are associated with one sex or the other, based on quantitative or qualitative criteria.

Glass ceiling: The term refers to situations where the advancement of a qualified person within the hierarchy of an organisation is halted at a particular level because of some form of discrimination, most commonly sexism or racism.

Household work: Women perform dual roles of production and reproduction. Their work goes unrecognised because they do a variety of jobs daily that do not fit into any specific 'occupation'. Most of them are involved in arduous household work. Although women work for longer hours and contribute substantially to family income, they are not perceived as workers by either the women themselves or data collecting agencies and the government.



To understand the issue of occupational health problems of women, it is necessary to make a detailed study of the women's work in terms of the actual activity undertaken, the hours of work and the extent of remuneration received.

Male breadwinner bias: The bias that comes from assuming that the non-market sphere of social reproduction is articulated with the market economy of commodity production through a wage which is paid a male breadwinner and which largely provides for the cash needs of a set of dependents (women, children, elderly people, sick people). Male breadwinner bias constructs the ownership of rights to make claims on the state for social benefits (access to services, cash transfers) around a norm of full-time, lifelong working-age participation in the market-based labour force. Those whose participation does not fit this norm typically have fewer rights, which they can frequently only exercise as dependents on those who do fit the norm. The result has been the exclusion of many women from entitlements, and the reduction of the scope of the entitlements of many others, making women dependent upon men, especially during periods of women's lives when they are intensively involved in taking care of children and elders, and when they themselves are elders.

Segregation: This provides information of the distribution of women and men in different areas. Sectoral segregation shows the extent to which women and men are concentrated in a number of economic sectors according to NACE Rev. 2 classification in 10 groups (A10) (EIGE, 2014). Occupational segregation shows the extent to which women and men are over-represented or under-represented in certain occupations according to the ISCO-08 classification (since 2011) and ISCO-88 classification (until 2010) on a 1 digit level in 8 groups (Armed forces occupations have been excluded) (EIGE, 2014).

Pay equity: Implementing the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value, free from discrimination based on sex.

Reproductive work: Work that reproduces the labour force on a daily basis — see household work and care work.

Self-employed persons: Those who work in their own business, farm or professional practice. A self-employed person is considered to be working if she/he meets one of the following criteria: works for the purpose of earning profit, spends time on the operation of a business or is in the process of setting up her/his business. (Source: Eurostat, LFS metadata)

Time use survey: A time use survey is a statistical survey that aims to report data on how, on average, people spend their time. Among other things, time use surveys can reveal the amount of household work and voluntary work performed beyond paid jobs.

The unemployment rate: This represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population. (Source: Eurostat, LFS metadata)

Work-life balance: A term used to describe a state of equilibrium between an individual's work and personal life. A satisfactory work-life balance is achieved when an individual's right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society. (Source: Eurofound, EWCS)



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