European Institute for Gender Equality

Gender Equality Index 2019
Work—life balance

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European Institute for Gender Equality

The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) is an autonomous body of the European Union established to strengthen gender equality across the EU. Equality between women and men is a fundamental value of the EU and EIGE's task is to make this a reality in Europe and beyond. This includes becoming a European knowledge centre on gender equality issues, supporting gender mainstreaming in all EU and member state policies, and fighting discrimination based on sex.

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Foreword

With a freshly elected European Parliament and a new term for the European Commission, the time is ripe to take stock of progress and consolidate gender equality priorities for the years ahead. The European Union (EU) cannot afford to stall now. Gender equality must be placed at the heart of the next multiannual financial framework to foster a more inclusive and cohesive EU.

EIGE's Gender Equality Index shows that advances in gender equality are still moving at a snail's pace, but we are heading in the right direction. There are big improvements in the domain of power, as more women are taking on decision-making positions, especially in company boardrooms across Europe.

In the private sphere, the unequal sharing of cleaning, cooking and caring responsibilities has hardly changed. The bulk of this unpaid work continues to fall on women. That makes it harder for them to juggle work and personal life, which impacts on their earning potential and the well-being of the women themselves and the people closest to them.

The topic of work—life balance affects both women and men and is a top priority for the EU. This is why we chose it as this year's thematic focus of the Index. It is a new feature that we are introducing, and each year the Index will take an in-depth look at an emerging policy issue that matters for gender equality. We are happy to announce that from now on, the Index will be updated on an annual basis, making it even more up to date and responsive to emerging challenges.

As always, the Gender Equality Index sets a benchmark for gender equality in the EU. It shows which Member State is the closest to gender equality, which has improved the most and which has the furthest way to go. The Index measures the success of policy measures and initiatives, designed to create more gender-equal societies. Its value lies in its capacity to guide decision-makers towards their goal for a more balanced and inclusive society that improves the lives of everyone in the EU.

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Virginija Langbakk
Director
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Abbreviations

Member State abbreviations

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

Frequently used abbreviations

AES	Adult Education Survey
CEO	Chief executive officer
DWL	Duration of working life
ECEC	Early childhood education and care
EHIS	European Health Interview Survey
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EQLS	European Quality of Life Survey
ESPN	European Social Policy Network
ET 2020	Strategic framework: education and training 2020
Eurofound	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
EU LFS	European Union Labour Force Survey
EU-SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
FGM	Female genital mutilation
FRA	European Agency for Fundamental Rights
FTE	Full-time equivalent
FWAs	Flexible working arrangements
GDP	Gross domestic product
ICT	Information and communications technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPV	Intimate partner violence
ITUC	International Trade Union Confederation
LGBTQI* ([1])	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, queer, intersex and other non-dominant sexual orientations and gender identities in society
LTC	Long-term care
MS	Member State (EU)
NACE	Statistical classification of economic activities within the European Union
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
p.p.	Percentage point
PPS	Purchasing power standard
SDGs	Sustainable development goals
SES	Structure of Earnings Survey
STEM	Science, technology, engineering and mathematics
WHO	World Health Organisation

([1]) In this report, we opted for using the acronym LGBTQI* as it represents the most inclusive umbrella term for people whose sexual orientation differs from heteronormativity and whose gender identity falls outside binary categories. Heteronormativity is defined by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) as 'the assumption that everyone is "naturally" heterosexual, and that heterosexuality is an ideal, superior to homosexuality or bisexuality.' It has for effect to 'make heterosexuality seem coherent, natural and privileged' (FRA, 2009b). The language used to represent LGBTQI*, a very heterogeneous group, is and has been in continuous evolution towards inclusion. For this reason, different people and institutions have adopted different versions of the acronym, such as LGBT, LGBTIQ and LGBTI. In accordance with that, the report will use those institutions' chosen acronyms when describing the results of their work.

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Highlights of the Gender Equality Index 2019

Main findings

- The EU keeps moving towards gender equality at a snail's pace. While the Gender Equality Index score for the EU rose from 66.2 points (out of 100) in 2015 to 67.4 in 2017, the EU still has a lot of room for improvement. Since 2005, the EU's score has increased by only 5.4 points.

- Although the power domain has the lowest score, improvements in this domain contributed to nearly three quarters (74 %) of the progress between 2015 and 2017.

- The persistent gender segregation in different fields of study in tertiary education contributes to making knowledge the second lowest domain in the Index.

- The Gender Equality Index 2019 expands the analysis of intersecting inequalities by highlighting the situation of LGBTQI* people and Roma and Muslim women in areas where statistics are available.

- Convergence analysis shows the different trends in gender equality across the EU. In 2005-2017, despite the different starting points, 16 Member States (AT, CY, DE, EE, IT, LV, MT, PT, SI below the EU average and BE, DK, FI, LU, NL, SE, UK above) grew in gender equality faster than the EU average and decreased their distance to gender equality. Another eight Member States (BG, CZ, EL, HR, HU, PL, RO, SK) improved in gender equality, but at a slower pace than the EU average. Spain, France and Ireland started with higher scores than the EU average and grew at a faster rate, increasing their distance from the EU average. Lithuania had lower scores than the EU in 2005, and it is the only Member State whose scores declined as the EU's average increased, widening the gap.

Domain of work

- With a total EU-28 score of 72.0 points, the domain of work spotlights the incremental overall progress of 2.0 points made since 2005, including 0.5 points since 2015.

- Segregation and quality of work remains a particular gender equality challenge for the EU and all Member States, with a respective sub-domain score of only 64.0 points in 2017, amidst slowly rising employment rates. In 2017, the FTE employment rate in the EU was 41 % for women and 57 % for men, an increase of about 1 percentage point (p.p.) for both genders from 2015 and with the most acute gender gap observed among the couples with children.

- Being a parent continues to hinder women in the labour market, reflecting the disproportionate weight of care duties on mothers. This leads to women's predominant reliance on part-time work, even at the cost of consigning them to jobs with poorer career progression. In 2018, 31 % of women and 8 % of men aged 20-64 worked part-time in the EU.

Domain of money

- The EU-28 score for the domain of money showed continuing improvement since 2005, including a 0.8-point increase since 2015. This made it possible to reach 80.4 points in 2017: the second highest ranked domain in the Gender Equality Index.

- Nonetheless, progress in the sub-domain of economic resources (87.7 in 2017, still 2.0 points lower than in 2005) remains fragile, and with a recent worsening of the situation in Member States such as Luxembourg, Lithuania, Bulgaria, the Netherlands, Malta and Sweden.

- In 2017 the EU-28 gender gap in mean monthly earnings was 20 % to the detriment of women, increasing substantially for couples with children (36 %), lone parents (31 %) or those with high educational qualifications (33 %). Throughout the course of a life, these inequalities lead not only to a gender gap in mean monthly earnings of 38 % among those aged 65 or more, but also to increased exposure to poverty for women in retirement.

Domain of knowledge

- The EU-28 score (63.5 points) has remained virtually static between 2015 and 2017 and only improved by 2.7 points over the entire 12-year period from 2005. Increasing educational attainment among women and men drives slow but positive change in the domain, while more significant progress is being held back by strong gender segregation and low engagement in lifelong learning.

- In the EU more women and men graduate from universities than in the past and the gender gap continues to increase to the detriment of men. Both women and men limit their fields of study as only 21 % of men students choose to study in the field of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts, and women constitute only about 33 % of graduates in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) tertiary education.

- Adult participation in education and training is low in the EU and has barely altered since 2005. Adult learning sharply decreases with age and is particularly low among the working-age population (aged 25-64) with a low level of qualifications.

Domain of time

- Gender inequalities in time use are persistent and growing: the EU-28 2017 score of 65.7 is not only 1 p.p. lower than that of 2005, it also represents a 3.2 p.p. drop from the gains that had been achieved up until 2012.

- Women are engaged disproportionally more in unpaid care work: almost 38 % take care of children, grandchildren, older people and/or people with disabilities every day for 1 hour or more compared with 25 % of men. Even more strikingly, only 34 % of men are engaged in cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more in comparison with 79 % of women, with the situation barely changing in more than a decade.

- Gender inequalities in unpaid domestic work are highest between women and men living in a couple and having children. Women aged between 25 and 49 are those most likely to do unpaid care work every day.

- Women and men with disabilities need care, but they are also carers. The Index shows 29 % of women and 20 % of men with disabilities in the EU are doing care work every day. Women with disabilities also do the biggest bulk of the cooking and/or other housework (79 %) compared to men with disabilities (41 %).

Domain of power

- The domain of power has seen the biggest advances in gender equality but remains the most gender unequal in the Index. At the same time, it made the biggest improvement: a 13-point increase since 2005. Between 2015 and 2017, the EU score for this domain rose from 48.5 to 51.9 points (+ 3.4 points).

- Improvement in the domain of power is driven by the increased number of women in national parliaments and on the boards of the largest publicly quoted companies. The impact of gender quotas has had a relevant impact. In Member States that have instituted legislative candidate quotas to increase the gender balance in parliaments, women's representation has improved since the application of a quota. The same for the presence of women members of boards, which has increased strikingly in the Member States that have introduced quotas to address the gender imbalance.

- The social power sub-domain (research, media and sports decision-making) is the one with the slowest progress since 2015, when data was collected for the first time.

Domain of health

- The EU-28 health domain score of 88.1 points in 2017 has not only barely changed since 2015 (+ 0.7 points), it has also made scant progress since 2005 (+ 2.2 points). This domain's scores have consistently ranked among the highest of all six core domains measured in the Gender Equality Index.

- While women in the EU can expect to live to the age of 84 compared to 78 for men, they spend a higher share of their lives in poor health: 19 years compared to 15 years for men.

- Some population groups face challenges in accessing adequate healthcare: lone mothers and fathers (6 % and 8 % respectively) and women and men with disabilities (8 % and 7 % respectively) report unmet needs for medical examinations. While no comparable data is available, those identifying as LGBTQI* are also known to face significant health inequalities.

Domain of violence

- Data on all forms of violence against women remains scarce across the EU. Reliable, systematic and comparable data covering various aspects of violence against women, disaggregated by sex and the relationship between the survivor and perpetrator, is key to designing effective EU-wide strategies to end violence against women.

- The EU is experiencing a backlash in women's rights and gender equality. In several Member States, the ratification and/or full implementation of the Council of Europe's Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention) (2011) has been hindered by 'anti-gender' opponents, thereby undermining political and legal efforts to eradicate violence against women.

- Among LGBT groups, transgender people are most likely to report experiences of violence. In the EU, about one in three transgender persons experiences either physical or sexual violence or the threat of violence.

Work—life balance

- In the EU, 34 % of women and 23 % of men aged 20-49, are ineligible for parental leave, with four Member States providing universal access to parental leave. When only the employed population is considered, in the EU-28, 10 % women and 12 % of men are ineligible for parental leave despite being in employment. In nine Member States all of those employed (women and men) have an opportunity to access parental leave. Member States with more universal parental-leave schemes create better opportunities for gender equality: those Member States with higher eligibility rates have higher scores in the Gender Equality Index as well as in the sub-domains of work and time.

In the EU, 34 % of women and 23% men are ineligible for parental leave

- In the EU, 29 % of households report unmet needs for professional home-care services in 2016 and much of the care is provided informally, disproportionately by women of pre-retirement age. Of those aged 50-64, 21 % of women and 11 % of men provide long-term care (LTC) for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several days a week. Overall, in Member States where women disproportionately bear the burden of LTC, gender inequalities in labour participation are higher. More particularly, in the Member States with larger gender gaps in the provision of care for older people and/or people with disabilities, there are lower scores in the sub-domain of participation in the labour market. Fewer than one in two

women (48 %) involved in informal LTC is in paid work.

- The EU has reached the first Barcelona target (also called the 'Barcelona objectives') of 33 % of all children under 3 years of age being enrolled in a formal childcare institution. At national level, only 13 Member States have achieved this objective. Overall, 14 % of households in 2016 reported unmet needs for childcare services, primarily due to financial reasons (50 %). Women's greater involvement in informal childcare interferes with their employment opportunities, thereby increasing the risk of poverty and economic dependency. In households where the youngest child is under 7 years of age, women spend on average 32 hours a week on paid work and 39 hours on unpaid work compared to 41 hours and 19 hours for men respectively. Gaps in care services constitute a serious obstacle for women's participation in the labour market, while care responsibilities do not substantially affect men's engagement in paid work. In the EU, 10 % of women work part-time or are inactive due to care duties, while this applies to only 0.5 % of men.

- For public infrastructure to benefit the whole population, its design, location and accessibility should take into account the differences in gender needs. Commuting enables people not only to take on work but also to access better jobs. This is highlighted by its strong association with the Gender Equality Index, and in particular with its time and work domains. Nonetheless, due to gendered sharing of duties at home, women's commuting time is shorter compared to men's time (40 minutes and 45 minutes, on average). Furthermore, lack of access to a car and the longer travel times involved in the use of public transport make it even more difficult for women, particularly lone mothers, to achieve a good work—life balance.

- In the EU, 57 % of women and 54 % of men have no possibility of changing their working-time provisions, while 14 % of women and 19 % of men could determine their own working hours completely. The private sector not only accounts for a higher share of male employment, but also ensures a higher level of flexibility in working time. Given women's concentration in public-sector jobs, this implies that women have fewer chances for work—life balance via flexibility at work. It is one of the reasons why only 14 % of women in part-time employment can move into full-time jobs, whereas 28 % of men can do so. The Gender Equality Index (in its entirety and across all its domains) shows a significant correlation to the availability of flexible working schedules in Member States, highlighting their importance in how women and men are able to allocate their time for home and paid work activities, as well as for their education and training opportunities.

For one family in two, cost is an obstacle to accessing the childcare services they need

- Gender equality in the domains of work and time is positively associated with higher participation in education and training for both women and men. However, time-related barriers, such as family responsibilities or work-schedule conflicts, can put participation in lifelong-learning activities out of reach for many adults. In the EU-28, 40 % of women and 24 % of men cannot participate in learning due to family responsibilities. In nearly all Member States, men report work-schedule conflicts as an obstacle to participation in education and training more often than women.

Introduction

This fourth edition of the Gender Equality Index comes at a turbulent time when gender equality and those promoting it are facing increasing challenges to protect this core value of the EU.

Measuring gender equality is integral to effective policymaking in the EU. Since the first edition in 2013, the Gender Equality Index has tracked and reported progress by providing a comprehensive measure of gender equality, tailored to fit the EU's policy goals. It reveals both progress and setbacks, and explores what can be done better to seize opportunities for change.

The Index measures gender equalities in the domains of work, money, knowledge, time, power, health and violence, as well as intersecting inequalities. By providing relevant statistics, data and measures, all essential components for evidence-based policymaking and successful gender mainstreaming (EIGE, 2015b), it supports the assessment of policy outcomes on women and men.

This edition includes scores for 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015 and 2017, providing an insightful tracking of gender-equality progress in the EU and individual Member States over a period of 12 years.

As of 2019, the Gender Equality Index will be updated annually. This will enable more timely contributions to EU policy monitoring systems. A new feature is the introduction of a thematic focus linked to selected domains in the Index. The special focus for this, the 2019 edition, is on work—life balance, an issue of high EU political importance. The Index also presents an additional set of indicators on work—life balance not included in the calculations of the core Gender Equality Index, but which are conceptually and statistically linked.

The analysis of work—life balance cuts across three broad areas: paid work, unpaid work (care), and education and training. It presents indicators in six specific areas: parental-leave policies; informal care for older adults or people with disabilities, as well as LTC services; caring for children and childcare services; transport and public infrastructure; flexible working arrangements; and lifelong learning. Such analysis aims to establish strong connections between work—life balance and gender equality. It also provides new insights into the monitoring of the implementation of the European Pillar of Social Rights and its 'New start' initiative on Work—life Balance.

The work-life balance scoreboard covers three broad areas: paid work, unpaid work (care) and education and training

Building on previous editions and EIGE's approach to intersecting inequalities (EIGE, 2019a), the Gender Equality Index 2019 continues to show the diverse realities that different groups of women and men face. It examines how elements such as disability, age, level of education, country of birth and family type intersect with gender to create different pathways in people's lives. For the first time, the Index highlights the situation of LGBTQI* people and Roma and Muslim women in areas where statistics are available.

This edition further extends the Index's scope by presenting a convergence analysis of gender equality over time. This not only reveals whether Member States are individually advancing in gender equality but also whether gender equality gaps between Member States are decreasing. A narrowing or widening of gaps is evidence of EU progress on building cohesive societies.

Chapter 1 presents the results of the Gender Equality Index 2019, the main trends since the last edition of 2017 and developments since 2005. The outcomes of the convergence analysis provide a broader context for the main findings. Chapters 2-7 summarise the main findings of the six core domains of the Index. Developments in the domain of violence are presented in Chapter 8. The broad thematic focus of work—life balance and its links with the Gender Equality Index are explored in Chapter 9.

1. Gender equality in the European Union: improvements and challenges between 2005 and 2017

1.1. Still far from the finish line

The Gender Equality Index score of 67.4 points out of 100 for the EU in 2017 highlights that all Member States need to make considerable advances to ensure women and men enjoy equal levels of well-being in all domains of life. Although this was an increase of 5.4 points since 2005, it represents modest progress on the goal over a 12-year period. The room for improvement varies across Member States. Almost a third of the 28 EU Member States scored higher than 70 points in 2017, with Sweden (83.6 points) and Denmark (77.5 points) maintaining their top-two status between 2005 and 2017.

While Greece and Hungary (51.2 and 51.9 points respectively) showed they have the most ground to make up, nearly half of all Member States scored lower than 60 points in 2017.

Of the six domains that constitute the composite indicator of the Gender Equality Index, the power domain score of 51.9 points of the EU reveals that gender inequalities in decision-making remain the biggest hurdles to overcome. The persistent gender segregation in different fields of study in tertiary education ensures knowledge is the second least equal domain in the Index with an EU score of 63.5 points. The time domain (EU: 65.7 points) spotlights worsening inequalities in how time is used by women and men, the only area to suffer a setback since 2005.

Figure 1: Gender Equality Index scores, 2005-2017

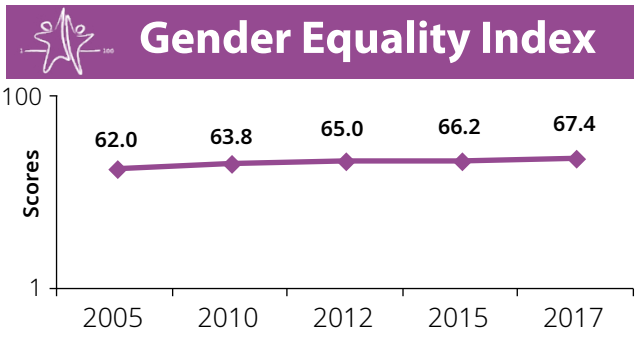


Figure 2: Gender Equality Index scores for EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017

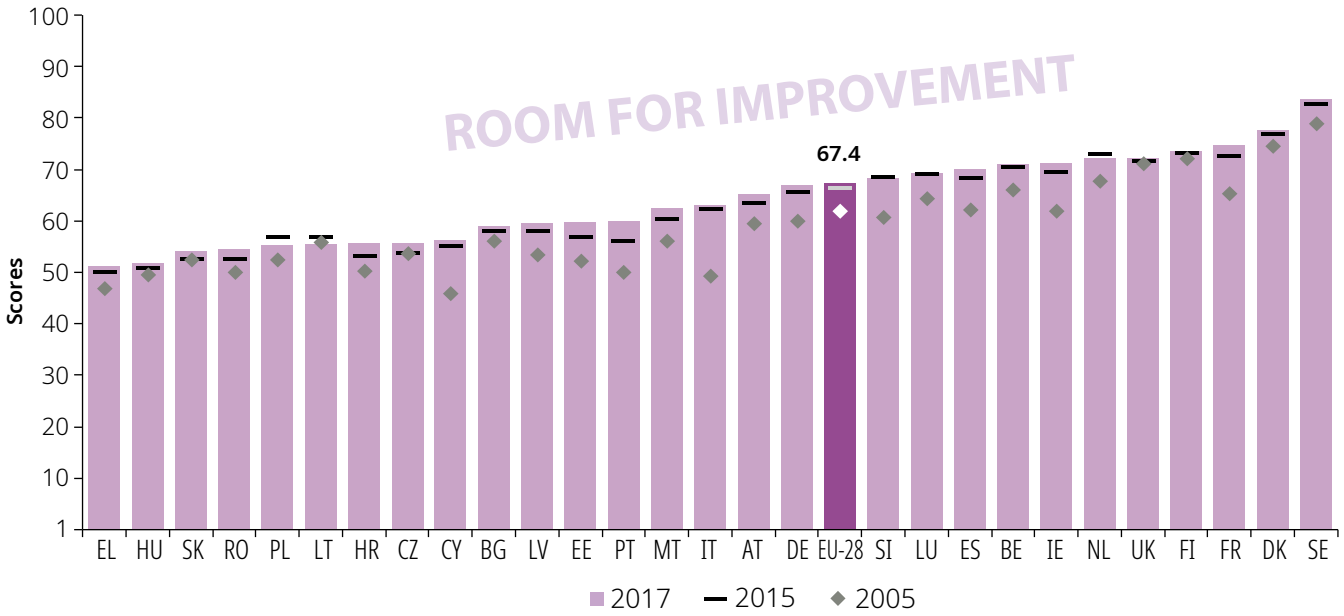
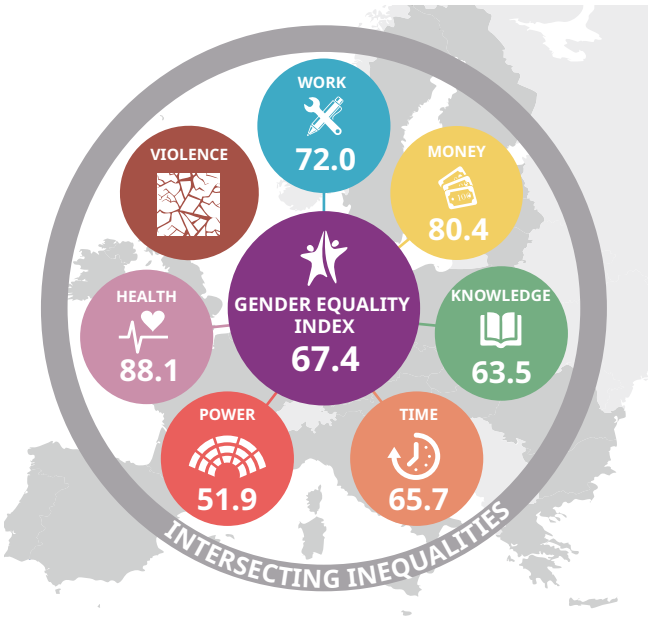


Figure 3: Scores for the domains and the Gender Equality Index, 2017



1.2. Snail's-pace progress on gender equality in the EU continues

While the Gender Equality Index score for the EU rose from 66.2 points in 2015 to 67.4 in 2017, it represented an increase of just 0.6 points per year. This was in line with the sluggish improvement seen between 2005 and 2015, averaging around 0.4 points per year.

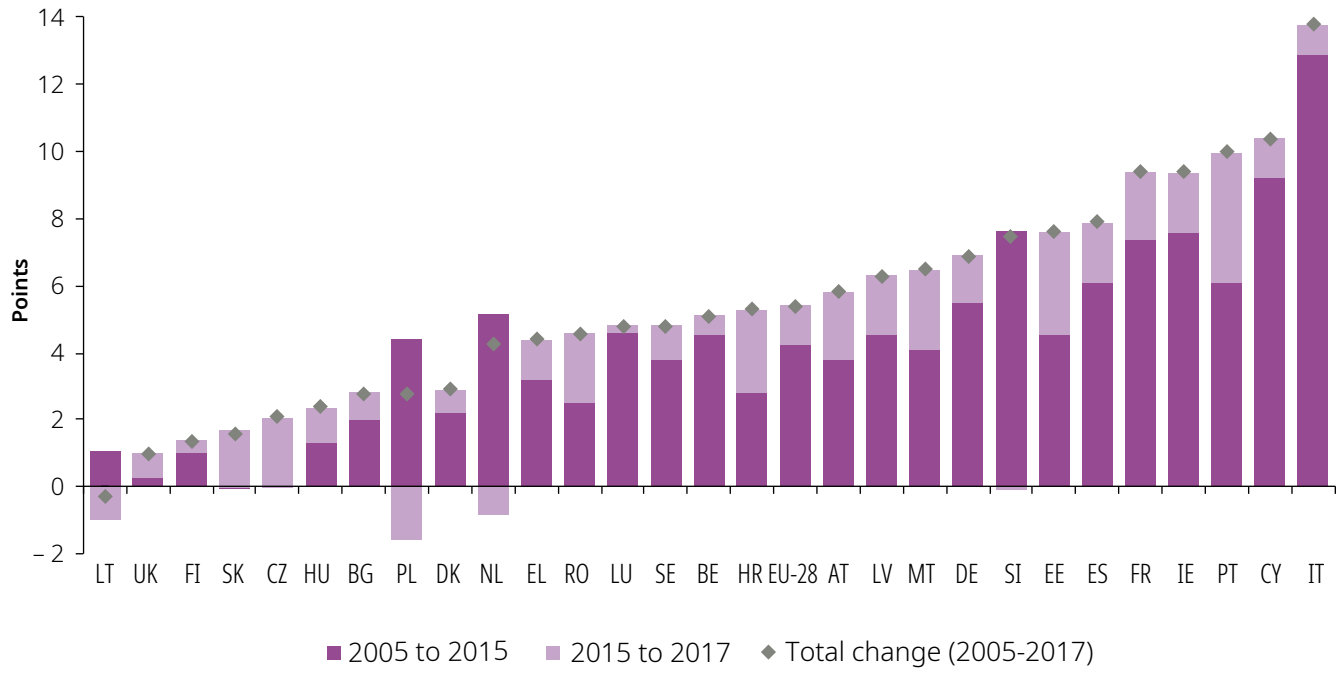
Nearly all Member States saw some progress towards gender equality between 2015 and 2017, with scores in 16 Member States improving by more than 1 point. Particularly strong progress was achieved in Portugal (+ 3.9 points) and Estonia (+ 3.1 points), with Portugal advancing by more than 10 points overall since 2005. This was largely due to dramatic advances in political and economic decision-making. In Estonia, progress was attributable to higher scores in the power, knowledge and money domains (see Table 1 and Figure 4).

While Italy and Cyprus showed the largest individual improvement on gender equality in the EU since 2005, progress slowed down between 2005 and 2017. Italy witnessed a 12.9-point increase up until 2015 but its Index score rose by a mere 0.9 point in the following 2 years. Cyprus's score improved by 1.2 points in the same period, resulting in an overall increase of 10.4 points since 2005. This was enough to lift Cyprus from last position on the Index in 2005 to 20th in 2017.

A few other Member States saw accelerated progress. Croatia, for example, improved by 1.3-points per year from 2015 compared to a 0.3 point annual increase during the previous decade.

Although Slovakia, Czechia and the United Kingdom saw no improvement between 2005 and

Figure 4: Changes in Member State scores in the Gender Equality Index, 2005-2017 and 2015-2017



2015, Czechia's score increased by 2.1 and Slovakia's by 1.7 in the following 2 years, putting both Member States at the lower end of the Index (21st and 26th respectively). The United Kingdom's score grew by a mere 0.7 points.

For two Member States — Lithuania and Poland — gains made before 2015 (+ 1 and + 4.4 points respectively) were reversed. Lithuania's score dropped to 55.5 points in 2017, making it the only Member State not to have made any progress on gender equality since 2005. Poland's decrease to 55.2 points erased about a third of the gains it had made in the preceding decade. In both cases, these reversals were due to growing gender imbalances in the power domain.

The loss of 0.8 points for the Netherlands resulted in it dropping from fourth to sixth position on the Gender Equality Index since 2015.

Table 1: Changes in the Gender Equality Index and domain scores by Member State, 2005-2017 and 2015-2017 (points)

	2017 (compared to 2015)							2017 (compared to 2005)						
MS	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	MS	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU	1.2	0.5	0.8	0.1	0.0	3.4	0.7	EU	5.4	2.0	6.5	2.7	– 1.0	13.0	2.2
BE	0.6	0.3	0.8	0.2	0.0	1.8	0.0	BE	5.1	3.1	7.0	3.2	– 9.0	15.4	0.0
BG	0.8	0.4	– 0.1	– 0.1	0.0	3.9	0.7	BG	2.8	1.7	7.5	0.7	– 8.2	11.5	4.5
CZ	2.1	0.9	0.8	1.7	0.0	3.5	0.3	CZ	2.1	1.7	6.5	6.8	6.1	– 3.5	1.7
DK	0.7	0.4	0.5	– 1.3	0.0	3.4	0.3	DK	2.9	0.7	4.4	– 1.4	0.4	10.2	– 1.2
DE	1.4	0.7	1.8	0.8	0.0	3.6	0.0	DE	6.9	4.0	2.7	– 1.6	– 1.6	22.6	3.9
EE	3.1	– 0.6	2.7	2.3	0.0	6.4	0.4	EE	7.6	0.5	11.0	6.0	0.1	12.1	0.9
IE	1.8	1.6	0.8	0.5	0.0	4.8	0.3	IE	9.4	4.4	6.0	6.1	0.0	21.3	0.5
EL	1.2	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.0	2.6	0.4	EL	4.4	1.7	– 0.5	8.5	– 1.5	6.1	– 1.1
ES	1.8	0.5	0.8	2.1	0.0	5.0	0.5	ES	7.9	4.8	3.1	8.1	6.0	16.1	2.0
FR	2.0	0.3	0.3	– 0.1	0.0	10.1	0.3	FR	9.4	1.9	4.8	3.7	– 1.8	34.7	0.5
HR	2.5	– 0.2	2.3	0.6	0.0	6.3	0.4	HR	5.3	1.7	3.6	6.8	2.7	7.4	2.3
IT	0.9	0.7	0.2	– 0.2	0.0	2.3	2.4	IT	13.8	2.3	2.6	7.1	– 0.8	31.5	2.9
CY	1.2	0.0	1.6	– 2.0	0.0	3.5	0.2	CY	10.4	4.4	8.2	13.1	3.6	11.8	2.6
LV	1.8	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.0	5.1	– 0.1	LV	6.3	2.5	9.2	3.1	6.7	9.3	4.5
LT	– 1.3	0.4	– 0.9	0.1	0.0	– 4.1	0.7	LT	– 0.3	1.7	7.7	0.8	– 2.9	– 4.8	2.2
LU	0.2	0.1	– 2.6	0.1	0.0	1.3	0.6	LU	4.8	6.0	– 1.3	7.5	– 4.1	8.6	0.4
HU	1.1	0.2	0.9	0.0	0.0	1.9	0.6	HU	2.4	2.0	5.1	0.0	– 6.8	4.3	4.2
MT	2.4	2.3	0.1	0.6	0.0	4.8	0.3	MT	6.5	12.5	12.2	3.4	3.4	4.4	1.4
NL	– 0.8	0.7	– 0.1	– 0.2	0.0	– 2.9	0.1	NL	4.3	2.6	4.5	3.2	– 2.5	9.7	0.3
AT	2.0	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.0	5.0	0.0	AT	5.8	2.9	3.9	5.2	1.0	10.4	0.3
PL	– 1.6	0.2	1.8	0.5	0.0	– 6.0	1.0	PL	2.8	1.8	13.7	– 0.2	– 2.1	2.8	2.6
PT	3.9	0.5	1.2	0.3	0.0	12.8	0.9	PT	10.0	1.9	3.3	6.5	0.2	24.5	0.7
RO	2.1	0.6	2.6	– 0.3	0.0	5.6	0.7	RO	4.6	– 0.9	8.8	3.6	1.4	8.1	1.6
SI	– 0.1	1.5	0.8	1.0	0.0	– 3.0	– 0.6	SI	7.5	2.1	4.7	3.9	– 0.5	21.1	0.8
SK	1.7	1.0	0.2	0.4	0.0	3.7	0.5	SK	1.6	1.2	12.7	5.9	– 9.0	– 0.1	2.3
FI	0.4	0.2	1.2	– 0.2	0.0	1.4	0.0	FI	1.4	0.7	7.5	4.5	– 4.2	– 1.7	0.5
SE	1.0	0.4	– 0.7	1.0	0.0	3.9	0.6	SE	4.8	4.3	2.7	5.7	0.5	9.3	3.0
UK	0.7	0.3	0.4	– 1.4	0.0	3.5	0.2	UK	1.0	2.7	1.9	– 5.4	0.5	5.1	0.2

Note: The domain of time, no new data in 2017. In green, increased > 1 p., in red, decreased < 1.

1.3. More women in decision-making drives progress

The power domain has seen the biggest advances in gender equality but remains the most gender unequal in the Index. The EU score for this domain rose from 48.5 to 51.9 points between 2015 and 2017, an average increase of 1.7 points per year. In comparison, progress in other domains was less than 1 point over the same period (see Table 1).

Improvements in the power domain contributed to nearly three quarters (74 %) of the progress in the Gender Equality Index between 2015 and 2017 (See Table 2). They were the key factor driving change in all Member States, explaining at least half of all Index score changes in each Member State, and in some (BG, EL, FR, HR, HU, AT, PT, SK) accounting for more than 80 % of progress. Overall, between 2005 and 2017, the power domain contributed 57 % of the advancement in the Gender Equality Index.

The rise of women in decision-making became a key driver of gender equality in general in the aftermath of the economic crisis, explaining about two thirds of the progress in the EU Index score from 2012. In contrast, changes in the domain of power accounted only for 39 % of improvements in overall gender equality between 2005 and 2012 (see Table 2). Since 2015 the share of women in decision-making roles has increased in 24 Member States, with France (+ 10.1 points) and Portugal (+ 12.8 points) experiencing extraordinary rises. Four Member States (LT, NL, PL, SI), however, saw their share of women in decision-making fall in this period (see Table 1).

Table 2: Percentage contribution of different domains to Gender Equality Index progress scores (2015-2017, 2005-2012, 2005-2017)

	Change 2015 to 2017						Change 2005 to 2012						Change 2005 to 2017					
MS	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU	8	10	3	0	74	4	5	17	13	– 24	39	3	6	14	10	– 11	57	3
BE	8	15	8	0	69	0	6	10	10	– 15	58	0	8	13	10	– 9	61	0
BG	8	– 2	– 4	0	82	5	11	46	– 7	12	12	12	6	24	3	11	48	7
CZ	7	4	16	0	72	1	0	11	30	36	21	2	5	13	26	30	– 24	2
DK	6	5	– 24	0	63	2	4	10	– 12	– 56	16	– 2	2	10	– 5	– 38	42	– 2
DE	9	15	16	0	60	0	6	1	6	– 32	52	3	6	3	– 4	– 29	55	3
EE	– 3	11	16	0	69	1	1	14	16	– 64	– 4	1	1	13	12	– 33	40	1
IE	17	6	6	0	69	1	7	9	22	– 19	43	0	7	7	13	– 14	58	0
EL	0	6	2	0	89	2	3	– 2	28	32	35	– 1	4	– 1	26	29	39	– 1
ES	4	6	27	0	61	2	14	6	21	26	32	1	9	5	20	23	41	2
FR	3	2	– 1	0	94	1	5	5	0	– 30	59	0	3	6	9	– 7	74	0
HR	– 2	11	6	0	81	1	8	2	79	2	– 3	6	5	8	31	9	45	3
IT	14	3	– 4	0	61	18	3	4	7	– 9	76	1	3	2	11	2	80	1
CY	0	8	– 21	0	70	1	5	13	43	30	8	1	6	7	25	16	45	1
LV	5	10	12	0	74	0	8	10	11	– 48	18	6	5	18	10	– 29	34	4
LT	4	– 8	2	0	– 83	3	2	21	– 2	6	– 67	3	7	29	5	15	– 40	4
LU	3	– 37	4	0	51	5	21	– 3	38	– 24	– 12	2	17	– 2	26	– 12	43	0
HU	3	10	0	0	84	3	3	7	– 10	– 24	52	4	7	14	0	– 19	53	6
MT	16	0	5	0	78	1	23	22	14	19	– 21	1	30	21	10	14	24	1
NL	12	– 2	– 6	0	– 78	1	3	6	7	– 40	44	0	5	7	8	– 46	33	0
AT	4	3	10	0	84	0	24	11	19	– 5	40	1	7	7	18	13	55	0
PL	1	9	4	0	– 83	3	4	24	– 1	9	60	2	8	47	– 1	11	29	5
PT	2	4	2	0	91	2	2	5	21	26	45	1	3	3	13	16	65	0
RO	4	17	– 3	0	74	2	– 5	34	21	12	– 26	2	– 2	24	16	11	44	2
SI	20	7	20	0	– 50	– 3	0	5	8	– 44	43	1	3	5	9	– 34	48	1
SK	9	1	4	0	84	1	– 2	33	26	22	– 15	2	4	37	29	25	– 1	3
FI	5	29	– 9	0	57	– 1	1	8	10	– 68	12	0	2	13	16	– 64	– 5	1
SE	7	– 8	20	0	61	4	9	3	12	– 71	4	2	10	5	17	– 43	22	3
UK	4	5	– 23	0	67	1	5	2	– 11	19	– 62	1	15	7	– 33	7	37	1

Progress in the money domain contributed 14 % of growth in the Gender Equality Index between 2005 and 2017, with 10 % of that occurring in the last 2 years of the period. The financial and economic situation for women and men became more equal in nine Member States (DE, EE, HR, CY, LV, PL, PT, RO, FI).

Improvements have been much less common in other domains. At national level, every Member State made progress of at least 1 point in one or more domains, except for Lithuania and the Netherlands. Twelve Member States improved in two domains (CZ, DE, IE, ES, HR, IT, CT, LV, MT, PT, RO, FI), while Estonia improved its score in three domains.

While the domain of time most negatively impacted the Gender Equality Index between 2005 and 2017 (by 11 %) due to diminishing gender equality in this area in several Member States, almost a third of Member States experienced inequalities worsening in one domain by at least 1 point during the last 2 years of this period. Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland and Slovenia saw falling scores in the power domain; Denmark, Cyprus and the United Kingdom suffered setbacks in the knowledge domain; and Luxembourg in the money domain.

1.4. Convergence on gender equality in the EU

One of the fundamental objectives of the EU is to improve the lives of its citizens by promoting upward economic and social convergence (European Commission, 2016b; European Parliament, 2018b), with the European Pillar of Social Rights serving as a compass for the renewed process of convergence across Europe. In addition to monitoring the convergence of socioeconomic outcomes such as gross domestic product (GDP), incomes, poverty or employment, it is also relevant to analyse and monitor convergence as regards gender equality.

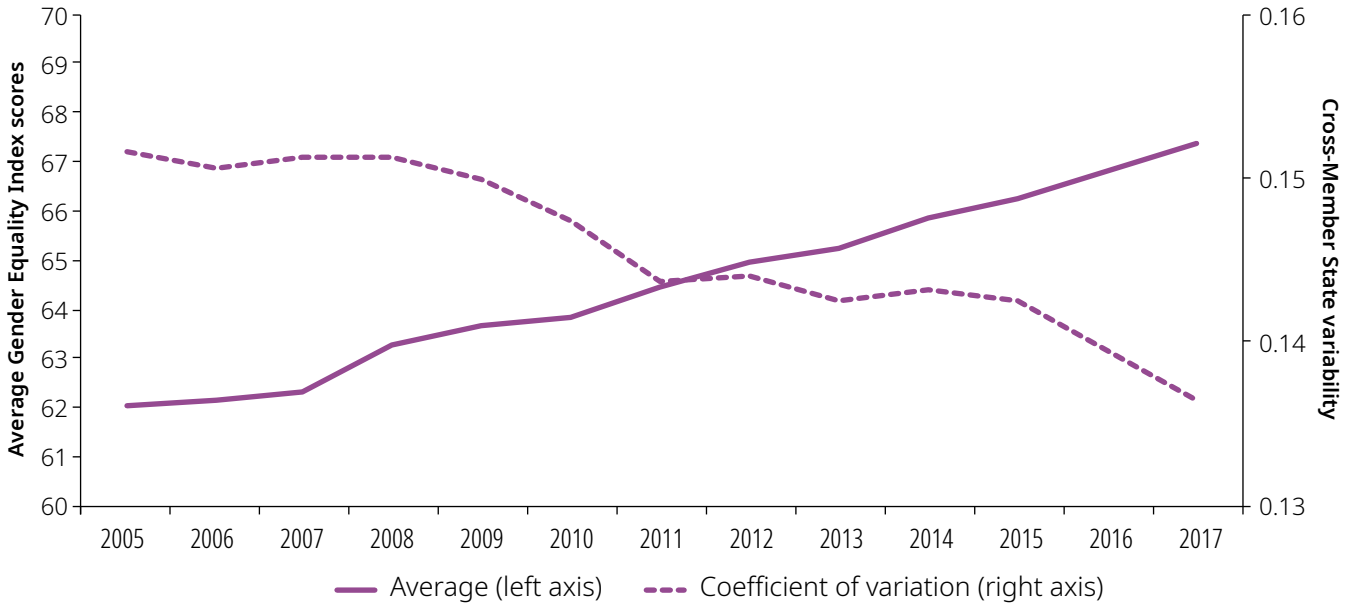
This chapter provides the first attempt to analyse the degree of convergence on gender equality in the EU between 2005 and 2017. Convergence is the tendency of Member States to become more alike over time. Therefore, the analysis conducted shows whether the Gender Equality Index scores of the Members States are moving towards the same level of achievement and to what extent a gradual reduction of disparities is being achieved in the process. Following the methodology proposed by Eurofound (2018c) in monitoring convergence, the first step is to examine the trend of the Gender Equality Index at EU level, which is followed by an analysis of the convergence and divergence patterns in each Member State towards the EU (see Annex 4 for further methodological details). Subsequent analysis is needed to assess convergence on different domains, sub-domains and indicators and will be provided in future editions of the Gender Equality Index.

Trend at the EU level

Longer-term developments at the EU level regarding the variation between the Member States in the Gender Equality Index score from 2005 to 2017 are presented in Figure 5. It shows the average of the Gender Equality Index score for the 28 Member States (left axis) in comparison to the trend in the cross-Member State variability (right axis) ([2]). The figure shows that the mean improvement in the Gender Equality Index in this period, rising from 62.0 to 67.4 points, was accompanied by an overall decline in variation. This implies that, on average, differences between Member States decreased.

([2]) Variation is calculated through a commonly used dispersion measurement, the coefficient of variation, which is defined as the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean. The lower the values of the coefficient of variation, the lower the degree of variability is and the closer the EU Member States are to each other regarding the score of the Index.

Figure 5: Average and dispersion in the Gender Equality Index, EU-28, 2005-2017



Note: Both mean and coefficient of variation are computed with the original scores of the Gender Equality Index, which are weighted values.

Table 3: Convergence patterns (EU, 2005-2017)

Overall pattern	Yearly patterns											
2005-2017	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015	2015-2016	2016-2017
UC	UC	UD	UC	UC	UC	UC	UD	UC	UD	UC	UC	UC

Note: Upward convergence (UC) — mean improvement in performance and reduction of disparities among Member States; upward divergence (UD) — mean improvement in performance together with an increase in disparities among Member States.

An increase in Gender Equality Index score, together with reduced cross-Member State disparities between 2005 and 2017, point to a trend of upward convergence. Nonetheless, Table 3 shows that periods of upward divergence could be spotted in certain years within this period. This means that while there is a general increase in the Gender Equality Index scores, the disparities between Member States widened when some Member States outperformed others during some periods (2006-2007; 2011-2012; and 2013-2014). These findings show the importance of monitoring annual progress across the Member States if a common objective of gender equality in the EU is to be achieved in a smooth and gradual way.

Further analysis suggests that the worst-performing Member States were catching up with the best-performers over the period. Member States with higher initial levels of gender equality in 2005, such as Sweden, Denmark or Finland (indicated by their position on the x-axis of Figure 6), showed slower growth in subsequent years (indicated by their position on the y-axis). In comparison, Member States with lower initial Index scores, such as Cyprus, Greece

or Italy, showed faster growth rates on gender equality.

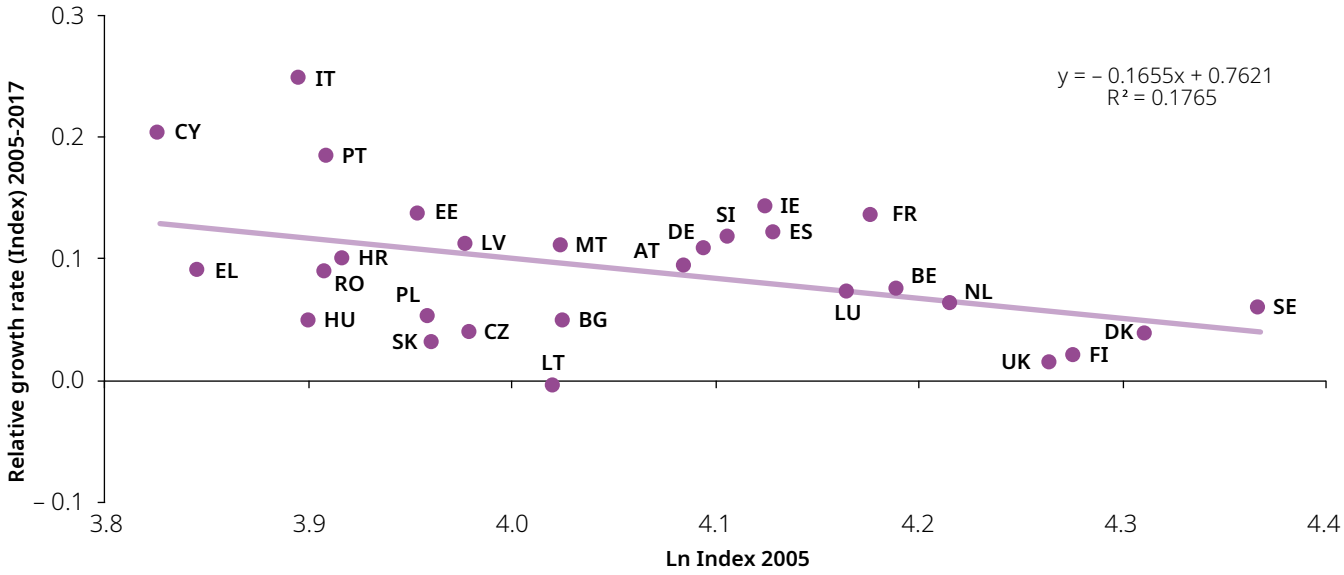
Although the results of the convergence analysis suggest a gradual narrowing of gaps on gender equality in the EU between 2005 and 2017, they do not shed light on the different developments at Member State level. For instance, despite an average increase in the Gender Equality Index score during this period, not all of the Member States registered an improvement. This is known as upward convergence in the weak sense (Eurofound, 2017b).

Convergence and divergence patterns of Member States 2005-2017

To see how the developments in the Gender Equality Index of individual Member States compare to the EU average, a systematic mapping of the patterns was carried out on the basis of the following information: (1) EU average performance (improvement or worsening); (2) Member State performance (improvement or worsening); (3) relative Member State performance in relation to the EU average (better or worse); and (4) relative Member State speed in relation to the EU average (faster or slower). As a result, EU Member States displayed five different patterns of convergence or divergence patterns during the 2005-2017 period (3).

- **Catching up.** Estonia, Germany, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta, Austria, Portugal and Slovenia registered Index scores lower than the EU average, but their scores improved more quickly than the EU mean, narrowing the gap between them over time.
- **Flattening.** Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom had gender-equality scores higher than the EU average but their improvement was slower than the EU average. Over time, the gap between these Member States and the EU reduced.
- **Outperforming.** France, Ireland and Spain started with higher scores than the EU average and grew at a faster rate in the ensuing years, increasing the gap between them and the EU.
- **Slower pace.** Bulgaria, Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovakia improved their Gender Equality Index scores. However, with initially significantly

Figure 6: Beta convergence among EU Member States, 2005-2017



Note: Ln Index relative growth rate in 2005-2017 is computed as: $\text{Ln}\left(\frac{\text{Index 2017}}{\text{Index 2005}}\right)$

(3) This classification has been done with the Stata code developed by Eurofound following the methodology presented in Eurofound, 2018c.

lower scores than the EU average, their slower rate of progress during the period ensured growing disparities between them and the EU over time.

- **Diving.** Lithuania was the only Member State, with Gender Equality Index scores lower than the EU whose scores declined as the EU average increased, widening the gap as a result.

Altogether, upward convergence was noted in 16 Member States with catching-up and flattening tendencies, while the remaining 12 Member States displayed various trends of upward divergence (across the three groups of divergence). The evolution of the Index scores at Member State level over the past 12 years in comparison to the EU mean is presented in Figure 7 and Figure 8. In the most recent years, for instance from 2015 to 2017, different patterns have emerged for some Member States. For example, Czechia, Greece, Croatia, Romania and Slovakia were catching up with the EU average.

Figure 7: Patterns of convergence of the Gender Equality Index by Member State, scores, 2005-2017

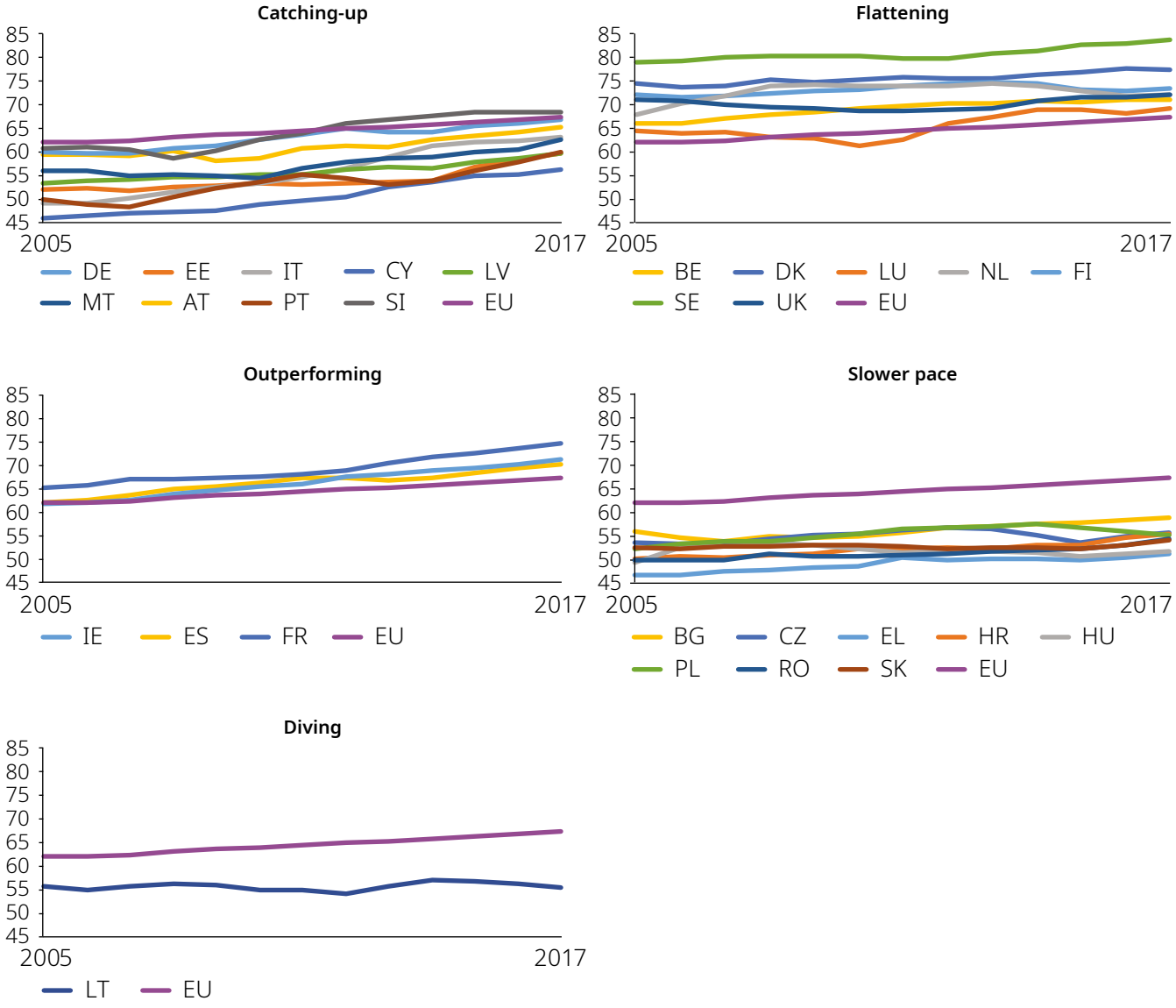
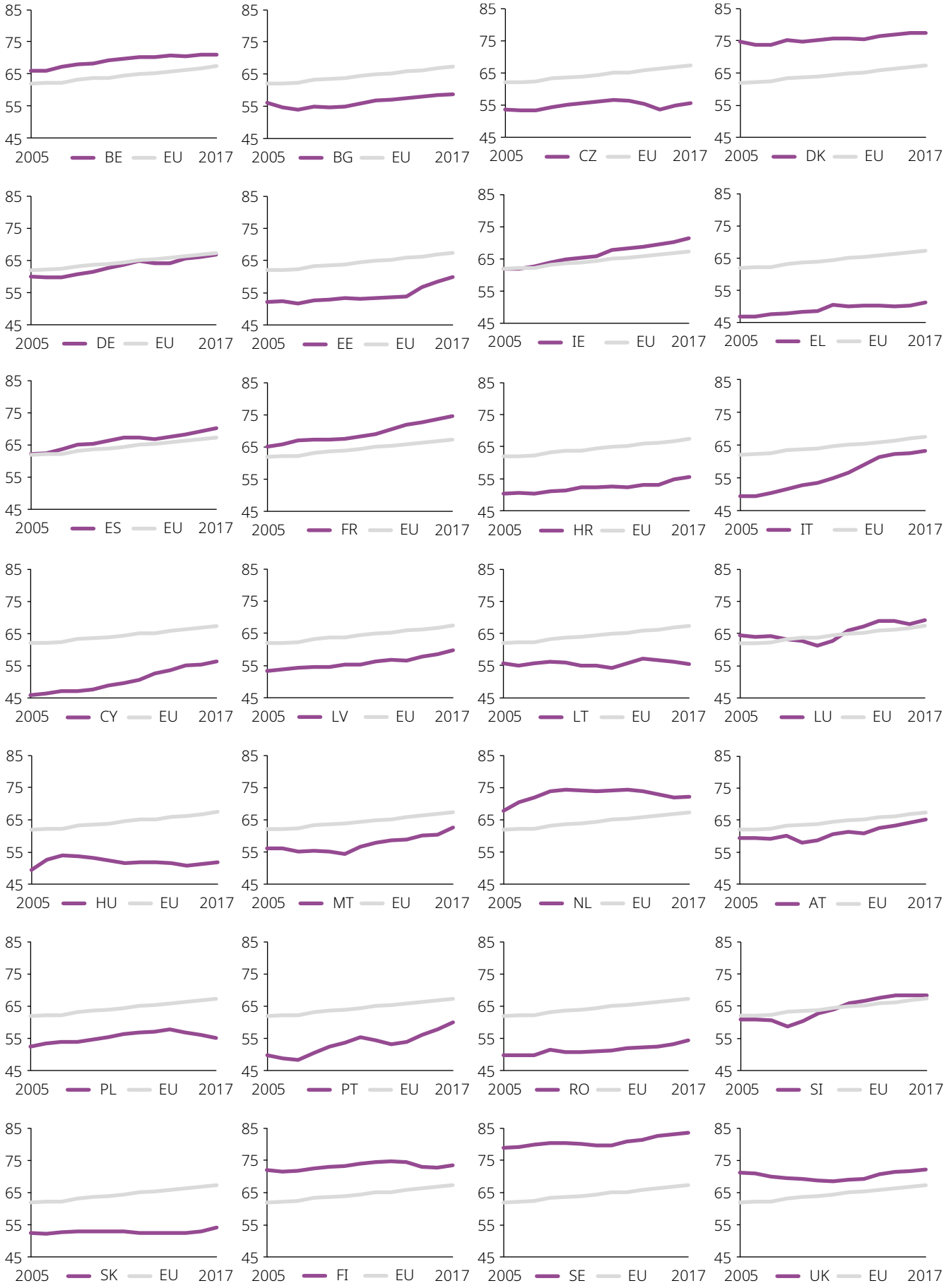


Figure 8: Convergence of the Gender Equality Index by Member State, scores, 2005-2017



2. Domain of work

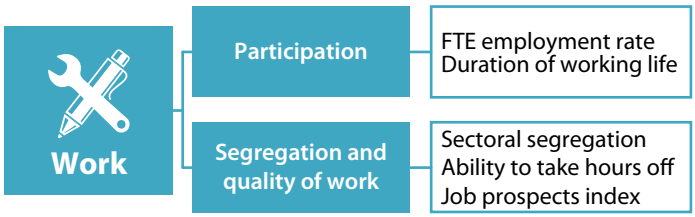
Phenomena such as digitalisation, globalisation, migration and demographic change, including ageing, have not only transformed the EU labour market but also the primary considerations in the debate over the future of work (European Commission, 2019). With paid work being the main source of income for most families and individuals, policies tackling the changing world of work need to put gender considerations at the heart of responses (ILO, 2019). Existing gender inequalities have to be addressed first and foremost to ensure gender injustice is not perpetuated and to improve the lives of both women and men from different generations and backgrounds.

Although the gender gap in labour-market participation has narrowed over the years, the goal of the Europe 2020 strategy to reach a 75 % employment rate for women and men alike remains elusive for women. While their employment rate in 2018 was just above 67 %, the 79 % rate for men had already surpassed the EU goal ([4]). This gender gap reflects numerous structural barriers inhibiting women's labour-market participation and other inequalities concerning the quality and accessibility of paid work.

Gender segregation in the labour market is a well-known reality. It restricts life choices and the education and employment options of women and men, and determines the status of their jobs. Segregation also drives the gender pay gap, further reinforces gender stereotypes and perpetuates unequal gender power relations in the public and private spheres (EIGE, 2017e). Environmental, demographic and socioeconomic changes are increasing the demand for care workers, predominantly women trapped in low-quality jobs (ILO, 2018a). The vast under-representation of women in sectors such as ICT points to a major waste of highly qualified human resources and economic potential (EIGE, 2018d). Reducing gender segregation across

The domain of work measures the extent to which women and men can benefit from equal access to employment and good working conditions. The sub-domain of participation combines two indicators: the rate of full-time equivalent (FTE) employment and the duration of working life. The FTE employment rate takes into account the higher incidence of part-time employment among women and is obtained by comparing each worker's average number of hours worked with the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker (EIGE, 2014b). Gender segregation and quality of work are included in the second sub-domain. Sectoral segregation is measured through women's and men's participation in the education, human health and social work sectors. Quality of work is measured by flexible working-time arrangements and job prospects with flexibility of work capturing the ability of both genders to take time off for personal or family matters. The job prospects index (a Eurofound job quality index) captures continuity of employment defined by the type of employment contract, job security, career advancement prospects and development of the workplace in terms of the number of employees. It is measured on a scale of between 0 and 100 points, where 100 indicates the best job prospects.

Structure of the domain of work



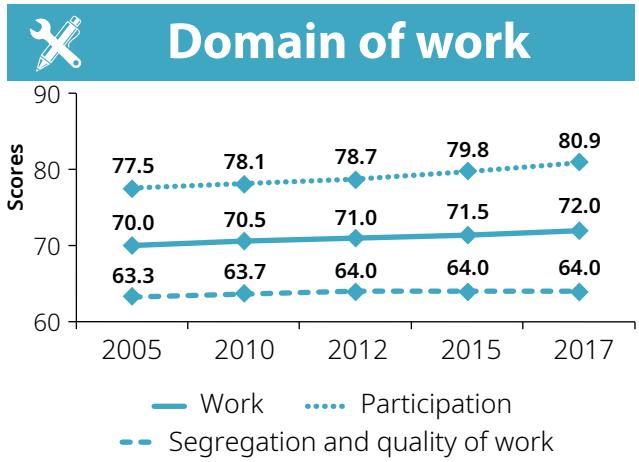
([4]) Eurostat: Employment rate by sex, age group 20-64 — % (t2020_10).

science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) jobs would increase the GDP in the EU by an estimated EUR 820 billion and create up to 1.2 million more jobs by 2050 (EIGE, 2017a). To achieve this economic and social growth, continuous efforts are needed to move towards a social model that enables both women and men to be earners and carers.

In 2017, a roadmap for Member States to integrate a gender perspective into the European Pillar of Social Rights was set out in its key principles. This included active support for secure and adaptable employment, fair wages, social dialogue and work—life balance (European Commission, 2017b). In recent years, work—life balance has become a priority policy area for the EU. A key objective of the proposed work—life balance directive is to increase women's participation in the labour market and support their career progression through better sharing of both women and men's parental and caring responsibilities (European Commission, 2017c). The directive, among other initiatives, builds on the European Commission's *Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality 2016-2019*, which also presents measures for work—life balance.

The fast-paced evolution of the world of work, partly through digitalisation, has made it critical to enhance women's and men's skills to ensure equal access to and participation in the labour market. Of particular concern is improving access to secure and quality jobs, especially for women in vulnerable situations such as victims of gender-based violence (Council of the European Union, 2017). Similarly, the need to reform social protection systems to facilitate fair and decent working conditions for women and men in typical employment situations is highlighted in the proposal for a Council recommendation on access to social protection for workers and the self-employed (European Commission, 2018e). Overall, only a simultaneous and holistic response to gender-related challenges in the world of work would ensure sustainable economic growth and more active management of the social and public finance risks of population ageing and global uncertainties.

Figure 9: Scores for the domain of work and its sub-domains, EU, 2005-2017

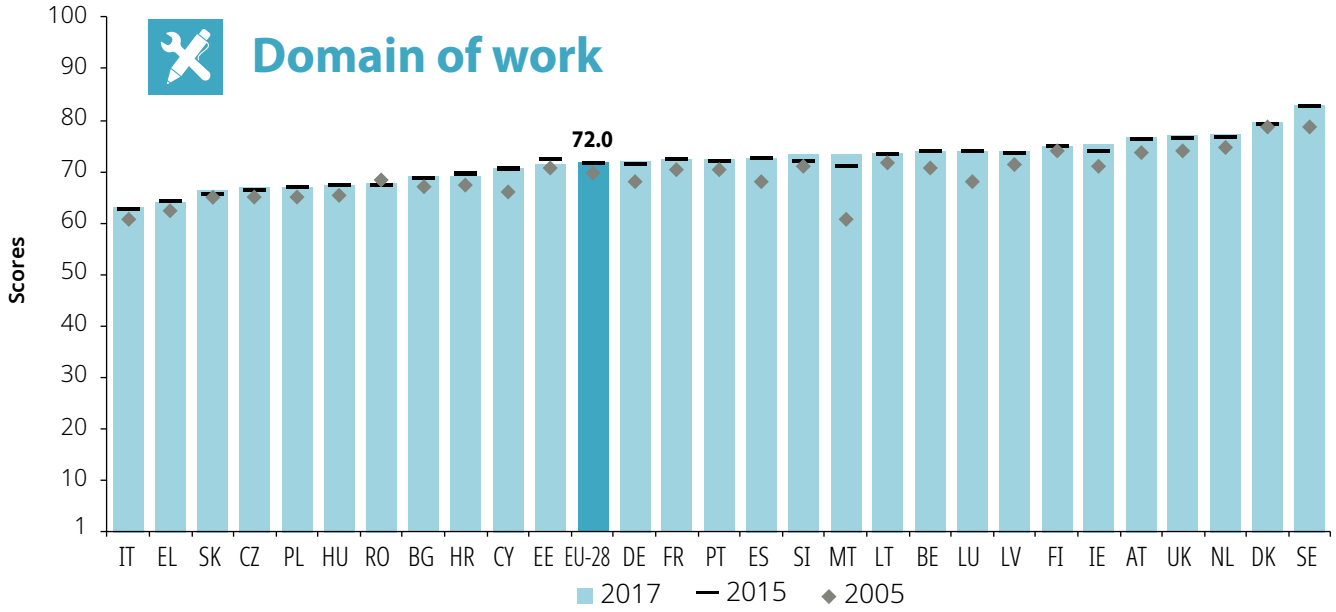


2.1. Gender equality inching slowly forward in fast-changing world of work

The score of 72.0 points in 2017 highlights the incremental overall progress made in the domain of work since the 71.5-point score in 2015 and the 70.0-point score in 2005 (Figure 9). EU-level progress since 2005 was driven by the achievements of Member States that already had higher overall scores for this domain (SE, IE, LU, ES and DE) and that improved at a speed double the EU average. Cyprus and Malta also showed very strong progress between 2005 and 2017. On the other hand, and despite slowly improving situations, Italy and Greece demonstrated they had the most ground to make up, while Romania remained the only Member State with a domain score lower than that of 2005 (Figure 10).

A breakdown of the two sub-domains revealed contrasting levels of progress. Participation attained a score of 80.9 points in 2017 (Figure 9). This represents a sturdier improvement from the 77.5 points in 2005 and a more balanced situation for women and men. The advance was largely due to gains in employment participation rates in some Member States, particularly Ireland, Malta, Slovakia and Slovenia. Between 2015 and 2017, improvement in these Member States exceeded 2 p.p.

Figure 10: The domain of work scores for EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017



In comparison, and despite slowly rising employment rates, gender segregation remains a particular challenge for the EU and all Member States. The segregation and quality of work sub-domain, with a far lower score of 64.0 points in 2017 (Figure 9), continued its stagnation, registering barely any movement from 2005 (63.3 points). Among Member States, scores in this sub-domain varied, ranging from Slovakia's 53.5 points to the Netherlands' 74.2, but also showed no significant change since 2015. The exception was Estonia, whose score decreased by 1.7 points to 57.0 from 2015 to 2017.

The latter scores show that the effectiveness of measures to reduce gender segregation in employment remains limited, with women mostly occupying jobs in sectors that have generally lower remuneration levels, lower career prospects and fewer options for upskilling (EIGE, 2017c), revealing enduring inequalities. The segregation and quality of work sub-domain results underline that to achieve gender equality in the work domain, systematically and effectively tackling these persistent challenges and inequalities is critical. Although a strong emphasis was put on equal access to the labour market for a long time, the quality of working conditions, working time, precarious work and social protection related to the non-standard forms of employment should more consistently become gender-related and important concerns for EU policymakers and others (EIGE, 2017d; Eurofound, 2018d; ILO, 2018a).

2.2. Women dominate part-time employment, consigning them to jobs with poorer career progression

In 2017, the FTE employment rate in the EU was 41 % for women and 57 % for men, an increase of about 1 p.p. for both genders from 2015. This maintains the gender gap in FTE employment unchanged at 16 p.p. over the period and shows that despite the overall employment rates of women being some-

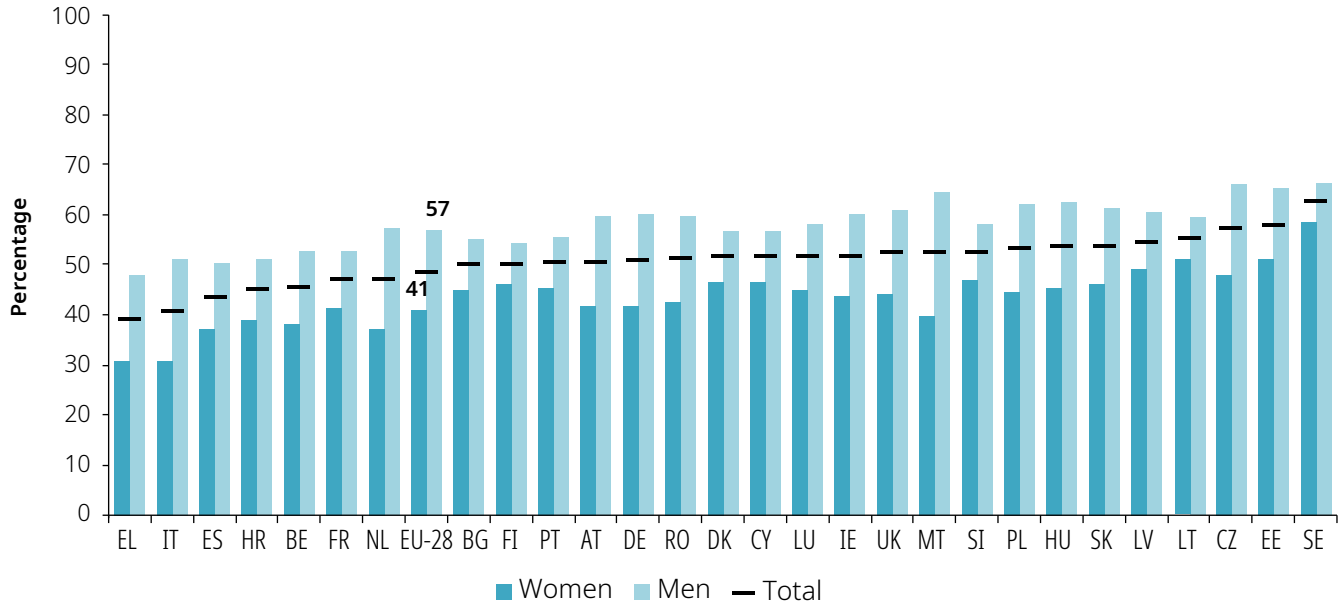
The full-time equivalent employment rate of women is 41 % and of men 57 %

what closer to those of men ([5]) than FTE statistics show, many of the jobs women are able to take are part-time. In 2018, 31 % of women and 8 % of men worked part-time ([6]). Overall FTE employment rates, which reflect the spread of part-time employment as well as overall labour-market participation, remained highly varied among Member States. The lowest (below or equal to 40 %) FTE rates for women were observed in Greece (31 %) and Italy (31 %), as well as Spain, the Netherlands, Belgium, Croatia and Malta (Figure 11).

FTE employment gender gaps at national level also demonstrate very different labour-market opportunities for women and men. The largest gap to women's detriment was noted in Malta (25 p.p.), with the lowest observed in Finland and Sweden (8 p.p.). No steady narrowing of gender gaps in FTE employment have been noted nationally in recent years. Although FTE gender gaps widened (by at least 1 p.p.) between 2015 and 2017 in Denmark, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Slovenia, they also narrowed (by at least 1 p.p.) in Cyprus, Greece, Hungary and Poland. This underlines not only the slow gains on FTE employment for both genders, but also the fragility of women's opportunities in the labour market.

As women spend less time in paid work than men, they are also more likely to worry that their income in old age will be insufficient (Eurofound, 2018a). The gender pension gap, the gender pay gap and the weaker economic independence of women are reinforced by the concentration of women and men in certain sectors and occupations (EIGE, 2017c). Women not only remain over-represented in education, human health and social work, but their employment in these sectors also increased by 2 p.p. between 2005 and 2017 to just over 30 %. In contrast, men's share of employment in these sectors stalled at around 8 % from 2005. Among Member States the gender gap in these fields differed significantly in 2017, varying from the narrowest in Cyprus and Romania (13 p.p.) to the widest in Finland (31 p.p.). From 2015, the gender gap narrowed (by at least 1 p.p.) in Belgium and Austria, but widened (by at least 1 p.p.) in

Figure 11: Full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE) by women and men, and EU Member State (15+, %), 2017



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU LFS.
Note: Calculated as: (sum of total working hours/mean working hours on full time jobs)/population.

([5]) Eurostat (lfsa_ergan): 2018 employment rate for those aged 15-64: men, 73.8 % and women, 63.3 %. The latter employment statistics, in contrast to FTE, do not account for differences in part-time work prevalence between women and men.
([6]) Eurostat (lfsa_eppga): part-time employment as percentage of the total employment, by sex and age (%), age group 20-64.

Bulgaria, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Finland.

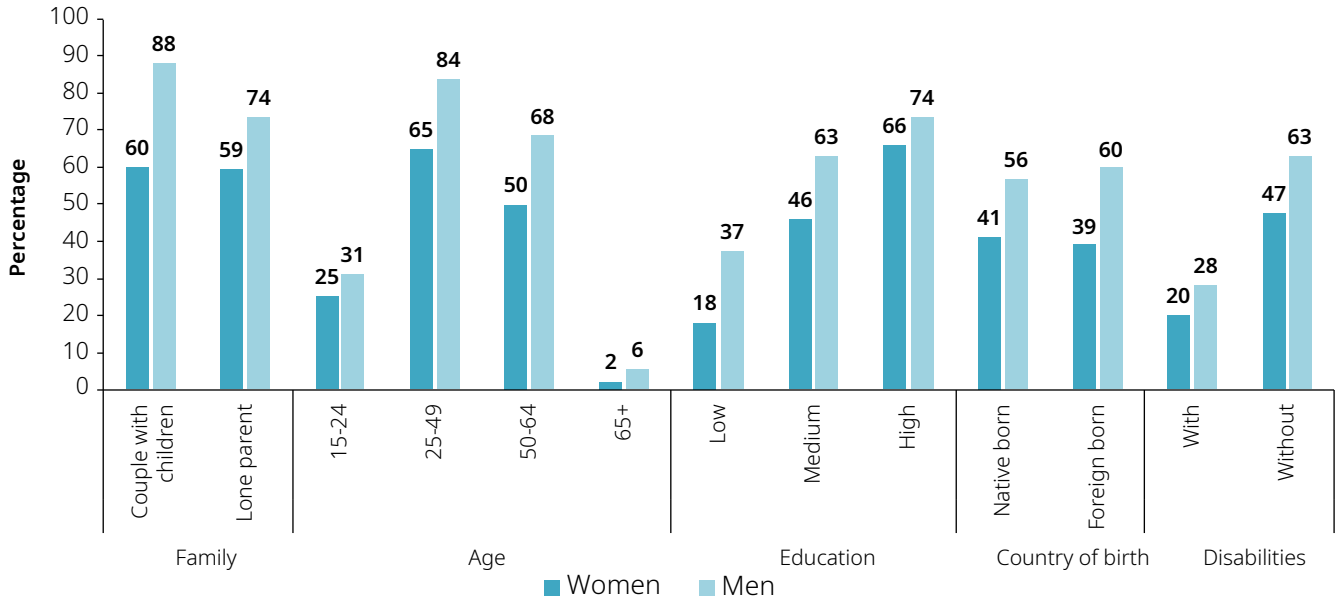
2.3. Motherhood, low education and migration are particular barriers to work for women

Being a parent continues to hinder women, but not men, in the labour market. FTE employment rates of women with children were around 60 % (Figure 12) regardless of the family type. Lone fathers had a higher FTE employment rate (74 %), though this was still far lower than those of fathers living in a couple (88 %). These figures not only reveal the extent of fathers' possibilities to participate in the labour market when living in couples, they also show that the arrival of a child has the greatest negative impact on the mothers living in couples. The disproportionate weight of care duties on mothers limits their participation in or forces their withdrawal from the labour market. This is further backed up by 2014-2017 trends showing FTE employment rates for lone fathers improved at double the speed (+ 8 p.p.) of those for lone mothers and couples with children (+ 4 p.p.).

While the most acute gender gap in FTE employment was observed among couples with children (28 p.p.), very large differences between women and men's labour-market participation were noted also for those aged 25-49 (19 p.p.) and 50-64 years (18 p.p.). These ages coincide with the peak times for family formation and increasing care duties — be it for children, grandchildren or those who are older and ill. These gender gaps in FTE employment stress the need for wider and more gender-sensitive opportunities for the equal sharing of care duties in our societies (see Chapter 9).

Other major disparities between women and men exist among those with a lower level of qualifications and foreign-born population groups, where both strong gender norms still in play and fewer possibilities for employment lead to much lower participation by women in paid work. The gender gaps in FTE employment rates were as high as 19 p.p. among those with low qualifications and 21 p.p. among people born outside the EU. These gaps widened by 2 p.p. between 2014 and 2017, worsening an already worrying situation. Migrant women, moreover, are disproportionately engaged in the informal economy, such

Figure 12: Full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE) by women and men, age, family type, level of education, country of birth and disability (15+, %), EU, 2017



Source: EIGE's calculation, EU LFS.
Note: Calculated as: (sum of total working hours/mean working hours on full time jobs)/ population. Disability status based on EU-SILC.

as in informal care work that usually entails poor working conditions and low pay (ILO, 2018a). In addition, very low FTE employment rates are noted among people aged above 65 years and those with disabilities, especially women. Inter alia, this has consequences for current and future social security entitlements, as well as for upskilling and wider societal integration opportunities.

By extending its analysis of intersecting inequalities to show how different groups of women and men are affected, the Gender Equality Index also highlights the situation of LGBTQI* people, Roma women and Muslim women in areas where statistics or other research evidence are available.

In several Member States, the use of a headscarf by Muslim women is an obstacle when applying for a job, regardless of a candidate's qualifications (EFOMW, 2017). It can similarly exclude them from certain jobs and sectors, such as those involving contact with customers (ENAR, 2016a, 2016b). Roma women report a much lower employment rate than Roma men, mostly due to lower educational attainment, traditional gender roles and the lack of childcare options outside the household. Access to the labour market is made even more difficult by living in segregated areas and the discrimination Roma face (FRA, 2014b).

Similarly, discrimination and harassment in the workplace pose a problem for LGBT people in the EU. An LGBT survey found that one in five LGBT people had felt discriminated against in the workplace in the previous 12 months because of their sexual orientation (FRA, 2013). More recent research (Eurofound, 2016) identified large disparities within the group, with 15 % of bisexual men and 23 % of transgender people reporting discrimination at work.

3. Domain of money

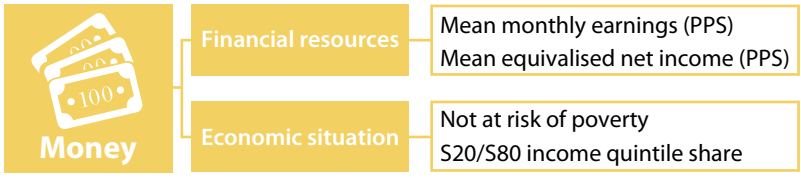
The discrepancies between the national economic performance measurements and the public's own evaluations of living standards have led to a call for a people-centred economy that would enable sustainable and more inclusive economic development (World Economic Forum, 2018). Recent years have seen wage increases and higher disposable income among households in a large majority of Member States (European Commission, 2018b). At the same time, Europe faces an increasing socioeconomic divide between those with the highest share of economic capital and the poorest (OECD, 2017). Despite progress on gender equality, inequalities between women and men in this domain remain a key aspect of this divide. Addressing this is essential to achieving sustainable and inclusive economic growth, as well as a decent living for all.

Across the EU, women receive disproportionately lower earnings than men. The EU gender gap in hourly pay is 16 % (European Commission, 2018c). The pay gender gap rises to 40 % when employment rates and overall labour-market participation are considered. The ramifications include a 37 % gender gap in pension income, a situation that will persist for decades to come (European Commission, 2018d). Women's economic independence, therefore, is far lower than men's, particularly as one in five women workers in the EU belong to the lowest wage group, compared to one in 10 men (EIGE, 2017d).

Economic independence is an essential requisite for the self-fulfilment of women and men and guaranteeing equal access to financial resources is critical to the process. The European Commission's EU action plan 2017-2019 — tackling the gender pay gap, aims to achieve this through action on eight priority areas to address the underlying root causes. This includes reinforcing the application of the equal pay principle and fighting occupational segregation. In January 2019, the Commission launched a follow-up public consultation to assess the impact both of existing EU legislation and of pay transparency recommendations. The principle of equal pay for work of equal value, enshrined in the European treaties since 1957, was reiterated as a principle in the 2017 european pillar of social rights and made a priority in the European Commission's *Strategic Engagement for*

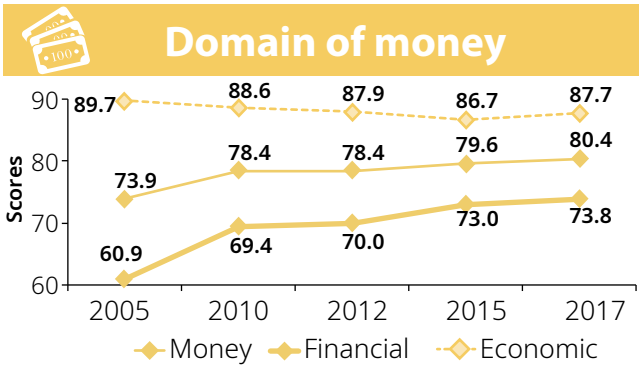
The domain of money measures gender inequalities in access to financial resources and women's and men's economic situation. The sub-domain of financial resources includes women's and men's monthly earnings and income measured through two indicators. These are mean monthly earnings from work and mean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

Structure of the domain of money



Gender Equality 2016-2019 and in the Council's European pact for gender equality (2011-2020). The link between reducing inequalities and the fight against poverty and other deprivations is also at the core of the sustainable development goals (SDGs). Adopted by United Nations member states in 2015 and endorsed by the EU, this shared blueprint for sustainable well-being includes targets on ending poverty, attaining gender equality and providing decent work and economic growth.

Figure 13: Scores of the domain of money and its sub-domains, EU, 2005-2017



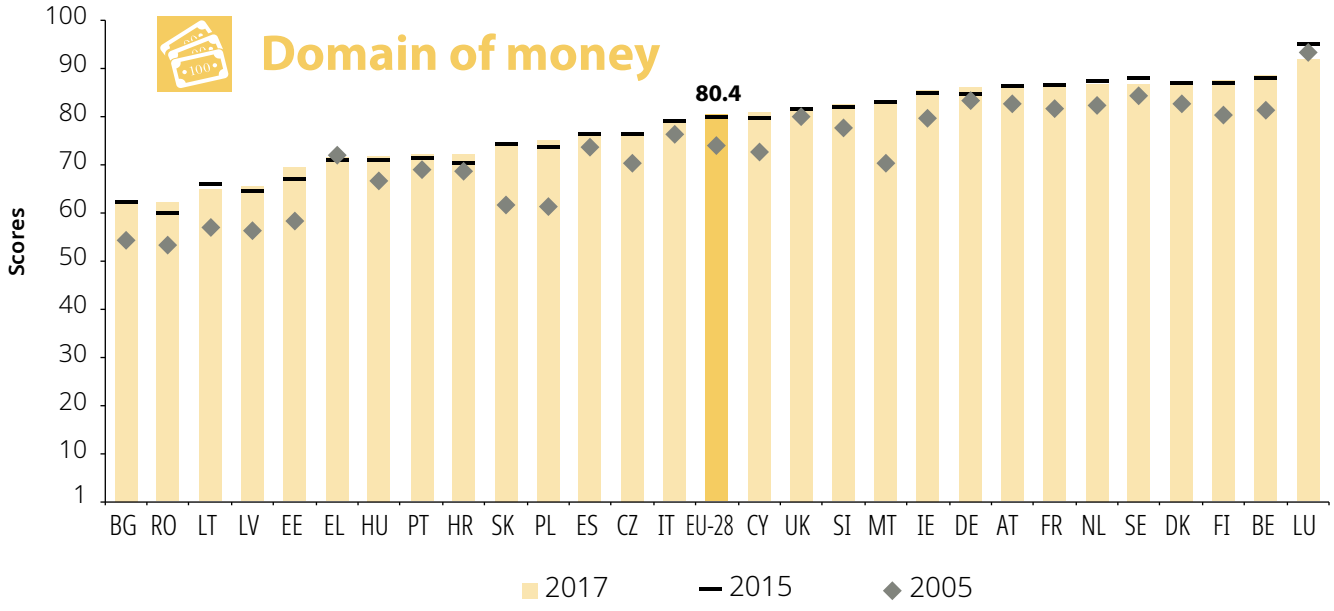
3.1. Patchy progress on gender-equal access to financial and economic resources

With a score of 80.4 points in 2017, the domain of money showed continuing improvement from 2005 (73.9 points). This rating places the domain of money second only to health in surpassing 80 points in the Gender Equality Index. This suggests that, although significant gender gaps still exist on financial and economic resources, women and men have achieved somewhat more equitable settings in this domain than in many other domains (e.g. the domain of power).

In comparison with 2015, the greatest progress (+ 2 points) was noted in three Member States (EE, HR and RO), although their achieved levels remain below the EU average. Regress (by at least 1 point) between 2015 and 2017 was noted in two Member States (LU, LT). Luxembourg, in spite of this, has the highest score in the EU. Lithuania, which already had one of the lowest scores in the EU, slipped further behind in the rankings. Between 2005 and 2017, Greece and Luxembourg had worsening situations, whereas particularly large gains (+ 10 points) have been noted in Estonia, Slovakia, Poland and Malta.

Of the two sub-domains, gender equality in economic resources is in a better position (87.7 points) than financial resources (73.8 points), with the former contributing to the overall improvement in the money domain score. Although the situation in this sub-domain had

Figure 14: Scores for the domain of money, EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017



particularly weakened between 2005 and 2015 (with scores dropping from 89.7 to 86.7 points), this trend was finally reversed in 2017. Nonetheless, the situation in 2017 still showed a wider gender gap in economic resources in comparison to 2005. Progress in this area remains fragile in many Member States. Compared to the sub-domain of financial resources, where no significant (+ 1 point) Member State-level regress was noted between 2015 and 2017, gender inequalities in economic resources worsened in six Member States: Luxembourg (– 4.8 points), Lithuania (– 4.3), Bulgaria (– 3.4), the Netherlands (– 1.9), Malta (– 1.4) and Sweden (– 1.2). The situation in Bulgaria is particularly worrying due to a major and continuous decline in gender equality in this area from 2005 (88.1 points) to 2017 (76.1 points). In 11 other Member States (DK, DE, ES, FR, IT, LT, LU, HU, MT, AT, SE) and the EU as a whole, gender equality in the sub-domain of economic resources was greater in 2005 than in 2017.

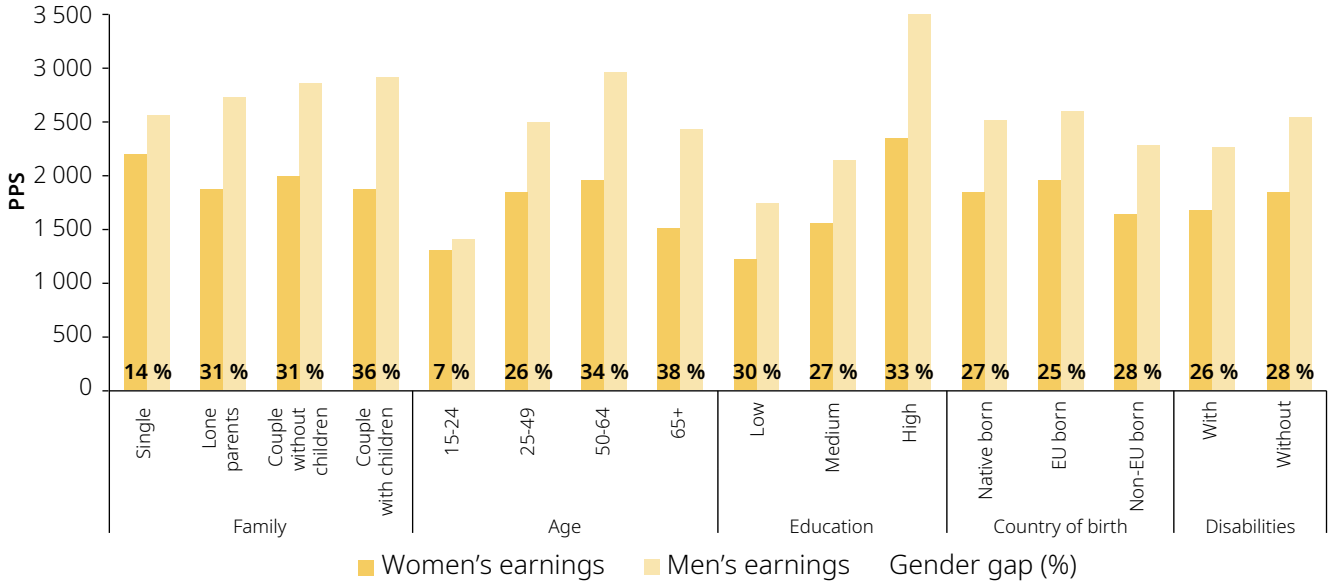
3.2. Paying the price for motherhood

To better capture the impact of income-generating opportunities for women and men, various income sources, measures and breakdowns in gender gaps in pay that combine the effect of individual, household, organisational and country characteristics have to be examined (EIGE, 2019c). The gender gaps in individual earnings point to women's much larger disadvantage than men in gaining income when compared to what household-level statistical measures, such as at-risk-of-poverty rates, show.

The rise of household disposable income (mean annual equivalised net income) observed during 2005-2015 continued into 2017. Between 2015 and 2017, women's income increased by 874 PPS to 17 343 PPS and men's by 925 PPS to 18 121 PPS. The latter increases sustained the gender gap in disposable income at 4 % to women's disadvantage. This statistical measure is calculated on the basis of various incomes pooled at the household level, which suggests that all adults, irrespective of their gender, are attributed the same share of household income if living in the same household. Gender differences in mean equivalised net income are therefore mainly due to varied income situations of different household types rather than differences, for example, in the salaries of women and men. Mean monthly gross earnings (before tax deductions and social security contributions) of women and men employees, which refer to individual incomes, show that on average in the EU, women employees in companies with at least 10 employees earn about 80 % of what their male counterparts earn (2 249 PPS vs 2 809 PPS respectively). The latter gender gap depicts the magnitude of gender gaps in financial resources, as also indicated by individual-level measures, for example the EU average gender pay gap of 16 % or the gender gap in overall earnings of 40 % (EIGE, 2019c).

Further differences across women's and men's employee groups exist. For example, the gender gap (7 %) in gross monthly earnings in PPS (Figure 15) among employees aged 15-24 years was more than five times lower than among employees aged 65 years or above (gender gap of 38 %) or employees with dependent children and living in a couple (gender gap of 36 %). This statistic supports wider research findings that family formation and corresponding gender norms and stereotypes are key factors in both the occurrence and widening of gender inequalities in pay during the life-course (EIGE, 2019c).

Figure 15: Mean monthly gross earnings in PPS of women and men, by age, family type, level of education, country of birth and disability, EU, 2017



Source: EIGE's calculation, European Union statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC).
Note: Gender gaps (%) are calculated as the difference between the mean monthly earnings of men and women as a percentage of the mean monthly earnings of men.

3.3. Lifetime pay inequalities fall on older women

35 %
of lone mothers and 28 % of lone fathers are at risk of poverty

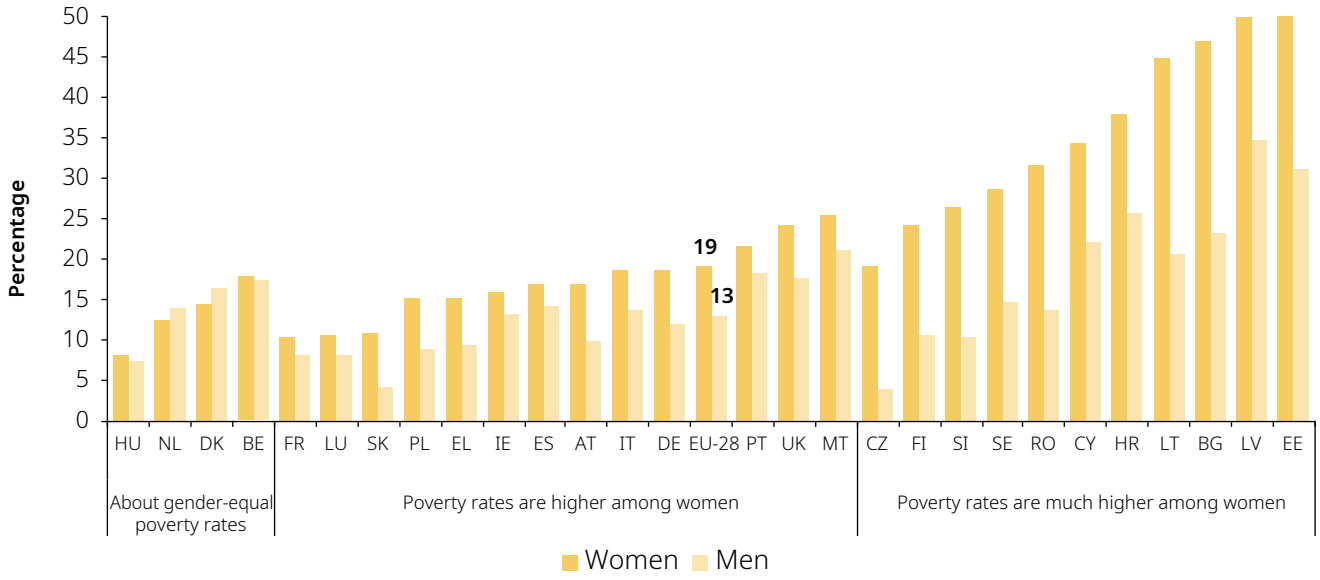
Despite growing population income and women's continuing gains in education and employment, gender gaps in pay ensure poverty is mostly concentrated in families where women are the sole earners. In 2017, 35 % of lone mothers in the EU were at risk of poverty, compared to 28 % of lone fathers ([7]). The latter figure not only spotlights the sizeable gender gap in this group, it also underlines the high level of vulnerability to poverty among lone parents. Although acknowledged by policymakers, existing remedies remain limited in their effectiveness, not least because of barriers to accessing work and earning a decent income.

The risk of poverty rises sharply along the life-course, pointing to the accumulating impact of pay inequalities. Poverty among those aged 75 years and above is consistently concentrated among women, due mainly to the impact of women's reduced time in work and/or lower earnings throughout their careers and therefore the lower pensions they receive. Although women's shouldering of unpaid care duties is often perceived as a 'family' choice, poverty rates among older people reflect the adverse impact on women's individual well-being from such gendered arrangements. With the exception of a handful of Member States (HU, NL, DK, BE), at-risk-of-poverty rates among women aged 75 or more were higher (2-10 p.p.) or much higher (+ 10 p.p.) than among older men (Figure 16) in 2017. In some instances where the gender gap was above 20 p.p., this was accompanied by significant rates of poverty (45-57 %) among older women. This situation was particularly prevalent in Estonia, Bulgaria and Lithuania.

The response to the feminisation of poverty in older age in general requires more explicit societal awareness of the financial impact of unpaid duties, a burden primarily borne by women. It also requires income redistribution mechanisms (both within and outside the social-pro-

([7]) EIGE's calculation, EU-SILC.

Figure 16: At-risk-of-poverty rate among older people, by women and men, and EU Member State (75+ %), 2017



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_pns1).

tection systems) to better offset prevailing labour-market inequalities (i.e. gender segregation and gender pay gaps) and to redress gender inequalities in the division of unpaid care work.

High at-risk-of-poverty rates also remain evident among women and men with low educational attainment (26 % and 25 % respectively) and among those born outside the EU (32 % for both genders) ([8]). Among migrant households, gender gaps in at-risk-of-poverty rates are less visible as income is estimated at household level. Nonetheless, existing research indicates that women and men from non-EU countries often struggle to access the labour market or tend to work in low-paid, unstable jobs (Institute of Development Studies, 2016), with women migrants facing even more barriers to quality jobs. The trend in Europe for domestic work (often irregular, low-paid, dead-end jobs increasingly carried out by migrant women) implies women's economic independence gained through this type of work is very fragile (Triandafyllidou, 2013).

The financial and economic situation for some groups of women and men across the EU is especially difficult. Europe's largest minority, the Roma, experience deep poverty and poor socioeconomic conditions. According to a 2018 survey by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA, 2018), 80 % of Roma interviewed were at risk of poverty compared to an EU average of 17 %, 30 % of Roma were living in households with no tap water and 46 % had no indoor sanitation facilities. When employed, Roma women earn less than Roma men, whose wages in turn are well below those of the non-Roma population. Direct comparison of men's and women's earnings by ethnicity showed a larger gender gap among Roma workers than non-Roma workers (O'Higgins, 2015).

Disability also increases the risk of poverty for both women and men. More than half of women of working age with disabilities are economically inactive. They are more likely to be affected by an inability to meet unexpected financial expenses than men with disabilities and women without, and are at a higher risk of economic and social marginalisation than either of the other groups (European Parliament, 2017). In all Member States the severe material deprivation rate of women with disabilities is also higher than that of women without disabilities.

([8]) EIGE's calculation, EU-SILC.

While the widespread social exclusion of and discrimination against the LGBT population is generally discussed (FRA, 2013), these also have economic consequences. Data on the financial and economic situation of LGBT people in Europe is scarce. However, drawing upon information from other world regions and qualitative case studies, it is possible to state that this social group faces a high risk of financial insecurity, poverty and even homelessness. Estimates show that between 20 % and 40 % of young homeless people identify as LGBTQI in the United States and Canada, with United Kingdom data suggesting a respective figure of 25 % (Feantsa, 2017). With LGBTQI people constituting about 7 % of the general population, these estimates indicate this group is over-represented among homeless people (Feantsa, 2017).

4. Domain of knowledge

Education is a powerful driver of more gender-equal and inclusive societies. Equal access to education and a fair and high-quality educational process for girls and boys and women and men provide benefits at individual and societal level (EIGE, 2018c). Education is also a tool to raise awareness of the key principles of equality between women and men and to prevent a backlash against women's rights (European Parliament, 2019).

The Gender Equality Index for the domain of knowledge reveals how women's educational attainment is rising, but overall positive development is being held back by strong gender segregation and low engagement in lifelong learning. While young women (aged 30-34 years) have already exceeded the Europe 2020 tertiary education target of 40 % (46 %), the share of men tertiary graduates has yet to reach it (36 %) ([9]).

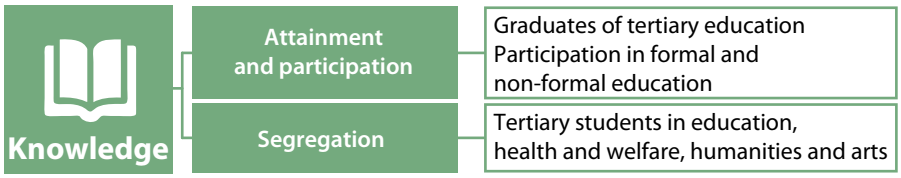
About half of EU students graduate in two main fields of education, with gender concentration striking in both. Just over a fifth (21 %) of men tertiary students graduate in education, health and welfare, humanities and arts ([10]), while only 33 % of women students graduate in STEM (EIGE, 2018c). Such a divide is mirrored by the gender segregation in the equivalent labour market, determining women's and men's earnings, career prospects and working conditions.

Of growing concern is a lack of participation in lifelong learning. The majority of Member States lag far behind the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) benchmark of 15 % of adults aged 25-64 years engaged in lifelong learning (Council of the European Union, 2009). Between 2013 and 2017 the participation figure stagnated at 11 % ([11]), with women more likely to engage in adult learning than men in the majority of Member States. Participation is often low among those who would benefit the most from education and training, for example women with low levels of qualification or women engaged in precarious employment.

The European Pillar of Social Rights emphasises quality and inclusive education, training and lifelong learning to acquire and maintain skills that enable women and men to participate fully in society and successfully manage transitions in the labour market (European Com-

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

Structure of the domain of knowledge



([9]) Eurostat, EU LFS, 2018 (edat_lfse_03).
([10]) EIGE's calculation, Eurostat, Education Statistics, 2017 (educ_uoe_enrt03).
([11]) Eurostat, EU LFS, 2018 (trng_lfs_01).

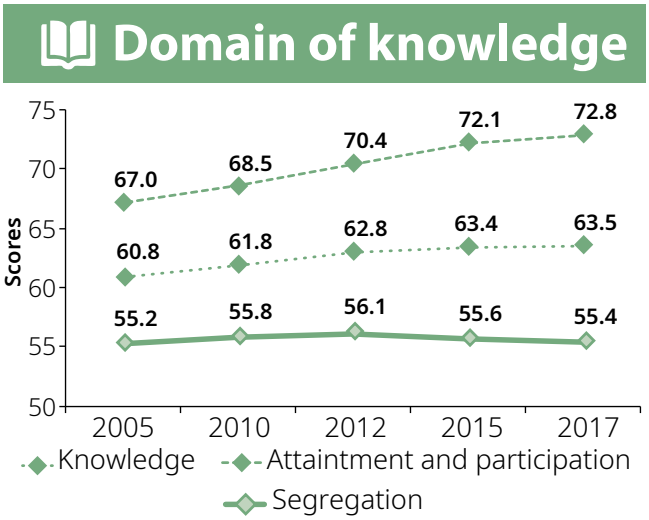
mission, 2018e). Adult participation in learning plays a crucial role in the Europe 2020 flagship initiative, 'An agenda for new skills and jobs', and played a similarly important role in the concluded 'Youth on the move' initiative (European Commission, 2010). In addition, the European Council's resolution on a renewed European agenda for adult learning addresses the challenge of raising participation rates among adults in learning activities (Council of the European Union, 2011).

4.1. Gender equality in education standing still even as women graduates outnumber men graduates

With a total EU score of 63.5 points, the domain of knowledge remained virtually static between 2015 and 2017 and only improved by 2.7 points over the entire 12-year period from 2005 (Figure 17). The slow but positive change in the domain has been propelled forward by improving educational attainment among men and women. This is one of the few domains where a gender gap has been reversed since 2005 — women now outperform men in tertiary educational attainment in most Member States. However, gender segregation in education and the generally low participation levels in formal and non-formal education and training among women and men remain major hurdles, holding back overall progress in this domain.

Most Member States experienced hardly any improvement in the knowledge domain from 2015. An increase was registered in Estonia (+ 2.3), Spain (+ 2.1) and Czechia (+ 1.7), while scores dropped in Cyprus (– 2.0), the United Kingdom (– 1.4) and Denmark (– 1.3). As Figure 18 illustrates, the greatest overall progress between 2005 and 2017 was achieved in Cyprus (+ 13.1), Greece (+ 8.5) and Spain (+ 8.1). The

Figure 17: Scores for the domain of knowledge and its sub-domains, EU, 2005-2017

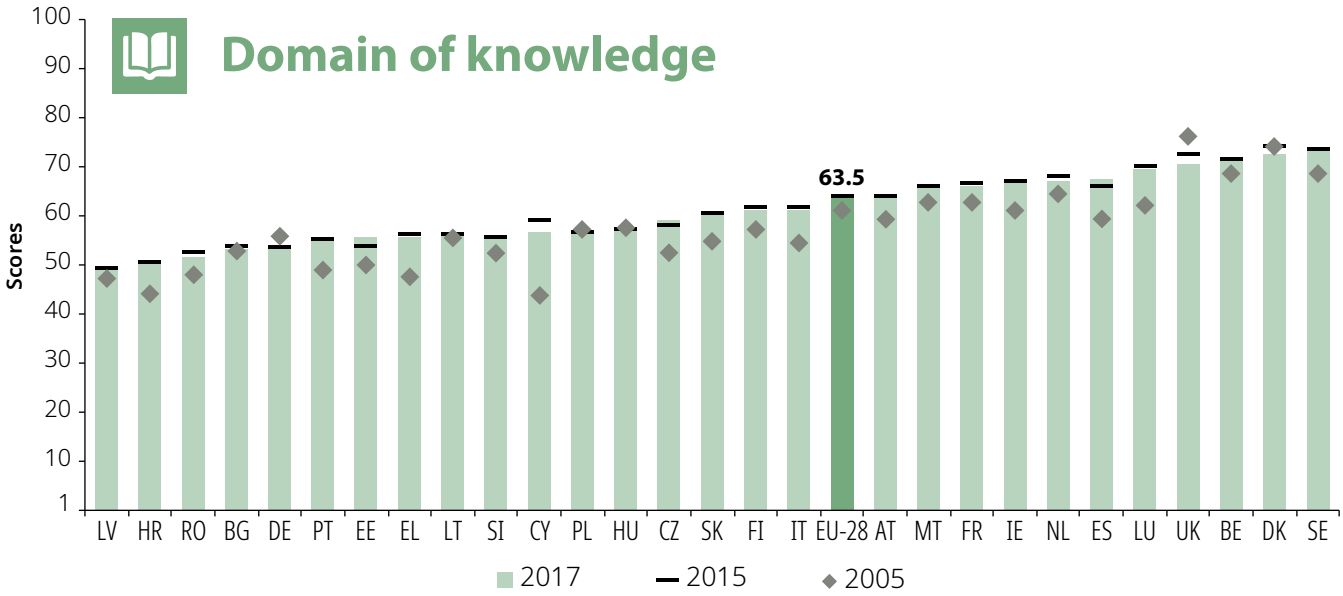


biggest setbacks were in the United Kingdom (– 5.4), Germany (– 1.6) and Denmark (– 1.4).

Over the 12-year period, the sub-domain of attainment and participation achieved the highest increase in the domain of knowledge: from 67.0 to 72.8 points (Figure 17). Luxembourg and Czechia made the most significant improvements in this area (+ 18.9 and + 17.9 points respectively), with seven other Member States progressing by more than 10 points (IE, EL, FR, MT, NL, AT, PT). The situation deteriorated in three Member States: the United Kingdom (– 6.0), Poland (– 1.5) and Slovenia (– 1.0).

Gender segregation in education remains a major block to gender equality in the EU, with this sub-domain showing almost no change from 2005 (55.2 points) to 2017 (55.4 points). Cyprus made the most substantial long-term progress in this sub-domain with an increase of 14.8 points, mostly from a greater proportion of men studying education, health and welfare, humanities and arts. Another five Member States saw a long-term increase of more than 7 points (EE, ES, IT, SI, SK). In contrast, there was significant regression for Malta (– 11.2) and Germany (– 7.7) over the same period.

Figure 18: Scores for the domain of knowledge, EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017



4.2. Both women and men limit their study fields

In the EU, more women and men graduate from universities than in the past. Between 2005 and 2017, the EU average for tertiary education graduates grew by 7 p.p. to 25 % ([12]), with almost all of the growth taking place in the first 10 years. Women strongly outnumbered men as tertiary graduates, with a gender gap in Estonia of 16 p.p., in Latvia of 13 p.p. and in Sweden of 11 p.p. Men were more likely to graduate from universities in four Member States: Germany (with the largest gender gap of 8 p.p.), Austria, Malta and Hungary (showing gaps below 4 p.p.). An intersectional analysis revealed that though more women than men aged 15-49 gained tertiary education, a reverse trend was evident in the 50+ age group. Meanwhile, an intersection of gender and disability discovered an EU-28 gender gap advantageous to men (2 p.p.) among people with disabilities. Among people without disabilities, this gap is reversed and stands at 1 p.p. ([13]).

Educational attainment can be challenging for people from deprived socioeconomic backgrounds given that students' socioeconomic status impacts strongly on their educational participation and outcomes (OECD, 2018a). While poor school performance does not necessarily stem from poverty, schools often reproduce existing patterns of socioeconomic (dis)advantage rather than creating a more balanced distribution of learning opportunities and outcomes for students (OECD, 2018a). This tendency can be traced in the situation of groups from marginalised communities, such as Roma. On average, 63 % of Roma aged 16-24 years were not employed, nor in education or training in the EU in 2016. Among young Roma women, that figure rose to 72 % (FRA, 2016).

Although a higher proportion of working-age women are better educated than men, this does not translate into more favourable labour-market outcomes. Women work more often in part-time positions, face precarious conditions at work or receive lower pay: women's gross hourly pay is 16 % lower than that

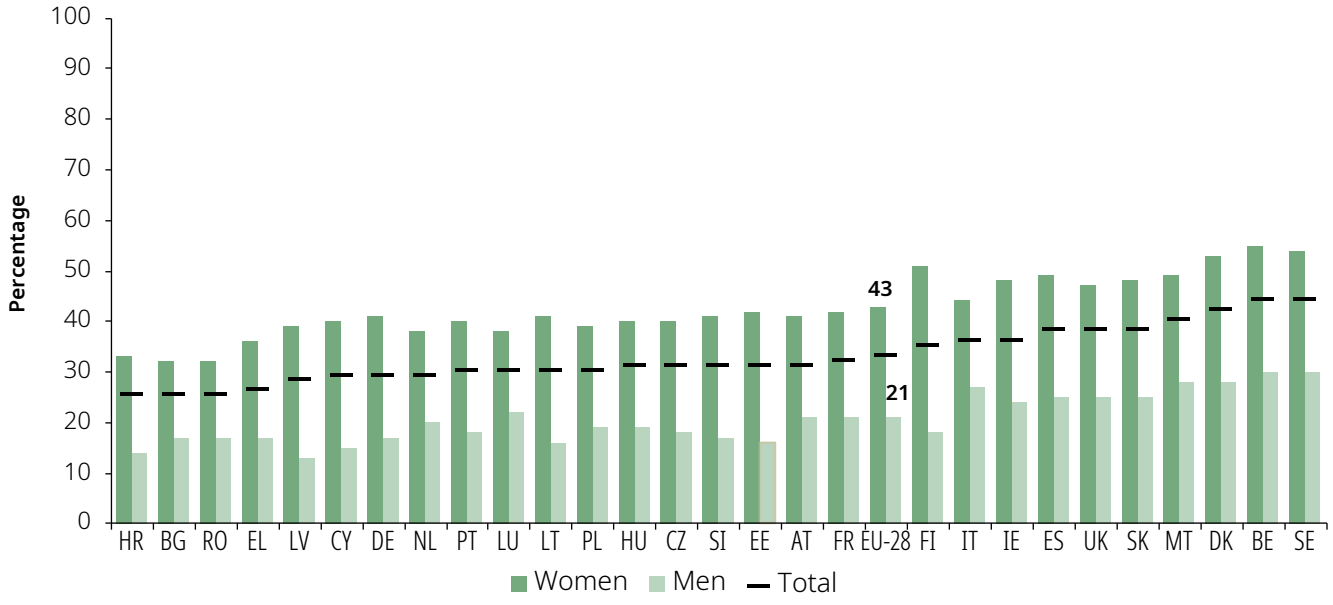
([12]) EIGE's calculation, EU LFS, 2017.
([13]) EIGE's calculation, EU LFS, 2017.

of men ([14]). The addition of the 'glass ceiling' or the 'sticky floor' phenomena that predominantly affect women also harms their career progression.

In measuring gender division in the tertiary fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts to identify gender inequality through levels of educational segregation, the Gender Equality Index found that, in 2017, 43 % of all women at university were studying in these fields, with the gender gap in the EU as a whole at 22 p.p., remaining unchanged since 2005. The level of gender segregation varied significantly among Member States (Figure 19). The highest gender gap in enrolment in the above fields was registered in Finland at 33 p.p. In another four Member States, it was above 25 p.p. (DK, EE, LV, LT). In contrast, Bulgaria and Romania (15 p.p.) had the lowest gender gaps. Several EU Member States saw substantial changes on this issue in the 12 years following 2005. While the gap was cut by 11 p.p. in the Netherlands and by more than 5 p.p. in Denmark, Germany and Italy, there was a 6 p.p. increase in Hungary, with another five Member States witnessing a spike of more than 4 p.p. (BG, MT, PL, RO, SI).

Gender segregation is particularly persistent in STEM subjects with women constituting about 33 % of graduates in STEM tertiary education and only 13 % of graduates in STEM vocational education (EIGE, 2018c). However, certain STEM subfields such as natural sciences, mathematics and statistics are gender balanced or even dominated by women. Reducing segregation in education and simultaneously involving more women in the STEM study fields would have significant benefits for the economy. The European Commission estimates that by 2020 there will be a shortage about 500 000 ICT specialists in the EU (European Commission, 2017d).

Figure 19: Percentage of women and men in tertiary education studying in the education, health and welfare, humanities and arts fields by EU Member State, 2017



Source: EIGE's calculation, Eurostat, education statistics (educ_uoe_enrt03).

([14]) Eurostat, Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by NACE Rev. 2 activity — structure of earnings survey methodology (earn_gr_gpgr2).

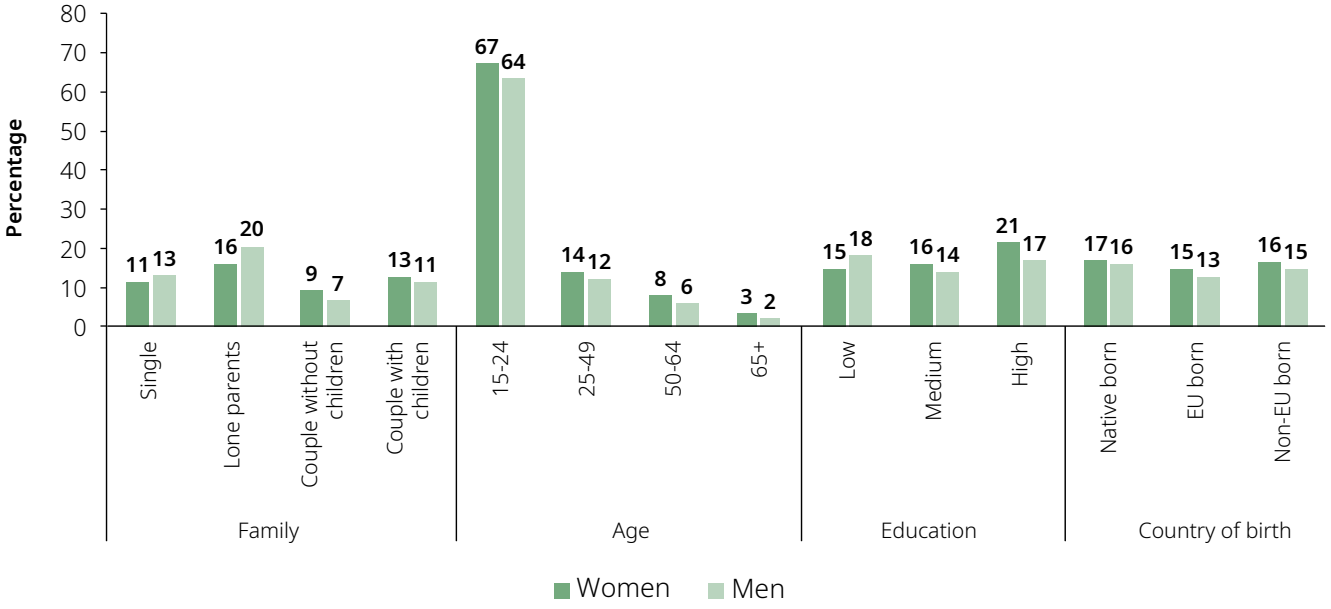
4.3. Adult learning stalls most when reskilling needs are greatest

Up-to-date skills and knowledge are crucially important in the rapidly evolving labour market. Regardless of the level of education attained, participation in subsequent formal and non-formal learning activities ensures women and men keep pace with ever-changing labour-market needs. Nevertheless, the proportion of women and men (aged 15+) in formal or non-formal education and training remained low in the EU (17 %) in 2017, and has barely altered from 2005 ([15]). However, there were large differences between Member States. Sweden and Denmark, for example, had the highest participation rates (35 % and 33 % respectively), while Bulgaria and Romania had the lowest rates (both 9 %). Differences in adult learning between women and men generally remained very small across the EU, with a gap of less than 1 p.p. in 17 EU Member States. Sweden, Denmark and France (respective gaps of 12 p.p., 7.8 p.p. and 4.9 p.p. in favour of women) were the only clear exceptions.

43 %
of women and 21 % of men in universities are studying education, health and welfare, humanities and arts

The intersectional analysis revealed large differences in formal and non-formal learning related to age. Figure 20 illustrates that as people age, their participation in education and training drops. Unsurprisingly, women and men aged 15-24 in 2017 had the highest rates of adult learning (67 % and 64 % respectively) as most were still enrolled in formal education. However, among the 25-49 year age cohort figures for adult participation in formal or informal education had dropped significantly, to 14 % of women and 12 % for men. By the time people were approaching or in retirement, participation rates for both women and men had fallen into single digits.

Figure 20: Participation in formal or non-formal education and training of women and men, by family type, age, level of education, and country of birth (15+, %), and gender gaps, EU, 2017



Source: EIGE's calculation, European Union labour force survey (EU LFS).
Note: Country of birth Eurostat database (2017; age group 15-74 (trng_lfs_13)). Data on participation in formal/non-formal training is not available for people with disabilities.

([15]) EIGE's calculation, EU LFS.

A number of factors affect women's and men's participation in formal and informal education. The lack of time due to work or family-related duties are the strongest barriers to adult learning. While work schedules play a more significant role in preventing men from participation, the opposite is true for women, for whom family reasons represent higher barrier levels (see Section 9.7 on lifelong learning). These increase significantly when children under 5 years of age are brought into the mix (EIGE, 2017d).

5. Domain of time

The time that women and men have for personal matters and their families has become a broadly debated issue in the EU. Besides the need for self-care and care for others, it implies the negotiation of boundaries between paid and unpaid work (Hochschild, 1997), as well as the negotiation of the role of carers within families and society. Through gender stereotyping, domestic and care work (mostly unpaid) is associated with women, and paid work with men. As a result, the unequal distribution of time spent on caring and housework activities between women and men remains a major hurdle to progress on gender equality. Hence, current and future policy initiatives need to aim for a more balanced distribution of time spent at work and home for everyone. They should also aim for a better gender distribution of unpaid care and housework or to improve the value of care work in general.

The disproportionate amount of time women spend on care and domestic chores impacts upon their participation in employment and opportunities for social, personal and civic activities, reinforcing gender segregation in education and the labour market. It also affects women's employment patterns and prospects by exacerbating their involvement in precarious work, with consequences for gender gaps in pay and pensions (EIGE, 2015c, 2016b, 2017d). Gender inequalities in unpaid labour are all the more relevant as women's overall participation in paid work has increased without a corresponding change in time-use patterns. This means that, on a daily basis, women are increasingly expected to carry the 'double burden' of balancing paid and unpaid activities. As a result, when both are considered, women work an average of 55 hours per week compared to 49 hours worked by men (Eurofound, 2017a, p. 116).

To address the inequalities on caring activities, the European Commission issued a proposal for a directive on work—life balance for parents and carers in 2017. Under the umbrella of the European Pillar of Social Rights, the proposed directive promotes a gender-equal sharing of care responsibilities and establishes 'minimum

The domain of time measures gender inequalities in the allocation of time for care and domestic work and social activities. The first sub-domain of care activities measures gender gaps in women's and men's involvement in the care and/or education of their children, grandchildren and older and disabled people. It also measures their involvement in cooking and housework.

Structure of the domain of time

The second sub-domain explores how many women and men engage in social activities. Concretely, it measures gender gaps in women's and men's participation in sport, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, combined with their engagement in voluntary and charitable activities.

There has been no new published data in this domain since the last edition of the Index, and the next wave of survey data (European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS)) will not be released before 2021, posing challenges for regular and better tracking of progress in this area. Given the lack of new data, this chapter mostly provides a brief summary of previous findings and presents some additional information on policy developments and vulnerabilities of specific groups.

requirements related to paternity, parental and carers' leave and to flexible working arrangements for parents and workers with caring responsibilities'. The Directive was adopted on 20 June 2019.

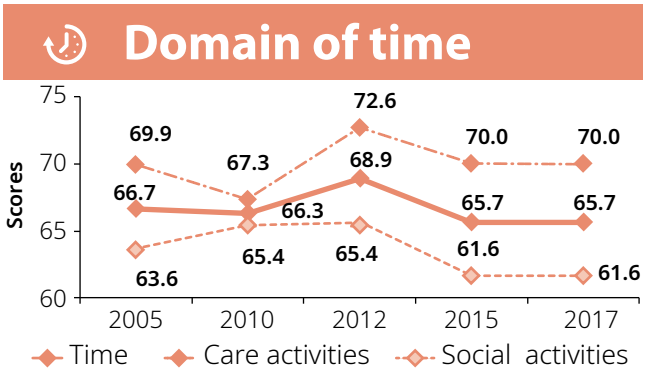
Recognising that gender gaps in employment are most acute between women and men with caring responsibilities, the European Council reaffirmed the so-called Barcelona targets in the European Pact for Gender Equality. The first target called on Member States to ensure that 33 % of children below 3 years of age attend childcare facilities. This is now a reality for the EU as a whole, although significant variations exist among Member States. A second target, aiming to provide childcare for 90 % of children from the age of three to mandatory school-going age, progressed to a promising EU average of 85 % in 2017 ([16]). With the second target nearly met and the first being consolidated, the EU Commission is considering a review of the Barcelona targets following consultations with Member States (European Commission, 2018f). Member State-specific information on the Barcelona targets and how they link with gender equality is provided in Section 9.4 of this report.

5.1. Enduring burden of care perpetuates inequalities for women

Unrelenting and growing inequalities in women's and men's use of time are reflected by the overall downward score for this domain. Not only was the 2017 score (65.7) 1 point lower than that of 2005, it also represented a 3.2-point drop from the gains that had been achieved up until 2012 (Figure 21).

While gender imbalances in the sub-domain of care and domestic activities remained relatively stable between 2005 and 2017 (with a score of around 70 points), they increased in social activities as the score dropped by 2 points to 61.6 points.

Figure 21: Scores for the domain of time and its sub-domains, EU, 2005-2017



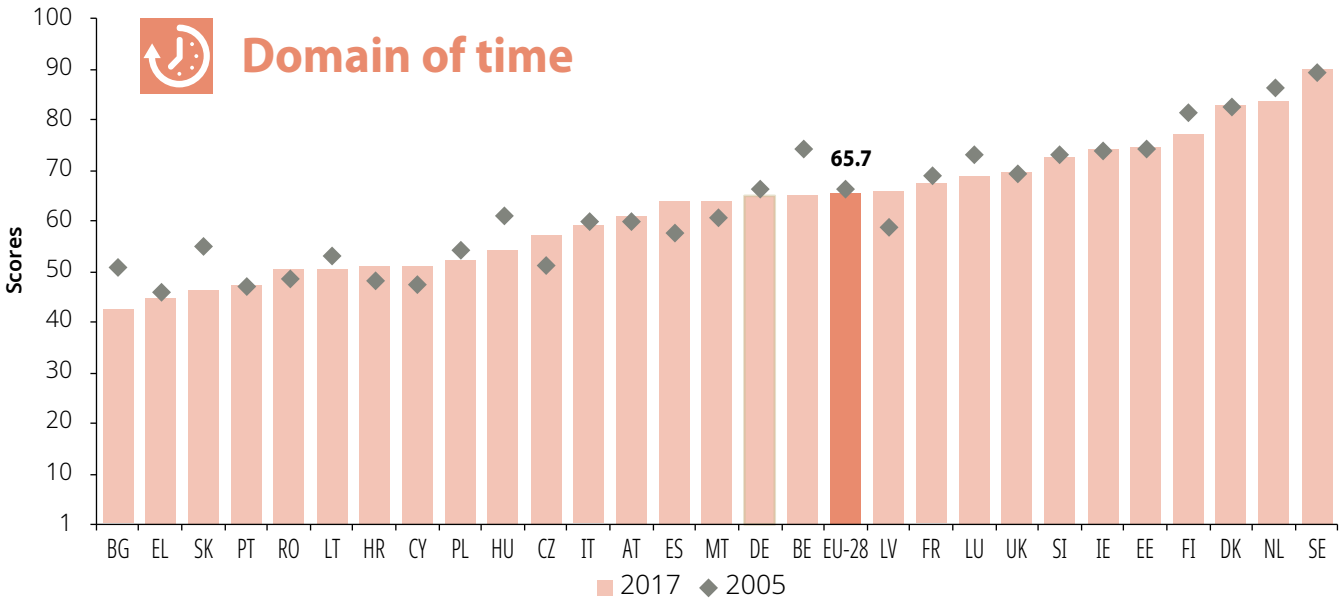
Note: Due to a lack of data, the 2017 Index scores are used.

The enduringly large gender gap in time devoted to care and housework contributed to this domain's overall low score. Indeed, women in the EU were disproportionally more engaged in unpaid care work in 2017. Almost 38 % took care of children, grandchildren, older people and/or people with disabilities every day for 1 hour or more compared with 25 % of men (EIGE, 2017c). Even more strikingly, only 34 % of men engaged in cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more in comparison with 79 % of women, with the situation barely changing in more than a decade. The unalleviated burden of care and housework not only limits women's social and personal development or career progression, it is the primary reason for economic inactivity or part-time work. As much as 10 % of women, compared to 0.5 % of men, either do not work or work part-time because of care responsibilities.

While gender gaps in leisure, sport, cultural (4 p.p.) and charitable activities (– 1 p.p.) are much smaller, working women's and men's participation in this area is extremely low in some Member States. Of even greater significance is the high variation among Member States. In 10 of them (BG, EL, HR, CY, LT, HU, PT, RO, SK, PL), fewer than one in five workers are engaged in any sport, cultural or leisure activities outside the home at least every other day. The rates in

([16]) Eurostat, Children in formal childcare or education by age group and duration — % over the population of each age group — EU-SILC survey 'ilc_caindformal'.

Figure 22: Scores for the domain of time, EU Member States, 2005 and 2017



Note: Due to lack of data, the 2017 Index scores are used.

another 10 Member States (BE, CZ, DE, EE, FR, IT, LV, MT, AT, UK) range from 20 % in Latvia to 36 % in Belgium and Estonia.

The level of participation in charitable activities is much lower. In Spain and Lithuania, 5 % of workers are engaged in voluntary or charitable activities at least once a month; in Bulgaria it is only 3 %; and in eight other Member States (BE, EL, CY, LV, PL, PT, RO, SK) the participation dropped to less than 10 %. The lack of time for engaging in social, cultural and charitable activities has an impact on women's and men's personal development and well-being, and on social cohesiveness and solidarity in general.

A more encouraging situation is, however, evident in other Member States. More than 50 % of workers take part in sport, cultural and leisure activities in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the Netherlands, with at least 20 % engaging in charitable activities in Sweden, the Netherlands and Slovenia.

5.2. Uneven impact of family life on women and men

Not only does family type determine the overall time that women and men spend caring for their children, grandchildren, older people or people with disabilities, it also impacts gender inequalities in caring. When different types of families are compared, a distinct difference is observed. While 85 % of women living in a couple with children do at least 1 hour of childcare work per day, this only holds true for 67 % of men. The gender gap increases to 60 p.p. for food preparation and housework, with 92 % of women cooking for at least 1 hour every day.

One-parent families also reflect gender differences, as lone fathers are more likely to live with older children. This partially explains that while 76 % of lone mothers do childcare work every day, only 38 % of lone fathers do likewise. For this family type, the gender gap in domestic work narrows to 24 p.p., with 87 % of lone mothers cooking and/or doing housework every day for at least 1 hour a day.

79 %

of women and only 34 % of men do cooking and housework every day for one hour or more

Family formation plays a role when analysing the situation of women and men from different age groups. The age cohort most likely

to do unpaid care work every day is that of 25-49-year-olds, the group most likely to have young children. Altogether, 61 % of women of this age group care for others every day compared to 39 % of men. In fact, women spend more time in care work than men throughout their life. The gender gap among young people (15-24 years old) is lower (12 p.p.), with just 3 % of young men doing care work every day. Different patterns of socialisation and gender norms are also obvious in relation to food preparation, with 21 % of young men cooking every day compared to 42 % of young women. With older women taking on the lion's share of care duties, and current demographic trends in the EU, the percentage of women caring for older people is certain to increase in the future. For gender equality, economic growth and the well-being of both older people and their carers, a more intense policy push to develop accessible and quality care services is urgently needed.

Efforts should factor in assistance for the high numbers of women and men with disabilities caring for others. The Index shows that 29 % of women and 20 % of men with disabilities in the EU do care work every day.

The intersection of country of birth and gender in care work underscores yet again the impact of migration on gender equality. Men residing in the country they were born in are least likely to spend every day caring for others (24 %). The share increases slightly for men born outside the EU (28 %) and men coming from a different Member State (29 %). However, for women from non-EU countries, the figure jumps to 46 %, compared to 38 % for women coming from a different EU Member States or 37 % for those living in their country of birth.

The gender gap in labour-market participation among Roma people could, to some extent, be due to the higher engagement of women in domestic work as their main activity. In 2016, 28 % of all Roma women surveyed indicated domestic work as their main activity, compared to only 6 % of all Roma men. This could be explained partly by traditional gender-role expectations among Roma people (FRA, 2016) and partly by the discrimination faced by Roma women in education and employment, leading to some families seeing marriage and the role of family carer as the only viable option for Roma girls (Andrei, Martinidis, & Tkadlecova, 2015; Oprea, 2005).

6. Domain of power

A hundred years ago, women across the EU made historic gains — they won the right to vote and to be elected, and they held pioneering positions in national decision-making bodies (European Parliament, 2019). A century later, the composition of parliamentary assemblies and executive government at all territorial levels often fails to reflect the gender diversity of the population they represent, with women usually significantly under-represented in politics. In business, despite political and media attention, pressure from shareholders and an ever-growing body of research on the performance benefits of gender-balanced decision-making, corporate boards also remain heavily dominated by men. The European Commission brought the issue to the fore of the political agenda in 2010 by considering possible legislative action (European Commission, 2011). It followed this though in 2012 with a proposed directive to improve gender balance among non-executive directors of listed companies, targeting at least 40 % of the under-represented sex (European Commission, 2012). More recently, EU actions to tackle vertical (gender) segregation in companies, sectors and occupations form a key part of the Commission's 2017-2019 action plan to tackle the gender pay gap.

Decision-making in research-funding institutions, media and sports organisations indicates that women's opportunities to influence the policies, funding and content remain limited. This despite the growing involvement of women in research, their employment in the media sector and their participation in sport.

6.1. More women in decision-making but still a long way to go

The EU score for the power domain (51.9) remains the lowest of all domains. However, it has steadily increased: by 3.4 points since 2015 and by 13 points since 2005.

The majority of Member States experienced an increase in the score of the domain of power after 2015. The average increase for them is higher than the EU total average (4.4 points) and is driven by progress in the social (7.1 points) and economic (5.5 points) sub-domains. Member States experiencing regression saw a similar average rate decrease in score (around 4 points) (see Figure 25). Individually, Sweden, France and Finland have the greatest gender

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

Structure of the domain of power

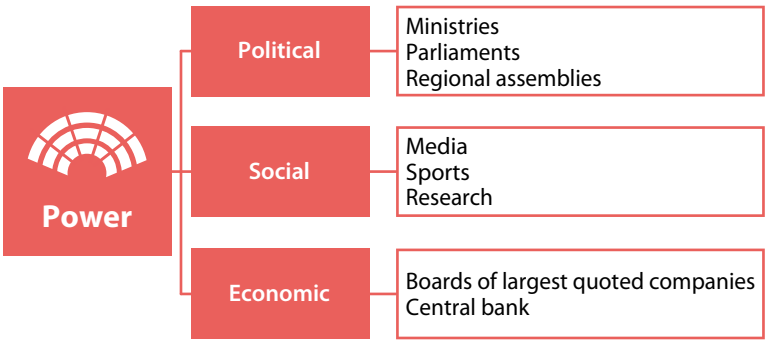
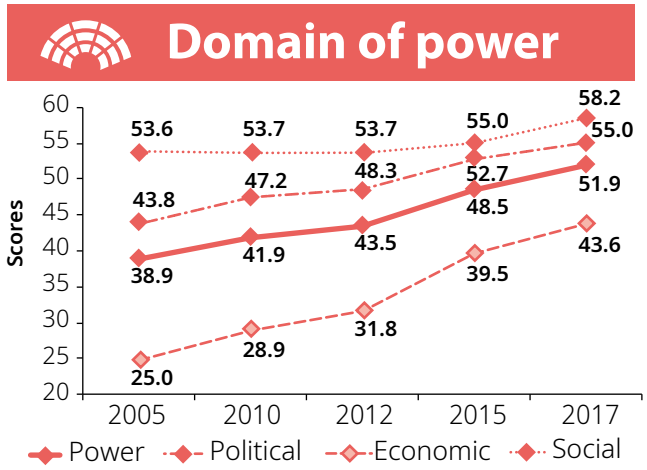


Figure 23: Scores for the domain of power and its sub-domains, EU, 2005-2017



balance in the power domain. Hungary, Greece, Czechia and Slovakia have the least gender balance, with the largest over-representation of men in political, economic and social decision-making.

The most substantial improvement at EU level was made in economic decision-making, where the score rose by 4.1 points between 2015 and 2017 and by 18.6 points overall from 2005. Greater gender balance on the boards of the largest publicly quoted companies lay behind this trend. Political decision-making, which had a higher initial score than economic decision-making (55 points compared to 43.6), edged further forward: 2.3 points between 2015 and 2017 and 11.2 points from 2005. In general, the slowest progress was observed in research, media and sports decision-making. The score of 58.2 points was a slight improvement on data collected (for the first time) in 2005. This sub-domain's score rose by 4.6 points between then and 2017, with most progress (3.2 points) made after 2015.

Figure 24: Score for the domain of power, EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017

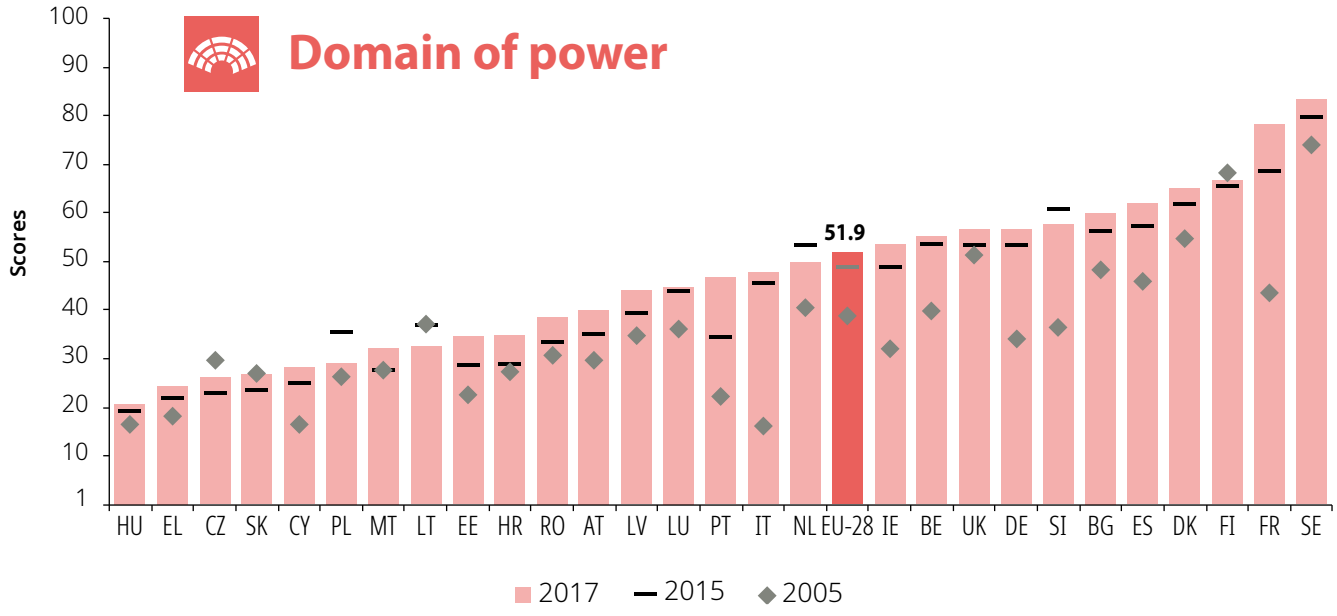
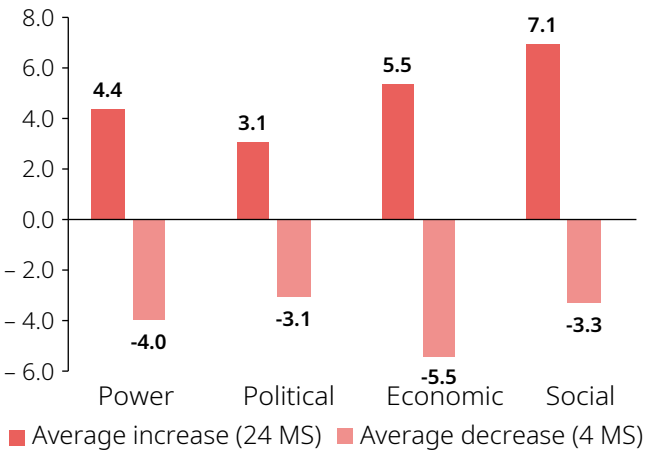


Figure 25: Average increase/decrease 2015-2017



6.2. Democracy undermined by absence of gender parity in politics

The proportion of women in national parliaments (single/lower house) across the 28 EU Member States has gradually increased: from 21 % in 2005 to an all-time high of 30 % in 2018. Parliaments in Sweden, Finland, Belgium and Spain are gender balanced (i.e. at least 40 % of each gender), whereas women account for less than 20 % of parliamentarians in Greece, Cyprus, Malta and Hungary.

Two elections in 2018 in particular saw significant changes to women's representation in national parliaments (Latvia and Luxembourg). While the percentage of women parliamentarians in Latvia jumped from 18 % to 31 %, in Luxembourg it dropped from 32 % to 22 %. Since 2015 progress has been made in France (+ 11 p.p.), Romania (+ 7 p.p.) and Bulgaria (+ 6 p.p.). Lower gains were achieved in Austria, Cyprus and Estonia (+ 5 p.p.), Ireland, Italy and Portugal (+ 4 p.p.), and Poland and the United Kingdom (+ 3 p.p.). Besides Luxembourg, the share of women in parliament declined in Croatia and Germany (– 5 p.p.), Greece (– 4 p.p.) and Lithuania (– 3 p.p.).

A number of Member States have taken initiatives to improve the gender balance in their parliaments. Quotas on parliamentary candidates are currently in place in 10 Member States: Belgium, Croatia, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain. With the exception of Croatia, women's representation has improved since the application of a quota ([17]). However, only Portugal and Spain saw quota targets translating into an equivalent (or almost) proportion of elected members of parliament. In all other cases, disparities between the quota target and women in parliament remain substantial: 8 p.p. in Ireland and Poland; 11 p.p. in Belgium and Slovenia; 13 p.p. in France and Greece; 15 p.p. in Italy ([18]); and more than 20 p.p. in Croatia.

Political parties often act as gatekeepers against gender equality since they set party policy and select candidates for election. In 2018, women accounted for fewer than one in five (18 %) leaders of major political parties (those with more than 5 % of seats in parliament) across the EU, and one in three deputy leaders (34 %) ([19]). In Czechia, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia, none of the major parties has had a woman leader since data was first collected in 2011.

The gender balance among cabinet ministers in national governments has been moving in the right direction since 2005, with the share of women ministers growing from 21 % at the end of 2005 to 31 % in November 2018. There are, however, considerable variations between Member States. Although governments in Spain, Sweden, France, Germany and Denmark are gender balanced (with at least 40 % of senior ministers of each gender), in all the other national governments men account for more than 60 % of cabinet ministers. In 2019, Lithuania became the only EU Member State with an all-male government, with Hungary close behind. In 2018, after appointing its first woman minister since 2014, men accounted for 93 % of Hungary's cabinet ministers. Slovenia also saw

([17]) Refers to EIGE's Gender statistics database, WMID data from the first quarterly update following the election date.
([18]) Considering the 50-50 quota applied to two thirds of candidates in the proportional part. The remaining one third of MPs are elected in constituencies with majoritarian systems, and the quota is 40-60.
([19]) Data collection in May-June 2018 identified 152 parties across the 28 EU Member States.

its share of women ministers plunge from 47 % to just 24 % in the same year.

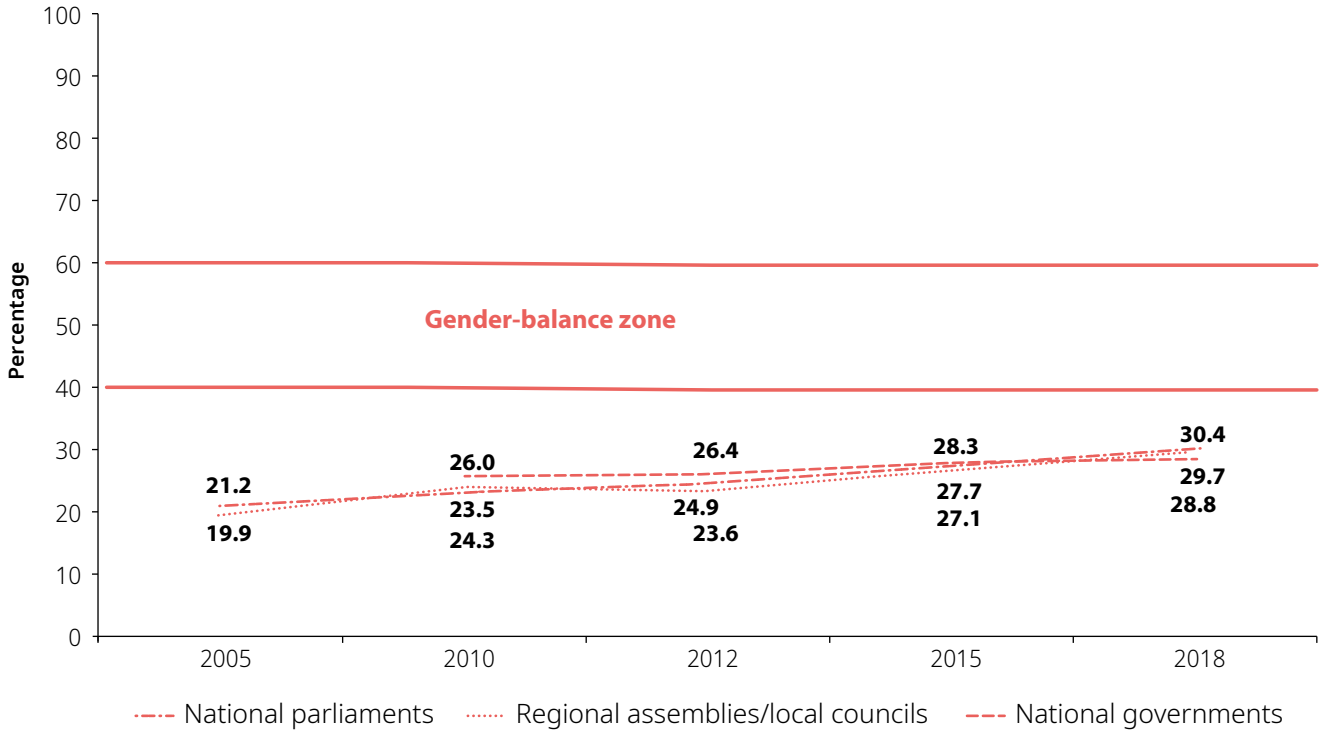
Nevertheless, in the past year, there were significant increases in the share of women among cabinet ministers in Czechia (12 % to 27 %), Spain (36 % to 61 %), Cyprus (8 % to 17 %), Austria (21 % to 36 %), Portugal (17 % to 29 %), Romania (21 % to 33 %) and Slovakia (20 % to 33 %) ([20]).

While the continued under-representation of women in government remains a fundamental concern, the political sidelining of women at cabinet level is just as worrying when allocating the portfolios usually considered to have lower political priority or seen as 'soft'. In November 2018, two thirds (66 %) of all male cabinet ministers in the EU held a portfolio with a high profile (so-called basic or economic functions) compared to just over half (51 %) of female ministers. Moreover, 40 % of all women ministers had a sociocultural portfolio compared to just 19 % of men.

The rate of change at regional and local levels is extremely slow. In 2018 women held a third (33 %) of the seats in regional assemblies in the 20 Member States with regional councils, marginally higher (3 p.p.) than in 2010. Regional assemblies included at least 40 % of each gender in five Member States (BE, ES, FR, FI, SE). However, in Italy, Romania, Slovakia and Hungary men occupied more than four out of every five seats.

The latest local/municipal council data from June 2017 in all Member States showed that women accounted for 32 % of all members. Only councils in Sweden comprised at least 40 % of each gender, while those in Croatia, Greece, Cyprus and Romania comprised more than 80 % men. Local government leadership clearly remains elusive for women, who held only 15 % of local leadership positions (mayor or other leader of the municipal council) across the EU.

Figure 26: Percentage share of women in political power, EU, 2005-2018



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender statistics database, WMID.
Note: Data for regional assemblies/local councils is available from 2010 only. The indicator is calculated considering the yearly data of regional councils for 20 Member States and the yearly data of local councils for the remaining eight Member States (BG, EE, IE, CY, LV, LT, MT, SI) (data collected on June, 2011, 2013, 2015, 2017).
National parliaments and national governments: yearly average of quarterly data.

([20]) EIGE's Gender statistics database, WMID, November 2018.

6.3. More gender equality on corporate boards — but only in a few Member States

Only 7 % of CEOs in the EU are women

The proportion of women on the boards of the largest listed companies in the EU-28 more than doubled between 2010 and 2018 (from 12 % to 26 %), after the European Commission brought the issue to the policy fore. However, progress was concentrated in just a few Member States where governments took legislative or other forms of action. France remained the only Member State with at least 40 % of each gender on the combined boards of the companies covered ([21]). Only in four Member States (IT, SE, FI, DE) did women account for at least a third (+ 33 %) of board members. In just under half of Member States (13), men outnumber women by at least four to one (i.e. < 20 % women), including in Malta, Greece and Estonia, where women represented less than 10 % of board members. In the remaining Member States (10), the proportion of women on the boards of the largest listed companies is between 20 % and 33 %.

Six Member States have legislated gender quotas to address the gender imbalance in boardrooms: Belgium, Italy and Portugal (33 %), Germany and Austria (30 %) and France (40 %). A softer approach is taken in 11 other Member States (DK, IE, EL, ES, LU, NL, PL, SI, FI, SE, UK). This includes legislated quotas restricted to state-owned companies or applied without sanctions in Greece, Slovenia and Spain, while others have preferred to encourage companies to self-regulate in order to redress the gender balance in corporate boardrooms. In the remaining 11 Member States (BG, CZ, EE, HR, CY, LV, LT, HU, MT, RO, SK) there has been no substantial government action.

The difference between action and inaction is striking. In 2018, the four Member States with binding quotas (BE, DE, FR, IT) had boards with 38 % women (an aggregate of all companies covered in those Member States), representing a rise of 28 p.p. since 2010 ([22]). This averaged to a steady yearly increase of 3.5 p.p. The Member States in which governments took soft measures had 27 % women, a growth of 13 p.p. over the same period at 1.6 p.p. per year. In stark contrast, the no-action Member States had just 15 % women board members, with their representation rising by just 1.5 p.p. between 2010 and 2018. This averaged out at just 0.2 p.p. per year. The figures show a distinct correlation between political inaction and virtual stagnation on gender equality in economic power and decision-making. A recent slowdown in progress is likely to continue, as the three Member States responsible for the most progress (FR, DE, IT) have now surpassed their respective legislated targets, and Belgium is only 1 p.p. away from reaching its 33 % target.

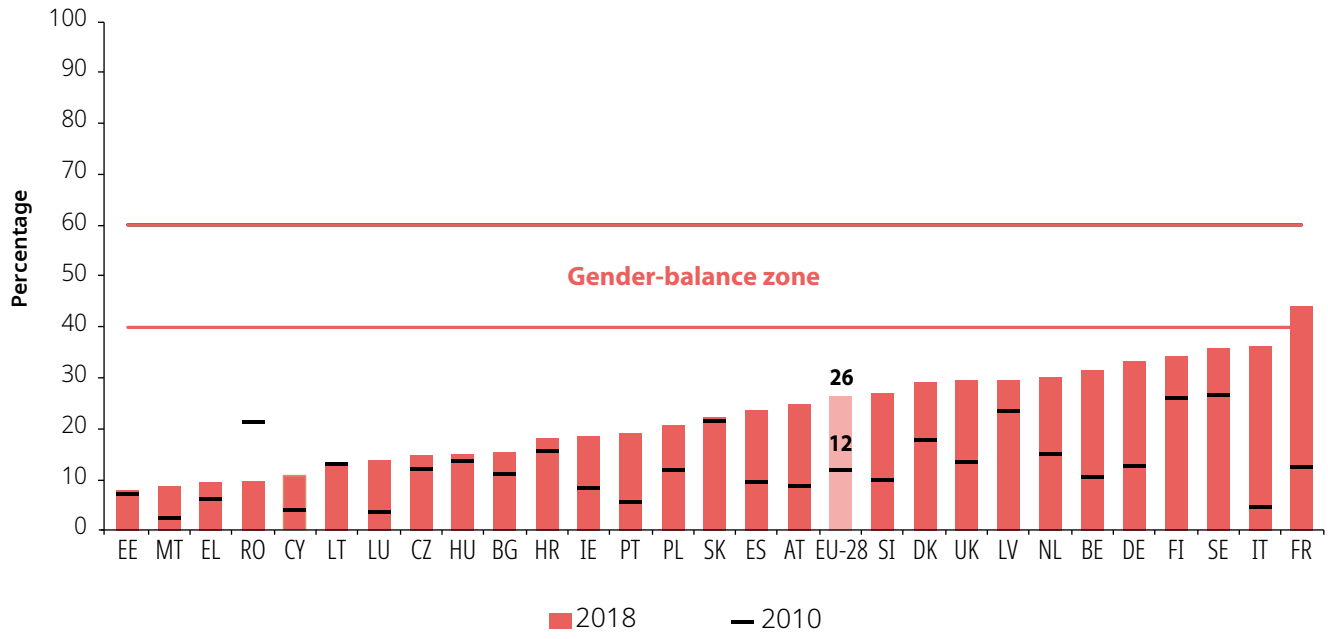
While more women are now in boardrooms, this has not translated into more women in executive hierarchies. In the EU in 2018 women accounted for just 17 % of senior executives compared to 29 % of non-executives. In addition, top corporate positions were still largely occupied by men. Although numbers more than doubled from 2010, women board chairs and women CEOs have remained few and far between (7 % each).

Clearly the challenge for policymakers is to take the necessary action in Member States that have so far done little to promote balanced representation in the boardroom, and for further action in others to build on progress already made.

([21]) The share of women on boards in France first reached 40 % in October 2016, driven by a law introduced in 2011 that required all large companies (> 500 employees or a turnover of > EUR 50 million) to have ≥ 40 % of each gender on boards by January 2017.

([22]) Austria and Portugal have not been included under the binding quotas group despite the fact that both have been enforcing legislative quotas since January 2018. The quotas are fairly recent and will take some time to show any impact. They are included instead under the soft measures.

Figure 27: Percentage share of women on the boards of the largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors, by EU Member State, 2010 and 2018



Source: EIGE's calculation, EIGE's Gender statistics database, WMID.

6.4. Limited opportunities for women to influence social and cultural decision-making

Women's representation in decision-making in research, media and sports is the highest of all sub-domains (58.2 points). It increased by 3.2 points in the 2 years from 2015, when data for this sub-domain was first introduced.

The change was mainly driven by the increase in women on boards of public broadcasters from 32 % in 2015 to 36 % in 2018. However, the share of women in the decision-making bodies of public research funding organisations in the EU stagnated at the 2015 level of 40 %, while their representation in this role in the 10 most popular Olympic sport federations stood at a lowly 16 % in 2018 (2 p.p. higher than in 2015).

The 12 EU Member States (AT, BG, DE, DK, FI, FR, IE, LU, LV, NL, SE, UK) already above the EU average in 2015 in sport not only increased the number of women in the highest decision-making bodies, they did so by greater numbers than Member States below the EU average. The average increase of higher-performing Member States in 2017 was more than 3 p.p., compared to 1 p.p. for lower-performing Member States.

7. Domain of health

Gender is understood as one of a wide range of factors that shape the health outcomes of a population (Sen, Östlin, & George, 2007), especially in relation to life expectancy, exposure to risk factors and mental health issues (OECD/EU, 2018). These factors include the physical, social and economic environment, as well as a person's individual characteristics and behaviour, and can be described as 'circumstances in which people are born, grow up, live, work and age and the systems put in place to deal with illness' (Stronks, Toebes, Hendriks, Ikram, & Venkatapuram, 2016, p. 5).

Some of those factors promote health, such as a higher education level or access to clean water and safe housing, while others can damage it, such as stereotypical gender norms, experiences of gender-based violence or lack of access to and utilisation of medical services.

Gender relations and the unequal division of power associated with them are considered to be the most important social determinants of health (Sen, Östlin, & George, 2007) because they permeate every aspect of an individual's life from infancy to old age, and as such influence their ability to access resources, to make decisions and to care for their health.

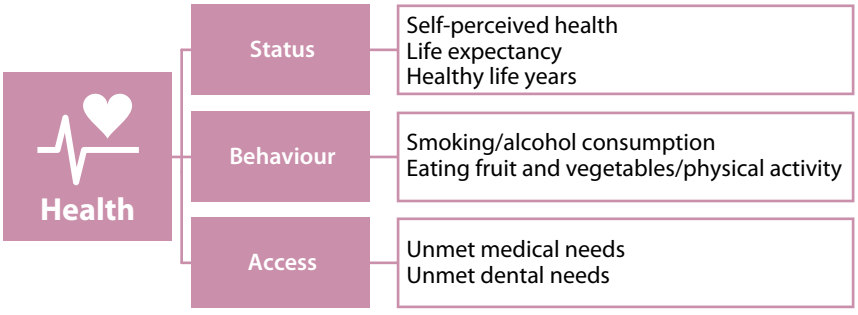
Timely access to good-quality, affordable healthcare (both preventive and curative) plays a critical role too. It has been affirmed as a right and is included in the 20 principles of the European Pillar of Social Rights. This inclusion, along with the right to gender equality, access to LTC services, and a healthy work environment and social protection, underlines that beyond biological factors, health is the outcome of several determinants which require an interconnected, multidisciplinary approach.

Improving health and reducing inequalities across and within Member States are among the strategic objectives of both the EU third health programme (2014-2020) (European Commission, 2014) and Health 2020, the WHO-led regional health strategy for Europe adopted in 2012 (WHO, 2013). The importance of achieving universal health is also enshrined in the sustainable development goals with Goal 3 focused on health and well-being and the Goal 5 gender-equality targets also encompassing health issues affecting women.

Women in the EU live longer than men, however they spend longer time in ill health. Considering that the ageing population is becoming feminised, social care and healthcare need to take

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

Structure of the domain of health



into account a gender-sensitive perspective to address this issue. Moreover, life expectancy, well-being and access to healthcare are determined by further factors, such as level of qualifications, socioeconomic status, family type, ethnicity or sexual and gender identity, calling for a closer look at inequalities among different groups of women and men.

7.1. Behavioural change in health is key to tackling gender inequalities

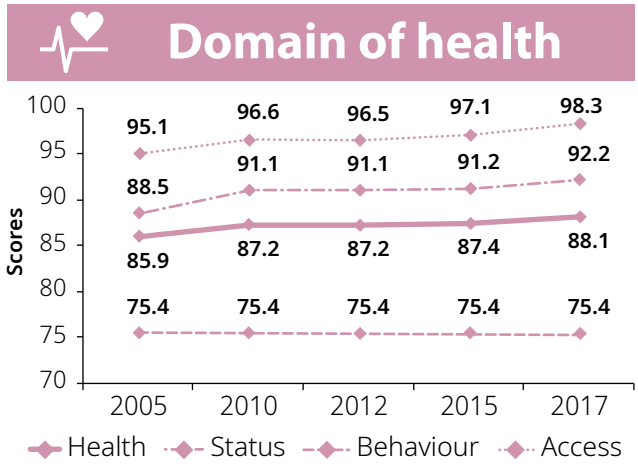
The health domain score of 88.1 points in 2017 had not only barely changed since 2015 (+ 0.7 points), it had also made scant progress since 2005 (+ 2.2 points). Nevertheless, this domain's scores have consistently ranked among the highest of all six core domains measured in the Gender Equality Index.

Overall, Member State scores for the health domain have shown little progress since the last edition of the Index (Figure 28). In 2017, only Italy, Poland and Portugal had a higher rate of progress than the EU average between 2015 and 2017 (+ 2.4 p.p., 1 p.p. and 0.9 p.p. respectively). At the other end, four Member States (BE, DE, AT, FI, SI) flatlined, while only Latvia saw a regression.

A closer look at the sub-domains of status, behaviour and access showed varying levels of progress on indicators selected and on inequalities among different groups of women and men.

In 2017 the score for the sub-domain of access reached 98.3 points, with that of status not too far behind at 92.2 points. The behaviour sub-domain score of 75.4 points revealed the greatest disparity between any of the domain scores and one of its sub-domains (12.7 points). With the overall modest improvement in the domain of health since 2015 due to gains in status (+ 1) and access (+ 1.2 points) ([23]), the data

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



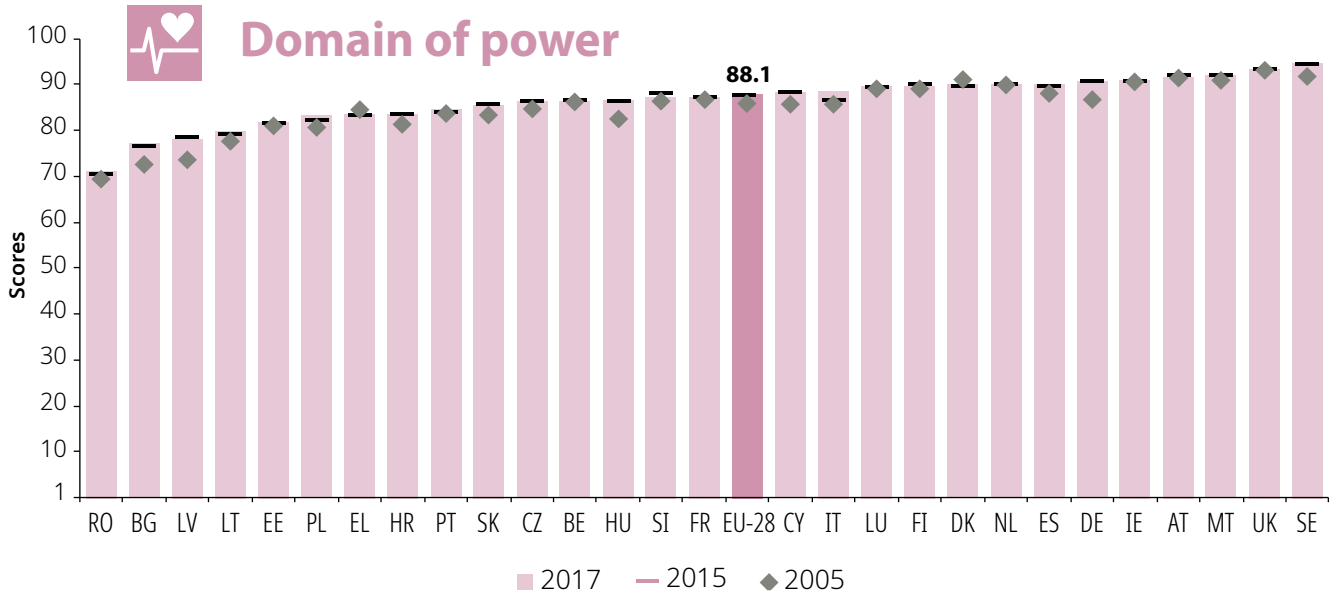
suggests that much work remains to be done on behaviour. The situation, compounded by irregularly updated data on health behaviour with this Index relying on figures from 2014, also points to the difficulty of challenging norms to induce behavioural change. For example, gender norms on masculinity and attitudes expected of boys and men often deter men from seeking diagnosis and treatment. They also encourage risky behaviours that lead to higher morbidity (Sen et al., 2007; WHO, 2018), including smoking and excessive drinking. This sub-domain's low score, detrimental to men, reflected this challenge and shed light on the diverse health scenarios coexisting across the EU: Member State scores range from 42.5 points in Romania to 89.3 in Sweden.

Since 2005, the sub-domain of status has registered the biggest improvement in the EU (+ 3.7 points) followed by access (+ 3.2 points). This improvement was due to a greater share of women and men (67 % and 72 % respectively) rating their health as being good or very good in 2017 than in 2005 (60 % and 66 %).

Despite progress at the EU level, four Member States (DK, EL, LU, NL) registered lower scores in this sub-domain in 2017 than in 2005. Since 2015, hardly any progress was noted, with the majority of Member States having seen their score stall-

([23]) The sub-domain of behaviour is populated with most recent data (2014). Thus the calculation of the score for this sub-domain is unchanged since the last edition of the Gender Equality Index.

Figure 29: Scores for the domain of health, EU Member States, 2005, 2015 and 2017



ing (BE, BG, CZ, DK, DE, IE, ES, FR, HR, CY, HU, MT, NL, AT, PL, RO, SI, SK, UK). The biggest improvement was seen in Italy (+ 3.8 points). Six Member States (EE, EL, LV, LU, FI, SE) experienced a small decline (less than 1 p.p.) from the 2015 level.

Meanwhile, Member State-level scores for the access sub-domain from 2015 showed that 10 Member States increased their rating by more than 1 point (BG, EE, EL, IT, LU, HU, PL, PT, RO, SE), with Italy gaining the most ground (+ 4.2 points). Four Member States (CY, DE, NL, FI) did not register any change in score, while another three Member States (BE, AT, SI) saw theirs drop. Although two Member States (BG, LV) reported particularly significant progress (+ 10 points) from 2005 to 2017, seven Member States (BE, DK, EE, IE, EL, SI, FI) had lower scores in 2017 than in 2005.

7.2. Women live longer but in poorer health

A baby girl born in the EU in 2017 can expect to live to the age of 84, compared to 78 years for a baby boy. While the gender difference in life expectancy at birth stands at 6 years on average in the EU, it reaches 11 years in Lithuania. The 'mortality advantage', the phenomenon of women's higher life expectancy, is attributed to a series of biological, socioeconomic and cultural factors (WHO, 2016). Among them, dominant masculinity norms often account for the higher prevalence of certain types of risky behaviour, with higher exposure to certain risks leading to higher morbidity among men (WHO, 2018). Through socialisation, boys and men are encouraged to rely on themselves, to act 'tough' through substance abuse or suppressing emotions or pain, and to demonstrate their heterosexuality by engaging with multiple sexual partners (Kågesten et al., 2016). As a result, men in the EU are twice as likely to die of accidents as women and four times more likely to die of alcohol abuse and drug dependence ([24]). Similarly, significantly more men die of suicide: 4.85 women per 100 000 inhabitants compared to 17.85 men ([25]).

Women in the EU spend
19 years
of their life in poor health compared to 15 years for men

([24]) Causes of death — standardised death rate (per 100 000 inhabitants), EU-28, 2015. *Source:* Eurostat (hlth_cd_asdr2), accessed on 10 June 2019. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Causes_of_death_statistics#Causes_of_death_in_2015_by_sex

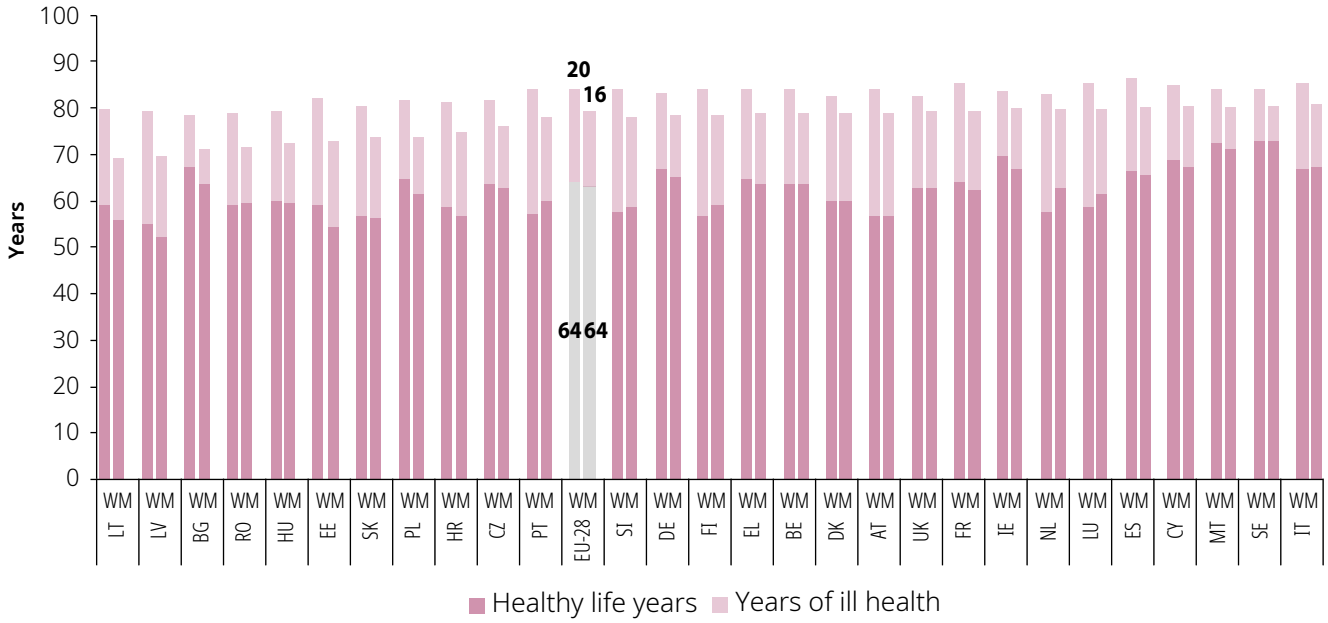
([25]) Deaths from suicide — standardised death rate (per 100 000 inhabitants), EU-28, 2015. *Source:* Eurostat (hlth_cd_asdr2), accessed on 10 June 2019. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Causes_of_death_statistics#Causes_of_death_in_2015_by_sex

While women outlive men in general, there are significant differences between various social groups of women. Studies show that women with a tertiary-level education live longer than those with a lower level of qualifications (WHO, 2016). A lower level of education, combined with lower socioeconomic status, can, therefore, be contributing factors to the shorter life expectancy of Roma women in comparison with women from the population at large (European Public Health Alliance, 2018). These and other avoidable health inequities across different socioeconomic groups 'usually result from the uneven distribution of social and environmental determinants; the differential access to resources such as education, employment, housing, health services; different levels of participation in society and different levels of control over life' (European Public Health Alliance, 2018, p. 1).

The 'mortality advantage' that women in the EU are said to have over men is offset by the fact that they spend a greater share of their life in ill health (WHO, 2016). On average, in the EU, 77 % of women's and 81 % of men's life is spent in good health (as a percentage of life expectancy). This 'morbidity disadvantage' means that in 2016, for example, women in the EU spent 20 years of their life in poor health compared to 16 years for men (Figure 30). In seven Member States (AT, FI, LU, LV, NL, PT, SI) women spent 25 years or more in poor health. The gender differences in ill health are of added significance because of the demographic changes of an ageing and feminised population. While the largest age cohort for both women and men in 2016 was 45-49 years, it will be 50-54 years for men and 70-74 years for women by 2070. Overall, the median age will rise by 4 years for both men and women by then (European Commission, 2018a). Considering the challenges posed by ageing populations, a diminishing workforce and pressures on welfare systems, gender-specific measures would effectively contribute to solving health-related differences between women and men with knock-on socioeconomic effects.

As shown in Figure 30, women and men in the EU can expect to live in good health until the age of 64. This is an additional 2.8 years of healthy life for women and 3.6 years for men since 2005, and an extra 9 months for both women and men since the 2017 Index. At the

Figure 30: Healthy life years and years of ill health of women and men, by EU Member State (in years), 2016



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_hlye).
Note: 'Years of ill health' is defined as a difference between 'life expectancy at birth' and 'healthy life years'. Healthy life years and years of ill health add up to expected life expectancy at birth.

Member State level, the number of healthy life years increased for men in 19 Member States and for women in 15 Member States. The extent of progress or setbacks varied greatly across Member States, with Denmark showing the most significant regression for both women's and men's health (– 8.1 p.p.). This was followed by the Netherlands (– 5.7 p.p. for women, – 2.6 p.p. for men). Six Member States saw the number of healthy years of life for women increase by more than 5 p.p. since 2005 (DE, CY, SE, EE, HU, IE), with the biggest gains made by Cyprus (+ 5.4 p.p. for women and + 4.4 p.p. for men) and Italy (+ 4.5 p.p. and + 5 p.p. for men). This diversity highlights the need for increased and integrated EU efforts to tackle gender inequities in health and to promote gender transformative health strategies (WHO, 2016, p. 76).

7.3. Lone parents and people with disabilities are still without the health support they need

Across the EU, women and men report similar level of access to medical and dental examination in 2017: 97 % of women and men reported no unmets need for medical examination. Nevertheless, unmet healthcare needs were higher for certain population groups in the EU-28 in 2017 (Figure 31), especially lone mothers and fathers (6 % and 8 % respectively) and women and men with disabilities (8 % and 7 % respectively). At the Member State level, figures differed considerably. In Greece, Romania and Estonia, the share of women with disabilities lacking access to medical care was 30 %, 23 % and 22 % respectively. In contrast, in Member States such as Spain, Malta, Austria and Germany women with disabilities reported the same level of medical access as women without disabilities.

Compared to 2014, fewer women and men are reporting unmet needs for medical examination, particularly lone mothers. While 12 % of them reported this in 2014, only 6 % did so in 2017. Similarly, the share of women and men with disabilities reporting unmet medical examination needs shrank from 8 % for women and 7 % for women in 2014 to 13 % for both women and men in 2017.

The mortality rate for infections, blood and cardiovascular diseases and external causes was

Figure 31: Women and men who report unmet medical needs by family type, age, level of education, country of birth and disability status (16+, %), EU, 2017

Source: EIGE's calculation, EU-SILC.
Note: EU-born and non-EU born are based on data from 23 of the 28 EU Member States: data is missing for Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Malta and Slovenia.

higher among migrants and refugees because of poor living conditions and lack of heathcare (WHO, 2018). In fact, migrants and refugees, especially those in an irregular situation, have unequal access to preventive healthcare across the EU, notably due to differences between Member States in access requirements for health services (WHO, 2018). Migrant and refugee women may face additional problems related to reproductive health (European Parliament, 2016). For example, undocumented pregnant women are more vulnerable to complications in pregnancy and childbirth throughout the EU (WHO, 2016).

Furthermore, as inequalities in health are often determined by education and socioeconomic status, people in the highest income quintile are more likely to report being in good health compared to people with the lowest income (OECD, 2017). Socioeconomic status and gender play a role in diseases and risk factors that contribute substantially to disability and lower quality of life. For example, people with a lower level of education are more likely to smoke, with evidence suggesting a more pronounced link among women. Although wealthy women are the first to start smoking, they are also the first to stop. Disadvantaged groups, such as the long-term unemployed and homeless people, tend to smoke more in comparison with the more affluent. Research from Member States such as the Netherlands and Luxembourg suggests the trend of smoking is especially worrying among women with a low level of education (Hiscock, Bauld, Amos, Fidler, & Munafò, 2012; Nagelhout et al., 2012; WHO, 2016). Research in 17 European Member States also shows that people with a low level of qualifications are twice likely to die from excessive alcohol consumption compared to the most highly qualified (WHO, 2016).

Low educational levels and poverty often intersect with other aspects, such as ethnicity, to further exacerbate health inequities. Europe's largest ethnic minority, the Roma, for example, face serious barriers accessing healthcare (European Public Health Alliance, 2018), with access to sexual and reproductive health services being particularly difficult for Roma women (Hoctor & Lamačková, 2017).

Although a minority group present across the EU, no systematic comparable data exists on the health situation of LGBTQI* people. Studies in different Member States, however, suggest that LGBTQI* people face significant health inequalities due to heteronormativity ([26]) in health systems, minority stress, victimisation and discrimination compounded by stigma (Zeeman et al., 2018). Evidence collected in OECD countries shows that there are higher rates of physical and mental health problems, particularly among transgender and intersex people (Valfort, 2017). For instance, LGBTI people were more likely to have considered or attempted suicide than those among the non-LGBTI population. Evidence suggests that this gap has decreased more significantly among the US states that adopted same-sex marriage than those that did not (Valfort, 2017). Meanwhile, LGBTI employees in committed same-sex relationships who are not provided with the corporate-sponsored health insurance that employers give to workers in opposite sex marriages are at greater health risk from a lack of health insurance (Valfort, 2017). The social exclusion and discrimination faced by LGBT people in the labour market (FRA, 2014c) has also been closely linked to transgender people becoming become sex workers, consequently increasing their risk of and the prevalence of HIV (Valfort, 2017).

([26]) Heteronormativity is defined by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) as 'the assumption that everyone is "naturally" heterosexual, and that heterosexuality is an ideal, superior to homosexuality or bisexuality.' It has for effect to 'make heterosexuality seem coherent, natural and privileged. (FRA, 2009b).

8. Domain of violence

The domain of violence provides a set of indicators that can help the EU and its Member States to monitor the extent of the most common and documented forms of violence against women. Unlike other domains, the domain of violence does not measure differences between women and men, but examines and analyses women's experiences of violence. The main objective is to eliminate violence against women, not to reduce gaps.

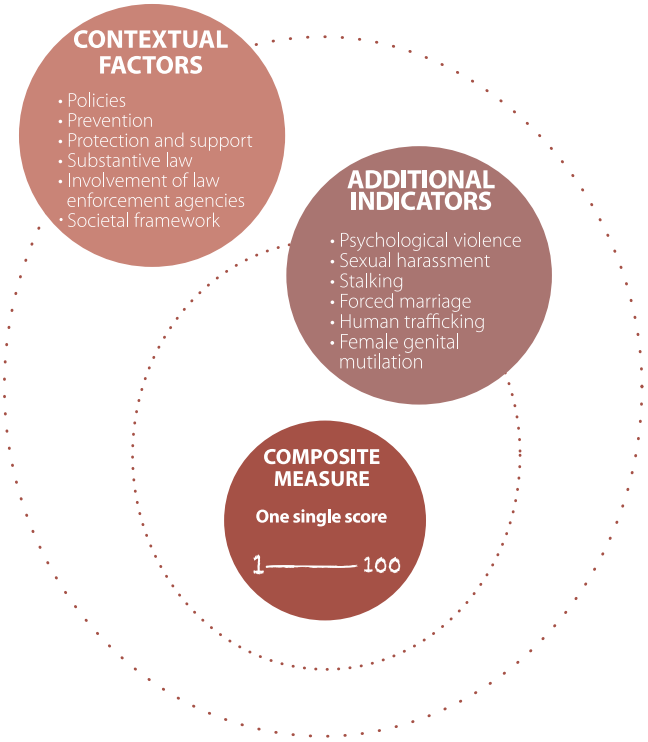
A three-tier structure of measurement was defined to provide the most complete and reliable picture of violence against women in the EU.

(1) **A composite measure** combining indicators on the extent of violence against women. The composite measure does not affect the final score of the Gender Equality Index. However, violence against women must be considered alongside other domains as it mirrors enduring inequalities in the fields of work, health, money, power, knowledge and time. In 2017, the EU had a score of 27.5 (EIGE, 2017b). A high score in the Gender Equality Index means that a country is close to achieving a gender-equal society. However, in the domain of violence, the higher the score, the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women in the country is. On a scale of 1 to 100, 1 represents a situation where violence is non-existent and 100 represents a situation where violence against women is extremely common, highly severe and not disclosed. The best-performing country is therefore the one with the lowest score. The calculation of the scores of the composite measure relied on data findings of a 2014 survey by FRA (FRA, 2014c). Until the completion of the next EU-wide survey on violence against women led by Eurostat ([27]), scores for this domain cannot be updated.

(2) **Additional indicators** covering a broader range of forms of violence against women described in the Istanbul Convention (Council of Europe, 2011). These indicators might be included in the calculation of the single score if more reliable and comparable data becomes available. This includes EIGE's indicators on administrative data.

(3) **Contextual factors** include some of the root causes of violence against women. This set of indicators enables analysis of the extent of violence against women over time and across Member States. Defined to monitor the compliance of the Member States regarding the obligations set out in the Istanbul Convention, they cover six dimensions: policies; prevention; protection and support; substantive legislation; involvement of law enforcement agencies; and societal framework.

Structure of the domain of violence



Source: EIGE, 2017b. Gender Equality Index 2017. Measurement framework of violence against women.

([27]) The data collection phase is planned to take place between 2020 and 2022.

8.1. Data gaps mask true scale of gender-based violence in the EU

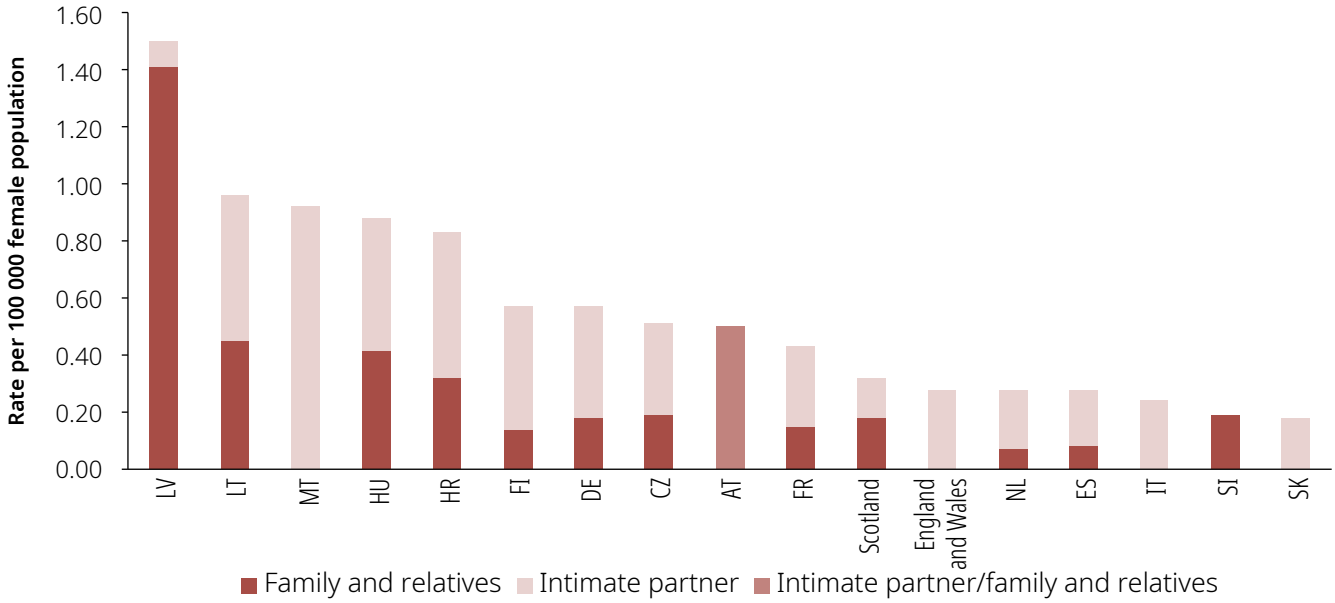
Among LGBT groups across the EU, transgender people are most likely to report experiences of violence. A FRA survey found that 34 % of transgender people had experienced either a physical or a sexual attack or the threat of violence in the previous five years (FRA, 2013). A major concern is the high level of repetitive violence against this group in society, with 44 % of trans women reporting experience of physical/sexual attack or the threat of violence at least three times in the preceding 12-month period (FRA, 2014a). Trans women and men are also most likely to face hate-motivated harassment, including verbal abuse, humiliation and social exclusion. On average, one in three transgender people was harassed in the same time frame, according to the survey.

In the absence of up-to-date and comparable data within the domain of violence in all 28 EU Member States, only the forms of violence against women for which recent data is available are examined, namely femicide, female genital mutilation (FGM) and trafficking in human beings. These three forms of violence are part of the second-tier indicators of the measurement framework for the domain of violence.

Femicide

Femicide is a phenomenon captured partially through national administrative data on intentional homicide of women by an intimate partner or by family member or relatives. In 2016, 16 EU Member States reported a total of 788 women killed by a partner or family member**.** On average, intimate partners or family members intentionally killed more than one woman every day in those Member States (Figure 32). In the remaining 12 EU Member States there is no comparable or available data disaggregated by sex and the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator on women victims of intentional homicide, therefore the magnitude of the phenomenon cannot be truly known. In addition, to date, the term 'femicide' has not

Figure 32: Women victims of intentional homicide by an intimate partner or family member, by 100 000 female population, 2016



Source: Eurostat (crim_hom_vrel) and United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) homicide statistics.
Note: Data related to the number of women victims of intentional homicide by family and relatives was not available for Italy, Malta, Slovakia, England and Wales. The data on Austria is the sum of the intentional homicides of women committed by an intimate partner and family member or relatives. No data available for Northern Ireland.

been legally defined in any Member States' criminal law.

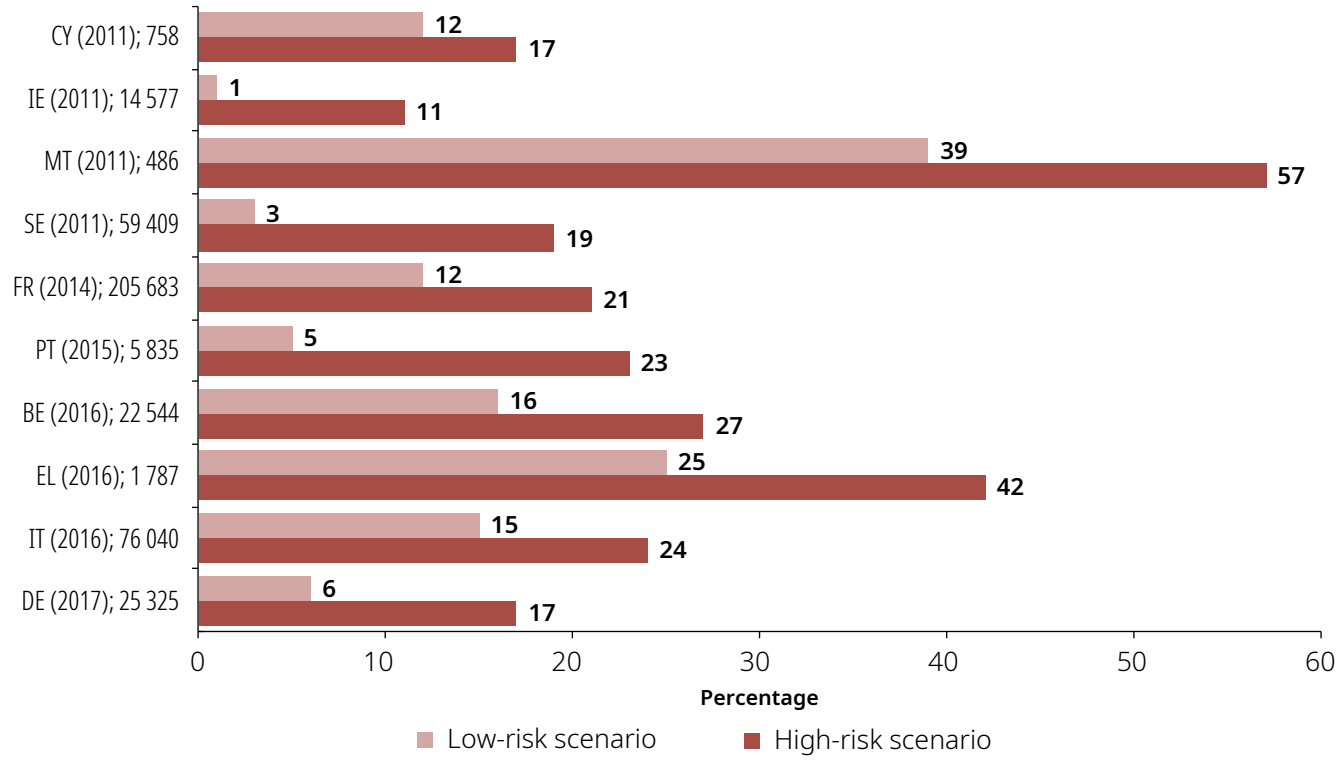
Female genital mutilation (FGM)

FGM refers to 'all procedures involving the partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons' (WHO, 2008). As with some other forms of violence, FGM is particularly hard to measure in the EU. In 2015, EIGE developed a methodology to assist Member States in estimating the number of girls at risk of FGM, the aim of which is to develop better policies to prevent and combat FGM. Since then, EIGE has carried out two studies in nine EU Member States (BE, CY, FR, EL, IE, IT, MT, PL, SE) (EIGE, 2015a, 2018a), which demonstrate that strong legal frameworks, anti-FGM campaigns and awareness-raising initiatives contribute effectively to preventing FGM in EU Member States. Drawing from EIGE's risk estimation methodology, Germany and Finland carried out their own research. In 2017, between 6 % and 17 % of 25 325 girls in Germany originating from countries where FGM is practised were considered to be at risk. In 2018, Finland ([28]) counted 3 000 girls likely to be at risk of FGM.

Trafficking in human beings

Trafficking in human beings is estimated from administrative records at the national level related to 'registered victims' (EIGE, 2017b). In 2016, the number of registered female victims of trafficking in the EU reached 7 007([29]). Overall, evidence shows that 68 % of registered victims of trafficking are women and girls. The most widespread form of exploitation experienced by women and girls is sexual exploit-

Figure 33: Estimated proportion of girls (aged 0-18) of the migrant resident population at risk of FGM (latest available year)



Source: EIGE (2015, 2018a).

([28]) For Finland, the calculation of the share of girls at a high and a low risk of FGM is not available.

([29]) Based on the data provided by 27 Member States, including women and girls and men and boys. https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/sites/homeaffairs/files/what-we-do/policies/european-agenda-security/20181204_data-collection-study.pdf (accessed on 6 July 2019).

ation, accounting for 95 % of the total number of registered victims of this form of trafficking in the EU. Although this data provides valuable information, the actual prevalence of trafficking in human beings is difficult to quantify due to its transnational, criminal and underground nature (FRA, 2009a). Moreover, victims of trafficking face a vast range of obstacles generally preventing them from reporting to or being identified by a relevant formal authority. These include trauma, fear of/dependency on the trafficker, victimisation through stereotyping, lack of information about available resources and language barriers (EIGE, 2018b).

Many other severe forms of violence against women, such as psychological violence and forced marriage, are still inadequately measured in the EU due to a lack of consistent and comparable data. To support Member States in collecting administrative data on rape, femicide and intimate partner violence, EIGE proposed a set of 13 indicators based on uniform statistical definitions that should be populated with data collected by the police and justice sectors. Seven of these indicators are part of the measurement framework for the domain of violence. Administrative data is a particularly useful source of information. It shows how the police, justice, health and social services, as well as organisations dealing with the prevention, protection and prosecution of gender-based violence, respond to the phenomenon (EIGE, 2014a).

8.2. Backlash against gender equality undermines legal efforts to end violence against women

Ending all forms of violence against women is a priority for the EU. In 2011, the adoption of the anti-trafficking directive by the European Parliament initiated binding legislation to protect victims and to prevent and prosecute trafficking. In 2012, minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, including violence against women, were established through the victims' rights directive. On a similar note, the European protection order directive further developed protection mechanisms for victims of crime in the EU.

Female victims of trafficking in human beings reached

7 007

in the EU (2016)

In 2017, the EU's accession to the Istanbul Convention provided a stepping stone to establishing legally binding standards and procedures for the elimination of all types of violence against women in the region. Although all 28 Member States have signed the convention, Bulgaria, Czechia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia and the United Kingdom have yet to ratify it.

The European Commission reaffirmed its commitment to tackling violence against women in its *Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality 2016-2019*, calling on EU Member States to make further efforts in developing effective institutional responses to this enduring phenomenon. This includes, for example, raising awareness, improving data (availability, quality and reliability) and ensuring access to protection and support for survivors of gender-based violence (European Commission, 2015).

In recent years, the EU has witnessed a general backlash against gender equality and women's rights (European Parliament, 2018a). The emergence of 'anti-gender' movements in several EU Member States has had numerous negative effects on institutional, legal and policy frameworks aimed at combating gender-based violence (European Parliament, 2018a). In addition, the ratification of the Istanbul Convention in several EU Member States has faced strong opposition from political and religious groups. Similar resistance has hindered the process of EU ratification of the convention, undermining its full implementation.

9. Work—life balance: a thematic focus

9.1. Conceptual framework

The quest for a work—life balance has become a modern holy grail. The dizzying speed of change in the world of work, propelled by a digital revolution and economic crises, has swept away demarcation lines between the professional and the personal. These have brought socioeconomic costs that have impacted gender equality across different domains of life. **Work—life balance is no longer just a personal goal, it is also a political one. The Gender Equality Index 2019 reflects that with its thematic focus on work—life balance,** capturing data and information that indicate how the EU and its Member States are progressing on this key policy objective. In addition to the work—life balance-related indicators already provided by the Index in several domains in previous chapters, this report presents an additional set of indicators on the topic. For this purpose, and at the European Commission's request, EIGE developed a work—life balance scoreboard which, while not included in the calculations of the Gender Equality Index scores, demonstrates conceptual and statistical links to the Index and is an important step in contextualising the information extracted there.

This analysis is cantered on the European Pillar of Social Rights and its 'New start' initiative on work—life balance, including legislative and non-legislative measures. It shows that the major challenges of work—life balance are intrinsically linked to gender (in)equalities. It also provides new insight into the monitoring of the implementation of legal and policy measures on work—life balance at the EU and national levels. The proposed indicators on work—life balance could complement the social scoreboard, which monitors Member State performance in relation to the European Pillar of Social Rights.

The analysis does not aim to define what 'good' work—life balance is or assess which policy designs are better than others in achieving work—life balance. The exact impact of any policy or measure on this issue in a society depends on a complex interaction between individual preferences, the provision of supporting services, labour-market characteristics or the social-protection system as a whole.

The aim here is to present and explore the different options people have for reconciling their work and personal life and whether these are equally available to all women and men, and if so, how can they further boost gender equality.

Conceptually, the work—life balance scoreboard (Table 1) is based on three broad areas: paid work, unpaid work (care), and education and training. It presents 15 indicators in six specific areas of concern: parental-leave policies; informal care for older people, people with disabilities and LTC services; childcare and childcare services; transport and public infrastructure; flexible working arrangements; and lifelong learning.

The work—life balance scoreboard has multiple advantages. It is based on a broad concept of work—life balance with a gender-equality perspective. It integrates individual-level outcome-based indicators with institutional-level input indicators (e.g. participation in informal care vs availability of care services). Indicators are also analysed in a broader context. For example, the analysis examines different modes of transport used by women and men and how hard it is for women and men to access public transport, in addition to exploring gender differences in commuting patterns. The analysis further looks at how gender intersects with other grounds of inequalities (e.g. age or type of family) throughout the course of a life. It applies a sectoral/occupational approach when relevant.

Table 4: Work—life balance scoreboard

Areas of concern	Indicator (age, years)	Source
Parental-leave policies	1. **Eligibility for parental leave:** percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave (20-49).	Leave network annual reviews
		Eurostat: EU LFS, EU-SILC, 2016
	2. **Reasons for ineligibility**: percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave by reason of ineligibility (20-49).	Leave network annual reviews
		Eurostat: EU LFS, EU-SILC, 2016
Informal care of older people, people with disabilities and LTC services	3. **Informal long-term care rate:** percentage of women and men involved in caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week (18+).	European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), 2016
	4. **Informal LTC rate among employed people:** percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week (18+).	EQLS, 2016
	5. **Unmet care needs for older people and/or people with disabilities:** percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for professional home-care services (16+).	EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services, 2016
Informal care of children and childcare services	6. **Formal childcare (≤ 3):** percentage of children up to 3 years of age cared for under formal arrangements.	EU-SILC, 2017
	7. **Formal childcare (3+):** percentage of children between 3 years of age and the mandatory school age cared for under formal arrangements.	EU-SILC, 2017
	8. **Unmet needs for childcare:** percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for formal childcare services (16+).	EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services, 2016
	9. **Informal childcare rate:** percentage of women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week (18+).	EQLS, 2016
	10. **Informal childcare rate among employed people:** percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week (18+).	EQLS, 2016
Transport and public infrastructure	11. **Commuting time:** average time in minutes per day that women and men spend commuting to and from work (15+).	European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), 2015
Flexible working arrangements	12. **Flexibility in working time:** percentage of women and men able to set their own working-time arrangements (15+).	EWCS, 2015
	13. **Transition from part-time to full-time work:** percentage of women and men who moved from part-time work to full-time work (16+).	EU-SILC, 2017
Lifelong learning	14. **Participation in education and training:** percentage of women and men participating in formal and non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) (25-64).	EU LFS, 2017
	15. **Barriers to participation in education and training:** percentage of women and men not participating in formal or informal education and training due to the main time-related barriers (work schedule or family responsibilities) (25-64).	Adult Education Survey (AES), 2016

9.2. Parental-leave policies

Parental-leave conditions may help or hinder gender equality

The increase in female employment rates, coupled with the decline of the male breadwinner family model, have unsettled traditional gender work roles and expectations (Connolly, Aldrich, O'Brien, Speight, & Poole, 2016; Trask, 2010). In this context, entitlements to job-protected leave after childbirth have become important policy measures to support parents (ILO, 2014). They provide time-limited job protection to enable an employee to care for their new-born child, and afterwards return to work with the same employer, usually to the same job. These leave policies not only support gender equality, they are also important policy instruments for supporting child, maternal and paternal health and well-being, birth rates and various labour-market outcomes, such as increased women's participation in the labour market and reduced gender pay gaps (Andersen, 2018; Kamerman & Moss, 2009). Similarly, leave policies can be seen as important tools to fulfil children's rights to have time with and care from from both their parents (Haas & Hwang, 1999).

Working parents across Member States are entitled to a range of types of leave, the most common being maternity leave, paternity leave, parental leave and leave to care for children who are ill (Blum, Koslowski, Macht, & Moss, 2018). Maternity leave is mostly understood as a health-and-welfare measure intended to protect the health of both the mother and the new-born child. Paternity leave is usually short leave taken after the birth or adoption of a child and intended to enable the father/co-parent to spend time with the partner and new child.

This analysis focuses on parental leave, which is generally understood to be a care measure intended to give both parents an equal opportunity to spend time caring for a young child. Usually, it can only be taken at the end of maternity leave (Blum et al., 2018). Some Member States aim for an almost gender-neutral leave policy (e.g. SE), with most of the available leave designated as parental leave. Other Member States have leave-system designs that identify a mother as a primary carer, with emphasis on a long period of maternity leave before the parental leave.

Regular monitoring of parental leave policies by the International Network on Leave Policies and Research ([30]) shows that leave policies in the EU are in constant flux (Blum et al., 2018). Member States are working on leave-policy designs that not only support better gender balance in the use of parental leave and the work—life balance of all working parents, but also enhance fertility rates and child well-being.

A growing body of research is trying to identify how different leave-policy characteristics work towards varied and often conflicting policy purposes. The most crucial components of leave policies are the length of leave, payment levels, flexibility, financing, eligibility rules and coordination with childcare services. These all impact the behaviour of women and men taking leave and their participation in the labour market, with consequences for gender equality.

Some characteristics are positively associated with gender equality, such as an individual entitlement for fathers. Others, including extended leave for mothers, have negative associations. For gender-equality objectives, supporting the employment of mothers and increasing the take-up of leave by fathers are of particular interest. Although reliable comparable data is scarce, the overall take-up of parental leave by men is generally estimated to be very low (Blum et al., 2018; Karu & Tremblay, 2018).

Childcare services are not available when childcare leave ends

Among EU Member States, the types of childcare leave and parental leave specifically offered to young parents vary enormously. Although all Member States fulfil the minimum 4-month requirement set out in the parental leave directive (Directive 2010/18/EU), the overall duration of

([30]) https://www.leavenetwork.org/introducing-the-network

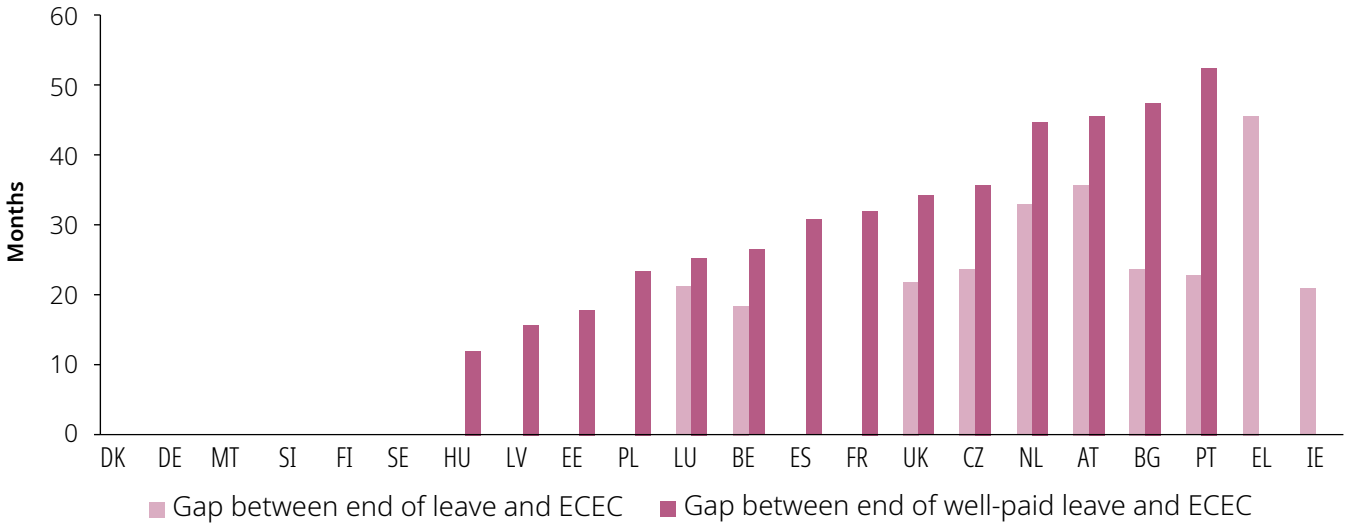
available leave differs considerably across the EU (see Annex 5). There are Member States where the parental leave is less barely exceeds the 4-month requirement such as the United Kingdom with 4.2 months and Poland with 7.4 months. Other Member States provide leave until the child is 3 years old (e.g. CZ, EE, ES, FR, LT, HU) (Blum et al., 2018).

Parental leave is only one type of leave available to parents. Counting all available maternity, paternity and parental leaves, both paid and/or unpaid, the parents may have job-protected absence from work available lasting 3 years or even more (e.g. DE, EE, FR, HR, LT, PL, PT, FI). In several Member States over 9 months of childcare leave are well paid, i.e. at least 66 % of previous monthly pay (e.g. BG, CZ, DK, EE, DE, HU, LT, AT, PL, RO, SI, FI, SE), while in other Member States less than 4 months is granted (e.g. BE, IE, FR, IT, LV, MT, NL, UK) (Blum et al., 2018).

Although a generous parental-leave entitlement could be seen as beneficial from a child well-being point of view, there is no agreement on the optimal duration of parental leave. Arguments can be found supporting shorter leave to avoid the negative impacts on women's working life and employment and the gender imbalance in the workplace that long career breaks have. Both types of leave (very short or very long duration) are associated with reduced female labour-market participation (Akgunduz & Plantenga, 2012; Genre, Salvador, & Lamo, 2010; Misra, Budig, & Boeckmann, 2011; Olivetti & Petrongolo, 2017; Pettit & Hook, 2005).

Parental-leave duration and its impact strongly depends on other leave characteristics and on the availability of care services. Good-quality and affordable (public) childcare services need to be available at the end of parental leave to allow parents to return to work. In most EU Member States (except HR, IT, LT, RO and SK), parents are entitled to early childhood education and care (ECEC) services through a statutory obligation for authorities to provide a care or nursery place for a child should a parent so wish. A lack of gaps between the end of leave provision and the start of subsidised, high-quality ECEC is linked to greater women's participation in the labour market (OECD, 2018b).

Figure 34: Care gap: time between the end of (well-paid) leave and ECEC entitlement (in months)



Source: Blum, Koslowski, Macht and Moss, 2018.

Note: There is no entitlement for ECEC in HR, IT, LT, RO and SK. In IE, there is no well-paid leave. In EL, the gap displayed is for the private sector. In the public sector, there is no gap between the leave and ECEC, and the gap between well-paid leave and ECEC is 48 months. No information is available on Cyprus.

ECEC entitlement refers to the statutory obligation to provide a place for a child, should a parent wish to use it. Where there is no statutory entitlement there may still be both public and private provision available.

Well-paid leave: earnings-related payment at 66 % or above of earnings (not taking into account the possibility of a ceiling). All types of leave are counted (including maternity, paternity, parental and childcare/time credit, including any parental-leave bonus but excluding leave to care for sick children).

As of April 2018, 12 Member States (DK, DE, EE, ES, FR, LV, HU, MT, PL, SI, FI, SE) had no gaps between the end of leave and the start of ECEC entitlements (Figure 34). It is assumed that with the help of public childcare, the transition from leave back to employment is relatively smooth for parents in these Member States. However, evidence suggests that despite such entitlement, care services are not always easily available or sufficient, for example in Estonia, Germany and Hungary (Blum et al., 2018). Only in a few Member States (DK, DE, MT, SI, FI, SE) does publicly subsidised childcare begin as paid parental leave ends. The largest care gaps are found in Austria (36 months) and the Netherlands (33.2 months). This highlights a clear lack of coordination between the two policy areas (Blum et al., 2018).

Take-up of parental leave by fathers remains a challenge

Parental leave can be either an individual non-transferable entitlement, an individual transferable entitlement or a family entitlement. The latter means that a family can decide who takes the leave. While parental leave secures job protection for those taking time off to care for their children, it does not protect against the negative impact of such breaks on career progression, pay and other aspects of working life. The negative impact of parenthood on women's employment is largely due to their disproportionate take-up of care duties and career breaks.

If childcare is no longer considered the sole domain of women and more fathers take parental leave to stay at home and look after their children in their first year, the outcomes for gender equality include increased women's labour-market participation, reduced gender pay gaps and increased men's participation in household work (Andersen, 2018; O'Brien & Wall, 2017).

There are no reliable comparable statistics available on the uptake or share of parental leave by fathers in the EU. Scarce available information does, however, indicate that the lion's share is taken up by women in all Member States. For instance, Poland reported 99 % of parental-leave takers to be women (Kurowska, Michoń, & Godlewska-Bujok, 2018), while in France 4.4 % of beneficiaries were men (Boyer & Fagnani, 2018), and in Croatia fathers accounted for around 4.5 % of all parental leave taken (Dobrotić, 2018). The take-up by men is changing slowly, even in Member States such as Sweden, where 45 % of the parental-leave benefit recipients were men. In total, men used only 27 % of all parental-leave days used during 2016 (Duvander & Haas, 2018). Danish fathers on average took 11.7 % of the parental-leave period in total in 2016 (Bloksgaard & Rostgaard, 2018).

Increased take-up of leave by fathers is strongly linked to access to individual entitlement (Duvander & Johansson, 2012; Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). However, there is no evidence that non-transferable leave is sufficient to lead to increased use of parental leave by the fathers, unless it is well paid (Karu & Tremblay, 2018).

A new directive on work—life balance for parents and carers in 2019 introduced for the first time at least 10 working days of paid paternity leave and proposed an additional incentive (paid non-transferable parental leave of 2 out of 4 months) to encourage greater take-up by fathers.

Another approach offers some form of bonus if both parents share parental leave. Several Member States offer specifically tailored incentives to get more fathers to use their leave (Table 5). For example, Sweden has a 'gender equality bonus' or a 'father's quota' that allocates an additional 90 days of the leave to fathers. If the fathers do not use it, the family loses both the leave and the financial benefit associated with it. Austria, Croatia, Germany and Italy offer bonus time of varying amounts to families where the father shares part of the leave.

Although information on the actual take-up or effectiveness of such incentives is scarce, the number of fathers using a month of parental leave in Portugal increased significantly after the bonus was introduced in 2009: from 596 fathers in 2008 to more than 24 000 by 2017 (Wall & Leitão, 2018). The introduction of the father's

quota in Sweden also led to increased uptake, and 44 % of men had taken their reserved days for children born in 2013 by 2015 (Duvander & Haas, 2018).

The financial implications of parental leave are another factor determining its take-up by fathers, given that families are dependent on the higher salaries usually earned by men. Parental leave can either be paid at a certain percentage of previous taxable income, be paid at a low flat rate similar to social assistance or be unpaid. No payment requirements are specified in the parental leave directive, which means that Member States can choose whether to provide paid or unpaid parental leave or which eligibility criteria to apply for income-related benefit.

Seven Member States (CY, EL, IE, MT, ES, NL, UK) provide unpaid parental leave, and in the remaining 21 Member States it is (at least partially) paid. The total amount of remuneration varies considerably, with every country setting a ceiling. Although a high level of pay is linked to a greater leave uptake by all parents, particularly by fathers (Lapuerta, Baizán, & González, 2011; Pull & Vogt, 2010; Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt, 2010), there are also many sociocultural factors that can discourage fathers' uptake of parental leave regardless of the type of family leave provided. This includes gender stereotypes and roles that lead to gendered expectations and workplace practices and policies.

One in five people in the EU not eligible for parental leave

Parental leave is often unavailable as eligibility might be dependent on criteria such as whether a person is in paid work, whether they are an employee or self-employed, the sector in which they work or their the length of service, or leave might not be accessible to same-sex couples or migrants. As a result, ineligibility can inhibit both having children (as potential parents anticipate not benefiting from any leave policy) and full or part-time employment when potential parents have no alternatives to parental leave.

With changing labour-market conditions and non-standard employment contracts on the rise, there are genuine concerns over the reality of parents' access to leave. During the last decade in Europe, both temporary contracts and self-employment have become a growing trend. In Member States where parental-leave eligibility is dependent on strict conditions based on narrow definitions of employment, there are likely to be stark inequalities and divisions in access to the leave provided by the social-protection infrastructure (Dobrotić & Blum, 2019).

Table 5: Examples of incentives in policy design to promote fathers' take-up of parental leave

Member State	Incentive
Germany	2-4 months of bonus leave is given if fathers take at least 2 months of leave
France	Longer period of financial payments is provided if both parents use parental leave
Croatia	2 months of bonus leave is given if both parents use parental leave
Italy	1 month of bonus leave is given if fathers take at least 3 months of leave
Austria	2 months of bonus leave is given if both parents use parental leave
Portugal	1 month of bonus leave is given if both parents use parental leave
Romania	1 month of non-transferable leave is available for the other parent (if not used, the total amount of paid leave available for family is reduced from 24 months to 11 months)
Sweden	90 days of fathers-only parental leave which is non-transferable (a father's quota)

Source: Blum, Koslowski, Macht and Moss, 2018. http://www.leavenetwork.org/lp_and_r_reports

To estimate how many women and men would be eligible for parental leave in the EU, EIGE mapped policy rules on paid and unpaid statutory parental leave across the EU-28. High-quality survey data ([31]) was assessed to gauge the extent to which respective population groups corresponded to identify eligibility criteria for parental leave in each Member State. The analysis focused on 'potential parents', i.e. all people aged 20-49 years — the peak parenthood and employment period. Special attention was given to the employed population as it is the primary target group of leave policies; however, the analysis also included those who are not in employment to capture Member States where eligibility is not based only on current employment conditions. For more details on the methodology used to estimate eligibility for parental leave, see Annex 5.

Only in four Member States (EE, HR ([32]), FI, SE) do all women and men with children have the opportunity to access parental leave (Figure 35). In these Member States there are no restrictive eligibility criteria regarding being in employment, the length of time in current work, the type of occupation or whether an individual is in a heterosexual or same-sex partnership ([33]). Furthermore, in all four Member States, parental leave is paid at a comparatively high level, with financing ensured through general taxation and employment insurance (Koslowski, Blum, & Moss, 2016), and a dual-earner/dual-caregiver model is seen as an effective way to combine work and care duties between women and men (see Section 9.4 on informal care of children and childcare services).

In the remaining 24 Member States, eligibility rates for parental leave vary. Greece has the highest ineligibility rate at 62 % of women and 51 % of men aged 20-49 years (Figure 35). Ineligibility is also high in Ireland, Cyprus, Italy, Malta and the United Kingdom, particularly for women. Overall, gender gaps on ineligibility rates show a disadvantage to women across the EU, except for Portugal, where a higher percentage of men (32 %) than women (23 %) are ineligible for parental leave. Gender gaps also tend to be very large in the Member States with the most restricted access to parental leave. For example, the ineligibility gap between women and men of parenting age in Malta is 31 p.p., while 12 Member States have gaps larger than 10 p.p. Clearly, strict eligibility rules prevent women more than men from accessing parental leave, a key indicator of work—life balance.

Even though all women and men are eligible for parental leave in four Member States, inequalities may occur when looking at financial compensation levels, as these often have additional conditions attached. For example, in 2016, 88 % of Swedish women and 96 % of Swedish men on parental leave were entitled to benefits at the earnings-related compensation level. The others — more women than men — received benefits based on a low flat-rate level. Foreign-born parents, especially mothers, more often than native-born parents only have access to this type of payment in Sweden (Duvander & Haas, 2018). EIGE's estimations of eligibility for parental leave focused only on absence from work, although in many Member States, eligibility for parental leave and related financial benefits go hand in hand.

Parents out of the labour market most likely to miss out on parental leave

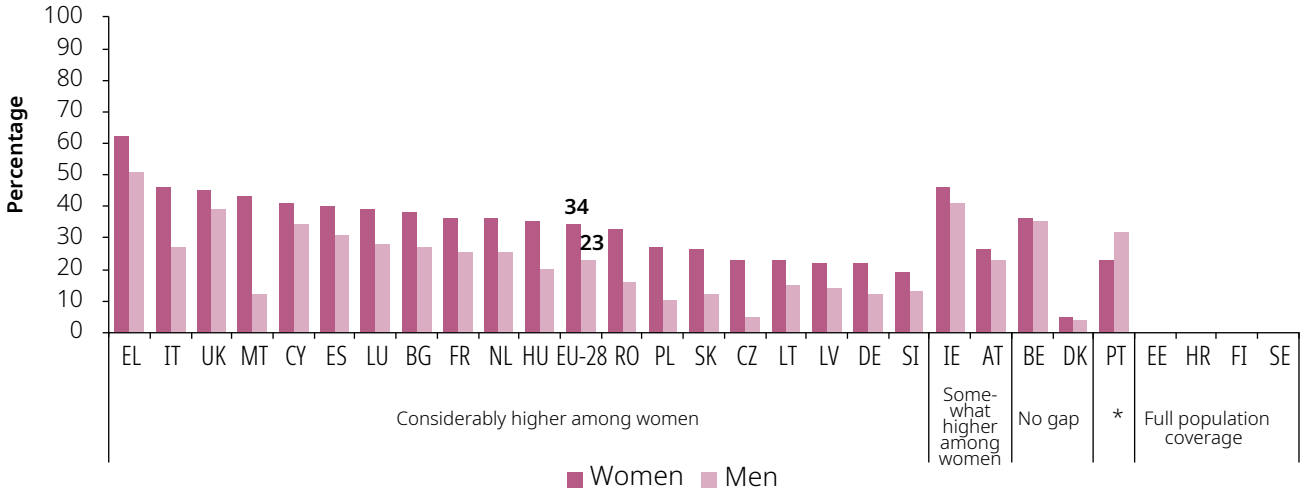
Across the EU-28, unemployment or economic inactivity is the main reason for ineligibility (78 % of women and 54 % of men) for parental leave. The other most common reasons for ineligibility relate to different employment conditions such as length of service (15 % of women and 20 % of men) or self-employment (7 % of women and 26 % of men). While people who are out of the

([31]) Microsimulation of eligibility rules was carried out using the European Union labour force survey (EU LFS) and the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) datasets.

([32]) In Croatia, same-sex couples are not eligible for parental leave, but due to small sample size it was not captured by the microsimulation.

([33]) In Estonia, parents cannot take parental leave at the same time as the other parent. Finland requires non-EU nationals and migrant parents to be living in the country for 180 days prior to the birth of the baby to be eligible for parental leave (not simulated in the eligibility analysis).

Figure 35: Percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave (20-49), 2016 (Indicator 1)



Source: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, EU-SILC.
Note: Low reliability for Malta. * Portugal is noted to be the only Member State where more men than women are ineligible for parental leave. Member States are grouped by the size of the gender gap. 'Considerably higher ineligibility' — gender gap is higher than 5 p.p.; 'somewhat higher ineligibility' — gender gap varies from 1 to 5 p.p.; 'no gap' refers to a gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p.; within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

labour market do not need job protection, they also do not benefit from this significant state-provided work—life balance measure, which in most Member States offers significant financial support.

Patterns of ineligibility are different for women and men. Inactivity or unemployment are more prevalent among women across the EU, while various employment-related conditions, including length of service or self-employment, disadvantage men. Household characteristics, such as whether same-sex couples are eligible for parental leave or whether both parents can take parental leave at the same time, account for a low percentage of ineligibility (less than 1 % of men and women). Overall, 11 Member States have policy eligibility rules whereby same-sex parents are not eligible for parental leave, with implications for adoptive parents from same-sex households.

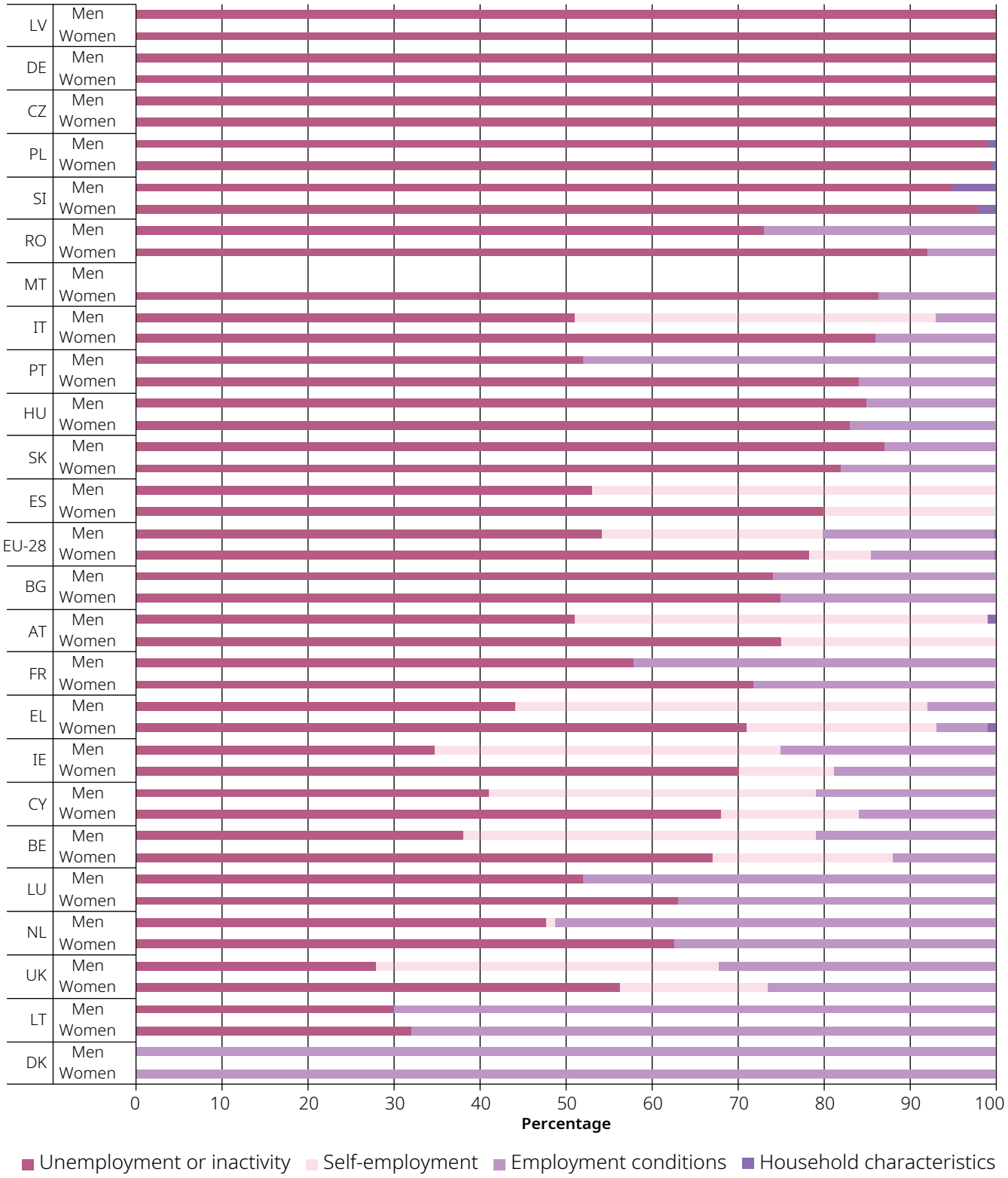
In Latvia, Germany, Czechia and Poland, nearly everyone in work can access parental leave, and only unemployed or non-working people of parenting age are excluded ([34]) (Figure 36). In the remaining 24 Member States, reasons for ineligibility are much more varied. Self-employment as an ineligibility criteria is most significant in Greece, Italy and Spain, accounting for nearly half of all men and about one fifth of all women not eligible. This is of note given that both Greece and Italy have the highest levels of self-employed women and men in the EU (Eurostat, 2018).

Parental leave in some Member States is also denied to 'family workers', such as domestic workers, unpaid assistants to family/partner employment or caregivers, who are typically linked to running a family business or farm.

Eligibility restrictions concerning the employment sector are rather rare in the EU, with the exception of Italy where some areas of economic activity among self-employed men only are not covered by parental-leave policy rules. It is possible that employment sectors influence eligibility in other Member States; however, information on such sectoral/occupational exclusions is not yet systematically available and should be explored in greater detail.

([34]) In Latvia and Poland, same-sex couples are not eligible for parental leave, but in Latvia due to the small sample size it was not captured by the microsimulation.

Figure 36: Percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave by reason of ineligibility (20-49), 2016 (Indicator 2)



Source: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, EU-SILC.

Note: EE, HR, FI, SE are not included because these Member States have 100 % eligibility rates. Low reliability: CY (men), LV (men), LU (women and men), MT (women), SI (men). Low number of observations: MT (men).

Household characteristics include two separate ineligibility reasons: (i) same-sex couples are not eligible for parental leave; (ii) partners cannot take parental leave at the same time.

Same-sex couples are ineligible for parental leave in CY, EL, HR, LV, LT, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI and SK. In most Member States, due to small sample sizes, the prevalence of this ineligibility condition was not captured by the microsimulation.

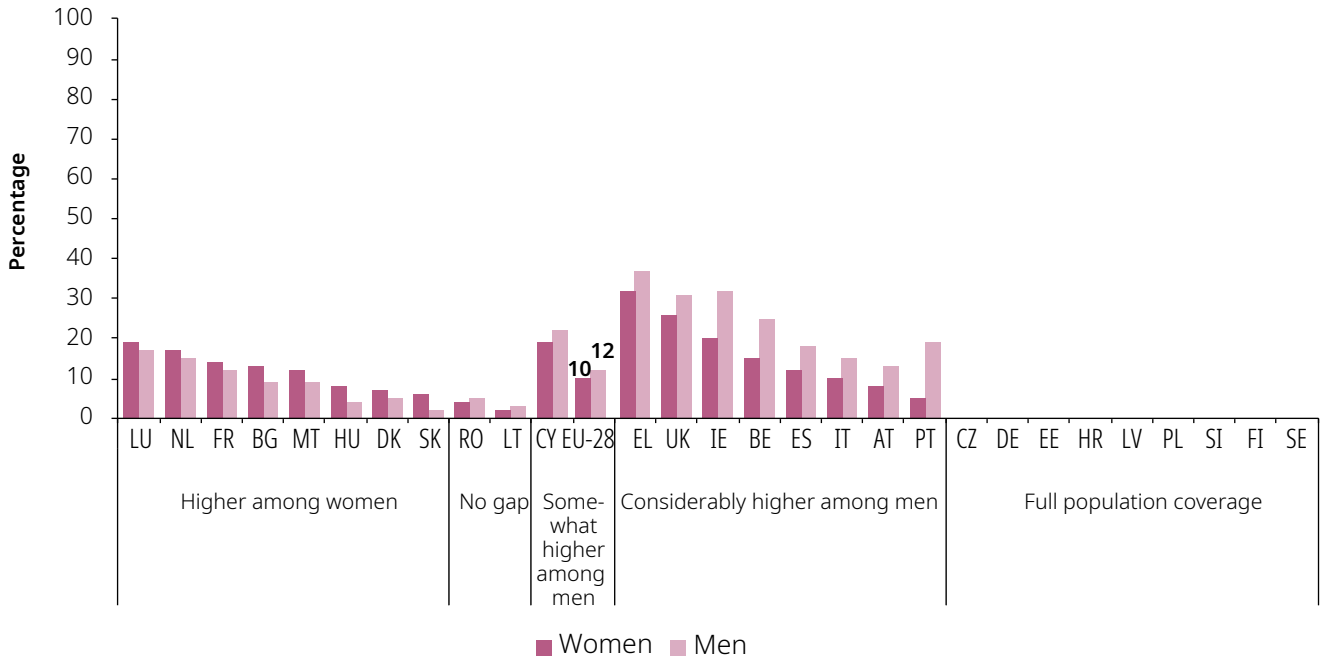
One in 10 employed persons denied access to parental leave in the EU

Eligibility rates for parental leave in the EU-28 are generally expected to be significantly higher among the employed than the unemployed or inactive, given that the leave aims to provide job protection and time off for working parents. In nine Member States (CZ, DE, EE, HR, LV, PL, SI, FI, SE), nearly all employed women and men can access parental leave. However, on average in the EU, 10 % of employed women and 12 % of employed men were not eligible in 2016 (Figure 37), with the gender disadvantage ranging from 32 % and 37 % of employed women and men in Greece to 2 % and 3 % of employed women and men in Lithuania. In eight Member States (EL, UK, IE, BE, ES, IT, AT, PT) a higher share of men than women were ineligible for parental leave, mostly due to eligibility conditions related to self-employment.

Ineligibility rates also vary between groups of workers of different ages, levels of education, occupation and sector of employment. Such differences underline the importance of assessing the impact of policy design in relation to these characteristics. Among the various age cohorts, younger workers are the least likely to be eligible for parental leave as they do not generally have a sufficient record of continuous employment, and therefore might decide to postpone parenthood until career-related eligibility criteria are fulfilled. More than 25 % of employed potential mothers and fathers in the youngest age group (20-24 years) were ineligible in five Member States (BE, EL, FR, NL, UK). The only Member State where ineligibility rates progressively increased with age was Austria.

There was not much differentiation by education, but in most Member States ineligibility

Figure 37: Percentage of employed women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave (20-49 years), 2016



Source: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, EU-SILC.

Note: Low reliability for MT. Member States are grouped by size of the gender gap. 'Considerably higher ineligibility' — gender gap is higher than 5 p.p.; 'somewhat higher ineligibility' — gender gap varies from 1 to 5 p.p.; 'no gap' refers to a gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p.; within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

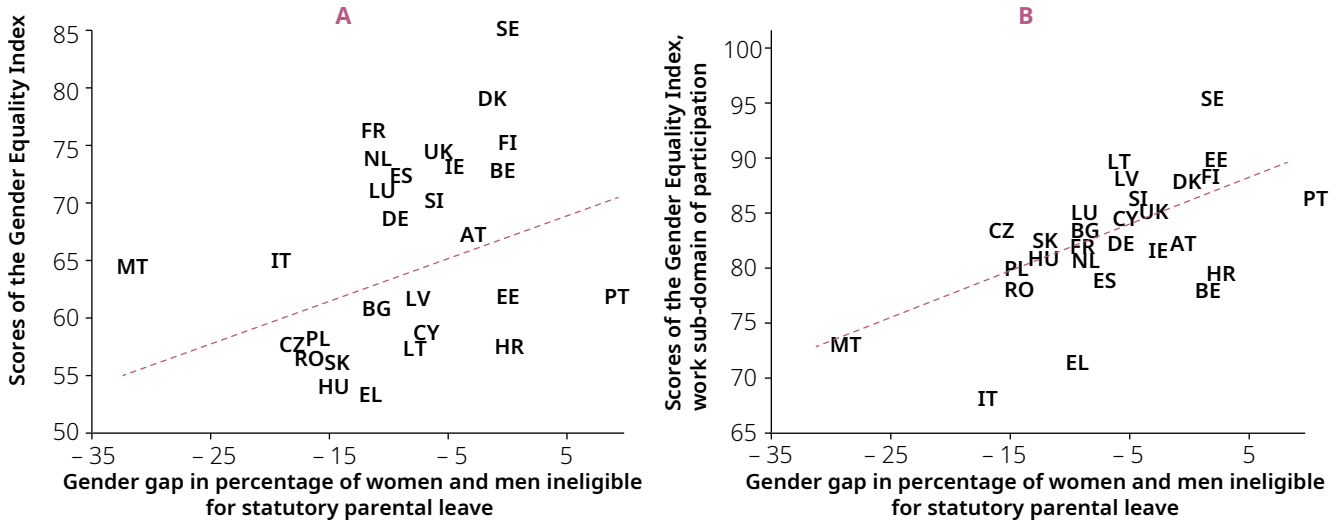
Same-sex couples are ineligible for parental leave in EL, HR, CY, LV, LT, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI and SK. In most Member States, due to small sample sizes, the prevalence of this ineligibility condition was not captured by the microsimulation.

rates were highest for the lowest educated. Across Member States, those working in agriculture, forestry and fishery (generally but not exclusively male and self-employed) and those in service and sales work (a more mixed gender profile and typically employed rather than self-employed) were least likely to be eligible. Access to parental leave was generally better for employees in higher-skilled occupations than lower-skilled and manual workers, but not in all Member States.

Gender equality in work and time domains linked to higher eligibility rates

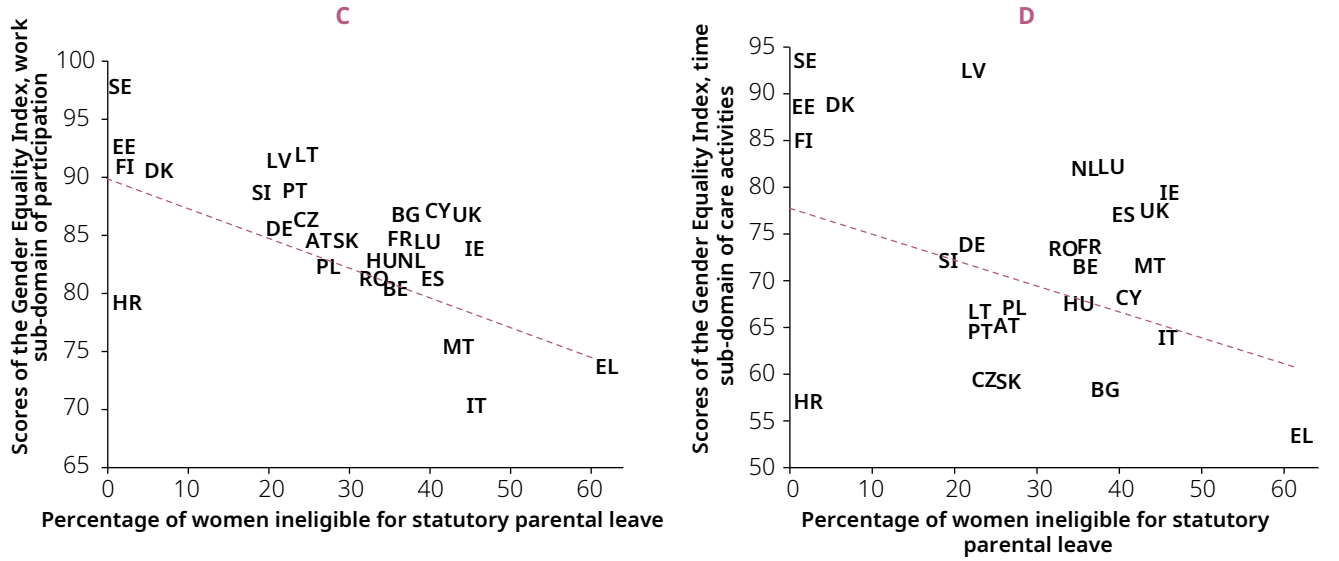
Across Member States, ineligibility for parental leave demonstrated in terms of both gender gaps and overall rates shows a link to national Gender Equality Index scores (see Figure 38, Panel A). Member States with higher gender gaps on ineligibility tend to have lower Gender Equality Index scores and vice versa. This correlation (r = 0.4549) also enables identification of

Figure 38: Percentage of women not eligible for statutory parental leave and gender gap in the percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave and Gender Equality Index scores (20-49)



Pearson correlation r = 0.3509 *; Spearman correlation r = 0.4549 *.

Pearson correlation r = 0.5904 *; Spearman correlation r = 0.5400 *.



Pearson correlation r = – 0.6934 *; Spearman correlation r = – 0.6250 *.

Pearson correlation r = – 0.5493 *; Spearman correlation r = – 0.3726 *.
HR, as an outlier, excluded from correlation analysis.

Note: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, EU-SILC, Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

Member State groups. For example, a cluster of central and southern European Member States (CZ, PL, RO, HU, SK, EL) has one of the highest ineligibility gender gaps (more than 10 p.p.), while their Gender Equality Index scores are also lower than 56 points. In contrast, Nordic Member States (SE, DK, FI), which have either universal or nearly universal parental-leave systems, have relatively high Gender Equality Index scores (above 73 points).

The correlation between ineligibility for parental leave and the overall Gender Equality Index score is in particular driven by linkages to labour-market participation (sub-domain of work) and involvement in care activities (sub-domain of time). As most Member States have employment-related eligibility conditions, overall ineligibility rates for parental leave distinctively shape opportunities and outcomes for women and men within national labour markets. Member States with higher gender-equality scores on labour-market participation are those that have lower gender gaps on parental-leave eligibility (Figure 38, Panel B) and higher overall eligibility rates for women (Figure 38, Panel C). This suggests that parental leave, as a job protection measure for both women and men, is of significant importance in efforts to boost employment among mothers. For example, the highest ineligibility rates are recorded in Greece and Italy. Both also have the lowest FTE employment rates for women in the EU (31 %) ([35]), one of the highest gender employment gaps (20 %) ([36]) and large shares of economically inactive women (35 % and 40 % of women aged 20-64 respectively) ([37]).

In both Member States, the interaction between employment-related eligibility conditions and the low involvement of women in the labour market creates a 'vicious circle': labour-market status disqualifies men and particularly women from parental-leave schemes, while at the same time ineligibility 'locks' women outside of the labour market or leaves them on its margins. Similarly, a link between ineligibility for parental leave and care activities (sub-domain of time) suggests that Member States with more universal parental-leave schemes create better opportunities for gender equality in parental care responsibilities (Figure 38, Panel D). Sweden, Estonia and Finland (three of the four Member States with 100 % eligibility rates for both women and men) had among the highest gender-equality scores in the care sub-domain.

9.3. Informal care of older people, people with disabilities and long-term care services

Rising long-term care needs keenly felt by women

The EU is currently experiencing unprecedented demographic changes. The share of population above 65 years old in the EU is expected to increase from 19 % in 2016 to 29 % by 2080, and the percentage of people above 80 years old will more than double to 13 % ([38]) in that time. A rapidly ageing population leads to an ever-growing need for long-term formal and informal care. In 2017, one in four people in the EU had a long-term disability, women (27 %) more than men (22 %) ([39]). Given this context, the EU will face a major challenge in meeting LTC needs in a financially sustainable way, ensuring care is affordable without endangering the quality of services or the lives of care providers and the cared-for (European Commission, 2017a).

LTC is 'a range of services and assistance for people who, as a result of mental and/or physical frailty and/or disability over an extended period of time, depend on help with daily living activities and/or [are] in need of some permanent care' (European Union, 2014). LTC can be performed

([35]) EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, 2017.
([36]) Eurostat, Gender-employment gap, 2017 (tesem060).
([37]) Eurostat, Inactivity, 2017 (lfsa_ipga).
([38]) Eurostat, Population projections, 2015 (proj_15ndbims).
([39]) Eurostat, Health variables of EU-SILC, 2017 (hlth_silc_06).

either formally by paid professionals or informally by family members, relatives, friends or others. LTC systems vary significantly across EU Member States, with differences in the extent of provision, benefits and services provided and institutional settings (Spasova et al., 2018).

In the EU-28, LTC relies heavily on informal care, with evidence indicating that the number of informal carers is twice that of formal caregivers (European Union, 2014). The prevalence of informal care might be associated with the lack of accessible, affordable and good-quality formal LTC facilities and services (Spasova et al., 2018). In many Member States, formal home-care services remain underdeveloped and difficult to access. As such, research highlights the increasing role of domestic workers, often migrant women, in the provision of LTC at home in several EU Member States (Spasova et al., 2018).

Due to a higher life expectancy, more women than men are in need of LTC. In addition, the vast majority of formal and informal carers are women. Women's greater involvement in informal care, which negatively impacts their participation in the labour market, also increases their risk of economic dependency, poverty and social exclusion. In the EU, almost one in every three inactive women (32 %) aged 20-64, compared to just 5 % of inactive men in the same age group, is not in paid work due to family and/or care responsibilities ([40]). Evidence of greater degrees of chronic stress and depression among female caregivers has also been found as women often have to combine care responsibilities with household chores and work (Schultz, 2008). The availability, accessibility and affordability of care facilities are, therefore, crucial elements allowing carers, especially women, to stay in or enter the labour market and to reconcile work and life duties and needs.

The European Pillar of Social Rights endorses everyone's right to accessible, good-quality and affordable LTC services, and in particular home care and community-based services. The 2019 directive on work—life balance for parents and carers also introduced a new right for workers to take at least 5 working days per year of carers' leave where a relative has a serious illness or dependency. These provisions aim to remove some of the barriers faced by informal carers, especially women, to both entering and staying in employment.

The development of sustainable models of care delivery is of high political importance in the EU. For instance, the Social Protection Committee and the European Commission are promoting new ways to provide adequate and sustainable LTC services in ageing societies through investment in preventive care, rehabilitation and age-friendly environments. As part of this process, the European Commission launched the blueprint on digital transformation of health and care in 2016. This initiative highlighted the potential of digitalisation in helping informal carers to maintain an active and productive life while providing care for their dependents (European Commission, 2016a).

Women bear the brunt of long-term informal care duties

More women than men assume long-term informal responsibilities at least several days a week or every day. Overall, women represent 62 % of all people providing LTC in the EU ([41]). At EU level, the informal LTC rate for older people and/or people with disabilities was 15 % for women and 10 % for men in 2016. Significant variations exist between and within Member States in the number of informal carers (Figure 39). The share of people who report that they are providing informal LTC reaches 32 % for women and 20 % for men in France, whereas in Germany it is as low as 5 % for women and 7 % for men. There is nearly equal distribution of care duties in Sweden, Romania, Croatia and Estonia (0.8 p.p.), and gaps as high as 13 p.p. in Belgium, 11 p.p. in France and 10 p.p. in Malta. Despite a large variety of formal LTC systems, the disproportionate distribution of informal care duties to women's disadvantage is a persistent pattern across the EU-28.

([40]) Eurostat, EU LFS, 2018 (lfsa_igar).
([41]) EIGE calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.

When interpreting the differences among Member States, it is important to take into account the subjectivity in assessing involvement in LTC. The EQLS did not provide a definition of 'care'. As a result, 'providing care' can be understood as encompassing a vast range of actions of varying intensity, from the maintenance of social links to support for daily activities or even near-medical care.

Older women most likely to be long-term informal carers

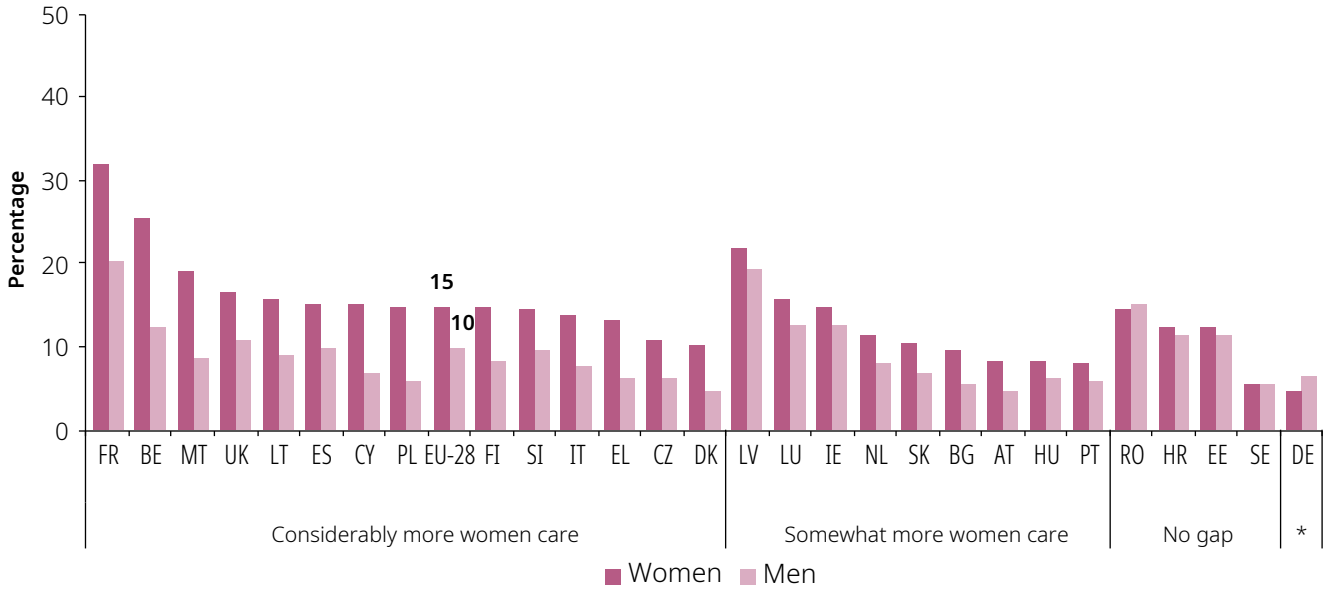
Women of pre-retirement age (50-64 years) are most likely to take care of older people and/or people with disabilities. In the EU, 21 % of women and 11 % of men of this age provided LTC every day or several days a week in 2016, compared to 13 % of women and 9 % of men aged 25-49 years.

About a third of women aged 50-64 years in Belgium (37 %), France (33 %) and Latvia (33 %) provide care at least several days a week (Figure 40). The difference in informal LTC rates between women aged 20-49 years and women aged 50-64 years is particularly striking in Poland (– 17 p.p.), Spain (– 17 p.p.), Greece (– 16 p.p.) and Belgium (– 16 p.p.). Similarly, in 22 EU Member States, men of pre-retirement age (50-64 years) are more likely to provide LTC than younger men (20-49 years). The highest percentage of men of pre-retirement age involved in informal care are found in Latvia (28 %), France (21 %) and Estonia (17 %).

21 % of women and 11 % of men aged 50-64 care for older persons and persons with disabilities on a weekly basis

As well as differences between age groups, there also are gender gaps within different age groups. Overall for the EU there is a 10-p.p. difference among women and men of pre-retirement age and a 4-p.p. gap among those aged 20-49 years. In 21 EU Member States, gender gaps among the 50-64 age group follow a sim-

Figure 39: Percentage of women and men caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week (18+), 2016 (Indicator 3)



Source: EIGE calculation, Eurofound, EQLS.
Note: * Germany is noted to be the only Member State where slightly more men than women care.
The question asked: In general, how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? (D) Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends under 75 years old; (E) Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends aged 75 or over. Answers 'every day' and 'several days a week' were used.
Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Considerably more' — gender gap is higher than 5 p.p.; 'somewhat more' — gender gap varies from 1 to 5 p.p.; 'no gap' refers to a gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p.; within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

ilar pattern, reaching 22 p.p. in Belgium, 19 p.p. in Greece and 19 p.p. in Spain (Figure 40). There are only two Member States (HU, HR) where the share of women and men informal carers aged 50-64 is about equal, and three Member States (CZ, PT, EE) where older men are slightly more likely than older women to provide LTC.

The intersection of gender and age underscores the particularly disadvantaged position of older women in the gender division of informal care responsibilities and the challenge that intensive care poses on their work—life balance. Although people aged 50-64 years are still economically active in a large number of Member States, their employment rates are much lower, especially for women involved in informal care.

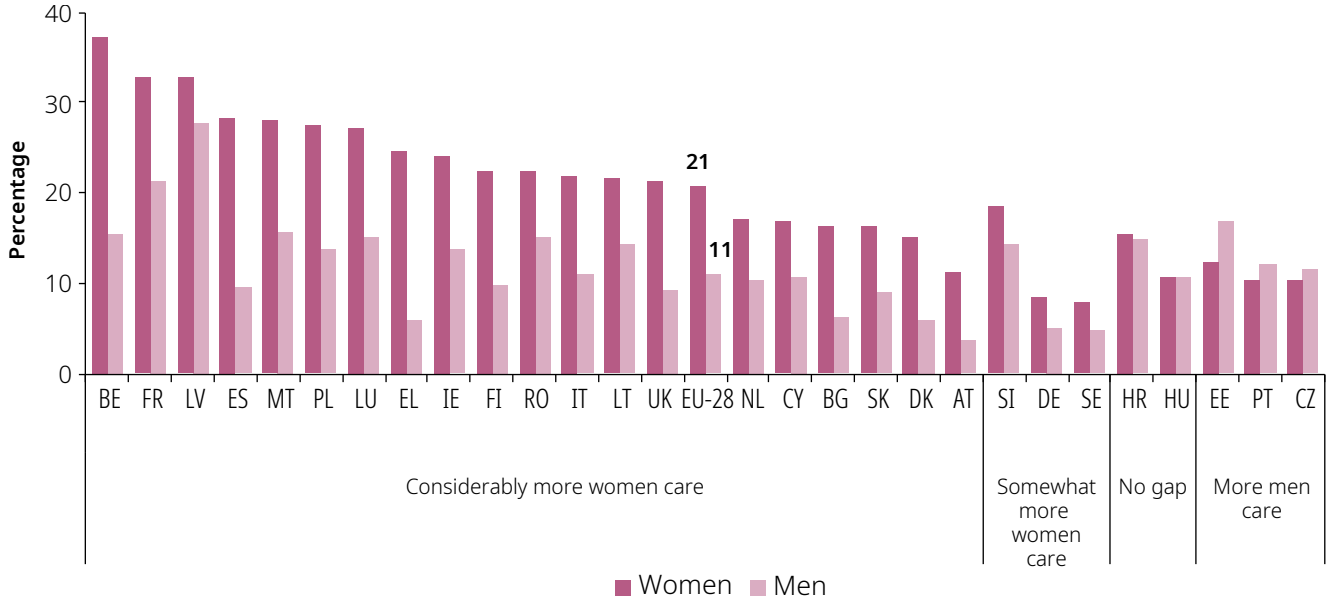
Long-term care duties intensify gender inequalities in employment, particularly for women

A closer look at people who are in paid work and who are also providing LTC on a regular basis gives an insight into how many employed people have added pressure on their work—life balance. A large share of employed people, particularly women, combine work with care responsibilities. In the EU, 13 % of all working women and 9 % of working men were providing care to older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week in 2016 (Figure 41). In 21 EU Member States, a larger proportion of working women provide informal LTC. On the other hand, in four EU Member States (RO, SE, IE, PT), working men account for a bigger share of carers. In Austria, Germany and Czechia, the gender division is almost the same.

In general, women and men providing LTC are less likely to participate in the labour market. In the EU, 42 % of women and 56 % of men taking care of older people and/or people with disabilities every day or several days a week in 2016 also had paid jobs, compared to 47 % of women and 58 % of men without care responsibilities (Figure 42).

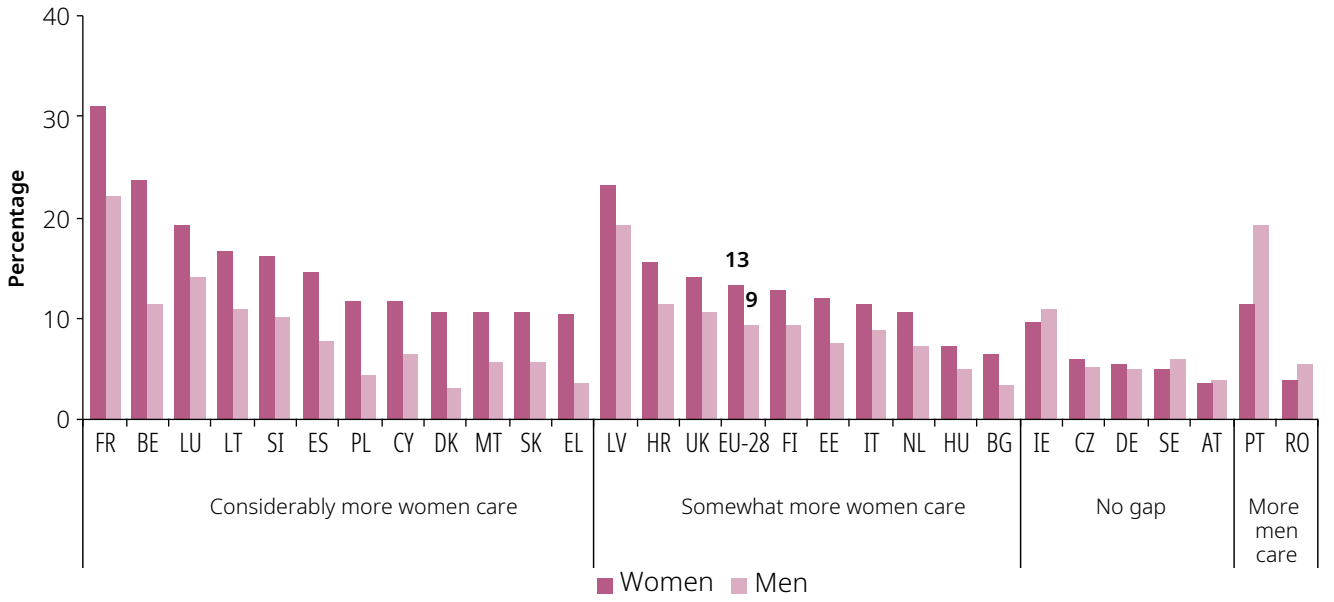
In all but four EU Member States (DK, DE, EE, ES), men carers are more likely than their women counterparts to be in paid work. The largest gen-

Figure 40: Percentage of women and men caring for older persons and/or persons with disabilities at least several times a week (50-64 years), 2016



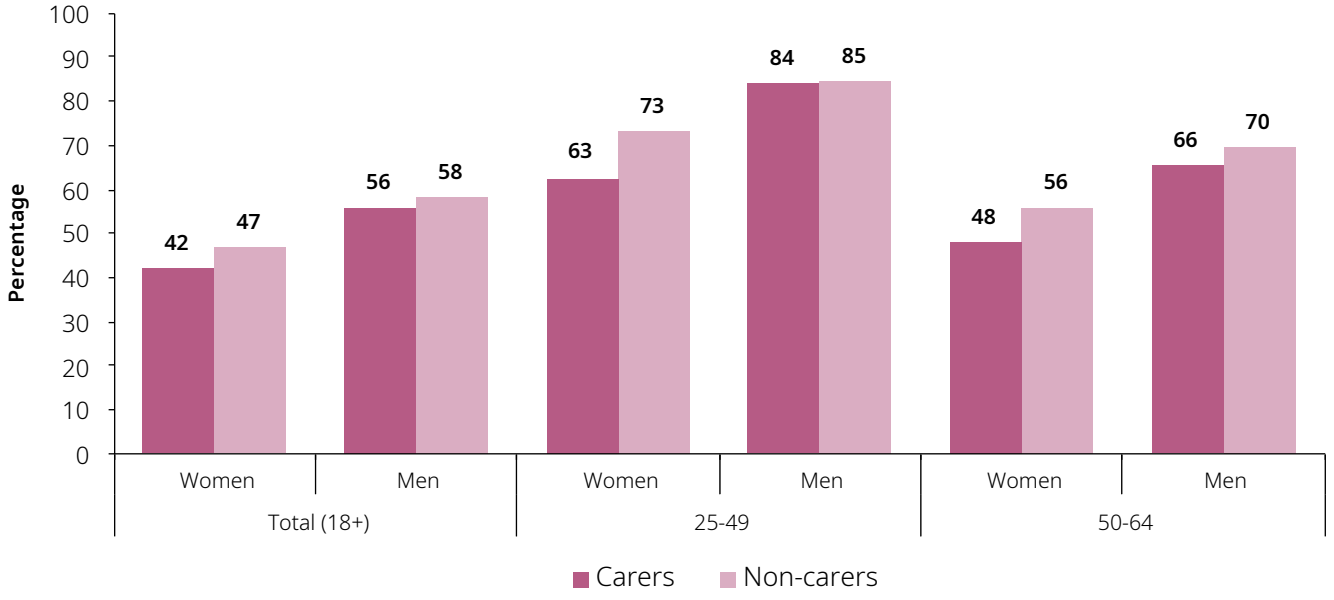
Source: EIGE's calculations based on EQLS data. For some Member States, the sample size is around 100, and the confidence interval may lead to less reliable estimates.
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. `Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. `Somewhat more': gender gap 1-5 p.p. `No gap': gender gap from - 1 to 1 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

Figure 41: Percentage of employed women and men caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week (18+), 2016 (Indicator 4)



Source: EIGE calculations, Eurofound, EQLS.
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. 'Somewhat more': gender gap 1-5 p.p. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

Figure 42: Percentage of women and men caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week who have a paid job (18+), 2016



Source: EIGE calculations, Eurofound, EQLS.

der gap is observed in Romania (– 42 p.p.), where only 36 % of women providing LTC are engaged in paid work. Gender differences are also significant in Italy (– 35 p.p.), Austria (– 33 p.p.) and Portugal (– 28 p.p.), where one in five women involved in informal care have a paid job. In contrast, the smallest gender gaps are found in Spain (0.2 p.p.), Poland (– 4 p.p.) and Croatia (– 5 p.p.).

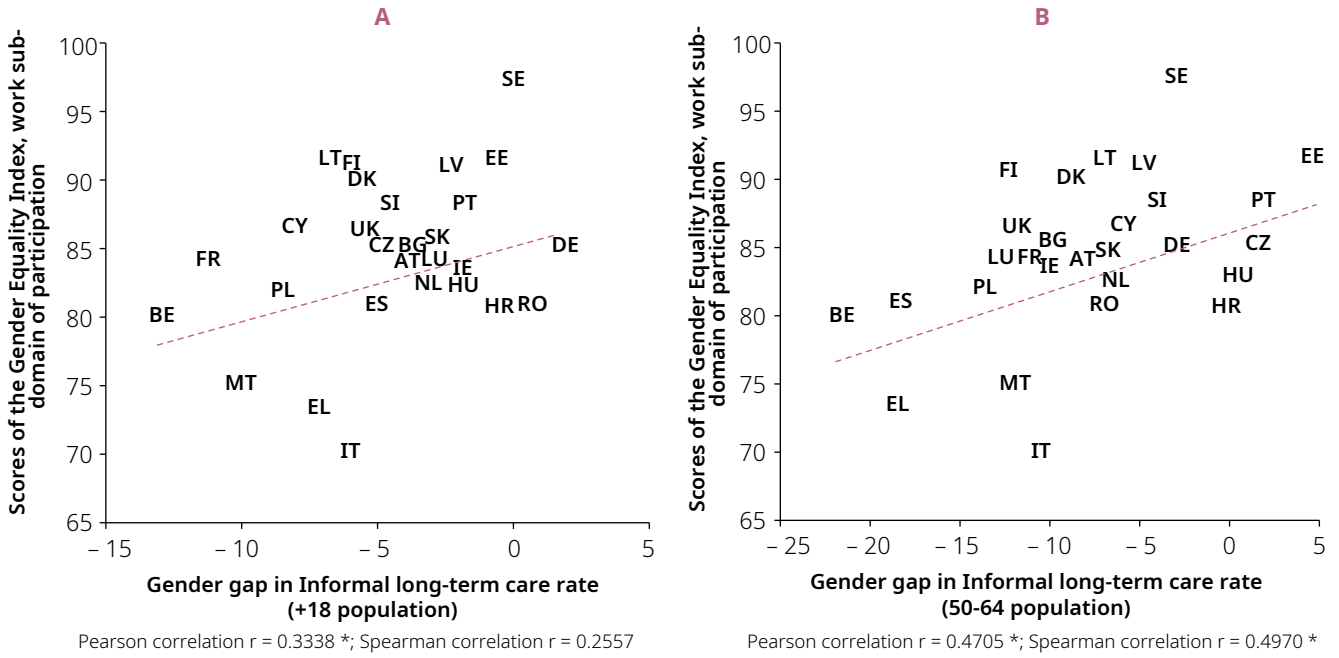
The gendered nature of care responsibilities is evident across all age groups. Among those aged 20-49 years, women caring for older people and/or people with disabilities participate in the labour market by 8 p.p. less than women without such responsibilities and by 19 p.p. less than men carers. Men's employment rate in this age group is high, regardless of their involvement in informal care (Figure 42).

Women of pre-retirement age (50-64 years) are even more negatively impacted. Fewer than one in two women (48 %) providing LTC is employed, in comparison with 66 % of men. Among those who are inactive, every tenth woman aged 50 years or more reports that family or care responsibilities are the main reasons for taking a career break and/or not seeking a job (EIGE, 2016b). Informal caring duties can also lead to early retirement for older carers, particularly women (European Commission, 2013).

Research suggests that the impact of informal care provision on work might vary due to different factors, including the number of hours of care provided, whether care is provided to a co-resident or someone living outside the household and the availability of formal care services (Colombo, Llena-Nozal, Mercier, & Tjadens, 2011). The intensity of care is another important variable in assessing the impact of care work on the mental health of carers. In fact, caring for more than 20 hours a week is linked to a 20 % higher prevalence of mental health problems among carers than for non-carers (Colombo et al., 2011).

Overall, in Member States where women disproportionately bear the burden of LTC, gender inequalities in labour participation are higher. In fact, EU Member States with larger gender gaps in the provision of care for older people and/or people with disabilities have lower scores in the sub-domain of participation in the labour market (r = 0.3338 *) (Panel A in Figure 43). For instance, Belgium has the highest gender gap in care, with 26 % of women and 12 % of men providing care (gender gap – 13 p.p.), as well as one of the lowest scores in the sub-domain of participation (78.2 points). Furthermore, scores for this sub-domain are lower in Member States where the gender division of care duties among

Figure 43: Score of the Gender Equality Index work sub-domain of participation, and (A) the gender gap informal LTC rate (Indicator 3, 18+) and (B) the gender gap in the informal LTC rate (age group 50-64)



Note: EIGE's calculations, EQLS, Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

those of pre-retirement age (50-64 years) is particularly unequal (Panel B in Figure 43).

One in three households live without adequate care

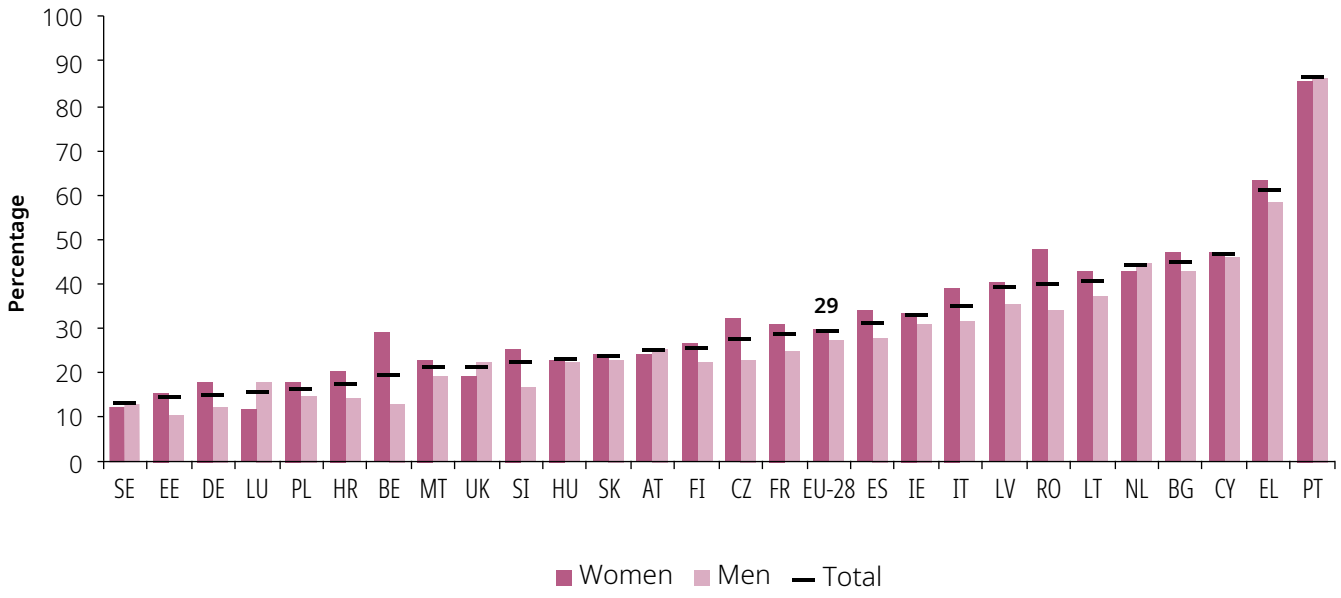
In the EU, 29 % of households reported unmet needs for professional home-care services in 2016 ([42]) (Figure 44). Among Member States, this figure ranges from 12 % in Sweden to 86 % in Portugal. Some of the most common reasons reported by households are affordability (49 %) and lack of available care services (15 %) ([43]). For instance, in Cyprus, Romania and Poland, the cost of professional home-care services is an obstacle for up to 85 %, 80 % and 71 % of households respectively.

Certain groups of the population may have more difficulty in accessing formal LTC services, including people with low income, poorly educated people, migrants and ethnic minority women (European Commission, 2009). As a result, households are forced to provide care themselves or, in some Member States, to outsource care to domestic workers, who are very often migrant women. In Italy, for example, three in four home carers are migrants (European Commission, 2013). The situation of migrant domestic workers engaged in informal care is of major concern. Most care migrants have irregular contracts which generally implies precarious working conditions and limited access to social-protection rights (Spasova et al., 2018).

In the EU, 29 % of households report that their needs for professional home care services are not fully met

'Unmet need' is a subjective measure which does not provide an insight into the type of needs that are not met in different Member States as people's living conditions and available services vary across Member States. The reporting of unmet needs was slightly higher in the households where a woman responded to the survey (30 %) than where a man responded (28 %). Women are more likely than men to report an unmet need for professional home-care services in all but six

Figure 44: Percentage of women and men reporting unmet household need for professional home-care services (16+), 2016 (Indicator 5)



Source: EU-SILC, 2016.
Note: Data on Denmark is not available.

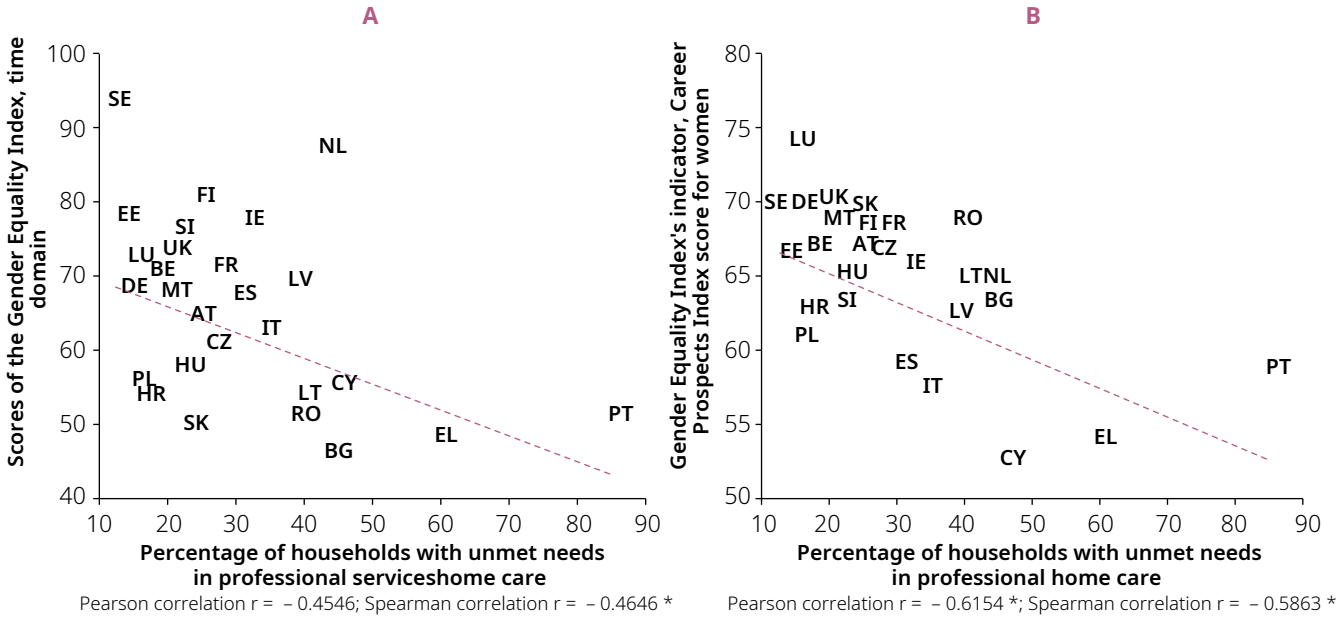
([42]) 27 EU MS, data for Denmark is not available.
([43]) EIGE's calculations, EU-SILC, 2016.

Member States (LU, NL, AT, PT, SE, UK). This may be due to their greater involvement in informal care. Moreover, older women tend to live alone more often than men, and therefore may be in need of care to a greater extent.

Inability to access professional care services when needed not only impacts upon the quality of life of the person in need of care, but may also force others to allocate more time to caring. This can have far-reaching effects on their ability to combine paid work with care duties. In addition, it can prevent their access to better-quality jobs and negatively affect their employment status and the number of hours they can engage in paid work (ILO, 2018a).

Considerable differences exist across Member States as regards unmet needs for professional home-care services and the levels of gender equality achieved. Among other things, this shows that different ways of organising professional home care could contribute to gender equality, and that there is still huge room for improvement in many Member States where gender equality could be further boosted across different areas of life. As demonstrated by Figure 45 (Panel A), the highest levels of gender inequalities in the use of time, as measured in the Gender Equality Index's domain of time (particularly in the sub-domain of social activities), are noted in Member States (e.g. EL, PT) with very large shares of households with unmet needs for professional home-care services (r = – 0.4646 *). In contrast, Member States with the best gender-equality achievements in the use of time (e.g. SE) are noted to have very few households with unmet needs for professional home care. Furthermore, care infrastructure is noted as being particularly linked to women's career prospects. In Member States where households reveal high levels of unmet needs for care services, women are noted to have lower scores in career prospects ([44]) (r = – 0.5863 *) (Panel B, Figure 45). The same connection, although to a marginally lesser extent, exists for men — the higher the level of unmet needs in the household, the poorer the career prospects of men on average.

Figure 45: Unmet care needs for older people and/or people with disabilities, and (A) Gender Equality Index score of time domain and (B) career prospects index scores for women (16+)



Note: EIGE's calculations, EU-SILC, Gender Equality Index, * refers to significance at 10 %. Data on Denmark is not available.

([44]) Prospects Index is a composite indicator used in the domain of work of the Gender Equality Index. It was developed by Eurofound and vcombines indicators on employment status, type of contract, prospects for career advancement as perceived by the worker, perceived likelihood of losing one's job and experience of downsizing in the organisation.

9.4. Informal care of children and childcare services

Equally shared or not, childcare is a key dimension of gender equality

Family structures have changed drastically in recent decades. The male breadwinner model is no longer pre-eminent, supplanted by the prevalence of dual-earning and single-headed families as more women work outside of the home and not all families have a mother and a father. This has had a significant impact on childcare at a time when extended family members, such as grandparents, are less engaged in looking after their grandchildren. A broader range of family and work circumstances, which has led to parents needing for more and varied childcare services, has put pressure on public policies and services.

Member States in the EU have reacted differently according to their different labour-market structures, social and political systems and demographic circumstances. Understanding how social policies and structures affect gender roles, particularly in the division of care work at home, is key to progress on gender equality.

Policies can support parents to stay in employment by providing services that support defamilisation — defined as the extent to which measures enable parents to be active outside the home by transferring traditional care work performed for free within the family to the formal and paid childcare sector (Esping-Andersen, 1990; Orloff, 1996). Policies and services can also resist defamilisation through the expectation that childcare is given by family members at home. Policy approaches on this spectrum affect how parents share childcare in the home, with wider consequences for gender equality in society as a whole. While certain policy options may promote equality between women and men by increasing the labour-market participation of women with children and men's involvement in childcare, by undervaluing the social and economic value of care jobs they can also undermine the economic independence of women from lower social classes or migrant backgrounds, thus aggravating inequalities among women (Michel & Mahon, 2013).

As a result of different policy approaches and services provided, three main models for the organisation of care work and gender roles have been conceptualised (Ciccia & Bleijenbergh, 2014).

- The male breadwinner model is based on strictly distinct gender roles, with men associated with full-time paid work outside the home. Women are assigned to reproductive roles and are solely responsible for unpaid childcare. One consequence of this set-up is women's total economic dependency on their partner's income. The 'modified breadwinner model' or 'one and a half earner' model, where women combine part-time work with care responsibilities, is now considered the most prevalent version of this model (Crompton, 2001, 2006).

- The universal breadwinner or 'adult worker' model promotes men's and women's economic independence and their full labour-market participation. To this end, childcare provision is encouraged either by public or private entities (Lewis & Giullari, 2005). This model is often criticised for perpetuating the low social and economic value given to care work.

- The 'dual-earner/dual-caregiver' model is described as 'one that supports equal opportunities for men and women in employment, equal contributions from mothers and fathers at home and high-quality care for children provided both by parents and by well-qualified and well-compensated non-parental caregivers' (Wright, Gornick, & Meyers, 2009).

Consequently, a 'dual-earner/dual-caregiver' model is often proposed to address the shortcomings of the 'male breadwinner/female homemaker model' and its variants (Ciccia & Bleijenbergh, 2014).

Despite a significant increase in the public provision of childcare services in recent years, women with children under 7 years of age in

the EU on average spend 20 hours per week more than men on unpaid work (Eurofound, 2017a). The gender FTE gap (18 p.p. detrimental to women) is closely related to care responsibilities. Unequal engagement of women and men in unpaid and paid work constitutes the root cause to gender inequalities in the labour market, in political decision-making and in society as a whole (Crompton, 1997; Walby, 1989; Wright et al., 2009).

Childcare provision: an EU priority yet to reach every family

EU policymakers have long recognised that the unequal sharing of childcare responsibilities within the family is one of the main reasons for women's lower labour-market participation. This culminated in the 2002 adoption of ambitious childcare provision targets by the Barcelona European Council, with goals to be achieved by 2010. Referred to as the 'Barcelona targets', they urged Member States to provide childcare for 33 % of children under 3 years of age and for 90 % of children from 3 years to mandatory school age by 2010. More recently, the European Pillar of Social Rights and its 'New start' initiative emphasised children's right to affordable, quality educational and childcare services. The EU also reaffirmed the need for children from marginalised socioeconomic backgrounds to benefit from specific remedial action to further their development and social inclusion ([45]).

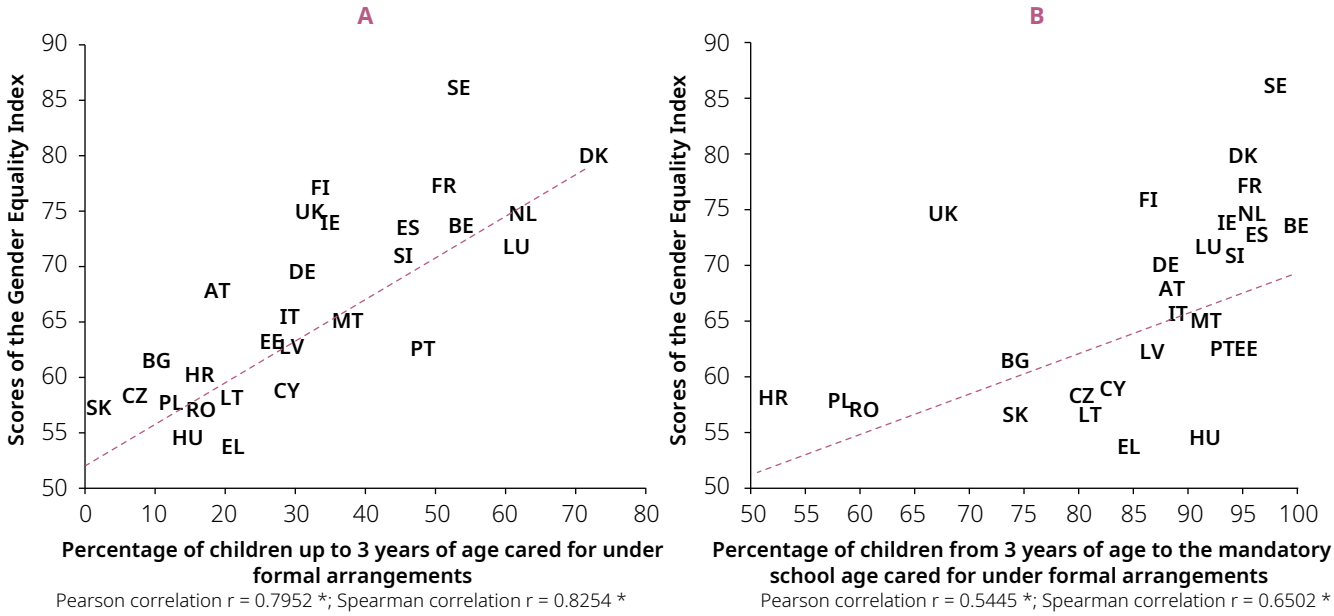
There are many documented social and economic benefits associated with quality and affordable childcare services. Statistical analysis of the impact of a variety of family-friendly measures (including parental leave, flexible working arrangements, childcare provision, etc.) on women's labour-market participation has shown that the provision of subsidised childcare services has had the most significant impact on reducing gender gaps in employment. It underlines the fact that support for working mothers is one of the most effective means to their staying in the labour market (Olivetti & Petrongolo, 2017). Similarly, an analysis by the International Trade Union Confederation shows that an increased investment of 2 % of GDP in the care industry by seven OECD countries would lead to an increase of 3.3 to 8.2 p.p. in women's employment and 1.4 to 4.0 p.p. for men (International Trade Union Confederation, 2016). Quality, affordable universal childcare services are also instrumental in addressing social inequities affecting children (European Commission, 2018g). This is reflected in EU policies which promote the social and economic integration of marginalised groups, such as the EU framework for national Roma integration strategies ([46]) and the action plan on the integration of third-country nationals ([47]), referring to the importance of quality early childhood education services. They also call for barriers to the enrolment of Roma or migrant children into formal childcare services to be removed.

Investment in national childcare provision strongly relates to gender-equality outcomes in society, measured by the correlation between the enrolment in formal childcare services of children below 3 years of age (first Barcelona target) and the Gender Equality Index scores ($r = 0.7952$ *). The relation also holds, albeit to a lesser degree, for the second Barcelona target on care services for children between 3 years of age and the mandatory school age ($r = 0.5445$ *). It highlights that Member States where formal childcare is widely available tended to have high scores in the Gender Equality Index (Figure 46).

Despite the equal sharing of childcare between women and men being a long-standing demand of the feminist movement and a key component of any policy effort to increase gender equality, it is important to acknowledge that the national targets and levels of ambition pursued by Member States in developing childcare services often vary. They may influence the conditions in which such services are made available. In particular, childcare provision is often presented as

([45]) Building on the European Commission recommendation on 'Investing in children: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage' of 2013.
([46]) Communication from the Commission (2011) on an EU Framework for national Roma integration strategies, COM(2011) 173.
([47]) Communication from the Commission (2016) — Action plan on the integration of third-country nationals, COM(2016) 377.

Figure 46: Gender-equality scores 2017, and (A) the percentage of children up to 3 years of age cared for under formal arrangements and (B) the percentage of children from 3 years of age to the mandatory school age cared for under formal arrangements



Note: EIGE's calculations, EU-SILC, Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

a tool for economic growth rather than a strategy to transform gender relations, with consequences on the actual usefulness of services. Stratigaki (2004) in particular argued that not only had equal sharing of childcare — or 'reconciliation' — been abandoned to the growing policy priority of job creation, it now serves to legitimise flexible working conditions instead of changing gender relations within the family.

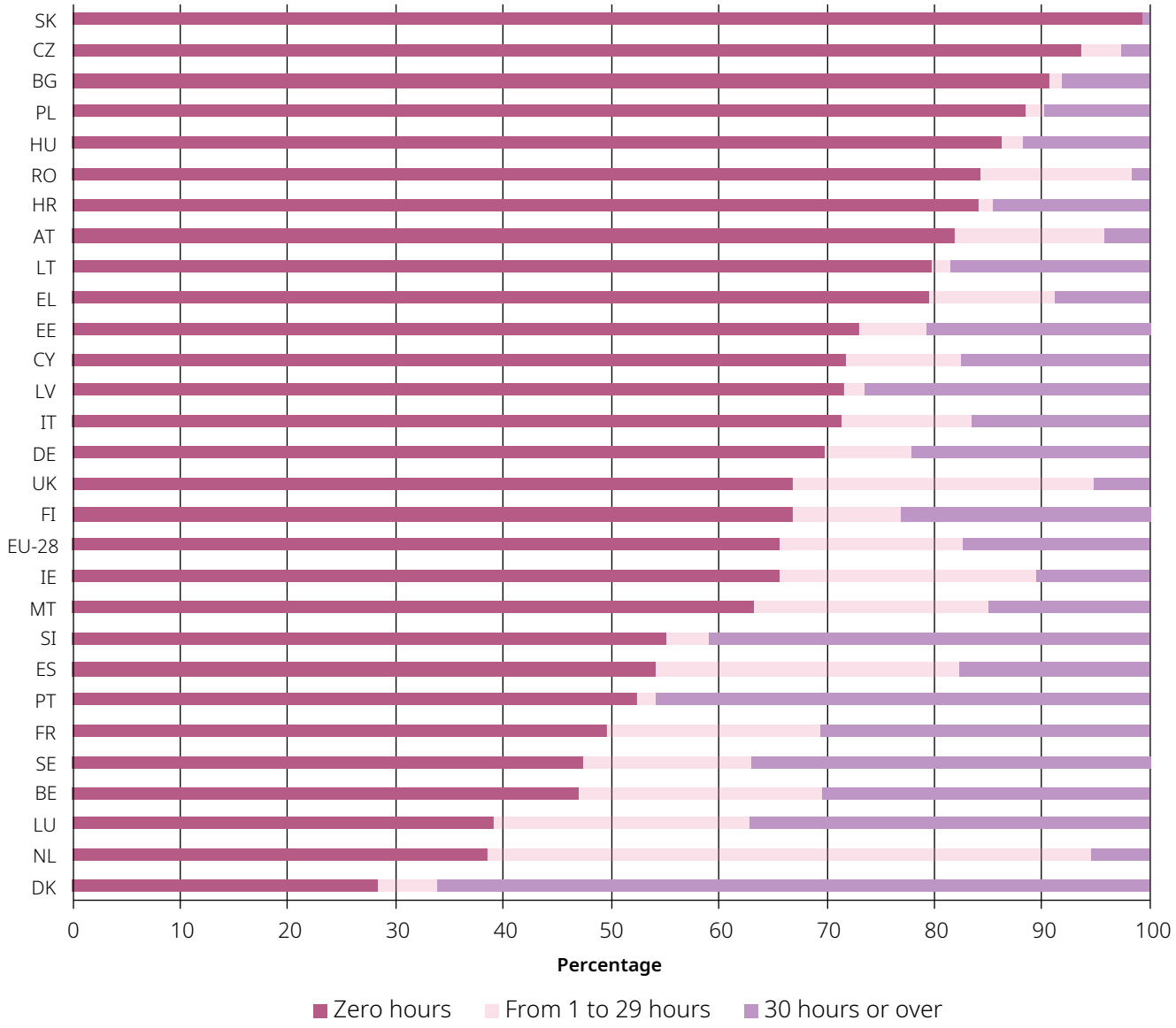
Figure 47 shows that, across the EU, about a third of all children under 3 years of age are enrolled in a formal childcare institution (34 %). This means that collectively the EU has achieved the first Barcelona target of 33 %. This represents a 7-p.p. increase over the preceding 5 years. Nationally, 13 Member States had reached the goal ([48]), with considerable progress made in certain Member States such as Malta (+ 20 p.p.), the Netherlands (+ 16 p.p.), Portugal (+ 14 p.p.), Lithuania (+ 12 p.p.), France (+ 11 p.p.) and Spain (+ 10 p.p.) over the preceding 5 years. While enrolment rates have remained similar in Greece, Romania, Sweden and Bulgaria (+ 1 p.p.), only one Member State, Slovakia, has seen a decline over 5 years (– 4 p.p.). In 2017 it only had 1 % of children below 3 years of age in formal childcare.

At the same time, 17 % of children below 3 years of age are in full-time childcare (30 hours or more per week) on average in the EU. 14 Member States have a share of children attending full-time childcare higher than the EU average ([49]). In Denmark the majority of children attend full-time childcare (66 %), followed by Portugal (46 %) and Slovenia (41 %). Slovakia, Romania and Czechia are notable for having the lowest percentages of children in full-time childcare, at 1 %, 2 % and 3 % respectively. These figures reflect divergent views on the role of the state, the market and the family in the provision of childcare services.

The EU-28's progress on the target of providing 90 % of children from 3 years of age to mandatory school age with formal childcare reached 85 % in 2017 (Figure 48), with 10 EU Member States (BG, CZ, EL, HR, CY, LT, PL, RO, SK and UK)

([48]) DK, NL,LU, BE, SE, FR, PT, ES, SI, MT, IE, FI, ordered from highest to lowest enrolment rate.
([49]) DK, PT, SI, SE, LU, FR, BE, LV, FI, DE, EE, LT, ES, CY, ordered from the highest share of children below 3 years of age attending childcare full-time (30 hours per week or more).

Figure 47: Percentage of children up to 3 years of age cared for under formal arrangements by number of hours per week, 2017 ([50]) (Indicator 6)



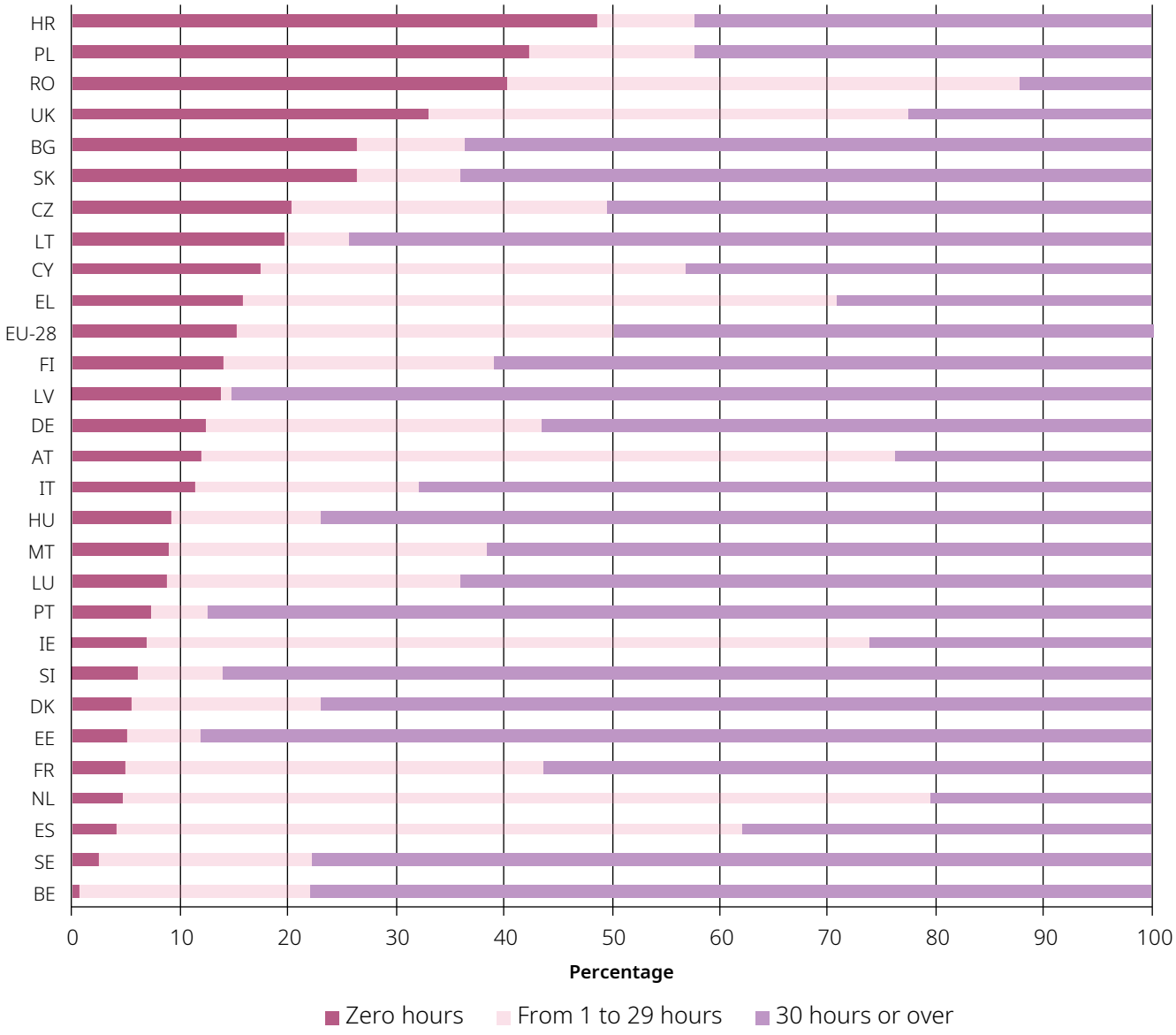
Source: EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal).

registering figures that were below this average. The lowest rates were observed in Croatia (52 %), Poland (58 %) and Romania (60 %), whereas Belgium (99 %), Sweden (98 %) and Spain (96 %) had the highest rates among Member States.

Although meeting the EU's Barcelona targets on formal childcare provision is indispensable to enable both parents to engage in paid work, it is not enough to achieve the dual-earner/dual-caregiver model. This is due to the discrepancy between what is considered full-time care (30 hours) and full-time work (40 hours). Other aspects to consider on the equal sharing of childcare by parents include the opening hours of childcare facilities, affordability and the

([50]) The Barcelona objective relating to the enrolment of children under the age of 3 in formal childcare is one of the indicators of the social scoreboard used to monitor the implementation of the European Pillar of Social Rights in Member States. *Social scoreboard — Monitoring EU Member States' performance under the European Pillar of Social Rights*, https://ec.europa.eu/commission/sites/beta-political/files/social-scoreboard-2018-country-reports_en.pdf

Figure 48: Percentage of children from 3 years of age to the mandatory school age cared for under formal arrangements by number of hours per week, 2017 (Indicator 7)



Source: EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal).

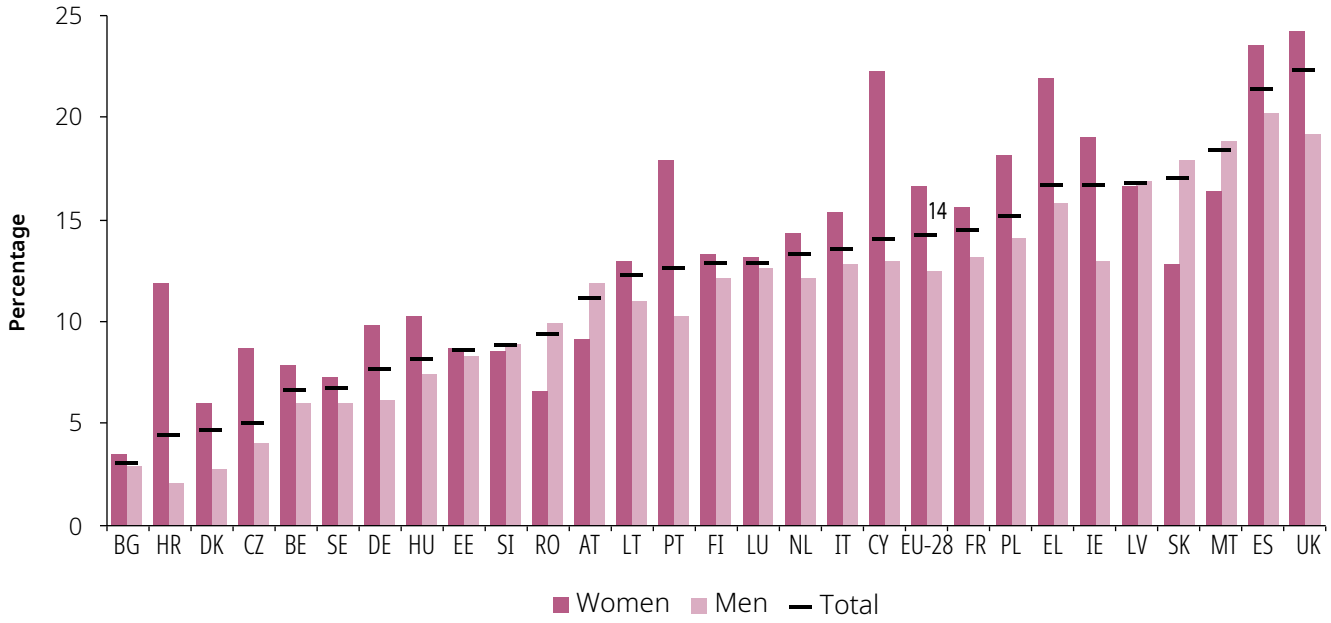
availability of services during school holidays (Crompton, 2006).

In the EU in 2016, 14 % of households reported that their needs for childcare services were unmet (Figure 49). This ranged from 22 % of United Kingdom households to 3 % of households in Bulgaria. The reporting of unmet needs for childcare varied according to the gender of the respondent, partially because it is a subjective measure. In the majority of Member States (21), women were more likely to report unmet need than men. Such gender differences in assessing whether the care needs of the household are being met were also observed in relation to LTC (Figure 44).

In the EU, on average, households headed by lone mothers are more likely to experience unmet needs for childcare services (19 %) than couples with children (14 %).

Affordability (50 %) is the most often cited reason for unmet need. The lack of available places (12 %), opening hours (8 %) and distance (5 %) pose less of a problem. In Cyprus and Ireland,

Figure 49: Percentage of women and men who report unmet household need for formal childcare services, 2016 (Indicator 8)



Source: EIGE calculations, EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services, 2016.

finances keep 85 % and 80 % of households from using formal childcare services, while this situation affects 71 % of households in the United Kingdom, 64 % in Romania and 61 % in Greece. This was consistent with EU-wide statistics. These showed that reliance on informal childcare (including grandparents and other relatives, friends or neighbours) was higher among low-income families, with 61 % of families in the poorest quartile dependent on family or friends compared to 50 % of families in the richest quartile. The use of formal childcare as the main type of childcare also increased with income, from 28 % in families in the poorest quartile to 45 % for families in the wealthiest quartile ([51]).

Analysis of EU-SILC data by the European Social Policy Network found that mothers' education levels were another important predictor of the use of formal childcare in all EU Member States. Children born to highly educated mothers were much more likely to attend formal childcare than children born to women with a lower level of education. In the United Kingdom, for example, this was up to six times more likely (Bradshaw, Skinner, & Van Lancker, 2015). These analyses highlight how entrenched socioeconomic inequities affect women's ability to access and benefit from services designed to promote work—life balance, and underline the need for an intersectional analysis on childcare policies to ensure access for families most in need.

Women's work and economic independence most impacted by childcare

How families organise themselves to look after children outside of formal childcare is likely to be influenced by gender roles and expectations. The EWCS shows that in households with the youngest child below 7 years of age, women spend an average of 32 hours a week on paid work compared to men's 41 hours, and 39 hours on unpaid work compared to men's 19 hours (Eurofound, 2017a, p. 117).

Additionally, while 10 % of women in the EU are working part-time or economically inactive due

([51]) EIGE calculations based on the EQLS, 2016. Main type of childcare used for youngest child among respondents with at least one child < 12 in household in EU-28. Formal childcare refers to formally contracted childcare and/or childcare facilities.

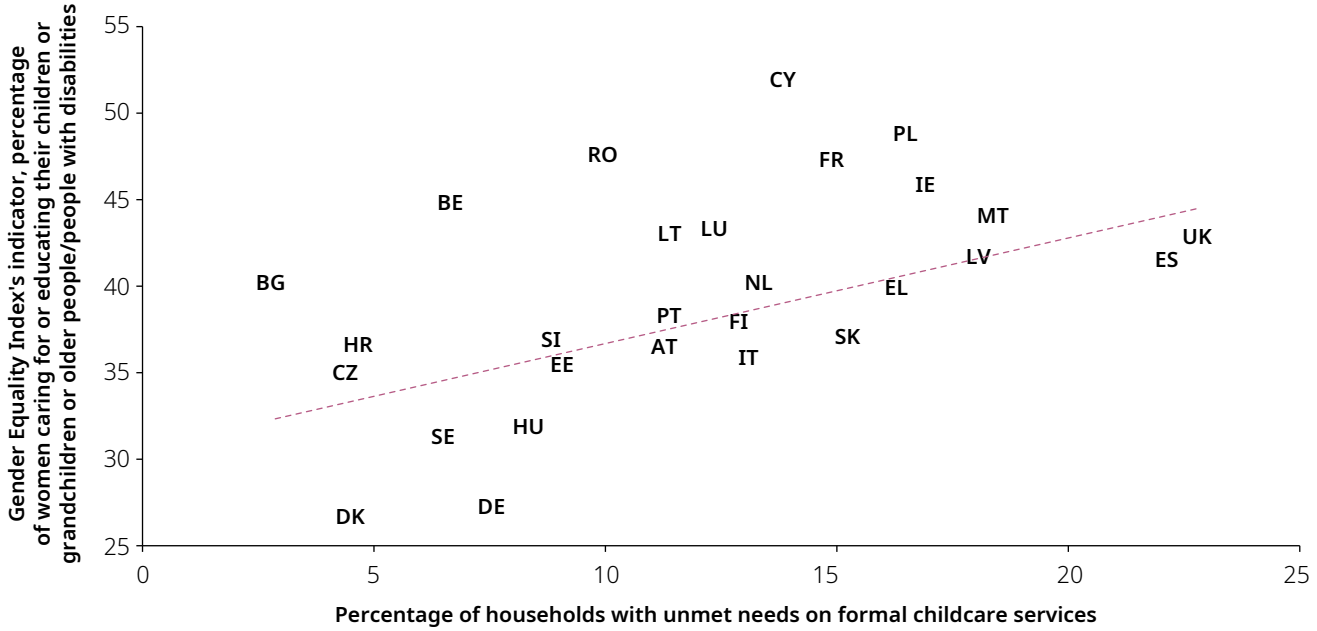
to care duties, this applies to less than 1 % of men ([52]). At Member State level, this situation affects 20 % of women in the Netherlands, 18 % in the United Kingdom, 16 % in Austria and 12 % in Ireland. The highest share of men working part-time or being economically inactive due to care duties is observed in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands (2 %), and Ireland (1 %).

Gaps in care services limit women's employment opportunities, while men's participation in the labour market remains unaffected by care responsibilities. As shown in Section 9.6, despite having greater access to flexibility when compared to women, men are less likely to be engaged in part-time work. Furthermore, women working part-time face difficulties transitioning to full-time work (Figure 63). This is further highlighted in Figure 50, in which unmet needs in childcare services strongly correlate with the percentage of women informally caring for their children or grandchildren every day (r = 0.5206 *). This points to the fact that Member States where families face difficulties with childcare provision are also Member States where women are highly engaged in informal care.

In the EU, the majority of adults are regularly involved in childcare, with 56 % of women and 51 % of men spending time caring for or educating their children or grandchildren every week ([53]). When examining the share of people looking after their own children (Figure 51), starker differences between women and men emerge, with 91 % of women involved compared to 78 % of men. Nationally, the most striking gender gaps are seen in Lithuania (26 p.p.), Greece (24 p.p.), Poland (23 p.p.), Spain (19 p.p.) and Romania (18 p.p.). Men are most likely to be involved in informal childcare in Sweden (95 % and on a par with women), Ireland (90 %), and Estonia, Portugal and Slovenia (89 %).

When looking at informal care within families with young children, the gender gap persists, with 97 % of working mothers of young children (0-6 years) likely to be providing care sev-

Figure 50: Percentage of women caring for or educating their children or grandchildren or older people/people with disabilities, every day for 1 hour or more (18+ workers) and percentage of households with unmet needs on formal childcare



Pearson correlation r = 0.4981 *; Spearman correlation r = 0.5206 *.
Note: EIGE's calculations, EU-SILC, Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

([52]) EIGE's calculation, EU LFS, 2017.
([53]) EIGE's calculation, EQLS, 2016, calculated from women and men who reported having children and/or grandchildren.

eral times a week compared to 87 % of working fathers with children of the same age.

Factors possibly affecting parents' ability to regularly care for their children include atypical work schedules, labour migration and custodial arrangements where there has been a separation. Research shows that such circumstances are likely to decrease fathers' engagement with their children and increase that of mothers (Hook & Wolfe, 2011).

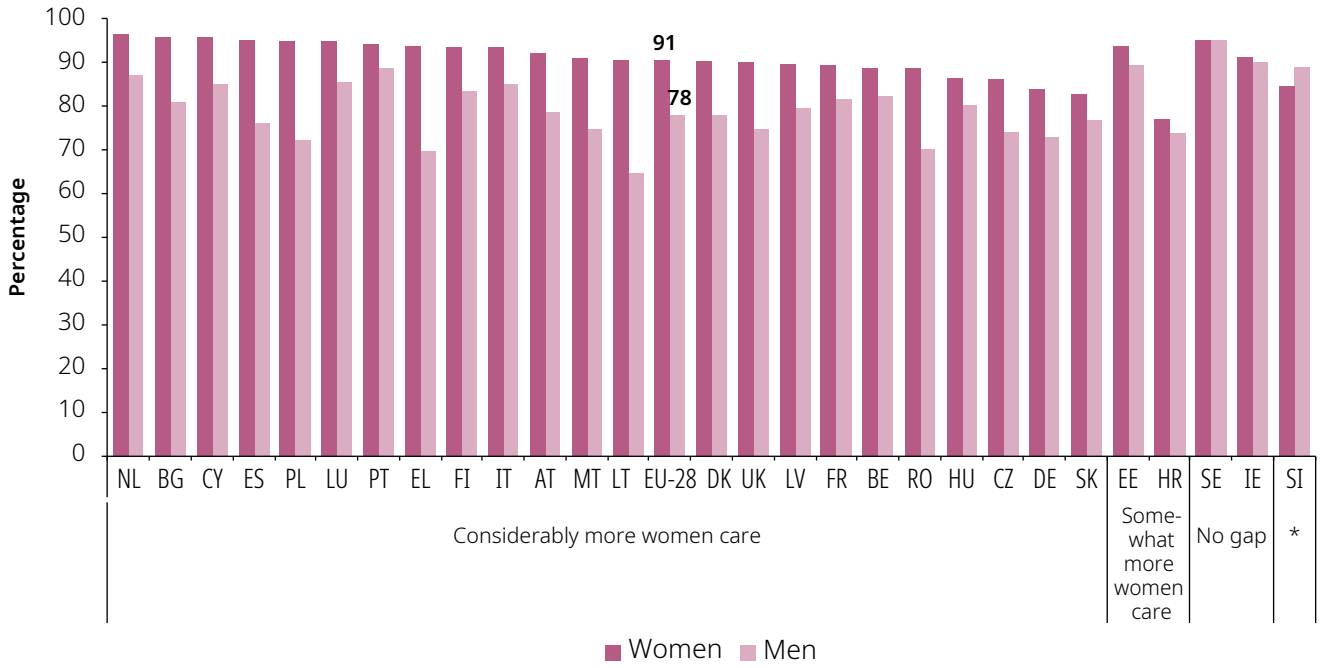
Grandparents' involvement in informal childcare is a key enabling factor for parents to combine work and family responsibilities.

Figure 52 shows that 23 % of women and 19 % of men in the EU spend time caring for and/or educating their grandchildren several times a week. While the gender gap (4 p.p.) is lower than that observed among women and men caring for their own children, the level of grandparents' involvement varies greatly among Member States. It ranged from 50 % for women and 46 % for men in Cyprus to 8 % of women and 7 % men in Sweden. As with other types of informal care, childcare provided by grandparents is highly gendered and more likely to be performed by women (Koslowski, 2009; Leopold & Skopek, 2014). Several factors such as gender norms, women's greater time availability due to shorter working lives (see Chapter 2) and greater likelihood of working part-time contribute to grandmothers' higher engagement in informal childcare.

The largest gender differences in care given by grandparents and to the disadvantage of women were seen in Romania (20 p.p.), Czechia (16 p.p.), Italy (11 p.p.) and Poland (11 p.p.). Men were more likely to care for their grandchildren than women in Luxembourg (7 p.p.), Germany (4 p.p.) and Latvia (3 p.p.).

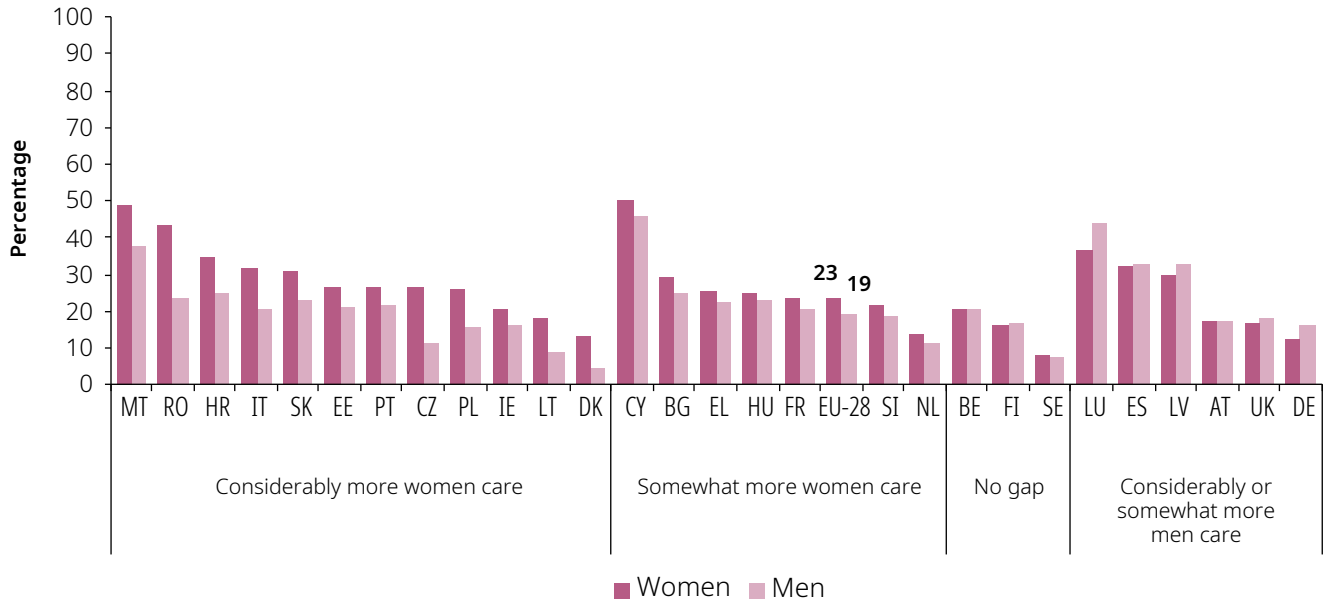
Across the EU, the negative impact of motherhood on women's employment is well documented and is seen to increase with the number of children. Regardless of education level, sector or marital status, the employment rate among childless women aged 20-49 years is

Figure 51: Percentage of women and men caring for their children at least several times a week, 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, EQLS, 2016 on the basis of women and men who reported having children.
Note: * Slovenia is noted to be the only Member State where slightly more men than women care. Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap: 'somewhat more' refers to a gender gap from 1 to 5 p.p.; 'no gap' refers to a gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p.; 'considerably more' refers to a gender gap as of 5 p.p.; within the group, Member States are sorted in the descending order of the share of women caring.

Figure 52: Percentage of women and men caring for their grandchildren at least several times a week, 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, EQLS, 2016 on the basis of women and men who reported having children.
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Somewhat more': gender gap 1-5 p.p. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in the descending order of the share of women caring.

relatively on a par with that of men. However, employment gender gaps are dramatically higher among men and women with children, and increase with the size of the family. They range from 2 p.p. among people with no children to 15 p.p. with one child, 19 p.p. with two children and 29 p.p. for women and men with three or more children ([54]). While employment among fathers is higher than that of men without children, the opposite is true for women.

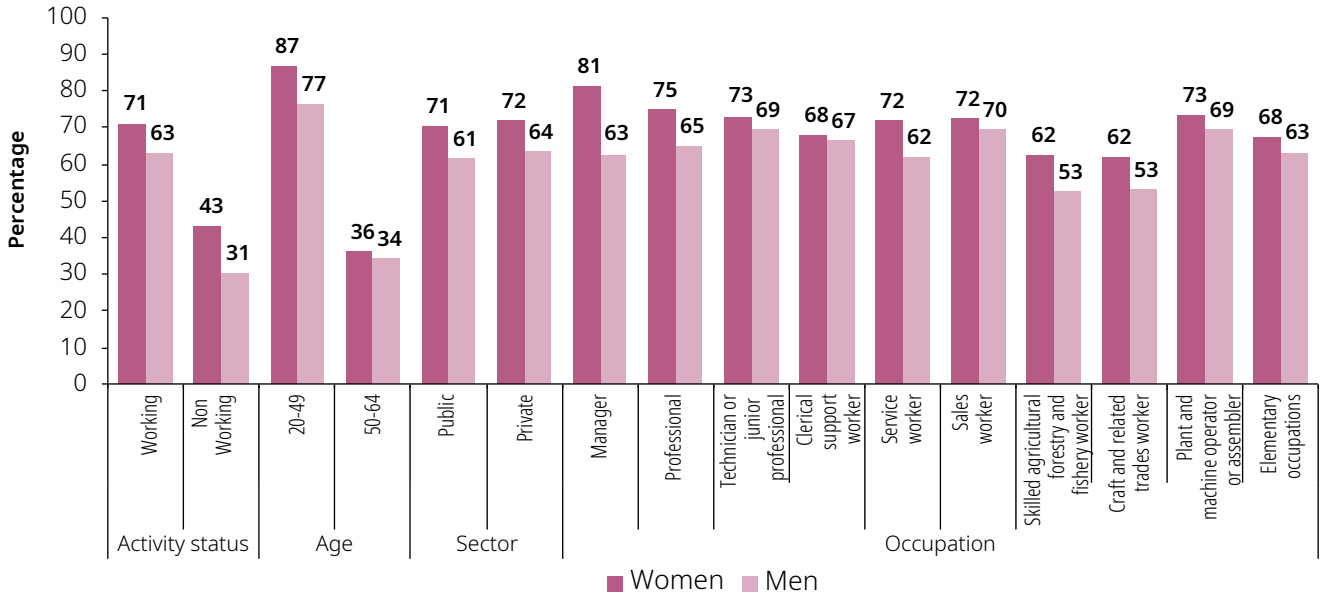
Figure 53 highlights that gender gaps on providing childcare to children or grandchildren remain regardless of professional circumstances. While the gap between working women and men in the EU in 2016 was 8 p.p., the gap between non-working women and men was 13 p.p. The most striking gender difference was observed among managers (19 p.p.). This highlights that even when placed in demanding professional occupations, women are still expected to combine informal childcare with professional responsibilities to a far greater extent than men.

Figure 54 shows that working women were more likely to be involved in caring for their children or grandchildren several times a week than working men in 24 Member States. Stark gender differences are observed in Malta (20 p.p.), Austria (16 p.p.), Greece (16 p.p.) and Poland (14 p.p.). Only in Ireland are women and men equally likely to care for children while being employed. In four Member States (SE, LV, EE, SI), employed men are slightly more likely to be engaged in caring than employed women.

EIGE's recent work on gender inequalities in pay has highlighted that across different life stages, gender gaps in net monthly earnings are greatest for women with younger children. While the overall gender pay gap in the EU stands at 31 p.p. (in favour of men), it reaches 48 p.p. among couples with children below the age of seven — the highest level observed across the different life stages (EIGE, 2019c, p. 16). Among couples with children between 7-12 years of age, the gender pay gap is lower at 44 p.p., but remains considerably higher than among couples without children or when compared to other

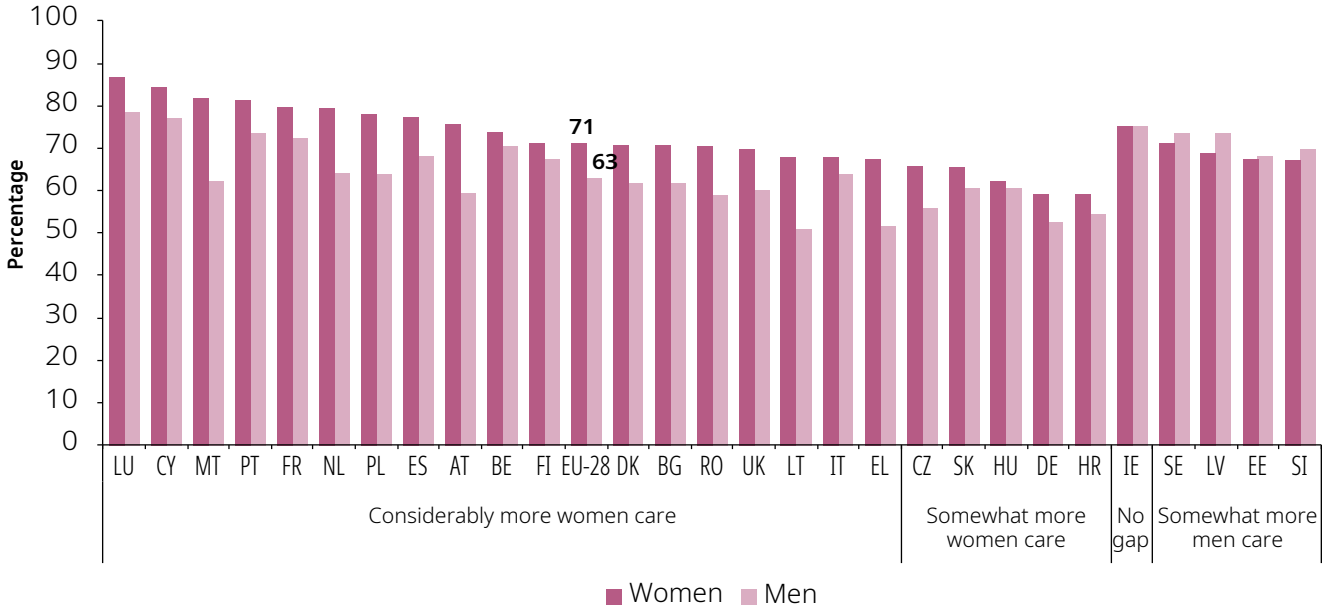
([54]) Eurostat (lfst_hheredch).

Figure 53: Percentage of women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week, by activity status, age, sector and occupation (18+), EU-28, 2016



Source: EIGE's calculation, EQLS, 2016.

Figure 54: Percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week (18+) (Indicator 10)



Source: EIGE's calculation, EQLS, 2016.
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Somewhat more': gender gap 1-5 p.p. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

life stages. With this particular life stage associated with women's earnings levelling off and a notable increase in men's earnings, family formation, therefore, implies an earnings 'penalty' for mothers and a 'reward' for fathers, a finding consistently observed in wider research (EIGE, 2017c, p. 23; ILO, 2018b).

Research also demonstrates that women's engagement in unpaid care throughout their lives, often at the cost of their participation in the labour market, has severe implications for their economic independence. It is a key factor in women's higher risk of poverty in older age (see Chapter 3).

9.5. Transport and public infrastructure

Women rely more on public infrastructure for work—life balance

Access to quality and sustainable public infrastructure such as care and educational facilities, health services and transportation is fundamental to people's well-being and participation in social and economic activities. The complex interplay between mobility, out-of-home activities, care responsibilities and paid work underscores the critical role of public infrastructure in determining employment opportunities for women and men and in balancing paid work with other life duties and needs.

Traditional gender roles assigning women to care work, paid or unpaid, result in women using and contributing to public infrastructure more than men (OECD, 2019). For public infrastructure to benefit the whole population, its design, location and accessibility should take into account the differences in gender needs.

Due to the scope of this analysis, and given that women's and men's access to healthcare (see Chapter 7), care services (Sections 9.3 and 9.4) and educational facilities (see Chapter 4 and Section 9.7) are covered elsewhere, greater focus is put herein on other physical public infrastructure, and in particular on transport.

Both transport and related travel behaviour, as well as the presence and quality of other facilities and services, are highly relevant to the analysis of work—life balance and gender equality. The existing literature provides much evidence on how transport and commuting explicitly support work—life balance. However, the use and accessibility of other public infrastructure facilities and services in relation to work—life balance per se have not been as extensively examined as gender and employment (Schwanen & de Jong, 2008).

Nonetheless, limited availability of gender-disaggregated data on physical public infrastructure means that the current scoreboard (Section 9.1) contains only one transport-related indicator. It measures the time women and men spend on commuting between home and work. A number of other aspects regarding transportation and travel behaviour can also be captured through such information as the average time women and men spend on various categories of travelling or the gender differences in the mode of transport typically used, which are also discussed in this section.

Commuting patterns reflect and perpetuate gender roles at home and at work

Due to existing gender inequalities across various domains of life, women and men have different access to transport and public infrastructure, which affects them differently. A large body of academic literature has demonstrated significant gender differences in the travel patterns and behaviour of women and men, in particular in their journey to work (EIGE, 2016a). For example, women are more likely to travel shorter distances than men and undertake more complex and multi-purpose trips (CIVITAS, 2014).

These travel patterns are the result of women's dual role in work and care, as well as the unequal distribution of household chores (Blumen, 1994; EIGE, 2016a). Greater household responsibilities mean that women are more likely to work shorter hours (part-time) and closer to their home so as to be able to fulfil other tasks, including care and shopping (Bowling, Göllner, & O'Dwyer, 1999). In this respect, women with young children are particularly disadvantaged regarding job choice and location because of the space-time fixity of work, childcare and other household tasks. This constrained mobility makes it harder for women to participate in the labour market on the same footing as men, in turn increasing the gender pay gap and women's risk of economic dependency and poverty (Blumen, 1994). Men's lower engagement in care and other household activities reflects their higher focus on successful and stable career pathways, accompanied by greater options on commuting type or time.

Commuting is not only necessary for people to reach their work place, it also gives them more freedom to choose positions that suit their educational background, even if it means travelling further. Men typically spend somewhat more time commuting and are also more likely to engage in linear, single-purpose trips (to and from work), in contrast to women. Overall, on average in the EU, commuting to and from work constitutes close to 30 % of all daily travelling time for women and close to 40 % for men. Travel related to shopping and other services, however, takes nearly a quarter of all travel time for women but less than one fifth of men's ([55]). Evidently, these differences indicate travelling being a wider reflection of gendered structures in both the labour market and the private sphere.

In time actually spent, women's daily commuting time (to and from work total) was 39 minutes on average in the EU in 2015, and 44 minutes for men (Figure 55). In line with wider literature (Crane, 2007), the referred commuting time does not directly reflect travel distances or travel modes, which may perpetuate further gender differences. About-the-same commuting time can entail major differences in travel distances as well as in speed and costs associated with the differing transport modes used to reach workplaces. Among Member States, the longest commuting time for women was noted in Denmark (48 minutes), and for men in the United Kingdom (58 minutes). The shortest commuting times were observed in Cyprus, for both women and men. In seven Member States (AT, DE, IE, BE, LV, UK, SE), where gender gaps on commuting time were much more notable, average commuting times, especially for men, were also longer compared to Member States with smaller or near-equal gender gaps (e.g. CY, PT, IT, BG, EL).

Figure 55: Average number of minutes per day women and men spend commuting to and from work (15+), 2015 (Indicator 11)

Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.
Note: The EWCS questions applies only to the working population; Member States are grouped on the basis of gender gaps in commuting time. 'Somewhat more': gender gap 2-5 minutes. 'Notably more': > 5 minutes. * Estonia is the only Member State where women commute somewhat more. Dashed lines refer to average commuting time by women and men within the respective group of Member States.

([55]) EIGE calculation based on Eurostat Harmonised European Time-Use Survey (HETUS), 2010 (Tus_00hhstatus). 'Time spent, participation time and participation rate in the main activity by sex and household composition', with data including information on 13 EU Member States, as well as Norway and Serbia.

Given the often subtle but complex ways mobility and gender intersect, differences in commuting times are more pronounced among certain groups of women and men. For example, commuting times are longer among employees with a higher level of educational qualifications, especially among men in the prime earning years of 35 and above (Lee & McDonald, 2003). This underlines once again the importance of commuting as an enabler of accessibility to desirable jobs.

On average in the EU, commuting times were consistently shorter for women than men across various family and work dimensions (Figure 56). More notable dips in mobility were seen among women living in couples with dependent children. At the same time, lone parents had longer commuting times, potentially from increased efforts to combine family and work at any cost. When taking into account different patterns of employment, the mobility of women in self-employment or in marginal part-time work was particularly constrained. In addition, the commuting times of women working in the private sector were shorter than those of equivalent men and those of women and men in the public sector.

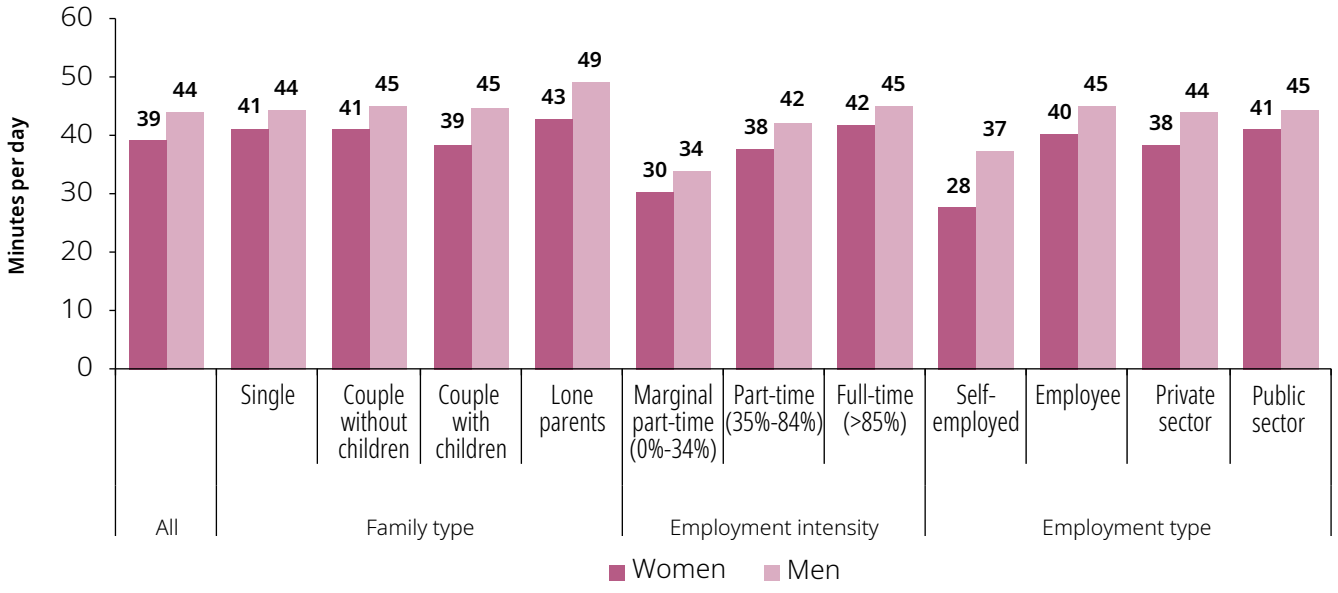
Gender differences in commuting times across various categories of employment intensity might reflect not only overall gender segregation in the labour market (see Chapter 2), but also the influence of flexible working arrangements. As noted in Section 9.6, despite lower overall availability of flexible working arrangements (particularly in the public sector), women's higher take-up of such arrangements in comparison to men's take-up is a strong reflection of women's push for balance in paid work and household duties.

Equal access to transport can empower women

Women use cars less and public transport more often than men

Commuting time is not only strongly linked to the entire Gender Equality Index ([56]), but also to two of its domains — time and work — as demonstrated by Figure 57. It can be viewed as an enabling factor for gender equality across various domains of life, particularly regarding women's and men's employment opportunities and their access to high-quality jobs.

Figure 56: Average number of minutes per day women and men spend commuting to and from work (15+) by family type and work attributes, EU-28, 2015



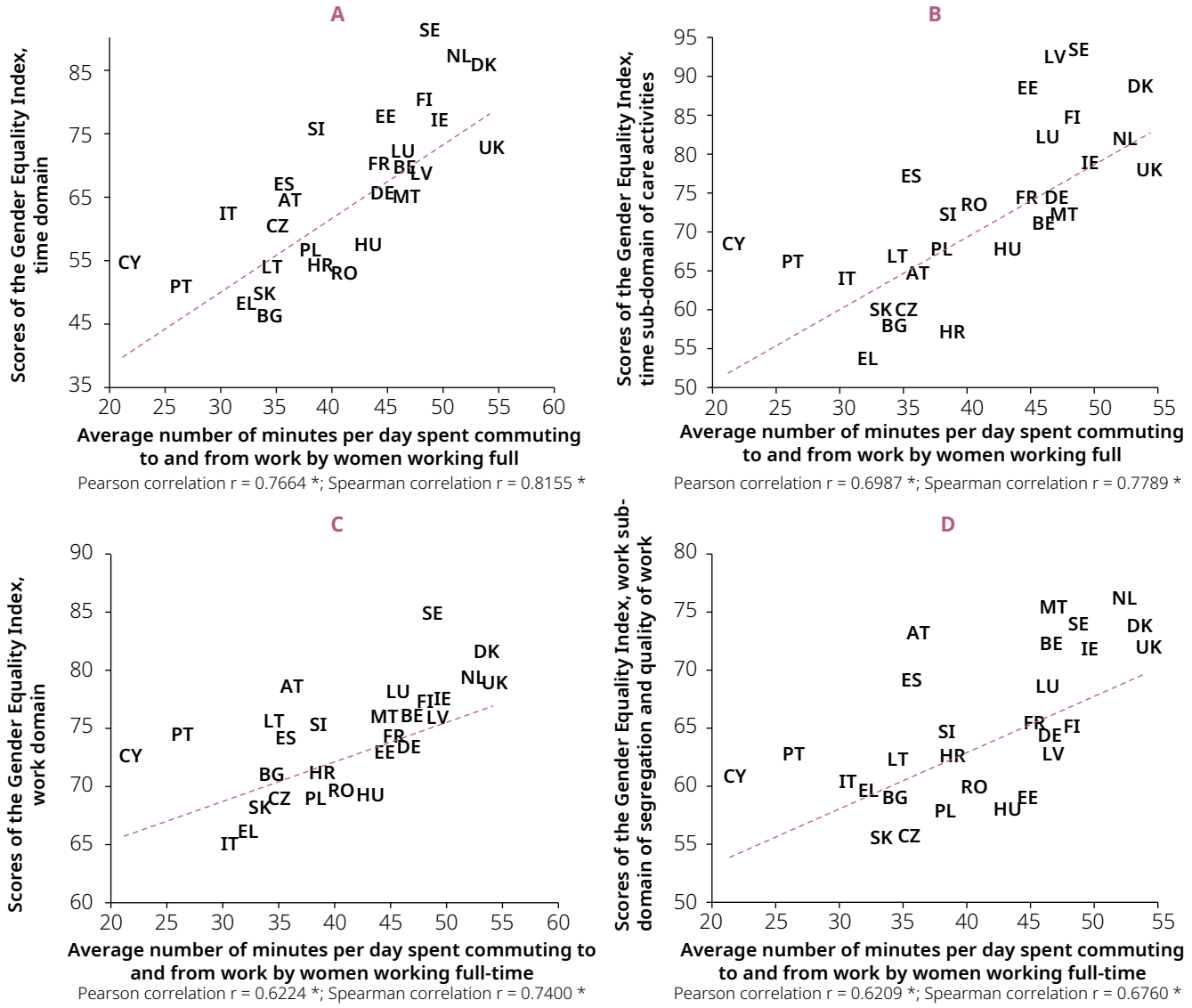
Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.

([56]) Pxcorr r = 0.6427 *, linking overall gender-equality scores and commuting time of women who work with full-time intensity (> 85 %).

In the domain of time, the strongest link is with the scores for the sub-domain of care activities. This suggests that in Member States where women's mobility is higher, women and men are more equally involved in caring for children and other dependents, as well as in household activities. This means that gender equality on how time is spent, even on issues such as commuting and mobility, has knock-on effects for equality in other areas of life. An important additional example is in the domain of work. Higher commuting times for women go hand in hand with higher gender-equality scores for the sub-domain of segregation and quality of work. This shows that women's greater mobility is not only possible, unleashing a more equitable share of care activities in the process, it also leads to better and more diversified job options that reduce gender gaps in the world of work.

It should also be noted that although the correlations in Figure 57 focus on linkages between the commuting time of women who work full-time, equivalent linkages could be established with the commuting time of men working full-time. In addition, respective associations could be displayed on average commuting times pointing to mobility as a strong predictor of women's and men's overall engagement in economic and social life, irrespective of working intensity or family settings. In general, the existence of these linkages suggests that commuting time acts as a strong

Figure 57: Gender Equality Index scores and average number of minutes per day spent commuting to and from work by women working full-time (15+), 2015



Note: EIGE's calculations, EWCS (2015), Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

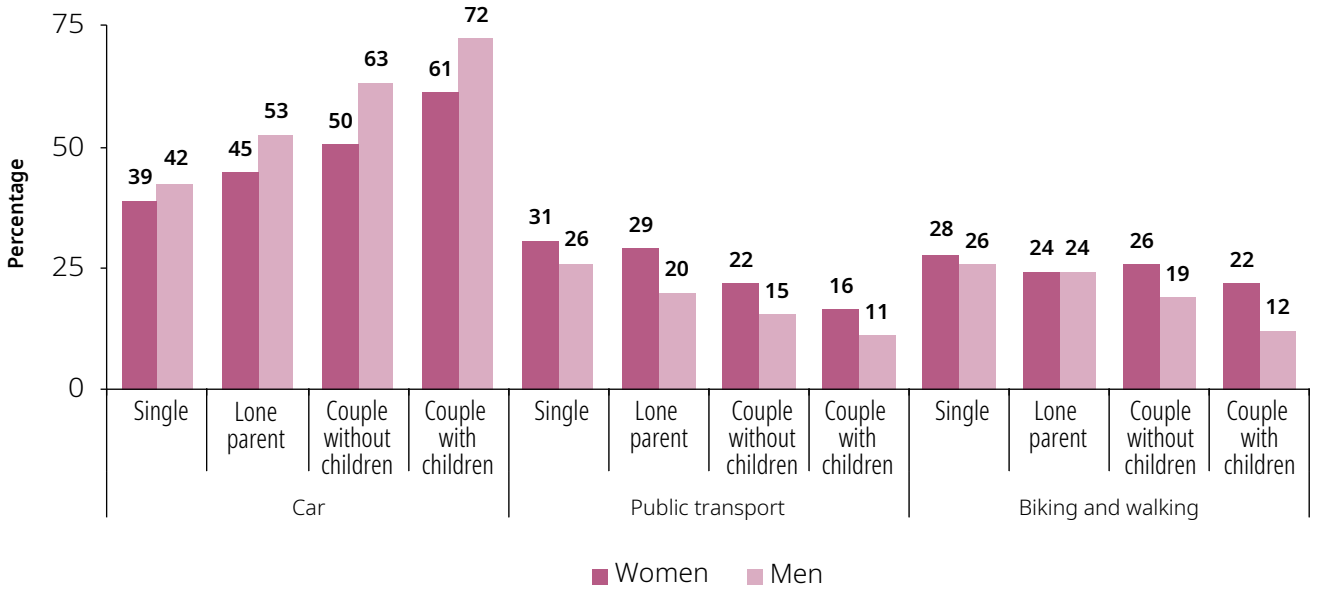
enabling factor in balancing paid work and care activities, thereby influencing gender-equality outcomes across Member States.

Besides commuting time, there are substantial differences in the mode of transportation used by women and men. Data shows that men have access to faster and more comfortable modes of transport, most notably private cars. A number of studies suggests that the allocation of a car within a household is based on deeply rooted gender norms, with the result that cars are more likely to be attributed to men (Blumen, 1994). Access to a private vehicle tends to grant men access to a wider range of labour-market opportunities, as distance and time to commute are not obstacles. Consequently, men are more likely to be employed further away from their home than women. In contrast, women use cars less and public transport more than men, notably, for example, due to lower (personal) incomes (Blumen, 1994; Bowling et al., 1999; CIVITAS, 2014; Lang, 1992; Uteng & Cresswell, 2016). It is also argued (Blumen, 1994) that preference given to men in the use of the family car is associated with men's higher income. This leads to a vicious circle, as women's inaccessibility to a car often restricts their employment opportunities to poorly paid occupations that are found closer to their home.

Figure 58 shows that larger families in the EU were more likely to have cars as the most typically used transport mode. Men used cars more often than women regardless of family type, with gender gaps wider among families with children and childless couples than single people. This reflects the greater needs and (income) possibilities of such families. Couples with children, for example, rely on cars as a means to better balance work and private-life needs. Lone parents with children, however, were less likely to be able to afford a car (see Chapter 3 as regards income situation), reporting no alternative mode of transport available to them other than public transport (18 %) or walking (22 %) ([57]). In general, access to public transport in the EU was viewed as either very or rather difficult for about a quarter of women and men with lower incomes (first quartile), as well as for a fifth of women and men with higher incomes (fourth quartile) ([58]).

Generational factors also come into play on the link between gender and transport modes. For example, single women and men, who are mainly

Figure 58: Distribution of women and men by mode of transport typically used (15+, %), by household type, EU-28, 2014



Source: EIGE calculation based on Eurobarometer 82.2 data.

([57]) EIGE calculation based on Eurobarometer 82.2 (2014) data.
([58]) EIGE calculation based on EQLS data (2016).

those from younger age groups, were also most likely to resort to public transport, biking or walking (Figure 58). The largest gender gap among those typically using public transport was among lone parents, with women more dependent on it. Among those biking or walking, the gender gap was greatest among couples with children and those without, with women again more reliant on these transport modes.

Clearly, the travel and commuting statistics provided above highlight that women's access to private transport has a crucial impact on their economic autonomy, particularly given existing transport infrastructure. Lack of access to a car for daily use restricts women's employment options, while the longer travel times involved in the use of public transport makes it even more difficult for women, particularly lone mothers, to achieve a good work—life balance. As a result, it becomes increasingly necessary to reduce their working time, with consequences for their income levels and financial independence. It should be stressed that these findings reflect the current transport situation, which favours the use of private cars. At the same time, and given the gendered patterns of unpaid care and paid work division, the availability, accessibility and cost of currently available public transport is a particularly strong determinant of whether women and men can work, how much they can work and where. Rethinking (environmental) sustainability and greater investment in public transport infrastructure with these factors in mind could go some way to addressing gender inequalities in work—life balance.

The quality and safety of public transport are of importance too in determining how women and men use it. For example, sexual harassment on public transport is a major concern for women, impacting negatively on their overall mobility (Gardner, Cui, & Coiacetto, 2017). This is especially the case where there is no option to use a private car or to cycle, while walking carries security risks. Women with disabilities are particularly vulnerable targets of sexual assault on public transport (Iudici, Bertoli, & Faccio, 2017), adding to the multiple other challenges they face (see e.g. Chapters 2 and 3).

While this chapter highlights complexities and close links between transport/public infrastructure and its shaping of gender-equal outcomes across the various spheres of life, it is important to stress the need for cautious interpretation of the available data and in the given time frame. Tackling gender equality via improved access to public infrastructure and transport is not only about seeking the same opportunities for women and men, it is also about a sustained, forward-looking understanding of the relationship between gender and mobility (Hanson, 2010), and mobility and work. Commuting times between home and work, for example, could be less of an impediment to balancing work and life if opportunities for flexible working arrangements were greatly expanded (see Section 9.6). This would allow for a reallocation of how time is spent: from commuting to more time with families.

The future relationship between gender equality and mobility could also be affected by such developments as smart transportation and the impact of digitalisation on gender equality (EIGE, 2018d, 2019a). Lastly, if gender equality was better mainstreamed into public infrastructure developments, and with greater investment in public transport overall, private transport would play a less crucial role in determining job options. This would open more opportunities for a better work—life balance for both women and men (EIGE, 2016a) and reduce transport's environmental footprint.

9.6. Flexible working arrangements

Greater autonomy in setting work-time schedules — for some

The average weekly working hours of employees in the EU are on the decline as overall employment rates rise (see Chapter 2). Men's weekly working time decreased by 1 hour between 2008 and 2017 (from 41.0 to 40.0 hours). For women, their working week declined by 0.3 hours (or close to 20 minutes) — from 34.0 to 33.7 hours ([59]).

([59]) Eurostat (lfsa_ewhun2).

This working-time reduction reveals a general aspiration to close the gap between desired and actual working hours, with a fifth of Europeans dissatisfied with the balance between their work and personal lives (Eurobarometer, 2018). Furthermore, the relatively larger drop in working time for men reflects a growing phenomenon among them to strike a better work—life balance so that they are more able to care for children or dependent relatives (Akgunduz & Plantenga, 2012; Eurofound, 2017c, 2018b).

57 %

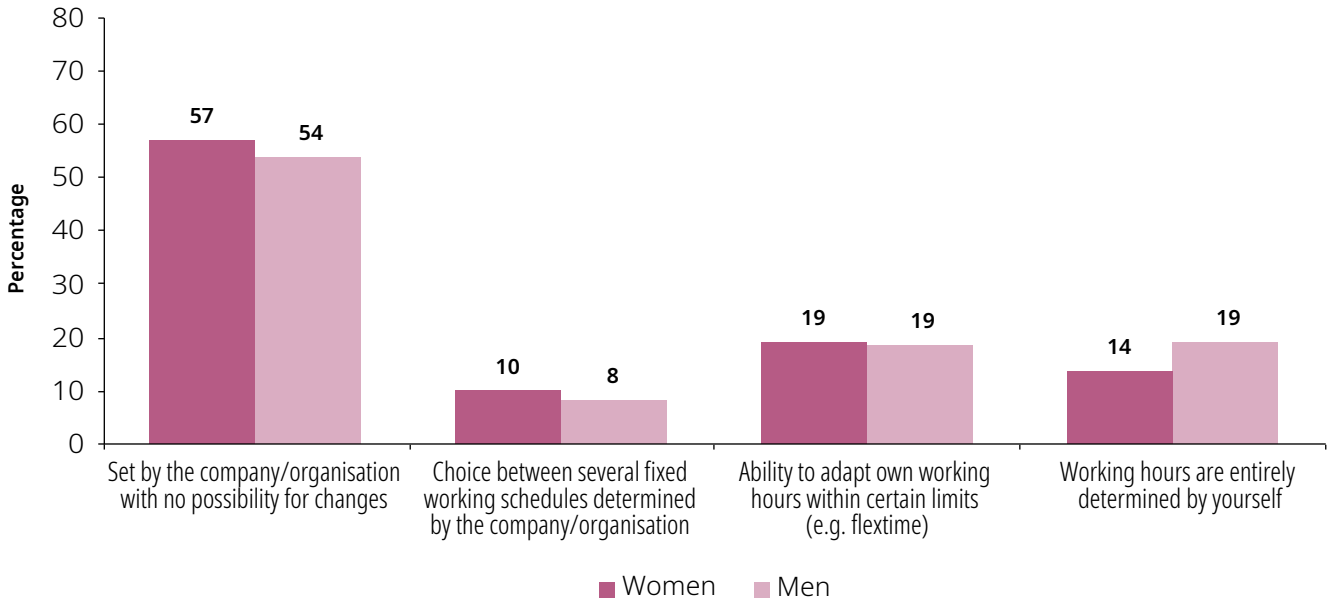
of women and 54 % of men in the EU are unable to change their work schedule

Flexible working arrangements (FWAs) provide greater possibilities for entering the labour market, retaining full-time jobs or striking a better work—life balance because they better match working hours to private life needs. Nearly half of part-time workers in the EU indicate they would be willing to move to full-time jobs if more FWAs were available (Eurobarometer, 2018). With only 42 % of people actually making use of available FWAs (Eurobarometer, 2018), greater attention must be paid to general availability as well as to barriers to take-up. These can include discouragement from management, stigmatisation, lack of support from colleagues or an expected negative career impact (Teasdale, 2013).

FWAs typically refer to flexibility on how much, when and where employees can work (Eurofound, 2017c; Laundon & Williams, 2018), and are viewed as a way to reduce tensions between the demands of work and private life. Historically, FWAs were introduced to facilitate women's greater participation in the labour market, and are still closely associated with the need for more time for household work and family responsibilities (Laundon & Williams, 2018; Leuze & Strauß, 2016). This enduring association is influencing the low uptake of certain FWAs by men (Laundon & Williams, 2018). Nonetheless, changes in the labour market increasingly position FWAs as an innovative tool for companies to boost productivity and attract and retain employees, presenting a win-win situation for both employees and employers (Berkery, Morley, Tiernan, Purtill, & Parry, 2017; Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012; Wheatley, 2017).

Despite an increasing availability of FWAs (Eurobarometer, 2018; Plantenga et al., 2010; Wheat-

Figure 59: Percentage of women and men by ability to set their own working-time arrangements (16+), EU-28, 2015 (Indicator 12)



Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.

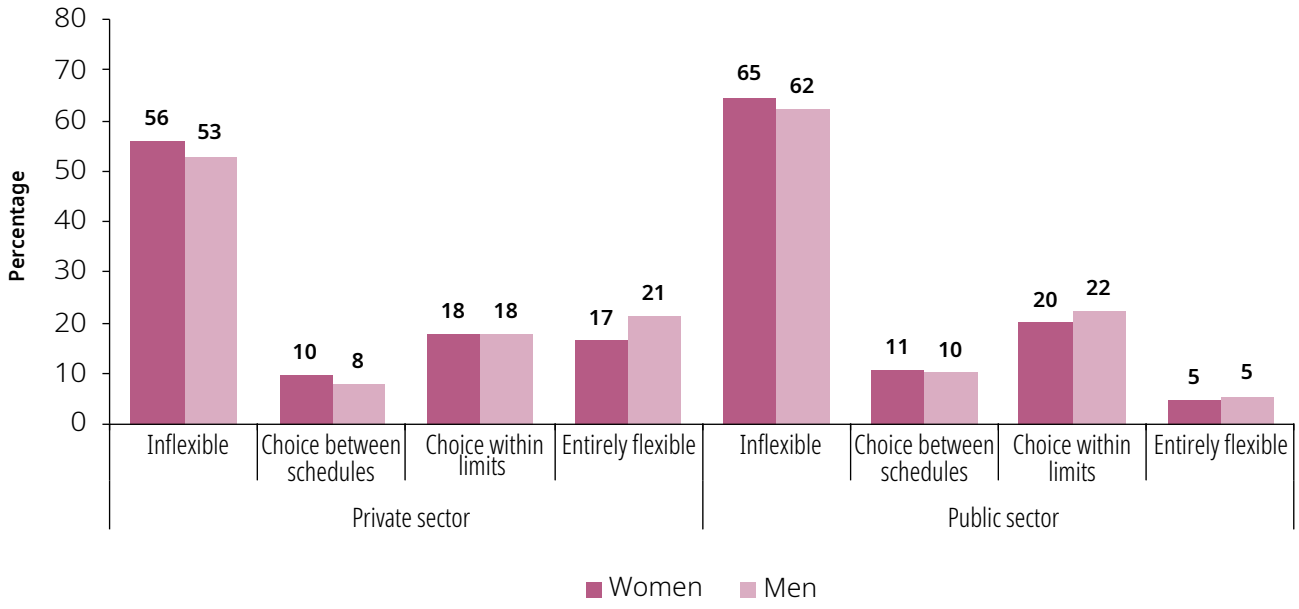
ley, 2017), gender differences on their actual usage remain highly visible. For example, if 84 % of women employees predominantly work in the office, only 75 % of men employees do so ([60]); if about a quarter of men employees often work in clients' premises, vehicles or other sites, only about one tenth of women do so. In 2015 in the EU, 57 % of women and 54 % of men also had no possibility of changing their working-time provisions, while 14 % of women and 19 % of men overall could completely determine their own working hours (Figure 59). In addition, the availability of working-time arrangements varies according to job sectors, providing a distinct link to gender segregation in the labour market.

Private sector more flexible than public — but men benefit most in both

In the EU, the public sector accounts for 27 % of all female and about 16 % of all male employees ([61]). Despite the significant percentage difference, a similar share of women (65 %) and men (62 %) had no flexibility in setting their working-time arrangements, meaning that a disproportionate number of women are affected (Figure 60). When looking at different degrees of flexibility in working-time arrangements, the public sector had by far the smallest share of employees (5 %) — both women and men — who were entirely able to determine their working hours by themselves.

In the private sector, the share of those with inflexible working-time arrangements was about 10 p.p. less (56 % of women and 53 % of men) than in the public sector. As 78 % of all male employees and 65 % of all female employees in the EU work in the private sector ([62]), this means that the sector not only surpasses the public sector in providing working-time arrangements that enhance work—life balance, it has also given men greater access

Figure 60: Percentage of women and men by ability to set their own working-time arrangements by sector (15+), EU-28, 2015



Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.
Note: 'Inflexible' corresponds to the original category 'Set by the company/organisation with no possibility for changes'. 'Choice between schedules': 'Choice between several fixed working schedules determined by the company/organisation'. 'Choice within limits': 'Adaptability of working hours within certain limits (e.g. flexitime)'. 'Entirely flexible': 'Working hours are entirely determined by yourself'. Data on men's working hours arrangements as regards 'choice within limits' within not-for-profit organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) is of low reliability.

([60]) EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.
([61]) EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.
([62]) EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015) data.

than women to flexible work. Furthermore, 17 % of women and 21 % of men private-sector employees in the EU have complete flexibility in setting their own working hours, with 27 % of women and 26 % of men having access to some flexibility (i.e. choice between schedules or choice within limits). This figure compares to 31 % of women and 32 % of men having some flexibility and 5 % of women and men having complete flexibility in the public sector. Given that women shoulder a higher level of care duties, any flexibility difference between genders, combined with high rates of take-up among women, implies a 'push' to take alternative routes to accommodate home responsibilities, for example by leaving jobs or reducing working hours. This has substantial financial impacts, including gender gaps in pay.

In a few Member States (SE, DK, NL), both women and men in the public sector have a very high level (+ 50 % of employees) of access to considerable working-time flexibility. This includes options on complete or a certain amount of flexibility in setting their own working hours (Figure 61). In the Netherlands, more women than men in the public sector had such flexibility. In a few other Member States (BE, FR, LU, EE), women and men respectively had about roughly similar levels of flexibility in working-time arrangements in the private and public sectors, though women in the public sector had less access to flexibility than women in the private sector.

In the rest of the EU, the private sector considerably outperformed the public sector in the flexibility of working-time arrangements, with

Figure 61: Percentage of women and men with considerable flexibility to set their own working-time arrangements, by sector (15+), 2015

Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015).
Note: 'Considerable flexibility' covers two categories: 'Adaptability of working hours within certain limits (e.g. flexitime)' and 'Entirely flexible': 'Working hours are entirely determined by yourself'.

women predominantly having lower or about similar access to flexibility than men in each sector. In a few Member States, such as Latvia, Portugal, Malta or Bulgaria, more women than men in the public sector had considerable flexibility despite an overall low level of access (about or less than 10 %).

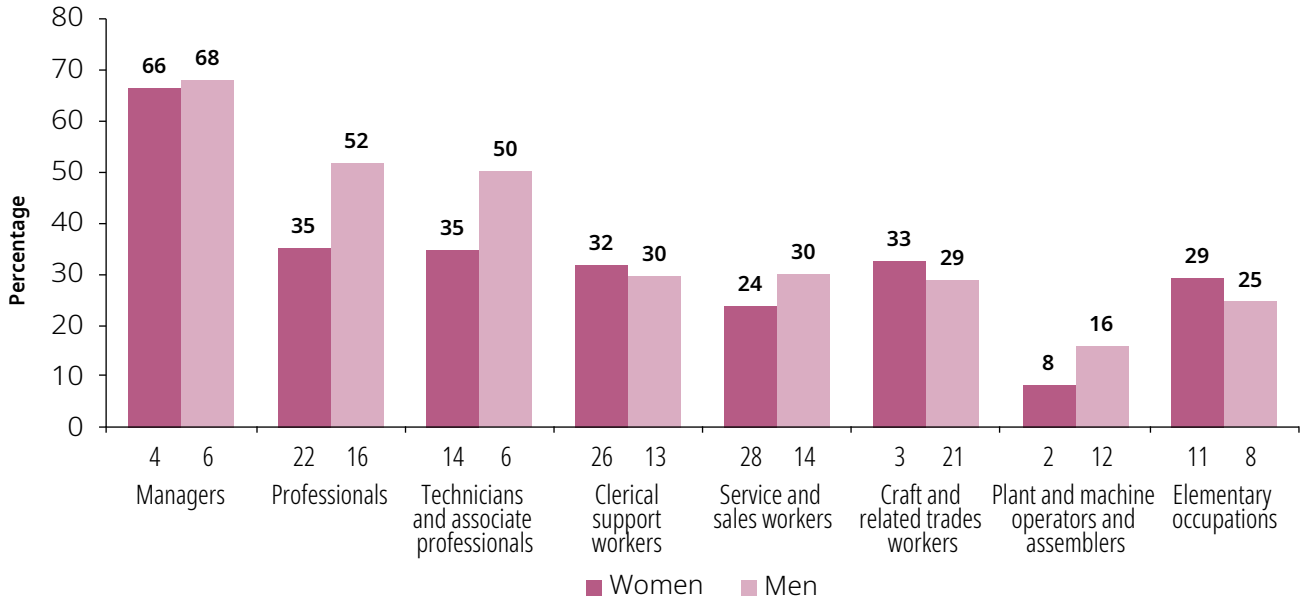
Occupation an important factor in accessing flexible work arrangements

Major differences in access to flexible working time exist not only across Member States and economic sectors but also across occupations. On average in the EU, more than 60 % of managers (women or men) have access to considerable (i.e. certain or complete) flexibility in setting their own working arrangements, though this occupational group is one of the smaller ones in the economy (Figure 62). Across other occupations, about a third of women at best have access to flexible working time compared to about half of men. For example, women have much lower access (35 %) than men (about 50 %) to flexibility in major occupational groups such as professionals, and technicians and associate professionals, which account for about 36 % of women's and about 22 % of men's employment. Just under a third of both women and men in the EU have access to flexible working-time arrangements in various occupations requiring a lower level of qualifications, such as clerical support workers, service and sales workers, craft and related trades workers or employees of elementary occupations. The lowest access to flexibility is seen among plant- and machine-operating workers, especially women (8 %).

Women have fewer opportunities to move from part-time to full-time jobs

The data on flexibility in working-time arrangements refers to the (potential) opportunity of access and not necessarily the actual take-up of such arrangements. Although the figures generally point to lower availability of FWAs for women, actual take-up is higher among women than men. It is also one of the 'penalties' that

Figure 62: Percentage of women and men with considerable flexibility to set their own working-time arrangements, by occupational group (15+), EU-28, 2015



Source: EIGE calculation based on EWCS (2015).

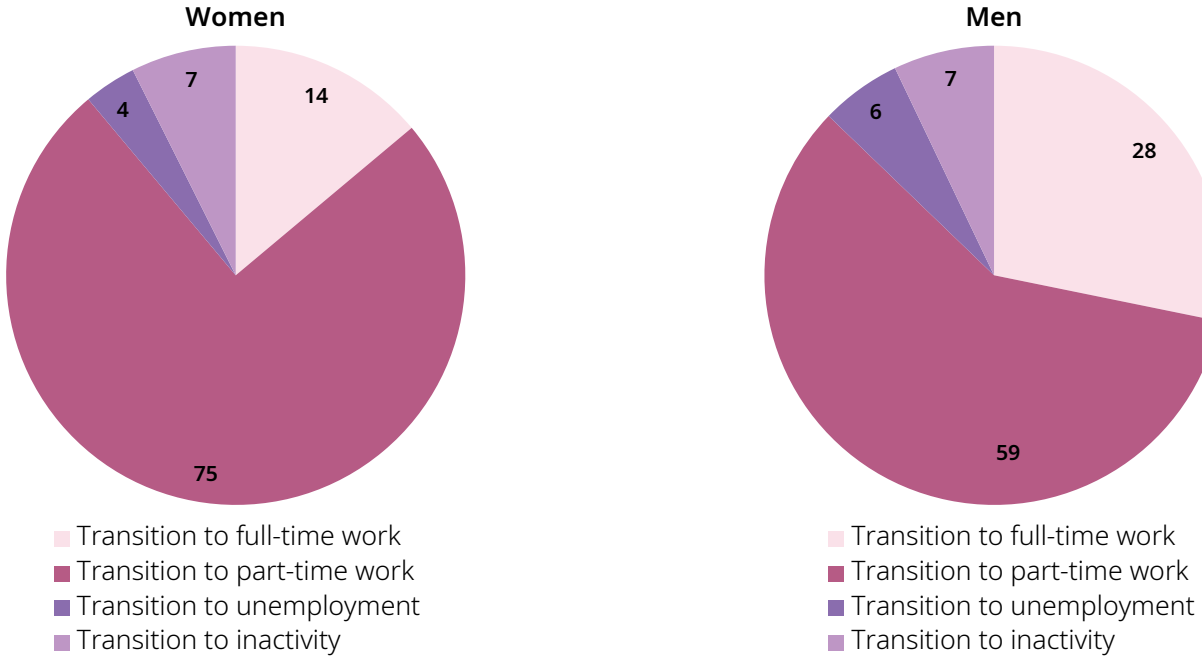
Note: 'Considerable flexibility' covers two categories: 'Adaptability of working hours within certain limits (e.g. flexitime)' and 'Entirely flexible': 'Working hours are entirely determined by yourself'. Occupational groups are distinguished on the basis of a 1-digit ISCO_08 codes; Percentages under the bars indicate the share of women and men that are employed in the respective occupational groups among the total of women and men in employment.

flexible work imposes on women's careers and lifelong earnings (EIGE, 2019c; OECD, 2016). In addition to take-up being shaped by gendered norms by which women disproportionately shoulder caring responsibilities, existing research notes a lack of supervisor support for actual utilisation of FWAs, or generally unsupportive organisational cultures on their take-up (McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, & Matz-Costa, 2012). FWAs might also be closely linked to the design of national public policies, such as parental leave, which provide highly varied employee entitlements across Member States (see Section 9.2). For example, parents in Sweden can use their parental-leave entitlements to shorten their working hours (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2018), making FWAs subject not only to organisational but also to wider national public-policy contexts.

Women's generally lower access to flexibility, especially in certain Member States and occupational groups, implies that the actual work—life balance arrangements for women and men are not yet based on the principle of equal opportunities, resulting in more severe consequences for women's participation in the labour market. This, among other things, influences a particularly high prevalence of part-time employment among women (see Chapter 2), as well as reduced possibilities for transition between part-time and full-time work.

In 2017, four times more women than men aged 20-64 years in the EU worked part-time (31 % of women compared to 8 % of men in total employment) ([63]). This corresponds to more than 31 million women and more than 9 million men. Despite the pool of men working part-time being considerably smaller, their opportunities for moving to full-time jobs are much higher in comparison to those of women. Between 2016 and 2017, 59 % of men compared to 75 % of women working part-time maintained that status (Figure 63). Consequently, 28 % of men and only 14 % of women in part-time employment moved into full-time jobs. The transition rates indicate that despite an overall improvement in the labour-market situation in recent years, men's opportunities for progression into full-time work improved (26 % in 2015) considerably more than for women (13 % in 2015).

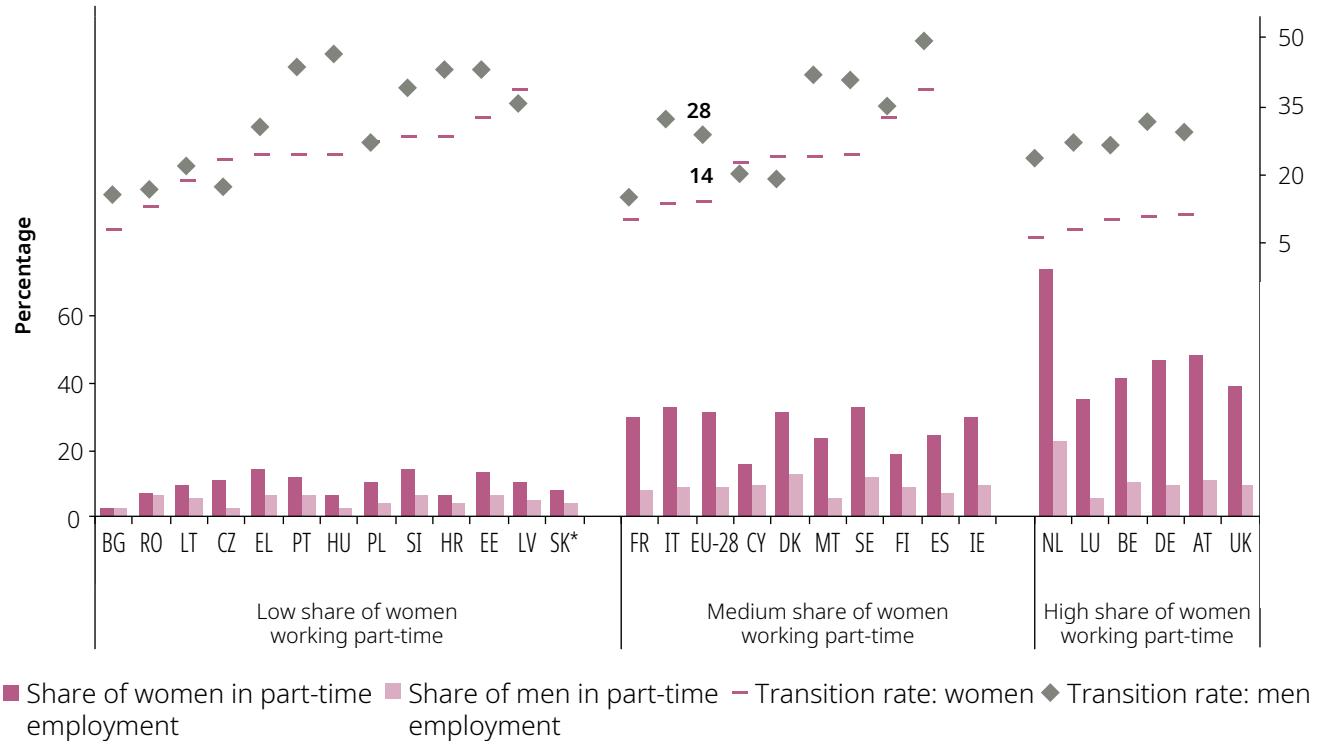
Figure 63: Percentage of women and men who moved from part-time work to various activity statuses (16+), EU-28, 2017



Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvhl30).

([63]) Eurostat (lfsi_pt_a).

Figure 64: Percentage of women and men who moved from part-time work to full-time work (16+), 2017 (Indicator 13)



Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvhl30) and (lfsi_pt_a).
Note: * Reference year of transition rates in Slovakia is 2016 due to lack of data for 2017. Member States are grouped on the basis of women's share in part-time employment. 'Medium': 15-35 % of all employed women being in part-time employment, with due implications on thresholds 'low' and 'high'. Within the group, Member States are sorted in the ascending order of women's transition rate from part-time to full-time jobs.

Across Member States, a larger share of part-time employment within the economy, especially among women, is associated with less dynamic transitions into full-time jobs (Figure 64). In 2017, this was particularly the case in Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, Luxembourg, Germany and the United Kingdom, where the share of women in part-time work was especially large (from 35 % in LU to 74 % in NL) and transition rates for women into full-time jobs were very low (from 6 % in NL to 11 % in AT). With the exception of Czechia, Cyprus and Denmark, men's transition rates from part-time to full-time jobs were notably higher compared to women's in all Member States.

The largest gender gaps in part-time to full-time transition rates (at least three times lower for women) were noted in the same group of Member States that also had a high share of women working part-time (Figure 64). Furthermore, gender gaps in transition rates were also very wide in the Member States where men's chances of finding full-time jobs are especially high (e.g. HU, PT, MT) or in a number of other Member States where part-time employment accounts for a significant share of the labour market (e.g. IT, SE).

Besides national labour-market characteristics, research findings (Gash, 2008; Kelle, Simonson, & Gordo, 2017) identify parenthood as a major constraint on the ability of part-time workers to move into full-time jobs, especially in Member States with limited or unaffordable childcare provision (e.g. UK, DE). As noted in Section 9.4, 10 % of women in the EU are either economically inactive or work part-time because they are looking after children or adults with additional needs. This situation affects only 0.6 % of men, underlining how the gendered nature of informal childcare disproportionately impacts women's employment.

The variability of transition rates between part-time and full-time work across and within Member States is also influenced by other factors. National policy designs, especially those that support maternal employment, are noted not only for strongly influencing opportunities but also for shaping preferences at individual and society levels (Gash, 2008). Empirical research shows that women who are in a weaker economic — and usually also negotiating — position within their partnerships are more likely to move to and remain in part-time jobs. However, this pattern is highly sensitive to the wider institutional settings of the country (Dieckhoff, Gash, Mertens, & Gordo, 2016). For instance, the institutional settings of the United Kingdom, as compared to those of Denmark and France, considered to be supportive of maternal employment, are empirically proven to be a major constraint on United Kingdom part-time workers with children moving into full-time jobs (Gash, 2008). Similarly, research shows that the German home-care allowance, a benefit for parents to stay and take care of children at home, is a deterrent to using formal childcare and to either remaining in or re-entering the labour force (Kelle et al., 2017).

Statistical evidence shows there is a considerable share of people with unfulfilled employment preferences, but often these preferences are highly influenced by the underlying gender norms on how women and men perceive their labour-market engagement given the gendered distribution of other duties. For example, despite women's disproportionate representation in part-time employment in the EU, with ensuing pay consequences, only 23 % of women (compared to 36 % of men) working part-time in 2018 indicated that this was an involuntary choice and that they actually wished to work more ('longer') hours ([64]). This suggests, among other things, that there are continuing incompatibilities in institutional support for gender equality in labour-market participation.

In general, the impact of FWAs, be it part-time or otherwise, is multidimensional. For individuals, accessing FWAs is often linked to negative career consequences, such as lower salary, job levels or promotion possibilities (Laundon & Williams, 2018). FWAs users also tend to have reduced access to — or awareness of — the full range of benefits available to them within the workplace, including other types of flexible working arrangements (Leslie et al., 2012). Furthermore, reduced time in the office results not only in limited training or participation in relevant information sessions, but also in limited access to knowledge on how to make the most optimal FWAs and other benefit decisions (Leslie et al., 2012).

Given the diverse and multidimensional impacts of FWAs, it is important to stress that although they are an important measure for gender equality, they do not automatically lead to it. For example, as noted in EIGE (2018d), both genders apply autonomy in setting their own working time differently: women use it to achieve a better work—life balance while men use it to increase their work commitment. For example, some men are able to opt for longer working hours due to a partner's greater availability at home (Holth, Bergman, & MacKenzie, 2017). Despite this, the availability of FWAs is increasingly recognised as a facilitator of gender equality and of better work—life balance opportunities for both women and men.

Flexible working arrangements can increase gender-equal opportunities

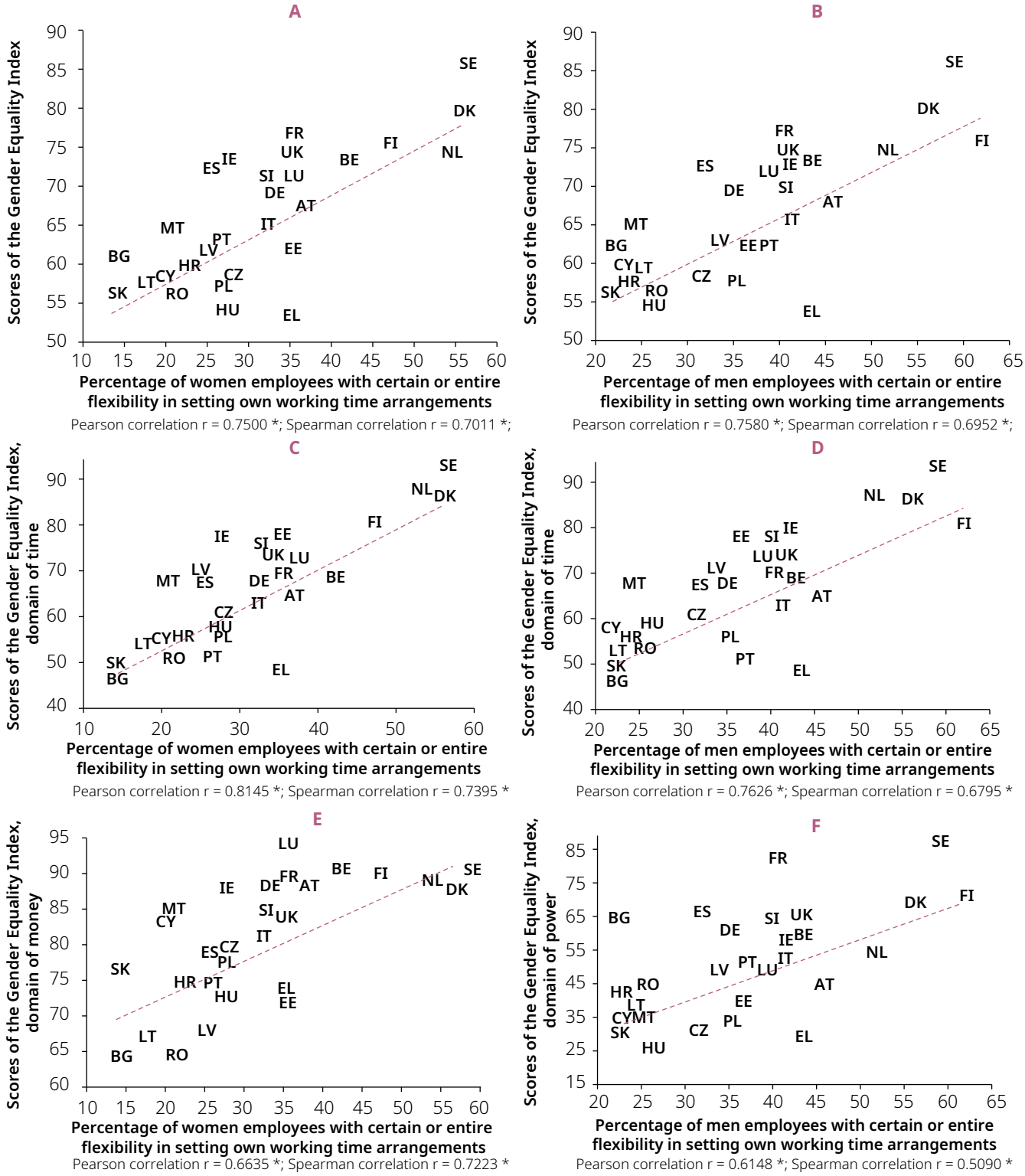
The Gender Equality Index — in its entirety and across all its domains — shows a significant correlation to the availability of flexible working schedules in Member States. Member States that had a higher share of employees with access to considerable (i.e. complete or a certain amount of) flexibility in setting their own working hours displayed higher Gender Equality Index scores (Figure 65, Panels A and B). Across the domains, the strongest linkage between the Gender Equality Index and the availability of FWAs for women is noted in the domain of time (Figure 65, Panel C), followed by the domain of money (Figure 65, Panel E) and the domain of knowledge. This highlights the importance of

([64]) Eurostat (lfsa_eppgai), reference age group 20-64.

FWAs on how women and men allocate their time for home and paid work activities, as well as for their education and training opportunities.

The link between higher availability of flexible work for men and gender equality is strongest in the domain of time (Figure 65, Panel D), though this relation is somewhat weaker in comparison

Figure 65: Percentage of women and men by ability to set their own working time arrangements (with considerable flexibility) and Gender Equality Index scores (15+), 2017



Note: EIGE's calculations, EWCS (2015), Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.
'Considerable flexibility' covers two categories: 'Adaptability of working hours within certain limits (e.g. flexitime)' and 'Entirely flexible': 'Working hours are entirely determined by yourself'.

with women's. The second strongest association between FWAs for men and gender-equality scores is noted in the domain of power (Figure 65, Panel F), followed by the domain of money. These associations, among other things, suggest that higher FWA availability (and consequently take-up) for men considerably boosts women's time resources. As a result, gender-equal opportunities are increased at home and in the public domain, including in economic, social and political participation.

Overall, the associations between the ability to set one's own working hours and the various domains of the Gender Equality Index are in line with emerging wider research. This links the availability of FWAs to a consequent reduction in gender inequalities on earnings (Van der Lippe, Van Breeschoten, & Van Hek, 2018). Research shows, for example, that organisations which offer work—life balance policies, and particularly those that offer flexibility in time schedules rather than working time reduction, tend to have a smaller gender pay gap (EIGE, 2019c; Van der Lippe et al., 2018).

Demonstrated linkages between FWAs and the Gender Equality Index also support findings that point to the availability of flexible working time arrangements having differentiated impacts on women and men in different areas of life. For example, flexitime — more commonly taken by men — has positive effects on their job and leisure satisfaction as it enables them to be both fully employed and more engaged in household activities (Wheatley, 2017). Figure 65 (Panel F) shows that this type of FWA availability for men accompanies women's greater opportunities in political, economic and social engagement, leading to increased gender equality in the domain of power.

In contrast, FWAs that reduce the number of working hours and that are more prevalent among women are more often connected to negative impacts on women's job, leisure and life satisfaction (Wheatley, 2017). This is possibly due to resulting constraints, such as less economic independence, increased stress from coping with the remaining workload and overall expectations at work while fulfilling household duties (EIGE, 2018d; Wheatley, 2017).

9.7. Lifelong learning

A catalyst for gender equality in the making

Policy debates on work—life balance traditionally do not consider education and training. Yet constant technological advances require workers to continuously upskill and keep abreast of new developments during their careers. Lifelong learning is also instrumental in women's reintegration into the labour market following a career break due to care responsibilities. It can be a catalyst for greater gender equality provided both women and men can access it despite work and family constraints. However, lack of time or financial resources can significantly hamper access to adult learning and training and inhibit certain groups of women and men more than others.

The Europe 2020 strategy set a goal of 15 % of the population participating in at least one education and training activity measured on a 4-week basis (European Commission, 2010). Three types of learning are recognised: formal, non-formal and informal learning. Formal education and training refers to lifelong-learning activities that take place in organised settings and are credential based. Non-formal education also takes place in organised settings but is not certified. It largely focuses on learning opportunities organised in the workplace, but it can also refer to education and training that take place in organisations stimulating adults' personal interests and development. The third type, informal learning, tends to refer to learning activities in our daily lives that are mostly incidental and unintentional (Coffield, 2000). The EU goal only refers to participation in formal and non-formal education, as it is expected that (nearly) everyone engages in informal learning on a daily basis.

Women focus on education and training, men engage more in work-related training

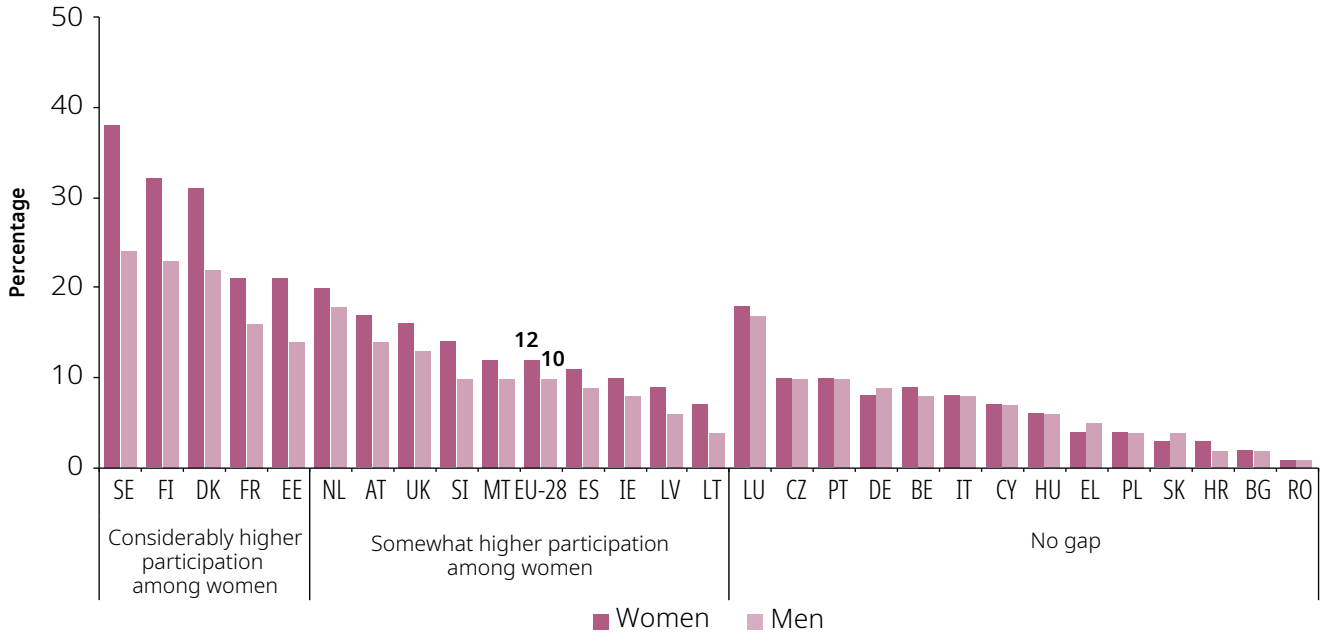
In 2017, the EU-28 average of women and men aged 25-64 years participating in education and training in a 4-week period was 12 % and 10 % respectively, well below the Europe 2020 target (Figure 66). The gender gap of 2 p.p. in favour of

women was evident among 25-49-year-olds, and it remained the same among women and men aged 50-64 years, despite overall participation in education and training sharply decreasing as people approach retirement ([65]) (see Chapter 4). The EU trend followed similar lines among those in or out of work: 13 % of employed women and 10 % of employed men were engaged in education and training; among unemployed people, it was 11 % of women and 9 % of men ([66]). Regardless of levels of educational attainment, women also participated more in education and training activities than men across the EU, although overall participation dropped sharply among people with secondary or lower education. Only 4 % of women and men aged 25-64 years with lower than secondary education participated in lifelong-learning activities ([67]).

Similar patterns were evident in most Member States. More women than men aged 25-64 years participated in lifelong-learning activities in 24 Member States. In the remaining four Member States (DE, EL, RO, SK), the gap in favour of men was lower than 1 p.p. However, overall participation levels varied significantly among Member States. Nordic Member States had the highest participation rates in education and training among both women and men and also the highest gender gaps in favour of women. In Sweden, for example, 38 % of women and 24 % of men aged 25-64 years had participated in education and training in a 4-week period. In contrast, Member States in southern and central Europe tended to have lower participation rates in lifelong-learning activities. In Romania only 1 % of women and men participated in adult education and training, while in another five EU Member States (BG, EL, HR, PL, SK) the rates were below 5 % (Figure 66).

Women's over-representation in lifelong learning shrinks or disappears in work-related training. In 2016, average participation rates in non-formal education and training during working time in 27 EU Member States was 64 % and 75 % for women and men aged 25-64 years respectively (Figure 67). The same pattern was

Figure 66: Percentage of women and men participating in formal and non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) (25-64), 2017 (Indicator 14)



Source: Eurostat, EU LFS (trng_lfs_01).
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Somewhat higher': gender gap 1-5 p.p. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably higher': gender gap as > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

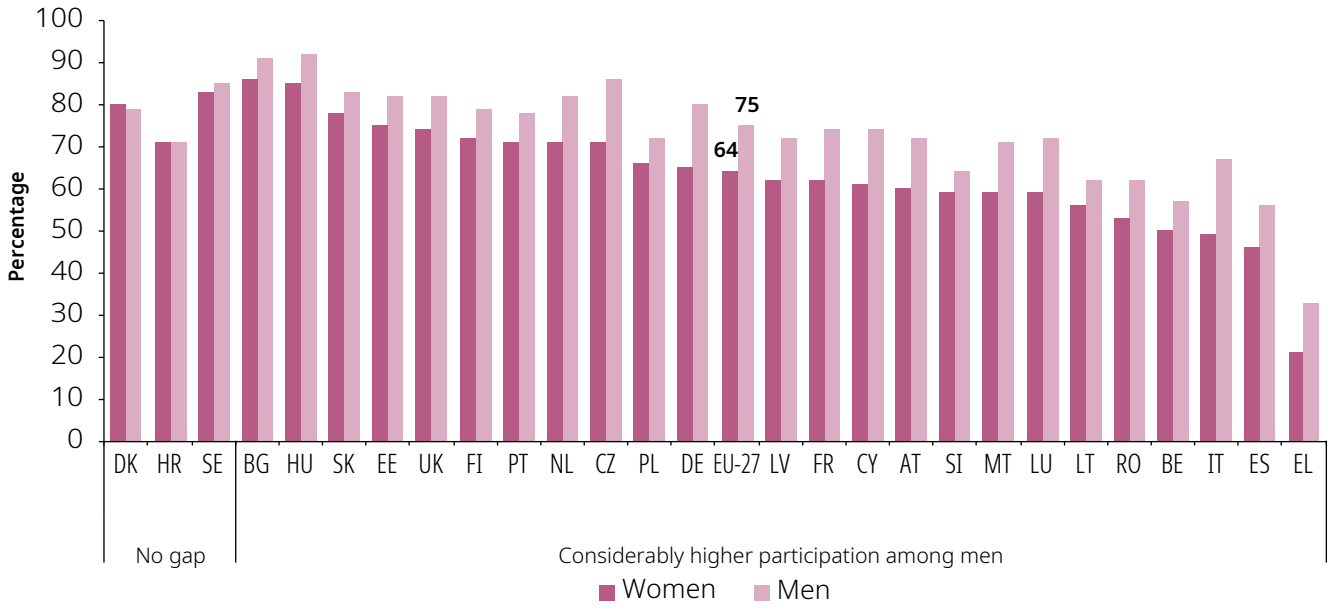
([65]) EIGE's calculation, Eurostat, European Union Labour Force Survey (trng_lfs_01).
([66]) Eurostat, Education statistics, 2017 (trng_lfs_03).
([67]) Eurostat, Education statistics, 2017 (trng_lfse_03).

discernible in all Member States except Denmark, where the gender gap was only slightly in favour of women (0.5 p.p.). Gender patterns favouring men also appeared when looking deeper into incentives for employees to participate in non-formal education and training.

In all Member States except Cyprus, men were more likely to receive financial contributions from employers to engage in education and training ([68]). Generally, employees in higher positions — less likely to be achieved by women — have more opportunities to participate in work-related training, including training on transferable skills that enhance their chances for promotion (Evertsson, 2004). In contrast, investment in women's training tends to be more job specific and task related (Evertsson, 2004). These differences can have negative implications for the work—life balance of men and women as men grow further in their roles as the main family breadwinner, and women continue in jobs that help them better combine work with family duties.

The Gender Equality Index domains of time and work strongly correlate with women's and men's participation in education and training across Member States. Member States that had higher participation rates in adult formal and non-formal education displayed higher scores in the domain of time (Figure 68, Panels A and B) and a strong link to scores for the domain of work (Figure 68, Panels C and D). The correlation with the domain of time suggests a link between the better sharing of care responsibilities within a family and a higher engagement in lifelong-learning activities by both women and men. The availability and affordability of formal childcare services are similarly important factors, as Member States with a higher provision of formal childcare for children below 3 years of age also had greater participation of women and men in the labour market and in lifelong-learning activities. The correlation with the domain of work is due to a mutually reinforcing connection between participation in adult education and higher gender equality in the labour market: those who engage in lifelong learning have

Figure 67: Percentage of women and men participating in non-formal education and training during working hours (% of all participants in education and training during the last 12 months) (25-64), 2016



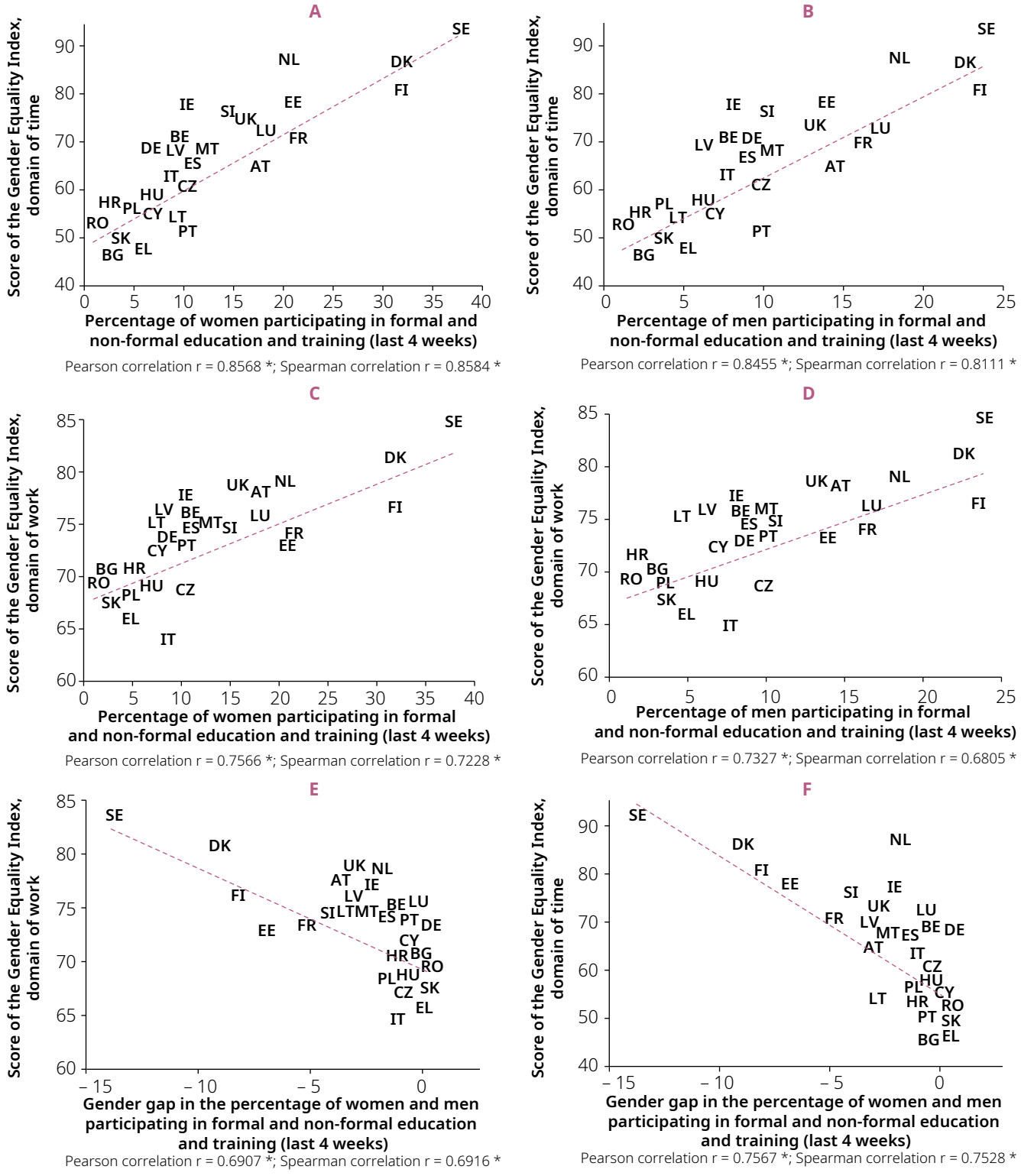
Source: EIGE's calculations, Eurostat, Adult Education Survey (2016), data not available for IE.
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably higher': gender gap > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

([68]) EIGE's calculations, Adult Education Survey (2016), data not available for IE.

better opportunities in the labour market, while higher levels of employment of both women and men (especially full-time) create more opportunities for work-related education and training.

When examining the relationships between gender gaps in participation in education and training and the domains of work and time, Member States that were more gender equal in

Figure 68: Percentage of women and men participating in formal and non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) (value and gap) and Gender Equality Index scores (domains of work and time) (25-64)



Note: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, Gender Equality Index, (*) refers to significance at 10 %.

employment and in the sharing of care responsibilities had higher gender gaps in favour of women in lifelong-learning participation (Figure 68, Panels E and F). This suggests that gender equality in the domains of work and time is not only positively associated with higher participation in adult education for both women and men, it particularly increases women's participation. Sweden is a good example of such an effect. Among EU Member States, Sweden has the highest levels of participation in education and training for both women and men, the highest gender-equality scores in the areas of work and time and the highest gender gap in adult education and training participation in the EU (14 p.p. in favour of women).

Women and men face different barriers to education and training

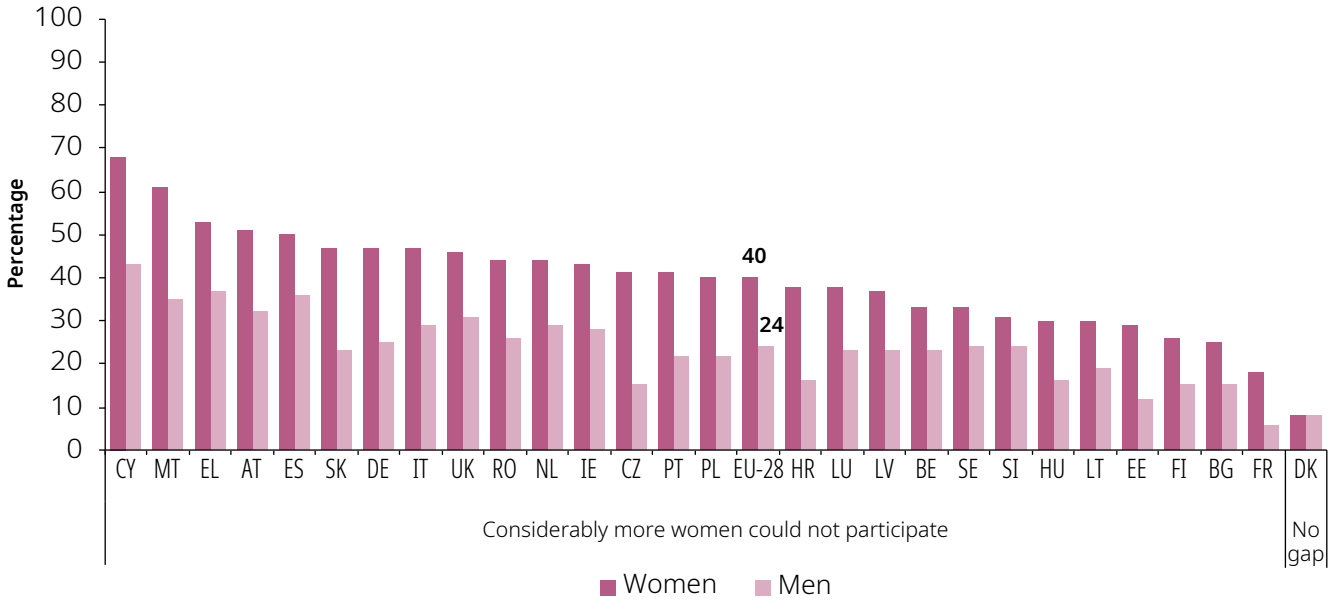
Not everyone can or wants to participate in education and training. Apart from weak interest in learning, a range of barriers can put participation out of reach for women and men. These include cost, access to formal and informal education and training activities, poor health and time. The latter is considered to be one of the strongest barriers to lifelong learning, with work-schedule conflicts, care responsibilities and household duties being the key time issues. Women experience a higher time deficit because of family-related responsibilities (Figure 69). In contrast, work-schedule conflicts were bigger barriers for men in most Member States (Figure 70).

61 %

of women and 69 % of men get financial support for training from their employer

Women across Europe undertake the bulk of care duties after having children, with implications for their employment opportunities, involvement in social, leisure and cultural activities (see Chapter 5) and participation in lifelong learning. On average, 40 % of women in the EU-28 who faced obstacles to participating in education and training activities could not take part due to family responsibilities (Figure 69). The same reason was reported by only 24 % of men. In all

Figure 69: Percentage of women and men not participating in formal or non-formal education and training by the major time-related barriers (family responsibilities) (25-64), 2016 (Indicator 15)



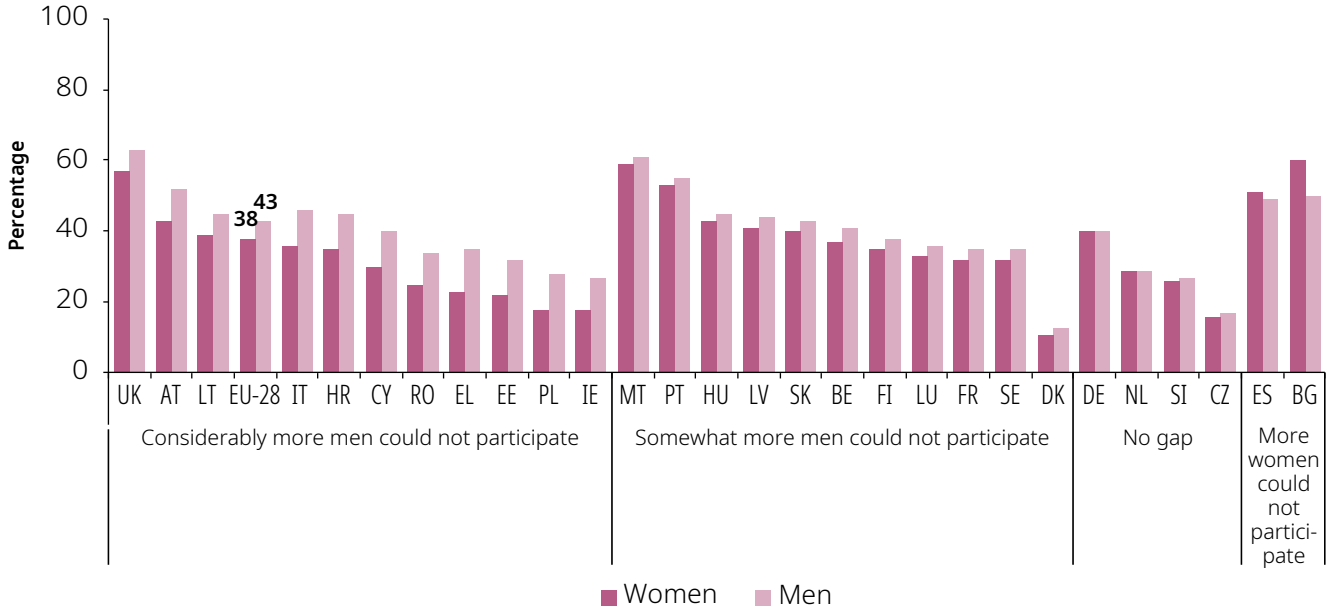
Source: EIGE's calculations, Eurostat, Adult education survey (trng_aes_176).
Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

Member States except Denmark, more women than men reported family responsibilities as an obstacle, with the highest numbers reported in Cyprus, Malta, Greece, Austria and Spain (> 50 % of women identified this reason). Where the availability of formal childcare services is low and work—life balance policies are undeveloped, women might choose jobs that do not require continuous skills investment through education and training, and therefore allow more of their time for care duties (Sidle, 2011).

Once a child enters the family, traditional gender roles tend to become more entrenched. Men strengthen their role as breadwinner as the partner active on the labour market (Becker, 1985; Dieckhoff & Steiber, 2010). This can potentially lead to difficulties in combining work and family responsibilities with adult education and training activities. Although the pattern is not universal, in the vast majority of Member States men tended to report their work schedule more as a barrier to participation than women did. On average, 43 % of men and 38 % of women in the EU who faced obstacles to participating in lifelong learning activities could not participate in lifelong learning due to work responsibilities (Figure 70).

The policy goals of better work—life balance and higher participation in lifelong learning are high on the EU agenda, but potential synergies and conflicts between them are rarely discussed. In a rapidly changing knowledge economy, continuous learning throughout life is essential for both women and men, but finding the time to maintain and increase skills and knowledge is challenging. As women and men tend to face different time-related barriers to lifelong learning, better work—life policies would not only allow a more satisfactory combination of job and family responsibilities, they would also free up time for continuous investment and growth in people's skills and knowledge.

Figure 70: Percentage of women and men not participating in formal or non-formal education and training by the major time-related barriers (work schedule) (25-64), 2016 (Indicator 15)



Source: Eurostat, Adult Education Survey (trng_aes_176).

Note: Member States are grouped on size of the gender gap. 'Somewhat more': gender gap 1-5 p.p. 'No gap': gender gap from – 1 to 1 p.p. 'Considerably more': gender gap > 5 p.p. Within the group, Member States are sorted in descending order.

10. Conclusions

Domain of work

The domain of work, with a score of 72.0, keeps the third-highest position in the Gender Equality Index. This score spotlights the incremental progress of 2 points made since 2005, pointing to the major challenges that remain. In particular, the segregation and quality of work sub-domain, with a score as low as 64.0, points to stagnation and low level of effectiveness of measures undertaken to reduce gender segregation and other gender inequalities in employment. Women not only remain over-represented in education, human health and social work, but their employment in these sectors increased by a further 2 p.p. between 2005 and-2017 to over 30 %.

Women still dominate part-time employment, **consigning them to jobs with poorer career progression**. No steady narrowing of the gender gap in FTE employment (which is at 16 p.p.) has been noted nationally in recent years, whereas it even widened (by at least 1 p.p.) in, for example, Denmark, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Slovenia. This means that the goal of the Europe 2020 strategy to reach a 75 % employment rate for women and men alike remains elusive, due strictly to women's particularly vulnerable access to jobs. While women's employment rate in 2018 was just above 67 %, the 79 % rate for men had already surpassed the EU goal. In all EU Member States, men dominate specific fields such as engineering and technology, but are under-represented in others, such as teaching and care work. Women's disproportionate responsibility for care of dependent family members and household tasks is a major factor of gender segregation in employment. The situation requires much wider and more explicit recognition of gender inequalities as a major barrier to achieving the EU employment target in the future and setting up gender-sensitive targets in the assessment of policy effectiveness.

Motherhood, lower upskilling and reskilling opportunities and a migration background remain particular barriers to accessing and progressing in jobs for women, especially among those with a low level of education. Being a parent continues to hinder women, but not men, in the labour market. The largest gender gap in the FTE employment rates is noted in couples with children. The gap is 60 % for women, whereas it reaches as high as 88 % for men. Though the work—life balance directive makes a bold and necessary step in recognising the need to, as well as instigating conditions to, better support women's access to paid work, more needs to be done. For example, boosting equal opportunities to participate in and benefit from continuous training and retraining and more gender-balanced opportunities of using transport and other public infrastructure are needed, not the least to create more gender-equal access to employment. A better gender balance as regards access to paid work and working intensity could be achieved via a better access to and take-up of FWAs, especially if taken up by men. This underlines the role of men in freeing up women's time resources and thus their wider opportunities outside the home sphere, boosting gender equality in employment as well as social and economic well-being for all.

Domain of money

Recent years have seen wage and household disposable income increases in a large majority of Member States, but gender equality in financial and economic resources remains elusive, in line with steady gender gaps in accessing paid employment. The domain of money, with a score of 80.4 in 2017, has for the first time surpassed 80 points, ranking second only to the domain of health in the Gender Equality Index. This promising development nonetheless relates to **patchy progress on gender-equal access to financial and economic resources**. In 2005 the sub-domain of economic resources (which accounts for women's and men's exposure to poverty and income inequality among women and men) scored 89.7 points: it was 2 points lower in 2017.

Persistent gender inequalities in pay still reflect the **price paid for motherhood**, and are closely linked to the gendered distribution of care responsibilities within families. This points to further efforts being needed to generally increase society's awareness of the existence and roots of gender inequalities in pay and of the ways to minimise and even counteract their potential occurrence. For this, the consistent and simultaneous application of organisational and policy-level measures, including those listed in the EU action plan 2017-2019 — tackling the gender pay gap, is of utmost importance.

In addition, the complexity of the gender gaps in pay requires moving away from partial or simplistic descriptions of the phenomenon, which often offer too narrow or incomplete comprehension and thus insufficient capacity to address it (EIGE, 2019c). For example, in addition to the reduction of the gender pay gap, which displays gender gaps in hourly pay, more attention should be paid to narrowing gender gaps in annual earnings, which account for differences in employment intensity and overall labour-market participation. Furthermore, more regular monitoring of gender gaps in pay and the income situation among people from more vulnerable backgrounds, such as migrant, Roma or older women, is needed and would provide a better basis for improved policy responses.

Analysis in the domain of money also stresses the need for long-term policy evaluations. For example, **lifetime pay inequalities fall on older women**, pointing to the need for gender-sensitive and forward-looking evaluation not only of national employment policies, but also of social-protection systems. The gender gap in pensions in the EU stands at 39 %, and the gender gap in poverty to the disadvantage of women is at its highest among those aged 75 and over. This shows the limited effectiveness of current public-policy settings in reducing gendered barriers to equal economic and financial resources throughout people's lives. It also asks for more comprehensive evaluation and consistency of various policy settings and their reforms in order to ensure the equal economic independence of women and men.

Domain of knowledge

The domain of knowledge remained virtually static between 2015 and 2017, and the overall progress in gender equality in the area of knowledge has been slow over the last 12 years. Educational attainment is rising, especially among women, but more significant progress is being impeded by persistent gender segregation in higher education and low levels of participation in lifelong learning.

Young women (aged 30-34) have already reached the Europe 2020 target (46 % have graduated from tertiary education), but the share of men tertiary graduates has yet to reach it. Moreover, **the gender gap in educational attainment among the younger generation has been widening to the detriment of men,** and reached 10 p.p. in 2016. Further challenges are faced by women and men with disabilities and by people from deprived socioeconomic backgrounds, highlighting the importance of access to high-quality inclusive education, as aimed for in the European Pillar of Social Rights.

Although more women and men graduate from universities than in the past, **gender segregation in education remains a major barrier to gender equality in the EU**. In 2017, 43 % of all women at university were studying education, health and welfare, humanities and arts, with the gender gap in the EU as a whole at 22 p.p., remaining unchanged since 2005. Such a divide is mirrored by gender segregation in the labour market, determining women's and men's earnings, career prospects and working conditions.

The majority of Member States lag far behind the European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) benchmark of 15 % of adults engaged in lifelong learning, with the EU-28 average stagnating at 11 % (12 % for women and 10 % for men in 2017). **Adult learning stalls most when reskilling needs are greatest.** Participation in lifelong learning is particularly low among the population groups who could most benefit from it — older or low-skilled adults working in precarious

or fragmented work situations. A highly skilled and mobile working population is crucial for Europe's prosperity, therefore participation in lifelong learning will continue to be high on the EU policy agenda. Participation in education and training played an important role in the Europe 2020 flagship initiative, 'An agenda for new skills and jobs', and was also at the centre Member State-specific recommendations in 2018 and 2019. Moreover, the Commission, in its communication on strengthening European identity through education and culture, proposed to establish an ambitious new benchmark for participation in lifelong learning — 25 % by 2025.

Although continuous learning throughout life is essential, finding time to maintain and increase skills and knowledge is challenging. Education and training is increasingly becoming a cornerstone of **work—life balance**. Member States with higher participation rates in adult formal and non-formal education displayed more gender-balanced time share for caring and higher-gender equality achievements in the domain of work.

Domain of time

The enduring burden of care perpetuates inequalities for women. Gender inequalities in time use are persistent and growing: the 2017 score of 65.7 is not only 1 p.p. lower than that of 2005, it also represents a 3.2 p.p. drop from the gains that had been achieved up until 2012. This domain has the third-lowest score in the Gender Equality Index. Developments in this domain cannot be monitored post the 2017 Index because EU data has not yet been updated. The next data update for this domain is expected in 2021. More frequent time-use data would help more immediate tracking of progress in this domain.

The most recent available data shows **that there is an uneven impact of family life on women and men**. Women are engaged disproportionally more in unpaid care work, but even more strikingly in other domestic tasks. Only 34 % of men are engaged in cooking and housework every day for 1 hour or more in comparison with 79 % of women, with the situation barely changing in more than a decade.

Gender inequalities in unpaid domestic work are highest between women and men who live in a couple and have children. Women and men with disabilities need care, but they are also carers. The Gender Equality Index shows 29 % of women and 20 % of men with disabilities in the EU doing care work every day. A bigger share of women with disabilities (79%) are cooking and/or doing other housework compared to men with disabilities (41%). Women and men in pre-retirement age also often step in to provide care to their grandchildren, allowing parents to work while their own employment suffers. Time use by women and men is heavily influenced by other social and cultural factors, but also by available work—life balance policies, public services and infrastructures.

A framework for tackling work—life balance and the 'care penalty' is established by both the European Pillar of Social Rights and the EU action plan on tackling the gender pay gap. More specific action is being taken through the directive on work—life balance for parents and carers, adopted by the Council of the European Union in June 2019.

The lack of formal care services impacts women as informal carers disproportionately when compared to men, both during their working age and beyond it. Gender inequalities in time spent on informal caring are being debated in EU policy circles as a challenge of work—life balance. It is recognised that the disproportionate amount of time spent on unpaid care work and housework impacts women's participation in employment and opportunities for social, personal and civic activities. It reinforces gender segregation in education and in the labour market. It also affects women's employment patterns and career prospects by exacerbating their involvement in precarious employment and by reinforcing the gender gap in pay and pensions.

The thematic focus of the 2019 Index on work—life balance confirms that gender equality in general, but particularly in the domain of time,

is strongly interlinked with many aspects of work—life balance.

Work—life balance policies such as childcare and LTC services and FWAs therefore enhance gender equality. The Gender Equality Index scores are higher in the Member States where formal childcare and LTC arrangements are more widely available. More concluding remarks on formal and informal care are presented in the subsequent chapter on work—life balance.

Domain of power

While the domain of power has the lowest score in the Gender Equality Index (51.9), it also shows the most improvement (an increase of 3.4 points since 2015 and 13 points since 2005). Much of the success in the Member States demonstrating notable improvements in gender balance in political decision-making since 2005 can be attributed to the implementation of either a gender quota law or voluntary party quotas.

Continued lack of gender parity is a fundamental concern for democracy. In 2018 the proportion of women in national parliaments (single/lower house) across the EU Member States reached an all-time high of 30 % but that still means that seven in ten members of parliaments are men. Fewer than one in five major political parties in the EU (18 %) has a woman leader, though there is better representation among deputy leaders (34 % women). In national governments, women account for just three in ten (31 %) senior ministers (members of the cabinet or equivalent) and are twice as likely to be given less conspicuous sociocultural portfolios (i.e. health, education and social affairs) as men.

The share of women on the boards of large companies across the EU more than doubled between 2010 and 2018 (from 12 % to 26 %), when the European Commission brought the issue to the fore, **but progress has been concentrated in just a few Member States** where governments have either taken or considered legislative action and/or had an intensive public debate on the issue. Elsewhere there has been little improvement, and now that the main drivers of progress have reached or are close to their national targets, progress at EU level has slowed down.

The increased level of female representation in boardrooms is not feeding through to the executive hierarchy. In 2018 women accounted for just 17 % of senior executives compared to 29 % of non-executives. Less than a quarter (24 %) of the largest companies in the EU Member States have at least 40 % of each gender among non-executives, and more than one in five (21 %) have no women non-executives at all. Although the number of women on corporate boards has more than doubled since 2010, the top positions are still largely occupied by men — women account for just 7 % of board chairs and 7 % of CEOs.

Data on decision-making in research-funding organisations indicates that **women's opportunities to influence the research agenda and ensure equal access to funding for both women and men** are limited. Men dominate the highest decision-making positions in the main research-funding organisations across the EU. In this respect, the gender-balance targets for advisory groups (50 %) and evaluation panels (40 %) of the Horizon 2020 framework programme for research and innovation are highly relevant.

The proportion of women involved in top-level decision-making in media organisations is also low, although women's employment in the media sector has been gradually increasing over the course of two decades. Women occupy 36 % of top decision-making positions in public broadcasting organisations across the EU. The Council acknowledged that media has an enormous capacity to contribute positively to the achievement of gender equality at all levels, and has confirmed its commitment to advancing women's roles in decision-making in the media (Council of the European Union, 2013).

Although women's participation in sports is increasing, **women are frequently absent from sports decision-making bodies**. On average in the EU-28 women make up 16 % of deci-

sion-making positions in the most popular sports federations in Europe (2 p.p. higher than in 2015). Several international and continental federations in Europe, responsible for the promotion and development of sports, have already shown a commitment to gender equality by introducing gender quotas. At the national level, initiatives to set up voluntary targets for gender balance in the governing structures of sports federations are concentrated in just a few Member States, which also have a higher level of women's representation in top decision-making positions.

Domain of health

Gender norms and stereotypes undermine behavioural change, to the detriment of men's health. Despite being the highest scoring domain since the inception of the Gender Equality Index, the health domain score has stalled since 2015 (+ 0.7 points), and has barely progressed since 2005 (+ 2.2 points). Gender inequalities are most prominent in the sub-domain of health behaviour, with a score of 75.4 points. Largely due to dominant masculinity norms, men are more likely than women to be involved in risk behaviours such as smoking and excessive drinking, thereby increasing their risk of early death and morbidity in general.

Women live longer than men but spend more of their life in poorer health. In most EU Member States, the number of years that women and men can expect to live in good health has increased by 2.8 for women and 3.6 for men since 2005, and an extra 9 months for both women and men since 2015. Despite improving health conditions and increasing life expectancy, clear gendered challenges remain regarding inequalities in health in the EU. While early and preventable deaths are one of the main concerns for men, women live longer but spend a greater share of their life in ill health. In 2016, women spent 20 years of their life in poor health in the EU compared to 16 years for men. Accordingly, a gender-specific approach to the health-related challenges faced by women and men could effectively contribute to reducing gender gaps, especially in light of ageing populations, a diminishing workforce and increasing pressure on welfare systems.

Disadvantaged groups of women and men in the EU still face greater unmet needs for healthcare services. The high scores in the sub-domain of access to healthcare in all Member States reflect continuous efforts to achieve access to adequate healthcare services in the EU. However, certain groups of women and men experience more difficulty in accessing the health support they need. In the EU, lone mothers (6 %) and fathers (8 %), as well as women (8 %) and men (7 %) with disabilities, are more likely to have unmet needs. Also, despite higher mortality rates for infections and diseases related to poor living conditions, migrants and refugees experience unequal access to preventive healthcare in a large majority of Member States. The Roma population also face major obstacles in meeting their needs in terms of health, especially with access to sexual and reproductive health services for Roma women.

Domain of violence

The limited availability of high-quality EU-wide comparative data, broken down by gender and the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, makes it extremely difficult to measure the prevalence of violence against women in the EU. Only three indicators of the second tier of the measurement framework for the domain of violence for which recent data was available could be updated, although not for all Member States: femicide, FGM and trafficking in human beings. As a result, scores for each Member State could not be presented. The completion of the next EU-wide survey on violence against women is essential for the EU and its Member States to make progress in their efforts to prevent and eliminate violence against women.

In this context, **administrative data collected through the reporting and recording procedures of institutions** such as the police, prosecutors' offices or the courts, **is a key source of information** that can help understand the scale of violence against women in the EU (EIGE,

2019b). Drawing from the victims' rights directive and the Istanbul Convention's minimum requirements for data provision, EIGE has developed a set of 13 indicators, seven of which are part of the measurement framework of the domain of violence, to be populated by the police and justice sectors to help Member States in collecting comprehensive and uniform data on rape, femicide and intimate partner violence. Further efforts need to be invested in measuring other severe forms of violence, such as psychological violence and forced marriage.

In light of the current backlash against gender equality and women's rights in the EU, the ratification and full implementation of the Istanbul Convention by the EU and all of its Member States are needed more than ever to facilitate the development and monitoring of effective strategies and policies to prevent and eliminate all forms of violence against women.

Work—life balance and gender equality

The analysis carried out within the framework of **the thematic focus of the Gender Equality Index 2019 shows strong links between gender equality and work—life balance, as measured by the work—life balance scoreboard that EIGE has developed and proposed** (see Section 9.1). The availability of care services, benefits and services to families, job protection provided by leave policies, public infrastructure and the overall child-friendliness of the society create or limit opportunities and establish conditions in which women and men take their decisions regarding both work and family.

For more effective policies on work—life balance, the discourse of work—life balance needs to be broadened. First, **we call for a broader conceptualisation of work—life balance**, which means welcoming more areas, such as lifelong learning or public infrastructure, into discussions and policies.

Second, **the focus of the work—life balance discussion has to shift from separated fields of life and take a more holistic approach to life.** Work—life balance is not just blocks of time allocated to work and other activities; it is determined by the 'whole day's schedule of multiple activities and trips taken by an individual' (Dong, Ben-Akiva, Bowman, & Walker, 2006). Gender inequalities are not isolated within each field of life, instead they feed into each other, leading to multiple inequalities and amplified barriers to balancing work and life.

Third, **work—life balance is not only a challenge for employed people or parents. Inactivity or low birth rates are often signs of failing reconciliation,** where people are forced to give up or make major compromises in one of the major fields of life. For instance, a full-time carer of a child or adult with significant disabilities is unlikely to be able to take up paid work, or someone may decide not to have or to postpone having children as they anticipate being ineligible for leave policies.

Fourth, **balancing work and life is not an individual task, but an everyday negotiation between members of the family. This is where the roots of gender inequalities lie.** While women have quite successfully stepped into the world of paid work, men have not taken a similar step into the world of the home to equally share the responsibilities and pleasures of family life. Even with all the work—life policies in place, the family-related responsibilities never disappear — it is always the family that holds the first responsibility for the well-being of its members. As long as women, but not men, are expected to carry the double burden of work and family, gender inequalities will persist.

Work—life balance policies should be better coordinated and reflect changes in the labour market and society as a whole. For example, there should not be a care gap between the end of parental-leave provision and publicly subsidised high-quality formal childcare.

The importance of intersectional approach was once again confirmed. Certain groups of people are disadvantaged, no matter which aspect of work—life balance we look at. One example is low-qualified people — especially women — who are more likely to be out of paid work,

are more likely to be ineligible for leave policies, have less flexibility in the labour market, are more often dependent on public transport and attend less lifelong learning. This situation is also very similar for women of pre-retirement age.

Leave policies

The thematic focus of the 2019 Gender Equality Index on work—life balance provides a unique insight into the gender inequalities that are caused and reproduced by parental-leave policy rules. While the parental leave directive (Directive 2010/18/EU) does set the minimum for the overall duration of the leave for working women and men, the conditions of access are defined by the Member States.

About one in ten employed women and men are not entitled to parental leave because the Member States have established restrictive eligibility rules. Without job protection they would lose their jobs if they wanted or needed to have time off from their paid work to care for their children beyond maternity and paternity leave. Since it is still generally women who take care of children, such restrictions have major consequences for gender equality. Indeed, the scores in the domains of work and of time are higher in the Member States where the eligibility rate for parental leave is higher and the coverage of leave policies is more universal.

The majority of Member States have set eligibility conditions which are connected to working arrangements. The parental leave directive gives Member States the right to make entitlement to parental leave subject 'to a period of work qualification and/or a length of service qualification which shall not exceed one year'. This illustrates well how certain FWAs like short-term contracts or other new forms of work can be seen as a double-edged sword. While providing flexibility and therefore better support for work—life balance, non-standard work also puts people in a precarious situations by excluding them from social policies. Non-standard and new forms of work are a fast-growing trend in the labour market, which makes it urgent to revisit social-protection mechanisms which are still designed for old and standard forms of work.

Currently, policies may reinforce labour market or other inequalities by excluding those most at risk. For instance, in six Member States more than 25 % of young (20-24 year old) employed women and men were ineligible for parental leave. People in in lower-skilled and manual jobs are more likely to be ineligible than those in higher-skilled occupations. Same-sex couples are not eligible for parental leave in 11 Member States.

There are also other terrains to be explored. Namely, the parental leave directive gives the employer the right 'to postpone the granting of parental leave for justifiable reasons related to the operation of the organisation'. There is no evidence as to what extent employers exercise their right to deny mothers and fathers their rights over business interests and whether there are any gendered consequences. Studies have shown that employers' attitudes are often an obstacle for men to take up parental leave (e.g. Wall & Leitão, 2017).

The analysis of eligibility for parental leave could complement an in-depth analysis of Member State-specific challenges identified by the social scoreboard and strengthen the analytical basis of the Commission's proposals for Member States-specific European semester recommendations.

Childcare services

In addition to gaps in leave entitlements, sufficient care provisions are not always in place. There are five Member States (HR, IT, LT, RO, SK) where there is no obligation for authorities to provide a care or nursery place for a child should a parent so wish. Moreover, only in 12 Member States is the entitlement to public childcare in place immediately after the parental-leave entitlements end. Although care services may be provided in spite of there being no legal obligation, such a gap between parental-leave and care-service entitlements can extend to as long as 3 years, creating an obstacle to a smooth transition between work and parental leave.

Overall, 14 % of households in the EU 2016 reported unmet needs for childcare services, and it is still women who are more likely than men to step in to fill in the gap, either at the expense of their jobs or taking on a double shift. In a context where women continue to bear a heavier burden of informal care, having no childcare granted after parental-leave entitlements are exhausted has clear repercussions on female employment rates, and more widely on gender equality. In the EU, 10 % of women work part-time or are inactive due to care duties, while this applies to only 1 % of men. In households with the youngest child under 7 years of age, women spend on average 32 hours a week on paid work and 39 hours on unpaid work, compared to 41 hours and 19 hours for men respectively.

The European Pillar of Social Rights declares access to affordable and good-quality childcare services one of its core principles. Now that good progress has been made in reaching the Barcelona targets, the time may have come to consider a review of the Barcelona targets by looking more broadly into the qualitative aspects of services and exploring their links with employment targets, work—life balance and other economic indicators.

Long-term care

In the context of an ageing population and increasing disability rates, the care needs for older people and people with disabilities are dramatically gaining attention. In addition to households having unmet needs for childcare, one in three households in the EU report having unmet needs for professional home-care services for older persons and/or persons with disabilities. In the majority of Member States, women bear such care responsibilities, putting additional pressure on their work—life balance and employment opportunities. In the EU-28, 15 % of women and 10 % of men provide informal LTC to older people and/or people with disabilities. In Member States with a more gender-unequal division of care responsibilities, the Gender Equality Index score is lower. Given this situation, an important further step would be to establish EU-level targets on LTC services, similar to the Barcelona targets on childcare.

The European Pillar of Social Rights declares access to affordable and good-quality LTC services to be one of its core principles. Improving the availability, affordability and quality of LTC services is also one of the priority areas for action in the Commission's 'New start' initiative on work—life balance. In addition, the European disability strategy 2010-2020 promotes the transition from institutional to community-based care. The 2019 directive on work—life balance for parents and carers introduced a new annual right for workers to take at least 5 working days of carers' leave in the event of serious illness or dependency of a relative or a person who lives in the same household as the worker. This provision aims to improve carers' work—life- balance and, at the same time, avoid their dropping out of the labour market entirely.

Public infrastructure

In every person's life there is commuting, whether between work, home, schools, health, care and other public services, grocery shops, banks, leisure and volunteering activities, etc. Physical environment, geography and social organisation of public infrastructure, together with logistics and commuting options, play a major role in how well work can be combined with rest of one's life.

The scarce statistics that are available on commuting and transport show that on average women spend as much as 40 minutes and men 45 minutes of their day on commuting to and from the workplace. Women more often than men are users of public transport as they have more limited access to private cars — a sign of gender inequalities in other fields of life. Being carers of small children but also of persons with physical limitations, the physical accessibility of public transport as well as the quality and maintenance of roads may determine the real mobility of these people. Suitable, fast, safe and convenient means of transport not only allow for a better work—life balance but also support job

searching and taking up better positions in the labour market.

In Member States where the level of women's mobility is higher, women and men are more equality involved in caring and household activities. Also, the scores of the domain of work are higher in those countries where women's commuting times are longer, indicating that in countries where women are freer to move they have better work opportunities. Time pressure among working women is often caused by an incompatibility between the location and opening hours of childcare facilities and employment times (McLean, Naumann, & Koslowski, 2016; Steiber, 2009).

Urban planning in general, but also the planning of public transport and the maintenance of roads, are highly significant from a gender perspective, supporting or complicating the everyday logistics and balancing of work and life. The European Economic and Social Committee states in its opinion that gender consideration is currently absent from EU transport policy. The transport sector is traditionally male dominated, and as a result transport policy is male oriented and also centered around men's lifestyles (European Economic and Social Committee, 2015). The mainstreaming of gender into policies impacting transport and public infrastructure is needed. Better data is also needed in order to carry out analysis from a gender perspective on how public infrastructures restrict or support work—life balance and gender equality.

Flexible working arrangements

Possibilities to adjust one's working arrangements — either occasionally or on a permanent basis — according to family or personal needs is of paramount importance to a successful work—life balance. In the EU 57 % of women and 54 % of men have their working-time arrangements set by the company or organisation and still have no possibilities of any self-induced flexibility in changing them. Men have greater availability of flexible working-time arrangements than women, not least due to their higher uptake of jobs in the private sector, which by now offers greater flexibility of working arrangements in comparison to the public sector.

People in occupations requiring a lower level of qualifications are particularly disadvantaged as regards flexibility in working-time arrangements. As mentioned earlier, they also are less likely to benefit from parental leave. This partially explains why women with a lower level of qualifications are very likely to be out of paid work and not searching for a job because of care responsibilities (EIGE, 2017d). This is also an illustration of the far-reaching employment and income effects of failing to reach reconciliation of work and personal-life demands.

While part-time arrangements, one of the types of FWA, may be a desirable solution if they are voluntary and temporary, this should not be the only way to a better work—life balance. It should also not mean that part-time jobs become 'traps' for women, harming their economic independence, career prospects, and future pension entitlements. Public policies, particularly those ensuring sufficient and affordable care provisions, need to be in place in order to support (re-)entry to full-time paid work for women. This would support labour-market adjustments as regards of the availability and flexibility of full-time jobs.

Lifelong learning

Participation in education and training is another time-intensive activity competing for time, adding complexity to the daily exercise of logistics. Europe's desire to increase the proportion of adults participating in education and training initiatives should be looked at, together with the aim of striving towards a better work—life balance.

Family-related duties prevent women from participating in lifelong learning and training, and this effect is strongest among women with small children. On average in the EU 40 % of women and 24 % of men cannot participate in lifelong learning due to family responsibilities. In nearly all Member States, men report conflicts of work schedule more often than women do as an ob-

stacle to participating in lifelong learning and training. This is why work—life balance, participation in lifelong learning and gender equality are strongly interconnected. The 'New start' initiative on work—life balance provides a promising basis for closer integration of policies on work—life balance and policies on education, training and lifelong learning.

Taking an intersectional perspective here puts the same groups of women and men in the limelight once again: older women and men and those with a lower level of qualifications have lower rates of participation in lifelong learning. When taking a holistic approach where all aspects of work—life balance are looked at together, it becomes clear that inequalities amplify each other, and that there are certain groups of women and men whose life arrangements are such that they are disadvantaged more than others in several dimensions of work—life balance.

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Annexes

Annex 1. List of indicators of the Gender Equality Index

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Work	Participation	1	Fte	Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate (%, 15+ population)	The full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable even though they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.	Eurostat, EU LFS. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request (2005-2015). EIGE's calculations 2017.	2005 EU: Non-weighted average.	2010	2012	2015	2017
		2	Dwl	Duration of working life (years, 15+ population)	The duration of working life indicator (DWL) measures the number of years a person aged 15 is expected to be active in the labour market throughout his/her life. This indicator is calculated via a probabilistic model combining demographic data (life tables available from Eurostat to calculate survival functions) and labour-market data (European Union labour force survey (EU LFS) activity rates by single age group). Exact calculation methodology can be requested from Eurostat.	Eurostat, EU LFS. DWL: annual data [lfsi_dwl_a].	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
	Segregation and quality of work	3	Seg_W	Employed people in education, human health and social work activities (%, 15+ employed)	Percentage of people employed in the following economic activities out of total employed (based on NACE Rev. 2) are included: P. Education + Q. Human health and social work, as percentage from total activities (All NACE activities).	Eurostat, EU LFS. Employment by sex, age and economic activity (from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2) — 1 000 (lfsa_egan2). Employment by sex, age and economic activity (1983-2008, NACE Rev. 1.1) (1 000) (lfsa_egana).	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
		4	Flexibility	Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (%, 15+ employed)	Q47. Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ...? 1 Very easy; 2 Fairly easy; 3 Fairly difficult; 4 Very difficult. Percentage of persons who answered 'very easy' out of total (1, 2, 3, 4).	Eurofound, EWCS. EIGE's calculation with microdata.	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015
		5	Prospects	Career prospects index (points, 0-100)	The prospects index is one of job-quality indexes developed by Eurofound. It combines the indicators of employment status (self-employed or employee), type of contract, the prospects for career advancement as perceived by the worker, perceived likelihood of losing one's job and experience of downsizing in the organisation. It is measured at the scale of 0-100 where the higher the score, the higher the job quality. The exact methodology can be requested from Eurofound.	Eurofound, EWCS. Calculated by Eurofound.	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Money	Financial resources	6	Earnings	Mean monthly earnings (PPS, working population)	Mean monthly earnings in purchasing power standard (PPS), in the sectors of industry, construction and services (except public administration, defence, compulsory social security) (NACE_R2: B-S_X_O, total age group, working in companies 10 employees or more).	Eurostat, SES. Mean monthly earnings by economic activity, sex, age [earn_ses06_20]. Mean monthly earnings by sex, age and economic activity [earn_ses10_20]. Mean monthly earnings by sex, age and economic activity [earn_ses14_20].	2006 EU: EU-27 used. HR 2010.	2010	2010	2014 EL and HR 2010	2014
		7	Income	Mean equivalised net income (PPS, 16+ population)	Equivalised disposable income in PPS, is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. Mean and median income by age and sex [ilc_di03].	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, RO 2007, HR 2010.	2010 EU: Non-weighted average.	2012 EU: Non-weighted average.	2015 EU: Non-weighted average.	2017 EU: Non-weighted average.
	Economic situation	8	Poverty	Not at risk of poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income (%, 16+ population)	Reversed indicator of 'at-risk-of-poverty rate', calculated as 100 minus 'at-risk-of-poverty rate'. The at-risk-of-poverty rate is the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfers) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. At-risk-of-poverty rate by poverty threshold, age and sex [ilc_li02].	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, RO 2007, HR 2010.	2010	2012	2015	2017
		9	S20/S80	S20/S80 income quintile share (16+ population)	Calculated as 1/'S80/S20 income quintile share ratio' * 100. The income quintile share ratio (also called the S80/S20 ratio) is a measure of the inequality of income distribution. It is calculated as the ratio of total income received by the 20 % of the population with the highest income (the top quintile) to that received by the 20 % of the population with the lowest income (the bottom quintile). For the Index, a 'reversed' version of this indicator is used.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request.	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2007, RO 2007, HR 2010.	2010	2012	2015 IE 2014	2017

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Knowledge	Attainment and participation	10	Grad	Graduates of tertiary education (%, 15+ population)	Educational attainment measures the share of high-educated people among men and women. People with tertiary education as their highest level successfully completed (Unesco International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 5-8), percentage from total 15+ population.	Eurostat, EU LFS. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request (2005-2015). EIGE's calculations 2017.	2005 EU: Non-weighted average.	2010	2012	2015	2017
		11	Part	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (%, 15+ population)	Percentage of people participating in formal or non-formal education and training, out of total population of 15+. Lifelong learning encompasses all purposeful learning activity, whether formal, non-formal or informal, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence. The reference period for the participation in education and training is the four weeks preceding the interview.	Eurostat, EU LFS Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request (2005-2015). EIGE's calculations 2017.	2005 EU: Non-weighted average.	2010	2012	2015	2017
	Segregation	12	Seg_E	Tertiary students in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts (tertiary students) (%, 15+ population)	Percentage of persons who are studying in the following areas: (2005-2012), EF14 (teacher training and education science) + EF2 (humanities and arts) + EF7 (health and welfare) out of total students. (2013-2017), (F01 — Education, F02 — arts and humanities, F09 — health and welfare). Until 2012 levels ISCED 5-6, after that ISCED 5-8.	Eurostat, Education statistics. Tertiary students (ISCED 5-6) by field of education and sex (2005-2012) [educ_enrl5]. Students enrolled in tertiary education by education level, programme orientation, sex and field of education (from 2013) [educ_uoe_enrt03].	2005 EU calculated with original variables. FR 2006, LU 2011.	2010 EU calculated with original variables. LU 2011.	2012 EU calculated with original variables.	2015 EU calculated with original variables. EL, IE, 2014.	2017 EU calculated with original variables. BG, CZ, IE, EL, FR, HR, IT, CY, HU, MT, PT, RO, SK, FI, SE, UK. 2016. SI, 2016 for ED7 (Master or equivalent).

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Time	Care activities	13	Care	People caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, older people and/or people with disabilities, every day (%, 18+ population)	Percentage of people involved in at least one of these caring activities outside of paid work every day: care for children, grandchildren, elderly and disabled people. Question: (in general) how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? 2016: Q42a Caring for and/or educating your children; Q42b Caring for and/or educating your grandchildren; Q42d Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends under 75 y.o.; Q42e Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends aged 75 or over; 2012: Q36a caring for your children/grandchildren; Q36c Caring for elderly or disables relatives; 2007: Q36c Caring for elderly or disables relatives; 2003: Q37a Caring for and educating children; Q37c Caring for elderly or disables relatives;	Eurofound, EQLS. EIGE's calculation with microdata.	2003 EU calculated with original variables. CZ, ES, HR, PL, 2007.	2007	2012	2016	2016
		14	Cooking	People doing cooking and/or housework, every day (%, 18+ population)	Percentage of people involved in cooking and/or housework outside of paid work, every day. Questions: How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? 2016: Q42c Cooking and/or housework; 2012 Q36b Cooking and/or housework; 2007: Q36b Cooking and housework; 2003:Q37b Housework.	Eurofound, EQLS. EIGE's calculation with microdata.	2003 EU calculated with original variables. CZ, ES, HR, PL, 2007.	2007	2012	2016	2016
	Social activities	15	Leisure	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside of their home, at least daily or several times a week (%, 15+ workers)	Percentage of working people doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities at least every other day (daily + several times a month out of total). Question: 2015 On average, how many hours per day do you spend on the activity? Q95g Sporting, cultural or leisure activity outside your home.	Eurofound, EWCS. EIGE's calculation with microdata.	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015
		16	Voluntary	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month (%, 15+ workers)	Percentage of working people involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month. Questions: 2015 On average, how many hours per day do you spend on the activity? Q95a Voluntary or charitable activities; daily; several times a week; several times a month; Less often; Never. (1-3 out of total (who answered 1-5)). 2005 (EF4.1a), 2010 (EF3a) In general, how often are you involved in voluntary or charitable activity outside your home outside work? 1 Every day for 1 hour or more; 2 Every day or every second day for less than 1 hour; 3 Once or twice a week; 4 Once or twice a month; 5 Once or twice a year; 6 Never. (1-4 out of total (who answered 1-6)).	Eurofound, EWCS. EIGE's calculation with microdata.	2005	2010	2010	2015	2015

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Power	Political	17	Min	Share of ministers (% W, M)	Share of ministers. Ratio based on 3 year averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). National governments (all ministers: junior ministers + senior ministers). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2004-2005-2006. HR: 2007.	2009-2010-2011.	2011-2012-2013.	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018.
		18	Parl	Share of members of parliament (% W, M)	Share of members of parliament. Ratio based on 3 years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). National parliaments (both houses). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation	2004-2005-2006. HR: 2007.	2009-2010-2011.	2011-2012-2013.	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018.
		19	Reg	Share of members of regional assemblies (% W, M)	Share of members of regional assemblies. Ratio based on 3 years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). If regional assemblies do not exist, local-level politics are included. Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	Regional assembly 2009-2010-2011.	Regional assembly 2009-2010-2011.	Regional assembly 2011-2012-2013.	Regional assembly 2014-2015-2016.	Regional assembly 2016-2017-2018.
							Local-level politics 2011.	Local-level politics 2011.	Local-level politics 2013.	Local-level politics 2015.	Local-level politics 2017.
Power	Economic	20	Boards	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (% W, M)	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies. Ratio based on 3 years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2004-2005-2006. HR: 2007.	2009-2010-2011.	2011-2012-2013.	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018.
		21	Banks	Share of board members of central bank (% W, M)	Share of board members of central bank. Ratio based on 3 years averages and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2004-2005-2006. DE: 2004, 2007, HR: 2007.	2009-2010-2011.	2011-2012-2013.	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018.
	Social	22	Res	Share of board members of research-funding organisations (% W, M)	Members of the highest decision-making bodies of research-funding organisations Ratio based on the average of available years and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2017	2017	2017	2017	2017-2018. IT: only 2017.
Power	Social	23	Media	Share of board members in publically owned broadcasting organisations (% W, M)	Share of board members in publically owned broadcasting organisations. Ratio based on the average of available years and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2014	2014	2014	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018.
		24	Sport	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sport organisations (% W, M)	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the 10 most popular national Olympic sport organisations. Ratio based on the average of available years and ratio of each sex in the population (18+). Population statistics based on Eurostat database.	EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID EIGE's calculation.	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015-2018.

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Health	Status	25	SelfPerc	Self-perceived health, good or very good (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people assessing their health as 'Very good' or 'Good' out of total. The concept is operationalised by a question on how a person perceives his/her health in general using one of the answer categories very good/good/fair/bad/very bad.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. Self-perceived health by sex, age and labour status (%) [hlth_silc_01].	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007.	2010	2012 HR, 2011 (M).	2015	2017
		26	Life ex	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)	Life expectancy at a certain age is the mean additional number of years that a person of that age can expect to live, if subjected throughout the rest of his or her life to the current mortality conditions (age-specific probabilities of dying, i.e. the death rates observed for the current period).	Eurostat, Mortality data. Healthy Life Years (from 2004 onwards) [hlth_hlye], indicators F_0_LE — Life expectancy in absolute value at birth — females and M_0_LE — Life expectancy in absolute value at birth.	2005 Total: average of women and men. EU: Non-weighted average.	2010 Total: average of women and men. IT: 2009.	2012 Total: average of women and men. SE: 2011.	2015 Total: average of women and men.	2016 Total: average of women and men.
		27	HLY	Healthy life years (HLY) in absolute value at birth (years)	Healthy life years measures the number of remaining years that a person of a specific age is expected to live without any severe or moderate health problems. HLY is a composite indicator that combines mortality data with health status data from health mini-module (EU-SILC). The question aims to measure the extent of any limitations and so asks about at least 6 months because of any health problem that may affect respondents as regards activities they usually do.	Eurostat, EU-SILC and mortality data HLY (from 2004 onwards) [hlth_hlye], indicators F_0_DFLE — HLY in absolute value at birth — females and M_0_DFLE — HLY in absolute value at birth — males.	2005 Total: average of women and men. EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007.	2010 Total: average of women and men. IT: 2009.	2012 Total: average of women and men. SE: 2011.	2015 Total: average of women and men.	2016 Total: average of women and men.
	Behaviour	28	Risk	People who do not smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people who are not involved in risk behaviour i.e. do not smoke and are not involved in heavy episodic drinking. Heavy episodic drinking is the intake of six drinks or 60 + grams of pure alcohol on one occasion, monthly or more often, during the past 12 months. A drink is defined as a glass of wine, glass of beer, shot of whisky etc. Everyone either smoking and/or involved in harmful drinking is regarded to exercise risk behaviour.	Eurostat, EHIS. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.
		29	Behav	People doing physical activities and/or consuming fruits and vegetables (%, 16+ population)	Percentage of people who are physically active for at least 150 minutes per week and/or consume at least five portions of fruit and vegetables per day. Both reflect the official recommendation of the WHO. Eurostat provides info on the time spent on health-enhancing (non-work-related) aerobic physical activity (in minutes per week), including sports and cycling to get to and from places. Five portions (400 g) fruit and vegetables exclude juices from concentrates and potatoes (starches).	Eurostat, EHIS. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.	2014 EU: Non-weighted average. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.

Domain	Sub-domain	N	Short name	Indicator and reference population	Description	Data used					
						Source	Index				
							2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
Health	Access	30	Medical	Population without unmet needs for medical examination (%, 16+ population)	Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination. The variables refer to the respondent's own assessment of whether he or she needed examination or treatment, but did not have it. Percentage of persons 'No unmet needs to declare', Medical care: refers to individual healthcare services (medical examination or treatment excluding dental care) provided by or under direct supervision of medical doctors or equivalent professions according to national healthcare systems.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination by sex, age, detailed reason and income quintile (%) [hlth_silc_08].	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007.	2010	2012	2015	2017
		31	Dental	People without unmet needs for dental examination (%, 16+ population)	Self-reported unmet needs for dental examination. The variables refer to the respondent's own assessment of whether he or she needed the examination or treatment, but did not have it. Percentage of persons 'No unmet needs to declare'. Dental care: refers to individual healthcare services provided by or under direct supervision of stomatologists (dentists). Health care provided by orthodontists is included.	Eurostat, EU-SILC. Self-reported unmet needs for dental examination by sex, age, detailed reason and income quintile (%) [hlth_silc_09].	2005 EU: Non-weighted average. BG 2006, HR 2010, RO 2007.	2010	2012	2015	2017
Additional variable				Population in age group 18+	Number of people in age 18 and older.	Eurostat, population statistics (1) Population on 1 January by broad age group and sex [demo_pjanbroad] (2) Population on 1 January by age and sex [demo_pjan]	2004-2005-2006	2009-2010-2011	2011-2012-2013	2014-2015-2016.	2016-2017-2018

Annex 2. Scores of the Gender Equality Index

Table 6: Scores of the Gender Equality Index, rank and change in score by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Score (points)					Rank					Differences	
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005-2017	2015-2017
EU	62.0	63.8	65.0	66.2	67.4	-	-	-	-	-	5.4	1.2
BE	66.0	69.3	70.2	70.5	71.1	6	5	5	7	8	5.1	0.6
BG	56.0	55.0	56.9	58.0	58.8	14	17	15	16	19	2.8	0.8
CZ	53.6	55.6	56.7	53.6	55.7	17	14	17	23	21	2.1	2.1
DK	74.6	75.2	75.6	76.8	77.5	2	2	2	2	2	2.9	0.7
DE	60.0	62.6	64.9	65.5	66.9	12	11	12	12	12	6.9	1.4
EE	52.2	53.4	53.5	56.7	59.8	21	21	22	20	17	7.6	3.1
IE	61.9	65.4	67.7	69.5	71.3	10	9	8	8	7	9.4	1.8
EL	46.8	48.6	50.1	50.0	51.2	27	28	28	28	28	4.4	1.2
ES	62.2	66.4	67.4	68.3	70.1	9	8	9	11	9	7.9	1.8
FR	65.2	67.5	68.9	72.6	74.6	7	7	6	5	3	9.4	2.0
HR	50.3	52.3	52.6	53.1	55.6	22	25	23	24	22	5.3	2.5
IT	49.2	53.3	56.5	62.1	63.0	26	22	18	14	14	13.8	0.9
CY	45.9	49.0	50.6	55.1	56.3	28	27	27	22	20	10.4	1.2
LV	53.4	55.2	56.2	57.9	59.7	18	16	19	17	18	6.3	1.8
LT	55.8	54.9	54.2	56.8	55.5	16	18	21	19	23	– 0.3	– 1.3
LU	64.4	61.2	65.9	69.0	69.2	8	12	11	9	10	4.8	0.2
HU	49.5	52.4	51.8	50.8	51.9	25	24	25	27	27	2.4	1.1
MT	56.0	54.4	57.8	60.1	62.5	15	19	14	15	15	6.5	2.4
NL	67.8	74.0	74.0	72.9	72.1	5	3	4	4	6	4.3	– 0.8
AT	59.5	58.7	61.3	63.3	65.3	13	13	13	13	13	5.8	2.0
PL	52.4	55.5	56.9	56.8	55.2	20	15	16	18	24	2.8	– 1.6
PT	49.9	53.7	54.4	56.0	59.9	23	20	20	21	16	10.0	3.9
RO	49.9	50.8	51.2	52.4	54.5	24	26	26	25	25	4.6	2.1
SI	60.8	62.7	66.1	68.4	68.3	11	10	10	10	11	7.5	– 0.1
SK	52.5	53.0	52.4	52.4	54.1	19	23	24	26	26	1.6	1.7
FI	72.0	73.1	74.4	73.0	73.4	3	4	3	3	4	1.4	0.4
SE	78.8	80.1	79.7	82.6	83.6	1	1	1	1	1	4.8	1.0
UK	71.2	68.7	68.9	71.5	72.2	4	6	7	6	5	1.0	0.7

Table 7: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and rank, by domain and EU Member State, 2005

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

Table 8: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and rank, by domain and EU Member State, 2010

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

Table 9: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and rank, by domain and EU Member State, 2012

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

Table 10: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and rank, by domain and EU Member State, 2015

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

Table 11: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and rank, by domain and EU Member State, 2017

MS	Score							Rank						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU	67.4	72.0	80.4	63.5	65.7	51.9	88.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	71.1	74.1	88.3	71.3	65.3	55.2	86.3	8	10	2	3	12	10	17
BG	58.8	69.0	61.8	53.2	42.7	59.9	77.1	19	21	28	25	28	6	27
CZ	55.7	67.0	76.7	59.0	57.3	26.1	86.3	21	25	16	15	18	26	18
DK	77.5	79.6	87.1	72.3	83.1	64.9	89.9	2	2	4	2	3	4	9
DE	66.9	72.1	86.0	53.7	65.0	56.6	90.5	12	17	9	24	13	8	6
EE	59.8	71.5	69.4	55.5	74.7	34.6	81.9	17	18	24	22	5	20	24
IE	71.3	75.5	85.5	66.9	74.2	53.4	90.9	7	6	10	8	6	11	5
EL	51.2	64.2	71.4	55.7	44.7	24.3	83.5	28	27	23	21	27	27	22
ES	70.1	72.9	76.7	67.4	64.0	62.0	90.1	9	14	17	6	15	5	7
FR	74.6	72.4	86.4	66.0	67.3	78.3	87.4	3	16	7	9	10	2	14
HR	55.6	69.2	72.2	50.4	51.0	34.8	83.7	22	20	20	27	22	19	21
IT	63.0	63.1	78.8	61.2	59.3	47.6	88.7	14	28	15	12	17	13	12
CY	56.3	70.7	80.8	56.5	51.3	28.2	88.4	20	19	14	18	21	24	13
LV	59.7	74.2	65.5	49.7	65.8	44.1	78.3	18	8	25	28	11	16	26
LT	55.5	73.6	64.7	55.9	50.6	32.5	79.8	23	11	26	20	23	21	25
LU	69.2	74.1	91.8	69.5	69.1	44.8	89.6	10	9	1	5	9	15	11
HU	51.9	67.4	71.6	56.9	54.3	20.6	86.6	27	23	22	16	19	28	16
MT	62.5	73.3	82.5	65.8	64.2	32.2	92.1	15	12	11	10	14	22	3
NL	72.1	77.4	86.7	67.1	83.9	50.0	90.0	6	3	6	7	2	12	8
AT	65.3	76.6	86.4	64.1	61.2	39.9	91.7	13	5	8	11	16	17	4
PL	55.2	67.0	75.1	56.5	52.5	29.1	83.2	24	24	18	17	20	23	23
PT	59.9	72.5	72.1	55.1	47.5	46.7	84.5	16	15	21	23	25	14	20
RO	54.5	67.7	62.0	51.5	50.3	38.8	71.1	25	22	27	26	24	18	28
SI	68.3	73.3	82.4	56.0	72.9	57.6	87.1	11	13	12	19	7	7	15
SK	54.1	66.5	74.2	60.4	46.3	26.8	85.8	26	26	19	14	26	25	19
FI	73.4	74.9	87.6	61.1	77.4	66.7	89.7	4	7	3	13	4	3	10
SE	83.6	83.0	86.8	73.8	90.1	83.4	94.7	1	1	5	1	1	1	1
UK	72.2	76.9	81.6	70.4	69.9	56.5	93.3	5	4	13	4	8	9	2

Table 12: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of work and its sub-domains and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)														
	Domain of work					Participation					Segregation and quality of work				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**70.0**	**70.5**	**71.0**	**71.5**	**72.0**	**77.5**	**78.1**	**78.7**	**79.8**	**80.9**	**63.3**	**63.7**	**64.0**	**64.0**	**64.0**
BE	71.0	72.7	72.8	73.8	74.1	72.3	75.7	75.4	77.5	78.2	69.8	69.8	70.4	70.2	70.2
BG	67.3	67.9	68.7	68.6	69.0	77.9	81.3	82.0	82.7	83.5	58.1	56.7	57.6	56.9	57.0
CZ	65.3	64.9	65.3	66.1	67.0	79.6	78.9	79.9	81.8	83.5	53.6	53.3	53.3	53.5	53.7
DK	78.9	79.8	79.7	79.2	79.6	88.5	88.5	88.3	87.2	88.3	70.3	71.9	72.1	72.0	71.8
DE	68.1	70.0	70.6	71.4	72.1	75.6	79.0	80.2	81.9	83.3	61.4	62.1	62.1	62.2	62.3
EE	71.0	71.2	71.4	72.1	71.5	87.2	87.3	87.7	88.6	89.8	57.9	58.1	58.1	58.7	57.0
IE	71.1	73.5	73.7	73.9	75.5	75.1	77.4	77.3	78.3	81.7	67.4	69.8	70.2	69.7	69.8
EL	62.5	63.6	63.6	64.2	64.2	68.0	71.1	69.4	71.0	71.4	57.5	57.0	58.4	58.0	57.7
ES	68.1	71.8	72.3	72.4	72.9	70.9	77.0	77.5	78.0	79.1	65.4	66.9	67.4	67.3	67.1
FR	70.5	71.5	71.9	72.1	72.4	79.1	81.1	81.4	82.3	82.4	62.9	63.1	63.5	63.2	63.5
HR	67.5	67.2	68.3	69.4	69.2	74.5	75.0	75.5	78.5	78.9	61.1	60.3	61.8	61.4	60.7
IT	60.8	61.3	62.4	62.4	63.1	63.8	64.9	66.7	66.7	68.2	58.0	57.8	58.5	58.4	58.5
CY	66.3	70.5	68.9	70.7	70.7	78.5	85.2	83.4	84.7	84.9	55.9	58.3	56.9	59.0	58.8
LV	71.7	72.6	74.3	73.6	74.2	83.6	86.9	86.9	87.8	89.3	61.4	60.7	63.5	61.8	61.7
LT	71.9	72.6	72.6	73.2	73.6	84.1	86.0	86.8	88.2	89.7	61.5	61.3	60.8	60.7	60.4
LU	68.1	70.9	72.5	74.0	74.1	70.2	74.8	77.7	81.3	82.4	66.1	67.3	67.7	67.4	66.7
HU	65.4	66.0	66.4	67.2	67.4	74.8	75.8	76.9	79.6	81.0	57.2	57.5	57.4	56.7	56.0
MT	60.8	65.1	68.2	71.0	73.3	51.4	58.6	63.2	68.9	73.1	71.8	72.3	73.7	73.1	73.5
NL	74.8	76.3	76.2	76.7	77.4	75.1	78.5	78.6	79.2	80.7	74.5	74.1	73.9	74.3	74.2
AT	73.7	75.3	75.6	76.1	76.6	77.0	80.3	80.9	81.4	82.4	70.6	70.6	70.6	71.2	71.2
PL	65.2	66.3	66.6	66.8	67.0	75.1	77.9	78.3	79.5	80.2	56.7	56.5	56.5	56.2	56.0
PT	70.6	71.4	71.4	72.0	72.5	84.4	85.6	84.1	85.4	86.6	59.0	59.5	60.6	60.8	60.7
RO	68.6	67.9	67.8	67.1	67.7	79.3	78.8	78.5	77.5	79.0	59.3	58.6	58.5	58.1	58.0
SI	71.2	71.9	71.3	71.8	73.3	83.5	84.4	83.7	83.5	86.5	60.7	61.3	60.7	61.7	62.1
SK	65.3	64.8	64.9	65.5	66.5	78.2	79.0	78.8	80.6	82.6	54.6	53.1	53.4	53.2	53.5
FI	74.2	74.5	74.8	74.7	74.9	88.2	88.9	89.2	89.2	88.9	62.5	62.4	62.7	62.6	63.1
SE	78.7	80.4	81.4	82.6	83.0	88.7	91.9	93.8	95.4	95.7	69.9	70.4	70.6	71.5	71.9
UK	74.2	75.1	75.4	76.6	76.9	80.4	81.1	81.6	83.6	84.6	68.4	69.5	69.6	70.2	69.9

MS	Rank														
	Domain of work					Participation					Segregation and quality of work				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	11	8	9	9	10	23	23	25	24	25	6	6	6	6	6
BG	20	20	19	21	21	15	10	10	11	11	20	25	23	24	24
CZ	23	25	25	25	25	10	16	15	14	12	28	27	28	27	27
DK	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	6	6	4	3	3	3	4
DE	16	18	17	17	17	17	15	14	13	13	14	13	14	13	13
EE	12	15	15	13	18	4	4	4	3	2	22	21	22	20	23
IE	10	7	8	8	6	18	20	22	22	18	8	7	7	8	8
EL	26	27	27	27	27	26	26	26	26	27	23	24	21	23	22
ES	18	12	12	12	14	24	21	21	23	22	10	10	10	10	9
FR	14	13	13	14	16	12	11	12	12	15	11	11	12	11	11
HR	19	21	20	20	20	22	24	24	21	24	16	17	15	16	17
IT	27	28	28	28	28	27	27	27	28	28	21	22	20	21	20
CY	21	17	18	19	19	13	8	9	8	9	26	20	25	19	19
LV	8	9	7	10	8	7	5	5	5	4	15	16	11	14	15
LT	7	10	10	11	11	6	6	6	4	3	13	14	16	18	18
LU	17	16	11	7	9	25	25	20	16	17	9	9	9	9	10
HU	22	23	24	22	23	21	22	23	18	19	24	23	24	25	25
MT	28	24	21	18	12	28	28	28	27	26	2	2	2	2	2
NL	3	3	3	3	3	19	18	17	20	20	1	1	1	1	1
AT	6	4	4	5	5	16	13	13	15	16	3	4	4	5	5
PL	25	22	23	24	24	20	19	19	19	21	25	26	26	26	26
PT	13	14	14	15	15	5	7	7	7	7	19	18	18	17	16
RO	15	19	22	23	22	11	17	18	25	23	18	19	19	22	21
SI	9	11	16	16	13	8	9	8	10	8	17	15	17	15	14
SK	24	26	26	26	26	14	14	16	17	14	27	28	27	28	28
FI	4	6	6	6	7	3	2	2	2	5	12	12	13	12	12
SE	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	5	5	4	3
UK	5	5	5	4	4	9	12	11	9	10	7	8	8	7	7

Table 13: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of money and its sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)														
	Domain of money					Financial resources					Economic situation				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**73.9**	**78.4**	**78.4**	**79.6**	**80.4**	**60.9**	**69.4**	**70.0**	**73.0**	**73.8**	**89.7**	**88.6**	**87.9**	**86.7**	**87.7**
BE	81.3	85.5	85.6	87.5	88.3	73.9	77.9	78.6	82.7	83.3	89.5	94.0	93.3	92.6	93.6
BG	54.3	60.8	60.5	61.9	61.8	33.5	44.7	44.2	48.2	50.2	88.1	82.8	82.7	79.5	76.1
CZ	70.2	73.8	74.0	75.9	76.7	50.6	55.1	55.8	58.8	59.8	97.4	98.7	98.1	98.1	98.2
DK	82.7	83.6	85.7	86.6	87.1	71.2	78.3	80.4	82.4	83.2	96.1	89.3	91.4	91.1	91.2
DE	83.3	83.2	84.0	84.2	86.0	73.7	77.1	78.1	81.2	82.1	94.1	89.8	90.2	87.4	90.1
EE	58.4	65.5	64.9	66.7	69.4	41.4	49.5	50.2	56.4	58.3	82.2	86.7	84.0	79.0	82.5
IE	79.5	85.5	84.4	84.7	85.5	73.6	81.1	80.7	81.0	81.7	85.8	90.2	88.2	88.6	89.5
EL	71.9	75.3	71.1	70.7	71.4	62.2	66.7	62.7	61.4	61.3	83.2	84.9	80.7	81.4	83.2
ES	73.6	77.1	76.0	75.9	76.7	63.5	70.4	69.6	71.0	72.2	85.4	84.4	82.9	81.2	81.4
FR	81.6	83.5	83.7	86.1	86.4	71.4	75.9	77.2	80.4	81.0	93.2	91.8	90.6	92.3	92.1
HR	68.6	68.6	68.9	69.9	72.2	56.2	56.2	55.7	57.1	60.1	83.8	83.8	85.2	85.6	86.9
IT	76.2	78.9	78.7	78.6	78.8	68.0	72.5	72.8	73.0	74.4	85.4	86.0	85.1	84.6	83.5
CY	72.6	80.7	81.7	79.2	80.8	60.5	74.8	76.4	72.1	72.8	87.1	87.1	87.4	87.1	89.7
LV	56.3	58.9	59.6	64.3	65.5	40.2	43.5	43.5	51.9	53.7	78.7	79.8	81.5	79.5	80.0
LT	57.0	60.8	64.3	65.6	64.7	40.7	47.8	48.4	53.5	55.0	80.1	77.3	85.5	80.4	76.1
LU	93.1	91.8	92.1	94.4	91.8	91.2	91.2	91.6	97.0	96.8	95.1	92.5	92.7	92.0	87.2
HU	66.5	70.8	69.8	70.7	71.6	47.3	51.0	52.5	55.2	55.5	93.4	98.3	92.9	90.5	92.5
MT	70.3	79.2	80.6	82.4	82.5	53.0	68.6	69.5	73.3	74.4	93.3	91.3	93.3	92.8	91.4
NL	82.2	86.6	87.0	86.8	86.7	72.6	77.7	77.6	79.1	80.4	93.1	96.5	97.5	95.4	93.5
AT	82.5	82.8	83.6	85.9	86.4	71.9	74.7	75.8	79.8	81.4	94.6	91.8	92.2	92.5	91.7
PL	61.4	69.5	70.3	73.3	75.1	46.2	54.6	56.2	61.4	62.8	81.4	88.5	88.0	87.5	89.9
PT	68.8	71.8	71.7	70.9	72.1	58.0	60.4	60.7	60.3	61.2	81.5	85.3	84.8	83.5	84.8
RO	53.2	59.8	59.2	59.4	62.0	36.1	42.5	42.7	45.7	47.2	78.4	84.2	82.1	77.3	81.6
SI	77.7	80.3	81.3	81.6	82.4	62.9	67.3	68.3	69.8	70.0	95.9	95.8	96.7	95.5	97.1
SK	61.5	70.2	72.1	74.0	74.2	40.1	51.9	53.9	56.4	56.8	94.5	95.1	96.4	97.2	96.9
FI	80.1	84.1	84.8	86.4	87.6	67.9	74.6	76.2	78.5	79.2	94.6	94.9	94.4	95.2	96.9
SE	84.1	85.3	85.3	87.5	86.8	72.2	75.9	77.4	82.3	82.1	98.0	95.8	93.9	93.1	91.9
UK	79.7	79.8	80.5	81.2	81.6	77.1	74.4	75.1	77.0	77.1	82.5	85.7	86.3	85.6	86.4
MS	Rank														
	Domain of money					Financial resources					Economic situation				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	8	4	4	2	2	3	4	4	2	2	14	8	8	8	5
BG	27	25	26	27	28	28	26	26	27	27	15	26	25	25	27
CZ	18	18	17	16	16	20	20	20	20	21	2	1	1	1	1
DK	4	7	3	5	4	10	3	3	3	3	3	15	12	12	12
DE	3	9	8	10	9	4	6	5	5	4	9	14	14	16	13
EE	24	24	24	24	24	23	24	24	23	22	23	18	23	27	23
IE	11	3	7	9	10	5	2	2	6	6	17	13	15	14	16
EL	16	17	20	21	23	15	17	17	17	18	21	22	28	22	22
ES	14	16	16	17	17	13	14	14	15	15	19	23	24	23	25
FR	7	8	9	7	7	9	7	8	7	8	12	10	13	10	8
HR	20	23	23	23	20	18	19	21	21	20	20	25	20	19	18
IT	13	15	15	15	15	11	13	13	13	13	18	19	21	20	21
CY	15	11	11	14	14	16	9	9	14	14	16	17	17	17	15
LV	26	28	27	26	25	25	27	27	26	26	27	27	27	26	26
LT	25	26	25	25	26	24	25	25	25	25	26	28	19	24	28
LU	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	9	10	11	17
HU	21	20	22	22	22	21	23	23	24	24	10	2	9	13	7
MT	17	14	13	11	11	19	15	15	12	12	11	12	7	7	11
NL	6	2	2	4	6	6	5	6	9	9	13	3	2	4	6
AT	5	10	10	8	8	8	10	11	8	7	7	11	11	9	10
PL	23	22	21	19	18	22	21	19	18	17	25	16	16	15	14
PT	19	19	19	20	21	17	18	18	19	19	24	21	22	21	20
RO	28	27	28	28	27	27	28	28	28	28	28	24	26	28	24
SI	12	12	12	12	12	14	16	16	16	16	4	5	3	3	2
SK	22	21	18	18	19	26	22	22	22	23	8	6	4	2	3
FI	9	6	6	6	3	12	11	10	10	10	6	7	5	5	4
SE	2	5	5	3	5	7	8	7	4	5	1	4	6	6	9
UK	10	13	14	13	13	2	12	12	11	11	22	20	18	18	19

Table 14: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of knowledge and its sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)														
	Domain of knowledge					Attainment and participation					Segregation				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**60.8**	**61.8**	**62.8**	**63.4**	**63.5**	**67.0**	**68.5**	**70.4**	**72.1**	**72.8**	**55.2**	**55.8**	**56.1**	**55.6**	**55.4**
BE	68.1	70.6	70.6	71.1	71.3	70.7	73.3	72.5	73.3	74.3	65.7	68.1	68.8	68.9	68.4
BG	52.5	50.4	51.9	53.3	53.2	53.0	53.9	54.6	56.1	55.4	51.9	47.1	49.3	50.7	51.0
CZ	52.2	55.4	57.7	57.3	59.0	52.0	61.4	66.3	66.9	69.9	52.4	50.0	50.2	49.2	49.8
DK	73.7	73.2	71.3	73.6	72.3	81.1	81.7	80.5	82.1	81.8	67.0	65.6	63.1	66.0	64.0
DE	55.3	56.3	57.1	52.9	53.7	56.7	59.9	62.7	61.0	62.4	53.9	53.0	51.9	45.9	46.2
EE	49.5	51.6	53.8	53.2	55.5	66.7	67.4	70.5	67.9	70.1	36.8	39.5	41.1	41.7	44.0
IE	60.8	65.3	67.7	66.4	66.9	67.1	72.7	74.0	74.1	77.8	55.1	58.6	62.0	59.6	57.6
EL	47.2	53.4	54.3	55.6	55.7	54.3	59.8	60.7	63.9	66.3	41.0	47.7	48.5	48.4	46.8
ES	59.3	63.5	64.2	65.3	67.4	68.8	71.8	73.0	73.3	76.0	51.1	56.2	56.6	58.1	59.7
FR	62.3	62.0	62.4	66.1	66.0	67.1	67.9	69.7	77.5	78.5	57.9	56.6	55.8	56.4	55.6
HR	43.6	49.9	48.5	49.8	50.4	52.5	57.5	58.7	59.3	59.2	36.3	43.3	40.0	41.8	42.9
IT	54.1	53.8	56.7	61.4	61.2	51.8	53.7	54.4	56.1	57.0	56.6	53.9	59.2	67.1	65.8
CY	43.4	55.5	58.2	58.5	56.5	65.5	73.6	73.2	73.3	73.2	28.7	41.9	46.2	46.6	43.5
LV	46.6	49.2	48.8	48.9	49.7	60.2	60.5	62.2	59.1	62.3	36.1	40.0	38.3	40.5	39.7
LT	55.1	54.3	54.7	55.8	55.9	66.8	65.0	66.2	68.4	69.4	45.5	45.4	45.3	45.4	45.0
LU	62.0	66.3	68.7	69.4	69.5	65.6	74.8	78.6	84.1	84.5	58.7	58.7	60.1	57.2	57.1
HU	56.9	54.5	54.3	56.9	56.9	59.0	59.2	59.6	64.6	63.4	55.0	50.1	49.5	50.0	51.0
MT	62.4	65.4	66.3	65.2	65.8	50.6	59.2	60.2	61.3	65.9	77.0	72.3	73.0	69.5	65.8
NL	63.9	66.9	66.9	67.3	67.1	73.4	77.1	78.0	80.9	83.4	55.7	58.1	57.5	56.0	53.9
AT	58.9	58.9	59.9	63.2	64.1	58.9	61.2	61.8	72.0	74.1	58.9	56.6	58.1	55.5	55.5
PL	56.7	57.8	56.5	56.0	56.5	63.0	62.3	61.5	61.3	61.5	50.9	53.6	51.9	51.1	51.9
PT	48.6	50.1	54.9	54.8	55.1	48.5	50.8	59.1	59.5	60.4	48.7	49.5	51.0	50.6	50.3
RO	47.9	47.2	50.2	51.8	51.5	49.2	50.1	52.7	52.9	52.4	46.6	44.4	47.9	50.7	50.7
SI	52.1	55.0	54.9	55.0	56.0	67.9	68.4	67.1	67.4	66.9	39.9	44.2	45.0	44.9	46.9
SK	54.5	59.5	59.6	60.0	60.4	55.7	59.1	58.8	58.8	59.7	53.3	59.9	60.3	61.2	61.1
FI	56.6	58.6	59.5	61.3	61.1	77.8	78.3	79.5	81.4	83.0	41.2	43.9	44.6	46.1	45.0
SE	68.1	70.7	70.9	72.8	73.8	70.6	74.4	75.6	78.5	80.2	65.8	67.1	66.6	67.5	67.9
UK	75.8	73.3	73.5	71.8	70.4	85.7	80.6	81.7	82.2	79.7	67.0	66.7	66.0	62.7	62.2

MS	Rank														
	Domain of knowledge					Attainment and participation					Segregation				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	4	4	4	4	3	5	8	10	11	10	5	2	2	2	1
BG	19	24	25	23	25	22	25	26	27	27	16	20	19	15	15
CZ	20	17	15	16	15	24	16	14	16	14	15	17	17	19	19
DK	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	3	4	3	5	5	5	5
DE	15	15	16	25	24	19	19	16	21	20	13	15	15	23	22
EE	22	23	24	24	22	12	13	11	14	13	25	28	26	27	25
IE	9	8	6	7	8	9	9	7	8	8	11	8	6	8	9
EL	25	22	23	20	21	21	20	20	18	17	23	19	20	20	21
ES	10	9	9	9	6	7	10	9	10	9	17	12	12	9	8
FR	7	10	10	8	9	10	12	12	7	7	8	10	13	11	11
HR	27	26	28	27	27	23	24	25	23	25	26	25	27	26	27
IT	18	21	17	12	12	25	26	27	26	26	9	13	9	4	3
CY	28	16	14	15	18	14	7	8	9	12	28	26	22	21	26
LV	26	27	27	28	28	16	18	17	24	21	27	27	28	28	28
LT	16	20	21	19	20	11	14	15	13	15	21	21	23	24	23
LU	8	6	5	5	5	13	5	4	1	1	7	7	8	10	10
HU	12	19	22	17	16	17	21	22	17	19	12	16	18	18	16
MT	6	7	8	10	10	26	22	21	20	18	1	1	1	1	4
NL	5	5	7	6	7	4	4	5	5	2	10	9	11	12	13
AT	11	12	11	11	11	18	17	18	12	11	6	11	10	13	12
PL	13	14	18	18	17	15	15	19	19	22	18	14	14	14	14
PT	23	25	20	22	23	28	27	23	22	23	19	18	16	17	18
RO	24	28	26	26	26	27	28	28	28	28	20	22	21	16	17
SI	21	18	19	21	19	8	11	13	15	16	24	23	24	25	20
SK	17	11	12	14	14	20	23	24	25	24	14	6	7	7	7
FI	14	13	13	13	13	3	3	3	4	3	22	24	25	22	24
SE	3	3	3	2	1	6	6	6	6	5	4	3	3	3	2
UK	1	1	1	3	4	1	2	1	2	6	2	4	4	6	6

Table 15: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of time and its sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)														
	Domain of time					Care activities					Social activities				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**66.7**	**66.3**	**68.9**	**65.7**	**65.7**	**69.9**	**67.3**	**72.6**	**70.0**	**70.0**	**63.6**	**65.4**	**65.4**	**61.6**	**61.6**
BE	74.3	70.3	71.8	65.3	65.3	76.9	72.6	75.7	68.9	68.9	71.8	68.1	68.1	61.9	61.9
BG	50.9	43.9	47.4	42.7	42.7	64.7	48.6	56.6	55.7	55.7	40.1	39.7	39.7	32.6	32.6
CZ	51.2	53.8	55.5	57.3	57.3	55.8	55.8	59.4	56.8	56.8	47.1	51.9	51.9	57.7	57.7
DK	82.7	80.4	85.4	83.1	83.1	89.4	75.8	85.5	86.1	86.1	76.5	85.3	85.3	80.2	80.2
DE	66.6	69.8	67.8	65.0	65.0	69.5	70.1	66.1	71.3	71.3	63.8	69.6	69.6	59.3	59.3
EE	74.6	73.7	70.1	74.7	74.7	83.2	80.7	73.0	85.9	85.9	66.9	67.2	67.2	65.0	65.0
IE	74.2	70.8	76.5	74.2	74.2	69.9	69.9	81.6	76.2	76.2	78.6	71.8	71.8	72.1	72.1
EL	46.2	35.6	45.2	44.7	44.7	50.3	34.2	55.1	50.9	50.9	42.5	37.1	37.1	39.3	39.3
ES	58.0	60.8	65.8	64.0	64.0	60.9	60.9	71.4	74.5	74.5	55.2	60.6	60.6	55.0	55.0
FR	69.1	66.6	70.3	67.3	67.3	70.9	70.3	78.5	70.4	70.4	67.4	63.0	63.0	64.4	64.4
HR	48.3	49.8	54.7	51.0	51.0	53.0	53.0	63.9	54.4	54.4	44.0	46.7	46.7	47.9	47.9
IT	60.1	55.1	61.4	59.3	59.3	65.7	54.5	67.6	61.2	61.2	55.0	55.7	55.7	57.4	57.4
CY	47.7	45.9	45.9	51.3	51.3	55.0	52.6	52.7	65.7	65.7	41.3	40.0	40.0	40.0	40.0
LV	59.1	62.0	60.8	65.8	65.8	77.5	78.2	75.1	89.8	89.8	45.1	49.2	49.2	48.2	48.2
LT	53.5	52.2	55.7	50.6	50.6	78.4	65.4	74.5	64.0	64.0	36.4	41.7	41.7	40.0	40.0
LU	73.2	70.2	71.5	69.1	69.1	75.2	72.1	74.8	79.4	79.4	71.1	68.3	68.3	60.2	60.2
HU	61.1	54.1	55.2	54.3	54.3	75.6	68.7	71.6	65.0	65.0	49.3	42.6	42.6	45.4	45.4
MT	60.8	54.3	58.7	64.2	64.2	56.5	49.7	57.9	69.0	69.0	65.4	59.4	59.4	59.8	59.8
NL	86.4	85.9	86.7	83.9	83.9	78.4	76.5	78.0	79.3	79.3	95.2	96.4	96.4	88.7	88.7
AT	60.2	56.0	65.3	61.2	61.2	59.5	44.9	61.0	62.7	62.7	60.9	69.8	69.8	59.7	59.7
PL	54.6	54.2	55.3	52.5	52.5	63.0	63.0	65.6	64.1	64.1	47.2	46.5	46.5	43.0	43.0
PT	47.3	38.7	46.0	47.5	47.5	67.4	49.3	69.5	63.3	63.3	33.2	30.4	30.4	35.7	35.7
RO	48.9	50.6	53.2	50.3	50.3	84.8	70.9	78.1	70.7	70.7	28.2	36.2	36.2	35.8	35.8
SI	73.4	68.3	72.4	72.9	72.9	67.7	64.5	72.3	69.5	69.5	79.5	72.4	72.4	76.4	76.4
SK	55.3	39.9	43.4	46.3	46.3	79.1	52.7	62.5	56.5	56.5	38.7	30.2	30.2	37.9	37.9
FI	81.6	80.1	81.0	77.4	77.4	89.3	84.2	86.0	82.2	82.2	74.7	76.3	76.3	72.9	72.9
SE	89.6	84.5	83.5	90.1	90.1	88.1	84.6	82.6	90.9	90.9	91.1	84.3	84.3	89.3	89.3
UK	69.4	72.1	73.2	69.9	69.9	72.7	78.4	80.8	75.1	75.1	66.3	66.3	66.3	65.1	65.1
MS	Rank														
	Domain of time					Care activities					Social activities				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	6	8	8	12	12	10	8	9	16	16	7	10	10	10	10
BG	23	25	24	28	28	20	26	26	26	26	24	24	24	28	28
CZ	22	20	19	18	18	25	19	24	24	24	19	17	17	15	15
DK	3	3	2	3	3	1	7	2	3	3	5	2	2	3	3
DE	12	10	12	13	13	16	12	19	11	11	13	8	8	14	14
EE	5	5	11	5	5	5	3	13	4	4	10	11	11	8	8
IE	7	7	5	6	6	15	13	4	8	8	4	6	6	6	6
EL	28	28	27	27	27	28	28	27	28	28	22	25	25	24	24
ES	18	14	13	15	15	22	18	16	10	10	15	14	14	17	17
FR	11	12	10	10	10	14	11	6	13	13	9	13	13	9	9
HR	25	23	22	22	22	27	21	21	27	27	21	19	19	19	19
IT	16	16	15	17	17	19	20	18	23	23	16	16	16	16	16
CY	26	24	26	21	21	26	23	28	17	17	23	23	23	22	22
LV	17	13	16	11	11	9	5	10	2	2	20	18	18	18	18
LT	21	21	18	23	23	7	15	12	20	20	26	22	22	23	23
LU	9	9	9	9	9	12	9	11	6	6	8	9	9	11	11
HU	13	19	21	19	19	11	14	15	18	18	17	21	21	20	20
MT	14	17	17	14	14	24	24	25	15	15	12	15	15	12	12
NL	2	1	1	2	2	8	6	8	7	7	1	1	1	2	2
AT	15	15	14	16	16	23	27	23	22	22	14	7	7	13	13
PL	20	18	20	20	20	21	17	20	19	19	18	20	20	21	21
PT	27	27	25	25	25	18	25	17	21	21	27	27	27	27	27
RO	24	22	23	24	24	4	10	7	12	12	28	26	26	26	26
SI	8	11	7	7	7	17	16	14	14	14	3	5	5	4	4
SK	19	26	28	26	26	6	22	22	25	25	25	28	28	25	25
FI	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	1	5	5	6	4	4	5	5
SE	1	2	3	1	1	3	1	3	1	1	2	3	3	1	1
UK	10	6	6	8	8	13	4	5	9	9	11	12	12	7	7

Note: Scores of the domain of time have not changed since the last edition of the Index, because of a lack of new data.

Table 16: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of power and its sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)																			
	Domain of power					Political					Economic					Social				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**38.9**	**41.9**	**43.5**	**48.5**	**51.9**	**43.8**	**47.2**	**48.3**	**52.7**	**55.0**	**25.0**	**28.9**	**31.8**	**39.5**	**43.6**	**53.6**	**53.7**	**53.7**	**55.0**	**58.2**
BE	39.8	47.9	50.5	53.4	55.2	65.7	65.8	70.0	70.2	67.8	18.9	32.8	36.0	38.0	40.2	50.7	50.9	51.0	57.1	61.7
BG	48.4	45.8	49.4	56.0	59.9	49.1	50.3	53.4	49.2	53.8	33.2	27.6	32.7	53.2	59.9	69.2	69.3	69.3	67.0	66.8
CZ	29.6	31.0	32.0	22.6	26.1	28.6	30.7	31.7	36.6	37.8	25.8	27.4	29.0	9.2	13.6	35.1	35.6	35.6	34.2	34.3
DK	54.7	58.0	57.5	61.5	64.9	65.8	75.1	76.1	71.2	74.2	45.7	47.5	45.6	55.7	56.5	54.6	54.8	54.8	58.7	65.3
DE	34.0	38.3	46.0	53.0	56.6	67.4	60.2	59.9	71.5	69.6	11.9	19.0	33.0	42.1	49.7	49.1	49.2	49.1	49.5	52.4
EE	22.5	21.9	22.0	28.2	34.6	36.0	34.9	33.7	44.9	48.5	22.9	21.6	22.7	23.2	23.4	13.8	13.9	13.9	21.4	36.5
IE	32.1	37.2	40.7	48.6	53.4	29.9	32.9	37.0	39.8	44.1	15.3	21.7	25.4	39.9	46.4	72.3	72.1	71.7	72.4	74.5
EL	18.2	22.3	22.3	21.7	24.3	24.3	34.3	30.7	34.7	35.8	10.4	13.6	15.3	12.1	14.9	24.1	23.8	23.6	24.2	27.0
ES	45.9	52.6	52.9	57.0	62.0	79.4	73.7	69.7	72.3	76.8	20.6	33.3	35.8	43.5	53.4	59.2	59.4	59.2	58.9	58.1
FR	43.6	52.4	55.1	68.2	78.3	52.4	64.1	70.8	77.1	80.8	29.0	41.2	43.2	70.2	82.9	54.6	54.6	54.6	58.4	71.7
HR	27.4	28.4	27.3	28.5	34.8	45.3	40.2	40.0	38.7	42.2	20.0	24.8	22.2	19.0	19.8	22.8	22.9	22.9	31.6	50.2
IT	16.1	25.2	29.4	45.3	47.6	23.5	31.7	35.8	47.4	47.9	3.7	10.6	14.8	44.7	53.1	47.8	47.8	47.8	43.7	42.5
CY	16.4	15.4	17.4	24.7	28.2	23.6	30.1	30.2	25.8	27.5	7.2	4.7	6.8	22.6	23.0	26.0	25.9	25.7	25.8	35.6
LV	34.8	34.8	37.9	39.0	44.1	36.8	38.1	43.7	40.5	36.7	38.8	37.5	42.1	44.2	45.6	29.5	29.5	29.5	33.2	51.4
LT	37.3	32.9	27.7	36.6	32.5	35.1	34.0	34.8	40.0	40.9	33.0	23.7	13.9	30.1	18.5	44.7	44.3	44.2	40.9	45.3
LU	36.2	25.6	34.9	43.5	44.8	42.7	45.3	47.6	51.1	48.9	15.4	5.2	12.5	23.5	28.2	71.8	71.5	71.2	68.2	65.2
HU	16.3	23.5	21.9	18.7	20.6	20.3	16.1	15.9	14.3	15.0	10.0	37.8	31.0	22.1	23.1	21.4	21.4	21.5	20.9	25.1
MT	27.8	20.9	25.0	27.4	32.2	31.5	30.0	29.1	30.5	32.9	27.9	12.4	21.9	24.4	24.0	24.3	24.5	24.6	27.5	42.2
NL	40.3	56.9	56.6	52.9	50.0	69.4	69.5	66.0	70.6	70.6	14.4	40.4	41.8	33.1	29.3	65.7	65.8	65.8	63.4	60.2
AT	29.5	28.4	30.8	34.9	39.9	59.4	60.3	60.3	59.1	61.1	10.7	9.3	11.8	17.4	21.1	40.5	40.7	40.8	41.1	49.3
PL	26.3	30.6	34.8	35.1	29.1	32.1	36.6	43.5	46.1	43.6	19.9	27.5	33.8	38.2	33.1	28.5	28.6	28.6	24.4	17.0
PT	22.2	34.9	29.7	33.9	46.7	36.1	41.9	42.4	48.7	56.7	6.1	20.4	12.6	16.4	36.3	49.9	49.6	49.3	48.9	49.4
RO	30.7	30.8	28.8	33.2	38.8	25.3	23.5	26.5	32.9	40.8	25.8	28.0	20.4	21.4	20.5	44.4	44.4	44.4	51.8	69.7
SI	36.5	41.1	51.5	60.6	57.6	28.2	44.5	46.3	65.4	67.3	33.7	29.9	56.4	61.5	50.4	51.4	52.3	52.3	55.3	56.2
SK	26.9	29.5	25.4	23.1	26.8	28.2	31.0	28.4	29.0	35.3	28.6	34.1	23.7	14.6	17.9	24.2	24.3	24.4	29.1	30.4
FI	68.4	69.1	73.2	65.3	66.7	81.2	86.1	86.3	84.8	78.8	54.1	52.5	62.0	47.6	52.5	72.8	73.1	73.2	68.9	71.5
SE	74.1	77.8	75.2	79.5	83.4	89.9	92.1	93.0	93.9	95.1	52.1	58.7	52.6	60.8	69.4	86.9	87.1	87.1	87.8	87.9
UK	51.4	42.4	42.0	53.0	56.5	48.5	47.5	45.7	53.0	58.7	40.0	22.9	23.0	40.8	50.2	70.1	70.2	70.2	68.8	61.2

MS	Rank																			
	Domain of power					Political					Economic					Social				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	9	7	8	8	10	7	6	5	8	8	18	10	8	14	13	12	12	12	11	9
BG	5	8	9	7	6	10	10	10	13	13	7	13	12	5	3	6	6	6	6	6
CZ	17	16	16	26	26	21	24	22	22	22	13	15	14	28	28	19	19	19	19	24
DK	3	3	3	4	4	6	3	3	6	5	3	3	4	4	4	9	9	9	9	7
DE	14	11	10	9	8	5	9	9	5	7	22	22	11	10	10	14	14	14	14	14
EE	23	26	26	22	20	16	18	21	17	15	14	20	18	19	19	28	28	28	27	22
IE	15	12	12	12	11	20	21	18	20	17	20	19	15	12	11	3	3	3	2	2
EL	25	25	25	27	27	25	19	23	23	24	24	23	22	27	27	25	25	25	26	26
ES	6	5	6	6	5	3	4	6	4	4	15	9	9	9	5	8	8	8	8	12
FR	7	6	5	2	2	9	7	4	3	2	9	4	5	1	1	10	10	10	10	3
HR	20	21	22	21	19	12	15	17	21	19	16	16	19	23	24	26	26	26	21	16
IT	28	23	19	13	13	27	22	19	15	16	28	25	23	7	6	15	15	15	16	20
CY	26	28	28	24	24	26	25	24	27	27	26	28	28	20	21	22	22	22	24	23
LV	13	14	13	15	16	14	16	14	18	23	5	7	6	8	12	20	20	20	20	15
LT	10	15	21	16	21	17	20	20	19	20	8	17	24	16	25	16	17	17	18	19
LU	12	22	14	14	15	13	12	11	12	14	19	27	26	18	17	4	4	4	5	8
HU	27	24	27	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	25	6	13	21	20	27	27	27	28	27
MT	19	27	24	23	22	19	26	25	25	26	11	24	20	17	18	23	23	23	23	21
NL	8	4	4	11	12	4	5	7	7	6	21	5	7	15	16	7	7	7	7	11
AT	18	20	17	18	17	8	8	8	10	10	23	26	27	24	22	18	18	18	17	18
PL	22	18	15	17	23	18	17	15	16	18	17	14	10	13	15	21	21	21	25	28
PT	24	13	18	19	14	15	14	16	14	12	27	21	25	25	14	13	13	13	15	17
RO	16	17	20	20	18	24	27	27	24	21	12	12	21	22	23	17	16	16	13	5
SI	11	10	7	5	7	22	13	12	9	9	6	11	2	2	8	11	11	11	12	13
SK	21	19	23	25	25	23	23	26	26	25	10	8	16	26	26	24	24	24	22	25
FI	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	1	2	1	6	7	2	2	2	3	4
SE	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1
UK	4	9	11	10	9	11	11	13	11	11	4	18	17	11	9	5	5	5	4	10

Table 17: Scores of the Gender Equality Index and domain of health and its sub-domains, and rank, by EU Member State, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

MS	Scores (points)																			
	Domain of health					Status					Behaviour					Access				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	**85.9**	**87.2**	**87.2**	**87.4**	**88.1**	**88.5**	**91.1**	**91.1**	**91.2**	**92.2**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**75.4**	**95.1**	**96.6**	**96.5**	**97.1**	**98.3**
BE	86.3	86.5	86.4	86.3	86.3	92.1	92.6	93.4	93.3	93.3	70.3	70.3	70.3	70.3	70.3	99.2	99.3	98.1	98.0	97.9
BG	72.6	75.3	75.8	76.4	77.1	86.6	88.1	88.4	88.1	89.0	52.3	52.3	52.3	52.3	52.3	84.4	92.6	94.1	96.9	98.5
CZ	84.6	85.7	85.7	86.0	86.3	86.7	89.1	89.0	89.6	90.0	72.3	72.3	72.3	72.3	72.3	96.7	97.9	98.0	98.2	98.7
DK	91.1	90.3	90.2	89.6	89.9	94.3	92.2	92.6	91.6	92.4	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	98.2	97.8	96.9	96.2	96.3
DE	86.6	89.3	89.4	90.5	90.5	87.5	90.4	90.2	91.8	92.0	80.9	80.9	80.9	80.9	80.9	91.9	97.5	97.9	99.7	99.7
EE	81.0	82.7	82.1	81.5	81.9	80.7	83.4	83.2	84.1	83.9	70.1	70.1	70.1	70.1	70.1	93.7	96.8	94.7	91.9	93.5
IE	90.4	90.7	90.4	90.6	90.9	95.3	96.5	96.5	96.8	97.1	79.0	79.0	79.0	79.0	79.0	98.1	98.0	97.0	97.3	97.9
EL	84.6	84.3	83.9	83.1	83.5	94.0	94.1	93.5	93.4	93.3	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.6	96.6	95.7	94.8	92.3	93.8
ES	88.1	88.6	89.1	89.6	90.1	90.8	92.4	93.6	93.2	94.1	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	95.8	95.7	96.2	98.3	98.9
FR	86.9	86.7	86.8	87.1	87.4	90.9	91.0	91.6	91.6	91.9	74.0	74.0	74.0	74.0	74.0	97.5	96.8	96.6	97.6	98.1
HR	81.4	81.5	82.8	83.3	83.7	84.7	85.1	85.7	86.4	87.5	68.3	68.3	68.3	68.3	68.3	93.1	93.1	97.0	97.8	98.1
IT	85.8	86.3	86.5	86.3	88.7	89.4	91.1	91.3	91.3	95.1	74.2	74.2	74.2	74.2	74.2	95.3	94.9	95.5	94.8	99.0
CY	85.8	86.4	87.1	88.2	88.4	91.3	93.7	94.4	95.5	96.1	73.0	73.0	73.0	73.0	73.0	94.8	94.4	96.0	98.4	98.4
LV	73.8	77.3	77.9	78.4	78.3	74.6	80.0	80.5	79.8	79.0	65.5	65.5	65.5	65.5	65.5	82.3	88.3	89.7	92.3	92.9
LT	77.6	80.4	79.6	79.1	79.8	76.9	81.9	79.7	78.5	80.0	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	93.8	98.1	97.7	97.5	98.2
LU	89.2	89.8	90.0	89.0	89.6	92.9	93.8	94.4	92.0	91.9	78.5	78.5	78.5	78.5	78.5	97.5	98.3	98.4	97.7	99.7
HU	82.4	85.4	85.9	86.0	86.6	80.1	84.2	85.9	85.8	86.6	76.8	76.8	76.8	76.8	76.8	91.0	96.3	96.0	96.5	97.6
MT	90.7	90.6	91.6	91.8	92.1	93.6	93.8	95.3	95.6	96.2	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	81.7	97.6	97.0	98.6	99.0	99.6
NL	89.7	90.3	89.7	89.9	90.0	93.1	93.6	91.8	91.7	92.1	79.3	79.3	79.3	79.3	79.3	97.7	99.2	99.3	99.9	99.9
AT	91.4	91.1	91.5	91.7	91.7	91.1	91.0	91.7	91.3	91.5	84.6	84.6	84.6	84.6	84.6	99.1	98.1	98.8	99.8	99.7
PL	80.6	81.6	81.7	82.2	83.2	84.9	85.8	85.9	86.6	87.3	67.9	67.9	67.9	67.9	67.9	90.9	93.4	93.6	94.5	97.0
PT	83.8	84.3	84.4	83.6	84.5	82.3	83.3	84.6	82.6	84.0	75.5	75.5	75.5	75.5	75.5	94.9	95.2	94.2	93.9	95.2
RO	69.5	69.9	70.2	70.4	71.1	88.0	87.9	88.5	88.6	88.6	42.5	42.5	42.5	42.5	42.5	89.7	91.6	92.1	92.9	95.7
SI	86.3	86.8	87.3	87.7	87.1	85.0	86.3	87.9	89.1	89.4	75.9	75.9	75.9	75.9	75.9	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.8	97.5
SK	83.5	84.8	85.0	85.3	85.8	83.2	85.4	86.1	87.4	88.1	73.1	73.1	73.1	73.1	73.1	95.9	97.6	97.5	97.3	98.0
FI	89.2	89.5	89.3	89.7	89.7	89.2	90.5	90.2	91.1	90.9	81.9	81.9	81.9	81.9	81.9	97.0	96.6	96.4	96.8	96.8
SE	91.7	93.2	93.0	94.1	94.7	93.4	95.7	95.7	97.4	96.9	89.3	89.3	89.3	89.3	89.3	92.3	94.5	94.2	95.8	98.0
UK	93.1	94.1	93.7	93.1	93.3	93.9	95.6	94.3	93.7	94.1	88.5	88.5	88.5	88.5	88.5	97.0	98.4	98.4	97.5	97.6

MS	Rank																			
	Domain of health					Status					Behaviour					Access				
	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017	2005	2010	2012	2015	2017
EU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BE	14	14	16	15	17	9	9	9	7	9	20	20	20	20	20	2	2	7	9	16
BG	27	27	27	27	27	19	18	19	20	19	27	27	27	27	27	27	26	25	17	9
CZ	17	17	18	17	18	18	17	17	17	17	19	19	19	19	19	12	9	8	8	8
DK	4	6	6	9	9	2	11	10	12	10	6	6	6	6	6	4	10	14	20	23
DE	12	10	9	6	6	17	16	15	10	12	7	7	7	7	7	23	12	9	4	2
EE	23	22	23	24	24	25	25	26	25	26	21	21	21	21	21	20	15	22	28	27
IE	6	4	5	5	5	1	1	1	2	1	9	9	9	9	9	5	8	13	15	17
EL	18	20	21	22	22	3	4	8	6	8	24	24	24	24	24	13	18	21	27	26
ES	10	11	11	10	7	13	10	7	8	7	10	10	10	10	10	15	19	17	7	7
FR	11	13	14	14	14	12	13	13	13	14	16	16	16	16	16	9	14	15	12	13
HR	22	24	22	21	21	22	23	24	23	22	22	22	22	22	22	21	25	12	10	12
IT	15	16	15	16	12	14	12	14	14	5	15	15	15	15	15	16	21	20	22	6
CY	16	15	13	12	13	10	7	5	4	4	18	18	18	18	18	18	23	18	6	10
LV	26	26	26	26	26	28	28	27	27	28	25	25	25	25	25	28	28	28	26	28
LT	25	25	25	25	25	27	27	28	28	27	26	26	26	26	26	19	6	10	13	11
LU	8	8	7	11	11	8	5	4	9	13	11	11	11	11	11	8	5	5	11	4
HU	21	18	17	18	16	26	24	23	24	24	12	12	12	12	12	24	17	19	19	18
MT	5	5	3	3	3	5	6	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	5	7	13	4	5	5
NL	7	7	8	7	8	7	8	11	11	11	8	8	8	8	8	6	3	2	1	1
AT	3	3	4	4	4	11	14	12	15	15	3	3	3	3	3	3	7	3	2	3
PL	24	23	24	23	23	21	21	22	22	23	23	23	23	23	23	25	24	26	23	21
PT	19	21	20	20	20	24	26	25	26	25	14	14	14	14	14	17	20	24	24	25
RO	28	28	28	28	28	16	19	18	19	20	28	28	28	28	28	26	27	27	25	24
SI	13	12	12	13	15	20	20	20	18	18	13	13	13	13	13	1	1	1	3	20
SK	20	19	19	19	19	23	22	21	21	21	17	17	17	17	17	14	11	11	16	15
FI	9	9	10	8	10	15	15	16	16	16	4	4	4	4	4	11	16	16	18	22
SE	2	2	2	1	1	6	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	22	22	23	21	14
UK	1	1	1	2	2	4	3	6	5	6	2	2	2	2	2	10	4	6	14	19

Note: Scores of the sub-domain of behaviour have not changed.

Annex 3. Indicators included in the Gender Equality Index 2017

Table 18: Indicators included in the domain of work, by EU Member State, 2017

MS	Participation								Segregation and quality of work											
	Full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE) (%, 15+)				Duration of working life (DWL) (years)				Employed people in education, human health and social work activities (%, 15+ employed)				Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters (%,15+ employed)				Career prospect index (0-100 points)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU	**40.8**	**56.9**	**48.4**	**– 16.1**	**33.4**	**38.3**	**35.9**	**– 4.9**	**30.3**	**8.3**	**18.4**	**22.0**	**22.8**	**27.3**	**25.1**	**– 4.5**	**63.7**	**62.6**	**63.2**	**1.1**
BE	38.2	52.6	45.0	– 14.4	30.7	35.0	32.9	– 4.3	40.1	11.1	24.5	29.0	29.5	33.2	31.5	– 3.7	66.5	66.2	66.4	0.3
BG	44.8	55.0	49.6	– 10.2	31.6	34.4	33.0	– 2.8	18.3	4.1	10.7	14.2	20.3	31.3	25.8	– 11.0	62.3	65.6	63.9	– 3.3
CZ	48.0	66.0	56.7	– 18.0	32.8	38.9	35.9	-6.1	24.6	5.3	13.8	19.3	11.0	10.6	10.8	0.4	65.4	60.9	63.1	4.5
DK	46.3	56.8	51.3	– 10.5	38.0	41.2	39.6	– 3.2	41.9	13.2	26.8	28.7	31.8	50.1	41.4	– 18.3	72.9	70.4	71.7	2.5
DE	41.8	60.0	50.5	– 18.2	36.3	40.3	38.4	– 4.0	31.3	9.2	19.5	22.1	15.8	18.2	17.0	– 2.4	67.9	65.5	66.7	2.4
EE	51.0	65.4	57.6	– 14.4	37.5	39.4	38.5	– 1.9	24.9	4.3	14.4	20.6	15.4	15.8	15.6	– 0.4	64.8	65.8	65.3	– 1.0
IE	43.9	60.0	51.5	– 16.1	33.1	40.1	36.7	– 7.0	33.9	8.3	20.1	25.6	37.1	43.4	40.4	-6.3	64.1	64.6	64.3	– 0.5
EL	30.7	47.9	39.0	– 17.2	29.2	36.0	32.7	– 6.8	22.6	7.9	14.1	14.7	14.4	16.1	15.4	– 1.7	52.2	51.0	51.6	1.2
ES	36.9	50.5	43.3	– 13.6	32.8	37.2	35.1	– 4.4	24.1	7.4	15.0	16.7	32.9	35.3	34.2	– 2.4	57.3	56.1	56.8	1.2
FR	41.3	52.9	46.7	– 11.6	33.3	36.9	35.2	– 3.6	34.5	10.3	21.9	24.2	17.9	22.1	20.0	– 4.2	66.7	63.8	65.3	2.9
HR	39.0	51.1	44.8	– 12.1	30.4	34.5	32.5	– 4.1	24.1	4.9	13.7	19.2	25.1	29.4	27.3	– 4.3	61.0	59.8	60.4	1.2
IT	30.7	51.0	40.3	– 20.3	26.8	36.2	31.6	– 9.4	26.1	7.1	15.1	19.0	19.3	22.0	20.8	– 2.7	55.7	51.9	54.0	3.8
CY	46.6	56.6	51.3	– 10.0	33.5	39.1	36.3	– 5.6	19.4	6.8	12.8	12.6	17.5	18.5	18.0	– 1.0	50.8	53.0	51.9	– 2.2
LV	49.2	60.4	54.2	– 11.2	36.2	36.2	36.2	0.0	25.4	5.0	15.4	20.4	24.9	26.0	25.4	– 1.1	60.7	62.7	61.8	– 2.0
LT	50.6	59.7	54.7	– 9.1	36.3	35.4	35.9	0.9	26.9	6.1	16.8	20.8	19.0	21.0	19.9	– 2.0	63.2	61.9	62.5	1.3
LU	44.7	58.1	51.3	– 13.4	31.3	35.1	33.2	– 3.8	25.5	8.9	16.6	16.6	22.7	30.0	26.5	– 7.3	72.5	70.1	71.3	2.4
HU	45.1	62.3	53.2	– 17.2	30.9	36.4	33.7	– 5.5	24.5	5.2	14.0	19.3	16.5	13.4	15.0	3.1	63.5	64.4	64.0	– 0.9
MT	40.0	64.6	52.3	– 24.6	27.9	39.9	34.1	– 12.0	30.0	10.2	18.1	19.8	36.5	37.8	37.3	– 1.3	67.0	69.0	67.8	– 2.0
NL	36.9	57.5	46.7	– 20.6	37.6	42.5	40.1	– 4.9	34.9	9.5	21.3	25.4	48.5	56.3	52.6	– 7.8	62.4	61.0	61.7	1.4
AT	41.8	59.8	50.3	– 18.0	35.0	39.2	37.2	– 4.2	28.1	8.4	17.7	19.7	35.5	36.4	35.9	– 0.9	65.4	64.3	64.9	1.1
PL	44.4	62.1	52.8	– 17.7	30.4	36.0	33.3	– 5.6	24.2	4.8	13.5	19.4	16.1	18.8	17.4	– 2.7	59.2	60.1	59.7	– 0.9
PT	45.3	55.6	50.0	– 10.3	36.0	39.2	37.7	– 3.2	28.8	6.8	17.5	22.0	23.4	28.3	25.7	– 4.9	57.0	55.6	56.3	1.4
RO	42.6	59.7	50.9	– 17.1	30.1	36.4	33.4	– 6.3	16.0	3.4	8.9	12.6	18.2	20.2	19.2	– 2.0	67.1	66.0	66.6	1.1
SI	46.7	58.1	52.3	– 11.4	34.5	36.6	35.6	– 2.1	27.0	6.3	15.9	20.7	25.1	31.8	28.5	– 6.7	61.5	60.4	61.0	1.1
SK	46.0	61.2	53.3	– 15.2	31.6	36.4	34.1	– 4.8	27.1	4.7	14.8	22.4	11.0	15.1	13.0	– 4.1	66.8	65.7	66.2	1.1
FI	46.0	54.1	49.8	– 8.1	37.4	38.7	38.0	– 1.3	39.5	9.0	23.7	30.5	26.7	50.7	38.5	– 24.0	66.7	65.4	66.1	1.3
SE	58.5	66.4	62.3	– 7.9	40.7	42.6	41.7	– 1.9	42.5	12.2	26.6	30.3	34.9	47.1	41.3	– 12.2	68.1	66.7	67.4	1.4
UK	44.2	60.9	52.0	– 16.7	36.4	41.2	38.9	– 4.8	37.4	10.9	23.3	26.5	29.7	36.5	33.4	– 6.8	67.1	69.2	68.1	– 2.1
	Source: Eurostat, EU LFS, 2017. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU LFS, (lfsi_dwl_a), 2017.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU LFS, (lfsa_egan2), 2017.				*Source:* Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.			

Table 19: Indicators included in the domain of money, by EU Member State, 2017

MS	Financial resources								Economic situation							
	Mean monthly earnings (PPS, working population)				Mean equivalised net income (PPS,16+)				Not at risk of poverty, ≥ 60 % of median income (% 16+)				S20/S80 income quintile share (% 16+)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU	**2 249**	**2 809**	**2 541**	**– 560**	**17 343**	**18 121**	**17 718**	**– 778**	**82.9**	**84.5**	**83.6**	**– 1.6**	**19.8**	**19.5**	**19.6**	**0.3**
BE	2 771	3 108	2 959	– 337	21 864	23 341	22 583	– 1 477	83.4	85.7	84.5	– 2.3	26.6	25.9	26.1	0.7
BG	830	970	900	– 140	9 496	10 055	9 765	– 559	75.8	79.6	77.6	– 3.8	12.5	11.8	12.1	0.7
CZ	1 244	1 624	1 452	– 380	13 737	14 698	14 201	– 961	89.4	93.4	91.3	– 4.0	29.4	29.7	29.4	– 0.3
DK	2 719	3 347	3 014	– 628	23 089	23 371	23 228	– 282	87.7	86.7	87.2	1.0	25.9	23.0	24.5	2.9
DE	2 602	3 354	3 001	– 752	23 585	24 888	24 220	– 1 303	82.8	84.8	83.8	– 2.0	22.5	22.1	22.3	0.4
EE	1 199	1 692	1 409	– 493	13 708	14 501	14 073	– 793	75.2	81.2	77.9	– 6.0	19.2	17.9	18.5	1.3
IE	2 808	3 423	3 090	– 615	21 197	22 538	21 854	– 1 341	83.1	85.7	84.3	– 2.6	21.7	21.4	21.6	0.3
EL	1 669	1 971	1 829	– 302	10 420	10 657	10 534	– 237	80.4	80.5	80.5	– 0.1	16.7	16.0	16.4	0.7
ES	1 937	2 345	2 150	– 408	17 968	18 377	18 167	– 409	79.0	80.3	79.6	– 1.3	14.9	15.4	15.2	– 0.5
FR	2 310	2 818	2 577	– 508	24 116	24 856	24 472	– 740	87.6	88.4	88.0	– 0.8	22.6	22.9	22.7	– 0.3
HR	1 520	1 676	1 600	– 156	10 310	10 722	10 507	– 412	79.1	81.6	80.3	– 2.5	19.9	20.0	19.9	– 0.1
IT	2 134	2 589	2 388	– 455	18 596	19 558	19 059	– 962	79.7	81.8	80.7	– 2.1	17.1	16.6	16.9	0.5
CY	1 845	2 244	2 043	– 399	19 553	19 992	19 765	– 439	83.2	85.6	84.4	– 2.4	21.6	22.2	21.9	– 0.6
LV	1 047	1 283	1 149	– 236	10 538	11 378	10 913	– 840	74.5	80.3	77.1	– 5.8	16.3	15.6	15.9	0.7
LT	1 036	1 228	1 125	– 192	11 597	12 957	12 210	– 1 360	75.3	80.3	77.6	– 5.0	14.8	12.7	13.7	2.1
LU	3 322	3 601	3 492	– 279	33 483	35 193	34 324	– 1 710	81.1	82.8	81.9	– 1.7	19.7	20.3	20.0	– 0.6
HU	1 285	1 524	1 410	– 239	9 238	9 674	9 443	– 436	86.7	86.9	86.8	– 0.2	23.7	23.2	23.4	0.5
MT	1 932	2 266	2 127	– 334	19 948	20 675	20 312	– 727	82.9	85.1	84.0	– 2.2	24.1	23.5	23.8	0.6
NL	2 398	3 029	2 721	– 631	23 174	24 206	23 683	– 1 032	86.8	87.1	86.9	– 0.3	25.6	24.5	25.1	1.1
AT	2 235	2 947	2 652	– 712	26 076	27 384	26 715	– 1 308	85.6	87.7	86.6	– 2.1	23.0	23.6	23.3	– 0.6
PL	1 577	1 916	1 755	– 339	12 522	12 783	12 647	– 261	84.6	84.6	84.6	0.0	22.5	21.4	21.9	1.1
PT	1 398	1 670	1 528	– 272	12 829	13 277	13 038	– 448	81.4	82.4	81.8	– 1.0	17.6	17.2	17.4	0.4
RO	953	1 003	980	– 50	5 920	6 141	6 027	– 221	77.3	78.8	78.0	– 1.5	15.6	15.4	15.5	0.2
SI	1 845	2 021	1 938	– 176	15 943	16 617	16 276	– 674	85.1	88.3	86.7	– 3.2	29.2	29.4	29.2	– 0.2
SK	1 210	1 527	1 372	– 317	11 120	11 407	11 259	– 287	88.9	89.3	89.1	– 0.4	29.3	27.9	28.6	1.4
FI	2 381	2 952	2 642	– 571	21 884	22 585	22 226	– 701	88.1	88.4	88.2	– 0.3	28.7	27.8	28.3	0.9
SE	2 626	3 085	2 850	– 459	22 102	22 756	22 428	– 654	84.1	85.1	84.6	– 1.0	23.3	23.6	23.4	– 0.3
UK	2 242	2 942	2 594	– 700	21 577	22 799	22 173	– 1 222	82.8	85.1	83.9	– 2.3	18.7	18.4	18.5	0.3
	Source: Eurostat, SES (earn_ses14_20), 2014.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_di03), 2017. EU: Non-weighted average.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_li02), 2017.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC, 2017. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request.			

Table 20: Indicators included in the domain of knowledge, by EU Member State, 2017

MS	Attainment and participation								Segregation			
	Graduates of tertiary education (%, 15+)				People participating in formal or non-formal education and training (%, 15+)				Tertiary students in the fields of education, health and welfare, humanities and arts (tertiary students) (%, 15+)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU	**25.6**	**24.7**	**25.2**	**0.9**	**17.2**	**16.3**	**16.8**	**0.9**	**43.1**	**21.4**	**33.1**	**21.7**
BE	32.3	29.1	30.8	3.2	15.6	15.0	15.3	0.6	54.6	30.3	43.8	24.3
BG	26.4	18.4	22.5	8.0	8.4	9.0	8.7	– 0.6	31.6	17.1	24.9	14.5
CZ	19.3	19.0	19.2	0.3	18.2	18.0	18.1	0.2	40.4	18.0	30.8	22.4
DK	32.8	26.9	29.9	5.9	37.3	29.5	33.4	7.8	53.1	27.5	41.9	25.6
DE	19.8	28.1	23.9	– 8.3	13.6	15.3	14.4	– 1.7	41.3	17.3	28.9	24.0
EE	42.3	26.4	34.6	15.9	20.7	17.7	19.3	3.0	41.9	15.5	31.1	26.4
IE	38.8	33.7	36.3	5.1	17.2	15.9	16.6	1.3	48.2	23.7	36.3	24.5
EL	23.1	22.9	23.0	0.2	11.2	11.6	11.4	– 0.4	36.0	16.6	26.0	19.4
ES	30.1	28.7	29.5	1.4	16.5	16.2	16.4	0.3	48.7	24.7	37.5	24.0
FR	28.8	26.7	27.8	2.1	27.6	22.7	25.3	4.9	41.6	21.2	32.3	20.4
HR	20.4	18.3	19.4	2.1	9.9	9.5	9.7	0.4	33.2	13.9	24.8	19.3
IT	15.4	12.8	14.1	2.6	12.8	12.6	12.7	0.2	43.5	26.5	36.1	17.0
CY	36.6	30.9	33.9	5.7	13.4	13.9	13.6	– 0.5	39.6	15.3	28.6	24.3
LV	34.6	21.3	28.3	13.3	14.0	13.0	13.5	1.0	39.0	13.4	28.2	25.6
LT	34.8	26.5	31.1	8.3	13.6	13.7	13.6	– 0.1	41.2	16.1	30.3	25.1
LU	30.7	30.2	30.5	0.5	24.2	24.1	24.1	0.1	38.3	21.5	30.0	16.8
HU	20.7	18.3	19.5	2.4	13.2	13.7	13.4	– 0.5	40.4	18.8	30.6	21.6
MT	19.1	19.4	19.3	– 0.3	16.0	14.5	15.2	1.5	49.4	27.9	39.6	21.5
NL	29.1	31.3	30.2	– 2.2	25.5	24.9	25.2	0.6	37.9	19.8	29.2	18.1
AT	25.1	28.7	26.9	– 3.6	20.9	19.0	20.0	1.9	40.6	21.0	31.4	19.6
PL	26.8	20.3	23.7	6.5	11.5	11.1	11.3	0.4	38.6	18.5	30.4	20.1
PT	21.0	14.9	18.1	6.1	15.2	15.7	15.4	– 0.5	39.7	18.4	29.7	21.3
RO	13.5	13.0	13.3	0.5	8.3	9.2	8.7	– 0.9	31.9	17.1	25.1	14.8
SI	29.1	22.1	25.6	7.0	18.9	15.9	17.4	3.0	41.2	16.8	30.8	24.4
SK	20.8	17.6	19.2	3.2	10.8	11.0	10.9	– 0.2	47.7	24.6	38.3	23.1
FI	37.2	29.7	33.5	7.5	34.5	28.3	31.4	6.2	50.8	17.8	35.4	33.0
SE	40.4	29.4	34.8	11.0	40.8	28.8	34.7	12.0	54.2	29.6	44.2	24.6
UK	38.3	34.4	36.4	3.9	18.2	17.0	17.6	1.2	47.3	25.4	37.7	21.9
	Source: Eurostat, EU LFS, 2017. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU LFS, 2017. EIGE's calculation with microdata.				*Source:* Eurostat, Education statistics (educ_uoe_enrt03), 2017.EU calculated with original variables BG, CZ, IE, EL, FR, HR, IT, CY, HU, MT, PT, RO, SK, FI, SE, UK. 2016. SI, 2016 for ED7 (Master or equivalent).).			

Table 21: Indicators included in the domain of time, by EU Member State, 2017

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

Table 22: Indicators included in the domain of power, by EU Member State, 2017

MS	Political									Economic						Social								
	Share of Ministers (%)			Share of members of Parliament (%)			Share of members of Regional Assemblies (%)			Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (%)			Share of members of Central Bank (%)			Share of members of public research funding organisations (%)			Share of Board Members in publically owned broadcasting organisations (%)			Share of Members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sport organisations (%)		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
EU	**28.1**	**71.9**	**100.0**	**29.3**	**70.7**	**100.0**	**28.5**	**71.5**	**100.0**	**25.0**	**75.0**	**100.0**	**20.3**	**79.7**	**100.0**	**39.9**	**60.1**	**100.0**	**36.0**	**64.0**	**100.0**	**14.8**	**85.2**	**100.0**
BE	22.7	77.3	100.0	40.9	59.1	100.0	40.9	59.1	100.0	29.6	70.4	100.0	11.5	88.5	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0	38.7	61.3	100.0	11.3	88.7	100.0
BG	35.9	64.1	100.0	23.3	76.7	100.0	25.4	74.6	100.0	15.7	84.3	100.0	57.1	42.9	100.0	40.0	60.0	100.0	60.0	40.0	100.0	21.0	79.0	100.0
CZ	17.1	82.9	100.0	20.6	79.4	100.0	20.5	79.5	100.0	13.4	86.6	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	31.6	68.4	100.0	13.3	86.7	100.0	7.7	92.3	100.0
DK	37.7	62.3	100.0	37.2	62.8	100.0	37.9	62.1	100.0	28.5	71.5	100.0	28.6	71.4	100.0	37.7	62.3	100.0	43.3	56.7	100.0	18.0	82.0	100.0
DE	40.5	59.5	100.0	34.6	65.4	100.0	31.7	68.3	100.0	30.9	69.1	100.0	20.0	80.0	100.0	38.3	61.7	100.0	25.7	74.3	100.0	16.4	83.6	100.0
EE	22.8	77.2	100.0	27.4	72.6	100.0	31.1	68.9	100.0	7.9	92.1	100.0	18.2	81.8	100.0	7.1	92.9	100.0	43.3	56.7	100.0	9.6	90.4	100.0
IE	21.7	78.3	100.0	23.9	76.1	100.0	21.8	78.2	100.0	17.3	82.7	100.0	30.0	70.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	100.0	47.7	52.3	100.0	16.4	83.6	100.0
EL	17.2	82.8	100.0	18.4	81.6	100.0	20.9	79.1	100.0	9.7	90.3	100.0	5.6	94.4	100.0	11.8	88.2	100.0	21.4	78.6	100.0	9.1	90.9	100.0
ES	33.5	66.5	100.0	39.0	61.0	100.0	46.5	53.5	100.0	21.8	78.2	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	39.2	60.8	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	17.4	82.6	100.0
FR	48.8	51.2	100.0	31.3	68.7	100.0	47.6	52.4	100.0	42.0	58.0	100.0	45.5	54.5	100.0	42.1	57.9	100.0	44.0	56.0	100.0	27.4	72.6	100.0
HR	21.8	78.2	100.0	18.9	81.1	100.0	26.5	73.5	100.0	20.5	79.5	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	28.6	71.4	100.0	42.9	57.1	100.0	8.0	92.0	100.0
IT	25.0	75.0	100.0	31.5	68.5	100.0	18.8	81.2	100.0	33.4	66.6	100.0	22.2	77.8	100.0	70.0	30.0	100.0	23.1	76.9	100.0	10.1	89.9	100.0
CY	10.4	89.6	100.0	17.1	82.9	100.0	15.3	84.7	100.0	10.7	89.3	100.0	13.0	87.0	100.0	25.0	75.0	100.0	25.9	74.1	100.0	4.6	95.4	100.0
LV	21.0	79.0	100.0	17.6	82.4	100.0	25.4	74.6	100.0	28.6	71.4	100.0	24.2	75.8	100.0	38.6	61.4	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	16.4	83.6	100.0
LT	24.1	75.9	100.0	21.8	78.2	100.0	24.9	75.1	100.0	13.5	86.5	100.0	7.7	92.3	100.0	34.4	65.6	100.0	30.6	69.4	100.0	12.8	87.2	100.0
LU	22.2	77.8	100.0	27.9	72.1	100.0	22.7	77.3	100.0	12.7	87.3	100.0	14.8	85.2	100.0	55.6	44.4	100.0	37.0	63.0	100.0	15.8	84.2	100.0
HU	1.3	98.7	100.0	10.6	89.4	100.0	11.8	88.2	100.0	13.7	86.3	100.0	11.1	88.9	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	30.4	69.6	100.0	9.5	90.5	100.0
MT	12.5	87.5	100.0	13.6	86.4	100.0	22.0	78.0	100.0	7.2	92.8	100.0	15.9	84.1	100.0	28.6	71.4	100.0	26.1	73.9	100.0	7.5	92.5	100.0
NL	38.7	61.3	100.0	36.0	64.0	100.0	33.0	67.0	100.0	29.3	70.7	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	32.4	67.6	100.0	26.0	74.0	100.0
AT	30.0	70.0	100.0	32.6	67.4	100.0	32.0	68.0	100.0	21.1	78.9	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	29.1	70.9	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	13.7	86.3	100.0
PL	17.7	82.3	100.0	25.7	74.3	100.0	25.6	74.4	100.0	19.8	80.2	100.0	15.1	84.9	100.0	22.1	77.9	100.0	0.0	###	100.0	4.0	96.0	100.0
PT	33.4	66.6	100.0	35.0	65.0	100.0	24.4	75.6	100.0	16.3	83.7	100.0	23.5	76.5	100.0	35.0	65.0	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	12.4	87.6	100.0
RO	30.1	69.9	100.0	16.6	83.4	100.0	16.9	83.1	100.0	9.8	90.2	100.0	11.1	88.9	100.0	52.1	47.9	100.0	45.5	54.5	100.0	11.4	88.6	100.0
SI	44.9	55.1	100.0	25.8	74.2	100.0	31.8	68.2	100.0	24.4	75.6	100.0	26.7	73.3	100.0	42.9	57.1	100.0	37.5	62.5	100.0	4.9	95.1	100.0
SK	19.8	80.2	100.0	20.6	79.4	100.0	14.7	85.3	100.0	18.1	81.9	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	16.0	84.0	100.0	22.2	77.8	100.0	9.0	91.0	100.0
FI	34.8	65.2	100.0	41.8	58.3	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0	32.2	67.8	100.0	21.6	78.4	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0	39.7	60.3	100.0	25.5	74.5	100.0
SE	51.2	48.8	100.0	45.8	54.2	100.0	48.2	51.8	100.0	36.1	63.9	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	58.5	41.5	100.0	54.6	45.4	100.0	44.5	55.5	100.0
UK	26.9	73.1	100.0	28.2	71.8	100.0	35.3	64.7	100.0	27.9	72.1	100.0	23.5	76.5	100.0	36.9	63.1	100.0	32.4	67.6	100.0	24.9	75.1	100.0
	Source: EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 20-16-2017-2018). National governments (all ministers: junior ministers + senior ministers) EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 2016-2017-2018). National parliaments (both houses) EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 2016-2017-2018). Regional assemblies, if regional assemblies do not exist in the country, local-level politics are included. Local-level politics, 2017 EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 2016-2017-2018). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 2016-2017-2018). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (2-year average, 2017-2018) IT, only 2017. EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (3-year average, 2016-2017-2018). EIGE's calculation.			*Source:* EIGE, Gender statistics database, WMID (2-year average, 2015-2018). EIGE's calculation.		

Table 23: Indicators included in the domain of health, 2017

MS	Status												Behaviour								Access							
	Self-perceived health, good or very good (%, 16+)				Life expectancy in absolute value at birth (years)				Healthy life years (HLY) in absolute value at birth (years)				Population who do not smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking (%, 16+)				Population doing physical activities and/ or consuming fruits and vegetables (%, 16+)				Population without unmet needs for medical examination (%, 16+)				Population without unmet needs for dental examination (%, 16+)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU	**67.2**	**72.3**	**69.7**	**– 5.1**	**83.6**	**78.2**	**80.9**	**5.4**	**64.2**	**63.5**	**63.9**	**0.7**	**72.4**	**52.2**	**62.8**	**20.2**	**36.1**	**40.1**	**38.0**	**– 4.0**	**96.6**	**97.1**	**96.9**	**– 0.5**	**96.0**	**96.3**	**96.2**	**– 0.3**
BE	71.3	77.6	74.4	– 6.3	84.0	79.0	81.5	5.0	63.8	63.7	63.8	0.1	68.3	50.1	59.5	18.2	29.5	36.4	32.9	– 6.9	97.0	98.1	97.5	– 1.1	94.6	95.0	94.8	– 0.4
BG	62.8	70.5	66.5	– 7.7	78.5	71.3	74.9	7.2	67.5	64.0	65.8	3.5	67.5	46.7	57.9	20.8	9.4	18.2	13.5	– 8.8	96.6	96.7	96.6	– 0.1	96.5	96.7	96.6	– 0.2
CZ	60.4	63.8	61.8	– 3.4	82.1	76.1	79.1	6.0	64.0	62.7	63.4	1.3	72.7	54.2	63.8	18.5	30.1	37.5	33.6	– 7.4	97.4	97.2	97.3	0.2	97.0	96.9	97.0	0.1
DK	69.3	73.1	71.2	– 3.8	82.8	79.0	80.9	3.8	60.3	60.3	60.3	0.0	60.7	43.7	52.3	17.0	68.2	59.1	63.6	9.1	92.6	92.0	92.3	0.6	94.1	93.2	93.7	0.9
DE	63.8	67.1	65.4	– 3.3	83.5	78.6	81.1	4.9	67.3	65.3	66.3	2.0	63.3	46.6	55.1	16.7	50.8	53.1	51.9	– 2.3	99.3	99.2	99.2	0.1	98.9	98.8	98.9	0.1
EE	50.4	55.5	52.5	– 5.1	82.2	73.3	77.8	8.9	59.0	54.4	56.7	4.6	74.0	43.2	58.2	30.8	35.4	35.8	35.6	– 0.4	84.5	89.3	86.7	– 4.8	92.5	93.7	93.0	– 1.2
IE	83.5	82.9	83.2	0.6	83.6	79.9	81.8	3.7	69.8	67.3	68.6	2.5	65.8	46.5	56.3	19.3	48.4	47.2	47.8	1.2	96.8	96.6	96.7	0.2	94.9	96.0	95.4	– 1.1
EL	71.4	76.8	74.0	– 5.4	84.0	78.9	81.5	5.1	64.7	63.8	64.3	0.9	70.4	54.2	62.8	16.2	19.8	24.7	22.2	– 4.9	87.8	90.4	89.1	– 2.6	88.6	89.2	88.9	– 0.6
ES	71.7	76.8	74.2	– 5.1	86.3	80.5	83.4	5.8	66.5	65.9	66.2	0.6	75.9	61.6	68.9	14.3	36.1	46.0	40.9	– 9.9	99.7	99.8	99.7	– 0.1	95.3	95.9	95.6	– 0.6
FR	65.7	69.2	67.4	– 3.5	85.7	79.5	82.6	6.2	64.1	62.6	63.4	1.5	69.7	54.2	62.2	15.5	32.0	38.7	35.2	– 6.7	96.9	96.8	96.9	0.1	95.2	95.9	95.5	– 0.7
HR	57.9	63.4	60.5	– 5.5	81.3	75.0	78.2	6.3	58.7	57.1	57.9	1.6	72.5	57.2	65.3	15.3	21.1	28.0	24.4	– 6.9	95.7	95.3	95.5	0.4	97.1	96.7	96.9	0.4
IT	74.1	80.1	77.0	– 6.0	85.6	81.0	83.3	4.6	67.2	67.6	67.4	– 0.4	79.9	65.6	73.1	14.3	24.5	30.4	27.3	– 5.9	97.9	98.4	98.1	– 0.5	97.5	97.9	97.7	– 0.4
CY	77.2	78.9	78.0	– 1.7	84.9	80.5	82.7	4.4	68.8	67.5	68.2	1.3	81.4	53.9	68.4	27.5	33.0	38.6	35.7	– 5.6	97.9	98.7	98.2	– 0.8	95.6	96.2	95.9	– 0.6
LV	39.6	50.0	44.2	– 10.4	79.6	69.8	74.7	9.8	54.9	52.3	53.6	2.6	76.4	43.5	61.9	32.9	28.7	34.0	31.1	– 5.3	89.4	90.0	89.7	– 0.6	83.4	82.8	83.1	0.6
LT	40.1	49.4	43.7	– 9.3	80.1	69.5	74.8	10.6	59.4	56.2	57.8	3.2	81.5	45.0	65.0	36.5	27.6	33.6	30.3	– 6.0	97.2	97.6	97.4	– 0.4	95.3	96.5	95.9	– 1.2
LU	69.5	72.6	71.0	– 3.1	85.4	80.1	82.8	5.3	58.9	61.4	60.2	– 2.5	65.1	45.6	55.3	19.5	48.0	51.5	49.7	– 3.5	99.0	99.2	99.1	– 0.2	99.0	98.8	98.9	0.2
HU	55.3	63.5	59.1	– 8.2	79.7	72.6	76.2	7.1	60.2	59.5	59.9	0.7	75.7	59.4	68.1	16.3	32.7	37.7	35.1	– 5.0	93.8	93.6	93.7	0.2	96.6	97.5	97.0	– 0.9
MT	73.5	76.6	75.1	– 3.1	84.4	80.6	82.5	3.8	72.4	71.1	71.8	1.3	70.0	56.3	63.2	13.7	42.7	45.1	43.9	– 2.4	99.4	99.6	99.5	– 0.2	98.3	98.8	98.6	– 0.5
NL	73.2	79.0	76.1	– 5.8	83.2	80.0	81.6	3.2	57.8	62.8	60.3	– 5.0	72.2	58.4	65.4	13.8	37.0	41.0	38.9	– 4.0	99.6	99.6	99.6	0.0	99.6	99.8	99.7	– 0.2
AT	68.7	72.0	70.3	– 3.3	84.1	79.3	81.7	4.8	57.1	57.0	57.1	0.1	65.3	53.3	59.4	12.0	51.5	54.7	53.1	– 3.2	99.5	99.6	99.5	– 0.1	98.9	98.6	98.8	0.3
PL	56.0	62.3	58.8	– 6.3	82.0	73.9	78.0	8.1	64.6	61.3	63.0	3.3	74.5	51.9	64.1	22.6	23.4	26.2	24.7	– 2.8	92.4	92.2	92.3	0.2	96.3	95.5	96.0	0.8
PT	44.3	53.9	48.8	– 9.6	84.3	78.1	81.2	6.2	57.4	59.9	58.7	– 2.5	84.5	62.6	74.3	21.9	29.7	35.0	32.2	– 5.3	96.1	96.6	96.3	– 0.5	84.9	85.9	85.4	– 1.0
RO	65.8	76.3	70.9	– 10.5	79.1	71.7	75.4	7.4	59.0	59.8	59.4	– 0.8	73.4	36.2	55.4	37.2	7.4	16.3	11.7	– 8.9	91.8	94.9	93.3	– 3.1	92.5	93.6	93.0	– 1.1
SI	62.0	68.6	65.3	– 6.6	84.3	78.2	81.3	6.1	57.9	58.7	58.3	– 0.8	72.2	54.0	63.3	18.2	37.0	45.6	41.3	– 8.6	95.2	96.6	95.9	– 1.4	94.9	95.4	95.2	– 0.5
SK	63.2	71.0	67.0	– 7.8	80.7	73.8	77.3	6.9	57.0	56.4	56.7	0.6	75.6	53.2	64.8	22.4	33.0	39.7	36.2	– 6.7	94.9	95.2	95.0	– 0.3	96.5	96.3	96.4	0.2
FI	68.5	71.7	70.1	– 3.2	84.4	78.6	81.5	5.8	57.0	59.1	58.1	– 2.1	69.9	45.7	58.4	24.2	60.1	56.9	58.6	3.2	94.4	96.8	95.6	– 2.4	93.8	94.8	94.3	– 1.0
SE	74.7	78.3	76.5	– 3.6	84.1	80.6	82.4	3.5	73.3	73.0	73.2	0.3	76.3	61.3	68.8	15.0	58.0	55.8	56.9	2.2	95.5	96.8	96.1	– 1.3	97.4	96.7	97.0	0.7
UK	73.4	76.3	74.8	– 2.9	83.0	79.4	81.2	3.6	63.1	63.0	63.1	0.1	73.6	58.5	66.6	15.1	55.0	55.4	55.2	– 0.4	94.0	94.5	94.2	– 0.5	95.7	95.9	95.8	– 0.2
	Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_silc_01), 2017.				*Source:* Eurostat, Mortality data ([hlth_hlye), 2016. EU: Non-weighted average.				*Source:* Eurostat, Mortality data ([hlth_hlye), 2016. EU: Non-weighted average.				*Source:* Eurostat, EHIS, 2014. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. FR, NL: EIGE estimation.				*Source:* Eurostat, EHIS, 2014. Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request. BE, NL: EIGE estimation.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_silc_08), 2017.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_silc_09), 2017.			

Table 24: Population on 1 January (number and %) (average 2016, 2017, 2018)

MS	Additional variable				
	Population on 1 January (average 2016, 2017, 2018)				
	Women	Men	Total	% Women	% Men
EU	**214 804 520**	**200 805 542**	**415 610 062**	**51.7**	**48.3**
BE	4 638 369	4 411 375	9 049 744	51.3	48.7
BG	3 072 760	2 836 766	5 909 526	52.0	48.0
CZ	4 442 725	4 216 285	8 659 010	51.3	48.7
DK	2 318 776	2 259 900	4 578 676	50.6	49.4
DE	35 292 600	33 759 268	69 051 868	51.1	48.9
EE	577 108	490 166	1 067 274	54.1	45.9
IE	1 831 162	1 756 861	3 588 023	51.0	49.0
EL	4 632 867	4 255 789	8 888 656	52.1	47.9
ES	19 652 759	18 537 392	38 190 151	51.5	48.5
FR	27 282 771	24 785 997	52 068 768	52.4	47.6
HR	1 791 205	1 627 205	3 418 410	52.4	47.6
IT	26 328 659	24 342 631	50 671 290	52.0	48.0
CY	356 575	330 699	687 274	51.9	48.1
LV	881 705	713 584	1 595 289	55.3	44.7
LT	1 286 738	1 051 181	2 337 919	55.0	45.0
LU	237 307	236 659	473 966	50.1	49.9
HU	4 289 266	3 797 904	8 087 170	53.0	47.0
MT	191 210	192 497	383 707	49.8	50.2
NL	6 947 506	6 730 806	13 678 312	50.8	49.2
AT	3 718 784	3 522 519	7 241 303	51.4	48.6
PL	16 256 408	14 860 175	31 116 583	52.2	47.8
PT	4 561 533	3 973 197	8 534 730	53.4	46.6
RO	8 243 414	7 699 418	15 942 832	51.7	48.3
SI	863 701	837 620	1 701 321	50.8	49.2
SK	2 294 883	2 136 902	4 431 785	51.8	48.2
FI	2 267 370	2 163 466	4 430 836	51.2	48.8
SE	3 974 205	3 940 239	7 914 444	50.2	49.8
UK	26 572 153	25 339 039	51 911 192	51.2	48.8

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

Table 25: Maximum values in the 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015 for the indicators (total population) used for the correcting coefficient

Domain	Work					Money				Knowledge			Time			
Sub-domain	Participation		Quality of job and segregation			Financial resources		Economic situation		Attainment		Segregation	Care		Social	
Indicator	FTE	Duration	Segrega-tion	Flexibil-ity	Pros-pects	Earn-ings	In-come	Pover-ty	S20/80	Gradu-ates	Participa-tion	Segregation	Care	Cooking	Leisure	Voluntary
Max 2005-2015	60.9	41.2	27.7	52.6	71.7	3 492	33 457	91.8	29.8	36.8	39.0	48.2	-	-	57.2	35.5

Domain	Power								Health						
Sub-domain	Political			Economic		Social			Status			Behaviour		Access	
Indicator	Minis-ters	Parlia-ments	Regional Assem-blies	Boards	Central Banks	Re-search	Media	Sport	Self-per-ceived health	Life ex-pectancy	Healthy life years	Risk behaviour	Healthy behaviour	Medical	Dental
Max 2005-2015	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	82.8	83.0	73.9	74.3	63.6	99.7	99.3

Note: Caring and cooking indicators in the domain of time, as well as all the indicators in the domain of power, are not corrected and no correcting coefficient is needed.
The maximum for calculating the correcting coefficient has not changed since 2015.

Annex 4. Methodology of the convergence analysis

Several concepts and types of convergence exist, as well as different ways to measure it. The convergence analysis of the Gender Equality Index builds on the methodology proposed by Eurofound (2018c) and focuses on two traditional indicators (Barro & Sala-i-Martin, 1992).

- Beta convergence refers to a process in which Member States with relatively low initial values of a given indicator grow faster than countries that start with higher values, playing catch-up as a result.

- Sigma convergence of a given indicator relates to a reduction of its overall variability across Member States over time leading to greater homogeneity among EU Member States.

While closely related, both concepts are needed equally to capture the quality of convergence, as the faster growth of those with initial low levels of an indicator is insufficient by itself to guarantee a decline in dispersion levels across countries (Franks, Barkbu, Blavy, Oman, & Schoelermann, 2018).

The analysis conducted examines the trend of the Gender Equality Index at EU level. It shows that the mean improvement in the Gender Equality Index in this period, rising from 62.0 to 67.4 points, was accompanied by an overall declining trend in dispersion. On average, differences between Member States decreased from 15.2 % in 2005 to 13.6 % in 2017. That reduction in dispersion across the EU can also be studied with other measures of variability such as the standard deviation, which fell from 9.4 in 2005 to 9.2 in 2017, or the ratio of the Member State with the highest score to the Member State with the lowest score, which decreased from 1.7 to 1.6.

The analysis carried out also explores convergence and divergence patterns of each Member State towards the EU average. The longer-term view of the Index from 2005 to 2017 at EU level is given by plotting the average performance with cross-country variability demonstrating sigma convergence. Variability is calculated through a commonly used dispersion measurement, the coefficient of variation, which is defined as the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean. Lower values of the coefficient mean lower degrees of variability. Following Eurofound (2017b) the combined analysis of average and variability makes it possible to determine the following patterns of convergence.

- Upward convergence: mean improvement in performance and reduction of disparities among Member States.

- Upward divergence: mean improvement in performance together with an increase in disparities among Member States.

- Downward convergence: mean worsening in performance and reduction of disparities among Member States.

- Downward divergence: mean worsening in performance together with an increase in disparities among Member States.

Beta convergence, which allows the initial levels of the Gender Equality Index in 2005 and subsequent growth until 2017 to be studied, is assessed through a cross-country linear regression. The statistically significant and negative β coefficient obtained in this regression ($\beta = -0.1655$, significant at 95 % level) is consistent with the hypothesis of convergence (Yin, Zestos, & Michelis, 2003). It suggests that the worst-performing Member States caught up with the best performers over the period. Member States with higher initial levels of gender equality in 2005, such as Sweden, Denmark or Finland (indicated by their position on the x-axis of Figure 6), showed slower growth in subsequent years (indicated by their position on the y-axis). In comparison, Member States with lower initial Index scores, such as Cyprus, Greece or Italy, showed faster growth rates on gender equality. The estimated value of the β coefficient also indicates the speed of the convergence process and, therefore, the rate at which Member States are approaching each other (Monfort,

2008). Thus, convergence on the Gender Equality Index scores of the EU-28 occurred at a rate of 16.5 % each year between 2005 and 2017.

Although the results of the beta and sigma convergence analysis suggest a gradual narrowing of gaps on gender equality in the EU between 2005 and 2017, they do not shed light on the different developments at Member State level. For instance, despite the average increase in the Gender Equality Index during this period, not all Member States registered an improvement. This is known as an upward convergence in the weak sense (Eurofound, 2017b). The systematic mapping of the patterns (comparing a Member State trend over a time period with the EU average) was therefore carried out by considering all possible combinations of the following aspects.

- EU average performance (improving or worsening).
- Member State performance (improving or worsening).
- Relative Member State performance in relation to the EU average (better or worse).
- Relative Member State speed in relation to the EU average (faster or slower).

Five convergence or divergence patterns between a Member State and the EU mean emerged when analysing gender equality between 2005 and 2017 ([69]).

- Catching-up: Index scores lower than the EU average, but faster improvement than the EU mean, narrowing the gap between the Member State and the EU over time.
- Flattening: Index scores higher than the EU average, but improvement was slower than the EU average. Over time, the gap between these Member States and the EU has reduced.
- Outperforming: Member States started with higher scores than the EU average and grew at a faster rate in the ensuing years, increasing the gap between them and the EU.
- Slower pace: Member States improved their Gender Equality Index scores. However, with initially significantly lower scores than the EU average, their slower rate of progress during the period ensured growing disparities between them and the EU over time.
- Diving: Gender Equality Index scores lower than the EU and declining as the EU average increased, widening the gap as a result.

The first two patterns correspond to upward convergence trends, while the latter three describe trends of upward divergence. The graphical analysis of these Member State dynamics in comparison to the EU mean over the period considered are presented in Figure 7 and Figure 8 of this report (see Section 1.4).

([69]) This classification has been done with the Stata code developed by Eurofound following the methodology presented in Eurofound (2018c).

Annex 5. Methodology of parental-leave eligibility estimations

Our methodological approach was to calculate eligibility for parental leave for a random sample of men and women within each EU Member State using high-quality survey data — the EU Labour Force Survey (EU LFS) and the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC).

The first stage of the analysis involved the selection and description of the target parental-leave policy for each Member State. It was followed by the second stage, whereby policy rules with regard to eligibility were applied to nationally representative data sets for all 28 Member States using microsimulation. Parental-leave policy specifications were derived from the international network on leave policies and research annual review and additional expert consultations. The contextualisation, leave definitions, entitlements and constraints were collated for a selected time point of 2016 (June) to align with the most recent EU-SILC and EU LFS survey data sets. Information was cross-checked with the Mutual Information System on Social Protection and national legislation.

The principle for identifying the target parental-leave policy in each Member State was that it was gender neutral and equally available to men and women, as distinct from maternity leave or paternity leave. For the analysis, only the legislated statutory parental leave deriving from the parental-leave directive (Directive 2010/18/EU) was selected. The list of policies selected for analysis can be found in Table 26.

For microsimulations we created a sample of (potential) mothers and fathers in each Member State. 'Potential parents' were defined as individuals aged 20-49: the peak parenthood and employment period. Such a category extends the analysis beyond those employed individuals who have had a child in the previous year to a larger group in their prime economic activity phase and who may wish to have or already have children. Eligibility rules were collected and simulated for the following.

1. Employment/labour-market conditions:
    a. activity status (self-employed, unemployed and inactive),
    b. duration of contract (time spent with current employer),
    c. pay threshold conditions prior to leave.
2. Family/household conditions:
    a. same-sex couples,
    b. lone parents,
    c. adoptive parents.

The feasibility of incorporating the dimension of citizenship (such as the treatment of nationals born in the country or other EU countries, non-EU ('third-country') nationals and migrants) was explored but not included in the final simulation due to an uneven level of information of the policy conditions at Member State level.

Table 26: Parental-leave policies (2016) selected for simulation

	Identified parental-leave policy	Total duration available to a family (months)	Income replacement level
BE	Parental leave Ouderschapsverlof/Congé parental	8	2
BG	Parental leave Otpusk za otglegdane na dete do 2 godishna vazrast	24	2
CZ	Parental leave Rodičovskaá dovolená	36	2
DK	Parental leave Forældreorlov	11.1	3
DE	Parental leave Elternzeit	24	3
EE	Parental leave Lapsehoolduspuhkus/vanemahüvitise seadus	36	3
IE	Parental leave	8.4	1
EL	Parental leave Άδεια χωρίς αποδοχές	120	1
ES	Parental leave Excedencia por cuidado de hijos	36	1
FR	Parental leave Congé parental	36	2
HR	Parental leave Roditeljski dopust	8	3
IT	Parental leave Congedo Parentale	10 (+ 1 if father takes 3)	2
CY	Parental leave Γονική Άδεια	8	1
LV	Parental leave Bērna kopšanas pabalsts	18	2
LT	Parental leave Vaiko priežiuros atostogos	36	2
LU	Parental leave Congé parental	12	3
HU	Parental leave	36	2
MT	Parental leave	8	1
NL	Parental leave Ouderschapsverlof	12	1
AT	Parental leave Elternkarenz	24	3
PL	Parental leave Urlop Rodzicielski	7.4	3
PT	Additional parental leave Licença parental complementar	6	3
RO	Parental leave Concediul parental/pentru cresterea copilului	24	3
SI	Parental Starševski Dopust	8.6	3
SK	Parental leave Rodičovská dovolenká	36	2
FI	Parental leave Vanhempainvapaa/föräldraledighet	6.1	3
SE	Parental leave Föräldraförsäkring	36	3
UK	Parental leave	8.3	1

Source: Koslowski, Blum, and Moss, 2016.
Note: Income replacement/parental benefit 1=entitlement unpaid, 2=flat rate/< 66 % earnings, 3=all/most > 66 % earnings.

Annex 6. List of indicators of the scoreboard of work-life balance

Areas of concern	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	Year
Parental-leave policies	1	Eligibility for parental leave (%, 20-49)	Percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave.	EIGE's elaboration based on: Annual reviews on leave policies by the international network on leave policies and research. Eurostat — EU LFS, EU-SILC, 2016.	2016
	2	Reasons of ineligibility (%, 20-49)	Percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave by reason of ineligibility.	EIGE's elaboration based on: Annual reviews on leave policies by the international network on leave policies and research. Eurostat — EU LFS, EU-SILC, 2016.	2016
Informal caring for older persons and persons with disabilities and (LTC) services	3	Informal long-term care (LTC) (rate (%, 18+)	Percentage of women and men involved in caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week. In general, how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? Q42d. Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends under 75 years. Q42e Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends aged 75 or over. Every day or several days a week.	EQLS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
	4	Informal LTC rate among employed (%, 18+)	Percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for older people and/or people with disabilities at least several times a week In general, how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? Q42d. Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends under 75 years. Q42e Caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbours or friends aged 75 or over. Every day or several days a week.	EQLS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
	5	Unmet care needs for older people and/or people with disabilities (%, 16+)	Percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for professional home-care services. HC240: Unmet needs for professional home care (Yes, No).	EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
Informal caring for children and childcare services	6	Formal childcare (up to 3 years)	Percentage of children up to 3 years of age cared for under formal arrangements.	EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal).	2017
	7	Formal childcare (3+)	Percentage of children between 3 years of age and the mandatory school age cared for under formal arrangements.	EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal).	2017

Areas of concern	N	Indicator and reference population	Description	Source	Year
Informal caring for children and childcare services	8	Unmet needs for childcare (%, 16+)	Percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for formal childcare services. HC050: Unmet needs for formal childcare (Yes, No).	EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
	9	Informal childcare rate (%, 18+)	Percentage of women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week. In general, how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? Q42a Caring for and/or educating your children. Q42b Caring for and/or educating your grandchildren. Every day or several days a week.	EQLS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
	10	Informal childcare rate among employed (%, 18+)	Percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week. In general, how often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work? Q42a Caring for and/or educating your children. Q42b Caring for and/or educating your grandchildren. Every day or several days a week.	EQLS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2016
Transport and public infrastructure	11	Commuting time (%, 15+)	Average time in minutes per day women and men spend commuting to and from work. Q36. In total, how many minutes per day do you usually spend travelling from home to work and back?	EWCS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2015
Flexible working arrangements (FWAs)	12	Flexibility in working time (%, 15+)	Percentage of women and men able to set their own working time arrangements. Q42. How are your working-time arrangements set? 1. They are set by the company/organisation with no possibility for changes. 2. You can choose between several fixed working schedules determined by the company/organisation. 3. You can adapt your working hours within certain limits (e.g. flextime). 4. Your working hours are entirely determined by yourself.	EWCS. EIGE's elaboration on microdata.	2015
	13	Transition from part-time to full-time work (%, 16+)	Percentage of women and men who moved from part-time work to full-time work.	EU-SILC (ilc_lvhl30).	2017
Lifelong learning	14	Participation in education and training (%, 25-64).	Percentage of women and men participating in formal and non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks).	EU LFS (trng_lfs_01).	2017
	15	Barriers to participation in education and training (%, 25-64)	Percentage of women and men not participating in formal or informal education and training due to main time-related barriers (work schedule or family responsibilities).	AES (trng_aes_176).	2016

Annex 7. Indicators of work-life balance

Table 27: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: parental-leave policies

MS	(1) Eligibility for parental leave: percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave (%, 20-49)			(2) Reasons of ineligibility: Percentage of women and men not eligible for statutory parental leave by reason of ineligibility (%, 20-49)											
				Unemployment/inactivity			Contract type (in most cases self-employment)			Employment condition (in most cases duration of employment)			Household conditions (in most cases same-sex mariage)		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
EU	33.6	23.0	10.6	78.2	54.1	24.1	7.2	25.7	– 18.5	14.5	20.1	– 5.6	0.1	0.1	0.0
BE	35.6	35.1	0.5	67.1	38.4	28.7	21.0	41.0	– 20.0	11.9	20.6	– 8.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
BG	38.0	27.0	11.0	75.0	74.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	26.0	– 1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
CZ	23.3	5.4	17.9	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
DK	5.4	4.0	1.4	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	100.0 *	100.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *
DE	21.7	12.3	9.4	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
EE	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *
IE	45.7	41.3	4.4	70.1	34.7	35.4	11.1	40.2	– 29.1	18.8	25.1	– 6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
EL	62.3	50.9	11.4	71.2	44.4	26.8	22.3	48.0	– 25.7	5.5	7.6	– 2.1	1.0	0.0	1.0
ES	40.4	31.3	9.1	80.2	53.1	27.1	19.8	46.9	– 27.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
FR	36.2	25.0	11.2	72.4	57.9	14.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	27.6	42.1	– 14.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
HR	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
IT	45.9	27.1	18.8	86.5	51.0	35.5	0.0	42.0	– 42.0	13.5	7.0	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
CY	41.0	33.8	7.2	67.3	41.0 *	26.3*	16.4	38.4 *	– 22.0*	16.4	20.5 *	– 4.1*	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *
LV	21.9	14.4	7.5	100.0	100.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *
LT	22.7	14.9	7.8	32.1	30.3	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	67.9	69.7	– 1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
LU	38.8	28.3	10.5	63,3 *	52,4 *	10.9*	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *	36,6 *	47,6 *	– 11.0*	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0 *
HU	34.7	20.1	14.6	83.1	84.9	– 1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.9	15.1	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
MT	43.4	12.1*	31.3	86.4 *	n.a.	n.a.	0.0 *	n.a.	n.a.	13.6 *	n.a.	n.a.	0.0 *	n.a.	n.a.
NL	35.5	24.6	10.9	62.6	47.7	14.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	37.4	52.3	– 14.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
AT	26.0	23.1	2.9	74.7	51.1	23.6	25.3	47.9	– 22.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	– 1.0
PL	27.2	10.3	16.9	99.6	99.2	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.8	– 0.4
PT	23.0	32.0	– 9.0	84.0	52.0	32.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.0	48.0	– 32.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RO	32.8	16.2	16.6	91.8	72.6	19.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.2	27.4	– 19.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
SI	18.9	12.8	6.1	98.2	94.7 *	3.5*	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	1.8	5.3 *	– 3.5*
SK	26.2	12.0	14.2	81.5	86.9	– 5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.5	13.1	5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
FI	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SE	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
UK	44.5	38.6	5.9	56.1	27.9	28.2	17.3	40.0	– 22.7	26.5	32.2	– 5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: EIGE's calculations, EU LFS, EU-SILC, Annual reviews on leave policies by the International Network on Leave Policies and research.
Note: EU28, weighted average (population age 20-49, EU LFS 2016,(lfsa_pganws)).
* = Low reliability.
n.a.: data not available or not published due to reliability problems.

Table 28: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: informal caring for older persons and persons with disabilities and long-term care (LTC) services

MS	(3) Informal long-term care rate: percentage of women and men involved in caring for older persons and/or persons with disabilities at least several times a week (%, 18+)			(4) Informal long-term care rate among employed: percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for older persons and/or persons with disabilities at least several times a week (%, 18+)			(5) Unmet care needs for older/with disabilities: percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for professional home care services (%, 16+)		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
EU	14.6	9.8	4.8	13.2	9.4	3.8	29.9	27.5	2.4
BE	25.5	12.4	13.1	23.8	11.4	12.4	29.0	12.8	16.2
BG	9.4	5.5	3.9	6.4	3.4	3.0	47.3	42.6	4.7
CZ	10.7	6.2	4.5	5.9	5.1	0.8	32.1	23.0	9.1
DK	10.3	4.5	5.8	10.7	3.1	7.6	N.A.	N.A.	n.a.
DE	4.8	6.5	– 1.7	5.3	5.0	0.3	17.8	12.6	5.2
EE	12.2	11.4	0.8	11.9	7.6	4.3	15.5	10.8	4.7
IE	14.6	12.6	2.0	9.7	11.0	– 1.3	33.2	30.8	2.4
EL	13.4	6.0	7.4	10.4	3.5	6.9	63.5	58.4	5.1
ES	15.0	9.9	5.1	14.6	7.8	6.8	34.1	28.1	6.0
FR	31.8	20.4	11.4	31.0	22.2	8.8	31.0	25.0	6.0
HR	12.3	11.5	0.8	15.7	11.5	4.2	20.4	14.4	6.0
IT	13.8	7.7	6.1	11.3	8.8	2.5	39.1	31.4	7.7
CY	14.9	6.7	8.2	11.6	6.5	5.1	47.2	46.0	1.2
LV	21.7	19.3	2.4	23.3	19.4	3.9	40.3	35.6	4.7
LT	15.8	9.0	6.8	16.8	10.8	6.0	42.7	36.9	5.8
LU	15.6	12.5	3.1	19.2	14.0	5.2	11.5	18.2	– 6.7
HU	8.2	6.2	2.0	7.4	5.0	2.4	23.1	22.2	0.9
MT	19.0	8.7	10.3	10.5	5.6	4.9	23.0	19.4	3.6
NL	11.4	8.0	3.4	10.7	7.2	3.5	42.6	44.9	– 2.3
AT	8.4	4.6	3.8	3.5	3.9	– 0.4	24.1	25.5	– 1.4
PL	14.7	6.0	8.7	11.8	4.4	7.4	17.7	14.6	3.1
PT	8.0	6.0	2.0	5.0	6.1	– 1.1	85.3	86.0	– 0.7
RO	14.6	15.1	– 0.5	11.4	19.2	– 7.8	47.8	34.0	13.8
SI	14.3	9.6	4.7	16.1	10.1	6.0	25.1	17.0	8.1
SK	10.5	6.9	3.6	10.5	5.8	4.7	24.1	23.2	0.9
FI	14.6	8.5	6.1	12.7	9.3	3.4	26.7	22.1	4.6
SE	5.6	5.4	0.2	3.8	5.5	– 1.7	12.1	13.0	– 0.9
UK	16.6	10.9	5.7	14.1	10.6	3.5	19.3	22.4	– 3.1
	Source: Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.			*Source:* Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.			*Source:* EU-SILC Ad hoc module on Access to services, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata. DK not available, EU referred to 27 EU MS. The indicator is calculated at family level, and disaggregation by women and men means that the respondent is a woman or a man.		

Table 29: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: informal caring for children and childcare services

MS	(6) Formal childcare (up to 3 years): percentage of children up to 3 years of age cared for under formal arrangements			(7) Formal childcare (3+): percentage of children from 3 years of age to the mandatory school age cared for under formal arrangements			(8) Unmet needs for childcare: percentage of women and men who report unmet household needs for formal childcare services (%, 16+)			(9) Informal childcare rate: percentage of women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week (%, 18+)			(10) Informal childcare rate among employed: percentage of employed women and men involved in caring for and/or educating their children and grandchildren at least several times a week (%, 18+)		
	Zero hours	From 1 to 29 hours	30 hours or over	Zero hours	From 1 to 29 hours	30 hours or over	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
EU	**65.7**	17.0	17.2	**15.3**	34.9	49.9	**16.7**	12.4	4.3	**56.4**	50.5	5.9	**71.1**	62.9	8.2
BE	47.0	22.5	30.4	0.7	21.3	78.0	7.9	6.0	1.9	55.3	57.9	– 2.6	73.6	70.6	3.0
BG	90.6	1.2	8.2	26.4	10.0	63.6	3.5	2.9	0.6	56.5	51.6	4.9	70.9	61.9	9.0
CZ	93.5	3.9	2.6	20.2	29.3	50.5	8.7	4.1	4.6	54.6	45.8	8.8	65.7	56.0	9.7
DK	28.3	5.7	66.0	5.6	17.5	76.9	6.0	2.8	n.a.	52.8	48.5	4.3	70.9	61.7	9.2
DE	69.7	8.3	22.0	12.4	31.2	56.4	9.9	6.1	3.8	44.6	42.4	2.2	59.2	52.7	6.5
EE	73.0	6.3	20.8	5.1	6.9	87.9	8.6	8.3	0.3	53.1	55.9	– 2.8	67.5	68.2	– 0.7
IE	65.6	23.8	10.6	6.9	67.0	26.1	19.1	12.9	6.2	68.4	63.1	5.3	75.2	75.2	0.0
EL	79.5	11.7	8.8	15.9	55.0	29.1	21.9	15.8	6.1	54.7	48.2	6.5	67.5	51.5	16.0
ES	54.2	28.0	17.8	4.2	57.9	37.9	23.6	20.2	3.4	59.5	55.5	4.0	77.4	68.2	9.2
FR	49.5	19.8	30.7	4.9	38.8	56.3	15.6	13.2	2.4	57.1	52.8	4.3	79.7	72.5	7.2
HR	84.1	1.4	14.5	48.5	9.2	42.3	11.9	2.1	9.8	53.7	48.1	5.6	59.2	54.4	4.8
IT	71.4	12.1	16.5	11.4	20.9	67.7	15.4	12.8	2.6	60.6	53.4	7.2	67.8	64.0	3.8
CY	71.8	10.6	17.5	17.4	39.5	43.1	22.3	13.0	9.3	73.9	67.4	6.5	84.3	77.1	7.2
LV	71.6	1.9	26.5	13.8	1.1	85.1	16.7	16.8	– 0.1	54.7	56.4	– 1.7	68.9	73.4	– 4.5
LT	79.7	1.7	18.6	19.6	6.1	74.3	13.0	11.0	2.0	52.8	37.7	15.1	67.9	50.8	17.1
LU	39.1	23.8	37.0	8.7	27.4	63.9	13.2	12.6	0.6	74.4	71.8	2.6	86.5	78.3	8.2
HU	86.2	2.0	11.8	9.1	14.0	76.9	10.2	7.3	2.9	50.7	51.0	– 0.3	62.1	60.4	1.7
MT	63.3	21.8	14.8	9.0	29.5	61.5	16.4	18.8	– 2.4	67.2	54.0	13.2	81.9	62.1	19.8
NL	38.4	56.1	5.5	4.8	74.8	20.4	14.4	12.1	2.3	59.2	52.2	7.0	79.3	64.3	15.0
AT	81.8	13.9	4.3	12.0	64.3	23.7	9.2	12.0	– 2.8	55.6	48.8	6.8	75.7	59.4	16.3
PL	88.4	1.8	9.8	42.3	15.3	42.4	18.1	14.0	4.1	60.6	47.0	13.6	78.1	63.8	14.3
PT	52.4	1.8	45.7	7.4	5.2	87.4	17.9	10.3	7.6	58.1	55.2	2.9	81.5	73.6	7.9
RO	84.3	14.0	1.7	40.2	47.7	12.1	6.5	9.9	– 3.4	65.0	49.7	15.3	70.5	58.7	11.8
SI	55.2	3.9	40.9	6.2	7.9	85.9	8.6	8.9	– 0.3	48.7	52.2	– 3.5	67.1	69.7	– 2.6
SK	99.4	0.0	0.6	26.3	9.7	64.0	12.8	17.9	– 5.1	57.7	48.9	8.8	65.5	60.4	5.1
FI	66.8	10.1	23.2	14.1	24.9	61.0	13.3	12.1	1.2	55.8	50.3	5.5	71.2	67.4	3.8
SE	47.4	15.6	37.1	2.5	19.9	77.6	7.3	6.1	1.2	52.0	55.0	– 3.0	71.1	73.5	– 2.4
UK	66.8	28.0	5.2	33.0	44.5	22.5	24.2	19.1	5.1	59.9	52.3	7.6	69.6	60.3	9.3
	Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal), 2017. Provisional data.			*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_caindformal), 2017. Provisional data.			*Source:* EU-SILC ad hoc module on access to services, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata. The indicator is calculated at family level, and disaggregation by women and men means that the respondent is a woman or a man.			*Source:* Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.			*Source:* Eurofound, EQLS, 2016. EIGE's calculation with microdata.		

Table 30: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: transport and public infrastructure

MS	(11) Commuting time: average time in minutes per day women and men spend commuting to and from work (%, 15+)		
	Women	Men	Gap
EU	**39.4**	44.1	– 4.7
BE	44.9	50.6	– 5.7
BG	33.6	33.4	0.2
CZ	34.0	38.0	– 4.0
DK	48.0	47.9	0.1
DE	41.5	48.7	– 7.2
EE	43.4	40.6	2.8
IE	44.3	52.4	– 8.1
EL	31.9	32.9	– 1.0
ES	36.3	37.1	– 0.8
FR	42.9	46.5	– 3.6
HR	38.4	37.3	1.1
IT	27.2	28.2	– 1.0
CY	21.7	22.9	– 1.2
LV	45.1	52.5	– 7.4
LT	33.3	35.3	– 2.0
LU	43.4	46.7	– 3.3
HU	42.5	44.0	– 1.5
MT	42.5	43.8	– 1.3
NL	42.9	46.9	– 4.0
AT	33.7	45.4	– 11.7
PL	35.9	35.1	0.8
PT	24.6	24.6	0.0
RO	38.5	41.6	– 3.1
SI	37.6	42.1	– 4.5
SK	32.5	36.3	– 3.8
FI	47.3	48.8	– 1.5
SE	47.1	53.4	– 6.3
UK	46.4	57.7	– 11.3
	Source: Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.		

Table 31: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: flexible working arrangements

MS	(12) Flexibility in working time: percentage of women and men by ability to set their own working time arrangements (%, 15+)												(13) Transition from part-time to full-time work: percentage of women and men who moved from part-time work to full-time work (%, 16+)		
	They are set by the company/ organisation with no possibility for changes			You can choose between several fixed working schedules determined by the company/ organisation			You can adapt your working hours within certain limits (e.g. flexitime)			Your working hours are entirely determined by yourself					
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
EU	**57.3**	54.0	3.3	**10.1**	8.2	1.9	**19.0**	18.7	0.3	**13.6**	19.1	– 5.5	**13.9**	28.2	**– 14.3**
BE	47.4	51.0	– 3.6	10.9	6.5	4.4	29.0	24.7	4.3	12.7	17.8	– 5.1	9.6	25.8	**– 16.2**
BG	84.0	76.2	7.8	2.2	1.9	0.3	2.8	2.8	0.0	11.0	19.2	– 8.2	7.4	14.9	**– 7.5**
CZ	63.5	60.9	2.6	9.0	7.9	1.1	14.4	12.4	2.0	13.1	18.7	– 5.6	22.7	16.5	**6.2**
DK	34.3	35.3	– 1.0	10.1	9.1	1.0	39.2	39.9	– 0.7	16.4	15.7	0.7	23.3	18.2	**5.1**
DE	52.7	55.6	– 2.9	14.6	9.8	4.8	20.7	20.2	0.5	12.0	14.4	– 2.4	10.1	30.8	**– 20.7**
EE	57.6	58.7	– 1.1	7.4	5.0	2.4	24.0	25.6	– 1.6	11.0	10.6	0.4	31.7	42.2	**– 10.5**
IE	65.8	51.1	14.7	6.9	7.8	– 0.9	18.7	21.2	– 2.5	8.6	19.9	– 11.3	n.a.	n.a.	**n.a.**
EL	58.5	51.7	6.8	6.7	5.2	1.5	8.5	7.7	0.8	26.2	35.4	– 9.2	23.7	29.4	**– 5.7**
ES	68.4	63.4	5.0	6.4	5.1	1.3	12.7	13.6	– 0.9	12.4	17.9	– 5.5	38.3	48.4	**– 10.1**
FR	54.4	52.6	1.8	10.5	7.4	3.1	24.1	24.1	0.0	11.0	16.0	– 5.0	9.7	14.2	**– 4.5**
HR	72.9	71.1	1.8	4.9	5.4	– 0.5	5.1	8.8	– 3.7	17.1	14.6	2.5	28.2	42.0	**– 13.8**
IT	59.2	49.9	9.3	8.8	9.1	– 0.3	13.3	10.6	2.7	18.7	30.4	– 11.7	13.1	31.3	**– 18.2**
CY	75.6	73.8	1.8	4.8	3.4	1.4	6.4	4.6	1.8	13.1	18.2	– 5.1	22.3	19.5	**2.8**
LV	67.7	62.6	5.1	7.6	3.9	3.7	11.8	14.4	– 2.6	12.9	19.0	– 6.1	38.2	34.7	**3.5**
LT	79.2	71.7	7.5	3.5	4.5	– 1.0	7.0	8.8	– 1.8	10.2	15.1	– 4.9	18.5	21.2	**– 2.7**
LU	52.2	53.1	– 0.9	12.8	7.8	5.0	27.5	28.1	– 0.6	7.4	10.9	– 3.5	7.5	26.2	**– 18.7**
HU	67.0	69.2	– 2.2	6.0	5.0	1.0	16.1	12.9	3.2	10.8	12.8	– 2.0	24.1	45.7	**– 21.6**
MT	71.7	72.0	– 0.3	8.0	4.2	3.8	13.3	7.8	5.5	6.9	16.1	– 9.2	23.5	41.3	**– 17.8**
NL	33.2	39.4	– 6.2	12.6	9.3	3.3	36.2	27.5	8.7	17.9	23.7	– 5.8	5.9	23.0	**– 17.1**
AT	50.3	45.6	4.7	13.2	9.0	4.2	17.6	23.9	– 6.3	18.8	21.4	– 2.6	10.8	28.7	**– 17.9**
PL	61.3	55.2	6.1	11.4	9.9	1.5	12.2	13.5	– 1.3	15.0	21.3	– 6.3	26.6	26.5	**0.1**
PT	70.7	60.3	10.4	3.3	3.2	0.1	5.2	11.1	– 5.9	20.8	25.5	– 4.7	23.8	42.9	**– 19.1**
RO	69.2	68.7	0.5	10.0	6.4	3.6	4.6	7.8	– 3.2	16.2	17.0	– 0.8	12.8	15.8	**– 3.0**
SI	62.2	57.7	4.5	5.6	2.2	3.4	17.5	20.1	– 2.6	14.7	20.0	– 5.3	28.1	38.5	**– 10.4**
SK	78.2	67.5	10.7	8.2	10.3	– 2.1	5.9	9.7	– 3.8	7.7	12.5	– 4.8	n.a.	n.a.	**n.a.**
FI	44.4	34.6	9.8	8.8	3.7	5.1	34.2	36.5	– 2.3	12.6	25.2	– 12.6	32.2	34.1	**– 1.9**
SE	34.6	34.0	0.6	9.2	7.3	1.9	43.8	38.3	5.5	12.4	20.4	– 8.0	24.2	39.9	**– 15.7**
UK	55.7	49.0	6.7	9.6	10.6	– 1.0	23.5	23.9	– 0.4	11.3	16.5	– 5.2	n.a.	n.a.	**n.a.**
	Source: Eurofound, EWCS, 2015. EIGE's calculation with microdata.												*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_lvhl30), 2017. EU: EUROSTAT estimation. n.a.: data not available or not published due to reliability problems.		

Table 32: Scoreboard indicators of work-life balance, area of concern: lifelong learning

MS	(14) Participation in education and training: percentage of women and men participating in formal and non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) (%, 25-64)			(15) Barriers to participation in education and training: percentage of women and men not participating in formal or non-formal education and training due to the major time-related barriers (work schedule or family responsibilities) (%, 25-64)					
				Work schedule			Family responsibilities		
	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Gap
EU	**11.8**	10.0	1.8	**37.6**	42.6	– 5.0	**39.8**	24.2	15.6
BE	8.8	8.1	0.7	37.3	41.2	– 3.9	33.0	22.9	10.1
BG	2.4	2.2	0.2	59.6	50.1	9.5	24.5	14.8	9.7
CZ	10.0	9.6	0.4	15.5	17.1	– 1.6	41.0	14.6	26.4
DK	31.4	22.3	9.1	11.4	12.8	– 1.4	7.5	8.4	– 0.9
DE	8.1	8.7	– 0.6	39.6	39.9	– 0.3	47.0	24.6	22.4
EE	20.6	13.7	6.9	22.3	32.2	– 9.9	28.8	12.1	16.7
IE	10.0	7.9	2.1	18.1	27.1	– 9.0	43.2	28.3	14.9
EL	4.4	4.7	– 0.3	23.2	34.7	– 11.5	53.0	37.2	15.8
ES	10.6	9.2	1.4	50.9	49.3	1.6	50.2	36.3	13.9
FR	21.1	16.2	4.9	31.7	34.7	– 3.0	18.1	6.3	11.8
HR	2.6	2.1	0.5	35.3	44.7	– 9.4	37.6	16.4	21.2
IT	8.4	7.5	0.9	35.9	46.4	– 10.5	47.0	28.6	18.4
CY	7.1	6.7	0.4	29.7	40.4	– 10.7	68.2	43.0	25.2
LV	8.8	6.0	2.8	40.5	44.3	– 3.8	36.5	22.7	13.8
LT	7.3	4.4	2.9	39.1	44.6	– 5.5	29.7	18.5	11.2
LU	17.6	16.9	0.7	32.5	36.4	– 3.9	37.6	23.3	14.3
HU	6.4	5.9	0.5	43.4	44.5	– 1.1	29.5	16.4	13.1
MT	11.9	9.5	2.4	59.3	60.6	– 1.3	61.1	35.0	26.1
NL	20.1	18.2	1.9	29.3	28.6	0.7	44.2	28.9	15.3
AT	17.3	14.2	3.1	43.4	52.2	– 8.8	50.9	31.5	19.4
PL	4.4	3.5	0.9	18.2	27.7	– 9.5	40.0	22.3	17.7
PT	10.0	9.6	0.4	53.1	54.7	– 1.6	40.5	21.9	18.6
RO	1.0	1.1	– 0.1	25.4	33.5	– 8.1	43.8	25.5	18.3
SI	14.1	10.0	4.1	26.3	27.4	– 1.1	30.5	24.1	6.4
SK	3.3	3.5	– 0.2	39.5	42.5	– 3.0	47.4	23.4	24.0
FI	31.5	23.3	8.2	35.2	37.6	– 2.4	26.4	15.1	11.3
SE	37.5	23.7	13.8	32.4	34.6	– 2.2	33.2	24.2	9.0
UK	15.8	12.9	2.9	56.7	63.1	– 6.4	45.7	30.7	15.0
	Source: Eurostat, EU LFS (trng_lfs_01), 2017.			*Source:* Eurostat, AES (trng_aes_176), 2016.					

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