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2017 Report on equality between women and men in the EU

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Introduction

Equality between women and men is a fundamental value of the European Union and one that has been enshrined in the Treaty from the very beginning, as the Treaty of Rome included a provision on equal pay. Over the last 60 years, societal changes and persistent policy efforts have established a trend towards gender equality. The EU has always been a major force behind these developments and will continue to play an important role in maintaining momentum and building on past achievements. The 2016-19 Strategic engagement for gender equality¹ aims at pursuing these efforts in key policy areas.

The EU's continued engagement towards gender equality is taking place in a more global context of uncertainty. On the macroeconomic front, Europe is emerging from a period of recession; though output is surpassing pre-crisis levels and labour market outcomes have improved, employment performance is diverging among Member States. The recent increase in migratory flows has also reinforced the need for effective policies on integration of third-country nationals. On the socio-political front, Europe is facing concerns of intolerance, an increase in social inequalities and poverty. In this context, the EU perseveres in pursuit of its Treaty obligation to promote gender equality and in its medium term strategic engagement and more long-term goals and targets agreed with global partners in the framework of the UN 2030 Sustainable Development Goals.

This report takes stock of progress in implementing the Strategic engagement for gender equality:

- It provides a wide array of evidence for key trends using the indicators set out in the Strategic engagement;
- To ensure accountability, it reviews the EU's actions and explains what the Commission and the Member States have achieved in 2016;
- As a potential source of inspiration, it highlights good practices in Member States and innovative projects that the EU has supported.

Attention is focused on short-term developments over the last 12 months, but also on medium term changes since 2010.

This Annual Report also contributes to the monitoring and in-depth review of the Sustainable Development Goal on gender equality (SDG 5, see box) of the UN 2030 Agenda and some other SDGs which include indicators with a gender perspective.

SDG 5 targets

a) End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.

¹ European Union (2016). Strategic engagement to gender equality 2016-2019. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2016.
http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/document/files/strategic_engagement_en.pdf.

- b) Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.
- c) Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.
- d) Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.
- e) Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.
- f) Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.
- g) Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.
- h) Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.
- i) Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

The report is structured around the 5 priorities of the 2016-19 Strategic engagement for gender equality.

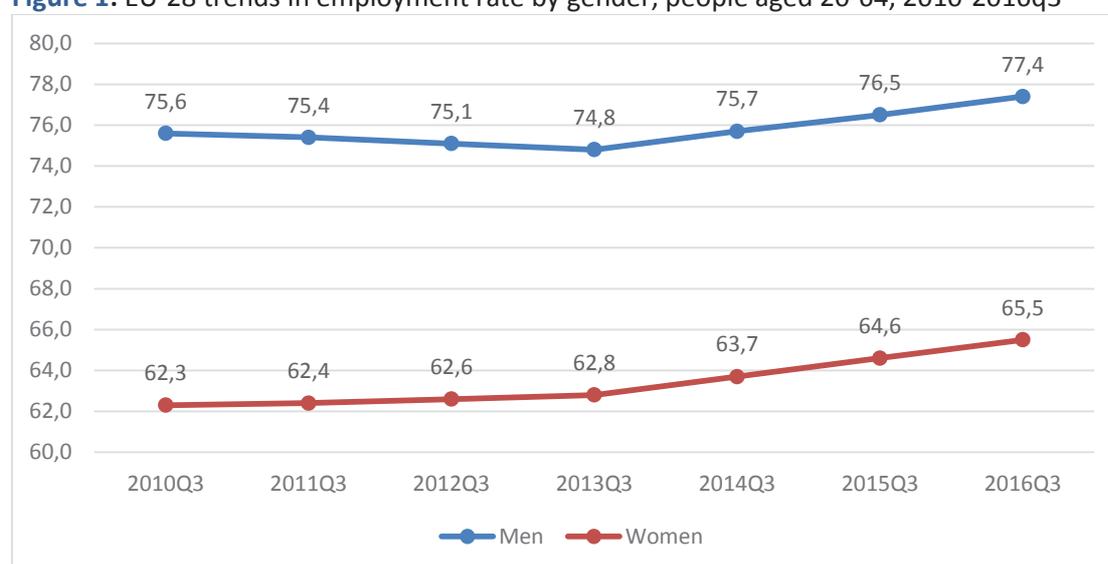
1. Increasing female labour market participation and the equal economic independence of women and men

Europe is exiting a long financial recession, in which employment was hit especially hard. This section analyses the recovery from a gender perspective, before examining more structural trends in the share of paid and unpaid work between women and men. It therefore focuses on three targets agreed at global level: recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work (d); end all forms of discrimination (a) and access to economic resources (g).

Men and women's employment rates have improved, but the prime-age gender gap is plateauing

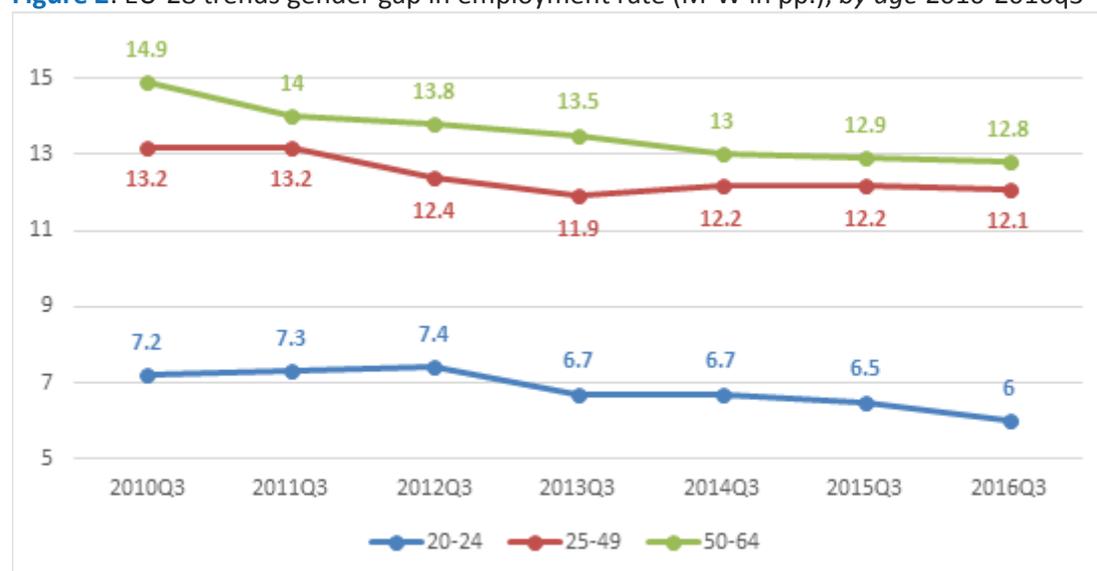
In the third quarter of 2016, the employment rate for men stood at 77.4 %, while the employment rate for women reached an all-time high level of 65.5 % (Figure 1). Overall, the gender gap in employment decreased in 2010-13, and since then has been plateauing at around 12 percentage points. However, the overall trends in the gender gap mask a rapid reduction of the gap among the older group (50-64) caused by women working longer, chiefly as a result of pension system changes, and less favourable developments among younger age groups. The (much smaller) gender gap in young people under 25 increased before starting to decrease recently, while prime-age gender gaps have almost stopped closing (Figure 2).

Figure 1: EU-28 trends in employment rate by gender, people aged 20-64, 2010-2016q3



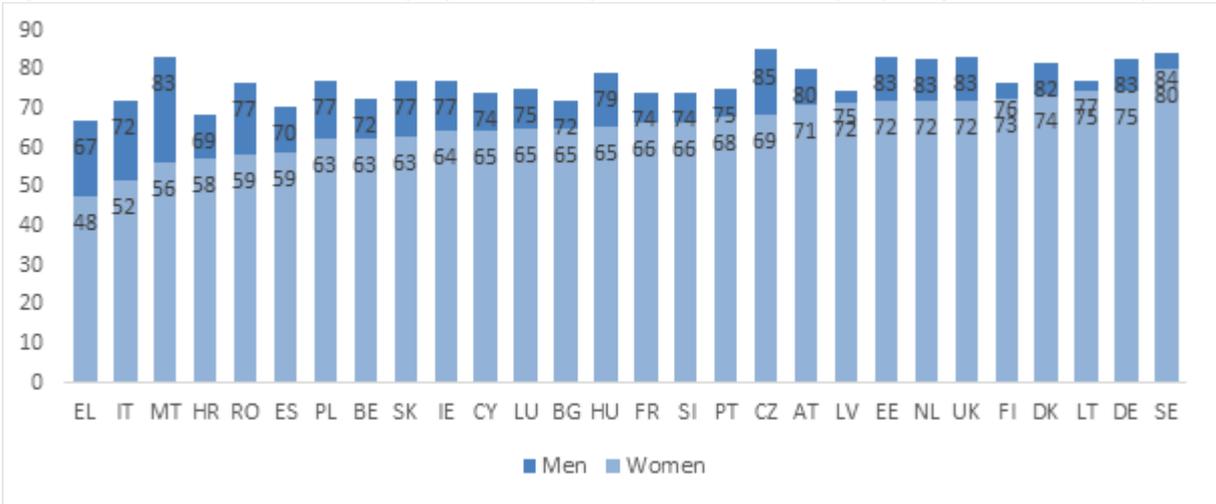
Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey

Figure 2: EU-28 trends gender gap in employment rate (M-W in pp.), by age 2010-2016q3



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey

Figure 3: Women’s and men’s employment rate, per Member States, people aged 20-64, 2016q3



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey

Especially difficult is situation of women with disabilities. Their employment rate was only 45.7% in 2014 according to EU-SILC 2014.² However, it is slightly improving over the years (42.7% in 2010, 44.2% in 2012).

Striking is the situation of Roma women. According to the 2016 Fundamental Rights Agency survey the employment rate of Roma women was only 16 % as compared to 34 % of Roma men. In addition there is significant gender gap as concerns young people not in employment, education or training (NEET): there are 72% of young Roma women not in employment, education or training as compared to 55% of young Roma men.³

A gender lens on the ‘gig economy’: the many forms of economic insecurity

Although unemployment has started to decrease in response to the gradual recovery, too many job seekers still cannot find a job: more than 10.5 million men and almost 9.6 million women were unemployed in the third semester of 2016.

In the countries with the highest unemployment rates; women’s rate was even wider than men’s rate: it reached 27.2% versus 18.9% for men in Greece, 20.7% versus 17.4% in Spain, 13.6% versus 12.5% in Cyprus, 12.2% versus 9.8% in Croatia, 12% versus 10.2% in Italy and 10.8% versus 10.5% in Portugal.

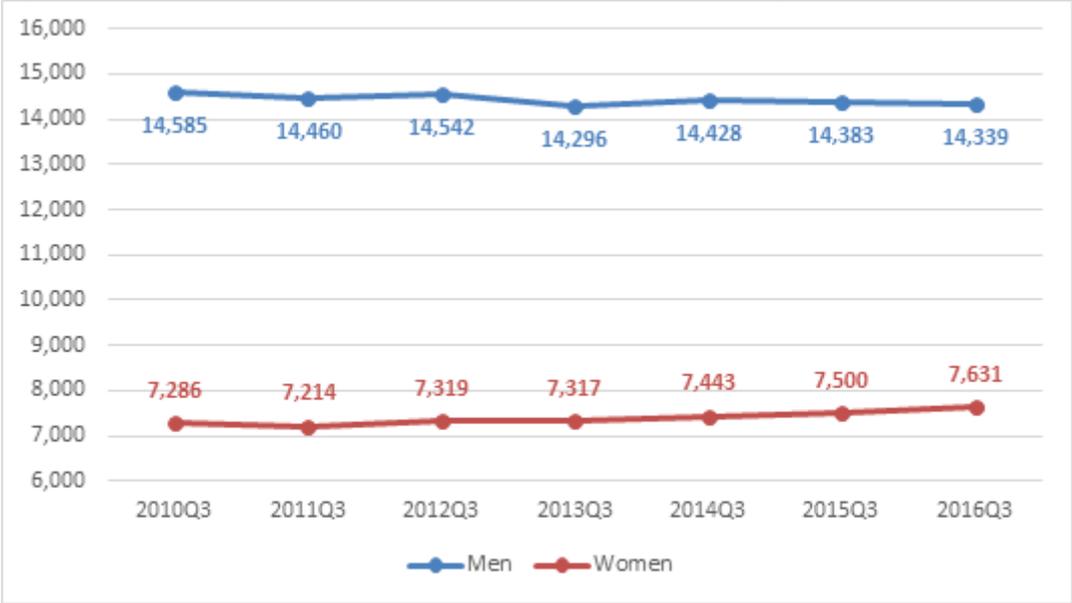
² EU-SILC survey is so far the only statistical survey containing data on persons with disabilities annually. However, micro-data are released by EUROSTAT later and therefore, at present only data from 2014 are available. Micro-data are published in "European comparative data on Europe 2020 & People with disabilities, Final report prepared by Stefanos Grammenos from Centre for European Social and Economic Policy (CESEP ASBL) on behalf of the Academic Network of European Disability Experts (ANED), January 2017"

³ Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey. Roma – Selected findings. European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2016: http://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra_uploads/fra-2016-eu-minorities-survey-roma-selected-findings_en.pdf

For those in employment, work experience has been shifting in directions consistent with the spread of the so-called ‘gig economy’: greater polarisation, development of non-standard forms of work, and more short-term engagements, etc.⁴ Women are not immune to this trend, on the contrary non-standard forms of work are actually more common among female employees. Temporary contracts accounted for 14.1 % of employment contracts signed by women and 12.9 % signed by men. Women are also more likely to be working on the basis of "zero-hours contracts". In the UK for instance, women make up 55% of those reporting working on “zero-hours contracts” (compared to only 45% of those in work who are not on “zero-hours contracts”)⁵. In Finland, women represent 57% of workers with zero-hours contracts.⁶

Although an increase in self-employment may also reflect an increase in entrepreneurship and innovation, the “gig” worker is frequently portrayed as an own-account worker⁷ with short-term engagements. If there is a trend towards more own-account workers, it seems to be affecting women slightly more than men: the number of female own-account workers increased to 7.6 million in 2016, up from 7.3 million in 2010, while the number of male own-account workers has slightly decreased, from 14.6 million to 14.3 million (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Number of own-account workers (in thousands), 20-64 years old, EU-28, 2010Q3-16Q3



Source: Eurostat, LFS

Women’s share of unpaid work: more hours, more intensive and more regular

Progress towards economic independence is usually gauged by the employment rate, but also by the number of paid working hours, which better reflects work intensity. Men spent

⁴ European Commission (2016). The Future of Work. Skills and Resilience for a World of Change. European Political Strategy Centre (EPSC), published in June 2016: https://ec.europa.eu/epsc/sites/epsc/files/strategic_note_issue_13.pdf.

⁵ UK Office for National Statistics, “Contracts that do not guarantee a minimum number of hours: September 2016

⁶ http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/tyti/2014/13/tyti_2014_13_2015-03-05_tie_001_en.html

⁷ Own-account workers are people who hold the type of jobs defined as self-employment jobs and who have not employed anyone on a continuous basis to work for them during the reference period.

39 hours of paid work per week on average in the EU, whereas women spend 33 hours in paid work. In contrast, they do the lion's share of housework and care: working women spend 22 hours per week in unpaid work, while working men spend fewer than 10 hours. However, there are marked differences between countries (see Figure 5). The division of housework and care between women and men is more equal in the Nordic countries, although parity has not yet been reached even there.

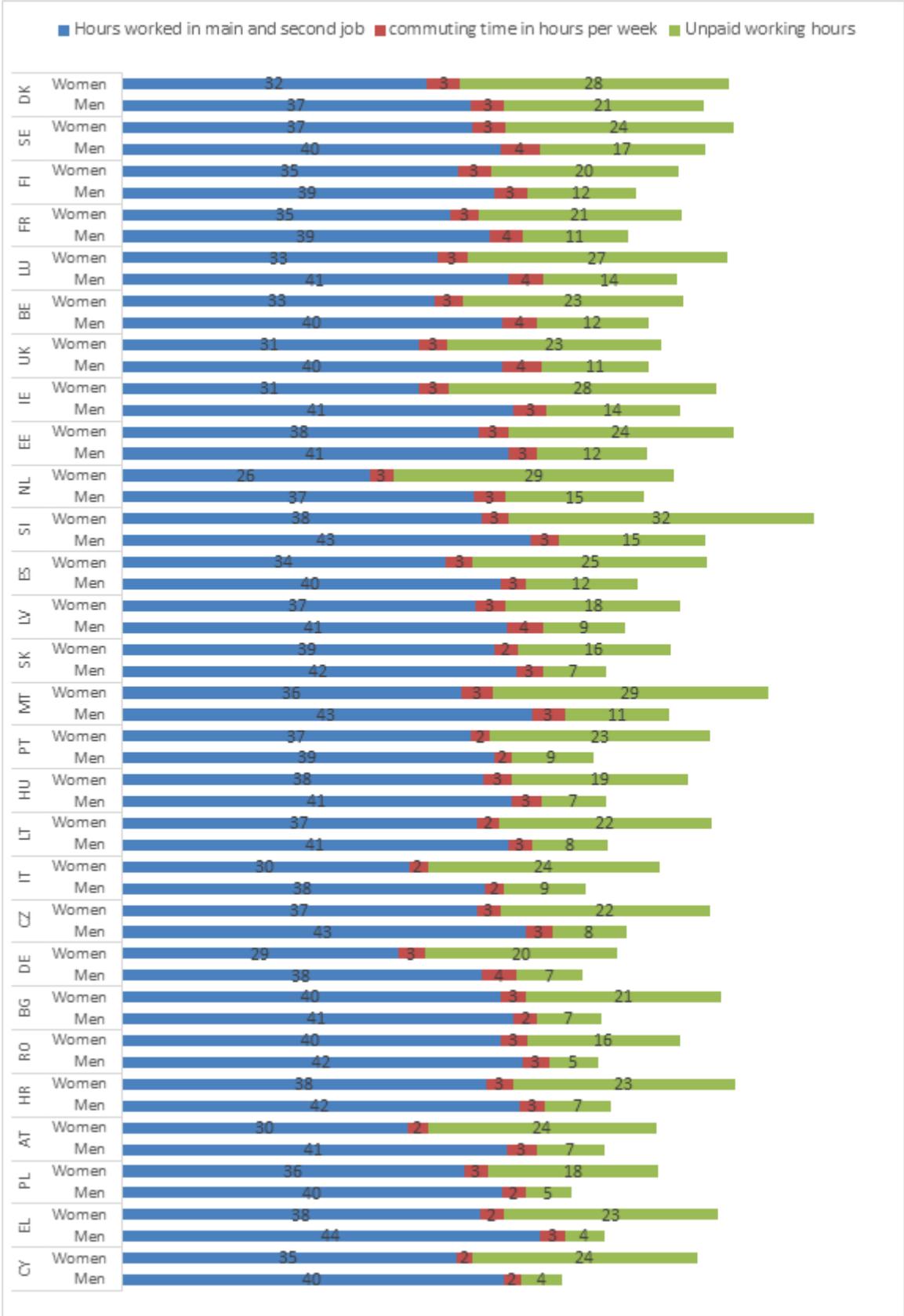
It is not only the important matter of the number of hours men and women spend in paid and unpaid work that differs greatly, the type of tasks they do is very different too. Women tend to perform more routine, labour-intensive and rigidly scheduled tasks, in rapid alternation or even simultaneously. This is notably the case when they enter motherhood, but also if they care for elderly or disabled relatives. In the latter case, they tend to be more involved if care becomes more intensive and regular⁸: among 18-64 year olds, 20 % of women and 18 % of men were informal caregivers, of which 7 % of women provided care on a daily basis compared to 4 % of men.⁹

Portugal carried out a **National Survey on Time Use by Men and Women** in 2016. Supported by the European Economic Area Financial Mechanism and EEA grants, the survey aimed to obtain updated information on time use by women and men in Portugal, in particular with regard to paid work and unpaid care work. It will make it possible to analyse trends since the last survey (1999). The survey will also be complemented by a qualitative analysis, based on in-depth interviews. The main objectives are to raise awareness of the need for a balanced distribution of unpaid care work between women and men and to formulate recommendations for public policies on the articulation of work, personal and family life in order to improve gender equality. Materials targeting the general public will be produced and disseminated.

⁸ "Speaking out against the gender pay gap. Taking into account the case of an informal caregiver" (2016) Report by the French economic and social research institute (IRES).

⁹ European Quality of Life Survey, 2012.

Figure 5: Paid and unpaid working hours, per sex, with countries ranked by the size of the gap in unpaid working hours



Source: Eurofound, 2015 European Working Condition Survey

Work-life balance policies: state-of-play in 2016

Work-life balance policies can support the economic independence and well-being of both men and women, if well designed and in particular if they allow for more equal sharing of caring responsibilities between women and men. However, if ill designed, they may reduce women's ability to take part in the labour market and reinforce the unequal share of paid work and unpaid care work between women and men. They are therefore scrutinised in the framework of the European Semester of economic coordination: in 2016, a country-specific recommendation related to female labour market participation was addressed to 10 Member States: the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Spain, Italy, Austria, Romania, Slovakia and the UK. They were notably encouraged to improve the provision of quality, affordable full-time childcare, access to long-term care and to remove obstacles and disincentives to economic independence. The Annual Growth Survey published in November 2016 also sent a strong signal in favour of further investment in care services, and work-life balance policies favouring women's employment. In addition to this, the European Structural and Investment Funds, notably the European Social Fund and the European Regional Development Fund, continued to have a leverage effect, encouraging Member States to invest in the improvement of the quality and access to care facilities and labour integration of women. The EU Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme supported 10 projects run by national ministries and equality bodies with the view of promoting economic independence and a more equal sharing of paid and unpaid work between women and men (see box below). In 2016, the Commission also continued to monitor the implementation of Directives in this area, notably on pregnant workers and maternity leave (Directive 92/85/EEC) and on parental leave (Directive 2010/18/EU).

Italian, Austrian and Polish projects focus on the need for flexible work arrangements in companies and the implementation and impact of these arrangements. For instance, the project led by the Italian Department for Equal Opportunities carried out a pilot to test new working arrangements in a large Italian company. It will identify the impact of the new arrangements on employees' well-being and on the company's performance, before launching a special awareness campaign on encouraging the use of parental leave by working fathers and other forms of flexible working arrangements for male workers.

The projects led by the Slovenian and Croatian authorities target local authorities. They aim to promote a coherent local community approach to the issue of work-life balance, with the emphasis on active fatherhood.

The Finnish project aims at encouraging more fathers to take more parental leave and to share childcare responsibilities with mothers. The project will conduct research into the obstacles that prevent fathers from taking leave; and intervene in male-dominated workplaces to promote fathers' take-up of leave and raise awareness of men/fathers. Awareness-raising activities are also a central activity of the project led by the Croatian, Cypriot and Maltese authorities aimed at breaking gender stereotypes on the role of men and women in terms of paid work, domestic work and care responsibilities.

The German project is developing an "equal treatment check", i.e. analytical tools, in the areas of employment and working conditions, while the Dutch project aims at gaining a greater insight into the point at which economic dependence arises, and what the underlying factors are.

Although EU legislation, guidelines, actions and funding possibilities have contributed to a certain degree of convergence, progress has been uneven in many respects. This is notably

the case as regards the Barcelona targets on childcare. In 2014, the most recent year where data is available, only ten Member States met the targets of 33 % of children below three years old in formal care structures and only nine met the target of 90 % of children between three and school-age in formal care (see Figure 6). A few Member States are catching up though, and progress has been significant in Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Portugal.

Figure 6a: Proportion of children under three cared for by formal arrangements, in 2014

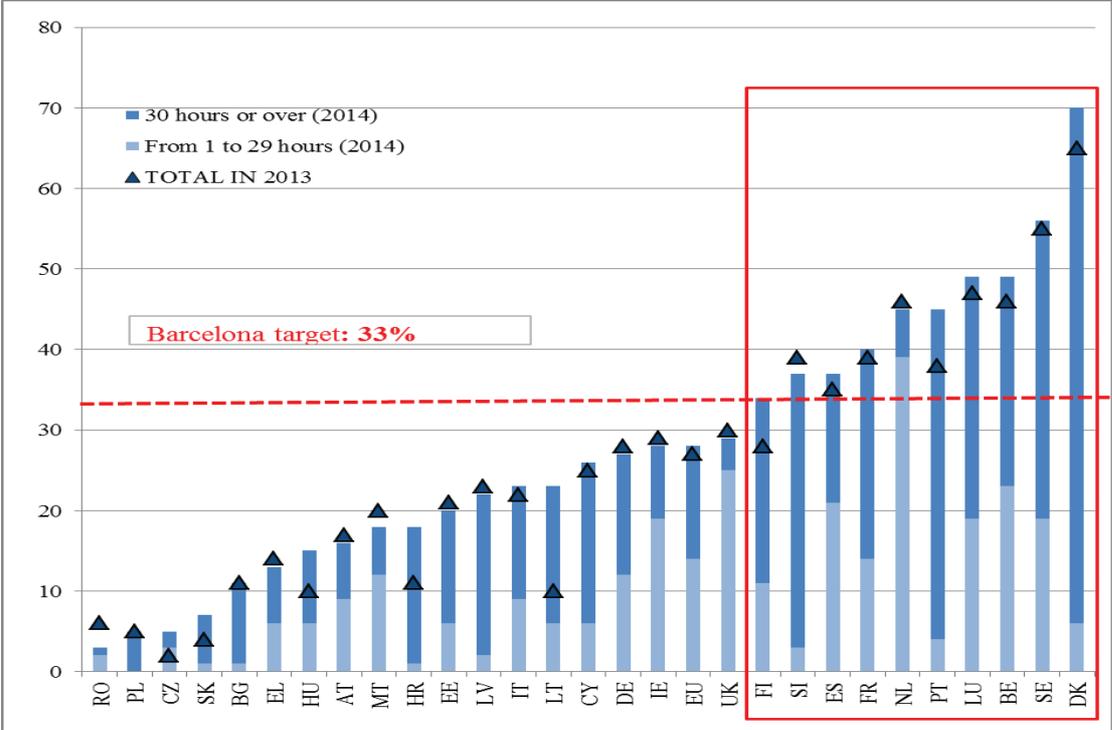
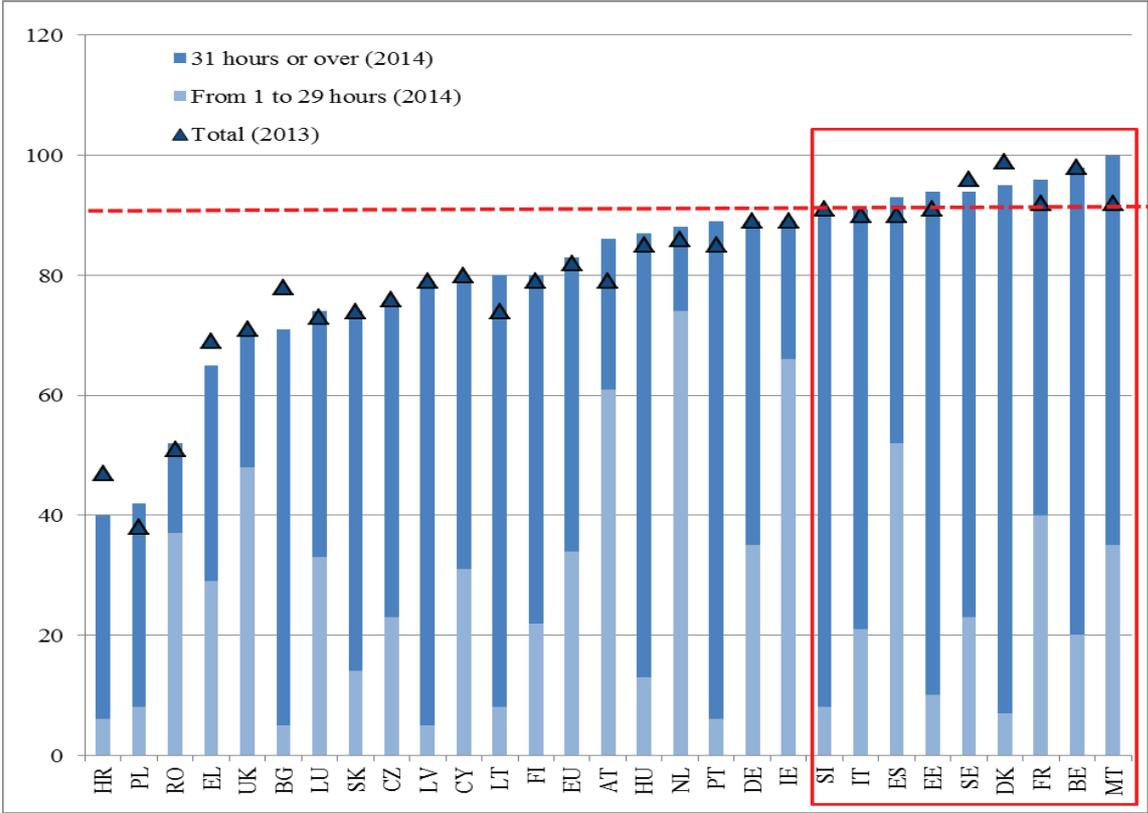


Figure 6b: Proportion of children between the age of 3 and the mandatory school age cared for by formal arrangements, in 2014

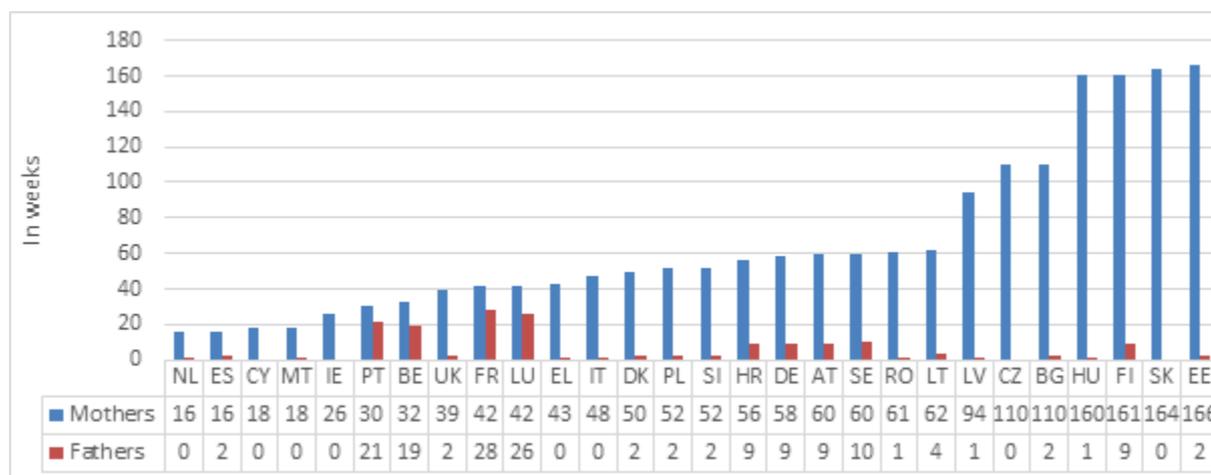


Source: Eurostat, EU-Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). The Barcelona targets themselves concern the provision of childcare facilities to at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age and at least 33 % of children under 3 years old. Statistics focus on the proportion of children attending childcare

In **France**, a new kind of day-nursery with the purpose of integrating job seekers has been developed with the support of the public authorities. The aim is to meet the needs of families and of children for whom it is more difficult to find appropriate childcare and who most need it. On 30 May 2016 both the Minister for Labour and the Minister for the Rights of Women inaugurated the first day-nursery in Paris aimed at occupational integration and announced that they had signed an agreement to spread the model of these 'à Vocation d'Insertion Professionnelle VIP' day-nurseries throughout France. France has 403 700 childcare places in about 11 500 establishments. A further 60 000 places have been created since 2012.

The situation is equally diverse as regards family leave arrangements, although leave reserved for fathers tends to be far shorter than maternity and parental leave in all countries (see Figure 7). In the 12-months preceding this report the Member States have adopted a range of new policies designed to promote gender balance and in particular to ensure the further involvement of men in care responsibilities and more parity in parental leave rights and take-up (see examples in boxes).

Figure 7: Length of total paid leave available to mothers and length of total paid leave reserved for fathers (in weeks), 2016



Source: OECD, Family database, 2016. Note: ‘Total paid leave available to mothers’ refers to all weeks of paid maternity leave and all weeks of employment-protected paid parental and home care leave that can be used by the mother. This includes any weeks that are an individual entitlement or that are reserved for the mother, and those that are a sharable or family entitlement. Any weeks of parental leave that are reserved for the exclusive use of the father are excluded. ‘Total paid leave reserved for fathers’ refers to all weeks of paid paternity leave, any weeks of paid parental or home care leave that can be used only by the father (or ‘other’ parent) and cannot be transferred to the mother, plus any weeks of sharable paid leave that must be taken by the father (or ‘other’ parent) in order for the family to qualify for ‘bonus’ weeks of paid parental leave. Weeks are included only if they are fully non-transferable. Any entitlements that are initially given to the father but can be transferred to the mother are excluded.

In **Austria**, Parliament adopted the ‘**Family Time Bonus Act**’ in 2016, which will enter into force on 1 March 2017. It aims at supporting the more equal sharing of childcare between women and men. The law replaces the current four variants for the childcare allowance account with one childcare allowance account (between EUR 440 and EUR 1 030 per month depending on the length of use, the reference is limited to 28 months for one parent and to 35 months for both parents). If childcare is divided more or less equally, a partnership bonus of EUR 1 000 is granted. As of March 2017, there also is the possibility to opt for the so-called “**daddy’s month**” (family time) in the private sector. The regulation also applies to same-sex partners. Fathers can stay at home for 28 to 31 days directly after the birth of their child. They receive a lump sum of 700 euros with full health and pension insurance. However, there is no legal entitlement and employers have to agree to this measure.

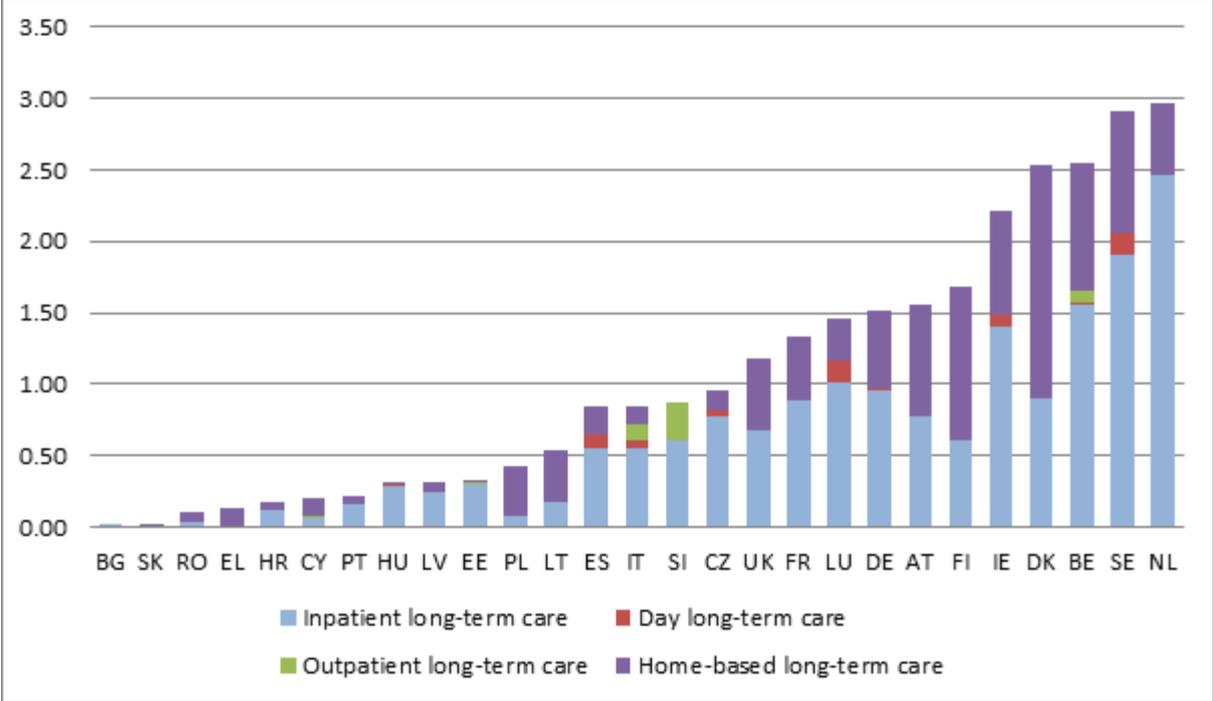
In **Germany** parental allowance, addressing not only mothers but fathers, too, has proven to contribute to more “active” fathers. 34 % of German fathers take parental leave with the average spending 3.1 months at home with their child. The new parental allowance plus for births as from 01.07.2015 is an example for a new policy approach to create incentives for parents to divide parental leave more equally between the mother and the father and to provide financial incentives if both the mother and the father decide to work part-time simultaneously.

In **Denmark**, the Minister for Equal Opportunities has launched a new initiative aimed at promoting paternity leave and men’s role as fathers. The Minister has established a network of influential companies in Denmark and with the leaders of the social partners. Concrete activities will be launched to create awareness of the benefits of encouraging more men to take paternity leave.

Across the EU, work-life balance measures for persons of working age with dependent relatives differ in their operating principles, financing methods and offer of services, for

instance. Recent research showed that only a few Member States provide necessary arrangements enabling carers to remain in employment and preserve work-life balance. It also identified a common trend towards deinstitutionalising care and extending community care, however without a simultaneous investment in public in-home services in most cases.¹⁰ Denmark and Finland are nevertheless more advanced in this regard, and the majority of long-term formal care is provided in-house (see Figure 8). A second trend is the development of specific leave provisions facilitating work-life balance for carers.

Figure 8: Spending in long-term care, by type of care, (as % of GDP) in 2014



Source: Eurostat

The analysis of the last wave of the European Working Conditions Survey, which was published in 2016, demonstrates, once again, that work-life balance is better if workers can take an hour off for their own needs, have regular and predictable working hours or can work from home. These possibilities are, however, not equally spread over the EU.¹¹ Moreover, telework also entails disadvantages such as a tendency to work longer hours, and a greater overlap between paid work and personal life, which lead to high levels of stress.¹²

¹⁰ European Social Protection Network (2016) Thematic Report on work-life balance measures for persons of working age with dependent relatives. See also: “Speaking out against the gender pay gap. Taking into account the case of an informal caregiver” (2016) Report by the French economic and social research institute (IRES).

¹¹ Eurofound (2016); 6th European Working Conditions Survey, overview report. http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_publication/field_ef_document/ef1634en.pdf.

¹² ILO-Eurofound report (2017), Working anytime, anywhere: The effects on the world of work

Rethinking work-life balance policies

The Commission has announced the preparation of a new initiative to address the challenges of work-life balance for working parents and caregivers. This is one of the Commission's key initiatives in its work programme for 2017, and is related to the European Pillar of Social Rights.

This initiative has been informed by an extensive consultation process in 2016. In line with the Treaty, the Commission carried out a two-stage consultation with the EU social partners. Between November 2015 and January 2016, the social partners were first invited to give their views on the possible direction of EU action. A second-stage consultation ran from July to September 2016, in which social partners provided their views on a range of possible EU-level measures. Employers' organisations found the current EU legislative framework in the area of work-life balance to be sufficient, while trade unions were favourable to further EU legislative action in the area of parental and paternity leave and carers' leave. Social partners decided not to enter into direct negotiations on any of the issues raised during the consultations.

An open public consultation was also carried out in 2015-16 to seek the views of different stakeholders and citizens on the issue. It received 785 contributions from across the EU including 229 from organisations and 557 from individuals. An overwhelming majority of organisations and individuals agree or partially agree with the list of challenges and policy areas laid out in the background document of the consultation. Moreover, The EU Advisory Committee on equality between women and men adopted an ad hoc opinion on this issue. The opinion asked for further efforts in the area of childcare, notably by upgrading the Barcelona targets, and warned that flexible arrangements should be designed for both men and women, otherwise they would be counterproductive. In September 2016 the European Parliament adopted a resolution on creating labour market conditions favourable for work-life balance. The resolution calls for measures to facilitate a greater sharing of care responsibilities between women and men and to support women entering, returning to and staying in the labour market with stable and quality employment, and encourages the Commission to step up its efforts in this field.

The Slovak Presidency organised a conference on 'work-life balance in a changing society' (20-21 September 2016), with a focus on key success factors. It notably concluded that the design of legal instruments and of policy measures need to go in tandem and they need to complement each other. For example, parental leave needs to be developed in conjunction with affordable care services, otherwise it may simply serve to postpone the point at which women exit the labour market. 'Successful' countries have a comprehensive model: the Danish system for instance is based on gender equal norms, individual taxation, leave arrangements and high quality and universal public services for children and elderly and dependent persons. The conference was also an opportunity to highlight that work-life balance challenges are not only common to all the Member States, they also have a cross-border dimension, since care needs are fulfilled by migrant workers in some cases, and this might create a risk of "care drain" in the country of origin.

The integration of third country nationals

The integration of third country nationals remains an important area, especially under the recent migratory pressure. In 2016, the number of asylum applications received by EU-28 remained high. By the end of November 2016 over 1 million asylum applications had been made and 33 % were from women. Out of 1.3 million asylum applications made in 2015, 28 % were made by women.

The labour force participation rates of third country migrant women are substantially lower than those of native-born women. The employment rate gap that separated third-country nationals from host country nationals was 20 pps for women against 9 pps for men in the third quarter 2016. With less than half of the migrant women population in employment (46.4%) and an over-qualification rate of third-country women of 11 pps higher than that of their male peers and 13 points higher than that of EU female citizens,¹³ immigrant women are an under-utilised source of skills and creativity. Migrant women face more barriers in access to labour market. These risks are compounded by higher rates of exposure to poverty, marginalisation and a lack of access to economic and development opportunities in reception countries.

The Commission has ensured gender mainstreaming in recent policy measures and initiatives: the need to better address the situation of migrant women is raised in the Action Plan on the integration of third country nationals (issued on 7 June 2016¹⁴). In an opinion issued in December 2016, the Advisory Committee on equal opportunities for women and men addressed a range of issues related to needs of women on the move, calling for specific actions of Member States and the Commission. The Opinion among others encourages Member States to mobilise European Funds to address existing gaps. On top of their national programmes financed by European Funds, Member States can apply for direct grants. A call for proposals on migrant women integration under the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund has already been finalised with a large number of submitted applications. New calls have been published: a call for projects supporting the integration of relocated/resettled persons with a focus on vulnerable groups, including women and children, a call for projects promoting fast track integration into the labour market for third country nationals with special criteria favouring women. Other issues raised in the Opinion of the Advisory Committee will also be assessed.

Gender is mainstreamed in all aspects of the **Swedish migration and asylum policies**, based on the Swedish Migration Agency's Action Plan for Gender Mainstreaming 2016-2018. The rationale of the early integration approach is that time spent waiting for asylum should be used to strengthen an individual's prospects of establishing themselves.

Among the relevant aspects of gender-sensitive early integration policies, Sweden provides asylum seekers and refugees with access to an "Introduction Programme" managed by the Public Employment Service. The Programme facilitates access to education, vocational training, language courses and meaningful occupation preparing refugees for the validation of professional

¹³ Indicators of Immigrant Integration 2015, Settling In, © OECD/European Union 2015; http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/e-library/documents/policies/legal-migration/integration/docs/ec_oecd_joint_report_indicators_of_immigrant_integration_2015_en.pdf

¹⁴ COM(2016)377 final of 7.6.2016.

competences. Since 2015, these actions, based on agreements with the social partners, have resulted in “fast track” paths to the labour market in a number of economic sectors: hotels and restaurants, as well as the health care sector. Specific initiatives have also been devised to encourage major companies to contribute to the integration of refugees through placements (‘100 club’-Sweden Together initiative). In this framework, asylum seekers are also offered compulsory civic orientation courses provided by municipalities. Tailored individual introduction plans are also offered by the Public Employment Service.

2. Reducing gender pay, earnings and pension gaps and thus fighting poverty among women

Although women are successful in gaining qualifications, their subsequent careers are often more interrupted, they have lower pay and their careers are flatter. As a consequence, they earn less than men over their life cycle, and their pensions are lower. This section provides insights on gender gaps in pay, skills achievement, earnings, pension, wealth and poverty. It therefore covers the UN 2030 Agenda targets on ending discrimination (a), improving access to economic resources (g) and enhancing the use of enabling technologies (h).

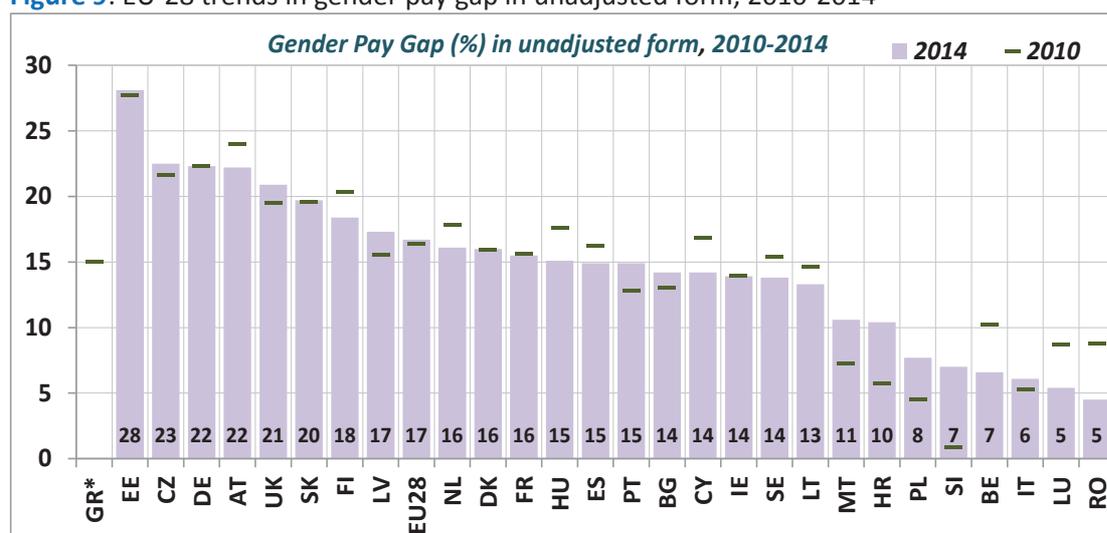
The gender pay gap across the EU: different magnitude, different trends, but similar causes

The gender pay gap is often moving in the opposite direction from the gender employment gap.¹⁵ It was noted earlier in this report that the gender employment gap narrowed for a number of years and reached a plateau in 2014-16. Data on the gender pay gap are only available for 2015 and show that the pay gap stood at 16.3 % in 2014 while in 2010 it was 16.4 %.

Figure 9 below depicts the gender gap in unadjusted form in the 28 Member States for 2014 and the changes since 2010. In 11 Member States the gender pay gap declined by at least 1 pp., while in 8 it increased over 1 pp.

¹⁵ This could be the result of larger numbers of lower-earning women moving into employment from unemployment or inactivity. Boll, C., Leppin, J., Rossen, A., and A. Wolf, 'Magnitude and impact factors of the gender pay gap in EU countries', Report prepared for the European Commission, 2016.

Figure 9: EU-28 trends in gender pay gap in unadjusted form, 2010-2014



Source: Eurostat, Structure of Earnings Survey. 2010 and 2014 figures are based on micro data.

Although the magnitude of the gap differs, a number of underlying causes are rather similar across countries:

- ✓ Recent research confirms that sectoral gender segregation on the labour market accounts for a significant proportion of the gender pay gap in all EU countries: in other words, women are entering relatively low-paid sectors.¹⁶ Unfortunately, sectoral segregation has evolved very slowly over the last 10 years (see annex).
- ✓ The same research also confirms that non-standard forms of employment (part-time and temporary contracts) are associated with lower hourly wages. This increases the gender pay gap¹⁷, as women are more frequently employed in non-standard forms of work (see first section).
- ✓ In most countries, there is a gender gap within each occupation. A number of recent experimental studies confirm that part of the pay gap can be explained by direct discrimination.¹⁸ This gap might also be due to wage premium related to some characteristics that are more prevalent among men. For instance, research¹⁹ tends to show that men are rewarded for working very long hours, at particular hours, for less interrupted careers, and for greater geographical mobility than women. A more recent strand of research focuses on the role of non-cognitive skills (negotiation skills, ability to compete or to negotiate, interpersonal skills, etc.), without being always conclusive.²⁰ The interplay between pay, gender and non-cognitive skills is complex, as women may actually be penalised for competing or negotiating. The context also matters: women tend to negotiate as much as men when it is explicitly stated that wages are negotiable and that negotiation is therefore an appropriate behaviour.

¹⁶ Boll, C., Leppin, J., Rossen, A., and A. Wolf, 'Magnitude and impact factors of the gender pay gap in EU countries', Report prepared for the European Commission, 2016.

¹⁷ *ibid*

¹⁸ For an overview of recent research, see Francine D. Blau and Lawrence M. Kahn (2017), The Gender-Wage Gap: Extent, Trends, and Explanations, *Journal of Economic Literature*, forthcoming.

¹⁹ *ibid*

²⁰ *ibid*

While many explanations appear valid across countries, policy options might widen, or on the contrary mitigate the gender pay gap.

The EU and its Member States continue to strive to close the gender pay gap

The principle of equal pay is included in the EU Treaties and in the recast Directive on gender equality in the area of employment and occupation (2006/54/EC). The Directive prohibits direct and indirect discrimination on grounds of sex concerning all aspects of remuneration. It also prohibits sex discrimination in job classification systems used for determining pay. However, the effective application of the existing legal framework on equal pay remains a challenge in all Member States. The Commission is constantly monitoring whether EU law on equal pay is being correctly applied and supports Member States and other stakeholders in properly enforcing the existing rules.

Wage transparency and awareness-raising activities are steps that can enable employees and employers to reduce the gender pay gap. The Commission's Recommendation on pay transparency that was adopted in 2014 encouraged Member States to take up concrete measures in this matter. In 2016, Member States continued to introduce wage transparency tools and to strengthen existing ones (see box). The Commission has supported further dedicated mutual learning between Member States, by organising a seminar on 20-21 October 2016 at which the Belgian Gender Pay Act was discussed and which focused on reporting requirements at company level and on gender-neutral job classifications. In addition, the New Skills Agenda adopted by the Commission in 2016, has a particular focus on improving the transparency of skills and qualifications.²¹

The Commission itself drew attention to the size of the gender pay gap by marking 3 November 2016 as the European Equal Pay Day. For this occasion, it published factsheets and communication materials on the gender pay gap.

The Spanish Women's and Equal Opportunities Institute has developed a job evaluation tool to contrast and ultimately reduce the gender pay gap. The tool was made public on 22 February 2016, on the occasion of the Spanish Equal Pay Day. The tool consists of an Excel file that has to be filled in with information on the organisational job structure, and a systematised description and the wage level of each post. On the basis of this information, the gender pay gap in the company is quantified, and recommendations about how to reduce it are made.

The **Swedish Government** sent a bill to Parliament proposing to strengthen the requirement of pay surveys in order to seek to eliminate unjustified gender pay differentials. It proposes that pay surveys be conducted every year (instead of every third year). Further, employers with more than 10 employees (instead of 25 as before) will be required to document the work with pay surveys every year (instead of every third year). In June 2016, the Swedish Parliament voted in favour of the bill and the proposed amendments entered into force 1 January 2017.

Labour market institutions also matter. Social partners can indeed play a role in exposing and reducing the gender pay gap. In this respect, the Commission organised a dialogue with social partners on evidence-based solutions to close the gender pay gap (30 November

²¹ COM(2016) 381 final, 'A New Skills Agenda for Europe. Working together to strengthen human capital, employability and competitiveness'.

2016). The PROGRESS programme supported eight transnational projects, run by civil society and social partners, aiming at understanding and tackling the gender pay gap²², as well as a project entitled *With Innovative Tools Against the Gender Pay Gap*, which notably documents clauses on gender equality in collective agreement

Member States and the social partners can have a direct impact on wage levels, and therefore on the gender pay gap, by setting minimum wages on the one hand and wages in the public sector on the other hand. Since women are concentrated in low-wage sectors and in occupations with limited scope for collective bargaining, minimum wages can mitigate the overall gender pay gap. This impact will however depend on the minimum wage's level, coverage and enforcement. In addition, an increase in the minimum wage not only affect wages at the bottom of the wage distribution, but also has potential spill-over effects at the rest of the wage distribution and can affect men and women's employment level²³. In 2016, minimum wages increased significantly in some of the countries with the highest gender pay gap: Czech Republic, Slovakia and the UK. .

Furthermore, as the public sector is a major employer of women, wages in key female-dominated professions in this sector (teachers and nurses, for instance) can greatly influence the overall gender pay gap.²⁴ In 2016, two Member States received a country-specific recommendation to raise the attractiveness of the teaching profession: Czech Republic and Slovakia.

Work-life balance policies, if well-designed, can also reduce the gender pay gap: the availability and affordability of care services are known to be associated with a smaller gender pay gap, while long parental leaves tend to lead to a reduction in women's relative wages (see section 1 for policy developments in this area).

Skills: the gender divide might start early, but can still be avoided

Given the salient and persistent role of segregation in widening the gender pay gap, it is crucial to better understand students' career choices, and how they link with school achievement and experience. A fresh look at the gender gap in skills and career expectations was made possible at the end 2016 by the release of the 2015 OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) which surveyed the skills of 15 year-old pupils, and of the IEA's 2015 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, which surveys pupils not only at eighth grade, but also at fourth grade.

International surveys show that gender gaps in sciences are in favour of boys in some countries and of girls in others. On average, at the age of 15, boys score significantly better

²²http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/eu_funded-projects/transnational-project-summaries/index_en.htm

²³ Kahn L. (2015), Wage compression and the gender pay gap, IZA, World of Labor, <http://wol.iza.org/articles/wage-compression-and-gender-pay-gap/long>

²⁴ See example of Italy and Poland, in Boll, C., Leppin, J., Rossen, A., and A. Wolf, 'Magnitude and impact factors of the gender pay gap in EU countries', Report prepared for the European Commission, 2016.

than girls in sciences in ten EU countries: Belgium, Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland and Portugal. On the contrary, girls are significantly better than boys in sciences in eight EU countries: Bulgaria, Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta, Romania, Slovenia and Finland. In the remaining 10 countries there is no significant gender difference. Gender divides may start early: at fourth grade, girls already outperform boys in Bulgaria, Finland and Sweden. Moreover, average scores mask certain differences between boys and girls, with greater variation in boys' performance. Boys are more frequently among the low-achieving students, but also among the top-achieving students in science. Finland is an exception, with a higher share of women among top performers in science.

While performances are not always determined by gender, this is not the case for career choices. The PISA Survey recalls that, at the age of 15, boys are more likely to envisage a career as ICT professionals, scientists or engineers, whereas girls see themselves as doctors, veterinarians or nurses. For instance, in Finland 6.2 % of boys and only 1.4 % of girls plan to become an engineer, scientist or architect, while 17 % of girls and 5 % of boys see themselves as health professionals. Gender (and socio-economic background) have an impact on career expectations, even among students of similar performances in science and who reported the same level of enjoyment of science.

Looking at the performance in mathematics of 15 year-old pupils, it is striking to see that Finland is the only country where girls perform better on average than boys at 15 years old, but also at fourth grade. On the contrary, a significant gap in favour of 15-years old boys can be observed in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Croatia, Italy, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Spain and the UK.

In all countries, girls at the age of 15 achieved a much higher level of proficiency in reading than boys. Yet, the gender gap in reading, although still very significant in 2015, has decreased compared to 2009 in all countries, for two reasons: boys' performance improved, while girls' performance deteriorated.²⁵

In 2016, the Commission recalled that education offers a unique opportunity to counter socio-economic disparities and gender stereotypes and make sure that nobody is left behind.²⁶ It presented a series of actions to help Member States provide high quality education for all. For instance, a proposal for a Skills Guarantee was adopted on 19 December 2017 as the Recommendation on *Upskilling Pathways: New Opportunities for Adults*²⁷. Through the Recommendation, Member States have agreed to offer adults with low levels of skill the chance to: acquire a minimum level of literacy, numeracy and digital competence and, if they wish, go further to acquire a qualification at European Qualification Framework level 3 or 4. They may be in employment, unemployed or economically inactive, with a need to strengthen basic skills.

²⁵ OECD (2016), PISA 2015 Results (volume I) recalls that boys are more likely to engage in a reading test on computer, using a keyboard or mouse than on paper and using a pen. It then discusses whether the switch from paper-based tests to computer-based tests can partly explain the trend, but tends to rule out this hypothesis.

²⁶ See COM(2016) 941 final, 'Improving and modernising education', COM(2016) 381 final, 'A New Skills Agenda for Europe. Working together to strengthen human capital, employability and competitiveness'.

²⁷ OJ C 484, 24.12.2016, p. 1–6

Under the European strategic cooperation framework in education and training,²⁸ a Working Group on promoting citizenship and common values, has been set up to develop policy guidelines covering, among others, gender equality. The Erasmus+ Programme is funding specific projects focussed on gender issues in education.²⁹ The Member States and the civil society also encouraged the young generation to break gender stereotypes (see box).

11 February 2016 marked the **first International Day for Women and Girls in Science**, following a resolution proposed by the Maltese Government within the General Assembly of the United Nations. The aim was to raise further awareness on this topic and break cultural, social and structural barriers that currently disadvantage women and girls; promote positive female role models; set up programmes to encourage girls to pursue careers in science; and highlight the obstacles that prevent women from moving up the ladder in the field of science.³⁰

The **Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research** has started to address the stereotypes existing in the educational system by fighting the under-representation of girl students in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics). In order to encourage girls to study STEM, in February 2016 the Ministry, in collaboration with the Italian Department for Equal Opportunities, established the **'STEM Month — Women want to count'**, which is a set of dedicated initiatives to combat gender stereotypes and discrimination in schools.

In **Germany**, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth supports Pinkstinks, a campaign that aims at challenging gender stereotypes in the products, media and marketing. Pinkstinks also promotes media literacy, self-esteem, positive body images and female role models for kids.

In February 2016, Pinkstinks organised a demonstration in Berlin against body hate and sexism, and in autumn 2016 a YouTube-channel with a protagonist called 'Lu Likes' was launched in cooperation with the Ministry. 'Lu Likes' is a girl who gives explanations and advice for other girls and young women in short video clips, for example on how to find an identity that shows more than being beautiful, sexy and stylish or what can be done against sexism in the media and internet. More information: www.pinkstinks.de

In 2016, the **European Women Lobby** (EWL) organised the second edition of the European Feminist Summer School. Building on the success of the first edition, it aims at connecting and empowering young feminists. During 4 days, the EWL set up an inclusive space to exchange, to create and inspire, to reinforce skills through workshops, conferences, skills-sharing. The EWL selected around 50 candidates. This was an opportunity to strengthen the connections between new organisations, movements and initiatives that have been flourishing across Europe.

Gender gap in earnings: summarising inequalities in the labour market...

Progress in equality between women and men on the labour market is usually gauged by means of aggregate indicators in three fields: in employment, in the prevalence of atypical work such as part-time, and the pay gap. In 2016, Eurostat updated data on the gender gap in earnings, which compiles inequalities resulting from the gaps in pay, working hours and employment. This is therefore the most comprehensive indicator of labour market inequalities between women and men. It shows that the EU is still far from reaching gender

²⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework_en

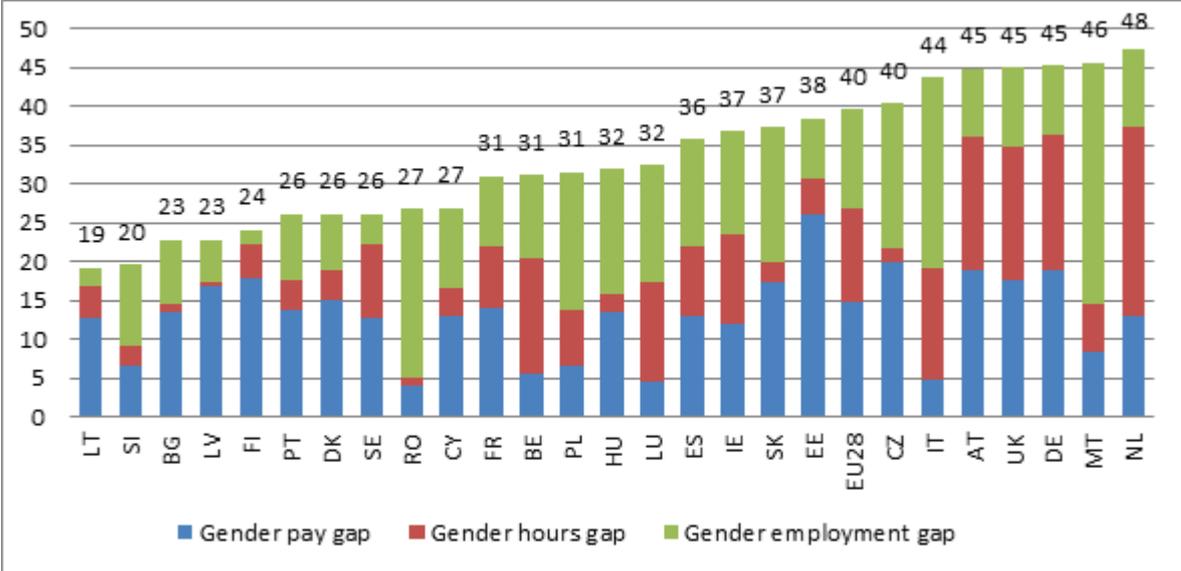
²⁹ <http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/projects/eplus-project-details-page/?nodeRef=workspace://SpacesStore/476855f6-a184-45c2-bbb6-42e0894f7d22>

³⁰ http://socialdialogue.gov.mt/en/Pages/Media/Press_Releases/PR1_60286.aspx

equality on the labour market. Even in the most equal countries, the overall gender gap in earnings stood at 20 % or so, while it reached 45 % or even more in Germany, Greece, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria and the UK (see Figure 10).

The gap stood at 39.8 % in 2014 in the EU, down from 41.1 % in 2010. Inequalities narrowed slightly at the beginning of the decade in most EU countries, with the notable exception of Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia (see annex 1). At this rate of change, it would take another century to close the overall gender earnings gap.

Figure 10: Overall gender earnings gap, and contribution of the gap in pay, working hours and employment, 2014, EU-28



Source: Eurostat, Structure of Earnings Survey

.... Which can lead to a high gender gap in pensions and in wealth

The gender gap in pensions, which is defined as the gap between the average pre-tax income received as a pension by women and that received by men, stood at 37.6 % in the 65 and over age group in 2015, according to the latest available data. Once again, the gap varies greatly from one Member State to another, depending on past progress on gender equality in the labour market. It is also affected by the design of the national pension system, and depends on the extent to which pension entitlements are linked to earnings-related pension contributions over working careers.

Lower income levels, as well as a shorter time spent in the labour market, also mean women are in a weaker position to accumulate wealth. A very first measure of the gender wealth gap³¹, although imperfect due to data constraints, indicates large disparities between women and men in the level and composition of wealth. Women allocate the majority of their wealth to non-financial assets, in particular real estate. Men do so to a lesser extent.

³¹ Sierminska A, The gender gap in wealth, forthcoming

... *And poverty*

Households rely more and more on women's earnings. Yet, many households still dependent on a man's income³². This increases their risk of poverty in case of job loss, family break-up or even death. A report prepared by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) at the request of the Slovak Presidency of the Council of the EU shows that 70 % of couples with children would fall into poverty if a father were to lose his job. In a similar vein, the risk of poverty or social exclusion was 47.7 % for lone parents in 2015, down from 52.2 % in 2010, but still more than double the rate in the total population (23.7 % in 2010 and 2015).

In **Germany**, a new regulation will improve the financial situation of single parents. Since single parents often do not receive financial support for their children from the father (or, in rare cases, from the mother), federal authorities pay an advance subsidy in order to ensure their economic stability. On 16 November 2016, the Federal Cabinet agreed on a new regulation on the federal advance child maintenance payment (Unterhaltsvorschusszahlung). From July 2017 onwards, this payment will be granted until the child turns 18 years old, whereas, according to the rules in force until June 2017, it is provided until the child turns 12 years old and for a maximum of 72 months.

Women across the EU face a higher risk of poverty or social exclusion (24.4%, compared to 23% for men in the EU in 2015). While this decreases with age for both women and men gender differences increases in older age groups (22.4% and 18.6% respectively for women and men aged 75+).

Having a disability means significantly higher risk of poverty and social exclusion; 30.1% of persons with disabilities were in risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2014 as compared to 21.4% of those without disabilities. Women with disabilities face a higher risk than men with disabilities (31% versus 28.8%).

Gender differences are also reflected in extreme poverty figures. Although homelessness hits predominantly men (75-85% in 2014)³³, female homelessness is on the rise. Due to the income inequality, women are more exposed to housing difficulties, in particular, to housing cost overburden.

The report prepared by EIGE and mentioned above also shows the consequences of multiple discrimination. Having a migrant background affects employment, education and living conditions and foreign-born people are twice as likely to suffer from poverty or exclusion as EU-born people: 40.7 % of women and 39.9 % of men born in a non-EU country were at risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2015.

³² See annex presenting the distribution of couples by the share of female earnings.

³³ Foundation Abbé Pierre-FEANTSA: An Overview of housing exclusion in Europe, 2015

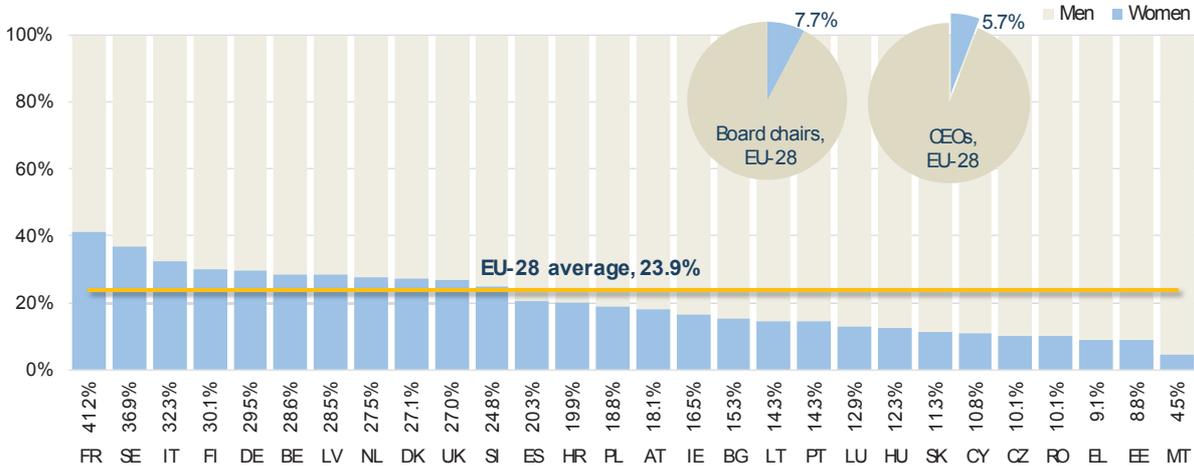
3. Promoting equality in decision-making

Equal participation of women and men in decision-making positions is a matter of justice, respect for fundamental rights and good governance. It is needed to better reflect the composition of society and to strengthen democracy. It will also bring benefits to the EU’s economic growth and competitiveness. Yet despite some encouraging improvement, men continue to outnumber women in positions of power across the EU. This section reviews progress in promoting equality in economic and political decision-making, covering therefore target (e) of the UN 2030 Agenda.

Corporate boardrooms — significant progress concentrated in a few Member States

Data from October 2016 show that women still account for less than one in four (23.9 %) board members in the largest publicly listed companies registered in EU Member States.³⁴ Indeed, there are only four countries — France, Italy, Finland and Sweden, — in which boards of large companies have at least 30 % women. In the majority of Member States, women are outnumbered by at least 4:1 and in Estonia, Greece and Malta by at least 9:1 (Figure 1). The shortage of women at board level also limits the prospects of women leading companies. In October 2016, just 7.7 % of board were chaired by women, and in six countries (Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal) not one of the companies covered was chaired by a woman. At the top executive level, women were even less well represented, accounting for only 5.7 % of CEOs.

Figure 11: Gender balance among board members, chairs and CEOs of large listed companies in the EU, October 2016



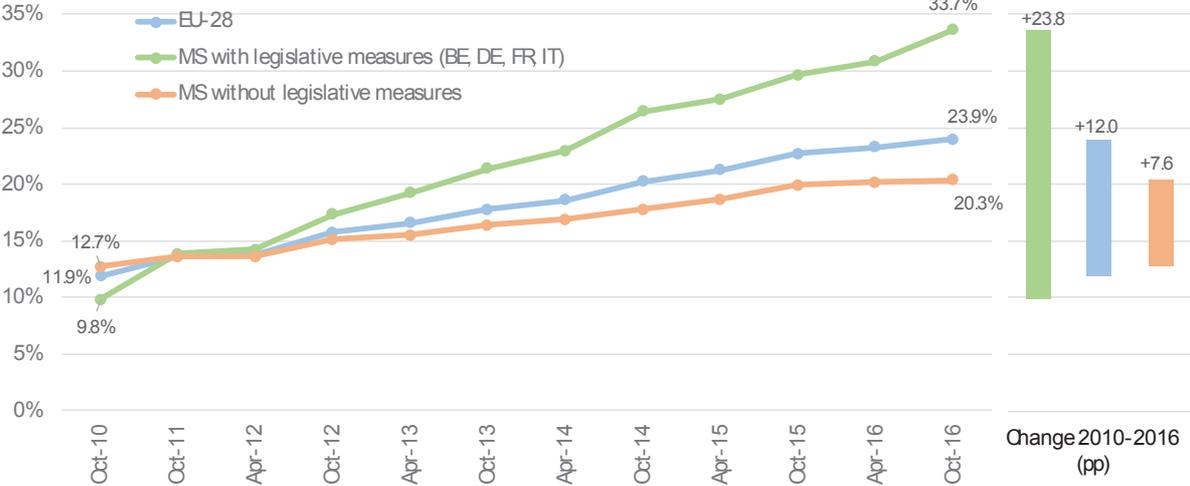
Source: European Commission, *Database on women and men in decision-making*.

At EU level, the share of women on the boards of large publicly listed companies has risen by 12 pp. from 11.9 % in October 2010 to 23.9 % in October 2016 (Figure 12). There has also been some more limited progress in top positions. Since October 2012, the proportion of women occupying board chairs has increased from 2.8 % to 7.7 % and there has been a slightly smaller rise in the proportion of women CEOs (from 3.3 % to 5.7 %).

³⁴ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/index_en.htm.

The data on board members provide evidence of the positive impact of legislative action. Since October 2010, the proportion of women on boards in countries with binding legislative measures (Belgium, Germany, France and Italy) has risen by 23.8 pp. (from 9.8 % to 33.7 %) compared to just 7.6 pp. (from 12.7 % to 20.3 %) in countries without such measures. Among Member States where there is no legislation, the strong commitment to the self-regulatory business-led approach in the UK has shown some significant results, with the proportion of women on the boards of the 50 largest (UK registered) companies increasing by 13.6 pp. (to reach 27.0 %) since October 2010. This — after Slovenia — represents the second-largest increase in countries where there are no binding legislative measures. However, concerted efforts and continued pressure are needed to maintain positive change in the EU.

Figure 12: Share of women among board members of the large listed companies, EU-28, 2010-2016



Source: European Commission, *Database on women and men in decision-making*.

The lack of women involved in the decision-making bodies of corporations remains a concern across Europe and worldwide. The Commission is committed to improving the situation through a multifaceted approach combining policy measures, application and enforcement of legislation and financial support. The proposed Directive on improving gender balance among directors of companies listed on stock exchanges is supported by the European Parliament and by the majority of Member States, and continues to be discussed in the Council of the European Union. It provides for quantitative objectives for Member States and emphasises the importance of boards setting transparent selection criteria for candidates.

Between 2014 and 2016, the Commission allocated EUR 5 million to 23 projects to support the Member States (governments, social partners, business, NGOs, universities) in their efforts to improve the gender balance in economic positions at all management levels. The aim was to complement the proposed Directive and improve the gender balance among directors of companies listed on stock exchanges.³⁵

³⁵ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm.

Examples of projects co-funded by the European Commission:³⁶

The **European Women on Boards network (EWOB)**³⁷ launched in October 2016 an online 'Talent Pool' of women ready to fill transnational, non-executive directorship positions with the aim of increasing their profile and visibility. EWOB also runs a Knowledge Centre bringing together a wide range of resources and experiences for the use of boards, companies and stakeholders striving to develop more gender-diverse governance and leadership strategies, and also for board candidates. Materials include examples of policy commitments, resources demonstrating the business case for better gender diversity, and examples of good practice in governance and recruitment. EWOB also developed a transnational mentoring programme.

The **MEntoring as a TOol Towards EMpowerment** project (ME-TOTEM) developed a toolkit that supports the process for increasing the percentage of women in senior executive positions; expanding the pipeline for board positions. It highlights best practices that support men and women to foster professional relationships, mobilise senior executives around the need to support women's career paths. The project also established a 'Ready-for-Board Women Pipeline Mentoring Programme' focusing on empowering high-potential women undertaking an MBA.

The **Gender Equality in decision Making (GEM)** project brought together stakeholders including employer organisations, private industry, business schools, public and education sectors to discuss matters such as human resources management practices that can help women advance in corporate leadership.³⁸ One key output was a best practice guide focused on recruitment and selection, performance management and promotion and succession planning.³⁹

Initiatives from other stakeholders

In Sweden, progress is tracked by an independent foundation: the Allbright Foundation⁴⁰ undertakes an annual review of gender diversity in the supervisory and management boards of large companies. Companies are grouped in a white, grey or black list depending on the proportion of women in management positions. In December 2015, 32 of the 282 listed companies in Sweden were on the white list but 77 were still on the black list and Allbright predicts that it will be 24 years before all companies have at least 40 % of each gender.⁴¹

Financial stability needs more gender balanced leadership

Key financial institutions at both EU and national level are largely run by men, even if research suggests that monetary policy generates more stability when more women are involved in the decision-making process.⁴² The 25-member Governing Council of the European Central Bank includes just two women (8.0 %), and in national central banks women held just one in five (20.1 %) key decision-making positions. In August 2016, only three central banks (in Bulgaria, France and Slovenia) had at least 40 % of each gender and there were no women at all in the decision-making bodies of central banks in the Czech Republic, Greece, Croatia, the Netherlands, Austria and Slovakia (Figure 13). The governors of central banks are men in all EU Member States except Cyprus, but women do hold deputy/vice-governor positions (23.1 %).

³⁶ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/files/updated_website_summaries_selected_projects_en.pdf;

http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/files/summaries_selected_2013_ag_prog_ge_en.pdf.

³⁷ <http://european.ewob-network.eu/>.

³⁸ <http://www.gemprogress.com/about-us.html>.

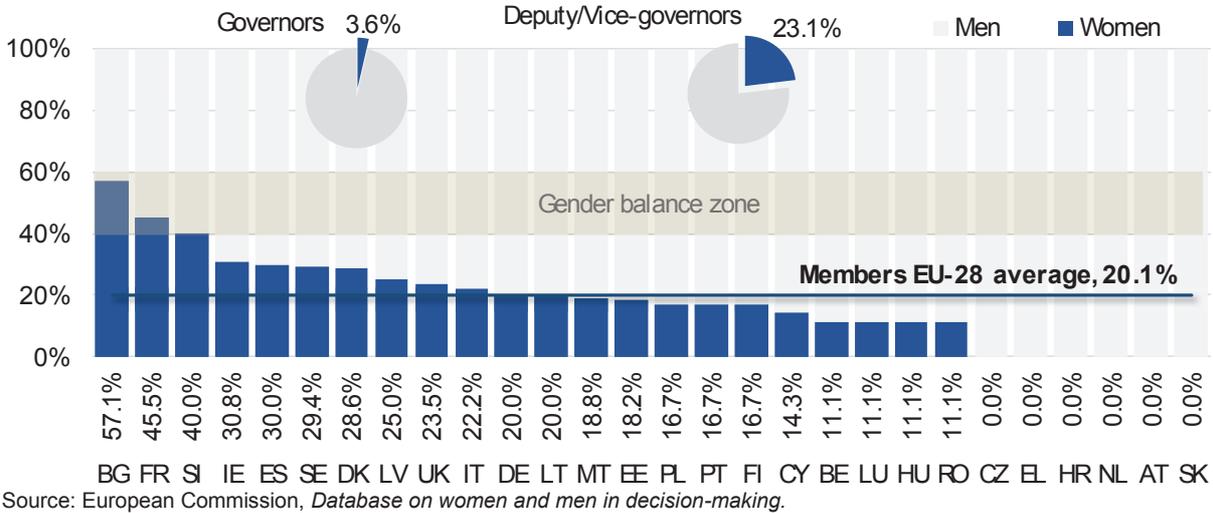
³⁹ <http://www.gemprogress.com/images/BPG.pdf>.

⁴⁰ <http://www.allbright.se/english/>.

⁴¹ http://static1.squarespace.com/static/5501a836e4b0472e6124f984/t/570215caf699bbaade5b89bc/1459754444879/AllBrightrapporten+2016_ENG.pdf.

⁴² <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01224266/document>.

Figure 13: Women and men in key decision-making bodies of national central banks in the EU, August 2016



EU action to promote diversity in the financial sector

Article 91 of the Capital Requirements Directive (2013/36/EU)⁴³ requires financial and credit institutions to put in place a policy promoting diversity on the management body - in terms of age, gender, geographical provenance, educational and professional background. The European Banking Authority published a first report on implementation of diversity practices in July 2016⁴⁴ on the basis of a representative sample of financial and credit institutions and concluded, inter alia, that management bodies are insufficiently diverse in respect of gender, with only 13.6 % female executives. More than two thirds of the sampled institutions had no female executive directors, and only 11 % had a female CEO. With respect to the supervisory function, only 18.9 % of non-executive directors covered by the sample were women and 39.2 % of the institutions covered had no female non-executive directors.

Most national parliaments do not reflect the diversity of the electorate

Women continue to be under-represented in decision-making positions at all levels. Indeed, in most EU Member States, parliaments and governments at all levels fail to reflect the composition of the societies they represent.

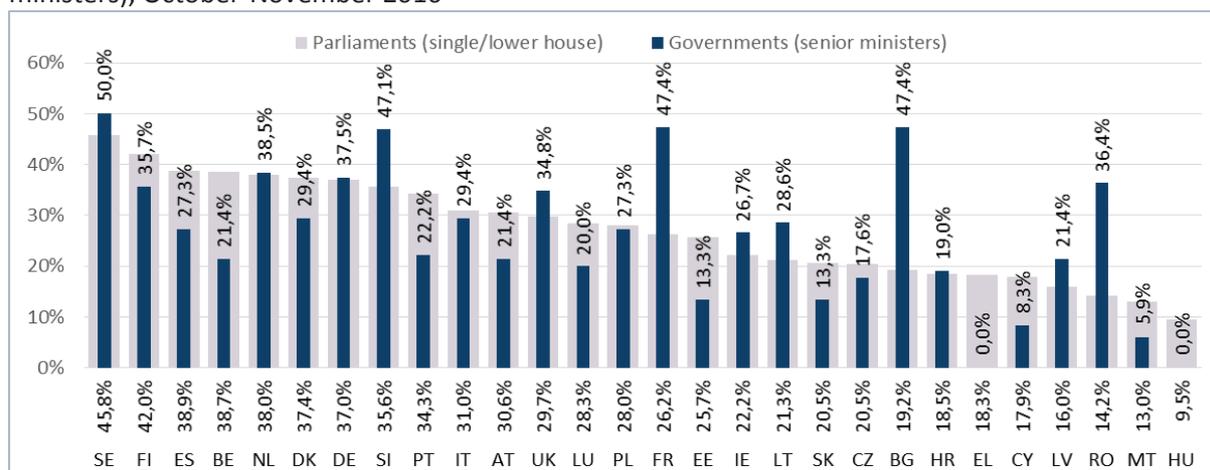
Although the proportion of women members in the single/lower houses of national parliaments in the EU has increased from 22.1 % in October 2004 to 28.7 % in November 2016,⁴⁵ the rate of progress is slow at just over half a percentage point per year. Moreover, the persistent gender imbalance in political representation is not confined to

⁴³ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32013L0036>.
⁴⁴ <https://www.eba.europa.eu/documents/10180/1360107/EBA-Op-2016-10+%28Report+on+the+benchmarking+of+diversity+practices%29.pdf>.
⁴⁵ Unless otherwise stated, all data in this section are sourced from the Commission database on women and men in decision-making: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/politics/index_en.htm.

members of parliament. In 2016, women accounted for 32.1 % of parliamentary leaders,⁴⁶ 18.8 % of leaders of major political parties,⁴⁷ and 27.9 % of senior government ministers.⁴⁸

There is, however, considerable variation between Member States (Figure 14). In November 2016, parliaments in Finland and Sweden included at least 40 % of each gender, while in eight countries (Bulgaria, Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Malta and Romania) women accounted for less than 20 % of members. Similarly, the governments of Bulgaria, France, Slovenia and Sweden were gender balanced while those in Greece and Hungary included no women at all.

Figure 14: Share of women in national parliaments (single/lower house) and governments (senior ministers), October-November 2016



Source: European Commission, *Database on women and men in decision-making*.

While the continued under-representation of women in government is a fundamental concern, there is also evidence to suggest that women reaching cabinet level tend to be allocated portfolios considered to have lower political priority. In October 2016, more than two thirds (68.2 %) of all male senior ministers held a portfolio with high profile basic or economic functions⁴⁹ compared to well under half (43.7 %) of female ministers (Figure 15). In contrast, 44.4 % of all women ministers had a socio-cultural portfolio compared to just 19.1 % of men. A more gender-neutral allocation of portfolios could help governments to pass a stronger message about their commitment to gender equality.

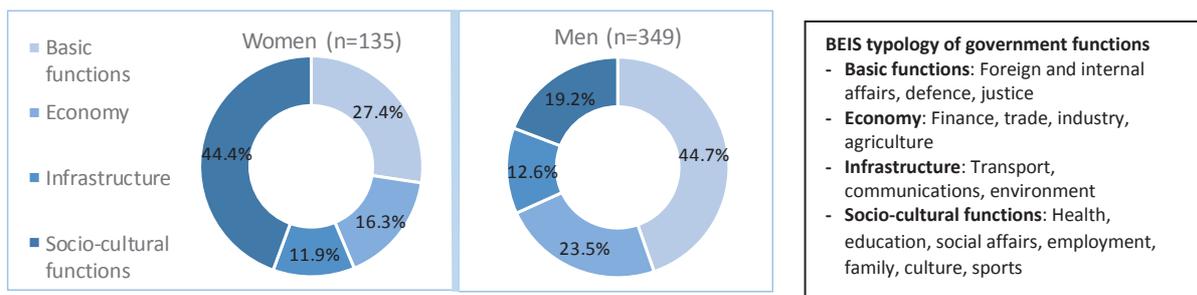
Figure 15: Distribution of senior government ministers by gender and type of portfolio, EU28, October 2016

⁴⁶ Nine of the 28 single/lower houses of parliament in the EU were led by women in November 2016.

⁴⁷ Major political parties are those with at least 5 % of seats in any national level parliament. Data from May 2016.

⁴⁸ Senior ministers are those with a seat on the cabinet or council of ministers. Data from November 2016.

⁴⁹ See box in Figure 15 for an explanation of the terminology



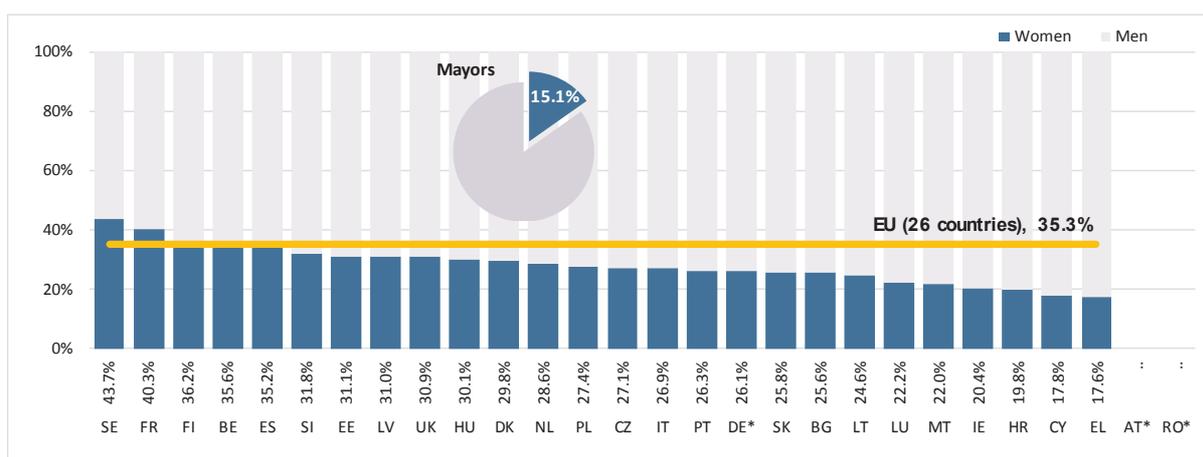
Source: European Commission, *Database on women and men in decision-making*.

Local politics — better gender balance needed at grassroots level

Many of the decisions that impact directly on the daily lives of citizens are made by assemblies convened at local level (such as municipal councils). Comparable data on the numbers of women and men involved in local politics are not straightforward to compile because of the diversity of local governance systems across countries and the lack of any systematic approach to the dissemination of data or the frequency of update. Nevertheless, the Commission database on women and men in decision-making collects information every other year on the mayors and councillors elected in the lowest administrative subdivision in each country.⁵⁰

The latest data from May 2015 show that women accounted for 35.3 % of members of local assemblies across the EU. Assemblies in France and Sweden included at least 40 % of each gender, but those in Greece, Croatia and Cyprus comprised more than 80 % men and less than 20 % women (Figure 16). Note that the EU-level figure is heavily influenced by France, which contributes over 40 % of the councillors recorded. If France is excluded, the share of women councillors across the EU falls to 29.0 %.

Figure 16: Share of women and men in local assemblies, May 2015



Source: European Commission, *Database on women and men in decision-making*.

* No data available for AT & RO; data for DE refer to 2013.

⁵⁰ Information on the administrative levels covered in each country is provided in the mapping table accessed here: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/politics/municipal-councils/index_en.htm.

In 2015, women accounted for only just over one in seven (15.1 %) mayors or other council leaders.⁵¹ Sweden is the only country in which women lead more than one in four councils (37 %). In the Czech Republic, Greece and Romania women account for less than 1 in 20 council leaders and in Cyprus there are no women mayors at all. Nevertheless, women hold some particularly prominent posts — in November 2016, 9 of the 28 EU capitals had a woman mayor: Bucharest, Luxembourg, Madrid, Paris, Prague, Rome, Sofia, Stockholm and Warsaw.

Examples of actions to promote gender equality in local politics

Ahead of municipal elections to be held in 2017, **Luxembourg** is running an initiative entitled 'Would politics suit you madam?'.⁵² Pre-empting the forthcoming elections, the Ministry of Equal Opportunities launched a campaign to raise public awareness about the current low representation of women. In partnership with the Union of towns and municipalities of Luxembourg and the National Council of Women of Luxembourg, the Ministry is running information events, supporting potential candidates and funding local projects.

A nationwide and cross-party platform for women in politics⁵³ is active in **Germany**. Helene Weber Kolleg (HWK) is a network organisation committed to tackling the low representation of women in politics, particularly at municipal level. HWK offers prizes of up to EUR 10 000 to outstanding local politicians, who then act as role models and ambassadors for more women in local politics. It also organises individual coaching and mentoring schemes for existing and potential candidates and supports local actions.

Boosting gender equality in politics — support from the European Commission

The European Commission supports Member States and stakeholders in their actions to improve the gender balance in political decision-making. In June 2016, an exchange of good practices involving 16 Member States⁵⁴ concluded, *inter alia*, that:

- Strong political will for further action and engagement of political parties is needed within Member States in order to put gender balance on the political agenda and to overcome the remaining barriers to equal access of women and men to political positions.
- Formal quotas are an effective way to accelerate the pace of progress and encourage political parties to seek the participation of women but need to be well designed and effectively implemented to achieve good results. Compatibility with electoral systems, pressure from women's organisations and media support are also important elements of success.
- A comprehensive strategy is needed, with legislation where necessary. A broad range of actions might include: measures to reconcile family and work life for both women and men; changing the political culture; overcoming gender stereotypes regarding leadership

⁵¹ In the case of mayors, excluding France does not have such a significant impact, reducing the EU figure by just 1 pp to 14.1 %.

⁵² <http://votzegalite.lu/>

⁵³ <http://frauen-macht-politik.de/helene-weber-kolleg/ueber-uns.html>

⁵⁴ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/other-institutions/good-practices/review-seminars/seminars_2016/political_decision_making_en.htm

skills; ensuring women's equal access to financial resources; programmes to support training/mentoring for women candidates and to build a pipeline of women politicians.

- The availability of data to monitor the progress made, both quantitative and qualitative, is crucial.

4. Combating gender-based violence and protecting and supporting victims

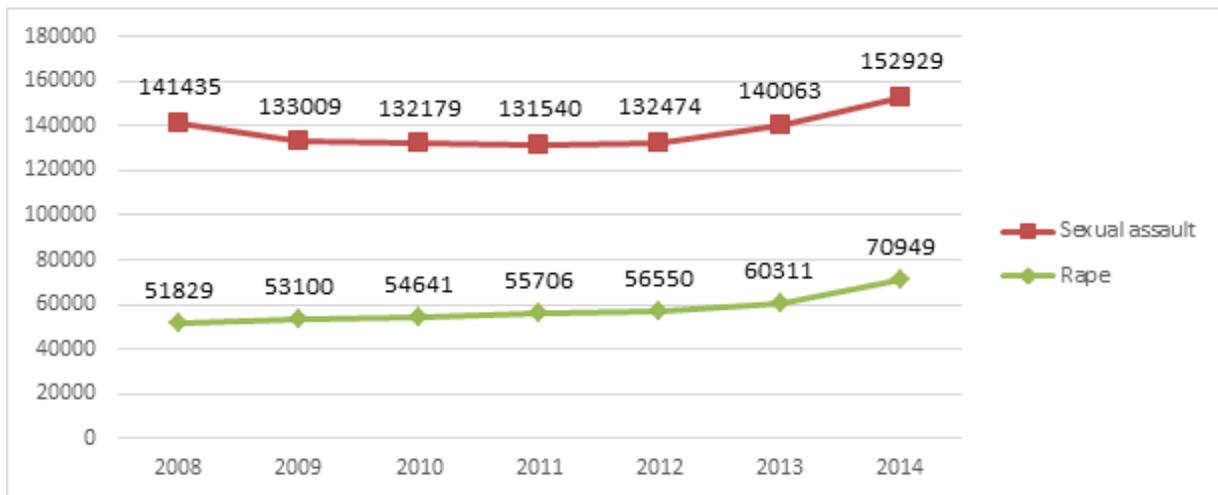
Gender-based violence is violence that is directed against a person because of his or her gender (including gender identity/expression) or that affects persons of a particular gender disproportionately. It can be physical, sexual, economic and/or psychological and includes violence in close relationships as well as street violence. It threatens the well-being, health, physical integrity, dignity and often the life of victims. This section reviews actions aiming at eliminating all forms of violence against women and girls, in line with the target (b) and (c) of the UN 2030 Agenda.

Gaining a better understanding of gender-based violence

The Commission has continued its efforts to improve data on gender-based violence. In cooperation with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, Eurostat coordinated the collection of crime data from police and justice systems.⁵⁵ Collected on an annual basis, the new database makes it possible to analyse certain trends: while the number of reported intentional homicide, assault and thefts decreased from 2008 to 2014, the number of reported rapes, sexual assaults and sexual violence incidents has significantly increased, especially since 2012 (see Figure 17). For instance, the number of police-recorded rape offences increased by 37 % over 2008-2014. This trend might be due to an increase in prevalence rates, but also a change in the criminal law and/or higher reporting level to the police.

Figure 17: Number of rapes, sexual assaults and sexual violence reported to the police in the EU, 2008-2014

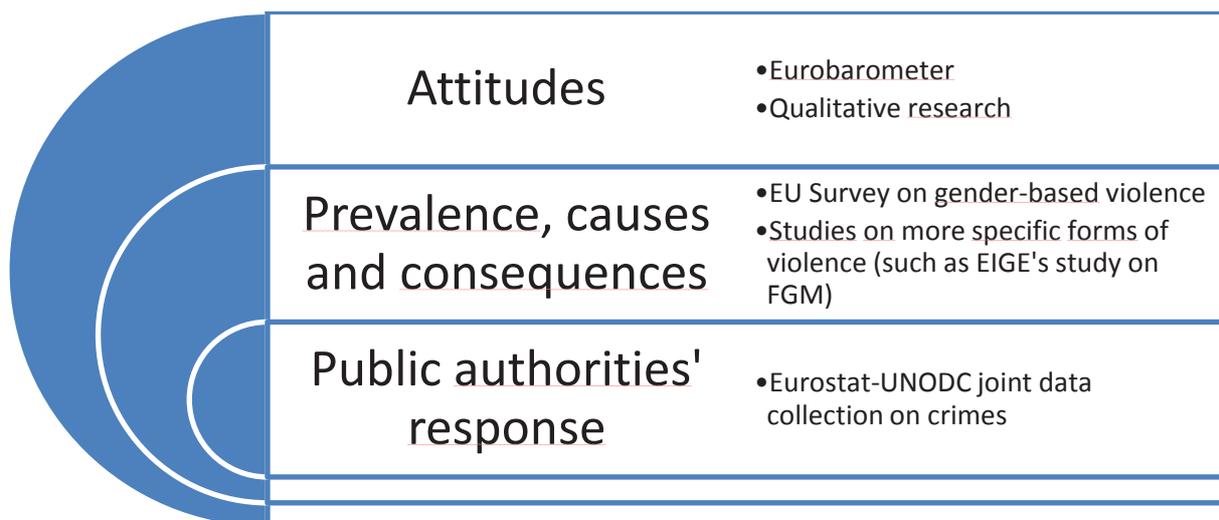
⁵⁵ See: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/crime/database>.



Source: Eurostat, data on rapes cover 27 EU Member States (Italy is missing), data on sexual assaults cover 24 EU Member States and data on sexual violence cover 23 EU Member States.

Since a new legislative provision on sexual harassment became effective in January 2016 in **Austria** — the so-called ‘butt grabbing paragraph’ (Po-Grapsch-Paragraf) — the charges increased about more than one third, as shown by a recent analysis: whereas 242 cases had been reported in 2015, a total of 329 were identified between January and October 2016. Besides increased awareness resulting from significant media reporting during the implementation process, the main reason for higher charges is that criminal law provisions have now been extended to include charges based on unwanted stroking and butt touching. This means that more cases could be brought to court.

Data recorded by authorities under-estimate the prevalence, as some forms of violence are not considered crimes in all Member States and violence is unfortunately under-reported. Surveys based on face-to-face interviews can help to provide a more accurate picture of the prevalence, circumstances and consequences of violence. Thus Eurostat announced in 2016 its intention to start developing data on the prevalence of gender-based violence, in cooperation with national statistics institutes and key experts, reunited in a task force.



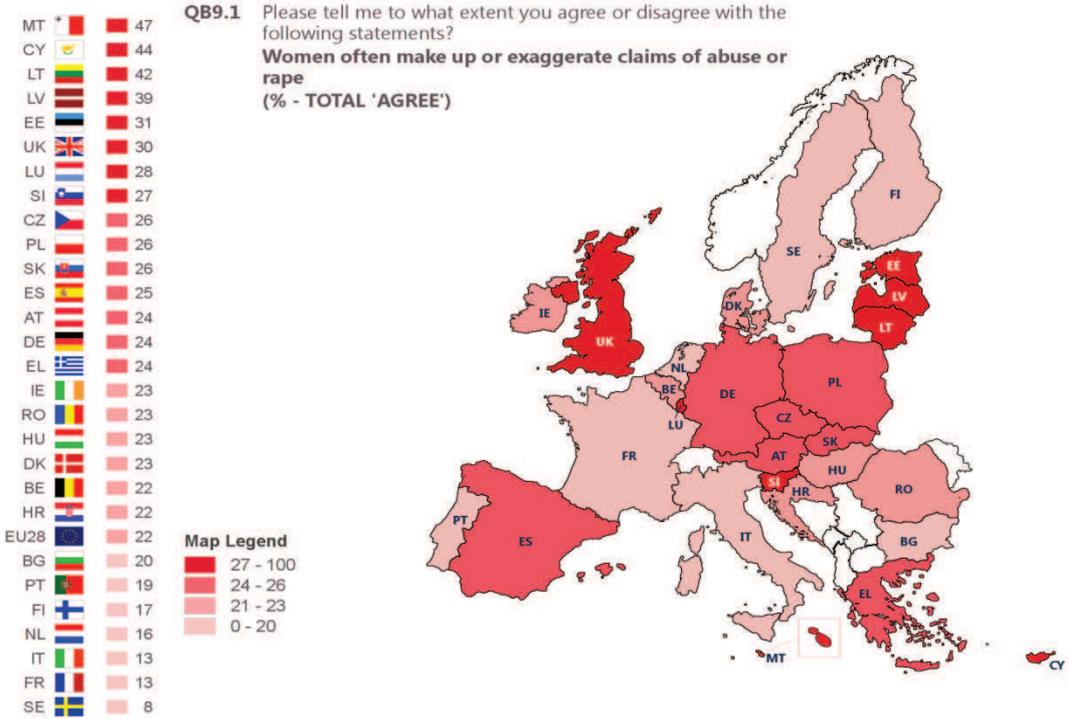
Building on a mapping exercise of surveys on attitudes towards violence, the Commission carried out a Eurobarometer on gender-based violence in 2016. This EU public opinion

survey showed that almost all Europeans (96 %) think that domestic violence against women is unacceptable.

While there is widespread agreement that domestic violence, sexual harassment and other acts of gender-based violence are unacceptable or wrong, the survey nevertheless indicates the continued prevalence of this problem, with almost one quarter of respondents (24 %) claiming to know of a friend or family member who has been a victim of domestic violence. Respondents who knew of a victim of domestic violence were asked if they had spoken to anyone about it. More than seven in ten (71 %) had done so, in most cases with family, friends or with the people involved and more rarely with the police, health professional or support services. Across the EU, 74 % of people are aware of support services, although there are large variations between individual countries (see Figure 20).

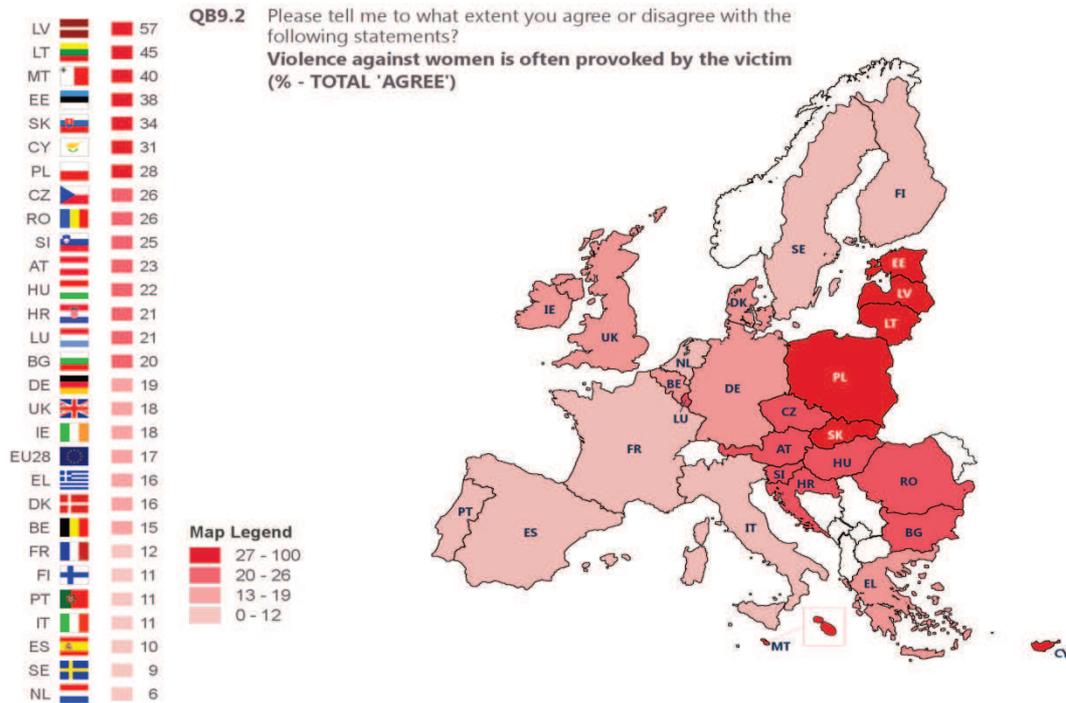
Moreover, the survey shows the continued existence of victim-blaming views. For example, more than one in five respondents (22 %) agree that women often make up or exaggerate claims of abuse or rape and almost one in five (17 %) agrees that violence against women is often provoked by the victim, although once again this figure masks a wide variation between countries: victim-blaming attitudes seem more common in Eastern Europe (see Figure 19).

Figure 18: Proportion of respondents who agree that women often make up or exaggerate claims of abuse or rape



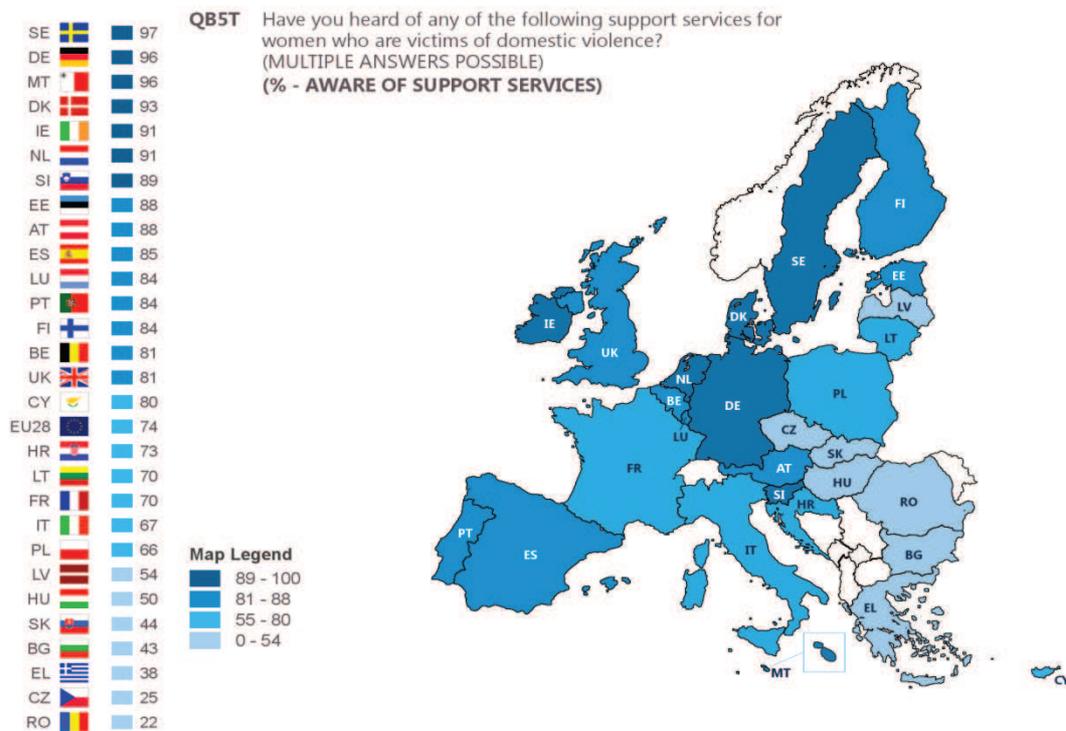
Source: Special Eurobarometer 449, 2016

Figure 19: Proportion of respondents who agree that violence against women is often provoked by the victim



Source: Special Eurobarometer 449, 2016

Figure 20: Proportion of respondents who have heard of support services for women who are victims of domestic violence



Source: Special Eurobarometer 449, 2016

Prevention, protection and support: towards a year of focused actions

In November 2016, on the occasion of the International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women, the Commission launched focused actions to further its commitment to eradicating all forms of violence against women and girls and to reducing gender inequality. This initiative aims to connect all efforts across the European Union and engage all stakeholders — Member States, relevant professionals, and NGOs — to collectively combat violence against women. It involves local, national and EU-level action, including funding for national authorities and grassroots organisations, policy exchanges between Member States and a social media campaign around the message ‘Say no! Stop violence against women’.

In 2016 the Commission continued to monitor EU legislation in the area of victims’ rights which became applicable in 2015 and includes the Victims’ Rights Directive and the EU rules on the recognition of protection orders. The Commission started infringement proceedings against the Member States which have not communicated the implementing measures for the Victims’ Rights Directive. It also continued legal proceedings regarding the EU rules on the recognition of protection orders in criminal matters. As of December 2016, 11 Member States have still not communicated the transposition of the Victims’ Rights Directive into national law and one Member State has not communicated its transposition of the Directive on the recognition of protection orders in criminal matters. The Commission continued in 2016 to promote the more frequent use of protection orders, in particular among practitioners.

Through Daphne strand of the Rights, Equality and Citizenship programme, the EU has funded a variety of projects aimed at preventing violence and providing meaningful support to its victims (see box). The project could focus on a specific form of violence and or specific context. Moreover, the Commission published a study identifying best practices in fighting gender-based violence in the specific context of sport, covering both professional and grassroots sports, and focusing on the coach-athlete relationship, the entourage of the athlete (managers, doctors, physiotherapists etc.) and the peer-to-peer athlete relationship. A particular attention was given to children.⁵⁶

The Commission has been following up the Communication *Towards the elimination of female genital mutilation*⁵⁷ (FGM) that was adopted with the European External Action Service (EEAS) in November 2013. The Commission is funding (4.5 million euro) transnational projects aiming to prevent, inform about and combat violence against women, young people and children linked to harmful practices.⁵⁸ In February the Commission has published an analysis of court cases⁵⁹ to identify what has helped Member States to prosecute FGM. In April, the Commission organised a Mutual Learning Seminar for Member States that examined and discussed good practices in combating FGM, forced marriage and other harmful practices. The Advisory Committee on equal opportunities for women and men has published an opinion on combating FGM and other harmful practices. In February 2017, a web-tool to support and train professionals who come into contact with girls who have been victims of FGM or who are at risk of FGM was launched.

⁵⁶ https://ec.europa.eu/sport/news/20161125-gender-based-violence-study_en

⁵⁷ COM(2013) 833 final.

⁵⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/grants1/files/2014_rdap_ag_harm/just_2015_rrac_ag_call_notice_2_en.pdf

⁵⁹ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/documents/160205_fgm_europe_enege_report_en.pdf

The asylum dimension remains highly relevant in the light of the still unfolding refugee crisis. Women and girls face risks of human rights violations, gender-based violence, oppression and discrimination on their routes to Europe. The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights noted in its June 2016 monthly report that there is ‘increasing evidence that gender-based violence is a major issue for migrant women and girls’. It quoted identified instances of sexual and gender-based violence, including early and forced marriage, domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment and physical assault in the country of origin and during the journey.

The vulnerability of women in transit, who are particularly at risk of violence, is taken into account in the Commission’s recent proposal for the revision of the Directive laying down standards for the reception of applicants for international protection⁶⁰ and in the ongoing work of the European Asylum Support Office on its guidance on reception conditions. The Commission proposed provisions to ensure that asylum systems and procedures protect women’s rights and dignity, provide for independent asylum claims, ensure that cases of violence are detected, that victims of violence are provided with necessary support and that claims related to all the forms of gender-based violence are adequately considered. To help Member States respond to existing gaps in asylum systems, the European Asylum Support Office (EASO) will provide support. Specific guidelines and indicators developed by EASO are intended to put the necessary standards into place and the Commission worked with EASO to ensure that they are gender-mainstreamed. Lastly, in an opinion issued in December 2016, the Advisory Committee on equal opportunities for women and men addressed a range of issues related to needs of women on the move, calling for specific actions of Member States and the Commission. These issues will be further assessed.

The Commission also published a study on the gender dimension of trafficking in human beings, especially addressing the issue of trafficking in women and girls for the purpose of sexual exploitation.⁶¹ In 2016, two targeted calls on trafficking in human beings were issued under ISF-Police and the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund, for a total of EUR 5 million.

The project ‘**Strengthening psychosocial methods and practices**’ carried out in Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Romania seeks to support women affected by domestic violence through applying psychosocial methods in order to increase their resilience, psychosocial well-being and social inclusion. The ‘**Family Justice Centres**’⁶² project sought to develop a coherent approach to violence against women by establishing locations for victims of domestic and sexual violence and their children where all the services survivors need are gathered under one roof. Among the project partners are organisations such as the Women’s Rights Centre in Warsaw, Poland, and the Province of Antwerp Welfare and Health Service in Antwerp, Belgium.

Other projects funded have focused on improving knowledge and practices regarding violence against women within certain sectors or organisations. For example, the project ‘**Universities Supporting Victims of Sexual Violence**’,⁶³ funded in Greece, Spain, Italy and the United Kingdom develops research on best practices in university sexual violence policies and training for those university professionals likely to be ‘first responders’ to sexual violence disclosures. The ‘**CARVE**’⁶⁴ project, coordinated by a French association and run in Belgium, Greece, Spain and France, sought to

⁶⁰ COM(2016) 465

⁶¹ <http://ec.europa.eu/anti-trafficking/node/4946> .

⁶² http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/gender-equality/files/family_justice_centers_en.pdf & <http://www.familyjusticecenterseurope.org/about-us>.

⁶³ <http://www.brunel.ac.uk/environment/themes/welfare-health-wellbeing/research-projects/universities-supporting-victims-of-sexual-violence>.

⁶⁴ <http://carve-daphne.eu/>.

involve companies in combating gender-based violence. By focusing on the professional environment, the project recognised the importance of companies in this matter.

Daphne-funded projects also include initiatives that address specific harmful practices affecting women, or are directed towards specific target groups. The ‘**Change Plus**’⁶⁵ project, run in Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal involves training advocates for change in FGM-practising communities and seeking dialogue with key professionals and politicians. The project ‘**Building a Safety Net for Migrant and Refugee Women**’,⁶⁶ funded in Greece, aims to ensure that female migrants and refugees who have been victims of gender-based violence have access to support services and receive appropriate assistance, and seeks to empower them by informing them about their rights in partner countries and other EU Member States. Another project targeting a specific population is ‘**Empowering Care**’,⁶⁷ funded in Spain, Finland, Italy and Cyprus, the objective of which is to empower girls aged 14-18 living in residential care institutions. The empowerment programmes aim to provide girls with personal competences that will enable them to engage in positive intimate relationships based on gender equality and to foster their protection and prevention from violence.

Sweden has also put in place a number of actions to address health and violence issues affecting women and girls refugees and asylum seekers. On sexual and reproductive health, the Swedish Agency for Youth and Civil Society (MUCF) cooperates with the Online Youth Friendly Clinic (UMO)(run by the Stockholm County Council), to develop a digital platform with information on sexual and reproductive health and rights. The platform aims at the newly arrived refugees aged 13-20 years, and is available both in Swedish and in the main common mother tongues of refugees.

Particular initiatives also enable the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions to develop schemes supporting victims of sexual violence and abuse. In addition, female asylum-seekers are entitled to maternity care given by a health care provider as well as obstetric care.

Finally, the County Administrative Board in Östergötland County is mandated to manage a national competence team and a hotline to coordinate and support efforts to combat honor-related violence and oppression and its various expressions such as forced marriage, child marriage and female genital mutilation.

The Federal Government of Germany together with donum vitae Bundesverband e. V., launched a three-year model project on 1 May 2016 to specifically support pregnant refugees. Through outreach pregnancy counselling at up to 30 locations nationwide, the project aims to inform refugee women of the programmes offered by pregnancy counselling services and provide them with low-threshold access to the women’s support system. The support hotline “pregnant and in need” and the respective website provide counselling to pregnant refugee women in emergency situations. The service is at no charge, confidential, barrier-free and available around-the-clock in 15 languages. Furthermore the support hotline “pregnant and in need” and the national support helpline “violence against women” have increased their interpretation and counselling capacities to better meet the needs of migrant women. From 2017 interpretation has been available in 17 languages.

In **Greece**, the General Secretariat for Gender Equality at the Ministry of Interior has guaranteed a number of places at the Hostels of the National Network of Structures against gender-based violence for female refugees and their children through an institutionalized Protocol of Cooperation with eight competent Ministries, Public Agencies and Local Authorities, so that the integration process becomes smoother for the vulnerable female population facing multiple discrimination.

⁶⁵ <http://www.change-agent.eu/>.

⁶⁶ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/grants1/files/2015_action_grants/2015_spob_ag_vict/daphne_summary_awarded_proposals_en.pdf.

⁶⁷ <http://www.empoweringcare.eu/>.

International commitment to combating violence against women

On 4 March 2016, the Commission adopted proposals for the EU to sign and conclude the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (the 'Istanbul Convention').⁶⁸ These proposals are currently under discussion with Member States in Council. The Parliament must provide its consent to the conclusion of the Convention by the EU and is currently preparing an interim report in this context. It receives regular updates from the Commission on the state of these negotiations and Commission action concerning violence against women.

In 2016, more Member States signed and ratified the Istanbul Convention. By the end of the year, 14 Member States had ratified the Convention and all have signed it.⁶⁹

As part of the implementation of the **Danish national action plan** on combating violence in the family and close relations, a range of initiatives has been launched in 2016, including a comprehensive programme for young women and men who experience date violence. An ethical code on combating sexism in high schools and a hotline and awareness-raising initiative in cooperation with NGOs have been introduced. In Denmark, a new initiative also aimed at improving respect for rape victims. It combines legislative and non-legislative measures: clear guidelines on how to handle reports of (attempted) rape in order to improve the registration procedures; training police and prosecutors in interrogation methods to ensure that the victims are treated decently; strengthening the role of the attorneys' ad litem; and a campaign to increase the number of (attempted) rape cases that are reported to the police. It includes an increase of penalty for rape from 2½ to 3½ years in violent cases and from 8 to 14 months in cases where the victim is unable to resist the assault. The law entered in force on 1 July 2016.

From September 2015 to December 2016, **Estonia** implemented a European Social Fund project 'Identifying the families at risk of domestic violence and solving their problems using the network based method'. In the framework of this project, the MARAC — Multi Agency Risk Assessment Conferences — model was adapted and adjusted for use in dealing with cases of domestic violence in Estonia, with training sessions provided for specialists.

In July 2016 the **German Parliament passed a reform of the penal code provision for rape and sexual violence**. This reform brings German legislation into line with the standards of the Council of Europe Convention to prevent and combat violence against women and domestic violence (the Istanbul Convention). The new law, which entered into force in November 2016, takes into account both physical and verbal resistance from the victim when assessing whether sexual violence including rape took place. Furthermore, the reform includes criminal liability for so-called 'bystanders' in groups where one or several members exercise sexual violence. The German Parliament is currently also discussing a revision of the criminal offence of stalking.

The **first Italian National Action Plan against Trafficking in and Serious Exploitation of Human Beings** was adopted by the Council of Ministers on 26 February 2016. The National Action Plan envisages measures aimed at: preventing the emergence of the phenomenon and ensuring an effective and coordinated response; devising adequate mechanisms for the rapid identification of human trafficking victims; establishing a National Referral Mechanism; updating the existing reception actions; providing multi-agency training; and adopting specific guidelines on the fulfilment of the obligation to inform victims of their rights.

⁶⁸ COM(2016)111 and COM(2016)109.

⁶⁹ http://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list/-/conventions/treaty/210/signatures?p_auth=wk8Wj53i.

The first national 24/7 telephone service for victims of gender-based violence and of violence in intimate partnerships, 'Nollalinja', was activated in **Finland** at the end of 2016.

5. Promoting gender equality and women's rights across the world

The EU plays a key role in promoting gender equality beyond its borders: (potential) EU candidate countries and potential candidates, European Neighbourhood Policy countries, and other third countries receive support to incorporate the principle of equality between women and men in all their activities.

Advancing gender equality through the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

Gender equality, girls and women's rights are at the forefront of the EU's external relations. These core values are reflected in all EU policies and programmes, as well as in the new *Communication on the next steps for a sustainable European future*,⁷⁰ which explains how the Commission's political priorities contribute to implementing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and how the EU will meet the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the future. This new Communication was accompanied by a second Communication, *EU consensus for development*,⁷¹ which proposes a shared vision and framework for development cooperation for the EU and its Member States, aligned with the 2030 Agenda. In these Communications the European Union sets out a strategic approach for achieving sustainable development in Europe and around the world.

The 60th session of the United Nations Committee on the Status of Women (CSW), that took place in March 2016, was dedicated to women's empowerment and the link to sustainable development. The EU supported the adoption of the CSW agreed conclusions that guide how gender equality will be taken into account when implementing the entire 2030 Agenda, to make sure that sustainable development targets all women and men, and boys and girls.

First year of implementing the EU Gender Action Plan (2016-2020)

The implementation of the *EU Gender Action Plan 2016-2020* (GAP II), adopted in September 2015 and endorsed by the Member States, has begun in full. The GAP II has the overarching objective of supporting gender equality through external actions. Several initiatives were put in place in order to enhance capacity building of EU staff. A guidance note was widely disseminated, a support desk was set up and two seminars have been organised to train and assist EU Delegations with the implementation and the reporting. A key element of the GAP II is indeed the requirement for the EU Delegations to produce a gender analysis that will feed into their programming. So far, approximately 40 Delegations have fulfilled this requirement, with many more making progress in this area.

In 2016 the Commission's Directorate-General for Neighbourhood and Enlargement Negotiations (DG NEAR) organised the first ever regional meeting for gender focal points

⁷⁰ COM(2016)739 final, http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sites/devco/files/communication-next-steps-sustainable-europe-20161122_en.pdf

⁷¹ COM(2016)740 final, https://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sites/devco/files/communication-proposal-new-consensus-development-20161122_en.pdf

based in EU Delegations in the Western Balkans and Turkey. The aim of this two-day meeting was to strengthen the work on gender equality and gender mainstreaming in EU enlargement in light of the GAP II. The meeting provided a platform for networking and discussion and facilitated an exchange of ideas between gender focal points on how to enhance the impact of their work and explore possibilities for capacity building. The gender focal points received training on gender equality policy in the EU, effective gender mainstreaming and the GAP II requirement to report on gender equality related activities in EU enlargement countries.

The annual **Enlargement Package** takes stock of the situation in the candidate countries and potential candidates. It includes reports in which the Commission presents its detailed assessment of the state of play in each country and what has been achieved over the last year, and sets out guidelines on reform priorities. The Commission pays close attention to gender equality legislation and policy in these countries and supports their improvement. The **2016 Communication on EU Enlargement Policy** underlines that further work is required to ensure equality between women and men, including tackling domestic and gender-based violence, and ensuring equal opportunities for women, notably on the labour market.

In 2016, the Commission's Directorate-General for European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations (DG ECHO) continued to use a **gender-age marker** to assess to what extent each funded humanitarian action integrates gender and age considerations.⁷² In 2016 the EU supported a total of 84 humanitarian projects related to gender-based violence with a budget exceeding EUR 18 million.⁷³ The projects reached almost 3.4 million beneficiaries,⁷⁴ including in Syria, Turkey, the Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan and Colombia. Through its humanitarian aid budget the EU has also allocated EUR 1.8 million to global capacity-building projects on gender equality, including gender-based violence.

The **EU Facility for Refugees in Turkey**, set up in 2016, holds an important responsibility to ensure that all actions undertaken in support of refugees in Turkey are equally beneficial to girls and boys, women and men, and that they take into account their different vulnerabilities, needs and capacities. Some challenges faced by refugees are immediate and humanitarian such as vulnerability to violence and access to health facilities. Others relate to access to education and labour market programmes. The Facility's projects and actions are based on gender-sensitive needs assessments, and ensure that monitoring will allow the EU to track the different impact the intervention may have on girls and women, boys and men.

In conflict-affected countries, displacement, economic insecurity and marred social networks lead to more unstable environments, increasing the risk of sexual violence. In countries like the **Democratic Republic of Congo**, the EU has since 2004 supported the work of the **Panzi Hospital** in meeting the full spectrum of needs of survivors of sexual violence, and women with severe obstetric injuries such as fistula. The hospital provides a holistic healing programme including physical care, psychosocial support, community reintegration services, legal assistance, advocacy and awareness raising to address the root causes of violence. Since 2004 the EU has allocated EUR 8 755 000 of its humanitarian aid budget to the Panzi hospital and in 2016 an additional EUR 3 million have been provided from the development budget to continue this important work.

⁷² In 2015, 89% of all EU funded humanitarian actions strongly or to a certain extent integrated gender and age (was marked 2 or 1 by ECHO Gender-Age Marker)

⁷³ Total amount of results where SGBV is a subsector.

⁷⁴ Estimated total number of direct beneficiaries of results where SGBV is a subsector.

In many parts of the world, harmful practices occur on a daily basis and continue to damage girls and women. The EU supports the **‘Joint Programme on the Abandonment of Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C): Accelerating Change’** (EUR 11 million programme led by the United Nations Population Fund and Unicef). This programme aims at accelerating the abandonment of FGM/C using a comprehensive, human rights-based approach that has been shown to also generate results in decreasing gender inequality.

In 2016, the EU addressed the various aspects of the gender and women, peace and security agenda in its human rights dialogues with several countries, while EU Delegations across the world carried out specific activities to promote and protect women’s and girls’ rights. These included awareness-raising campaigns organised by EU Delegations as well as funding for projects and programmes to prevent gender-based violence, increase women’s participation in social and political life and promote women’s economic empowerment.

The EU has actively followed up on its commitments made during the 2015 High-level Review of *UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security*. The European External Action Services, including the EU Delegations, has continued to realise concrete actions to promote women’s participation and leadership in peace and security processes and to end sexual and gender-based violence in conflict and post-conflict situations.

In a high-level event entitled **‘Empowered Women, Prosperous Afghanistan’**, the Brussels Conference on Afghanistan drew attention to women’s rights. A communiqué was issued in line with the Reform Agenda for Afghanistan underlining that special consideration needs to be paid to the rights of women and children, including measures to prevent violence against women and children and forced marriage. The communiqué also stressed the need to combat torture or ill treatment as well as discrimination. The EU had been closely working together with Afghan partners on the development of their National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security and the EU was among the first donors to support its implementation across the country.

Promoting gender equality through trade policies

All free trade and investment agreements include a sustainable development chapter with commitments such as equal pay for men and women for work of equal pay and prohibition of discrimination in employment, in line with ILO fundamental conventions and other ILO conventions to which they are Party, including the fundamental Conventions on equal remuneration (n°100) and elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (n°111). Research published by ILO in 2016 shows that labour provisions in trade agreement actually ease labour market access for women and contribute to narrowing the gender pay gap.⁷⁵ These results have been discussed in a seminar with high level attendance on 6 December 2016.

Commitments relating to decent work, including equal remuneration and discrimination on the grounds of sex, were addressed in recent trade negotiations, notably with Morocco, Mexico, Philippines and United States.

⁷⁵ ILO (2016), Assessment of labour provision in trade and investment agreements, report, http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_498944.pdf

A number of impact assessments published by the Commission in 2016 tried to explore the potential impacts of the trade initiatives on gender equality: the Impact assessment on the modernisation of the customs union with Turkey and sustainability impact assessments (SIAs) on the Free Trade Agreement with Japan, on the Environmental Goods Agreement (EGA) and on the investment protection agreement with Myanmar.

In 2016, the European Parliament's services also published a study reviewing evidence and making recommendations on how to ensure that trade agreements take gender equality objectives more fully into account.⁷⁶

6. Gender mainstreaming, funding for gender equality and cooperation with all actors

Gender mainstreaming: practical tools provided by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)

One of EIGE's flagship projects is the gender mainstreaming platform. It was launched in 2016 and includes information on practical tools and methods of gender mainstreaming, as well as information on mainstreaming in selected sectors. EIGE has published four online gender mainstreaming toolkits, explaining how to do this in practice — starting from the early planning phases, all the way through to the final implementation and evaluation:

- Gender Equality in Academia and Research (GEAR tool) developed in cooperation with Directorate-General for Research and Innovation of the European Commission — provides a step-by-step guide for preparing a gender equality plan and an action toolbox with practical information;
- Gender Impact Assessment — aims to identify where policies are causing or strengthening gender inequalities and looks at how they can be redirected to ensure better gender equality outcomes;
- Institutional Transformation — aims to address gender inequalities within organisations by changing aspects of the working culture;
- Gender Equality Training — aims to equip employees with knowledge and tools to effectively contribute to gender equality.

In parallel, a number of countries have strengthened their capacity for gender budgeting and gender mainstreaming, and have developed comprehensive strategies to promote gender equality in different areas of life (see box).

Gender mainstreaming: turning the spotlights on three sectors

Institutional change is a gender mainstreaming strategy for the research and innovation sector aiming at removing obstacles to gender equality that are inherent to the research system itself and at adapting practices of institutions. Three objectives underpin the EU

⁷⁶ This study was commissioned by the European Parliament Policy Department for Citizens' Rights and Constitutional Affairs upon request by the FEMM Committee. See also European Parliament's Directorate general for external policies, policy department, (2015), In-depth analysis, "The EU's Trade Policy: from gender-blind to gender-sensitive?"

strategy on gender equality in research and innovation policy actively involving Member States:

- Fostering equality in scientific careers;
- Ensuring gender balance in decision-making processes and bodies;
- Integrating the gender dimension in research and innovation content, i.e. taking into account the biological characteristics and the social features of women and men.

To achieve institutional change, universities and research organisations are invited to implement Gender Equality Plans (GEPs). The above-mentioned “Gender Equality in Academia and Research” (GEAR) Tool provides a practical step-by-step guide to develop tailor-made GEPs in universities and research organisations.

Progress with regard to women in Grade A positions in the Higher Education Sector has been observed in almost all Member States. The European Research Area (ERA) Progress Report 2016 shows that the share of women in Grade A positions has increased by 3.4 % compound annual growth rate in the period 2007-2014 in the EU-28. This reached 23.5 % for the EU-28 in 2014. The proportion of women as heads of institutions in the Higher Education Sector has increased from 15.5 % (2010) to 20.1 % (2014) for the EU-28 (see She Figures 2015).

This shows that overall the majority of Member States have made progress in setting up or planning more systemic strategies for gender equality in Research & Innovation. In their ERA National Action Plans, Member States have described measures that will continue to support institutional change through gender equality plans. The high number of planned measures creates expectations of significant progress over the coming years. Improvement will however depend on the capacity of Member States to maintain and reinforce institutional change strategies adopted so far in the long term.

The transport sector is male-dominated: women represent only 22 % of the workforce (compared to 46 % of the whole economy). Work-life balance may pose particular challenges for workers in this sector, as they can face atypical and long working hours, sometimes far away from home. In 2016, some initial steps were taken at EU level to fight the stereotypes around transport jobs and to improve working conditions and reduce violence and harassment. On 21 April 2016, a participatory event was organised by the Commission to reflect with transport workers, employers, academics and policy makers on possible activities to promote equality between women and men. The Commission also launched a first small awareness-raising campaign, based on short videos. The issue of Women in transport was also presented at the Council Transport, Telecommunications and Energy on 1 December 2016.

In the field of health, the Commission published sex-disaggregated data and analysis in a joint publication with OECD entitled "Health at a Glance: Europe 2016". EU funds also supported the GenCAD Pilot Project “Gender-specific mechanisms in coronary artery disease in Europe”. The objective is to improve the understanding of sex and gender differences in chronic diseases, using coronary heart disease as an example to highlight these differences regarding treatment and prevention activities in European countries. The projects runs from December 2015 to December 2017.

The key contribution of the European Structural and Investment Funds (ESIF)

Gender mainstreaming is a horizontal principle of the ESI Funds, as foreseen by article 7 of the Common Provision Regulation (1303/2013). The Member States and the Commission must promote it throughout the preparation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the operational programmes and rural development programmes⁷⁷. Furthermore, MS have to ensure that the ex-ante conditionality on gender is fulfilled which requires the existence of administrative capacity to ensure the application of Union gender equality law and policy in the field of ESIF. Moreover, the ESF has a dedicated investment priority for equality between men and women in all areas, including in access to employment, career progression, reconciliation of work and private life and promotion of equal pay for equal work under which Member States have programmed EUR 1.6 billion for 2014-2020 (EU share). Specific targeted actions can also be programmed under any other ESF investment priority. Across all investment priorities, the indicative amount for targeted actions for gender equality captured through the ESF secondary theme in programmes was of EUR 4.7 billion (EU share). The first years of a new programming period are characterised by a slow start of implementation as Member States focus on the finalisation of the previous period and on setting up the structures and mechanisms for the new one. However, by January 2017, the total volume of the projects selected for support under the dedicated gender equality investment priority was already over EUR 175 million of total eligible expenditure declared (national + EU). Under the other ESF investment priorities, an additional EUR 115 million have been dedicated to the selection of gender equality projects. In total, EUR 290 million under the ESF have effectively been dedicated to the support of projects for gender equality between 2014 and 2016.

The European Investment Bank (EIB) to intensify its promotion of gender equality

EIB's Board adopted the "EIB Group Strategy on Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment"⁷⁸. It aims at embedding gender equality in the Group's activities, covering EIB lending, blending and advisory activity both inside and outside the European Union. The Strategy focuses on three areas: i) the protection of women's rights in the EIB's due diligence framework and in the requirements for its clients and promoters; ii) increasing the positive impact of the Bank's operations on gender equality, while pursuing the Bank's Public Policy Goals and Operational Plan objectives, and iii) the targeted promotion of women's economic empowerment, including women's increased access to employment and to credit/financial services, as well as support for female entrepreneurship.

Gender mainstreaming, institutional mechanisms and overarching strategies in Member States

In November 2016 the Government of **Bulgaria** adopted the National Strategy for Promotion Equality between Women and Men 2016-2020. It identifies priority areas, bodies responsible for achieving the objectives and indicators to assess the implementation of the new strategy. Moreover, in April 2016 the Bulgarian National Assembly adopted a Gender Equality Act. The development of the Act was initiated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy and was realised in successful partnership with all stakeholders. The Act regulates state policy on equality between women and

⁷⁷ Article 7 of Regulation (EU) No 1303/2013

⁷⁸ http://www.eib.org/attachments/strategies/eib_group_strategy_on_gender_equality_en.pdf

men and builds institutional mechanisms that support the promotion of gender equality. In particular, the Act established the position of ‘coordinators on equality between women and men’, who are employees, identified by the central and regional bodies.

On 24 May 2016, the **Croatian Governmental Office for Gender Equality** and **Finland’s National Institute for Health and Welfare** organised the opening ceremony of the twinning project entitled Support for Gender Equality (‘CRO Gender’) which is financed under the EU Transition Facility Programme for Croatia. The project will last 15 months, starting from May 2016. The objective is to develop Croatian institutional capacities for gender mainstreaming in public policies, strengthen the institutions’ networks and increase their visibility. The project should also help improve the efficiency of the judiciary in the area of gender equality and raise public awareness about legal protection from gender-based discrimination. Interviews with judges have been conducted in order to define training needs assessment.

In **Ireland**, the Programme for a Partnership Government agreed in May 2016 included commitments in regard to gender mainstreaming and gender budgeting. There is to be a process of budget and policy proofing to promote equality, reduce poverty and strengthen economic and social rights. Equality and gender proofing will be supported in a newly-established parliamentary fiscal and budget office and within key government departments. The expertise of the Irish Human Rights and Equality Commission will be drawn upon to support the proofing process. For next year’s budget, the Parliamentary Budget and Finance Committee will look at submissions and proposals for the gender and equality proofing budget, with the assistance of independent experts where necessary. The Programme’s other priorities include addressing gender-based violence and reducing the gender pay gap, increasing investment in childcare and promoting wage transparency.

In **Austria**, the Council of Ministers set up an inter-ministerial working group on gender mainstreaming/budgeting (IMAG GMB) in 2000. This group supports and accompanies the continued implementation of gender mainstreaming and gender budgeting at the federal level. For more information, see: www.imag-gmb.at. Gender budgeting has been a constitutional duty since 2009. Ever since, budgets have had to take equal account of both women and men. . An institutional set-up and gender budgeting tools have been created in order to ensure proper enforcement of gender budgeting in Austria (Austrian Federal Performance Management Office, Austrian Parliamentary Budget Committee, Regulatory Impact Assessments. On the basis of this seven-year experience, the Federal Ministry of Health and Women’s Affairs launched a gender budgeting blog in July 2016. The blog aims at disseminating information and fostering fruitful exchanges. An English version of the website is available as well. For more information, see: blog.imag-gendermainstreaming.at.

In 2016, the **Lithuanian** Ministry of Social Security and Labour and Office of the Ombudsperson for Equal Opportunities started developing an ESF-financed project to strengthen equal opportunities for women and men. The project should support the implementation of legal provisions under which municipal institutions have to provide for measures aimed at ensuring equal opportunities for women and men in municipal strategic development and/or municipal strategic action plans at municipal level. Certain measures are planned for improving gender-disaggregated statistics.

In October 2016, the **Swedish Government** presented a government communication on its gender equality policy aspirations for the coming years. The communication also included a new comprehensive national strategy for the elimination of men’s violence against women (2017-2026) which aims at strengthening the work of public agencies at all levels. The strategy set out goals and indicators in order to follow-up on results.

In Greece, the National Action Plan on Gender Equality 2016-2020, which constitutes an initiative by the General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE), comprises the following six policy areas with concrete objectives and distinctive synergies with competent stakeholders, covering in that way all fields of both public and private life:

i) social inclusion and equal treatment of women facing multiple discrimination

- ii) combating violence against women
- iii) labour market, work-family reconciliation
- iv) education, training, media, culture, sports
- v) health
- vi) equal participation of women in decision-making.

Brexit and its impact on equality: On 14 October 2016, the Women and Equalities Committee of the House of Commons launched an inquiry to examine the implications of leaving the EU on equality legislation and policy in the United Kingdom. A call for written evidence — on legislation, courts, case law and appeals, and embedding equality principles — closed on 9 November 2016. On 16 November 2016, the Committee convened for the first time to discuss the impact of Brexit on equality legislation in the United Kingdom, the government’s plans for equality during the Brexit negotiations, and the role of the Equality and Human Rights Commission. Discussions on these issues continued at the following meeting on 30 November 2016.

Conclusion

Over the last years, the gaps in pay, employment and working hours have been plateauing. At this rate of change, it will take more than a century to close the overall gender gap in earnings. In the 21st century, the disproportionate weight of care responsibilities on women will continue to shrink their economic independence and have a lifelong effect on their career, earnings and pensions. Some Member States are testing new approaches and might be able to accelerate progress towards gender equality and women’s economic independence, others may still be a long way off. Redefining a new work-life balance to provide for more equality between women and men is important for Europe. In 2016, the Commission has consulted widely on the direction of the EU policy choices in the field of work-life balance, with the view to proposing a new initiative in the first quarter of 2017, in relation to the Pillar of Social Rights.

Men and women’s skills, talents and aspirations are needed to shape the economy and society. Yet key areas for the future are still largely female or male-dominated. Boys are less likely than girls to envisage a career in health or education, while girls do not to the same extent as boys choose careers in sciences, mathematics, ICT and engineering. However, it is worth recalling that women have made inroads in management and in politics and girls seem to outperform boys in education. Equality in decision-making no longer seems a distant goal for a handful of countries that are close to gender balance. But many countries where the share of women in decision-making is extremely low are losing momentum. The EU has a key role to play to ensure continued progress in all countries.

In 2016, the Commission gave a new impetus to its policies aimed at preventing and combating gender-based violence and supporting its victims by launching a dedicate year of focused actions to raise awareness of gender-based violence and support grassroots projects and Member States. Member States have also gradually aligned their legislation and policies with the Istanbul Convention. This joint effort will help to prevent and combating the most brutal manifestations of inequality between women and men.

Although long-term gender equality trends have been encouraging so far, 2016 has also sent worrying signals. Further advances are however possible, but by no means guaranteed. Equality between women and men can receive a major boost – but only if continued vigilance is combined with active policy initiatives. The UN 2030 Agenda points the way ahead. In 2016, the EU and its Member States have taken a number of concrete actions to ensure that women and men are to have the same power to shape society and their own lives.

Statistical annex

Annex 1: Member States' performances in key areas

1. Equal economic independence

Women and men's employment rate (20-64 years old), 2010, 2015 and 2016Q3, in %

	Men			Women		
	2010	2015	2016Q3	2010	2015	2016Q3
EU-28	75,1	75,8	77,4	62,1	64,2	65,5
Austria	79,0	78,4	80,0	68,8	70,2	71,1
Belgium	73,5	71,3	72,3	61,6	63,0	62,6
Bulgaria	68,6	70,4	72,0	60,8	63,8	65,0
Croatia	67,9	65,2	68,5	56,4	55,8	57,5
Cyprus	81,7	72,3	74,3	68,8	64,0	64,5
Czech Rep.	79,6	83,0	85,0	60,9	66,4	68,7
Denmark	78,6	80,2	81,5	73,0	72,6	73,8
Estonia	67,8	80,5	83,0	65,9	72,6	71,9
Finland	74,5	73,9	76,4	71,5	71,8	72,5
France	74,0	73,2	74,3	64,9	66,0	66,4
Germany	80,4	82,3	82,9	69,7	73,6	74,7
Greece	76,0	64,0	66,8	51,8	46,0	47,7
Hungary	65,5	75,8	79,3	54,6	62,1	65,2
Ireland	69,1	75,1	77,3	60,2	62,6	64,3
Italy	72,7	70,6	72,2	49,5	50,6	51,7
Latvia	64,0	74,6	74,6	64,5	70,5	71,7
Lithuania	63,5	74,6	77,1	65,0	72,2	74,5
Luxembourg	79,2	76,7	74,9	62,0	65,0	64,9
Malta	78,2	81,4	83,4	41,6	53,6	56,4
Netherlands	82,8	81,9	82,9	70,8	70,8	72,0
Poland	71,3	74,7	77,0	57,3	60,9	62,5
Portugal	75,4	72,6	75,2	65,6	65,9	67,8
Romania	73,1	74,7	76,8	56,5	57,2	58,5
Slovakia	71,9	75,0	77,2	57,4	60,3	62,9
Slovenia	74,0	73,3	74,3	66,5	64,7	66,4
Spain	69,2	67,6	70,3	56,3	56,4	58,6
Sweden	81,1	82,5	84,1	75,0	78,3	80,0
United Kingdom	79,3	82,5	83,3	67,9	71,3	72,2

Source: Eurostat, LFS

Women and men's employment rate in full-time equivalent (20-64 years old), 2015

	Women	Men	Gender gap (men-women)
Austria	55.1	75.5	20.4
Belgium	53.4	69.2	15.8
Bulgaria	63.5	69.8	6.3
Croatia	54.1	64.3	10.2
Cyprus	59	68.4	9.4
Czech Rep.	64.3	83.5	19.2
Denmark	63.6	75.9	12.3
Estonia	69.5	79.4	9.9
Finland	66.8	71.5	4.7
France	58.7	70.8	12.1
Germany	57.1	78.7	21.6
Greece	43.2	62.2	19
Hungary	60.3	74.8	14.5
Ireland	53.4	71.6	18.2
Italy	43.7	68.3	24.6
Latvia	69	74.5	5.5
Lithuania	70.5	74	3.5
Luxembourg	57.9	75.7	17.8
Malta	48.1	80.8	32.7
Netherlands	48.2	75.3	27.1
Poland	59.2	75	15.8
Portugal	62.2	70.8	8.6
Romania	55.4	73	17.6
Slovakia	58	73.6	15.6
Slovenia	61.4	72.2	10.8
Spain	49.7	65.7	16
Sweden	67.8	77.6	9.8
UK	58.6	78.9	20.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS

2. Equal pay for equal work and work of equal value

The gender pay gap (%)

The gender pay gap is the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male and female paid employees, expressed as a percentage of the former.

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
EU28				16.4	16.9	17.3	16.8	16.7	16.3
Belgium	10.1	10.2	10.1	10.2	9.4	8.3	7.5	6.6	6.5
Bulgaria	12.1	12.3	13.3	13.0	13.2	15.1	14.1	14.2	15.4
Czech Republic	23.6	26.2	25.9	21.6	22.6	22.5	22.3	22.5	22.5
Denmark	17.7	17.1	16.8	15.9	16.4	16.8	16.5	16.0	15.1
Germany	22.8	22.8	22.6	22.3	22.4	22.7	22.1	22.3	22
Estonia	30.9	27.6	26.6	27.7	27.3	29.9	29.8	28.1	26.9
Ireland	17.3	12.6	12.6	13.9	12.7	12.2	12.9	13.9	
Greece	21.5	22		15.0					
Spain	18.1	16.1	16.7	16.2	17.6	18.7	17.8	14.9	14.9
France	17.3	16.9	15.2	15.6	15.7	15.6	15.5	15.5	15.8
Croatia				5.7	3.4	2.9	9.0	10.4	
Italy	5.1	4.9	5.5	5.3	5.7	6.5	7.0	6.1	5.5
Cyprus	22.0	19.5	17.8	16.8	16.1	15.6	14.9	14.2	14.0
Latvia	13.6	11.8	13.1	15.5	14.1	14.9	16.0	17.3	17.0
Lithuania	22.6	21.6	15.3	14.6	11.5	11.9	12.2	13.3	14.2
Luxembourg	10.2	9.7	9.2	8.7	7.9	7.0	6.2	5.4	5.5
Hungary	16.3	17.5	17.1	17.6	18.0	20.1	18.4	15.1	14.0
Malta	7.8	9.2	7.7	7.2	7.7	9.5	9.7	10.6	
Netherlands	19.3	18.9	18.5	17.8	18.6	17.6	16.5	16.1	16.1
Austria	25.5	25.1	24.3	24.0	23.5	22.9	22.3	22.2	21.7
Poland	14.9	11.4	8.0	4.5	5.5	6.4	7.1	7.7	7.7
Portugal	8.5	9.2	10.0	12.8	12.9	15.0	13.3	14.9	17.8
Romania	12.5	8.5	7.4	8.8	9.6	6.9	4.9	4.5	5.8
Slovenia	5.0	4.1	-0.9	0.9	3.3	4.5	6.3	7.0	8.1
Slovakia	23.6	20.9	21.9	19.6	20.1	20.8	18.8	19.7	19.6
Finland	20.2	20.5	20.8	20.3	19.1	19.2	18.8	18.4	17.3
Sweden	17.8	16.9	15.7	15.4	15.6	15.5	14.6	13.8	14.0
United Kingdom	20.8	21.4	20.6	19.5	19.7	21.2	20.5	20.9	20.8

Source: Eurostat, *Structure of Earnings Survey*

Gender segregation in occupations and in economic sectors, 2005, 2010 and 2014

This index reflects the proportion of the employed population that would need to change occupation/sector in order to bring about an even distribution of men and women across occupations or sectors. The index varies between 0 (no segregation) and 50 (complete segregation). For the EU as a whole, the figures are still high: 24.3% for occupational segregation and 18.9% for sectoral segregation.

	Gender segregation in occupations			Gender segregation in sectors		
	2005	2010	2015	2005	2010	2015
EU27	24,8	24,9	24,3	17,8	19,1	18,9
EU28		24,9	24,3		19,1	18,9
Austria	26,4	25,9	27,4	19,0	19,3	19,4
Belgium	25,4	25,4	26,4	17,5	19,5	20,2
Bulgaria	27,8	28,9	28,6	19,2	21,1	21,9
Croatia	27,7	28,0	28,2	18,5	20,6	21,0
Cyprus	29,9	28,9	28,9	20,0	20,0	19,5
Czech Rep.	28,4	28,3	28,2	19,1	20,9	21,5
Denmark	26,8	25,7	24,9	18,8	19,5	19,2
Estonia	30,0	30,6	30,9	24,2	25,7	25,0
Finland	29,3	28,6	27,5	22,2	23,7	23,8
France	26,3	26,1	25,9	17,3	19,1	18,7
Germany	26,2	26,1	25,3	18,2	19,4	19,5
Greece	22,4	21,9	19,0	16,0	16,1	13,5
Hungary	28,6	27,7	28,0	19,8	20,7	20,5
Ireland	27,4	26,2	26,2	22,6	21,2	21,3
Italy	23,6	24,7	24,8	17,8	19,7	19,5
Latvia	27,9	28,0	28,9	21,6	24,2	24,8
Lithuania	27,0	28,8	28,2	22,0	22,0	22,4
Luxembourg	26,4	23,4	23,0	17,4	16,0	15,8
Malta	23,3	24,0	24,9	15,5	16,3	17,2
Netherlands	26,1	25,0	24,9	17,6	19,4	18,1
Poland	25,2	26,0	26,9	18,8	20,5	21,5
Portugal	26,0	26,4	25,7	20,3	21,2	21,1
Romania	19,3	22,0	23,0	14,9	16,7	18,1
Slovakia	29,6	31,1	29,5	22,5	25,2	23,6
Slovenia	27,3	25,8	26,2	18,0	19,0	19,5
Spain	26,5	26,5	25,2	20,3	20,4	19,4
Sweden	27,2	26,1	25,0	21,5	21,5	20,6
UK	25,9	24,4	23,4	18,6	19,4	18,4

Source

: Eurostat, *Labour Force Survey*

Overall gender gap in earnings (%)

The overall gender earnings gap is a composite indicator. It measures the combined impact on the average earnings of all working-age women (whether or not employed), as compared with men, of:

- average hourly earnings;
- average number of paid work per month (before any adjustment for part-time work); and
- employment rate.

	2002	2006	2010	2014
EU 28		44.2	41.2	39.7
Belgium		38.6	35.9	31.1
Bulgaria	28.2	24.5	23.5	22.8
Czech Republic	42.3	43.1	41.0	40.4
Denmark		29.9	25.5	26.1
Germany		47.7	45.4	45.2
Estonia		38.9	32.2	38.4
Ireland	49.1	47.6	34.7	36.8
Greece		51.6	45.2	
Spain	55.4	47.6	38.0	35.7
France (metropolitan)		35.2	32.9	30.9
Croatia			23.0	
Italy		47.5	44.3	43.7
Cyprus		43.1	33.7	26.9
Latvia		27.4	16.1	22.8
Lithuania	24.6	27.4	12.3	19.2
Luxembourg		43.0	38.4	32.5
Hungary	37.0	33.2	32.7	32.0
Malta		61.9	56.3	45.6
Netherlands	53.3	53.9	49.1	47.5
Austria		50.8	46.7	44.9
Poland	30.1	33.6	29.6	31.5
Portugal		26.4	27.8	26.1
Romania	32.5	24.7	29.9	26.8
Slovenia	24.8	21.4	12.8	19.6
Slovakia	41.3	44.1	37.5	37.3
Finland		29.9	27.0	24.1
Sweden	27.1	32.3	30.2	26.2
United Kingdom	53.3	50.2	47.6	45.0

Source: Eurostat, *Structure of Earnings Survey*

Gender gap in pensions

	Pensioners aged 65+			Pensioners aged 65-79		
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
EU28	38,9	39,1	38.3*	39,6	39,4	38.6*
Austria	38,1	39,0	39,0	40,9	42,4	41,4
Belgium	32,8	29,7	34,1	34,3	31,0	35,8
Bugaria	30,7	23,8	29,4	30,1	24,2	27,4
Croatia	23,2	22,2	22,7	22,3	17,8	21,0
Cyprus	44,8	45,6	44,8	51,6	51,6	46,9
Czech. Rep	12,5	12,8	12,7	12,6	13,6	14,0
Denmark	12,7	14,2	11,7	15,9	18,2	13,5
Estonia	5,4	4,4	3,1	3,0	2,5	3,7
Finland	23,1	24,0	22,5	24,6	26,2	25,3
France	35,8	35,8	34,1	34,9	35,1	33,0
Germany	47,7	47,6	45,7	44,4	44,5	43,0
Greece	26,3	26,5	28,9	25,1	27,5	28,6
Hungary	14,5	13,2	14,9	14,8	13,6	15,6
Ireland	33,3	32,0		36,2	34,5	
Italy	33,1	33,4	32,2	37,8	38,1	37,1
Latvia	17,1	17,6	16,8	17,1	18,6	17,5
Lithuania	16,8	14,5	13,3	12,7	12,9	13,3
Luxembourg	41,7	39,5	34,2	46,0	41,3	36,0
Malta	27,0	27,2	31,3	24,5	22,6	22,8
Netherlands	41,7	39,9	39,5	49,3	48,0	44,9
Poland	22,3	21,9	19,5	24,8	25,0	22,5
Portugal	31,6	32,1	32,4	36,2	30,6	29,9
Romania	25,2	34,0	55,1	27,3	32,5	63,4
Slovakia	5,1	7,3	7,3	7,8	8,2	9,0
Slovenia	23,9	20,1	21,2	16,0	13,4	14,6
Spain	35,4	34,1	33,8	36,7	35,0	35,1
Sweden	27,7	30,3	29,3	26,9	29,3	28,8
UK	36,1	39,1	38,0	38,7	39,5	39,1

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Gender gap in pensions coverage

The gender gap in pension coverage is the gap between the proportions of men and women *who are entitled to a pension*. It measures the extent to which more men than women have access to the pension system.

	Gender Gap in pension coverage rate					
	Pensioners aged 65+			Pensioners aged 65-74		
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
EU28	5,4	5,3	5*	6,6	6,3	6.1*
Austria	8,6	9,7	10,2	9,3	10,8	10,6
Belgium	15,8	17	17,3	18,1	17,2	17,2
Bugaria	0	0,1	-0,9	0,2	0,3	-1,4
Croatia	-0,5	-2,9	-0,8	-1	-2,4	1,5
Cyprus	-0,3	0,9	0,7	-0,5	1,5	1,3
Czech. Rep	0	0,2	0,3	0	0,3	0,6
Denmark	0	0,1	-0,2	0	0,2	-0,6
Estonia	-0,2	-0,9	-0,6	-0,1	-0,9	-0,9
Finland	-0,7	-0,1	-0,1	-0,9	-0,1	-0,1
France	1,2	2	1,6	0,7	2	1,9
Germany	3,6	2,7	1,4	3,7	2	0,8
Greece	12,2	14	15,6	16	19,3	21
Hungary	0,4	0,2	-0,4	0,3	0,5	-0,7
Ireland	15,5	16,2		22	17,4	
Italy	10,6	9,8	10,8	15,6	14,9	16
Latvia	-0,5	-0,2	0	-0,6	-0,3	0,2
Lithuania	-1,1	-0,8	-0,7	-0,9	-0,6	-0,7
Luxembourg	8	7,4	6,6	8,1	8,9	6,3
Malta	31,7	29,1	25,7	42,4	41	41,8
Netherlands	0,1	0,4	0,6	0	0,5	0,5
Poland	1	0	-0,8	1,5	0,2	-0,9
Portugal	5,7	5,8	4,9	7,7	7,4	6,4
Romania	4	3,8	3,1	4	4,4	2,9
Slovakia	-0,2	-0,7	-0,3	-0,5	-1	-0,5
Slovenia	-5,4	-6,8	-5,9	-6,8	-5,7	-4,6
Spain	21,1	21,9	21,8	27,6	27,7	28,7
Sweden	0,2	0	-0,4	0,3	0,1	-0,4
UK	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

3. Gender equality in decision-making

	Proportion of women in boards of the largest publicly listed companies (%)			Proportion of women in the single/lower houses of the national/federal Parliaments (%)			Proportion of women among senior ministers in national/federal governments (%)		
	2010	2013	2016	2010	2013	2016	2010	2013	2016
EU-28	11.9%	17.8%	23.9%	24.4%	27.4%	28.7%	26.2%	26.6%	27.9%
Belgium	10.5%	16.7%	28.6%	40.0%	40.0%	38.7%	33.3%	38.5%	21.4%
Bulgaria	11.2%	16.7%	15.3%	22.1%	24.6%	19.2%	16.7%	38.9%	47.4%
Czech Republic	12.2%	11.3%	10.1%	22.0%	19.5%	20.5%	0.0%	6.7%	17.6%
Denmark	17.7%	22.9%	27.1%	37.6%	38.0%	37.4%	47.4%	45.5%	29.4%
Germany	12.6%	21.5%	29.5%	32.6%	36.5%	37.0%	37.5%	33.3%	37.5%
Estonia	7.0%	7.3%	8.8%	22.8%	17.8%	25.7%	7.7%	7.7%	13.3%
Ireland	8.4%	11.1%	16.5%	13.9%	15.7%	22.2%	20.0%	13.3%	26.7%
Greece	6.2%	8.4%	9.1%	17.0%	21.0%	18.3%	16.7%	5.0%	0.0%
Spain	9.5%	14.8%	20.3%	36.9%	39.7%	38.9%	50.0%	28.6%	27.3%
France	12.3%	29.7%	41.2%	19.2%	26.2%	26.2%	34.2%	47.4%	47.4%
Croatia	15.6%	15.1%	19.9%	24.8%	23.8%	18.5%	15.8%	19.0%	19.0%
Italy	4.5%	15.0%	32.3%	21.1%	31.3%	31.0%	21.7%	28.6%	29.4%
Cyprus	4.0%	7.3%	10.8%	12.5%	14.3%	17.9%	16.7%	8.3%	8.3%
Latvia	23.5%	28.6%	28.5%	19.0%	25.0%	16.0%	21.4%	23.1%	21.4%
Lithuania	13.1%	16.1%	14.3%	19.1%	24.1%	21.3%	13.3%	6.7%	28.6%
Luxembourg	3.5%	11.3%	12.9%	20.0%	23.3%	28.3%	26.7%	26.7%	20.0%
Hungary	13.6%	11.3%	12.3%	8.8%	9.4%	9.5%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%
Malta	2.4%	2.1%	4.5%	8.7%	14.3%	13.0%	22.2%	13.3%	5.9%
Netherlands	14.9%	25.1%	27.5%	41.3%	38.0%	38.0%	25.0%	38.5%	38.5%
Austria	8.7%	12.6%	18.1%	27.9%	33.3%	30.6%	42.9%	42.9%	21.4%
Poland	11.6%	12.3%	18.8%	19.8%	24.4%	28.0%	25.0%	20.0%	27.3%
Portugal	5.4%	8.8%	14.3%	30.4%	31.3%	34.3%	29.4%	20.0%	22.2%
Romania	21.3%	7.8%	10.1%	11.4%	13.5%	14.2%	11.8%	21.4%	36.4%
Slovenia	9.8%	21.6%	24.8%	15.9%	33.3%	35.6%	26.3%	21.4%	47.1%
Slovakia	21.6%	24.0%	11.3%	16.0%	18.7%	20.5%	14.3%	6.7%	13.3%
Finland	25.9%	29.8%	30.1%	39.5%	42.5%	42.0%	55.0%	47.4%	35.7%
Sweden	26.4%	26.5%	36.9%	45.6%	44.4%	45.8%	45.8%	54.2%	50.0%
United Kingdom	13.3%	21.0%	27.0%	22.0%	22.6%	29.7%	16.0%	18.2%	34.8%

Source: European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making

4. Gender-based violence

Sexual violence offences recorded by the police

Sexual Violence includes Rape and Sexual Assault. Rape is defined as sexual intercourse without valid consent. In the current classification used by the UNODC, offences of statutory rape where the victim is below the age of consent are classified separately as sexual offences against children. Sexual assault is defined as sexual violence not amounting to rape. It includes an unwanted sexual act, an attempt to obtain a sexual act, or contact or communication with unwanted sexual attention not amounting to rape. It also includes sexual assault with or without physical contact including drug-facilitated sexual assault, sexual assault committed against a marital partner against her/his will, sexual assault against a helpless person, unwanted groping or fondling, harassment and threat of a sexual nature.

	Sexual violence		Rape		Sexual assault	
	2010	2014	2010	2014	2010	2014
Austria	3.957	4.216	875	839	3.082	3.377
Belgium	10.872	10.647	3.281	2.882	7.591	7.765
Bulgaria	696	610	211	148	485	462
Croatia	570	826	141	333	429	493
Cyprus	79	51	36	14	43	37
Czech Republic	1.811	2.205	586	669	1.225	1.536
Denmark	2.074	2.067	342	462	1.732	1.605
England and Wales	39.114	64.509	15.892	29.265	23.222	35.244
Estonia	178	199	81	147	97	52
Finland	1.315	1.482	818	1.009	497	473
France	22.963	30.959	10.108	12.157	12.855	18.802
Germany	46.869	46.982	7.724	7.345	39.145	39.637
Greece	901	589	215	134	686	455
Hungary	677	545	246	318	431	227
Ireland	2.153	1.913	442	477	1.711	1.436
Italy	:	:	:	:	4.813	4.257
Latvia	:	444	78	75	:	369
Lithuania	514	401	208	158	306	243
Luxembourg	326	435	66	73	260	362
Malta	91	77	11	11	80	66
Netherlands	9.610	7.870	1.660	1.175	7.950	6.695
Northern Ireland (UK)	1.869	2.554	498	655	1.371	1.899
Poland	:	2.810	1.567	1.893	:	917
Portugal	2.206	2.475	424	374	1.782	2.101
Romania	1.486	1.516	897	875	589	641
Scotland	4.217	5.524	997	1.797	3.220	3.727
Slovakia	:	766	117	87	:	679
Slovenia	466	296	63	44	403	252
Spain	9.954	9.468	1.578	1.239	8.376	8.229
Sweden	15.537	19.512	5.479	6.294	10.058	13.218

Source: Eurostat-UNODC

Annex 2: Baseline for the 2016-19 Strategic engagement and monitoring of indicators with latest available data

1. Increasing female labour market participation and the equal economic independence of women and men (Indicators, latest available data and targets)

No.	Indicator	Data					EU-level target
		2015 ⁷⁹	2016	2017	2018	2019	
1	Gender employment gap (20-64 years)	11.5 pps (2014)	11.6 pps (2015)				0 pps
2	Gender employment gap (20-64) in full-time equivalents	18.1 pps (2014)	18.1 pps (2015)				
3	Gender gap in part-time employment among parents	34.8 pps (2013)	33.1 pps (2015)				
4	Time spent in unpaid care work and housework per week disaggregated by sex ⁸⁰	Men 9 hours Women 26 hours (2010)	Men 10 hours Women 22 hours (2015, break in series)				
5	Part-time work due to looking after children or incapacitated adults disaggregated by sex ⁸¹	Men 4.2% Women 27.1% (2014)	4.4% 27.2% (2015)				
6	Number of children cared for by formal arrangements as a proportion of all children of the same age group (0-3 years and 3 years to mandatory school age)	0-3 years: 27% 3-school age: 82% (2013)	0-3 years: 28% 3-school age: 83% (2014)				0-3 years: 33% 3- school age: 90%
7	Share of active population (50-64 years) caring for elderly or disabled relatives at least several days a week disaggregated by sex ⁸²	Men 10% Women 17% (2011)	To be updated with the next European Quality of Life Survey				

⁷⁹ Baseline as of September 2015

⁸⁰ Eurofound

⁸¹ Eurostat ('main reason for part-time employment' — distributions by sex and age (%) [lfsa_epgar]); 15-64 years old

⁸² Eurofound

8	Gaps in employment rates between non-EU national men and women	19.5 pps (2014)	20.7 pps (2015)				
9	Gaps in employment rates between recent non-EU national men and women	22.3 pps (2014)	25.1 pps (2015)				
10	Female entrepreneurs (as percentage of all entrepreneurs)	29% (2014)	32% (2015) ⁸³				
11	Share of research performing organisations that adopted Gender Equality Plans ⁸⁴	36% (2014)					

⁸³ Eurostat data on self-employed

⁸⁴ She figures 2015, based on European Research Area Survey 2014 (PCountry, P17, P36) https://ec.europa.eu/research/swafs/pdf/pub_gender_equality/she_figures_2015-leaflet-web.pdf (These results cover only the 1,200 RPOs that responded to the ERA Survey)

2. Reducing the gender pay, earnings and pension gaps and thus fighting the poverty among women (Indicators, latest available data and targets)

No.	Indicator	Data					EU-level target
		2015 ⁸⁵	2016	2017	2018	2019	
1	Gender pay gap	16.5 % (2013)	16.7 % (2014) 16.3% (2015)				
2	Gender overall earnings gap	41.1 % (2010)	39.8% (2014)				
3	Gender segregation in economic sectors and occupations ⁸⁶	Sectors: 18.9% Occupations: 26.9% (2014)	18.9% 24.3% (2015)				
4	Gender pension gap ⁸⁷	40.2 % (2012)	38.6% (2015)				
5	Gender coverage gap in pensions ⁸⁸	6.8% (2012)	6.1% (2015)				
6	In-work poverty of women and men	Men: 9.3% Women: 8.4% (2013)	10.0 % 9.0 % (2014)				
7	At-risk of poverty and social exclusion in old age (65+)	Men: 11.4% Women: 15.6% (2014)	11.2% 15.8% (2015)				

⁸⁵ Baseline as of September 2015

⁸⁶ Gender segregation in occupations/sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation/sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification/NACE classification).

⁸⁷ For pensioners aged 65-79, Source: Pension Adequacy Report

⁸⁸ For pensioners aged 65-79, Source: Pension Adequacy Report

8	Single parent households at risk of poverty or social exclusion	49.9% (2013)	47.7 (2015) 48.4 (2014)				
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3. Promoting equality between women and men in decision-making (Indicators, latest available data and targets)

No.	Indicator	Data					EU-level target
		2015 ⁸⁹	2016	2017	2018	2019	
1	Proportion of women among members of the highest decision-making body of the largest nationally registered companies listed on the national stock exchange	21.2% <i>(April 2015)</i>	23.9% <i>(October 2016)</i>				
2	Proportion of women among Presidents and CEOs of the largest nationally registered companies listed on the national stock exchange	Presidents: 7.1% CEOs: 3.6% <i>(April 2015)</i>	Presidents: 7.7% CEOs: 5.7% <i>(October 2016)</i>				
3	Proportion of women among executive and non-executive members of the two highest decision-making bodies of the largest nationally registered companies listed on the national stock exchange	Non-executive directors: 22.5% Senior executives: 13.7% <i>(April 2015)</i>	Non-executive directors: 26.1% Senior executives: 14.9% <i>(October 2016)</i>				
4	Proportion of women heads of institutions in the Higher Education Sector ⁹⁰	15.5% <i>(2010)</i>	20.1% <i>(2014)</i>				
5	Proportion of women in the single/lower houses of the national/federal Parliaments of the Member States and in the European Parliament	29% <i>(May 2015)</i> EP: 37%	28.7% <i>(November 2016)</i> EP: 37%				
6	Proportion of women among the members of the national/federal governments (senior ministers) of the Member States and in the European Commission	27% <i>(May 2015)</i> EC: 32%	27.9% <i>(November 2016)</i> EC: 32%				
7	Proportion of women in senior and middle management in the European Commission's administration ⁹¹	28% and 32% respectively <i>(February 2015)</i>	32% and 34% respectively <i>(December 2016)</i>				

⁸⁹ Baseline as of September 2015

⁹⁰ SHE Figures 2012

⁹¹ DG HR

4. Combating gender-based violence and protecting and supporting victims (Indicators, latest available data and targets)

No.	Indicator	Data					EU-level target
		2015 ⁹²	2016	2017	2018	2019	
1	Proportion of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence	33% (March 2014)					
2	Proportion of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by a partner	22% (March 2014)					
3	Proportion of women who have experienced psychological partner violence	43% (March 2014)					
4	Proportion of women who have been sexually harassed	55% (March 2014)					

⁹² Baseline as of September 2015