

WOMEN AND POVERTY AND WOMEN IN THE ECONOMY IN EU – FOLLOW-UP OF THE BEIJING PLATFORM OF ACTION 15 YEARS AFTER

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Introduction

The United Nations convened the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 in Beijing, China. Delegates had prepared a Platform for Action that aimed at achieving greater equality and opportunity for women. The three previous World Conferences were in Mexico City (International Women's Year 1975), Copenhagen (1980) and Nairobi (1985). The official name of the Conference was "The Fourth World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace". The Conference was participated in by 189 Governments and more than 5,000 representatives from 2,100 non-governmental organisations.

The outcome of the Beijing conference is an agenda for women's empowerment – The Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action. It deals with removing the obstacles to women's public participation in all spheres of public and private lives through a full and equal share in economic, social, cultural and political decision-making. The Declaration embodies the commitment of the international community to the advancement of women and the implementation of the Platform for Action, ensuring that a gender perspective is reflected in all policies and programmes at the national, regional and international levels. Progress in the implementation of the twelve critical areas of concern identified in the Beijing Platform for has been done in 2000 (Beijing +5) and 2005 (Beijing +10) and will be done in 2010 (Beijing +15).

Implementing the Beijing of Action is mainly a responsibility of governments, but also the institutions in the public, private and non-governmental sectors of the community, national, subregional, regional and international levels. EU is one such institution and Sweden is

responsible for collecting information from the 27 EU-countries and to write the Beijing +15 report during the Swedish presidency started 1st July 2009.

Critical areas in the Beijing Platform of Action are: Women and poverty, Education and training of women, Women and health, Violence against women, Women and armed conflict, Women and the economy, Women in power and decision-making, Institutional mechanisms, Human rights of women, Women and the media, Women and the environment and The girl child.

The aim of this paper is to describe the situation in two critical areas: Women and poverty and Women and the economy in the EU-countries and to present and discuss the connection between the objective strategies and the indicators and between the indicators and the data available.

Women and poverty

Presentation of the strategic objectives (from the Platform for Action)

Poverty of women as critical area A of the Beijing Platform for Action is oriented through four strategic objectives, defined as follows:

- A.1 Review, adapt and maintain macro-economic policies and development of strategies that address the needs and efforts of women in poverty.
- A.2 Revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources.
- A.3 Provide women with access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions.
- A.4 Develop gender-based methodologies and conduct research to address the feminisation of poverty.

Availability and relevance of EU-wide indicators

The Portuguese EU Presidency prepared a report and proposed indicators for poverty among women. From a list of 18 possible multidimensional indicators, three indicators were selected.

- Indicator 1. At-risk of -poverty rate by age and sex.
- Indicator 2. At-risk-of-poverty rate by type of household and sex, including at-risk-of-poverty rate of single parents with dependent children.
- Indicator 3. Inactivity by age and sex a) share of women and men who are inactive by age b) by share of inactive women and men who are not looking for a job for family care

The strategic objectives are expressed in terms of policies, while the indicators are spoken about as outcomes. This is in line with the nature of the open method of co-ordination, whereby MS agree on objectives but are left free to choose the policies by which these objectives are to be met. However, the connection between the strategic objectives A.3 and A.4 and the indicators are not easily detected, this is easier as far as strategic objectives A.1 and A.2. are concerned.

Indicator 1 is a “classical” poverty measure defined as the percentage of persons below the monetary poverty line. In this case the monetary poverty line is defined as 60% of the median national adult-equivalent household disposable income of each MS and the at-risk-of-poverty rate for the age categories 0-17, 18-64 and 65+ are presented. Data are taken from Eurostat, EU-SILC.

Indicator 1 does not directly measure women’s poverty. There are a number of reasons for this. One is that having an income below the retained threshold of 60% of the national equalised median income is not a necessary nor a sufficient condition of being in a state of poverty, therefore this indicator is referred to as a measure of *poverty risk* (Eurostat 2005).ⁱ Another reason is that this measurement refers to individuals living in households and presupposes that resources are equally shared among household members. However, there might be gender-based differences in the use of economic resources and in economic decision making inside the household, which means that resources are not equally distributed. Additionally if the household is seen as a collection of individuals, instead of as an entity, the possibility of different risks among its members becomes a possibility especially if a time dimension is added to the risk. Women are less likely than men to secure a decent individual income through employment. Women have lower employment rates, greater likelihood of interrupting their employment and working reduced hours to attend to family care responsibilities. They have lower pay and accumulate lower pension and other social benefits where eligibility is earnings-related or based on individual records of employment history. Gender inequalities produce a situation where women’s individual risk of poverty is much higher than men’s, especially at a divorce or if the other partner dies.

The Beijing Platform for Action considers poverty synonymous with deprivation, which means lack of well-being. Even if resources are equally shared in the household, not participating in the labour market and earning money of one’s own might involve lack of power and control over resources in the family as well as in society at large. It could be argued that economic poverty is not only a question of level of consumption, but also that not having an income of one’s own is an essential part of poverty and lack of well-being limiting the possibilities of choice.

Statistics on women's poverty are inadequate due to the lack of regular data on women's and men's own earnings, their economic contribution, the distribution and control of income within households. Women's poverty can only be revealed by looking within the household's "black box".

Indicator 2 is based on the same poverty measure as indicator 1, but here the categories are single parents, single women and single men without children. Data disaggregated by sex for single parents are not available.

Data for indicator 3 are from Eurostat. The assumption behind the indicator is that being employed and receiving earnings are crucial for escaping poverty and economic independence. Due to gender imbalances, the interruption of working life or inactivity for family care reasons can act as women-specific factors that may generate a loss of economic independence and, later in the lifecycle, a lower level of social protection (lower pensions). This indicator also sheds some light on the factors of poverty at an individual level inside the household, but is far from unproblematic.

Trends emerging of the European wide data

Indicator 1. At-risk of -poverty rate by age and sex

Both income inequality and poverty have risen over the past 20 years (OECD 2009). The rise has been significant and widespread, affecting more than three-quarters of OECD countries. However, note that 'poverty' here is a relative concept. In the context of EU27 the level of the at-risk-of-poverty threshold in the new MS is low compared to the EU average. A poor person in the UK has more money than a poor Polish person for example. Countries with high income inequality tend to have more widespread income poverty, although this does not always go hand-in-hand. Data clearly show that a significant number of people in the EU live at risk of poverty. Around 17% of the women and 15% of the men in the EU were at risk of poverty in 2007.

Poverty risk varies with age. Children (0-17 years) and the elderly (65- years) are more vulnerable than persons aged 18-64. A substantial shift in poverty has taken place, children and young adults are today more likely to be poor than the population as a whole, while they were below or close to the average 20 years ago in the OECD countries. The higher risk of poverty for children than for working age adults can be explained by the fact that some children live with a single parent – a category which has grown substantially – and others in families with many

children. In both cases the risk of poverty is bigger. However, there is no reason to expect a gender gap among children since they do not support themselves, but are supported by their parents and the proportion of boys and girls can be expected to be the same in low as in high-income, in single parent and two parent families and the same in all EU-countries. The risk of poverty therefore happens to be higher for girls in some countries, for boys in other countries and in several countries the risk is the same for boys and girls (Eurostat, EU-SILC).

The risk of poverty is smallest among working age adults and the differences between the countries are not as big (Eurostat, EU-SILC). In four countries the risk of poverty is actually smaller for women than for men (FI, PL, RO, SE) and in two the risk is the same (DE, SI). In remaining countries the risk of poverty is bigger for women than for men. The difference is biggest in Malta and Cyprus (-4%). However, it should be noted that the result in this age group to a high extent is the result of the way the at-risk-of-poverty rate is measured; i.e. the assumption that household resources are pooled. This means that married/cohabiting women and men in households are assumed to share the resources and their incomes are therefore of the same size. The reason why there is a gender gap at all is that there are also single women and men, and single women tend to have lower incomes than men.

The risk of poverty has fallen for older people in OECD countries (OECD 2009). Those around retirement age have seen the biggest increases in income over the past 20 years and pensioner poverty has fallen in many countries. However, of the three age groups here, we find the widest dispersion among the elderly (65- years) between women and men and between countries. More than half of the elderly women in Cyprus are at risk of poverty, and a third or more in Ireland, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia (Eurostat, EU-SILC). In the other end we have Hungary, Czech Republic, Luxembourg and Poland with less than 10%. The gender gaps in the risk of poverty are especially wide in the Baltic countries and less risk of poverty for women than for men in Malta.

One reason for the big gender gap among the elderly is that there are many more single women in this category than in younger age groups because the husbands have died, women live longer than men and elderly women's possibilities to support themselves are limited if they have to live on their own earnings. Employment interruptions because of child rearing, no employment, temporary and part-time employment, low status work, and the gender pay gap are background factors to the much greater risks of poverty faced by single women in old age. Since pension entitlements are typically based on a time dimension – the number of contributory years, and on an earnings dimension – the amount earned through wages. Therefore, gender gaps in the risk of poverty in old age are likely to be smallest where the pension system

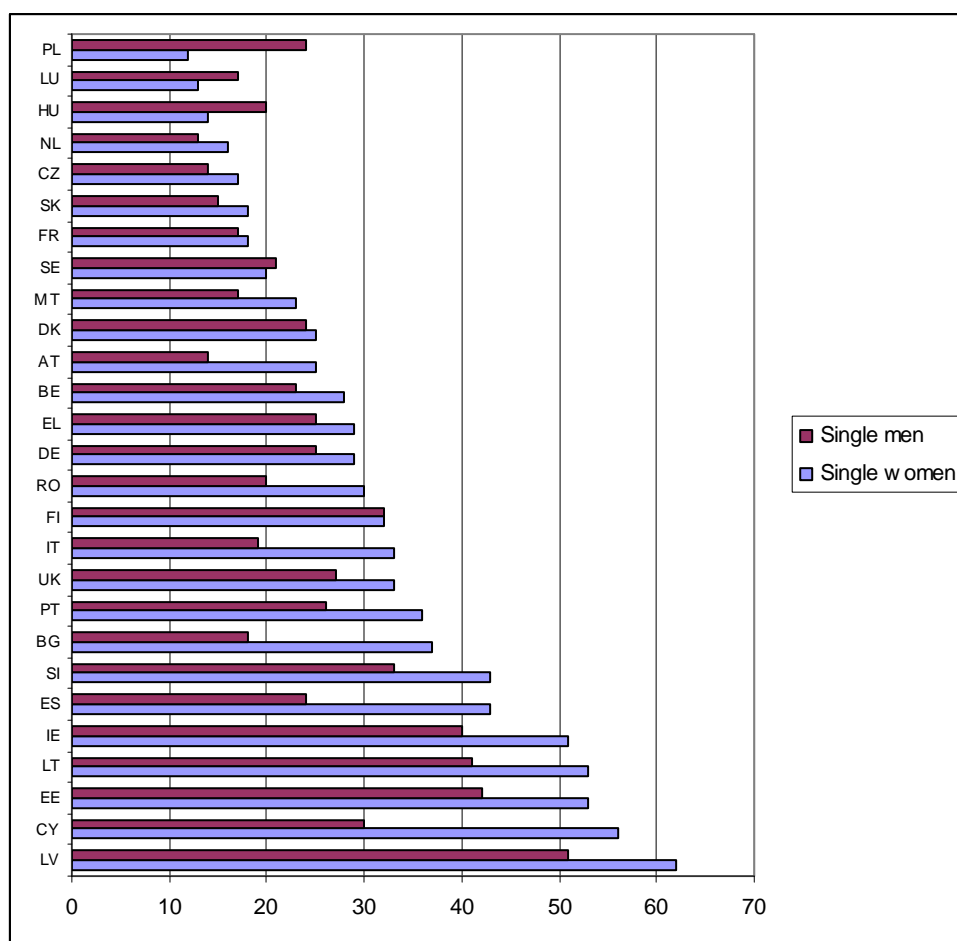
is largely based on citizenship rather than past employment and earnings; or where countries have achieved gender equality in lifetime earnings and labour market participation (Fagan et al. 2006 p. 8)

Women's work and life still differs from that of men and the social protection systems are not constructed to accommodate the life patterns of many women. This leaves women with a patchwork of inadequate social protection providing them with insufficient or no individual security. This is especially true for many older female pensioners today, who lack individual security because they have not made payments to pension schemes. But there are probably a difference in many countries between younger and older pensioners and it should also be mentioned that this indicator does not take into consideration assets in terms of savings and property for example, or for that matter debts, which can be assumed to be inequitable distributed between women and men but also differ between countries depending on the pension system.

Indicator 2. At-risk-of-poverty rate by type of household and sex, including at-risk-of-poverty rate of single parents with dependent children.

One way of investigating the risk of poverty for women is to compare single women with single men, then the troublesome questions of how resources in the household are distributed and women's decision-making power and well-being are effected by not having own earnings are avoided. Being single means a higher risk for poverty than being married/cohabiting for both women and men. In Latvia for example, more than half of the single women and men are at-risk-of-poverty. In most countries the risk of poverty is higher for single women than for single men, but in Poland, Hungary and Luxembourg the situation is the reverse, and in Sweden, Finland, France and Denmark the risk is more or less the same for the two genders (see figure 9).

Figure 9. At-risk-of-poverty rate (cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers), single women and men, no children, 16-84 years, 2007*



Source: Eurostat. EU-SILC

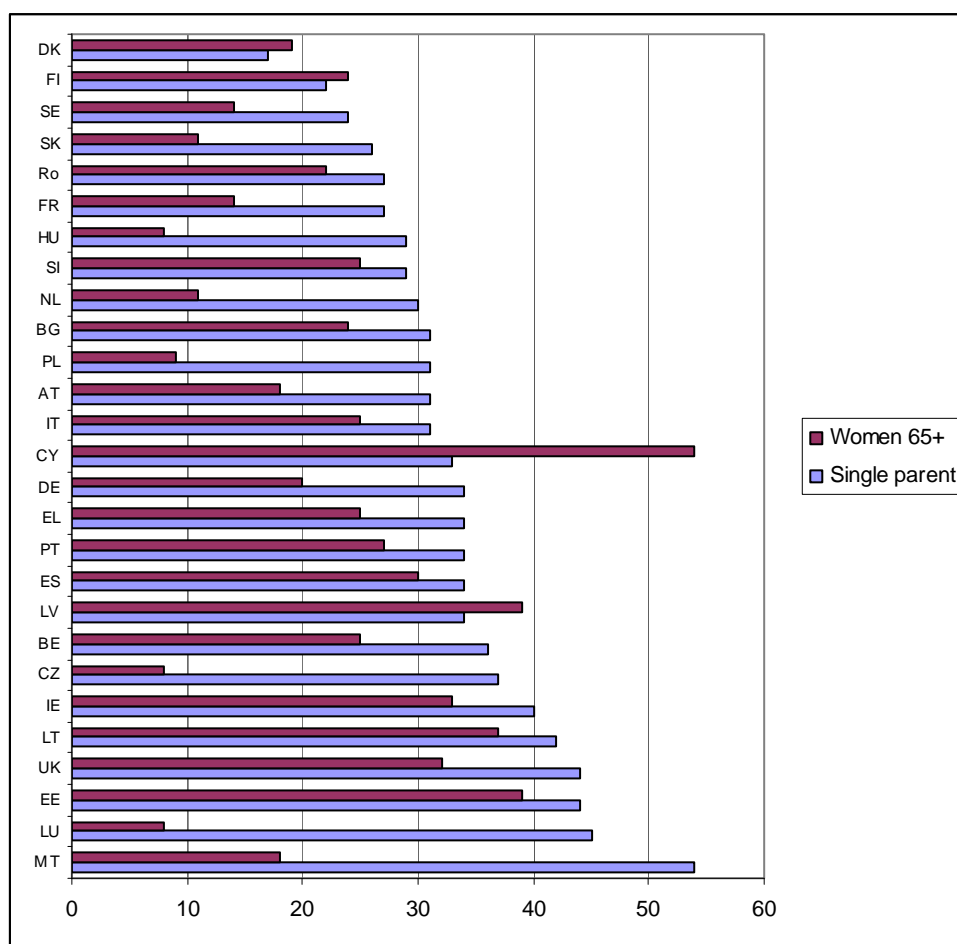
* Data for BG, RO are missing. Data for DE preliminary.

Single parents are besides elderly women a category, which is often mentioned as facing a particular risk of suffering from poverty. The number of single parents is rising across most of the EU. In all countries the majority of single parents are women; accounting for 80 to 95% of all lone parents in most countries (Fagan et al. 2006 p. 11). The main entry route into lone parenthood is relationship breakdown for married or cohabiting couples; sole parenting (single women who become mothers without marrying or cohabiting) is much less common. Lone-parent households are susceptible to poverty for several reasons. There are extra economic disadvantages and work-family reconciliation pressures when raising children alone compared with the resources available in dual-parent households. The pressures of being the single

breadwinner are compounded for women because the wages they can obtain in the labour market are lower on average than those of men.

When comparing women 65 years and older, of which some are married/cohabiting, and single parents, of which a majority is women, we find that the risk of poverty is considerably greater for single parents (and their children) in most countries with the exception of Denmark, Finland, Latvia and especially Cyprus, where elderly women face a greater risk (see figure 10).

Figure 10. At risk of poverty rate (cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers), single parents and women 65+ years, 2007*



Source: Eurostat. EU-SILC; women 65+ - BG, RO, DE preliminary value; EU 27 preliminary and estimated value.

Employment alone is not enough to protect single parents from poverty. In many countries the high poverty rates experienced by lone mothers coexist with an employment rate which

matches or exceeds those of mothers in couple households yet still leaves lone mothers exposed to greater poverty risks (Fagan et al.2006). The risk of poverty for single parents is smallest in Denmark (17%), Finland (22%) and Sweden (24%), demonstrating that the Nordic welfare state and employment systems in these countries provide more social integration for single parents than occurs in other national policy settings. However, single parents in these countries are still economically disadvantaged compared with the situation of couple parent households and in Sweden also compared to elderly women. More than half of the single parents in Malta (54%) are at-risk-of-poverty, which is the highest rate, followed by Luxembourg (54%), Estonia and UK (44%), Lithuania (42%) and Ireland (40%).

Women in the EU MS, whether they are employed or unemployed, young or older, have a less secure life situation than men. Women face greater risk than men of falling into poverty and this is especially the case for women from more vulnerable or marginalised groups (migrant and ethnic minority women, disabled women). Entry into poverty mainly reflects family- and job-related events. For women family events (child-birth, divorce, widowhood) are very important.

Indicator 3. Inactivity by age and sex

1. share of women and men who are inactive by age
2. by share of inactive women and men who are not looking for a job for family care

An inactive person is a person who is not a member of the labour force. The concept “inactive” can be seen as based in a male norm; a person who is neither employed nor unemployed is called inactive. It does not however mean that persons, who are in this category, are inactive in general. They can for example be taking care of children or incapacitated adults, do domestic work or study.

The proportion of economically inactive women and men 15-24 years is between 60 and 80% in several countries, especially in the new MS while in the old MS the shares are lower (Eurostat, EU-LFS). Country differences arise from differences in national education systems and school leaving ages and from rates of unemployment (Rubery et al. 2004). Differences between women and men are limited. The gender gap in the share of inactive is lowest in Sweden (-1%), Finland (0%) and the Netherlands (1%) and highest in Slovenia, Latvia and Estonia (12%). The gap between inactive women and men in this age category might not necessarily be seen as a negative sign from women’s point of view, since a higher share of inactive women might be a result of women studying longer than men.

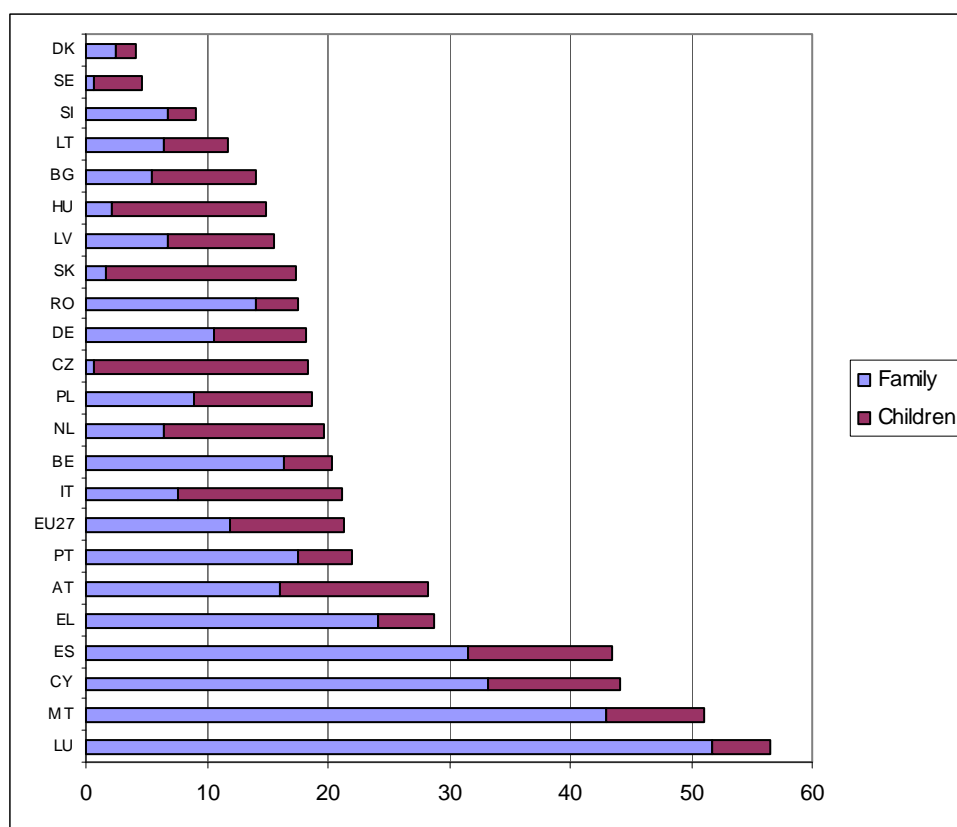
The share of inactive women in the age category 25-49 ranges from 10% in Slovenia and 52% in Malta and the gap between women and men differs between 3% in Slovenia and 48% in Malta (Eurostat, EU-LFS). It is in this age category we find the highest share of women and men in employment, but also where childcare responsibilities for women are most intensive. The gender inactivity gap is 15% in EU27; ranging from 3% in Slovenia to 48% in Malta.

In most EU-countries the retirement age is now the same for women as for men (Fagan et al. 2006 Table 3.6). Only Austria, the Czech Republic and Poland do not have an equal retirement age for men and women in place. The retirement age is set somewhere between 60 and 67 years, however, the average exit age of both sexes is almost universally lower than the official retirement age, especially for women. Retirement is an important reason as to why the share of inactive increases among persons aged 50-64. Also in this age category the disparity between countries is large. 20% of the women in Sweden are inactive, while the corresponding share in Malta is 83%. The gap between women and men is smallest in Finland (-1%) and largest in Malta (45%) (Eurostat, EU-LFS).

The indicator which might reflect women's economic vulnerability best, but which still is far from unproblematic, is the share of women outside the labour market and not looking for work of family or personal reasons and caring for children or incapacitated adults. Many of these women do not have any incomes of their own. In Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, the Netherlands, Italy, Sweden, Bulgaria and Latvia it is more common that women are outside the labour market because they take care of children or incapacitated adults than because of family or personal reasons, especially in Luxembourg, Malta, Cyprus, Spain and Greece it is the other way around (see figure 11).¹

¹ Data from Estonia, France, Ireland and UK are missing.

Figure 11 Share of women outside the labour market and not looking for work of family or personal reasons or caring for children or incapable adults, 15+ years, 2007*



Source: Eurostat. EU-LFS

* **Data** from Ireland and UK are missing in both categories. Data from Estonia and France are missing for family or personal reasons. Values uncertain for EU27, NL, RO, SK, UK.

Many women lack individual incomes and suffer from inadequate social protection. This is especially the case among migrant, ethnic minority and disabled women and this is one of the reasons why these groups of women face a higher risk of poverty.

Conclusions and future challenges

Both income inequality and poverty have risen over the past 20 years. A substantial shift in poverty has taken place, children and young adults are today more likely to be poor than the population as a whole. Women are more vulnerable to income poverty than men. This is especially the case for single mothers – a category which has grown substantially – older women, immigrant and ethnic minority women, long-term unemployed and inactive women. The gen-

dered division of work in families directly affects women's access to and participation in the labour market. The unequal sharing of work in families, together with persistent gender inequalities and discrimination in the labour market, have severe effects on women's poverty, including entitlements to social protection.

The connection between the strategic objectives A.3 and A.4 and the indicators are not easily detected, this is easier as far as strategic objectives A.1 and A.2. are concerned. But a greater problem might be that the indicators in this area do not directly measure women's poverty. Statistics on women's poverty are inadequate due to the lack of regular data on women's own earnings and economic contributions to family income and access to and control over income and family resources. In the two first indicators the household is seen as an entity, if the household instead is perceived as consisting of a collection of individuals, the possibility of different risks of poverty among its members becomes visible. Indicators capturing incomes with figures given for individuals rather than for households as a whole are needed.

Employment is a key factor for social inclusion and offers the most important means of escaping poverty. Being employed and earning wages are crucial for the economic independence of women and men, but also having equal access to the social security system and to own and/or control assets such as land and housing.

The MS and the European Commission have made a commitment to make a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty by 2010, considering that building a more inclusive European Union is an essential element in achieving the Union's ten-year strategic goal of sustained economic growth, more and better jobs and greater social cohesion, in the context of the Lisbon Strategy (2000), and also recalling the Council's invitation to the MS at Barcelona in March 2002 to set targets "for significantly reducing the numbers of people at risk of poverty and social exclusion". Against the background of rising income inequality and poverty especially in some categories and the economic and financial crisis extra efforts are needed to make a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty by 2010.

Women and the Economy

Presentation of the strategic objectives (from the Platform for Action)

The theme of women and the economy was made critical area of concern F by the Beijing action platform. It was linked as follows to six strategic objectives:

- F.1 Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources
- F.2 Facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade.
- F.3 Provide business services, training and access to markets, information and technology, particularly to low-income women.
- F.4 Strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks.
- F.5 Eliminate occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination.
- F.6 Promote harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.

Availability and relevance of EU wide indicators:

EU has identified ten indicators for measuring the integration of women in the economy:

- Indicator 1. Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement between the social partners on parental leave, as a proportion of all employed parents.
- Indicator 2. Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave.
- Indicator 3. Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group: before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day); in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).
- Indicator 4. Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women (including for example, a description of available child care facilities, parental leave and flexible working arrangements of services offered by companies for their employees and of flexible opening hours of public services such as local authority offices, post offices, crèches and shops).
- Indicator 5. Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: living in specialised institutions; who have help (other than the family) at home; looked after by the family as a proportion of men and women over 75.
- Indicator 6. Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).
- Indicator 7. Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent: paid working time; travelling time;

basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).

- Indicator 8. Employment rates (women and men)
- Indicator 9. Unemployment rates (women and men)
- Indicator 10. The gap between women's and men's gross hourly wages, breakdown in private/public sector, in age 16-24, 25-54, 55-64, in educational level and monthly wage.

The strategic objectives are expressed in terms of policies, while the indicators are spoken about as outcomes, i.e. the indicators measure outcomes rather than the strategies by which they are achieved. This is in line with the nature of the open method of co-ordination, whereby MS agree on objectives but are left free to choose the policies by which these objectives are to be met. In some cases it is possible to see the connection between the strategic objective and the indicator, e.g. F.1 and F.2 and Indicator 8 and 9, and F.6 and Indicator 1 and 2. It is harder to relate F.3, F.4 and F.5 directly to any of the indicators.

There are data available for all the indicators except indicator 5 however some are not unproblematic, which will be discussed in connection with the closer presentation of the indicator. Also in this area the indicators measure outcomes rather than the strategies by which they are achieved.

Trends emerging of the European wide data:

Indicator 1. Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement between the social partners on parental leave, as a proportion of all employed parents.

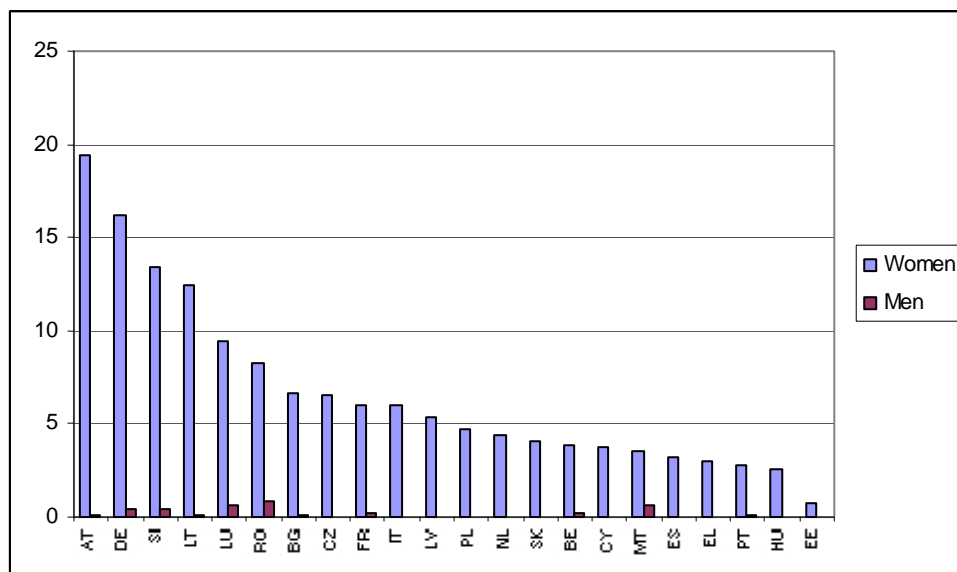
Following the 1996 European Directive, all employed parents have a right to at least three months' unpaid leave at the birth of a child. This leave is separate from maternity leave for mothers and from paternity leave for fathers where it exists; maternity leave varies between 14 and 20 weeks depending on the country, and is always paid (at 60 to 100% of prior salary) (Council of European Union 16595/08). In certain countries, maternity leave is integrated into parental leave (Sweden) or may be shared with the father (Spain).

An overview of the situation in the EU reveals wide diversity in parental leave in terms of both duration and payment. Parental leave varies from 13/14 weeks (the minimum) in the United Kingdom and Ireland to three years in ten EU27 countries, of which a majority are new MS (CZ,

DE, EE, ES, FR, HU, LT, LV, PL, SK). It is unpaid in seven countries, of which six are old MS (CY, ES, EL, IE, NL, PT, UK); paid at a low rate in seven more (AT, BE, CZ, DE, FR, PL, SK); and paid for the whole duration or a defined part of the parental leave as a percentage of previous salary in nine (BG, DE, DK, FI, LT, LU, RO, SE, SI).

Eurostat have published some data on employed men and women on maternity and parental leave, but data are not available for all countries and the data, especially concerning fathers seem uncertain and in some cases not correct. For employed women with children below 8 years, the highest proportion is found in Austria, almost 20% (see figure 12). In three more countries is the share higher than 10%, while in five countries the proportion is less than 4%. The proportion of employed fathers with children below the age of 8 on parental leave is in no country higher than 1% and in most cases 0%.

Figure 12. Employed women and men on maternity and parental leave as a proportion of all employed parents, 2006'



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

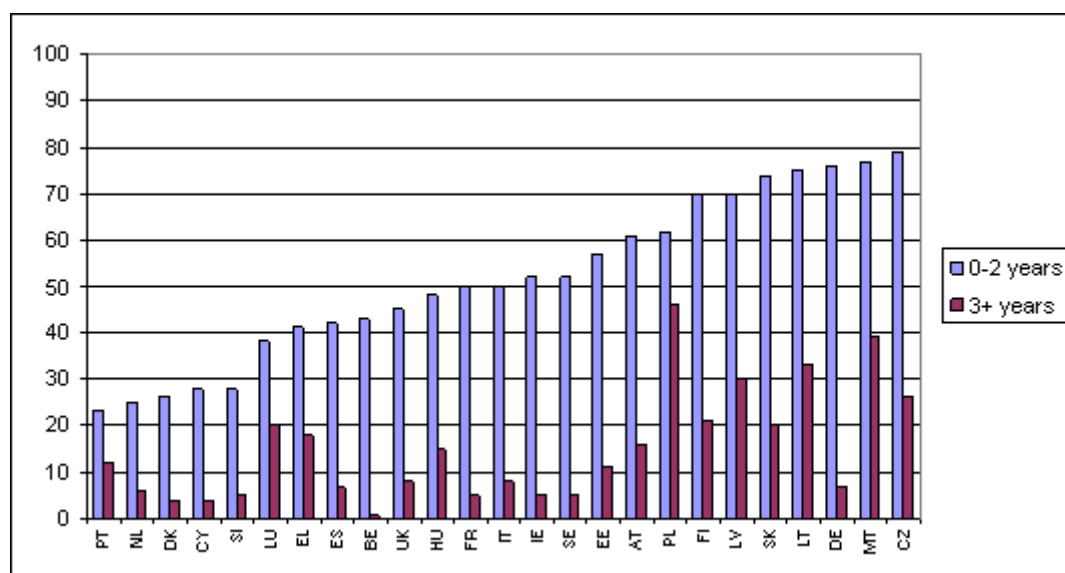
Data for DK, FI, SE, UK are missing.

Indicator 2. Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave.

Many countries are today in different ways encouraging fathers to take parental leave, however, regardless of the system in place, parental leave remains very female-dominated. The uncertainty of the data and, at least in some cases, they are not correct and are therefore at this stage unsuitable to use for indicator 2. Yet a general preliminary conclusion is that when parental leave is more equally divided between the parents, it is because mothers' leaves are short, not because of any equality gains because fathers' leaves are long. In many countries fathers have a right to paternity leave, around the time of birth to nurture their infants and to support the mother through the demands related to childbirth and caring. This leave is often paid and to be taken at the same time as the mother is on maternity leave. When the fathers use these days, which seems to be common, and mothers' leave is short, the proportion of all parental leave used by the father is more gender equally divided than when mother's leave is longer.

There are also EU-SILC data, which show the proportion of children of all children only taken care of the parents, i.e. which means that they are cared for mainly by their mothers and are not in any formal or other arrangement of childcare. In this respect there are big differences between the EU-countries. In five countries less than 30% of the children aged 0-3 are only taken care of by parents; in six countries between 30 and 50% are only being taken care of by parents; in five countries more than half the children but less than 70% are only taken care by parents and in the remaining six countries 70% or more of the children are only taken care of by parents (see figure 13). The size of the share of children in this age group that is only taken care of by the parents, probably mainly depends on the length of the maternity/parental leave, to which degree it is paid and the availability of childcare. In the Nordic countries formal childcare is widely available. In Finland where parents can be on leave until the child is three years old a very big share of the children in that age group is taken care of only by the parents (70%), in Sweden parental leave is 16 months and more than half (52%) of the children are only taken care of by their parents and in Denmark corresponding figures are 10.5 months and 26%.

Figure 13. Children 0-2 years and 3 to compulsory school age, only taken care of by parents, 2006



Source: Eurostat. EU-SILC

Also among bigger children – 3 years to compulsory school age – the variation in the share of children who are only taken care of by their parents is large between countries from 1% in Belgium to 46% in Poland. In twelve countries, mostly old MS, the share is below 10%; in seven countries between 10% up to and including 20%; over 20 percent in six countries, mainly new MS.

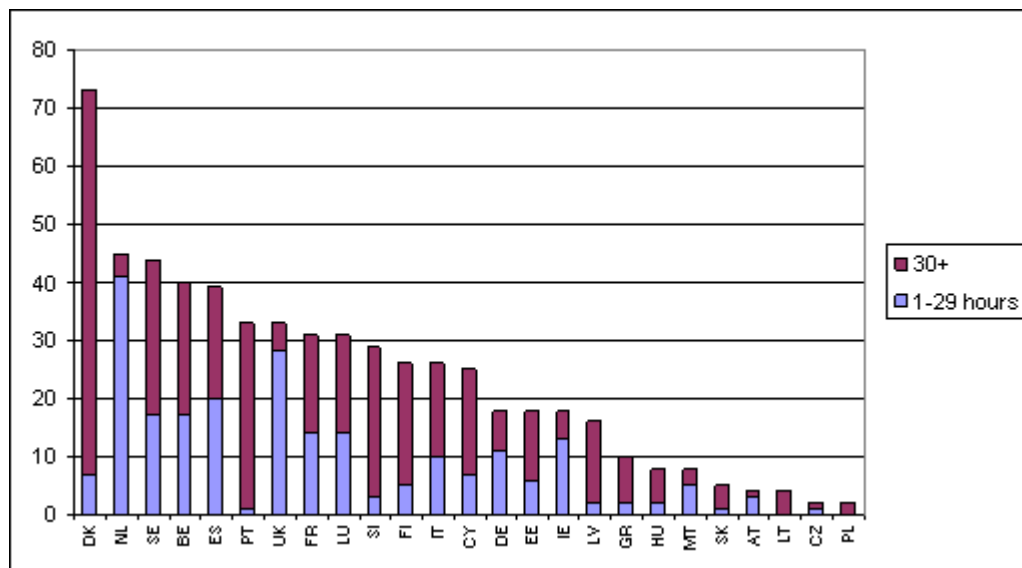
Indicator 3. Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group: before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day); in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).

There are harmonised EU statistics on the provision of (formal and other) childcare arrangements within the context of the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (SILC). However, in these data pre-school and education at compulsory school are included in formal childcare together with child care at centre-based services outside school hours and child care at day care centre, which means that data includes more children than the indicator asks for.

At the Barcelona summit in 2002 childcare targets were set. Member States should strive to provide childcare by 2010 to at least 90% of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age and at least 33% of children below 3 years of age.

Available, accessible, affordable and high quality childcare is extremely important for working parents. Throughout EU the availability of childcare differs extensively. Data indicate that some countries have widespread formal childcare arrangements, whereas others rely on more informal arrangements such as childminders, family, friends and neighbours. In the age category 0-2 years-olds, the use of formal childcare arrangements varies from 73% in Denmark to 2% in Poland and the Czech Republic. It appears that nine old MS have met the Barcelona target of at least 33% of children under 3 years of age in childcare (see figure 14).

Figure 14. Share of children 0-2 years in formal childcare, 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2006*

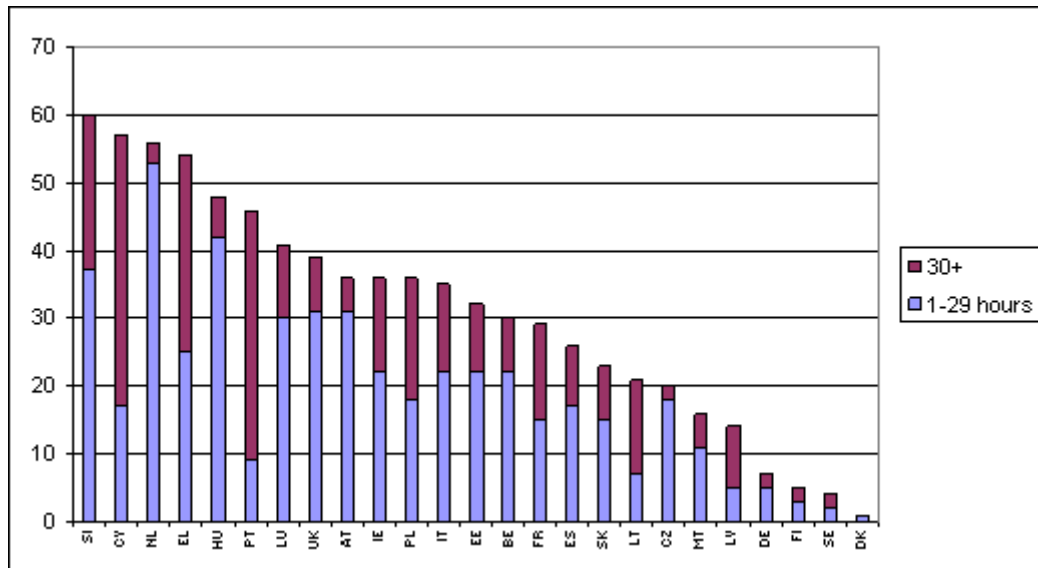


Source: Eurostat EU-SILC. Data for BG and RO are missing

* **Formal childcare** = education at pre-school, child care at centre-based services outside school hours and child care at day care centre

One problem is that it is not known to what extent formal childcare arrangements are compatible with both parents working. In the Netherlands and in UK for example a very big proportion of the children in formal childcare attend less than 30 hours per week, while in Denmark and Portugal a very big majority of the children are in formal childcare 30 hours or more. In some countries other arrangements of child care are more common than formal child care in this age group (see figure 15). If the share of children in formal and other arrangements and children only cared for by the parents are added, the share in some countries amounts to more than 100%, which indicates that parents in some countries have to rely on more than one form of child care.

Figure 15. Share of children 0-2 years in other arrangements of child care, 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2006*

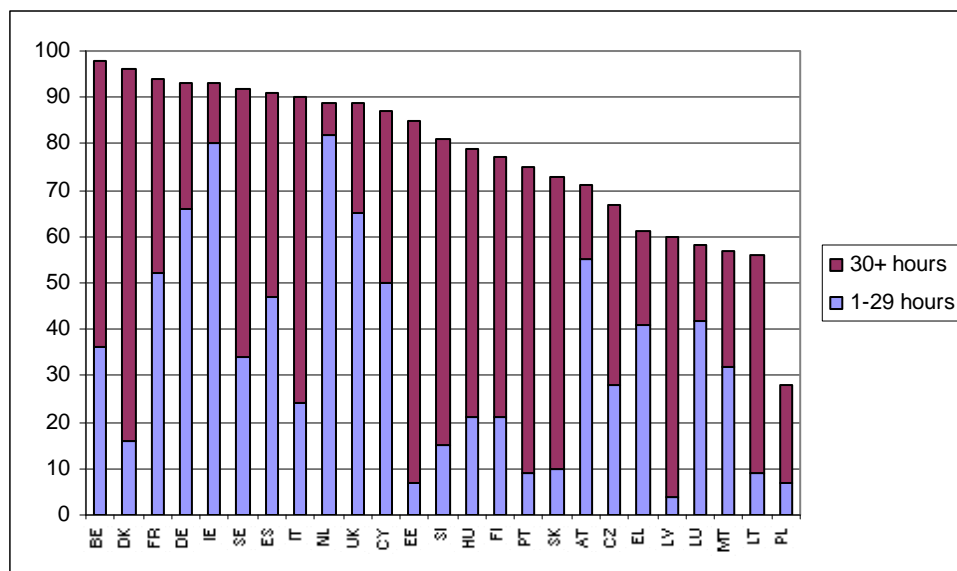


Source: Eurostat EU-SILC, Data for BG and RO are missing.

* Other arrangements are child care by a professional child-minder at child's home or at child-minder's home or child care by grand-parents, other household members (outside parents), other relatives, friends or neighbours

The availability of formal care arrangements increases with increasing age of children. Within the age category 3 to obligatory school age, Belgium ranks highest with a use of formal child-care of almost 100% (see figure 16). At the other end is Poland with 28%. According to the Barcelona target the actual coverage rate should be at least 90% in 2010. It seems as if eight MS meet the Barcelona target and two are very close, all are EU15-countries. When interpreting this figures, it has to be taken into account that in most countries, pre-school is only part-time, which means that working parents still need additional childcare facilities which may be much less available and which means that children have to be moved from one place to another. In many countries also a majority of the children in this group are in formal childcare less than 30 hours. This indicates that the mothers are not working full-time.

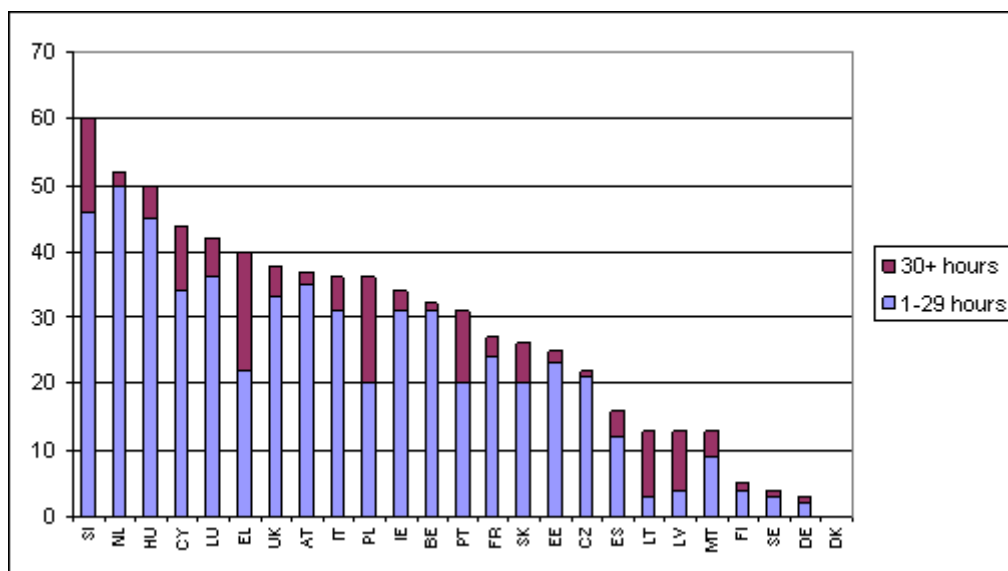
Figure 16. Share of children 3 years to obligatory school age, 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2006*



* **Formal childcare** = education at pre-school, child care at centre-based services outside school hours and child care at day care centre

It should be emphasised that the high availability of childcare in this age group to a large extent is due to the inclusion of pre-school arrangements under the heading of formal arrangements. The data therefore overestimates the number of children in non-compulsory pre-schools in relation to the indicator. Also in this age category we find that many parents have to rely on other childcare arrangements or a combination of formal and other arrangements (see figure 17). Although in the Nordic countries formal childcare – together with parents' care - seems to cover the needs in both age categories, while in Slovenia, the Netherlands, Hungary and Cyprus, parents rely heavily on other child care arrangements.

Figure 17. Share of children 3 years to compulsory school age in other arrangements of child care, 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2006*



Source: Eurostat EU-SILC, Data for BG and RO are missing.

* Other arrangements are child care by a professional child-minder at child's home or at child-minder's home or child care by grand-parents, other household members (outside parents), other relatives, friends or neighbours

Indicator 4. Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women (including for example, a description of available child care facilities, parental leave and flexible working arrangements of services offered by companies for their employees and of flexible opening hours of public services such as local authority offices, post offices, crèches and shops).

This indicator is the only proposing a qualitative approach based on the MS implementing policies in favour of work-life balance. The evaluation report drawn up by the French Presidency relied on work by experts in the European Commission's gender and employment network, who produced *Reconciliation of work and family life* (Plantenga and Remery 2006) based on national reports. In this +15 follow up of the Beijing Platform of Action is only referred to this publication and to the summary presented by the French Presidency for further information (Council of European Union 16595/08).

Indicator 5. Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: living in specialised institutions; who have help (other than the family) at home; looked after by the family as a proportion of men and women over 75.

Harmonised data covering this indicator for the EU-countries are not available. However, data taken from different sources are presented by the French Presidency (Council of European Union 16595/08) which gives some information of the situation in some of the EU15 countries, regarding help for aged persons who lose their self-sufficiency. The lack of data is indicative of the weak institutional provision for such care. Available data seem to show that recourse to institutions in most countries is low. In France 1%, Austria 2%, UK 4%, Netherlands 5% of dependent persons live in institutions. In Germany however the corresponding number is 28% and in Luxembourg 45%. Other data show that 96% of the dependent elderly people are supported by their families in France, 95% in Spain, 87% in Italy, 83% in Germany and 79% in the Netherlands and Sweden. The involvement of children is higher when the parent has no spouse. In Spain and Italy is this involvement very high. Italian sons are almost as involved as daughters.

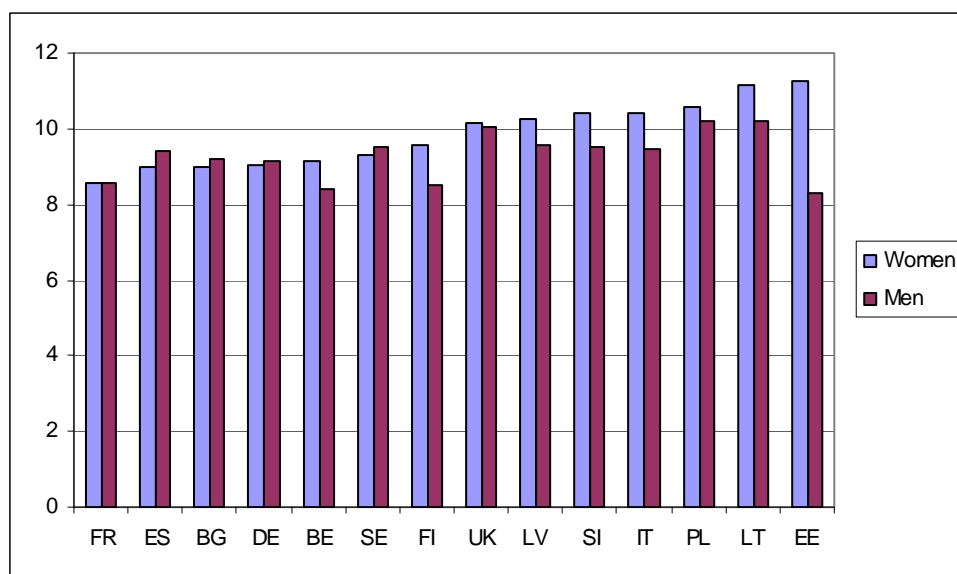
An investigation of the new MS and the dependent elderly shows that the new MS have not yet been confronted by the problem of elderly dependency on the same scale as EU-15 countries (Mette 2006). The provision of care for the dependent elderly appears better in Malta and Slovenia than in the other countries. They have a high number of long-term care beds and nurses per inhabitant, Poland also appears better placed than most of the other new MS and spend a considerable share of GDP on the aged, has a higher number of long-term care beds. The three Baltic States are distinguishable from the others in that the GDP share allocated to the dependent elderly is low despite the fact they are expected to be among the countries with the oldest population in the coming decades.

Indicator 6. Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).

There are no harmonised data on time-use for EU27. However, there is a database which emanates from the harmonised European time use surveys, HETUS. A database with comparable or almost comparable data representing 14 EU countries (plus Norway) has been put together. Data are, however, not broken down to children up to the age of 12. The data breaks down into children 0-6 and 7-17 years.

Average “tied time” (paid working time + domestic work time + travelling time) differs from close to 9 hours to 11 hours and 15 minutes per day for mothers in different countries. The longest tied time is found in the new MS and in Italy (see figure 18). The gender gap in “tied time” is biggest in Estonia, where it is almost 3 hours. Among couples with pre-school children men’s tied time is slightly longer than women’s in Germany, Spain, Sweden, Bulgaria and France.

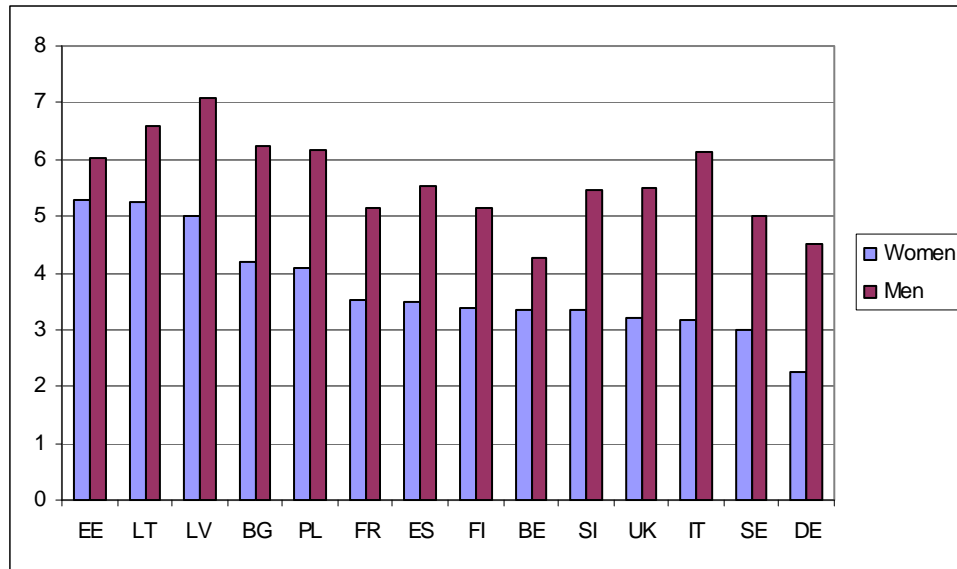
Figure 18. Total “tied time”, working couples with children 0-6 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-39

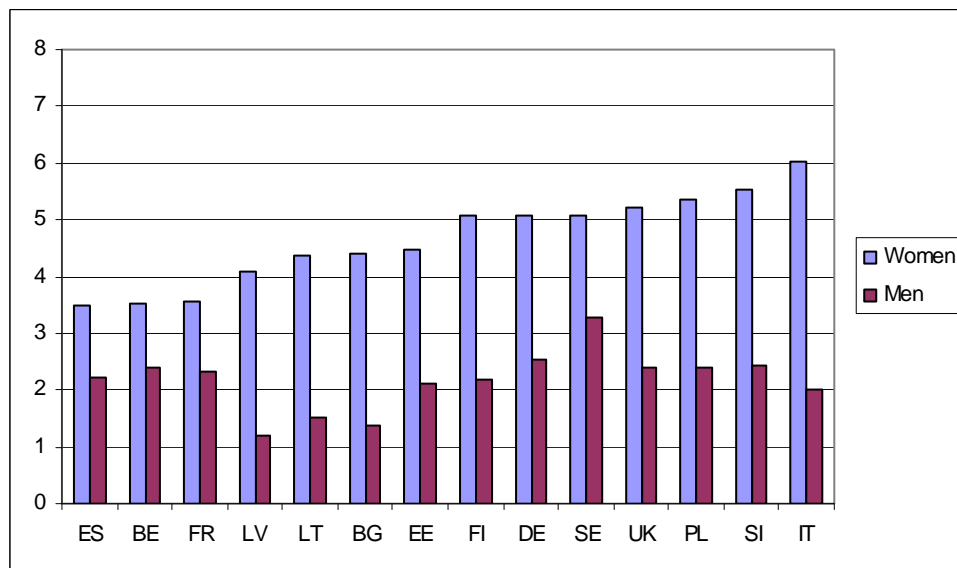
The reason why women’s tied time is long in the Baltic States is that their paid working time is long, while this is not the case in Italy. There women instead spend a lot of time on domestic work (see figures 19 and 20). The time women and men spend on travelling do not differ very much in most countries, but men usually men spend more time travelling than women (Council of European Union 16595/08).

Figure 19. Time spent on paid work, working couples with children 0-6 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-39

Figure 20. Time spent on domestic work, working couples with children 0-6 years, 2006



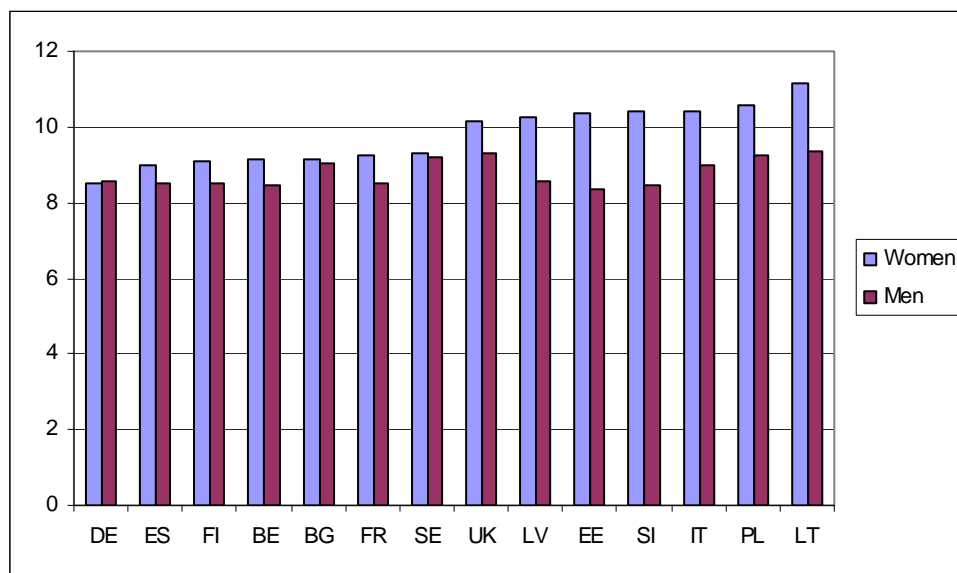
Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-39

Interesting is that two countries, which are usually shown to have high employment rates in labour force surveys, Sweden and the UK, mothers' employment according to the time use studies is much more modest. Swedish employed pre-school mothers work slightly fewer hours

on average and UK-mothers slightly more hours than their Italian counterparts. The reason behind this might be that in Sweden and UK both mothers with a high educational level and a low are employed and many work part-time, while in Italy mainly women with high education and working full-time are employed.

Among working couples with older children, tied time for women differs between around 9 hours and 11 hours and 15 minutes (see figure 21). In this category, women's tied time is longer than men's in all countries. The gender gap pattern is otherwise very similar; long tied time for women and the reasons for the same as in the families with smaller children. Also in this category Swedish and UK mothers, but also Finnish mothers work fewer hours on average for pay than Italian mothers. Mothers in this category spend less time doing domestic work than mothers with pre-school children. The number of hours varies between 3 hours to 4.5 hours, while pre-school mothers spend between 3.5 to 6 hours on the same tasks. In both categories, however, the gender gap is about the same size; from slightly more than 1 hour to more than 3 hours. In all countries men spend more time travelling, but the differences between women and men are small.

Figure 21. Total "tied time", working couples with children 7-17 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-39

Unpaid care work is one of the biggest barriers to gender equality and affects their ability to participate in the labour market on the same terms as men. Men tend to work longer average hours in paid employment than women EU-wide, with women working shorter hours in paid

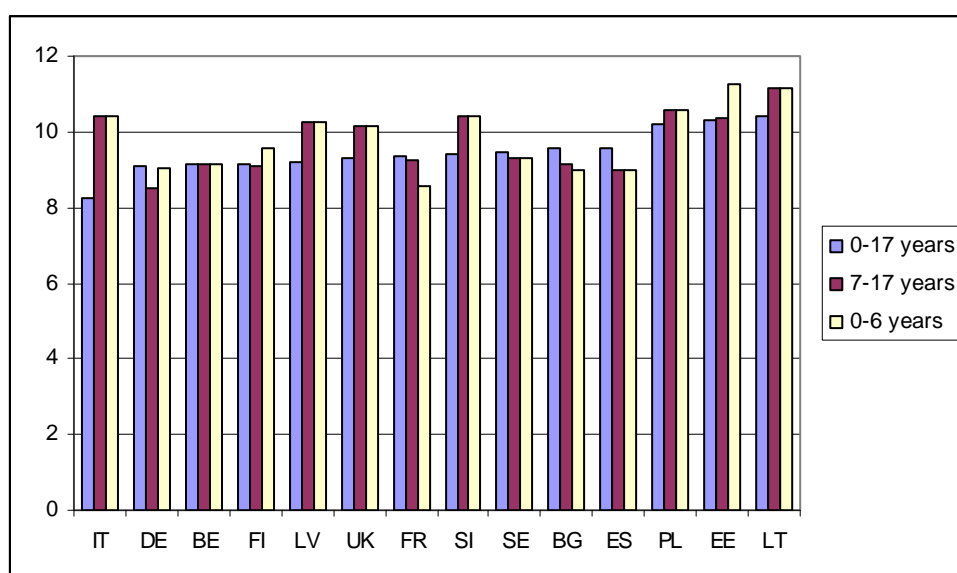
employment in all countries. This is both a cause and effect of sex stereotypes about men's breadwinner role and women's care-giving role, reinforcing existing divisions of labour.

Indicator 7. Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work.

The same data are used here as for indicator 6, however, since the number of single fathers is so low, only four countries have information about them. Instead single working mother time use is compared with married/cohabiting working mothers. The children in the first category are 0-17 years of age and in the second category either 0-6 or 7-17 years of age, which means that the groups are not altogether comparable.

In most countries single mothers' total tied time is lower than cohabiting/married mothers', which might be surprising (see figure 22) We might assume that if there are two parents they can share the work with the children and also paid work, however, it might also be that a man in the house means more domestic work for the mother but maybe less time spent on paid work.

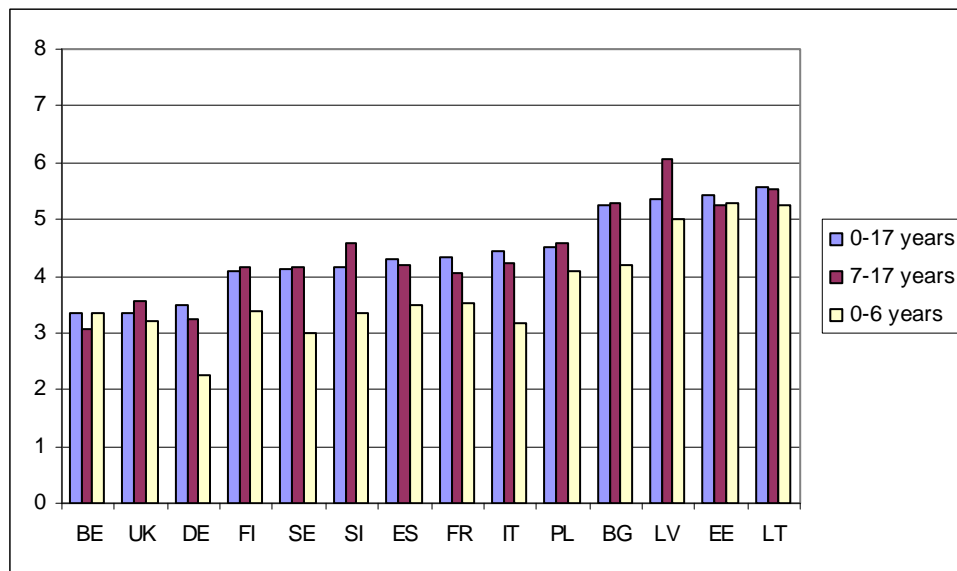
Figure 22. Total "tied time", working single mothers with children 0-17 years, working married/cohabiting mothers with children 0-6 years and 7-17 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-41

There are differences of how long time mothers in different countries spend on paid work, less in the old MS, especially Belgium, UK and Germany, and longer in the new MS, and especially in the Baltic states (see figure 23). In most countries the disparity between single mothers and cohabiting mothers with children 7-17 years of age is on average small, cohabiting/married mothers with pre-school children usually work shorter hours for pay.

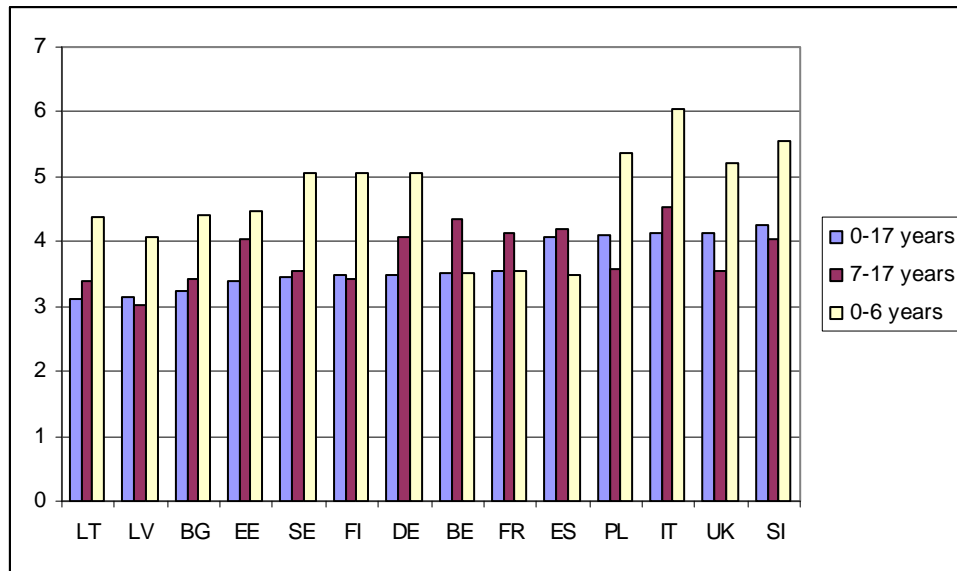
Figure 23. Time spent on paid work, working single mothers with children 0-17 years, working married/cohabiting mothers with children 0-6 years and 7-17 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-41

If we instead look at the time spent doing domestic work, we find that in most countries single mothers use less time on these tasks than mothers with school children, while pre-school mothers in most countries use more time (see figure 24).

Figure 24. Time spent on domestic work, working single mothers with children 0-17 years, working married/cohabiting mothers with children 0-6 years and 7-17 years, 2006



Source: Council of European Union 16595/08 p. 38-41

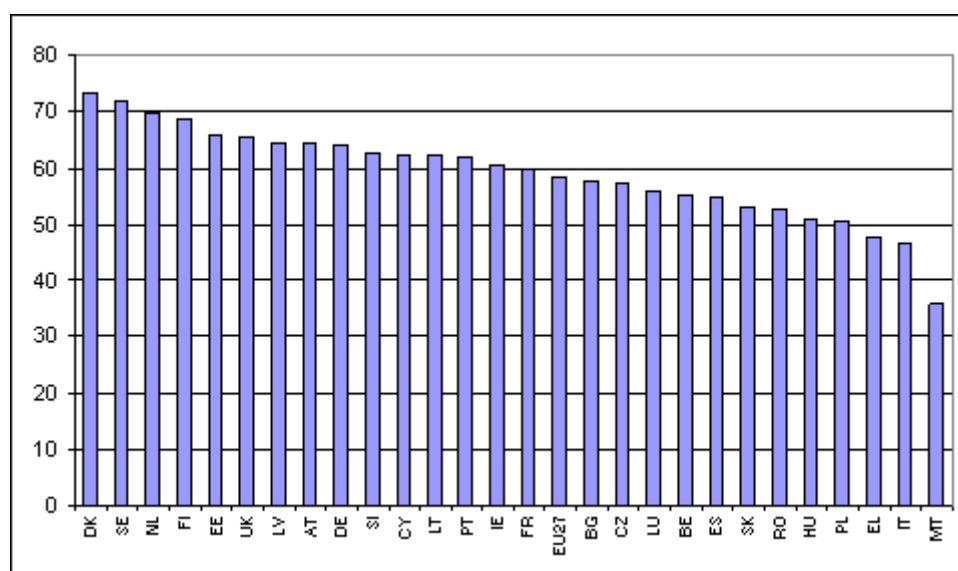
Indicator 8. Employment rates (women and men).

Data used are from the Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and show the number of employed persons aged 15-64 in percent of the total population in the same age category. It should be pointed out, that comparisons of headcount measures of employment by gender overestimate women's employment and underestimate the gender employment gap in all countries, as they take no account of the higher incidence of part-time employment and absence from work for women. Another way to consider gender gaps in employment is to calculate these on a full-time equivalent basis. Such a measure takes into account the gender distribution of part-time work which could be considered to be a key indicator of gender equality. If the gender employment gap is measured in headcount employment rate it is 14 percentage points in EU27, in full-time equivalents it amounts to 20 percentage points (Villa and Smith 2009 p. 23). In some ways, the availability of part-time work has facilitated reconciliation of work and parenthood. However, in most countries, part-time work remains "women's work", thus reinforcing the traditional sexual division of labour.

The Lisbon European Council of 2000 specifically stated that the overall aim of employment and economic policies should be to raise the employment rate to as close to 70% as possible by 2010 and to increase the employment rate for women to more than 60% by the same year.

In 2007, 15 MS met the 2010 employment rate target for women (AT, CY, DE, DK, FI, FR, IE, LT, LV, NL, PT, SE, SI, UK). Among the remaining MS, the gap remains above 10 percentage points in Greece and Italy and as high as 24 percentage points in Malta (see figure 25). If the total employment rate in EU is to reach 70% by 2010 and women's employment rate 60%, then men's employment rate has to be closer to 80%. However, only three countries have reached 80% or more for men (CY, DK, NL), while eight have not reached 70%; six new and two old MS (BE, BG, FR, HU, LT, PL, RO, SK).

Figure 25. Employment rate, women, 15-64 years, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

The gender employment gap varies from 3.6 percentage points in Finland to 37.2 percentage points in Malta. The gap is smallest in the Nordic and Baltic countries and biggest in Southern European countries. Women have accounted for the greatest growth in employment both in relative and absolute terms. This reflects the recent trend of rising labour market participation of women, for whom activity rates on the EU27 level have increased from 54.4% in 2000, 55.5% in 2004 and 58.3% in 2007. Between 2000 and 2007, the growth has been strongest in Spain, Bulgaria and Latvia, where women's employment rate has increased with more than 10 percentage points (EU-LFS). The two first mentioned countries started from a low level and have not yet reached the EU-goal of 60%. In some countries, the gap has closed due to a massive entry or re-entry into the labour market of women of all ages, whereas in others the changes are concentrated around child-rearing age, as a growing proportion of women combine paid work with raising children.

The increase in women's employment rate has been much smaller in for example Poland, Slovakia and Hungary, countries with relative low employment rates for women. But also in countries with high employment rates for women such as Sweden, Denmark and United Kingdom the increase has been small. One reason for this is of course in the last mentioned countries that a high share of women already is in employment, but also since the data concern women 15-64 years of age, women are studying longer and enter the labour market later today than earlier. It may also be more difficult for migrant women and women with low educational level to be able to enter the labour market. Additionally the gender employment gap has been narrowing because men's employment rate has decreased.

The relative growth in part-time employment among women has been substantial. The extended availability of part-time jobs has facilitated the participation of women in particular by allowing them to combine work and family responsibilities better, although it should also be recognised that part-time work may have lower wages, fewer fringe benefits and career possibilities than full-time jobs, and reflects to a certain degree the unavailability of full-time work; i.e. part-time employment also creates underemployment. The rise in women's employment rate in the EU27 between 2000 and 2007 may come to a sudden halt as a result of the drastic economic changes commenced in 2008. Forecasts based on earlier trends need to be revised and gains made against employment rate targets might be at risk.

Indicator 9. Unemployment rates (women and men).

Data for unemployment are taken from the Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and show the number of unemployed persons aged 15-64 in percent of the labour force in the same age category. The unemployment rate underestimates women's unemployment since it does not take into account that people can also for example be part-time unemployed. Labour market data are employment and male biased; a person who works one hour in a week is counted as employed even if that person is unemployed 39 hours in the same week. Many more women than men are part-time employed and therefore also more often part-time unemployed.

In most MS the unemployment rates are higher for women than for men. Women's unemployment ranges from less than 4% in the Netherlands to almost 13% in Greece, while men's varies from less than 3% in the Netherlands to almost 10% in Slovakia. In six MS unemployment is higher for men than for women (DE, EE, IE, LV, RO, UK) and in one (LT) the level is the same; in the rest of the countries women's unemployment is higher than men's. In general, where there is a high level of unemployment for women there also tends to be a high level of unemployment for men; examples here include Poland, Slovakia, France and Germany. In

contrast there are much greater gender gaps in the high female unemployment countries such as Greece, Spain and Italy.

Unemployment has been falling in most countries between 2000 and 2007 for both women and men. Gender gaps in unemployment rates have also been narrowing with 0.8 percentage points in EU27. The main exceptions to this pattern are Lithuania, Slovakia and Hungary, where the gender gaps have widened by 2 percentage points or more. On the other hand in Spain, Cyprus, Italy, Poland, France and Greece the gap has closed with more than 2 percentage points.

Low-skilled workers are having ever greater problems in finding jobs and the decline in unemployment rates in EU27 can be expected to change into rising unemployment rates as a result of the economic and financial crisis.

Indicator 10: The gap between women's and men's gross hourly wages, breakdown in age 16-24, 25-54, 55-64, in educational level and monthly wage.

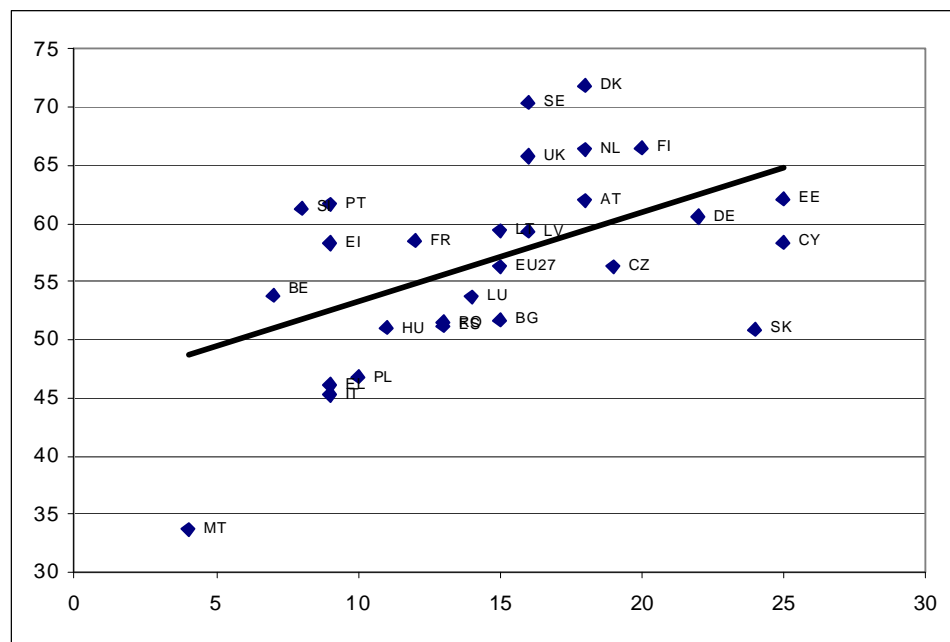
The most reliable source with respect to harmonised gender pay gap data are based on the Structure of Earnings Survey (SES).ⁱⁱ The gender pay gap in unadjusted form represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male employees. It is not possible to portray this indicator fully since at present no data are available for education and sector and the age categorisation is not the one asked for.

At the level of the EU-27, the gender pay gap was slightly bigger than 17% in 2007. There is a for women negative gender pay gap in all countries. The largest gap is found in Estonia (30%), the smallest in Italy (4%). Some countries seem not to be doing very well on this indicator, the gap is more than 20% (AT, CY, CZ, DE, EL, NL, SK, UK), others score more favourably; the gap is less than 10% (BE, MT, PL, PT, SI).

Yet, a narrow gender pay gap may not mean a better labour market situation for women than a larger gender pay gap (OECD 2002). The reason for this is that highly educated and better paid women are employed to a high extent in almost all countries. This is not the case with women with lower education and less pay. The differences between countries are much greater in this last mentioned category; in some countries the employment rate is relatively high in others quite low. This means that a narrow gender pay gap may be related to a modest total employment rate for women in some countries and a wider gender pay gap connected to a higher

employment rate among women in other countries (see figure 26). The composition of the labour force is therefore important in explaining cross-country differences in the gender pay gap.

Figure 26. Women's employment rate and gender pay gap, 2005



Source: Employment - Eurostat EU-LFS; gender wage gap Eurostat, ECHP

The gender pay gap is lower among the young and tends to widen with age. On EU27 level, women aged 0-29 years earn 96% of men's wage, then there is a large drop to 82% among the 30-39-year-olds, to 76% among 40-49-year-olds and then it more or less stops there. However, the situation is not the same in all countries. In three countries (IT, MT, RO) the wage difference between 50-59-year old women and men is narrower than among the 0-29-year-olds. This may be related to the fact that women's employment rate is low in Malta and Italy and in Romania it has decreased between the late 1990s and 2006. As already pointed out, when women's employment rate is low, this usually means that women with high education and high wages are employed, while this is not so common among women with low education. Similarly a decrease in women's employment rate might mean that women with low education and low wages are leaving the labour market and the gender wage gap narrows. In all three countries therefore the fact that older women are doing slightly better in relation to men than younger women might be explained by the fact that women in the labour market in these countries to a higher extent are highly educated and highly paid.

On the other hand the gender wage gap widens considerably with age in the Netherlands, Germany and Ireland. In the age group 0-29 the size of women's wages are close to men's wages, but in the age category 50-59 the gaps are 25, 22 and 21 percentage points respectively. This may be related to strong increase in employment for women between 1995 and 2006 in these countries (IE 19, DE 8.7, NL 15.8 percentage points), which probably means that many women with low education and low wages of all ages have entered the labour market.

Contrary to popular belief, women's lower educational qualifications and intermittent labour market participation are not the main reasons for the gender pay gap. The gap is in fact a visible symptom of factors such as the existence and persistence of gender stereotypes, occupational segregation and the wage structure. Women and men tend to work in different occupations and economic sectors, women are penalised for that, while men are benefiting. The extent of the penalty differs although depending on the wage structure; a more inequitable wage structure is likely to widen the gender pay gap and a compressed wage structure to diminish it. There is no clear difference between the new and the old MS.

The gender pay gap should be expected to narrow since women are rapidly catching up and surpassing men's educational attainment. Today women also have shorter periods of employment absence, more women are found as managers and in status occupations than earlier. However, at the same time wage differences in general are widening and there is a trend towards a more decentralised and individualised wage setting system. Over a longer period of time the pay gap has been narrowing in most countries, but this is no guarantee that this will be the case in the future.

Conclusions and future challenges

It is possible to see the connection between some of the strategic objectives and the indicators for others that is more difficult. In this area there are also problems in the relation between the indicators and the data available, which has been discussed above. Data in order to measure the indicators in the area Women in the economy need to be improved.

All employed parents have a right to at least three months' unpaid leave at the birth of the child. This leave is separate from maternity leave for mothers and paternity leave for fathers, where it exists. Several MS have introduced measures in order to improve the right to, or to increase the take up of, leave by fathers. However, women's take-up is much greater than men's in all countries, which means that parental leave is not always benefiting gender equality. Long

parental leave periods, used only by mothers, may reduce female labour force participation and damage future career paths and earnings.

Member States have made commitments to improve the provision of childcare and pre-school facilities. Nine MS meet the childcare target of 33% coverage rate for the age-group from 0-3 years. For children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age, eight countries have surpassed the 90% coverage rate. In many countries a high proportion of childcare facilities operate on a part-time basis only and opening hours are not always compatible with employment, especially not with full-time work. As far as elderly care is concerned there is a weak provision of institutional provision of such care. This has gender implications since the majority of the elderly is women as well as the majority of the informal providers of care to the elderly.

Both work and family are changing. Women have moved into the public world of paid work in most countries, but in general this has not been accompanied by men assuming responsibilities for domestic and care work. The survey of time allocation between women and men confirms the unequal sharing of paid and unpaid work. Average “tied time” is in most countries longer for women than for men and this seems to be the case especially in the new MS, which seems related to women’s long paid working hours. In most countries single mothers’ total tied time is lower than cohabiting/married mothers. The difference in paid working time is small, while single mothers spend less time on domestic work.

Progress has been made in recent years in the employment area. Employment rates have risen for women, thereby bringing the EU closer to the Lisbon targets. Unemployment has come down considerably, and the overall employment rate has been growing strongly. However, the economic outlook has changed markedly owing to the financial and economic crisis and evidence suggests that the situation is expected to deteriorate.

Pay differentials remain one of the most persistent forms of inequality between women and men. This is disappointing in the light of women’s educational achievements and the gradual closing of the gender gap in work experience. Various factors contribute to the gap, and it is difficult to distinguish between pay differences resulting from different labour market characteristics and those due to indirect or direct discrimination, including societal differences in the evaluation of work in male- and female dominated sectors and occupations.

Although it can be noted that the European Institutions and the MS have increased their efforts to promote equal opportunities for women and men in employment and to encourage fathers to take a greater responsibility in childcare, most of the gender gaps are still there. Women

experience systematic barriers in almost every aspect of work – this ranges from whether they have paid work at all, if they work full-time or part-time; the type of work they obtain or are excluded from; the availability of childcare; their wages, benefits and conditions of work; the absence of equitable pension entitlements. Discrimination is more acute in the case of women who are multiply disadvantaged by factors such as race, ethnicity or indigenous or disability status.

Action is needed to eliminate the gender pay gap, although part-time work is a solution for some women, the problems of part-time work and underemployment need also to be addressed. Additionally it is fundamental that family responsibilities be equally distributed between women and men. Men need to take greater responsibility for, and carry out much more of the domestic and care work. The unequal gender division of labour hinders gender equality both in the labour market and in the household. In order to reduce gender inequality the gender gaps in employment, working time, wages, domestic work, child and elderly care need to be eliminated, thereby making sure that women as well as men are capable of being in employment and earning wages that keep them and their families out of poverty.

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i The household's total disposable income is taken to be the total net monetary income by the household and its members. This includes all income from work, private income from investment and property, plus all social cash transfers received including old-age pensions, not of any taxes and social contributions paid. The ECHP income data does not include some resources which are major determinants of living standards for some groups (receipts in kind, transfers paid to other households, imputed rent or interest payments). The income figures are scaled according to household composition (1 for the first adult, 0.5 for any other household member aged 14 and over and 0.3 for each child aged under 14). The resulting figure is attributed to each household member whether adult or child (Fagan et al. 2006 p. 51).

ii The unadjusted gender pay gap represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees. From 2006 onwards, the GPG data is based on the methodology of the Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) carried out with a four-yearly periodicity. The most recent available reference years are 2002 and 2006 and Eurostat computed the GPG for these years on this basis. For the intermediate years (2007 onwards) countries provide to Eurostat estimates benchmarked on the SES results. Target population is all employees without restrictions as far as age and hours worked are concerned, however, only enterprises with 10 employees or more are included. Economic activities are according to NACE Rev. 1.1. are included for the aggregate sections C-O, excluding L, which means that A. Agriculture, hunting and forestry; B Fishing; L Public administration and defence, compulsory social security; P Activities of households and Q Extraterritorial organisations and bodies are excluded.