

EGGE – EC’s Expert Group on Gender and Employment

Indicators on Gender Equality in the European Employment Strategy

Country Fiche Files

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1.1. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Belgium

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gap

In 2000, the absolute gap for Belgium was high in comparison with the other European countries. The standardisation does not affect the ranking in a substantial way (rank = 11 with the absolute gap and 10 with the standardised). However, the trends are different : the absolute gap decreased by 52 % from 1996 to 2000, and the standardised decreased only by 24 %. This is because the male unemployment rate has decreased faster than the female rate.

Long term unemployment gap

The overall unemployment gap is larger than the long term gap : they are both positive. The part of the overall gap that is explained by the long term unemployment gap is decreasing, but remains dominant : In 1996, 66% of the overall gap was due to the long term gap. In 2000, the long term gap explained 55% of the overall gap. This is because the share of women who are long term unemployed has decreased faster than for men. The long term unemployment gap is one of the largest in the EU (rank=11).

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The gender unemployment gap is decreasing when the age range increases (the standardised gap increases slightly between the first and the second age range). For the 55-64 age range, the gap becomes negative. The rank switch from 10 (for the 15-24 age range) to 7 (for the 55-64 age range). This is probably due to the fact that a large part of men are benefiting from early retirement schemes, sometimes associated with paid unemployment periods. The employment rate of elderly people is very low in Belgium, both for men and women.

The gap is also decreasing when the educational level is increasing. The decrease is fast, compared to the other European countries: for the lowest educational level, Belgium has the 6th largest gap, while for the highest level, the gap is the 9th largest.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The standardisation increases the employment gap because the male unemployment rate in Belgium is relatively low. However, the standardisation does not affect much the ranking (In 2000, the ranking was 9 for the absolute gap, and 10 for the standardised measure).

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

The full-time equivalent gender employment gap is larger than the head count gap : women account for a larger share of part-time jobs. However, the ranking is the same for both indicators (rank = 9 in 2000).

Employment rate gap by age and educational attainment

The employment gap increases from the 15-24 to the 25-54 age bracket and decreases slightly when those in the older age segment (55-64) are compared to the ones aged between 25 and 54. The Belgium rank decreases with age: the gap is the 9th smallest for the 15-24 age range and becomes the 6th smallest for the 55-64 age range.

The employment gap decreases when the educational level increases. But we observe the same thing in the other countries, so the rank does not change much. Belgium has the 5th largest gap for the low and medium educational level, and the 6th largest gap for the highest level.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and size of the male/female labour reserve

Belgium has one of the smallest shares of inactive women wishing to work (the third smallest). The structure (share of unemployed and inactive) and the size of the labour reserve are more or less the same for men and for women. The gender gap for those unemployed and inactive wishing to work is the 7th smallest in the European Union.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

Belgium has high outflow gaps (outflow of men – outflow of women) both from unemployment to inactivity and from unemployment to employment. In 1999, 63 % of women who moved out from unemployment became inactive, while this is the reverse for men: two thirds of the men who moved out from unemployment found a job.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Belgium occupies the 9th place in the segregation ranks, as measured by the ID index. If we instead take into account the IP index, Belgium moves to the 8th place.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation:

As in the other countries, the level of segregation decreases when part-time employees are removed. However, this decrease is smaller than in most countries: the Belgium rank increases to the 11th place, as measured by the ID index.

Impact of removing the self-employed from the indices of occupational segregation

When the self-employed are removed, the indices of segregation increase and the ID index switches from the 9th place to the 11th place. There is more segregation when only the employees are taken into account.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral segregation is much lower than occupational segregation in Belgium, given the respective NACE and ISCO classifications. Belgium has the 5th smallest index.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator

When the current ECHP indicator is used, it appears that Belgium has the second smallest gender pay gap in the EU (1996). The gap decreased strongly from 1995 to 1996.

Impact of using ESES on the gender pay gap

Measured with the ESES, the gender pay gap is higher than if measured with ECHP. However, the decrease is smaller than in most other countries, so the rank decreases (from 5th to the 3rd place).

Gender pay gap in the private sector as measured with ECHP or ESES

The Belgium rank is higher (rank is 3 with ECHP and 5 with ESES) when ESES is used to compute the gender pay gap in the private sector. This difference is due to the Belgian fiscal system that allows a better redistribution of earnings between men and women.

Impact of removing part-time employees on the gender pay gap

The gender pay gap appears to be smaller when only full-time employees are considered. The rank decreases by two places (from 5 to 3).

Pay gap between female part-time employees and male full-time employees

The pay gap between female part-time employees and male full-time employees is relatively small compared to the other countries (rank = 4), but it is higher than the overall gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

The gender pay gap is higher in private services than in the industry, and the rank is higher: Belgium occupies the 4th place in industry and the 7th place when only the private services are considered.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap is slightly smaller in the medium educational level than in the lowest level and increases sharply when we switch from the medium to the highest level. Because of this increase, the rank raises from the 3rd place to 7th place.

The gender pay gap for the 0-19 age range is the highest in the EU. It decreases with age until the 25-29 age range and then increases. However, the rank does not stop to decrease until the 45-54 age bracket, where Belgium reaches the second smallest gender pay gap.

New proposed indicator on the share of women employees in low paid jobs

The share of women who earns less than two thirds of the median male earnings (full-time and part-time employees) is the 5th smallest in the EU. From the OECD data, only Sweden and Finland have smaller shares. So, the pattern will not change if the new indicator is used.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on women employment

Like in the other European countries, the parenthood has a negative impact on women employment in Belgium. However, this impact is one of the smallest in the EU (only Portugal knew a smaller impact in 1999). The impact slightly increases when measured by the full-time equivalent and becomes the third smaller impact.

Impact of parenthood on men employment

Like in the other European countries, parenthood has a positive impact on men employment. This impact is slightly above the EU average and is the 5th largest in 1999.

Comparison of the impact of parenthood on men and on women

Both indicators (old EO8 and EO7) show that the gender gap in employment impact of parenthood is low. On both, Belgium records the second place in 1999.

Parenthood affects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Education has a very strong effect in the impact of parenthood for women in Belgium : the impact decreases by 85 % from the lowest educational level to the highest. For men, the (positive) impact decreases by 54 %. If Belgium records the third largest gender gap in employment impact among less educated people, this gap becomes the second smallest for the upper levels of education.

Women employment rate decreases with the first child, increases with the second and then again decreases. The employment impact of having two children is the smallest in the EU and is not very high with only one and more than three children (respectively 5th place and 4th place).

The parenthood impact on employment is very low for women who live in couple households (the second smallest impact). But it is very high for lone women : the employment rate of those women decreases by 27% (the 4th highest impact in the EU). The impact gap between lone and married women is the highest in the EU : lone women's impact is 16 times higher than for women in a couple household.

Unpaid care work

Men spend slightly over a third of the time spend by women in looking after children and other persons in Belgium. It is the 4th higher ratio in the EU. Note that the time spend by women and by men in Belgium are relatively low compared to the other countries.

Involuntary part-time work

The share of women who work involuntary in part-time is lower than for men. However, it may reflect constrained choices.

1.2. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Denmark

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

The gender gap in unemployment rates diminished between 1996 and 2000 (considering both the absolute and the standardised unemployment rates to measure the gap). The absolute unemployment figures for women and men show that this is mainly due to a bigger decrease in women's unemployment rate.

When compared to other EU countries, Denmark's rank is almost the same for the absolute and the standardised gap (ranks 5th and 6th, respectively).

However, as the Danish labour market is strongly segregated, the question is how to interpret both overall unemployment differences.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long-term unemployment gender gap is narrower than the overall unemployment gap. The Danish long-term unemployment gap appears to be one of the smallest in the EU (only Austria, Finland and Luxembourg have as small or similar gender gaps in 2000). This narrow gap is likely to come as the result of the active labour market policies pursued in the area.

Unemployment rates by age or educational attainment

The gender unemployment gap in Denmark is (as in the EU as a whole) highest for the age range with the highest employment rate (age group 25-54 years old). The gender unemployment gap is (as unemployment rates) correlated with education – higher education means lower unemployment gaps – and lower unemployment rates. The positive gender gaps indicate, however, that education as such is not *the* equaliser in unemployment for men and women¹. Again, the segregated Danish labour market (here as a result of choice of education) has to be taken into account when comparing gender gaps in employment rates for age and education.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

¹ Table 54 (p.182-183) in *European social statistics – Labour force survey results 2000* show this more clearly as unemployment rates are given by age group *and* education level.

Although the employment rate for women in Denmark is the highest in the EU, Denmark has only the third smallest gender employment gap among member states when either the absolute or the standardised figure is used (after Sweden and Finland). However, it is a problem for the gap in employment rates to be standardised in relation to the male employment rate - and not in relation to the total employment rate. The gender gap should be related to the overall level of activity and not only to the level of male activity nor to the level of female activity alone.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Measured in FTE the employment rate for women in Denmark is still the highest in EU, and Denmark still has the third smallest gender employment gap among member states. For Denmark, Sweden and Finland (all with high full-time employment rates for women) it is of no difference which measure is used for this general comparison of the gender employment gap.

Employment rate gaps by age or educational attainment

The gender gap in employment rates for age or education seems to follow the overall pattern except for the 55 to 64 years old age group and for the group with the lowest educational attainment. The employment gender gap in Denmark also seems to be highest for these groups. This may be due to the interaction of age and educational level – especially for women – and to the Labour Market Reform of June 1993. One important element in this reform was the opportunity of early retirement for persons between 50 and 55 years old.² This mostly attracted persons in low skilled employment, and women retired (or were pushed out) from the labour market - women constitute more than two thirds of the people receiving early retirement benefits.

The interaction of age, education and employment is important in other EU countries as well which means, that the study of gender gaps should be based on age *and* education instead of age *or* education. A comparison based on age and education seems to reveal even greater gender gaps in employment for Denmark.³

² In the period 1994 -1996 unemployed persons in this age group were able to join a special scheme of early retirement benefits amounting to 82 per cent of the highest unemployment benefit. The result was the fall of retirement age - especially for women. The retirement age was the lowest in the year of 1995 with 57 years for women and 60 years for men.

³ Table 14 (p.78-79) in *European social statistics – Labour force survey results 2000* shows gender gaps of more than 10% in almost all groups by age *and* education level.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

As the absolute gender gap in the inactive wishing to work is much higher than the absolute gender gap in unemployment (2.6% towards 0.9%) the potential labour reserve in Denmark includes a much higher female share than unemployment figures show.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

There is no great difference in the outflow figures regarding women and men between 1997 and 1999. There is however a big difference in the pattern of the outflow as most men go from unemployment to employment while most women in 1997 and 1998 go from unemployment to inactivity. During these years, the tendency for women was however for the proportion flowing out to employment to grow and for the proportion in the outflow to inactivity to decline. It is, however, almost impossible to comment on the essence of these overall figures. These different patterns may due to age, ethnicity, education level, and job availability - and to the fact that job training and activation measures have been continuously intensified by and after the labour market reform of June 1993.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Denmark has a high level of gender segregation (the third highest after Finland and Sweden) if measured both by the IP-index or the ID-index. The values follow the positive correlation between employment rates and segregation.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

When part-timers are excluded, the index is lower (2.06 for the IP index and 1.53 for the ID index). Compared to other EU countries Denmark, however, still has high gender segregation - now the fourth highest (after Finland, Sweden and Portugal).

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

Removing the self-employed means that the index becomes slightly higher (0.22 for the IP index and 0.24 for the ID index). As the values for the other countries show larger changes, Denmark's relative position changes. Now, in comparison with the other member states,

Denmark presents average levels of segregation. The IP index shows Denmark as number seven after Finland, Austria, Sweden, Portugal, Belgium, Germany and France, and the ID shows Denmark as number nine after Finland, Austria, Portugal, Sweden, Belgium, Germany, Spain, France and Luxembourg.

Impact of removing part-time employees and the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

When both part-timers and self-employed are excluded, the index is lower (1.40 for the IP index and 0.92 for the ID index). It seems that part-timers and self employed pull the indexes in different directions, so now compared to other EU countries Denmark still has a high gender segregation. The IP-index shows Denmark as number five after Finland, Portugal, Sweden and Austria, whereas the ID shows Denmark as number seven after Finland, Austria, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Luxembourg.

Though the change in the segregation index for Denmark is relatively small the change in ranking is quite large.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index.

The IP index for sectoral segregation shows Denmark as number six after Finland, Sweden, Portugal, Ireland and Austria. As in other EU countries, it is interesting that Denmark ‘changes’ rank between occupational and sectoral segregation and that the measure of sectoral segregation is much lower than occupational segregation.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

According to the indexes, Denmark has one of the smallest gender pay gaps in the EU. The rank changes according to the measuring method but keeps Denmark in the absolute lower end of the ranking. Denmark's low rank may be due to the system of minimum wages and to the relative low difference in income from employment in general.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The figure for Denmark is surprisingly low compared to current indicators. The explanation is that today's part-timers in Denmark are mainly persons enrolled in education or seniors gradually leaving the labour force. At the same time, part-timers are mainly found in low skilled jobs. This means that this new indicator of the gender pay gap is dependent on the difference in the occupational structure of part-time and full-time, the difference in pay in different occupations and the difference in the gender distribution of part time.

Gender pay gap for industry and private service.

The most interesting aspect of the Danish case is not the different ranks for different sectors (they are fairly similar) but the difference within sectors.

Gender pay gap by age or education

The gender pay gap for the higher educated in Denmark is much higher than for the lower educated. At the same time, this indicator tends to decline with age. Part of this is due to the interaction of gender, age and education. But how much? Studies of gender-gaps could also be based on age *and* education instead of age *or* education. The gender pay gap for the ones with lower and medium educational attainment levels is the smallest across all member states. For the youngest and the oldest age group, Denmark is ranked number 3 and 2 respectively.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

The new indicator on the share of women in low paid sectors gives no data for Denmark.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

There is no data for Denmark in the tables. Danish data shows, however, that women in age groups that are likely to be associated with parenthood of small children have a high full-time employment rate (see figure in annex).

New proposed indicators on care

Denmark has high levels of childcare provision and similar levels for the provision of home services to the elderly (plus institutional care provision). This is the basis for and the result of the high employment rates for women. However, this mainly covers practical care. Emotional care for children and others (old or disabled family members and friends) is still not taken over by public and private institutions – and it is still unevenly distributed between women and men. Unfortunately, the gender gap here may be very difficult to measure.

Parenthood affects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

There is no data for Denmark in the tables.

Unpaid care work

Data indicates that men take part in care work in Denmark. Men spend half of the time spent by women looking after children and other persons. Data shows however, that Danish women do not spend many hours looking after children and other persons. This figure seems very low compared to figures from Danish sources, and the tables do not explain the data.

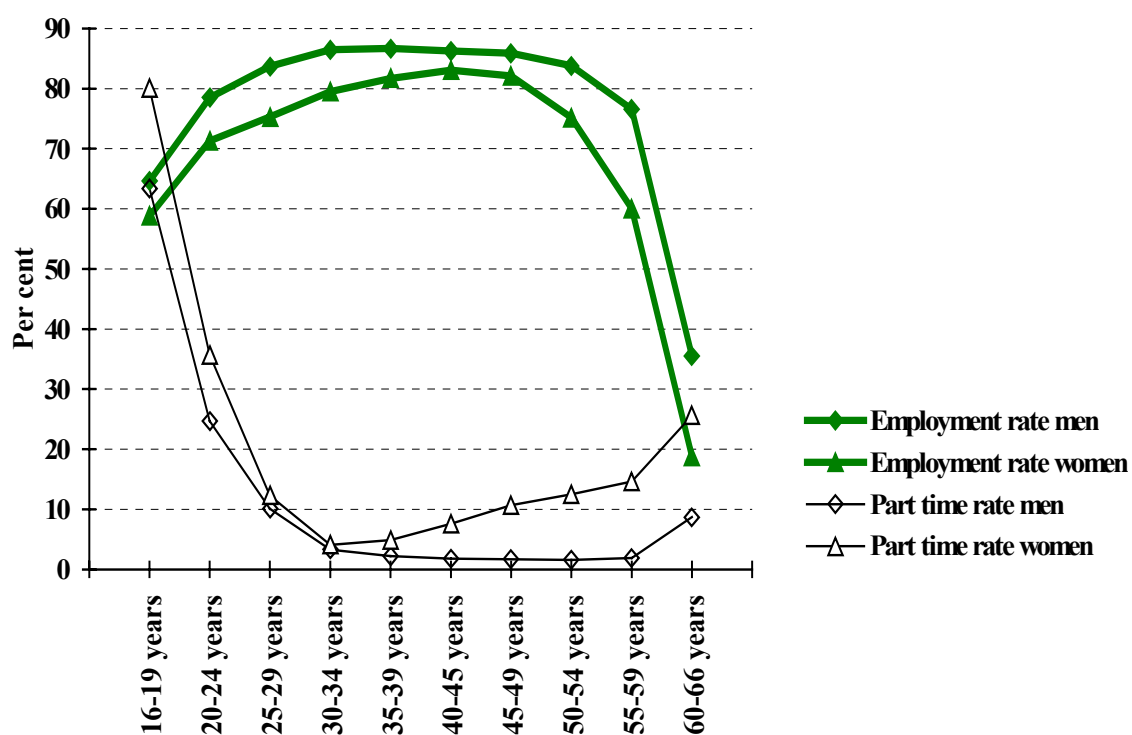
Involuntary part-time work

The share of involuntary part-time work is relatively high among part-timers but low compared to the high employment rates.

Annex:

Figure 1 Employment and part time rate of all in employment - women and men (aged 16-66 years), January 1999.

(from *Gender Impact Assessment and the Employment Strategy, Denmark, 2000*)



Source: Statistics Denmark (2000), RAS – register based labour force statistics 1999.

1.3. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Germany

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

Germany has a gender gap in unemployment rates (measured both in absolute and relative terms) that is below the average of EU 15 - i.e. the relative high unemployment rates are quite equally distributed among men and women. Nevertheless women have higher unemployment rates than men. A trend analysis of the relative unemployment gap shows a quite stable gender relation. The absolute gap fell more rapidly in the period between 1997 and 2000. The real story of Germany's gender related unemployment rates is disguised by using these data as the main problem is the very high female unemployment rates in the East (compared both to men in the East and to men and women in the West). Recently, in the Western part, women's unemployment rates have been under the men's.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long-term unemployment gap is negative for Germany, and was the second largest negative gap among member states in 2000. There are less long-term unemployed women in the labour force than men. Two points can explain this phenomenon: a) the unemployment benefit system in Germany is designed in such a way that after a period of regular unemployment benefits (paid by the insurance) the unemployed move into a different system which is means-tested. As many women in couple households do not receive these means-tested benefits this may affect the number of women who consider themselves as long term unemployed. b) long term unemployment is often associated with age, sickness or partial disability. As the age structure of the labour force differs between men and women (there are fewer older women in the labour force) the ratio may be influenced by this effect.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The gender gaps for the different age groups show a rather interesting pattern: women have lower unemployment rates than men when they are under the age of 24 (negative gap); are nearly "equally unemployed" in the age groups comprised between 25 and 54 years old (the relative share would also demonstrate this effect quite clearly); and are over represented among the older unemployed, although, as mentioned before, the labour force participation of older women is per se quite low. The educational effect shows fairly similar unemployment

rates by gender for medium skilled employees, higher unemployment for highly skilled women than for highly skilled men and a higher unemployment rate for low skilled men than for low skilled women – a result which is influenced by the shifts in sectoral employment (industry – services).

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Employment trends in Germany show a rather modest employment growth over the period between 1996 and 2000 - the employment growth for both men and women was below the EU average. As the employment rate grew faster for women than for men, the gender gap decreased both in absolute and relative terms. Germany has a middle position in the rankings of the EU member states related to these indicators.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gaps

During the period from 1996 to 2000, the full-time equivalent employment rate for men decreased slightly whereas women's rate increased. As a result the absolute gap (albeit still average in relation to the other EU member states) decreased slightly. A possible explanation is the decrease in men's over-time work and the overall reduction of working time for full-timers as part of the working time policy.

The use of relative gaps could give us a richer picture as this indicator would show clearly the gender effects of working time arrangements.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Employment rates by age show an effect already discussed. Employment gaps are rather small for young men and women (the employment rate for young persons is above the EU average, a fact that can, in part, be attributed to the national vocational training system), higher for middle age persons and highest (and quite high) for older age groups. The use of relative gaps would clearly show that the employment rate of older women is just 62% of men's. Concerning the breakdown by educational attainment, gender gaps in employment are still quite substantial for the low skilled women, less substantial for the medium skilled and smallest for the high skilled. The employment rates for both men and women rise with the educational attainment. Nevertheless, the educational effect is higher for women than for men. Although gender gaps in employment are substantial, Germany is in both categories (age/education) below the average of the EU member states.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of male/female labour reserve

More women than men are inactive in Germany. However, if we add the proportion of those who wish to work to the unemployed the size of the labour reserve is nearly the same for both sexes (with only a small gender gap). The others, the ones who do not wish to work and are not in unemployment, are either satisfied with their status (school, university, housewife/men, early pensioner) or are not considering a change most likely because they're aware of the constraints in the labour market.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

Germany shows quite a low rate of flows into employment for both men and women – as already mentioned the employment dynamics of the German labour market have not been high. The share of unemployed women that moved into employment was, in 2000, a bit higher than men's share. The flow into inactivity shows clear gender differences. Furthermore, gender specific patterns (men going into pensions, women going into motherhood and pensions) are likely to be found if we use a more detailed status of inactivity.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Germany has a rather high level of segregation as revealed both by the IP and ID index (rank 11 and 10, respectively). The level of segregation is quite high given the relatively average employment rate for women in Germany and the known positive correlation between employment rates and segregation.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices

The values clearly show that full-time employment is less segregated than part-time for both sexes. Removing part-time employees from the index reduces Germany's level of segregation in both indices (from 11th to 6th for the IP and from 10th to 6th if we consider the ID).

Impact of removing self-employed from the indices

Removing the self-employed has little impact in the value of the segregation rank (10/10), even if the value of the index increases in both cases (IP and ID). Employees seem to have a higher level of segregation than the self-employed. However, we should point that women's share among the self employed is rather small (less than 30%). Further evidence from national

sources recommend further caution if we're to state that segregation is higher among the self-employed.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral segregation is found to be lower than occupational segregation in Germany, given the respective NACE and ISCO classifications. Germany holds a roughly similar rank (10th compared with 11th position) in both sets of indices.

Pay

Gender pay gap using the ECHP and ESES

Germany has the highest gender pay gap if we use ECHP data to calculate this indicator. Germany's relative position improves considerably if we resort to ESES data. This big difference in net earnings is partly due to the difference in the amount of taxes paid by married women who choose the tax splitting system. All ECHP data (including public sector or excluding) show the same result. Nevertheless, the more market related gross earnings (ESES) show only a middle position when Germany is ranked against the other EU member states.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The comparison between full-time and part-time employees shows a smaller gender pay gap for full-timers than for part-timers - Germany occupies, respectively, the 6th and the 11th position. This may point to the problem that female part-timers may be concentrated in low paid jobs if compared to male part-timers. Compared to male full-timers, female part-timers have a substantial gender pay gap although other countries have a even higher gap. Therefore we end up with Germany ranked 7th in the countries ranking (which is better than the rank for part-timers alone).

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

This table gives information on East and West Germany separately showing that East Germany had the lowest gender wage gap using ESES data for all sectors and especially in the private services. In industry the gender wage gap in East Germany is a bit higher (ranked 3rd after Sweden and Denmark). In contrast, West Germany has a middle position with nearly

no difference between industry and private services and a slightly worse rank in private services.

Gender pay gap by age and education

Employees with higher education have the lowest gender wage gap in Germany - the country climbs up to 4th position in the ranking list. The gender wage gap widens if we consider employees with upper secondary education but is slightly smaller for the lower educated (ranks 7th and 6th, respectively). With respect to age groups we observe the highest gender pay gaps for the very young (especially apprentices in female dominated occupations have very low salaries). In East Germany the gender wage gap is much smaller for all the older age groups, and the smallest in the EU for the age groups 30-44, 45-54 and 55 years old and over. This is the heritage of the former more equal wage system of the GDR, which has been structurally transferred into the new wage system. The situation for the youngest age groups is different as the West Germany differences have been imported via the big differences between apprentices in different occupations and sectors. For West Germany, the figures show a big difference in wages for the young but this wage difference tends to disappear with age. Older women are the only group with a bigger wage difference than their younger cohorts. But as this is true in other countries as well, West Germany climbs up in the ranking to the 7th position when the older age segment (55 years old and over) is considered.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

West Germany is in a middle position concerning women's concentration in low paid sectors, whereas East Germany only has a small share of women in the same position. However, a comparison between the absolute wages in East and West Germany would make clear that many jobs in East Germany are low paid if compared to a similar job in the western part of the country.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

The employment rate for women in Germany is not among the highest in the EU. Additionally, the impact of parenthood is quite obvious on women's employment. Germany had the highest value in 2000 (26,3%). When full time equivalents are used, Germany is on the second position behind the UK. In FTE terms, mothers with children younger than six

years old had roughly half of the employment rate of women without children (34% to 69% in 2000).

New proposed indicators on care

Germany has a low child care provision for the very young (children under 3 years old), a fairly good level for those aged between 3 and 6 years old and a low level for children in school age. An indicator with such an age breakdown would be useful to analyse the situation in Germany. From a labour market perspective it is quite obvious that child care should be offered at an early stage in a child's life in order to shorten the periods in which mothers stay out of the labour market. It is necessary to consider different options concerning the opening hours of child care as the current practices limit women's prospects for paid employment and force them into part-time jobs.

Parenthood effects by the level of education, number of children and lone parenthood

Overall and as stated before, parenthood has a large impact on mother's employment rates. As expected this impact is largest among low educated women, and smallest among high educated women (expressed in employment rates). But in an EU comparison, Germany's highly educated women have the lowest employment rates (followed by Spain, Luxembourg and the UK) whereas the relative position of middle educated women is slightly better (Greece, Spain, and Luxembourg have lower rates). In comparison, low educated women have less than average employment rates (we find lower rates for the UK followed by Italy and Spain).

The number of children has a considerable impact in the employment rates of women. Having 3 children or more reduces the employment rate of mothers by 40% if compared with non-mothers. This is the highest impact among the EU member states and this relative position doesn't change if we consider mothers with two children (22,73%). The impact is smaller for those women with only one child (Ireland, the UK and the Netherlands have higher values).

The employment rate for women in couple households is only marginally higher than that of lone mothers but the impact of parenthood in couple households is the highest in the EU. This points to the fact that, when there is a child in the family, the male-breadwinner household is still quite relevant in Germany. This is strongly supported by the German institutional system both in services and in money/financial terms. Parenthood has a smaller impact in single households.

Unpaid care work

Men spend less than one third of the time spent by women in unpaid care work. The relative proportion is smaller than in Denmark, the UK, Belgium and the Netherlands but German men are not among the very low performers.

Involuntary part-time work

Germany has more involuntary male part-time workers than women in the same position. However, male part-timers account for a very small proportion of the employment. Among women around 12% expressed the idea that they were working part-time on an involuntary basis. Whether these findings correctly reflect the whole issue of working time wishes should be a matter to be treated with caution. We know from German data that part-timers want to work longer hours than they usually do and full-timers want to work shorter hours. Additionally, the answers may reflect constrained choices in relation to child care availability and in the labour market itself.

1.4. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Greece

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

Greece displays the second largest absolute gender gap in unemployment rates among EU Member States after Spain. The standardisation of the gap brings the country at the worst position in the EU with respect to gender equality in unemployment. The two indicators give a different picture with respect to trends between 1996 and 2000. While, the absolute gap reveals an increase of gender inequality in unemployment rates, the standardised gap illustrates a decrease. This is because the male unemployment rate has risen faster than the female rate across this period.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long term unemployment gender gap is the largest among EU Member States. It is smaller than the overall unemployment gender gap. However, this does not mean that gender inequality is smaller in long-term than in total unemployment, since the female overall unemployment rate is 2.3 times the male, whereas the female long term unemployment rate is 2.8 times the male. In short, absolute gaps are misleading when used for such comparisons.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

Young and medium educated women are the groups that face the highest risk of unemployment. Gender gaps in unemployment rates are also the largest in the 15-24 age group and among labour force participants with medium educational attainment.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Greece's picture with respect to gender equality in employment is not affected by the use of the standardised gender employment gap instead of the absolute one. Greece has the largest gap among Member States according to both indicators.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

By using the full-time equivalent gender employment gap instead of the headcount, Greece rises from the 15th to the 13th position in the EU with respect to gender inequality in employment, by overcoming Spain and the Netherlands. Moreover, the country's distance

from the EU average gap shrinks from 12 to 6 percentage points, since the share of part-time work in total female employment is the lowest in the EU.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Absolute employment gender gaps are the highest in the EU among women aged 25-54 and with low and medium educational attainment. Greece falls to the third place for women aged 15-24 and 55-64 and to the fifth for women with high educational attainment.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

Inclusion of inactive people to the potential labour supply adds 2.5 percentage points of the female working age population to the female labour reserve and only 0.6 percentage points of the male working population to the male labour reserve. In total, the female labour reserve rises to 10.6% of the female working age population and the male labour reserve to 6.1% of the male working age population.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

According to 1998 data, women have a higher outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity and a lower outflow rate from unemployment to employment than men (11.3% against 8% and 18,9% against 34.1% respectively). Moreover, the female inflow rate to unemployment from employment is higher than the male rate (2.8% against 2.1%). Consequently, gender inequality in unemployment can be explained both by higher female than male inflow rates to unemployment from employment and by lower female than male outflow rates from unemployment to employment.

As far as international comparisons are concerned, flow data reveal that the huge gender gap in unemployment rates in Greece is mainly due to the much lower than EU average female outflow rates from unemployment to employment, since the respective male outflow rate as well inflow rates of both sexes from employment to unemployment are very close to EU averages and discouragement rates of both sexes (outflows from unemployment to inactivity) are half the EU averages.

From our brief analysis it follows that inflows from employment in unemployment should be also taken into consideration together with outflows from unemployment, if we want to have a

complete understanding of international differences in gender inequality with respect to unemployment and of the origin of changes of gender gaps.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Greece has the lowest average level of segregation in the EU, according to both the IP and the ID index. This can be partly explained by the great share of agriculture and the low share of public sector in total employment, but low occupational segregation is also manifest in private services. Greece, Spain and Italy are the EU Member States with the lowest employment rates and the lowest level of occupational segregation.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

Greece has the lowest share of part-time work in total employment among EU Member States. This explains why removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation for all employees reduces the level of segregation, but not as much as in other EU countries. Consequently, the relative position of the country deteriorates to a larger or smaller extent, according to the index used to measure segregation. The IP index indicates change from the second to the eighth place in the hierarchy, whereas the ID index change from the fourth to the fifth place.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

In contrast, removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation has a large impact on the level of segregation, both in absolute and relative terms. While Greece has the lowest segregation for all in employment, as measured by both indexes, the level of segregation increases sharply once the analysis is restricted to employees only and the country falls to the second or fourth position in the EU.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral segregation is lower than occupational segregation when both are measured by the IP index. Moreover, Greece has the lowest level of sectoral segregation among EU Member States, as it also happens with occupational segregation.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Greece has a medium position in the EU with regard to the gender pay gap. According to both indicators, the country displays the eighth narrowest pay gap among the EU Member States. When ECHP is restricted to the private sector only, then Greece moves down the ranking of the gender pay gap, recording the fourth narrowest gap in the EU.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The gender pay gap is smaller among part-time than among full-time employees. As far as its relative position is concerned, Greece has the 7th largest pay gap in the EU for full-time employees and the 4th narrowest for part-time employees. Moreover, if we compare the pay of women working part-time to the earnings of men working full time, then Greece has the second narrowest gender pay gap after Sweden and the ratio amounts to 77.82%.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

There is a great difference in the relative position of Greece when the gender pay gap is calculated separately for industry and private services. Greece has second largest gender pay gap for industry and the sixth narrowest for private services.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap for higher educated women in Greece is the slightly above the EU average and the 8th largest in the EU. In contrast, the gender pay gap for medium educated women is below and for lower educated far below the EU average. The gender pay gap for Greek women with medium education is the 4th largest, while that for women with lower education the largest in the EU. The gender gap is very much smaller for employees under 30 than for employees from 30 and over. The gender gap for young employees occupies a medium ranking in the hierarchy of EU Member States, while the ones related to older age groups the 12th and 14th position.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

Incidence of low pay by gender and not only the share of female employees in low paid jobs would be extremely useful to describe the pattern of gender pay inequality in Greece. But such data are not available for Greece.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Parenthood does not have a major impact on female employment in Greece, since the employment rate of women with children aged 0-6 years is only 3.1 percentage points lower than that of women without children. This impact is the second least important in the EU. In contrast, parenthood has a major impact on male employment in Greece, since the employment rate of men with children aged 0-6 years is 10.1 percentage points higher than that of men without children. This impact is the biggest among EU Member States for which data are available.

I do not consider the ratio used to compare the impact of parenthood between men and women (modified EO7) as a suitable indicator for doing so, since it does not allow comparison. Values over one do not indicate 'that the impact on women is larger than on men' as mentioned in the footnote of the table (page 22), but reflect for all EU member states the joint outcome of a negative employment impact of parenthood for women and a positive impact on men. For example, in Greece, fathers have an employment rate 1.12 times that of non fathers, while mothers an employment rate 0.93 times that of non mothers. The value of the indicator is 1.20 (i.e. over 1) but the impact of parenthood on men is greater than on women. I therefore suggest to drop the indicator and restrict our analysis to the employment impact of parenthood by sex.

New proposed indicators on care

All new indicators would be very useful to reveal the coverage by care provision other than by the family of children (by age group) and of the dependent elderly (by type of provision). However, data of this kind are not provided by national sources in Greece. I would expect such indicators to reveal the fact that public care services are terribly lacking in Greece, especially for the elderly and children under 3, in spite of some progress during the last decade.

Parenthood effects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

With the exception of Portugal, where the impact of the first child is positive, the presence of young children has a negative impact on female employment rates in all EU Member States. The impact increases with the number of children. This is also the case for Greece. However, in Greece children - the first, second and third - have the smallest negative impact on female employment in the EU.

In general, the impact of parenthood on employment rates is greater, the lower the education level of both men and women. However, in Greece the impact of parenthood on male employment is greater among medium than low educated men.

Finally, in Greece the negative impact of parenthood on women living in couple households is the third smallest in the EU, while Greece is the only EU Member State where the impact of parenthood on the employment rates of lone mothers is positive and sizeable (12.1 percentage points).

Unpaid care work

While the unpaid time spent by Greek women per week looking after children and other persons is the 7th shortest among EU Member States, the unpaid time spent by Greek men is the 3rd shortest and the gender gap is the largest.

Involuntary part-time work

Greece has the highest share of involuntary part-time in total part-time employment. This reflects the negative impact of low wages and precariousness on the availability of workers, since most part-time jobs in Greece are also temporary.

1.5. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Spain

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

Spain is the member state country with the highest gender gap in unemployment rates, closely followed by Greece (and Italy, further away). According to this indicator, Spain has the worst position with respect to gender equality in unemployment rates. The standardisation of the rate does not have a major impact in the relative position of Spain. However the two indicators give a different picture with respect to trends: the absolute gap fell by over 9% between 1996 and 2000, but the standardised grew by 68%. The difference between a modest fall of the absolute gap and a high rise of the standardised gap indicates that male unemployment fell proportionately faster than female unemployment over this time period.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long-term unemployment (% of the labour force) gender gap is the second largest in the EU, following Greece. The absolute gender gaps of overall unemployment and long-term unemployment indicators give a different picture with respect to trends: the long term unemployment gap for the labour force fell by 36% between 1996 and 2000, while the overall unemployment gap fell by only 9%. This indicates an improvement in the relative situation of women, in relation to long-term unemployment, even if the male long-term unemployment also decreased at a faster rate than the female one.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

In Spain the absolute gender unemployment gap is highest for the younger age group, while the relative gap is highest for the middle age group. Unemployment rate gaps are also highest among all the member states for the three educational levels, despite the fact that the gap is lower for those with high education. The risk of unemployment is lower the higher the education for both men and women but higher educated women still have a relatively high risk if compared with men (the relative gender gap does not differ by education).

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Spain shares with Greece the first highest gender employment gap among member states whether or not the absolute or the standardised figure is used. Standardisation leads to a major increase in the relative size of the gap, as Spain has a relatively small employment rate for women. However, the standardised gender gap shows a decreasing trend between 1996 and 2000.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Instead of having the highest gender employment gap, Spain is in second position, following the Netherlands and with only a slightly higher gap than Greece. The full-time equivalent indicator does not differ from the headcount measure as part-time is not a widespread employment form- it is nevertheless increasing, particularly for women.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Spain also shares with Greece the highest employment gap for the age group 25-54. Even if the gap decreases quite sharply for the age group 15-24, Spain is still in the group of countries leading the gender gap ranking (with Portugal and Greece). The lower gap for this age group is due to the relatively low employment rate of men 15-24, as unemployment hits strongly both young men and women. The employment gap is also lower the highest the educational level.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

Even if Spain shares with Italy the highest gender gap for those unemployed and inactive who wish to work, it is seventh in the member states ranking on the proportion of inactive wishing to work for both women and men - the unemployed are the main group of the labour reserve.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

In Spain, both women and men have the lowest outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity. This indicates that despite the high unemployment rates, the discouragement effect of abandoning the labour force is not as important as it can be in other member states (for example in the Netherlands). However, women have a 47% higher outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity than men, as compared to a lower outflow rate of 25% from unemployment to employment.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Spain has a level of occupational segregation below the average as revealed both by the IP and the ID index. Only two southern countries (Greece and Italy) have a lower segregation level than Spain. One of the reasons is the proportion of women among the self-employed (near to 50% or over in the service sector), as well as the high proportion of women among family workers. Another reason is the close to 50% representation of women among the professionals and civil servants.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

This tendency for Spain to have rather low levels of segregation is not reversed when part-timers are excluded, even if the relative position of Spain changes. For full-timers the IP index is the seventh among member states (the eighth in the case of the ID index). Spain also has a relatively small change in the index, if part-timers are excluded, particularly for the ID index.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

In contrast, the level of segregation might be considered rather high for the employees. Removing the self-employed from the index has a strong impact on the overall value of the segregation index (with a difference of 4 percentage points in the ID index). Once the analysis is restricted to employees only, there is also a major change in ranks with Spain appearing in the seventh or ninth position, according to the IP and ID indices respectively.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index.

Sectoral segregation is found to be lower than occupational segregation. However, Spain has a rank in sectoral segregation that drastically changes its position among the member states, going from the third to the ninth position, due to the concentration of women in the service sector.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Using the current ECHP gender pay gap indicator Spain has one of the smallest gender (net) pay gaps, only slightly larger than that of Portugal. Using the ESES data, the gender (gross)

pay gap rises. The relative position of Spain in the ranking changes, coming now to the eight position. If the gender pay gap is calculated using ECHP data but excluding the public sector to increase the comparability with the ESES, Spain moves up the ranking by recording the fifth narrowest gender pay gap. This is due to the larger gender pay differences in the private than in the public sector.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

Spain has the same gender (net) pay gap for full-time and part-time employees. When using the ESES gender (gross) pay gap, Spain maintains the 10th ranking when only full-timers are considered. In contrast, Spain has one of the largest gender pay gap when female part-timers are compared to male full-timers. It is the third highest gender pay ratio closely following France and the UK. The inclusion of this indicator provides evidence of the polarisation between male full-timers and female part-timers in the Spanish private sector.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

There is not much difference between the gender pay gap for industry and the one for private services. Both for private services and industry, Spain has the third and sixth largest gender pay gaps, respectively.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap for higher educated women in Spain is above the EU average and the 4th largest. In contrast, the gender pay gap for the medium educated is smaller and much closer to the EU average. For each age group, Spain keeps approximately the same ranking, except for full-time employees over 44.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

This indicator, with a value of 55%, shows the strong concentration of women in low paid jobs and sectors in Spain. Spain has the highest concentration of women in low paid sectors. In contrast, the percentage of men in low paid sectors, according to ESES data is only 2%, in any case the 4th largest of the member states, only preceded by the UK, Luxembourg, and Portugal. This indicator provides an interesting insight into the dispersion of the earnings distribution among women.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Given the low overall female employment rate, parenthood has a limited impact on female employment, even if measured in headcount terms. This impact is only higher than in Portugal, Greece and Belgium. When the FTE measure is used there is no change in the impact of parenthood on employment rates.

The employment rate for women with young children is around 20% below that of women with no children.

In contrast, male employment rates are higher among fathers than non-fathers – a similar pattern is found in the other EU member states. Using the old EO₈ indicator is difficult to interpret the ratio of gender gaps as the ratio is negative. The new ratio of parental employment rates for fathers and mothers (standardised respectively by employment rates for men and women without children) is easier to interpret. A value of one or more suggests that there is a negative employment impact for women and/or a positive impact for men. For Spain the ratio rises from 1.30 to 1.39, when moving from the headcount ratio to the FTE ratio. The new indicators reveals a much wider range of employment impacts by member state, but Spain still maintains the third position in the ranking of the FTE ratio, while going up to the seventh position on a headcount basis.

New proposed indicators on care

Spain has very low childcare provision for children under 3. In contrast, the country tends to have relatively high provision for older children through the educational system. The low provision of home services for the elderly and low institutional care provision is connected with the strong family system and the low participation of women in the labour market.

Parenthood effects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Education has a relatively weak effect in the parenthood impact for women in Spain. However, Spain is sixth in the ranking of the employment impact of parenthood among higher educated women. For low and medium educated women, the impact of parenthood is slightly larger, but Spain keeps the same position in the member states ranking.

The impact of parenthood on employment rates increases in Spain, as elsewhere, with the number of children. In relative terms, the parenthood impact of having one child situates Spain in the sixth position in the member states ranking. Spain goes down in the ranking to the fifth position when the number of children is two and further down to third in the case of 3 or more children (following Portugal and Greece). The impacts are relatively small in Spain in part because it has, together with Greece, one of the smallest employment rates recorded for women without children.

Spain has a relatively high employment rate for lone mothers, both in relation to mothers in couple households and also in comparison with other member states. For lone mothers the employment impact is only 35% greater than for mothers in couple households. However, Spain is also one of the countries with a lower proportion of lone mothers.

Unpaid care work

Men spend just over one quarter of the time spent by women looking after children and other persons in Spain. However, poor as this record is, it is over the EU average and there are still five countries behind Spain: the three Southern countries, France, Ireland and Austria.

Involuntary part-time work

Spain has an above average share of involuntary part-time work among both women and men, despite the relatively low rates of part-time working. It is in fact the sixth highest rate of involuntary part-time in the case of women. In spite of the fact that in Spain, like in other member states, the proportion of women who work part-time is considerably higher than that of men, involuntary part-time among male part-timers is slightly smaller than that of women.

1.6. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for France

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

France still has a high level of unemployment, despite a large fall since 1996. The rates remain higher than the European average, even though the trend is for French rates to become increasingly closer to the average. The use of the “absolute rate” as an indicator (i.e. the difference between unemployment rates by gender) may indicate that the gap is tending to fall (it was 4 in 1996 and 3.7 in 2000). However, the use of the absolute gap standardised by male unemployment shows the opposite: the fall in unemployment was, in fact, more favourable for men (women’s unemployment rate fell by 20.6% and men’s by 25.7% between 1996 and 2000). In terms of indicators, the absolute gap fell by 8%, whereas the standardised gap rose by 19%.

Long term unemployment gender gap

Women remain over-represented in long term unemployment in France. In this field, all the indicators are higher than the European average. As far as trends are concerned, the absolute gap is tending to fall, but this stopped in 2000, when the absolute gap in the long term unemployment rate returned to the 1997 level.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The unemployment rate by age is particularly high amongst the under 24 year olds, even though, in terms of trends, much progress has been made in this field. The gap in the youth unemployment rate is identical to that of the 15-64 year olds, but this youth gap is higher than the European average (3.6 compared with 2.2 on average). Taking into account the withdrawal from activity of those over 55, the unemployment rates of the oldest age range are low and the gender gaps almost non-existent. However, some kinds of withdrawal from activity are similar to situations of disguised unemployment and have been widely criticised by the European Commission. Moreover, higher education is a protection against the risk of unemployment and reduces unemployment inequality between men and women: the absolute gap amongst those with higher education is only 1.2, which is – for once – higher than the European average. Conversely those with no, or few qualifications are most vulnerable to unemployment, all the more so if they are women: the absolute gap is more than 4 points.

However the situation is most unequal for those with mid-level qualifications, for whom there is a gap of almost 5 points, i.e., double the European level.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The employment rate of French women is higher than the European average, as opposed to the men's employment rate, which is amongst the lowest in Europe (after Italy) because of the excessive use of withdrawal from activity, especially amongst older men). In terms of trends, growth of employment rates of both men and women is below the European level. The absolute gap between men and women has only fallen by 1 point since 1996. In terms of the absolute gap standardised by male employment, France is fifth (with a gap of 20.2). However, it is men's low rates which explain this result, rather than real progress in terms of equality.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

The full-time equivalent indicator does not change the position of France, which is still fifth. This indicator has little effect on the gender gap: in 2000, the gap fell by 0.5, compared with a fall of 1 point in the "classical" employment rate. In other words, it seems that the effect of part-time work was less marked in this period as compared to the end of the 1980s, when the explosion of women's part-time work had a greater effect on this indicator.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

These data confirm the deficit in employment at both ends of the life cycle in France: the employment rate of young women is one of the lowest in Europe, because of training measures and longer studies amongst this group. However, the gender gap is small for both young people and the oldest age range, because policies of withdrawal from activity or maintaining inactivity apply to men as well. The gap in employment rates of the over 55 year olds is amongst the smallest, although this indicator is misleading, because it is very low for men *and* women. The employment rate gap is highest for the intermediate age ranges, even though it remains smaller than the European average. As for educational attainment, the gender gap is smaller in France at the lower end compared with the European level. These employment rates are low for both men and women. As in most countries, higher education makes access to employment easier and greatly reduces inequality.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

Unlike other countries, including inactive people wanting to work in the unemployed does not change the data much: the gap between “potentially” active men and women is only 1.2 (compared with 2.2 all together). Certainly the share of inactive women wanting to work is predominant, but significantly smaller than in Southern countries (notably Greece). It would perhaps be useful to add age to this indicator, because a French study shows that amongst mothers at home (i.e., removing the youngest and oldest women), 6 out of 10 want to work.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

Outflows from unemployment to employment are lower for women, but correspond with the European level. In 2000, these outflows from unemployment increased, whereas they had been falling since 1996. The new jobs slightly increased the gender gap (which was 5.4 in 1999 and is 6.7 now). This confirms that growth benefited men most. As far as outflows from unemployment to inactivity are concerned, withdrawal has - as we have already indicated - increased for everyone (notably in 1998, for men), but the gap also increased in 1999: it was 5 points in 1998 and 7.4 in 1999.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

As far as all employment is concerned, France is in an intermediate position regarding segregation, as measured by the ID index (but 10th when using the IP index). This corresponds to women’s employment rate (taking all countries together, France is in 9th position for women’s employment rate).

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

Removing part-time employment improves the French position as far as the ID index is concerned: for full-time employment, France is 5th (instead of 8th). This means that part-time work in France increases the incidence of occupational segregation (concentration of part-time employment in few occupations, which are both low skilled and low paid – shop assistants, home helps, etc.).

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

The fact of removing self-employment from the indices of occupational segregation does not affect the French position, because there are relatively few women in this sector and it does not correspond with occupations that are predominantly female.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

France has a stable and relatively low index of sectoral segregation and is in 3rd place. In other words, in France the problem of segregation concerns access to occupations rather than to sectors of activity.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

The ECHP indicator places France in an intermediate position: 5th in 1995 and 7th in 1996. But the ESES indicator reveals a significantly larger pay gap and puts France in 12th position (out of 14). This could be linked to the fact that the public sector is taken into account in the ECHP indicator, given that in this sector the pay gap is relatively smaller. Indeed, if one compares the ECHP indicator limited to the private sector and the ESES indicator, the difference in France's position falls, but does not disappear completely.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

If only full-time employees are taken into account, France is in an intermediate position (7th) again, according to the ESES indicator. However, part-time pay gaps are relatively higher in France, because, according to the ESES indicator, France occupies the last but one position. Moreover, the EOC9 indicator, which compares women's part-time income with that of full-time men, shows up under-valuing of part-time pay: only the United Kingdom has a lower index (part-time women receive only 52.3% of male full-time pay).

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

In France, pay gaps are higher in private (market) services (29.1%) than in the industrial sector (24.4%). Thus, in private services, France is in the last but one position, alongside Spain and just ahead of the Netherlands. This is perhaps explained by the relative absence of collective agreements in private services (retail distribution and catering, for example), compared with the industrial sector.

Gender pay gap by age and education

In France, pay gaps are largest amongst those with lowest educational levels. However, intermediate educational levels protect French women more: for this category, the pay gap is only 18.4%, thus putting France into 4th position. Pay gaps increase greatly with age: up to 29 years old, France is in a very favourable position (1st for 20-24 year olds and 2nd for other young people with, notably, 6% higher pay for young women under 19). After the age of 30, however, the situation is significantly less favourable in France, which is in 11th and 12th position. In other words, pay gaps in France are predominantly linked to the effects of men and women's different careers.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

The share of women in low paid jobs is smaller than in Spain, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. However, almost a third of women are concentrated in low paid jobs (while there are no men in this situation). OECD data put France in a rather favourable situation - only Sweden and Finland are in a better position. It is, however, certain that if the data included part-time work the result would not be the same because we know that 80% of low paid jobs in France are part-time and mainly occupied by women.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

The impact of parenthood on women's employment is quite significant in France, but was below the European level until 1998. Since then the French level seems to be very close to the European average. However, as far as fathers are concerned, the (negative) impact is greater than average: in 1999, only Greece experienced a greater impact of parenthood on men. The new E07 indicator, that measures in headcount terms and on a full-time equivalent basis, shows effectively the negative impact on mothers' employment (or positive impact for fathers). On other hand, the HC and FTE distinction is very small in France: as in Southern countries, FTE measures reduce the negative impact on mothers' employment in France, whereas one knows that part-time work is fairly developed (a third of female employment). This shows that part-time work is undertaken less by mothers in France than in Germany, the

Netherlands and the United Kingdom, for example. In fact, the rate of part-time work is highest amongst the youngest and oldest women in France.

New proposed indicators on care

New indicators on care will make it possible to situate the position of countries more precisely, given the degree of diversity of childcare and provision for dependent elderly people. As for France, there is almost total collective care provision for 3 to 6 year old children. However, this is not the case for very young children (under 3 years old), even though plans for developing it have been announced (about 50% of these children are still looked after by the family). Moreover, many informal systems exist in this field (unregistered child minders). Monitoring this indicator will make it possible to follow more effectively the implementation of commitments that have been announced. As for the elderly, there is still little collective provision in institutions and at home but there is little precise data about it. It seems that a dependency allowance (now called autonomy allowance) has been preferred, but this should not stop reflection and progress regarding real needs of such people and the development of high quality facilities.

Parenthood effects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Indicators on the impact of the number of children on mothers' employment show very clearly the effect of the Parental Childcare Allowance (*allocation parentale d'éducation: APE*). Indeed the employment rate of mothers of one child is higher than the European average and the gap in relation to women without children is very small. However, this rate falls by 10 points on the arrival of a second child. The presence of a third child has an even greater effect (-34.6%) – this drop is one of the largest in Europe.

The effect of the level of education is also very significant and confirms the impact of *APE* – the lower the qualifications, the lower the employment rate of mothers. Amongst those with a low level of education, the negative impact on mothers' employment is amongst the greatest in Europe (after the United Kingdom and Germany). However, for those with high levels of education, being a mother has very little impact on employment – in fact, this impact is lowest in France.

Being a lone mother has little impact on employment in France. At European level, the presence of children has twice as great an impact on lone mothers, but in France, their withdrawal from employment is 3.5 points in relation to mothers in couple households.

Unpaid care work

According to the data, French men devote a quarter of the time that women do to children and other members of the household. This rate is very slightly above the European average, but there are great differences in this area (from 15% in Portugal to 44% in Sweden). If one calculates the time spent by everyone (i.e. 9.5 hours in France), one can also say that 78.9% of time devoted to care is carried out by French women. However it should be noted that this time is itself variable, notably between women, who devote between 7 hours a week (in Portugal) to more than 19 hours (in Sweden and the Netherlands).

Involuntary part-time work

The share of involuntary part-time work was particularly high in France in 1996 (more than half of part-time men and almost 37% of part-time women). This indicator is relatively stable at the European level, but in France it fell by 10 points for men and almost 14 points for women between 1996 and 2000. However, it remains higher than the European average. Even if this decrease is unquestionable, this indicator does not seem to be satisfactory, because some of those in part-time work do, in fact, take into account the constraints of their situation when they make this “choice” (lack of childcare provision, high costs, influence of family traditions, etc.)

1.7. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Ireland

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and Standardised Gender Unemployment Gaps

Ireland recorded a negative gender gap in unemployment in 1998 and has retained a negative gap since then. This makes Ireland one of only three member states to display this negative gender gap in unemployment rates albeit recording the smallest negative gap of the three. The proposed indicator of the standardised rate has little impact on the position of Ireland. It still ranks third amongst member states and remains negative, the 2000 rate being -0.02 compared with an EU average of 0.39 . As regards trends, the percentage change in the standardised gap was larger than the percentage change in the absolute gap between 1996 and 2000 indicating that female unemployment fell faster than male unemployment over this time period.

Long Term Unemployment Gender Gap

The long-term unemployment gap is also negative and Ireland records the third largest negative gap among member States. This reflects the finding of the *Report of the P2000 Working Group on Women's Access to Labour Market Opportunities*⁴ that there remain a number of barriers to women joining the live register including that those available for part-time work only cannot sign on, while anyone who has been absent from employment for more than two years is not eligible to sign for credits.

Unemployment Rates by Age and Educational Attainment

Overall there is little difference between male and female unemployment rates between the ages of 15 and 64. The rate is negative and Ireland and Austria jointly record the smallest gap when compared to all member states. However when considered more closely the indicator is revealing. Only the age rate 15 to 24 indicates a higher female unemployment rate. This reflects a tendency among younger women to sign on the live register as compared with

⁴ Department of Social, Community and Family Affairs

women in middle age groups. In respect of gender equality Ireland performs best in the 25 to 54 range although this range is too broad to form any meaningful conclusions.

Educational attainment should be viewed with caution as the figures relate to 1999 as opposed to all other member states that refer to 2000. Gender differences are most acute in the low educational attainment group where the absolute gender gap is -9.7 percent. This reflects women's concentration in low skilled jobs. At all levels there is a negative gender gap but the gap is smallest for those with medium education level at -0.4 . Meanwhile this group is at the highest risk of unemployment in the economy as a whole.

Absolute and Standardised Gender Employment Gaps

Ireland has the fifth largest gender employment gap among member states whether or not the absolute or the standardised figure is used. As for the UK, Ireland has a relatively high employment rate for men so that standardisation does not lead to a major increase in the relative size of the gap.

Full-Time Equivalent Gender Employment Gap

Ireland has the fifth largest gender employment gap whether or not the full-time equivalent or the headcount gender employment gap is used.

Employment Rate Gap by Age and Educational Attainment

Ireland has the fifth largest employment gap for all member states for all the working age population and for the age group 25-54. The position of the two other age groups is worse. Younger women, aged 15-24 come in with the fourth largest gap after Portugal, Spain and Greece in that order. Meanwhile Ireland has the largest gender gap among all the member states for older women. This reflects the fact that in this age range the male employment rate is the second highest while women's employment rate falls in the middle range.

Again 1999 as opposed to 2000 figures are used for Ireland which needs to be borne in mind when looking at rates comparatively. Ireland have the largest negative gender gap for all member states for those with high levels of education and the second highest for those with medium levels. Ireland has the smallest negative gender gap for those with low education reflecting the predominance of low paid work often classified as unskilled available for

women in our economy. Meanwhile those with low levels of education have the lowest employment rate for the three educational levels.

Share of Inactive People Wanting to Work and the Size of the Male/Female Labour Reserve

If only those who are unemployed are considered to be part of the potential labour reserve in Ireland then there is a significantly higher proportion (1.7 percent) of men in the reserve. However when inactive people wanting to work are included in the potential labour reserve this changes to a position where there are in fact more females (0.2 percent) in the reserve. This reflects the much higher rate of women inactive wishing to work than men.

Flows from Unemployment to Inactivity and Employment

The only Irish figures available here relate to 1997 so no long-term comparisons can be made. The numbers of men and women flowing from unemployment into inactivity are almost exactly the same (26.6 percent male and 26.7 percent female). Ireland was one of only four states to see a higher percentage of women flow from unemployment to employment in 1997. Whilst only 21.0 percent of men made the transition, 33.3 percent of women did so. This reflects the very strong increase in women entering (or re-entering) the work force in Ireland in recent years such that women's employment rate has been rising at a slightly higher rate than men's.

Segregation

Level of Occupational Segregation as Measured by the IP or the ID Index

Ireland's level of segregation is slightly above average as measured by both the IP and the ID index which may reflect Ireland's relatively average female employment rate.

However Ireland ranks high among the member states for segregation particularly when segregation is measured according to the ID index. The IP index shows a segregation rate slightly above the EU average and a ranking of ninth highest level among the member states for all employees. Segregation levels become more pronounced when measured according to the ID index and Ireland falls down the table and to a twelfth place ranking when all those in employment are considered by this measure.

Impact of Removing Part Time Employees from the Indices of Occupational Segregation

Removing part-time employees from the indices reveals a weak effect in the case of Ireland reflecting the low level of part-time work. This results in an improvement in Ireland's level of segregation measured by the IP index and a slightly greater effect of rising three places in the ranking when measured by the ID index.

Impact of Removing the Self-Employed from the Indices of Occupational Segregation

Removing the self-employed from total employment improves Ireland's relative position significantly rising to fifth place on both indices from a ranking of 9th on the IP index and 12th on the ID index for all in employment. However in absolute terms the value of the segregation index is only marginally affected indicating that Ireland's relatively improved position is more an outcome of how this process affects the values of other countries.

Level of Sectoral Concentration

Ireland ranks 12th with respect to gender segregation by sector which is the same position occupied for occupational segregation as measured by the ID index and slightly higher than the ranking of ninth using the IP index.

Pay

Gender Pay Gap using the Current ECHP Indicator and the ESES

Using the current ECHP gender pay gap indicator Ireland has one of the largest gender pay gaps. No figures are available for Ireland to calculate the gender pay gap using the ESES indicator.

Gender Pay Gap for Full and Part-Time Employees

No data for Ireland

Gender Pay Gap for Industry and Private Services

No data for Ireland

Gender Pay Gap by Age and Education

No data for Ireland

New Proposed Indicator on the Share of Female Employees in Low Paid Jobs

No data available for Ireland.

Parenthood

Impact of Parenthood on Employment

Ireland had a female employment rate of 54 percent in 2000, a huge increase on the 1996 rate of 42.8 percent. However the 2000 rate remains an average female employment rate and both these indicators show that parenthood has a major impact on female employment particularly when measured in headcount terms. The impact of parenthood on female employment in Ireland is the second largest amongst all member states using a headcount measure and the fourth largest using an FTE measure. The employment rate of women with children is just over half that of women without children. Using the headcount measure employment rates for women with a child drop by 23 percent while using the full-time equivalent measure they drop by 27 percent.

Male employment increases with parenthood by between 6 and 10 percent depending on the measure used. The new ratio of parental employment rates for fathers and mothers, standardised respectively, demonstrates that parenthood has a negative employment impact for women and a positive employment impact for men at a ratio of 1.63 calculated on a headcount basis. The ratio rises to 1.96 when calculated on an FTE basis, representing the second largest negative impact of moving to an FTE basis.

New Proposed Indicators on Care

Public provision of childcare in Ireland is minimal and there is no comprehensive policy framework for childcare services despite the projected increase in unmet demand for childcare. There has however been some important additional investment in childcare services in disadvantaged areas, and linked to training programmes and other community development activities. A target of increasing childcare places by 30% was set in the 2001 National

Employment Action Plan but this is against an extremely low base and remains targeted on specific disadvantaged local areas.

In addition the provision of professional care services for older people has been described as limited and variable within and among regional health board areas. It is often assumed in assessing an older person's need for services that they should neither substitute nor supplement existing informal arrangements where care is already provided by family members or neighbours. This reflects a very heavy reliance on informal care provision for older people in the community which has been found to be provided by predominantly female relatives who are usually co-resident. There has been increased investment in services for older people in recent budgets in recognition of the projected population growth of this age cohort and women's increased labour force participation. In addition measures to facilitate people absenting from the labour market for a period of time to provide care for a dependent have recently been implemented.

Given the high level of women's involvement in caring for a dependent older relative and the negative impact of parenthood on women's employment, indicators on care would be useful in the Irish context given the recent dramatic rise in women's participation on the labour market.

Parenthood Affects by the Level of Education, Number of Children in the Household and Lone Parenthood

There is no data available to examine the impact of parenthood by the level of education for Ireland.

Ireland records the highest impact of parenthood for a first child of all the member states. This pattern continues in relation to a second child for which Ireland records an impact of -22.37 just marginally behind Germany who records the largest impact at -22.73. However four countries record larger impacts for 3 or more children. Given that Ireland's employment rate of women with no children is relatively low, ranking fourth lowest behind Greece, Spain and Italy, such a strong negative impact of parenthood serves to reinforce this situation.

The impact of parenthood is most pronounced for lone mothers. The employment impact of motherhood is third largest for lone mothers after the Netherlands and the UK and the fourth largest for mothers in couple households. The impact of parenthood for lone mothers is over

86 percent greater than for women in couple households. Parenthood reduces female employment by 19 percent for those living in couple households and by 35.4 percent for women parenting alone.

Unpaid Care Work

Men spend one quarter of the time spent by women in looking after children and other persons in Ireland. Irish women spend the highest number of hours in caring after women in Sweden and the Netherlands. Meanwhile Ireland ranks sixth of all member states in the number of hours spent by men looking after children and other persons.

Involuntary Part-Time Work

Regrettably there is no data available for Ireland in 2000 for this indicator given the quite dramatic change in the trend in numbers engaged in part-time work on an involuntary basis over the second half of the 1990s. This change reflects the sustained period of high economic growth experienced in Ireland during that period most of which was in full-time employment. The proportion of women working part-time on an voluntary basis is significantly higher than the proportion of men. Given the situation regarding minimal childcare provision and the high incidence of family caring for older people in Ireland this may be a reflection of constrained choices for women.

References

Department of Social, Community and Family Affairs (2000) *Report of the P2000 Working Group on Women's Access to Labour Market Opportunities*. Dublin, Department of Social, Community and Family Affairs.

1.8. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Italy

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

Italy records a positive gender gap in unemployment rates, but with a contraction in the absolute gap. The indicators give the same picture with respect to both the relative position of Italy within the EU (ranking 11) and to trends: the relative gap is stable (at 1.8 ratio), the standardised unemployment gap shows only very marginal fluctuations (around 0.80). This stability indicates that male and female unemployment fell proportionately over this time period.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long-term unemployment gender gap is positive and large (ranking 13 after Spain and Greece). Over the time period considered there has been a contraction in long term unemployment, larger for women. Hence the absolute gender gap records a small reduction.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

Unemployment rates for both men and women decline as age increases. The gender unemployment gap is positive for all age ranges, but it is large for the very young (15-24) and very small for those aged 55-64. The contraction of female unemployment (associated with age) can be attributed to women exiting from active life (because of difficulties either in finding employment or in coping with family responsibilities). Therefore the contraction of the unemployment gender gap (associated with age) cannot be attributed to the lower risk of unemployment.

Unemployment rate gaps are also positive but declining for the three educational levels. There is a particularly large positive gap for those with low education (with Italy ranking 13, after Spain and Greece). The risk of unemployment is higher the lower the level of education for both men and women but it is the lowest educated women who bear the highest risk.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Italy records the lowest employment rate for both men and women among member countries; but it has the third largest gender employment gap among member states, whether or not the absolute or the standardised figure is used. It is the low employment rate for men that allows

Italy to record a gender employment gap smaller than Greece and Spain (ranking 13 with both indicators).

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Despite having the third largest gender employment gap (ranking 13), Italy ranks 10 under this measure, above five other countries. The full-time equivalent indicator improves the position of Italy in comparison to three other countries (Ireland, Luxemburg and Netherlands).

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Italy has large absolute gender gaps by age, ranking 13 for all the working age population and for women aged 25-54. For the age group 15-24 Italy ranks 11, in a slightly better position than Southern countries and Ireland. This reflects a low male employment rate for this age range (the lowest within EU) in comparison to the other countries. The employment rate gap by educational attainment is high, particularly for women with low educational attainment.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

In Italy, the female component of the potential labour reserve, taken as a whole, is larger than the male component; the female labour reserve appears larger than the male labour reserve both with respect to the unemployed and to inactive people wanting to work. The gender gap for this indicator is the largest recorded among member states with Italy recording the highest percentage of inactive wishing to work in the female working age population (8.2%).

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

The flow data from unemployment into employment reveal that women are less likely than men to be in employment one year later (32.1% to 40.6%). In fact, women have higher outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity than is the case for men (28.2% of the unemployed women enter inactivity compared to 22.9% men). This flow data reveals the tendency for female unemployment to be disproportionately reduced by flows into inactivity.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Italy has quite a low level of occupational segregation as revealed by both the IP and the ID index (ranking 2 for all those in employment). This low level of occupational segregation results from the combination of the low female employment rate and high share of women working full time (adapting to a labour market moulded around the male employee).

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

This tendency for Italy to have relatively low levels of occupational segregation is maintained when part-timers are excluded, albeit with a change in rank (from 1 to 3). Excluding part-timers does not change the occupational segregation index for Italy, whereas it reduces the indexes of the UK and the Netherlands.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

For all workers the occupational index is the second lowest among member countries, whereas for all employees the index is the lowest. Thus, removing the self-employed from the index does have some impact on the overall value of the segregation index.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index.

Sectoral segregation is lower than occupational segregation. Italy holds a roughly similar rank in both sets of indices (occupational and sectoral segregation).

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Using the current ECHP gender pay gap indicator Italy has one of the smallest gender pay gaps (ranking 4, 1996 ECHP data), only slightly smaller than that for Portugal, Spain and Belgium. Using the ESES data, the gender pay gap is larger (90% and 71%, respectively): Italy ranks 6. If the gender pay gap is calculated using ECHP data but excluding the public sector to increase the likelihood of comparability with the ESES, the gap widens further, with Italy moving further down the ranking, recording the 12th largest gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

Italy is shown to have a slightly larger gender pay gap in relative terms when only full-time employees are considered, with Italy moving down the rankings, from 6th to 8th. Italy has a below EU average gender pay gap when female part-timers are compared to male full-timers: the ratio is 69%, compared to the highest ratio in Sweden of 76%.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

Italy's ranking for industry is better than that for private services. For industry the gender pay gap is 78.5% compared to 72.8% for private services, moving down the rankings, from 7th to 10th.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap for low educated women in Italy is slightly above the EU average (at 78%, the 7th largest). The gender pay gap increases, progressively, for medium and higher educated women. For the latter, it is close the largest across all member states (60%, the 13th largest).

The gender pay gap by age increases progressively from the very youngest (93,4%) to the oldest age group (68,5%). This pattern is common among most member countries; Italy does relatively better than other countries for women aged under 25, and relatively worse for women aged 45-55.

This indicator suggests that when women in Italy enter employment they are not treated very differently from men in terms of pay; however, their career development is different, hence their relative pay deteriorates as age increases.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

This proposed indicator shows a low concentration of women in low paid jobs and sectors in Italy. This is explained by the fact that Italy is characterised by relatively low segregation by sector and a relatively small gender pay gap.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Despite the low overall female employment rate, parenthood has a modest impact on female employment in Italy, even when measured in headcount terms. This impact is below the EU average, and similar to Austria, Spain and Greece. When an FTE measure is used the impact of parenthood is shown to be slightly larger. The employment rate is lower among mothers (with children between 0-6 years), but only 11 percentage points lower than for non-mothers. The impact of parenthood on women's employment is slightly higher (13 percentage points) when a FTE measure is used. Male employment rates are higher among fathers than non-fathers, in common with other EU states.

The gender gap using the new ratio of parental employment rates for fathers and mothers, standardised respectively by employment rates for men and women without children, is easy to interpret. A value of one or more suggests that there is a negative employment impact for women and/or a positive impact for men. For Italy these ratios show an increase in the impact of moving to an FTE basis (the ratio rises from 1.26 to 1.39), but the ratio continues to be below the EU average.

New proposed indicators on care

Italy has low childcare provision for children between 0-3 years and very low provision of home services for elderly people, as well as institutional care provision. This reflects the central role of the family (mothers and wives) in providing care services. This cultural norm is reinforced by legal obligations on relatives to provide care.

Parenthood affects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Education has an even stronger impact on female employment than parenthood. Lack of education has a larger negative impact on female employment than the presence of small children. For women with no children the employment rate drops from 87.1% (high educated women) to 43.1% (low educated women). For women with low education, the employment rate falls from 43.1% for non-mothers to 28.4% for mothers with children 0-6 years.

The impact of parenthood for women in Italy declines as education increases, as it does in other member countries. However, the impact is larger than the EU average for low educated women, about the same for medium educated women and smaller for high educated women. The impact of parenthood on employment rates increase in Italy, as elsewhere, with the number of children. In relative terms, having one child has a below average impact in Italy (-6.6% compared to -10% for the EU). The impact increases with two or more children, but less than in other member countries. Italy also has a particularly high employment rate for lone mothers: this is not only higher than that of mothers living in couple households (67.2% and 45.8%, respectively), but it is higher than that recorded for the EU12 (67.2% and 47.7, respectively).

Unpaid care work

In Italy men spend just over a quarter of the time spent by women in looking after children and other people. The gender ratio for Italy is close to the EU average, but it is lower than the ratio recorded in countries (such as the UK and the Netherlands) having a much higher share of women in part-time work.

Involuntary part-time work

Italy has a high share of involuntary part-time work, at least among women, despite low rates of part-time working. This high involuntary part-time working may reflect constrained choices, in particular the lack of better employment opportunities.

1.8. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Luxembourg

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gap

In 2000, Luxembourg had the 7th smallest absolute unemployment gap which was below the EU average. The standardisation affects this indicator : the Luxembourg standardised unemployment gap is the 4th highest. The unemployment rates are very low for men and women in Luxembourg (less than 3%) but the gap between men and women is important in relative terms. The trends of the two indicators are also very different : From 1996 to 2000, the absolute gap decreased by 30 % and the standardised by 7 %.

Long term unemployment gap

The overall unemployment gap is larger than the long term gap : they are both positive. The share of the overall gap that is explained by the long term unemployment gap is relatively low and is decreasing : In 1996, 24 % of the overall gap was due to the long term gap. In 2000, the long term gap explains only 7 % of the overall gap. This is because the share of women who are long term unemployed has decreased (but not the share of men). In 2000, Luxembourg had the 6th smallest long term unemployment gap in the EU (it is the 7th smallest if we look at the standardised gap).

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

It is more interesting to look at the standardised unemployment gap by age in Luxembourg: the gap increases sharply from the 15-24 age range to the 25-54 age range, where the unemployment rate of women is more than twice the male unemployment rate. The gap decreases strongly when we switch to the last age range where it becomes negative (because the unemployment rate of women disappears while the one of men increases). Those strong variations are reflected in the large variations of the Luxembourg ranks : for the first age group, Luxembourg has the 5th largest (standardised) gap. It becomes the second largest with the next age group. Finally, the gap is the smallest for the last age range.

The standardised indicator give us a better picture of the unemployment gap by educational attainment. The unemployment rates both for men and women decrease when the educational level increases. But the decrease is much faster for men. Therefore the unemployment gap increases between the low and the medium level, where the unemployment rate of women is

2.6 times higher than the rate of men. The rank switches from the 6th place to the 15th. The gap then decreases at the highest educational level, but remains very high (the second largest in the EU).

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The gender employment gap is one of the highest in the EU (the 4th largest) because the employment rate of women is very low (the 4th smallest in the EU). The standardisation does not affect the Luxembourg rank.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

The full-time equivalent gender employment gap is larger than the head count gap : women have more often part-time jobs than men. However, the ranking is the same for both indicators (rank=12 in 2000).

Employment rate gap by age and educational attainment

For both men and women, the employment rates increase from the 15-24 age range to the 25-54 age range and then decrease. The employment rate increases faster for men and the decrease is higher for women. So, the (standardised) gap does not stop to raise with age. In terms of rank, the gap is relatively high for the 25-54 age range where it is the 4th largest (it is the 7th largest for the two others age groups).

The employment rate gap decreases when the educational level increases. But this decrease is weaker than in most other European countries. So, the Luxembourg rank is increasing with the educational level : it is the 5th highest for the lowest level and the 3rd highest for the upper levels.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and size of the male/female labour reserve

The labour reserve is higher for women than for men in Luxembourg. The gender gap for those unemployed and inactive wishing to work is the 7th largest in the EU. This is only due to the gap between male and female inactive. The female share of inactive wishing to work is the second largest in the EU.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

There is no data for Luxembourg on the flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Luxembourg occupies the 6th place in term of segregation, as measured by the ID index. But if we take into account the gender employment gap (IP index), Luxembourg goes to the 5th place.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation:

Like in the other countries, the level of segregation decreases when we remove the part-time employees. However, this decrease is smaller than in most other countries, and the Luxembourg rank increases to the 7th place, as measured by the ID index.

Impact of removing the self-employed from the indices of occupational segregation

When removing the self-employed, the indices of segregation increase and the ID index switches from the 6th place to the 7th place. There is more segregation when we take into account only the employees.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral segregation is lower than sectoral occupation in Luxembourg. Luxembourg have the 4th smallest index in 2000.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator

In 1995 and 1996, Luxembourg had the 9th smallest gender pay gap, as measured with ECHP.

Impact of using ESES on the gender pay gap

The gender pay gap as measured with ESES is higher than as measured with ECHP. However, the decrease is smaller than in most other countries, so the rank decreases (from the 9th place to the 4th place).

Gender pay gap in the private sector as measured with ECHP or ESES

Using the two data sets for Luxembourg may be misleading : the ECHP covers only residents while ESES covers the whole population in employment in Luxembourg. "Transborder" employees account for about 25% of total employment in Luxembourg. Due to the high differentiation, from a sectoral and occupational point of view, between the female employment of resident and transborder women associated with a significant wage differential between the "transborder" sectors or occupation and "resident" sector or occupation, the results obtained from ECHP and ESES are quite different. Therefore the Luxembourg rank is smaller when ESES is used to compute the gender pay gap in the private sector (rank is 8 with ECHP and 4 with ESES).

Impact of removing part-time employees on the gender pay gap

The gender pay gap appears to be smaller when only full-time employees are considered. The rank decreases by two places (from 4th to 2nd).

Pay gap between female part-time employees and male full-time employees

The pay gap between female part-time employees and male full-time employees is relatively high compared to the other countries (rank=9), and it is higher than the overall gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

The gender pay gap is higher in private services than in the industry, and the rank is higher : Luxembourg occupies the 6th place in industry and the 8th place when only the private services are considered.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap in Luxembourg increases with the level of education, as well as the rank : the 3rd place for the less educated and the 5th place for the highest level.

The gender pay gap decreases with the age until the 25-29 age range where it is the smallest in the EU. The gap then increases as well as the rank with the 9th place for the older workers.

New proposed indicator on the share of women employees in low paid jobs

We cannot make a comparison between the new indicator and the OECD data because the later are missing.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on women employment

Like in the other European countries, the parenthood has a negative impact on women employment in Luxembourg. This impact is one of the highest in the EU (the 3rd highest). The impact is increasing when it is measured in full-time equivalent but the rank decreases to become the 4th highest. This high level is due to the lack of childcare services.

Impact of parenthood on men employment

Like in the other European countries, the parenthood has a positive impact on men employment but this impact is very weak in comparison to the other European countries : in 2000, it is the smallest impact in the EU.

Comparison of the impact of parenthood on men and on women

The indicators EO7 and the old EO8 rank Luxembourg differently in terms of gender gap in employment impact of parenthood. The old EO8 ranks Luxembourg to the 6th place and the EO7 to the 9th place in 1999. It must be noted that the level of the gap is almost only due to the female parenthood impact.

Parenthood affects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

The parenthood impact on women increases from the lowest educational level to the medium and then decreases. Men who have a medium level of education know a negative impact of parenthood on employment but the amplitude remains low (it is the only country where men know a negative impact of parenthood). The gender gap in employment impact of parenthood

increases with the level of education, switching from the 3rd place for the less educated to the 10th place at the highest level.

Women employment rate decreases when the number of children in the household increases. So, the impact of parenthood on employment increases with the number of children. The ranks remain high for all groups (8 for one child, 10 for 2 or more children).

There is no data on the employment impact of parenthood for women who live in single household in Luxembourg.

Unpaid care work

Men spend 28,5 % of the time spent by women in looking after children and other persons in Luxembourg. It is the 8th smaller ratio in the EU.

Involuntary part-time work

There is no data on involuntary part-time work of men in Luxembourg. We can only say that the share of involuntary part-time work is very low, in comparison with the other countries (the second smallest after Netherlands in 1999). However, the share of female involuntary part-time work is only the 5th smallest.

1.9. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for The Netherlands

Employment and unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

The level of unemployment in the Netherlands is fairly low, both for women and for men. Within Europe, only in Luxembourg the male and female unemployment is lower. Yet the gender unemployment gap is quite substantial. The Netherlands is in tenth position in terms of the absolute gender unemployment gap. The score even deteriorates if the absolute gap is standardised by the male unemployment rate; the Netherlands then ranks 13th leaving only Spain behind. This low score is partly explained by the low level of the denominator. In this respect it could be argued that both the absolute and the standardised unemployment gap is a poor indicator of the (in)equality in unemployment rates.

Long term unemployment gender gap

In line with the overall low level of unemployment, the long term unemployment appears to be relatively low. In addition, it appears that during the period 1996-2000 the long term unemployment gap has become smaller.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

Like most countries, the gender unemployment gap is positive for all age ranges. In addition, the gender unemployment gap is positive for the three educational levels, but the gap is largest at the lowest educational level (albeit fairly below the European average). Of all subgroups (gender/ educational attainment) low educated women have the highest unemployment risk.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The Netherlands has the highest employment rate of men, whereas the Netherlands scores 5th with regard to the female employment rate; only the Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland, Sweden) and the UK score higher. Despite this favourable ranking, especially the high employment rate of men translates into a rather high absolute gender employment gap – the Netherlands ranks 10th in this respect. The standardisation leads to some improvement (Netherlands now occupying the 8th position), because of the high employment rate of men.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Calculating the gender employment gap in full time equivalents has a major impact in the ranking of the Netherlands. The employment rate of men drops from the first to the 6th and the employment rate of women even falls from the 5th to the 11th position, leaving only Greece, Spain and Italy behind. This translates into a top position with regard to the absolute employment gender gap. This top position is a fair illustration of the popularity of the one-and-a-half-earner model in the Netherlands, with women emphatically in the role of secondary earner.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

The Netherlands has a fairly small employment gap in the youngest age category, leaving only Finland and Sweden behind. The gender gap increases with age. Also relatively speaking, the Dutch position deteriorates with the 10th position for the age group 25-54 and the 11th position for the age group 55-64. Like in all other countries, the gender gap strongly decreases by educational attainment. At the highest educational level, the Netherlands ranks 10th with a gender gap of 8.4%, close to Belgium and Germany (and the EU average).

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

On this indicator, the Netherlands shows a relatively high gender gap for those unemployed and inactive and wishing to work. Only the southern countries score worse. Especially the percentage of women being inactive but wishing to work is relatively high.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

For both men and women, the Netherlands has very high outflow rates from unemployment to inactivity (48,7 for men and 58,0 for women, compared to the EU-average of 17,8 and 23,7. Presumably, this has to do with the system of social security and the general trends (although no longer uncontested) towards low employment rates among those older than 55 years old.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

The Netherlands has a rather low level of segregation as revealed by both the IP and the ID index.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

When part-timers are excluded, it appears that the level of segregation in the Netherlands is the lowest within Europe. This may be partly explained by the fact that – given the high part-time rate in the Netherlands - the exclusion of part-timers really has a major effect on the structure of employment.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

In contrast, removing the self employed from the index has little impact on the overall value of the segregation index, nor does it change the Dutch favourable position in this respect.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Relatively speaking, the Dutch hold a higher rank among sectoral segregation than among occupational segregation.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Using the current ECHP gender pay gap indicator, the Netherlands has a rather large gender pay gap; the Netherlands ranks 10th in this respect. The score even deteriorates when the ESES data are used; on this account the Netherlands has one of the largest gender pay gaps leaving only the UK behind. However (and much like the UK) if the gender pay gap is calculated using ECHP data but excluding the public sector, in order to increase the comparability with the ESES data, the NL moves up the ranking of the gender pay gap, recording only a moderate (7th) score)

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The Netherlands indicates the largest pay gap among full timers. Among part-timers, the Dutch position is much better: moving up the ranking from the 14th to the 7th place. Presumably, this ‘moving up’ is the result of the solid legal and socio-economic position of part-time jobs in the Netherlands. When female part-timers are compared to male full-timers, the Netherlands is again at the bottom end of the distribution with an 11th place.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

If a comparison is being made between all sectors, industry and private services, it appears that the gender pay gap is – comparatively speaking – the smallest within industry. Among private services the gender pay gap is particularly large, with female gross hourly earnings being only 67,3% of male gross hourly earnings. This is the largest pay gap within Europe, except for the UK where this percentage is only 65%

Gender pay gap by age and education

The relatively unfavourable score for the Netherlands on the gender pay gap is also indicated in the figures of gender pay ratio by level of education. Especially among the ‘upper secondary’ level of education (which presumably covers most female workers) the gender pay gap is large. Data by age group indicate a rather inconstant picture, with a rather favourable score among the 30-44 age group (the Netherlands ranking 6th). The gender pay gap appears to be largest among the 45-54 age group, with the Netherlands moving down to the 13th position.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

This indicator further reveals the unfavourable score of the Netherlands on the pay issue. It appears that more than 50% of women are concentrated in low paying sectors. This is the highest percentage within Europe except for Spain (55,2%).

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Parenthood still has a major impact on female employment, although – in head count – the impact is decreasing. When an FTE measure is used, it appears that the impact on parenthood on employment rates is still very high, and only slightly below Germany and UK, where the largest impact is found

New proposed indicators on care

The Netherlands resembles the UK in having traditionally a relatively low child care provision and a relatively high provision of home services for elderly people and a high percentage of elderly in residential care. However, this particular care model is slowly

changing. The number of child care places have grown quite dramatically (80%) over the last 4 years, moving the Netherlands up to a medium position within Europe. At the same time, partly as a result of budget cuts and partly because of changing views, there is a pressure to shift some of the institutional, formal care for the elderly towards the informal segment.

Parenthood affect by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Education has a very strong effect interaction effect on the employment rate of mothers; the impact of parenthood is clearly limited among women with high levels of education. Also the number of children effect the employment rates. In relative terms, having one child has the largest parenthood impact in the Netherlands, except for the UK and Ireland. The impact is large in part because of the high employment rate for women without children (second position, just below the UK). The employment impact of parenthood is largest in the EU for lone mothers. For lone mothers the employment impact is 180% greater than for mothers in couple households..

Unpaid care work

Men spend less than a third of the time spent by women looking after children and other persons in the Netherlands. Nevertheless, from a European perspective, this is not such a bad score, with only Denmark, Belgium and the UK having a higher percentage. In addition, it appears that men spend the greatest number of actual hours on unpaid care (6.2 compared to an EU average of 3.0). Also women appear to be very active in unpaid care: they spend 19.3 hours which is by far the greatest amount in Europe (EU average: 12.6)

Involuntary part-time work

As a result of the high part-time rates, part-time jobs in the Netherlands seem to have lost some of their negative image. In addition it appears that working part-time fits worker preferences; the percentage of involuntary part-time work is lowest within Europe.

1.10. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Austria

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender employment gap

Although unemployment rates are relatively low, Austria has a rather average position and holds the sixth smallest absolute gender unemployment gap of all member states. Austria's position however deteriorates with the standardisation of the rate (drops to seventh place). With respect to trends both indicators show that the gender gap increased between 1996 and 1997 but decreased until 1999. In 2000 the two indicators gives a different picture: the absolute gap decreased further, the standardised gap remained unchanged. This is due to a roughly similar fall in male and female unemployment over this time period.

Long term unemployment gender gap

Austria is one of six member states to record a negative gender gap in long term unemployment rates in 2000. However, long-term unemployed women frequently do not qualify for unemployment assistance as their partner's or spouse's income is taken into account and consequently they disappear from unemployment statistics.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The gender unemployment gap is negative for the unemployed aged between 15-24 and between 55-64 and very small for the unemployed between 25-54. In Austria the risk of unemployment is higher for both young women and men and older women and men but young and older men bear the highest risk.

Unemployment rate gaps are also negative for low and medium educational levels and the gap for those with higher education is small. For both women and men, the risk of unemployment is higher the lower the education but it is low educated men who bear the highest risk.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Regarding the absolute employment gender gap Austria has a rather average level and holds the eighth position. But the standardisation of the rate has a negative effect on the position, with Austria falling to ninth place. What is more, Austria is one of five member states which saw a slight increase in the absolute employment gender gap between 1996 and 2000. This is

due to the fact that during this period male employment increased more strongly than female employment.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

While the full-time equivalent gender employment gap also increased between 1996 and 2000 Austria remains in eighth position in this respect. However the comparison of the absolute employment gender gap and the full-time equivalent gap provides a more accurate picture of the existing gender inequality with respect to employment in Austria.

Employment rate by age and educational attainment

Austria has the eighth smallest employment gap for both all the working age population and all education levels. The employment gap in Austria is larger the older the working age population and is very large for women aged 55-64. This is due to a relatively low female employment rate for this age group. The gender employment gap is also quite large for low and medium educational levels.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

If only the unemployed are considered, the male labour reserve appears slightly larger than the female labour reserve in Austria. However, if the inactive who wish to work are included the female labour reserve is significantly larger than the male labour reserve. After Italy Austria has the highest share of inactive women wanting to work.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

In 1997 the outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity was lower for men than for women and the flow data into employment reveals that unemployed women are more likely than men to be employed one year later. (For Austria only 1997 data is available)

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Austria has a rather high level of occupational segregation as revealed by both the IP and the ID index. The IP Index for all in employment is the fourth highest and the ID Index is the fifth highest among member states. However, between 1997 and 2000 Austria saw a decrease in

the index associated with changes in the share of occupation as the occupational effect acted in the sense of increasing segregation.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

If part-timers are excluded, the ID Index of occupational segregation changes only very little and the rate of change in the IP Index is close to 2.5percentage points. For full-timers Austria holds eleventh position regarding the IP index and tenth position regarding the ID index.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

In contrast, removing the self employed from the indices has large impact on the level of occupational segregation. The tendency for Austria to have rather high levels of segregation is further revealed if self employed are excluded. Then Austria's relative position deteriorates further. If only employees are considered both the IP Index and the ID Index for Austria are the second highest among member states.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral segregation is found to be lower than occupational segregation, given the respective NACE and ISCO classification. Austria holds a rather similar position in both sets of indices.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicators and the ESES

Using the current ECHP and ESES gender pay gap indicators, Austria has one of the largest gender pay gaps. Although the ESES gender pay gap indicator reveals a larger gender pay gap (the gender pay increased by 9 percentage points), Austria holds the eleventh place for both indicators. This is due to major changes for the other countries. If the gender pay gap is calculated using ECHP data but excluding the public sector, Austria moves up the ranking but still has the ninth largest gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

Austria is one of three countries where the gender pay gap is significantly larger for part-timers than full-timers, indicating that the gender specific allocation of part-time jobs seems to be quite pronounced with part-time men occupying higher status jobs and enjoying higher

rates of pay than women in part-time work. Therefore, Austria falls in the ranking, recording the second largest pay gap for part-time employees. However Austria has an average gender pay gap when female part-timers are compared to male full-timers and moves up the ranking, having the eighth largest gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

There is little difference in Austria for both the gender pay gaps for industry and private services and the inter-country ranking for industry and private services. Austria holds twelfth place with respect to the industry sector and eleventh position with respect to the private services sector.

Gender pay gap by age and education

Austria shows the highest gender pay gap for higher educated (much wider than the EU average) combined with an average size gap (similar to the EU average) for medium educated full-time employees. Regarding lower educational level the gender pay gap is only the fifth largest among member states but much wider than the EU average. Austria also has the largest pay gap for full-time employees aged 20-24 and aged over 55, the second largest for those aged 25-44 and the fourth largest for the 0-19 age group. Furthermore, in Austria the gender pay gap widens steadily with age.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

Using the data on the concentration of women and men in low paid sectors, Austria is one of three countries where the level of average pay for men and for women in all sectors is above two thirds of the median pay for all male full-time employees, reflecting the relatively compressed wage structure. However, OECD data show that in Austria the share of female employees in low paid jobs is more than three times the share of male employees in low paid jobs.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Although Austria has an average female employment rate, the impact of parenthood on female employment is smaller than the EU average, but still amounts to 12.6%. Male employment rates are higher for fathers than for men without children as in many other

member states. The existing indicator shows a clear gender specific picture of the impact of motherhood or fatherhood on employment but provides no information about the impact on working time.

The impact of parenthood on overall employment rates is also smaller than the EU average for both the HC measure and the FTE measure. When HC measures are employed, Austria only has the eighth largest impact of parenthood on employment rates among all member states for which data are available. The FTE measure worsens the position and Austria moves up the ranking, recording the sixth largest impact among the member states. The FTE measure (and the FTE employment rates) reflects the fact that many women work part-time in order to reconcile work and family.

New proposed indicators on care

Despite a considerable shortage in childcare facilities and care facilities for elderly people in Austria and against definite employment guideline recommendations, no further expansion of childcare facilities has been planned for in the NAP 2001 and care facilities for elderly are not even mentioned. According to the government, reconciliation of work and family life is to be improved by the introduction of a “childcare benefit”, which are likely to lead to longer employment breaks by mothers. However, indicators on care would be very useful for Austria, not least to keep public attention on this very important issue.

Effects of Parenthood by level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

In Austria, the impact of parenthood on female employment is hardly affected by the level of education. For low educated women, the impact is the second smallest and for medium educated women the fourth smallest among all member states for which data are available. Although the impact of parenthood on female employment is only slightly larger for high educated women, Austria reveals the fourth largest impact among all member states for which data are available. This is however largely due to the major changes that have come about in the other countries. In contrast to other member states the impact of parenthood on female employment in Austria is higher the higher the education.

In Austria, as elsewhere, the impact of parenthood on employment rates increases with the number of children. In relative terms, having two children has a larger impact in Austria than having one or three or more. Thus Austria holds eighth position for the impact of one and

ninth position for the impact of three or more children, but for two children Austria has the seventh largest impact on employment.

Austria has the highest employment rate for lone mothers, reflecting the relatively low level of welfare benefits for them and their necessity to be engaged in gainful employment. The employment impact of motherhood for lone mothers is the smallest among member states for which data are available and with the exception of Greece, where the employment rate for lone mothers is higher than for singles without children. In couple households the impact of motherhood is quite evident and Austria holds sixth position among all member states for which data are available.

Unpaid care work

In Austria men do not even spend a fifth of the time that women spend looking after children and other persons. Thus, Austria has the third largest gender gap, with only Portugal and Greece revealing an even larger gender gap in unpaid care work.

Involuntary part-time work

Austria has a very low share of involuntary female part-time employment but this could also reflect constrained choices, in particular the lack of childcare facilities and fathers who are not available for unpaid care work.

1.11 Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Portugal

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

In Portugal, women have a higher risk of unemployment than men do.

The position of Portugal in the EU ranking of gender unemployment gap does not change substantially when we use different measures of the gap (absolute, relative or standardised) - the country occupies the 8th or 9th place in EU terms. So, it does not perform as well in terms of the gender unemployment gap as it does in terms of the unemployment rate (the 6th lower female unemployment rate in the EU).

Three comments appear to be relevant:

There is no clear tendency of evolution of the unemployment gap in Portugal (if we take either the absolute or the standardised gap): it goes up and down from year to year indicating that male unemployment has been adjusting more rapidly than female unemployment. This evidence shows that some care must be put on the analysis of the recent comparative evolution of the unemployment gap. According to the indicator used, the situation improved between 1998 and 2000 but worsened between 1997 and 2000;

These cyclical variations interfere with the relative position of Portugal in the EU rankings according to the year;

The use of a different principle for the calculation of the country ranks could enhance this analysis. The best performance could be zero and after this downward limit the countries should be ranked following the absolute value of the gap.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The good performance of the Portuguese labour market in the last years is also visible in the clear decreasing tendency of the long-term unemployment rate for both men and women and in the way that the gap between the two groups has been reduced. However and despite this tendency, a gender gap persists showing a higher incidence of long-term unemployment for women as it happens with unemployment in general.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The elderly group of the Portuguese labour force has a negative unemployment gap. So, in this age group, the unemployment rate is higher for men than it is for women. In the other two age groups the unemployment gap shows a higher incidence of unemployment on women. The level of the gap in the youngest group of the labour force is particularly striking: the unemployment gap of the youngest is much higher than the European average for this age group. Regarding this indicator, Portugal ranks amongst the worst performers at the EU level (only Greece, Spain and Italy have a worse performance under this indicator). The level of the unemployment rate of the different age groups shows clearly the higher risk of unemployment for Portuguese young females.

As to the educational attainment breakdown, the gender gap is positive in all groups (women have a higher unemployment rate across all education levels). Still, there are relevant differences on the three educational groups: i) the gap is very reduced for the higher educated group being much lower than the EU gap for this group (Portugal ranks 2nd, after Denmark, in terms of its relative position in the EU); ii) the gap is particularly high for the medium educated group being higher than the EU average gap. The group more exposed to unemployment is the group of women with a medium level of education.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The use of the absolute or of the standardised gender employment gaps does not interfere with the relative position of Portugal within the EU. The country ranks 7th whatever the indicator used and the gap is lower than the average gap in the EU. The employment gap is decreasing.

Full-time equivalent gender employment

The use of the full-time equivalent employment rate has important effects on the relative position of Portugal in EU terms by improving it: Portugal appears as the 4th best performer in the EU when the gender employment gap is calculated in full-time equivalents. This obviously has to do with the high employment rates and the low incidence of part-time that persists in the country as a whole and in the female group in particular. Taking into account these effects appears to be of utmost importance.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Portugal is 7th in the EU according to the absolute employment gender gap. This relative position is, in general terms, kept for the age groups 25-54 and 55-64. Still, for the age group 15-24 Portugal has the largest absolute employment gender gap amongst the EU member states. This fact is obviously linked with the previously referred high unemployment rate for women of this age group but has also to be linked to the fact that Portuguese women are those that are investing more, as compared to men, in high education in EU terms. In 1997, there were 134 females per 100 males in higher education in Portugal. This is the highest value in the EU⁵.

Regarding the education level it must be stressed that the gender employment gap decreases with the educational attainment both in terms of its absolute value and of the relative position of the country within the EU. Portugal ranks 8th according to the gender employment gap for the low educated, ranks 5th when the gap refers to the medium educated and ranks 2nd when the gap refers to the highly educated. It's also worth noting that, in Portugal, the employment rate of medium educated population is the lowest of the three considered education levels.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

In Portugal the share of inactive female wishing to work is higher than the EU average. This is interesting to note given the high activity rate of Portuguese women.

If, in the calculation of the potential labour supply, we only consider the unemployed there are no differences between male and female. Still, if the inactive wanting to work are included, the female reserve is larger than the male reserve.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

The outflow from unemployment to inactivity is much stronger for women than it is for men. According to the data and despite the observed decrease in these flows, the relative intensity of the female flow has been increasing as compared to the male (in 1997 the flow was roughly 50% higher in the group of women and in 1999 it was around 100% higher).

The outflow from unemployment to employment is, in general terms, higher for men than for women. Still there has been a tendency for the increase of the flows and the gender gap has been reduced (in 1999 this outflow was even greater for women than for men). The

⁵ EUROSTAT and EUROPEAN COMMISSION, 2001, *The Social Situation of the European Union 2001*, p.118. There is no data for Luxembourg

Portuguese data, namely the particular characteristics of young groups, show that it could be interesting to have these flows by age group.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

Portugal has, for total employment, a low level of segregation a fact that is quite surprising given the high female activity rate in the country. Still this position is converted to a high segregated one when we exclude the self-employed and part-timers from the calculation of the indexes. The inclusion of self-employment (namely in agriculture) in the analysis, the relatively high incidence that it has on employment together with the high incidence of women in these jobs are probably the main reasons for this discrepancy.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

When we remove the part-timers from the group of employees, the position of Portugal in the EU ranking remains the same if we use the ID index and shows a higher relative degree of segregation according to the IP index. Still, it is worth noting that the value of the index changes quite slightly.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

The relative position of Portugal changes drastically when we calculate the segregation indexes considering only the employees - segregation increases strongly. This has to be explained in the context of high female activity rates, of the high importance of self-employment and of a still high importance of agriculture in the employment structure.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Portugal appears to be a highly gender segregated country in sectoral terms. The relative position of the country is similar to the one that has been found for employees at the occupational level. It's important to notice that Portugal is the EU country where gender segregation in sectors had the highest increase in the period between 1997 and 2000.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Portugal is probably the best example of the importance of using the different data sources and how they can contribute to misunderstandings in the evaluation of the situation of the different countries. If we use the gender pay gap according to the ECHP Portugal ranks first in the EU in terms of gender equality in pay. The ESES data ranks Portugal in the 12th position! A rather similar position is obtained if we use the data of the ECHP excluding the public sector (Portugal ranks 13th).

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The gender pay gap in Portugal has only a slight change in relative terms if part-timers are not considered (12th in the EU ranking for all the employees, 13th if only full-timers are considered). The inclusion of part-timers improves, although slightly, the relative situation of the country. In Portugal there is no relevant difference between the gross hourly earnings of full-timers and part-timers: the gender pay gap for all employees (ESES) is 72% and the relative pay of women working part-time and men working full-time is 73% (Portugal ranks 3rd in the EU according to this indicator). So, regarding hourly pay, no evidence appears in terms of the polarisation full-timers/part-timers.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

In Portugal, strong differences appear when we are considering the gender pay gap in industry and in private services. If we take industry Portugal ranks in the last place having the largest gender pay gap. If we consider private services the situation is much more favourable and Portugal ranks 5th at the EU level. So high differences in pay occur at a sectoral level (public/private, industry/private services, ...). The bad performance of the country in terms of the industry gender gap is linked to the importance of traditional sectors in the industrial structure of the country (such as textiles, clothing, footwear, leather and cork) and to the importance that female employment has in these sectors.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The relative position of Portugal concerning the gender pay gap improves with education: Portugal ranks 13th in the group of low educated, 12th in the group of medium educated and 6th in the high educated group. In the two less educated groups the gender pay gap in Portugal stands below the average value of the EU while in the high educated group the gender pay gap stands above the average level of the EU.

As refers to age it is important to stress that the gender pay gap is lower for the younger group (those younger than 24 years) but that it strongly increases with age. In relative terms the worst situation occurs in the group aged 25-29 (Portugal ranks in last place in EU terms) and in the group 30-44 (Portugal ranks 13th). For older groups there is some improvement essentially in the age group 45-54 (Portugal ranks 7th in EU terms).

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

This indicator could improve our knowledge of gender differences regarding pay and so it could only be helpful.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

The available data for the EU countries show that Portugal has the most similar impact of parenthood on men and women (although it is important to note that no information is available regarding the Nordic countries). Taking into account the FTE measure, instead of headcount terms, slightly increases the difference.

It's also worth noticing that in Portugal, as it happens in the other EU member-states, the employment rate of men and women show a different reaction to the existence of small children: it's higher for men with children and lower for women with children as compared to men and women without children. The changes that occur in male's employment rate are comparable with those that occur in the EU countries; those that occur in female employment rates are much lower. So parenthood has a small influence on female employment rates in Portugal.

New proposed indicators on care

Portugal has low, but increasing, childcare provisions. In relative terms elderly care provisions are even lower. Portugal is also going through deep changes in family structures

and informal care services, namely those that rely on family links, remaining important, seem to be decreasing quite deeply.

Parenthood effects by the level of education of the parent, the number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Portugal shows a very particular behaviour in the female employment rate of women: for women without children the country ranks 5th in terms of employment rate; for women having one or more children (younger than 14 years old) it ranks 1st (2nd in the case of 2 children), for women with children under 6 years old Portugal ranks 1st. Portugal is also the only EU country where the female employment rate increases when we compare women without and women with one child. The employment rate only shows an important decrease when a third child exists. Education has a relevant role on this behaviour: the female employment rate decreases for low educated mothers (as compared to low educated non-mothers), medium and high educated mothers increase their employment rates (as compared to non-mothers of the same educational groups). Male employment rates increase with parenthood for all education levels.

In single households the impact of motherhood (of children younger than 6 years old) in terms of decreasing the female employment rate is relevant (a decrease of 14.7 pp as compared to those without children).

Unpaid care work

Portuguese women spend (weekly) 7 times the time spent by men in unpaid caring work. At this level Portugal has the worst record among EU countries: time spent for men on this activities is only 15% of the time spent by women. Still Portugal is the EU country where less time is spent, both for men and for women, in unpaid caring. This is an important element of research especially if we consider the low childcare provisions of the country - it's an important indicator on quality of life.

Involuntary part-time work

Portugal has a higher incidence of involuntary part-time if compared to the average of the EU. This occurs by means of a higher incidence of female involuntary part-time (higher than the EU average) and a lower incidence of involuntary part-time on men (and lower than the EU average).

1.13. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Finland

Employment and unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

Finland belonged for a long time to the countries where women's unemployment was at a lower level than men's. In this respect, a change happened in 1996 (which cannot be seen in figures on the page 1): women's unemployment rate has been above men's.

The absolute gap in unemployment has been fluctuating slightly more than the relative one during 1997-2000. It is typical for Finland that unemployment continues to be high for both men and women. In this respect, the gap is not a good indicator of unemployment. The main goal should be to reduce unemployment for both men and women. Examined separately, men's ranking in unemployment rates was the 14th in 2000 and women's the 11th. The standardised unemployment gap takes men's level into account, but the ranking for Finland is still as high as the 5th.

Long-term unemployment gender gap

Although the level of unemployment is high in Finland, the rates of long-term unemployment are rather reasonable. The long-term unemployment rate is slightly lower for women than for men, which is contradictory with the whole unemployment rate. Women's long-term unemployment is under the EU level (2.7% – 4.5%), men's is about the same level as in the EU (2.9% – 3.1%).

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The ranking of unemployment among young men (15-24 years) is fairly low, being the 14th, and the figure is much higher than the EU average (27.5% – 15.0%). The same applies to young women; their rate is much higher than the EU mean (29.3% – 17.3%). These figures are high partly because, in statistics, students are defined as unemployed if they are looking for a job (e.g. a summer job).

The gender gaps for the different age groups are not very informative even here. The actual unemployment rates tell more about the unemployment situation.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The gender gap in employment is the second lowest in the EU, both in absolute and standardised measures. Still, both gaps have been increasing slowly. Examined separately, men and women's employment rates in Finland show a somewhat different picture. Women's employment rate in 2000 was only the fourth highest, at 64.4 per cent.

The gender gap in employment is narrow because the male employment rate is rather low in Finland - 70.6 per cent, compared to the EU mean of 72.5 per cent. This also influences the fact that the standardised employment gap is rather narrow.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Part-time work is still quite rare in Finland, which is why the full-time equivalent employment rate is very high for women - the second highest in the EU; only Denmark has a higher one. The gender gap in full-time equivalent employment is the smallest in Finland. Here Finland passes Denmark because of the high male employment rate in Denmark and a rather low one in Finland.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

Examined against age, the gender employment gap is the smallest among the 55 to 64-year-olds, and at the same time is the smallest in the whole EU. This is a consequence of the long tradition of female employment and also of the low male employment and high early retirement rates in this age group.

The probability to be employed grows with the educational level. However, among the group with the lowest educational level there are still many who are in further education, which lowers the employment rate. The gender gap is quite narrow (2nd and 3rd) in the groups with the lowest and middle educational levels.

However, the differentials between countries could be better described with the educational structure of the employed men and women. Finland has the highest figure for women having attained tertiary level of education, which as such explains the high employment rates for women.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

In Finland, the share of inactive people wanting to work (hidden unemployment) is at about the same level for men and women. This means that there are no big female labour reserves. However, both the male and female reserves are above the EU average.

These rates do not show the relative size of the inactive population, which is quite an essential point in Finland. If the inactive population is divided into students and those in domestic work, the last mentioned group is very small in Finland. It has been stable, at about 100,000 persons, for over a decade now. The labour reserves should perhaps be counted mostly from this group, in addition to the unemployed.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

In general, the flows from unemployment to employment are equally big for men and women, but the flows to inactivity are bigger among women. However, the inactive population in Finland has the same probability for receiving unemployed men and women. The explanation is perhaps the traditionally small group of women in domestic work. It is more typical for both men and women to move from unemployment to studying than to domestic work.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

According to the IP and ID indices, the level of occupational segregation in Finland is the highest in Europe. This is a very doubtful honour, but one can also ask, as has been done in the report, how alarming gender segregation is. Two theories have been presented in the segregation report: the first one sees the gender segregation as a major problem and also as a reason for many other troubles, like wage differentials. The other theory does not see the gender segregation as problematic but sees it, on the contrary, as a positive phenomenon. The second one seems to be more appropriate when interpreting the Finnish case. Furthermore, the Joint Employment Report states that: “a segregated labour market with high employment rate should be considered preferable to one with less segregation but low employment rate for women.” (JER 1999:70)

Nevertheless, if gender segregation is to be measured, it should be done with as diversified information as possible. For example, a good suggestion is to use flows in the gender composition of occupations. It is also essential to analyse the adequacy of the occupation classification systems. Even small changes in the classification or in the levels used can cause big changes in the results.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

Finland is a country where part-time employment does not play a major role. Removing part-time employees from the indices does not have any influence on the segregation indices. Part-time work is quite evenly distributed in female and male dominated occupations.

Impact of removing self-employed from the indices of occupational segregation

Self-employment is also rather marginal in Finland. This is why removing it from the indices does not make any difference. Even agricultural self-employment has fallen a lot since the time in which Finland joined the EU. Removing agricultural self-employment, which is quite evenly distributed according to gender, has only a minor reducing influence on the segregation indices.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index

Sectoral concentration measured by the IP index is also at a very high level in Finland. It seems obvious that countries with high level of welfare services have high gender segregation. The second highest in this respect is Sweden.

Pay

Gender pay gap using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Finland's ranking concerning the gender pay gap is the 6th using the ECHP (1996) and the 3rd using the ESES database (1995). However, this comparison and ranking is hampered by the limitations of the sources which are also mentioned in the report. In the ECHP only net wages are included and hourly earnings are obviously unreliable. The ESES is also limited because only private sector is included.

Some of the results are quite surprising. For example, according to the ECHP, Portugal's ranking is the 1st if the public sector is included and the 13th if the public sector is not included. From other sources we know that the public sector is not very large in this country. Therefore this figure should be treated with caution.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

According to the ESES data, Finland's ranking in the gender pay gap is the 5th if full time employees are considered and the 2nd if only part-time employees are included. Part-time employment has only a minor effect in Finland.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

In Finland these sectors, i.e. industry and private services, are not very different when the gender pay gap is studied. One sector, which might make a difference, is the public sector, but it is not included in the ESES data. The data can be misleading especially for Finland where almost half (47%) of the female employees are working in the public sector.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap grows with the educational level in Finland as in other countries, too. According to the ESES figures, there are no big differences in different educational groups. Yet, we must remember that the public sector is excluded, which in Finland is rather decisive. Even the standardisation of education does not help in this respect. Employed women in Finland are more educated than employed men, which as such shows that the pay gap (which is in favour of men) is unfair.

Age differentials are also difficult to evaluate when almost half of the Finnish women are missing from the figures. Other studies (Lehto 1999) have shown that age or years of work experience increase men's wages and salaries more than women's. This is a trend at all educational levels.

New proposed indicator of the share of female employees in low paid jobs

In Finland quite small proportions of both men and women work in low paid jobs. This is a good indicator for describing the structure of employment. This reinforces the idea of adding this dimension to the pay gap indicators.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Finland is not included in the tables about the impact of parenthood on employment. This is because the tables have been produced on the basis of the ELFS household data. The Nordic Countries have not collected their LFS from the household bases. However, we inquired about the number and age of children in the ordinary LFS and it is possible to at least compare the figures according to children under 7 (the school age in Finland). While in the EU the average employment rate among women with children in the age group of 0-6 was 55 per cent, the corresponding figure for women in Finland was 62 per cent (in 2000). This figure is influenced by the fact that women who are on “care leave” (1-3 years after parental leave) are not defined as employed even if they have a job contract. These women are classified as “inactive”. This is a different practice compared to e.g. Austria, where mothers are classified as “employed persons”.

New proposed indicators of care

In Finland all children under 7 have the right to public day care. This is not a problem anymore. The problem in day care is in quality in the sense that municipalities cannot finance enough staff for day care centres. Care for the elderly is also suffering from the same problem.

Parenthood effects by level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood.

This information is not available at the moment, but in the future Finland, too, will produce a part of the LFS on a household basis.

Unpaid care work

The presented table (see annex) stimulates a debate around the question of reliability. According to our experience, special Time Use Studies using diaries is the only reliable source for this kind of information. This survey has been carried out in Finland in 2000, and the results are about to be published. The Gender Barometer and the Quality of Work Life Surveys have shown with different questions that change in the division of labour in domestic

work is very slow. Only the unemployment at the beginning of the 1990s brought men to take some more responsibility (Sutela 1999).

Involuntary part-time work

Part-time work is quite rare in Finland and those who work part-time often do it involuntarily. While in the EU the average proportion of involuntary female part-timers was 15 per cent (in 1999), the corresponding figure for Finnish female part-timers was 41 per cent. The figure for men is also above the European average (33% - 24%).

These figures show that part-time work is not decisive for reconciling work and family responsibilities (care work is). Part-time work is rather a sign of a bad situation in the labour market.

1.14. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for Sweden

Employment and unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Sweden is one of the three countries, which have a negative gender gap in unemployment rates. The absolute unemployment rate fell faster for men than for women between 1997 and 2000, leading to a shrinking absolute gender gap from $-0,7$ in 1997 to $-0,2$ in year 2000. Using the relative gender gap, one can say that the development between 1997 and 2000 has lead to a closing of the gender gap. The standardised gender gap shows for Sweden an almost closed gap. One might say that it shows a more accurate figure than the relative gender gap figure.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long-term unemployment gender gap is negative but larger than the overall absolute gender unemployment gap. The unemployment gender gap was, in 2000, of -0.9 percent for the age group 15-64. The absolute unemployment gender gap was -0.2 percent.

The largest negative unemployment gaps are found for the very young (15-24 years old) and the oldest 55-64. The overall absolute unemployment gender gap has closed faster than the long term one.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The unemployment gender gaps are negative for all age groups. As mentioned above, the gaps are largest for the younger and the older age groups. The picture is not quite the same when it comes to the educational attainment and gender gaps. Here we can see that the gender differences increase with higher educational levels, meaning that for every higher educational level woman have a lower unemployment level than men.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

Using the standardised calculation does not change the situation that Sweden has the lowest employment rate gender gap. In the Swedish case it is mainly a result of a high female employment rate, the male rate is at the EU15 level.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

The full time equivalent calculation does not change dramatically the situation for Sweden. The higher proportion of Finnish women in full time work puts Finland on the first place in these calculations. Also here it is interesting to note that the Swedish male rates are at the EU total level while the female rates are the third highest. Denmark has higher female full time equivalent rates than Sweden, but the higher male rates contribute to the larger gender gap in the full time equivalent employment rate gap. This illustrates in a way the importance of studying the employment rates separately for women and men.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

For Swedish men aged 15-54 the employment rate is lower than the EU15 level, for the youngest 15-24 it is considerably lower. But for those aged 55 and more the level is higher than the EU total. For the youngest it is an effect of larger educational attainment, but for the middle aged the reason is not that obvious. For Swedish women the employment level is higher than the EU15 level for every age group. One can say that the employment level for women aged 55 –64 is extremely high in a European comparative perspective. It is considerable higher than in Denmark, Finland, UK and Portugal.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour force reserve

If compared with inactive women, a higher proportion of inactive men would like to work. If these men were calculated as unemployed they would contribute to closing the unemployment gender gap. Looking at the female share of inactive wishing to work, this is very low in Sweden and Finland when comparing to the EU level. Denmark is above the EU level.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

Men have a higher outflow from unemployment to employment and women from unemployment to inactivity. It is difficult from these data to say anything about the reasons why this pattern has occurred. One reason might be that women (to a larger extent than men) have entered the adult education initiative, which has led to the fact that they have left the labour force. Why men to a larger extent have gone from unemployment to employment probably has to do with the fact that the male dominated sectors of the economy started to grow before the female sectors did - like the public sector. The difference had decreased in 2000.

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP and the ID index

Sweden has a high segregation level when compared to the rest of the EU (irrespective of using the IP or the ID index). As can be seen by the report it is a close positive relationship between high employment rates and high segregation levels. This is discussed in the report and it seems important to use other measures if we want to really understand segregation mechanisms, which also is suggested in the report. From the Swedish perspective, women work to a large extent in female dominated occupations, mostly public sectors, like health, care and education. They also have private sector service work. The issue of the organisation of the reproductive work has to be analysed when doing international comparisons on gender segregation in the labour market.

Removing part time employees from the indices

When having just the full time employees, the segregation levels are reduced for both indices; meaning that the part time jobs are more segregated than full time jobs. The change is similar to the EU level (a level of 3 percentage points).

Removing self-employed

Removing the self-employed leads to a slight increase in the indices as the overall change for EU15. The stability in the segregation indices is rather profound.

Level of sectorial concentration

Excluding those in agriculture does not change much the level of the indices.

Taking women's employment in public sector, we can see that Sweden has the highest proportions both for all and for part timers. We have to think further on how to make the comparisons meaningful.

Pay

Gender pay gap using the ESES indicator

Using the ESES data on hourly earnings we find that Sweden has the smallest gender pay gap. It is a problem that Sweden is not in the ECHP.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

When only part-time workers are considered the gender ratio increases (as at the EU level), but the ranking decreases and Sweden is then on the 6th position. Denmark, Belgium, Greece and Italy have lower pay differences between part time working women and men than Sweden.

The relative pay of women working part time compared to men working full time seems to be a good indicator.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

As the data only have private sector employees it is rather uninteresting for comparing gender pay gaps. Anyhow, the gap is larger for private services than for industry in Sweden.

Gender pay gap by age and education

For the two lowest levels the gender pay ratio is fairly the same in Sweden. It occupies the second position for the third level. But at this level the ratio is lower and the gap larger. It is the more egalitarian wage over the whole wage structure that renders Sweden the number 1 rank when the total gap is calculated.

New proposals

It is important that data that covers all member states is used - reliable data that covers all sectors.

1.15. Analysis of Indicators on Gender Equality for the United Kingdom

Employment and Unemployment

Absolute and standardised gender unemployment gaps

The UK is one of only three member states to record a negative gender gap in unemployment rates. Moreover the negative gap is the largest, such that the UK has, according to this indicator, the best position with respect to gender equality in unemployment rates. The standardisation of the rate does not have a major impact on the position of the UK in relative terms. However the two indicators give a different picture with respect to trends: the absolute gap fell by over 60% between 1996 and 2000, but the standardised by only 44%. This more modest fall indicates that male unemployment fell proportionately faster than female unemployment over this time period.

Long term unemployment gender gap

The long term unemployment gender gap is also negative for the UK and is the largest negative gap among member states. However the benefit system does not allow women in couple households to claim unemployment benefit if they exceed their six months individual entitlement and this may affect the number of women who consider themselves to be long term unemployed rather than inactive.

Unemployment rates by age and educational attainment

The gender unemployment gap is negative for all age ranges while for the EU as a whole it is positive for all age ranges. Unemployment rate gaps are also negative for the three educational levels but here is a particularly large negative gap for those with low education. The risk of unemployment is higher the lower the education for both men and women but it is low educated men who bear the highest risk.

Absolute and standardised gender employment gaps

The UK has the fourth smallest gender employment gap among member states whether or not the absolute or the standardised figure is used. The UK has a relatively high employment rate for men so that standardisation does not lead to a major increase in the relative size of the gap.

Full-time equivalent gender employment gap

Instead of having the fourth smallest gender employment gap, the UK under this measure is in sixth position, falling now below France and Portugal and with only a slightly smaller gap than in Austria, Germany and Belgium. The full-time equivalent indicator provides a more accurate picture of women's share of the volume of wage work.

Employment rate gaps by age and educational attainment

The UK has the fourth smallest employment gap of all member states for all the working age population and for the age groups 15-24 and 25-54. The UK falls to sixth place for women aged 55-64, but this in part reflects a relatively high male employment rate for this age range in comparison, for, example to France.

Share of inactive people wanting to work and the size of the male/female labour reserve

If only the unemployed are considered part of the potential labour reserve in the UK, the male labour reserve appears larger than the female labour reserve. However, if the inactive who wish to work are included the male and female labour reserves can be considered roughly equal.

Flows from unemployment to inactivity and employment

Women have 50% higher outflow rate from unemployment to inactivity than is the case for men in the UK (24.3% of the unemployed women enter inactivity compared to 15.9% men). This flow data reveals the tendency for female unemployment to be disproportionately reduced by flows into inactivity. However the flow data into employment reveal that women who are unemployed are slightly more likely than men to be in employment one year later (46.1% to 40.3%).

Segregation

Level of occupational segregation as measured by the IP or the ID index

The UK has a rather average level of segregation as revealed by both the IP and the ID index. The level of segregation might be considered rather low given the relatively high female

employment rate in the UK and the known positive correlation between employment rates and segregation.

Impact of removing part-time employees from the indices of occupational segregation

This tendency for the UK to have rather low levels of segregation, at least for some groups of women, is further revealed when part-timers are excluded. For full-timers the index is the fourth lowest among member states. The UK also has one of the highest rates of change in the index, if part-timers are excluded, close to 5percentage points for the ID index. Only the Netherlands has a higher rate of change.

Impact of removing the self employed from the indices of occupational segregation

In contrast, removing the self employed from the index has little impact on the overall value of the segregation index but as this process changes the values for other countries there is another major change in ranks with the UK achieving the third or fourth lowest index as other countries experience a sharp increase in recorded segregation once the analysis is restricted to employees only.

Level of sectoral concentration as measured by the IP index.

Sectoral segregation is found to be lower than occupational segregation, given the respective NACE and ISCO classifications. The UK holds a roughly similar rank in both sets of indices.

Pay

Gender pay gap, using the current ECHP indicator and the ESES

Using the current ECHP gender pay gap indicator the UK has one of the largest gender pay gaps, only slightly smaller than that for Germany. Using the ESES data, the UK has the largest gender pay gap. If the gender pay gap is calculated using ECHP data but excluding the public sector to increase the likelihood of comparability with the ESES we find the opposite occurs: the UK instead moves up the ranking of the gender pay gap, recording only the tenth largest gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap for full and part-time employees

The UK is shown to have a slightly smaller gender pay gap in relative terms when only full-time employees are considered, with the UK moving up the rankings from 14th to 11th when full-timers only are considered. The UK again has the largest gender pay gap when female part-timers are compared to male full-timers. Moreover the gender pay ratio is only 44%, compared to the highest ratio in Sweden of 76.48%. The inclusion of this indicator provides evidence of the polarisation between female full and female part-timers in the UK.

Gender pay gap for industry and private services

There is little difference in the UK ranking for industry compared to private services: for both sectors the UK has the largest or second to largest gender pay gap.

Gender pay gap by age and education

The gender pay gap for higher educated women in the UK is slightly above the EU average and only the 7th largest. In contrast the gender pay gap for lower and medium educated is close the largest across all member states. It is among these groups that part-time work will be concentrated. For each age group the UK has close to the highest gender pay gap but the gap between the UK and other countries is considerably higher for women over 30 than under 30.

New proposed indicator on the share of female employees in low paid jobs

This proposed indicator would further reveal the problem of the concentration of women in low paid jobs and sectors in the UK. The UK has one of the highest concentrations of women in low paid sectors. We also know from OECD data that even when only full-timers are considered the share of low paid female workers is high by European standards and only slightly below North American levels. If part-timers were included the relative position of the UK would be shown to be even worse.

Parenthood

Impact of parenthood on employment

Despite the high overall female employment rate, parenthood has a major impact on female employment, even measured in headcount terms. This impact is only slightly below Germany, where the largest impact is found. When an FTE measure is used the UK is revealed to have

the largest impact of parenthood on employment rates, compared to women without children. The employment rate is under half that for women with no children.

Male employment rates are higher among fathers than non fathers, as is found in other EU states. The gender gap using the old EO₈ measure of the ratio of gender gaps is difficult to interpret as the ratio is negative. The new ratio of parental employment rates for fathers and mothers, standardised respectively by employment rates for men and women without children is easier to interpret. A value of one or more suggests that there is a negative employment impact for women and/or a positive impact for men. For the UK these ratios make clear the impact of moving to an FTE basis: the ratio rises from 1.54 to 2.31. The new indicators reveals a much wider range of employment impacts by member state, with the UK recording the largest impact.

New proposed indicators on care

The UK has relatively low childcare provision but it is increasing. In contrast the UK has tended to have relatively high provision of home services for elderly people and also institutional care provision. This may reflect the rather fragmented family systems in the UK and the lack of obligations on relatives to provide care. However all forms of care provision have been affected by budget cuts and there has been perhaps more pressure on relatives to provide the care.

Parenthood affects by the level of education, number of children in the household and lone parenthood

Education has a very strong effect introducing the parenthood impact for women in the UK. However only Germany and Luxembourg have a higher parenthood impact among higher educated women. For low and medium educated women, the impact is the greatest among all member states for which we have data.

The impact of parenthood on employment rates increase in the UK, as elsewhere, with the number of children. In relative terms, having one child has the largest parenthood impact in the UK apart from Ireland compared to all other member states for which we have data. The impact of three or more children is also the second largest after Germany, but three countries record larger impacts for two children. The impacts are large in the UK in part because it has the highest employment rate recorded for women without children. The UK also has a

particularly low employment rate for lone mothers, reinforcing the strong employment impacts of motherhood found even in couple households. The employment impact of motherhood is the largest in the EU for mothers in couple households and the second largest for lone mothers after the Netherlands. For lone mothers the employment impact is 80% greater than for mothers in couple households.

Unpaid care work

Men spend just over a third of the time spend by women in looking after children and other persons in the UK. However, poor as this record is, the proportion is the second highest recorded in the data set, after Denmark. Moreover the actual hours spend are greater than in Denmark but below those in the Netherlands.

Involuntary part-time work

The UK has an apparently very low share of involuntary part-time work, at least among women, despite high rates of part-time working. However this high voluntary part-time working may reflect constrained choices, in particular the lack of childcare facilities and the expectations of long hours of work from those in full-time jobs.

2.Data Appendix

Indicators on Gender Equality

Data Appendix

A. Employment and Unemployment

Table A1: Unemployment rates and gender gaps

	1997				1998				1999				2000			
	Fem	Male	Ab Gap	Rel Gap	Fem	Male	Ab Gap	Rel Gap	Fem	Male	Ab Gap	Rel Gap	Fem	Male	Ab Gap	Rel Gap
Belgium	12.1	7.4	4.7	1.6	11.8	7.8	4.0	1.5	10.5	7.5	3.0	1.4	8.8	5.7	3.1	1.5
Denmark	6.8	4.6	2.2	1.5	6.6	4.1	2.5	1.6	6.0	4.5	1.5	1.3	5.3	4.2	1.1	1.3
Germany	10.7	9.2	1.5	1.2	10.0	8.8	1.2	1.1	9.1	8.2	0.9	1.1	8.5	7.7	0.8	1.1
Greece	15.2	6.4	8.8	2.4	16.7	7.1	9.6	2.4	17.6	7.5	10.1	2.3	16.7	7.3	9.4	2.3
Spain	28.3	16.0	12.3	1.8	26.6	13.8	12.8	1.9	23.0	11.2	11.8	2.1	20.6	9.8	10.8	2.1
France	14.4	10.6	3.8	1.4	13.9	10.0	3.9	1.4	13.3	9.5	3.8	1.4	11.5	7.8	3.7	1.5
Ireland	9.9	9.9	0.0	1.0	7.3	7.7	-0.4	0.9	5.5	5.7	-0.2	1.0	4.2	4.3	-0.1	1.0
Italy	16.3	9.3	7.0	1.8	16.3	9.1	7.2	1.8	15.6	8.7	6.9	1.8	14.4	8.0	6.4	1.8
Luxembourg	4.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	4.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	3.3	1.7	1.6	1.9	3.0	1.6	1.4	1.9
Netherlands	7.0	3.9	3.1	1.8	5.3	3.1	2.2	1.7	4.7	2.3	2.4	2.0	3.9	1.9	2.0	2.1
Austria	5.4	3.7	1.7	1.5	5.4	3.8	1.6	1.4	4.7	3.4	1.3	1.4	4.4	3.2	1.2	1.4
Portugal	7.7	6.1	1.6	1.3	6.4	4.1	2.3	1.6	5.2	3.9	1.3	1.3	5.2	3.4	1.8	1.5
Finland	13.0	12.3	0.7	1.1	12.0	10.9	1.1	1.1	10.7	9.8	0.9	1.1	10.6	9.1	1.5	1.2
Sweden	9.5	10.2	-0.7	0.9	8.1	8.6	-0.5	0.9	7.1	7.2	-0.1	1.0	5.8	6.0	-0.2	1.0
United Kingdom	6.0	7.9	-1.9	0.8	5.5	7.0	-1.5	0.8	5.3	6.7	-1.4	0.8	4.9	6.0	-1.1	0.8
EU - 15	12.3	9.3	3.0	1.3	11.7	8.6	3.1	1.4	10.9	7.9	3.0	1.4	9.9	7.0	2.9	1.4

Note: Ab Gap=absolute gap=difference between the female and the male unemployment rate; Rel Gap=relative gap=ratio of the female to the male unemployment rate.

Source: EuroStat Unemployment Harmonised Series (data provided by DGV).

Table A2: Absolute and Standardised Unemployment Gender Gaps

	Absolute Gap						Standardised gap (standardised by male unemployment rate)					
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	Rank 2000	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	Rank 2000
Austria	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.2	6	at	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	7
Belgium	5.1	4.7	4.0	3.0	3.1	11	be	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	10
Germany	1.6	1.5	1.2	0.9	0.8	4	de	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	4
Denmark	2.8	2.2	2.5	1.5	1.1	5	dk	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.3	6
Spain	11.9	12.3	12.8	11.8	10.8	14	es	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	14
Finland	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.9	1.5	8	fi	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	5
France	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.7	12	fr	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	8
Greece	9.1	8.8	9.6	10.3		:	gr	1.5	1.4	1.4		:
Ireland	0.3	0.0	-0.4	-0.2	-0.1	3	ie	0.0	0.0	-0.1	0.0	3
Italy	7.1	7.3	7.2	6.9	6.4	13	it	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	11
Luxembourg	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.6	1.4	7	lu	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.9	12
Netherlands	3.2	3.1	2.2	2.4	2.0	10	nl	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0	13
Portugal	1.8	1.6	2.3	1.3	1.8	9	pt	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.3	9
Sweden	-1.1	-0.7	-0.5	-0.1	-0.2	2	se	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	2
United Kingdom	-3.0	-1.9	-1.5	-1.4	-1.1	1	uk	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	1
EU - 15	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.8		eu15	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	

Definitions: Standardised Gap - the difference in unemployment rates between women and men divided by the male unemployment rate

Source: Eurostat Unemployment Harmonised Series

Table A3. Long term Unemployment Rate (% of the Labour Force)

	Female					Male					Absolute Gap				
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Austria	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.4	-0.1
Belgium	7.8	7.1	7.4	6.2	4.7	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.5	3	3.4	2.9	2.9	1.7	1.7
Germany	4.9	5.6	5.7	4.9	4.3	5.6	6.4	5.8	5.3	5.1	-0.7	-0.8	-0.1	-0.4	-0.8
Denmark	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.2	1	1.6	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.2
Spain	17.5	16.1	14.5	11.6	9.5	8.1	7.5	6.1	4.4	3.5	9.4	8.6	8.4	7.2	6
Finland	4.4	3.8	3.5	2.7	2.7	5.6	4.2	4.2	3.1	2.9	-1.2	-0.4	-0.7	-0.4	-0.2
France	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.5	5	3.8	4.2	4.3	3.9	3.3	2	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7
Greece	9.6	9.2	10.1	10.7	10.2	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.7	3.6	6.8	6.4	7	7	6.6
Ireland	6	4.6	3.1	2.1	1.6	7.5	6.2	4.6	3.2	2.3	-1.5	-1.6	-1.5	-1.1	-0.7
Italy	11	11	9.6	9.8	9	6.1	6.4	5.6	5.4	5.1	4.9	4.6	4	4.4	3.9
Luxembourg	1.2	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.1
Netherlands	3.5	3.2	2.4	1.7	1	2.6	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.6	0.9	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.4
Portugal	4.3	4.1	2.6	2.2	1.9	3.1	3	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.1	1	0.6	0.5
Sweden	2.2	3.1	2.7	1.6	1.4	3.5	3.8	3.9	2.7	1.9	-1.3	-0.7	-1.2	-1.1	-0.5
United Kingdom	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.1	0.9	4.4	3.6	2.6	2.3	2.1	-2.6	-2	-1.3	-1.2	-1.2
EU - 15	6.3	6.3	5.7	5	4.5	4.5	4.4	3.9	3.5	3.1	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.4

Source: European Labour Force Survey (DGV) - (employment in Europe 2001 - Eurostat calculations)

Notes: Irish data to be used with caution.

Table A4. Absolute Unemployment Gender Gap by Age Group (a) and Educational Attainment Level(b), 2000

.A4 a) Absolute Unemployment Gender Gap by Age Group (2000)

	Female				Male				Absolute Gender Gap			
	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64
Belgium	18.2%	7.4%	2.9%	8.3%	12.9%	4.6%	3.4%	5.3%	5.3%	2.8%	-0.6%	3.0%
Denmark	7.0%	4.7%	4.2%	5.0%	6.5%	3.5%	3.9%	4.0%	0.4%	1.1%	0.2%	1.0%
Germany	7.4%	7.6%	14.2%	8.3%	9.5%	6.7%	11.8%	7.7%	-2.0%	0.9%	2.3%	0.6%
Greece	37.7%	14.7%	4.4%	16.9%	22.1%	6.1%	3.5%	7.5%	15.6%	8.6%	0.9%	9.5%
Spain	32.4%	18.8%	11.5%	20.5%	19.7%	8.0%	9.4%	9.7%	12.7%	10.8%	2.1%	10.8%
France	22.6%	11.4%	7.4%	12.3%	19.0%	7.5%	7.3%	8.6%	3.6%	3.9%	0.1%	3.6%
Ireland	7.0%	3.6%	2.5%	4.2%	6.1%	4.3%	2.6%	4.4%	0.8%	-0.7%	-0.1%	-0.2%
Italy	35.3%	12.5%	4.9%	14.9%	28.4%	6.4%	4.6%	8.4%	6.9%	6.1%	0.3%	6.5%
Luxembourg	6.8%	2.9%	0.0%	3.1%	5.4%	1.4%	2.4%	1.8%	1.4%	1.5%	-2.4%	1.3%
Netherlands	5.9%	3.0%	2.2%	3.5%	4.7%	1.7%	1.7%	2.2%	1.2%	1.3%	0.4%	1.3%
Austria	5.6%	4.4%	5.9%	4.6%	6.9%	4.2%	7.2%	4.8%	-1.3%	0.2%	-1.3%	-0.2%
Portugal	12.0%	4.1%	2.6%	5.1%	5.5%	2.7%	3.8%	3.2%	6.5%	1.4%	-1.1%	1.8%
Finland	29.3%	8.8%	8.8%	12.0%	27.5%	7.1%	9.9%	10.4%	1.8%	1.7%	-1.2%	1.6%
Sweden	8.1%	4.8%	4.6%	5.1%	10.8%	5.1%	7.1%	6.0%	-2.7%	-0.4%	-2.5%	-0.9%
UK	10.4%	4.0%	2.9%	4.9%	13.5%	4.8%	5.7%	6.2%	-3.1%	-0.8%	-2.8%	-1.3%
EU	17.3%	8.9%	7.8%	9.9%	15.0%	6.0%	7.6%	7.3%	2.2%	2.9%	0.3%	2.6%

Source: ELFS 2000

A4 b). Absolute Unemployment Gender Gap by Educational Attainment Level (2000)

	Female				Male				Absolute Gap			
	low	medium	high	All	low	medium	high	All	low	medium	high	All
Belgium	14.3%	9.1%	3.1%	8.3%	8.2%	5.0%	2.2%	5.3%	6.2%	4.2%	0.9%	3.0%
Denmark	7.7%	5.0%	2.6%	5.0%	5.0%	3.8%	2.6%	3.8%	2.7%	1.2%	-0.1%	1.1%
Germany	11.5%	8.3%	5.2%	8.3%	13.8%	7.6%	3.8%	7.6%	-2.3%	0.6%	1.4%	0.7%
Greece	14.4%	21.9%	11.6%	16.9%	6.6%	9.8%	4.8%	7.5%	7.8%	12.1%	6.8%	9.4%
Spain	23.4%	21.2%	15.6%	20.5%	11.0%	9.0%	7.2%	9.7%	12.5%	12.3%	8.4%	10.8%
France	17.7%	11.9%	6.2%	12.3%	13.5%	7.0%	5.0%	8.6%	4.2%	4.9%	1.2%	3.6%
Ireland (99)	5.9%	7.3%	4.7%	6.8%	15.6%	7.7%	6.0%	7.6%	-9.7%	-0.4%	-1.3%	-0.8%
Italy	17.6%	14.5%	8.6%	14.9%	9.7%	7.7%	4.1%	8.3%	8.0%	6.8%	4.5%	6.5%
Luxembourg	4.0%	3.1%	2.0%	3.2%	3.4%	1.2%	0.9%	1.8%	0.5%	2.0%	1.2%	1.4%
Netherlands	5.7%	2.6%	2.1%	3.4%	3.4%	1.6%	1.4%	2.1%	2.3%	1.0%	0.7%	1.3%
Austria	7.3%	4.0%	2.5%	4.6%	9.2%	4.3%	2.1%	4.8%	-1.8%	-0.3%	0.4%	-0.2%
Portugal	5.5%	6.7%	2.8%	5.3%	3.4%	2.9%	2.5%	3.3%	2.0%	3.9%	0.3%	2.0%
Finland	21.4%	12.1%	5.8%	12.0%	17.5%	10.1%	4.2%	10.4%	3.9%	2.0%	1.6%	1.6%
Sweden	8.4%	5.5%	2.3%	5.0%	8.5%	5.9%	3.8%	5.9%	-0.1%	-0.3%	-1.6%	-0.9%
UK	7.7%	5.3%	2.2%	4.8%	13.7%	6.1%	2.7%	6.1%	-6.1%	-0.8%	-0.5%	-1.3%
EU	14.6%	9.4%	6.0%	10.0%	10.4%	6.8%	3.9%	7.3%	4.3%	2.5%	2.1%	2.8%

Source: ELFS 2000

IE 99

EU includes IE 99

Table A5 a) Employment rates by gender and absolute gap, 1996 and 2000

	Men						Women						Absolute gap					
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	ie 96-2000	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	ie 96-2000	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	ie 96-2000
Austria	76.1	75.9	75.9	76.7	77.0	0.9	58.6	58.5	59	59.7	59.4	0.8	17.5	17.4	16.9	17	17.6	0.1
Belgium	66.8	67.1	67	67.5	69.5	2.7	45.6	46.7	47.5	50.2	51.5	5.9	21.2	20.4	19.5	17.3	18	-3.2
Germany	72.7	71.8	71.7	72.4	72.8	0.1	55.4	55.2	55.6	57.1	57.9	2.5	17.3	16.6	16.1	15.3	14.9	-2.4
Denmark	80.5	81.3	80.2	81.2	80.8	0.3	67.4	69.4	70.3	71.6	71.6	4.2	13.1	11.9	9.9	9.6	9.2	-3.9
Spain	61.6	62.7	64.9	67.8	69.9	8.3	32.3	33.5	34.8	37.3	40.3	8.0	29.3	29.2	30.1	30.5	29.6	0.3
Finland	62.4	64.5	66.2	70.2	70.6	8.2	58.4	59.2	60.5	64.6	64.4	6.0	4	5.3	5.7	5.6	6.2	2.0
France	67.3	66.8	67.2	67.5	69.3	2.0	52.3	52.1	52.9	53.5	55.3	3.0	15	14.7	14.3	14	14	-1.0
Ireland	66.8	68	71	73.6	76.1	9.3	42.8	44.7	48.2	51.4	54.0	11.2	24	23.3	22.8	22.2	22.1	-1.9
Italy	65.3	65	66.7	67.1	67.5	2.2	36.1	36.2	37.1	38.1	39.6	3.5	29.2	28.8	29.6	29	27.9	-1.3
Luxembourg	74.4	74.3	74.6	74.4	75.1	0.7	43.6	45.4	45.6	48.5	50.3	6.7	30.8	28.9	29	25.9	24.8	-6.0
Netherlands	75.7	77.9	79.6	80.3	82.4	6.7	54.8	56.9	58.9	61.3	63.7	8.9	20.9	21	20.7	19	18.7	-2.2
Portugal	71.0	71.9	75.7	75.7	76.6	5.6	54.2	55.5	58.3	59.6	60.3	6.1	16.8	16.4	17.4	16.1	16.3	-0.5
Sweden	69.7	69.8	70.8	72.1	74.8	5.1	68.7	66.8	66.4	68.9	71.0	2.3	1	3	4.4	3.2	3.8	2.8
UK	75.0	76.3	77	77.2	77.8	2.8	62.3	63	63.2	63.9	64.6	2.3	12.7	13.3	13.8	13.3	13.2	0.5
Greece	72.6	71.9	71.6	70.9	71.1	-1.5	38.5	39.1	40.3	40.7	40.9	2.4	34.1	32.8	31.3	30.2	30.2	-3.9
EU total	69.7	69.9	70.8	71.6	72.5	2.8	50.0	50.4	51.2	52.6	53.9	3.9	19.7	19.5	19.6	19	18.6	-1.1

Source: Employment in Europe 2001 - LFS

change in percentage points (end year - base year)

Table A5 b) Standardised Employment Gender Gap

	Absolute Gap standardised by male employment rate				
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Austria	-23.0%	-22.9%	-22.3%	-22.2%	-22.9%
Belgium	-31.7%	-30.4%	-29.1%	-25.6%	-25.9%
Germany	-23.8%	-23.1%	-22.5%	-21.1%	-20.5%
Denmark	-16.3%	-14.6%	-12.3%	-11.8%	-11.4%
Spain	-47.6%	-46.6%	-46.4%	-45.0%	-42.3%
Finland	-6.4%	-8.2%	-8.6%	-8.0%	-8.8%
France	-22.3%	-22.0%	-21.3%	-20.7%	-20.2%
Ireland	-35.9%	-34.3%	-32.1%	-30.2%	-29.0%
Italy	-44.7%	-44.3%	-44.4%	-43.2%	-41.3%
Luxembourg	-41.4%	-38.9%	-38.9%	-34.8%	-33.0%
Netherlands	-27.6%	-27.0%	-26.0%	-23.7%	-22.7%
Portugal	-23.7%	-22.8%	-23.0%	-21.3%	-21.3%
Sweden	-1.4%	-4.3%	-6.2%	-4.4%	-5.1%
UK	-16.9%	-17.4%	-17.9%	-17.2%	-17.0%
Greece	-47.0%	-45.6%	-43.7%	-42.6%	-42.5%
EU total	-28.3%	-27.9%	-27.7%	-26.5%	-25.7%

Source: *Employment in Europe 2001 - LFS*

Definition: standardised gap - the difference in employment rates between men and women divided by the male unemployment rate

Table A6. Absolute Employment Gender Gap Measured in Full-Time Equivalent

	Men			Women			Absolute gap		
	1996	2000	Change	1996	2000	Change	1996	2000	Change
Austria	76.0	76.2	0.2	51.3	51.0	-0.3	24.7	25.2	0.5
Belgium	67.0	70.4	3.4	39.7	44.8	5.1	27.3	25.6	-1.7
Germany	71.7	71.1	-0.6	45.8	46.1	0.3	25.9	25.0	-0.9
Denmark	76.4	76.9	0.5	58.0	62.2	4.2	18.4	14.7	-3.7
Spain	60.7	69.0	8.3	29.2	36.6	7.4	31.5	32.4	0.9
Finland	60.5	69.3	8.8	54.3	60.5	6.2	6.2	8.8	2.6
France	67.4	69.2	1.8	46.4	48.7	2.3	21.0	20.5	-0.5
Ireland	65.2	75.8	10.6	37.8	45.2	7.4	27.4	30.6	3.2
Italy	65.1	67.0	1.9	34.3	36.7	2.4	30.8	30.3	-0.5
Luxembourg	74.6	75.9	1.3	39.9	44.7	4.8	34.7	31.3	-3.4
Netherlands	69.7	74.6	4.9	34.5	40.1	5.6	35.2	34.5	-0.7
Portugal	72.1	76.6	4.5	52.2	57.1	4.9	19.9	19.5	-0.4
Sweden	67.9	70.0	2.1	57.8	60.2	2.4	10.1	9.8	-0.3
UK	72.1	74.4	2.3	47.4	49.7	2.3	24.7	24.7	0.0
Greece	73.2	71.5	-1.7	37.4	40.0	2.6	35.8	31.5	-4.3
EU total	68.6	71.0	2.4	42.4	45.3	2.9	26.2	25.7	-0.5

Source: *Employment in Europe 2001 - LFS* (Eurostat Calculations)

change in percentage points (end year - base year)

Table A7. Absolute Employment Gender Gap by Age Group (a) and Educational Attainment Level(b), 2000

.A7 a) Absolute Employment Gender Gap by Age Group (2000)

	Female				Male				Absolute Gender Gap			
	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64
Belgium	26.7%	67.8%	15.4%	51.9%	33.7%	87.9%	35.1%	69.8%	-7.0%	-20.1%	-19.7%	-17.9%
Denmark	64.0%	80.4%	46.3%	72.1%	70.3%	88.3%	61.9%	80.7%	-6.3%	-7.9%	-15.7%	-8.6%
Germany	43.6%	71.1%	28.7%	57.8%	48.6%	87.4%	46.2%	72.7%	-5.0%	-16.3%	-17.6%	-14.9%
Greece	22.0%	52.6%	24.4%	41.3%	31.9%	88.6%	55.3%	71.3%	-9.9%	-35.9%	-30.9%	-30.0%
Spain	26.4%	50.6%	19.9%	40.3%	37.0%	85.4%	54.8%	69.6%	-10.7%	-34.8%	-34.8%	-29.3%
France	25.2%	69.6%	26.0%	54.8%	31.4%	87.3%	32.8%	68.8%	-6.2%	-17.7%	-6.7%	-14.0%
Ireland	43.3%	62.7%	27.1%	53.2%	52.1%	88.1%	63.0%	75.4%	-8.8%	-25.3%	-35.9%	-22.2%
Italy	22.0%	50.7%	15.2%	39.3%	30.2%	84.6%	40.3%	67.6%	-8.2%	-33.9%	-25.1%	-28.3%
Luxembourg	28.5%	63.0%	17.0%	50.1%	35.4%	92.9%	38.0%	75.1%	-6.9%	-29.9%	-21.1%	-25.0%
Netherlands	66.7%	70.9%	25.8%	63.4%	69.9%	92.2%	49.9%	82.1%	-3.2%	-21.4%	-24.1%	-18.7%
Austria	48.6%	73.5%	17.8%	59.7%	56.5%	89.7%	41.3%	76.2%	-7.9%	-16.2%	-23.5%	-16.5%
Portugal	36.1%	73.9%	42.3%	60.4%	47.7%	90.2%	62.6%	76.2%	-11.6%	-16.4%	-20.3%	-15.9%
Finland	43.8%	77.6%	40.6%	65.2%	47.0%	84.6%	41.8%	71.1%	-3.3%	-7.0%	-1.1%	-5.9%
Sweden	37.1%	80.9%	61.7%	69.7%	36.6%	84.1%	67.0%	72.6%	0.5%	-3.2%	-5.3%	-2.9%
UK	53.5%	73.1%	41.4%	64.5%	58.2%	87.5%	59.8%	77.9%	-4.7%	-14.4%	-18.4%	-13.4%
EU	36.5%	65.7%	27.7%	53.8%	43.3%	87.1%	47.6%	72.4%	-6.8%	-21.3%	-19.8%	-18.6%

Source: ELFS 2000

A7 b). Absolute Employment Gender Gap by Educational Attainment Level (2000)

	Female				Male				Absolute Gap			
	low	medium	high	All	low	medium	high	All	low	medium	high	All
Belgium	31.0%	56.2%	81.3%	51.9%	55.0%	75.9%	89.8%	69.8%	-24.0%	-19.6%	-8.4%	-17.9%
Denmark	55.5%	76.5%	86.3%	72.8%	69.0%	83.4%	90.2%	81.1%	-13.5%	-6.9%	-3.9%	-8.2%
Germany	46.3%	63.8%	77.9%	61.8%	67.8%	76.1%	86.3%	77.2%	-21.5%	-12.2%	-8.4%	-15.5%
Greece	31.7%	42.6%	74.1%	41.3%	66.7%	71.2%	85.6%	71.3%	-35.1%	-28.6%	-11.5%	-30.0%
Spain	31.7%	42.7%	67.3%	41.1%	69.8%	64.0%	81.5%	71.1%	-38.1%	-21.3%	-14.2%	-30.0%
France	39.1%	61.3%	75.1%	54.8%	53.9%	75.9%	82.7%	68.8%	-14.9%	-14.7%	-7.6%	-14.0%
Ireland	19.0%	41.5%	69.0%	44.4%	25.5%	67.9%	85.4%	68.0%	-6.4%	-26.4%	-16.5%	-23.6%
Italy	26.5%	53.5%	74.2%	40.2%	61.5%	73.6%	87.5%	68.0%	-35.0%	-20.1%	-13.3%	-27.8%
Luxembourg	41.3%	51.6%	72.6%	50.3%	68.2%	75.8%	86.2%	75.1%	-26.9%	-24.2%	-13.6%	-24.8%
Netherlands	47.0%	72.1%	81.4%	64.2%	74.6%	86.3%	90.1%	83.2%	-27.5%	-14.2%	-8.7%	-19.0%
Austria	42.2%	66.1%	82.0%	59.7%	56.2%	80.6%	88.5%	76.2%	-14.0%	-14.5%	-6.5%	-16.5%
Portugal	60.1%	58.5%	88.4%	62.5%	77.2%	69.1%	92.2%	77.1%	-17.1%	-10.6%	-3.8%	-14.5%
Finland	45.8%	68.4%	81.5%	65.7%	53.7%	76.7%	87.4%	71.7%	-7.9%	-8.3%	-5.9%	-6.1%
Sweden	52.0%	75.3%	82.7%	71.7%	58.7%	79.5%	82.8%	74.5%	-6.7%	-4.2%	-0.1%	-2.8%
UK	47.7%	72.5%	84.9%	70.2%	57.0%	81.6%	89.7%	79.8%	-9.3%	-9.1%	-4.8%	-9.6%
EU	37.9%	62.2%	77.9%	55.5%	63.4%	76.6%	86.3%	73.8%	-25.4%	-14.4%	-8.5%	-18.4%

Source: ELFS 2000

IE 99

EU includes IE 99

Table A8: Share of Inactive People Wanting to Work by Gender, 1999

	% of male working age population				% of female working age population				
	female share of inactive wishing to work	inactive wishing to work	unemployed	unemployed & inactive wishing to work	inactive wishing to work	unemployed	unemployed & inactive wishing to work	Gender Gap for those unemployed and inactive wishing to work**	
Belgium *	54.3%	3.3%	5.5%	8.8%	4.0%	5.7%	9.8%	1.0%	
Denmark	69.6%	2.0%	3.8%	5.8%	4.6%	4.5%	9.1%	3.3%	
Germany	66.4%	1.5%	6.8%	8.3%	3.0%	5.8%	8.8%	0.5%	
Greece *	81.5%	0.6%	5.5%	6.1%	2.5%	8.2%	10.6%	4.5%	
Spain	69.8%	2.2%	8.4%	10.6%	4.9%	11.2%	16.1%	5.5%	
France	64.7%	0.5%	7.9%	8.5%	1.0%	8.7%	9.7%	1.2%	
Ireland	60.4%	3.5%	4.7%	8.2%	5.4%	3.0%	8.4%	0.2%	
Italy	72.1%	3.2%	6.6%	9.8%	8.2%	7.5%	15.6%	5.8%	
Luxembourg	75.0%	0.7%	1.4%	2.1%	2.1%	1.4%	3.5%	1.4%	
Netherlands	65.7%	3.4%	2.2%	5.7%	6.7%	3.1%	9.9%	4.2%	
Austria	68.2%	3.4%	3.8%	7.2%	7.3%	3.0%	10.4%	3.2%	
Portugal	69.9%	0.8%	3.4%	4.2%	1.7%	3.4%	5.1%	0.9%	
Finland	51.1%	4.9%	8.7%	13.6%	5.2%	9.2%	14.4%	0.8%	
Sweden	52.3%	1.8%	6.6%	8.4%	2.0%	5.1%	7.1%	-1.3%	
UK	58.7%	4.8%	5.8%	10.6%	6.9%	3.5%	10.5%	-0.1%	
Total	65.6%	2.5%	6.5%	9.0%	4.7%	6.5%	11.2%	2.2%	

* Figures for Belgium and Greece are for 1998.

** Absolute difference between female and male values

Source: European Labour Force Survey, 1999

Table A9: Inflows into Employment, Unemployment and Inactivity by Gender

A9 (a): Outflows from unemployment to employment by gender*

Member State	1997		1998		1999		2000	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	26.9	39.6						
Belgium	18.7	16.1	20.2	14.7	19.9	20.5	24.4	17.2
Germany	25.1	24.6	27.2	25.6	28.3	26.2	27.2	27.7
Denmark	44.8	31.1	43.1	36.4	47.2	40.9	43.4	37.3
Spain	38.7	24.5	42.5	27.1	49.9	34.3	49.5	37.4
Finland	22.3	27.6	22.7	29.5	26.0	28.1	27.5	29.5
France	33.2	30.9	33.1	29.6	32.4	27.0	39.5	32.8
Greece	33.3	18.6	34.1	18.9	29.8	22.0	34.1	24.1
Ireland	21.0	33.3	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	28.7	21.2	31.2	23.0	30.6	23.1	40.6	32.1
Luxembourg	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	100.0
Netherlands	14.8	14.3	28.5	21.8	27.5	22.2		
Portugal	38.0	31.4	47.4	41.8	40.4	42.7	45.8	42.3
Sweden	29.3	27.7	42.9	33.8	40.0	35.7	37.1	36.5
UK	37.2	44.4	41.6	45.4	36.6	45.2	40.3	46.1
EU total	31.1	26.1	33.7	27.4	34.0	28.5	38.2	32.6

* Share of last year's unemployed who are employed this year.

Source: European Labour Force Survey.

A9(b): Outflows from unemployment to inactivity by gender*

Member State	1997		1998		1999	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	25.4	24.5				
Belgium	26.9	34.1	25.3	36.5	34.3	42.5
Germany	16.3	19.9	15.6	18.8	16.6	19.7
Denmark	26.9	43.4	33.8	38.6	20.8	36.4
Spain	5.1	9.1	5.4	9.7	6.2	9.1
Finland	34.0	31.9	31.9	36.4	34.2	38.6
France	10.8	17.1	17.5	22.5	17.6	25.0
Greece	8.8	11.4	8.0	11.3		
Ireland	26.6	26.7				
Italy	24.4	32.1	22.5	28.6	22.9	28.2
Luxembourg	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Netherlands	51.5	57.1	46.9	54.5	48.7	58.0
Portugal	17.7	26.1	11.3	18.1	8.3	17.9
Sweden	12.1	26.5	18.4	29.2	12.7	26.2
UK	13.8	24.6	12.8	23.0	15.9	24.3
EU total	16.5	22.4	16.8	22.1	17.8	23.7

* Share of last year's unemployed who are inactive this year.

Source: European Labour Force Survey.

B. Segregation

Table B1.Index of Gender Segregation in Occupations (including/excluding part-timers, self employed and agricultural occupations)

a. IP Index (various measures) by Member State for 2000

	All in Employment		All in FT Employment		All Employees		All FT Employees	
	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R
Austria	27.26%	12	24.80%	11	29.83%	14	27.02%	12
Belgium	26.79%	8	24.07%	9	28.57%	11	24.07%	4
Germany	27.20%	11	23.33%	6	28.41%	10	24.90%	6
Denmark	27.97%	13	25.91%	12	28.19%	8	26.57%	11
Spain	24.85%	3	23.57%	7	27.23%	7	25.79%	10
Finland	30.06%	15	29.90%	15	30.82%	15	30.94%	15
France	27.03%	10	24.27%	10	28.32%	9	25.78%	9
Greece	21.28%	1	20.93%	3	26.05%	2	25.71%	8
Ireland	26.96%	9	24.06%	8	27.00%	5	25.01%	7
Italy	21.55%	2	20.63%	2	23.75%	1	22.87%	3
Luxembourg	25.71%	5	23.17%	5	27.21%	6	24.74%	5
Netherlands	25.51%	4	15.06%	1	26.43%	3	15.97%	1
Portugal	26.45%	6	26.69%	14	29.20%	12	28.95%	14
Sweden	29.04%	14	26.24%	13	29.36%	13	27.21%	13
UK	26.73%	7	21.84%	4	26.99%	4	22.47%	2
EU	25.17%		21.96%		26.79%		23.85%	

Source: ELFS 2000 (own calculations)

b. ID Index (various measures) by Member State for 2000

	All in Employment		All in FT Employment		All Employees		All FT Employees	
	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R
Austria	55.31%	11	54.14%	10	60.39%	14	59.01%	14
Belgium	54.88%	9	54.52%	11	58.14%	11	54.52%	7
Germany	55.25%	10	52.19%	6	57.33%	10	54.83%	8
Denmark	56.19%	13	54.66%	12	56.43%	6	55.27%	9
Spain	53.12%	4	52.78%	8	57.30%	9	56.62%	12
Finland	60.29%	15	60.43%	15	61.65%	15	62.06%	15
France	54.64%	8	51.92%	5	56.91%	8	54.39%	6
Greece	45.28%	1	45.19%	2	54.38%	4	54.23%	5
Ireland	55.83%	12	53.65%	9	54.39%	5	52.64%	4
Italy	46.32%	2	46.39%	3	49.47%	1	49.40%	3
Luxembourg	53.84%	6	52.50%	7	56.56%	7	55.61%	10
Netherlands	52.13%	3	44.75%	1	53.74%	2	46.77%	1
Portugal	53.41%	5	54.69%	13	58.81%	13	58.76%	13
Sweden	58.19%	14	55.04%	14	58.73%	12	56.14%	11
UK	54.03%	7	49.28%	4	54.18%	3	49.24%	2
EU	51.47%		48.62%		54.20%		51.69%	

Source: ELFS 2000 (own calculations)

Table B2. Index of gender segregation in sectors (Nace Rev 1)

	2000	1999	1997	97/00 % change
Finland	22.6	21.4	21.9	3.3
Sweden	21.8	22.1	21.8	0.3
Portugal	21.6	21.6	20.2	7.1
Ireland	20.4	20.4	19.9	2.8
Austria	20.1	20.1	19.9	1.3
Denmark	19.8	19.1	19.3	2.8
Spain	19.4	19.3	19.1	1.6
Netherlands	18.8	17.5	19.1	-1.7
United Kingdom	18.8	18.7	19.0	-1.2
Germany	18.4	18.1	17.8	3.0
Belgium	17.9	17.7	18.0	-0.3
EUR15	17.8	17.8	17.8	0.1
Luxembourg	17.8	18.5	18.9	-6.2
France	17.3	17.1	17.3	-0.4
Italy	15.4	15.0	15.0	2.9
Greece	14.5	:	14.9	-2.6

Source: European LFS, calculation by DG Empl

Note: No data for Greece 1999, EUR15 1999 without Greece

C. PAY

Table C1. Gender Pay Gap (ECHP vs. ESES)

	ECHP 1995		ECHP 1996		ESES 1995	
	GPG All	Rank	GPG All	Rank	GPG ALL	Rank
AT	81.22%	11	80%	11	71%	11
BE	86.28%	6	91%	2	80%	3
DE	72.61%	13	74%	14	73%	7
DK	87.13%	4	89%	5	81%	2
ES	91.75%	3	91%	2	72%	8
FI	81.49%	10	87%	6	78%	5
FR	86.62%	5	85%	7	68%	12
GR	85.66%	8	83%	8	77%	6
IE	86.19%	7	80%	11	:	:
IT	91.80%	2	90%	4	71%	10
LU	84.32%	9	82%	9	78%	4
:	:	:	82%	9	67%	13
PT	100.15%	1	92%	1	72%	9
:	:	:	:	:	82%	1
UK	79.60%	12	80%	11	59%	14
EU			83%		70%	

Notes:

ECHP - Average net hourly earnings for paid employees (persons aged 16-64 working at least 15+ hours per week) - For France gross earnings.

ESES - gender ratio of mean gross hourly earnings; overtime earnings excluded. Euros. No data for Ireland; weighted mean for DE

Sources: ECHP, Wave 3 1995 (EWERC calculations) ECHP 1996 (DGV calculations); ESES 1995 (own calculations)

Table C2. Comparison of country ranks by gender pay gap using the two data sources

ECHP (All)		ECHP (Private Sector)	ESES (All)	ESES (FT)	ESES (PT)
?	SW	?	1	1	6
5	DK	1	2	4	1
6	FI	2	3	5	2
2	BE	3	5	3	3
8	GR	4	8	9	4
3	ES	5	10	10	12
7	FR	6	9	7	13
10	NL	7	13	14	7
9	LU	8	4	2	8
12	AT	9	11	12	14
13	UK	10	14	11	10
11	IR	11	--	--	--
4	IT	12	6	8	5
1	PO	13	12	13	9
14	DE	14	7	6	11

Note: ECHP data are for 1996 and ESES are for 1995.

ECHP 1996 chosen due to the availability of data for the Netherlands

note: the country with the narrowest gender pay gap is ranked 1, and so on

Table C3. The Relative Pay of Women Working Part-Time (FPT) Compared to Earnings of Men Working Full Time (MFT), overtime excluded

	SES 1995	
	FPT/MFT	Ranks
Austria	67.34%	8
Belgium	72.70%	4
Germany	68.36%	7
Denmark	65.44%	10
Spain	56.45%	12
Finland	69.32%	6
France	52.29%	13
Greece	75.82%	2
Italy	69.49%	5
Luxembourg	66.03%	9
Netherlands	61.80%	11
Portugal	73.33%	3
Sweden	76.48%	1
United Kingdom	44.70%	14
EU	61.79%	

Additional Information:

Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) 66.99%
GDR 73.94%

Source: European Structure of Earnings Survey (1995) (no data available for Ireland) (own calculations); gross hourly pay data; overtime excluded

Table C4. Gender Pay Gap, Breakdown by Sector - Industry vs. Services

Gender pay gap for all employees (FT and PT), by manufacturing and private services

Gross hourly earnings. Overtime included. No data for Ireland

	All sectors	rank	Industry	rank	Private Services	rank
Belgium	80.4%	6	81.6%	4	78.6%	7
Denmark	84.2%	3	85.9%	1	81.3%	3
Federal Republic of Germany	75.0%	8	76.2%	8	75.6%	9
German Democratic Republic	87.1%	1	85.1%	3	91.5%	1
Greece	75.0%	9	69.2%	13	79.3%	6
Spain	72.5%	11	73.4%	10	70.9%	13
France	73.2%	10	75.6%	9	70.9%	12
Italy	76.6%	7	78.5%	7	72.8%	10
Luxembourg	81.1%	5	80.4%	6	76.8%	8
Netherlands	68.9%	14	73.2%	11	67.3%	14
Austria	71.7%	12	72.6%	12	71.8%	11
Portugal	71.6%	13	67.3%	15	79.5%	5
Finland	81.3%	4	80.6%	5	80.3%	4
Sweden	84.8%	2	85.6%	2	82.7%	2
United Kingdom	66.4%	15	68.4%	14	65.2%	15
E14	72.7%		73.5%		73.0%	

Source: SES 1995 (EWERC calculations)

All sectors = NACE C to K; Industry = NACE C to F; Private services = NACE G to K.

Table C5. Gender Pay Ratio by Level of Education

	E1	Rank	E2	Rank	E3	Rank	Total (GPG)	Rank
Belgium	81.2%	4	82.9%	3	71.5%	7	81.12%	4
Denmark	86.7%	1	86.7%	1	76.1%	3	82.18%	3
Germany	79.14%	6	78.72%	7	74.55%	4	75.01%	7
Greece	68.55%	14	73.38%	11	70.98%	9	71.17%	10
Spain	73.76%	9	74.41%	9	65.37%	11	73.30%	9
France	77.50%	8	81.61%	4	68.15%	10	76.10%	6
Italy	78.08%	7	73.63%	10	60.35%	13	74.28%	8
Luxembourg	81.58%	3	80.77%	6	74.49%	5	82.27%	2
Netherlands	73.42%	10	68.70%	14	60.85%	12	69.06%	13
Austria	71.47%	11	74.48%	8	60.26%	14	70.45%	12
Portugal	70.75%	13	73.06%	12	72.92%	6	70.78%	11
Finland	80.85%	5	81.59%	5	82.72%	1	78.33%	5
Sweden	84.93%	2	84.22%	2	77.90%	2	82.39%	1
United Kingdom	71.01%	12	70.67%	13	71.25%	8	67.13%	14
EU	77.31%		75.80%		68.00%			

Source: ESES 1995 (own calculations)

Note: Average Monthly Earnings (Full time Employees). No data for Ireland

Legend: e1 - first stage of secondary or lower; e2 - upper secondary; e3 - Higher Education

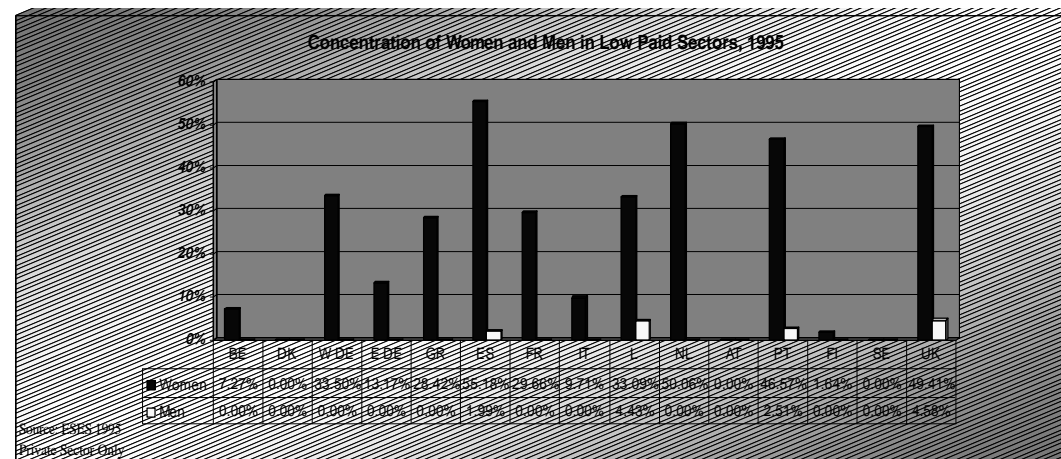
Table C6. Gender Pay Gap by Age Group, 1995 (Monthly Earnings for FT Employees)

	0_19 y	R	20_24 y	R	25_29 y	R	30_44 y	R	45_54y	R	55_max y	R
BE	78.59%	15	86.13%	9	90.93%	4	86.58%	2	82.33%	2	73.66%	4
DK	97.59%	3	89.58%	6	90.03%	5	82.83%	5	77.58%	4	78.18%	2
DEW	79.35%	14	82.98%	13	85.38%	10	77.72%	10	70.62%	10	68.98%	7
EX_DD	80.03%	13	91.16%	3	90.97%	3	87.75%	1	84.59%	1	80.91%	1
GR	89.52%	7	88.26%	7	89.65%	6	77.48%	12	62.16%	14	57.24%	14
ES	88.31%	9	84.65%	11	86.56%	8	78.59%	9	75.80%	5	71.79%	6
FR	106.15%	2	98.92%	1	94.10%	2	77.50%	11	69.76%	11	66.37%	12
IT	93.41%	4	89.73%	5	86.11%	9	80.66%	7	71.47%	9	68.55%	8
LU	91.66%	5	96.34%	2	97.61%	1	85.95%	3	71.81%	8	67.95%	9
NL	88.38%	8	85.48%	10	85.19%	11	80.99%	6	66.28%	13	67.90%	10
AT	83.86%	12	76.94%	15	80.37%	14	72.40%	14	68.53%	12	55.94%	15
PT	91.52%	6	86.49%	8	79.41%	15	73.44%	13	72.19%	7	67.36%	11
FI	87.66%	10	83.90%	12	84.01%	12	79.01%	8	74.62%	6	72.48%	5
SE	108.39%	1	90.90%	4	89.23%	7	84.59%	4	78.49%	3	77.07%	3
UK	84.47%	11	79.44%	14	81.42%	13	69.08%	15	57.62%	15	61.51%	13

Average Monthly Earnings (Full time Employees). Overtime included. No data for Ireland

Source: ESES 1995 (own calculations)

Figure C1. The Concentration of Women and Men in Low Paid Sectors of Employment, 1995



Notes: Female and male 'Low Paid Sectors' defined as ones with hourly earnings below 2/3 of the male median (per member state)
No data for Ireland

Table C7. Incidence of low pay by gender

Country	Total	Men	Women
Australia (1995)	13.8	11.8	17.7
Austria (1993)	13.2	7	22.8
Belgium (1993)	7.2	3.9	14.2
Canada (1994)	23.7	16.1	34.3
Finland (1994)	5.9	3.3	8.7
France (1995)	13.3	10.6	17.4
Germany (1994)	13.3	7.6	25.4
Italy (1993)	12.5	9.3	18.5
Japan (1994)	15.7	5.9	37.2
Netherlands (1994)	11.9	--	--
New Zealand (1994/5)	16.9	14.4	20.7
Sweden (1993)	5.2	3	8.4
Switzerland (1995)	13	6.8	30.4
United Kingdom (1995)	19.6	12.8	31.2
United States (1994)	25	19.6	32.5

Notes: The share of low paid workers refers to full-time employment only. Low pay is defined as less than two thirds of median earnings for all full-time employees.
Source: OECD (1996: table 3.2).

D. Parenthood

Table D1. Employment Impact of Parenthood by Sex and Gender Gap

a) Employment Impact of Parenthood

<i>Employment impact of parenthood, 20-50 years, children aged 0-6 years</i>										
	<i>Men</i>					<i>Women</i>				
	<i>1996</i>	<i>1997</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1997</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>
AT	-5.3	-5.2	-4.2	-4.8	:	11.5	12.8	11.7	12.6	:
BE	-3.6	-4.0	-3.8	-5.6	-5.9	4.9	0.9	3.0	4.1	6.3
DE	-6.3	-6.1	-5.1	-6.4	-5.7	28.4	28.7	28.8	26.7	26.3
DK	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
ES	-2.5	-2.3	-2.6	-3.2	-3.6	8.5	8.3	8.4	9.2	9.9
FI	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
FR	-6.5	-6.8	-7.7	-6.6	:	15.8	16.2	16.4	16.1	:
GR	-9.5	-9.6	-9.6	-9.0	-10.1	4.6	3.4	4.1	:	3.1
IE	-5.3	-6.1	:	-1.6	:	20.0	21.2	:	9.6	:
IT	-1.6	-2.2	-1.7	-2.4	-3.0	9.4	9.8	9.7	23.9	10.7
LU	-3.6	-4.8	-4.2	-5.4	-0.9	24.2	20.8	20.2	18.4	17.3
NL	-6.6	-6.0	-6.0	:	-3.9	20.1	20.8	18.3	:	15.5
PT	:	:	:	-3.0	-4.3	:	:	:	1.7	0.4
SE	:	:	:	-4.3	:	:	:	:	:	:
UK	-2.8	-4.4	-3.9	-4.1	-4.2	29.5	27.0	28.6	26.0	24.7
EUR	-5.2	-5.7	-5.5	-4.6	:	20.5	19.9	20.0	16.6	:

Source: European LFS, calculated by DG EMPL, EU totals including countries where data is available

b) Gender gap in the employment impact of parenthood

<i>Gender gap in Employment impact of parenthood, 20-50 years, children aged 0-6 years</i>					
	<i>1996</i>	<i>1997</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>
AT	-2.2	-2.5	-2.8	-2.6	:
BE	-1.4	-0.2	-0.8	-0.7	-1.1
DE	-4.5	-4.7	-5.7	-4.2	-4.6
DK	:	:	:	:	:
ES	-3.4	-3.5	-3.2	-2.9	-2.8
FI	:	:	:	:	:
FR	-2.4	-2.4	-2.1	-2.4	:
GR	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3
IE	-3.8	-3.5	:	-6.1	:
IT	-5.8	-4.4	-5.7	-9.9	-3.6
LU	-6.7	-4.3	-4.8	-3.4	-20.3
NL	-3.0	-3.5	-3.0	:	-4.0
PT	:	:	:	:	-0.1
SE	:	:	:	-6.1	:
UK	-10.7	-6.2	-7.3	-6.3	-5.9
EUR	-3.9	-3.5	-3.6	-3.6	:

Source: ELFS

Table D2: Employment Impact of Parenthood (children 0-6) on a Full-time Equivalent Basis
(a) Employment Impact of Parenthood On a Headcount (HC) and a Full-Time Equivalent Basis

	2000HC EO7	1999HC EO7	FTE (1) EO7	FTE (2) EO7
Austria	1.24	1.27	1.51	1.51
Belgium	1.18	1.15	1.28	1.28
Germany	1.60	1.64	2.22	2.22
Spain	1.30	1.30	1.39	1.39
France	1.38	1.39	1.50	1.50
Greece	1.20	1.21	1.27	1.27
Ireland	:	1.63	1.96	1.96
Italy	1.29	1.26	1.39	1.39
Luxembourg	1.34	1.54	1.85	1.85
Netherlands	1.33	1.40	2.21	2.21
Portugal	1.06	1.07	1.10	1.10
UK	:	1.54	2.31	2.31
EU	1.40	1.44	1.77	1.77

Definition: $EO7 = (Mc/Mnc)/(Wc/Wnc)$ where Mc = employment rate for men with children aged 0-6 yrs; Mnc = employment rates for men without children; Wc = employment rate for women with children aged 0-6 yrs; Wnc = employment rates for women without children. The closer the value is to 1, the more similar the impact of parenthood is on women and men. Values over 1 indicate that the impact on women is larger than on men.

Notes:

Ireland 1997; EU values exclude Ireland and UK (2000)

FTE (1): FTE Employment Rates (using member state fulltime average hours for employees)

FTE (2): FTE Employment Rates (using EU full time average hours for employees)

20-49 Age bracket

Source:

ELFS 2000 and 1999 (own calculations)_ Household Data (private households)

Note: Data only includes Household Head and Spouse. Ascendant relatives or other relatives excluded.

D2 (b) Employment Rates

		2000		1999		FTE (1)		FTE (2)	
		No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years
Austria	female	79.88	68.28	80.85	67.31	74.79	52.85	74.24	52.22
Belgium	female	76.57	68.92	74.63	69.19	65.87	56.57	62.70	53.77
Germany	female	80.80	53.75	79.66	52.33	70.09	34.96	69.35	34.58
Spain	female	56.84	45.34	53.54	42.51	49.01	37.33	49.26	37.31
France	female	75.07	59.19	73.60	57.50	65.40	48.14	63.93	47.12
Greece	female	53.63	49.91	53.44	49.13	52.03	47.09	53.18	46.73
Ireland	female	:	:	67.66	44.77	62.09	35.60	61.94	35.07
Italy	female	58.48	46.68	57.17	46.23	53.55	40.23	51.63	38.26
Luxembourg	female	74.80	56.07	74.63	49.43	68.99	38.80	68.30	37.82
Netherlands	female	81.99	64.02	81.29	61.48	63.32	32.24	60.92	31.06
Portugal	female	76.17	75.03	75.31	72.46	71.61	68.37	71.59	68.51
UK	female	72.25	:	83.08	56.47	70.60	32.39	75.82	35.62
EU	female	72.61	55.05	73.49	54.17	65.06	40.09	65.06	40.09

		2000		1999		FTE (1)		FTE (2)	
		No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years
Austria	male	89.54	94.82	89.80	94.69	91.43	97.41	90.76	96.25
Belgium	male	88.78	94.47	87.75	93.16	91.47	100.79	87.05	95.81
Germany	male	85.75	91.51	84.66	91.22	85.98	95.08	85.08	94.04
Spain	male	89.95	93.44	89.27	92.40	91.13	96.62	91.59	96.57
France	male	84.30	91.86	83.61	90.54	84.88	93.67	82.97	91.68
Greece	male	85.90	96.32	86.52	95.90	93.78	107.74	95.85	106.93
Ireland	male	:	:	80.21	86.29	86.74	97.38	86.54	95.93
Italy	male	90.65	93.48	91.01	92.38	96.10	100.07	92.66	95.17
Luxembourg	male	96.27	96.89	93.92	96.05	96.83	100.66	95.85	98.11
Netherlands	male	91.20	94.55	89.51	94.66	86.77	97.44	83.48	93.86
Portugal	male	91.46	95.82	92.53	95.02	95.66	100.69	95.62	100.90
UK	male	88.79	:	85.75	89.82	87.25	92.38	93.71	101.60
EU	male	87.72	92.91	86.36	91.68	88.35	96.14	88.35	96.14

Notes:

Ireland 1997; EU values exclude Ireland and UK (2000)

FTE (1): FTE Employment Rates (using member state fulltime average hours for employees)

FTE (2): FTE Employment Rates (using EU full time average hours for employees)

20-49 Age bracket

Source:

ELFS 2000 and 1999 (own calculations)_ Household Data (private households)

Note: Data only includes Household Head and Spouse. Ascendant relatives or other relatives excluded.

Table D3: Employment Impact of Parenthood for Mothers (children 0-14) by Number of Children, 2000

	Employment Rates				Employment Impact of Parenthood		
	Number of Children (< 14)				Number of Children (< 14)		
	0	1	2	=>3	1	2	=>3
Austria	79.89%	76.35%	67.15%	55.46%	-3.53%	-12.73%	-24.43%
Belgium	76.57%	70.11%	75.73%	52.44%	-6.46%	-0.85%	-24.13%
Germany	80.80%	68.81%	58.07%	40.19%	-11.99%	-22.73%	-40.61%
Spain	56.84%	48.23%	44.96%	35.34%	-8.61%	-11.88%	-21.50%
France	75.07%	72.80%	63.92%	40.51%	-2.27%	-11.15%	-34.57%
Greece	53.64%	53.22%	50.67%	44.18%	-0.42%	-2.97%	-9.45%
Ireland (97)	67.63%	51.35%	45.26%	33.91%	-16.28%	-22.37%	-33.72%
Italy	58.48%	51.84%	43.49%	32.64%	-6.64%	-14.99%	-25.84%
Luxembourg	74.78%	65.60%	52.78%	39.34%	-9.19%	-22.00%	-35.44%
Netherlands	81.99%	69.43%	65.44%	53.03%	-12.56%	-16.55%	-28.96%
Portugal	76.16%	79.79%	71.37%	58.91%	3.63%	-4.79%	-17.25%
UK (99)	83.08%	68.49%	64.26%	47.08%	-14.59%	-18.82%	-35.99%
EU	74.47%	64.44%	58.02%	42.95%	-10.03%	-16.45%	-31.52%

Source:ELFS 2000 (own calculations)_ Household Data (private households), 1999-2000

Note: Data only includes Household Head and Spouse in the 20-49 Age Bracket. Ascendant relatives or other relatives excluded.

20-49 Age bracket

Ireland 1997 and UK 1999

Table D4. Employment Impact of Parenthood (children 0-6) by Level of Education of Parents, 2000

a) Employment Impact of Parenthood

		Employment Impact of Parenthood		
		2000 Low	2000 Medium	2000 High
Austria	male	-6.0	-5.4	-3.4
	female	10.8	11.7	12.9
Belgium	male	-6.3	-5.6	-2.9
	female	20.8	8.0	3.2
Germany	male	-4.6	-8.1	-2.5
	female	33.9	24.7	19.6
Spain	male	-3.3	-4.3	-2.9
	female	15.0	13.6	11.1
France	male	-5.6	-7.5	-10.2
	female	28.8	14.9	2.6
Greece	male	-5.6	-18.1	-2.9
	female	11.1	6.7	6.0
Ireland	male	:	:	:
	female	:	:	:
Italy	male	-1.8	-4.5	-1.9
	female	14.7	14.0	8.0
Luxembourg	male	-1.7	0.6	-1.8
	female	16.4	21.8	16.5
Netherlands	male	-2.4	-4.1	-3.3
	female	21.9	16.3	10.5
Portugal	male	-3.1	-10.2	-5.0
	female	3.1	-1.9	-3.6
UK	male	-3.4	-4.7	-3.9
	female	36.0	27.3	14.4
EU	male	-7.0	-6.5	-3.5
	female	18.5	16.6	9.8

b) Employment Rates

		Employment Rates					
		2000 LOW		2000 Medium		2000 High	
		No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years	No Child	0-6 years
Austria	male	81.15	87.10	90.03	95.44	94.45	97.84
	female	68.68	57.86	81.42	69.69	92.20	79.27
Belgium	male	83.13	89.41	90.33	95.92	94.84	97.76
	female	62.63	41.80	76.03	68.00	91.56	88.38
Germany	male	75.97	80.59	84.48	92.55	93.54	96.00
	female	67.71	33.83	81.83	57.18	89.86	70.22
Spain	male	87.33	90.65	91.71	96.04	94.16	97.10
	female	44.79	29.78	64.77	51.18	81.55	70.43
France	male	79.33	84.95	86.29	93.77	85.89	96.11
	female	65.99	37.17	76.85	61.98	81.68	79.13
Greece	male	89.55	95.19	78.88	96.95	93.84	96.79
	female	45.11	34.06	52.43	45.74	82.12	76.11
Ireland	male	:	:	:	:	:	:
	female	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	male	88.36	90.19	92.24	96.74	96.64	98.53
	female	43.09	28.36	72.47	58.51	87.12	79.11
Luxembourg	male	93.22	94.93	98.27	97.70	97.15	98.93
	female	65.92	49.52	77.50	55.67	87.73	71.26
Netherlands	male	85.79	88.16	92.94	97.03	94.72	98.00
	female	65.73	43.85	86.02	69.69	92.23	81.71
Portugal	male	92.62	95.69	87.46	97.63	93.42	98.44
	female	72.78	69.71	86.03	87.98	94.95	98.57
UK	male	63.13	66.56	87.07	91.74	92.53	96.48
	female	61.92	25.91	85.21	57.96	92.10	77.67
EU	male	81.62	88.62	87.97	94.52	93.29	96.76
	female	54.87	36.40	76.59	59.97	86.58	76.79

Source:ELFS 2000 (own calculations)_ Household Data (private households), 1999-2000

Note: Data only includes Household Head and Spouse in the 20-49 Age Bracket. Ascendant relatives or other relatives excluded.

20-49 Age bracket

No data for Ireland, UK 99 - EU excludes ireland and UK (2000)

Table D5. Employment Impact of Parenthood (children 0-6) for Women in Single and Couple Households, 2000

.Employment Rates

	Female Employment Rates			
	couple hhlds		single hhlds	
	no child	child 0-6	no child	child 0-6
Austria	78.0%	66.8%	83.8%	82.1%
Belgium	73.9%	72.2%	81.1%	53.9%
Germany	80.5%	55.2%	81.7%	53.3%
Spain	52.1%	44.7%	79.4%	69.0%
France	75.7%	59.7%	73.9%	54.4%
Greece	51.6%	49.4%	60.7%	72.7%
Ireland 97	65.1%	46.1%	71.4%	36.0%
Italy	54.2%	45.8%	73.5%	67.2%
Luxembourg 99	66.7%	46.4%	90.0%	:
Netherlands	81.6%	66.1%	82.4%	38.7%
Portugal	74.5%	75.6%	84.7%	70.0%
UK 99	85.7%	62.6%	77.9%	36.3%
EU 12	73.2%	56.6%	78.1%	47.7%

Source: ELFS 2000 (Household Data)

IE 97, UK 99, LU 99

EU 12 includes these countries

Missing data for Luxembourg excluded due to reliability problems

.Employment Impact of Parenthood

	Employment Impact of Parenthood			
	couple hhlds		single hhlds	
	child 0-6	rank	child 0-6	rank
Austria	-11.3%	6	-1.7%	2
Belgium	-1.7%	2	-27.1%	7
Germany	-25.3%	12	-28.3%	8
Spain	-7.4%	4	-10.3%	4
France	-16.0%	8	-19.5%	6
Greece	-2.2%	3	12.1%	1
Ireland 97	-19.0%	9	-35.4%	9
Italy	-8.4%	5	-6.3%	3
Luxembourg 99	-20.2%	10	:	:
Netherlands	-15.6%	7	-43.7%	11
Portugal	1.1%	1	-14.7%	5
UK 99	-23.0%	11	-41.6%	10
EU 12	-16.7%		-30.4%	

Table D6. Gender gap in unpaid time spent looking after children and other persons, 1995

	Men	Women	Gender Ratio
EU 15	3.0*	12.6*	0.2383*
Belgium	3.1	9.1	0.3407
Denmark	4.8	8.8	0.5455
Germany	4.3	14.3	0.3007
Greece	2.1	13.8	0.1522
Spain	3.9	14.7	0.2653
France	2.0	7.5	0.2667
Ireland	4.1	16.1	0.2547
Italy	3.7	14.8	0.2500
Luxembourg	3.3	11.6	0.2845
Netherlands	6.2	19.3	0.3212
Austria	2.7	15.4	0.1753
Portugal	1.0	6.8	0.1471
Finland	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	8.5**	19.3**	0.4408**
United Kingdom	5.4	14.9	0.3624
Iceland	6***	19***	0.3158***

Source: Eurostat, European Community Household Panel, Wave 2, 1995, unpublished data.

* Weighted average on the basis of the population aged 15 and over, of all EU-member states, except Austria, Finland and Sweden.

** Estimate based on Nyberg, A. (1997); data are for 1990/91, and refer to time spent on care for small children and others, in hours per week.

*** Estimate based on Ólafsson (1990); data refer to normal unpaid time at home

Table D7. Involuntary part-time employment

Involuntary part-time as a share of total part-time employment 1996/2000															
	Total	1997	1998	1999	2000	Males	1997	1998	1999	2000	Females	1997	1998	1999	2000
	1996					1996									
at	9.3	8.4	15.2	11.3	10.7	9.6	9.0	23.1	22.1	20	9.3	8.3	13.8	9.4	9.2
be	26.5	26.0	26.2	20.3	22.2	34.5	39.7	36.5	30.9	28.5	25.3	24.0	24.6	18.6	21
de	11.9	13.3	13.6	13.0	:	15.5	17.8	17.6	18.0	:	11.3	12.6	13.0	12.2	:
dk	14.5	13.6	13.6	15.3	13.6	12.4	13.1	9.9	12.6	10.9	15.4	13.9	14.9	16.2	14.4
es	22.5	24.3	24.7	25.1	22.8	21.7	23.3	23.0	26.2	22.1	22.8	24.7	25.3	24.8	23
eu15	19.1	19.7	18.0	16.8	:	26.9	26.7	25.6	24.4	:	17.2	17.9	16.0	15.0	:
fi	40.9	37.6	33.4	37.9	34.7	35.4	32.8	29.0	32.6	29.5	43.9	40.2	35.3	40.7	37.4
fr	39.6	41.3	29.7	27.5	26.8	52.1	52.7	45.8	41.2	42.1	36.9	38.8	26.1	24.5	23.5
gr	39.6	41.0	44.8	43.8	:	51.5	50.2	52.5	48.5	:	32.0	36.0	40.7	41.0	:
ie	29.9	25.2	24.4	12.7	:	55.3	46.3	41.9	26.0	:	20.7	17.6	17.5	8.0	:
it	37.6	37.9	36.8	36.4	35.6	44.9	46.0	45.4	44.9	46.3	34.3	34.5	33.1	33.1	31.5
lu	6.7	8.8	7.5	9.8	:	:	:	:	:	:	5.6	7.9	6.9	9.9	:
nl	6.2	5.5	5.5	4.3	:	10.5	8.2	8.4	6.7	:	4.7	4.6	4.3	3.5	:
pt	21.5	21.6	23.7	23.7	23.5	15.5	16.1	20.5	20.3	16.6	24.5	24.1	25.2	25.3	26.7
se	29.5	32.0	30.1	29.6	23.2	29.2	34.7	32.0	33.5	22	29.6	31.3	29.6	28.6	23.5
uk	12.6	12.2	11.5	10.3	9.7	25.5	23.8	22.8	21.3	19.7	9.8	9.5	8.7	7.6	7.2