The page features a decorative graphic consisting of three overlapping blue circles of varying sizes, arranged in a diagonal line from the top right towards the bottom right. Thin blue lines extend from the top left and bottom right corners towards the center, intersecting the circles.

National Assessments in Gender and STI European Report

-WISAT – Women in Global Science and
Technology

Organization for Women in Science for the
Developing World (OWSD)

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Preliminary comments

This version of the report contains quantitative indicators proposed in the Framework on Gender Equality and the Knowledge Society developed by Women in Global Science and Technology (WISAT). Information was collected on all the proposed dimensions of the Framework. Comments and descriptions of the data presented in each table and figure are included. To complement quantitative data, the information was analyzed qualitatively, incorporating literature and research analysis.

Suggested sources were consulted to obtain data. In the case where the information was not accessible or appropriate to the area analyzed, alternative sources were consulted.

Some of the major limitations in the quantitative collection were as follows:

- *Variable definition of the scope of study.* In some cases the information collected refers to the European Union (EU-15; EU-25; EU-27) and in others to the geographical region "Europe". These variations depend on the availability of data in each source, but in each table included in this report, the scope is defined.
- *Diversity in the periods of analysis.* There are some indicators that have been collected regularly for decades, but others are recent. Hence, in some cases, extensive time series are included and in others data is available only for recent years. This variation also occurs between countries; therefore the tables include the last available year or the year in which all countries had data.
- *Lack of data on ratio, share.* In cases where the only available information was presented in absolute values, percentages and female/male ratios were calculated.

For qualitative analysis, we conducted a literature review. European reports, scientific articles and magazines were consulted. While each section includes literature on the subject discussed, some comments may serve to explain the situation revealed in the course of research on other topics.

1-HEALTH STATUS

Good health is a prerequisite for the development of all people. However within populations, differences in life expectancy exist with regard to gender. As Abdulraheem (2011) explains:

The longevity gap between male and female has been in existence since the creation of man and the gap persists across the globe, from developed to developing nations. Females tend to outlive males in all populations, and have lower mortality rates at all ages, starting from infancy. The interaction of genetic and environmental risk factors and socialization are responsible for longevity difference by gender. A sex-specific consideration of risk behavior and quality of life suggests that a healthy lifestyle, relevant information and preventive measures particularly in males must be initiated before puberty if they are to have a positive effect on mortality and morbidity during the course of a person's life.

Improving healthy life expectancy provides new opportunities for both sexes and can influence a healthy environment, and policies can facilitate a better life balance between men and women.

Interesting research has been developed which analyzes the relationship between healthy life expectancy and other aspects of life, for example, happiness. In this line, Barber (2009) says that "Investigations of cross-national differences in happiness suggest that most of the country differences in happiness are attributable to circumstances, including national wealth and indicators of health, such as life expectancy" and explains that countries in which either gender has worse health prospects than the other are unhappy ones. When men lead unusually short lives, this is often a consequence of more intense mating efforts connected to alcoholism and aggression as well as increased hostility between the sexes. Unusually short lives for women are suggestive of a pattern of discrimination that may begin in childhood and includes challenging adult health conditions such as exposure to infectious diseases, poor medical care, malnourishment, and difficult working conditions with long hours and low wages. In each case, one can infer stressful childhood experiences, whether predicated on parental discrimination against females or reduced parental investment as a correlate of male mating effort. Each of these is conducive to stress sensitivity and low subjective well being (SWB) in adult life that has adverse implications for the happiness of adult relationships, including sexual/reproductive ones.

Although there is research on issues related to women and health, research on this particular topic is based primarily on anecdotal evidence. However, it has been recognized as a significant issue. Resolutions adopted by the European Parliament on the health status of women in the European Community (*Official Journal of the European Communities*, June 21, 1999) are cited in the conclusions of the first Congress on Women, Work, and Health (Barcelona 1996). These resolutions speak of the specific problems of women and differences in health, noting that health policy therefore also requires differential approaches. They recommend that member states take into account these problems both in analysis of health and the actions to be developed in the future.

Valls-Llobet (2008) presents the main changes in recent years that have brought to light the issue of gender in health. The Conference on Gender Mainstreaming Health Policies in Europe, held in Madrid on September 14, 2001, led to the adoption of a gender mainstreaming policy within the WHO in March 2002. Another important step has been taken in the field of continuing education in gender and health. Studies and a postgraduate specialization in this topic are being created in various countries. In Spain there are undergraduate studies in the field (University of Barcelona), continuing education seminars for health professionals (Institute for

Women) and both undergraduate and graduate courses at universities that have departments of Gender (Complutense University of Madrid).

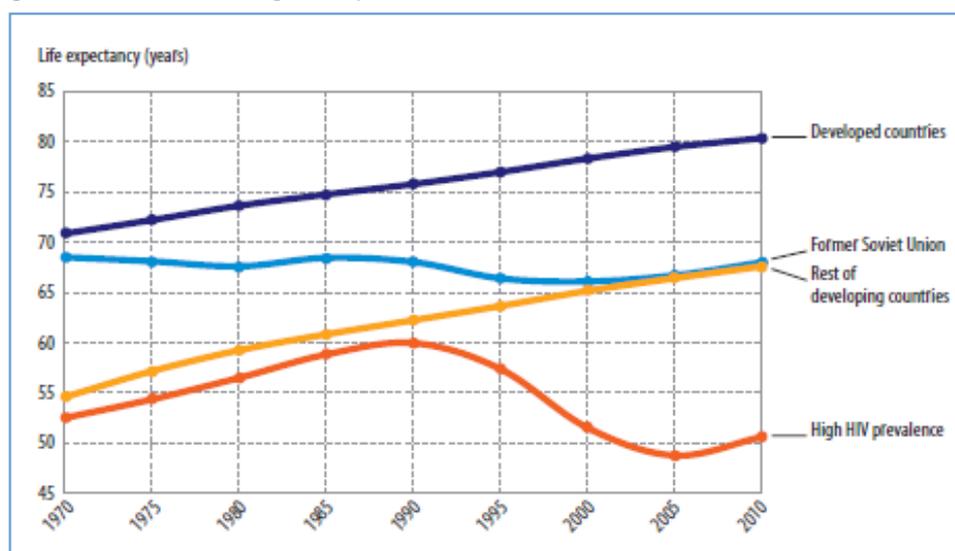
According to Valls-Llobet, another issue that is beginning to be considered is the impact on health of chemical and environmental xenoestrogens, which affect females more due to biological differences (15% more fat) and through alterations in the menstrual cycle. These can cause in breast cancer in the short term and endometrial cancer in the long term. The study of environmental exposure to toxic chemicals was one of the main themes of the Fourth International Congress on Women, Health and Labor, held in New Delhi, from 26 to 30 November 2005, where it was proposed to create a network of researchers working in this area, including its incidence and risk factors for breast cancer.

Another important advance, as we can see in the case of Spain, is the creation of networks among women's groups that engage in different areas of health (occupational health, women and AIDS, breastfeeding, family planning). These groups are helpful in establishing links between institutional public policy state wide, regional or local, and female citizens who are to become agents of their health.

It is very important to recognize that gender also affects health inequalities. Different studies show that socio-economic status has been found to influence access to many social determinants of health, such as education and employment, food and nutrition, work opportunities, and housing. In a study in Ireland (Luddy, 2007) socio-economic status has been found to greatly impact access to effective healthcare. Ireland has one of the widest gaps between rich and poor in Europe. Women in less well-off socio-economic groups are at the greatest disadvantage with regard to health and have been found to be at greater risk of developing poor health. The health of disadvantaged women is compromised by lack of education, lack of information, and lack of awareness of factors that contribute to disease. Luddy explores these issues with a special focus on cancer, mental health, cardiovascular disease and sexual health.

At the quantitative level, various sources present data on the quality of life of the population. In general, a clear relationship between the level of development of a country and life expectancy is detected. As we can see in Figure 1, during the past 30 years life expectancy has increased considerably, especially in developed countries. On the contrary, the prevalence of HIV decreases as a result of improvements in life condition.

Figure 1: Trends in life expectancy around the world 1970-2010



Note: A country is considered to have a high HIV prevalence if the rate exceeds 15 percent, which is the case for seven countries in our sample (Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Source: HDRO calculations using data from the HDRO database.

Source: United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). *Human Development Report 2010. The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development.*

In this context it is important to analyze if the conditions of life are improved equally for both genders and if changes occur in the quality of life of women. In the following sections different indicators disaggregated by gender are presented to analyze this topic.

1.1-Female healthy life expectancy

World Health Organization data indicates the life expectancy increase in the entire world between 1990 and 2008 for both sexes. In Europe a higher increase is seen, especially in the case of women. For healthy life expectancy (HALE), for the average of countries in the European region is 67 years for males and 70 for females (2007) (Table 1).

Table 1: Female healthy life expectancy at birth over male value (HALE) European Region.

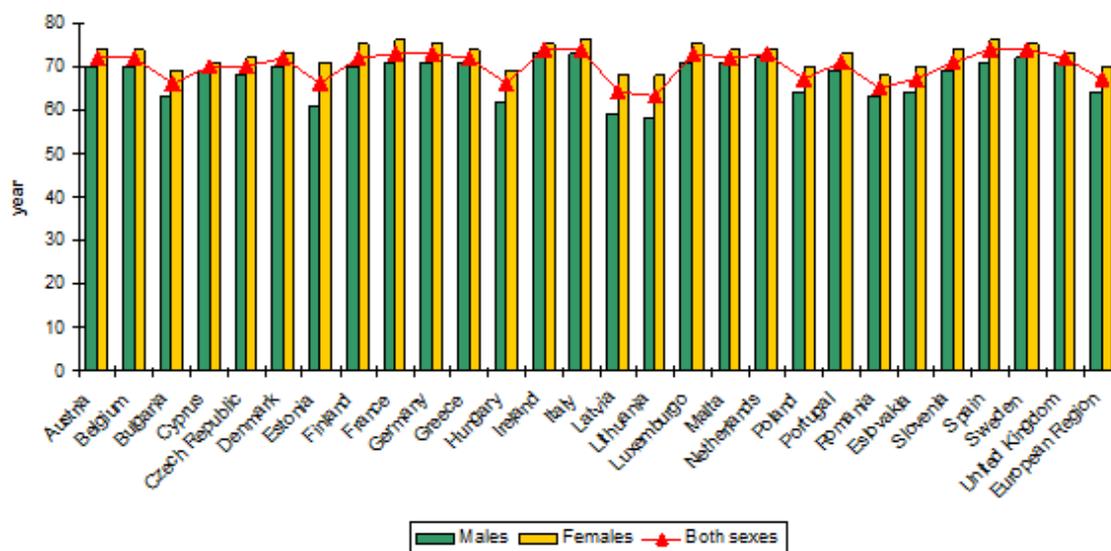
Region	Life expectancy at birth (years)									Healthy life expectancy			
	Male			Female			Both sexes			M	F	M+F	Ratio F/M
	1990	2000	2008	1990	2000	2008	1990	2000	2008	2007			
Africa	49	49	52	53	52	54	51	50	53	45	46	45	1,02
Americas	68	71	73	75	77	79	71	74	76	65	69	67	1,06
South-East Asia	58	61	63	59	63	66	58	62	65	56	57	57	1,02
Europe	68	68	71	75	77	79	72	72	75	64	70	67	1,09
Eastern Mediterranean	59	62	63	62	65	66	61	63	65	55	57	56	1,04
Western Pacific	68	70	72	71	74	77	69	72	75	65	69	67	1,06

Source: World Health Organization. *World Health Statistics (2010).*

There is considerable diversity within the group of 27 EU countries on health life expectancy. Higher healthy life expectancy is observed in Ireland, Spain, Italy and Sweden, with an average of 74 years for both sexes. In these countries HALE for women is around 75/76 years versus

71/73 for men. France and Luxembourg also show 75 years for women. On the contrary, countries with lower values of HALE are Romania, Latvia and Lithuania, with 68 years for women and 58/63 for man (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Female healthy life expectancy at birth over male value (HALE) European Countries



Source: Self-elaboration based on World Health Organization (WHO) data. *World Health Statistics (2010)*.

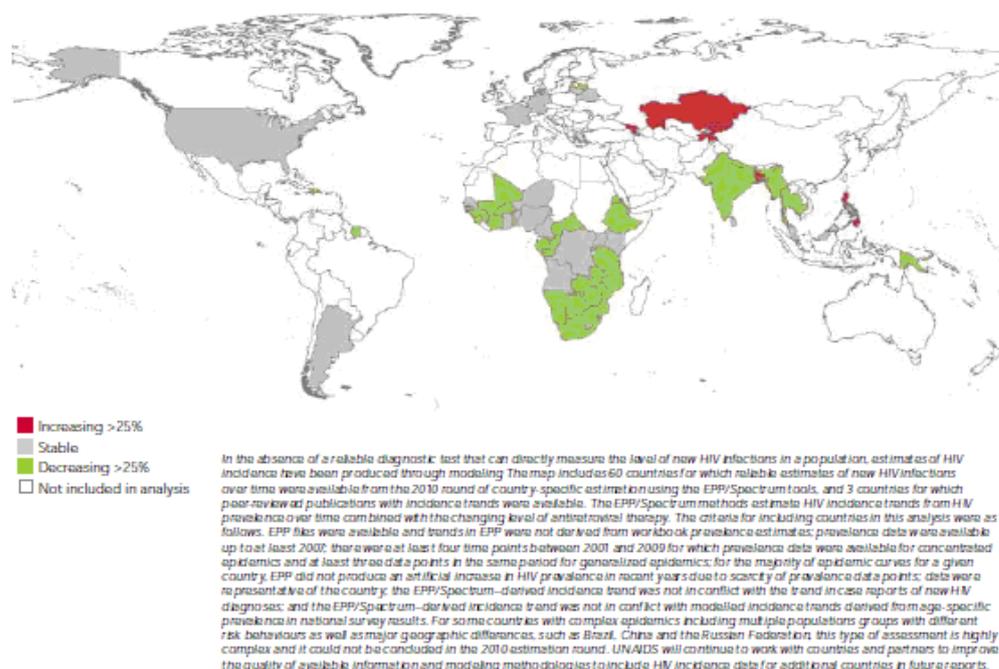
1.2-Prevalence rates of malaria, tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS (M/W)

Prevalence of HIV/AIDS

The latest data HIV infection rates as provided by UNAIDS (Figure 3), show that the infection rate in most European countries can be considered stable. However, Europe is seeing fundamental changes in recent years, as the rate of infection is increasing among women.

On gender differences in HIV, Garcia-Sanchez (2004) notes biological and social factors contribute to promote HIV transmission and acquisition in women, among them anatomical differences, stage of disease, presence of other STIs, the nature and frequency of sexual relations, social inequality and poverty, and perceived lack of risk of infection. Recognizing the influence of these factors is vital for effective control of infection. Applying a gender focus of attention to infection and disease treatment by health services shows that there are sex differences in patients seeking and receiving care. Epidemiological records of infection and disease are not regularly disaggregated by gender, and women are not well represented in research on the disease and its treatment. In addition, preventive measures tend to be based on promoting safe sex, facilitating the early diagnosis of infection and in acquiring information about the disease. These initiatives, though useful, do not take into account the uneven gender balance that prevents or hinders women taking advantage of preventive options as handled by health officials or offered in the consultations. Policy and prevention programs should start from a gender perspective to address the particular needs of women and consider their particular vulnerability to infection.

Figure 3. Change in the incidence rate of HIV infection, 2001 to 2009



Source: UNAIDS. *Report on the global AIDS epidemic (2010)*

Quantitative data show that the prevalence of HIV/AIDS among women in the world (between 15-49 years) is around 0.8%. Data for the European region show lower rates at 0.5%. However, within the region there are differences by geographic area: northern and western Europe have a prevalence rate of 0.2% while eastern Europe shows a rate of 0.9% (Table 2).

Table 2: Percentage prevalence of HIV/AIDS among women. European Region.

Region	HIV prevalence rate (%) ages 15-49
Europe	0.5
Eastern Europe	0.9
Northern Europe ¹	0.2
Southern Europe ²	0.4
Western Europe ³	0.2
World Total	0.8

¹ Including Channel Islands, Faeroe Islands

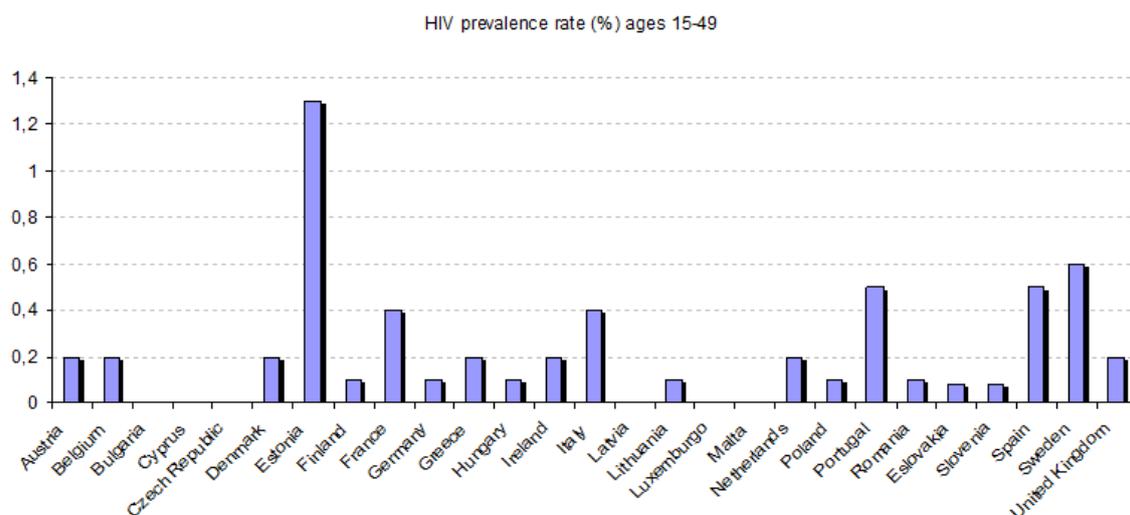
² Including Andorra, Gibraltar, Holy See and San Marino

³ Including Liechtenstein and Monaco

Source: UNFPA. *State of the World's Population (2011)*

At the country level we can see that Estonia has the highest rate by far of female HIV prevalence, with 1.3% of women between 15 and 49 years (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Percentage prevalence of HIV/AIDS among women. European countries



Source: Self-elaboration based on UNFPA. *State of the World's Population (2011)*

Data from UNAIDS shows that the estimated number of people (older 15 years) living with HIV/AIDS globally was 26 700,000 in 2001 and 30,800,000 in 2009, of which 50.9% in 2001 were women and 51.6% in 2009. For both years the prevalence in the world was 0.8% (considering all populations between 15 and 49 years old).

The prevalence in the European Union is lower than the global average (0.2%) with the exception of Estonia at 1.3%. Higher than average rates are found in Portugal (0.6), followed by France, Spain and Switzerland with 0.4% (2009). Table 3 shows the estimated number of women living with HIV in the European Union. In those countries with a higher absolute number of women with HIV we can see that these data represent around 20% of the infected populations in Germany and Spain and between 30-34% in the United Kingdom, Portugal, France and Italy.

Table 3: People living with HIV in European Union (estimated) (2001-2009)

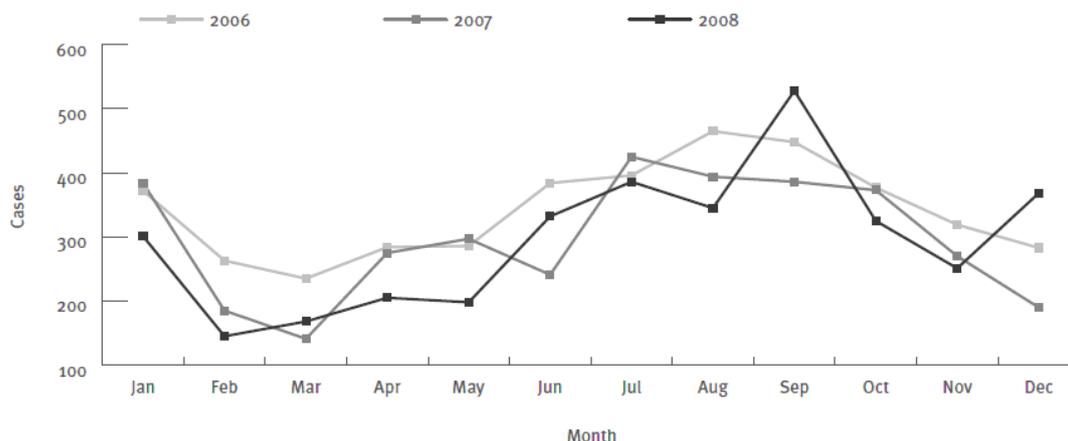
	2009 Adults (15+)		2001 Adults (15+)		2009 Women (15+)		2001 Women (15+)	
	estimate	[low - high estimate]	estimate	[low - high estimate]	estimate	[low - high estimate]	estimate	[low - high estimate]
WESTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPE	820 000	[720 000 - 910 000]	620 000	[570 000 - 700 000]	240 000	[210 000 - 270 000]	180 000	[160 000 - 200 000]
Austria	15 000	[12 000 - 20 000]	5 300	[3 900 - 7 000]	4 600	[3 500 - 5 900]	1 600	[1 100 - 2 100]
Belgium	14 000	[11 000 - 18 000]	12 000	[9 500 - 16 000]	4 400	[3 400 - 5 500]	3 700	[2 900 - 4 800]
Bulgaria	3 800	[2 700 - 5 200]	1 800	[1 300 - 2 300]	1 100	[<1 000 - 1 500]	<500	[<500 - <1 000]
Croatia	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 100]	<1 000	[<500 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <500]	<200	[<200 - <500]
Czech Republic	2 000	[1 700 - 2 300]	1 300	[1 200 - 1 600]	<1 000	[<1 000 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <500]
Denmark	5 300	[4 000 - 6 300]	3 300	[2 800 - 3 800]	1 400	[1 100 - 1 700]	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 000]
Estonia	9 800	[8 000 - 12 000]	4 700	[3 800 - 5 700]	3 000	[2 400 - 3 800]	1 400	[1 100 - 1 700]
Finland	2 600	[2 200 - 3 100]	1 600	[1 300 - 1 900]	<1 000	[<1 000 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <1 000]
France	150 000	[120 000 - 190 000]	120 000	[100 000 - 140 000]	48 000	[38 000 - 59 000]	37 000	[31 000 - 44 000]
Germany	67 000	[56 000 - 75 000]	49 000	[42 000 - 56 000]	12 000	[11 000 - 14 000]	9 000	[7 700 - 10 000]
Greece	8 800	[7 300 - 11 000]	8 000	[6 800 - 9 500]	2 700	[2 200 - 3 200]	2 500	[2 100 - 2 900]
Hungary	3 000	[2 200 - 3 900]	2 800	[2 100 - 3 700]	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 300]	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 200]
Iceland	<1 000	[<500 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <500]	<200	[<200 - <500]	<100	[<100 - <200]
Ireland	6 900	[5 200 - 8 700]	4 500	[3 400 - 5 900]	2 000	[1 500 - 2 600]	1 300	[1 000 - 1 800]
Israel	7 500	[5 600 - 9 900]	5 100	[3 900 - 6 800]	2 200	[1 700 - 2 900]	1 500	[1 200 - 2 100]
Italy	140 000	[110 000 - 180 000]	130 000	[99 000 - 170 000]	48 000	[36 000 - 61 000]	42 000	[32 000 - 56 000]
Latvia	8 600	[6 300 - 11 000]	4 700	[3 500 - 6 200]	2 600	[1 900 - 3 500]	1 400	[1 000 - 1 800]
Lithuania	1 200	[<1 000 - 1 600]	<1 000	[<1 000 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <500]	<500	[<200 - <500]
Luxembourg	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 200]	<1 000	[<500 - <1 000]	<500	[<500 - <500]	<200	[<200 - <500]
Malta	<500	[<500 - <500]	<500	[<200 - <500]	<100	[<100 - <200]	<100	[<100 - <1 000]
Netherlands	22 000	[17 000 - 32 000]	18 000	[14 000 - 24 000]	6 900	[5 200 - 9 700]	5 400	[4 200 - 7 400]
Norway	4 000	[3 000 - 5 400]	3 000	[2 300 - 4 100]	1 200	[<1 000 - 1 600]	<1 000	[<1 000 - 1 200]
Poland	27 000	[20 000 - 34 000]	21 000	[16 000 - 28 000]	8 200	[6 200 - 11 000]	6 400	[4 800 - 8 500]
Portugal	42 000	[32 000 - 53 000]	31 000	[24 000 - 41 000]	13 000	[9 900 - 16 000]	9 400	[7 300 - 12 000]
Romania	15 000	[11 000 - 20 000]	16 000	[12 000 - 20 000]	4 700	[3 500 - 5 900]	4 600	[3 600 - 5 900]
Serbia	4 900	[3 400 - 7 100]	1 900	[<500 - 2 700]	1 200	[<1 000 - 1 600]	<500	[<100 - <1 000]
Slovakia	<500	[<500 - <500]	<200	[<200 - <500]	<100	[<100 - <200]	<100	[<100 - <1 000]
Slovenia	<1 000	[<500 - <1 000]	<500	[<200 - <500]	<200	[<200 - <500]	<100	[<100 - <1 000]
Spain	130 000	[120 000 - 150 000]	110 000	[100 000 - 130 000]	32 000	[27 000 - 36 000]	28 000	[23 000 - 32 000]
Sweden	8 100	[6 100 - 11 000]	6 300	[4 900 - 8 700]	2 500	[1 900 - 3 400]	1 900	[1 500 - 2 700]
Switzerland	18 000	[13 000 - 24 000]	13 000	[9 500 - 17 000]	5 700	[4 100 - 7 500]	4 000	[3 000 - 5 200]
Turkey	4 500	[3 300 - 6 100]	1 700	[1 300 - 2 300]	1 400	[1 000 - 1 800]	<1 000	[<500 - <1 000]
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	85 000	[66 000 - 110 000]	43 000	[35 000 - 53 000]	26 000	[20 000 - 32 000]	13 000	[10 000 - 16 000]

Source: UNAIDS, *Report on the global AIDS epidemic (2010)*.

Prevalence of Malaria

Data on the prevalence of malaria collected by the World Health Organization show that in Europe there were no deaths due to this infection in 2008. Through another source, the *Annual Epidemiological Report Communicable Diseases in Europe*, we can observe that the EU notification rate per 100,000 populations was 1.2% and the main age group affected is 25-44. Figure 5 shows the distribution of cases of malaria by month during the period 2006-2008.

Figure 5: Seasonal distribution of malaria cases in EU and EEA/EFTA (2006-2008)



Note. Only EU and EEA/EFTA countries on the European continent, i.e. excluding overseas territories, protectorates or départements.
Source: Country reports: Austria, Belgium, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Norway.

Source: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC), *Annual epidemiological report on communicable diseases in Europe (2010)*.

Malaria, a major disease in Africa, is not unknown in European countries. In 2007 there were 319 cases in Spain. Immigrants living in the country who come to visit their families and tourists returning home are the two main groups responsible. Representing approximately 12,000 cases annually in Europe, these figures are infinitesimal when compared to the nearly 500 million people affected worldwide. Malaria mortality in Europe (less than 1%) is insignificant compared to the million or more deaths caused by the parasite *Plasmodium falciparum* in the rest of the world, particularly sub-Saharan Africa. However, WHO recently warned that increasing numbers of European travellers are returning home with malaria from countries like Gambia and Senegal. In 2008, 12 cases of imported malaria were found in Finland, eight in Denmark (one of whom died), eight in Norway (one died) and 17 in the UK. According to the National Epidemiology Center, the main reason for travel to malaria endemic areas is tourism (51.5%), a figure that includes visiting relatives. 42.2% of cases are due to immigrants. The other group at risk is immigrants and established residents in Europe who travel to their countries of origin to visit their families. Those visiting family outside Europe may have lost their natural protection against the parasite, they tend to make long visits, and often visit rural areas without air conditioning or mosquito nets are therefore prone to the disease. This sector represents 60% of cases diagnosed in Spain ("La Malaria Last Minute de Occidente" *El Mundo.es: 2009*).

Greece has recently been the location of a re-outbreak of the disease. Nearly half a century after the eradication of malaria in Europe, European mosquitoes have begun to transmit the disease again. Sixty-one people in five Greek provinces contracted the disease for the third year running with indigenous cases, according to the latest count available. Of these, 33 had never travelled to any country where malaria is endemic. "It is the largest indigenous outbreak since the eradication of malaria in the European Union," said Denis Coulombier, head of the Surveillance Unit of the European Centre for Disease Control (ECDC). However, according to experts, the risk that the outbreak will be transmitted to other countries is minimal, and it is unlikely that the disease will be re-established in Europe ("La Malaria regresa a Europa" *El Pais: 2011*).

Prevalence of tuberculosis

As noted by Fleishman (WHO: 2011), tuberculosis is an airborne contagious disease transmitted through coughing, sneezing, talking, or spitting. It can affect many organs of the body, but only those with tuberculosis in the lungs can infect others. Persons with compromised immune systems due to malnutrition or other reasons, such as HIV, are at greatly increased risk of falling ill. In 2008 there were an estimated 9.4 million new cases, of which women accounted for an estimated 3.6 million. Table 4 shows incidence (number of new cases arising during a defined period), prevalence (number of cases new and previously occurring that exists at a given point in time) and mortality worldwide. We can observe that the European region shows lower rates in comparison with the rest of the world.

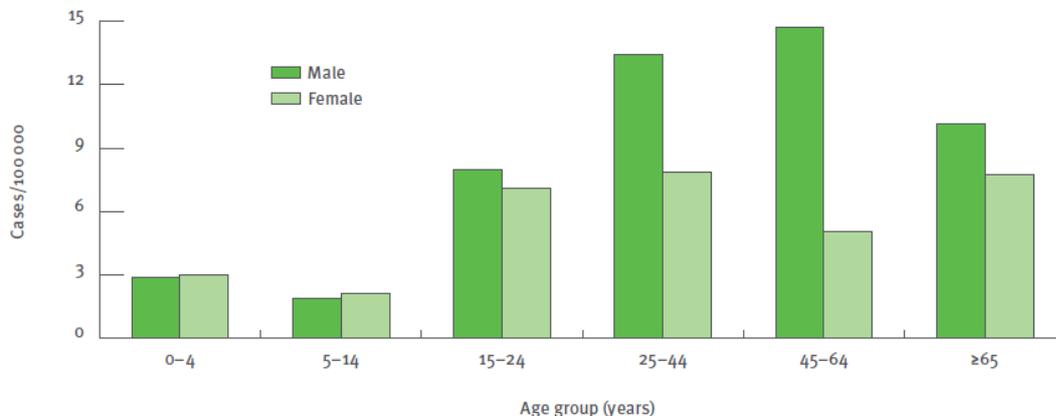
Table 4: Incidence, prevalence and mortality of tuberculosis (2010)

Region	Incidence			Prevalence		Mortality (excl. HIV)	
	No. in thousands	% of global total	Rate per 100 000 populat.	No. in thousands	Rate per 100 000 populat.	No. in thousands	Rate per 100 000 populat.
Africa	2 800	30%	340	3 900	450	430	50
The Americas	270	2.9%	29	350	37	20	2.1
Eastern Mediterranean	660	7.1%	110	1 000	180	99	18
Europe	420	4.5%	47	560	63	62	7
South-East Asia	3 300	35%	180	4 900	280	480	27
Western Pacific	1 900	21%	110	2 900	160	240	13
Global total	9 400	100%	140	14 000	164	1 300	19

Source: World Health Organization (WHO), *Tuberculosis. Factsheet N°104 (2010)*.

“Annual epidemiological report on communicable diseases in Europe” (2010) notes that in 2008 the EU notification rate per 100,000 was 16.7% and the main age groups affected were between 25 and 44 years. Sex disaggregation shows that in all age groups the rate is lower for women (Figure 6). At the country level, “For 2008, a total of 82,611 TB cases (of which 47,541 were laboratory confirmed) were reported by 26 EU countries (all except Austria) and two EEA countries (Iceland and Norway), showing a decrease of 1,494 cases compared with 2007. Over 80% of cases occurred in the eight countries that reported 3,000 cases or more each (Bulgaria, France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Romania, Spain and United Kingdom)(2010:23).”

Figure 6: Notification rates of tuberculosis cases by age & gender in EU and EEA/EFTA countries, 2008

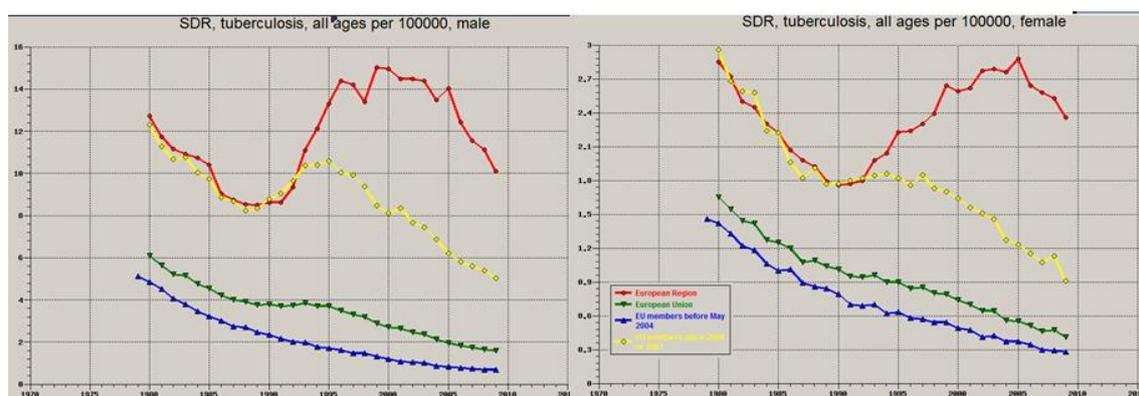


Source. Country Reports: Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway.

Source: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC). *Annual epidemiological report on communicable diseases in Europe (2010)*

Data from WHO since 1980 show that a lower rate of tuberculosis is found in countries that became members of the European Union before May 2004. A clear decreasing trend is observed for both sexes but the rate is higher for males.

Figure 7: Age standardized death rates (SDR), tuberculosis by gender in Europe (1980-2010)



SDR: are calculated using the direct method, i.e. they represent what the crude rate would have been if the population had the same age distribution as the European standard population.

Source: World Health Organization (WHO), *Global tuberculosis control (2011)*.

1.3-Physical integrity (FGM)

As we know health is also related to cultural practice. In some countries female genital mutilation (FGM) is now a common practice affecting many women around the world. Data on FGM are not available for European countries since this is a practice originating in Islamic countries. But it would be useful to know how many immigrant women living in Europe are subjected to this practices. Similarly there is little data available on prevalence of female genital mutilation in girls. UNICEF (Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting: A statistical exploration: 2005) and others present data for other countries in the world.

Other topics related to physical integrity include physical violence against women. This has become a serious public health problem with consequences for women both physically (traumatic injuries, sexually transmitted infections, gynecological problems, unwanted pregnancy) and mentally (anxiety, insomnia, clinical depression and PTSD). In this line, some research – such as that of Peixoto-Caldas (2008) - suggests that physical violence perpetrated against women is often intimacy related and often accompanied by psychological violence, while between one third and one half of cases also are associated with sexual abuse.

There are various types of violence: emotional, physical, sexual, economic, social, and environmental control. As commented on by Amell (2010), the family is the most prominent location of violence in our society. Women are six times more likely to be assaulted by a family member than by a stranger. The cycle of violence involves a pattern of abusive relationships in which abuse worsens, gradually reaching a climax of violence followed by a period of repentance and reconciliation. Education campaigns for prevention need to promote respect, equality and tolerance, as well as a culture of gender equality. Targeted professional competence is essential for detection of this problem and developing appropriate interventions.

This topic can be analyzed from different sides. In terms of quantitative data, the OECD collects data on legal aspects, but no data are available for the European Union. From the OECD data we can obtain information for countries in the region of Europe and central Asia. Table 5 presents data on violence against women from a legal perspective. The index quantifies information on the existence of laws against domestic violence, sexual assault or rape, and sexual harassment as follows: 0 if specific legislation is in place, 0.25 if legislation is in place but of general nature, 0.5 if specific legislation is being planned, drafted or reviewed, and 0.75 if this planned legislation is of general nature; 1 captures the absence of any legislation concerning violence against women. Data is averaged across the three legal categories. We can observe that the best situations, at legal level, are in Croatia and the Russian Federation.

Table 5: Indicators related to physical integrity: violence against women and FGM (2009)

Country	Violence against women / Legal Indicator	Female Genital Mutilation
Albania	0.75	0
Armenia	0.75	0
Azerbaijan	0.75	0
Belarus	0.50	0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.50	0
Croatia	0.25	0
Georgia	0.75	0
Kazakhstan	0.25	0
Kyrgyzstan	0.58	0
Macedonia, The Former Yugoslav Republic of	0.50	0
Moldova, Republic of	0.42	0
Russian Federation	0.25	0
Serbia and Montenegro	..	0
Tajikistan	0.50	0
Turkmenistan	0.75	0
Ukraine	0.42	0
Uzbekistan	0.75	0

Source: OECD. Gender institutions and development (GID) database.

2-SOCIAL STATUS

2.1-Equity/discrimination in social institutions

This dimension measures equity in social institutions and attempts to detect cultural/traditional practices that impact women's participation in social and economic development; it includes family code and civil liberties. Using indicators based on OECD Gender Institutions and Development (GID) database we can analyze two aspects: family code and civil liberties. The first includes parental authority granted to father and mother equally (between 0=yes and 1=no); inheritance practices in favour of male heirs (level between 0=no and 1=yes); share of girls between 15 and 19 years of age who are currently married, divorced or widowed (percentages are derived from census data on the population classified by current marital status, sex and age group) and acceptance or legality of polygamy within a society (between 0=no and 1=complete acceptance/legality). The second includes freedom to move freely outside of the house (0=none and 1=high) and obligation to wear a veil in public (0=women are not obliged to wear a veil and 1=all women are obliged to wear a veil).

Table 6 presents these two aspects in different countries in the European region and central Asia (data for EU are not available). We can see that, in general, indicators related to the family code show equity in the majority of countries, while indicators on civil liberties reflect total equity in all included countries.

Table 6: Equity/discrimination in social institution (2009)

Country	Family code				Civil liberties	
	Parental Authority	Inheritance	Early marriage (women)	Polygamy acceptance / legality	Freedom of movement	Dress code in public
Albania	0.5	0	0.08	0	0	0
Armenia	0	0	0.09	0	0	0
Azerbaijan	0.5	0	0.13	0	0	0
Belarus	0	0	0.06	0	0	0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	0	..	0	0	0
Croatia	0	0	0.02	0	0	0
Georgia	0	0	0.16	0	0	0
Kazakhstan	0	0	0.07	0	0	0
Kyrgyzstan	0	0.5	0.11	0	0	0
Macedonia. The Former Yugoslav Republic of	0	0.5	0.09	0	0	0
Moldova. Republic of	0	0	0.116	0	0	0
Russian Federation	0	0	0.11	0.5	0	0
Serbia and Montenegro	0	0.5	..	0	0	0
Tajikistan	0	0.5	0.12	0.5	0	0
Turkmenistan	0.5	..	0.06	0.5	0	0
Ukraine	0	0	0.1	0	0	0
Uzbekistan	..	0	0.13	0.5	0	0

Source: OECD. Gender institutions and development (GID) database.

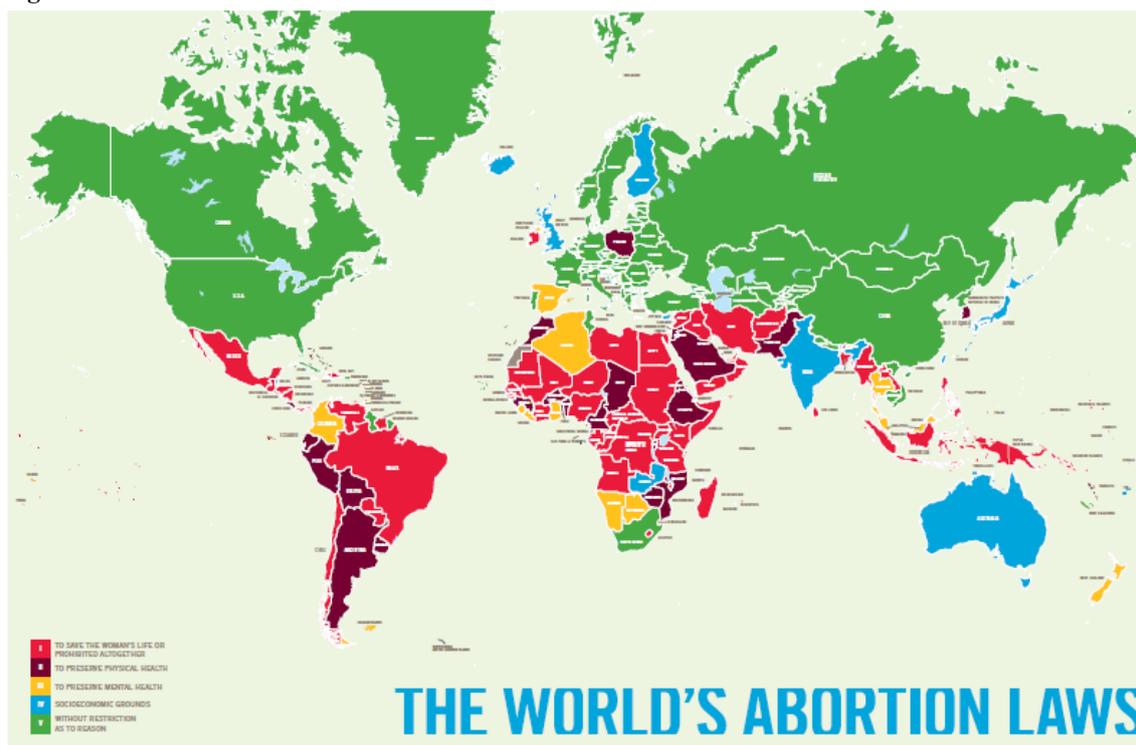
2.2-Sex ratio at birth

Abortion

Legislation regulating the practice of abortion is another indicator relevant for knowing the position of the State related to civil liberties. In each country, this can vary from outright prohibition (and therefore the consideration of this practice as a crime) or freedom of choice.

According to data collected from the Centre for Reproductive Rights, in 2009 61% of the world's people lived in countries where induced abortion is permitted either for a wide range of reasons or without restriction. In contrast, 26% of the global population resides in countries where abortion is generally prohibited. Figure 8 illustrates the varying degrees to which countries worldwide allow access to abortion. Countries in Category I have the most restrictive laws. Those in each subsequent category recognize the grounds specified in the preceding category as well as additional grounds. Depending on such factors as public opinion, the views of government officials and providers, and individual circumstances, laws in each category may be interpreted more broadly or restrictively than indicated by their classifications. As we can see, European countries are in general included in the category V (green) "Without restriction as to reason". Most countries with such laws, however, impose a limit on the period during which women can access the procedure without providing legal justification. Abortions may be performed after that period only on prescribed grounds. In the maps we can observe that Spain is included in category III (expressly permits abortion to protect the woman's mental health, as well as her life and physical health), but in 2010 new legislation was approved and this country can now be included in category V.

Figure 8: The World's abortion laws 2007



Source: Centre for Reproductive Rights (Map 2007)

Sex ratio

Considering the proportion of women and men in the total population, we can observe that the values for both genders in Europe are similar. A greater number of men are detected at birth but during the working years, between 15 and 64, we see the same proportion of males and females. Due a higher life expectancy for women, the population over 65 years has a greater percentage of females (Table 7).

Table 7: Ratio male/female at birth in European region

Period of life	Ratio: male/female
At birth	1.06
Under 15	1.05
15-64 years	1.00
65 and over	0.73
Total population	0.95

Source: Central Intelligence Agency, *The CIA World Factbook* .

If we observe data disaggregated by country (Table 8) we can see that in total population, only Cyprus has a higher ratio of males per females (1.04). In all other countries there is a higher proportion of women. Considering different age groups we can observe that at birth the ratio of male/female is over 1 in all countries.

Table 8: Ratio male/female at birth in European countries

Country	at birth	under 15 years	15-64 year	65 and over	total population
Austria	1.05	1.05	1.01	0.71	0.95
Belgium	1.05	1.04	1.02	0.71	0.96
Bulgaria	1.06	1.05	0.97	0.68	0.92
Cyprus	1.05	1.06	1.08	0.77	1.04
Czech Republic	1.06	1.60	1.01	0.66	0.95
Denmark	1.06	1.05	1.01	0.78	0.98

Country	at birth	under 15 years	15-64 year	65 and over	total population
Estonia	1.06	1.06	0.91	0.49	0.84
Finland	1.04	1.04	1.02	0.69	0.96
France	1.05	1.05	1.00	0.72	0.96
Germany	1.06	1.05	1.04	0.72	0.97
Greece	1.06	1.06	1.00	0.78	0.96
Hungary	1.06	1.06	0.98	0.57	0.91
Ireland	1.06	1.07	1.00	0.81	0.99
Italy	1.06	1.06	1.03	0.72	0.96
Latvia	1.05	1.05	0.95	0.48	0.86
Lithuania	1.06	1.06	0.96	0.53	0.89
Luxembourg	1.07	1.07	1.01	0.70	0.97
Malta	1.06	1.05	1.03	0.77	0.99
Netherlands	1.05	1.05	1.02	0.76	0.98
Poland	1.06	1.06	0.99	0.62	0.94
Portugal	1.07	1.09	1.00	0.70	0.95
Romania	1.06	1.05	0.99	0.69	0.95
Slovakia	1.05	1.05	0.99	0.60	0.94
Spain	1.07	1.06	1.02	0.65	0.95
Sweden	1.06	1.06	1.02	0.80	0.98
United Kingdom	1.05	1.05	1.03	0.76	0.98

Source: Central Intelligence Agency, *The CIA World Factbook*.

2.3-Son preference and missing women

Son preference

Gender preferences may have substantial implications for a couple's fertility behaviour. However, there is only limited empirical research investigating this subject in modern Western societies. In a paper by Hank and Kohler (2000), data from the Fertility and Family Surveys are used to compare 17 European countries with respect to their gender preferences for children. Despite substantial regional heterogeneity across Europe, results show a strong tendency towards a preference for a mixed sex composition (if there is any preference at all). However, some unexpected indications of girl preference in the Czech Republic, Lithuania, and Portugal were found.

Because socioeconomic conditions and family policies in Europe – important factors in explaining different fertility levels – are not related to a specific gender of children, the authors suggest that sociocultural factors should be regarded as important determinants of different gender preferences.

The indicator “son preference” is useful for analyzing the difference between the number of females that should be alive (assuming no son preference) and the actual number of females in a country. Different surveys collect information to describe this situation. Data from OECD related to the European Union are not available but we can see some data for countries in the European region. Data on son preference are presented measuring values between 0 and 1. Value 0 identifies countries with no preference of son by gender and 1 signals son preference. Data collected for 2009 shows that in the European region and central Asia there is no son preference, with the exception of Albania at an index value of 0.5 (Table 9).

Table 9: Son preference in the region of Europe and central Asia (2009)

Country	Son Preference
Albania	0,5
Armenia	0
Azerbaijan	0
Belarus	0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0
Croatia	0
Georgia	0
Kazakhstan	0
Kyrgyzstan	0
Macedonia, The Former Republic of Yugoslav	0
Moldova, Republic of	0
Russian Federation	0
Serbia and Montenegro	..
Tajikistan	0
Turkmenistan	0
Ukraine	0
Uzbekistan	0

Source: OECD. Gender institutions and development (GID) database

Missing women

Another interesting and related indicator in this dimension is the number of “missing women” at different stages of life. The following figure, selected from the report “Gender Equality and Development” (World Development Report: 2012), presents the global situation. As we can see, considering the total number of women less than 60 years, the number of missing women has decreased when we compare data from 2008 to 1990. However, there are greater numbers of missing females at birth during this period. Sub-Saharan African countries show a considerable increase in excess female mortality in reproductive years between 2008 and 1990. In Europe and central Asia there are fewer missing women compared with other regions (Figure 10). Complementing data from other sources, in Europe the excess female mortality in childhood disappeared between 1900 and 1930 (Figure 11) with a decline related to a reduction in overall childhood mortality.

Figure 9: Missing girls at birth and excess female death (in thousands)

TABLE 3.2 *Skewed sex ratios at birth and excess female mortality persist across the world, leading to females missing at birth and excess female mortality during childhood and the reproductive years*

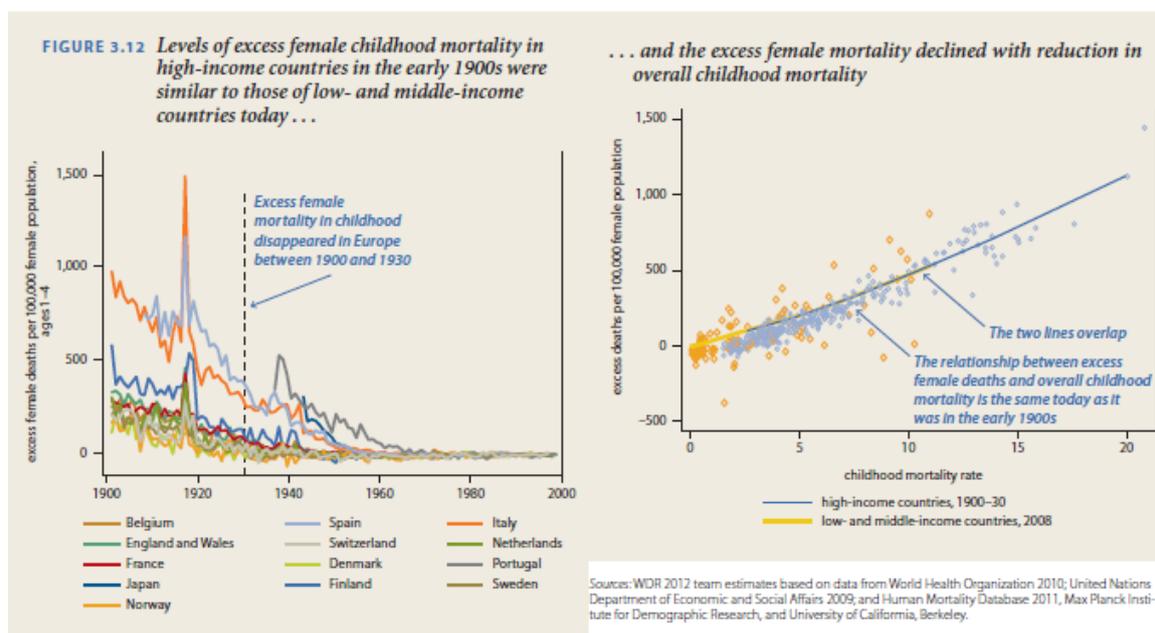
Missing girls at birth and excess female deaths (in thousands)

	girls at birth		girls under 5		girls 5–14		women 15–49		women 50–59		Total women under 60	
	1990	2008	1990	2008	1990	2008	1990	2008	1990	2008	1990	2008
China	890	1,092	259	71	21	5	208	56	92	30	1,470	1,254
India	265	257	428	251	94	45	388	228	81	75	1,255	856
Sub-Saharan Africa	42	53	183	203	61	77	302	751	50	99	639	1,182
High HIV-prevalence countries	0	0	6	39	5	18	38	328	4	31	53	416
Low HIV-prevalence countries	42	53	177	163	57	59	264	423	46	68	586	766
South Asia (excluding India)	0	1	99	72	32	20	176	161	37	51	346	305
East Asia and Pacific (excluding China)	3	4	14	7	14	9	137	113	48	46	216	179
Middle East and North Africa	5	6	13	7	4	1	43	24	15	15	80	52
Europe and Central Asia	7	14	3	1	0	0	12	4	4	3	27	23
Latin America and the Caribbean	0	0	11	5	3	1	20	10	17	17	51	33
Total	1,212	1,427	1,010	617	230	158	1,286	1,347	343	334	4,082	3,882

Source: WDR 2012 team estimates based on data from the World Health Organization 2010 and United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2009.
 Note: Totals do not necessarily add up due to rounding.

Source: World Bank. *World Development Report 2012, Gender Equality and Development.*

Figure 10: Excess female death in developed countries



Source: World Bank. *World Development Report 2012, Gender Equality and Development.*

2.3. Prevalence of violence against women

The problem of violence against women, especially in the home, has been a matter of concern globally and particularly in the European Union during the past decade. In December 1993, declaration 48/104 of the General Assembly of the United Nations on the Elimination of Violence against Women, made a series of recommendations for Member States regarding measures to combat domestic violence. One of them is to promote research to "assess the effectiveness of measures implemented to prevent and to remedy its effects."

Two years later, the Beijing World Conference reiterated this demand considering that domestic violence affects fundamental human rights in the form of the right to privacy, dignity, sexual freedom, equality, security and physical and moral integrity. However, the results of all these demands and good intentions have not achieved satisfactory results and this topic remains a major outstanding issue in all societies.

As argued by Fernandez Villanueva (2004), shortcomings and sexism continue to be practiced in the administration of justice relating to gender issues, which derive from two factors: the inadequacy of legal codes and of judicial proceedings to enforce these codes. The author concludes by stating that "to remove violence against women, impunity and social advantages enjoyed by the perpetrators must also be removed. To obtain more effective practice, legal operators must be supported in their role for services that facilitate or at least don't delay the administration of justice, provide administrators of justice with the resources to act in accordance with code requirements and above all, to establish appropriate sanctions in the event that these managers do not perform their function satisfactorily (Fernandez Villanueva, 2004: 192)."

As research shows, gender violence is not exclusive to one social class, age educational level, but is a serious problem in society in general. In this line, taking into account the significant increase in the elderly population in Europe, the study of violence against the elderly has become an important topic. According to the European Parliament, within the European Union the proportion of the population aged 65 and over will rise from 17.1% in 2008 to 30% in 2060; for people aged 80 and over, the figures rise from 4.4% to 12.1% during the same period (European Parliament, 2010).

Gender is a significant factor in aging as women outnumber men in older age groups in all European Union countries. Of over-75-year-olds, women make up two-thirds of the population; of over-85-year-olds the proportion of women is 71% (Eurostat, 2008). While any older person could become a victim of violence, vulnerability can increase sharply with such risk factors as: physical frailty, compromised mental health status, social factors (such as isolation, poverty, lack of support) or general societal conditions and trends (for example policies that are insensitive to elderly people) (European Commission, 2008). Older women living at home are, in many cases, in the most vulnerable position and in greatest need of protection from violence and abuse. For one thing, elderly women traditionally face a greater risk of living in poverty. Reasons for this include, for example, a lower pension accumulation than that of men, but also the fact that the generation of 50+ women are the "sandwich generation", caring for their parents and grandchildren, which complicates conditions for taking work outside the home (European Parliament, 2010).

To analyze this issue, a recent study funded by the EU's Daphne III programme was developed on prevalence of violence and abuse against women and children. The prevalence study of abuse and violence against older women (AVOW) attempts to provide up-to-date and comparable information about the prevalence of abuse and violence against women in five European countries (Austria, Belgium, Finland, Lithuania and Portugal). The research focused

on women aged 60 years and over living in private households. Information was collected in all participating countries using a culturally validated questionnaire jointly developed by the project partners (AVOW website, 2010). The results show that the majority of older women in Europe have a high quality of life and lead happy and healthy lives longer than ever before. However, some 28% of women aged 60 years or older have been mistreated in the last 12 months.

The prevalence rates obtained establish that almost three in ten older women (28.1%) across the five countries reported experiencing some form of abuse and/or neglect in the past twelve months. Portugal was the country encountering the highest overall abuse (39.4%), followed by Belgium (32%), Finland (24.7%), Austria (23.8%), and Lithuania (21.8%). When considering all five countries, emotional abuse was the most common type of abuse observed (23.6%), followed by financial abuse (8.8%), violation of rights (6.4%), neglect (5.4%), sexual abuse (3.1%), and physical abuse (2.5%).

The most relevant perpetrators were direct family members, while paid home help or the caregiver was the least prevalent type of perpetrator found. The different types of abuse were more often than not carried out by the partner or spouse followed by the category of children or children-in-law. The partner or spouse was the most reported perpetrator of emotional abuse and of violations of rights in all countries. This was also usually the most frequently reported type of perpetrator of physical abuse (the exception was Portugal), sexual abuse (the exception was Belgium), and of financial abuse (exceptions were Austria and Belgium). It could therefore be stated that at least part of the mistreatment determined by the study corresponds to conjugal or intimate partner violence in older age. This finding relates specifically to emotional abuse and violation of rights across all countries. Children or children-in-law were the primary perpetrators of neglect, of financial abuse in Austria and Belgium, and of physical abuse in Portugal.

Information about risk factors for violence and abuse of older women was also obtained. The data showed that there were factors at both the micro level (sociodemographic determinants, socio-economic indicators, health status and coping styles) and the meso level (relationships, social activities and community integration) that were associated with higher prevalence rates of abuse. When compared to the oldest-old age groups (70 to 79 and 80 years and older), women in the youngest age group (60 to 69 years) who were married, not fully retired, reporting poor physical and mental health and who, when facing stressful and difficult situations, more often used a behavioural disengaged coping style reported significantly higher prevalence rates of abuse. On the meso level, the results indicate that significantly higher prevalence rates of abuse were reported by older women who felt more loneliness, whose perception was that the household income management was bad, who were living in larger households and cohabiting with a partner.

Lastly, the study also addressed the consequences of the abuse and the reporting behaviour of older women who reported experiencing abuse in the previous twelve months. The results show that the abuse and violence experienced by older women clearly affects their health and well being. Women reported several consequences of abuse, of which the most commonly stated were tension, anger and hatred and feelings of powerlessness. Additionally, in relation to quality of life, older women who had experienced any of the types of abuse that were assessed perceived their quality of life to be lower than that of those women who had not experienced abuse. These results were particularly relevant in relation to neglect, and financial, and physical abuse. Of the overall sample of abused older women, little more than half (55.3%) did not report the incident to an official agency or talk about it with someone they knew. The most common reasons given for not reporting were, respectively, considering the incident to be too trivial, distrusting the ability of somebody to be able to do anything about it and not wanting to involve anybody else. When the incident was reported as talked about or reported to an agency, the incidents of abuse and violence were most commonly disclosed to friends or family members,

followed by health professionals. However, when an incident was reported to an official agency, only just over half of the women found it to be helpful (51%).

In conclusion, violence, abuse, and neglect of older people are not an undifferentiated entity, but complex and multi-faceted phenomena. AVOW study has attempted to shed light on this using a unique approach: incorporating a wide spectrum of violence and abuse to the research and including aspects such as quality of life and coping styles that are often ignored. Also, the questionnaire developed by the research team was used with different survey methods in multicultural context. The AVOW study has established evidence that an in-depth understanding of violence against older women needs high levels of differentiation between different types of abuse and the different levels of severity. In that sense, different factors and configuration of factors may or may not contribute to vulnerability to abuse, when different “abuses” are taken into account. Hence, research, policies and intervention strategies should be developed and devised that consider the number of dimensions and multiple layers of the phenomenon. Furthermore, all these areas would benefit highly from including diverse and interdisciplinary perspectives as well as the central perspective of the victims (Luoma et al., 2011).

Different types of violence against women exist. In this case, through quantitative data, we analyze physical violence (an act that inflicts physical harm to the body of a woman) or sexual violence (an act aimed to force the woman to engage in sexual acts against her will or without her consent). Both dimensions could be studied collecting data from sources as the United Nations. As we can see in Table 10, considering more developed country, 51% of women from Czech Republic are victims of physical violence at some time during their life. The higher percentages of multiple instances of violence appear to occur in Serbia and the United Kingdom. Data about sexual violence are collected for a few countries. We can see that in the European region the Czech Republic presents 35% of women as victims of this type of violence during their life.

Table 10: Prevalence of physical and sexual violence against women in more developed regions

Prevalence of physical violence against women (%)								Prevalence of sexual violence against women (5)					
Country or area		All perpetrators			Severity of violence			Severity of violence		All perpetrators		By intimate partner	
More developed regions	Year	Life time	Last 12 months	Total	Moderate	Severe	Total	Moderate	Severe	Life time	Last 12 months	Life time	Last 12 months
Albania	2002	8	5	3	2
Australia	2002/03	48	8	25	4	34	4	8	1
Canada	2004	7	2
Czech Republic	2003	51	12	35	8	35	5	11	2
Denmark	2003	38	4	20	1	28	2	6	—
Finland	2005/06	44	12 ^d	18 ^e	4 ^f	..
France	2003	17	5
Germany	2003	37	..	28	13	..	7	..
Italy	2006	19	3	12	2	24	4	6	1
Japan—city	2000/01	13	9	4	3	3	1	6	1
Lithuania	2000	33	8	..
New Zealand—city	2003	30	14	..
New Zealand—province	2003	38	22	..

Prevalence of physical violence against women (%)								Prevalence of sexual violence against women (5)					
Country or area		All perpetrators			Severity of violence			Severity of violence		All perpetrators		By intimate partner	
More developed regions	Year	Life time	Last 12 months	Total	Moderate	Severe	Total	Moderate	Severe	Life time	Last 12 months	Life time	Last 12 months
Poland	2004	30	5	15	3	17	2	5	—
Republic of Moldova	2005	27	13	24	4	..
Serbia	2003	23	15	8	3	2	2	6	1
Switzerland	2003	27	1	9	1	25 ^g	1	3	—
United Kingdom	2006/07	19	15	14	3	2	2	24	3

d At least one form of violence or threat.

e Data refer to current partnership only. The corresponding figure for previous partnership(s) is 45%.

f Sexual violence and threatening behaviour. Data refer to current partnership only. The corresponding figure for previous partnership(s) is 17%.

g Data refer to three categories of violence that may overlap: rape (5.6%), rape attempt (6.8%) and unwanted kisses or sexual touching (18.0%).

Source: United Nations. *The World's Women 2010*, Trends and Statistics.

An additional indicator may be the proportion of women who have experienced physical or sexual violence by current or former intimate partners during their life. Data from the United Nations shows that among European countries, Lithuania and Finland show the highest percentage, at 30% (Table 11).

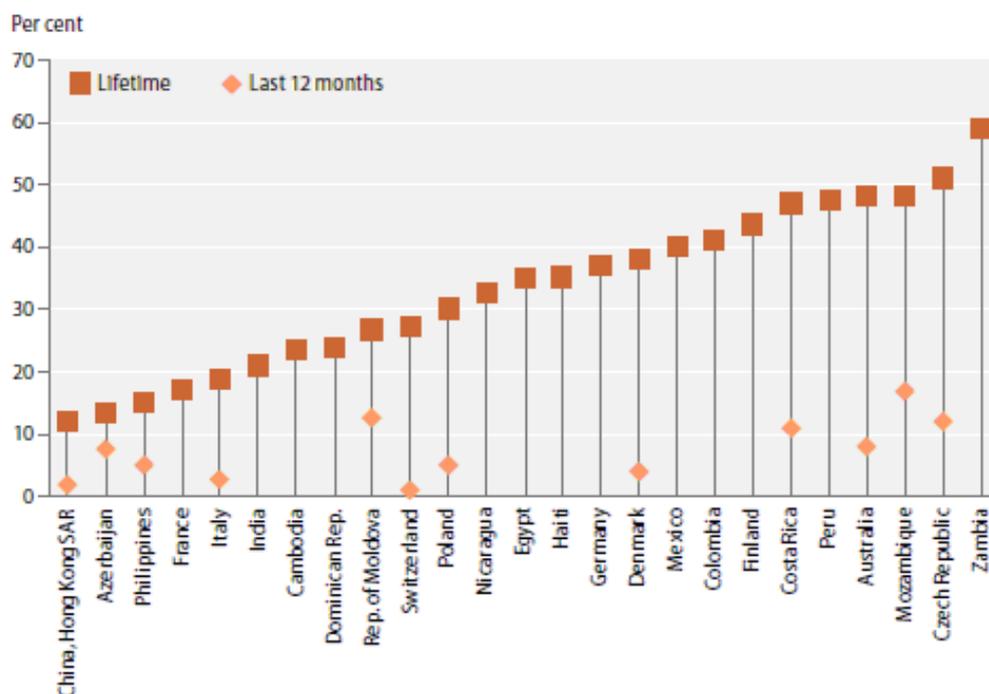
Table 11: Percentage women who have experienced physical or sexual violence by current or former intimate partner in some European countries

Country	Year	Total (%)
Finland	2005/06	30
France	2000	..
Germany	2003	29
Italy	2006	14
Lithuania	2000	38
Norway	2004	27
Poland	2004	16
Republic of Moldova	2005	25
Serbia	2003	24
Slovakia	2008	21
Sweden	1999/2000	21
Switzerland	2003	11
United Kingdom	2006/07	29

Source: United Nations. *The World's Women 2010*. New York, 2010. Trends and Statistics.

In Figure 11 where the situation with regard to women and violence in different countries is represented, we can observe the high rate of violence experienced by women in the Czech Republic.

Figure 11: Proportion of women experiencing physical violence at least once in their lifetime and in the last 12 months



Source: Compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division from national and international surveys on violence against women.

Note: Statistics on physical violence against women in the last 12 months were not available for all the countries. Data for India and Cambodia refer to ever-partnered women. Data for Finland refer to at least one form of violence or threat.

2.4. Time use/workload

The distribution of work and the reconciliation of professional and domestic labour remains an issue that particularly affects women. In order to overcome some of these constraints, a new framework agreement on parental leave was formulated in 2010, affecting workers in member countries of the European Union. This agreement extends the duration of parental leave to four months for each parent. It applies to all workers and any type of contract and represents a means to reconcile work and family responsibilities and to promote equal treatment for men and women (European Commission: 2010).

Obviously the legal rule is essential to ensure gender equality, but in practice there are significant differences. In many cases, the necessity for women to reconcile working life with home life, and influences them to choose part-time jobs or jobs with flexible hours. Care of children is often also another factor affecting the careers and the physical and mental stability of women. In a study about work life and mental well being carried out by Bull (2009), the situation of both single and coupled European mothers who combine work outside the home and family life is analyzed. According to the author, the effects of the work and family on women's mental well-being may vary depending on the level of support available from the state, since social support may relieve working mothers from some of the stress that can arise from trying to manage significant responsibilities at work and home.

Social support may be especially important for single working mothers, for whom the burden of multiple roles may be even heavier. The study assessed levels and predictors of well being of single and coupled employed mothers in Greece, Portugal and Spain, where welfare support is relatively limited. Results were compared to a parallel study with data from Denmark, Norway and Sweden, where welfare support is relatively comprehensive. Coupled mothers in

Scandinavia had significantly lower financial hardship, longer education, higher life satisfaction, more enriching jobs, practical support, financial support and social participation than coupled mothers in the Southern European sample. On the other hand, the Scandinavian coupled mothers had higher levels of work-family conflict than coupled mothers in Southern Europe. Single mothers in Scandinavia, compared to single mothers in Southern Europe, had significantly longer education, higher life satisfaction and positive effect, more enriching jobs, confident support, practical support, financial support and social participation. The level of job stress was the same for all mother groups. All groups differed significantly from each other in level of financial hardship, with Scandinavian coupled mothers being the best off, followed by Scandinavian single mothers, Southern European coupled mothers, and Southern European single mothers. The regional differences suggest that single motherhood per se need not be a risk factor for poorer well-being, and that welfare policies may have a protective effect for the mental well-being of single mothers.

At a quantitative level, time spent on work shows marked differences by gender. From ILO LABORSTA data we can observe that the length of the workday varies according to sex. In Table 12 the percentage of salaried workers according to length of workday is presented for European countries for 2001 and 2009. We can see that the greatest number of salaried workers is concentrated at a 35 and 48 hour work week. Sex disaggregation shows that the percentage of women is higher when the workweek is shorter. In the category under 25 hours per week the percentage of women is substantially higher than men, especially in Germany, Belgium, Netherland, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. In Netherlands the share of women is also higher in the range between 25 and 34 hours per week. The same situation is found in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany and Sweden. Alternatively, when the number of working hours increases, the percentage of women decreases. The exception is Croatia, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia, which all see similar proportions of women and men in the category of 40-48 hours of work per week.

Table 12: Percentage of workers (salaried >15 years old) according to weekly work hours by sex.

Country	Year	<25hs		25-34hs		35-39hs		40-48hs		49-59hs		≥40hs		≥50hs		≥60hs		Undefined hours		hours vary per week	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Austria	2001	0.9	7.4	2.2	25.7	35.1	23.3	57.6	42.2	2.3	0.7	-	-	-	-	1.9	0.7	-	-	-	-
Austria	2009	2.8	12.3	4.4	30.2	24.3	17.0	53.6	36.3	9.7	2.7	-	-	-	-	4.8	1.2	-	-	0.3	0.3
Belgium	2001	1.9	14.8	5.6	27.7	52.3	39.5	27.8	12.5	4.5	1.2	-	-	-	-	2.6	0.8	-	-	5.5	3.6
Belgium	2009	2.6	13.5	7.4	31.3	50.2	36.1	26.2	11.2	3.5	1.5	-	-	-	-	2.0	0.7	-	-	8.0	5.7
Croatia	2001	7.3	12.4	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.4	80.0	81.3	6.4	3.5	-	-	-	-	5.6	2.0	-	-	-	-
Czech Republic	2001	0.4	1.2	2.0	6.6	15.8	15.6	-	-	-	-	80.9	73.9	-	-	-	-	1.0	2.7	-	-
Czech Republic	2009	0.6	1.7	2.3	7.4	14.0	12.3	69.2	74.8	9.4	2.8	-	-	-	-	4.4	0.9	-	-	0.1	0.0
Denmark	2001	6.9	10.5	5.3	26.3	55.4	49.7	22.8	11.1	5.9	1.2	-	-	-	-	2.6	0.3	-	-	1.2	0.9
Denmark	2009	10.4	15.0	6.5	27.8	73.7	52.3	6.3	3.9	2.0	0.4	-	-	-	-	0.9	0.3	-	-	0.2	0.3
Estonia	2009	1.3	2.9	4.8	11.2	2.3	5.4	87.1	79.0	2.5	0.9	-	-	-	-	1.9	0.5	-	-	-	-
Finland	2001	3.3	6.7	6.8	15.0	32.6	54.6	-	-	-	-	56.7	22.9	-	-	-	-	0.7	0.8	-	-
Finland	2009	4.0	7.7	6.6	15.9	35.0	56.6	48.6	17.4	4.3	1.4	-	-	-	-	1.3	0.5	0.3	0.4	-	-
France	2001	1.8	8.6	5.5	24.2	61.5	49.4	14.6	9.1	4.5	2.1	-	-	-	-	2.0	0.7	-	-	10.2	5.9
France	2009	2.1	8.7	5.7	23.5	54.9	47.1	24.9	15.1	8.5	3.5	-	-	-	-	3.5	1.4	-	-	0.5	0.6
Germany	2001	3.0	18.3	2.8	23.9	44.2	31.8	42.9	24.1	4.0	1.0	-	-	-	-	3.0	0.8	-	-	-	-
Germany	2009	5.1	20.4	4.8	27.2	26.0	19.6	56.2	30.5	5.2	1.6	-	-	-	-	2.7	0.7	-	-	-	-
Greece	2001	0.9	2.6	6.5	14.7	11.1	12.5	72.4	65.9	5.0	3.1	-	-	-	-	3.9	1.2	-	-	0.2	0.1
Greece	2009	1.5	4.2	7.0	17.1	10.2	13.0	74.1	61.9	3.9	2.4	-	-	-	-	3.1	1.4	-	-	0.2	0.1
Hungary	2001	0.2	0.5	2.0	6.2	0.6	1.3	81.2	86.6	4.9	1.8	-	-	-	-	2.8	0.8	-	-	8.3	2.9
Hungary	2009	0.4	0.8	3.4	7.6	1.0	1.4	84.2	86.1	3.1	1.1	-	-	-	-	1.5	0.6	-	-	6.3	2.4
Iceland	2001	6.3	13.1	5.9	30.6	3.5	6.5	-	-	-	-	84.3	49.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Iceland	2009	5.5	11.6	6.5	25.0	4.4	7.6	-	-	-	-	83.6	55.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ireland	2001	3.0	12.2	5.4	24.5	40.6	39.8	34.0	17.9	5.8	1.3	-	-	-	-	3.1	0.6	-	-	8.1	3.7
Ireland	2009	3.7	14.2	9.0	29.5	44.2	38.6	30.7	12.8	3.8	0.8	-	-	-	-	1.7	0.3	-	-	6.9	3.9
Italy	2001	2.8	8.3	4.2	22.7	25.7	28.2	61.6	39.4	3.9	1.0	-	-	-	-	1.8	0.5	-	-	-	-
Italy	2009	2.0	9.4	5.4	30.0	20.3	23.8	65.5	34.7	4.9	1.4	-	-	-	-	1.8	0.6	-	-	0.1	0.0
Luxembourg	2001	0.3	8.4	2.4	26.9	2.8	5.6	88.6	55.7	1.8	0.7	-	-	-	-	1.1	0.5	-	-	3.0	2.2
Luxembourg	2009	1.4	7.5	4.2	30.7	4.5	6.2	82.4	52.1	3.4	0.9	-	-	-	-	1.8	0.4	-	-	2.3	2.3
Netherlands	2001	9.8	34.0	10.4	38.0	36.4	17.3	41.0	10.4	1.2	0.1	-	-	-	-	1.2	0.1	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	2009	12.1	31.4	13.2	45.3	29.3	13.6	44.5	9.5	0.6	0.1	-	-	-	-	0.4	0.1	-	-	-	-
Norway	2001	6.5	18.9	5.5	24.1	70.9	50.2	-	-	-	-	16.7	6.1	-	-	-	-	0.5	0.6	-	-
Norway	2009	7.9	17.7	7.3	24.3	67.5	50.4	12.4	5.9	2.8	0.9	-	-	-	-	1.8	0.4	0.4	0.4	-	-

Country	Year	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
		<25hs		25-34hs		35-39hs		40-48hs		49-59hs		>=40hs		>=50hs		>=60hs		Undefined hours		hours vary per week	
Poland	2001	1.4	4.1	5.4	13.3	1.3	2.1	-	-	-	-	91.8	80.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Poland	2009	1.4	3.9	3.8	11.2	1.1	2.7	82.0	79.3	7.8	2.0	-	-	-	-	3.9	0.9	-	-	-	-
Portugal	2001	0.6	3.2	2.4	8.1	14.8	24.9	75.3	60.6	4.1	1.8	-	-	-	-	2.8	1.4	-	-	-	-
Portugal	2009	0.9	3.3	2.3	7.9	12.7	23.8	76.9	62.0	4.8	2.0	-	-	-	-	2.5	1.0	-	-	-	-
Slovakia	2001	0.1	0.4	1.4	4.3	1.9	1.6	87.3	90.5	6.8	2.3	-	-	-	-	2.5	0.9	-	-	-	-
Slovakia	2009	0.5	0.8	3.0	5.0	12.4	19.1	75.4	72.5	6.7	1.8	-	-	-	-	1.9	0.7	-	-	-	-
Slovenia	2009	1.7	2.5	4.3	7.8	3.3	2.7	81.2	83.2	7.0	2.8	-	-	-	-	2.5	1.0	-	-	-	-
Spain	2001	0.8	6.8	3.2	15.6	10.9	18.1	76.9	56.8	5.6	1.8	-	-	-	-	2.6	0.7	-	-	0.0	0.0
Spain	2009	1.7	7.6	4.4	20.5	14.0	21.2	67.2	44.5	6.7	2.3	-	-	-	-	2.6	1.2	-	-	3.4	2.6
Sweden	2001	3.2	6.8	6.9	29.7	13.8	17.7	-	-	-	-	76.1	45.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden	2009	4.4	7.7	9.4	30.3	17.1	19.1	67.1	42.4	1.3	0.3	-	-	-	-	0.7	0.2	-	-	-	-
Switzerland	2001	4.9	25.8	4.7	25.5	4.2	7.2	-	-	-	-	86.3	41.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Switzerland	2009	4.2	24.7	6.6	28.5	3.1	6.4	-	-	-	-	86.1	40.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Turkey	2001	0.4	1.6	2.4	6.8	0.7	1.5	48.8	59.0	15.9	13.5	-	-	-	-	31.9	17.7	-	-	-	-
Turkey	2009	0.8	2.8	2.9	8.6	1.2	1.9	46.1	53.4	15.8	14.9	-	-	-	-	33.2	18.3	-	-	-	-
United Kingdom	2001	4.6	21.2	4.9	25.4	21.8	25.3	44.0	21.2	15.8	4.4	-	-	-	-	7.4	1.7	-	-	1.5	0.9
United Kingdom	2009	5.8	19.2	6.8	26.8	25.6	26.1	42.4	21.0	12.2	4.4	-	-	-	-	5.3	1.5	-	-	1.8	1.1

Source: self elaboration based on data from: International Labour Organization ILO LABORSTA

3-ECONOMIC STATUS

3.1. Women as percentage of economically active population

Female labour force

One of the prerequisites for participating in the knowledge society is inclusion as an economically active member of society. Although the female employment rate has increased significantly over the past decades, according to the European Commission, this growth needs to continue if the female employment rate is to reach 75%, the target set by Europe 2020, and extend to women who record the lowest employment rates. This requires improving the quality of jobs and policies for the balancing of private and professional life. In September 2010 the Commission published a "Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015" which states that the Commission will take initiatives to:

- promote equality in the framework of the Europe 2020 and the EU funding;
- encourage self-employment and business creation by women;
- evaluate the rights of workers on parental leave for family reasons;
- assess the progress made by Member States concerning the provision of childcare;
- support equal immigration and integration of immigrants.

Achieving these objectives is critical because in many European countries gender inequalities in the workplace remain. In the case of Spain, for example, female employment is characterized by five major problems: a high unemployment rate in general; a high rate of job abandonment for family responsibilities; high female unemployment rates which exceed those of males; a high rate of job insecurity relating to the high seasonality of the Spanish labour market; horizontal occupational segregation between male-dominated sectors which see a high quality of employment and feminized sectors which are characterized by low quality work; and vertical occupational segregation, reflected in low participation of women in senior positions in both the private and public sectors (Lahera Forteza, 2008). Addressing these problems will require the passage and implementation of strong legislation.

According to data from EUROSTAT the percentage of economically active population in Europe (between 15 and 64 years) in the recent decade was around 63%. The percentages according to sex show a clear prevalence of males. However data also show that the percentage of women in the economically active population increased from 54% in 2000 to 58% in 2010. This increase is greater considering the EU 15 (Table 13).

At the country level, in 2000 the lowest percentage of females in the economically active population was found in Malta (33%) followed by Spain (41%) and Greece (41%). Most recently (2010) this situation has changed considerably – in Spain 52% of female are in the labour force and in Greece the rate is 48%. Malta has increased its percentage but it is still very low (39%).

Table 13: Annual average of employment by sex

	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
GEO/TIME	2000		2001		2002		2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
EU*	54.1	72.8	55	73.1	55.6	72.8	56.2	72.7	57	72.8	56.6	71.4	57.6	72.1	58.3	72.5	58.9	72.7	58.4	70.7	58.2	70.1
EU (27 countries)	53.7	70.8	54.3	70.9	54.4	70.4	54.9	70.3	55.6	70.4	56.3	70.8	57.3	71.6	58.3	72.5	58.9	72.7	58.4	70.7	58.2	70.1
EU (25 countries)	53.6	71.3	54.3	71.4	54.7	71	55.2	70.9	55.8	71	56.6	71.4	57.6	72.1	58.6	73	59.2	73.2	58.7	71	58.5	70.4
EU (15 countries)	54.1	72.8	55	73.1	55.6	72.8	56.2	72.7	57	72.8	57.8	73	58.7	73.6	59.6	74.2	60.1	74.1	59.6	71.9	59.5	71.3
Belgium	51.5	69.5	51	68.8	51.4	68.3	51.8	67.3	52.6	67.9	53.8	68.3	54	67.9	55.3	68.7	56.2	68.6	56	67.2	56.5	67.4
Bulgaria	46.3	54.7	46.8	52.7	47.5	53.7	49	56	50.6	57.9	51.7	60	54.6	62.8	57.6	66	59.5	68.5	58.3	66.9	56.4	63
Czech Republic	56.9	73.2	56.9	73.2	57	73.9	56.3	73.1	56	72.3	56.3	73.3	56.8	73.7	57.3	74.8	57.6	75.4	56.7	73.8	56.3	73.5
Denmark	71.6	80.8	72	80.2	71.7	80	70.5	79.6	71.6	79.7	71.9	79.8	73.4	81.2	73.2	81	73.9	81.9	73.1	78.3	71.1	75.8
Germany**	58.1	72.9	58.7	72.8	58.9	71.8	58.9	70.9	59.2	70.8	60.6	71.3	62.2	72.8	64	74.7	64.3	75.8	65.2	75.4	66.1	76
Estonia	56.9	64.3	57.4	65	57.9	66.5	59	67.2	60	66.4	62.1	67	65.3	71	65.9	73.2	66.3	73.6	63	64.1	60.6	61.5
Ireland	53.9	76.3	54.9	76.6	55.4	75.4	55.7	75.2	56.5	75.9	58.3	76.9	59.3	77.9	60.6	77.5	60.2	74.9	57.4	66.3	56	63.9
Greece	41.7	71.5	41.5	71.4	42.9	72.2	44.3	73.4	45.2	73.7	46.1	74.2	47.4	74.6	47.9	74.9	48.7	75	48.9	73.5	48.1	70.9
Spain	41.3	71.2	43.1	72.5	44.4	72.6	46.3	73.2	48.3	73.8	51.2	75.2	53.2	76.1	54.7	76.2	54.9	73.5	52.8	66.6	52.3	64.7
France	55.2	69.2	56	69.7	56.7	69.5	58.2	69.9	58.3	69.5	58.4	69.2	58.6	68.9	59.6	69.1	60.2	69.5	59.9	68.3	59.7	68.1
Italy	39.6	68	41.1	68.5	42	69.1	42.7	69.6	45.2	70.1	45.3	69.9	46.3	70.5	46.6	70.7	47.2	70.3	46.4	68.6	46.1	67.7
Cyprus	53.5	78.7	57.2	79.3	59.1	78.9	60.4	78.8	58.7	79.8	58.4	79.2	60.3	79.4	62.4	80	62.9	79.2	62.5	77.6	63	76.6
Latvia	53.8	61.5	55.7	61.9	56.8	64.3	57.9	66.1	58.5	66.4	59.3	67.6	62.4	70.4	64.4	72.5	65.4	72.1	60.9	61	59.4	59.2
Lithuania	57.7	60.5	56.2	58.9	57.2	62.7	58.4	64	57.8	64.7	59.4	66.1	61	66.3	62.2	67.9	61.8	67.1	60.7	59.5	58.7	56.8
Luxembourg	50.1	75	50.9	75	51.6	75.1	50.9	73.3	51.9	72.8	53.7	73.3	54.6	72.6	56.1	72.3	55.1	71.5	57	73.2	57.2	73.1
Hungary	49.7	63.1	49.8	62.9	49.8	62.9	50.9	63.5	50.7	63.1	51	63.1	51.1	63.8	50.9	64	50.6	63	49.9	61.1	50.6	60.4
Malta	33.1	75	32.1	76.2	33.9	74.7	33.6	74.5	32.7	75.1	33.7	73.8	33.4	73.3	35.7	72.9	37.4	72.6	37.6	71.6	39.3	72.4
Netherlands	63.5	82.1	65.2	82.8	66.2	82.4	66	81.1	65.8	80.2	66.4	79.9	67.7	80.9	69.6	82.2	71.1	83.2	71.5	82.4	69.3	80
Austria	59.6	77.3	60.7	76.4	61.3	76.4	61.6	76.4	60.7	74.9	62	75.4	63.5	76.9	64.4	78.4	65.8	78.5	66.4	76.9	66.4	77.1
Poland	48.9	61.2	47.7	59.2	46.2	56.9	46	56.5	46.2	57.2	46.8	58.9	48.2	60.9	50.6	63.6	52.4	66.3	52.8	66.1	53	65.6
Portugal	60.5	76.5	61.3	77	61.4	76.5	61.4	75	61.7	74.2	61.7	73.4	62	73.9	61.9	73.8	62.5	74	61.6	71.1	61.1	70.1
Romania	57.5	68.6	57.1	67.8	51.8	63.6	51.5	63.8	52.1	63.4	51.5	63.7	53	64.6	52.8	64.8	52.5	65.7	52	65.2	52	65.7

	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	
Slovenia	58.4	67.2	58.8	68.6	58.6	68.2	57.6	67.4	60.5	70	61.3	70.4	61.8	71.1	62.6	72.7	64.2	72.7	63.8	71	62.6	69.6	
Slovakia	51.5	62.2	51.8	62	51.4	62.4	52.2	63.3	50.9	63.2	50.9	64.6	51.9	67	53	68.4	54.6	70	52.8	67.6	52.3	65.2	
Finland	64.2	70.1	65.4	70.8	66.2	70	65.7	69.7	65.6	69.7	66.5	70.3	67.3	71.4	68.5	72.1	69	73.1	67.9	69.5	66.9	69.4	
Sweden	70.9	75.1	72.3	75.7	72.2	74.9	71.5	74.2	70.5	73.6	70.4	74.4	70.7	75.5	71.8	76.5	71.8	76.7	70.2	74.2	70.3	75.1	
United Kingdom	64.7	77.8	65	78	65.2	77.7	65.3	77.8	65.6	77.9	65.8	77.7	65.8	77.5	65.5	77.5	65.8	77.3	65	74.8	64.6	74.5	
Iceland	:	:	:	:	:	:	80.1	86.3	78.8	85.8	80.5	86.9	80.8	88.1	80.8	89.1	79.6	87.3	76.5	80	76.2	80.1	
Norway	73.6	81.3	73.6	80.7	73.7	79.9	72.6	78.3	72.2	77.9	71.7	77.8	72.2	78.4	74	79.5	75.4	80.5	74.4	78.3	73.3	77.3	
Switzerland	69.3	87.3	70.6	87.6	71.5	86.2	70.7	85.1	70.3	84.4	70.4	83.9	71.1	84.7	71.6	85.6	73.5	85.4	73.6	84.4	72.5	84.6	
Croatia	:	:	:	:	46.7	60.5	46.7	60.3	47.8	61.8	48.6	61.7	49.4	62	50	64.4	50.7	65	51	62.4	48.8	59.4	
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	30.7	48.3	32.3	48.8	32.9	50.7	33.5	52.8	34	52.8
Turkey	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	22.7	66.9	22.8	66.8	23.5	66.6	24.2	64.5	26.2	66.7

*EU6-1972, EU9-1980, EU10-1985, EU12-1994, EU15-2004, EU25-2006, EU27

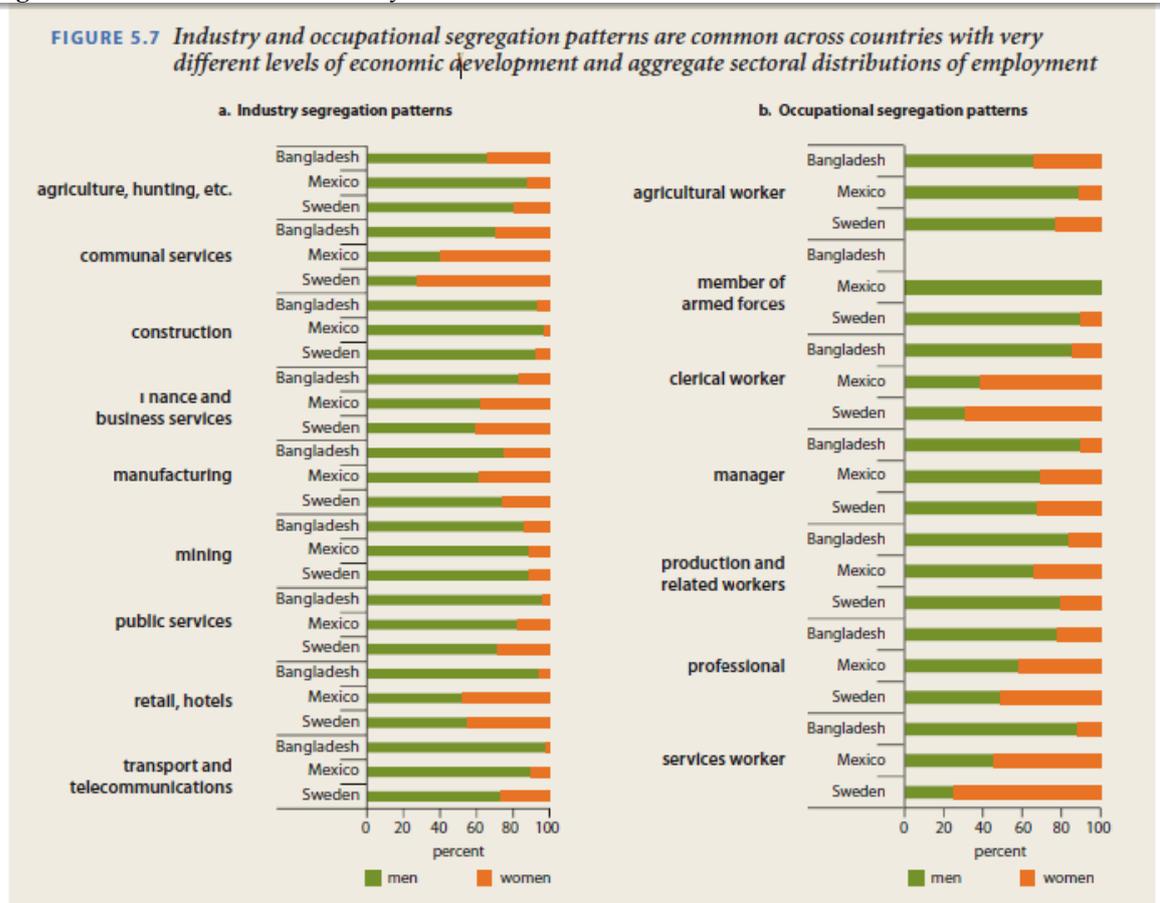
** including former GDR from 1991

Source: Self-elaboration based on EUROSTAT.

Proportion of male/female employment by sector

Despite the increased inclusion of women in the labour market, the distribution of workers by sex differs in diverse areas of economic activity. Figure 12, extracted from World Bank World Development Report (2012), shows that in general women are concentrated in activities such as community service and are especially represented as clerical or service workers. The level of development of each country is another factor that affects this distribution. We can see that in economies under development the presence of women is lower than in other countries.

Figure 12: Distribution of workers by sex



Source: International Labour Organization (Bangladesh 2005, Mexico 2008, Sweden 2008).

Source: World Bank. *World Development Report 2012, Gender equality and Development.*

In developed countries most of the population is employed in the industrial sector and services. In countries such as Italy, of 100 women workers a little more than 3 are employed in agriculture, a percentage much lower than in developing countries. Of the entire workforce employed in the agricultural sector women are at 39.1%, slightly over the European average (37%), but nevertheless lower than that of the percentage of men. A gender gap in the running of farms can be noted: of 3 farms only one is run by a woman. Yet, the Italian situation is one of the best in Europe since, according to Coldiretti (Actionaid, 2010), in 2008 Italy had the greatest number of women running factory farms: 26,700,039. Also in Italy, just as in most of the developing world, women-run farms are on average smaller than those run by men, with lower economic performance.

Data disaggregated by sector (agriculture, industry and services) and country may be obtained from ILO LABORSTA. Table 14 shows the proportion of male/female employment in agriculture, industry and services in each European country, with comparisons between 2006 and 2010. Women tend to be concentrated in the service

sector. They may be drawn into this pattern of lower-paying service activities because they allow for more flexible work schedules, thus making it easier to balance family responsibilities with work life. Segregation of women in certain sectors may also result from cultural attitudes that prevent them from entering industrial employment.

Table 14: Proportion of male/female employment by sector and country (2006 and 2010)

Country	2006						2010					
	Agriculture		Industry		Service		Agriculture		Industry		Service	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Austria	5.4	5.6	40.4	13.4	54.2	80.9	5.4	5.0	36.5	11.5	58.1	83.5
Belgium	2.5	1.3	35.6	10.8	61.9	87.9	1.7	0.9	34.3	10.1	63.9	89.0
Bulgaria	9.8	6.1	40.1	28.1	49.9	65.6	8.2	5.2	40.9	24.8	50.9	69.9
Croatia	13.7	14.9	38.8	17.8	47.4	67.1	13.7	16.3	38.2	14.5	47.5	68.6
Cyprus	5.3	2.9	32.4	10.2	62.4	86.8	4.8	2.6	30.3	9.4	65.1	87.9
Czech Republic	4.5	2.8	49.9	27.0	45.7	70.2	4.0	1.9	49.0	23.2	47.0	74.9
Denmark	4.1	1.5	32.9	12.4	63.0	86.1	3.9	0.8	29.0	9.3	66.8	89.8
Finland	6.3	2.8	37.8	11.8	55.7	85.2	6.0	2.8	35.8	9.9	57.8	86.8
France	5.0	2.2	34.3	11.7	60.6	85.9	3.9	1.8	33.0	10.2	62.7	87.6
Germany	2.8	1.6	40.9	16.1	56.2	82.3	2.0	1.2	40.3	14.4	57.6	84.4
Greece	11.2	13.1	29.8	9.9	59.0	76.9	12.4	12.7	27.7	7.8	59.9	79.4
Hungary	6.7	2.7	41.8	21.0	51.6	76.3	6.4	2.3	40.3	19.6	53.3	78.1
Ireland	8.8	1.3	39.3	11.4	51.2	86.8	7.7	1.1	28.7	8.8	63.1	89.7
Italy	4.9	3.3	38.8	16.7	56.3	79.9	4.5	2.8	38.7	14.1	56.8	83.1
Latvia	13.6	7.9	37.4	16.4	47.7	74.8	12.0	5.8	33.8	13.9	53.1	79.8
Lithuania	14.6	10.2	39.7	19.5	45.7	70.3	11.5	6.8	33.2	16.4	54.9	76.5
Luxembourg	2.3	1.2	25.2	5.2	72.2	93.6	1.3	0.7	17.7	4.5	73.8	89.5
Malta	2.3	0.2	33.8	14.9	62.8	83.8	1.8	0.4	29.3	12.3	66.3	85.6
Netherlands	4.0	2.0	28.7	7.8	62.9	85.6	3.7	1.7	24.2	6.2	61.2	84.0
Norway	4.8	1.5	32.3	7.9	62.7	90.3	3.9	1.0	31.1	7.0	64.9	91.7
Poland	16.4	15.0	40.1	17.5	43.5	67.5	13.1	12.5	41.8	16.1	45.0	71.3
Portugal	11.1	12.4	40.5	18.8	48.3	68.7	11.1	10.7	37.8	16.2	51.1	73.0
Romania	29.7	31.4	35.1	25.3	35.1	43.3	29.1	31.4	35.5	20.2	35.4	48.5
Slovakia	5.9	2.4	49.8	24.7	44.2	72.8	4.4	9.0	50.0	42.6	45.5	47.9
Slovenia	9.8	9.2	44.9	23.4	44.7	67.2	9.0	8.5	42.6	20.5	47.9	70.7
Spain	5.8	3.3	41.8	11.6	52.4	85.2	5.7	2.5	33.9	9.5	60.4	88.0
Sweden	3.0	3.0	33.6	33.6	63.2	63.2	3.2	0.9	30.9	7.6	65.6	91.1

Country	2006						2010					
	Agriculture		Industry		Service		Agriculture		Industry		Service	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
United Kingdom	1.9	0.6	32.7	9.6	65.1	89.6	1.7	0.6	29.3	7.4	68.2	91.3

Source: Self-elaboration based on: International Labour Organization, ILO LABORSTA.

Despite the increased numbers of women in employment and business, we continue to see a small number of women entrepreneurs. The European Network to Promote Women's Entrepreneurship has organized several activities by national and/or regional governments in the EU, EEA and candidate countries to promote women's entrepreneurship. A significant number of initiatives have been developed in this area in Europe in recent years.

Table 15: Activities developed in European countries to promote women's entrepreneurship

Year	Country	Activity name
2008	Austria	Special training for female-led micro businesses without employees started successfully in 2006.
	Czech Republic	Programme 'Progress'
	Finland	“Women entrepreneurs’ well being at work and development of business”
	Germany	The National Agency for Women Start-ups
	Portugal	System of Incentives to Innovation of Competitive Factors Thematic Operational Programme (ERDF)
2007	Iceland	Ministry of Business Affairs is working to change the attitudes towards women entrepreneurs.
	Slovenia	The Ministry of Economy in Slovenia developed a program for specific groups in entrepreneurship mainly targeting women entrepreneurs.
	Spain	In March 2007 Spain approved a new law - “Organic Law for effective Gender Equality” which aims at eliminating all types of discrimination especially in the area of economic activity.
	Sweden	Sweden launched a new program “Promoting women’s entrepreneurship 2007-2009” with a budget of approximately 32 Million Euros.
	Turkey	Turkey has increased the support to women entrepreneurs partly as a solution to the high rate of unemployed women. Training programs, incubators and special projects funded by EU are set up.
	UK	In UK there are now more than one million self-employed women an increase of 17 % since 2000. The start-up rate is now 34%. Among the good practises it is worth mentioning the support undertaken by an independent organisation that aims to become a leading UK supplier diversity initiative, by connecting women-owned businesses with multinational corporations.
2006	EU events	Involved in joint projects and followed up an important number of information requests and networking contacts from all over the world.
	Contacts and questions	About co-operation and information are frequent and the WES network is very useful for directing and informing about national good examples and projects.
	Representation and diffusion	The co-ordinator has informed about and represented WES in different events such as national and regional conferences about <i>women entrepreneurship, networking and microfinance</i>
	Cooperation	The co-operation with “W.IN.NET” (European Network of Women Resource Centres) has also continued and joint events and meetings
	Networking	WES network meetings give an opportunity for member countries to exchange information, receive the latest news from the European Commission and from the European Parliament.
	Transparency action	WES network has contributed significantly to the transparency action to increase knowledge about women’s entrepreneurship in the large number of Member States.
	EU events	Involved in joint projects and followed up an important number of information requests and networking contacts from all over the world.

Year	Country	Activity name
2005	Conferences and events	WES participation in conferences and events, a number of WES members attended the conference “Women-led businesses: overcoming barriers to growth and improving access to finance”
	Representation and diffusion	The co-ordinator has represented WES in different events such as the final conference of the INTERREG IIIC project “W.IN.NET” (European Network of Women Research Centres)
	Networking	WES network meetings give an opportunity for member countries to exchange information, provide the latest news from the European Commission and from the European Parliament, give information about news from the work of different researchers and last but not least enable participants to discuss and develop working methods and knowledge with colleagues.
2004	EU and International events	involved in joint projects and followed up an important number of information requests and networking contacts from all over the world.
	Participation in International conferences	WES participation in International conferences and events, the 2nd OECD Ministerial Conference held in Istanbul in June was significant. For the first time, WES participated there as a network. In parallel to the Ministerial Conference, a Forum on “Accelerating Women’s Entrepreneurship” was organized by the OECD and “KAGIDER - Turkish Federation of Women Entrepreneurs”. “Enterprising Women” organized in Brussels by the Commissioner responsible for Enterprise Policy in order to celebrate the International Women’s Day.
	Participation	WES members participated in the project “ Women towards ownership in business and agriculture ”, by the Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality.

Source: European Network to Promote Women’s Entrepreneurship (WES) Activities reports 2008, 2007, 2006, 2005, 2004

3.2. Earned income ratios

The pay gap between men and women in the European Union continues to exist and to a large extent cannot be attributed to objective criteria. The European Commission has examined potential causes for the pay gap and is putting forward a number of strategies to reduce it, and calling upon all relevant stakeholders to harness their efforts in tackling it. This intention is expressed in the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 18 July 2007, entitled ‘Tackling the pay gap between women and men’.

In this communication the Commission explains that the principle of equal pay for men and women has been a part of the Treaty of Rome since 1957, however in practice, the situation is still problematic. As pointed out in the Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men, the pay gap has remained practically unchanged over the last ten years, despite a range of measures implemented to tackle it. According to official figures, in 2005 women earned on average 15% less than men at the European Union level, i.e. an improvement of only two percentage points compared with 1995 and in marked contrast to the considerable increase in the female employment rate. This gap cannot be attributed to objective criteria. Women achieve a higher pass-rate at school and account for the majority of graduates in all the Member States.

Member States and social partners will need to take concrete steps to address this gap, which together hold most of the power to make decisions and take action. According to this Communication, the differences in pay can be explained by a series of objective criteria:

- individual characteristics (age, level of education, experience acquired);
- factors connected with the job (profession, type of contract or working conditions);
- aspects directly linked to the company (economic sector, size).

On the other hand, the pay gap may also reflect **inequalities** linked to the labour market. Such inequalities affect mainly women and include:

- **horizontal segregation:** women are concentrated in a much smaller number of sectors and professions than men, in positions that are less valued and less well paid;
- **vertical segregation:** women are employed mainly in lower paid jobs and encounter greater obstacles to professional advancement;
- **traditions and stereotypes:** these influence the choice of subjects and disciplines, evaluation and classification of professions and employment patterns;
- the difficulty of **balancing work and private life**, which often, for women, leads to part-time work and career breaks, with a negative effect on the trajectory of their careers.

Statistics show that the pay gap increases with age, the level of educational attainment and length of employment: wage differences exceed 30% in the 50 to 59 age bracket (as opposed to 7% in those under 30) and exceed 30% amongst graduates, but are 13% amongst workers who have completed their secondary school studies. Lastly, they may stand as high as 32% among workers with more than 30 years' experience in a company, whereas the pay gap is only 22% amongst workers with between one and five years' service.

In order to reduce the pay gap, the Commission is drawing attention to the following measures:

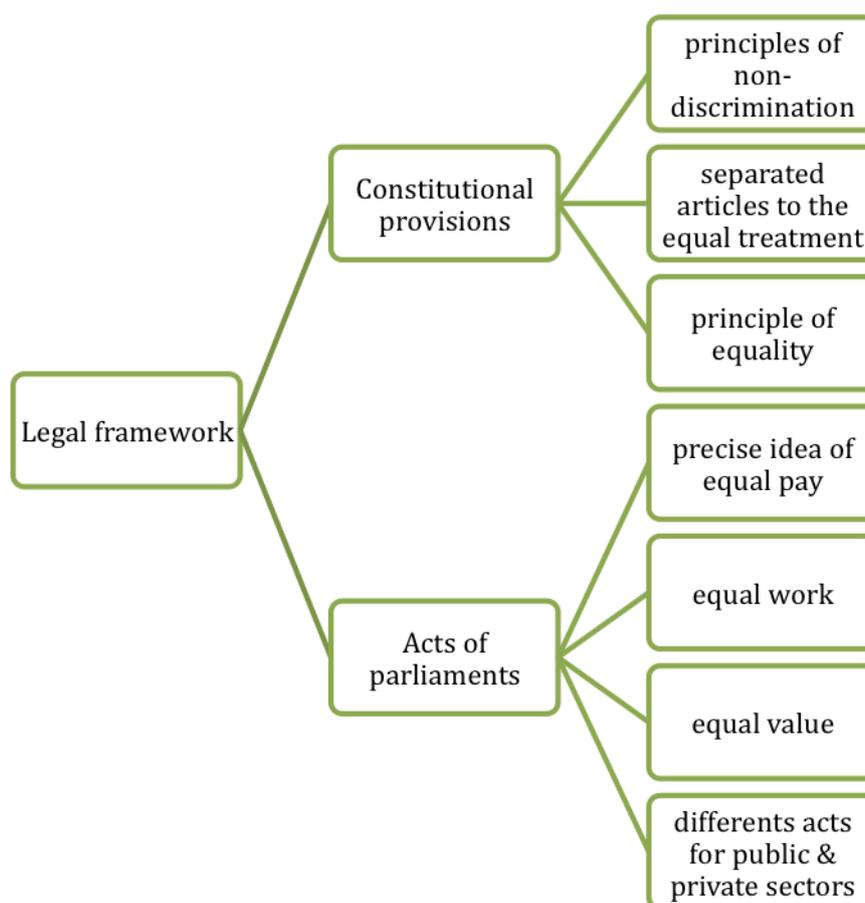
- improved application of existing legislation, accompanied by awareness-raising campaigns;
- fully exploiting the European Strategy for Growth and Jobs, particularly via European financial support in all its forms (including Structural Funds);
- promoting wage equality among employers, essentially appealing to their sense of social responsibility;
- supporting the exchange of good practices at Community level and involving social partners in that process.

The elimination of the gender pay gap is a core element of European policy on gender equality. It is included in the majority of instruments implemented at the European level:

- the Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men (2006-2010);
- the European Strategy for Growth and Jobs;
- the European Pact for Gender Equality;
- the Structural Funds;
- annual reports published by the Commission since 2004.

As Foubert explains in *The Gender Pay Gap in Europe from a Legal Perspective* (2010), most countries have adopted a substantive number of legislative provisions aimed at reducing the gap, often incited by EU legislation in the field. The legal framework of the gender pay gap is shown in Figure 13.

Figure 13: Legal framework of gender pay gap in Europe



Source: Foubert, P. *The Gender Pay Gap in Europe from a Legal Perspective* (2010).

As Foubert notes, it is remarkable that the candidate countries of Croatia, the FYR of Macedonia and Turkey have implemented the principle of equal pay for men and women for quite some time and seem to be in full accordance with EU law, at least from a purely legal perspective. Several experts referred to the existence of a general constitutional principle of non-discrimination or equality. Such a constitutional principle is usually linked to one or more forbidden grounds, such as race, sex and religion. This is, for example, the case in Cyprus, where the constitution prohibits any direct or indirect discrimination against any person on various grounds including sex.

In some national constitutions a separate article is devoted to the equal treatment of men and women. In France, for example, the principle of equality between men and women was first recognized in 1946, in the Preamble to the French Constitution. Also the German, Hungarian, Luxembourg, Macedonian and Slovenian constitutions contain a specific gender equality clause, often on top of a more general non-discrimination article.

Even the very precise idea of equal pay for equal work or work of equal value has been laid down in a surprising number of national constitutions (e.g. Finland, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Spain). In a number of countries, the principle of equal pay for work of equal value for men and women is only to be found on the level of an Act of Parliament. Sometimes the equal pay principle has been laid down in the Labour Code (e.g. Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia), or even in the Civil Code (Liechtenstein). Sometimes the principle is also to be found in a special equal treatment act, directly aimed at implementing EU equality directives. In many countries

there also exist different acts for the public and the private sectors (e.g. Austria, Germany, Luxembourg and Portugal).

At the quantitative level, estimated earned income is used to identify disparities in income between women and men, Using data from the 2009 Human Development Report, female and male earned income is roughly estimated on the basis of data on the ratio of the female non-agricultural wage to the male non-agricultural wage, the female and male shares of the economically active population, the total female and male population and GDP per capita in PPP US\$ (see <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/tn1>). The wage ratios used in this calculation are based on data for the most recent available year between 1999 and 2007.

As we can see in the case of the European countries, income for women in 2007 is lower than that of men in all countries, and in some cases is half the male salary. A higher ratio is seen in Norway and Hungary, while on the contrary Austria sees an even lower ratio (Table 16).

Table 16: Estimated earned income by gender (PPP US\$ 2007) and ratio female/male

Country	Estimated earned income (PPP US\$) 2007		Ratio of estimated female to male earned income
	Female	Male	
Norway	46,576 ^g	60,394	0.77
Iceland	27,460 ^g	43,959	0.62
Ireland	31,978 ^{g,i}	57,320	0.56
Netherlands	31,048	46,509	0.67
Sweden	29,476 ^{g,i}	44,071	0.67
France	25,677 ^g	42,091	0.61
Switzerland	31,442 ^g	50,346	0.62
Luxembourg	57,676 ^{g,i}	101,855	0.57
Finland	29,160 ^g	40,126	0.73
Austria	21,380 ^g	54,037	0.40
Spain	21,817 ^{g,i}	41,597	0.52
Denmark	30,745 ^g	41,630	0.74
Belgium	27,333 ^g	42,866	0.64
Italy	20,152 ^{g,i}	41,158	0.49
United Kingdom	28,421 ^g	42,133	0.67
Germany	25,691 ^{g,i}	43,515	0.59
Greece	19,218 ⁱ	38,002	0.51
Slovenia	20,427 ⁱ	33,398	0.61
Cyprus	18,307	31,625	0.58
Portugal	17,154	28,762	0.60
Czech Republic	17,706 ⁱ	30,909	0.57
Malta	14,458	31,812	0.45
Estonia	16,256 ⁱ	25,169	0.65
Poland	11,957 ⁱ	20,292	0.59
Slovakia	14,790 ⁱ	25,684	0.58
Hungary	16,143	21,625	0.75
Croatia	12,934	19,360	0.67
Lithuania	14,633	20,944	0.70
Latvia	13,403	19,860	0.67
Bulgaria	9,132	13,439	0.68
Romania	10,053	14,808	0.68
Serbia	7,654 ^{i,p}	12,900	0.59

Source: UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). *Human Development Report 2009*.

-g. For the purpose of calculating the GDI, the female and male values appearing in this table were scaled downward to reflect the maximum values for adult literacy (99%), gross enrolment ratios (100%), and GDP per capita (40,000 (PPP US\$)).

-i. No wage data were available. For the purposes of calculating the estimated female and male earned income, a value of 0.75 was used for the ratio of the female non-agricultural wage to the male non-agricultural wage.

-p. Earned income is estimated using data on the economic activity rate for Serbia and Montenegro prior to its separation into two independent states in June 2006.

3.3. Females by category of workers

According to the *International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93)*, the total number of persons in employment may be classified in the following categories:

a) Employer or salaried: a person who operates his or her own economic enterprise, or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires one or more employees. Some countries may wish to distinguish among employers according to the number of persons they employ.

(b) Own-account worker or self-employed: a person who operates his or her own economic enterprise, or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires no employees.

(c) Employee: a person who works for a public or private employer and receives remuneration in wages, salary, commission, tips, piece-rates or pay in kind.

(d) Unpaid family worker or family worker: usually a person who works without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a related person living in the same household. Where it is customary for young persons, in particular, to work without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a related person who does not live in the same household, the requirement of "living in the same household" may be eliminated. If there are a significant number of unpaid family workers in enterprises of which the operators are members of a producers' cooperative who are classified in category (e), these unpaid family workers should be classified in a separate subgroup.

(e) Member of producers' cooperative: a person who is an active member of a producers' cooperative, regardless of the industry in which it is established. Where this group is not numerically important, it may be excluded from the classification, and members of producers' cooperatives should be classified under other headings, as appropriate.

(f) Persons not classifiable by status: experienced workers whose status is unknown or inadequately described and unemployed persons not previously employed (i.e. new entrants). A separate group for new entrants may be included if information for this group is not already available elsewhere.

Table 17 presents information for the first four categories of workers based on LABORSTA data on the status of workers in the European Union. Salaried work is the status with the highest number of workers. In this category the share of women varies between 31% of total workers in Malta and more than 50% in Sweden and Lithuania in 2000. On the contrary in 2008 the share of women salaried workers has increased in Malta (36%) and decreased in the other two countries. Considering the status "employer" we can see that the percentages of women are much lower: no more than 30%, Finland, Lithuania and Poland showing the highest percentages. In the category of "self employed" the highest rating countries are Latvia, Portugal and Lithuania with more than 40% of women in 2000, and Austria, Croatia and Portugal in 2008. Besides the low number of persons listed as family workers, this is mainly a female occupation, with the highest percentages of women seen in Cyprus, Belgium, Croatia, France, Netherlands and the Czech Republic (more than 70% of total workers).

Table 17: Category of workers: proportion female in 2000 and 2008

Country	2000					2008				
	Total	salaried	employer	self employed	family workers	Total	salaried	employer	self employed	family workers
Germany	43.50	44.94	22.77	32.68	75.23	45.30	46.72	31.02		75.64
Austria	43.19	43.60	28.89	39.23	67.29	45.67	46.88	26.39	41.26	52.92
Belgium	No data	No data	No data	No data	No data	44.65	46.45	22.15	32.91	80.52
Bosnia y Herzegovina	No data	No data	No data	No data	No data	35.62	35.66	27.41		68.75
Cyprus	38.98	44.47	10.80	22.09	87.36	44.55	48.52	10.85	30.42	71.83
Croatia	45.35	46.46	28.63	34.62	75.92	44.66	45.38	25.89	43.05	75.28
Denmark	46	48	22		89	47	49	25		78
Slovakia	45.89	47.49	28.46	24.56	70.00	43.96	46.92	23.36	25.05	61.29
Slovenia	46.20	47.87	24.24	28.36	62.79	45.48	47.02	25.00	28.36	59.52
Spain	36.66	38.25	20.48	28.64	64.33	42.14	44.37	25.55	32.51	57.71
Estonia	49.15	50.57	27.53	36.12	58.54	49.60	51.11	23.00	36.40	
Finland	47.03	49.90	31.25		46.67	47.67	50.39	31.83		38.46
France (2003)	46.13	47.89	22.98	31.12	74.00	47.25	48.94	26.31	33.62	74.10
Greece	37.10	39.01	17.91	27.26	66.35	39.14	41.64	20.23	31.70	64.82
Hungary	44.86	47.51	26.43	25.83	66.67	45.59	47.47	26.67	34.84	57.97
Ireland	40.75	45.72	18.51	15.37	59.26	43.71	48.86	17.56	17.36	55.41
Island	46.55	50.51	26.09	28.93	66.67	45.63	48.33	23.46	28.17	
Italy	36.58	39.62	23.71	24.33	54.89	39.91	43.20	20.70	25.97	57.82
Latvia	49.03	49.92	29.11	47.41	54.40	49.28	50.68	25.96	39.16	44.14
Lithuania	50.88	52.77	31.56	41.11	59.81	49.43	50.94	23.24	36.44	66.52
Malta	29.0	31.0	0	16.0	0	33.0	36.0	0	18.0	100
Netherlands	42.82	43.68	33.68		77.97	45.58	47.21	21.70	38.17	77.69
Poland	44.90	46.50	31.46	37.45	59.81	44.82	46.28	30.22	35.90	63.75
Portugal	44.82	45.40	25.23	44.93	66.16	46.19	47.16	27.72	47.11	59.24
United Kingdom	45.77	48.11	27.61		68.18	46.05	48.75	27.35		64.55
Czech Republic	43.45	46.02	22.96	29.42	77.78	42.76	45.60	22.35	27.68	70.97
Romania	46.37	44.37	22.76	32.34	70.52	44.95	45.10	22.94	29.43	72.15
Sweden	47.90	50.34	25.54		53.85	47.27	49.65	26.39		50.00

Source: Self-elaboration based on International Labour Organization, ILO LABORSTA.

3.4. Share of women among the total poor

Another indicator related to economic status is share of population in the poorest quintile. This indicator allows measuring the share of people with a decent standard of living. Data from the Millennium Development Goal Database shows that in the European region the share in the poorest quintile ranges between six (The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) and nine

(Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Finland, Hungary and Sweden). It is interesting to observe in that those countries with the highest population representation in the poorest quintile in early 2000 (Albania, Bosnia and Hungary) this share has diminished in recent years (Table 18).

Table 18: Share of poorest quintile in national consumption

Area Name	Time Period	Data Value	Note
Albania	2002	9.0	1
Albania	2005	7.8	2
Austria	2000	8.6	
Belarus	2000	8.5	3
Belarus	2002	8.5	4
Belarus	2005	8.8	5
Belgium	2000	8.5	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2001	9.1	6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2004	6.9	7
Bulgaria	2001	6.5	8
Bulgaria	2003	8.7	9
Croatia	2001	8.2	10
Croatia	2005	8.7	11
Estonia	2000	6.6	12
Estonia	2002	6.6	13
Estonia	2004	6.8	14
Finland	2000	9.6	
Germany	2000	8.5	
Greece	2000	6.7	
Hungary	2002	9.6	13
Hungary	2004	8.6	14
Ireland	2000	7.4	
Italy	2000	6.5	
Latvia	2002	7.0	13
Latvia	2004	6.8	15
Lithuania	2002	7.7	13
Lithuania	2004	6.8	14
Luxembourg	2000	8.4	
Norway	2000	9.6	
Poland	2002	7.6	13
Poland	2005	7.3	11
Republic of Moldova	2002	6.8	13
Republic of Moldova	2004	7.3	14
Romania	2000	8.2	16
Romania	2002	7.9	17
Romania	2005	8.2	18
Russian Federation	2002	6.8	13
Russian Federation	2005	6.4	19
Slovenia	2002	8.7	13
Slovenia	2004	8.2	14
Spain	2000	7.0	
Sweden	2000	9.1	
Switzerland	2000	7.6	
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2000	6.7	12
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2002	6.0	13
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2003	6.1	9
Ukraine	2002	8.9	13
Ukraine	2005	9.0	11

1 Estimated from Living Standards Measurement Study; 2002; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

2 Estimated from Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS); 2005; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

3 Estimated from Income and Expenditure Survey; 2000; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

4 Estimated from Income and Expenditure Survey; 2002; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

5 Estimated from Belarus Household Budget Survey; 2005; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

6 Estimated from Living Standards Survey; 2001; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

7 Estimated from National or Household Budget Survey (HBS); 2004; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

8 Estimated from Integrated Household Survey; 2001; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

9 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2003; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

10 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2001; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

11 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2005; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

12 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2000; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

13 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2002; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

14 Estimated from Household Budget Survey; 2004; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

15 Estimated from Living Conditions Survey (NORBALT III); 2004; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

16 Estimated from Living Conditions Survey; 2000; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

17 Estimated from Living Conditions Survey (ACOV1); 2002; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

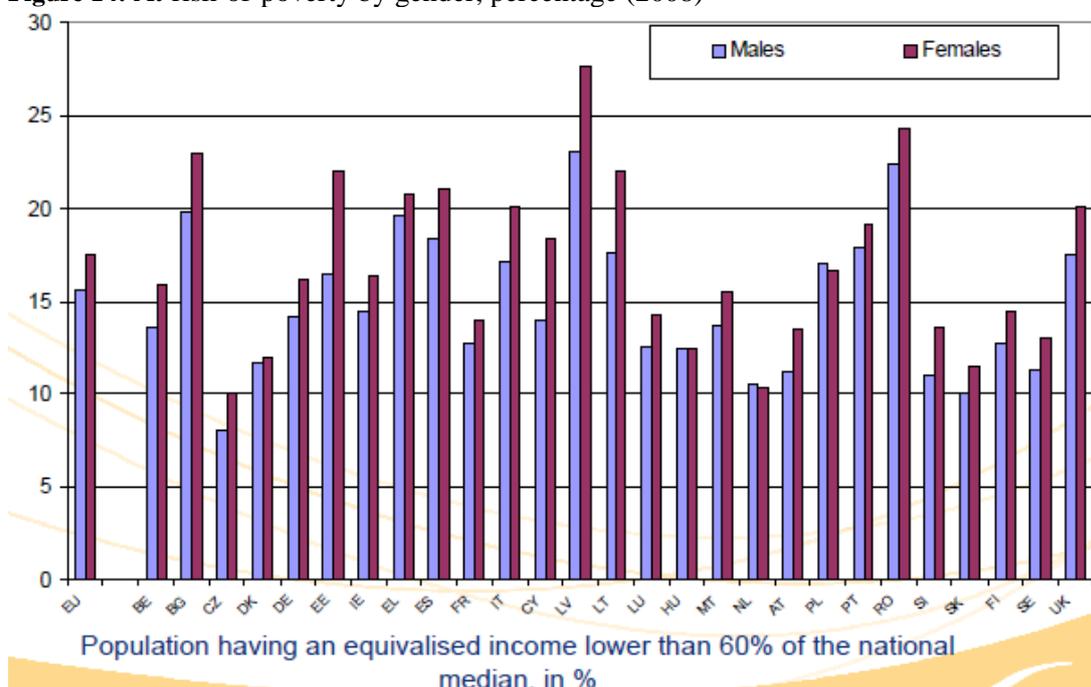
18 Estimated from Household Labour Force Survey; 2005; National coverage. Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure.

19 Refers to expenditure share by percentiles of population, ranked by per capita expenditure. Estimated from Russian Longitudinal Measurement Survey Round XIV (RLMS); 2005; National coverage.

Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDG Info 2010. Database.*

Data from EUROSTAT supply the percentage of population having an average income lower than 60% of the national median. Figure 14 shows the percentage by gender in 2008. We can see that in all European countries (EU-27) the percentage of women is higher than that of men in these categories, with the highest rates in Latvia, Romania, Bulgaria, Estonia and Lithuania.

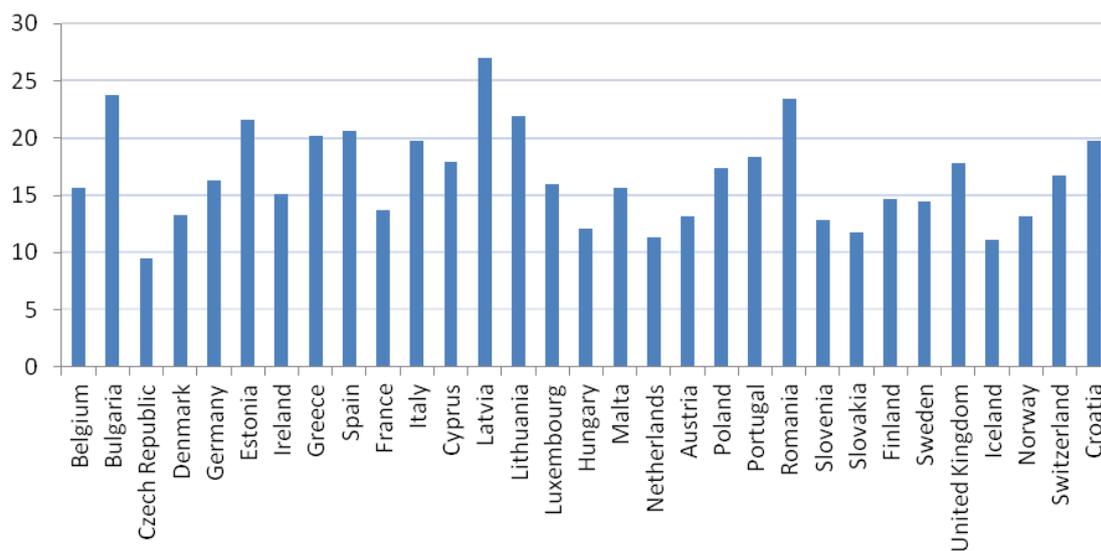
Figure 14: At-risk-of-poverty by gender, percentage (2008)



Source: Inna Steinbuka (2010) *A statistical portrait on women and men in Europe.* EUROSTAT.

Looking at the situation over a longer period, we see that the percentage of females at risk of poverty in the European Union during the period 1999-2010 is around 17%. The highest levels of female poverty are found in Latvia, Bulgaria and Romania (around 23%) with the lowest in the Czech Republic and Hungary at around 10% (Table 19). Figure 15 shows the percentages of women at risk of poverty in 2009.

Figure 15: At-risk-of-poverty rate by gender: percentages of females (2009)



Source: Self-elaboration based on EUROSTAT data.

Table 19: At-risk-of-poverty rate by gender: percentages of females

Geotime	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
European Union (27 countries)	:	:	:	:	:	:	17	17,2	17,5	17,4	17,1	:
European Union (15 countries)	17	16	:	:	17	18	16,5	16,8	17,4	17,2	16,9	:
New Member States (12 countries)	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	18,7	18,1	17,8	17,8	:
Euro area	:	:	:	:	:	:	16,2	16,5	17,2	16,9	16,8	:
Euro area (17 countries)	:	:	:	:	:	:	16,2	16,4	17,1	16,8	16,8	:
Euro area (16 countries)	:	:	:	:	:	:	16,2	16,4	17,1	16,8	16,8	:
Belgium	14	14	15	:	16,3	15,1	15,5	15,6	15,9	15,9	15,7	:
Bulgaria	:	15	17	15	16	17	15	19,3	23	22,9	23,7	:
Czech Republic	:	:	8	:	:	:	11	10,8	10,5	10,1	9,5	10
Denmark	:	:	:	:	12,1	11,2	12,1	12	12	12	13,3	:
Germany	12	11	:	:	:	:	12,9	13	16,3	16,2	16,3	:
Estonia	:	19	19	19	20	20,8	19,1	19,9	21,7	22	21,6	16,2
Ireland	20	21	23	:	21,8	22,9	20,6	19,5	18,5	16,4	15,1	:
Greece	21	20	22	:	21,4	21	20,9	21,4	20,9	20,7	20,2	:
Spain	19	19	20	21	20	20,8	20,8	21,3	20,9	21	20,6	:
France	16	16	13	13	13	14,2	13,7	14	13,4	13,4	13,7	:
Italy	18	19	20	:	:	20,4	20,6	21,1	21,3	20,1	19,8	:
Cyprus	:	:	:	:	17	:	17,6	17,7	17,4	18,3	17,9	:
Latvia	:	16	:	:	:	:	20	24,8	22,7	27,7	27	21
Lithuania	:	17	17	:	:	:	21,3	20,8	21,2	22	21,9	19,8
Luxembourg	13	12	13	:	12,9	13,3	14,2	14,3	14,1	14,3	16	:
Hungary	:	12	12	10	12	:	13,2	15,5	12,3	12,4	12,1	12
Malta	:	15	:	:	:	:	14,3	14,1	14,9	15,5	15,6	:
Netherlands	11	11	12	12	12	:	10,8	9,9	10,7	10,4	11,3	:
Austria	14	14	14	:	13,9	14,1	13,1	14	13,3	13,5	13,2	13,5
Poland	:	16	15	:	:	:	19,9	18,5	17,1	16,7	17,4	:
Portugal	22	22	20	:	:	21,6	20,1	19,1	19	19,1	18,4	:
Romania	:	18	17	18	18	18	:	:	25,3	24,3	23,4	:
Slovenia	:	12	12	11	11	:	13,7	12,9	12,9	13,6	12,8	:
Slovakia	:	:	:	:	:	:	13,5	11,5	11,2	11,5	11,8	:
Finland	12	13	12	12	12	11,4	12,7	13,1	13,8	14,5	14,7	13,8

Geoltime	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Sweden	:	:	:	12	:	12,2	10	12,3	10,6	13	14,5	:
United Kingdom	21	21	19	19	19	:	19,4	19,9	19,7	20	17,8	:
Iceland	:	:	:	:	:	10,5	9,6	10,2	11	10,7	11,1	9,8
Norway	:	:	:	:	12,5	11,8	12,5	12,6	14,1	12,9	13,2	:
Switzerland	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	18	16,7	:
Montenegro	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Croatia	:	:	:	:	19	20	20	18	19	19	19,7	:
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Turkey	:	:	:	25	26	:	:	27	:	:	:	:
Serbia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

:=Not available s=Eurostat estimate b=Break in series

Euro Area (EA11-2000, EA12-2006, EA13-2007, EA15-2008, EA16-2010, EA17)

Germany (including former GDR from 1991)

4-ACCESS TO RESOURCES

4.1. Ownership rights to land and houses and access to credit

The access of different social groups to economic and financial resources is a good indicator of autonomy. In general we can assume that financial exclusion is one of the factors that trigger social exclusion. In the EU the main cause of financial exclusion is low purchasing power, i.e. lack of collateral or a regular source of income.

Eurostat data as well as studies carried out by EMN and the European Commission indicate that groups at risk for social exclusion and poverty in the EU are:

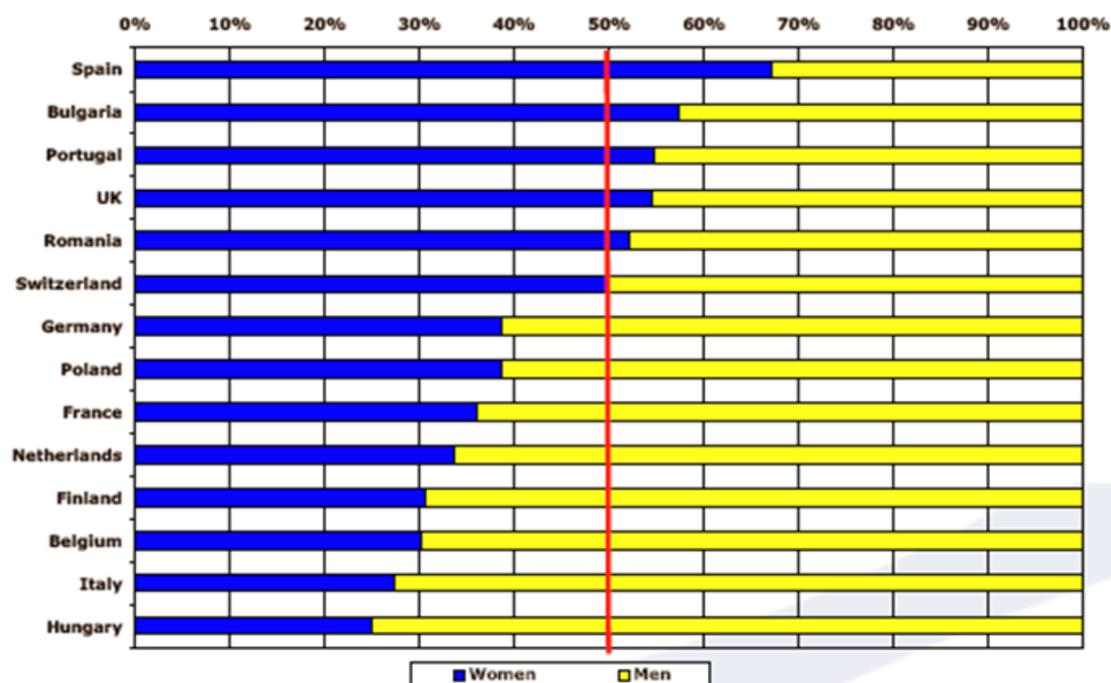
- Women
- Single-parent households (mostly headed by females)
- Elderly people
- The disabled

At the European level there is no legal difference by sex in access to credit or in ownership rights to land or property. However, actual access may differ, and microcredit has received increasing attention on the social and economic agenda of the European Commission as a response to persistent unemployment and pressure on the welfare state. Microcredit is a financial tool promoted by social and financial actors as well as government agencies to foster self-employment and/or the start up or consolidation of small enterprises as a means to fight unemployment and insecure work. Hence, microcredit is targeted to financially and socially exclude persons. In some countries, microcredit is also used to support SME growth.

An overview of the microcredit sector in the European Union in 2006-2007 (Jayo et al., 2008) found a slowly increasing proportion of women benefiting from microloan programmes. The first study collected data for the years 2002 to 2004 and found that 39% of microloan clients were female (EMN, 2006a). A subsequent study collected data for the years 2004 to 2005, finding 41% of microloan clients to be female (EMN, 2006). Data for the years 2006 and 2007 showed that 44% of microloan clients were female.

As seen in sectors previously discussed, there are significant differences in microcredit lending to women across countries in the EU. The greatest percentage of female microcredit clients is found in Spain, followed by Bulgaria, Portugal, the UK and Romania. In all these countries, women represent more than 50% of the client portfolio. The lowest rates of female microcredit clients are found in Hungary and Italy (Figure 16).

Figure 16: Percentage of female and male loan clients (2006-2007)



Source: Jayo, B et al (2008) *Overview of the Microcredit Sector in the European Union 2006-2007*. European Microfinance Network

As discussed, although there are no legal barriers to credit access for women, they are often at a disadvantage in application. To help overcome these limitations, for more than two decades World Women's Banking (WWB) has been working to help women enter the formal financial market. In Spain, since 1989 the WWB has signed agreements with the major banks to promote credit to women entrepreneurs and immigrant women lacking collateral. At the same time WWB managed more than 3000 women-owned businesses creating over 5000 jobs, also managing 150 micro-credit arrangements for 2.2 million Euros (Sánchez Senn, 2007).

Using data from the OECD it is possible to obtain information on ownership rights. This indicator covers women's right and de facto access to several types of property. It includes three variables:

- **Women's access to land** measures women's right and de facto access to agricultural land; considered as “access to agricultural land” and is scored as follows:
- **Women's access to credit** measures women's right and de facto access to bank loans. Even though women generally have the legal right to obtain credit, they frequently face restrictions as banks which may require the written permission of her husband, or require land as collateral – which women often do not have legal rights to. This indicator primarily measures access to real property such as houses, but could also cover any other type of property.
- **Women's access to property other than land** measures women's right and de facto access to other types of property, especially immovable property. This might sometimes be linked to “access to land”, as land is an important prerequisite to obtain credit (mortgage).

Data related to the European Union are not available due to an assumption that the situation of women is no different from men in the region. However we can obtain data for some countries of Eastern Europe and central Asia. As we can see in Table 20, only four countries present a difference in access to land by sex: Albania, Serbia and Montenegro, Tajikistan, and

Turkmenistan. It is interesting to note that two of these are potential candidates for EU membership. Data concerning access to bank loans shows that there are no differences by sex, with the exception of Turkmenistan. Finally, data on access to property shows that Albania, Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan present some restrictions for women.

Table 20: Women’s ownership rights, GID-includes credit and loans

Country	Women's access to land	Women's access to bank loans	Women's access to property other than land
Albania	0.5	0	0.5
Armenia	0	0	0
Azerbaijan	0	0	0
Belarus	0	0	0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	0	0
Croatia	0	0	0
Georgia	0	0	0
Kazakhstan	0	0	0
Kyrgyzstan	0	0	0.5
Macedonia, The Former Yugoslav Republic	0	0	0
Moldova, Republic of	0	0	0
Russian Federation	0	0	0
Serbia and Montenegro	0.5	0	0
Tajikistan	0.5	0	0
Turkmenistan	0.5	0.5	0.5
Ukraine	0	0	0
Uzbekistan	0	0	0

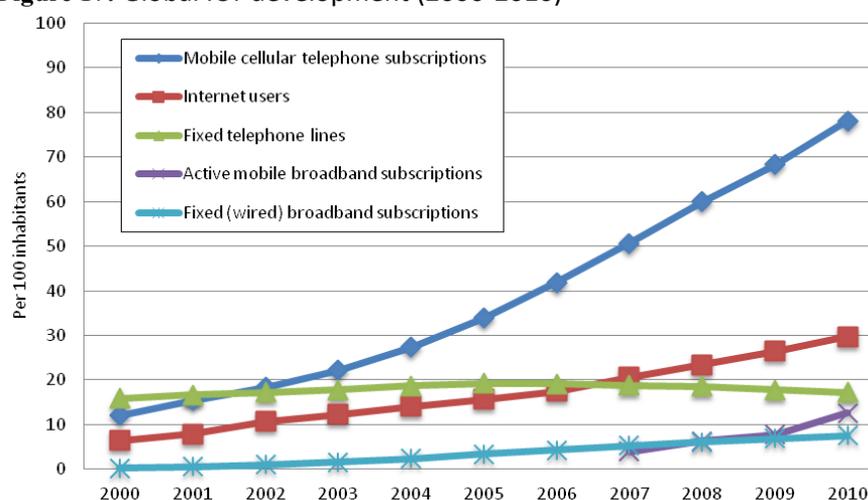
Source: OECD Gender institutions and Development (GID) database.
Key: 0= no access for women; 1= full access for women.

4.2. Use of Internet and cell phones

Internet use

Access and use of new technologies have seen a significant increase in the last decade. Using data from ITU, we can see a number of indicators used to measure ICT uptake. Figure 17 indicates that globally, “ICT services have grown steadily with the exception of fixed telephone lines. Penetration rates for ICT services, especially mobile cellular telephone subscriptions, have grown rapidly. Both fixed and mobile broadband are relatively recent technologies, but are also growing steadily. These findings suggest that communication services are spreading rapidly and that more and more people are using ICTs.” (ITU, 2010: 194).

Figure 17: Global ICT development (2000-2010)



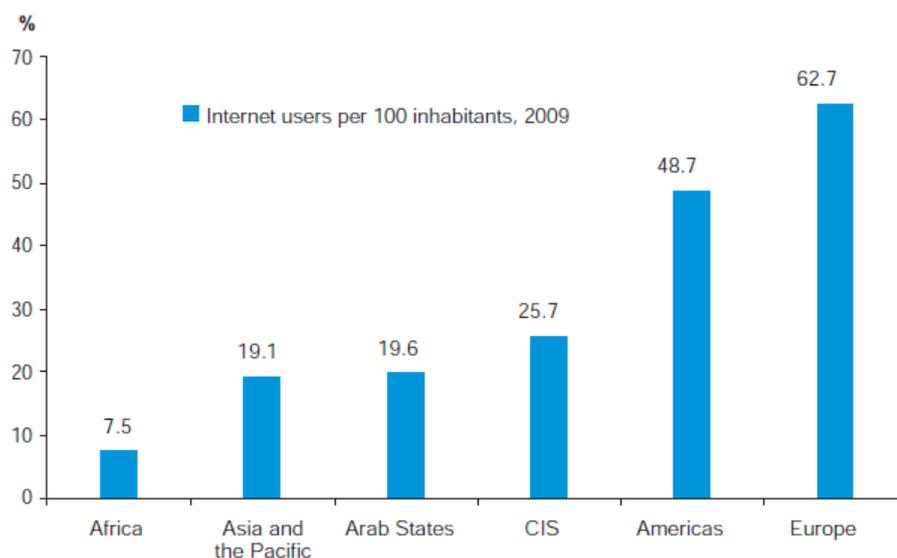
Source: ITU World Telecommunications/ICT Indicators database

Data on Internet use for 2009 indicate that access to the Internet is far less widespread than mobile communications. At the end of 2009, ITU estimated that some 1.7 billion people around the world were using the Internet, i.e. just over a quarter of the world's population (26 per cent). In the developing world, less than 20 per cent were online. Only Europe had achieved the target of 50%, with an average Internet penetration at 63 per cent (Figure 18). The Americas, at 49 per cent Internet penetration, were close to reaching the target.

Several factors make the Internet an ICT that is difficult to disseminate. In a number of countries, the Internet market, and particularly the backbone infrastructure and international gateway, remain under the monopoly of the incumbent telecommunication operator. Limited competition and scarce international Internet bandwidth tend to keep prices for Internet access high and often unaffordable. Perhaps most importantly, the relatively high price of a computer, which remains the most popular access device for Internet users, makes it impossible for many people to have Internet access at home, so that public access is the only practical option. Using the Internet also requires a certain level of education (much more so than using a mobile phone), and the lack of relevant content in local languages is a major barrier to higher Internet user levels.

It is important to look at the gender dimension of ICT and to ensure that women, who represent about half of the world's population, have equal access. ITU's Internet user data broken down by sex show that in the majority of countries more males than females use the Internet (ITU, 2010: 201) (Figure 19).

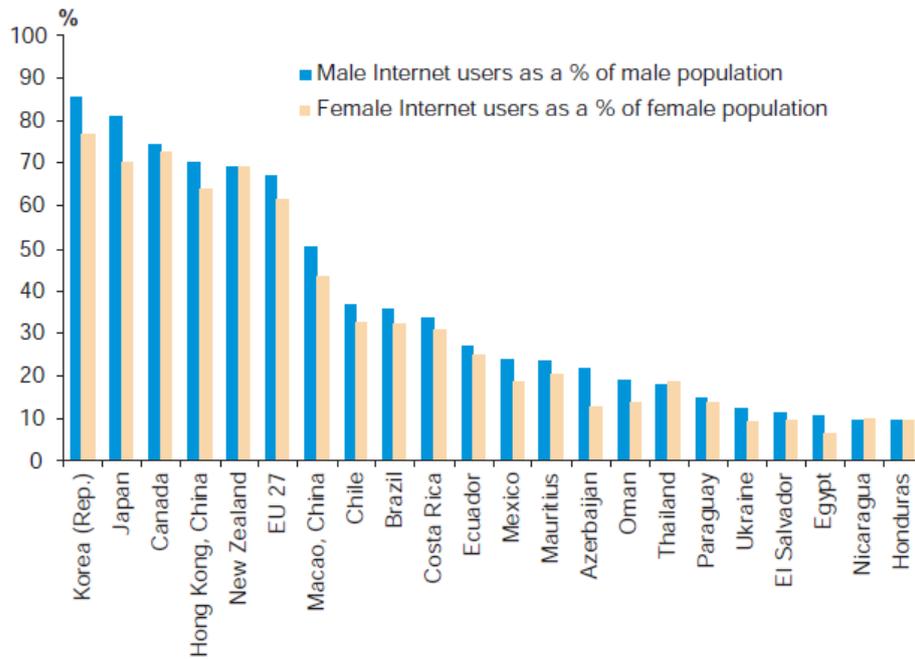
Figure 18: Internet user penetration by region, 2009



Source: ITU World Telecommunications.

As we can see in the next figure, in the European Union (27 countries) the percentage of female Internet users in 2009 was lower than that of males.

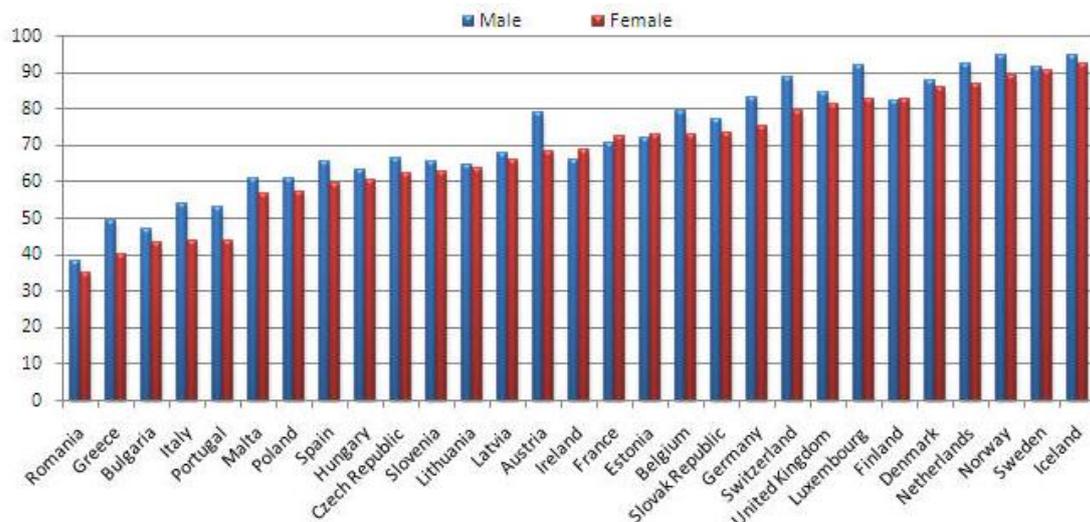
Figure 19: Internet user by gender (2009)



Source: ITU World Telecommunications based on EUROSTAT and national sources.

At the country level we can observe that, in general, the percentage of males using Internet is higher than females, with the exception of Ireland, France, Estonia and Finland where the percentage of females is slightly higher than males.. The greatest differences in the use of Internet by sex are seen in Austria, Italy, Greece, Luxembourg and Switzerland (Figure 20). Trends in Internet use by sex are shown in Table 21.

Figure 20: Internet user by gender (2008-2010)



Source: ITU World Telecommunications based on EUROSTAT and national sources.

Table 21: Percentage of women and men (ages 15-74) who use Internet in the last 12 months.

GEO/TIME/Sex	2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Female	Male														
European Union (27 countries)	:	:	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7
			3	0	1	8	1	8	7	4	2	7	5	0	9	4
European Union (25 countries)	:	:	4	5	5	5	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	7
			6	3	1	8	3	0	9	6	4	9	7	2	0	6
European Union (15 countries)	4	5	4	5	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7	7	7
	6	4	9	7	4	2	4	2	1	8	5	1	8	4	2	7
Euro area	:	:	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7
			4	2	9	8	1	9	8	5	2	8	4	1	9	5
Belgium	:	:	:	:	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7	7	8	7	8
					6	4	0	8	6	3	8	5	3	0	5	3
Bulgaria	:	:	1	1	:	:	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
			7	9			6	8	3	4	9	1	3	7	5	7
Czech Republic	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	5	4	5	6	6	6	6	6	7
	2	7	3	9	3	8	6	0	9	5	0	6	3	6	6	2
Denmark	7	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
	4	8	9	3	1	4	6	8	3	7	4	6	6	8	8	9
Germany	:	6	6	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	7	8	7	8	7	8
		0	0	9	4	3	8	6	1	9	4	2	5	3	9	5
Estonia	:	:	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7
			4	3	9	4	3	5	6	6	0	1	3	2	5	5
Ireland	3	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	6
	4	4	7	7	3	0	4	5	0	2	7	3	9	6	2	8
Greece	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	5
	5	1	8	5	2	7	8	7	1	1	6	6	0	9	1	0
Spain	:	:	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6
			0	8	3	2	7	4	2	9	6	3	0	6	4	9
France	:	:	:	:	:	:	4	5	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	8
							4	0	4	8	2	9	2	1	9	2
Italy	2	3	2	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	5	4	5	4	5
	4	4	8	9	0	1	3	3	6	6	9	0	4	4	8	9
Cyprus	:	:	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	5	5	5
			0	8	1	5	4	8	8	3	9	6	7	3	1	5
Latvia	:	:	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	7
			8	9	5	8	2	5	7	1	2	5	6	8	7	0
Lithuania	:	:	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6
			1	2	6	7	3	5	9	1	4	7	9	1	2	2
Luxembourg	5	5	5	7	6	8	6	8	7	8	7	9	8	9	8	9
	0	9	8	5	0	2	3	2	2	6	4	1	3	2	7	4
Hungary	:	:	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6
			7	1	9	9	6	8	3	4	0	2	0	3	4	7
Malta	:	:	:	:	3	4	3	4	4	5	4	5	5	6	5	6
					7	5	8	2	3	1	7	3	7	1	8	8
Netherlands	:	:	:	:	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	9
					6	5	9	6	3	8	6	9	7	2	8	3
Austria	3	4	4	6	5	6	5	6	6	7	6	7	6	7	7	8
	7	8	8	0	3	3	8	9	4	5	7	9	8	9	1	0
Poland	:	:	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	6
			1	4	7	1	2	7	7	1	2	5	7	1	1	4
Portugal	:	:	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	5	4	5
			9	5	1	9	5	2	8	6	0	8	4	3	8	8
Romania	:	:	1	1	:	:	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4
			4	5			3	7	6	0	1	4	5	8	8	2
Slovenia	:	:	3	4	:	:	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	7
			9	2			0	8	5	9	7	8	3	6	8	2
Slovakia	:	:	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	8
			8	8	2	9	3	9	0	3	9	3	3	7	6	2
Finland	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	8	7	8	8	8	:	:	8	8
	7	1	3	2	4	5	8	2	9	2	3	5			6	8
Sweden	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	7	8	8	9	9	9	9	9
	5	3	3	5	3	7	6	0	9	5	8	0	0	1	2	2

GEO/TIME/Sex	2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Female	Male														
United Kingdom	6	6	6	6	6	:	6	7	7	7	7	8	8	:	8	8
Iceland	2	8	2	9	7	:	5	3	2	9	5	1	1	:	4	6
Norway	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	9	9	9	9	:	:	:
Croatia	2	5	2	5	7	8	9	0	9	2	0	2	2	5	:	:
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	7	8	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	9	9	9
Turkey	3	3	4	1	8	6	0	5	5	9	9	2	9	5	2	5
Serbia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	4	3	5	4	5	4	6
	:	:	1	3	:	:	2	3	:	:	4	5	5	5	5	5
	:	:	7	2	:	:	3	4	:	:	0	2	0	4	1	6
	:	:	9	2	1	2	:	:	1	3	4	2	2	4	3	5
	:	:	1	0	1	:	:	:	9	8	4	5	6	7	0	0
	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	2	3	:	:	3	4	:	:
									8	8			6	7		

Euro area (EA11-2000, EA12-2006, EA13-2007, EA15-2008, EA16-2010, EA17). Germany (including former GDR from 1991)
Source: EUROSTAT.

As seen from Table 22, the male-to-female ratio for Internet use was calculated. During the period of study a trend towards equalization of the access levels of males and females in the European Union is seen.

Table 22: Ratio men/women over age 16 who use the Internet (2003-2010)

GEO/TIME/Sex	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
European Union (27 countries)		1.16	1.14	1.14	1.12	1.08	1.08	1.07
European Union (25 countries)		1.15	1.14	1.13	1.12	1.08	1.07	1.09
European Union (15 countries)	1.17	1.16	1.15	1.15	1.11	1.09	1.09	1.07
Euro area		1.18	1.18	1.16	1.12	1.10	1.11	1.09
Belgium			1.14	1.13	1.11	1.10	1.10	1.11
Bulgaria		1.12		1.08	1.03	1.05	1.09	1.04
Czech Republic	1.16	1.18	1.15	1.09	1.12	1.10	1.05	1.09
Denmark	1.05	1.05	1.04	1.02	1.05	1.02	1.02	1.01
Germany		1.15	1.14	1.12	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.08
Estonia		0.98	1.08	1.03	1.00	1.01	0.99	1.00
Ireland		1.00	1.00	0.93	1.02	1.03	0.94	0.94
Greece		1.40	1.39	1.23	1.32	1.32	1.28	1.22
Spain		1.20	1.21	1.15	1.13	1.13	1.10	1.08
France				1.14	1.06	0.96	0.99	1.04
Italy		1.42	1.39	1.37	1.30	1.28	1.23	1.23
Cyprus		1.27	1.13	1.12	1.13	1.18	1.13	1.08
Latvia		1.03	1.07	1.06	1.07	1.05	1.03	1.04
Lithuania		1.03	1.03	1.05	1.04	1.06	1.03	1.00
Luxembourg		1.18	1.29	1.37	1.30	1.19	1.23	1.11
Hungary		1.15	1.00	1.04	1.02	1.03	1.05	1.05
Malta			1.22	1.11	1.19	1.13	1.07	1.17
Netherlands			1.12	1.09	1.06	1.03	1.06	1.06
Austria		1.30	1.25	1.19	1.19	1.17	1.16	1.13
Poland			1.10	1.11	1.12	1.09	1.07	1.05
Portugal			1.21	1.26	1.20	1.21	1.20	1.21
Romania			1.07		1.17	1.15	1.10	1.11
Slovenia			1.08		1.16	1.07	1.05	1.06
Slovakia			1.21	1.13	1.11	1.05	1.06	1.08
Finland		1.06	0.99	1.01	1.05	1.04		1.02
Sweden		1.11	1.02	1.05	1.05	1.08	1.02	1.00
United Kingdom		1.10	1.11		1.12	1.10	1.08	1.02
Iceland			1.04	1.04	1.01	1.01	1.03	1.03
Norway			1.14	1.09	1.10	1.06	1.03	1.03

Croatia			1.24	1.41	1.20	1.38
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	1.88	1.48		1.30	1.08	1.10
Turkey	2.33	2.10	2.00	0.57	1.81	1.67
Serbia			1.36		1.31	

Source: Self-elaboration based on EUROSTAT.

Mobile phone use

According to the ITU (2010) mobile subscription implies that a person not only has access to but can also use ICTs. There is considerable evidence that mobile is one service that virtually all inhabitants over a certain age use. Therefore, one indicator proposed in the report is Mobile cellular telephone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants.

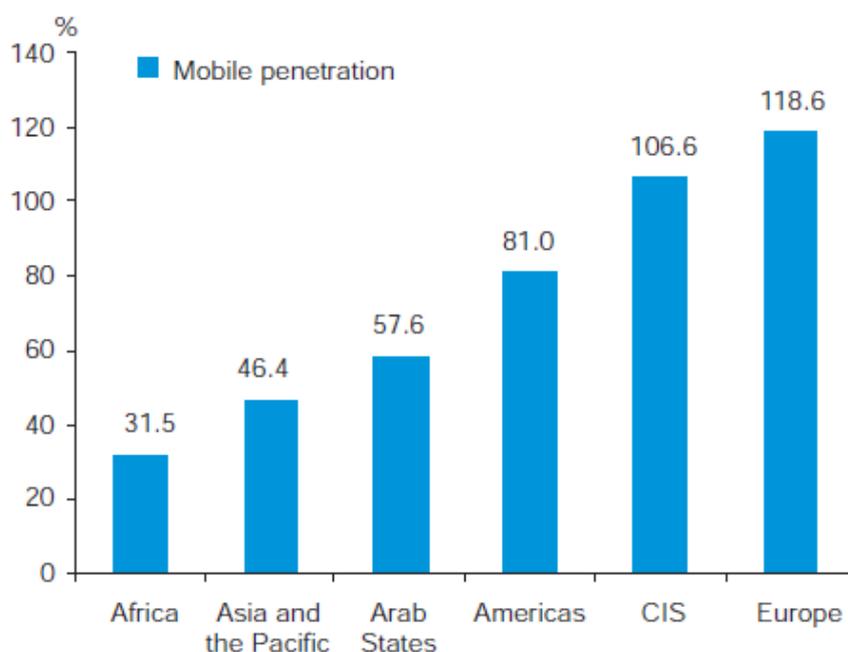
“If one were to consider only the number of mobile cellular subscriptions and assume it to be equal to the number of actual mobile phone users, then the target of ensuring that half the world’s inhabitants have access to ICTs would be met. By the end of 2009, there were two mobile subscriptions for every three people around the globe (Figure 21). Developing countries surpassed the 50 per cent penetration mark in 2008, and by 2009 over 70 economies had surpassed the magical 100 per cent penetration mark, including a number of developing nations” (ITU, 2010: 198).

GEO/TIME	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Female	Male								
European Union (27)	1	2	1	3	2	4	2	6	5	10
Euro area	1	2	1	3	2	4	2	6	5	11
Belgium	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	4	2	6
Bulgaria	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	2
Czech Republic	1	2	3	5	4	6	0	1	2	4
Denmark	0	1	1	2	4	8	5	16	10	20
Germany	:	2	:	3	:	2	1	4	3	9
Estonia	:	:	1	2	2	3	:	3	2	4
Ireland	1	1	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5
Greece	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3
Spain	:	:	4	7	4	9	6	12	10	17
France	:	:	:	:	:	2	:	2	8	15
Italy	1	3	2	4	2	4	2	6	3	7
Cyprus	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	4	2	5
Latvia	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	3
Lithuania	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	1	3
Luxembourg	0	3	2	5	0	7	8	15	16	25
Hungary	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	3	2	3
Malta	0	0	0	0	1	4	1	2	2	4
Netherlands	0	1	1	6	2	6	3	9	5	7
Austria	1	2	:	:	2	6	2	9	8	16
Poland	0	1	0	1	:	:	1	3	2	5
Portugal	1	2	2	4	3	7	4	8	3	6
Romania	:	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
Slovenia	1	4	4	6	5	6	6	11	8	11
Slovakia	0	1	2	4	4	6	8	13	6	12

Finland	1	3	1	4	2	5	5	12	:	:
Sweden	3	7	5	13	5	14	8	21	14	26
United Kingdom	:	3	:	3	:	5	4	10	7	13
Iceland	0	1	0	1	2	5	6	12	19	26
Norway	0	0	1	7	3	11	5	16	10	27
Croatia	:	:	0	1	1	3	1	2	3	10
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	0	:	:	:	0	:	:	:	:	3

Figure 21: Global mobile cellular penetration, by region, 2009

Figure 22: Global mobile cellular penetration, by region, 2009



Source: ITU estimates based on World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators database.

Data related to Internet access by mobile phone can be analyzed using data from EUROSTAT. Table 23 shows the percentage of females and males accessing Internet through a mobile phone in Europe. We can observe that there is a substantial increase in use during the last year with high levels of access through mobiles in Iceland, Luxembourg and Sweden. In all countries the percentage of male users is higher than that of female users – with considerable differences in Denmark, Luxembourg, Sweden and Norway in which more than 20% of males are accessing the Internet through mobile phone in 2010. In other countries such as Bulgaria, Latvia and Romania, a low percentage of population accesses the Internet in this manner, and the percentage of females is very low.

Table 23: Individuals accessing Internet through a mobile phone via UMTS (3G). Percentage of individuals Females and Male, 16 to 74 years old

GEO/TIME	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Female	Male								
European Union (27)	1	2	1	3	2	4	2	6	5	10
Euro area	1	2	1	3	2	4	2	6	5	11
Belgium	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	4	2	6
Bulgaria	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	2
Czech Republic	1	2	3	5	4	6	0	1	2	4
Denmark	0	1	1	2	4	8	5	16	10	20
Germany	:	2	:	3	:	2	1	4	3	9
Estonia	:	:	1	2	2	3	:	3	2	4
Ireland	1	1	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5
Greece	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3
Spain	:	:	4	7	4	9	6	12	10	17
France	:	:	:	:	:	2	:	2	8	15
Italy	1	3	2	4	2	4	2	6	3	7
Cyprus	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	4	2	5
Latvia	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	3
Lithuania	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	1	3
Luxembourg	0	3	2	5	0	7	8	15	16	25
Hungary	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	3	2	3
Malta	0	0	0	0	1	4	1	2	2	4
Netherlands	0	1	1	6	2	6	3	9	5	7
Austria	1	2	:	:	2	6	2	9	8	16
Poland	0	1	0	1	:	:	1	3	2	5
Portugal	1	2	2	4	3	7	4	8	3	6
Romania	:	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1

GEO/TIME	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Female	Male								
Slovenia	1	4	4	6	5	6	6	11	8	11
Slovakia	0	1	2	4	4	6	8	13	6	12
Finland	1	3	1	4	2	5	5	12	:	:
Sweden	3	7	5	13	5	14	8	21	14	26
United Kingdom	:	3	:	3	:	5	4	10	7	13
Iceland	0	1	0	1	2	5	6	12	19	26
Norway	0	0	1	7	3	11	5	16	10	27
Croatia	:	:	0	1	1	3	1	2	3	10
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	0	:	:	:	0	:	:	:	:	3

Source: EUROSTAT

4.3- Use of railroads and other transportation infrastructure

Although access to transport is key to women's participation in the knowledge society, data disaggregated by sex are not easily available.

The Flash Eurobarometer "Survey on passengers satisfaction with rail services" provides some information. The survey was conducted in 2009 via telephone interview with nationally representative samples of rail passengers (aged 15 and older) living in 25 of the 27 EU Member States. A rail passenger was defined as someone who had travelled by train within their country in the 12 months prior to the survey; passengers who had used suburban trains or trains within city limits were excluded. Given that Malta and Cyprus have no railway networks, these countries were not included in the survey. In most EU countries the target sample size was 400 respondents, but in Estonia, Latvia, Luxembourg and Slovenia the target sample size was 300 respondents; in total, 9,708 interviews were conducted by Gallup's network.

One topic that may be analyzed by socio-demographic characteristics is the frequency of journeys by rail. Roughly three-quarters (77%) of rail passengers in the EU said they travelled by train in their country less than once a month, while almost a quarter (23%) travelled at least once a month. Across all countries surveyed, a majority of rail passengers said that they took the train in their country less than once a month; this proportion ranged from 53% in the Czech Republic to 88% in Spain. The proportion of respondents who travelled by train between once and three times per month ranged from 8% in Spain to 22%-23% in the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovakia. In the Czech Republic, the country with the most frequent travellers, 13% of respondents said they took the train between once and three times per week and 12% answered that they travelled by train on a daily basis. Other countries with a relatively high proportion of frequent travellers were Latvia, Slovenia and the three Benelux countries (17%-19%).

The youngest respondents (between 15 and 24 years) and full-time students were the most likely to be "frequent" rail passengers: 16% said they took the train in their country either daily or between once and three times per week. Across all other socio-demographic groups, the proportion of "frequent" rail passengers varied between 4% among those with the lowest level of education and 10% among employees. Rail passengers travelling less than once a month were more likely to be women (79% vs. 74% of men), the over-39 year-olds (78%-81% vs. 63% of 15-24 year-olds), respondents with the lowest level of education (86% vs. 75% of the most educated), non-working respondents and manual workers (79%-81% vs. 75% of employees and the self-employed) (Figure 22) (Flash EB No 326, 2011:8).

Figure 23: Frequency of travelling by train in EU by socio-demographic characteristics of passenger

QUESTION: Q1. How often do you travel by train [IN YOUR COUNTRY]?

	Total N	% Most days	% 1-3 times per week	% 1-3 times per month	% Less than once a month	% DK/NA
EU27	9708	3.9	4.1	14.6	76.8	0.6
SEX						
 Male	3805	4.8	4.5	16.3	73.7	0.8
 Female	5903	3.4	3.9	13.4	78.8	0.6
AGE						
 15 - 24	1059	7.5	8.9	19.6	63.2	0.9
25 - 39	1779	4.6	4.7	15	74.9	0.7
40 - 54	2571	5.4	3.6	12.8	77.7	0.5
55 +	4146	1.7	3	14.1	80.6	0.6
EDUCATION (end of)						
 Until 15 years of age	967	0.8	2.7	9.6	85.7	1.2
16 - 20	3826	3.4	3.5	12.4	79.9	0.7
20 +	3893	4.5	4	16.2	75	0.4
Still in education	874	7.2	9.1	21.2	62.1	0.5
URBANISATION						
 Metropolitan	2021	3.6	4.8	15.2	75.7	0.7
Urban	4585	3.1	3.9	14.9	77.5	0.6
Rural	3077	5.2	4	13.7	76.5	0.6
OCCUPATION						
 Self-employed	888	2.7	4.4	17.1	75.4	0.5
Employee	3733	6.2	3.7	14.8	74.5	0.8
Manual worker	465	3.3	4	10.8	81.3	0.6
Not working	4577	2.4	4.3	14.1	78.6	0.6

Source: European Commission. *Flash EB No 326 'Survey on passengers' satisfaction with rail services*, (2011)

Considering the most frequent purpose of rail journeys, men were more likely than women to say that they mainly took the train to work, school or university (13% vs. 9%) or for business purposes (17% vs. 9%). Conversely, women were more likely to travel by train for leisure purposes (59% vs. 52% of men) or for “other” purposes (23% vs. 19%) (Flash EB No 326, 2011: 9).

4.4. Access to electricity, including penetration and reliability in rural areas

Access to electricity is a clear indicator of inclusion in the knowledge society. According to data collected from the International Energy Agency in 2009, more than 1440 million people in the world were living without electricity. In the category of “transition economies and OECD” in which European Union is included, three million people are in this category (Table 24). Data disaggregated by sex were not found.

Table 24: Electricity access in 2009

	Population without electricity millions	Electrification rate %	Urban electrification rate %	Rural electrification rate %
Africa	587	41.9	68.9	25.0
<i>North Africa</i>	2	99.0	99.6	98.4
<i>Sub-Saharan Africa</i>	585	30.5	59.9	14.3
Developing Asia	799	78.1	93.9	68.8
<i>China & East Asia</i>	186	90.8	96.4	86.5
<i>South Asia</i>	612	62.2	89.1	51.2
Latin America	31	93.4	98.8	74.0
Middle East	22	89.5	98.6	72.2
Developing countries	1,438	73.0	90.7	60.2
Transition economies & OECD	3	99.8	100.0	99.5
World	1,441	78.9	93.6	65.1

Source: The International Energy Agency.

5-WOMEN'S AGENCY

A useful index to analyze the participation of women in policy and economy is the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). This measure was introduced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1995, which has been associated with initiatives to narrow the gender gap in fundamental areas of development such as the economy, society, education and politics (UNDP, 2009). A GEM value of 100 indicates equality between women and men. This value is calculated considering the percentage of women in political positions, in management, in technology work and the male/female income ratio.

According to a study presented by Guisan-Seijas (2010) related to women's participation in work, political, economic and social activities in Europe and North America, the countries with a higher ranking of female empowerment (Gender empowerment measures >90) are Norway and Sweden, followed by Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland (between 80-90). The following group – scoring between 70 and 80— include Austria, France, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, United Kingdom and the United States, and between 60 and 70 are Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, and Macedonia. The lowest values – of below 60 – were scored by Hungary, Romania and Russia.

A high GEM ranking does not necessarily mean a higher level of wellness opportunities for women. In countries such as the United Kingdom or the United States, professional development opportunities and social influence for many women are much higher than in other countries, even though the indicator of the participation of women in political power is less. The percentage of women in politics is highest in Sweden, Finland, Denmark, Netherlands, Belgium and Norway. Spain occupies a prominent place in this index but shows low levels of equality in the presidency and other positions of power. The study shows that countries that are closest to equal pay between men and women are Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland and Lithuania. As noted in the report, the indicators of political participation and female entrepreneurship measure only one aspect of the advancement of women in decision-making,

while the indicators related to the presence of females in high levels of decision making show percentages of 10% or less both in the corporate and political sectors.

A study by Ismail and others (2011) analyzed GEM data on political achievement. In this study the indicator on female parliamentarians is included to analyze political empowerment defined as the equitable representation of women in decision-making structures, both formal and informal, and the presence of their voice in the formulation of policies affecting their societies. This indicator refers to seats held by women in a lower or single house or an upper house or senate. The results show that data for political achievement in the selected developed countries are generally higher than those in the developing countries. For the developed countries, the data vary from 36 per cent for Norway down to 12 per cent for Japan. Their respective ranks in the Gender Gap Index are 2, 7, and 57. The ranking positions show that Norway and Australia are at the high end of the Gender Gap Index out of the total of 134 countries considered. The highest percentage on this indicator is that of Norway.

Ismail et al. demonstrate the persistence of the glass ceiling, which is described as the barrier that keeps females from reaching higher job positions. Though government and political institutions appear to be incorporating women into politics, statistics show this incorporation remains minimal and women continue to face huge barriers in politics. In their view, efforts to empower women should reach down to the individual and organizational level, so that both can learn to recognize and appreciate gender differences as positive qualities, which can serve as assets for development. Future research should focus on the changing roles of women in every country, as well as the dynamics of the effects of women in political achievement and other GEM indicators such as female-to-male earned income and women's representation at management levels. Studies among successful women parliamentarians who have managed to achieve high political positions would be useful, with the results relevant not only for the political parties, but also for women considering careers in politics (Ismail et al., 2011).

Despite the growing presence of women in civil and political life, their persistent under-representation in these areas is a democratic deficit. The European Commission recognizes this as a real problem and has set equal representation in decision-making as one of the objectives of the Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men 2006-2010. One of the goals related to this issue is for Member States to show 25% of women in leading positions in public research sectors (European Commission, 2009).

Zenger and Folkman (2002) carried out a study on the participation of women in leadership by analyzing their communication channels. According to the authors, decision-making in social and economic organizations is an internal process in which the quality of communication channels is central. In this respect, the success of women-led initiatives depends largely on the ability of executives to identify and support initiatives of interest. This is why women's participation in positions of power in political parties or other organizations depends not only on increasing the number of women, but also that these positions have the appropriate responsibility to ensure that both internal and external communication channels are effective.

5.1. Share of women in lower houses of parliaments

The presence of women in political positions is a classic indicator of women's empowerment. The Inter-Parliamentary Union compiles data provided by National Parliaments, with the most recent data current as of 31 August 2011. The results do not take into account those parliaments for which no data was available at that date.

In Table 25 we can see the sex distribution of European Parliament representatives. The average representation of females is 35% (ratio female/male = 0.54) with higher female participation in Finland and Sweden (more than 50%). Countries with lower participation rates are Czech

Republic, Poland and Italy (<25%). Malta is the only country in the European Parliament represented solely by males.

Table 25: Presence of women in European parliament

Country	Seats	Women	Percentage of Women	Ratio W/M
Finland	13	8	61.5%	1.60
Sweden	18	10	55.6%	1.25
Estonia	6	3	50.0%	1.00
Netherlands	25	12	48.0%	0.92
Bulgaria	17	8	47.1%	0.89
Denmark	13	6	46.2%	0.86
France	72	32	44.4%	0.80
Austria	17	7	41.2%	0.70
Slovakia	13	5	38.5%	0.63
Latvia	8	3	37.5%	0.60
Germany	99	37	37.4%	0.60
Belgium	22	8	36.4%	0.57
Hungary	22	8	36.4%	0.57
Portugal	22	8	36.4%	0.57
Romania	33	12	36.4%	0.57
Spain	50	18	36.0%	0.56
Cyprus	6	2	33.3%	0.50
Luxembourg	6	2	33.3%	0.50
United Kingdom	72	24	33.3%	0.50
Greece	22	7	31.8%	0.47
Slovenia	7	2	28.6%	0.40
Ireland	12	3	25.0%	0.33
Lithuania	12	3	25.0%	0.33
Italy	72	16	22.2%	0.29
Poland	50	11	22.0%	0.28
Czech Republic	22	4	18.2%	0.22
Malta	5	0	0.0%	0.00
Total:	736	259	35.2%	0.54

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, *National Women in Parliaments* (2011).

The Inter-Parliamentary Union provides information on the presence of women in lower and upper houses. As we can see in Table 26 there is a similar proportion of women and men in the different regions, with the exception of Pacific in which a higher share of women in is seen in the senate. In Europe, excluding the Nordic countries, in both houses the percentage of women is around 20% (the ratio of women with seats in parliament over male value is 0.2).

Table 26: Presence of women in lower and upper house (percentages) (before 31/07/2011)

REGIONAL AVERAGES			
	Single House or lower House	Upper House or Senate	Both Houses combined
Nordic countries	42.1%	---	---
Europe - OSCE member countries including Nordic countries	22.2%	20.2%	21.8%
Americas	22.0%	23.1%	22.2%
Europe - OSCE member countries excluding Nordic countries	20.3%	20.2%	20.3%
Sub-Saharan Africa	19.7%	18.9%	19.6%
Asia	18.3%	15.2%	18.0%
Pacific	12.5%	32.6%	14.8%
Arab States	10.9%	7.5%	10.3%

Regions are classified by descending order of the percentage of women in the lower or single House

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, *National Women in Parliaments* (2011)

Using data from the MDG Info database, Table 27 provides data on representation of women in national parliaments between 2000 and 2010 in each European country. Of the EU-27 countries, Malta and Slovenia had the highest representation of women with a higher increase in the representation of women while Spain and Belgium show greater decreases in the percentage of males.

Table 27: Seats held by women/men in national parliaments (number-total)

Country	2000		2001		2002		2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		Increment		Ratio 2009
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W/M
Albania	8	147	8	147	8	132	118	132	99	132	9	131	6	130	40	130	10	130	29	130	262,50	-11,56	0,22
Andorra	2	26	2	26	4	24	8	24	158	24	4	24	5	20	21	20	7	21	12	21	500,00	-19,23	0,57
Austria	49	134	49	134	49	134	4	121	50	121	62	121	55	121	22	124	60	123	127	133	159,18	-0,75	0,95
Belarus	5	105			10	87	62	87	22	87	32	77	64	78	44	78	32	78	164	75	3180,00	-28,57	2,19
Belgium	35	115	35	115	35	115	10	115	8	97	52	98	94	98	7	98	53	97	57	97	62,86	-15,65	0,59
Bosnia and Herzegovina	12	30			3	39	35	35	4	35	7	35	49	35	51	36	5	37	38	37	216,67	23,33	1,03
Bulgaria	26	214	26	214	63	177	7	177	62	177	63	177	22	187	30	187	52	188	37	188	42,31	-12,15	0,20
Croatia			31	120	31	120	63	120	10	125	33	119	37	119	32	119	32	121	126	121	306,45	0,83	1,04
Czech Republic	30	170	30	170	30	170	31	166	53	166	34	166	44	166	52	169	31	169	10	169	-66,67	-0,59	0,06
Denmark	67	112	67	112	68	111	34	111	7	111	68	111	10	113	6	113	68	111	7	111	-89,55	-0,89	0,06
Estonia	18	83	18	83	18	83	68	83	63	82	19	82	10	82	53	82	21	80	50	80	177,78	-3,61	0,63
Finland	74	126	73	127	73	127	18	127	27	125	75	125	25	125	33	124	83	117	35	117	-52,70	-7,14	0,30
France	63	514	63	514	63	514	73	504	34	504	70	504	11	504	31	504	105	472	53	472	-15,87	-8,17	0,11
Germany	207	462	207	462	211	455	70	409	68	409	197	404	126	419	66	420	194	419	5	415	-97,58	-10,17	0,01
Greece	19	281	26	274	26	274	194	274	19	274	42	258	33	261	19	261	44	256	52	256	173,68	-8,90	0,20
Hungary	32	354	32	354	32	354	26	348	75	348	35	350	34	350	76	346	43	343	63	343	96,88	-3,11	0,18
Iceland	22	41	22	41	22	41	38	41	70	44	19	44	66	42	70	42	21	42	9	42	-59,09	2,44	0,21
Ireland	20	146	20	146	20	146	22	144	194	144	22	144	19	144	194	144	22	144	54	144	170,00	-1,37	0,38
Italy	70	560	70	560	62	568	22	547	26	547	71	545	75	545	11	521	109	521	197	496	181,43	-11,43	0,40
Latvia	17	83	17	83	17	83	71	79	38	79	21	79	70	79	39	81	20	80	44	80	158,82	-3,61	0,55
Liechtenstein	1	24	1	24	3	22	15	22	19	22	3	22	10	19	126	19	6	19	43	19	4200,00	-20,83	2,26
Lithuania	24	113	15	126	15	126	10	126	22	126	31	110	8	110	165	106	32	109	21	116	-12,50	2,65	0,18
Luxembourg	10	50	10	50	10	50	6	50	71	50	14	46	62	46	50	46	14	46	22	46	120,00	-8,00	0,48
Malta	6	59	6	59	6	59	4	59	21	59	6	59	32	59	34	59	6	59	134	63	2133,33	6,78	2,13

Country	2000		2001		2002		2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		Increment		Ratio 2009
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W/M
Monaco	4	14	4	14	4	14	55	14	3	19	5	19	52	19	39	19	5	19	20	18	400,00	28,57	1,11
Montenegro																	9	72	6	72			0,08
Netherlands	54	96	54	96	54	96	60	95	15	95	55	95	158	95	109	95	59	91	25	88	-53,70	-8,33	0,28
Norway	60	105	60	105	59	106	93	105	10	105	63	102	50	105	19	105	61	108	14	108	-76,67	2,86	0,13
Poland	60	400	60	400	93	367	21	367	6	367	93	367	23	366	6	366	94	366	6	367	-90,00	-8,25	0,02
Portugal	43	187	40	190	43	187	3	186	93	186	44	186	24	181	35	181	65	165	9	165	-79,07	-11,76	0,05
Republic of Moldova	9	92	8	93	13	88	29	88	44	88	16	85	127	79	14	79	22	79	62	79	588,89	-14,13	0,78
Romania	25	318	37	308	37	308	11	308	13	308	38	294	21	294	6	294	31	299	61	296	144,00	-6,92	0,21
Russian Federation	34	407	34	407	34	415	99	415	37	406	44	403	6	403	5	403	63	387	32	387	-5,88	-4,91	0,08
San Marino	8	52	8	52	10	50	158	50	44	50	10	50	31	50	64	53	7	53	31	51	287,50	-1,92	0,61
Serbia and Montenegro	7	131			10	128	46	128	10	116	10	116	14	116	94	199	51	199	68	196	871,43	49,62	0,35
Slovakia	19	131	21	129	21	129	22	121	10	121	25	125	7	125	49	120	29	121	21	121	10,53	-7,63	0,17
Slovenia	7	83	11	79	11	79	24	79	29	79	11	79	53	79	22	79	11	79	83	78	1085,71	-6,02	1,06
Spain	75	273	99	251	99	251	44	251	11	251	126	224	195	224	37	224	128	222	93	223	24,00	-18,32	0,42
Sweden	149	200	149	200	149	200	13	191	24	191	158	191	39	191	10	184	164	185	65	185	-56,38	-7,50	0,35
Switzerland	45	155	46	154	46	154	37	154	118	150	50	150	35	150	8	150	57	143	22	143	-51,11	-7,74	0,15
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	9	111	8	112	8	112	34	98	5	98	23	97	21	97	59	86	35	85	38	82	322,22	-26,13	0,46
Ukraine	35	415	35	415	35	415	10	426	55	426	24	426	22	426	7	411	37	413	6	413	-82,86	-0,48	0,01
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	121	538	121	538	118	541	10	541	60	541	119	540	71	519	55	519	126	520	105	520	-13,22	-3,35	0,20

Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDGInfo 2010*

5.2. Share of women at ministerial level

The Inter-Parliamentary Union also provides information on the percentage of females in ministerial positions. The data presented in Table 28 are as of January 2008. The total includes deputy prime ministers and ministers. Prime ministers were also included if they held ministerial portfolios. Vice-presidents and heads of governmental or public agencies are not included. Finland and Norway show the highest percentage (more than 50%), while in Romania, Bosnia and Monaco no women were represented at this level.

Table 28: Percentage of women in ministerial positions by country (2008)

Country	Women in ministerial positions (% of total)
Norway	56
Iceland	24
Ireland	21
Netherlands	33
Sweden	48
France	47
Switzerland	43
Luxembourg	14
Finland	58
Austria	38
Spain	44
Denmark	37
Belgium	23
Italy	24
Liechtenstein	20
New Zealand	32
United Kingdom	23
Germany	33
Greece	12
Andorra	38
Slovenia	18
Cyprus	18
Portugal	13
Czech Republic	13
Malta	15
Estonia	23
Poland	26
Slovakia	13
Hungary	21
Croatia	24
Lithuania	23
Latvia	22
Bulgaria	24
Romania	0
Montenegro	6
Serbia	17
Belarus	6
Albania	7
Russian Federation	10
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	14
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0
Turkey	4
Armenia	6
Ukraine	4
Georgia	18
Moldova	11
Monaco	0
San Marino	20

Source: Inter-parliamentary Union, *Women in Politics* (2009).

Using data from “Women and men in decision making” we can analyze the absolute number and share of women as presidents and first ministers, as well as the proportion of women as senior ministers. Senior ministers are members of government who have a seat on the cabinet or council of ministers. Table 29 shows data corresponding to the last quarters of 2004 and 2010. In the EU-27, for the level of president the data are the same in both years, with female presidents in 2004 in Ireland, Latvia and Finland and in 2010 in Ireland, Finland and Lithuania. The number of women at the level of first minister increased by three in 2010 in Germany, Slovakia and Finland in comparison to 2004 in addition to female first ministers in Croatia and Iceland. Considering the share of women in senior minister positions in 2004, the highest numbers were found in Germany and Spain in 2004 and Denmark and Spain in 2010. During 2011 there was an equal number of female and male senior ministers in the Spanish government.

Table 29: Representation of females as president, first ministers and senior ministers in Europe (2004 and 2010)

Country	2004 (4 Q)		2010 (4Q)		Senior ministers 2004 (4Q)				Senior ministers 210 (4Q)			
	President	Prime Minister	President	Prime Minister	Women (N)	Men (N)	Women (%)	Ratio: women/men	Women (N)	Men (N)	Women (%)	Ratio: women/men
EU-27	3W 17M	0W 26M	3W 17M	3W 24M	91	339	21	0.27	124	341	27	0.37
Belgium	:	M	-	M	3	11	21	0.27	5	10	33	0.49
Bulgaria	M	M	M	M	6	16	27	0.37	3	15	17	0.20
Czech Republic	M	M	M	M	2	15	12	0.14	0	15	0	0.00
Denmark	:	M	-	M	5	12	29	0.41	9	10	47	0.89
Germany	M	M	M	W	6	7	46	0.85	6	10	38	0.61
Estonia	M	M	M	M	1	11	8	0.09	1	12	8	0.09
Ireland	W	M	W	M	3	11	21	0.27	3	12	20	0.25
Greece	M	M	M	M	1	15	6	0.06	3	15	17	0.20
Spain	:	M	-	M	7	9	44	0.79	9	9	50	1.00
France	M	M	M	M	3	14	18	0.22	13	25	34	0.52
Italy	M	M	M	M	2	21	9	0.10	5	18	22	0.28
Cyprus	M	:	M	M	0	11	0	0.00	2	10	17	0.20
Latvia	W	M	M	M	4	12	25	0.33	3	11	21	0.27
Lithuania	M	M	W	M	2	11	15	0.18	2	13	13	0.15
Luxembourg	:	M	-	M	2	10	17	0.20	4	11	27	0.37
Hungary	M	M	M	M	2	15	12	0.14	0	10	0	0.00
Malta	M	M	M	M	2	11	15	0.18	2	7	22	0.28
The Netherlands	:	M	-	M	5	11	31	0.45	3	9	25	0.33
Austria	M	M	M	M	4	7	36	0.56	6	8	43	0.75
Poland	M	M	M	M	1	15	6	0.06	5	15	25	0.33
Portugal	M	M	M	M	3	15	17	0.20	5	12	29	0.41

Country	2004 (4 Q)		2010 (4Q)		Senior ministers 2004 (4Q)				Senior ministers 210 (4Q)			
	President	Prime Minister	President	Prime Minister	Women (N)	Men (N)	Women (%)	Ratio: women/men	Women (N)	Men (N)	Women (%)	Ratio: women/men
Romania	M	M	M	M	2	15	12	0.14	2	15	12	0.14
Slovenia	M	M	M	M	1	13	7	0.08	5	14	26	0.35
Slovakia	M	M	M	W	0	15	0	0.00	2	12	14	0.16
Finland	W	M	W	W	8	9	47	0.89	11	9	55	1.22
Sweden	:	M	-	M	10	10	50	1.00	11	13	46	0.85
United Kingdom	:	M	-	M	6	17	26	0.35	4	21	16	0.19
Croatia	-	-	M	W	-	-	-		3	16	16	0.19
Macedonia, the former Yugoslav Republic of	-	-	M	M	-	-	-		2	20	9	0.10
Turkey	0	14	M	M	0	100	-		2	25	7	0.08
Republic of Serbia	-	-	M	M	-	-	-		5	22	19	0.23
Liechtenstein	:	M	-	M	1	2	33	0.49	2	3	40	0.67
Iceland	M	M	M	W	3	8	27	0.37	4	6	40	0.67
Norway	:	M	-	M	8	10	44	0.79	10	10	50	1.00
All countries	3W 18M	0W 29M	3W 22M	5W 29M	103	373	22	0.28	152	443	26	0.35

Source: European Commission. Justice. Database: women & men in decision making (WMID).

5.3. Women in senior positions in political parties, trade unions, employers' associations, professional organizations, NGOs and community-based associations

Presence of women in representative assemblies of regional authorities

With data from “*Women and men in making decisions*” we can show the presence of women in **representative assemblies of regional authorities** that are endowed with self-government. Regional authorities are territorial authorities between the central government and local authorities but this does not necessarily imply a hierarchical relationship between regional and local authorities. Regional authorities are not applicable in all countries. Data were collected annually except in the case of elections when the data for affected regions will be updated with the next quarterly update of political data.

As we can observe in Table 30 the share of women as presidents of local assemblies in 2004 is low, with the highest percentage found in the United Kingdom (38% women). Representation changed considerably in 2010 with a 47% share of women as presidents of regional assemblies in Spain (a consequence of the national gender equity policy) and 40% in Belgium, Denmark and Latvia. Considering the share of women as member of local assemblies in 2004, larger percentages are seen in France and Sweden with 48% and in Finland (44%), while in 2010 similar values were observed in the same countries as well as in Belgium (40%).

Table 30: Representation of women in representative assemblies of regional authorities in Europe (2004 and 2010)

Country	Number of regions 2004		President (regional assembly) 2004		Number of regions 2010		President (regional assembly) 2010		Members (regional assembly) 2004		Members (regional assembly) 2010	
	Covered	With data	Women (%)	Men (%)	Covered	With data	Women (%)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Men (%)
EU-27	276	205	13	87	276	263	14	86	30	70	30	70
Belgium	5	4	0	100	5	5	40	60	31	69	40	60
Bulgaria	-	-	:	:	-	-	-	-	:	:	-	-
Czech Republic	14	14	:	:	14	14	14	86	14	86	18	82
Denmark	5	0	:	:	5	5	40	60	:	:	34	66
Germany	16	16	13	87	16	16	19	81	31	69	32	68
Estonia	-	-	:	:	-	-	-	-	:	:	-	-
Ireland	-	-	0	100	-	-	-	-	11	89	-	-
Greece	13	0	6	94	13	0	13	87	18	82	21	79
Spain	17	17	18	82	17	17	47	53	37	63	42	58
France	26	26	4	96	26	26	8	92	48	52	48	52
Italy	22	22	10	90	22	22	5	95	10	90	12	88
Cyprus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Latvia	5	0	:	:	5	5	40	60	:	:	21	79
Lithuania	-	-	:	:	-	-	-	-	:	:	-	-
Luxembourg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hungary	20	20	15	85	20	20	10	90	13	87	13	87
Malta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Netherlands	12	12	:	:	12	12	8	92	30	70	34	66
Austria	9	9	10	90	9	9	11	89	30	70	31	69
Poland	16	16	6	94	16	16	6	94	15	85	19	81
Portugal	2	2	0	100	2	2	0	100	15	85	22	78
Romania	42	0	:	:	42	42	2	98	:	:	15	85
Slovenia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Slovakia	8	8	:	:	8	8	0	100	14	86	15	85
Finland	20	19	26	74	20	20	25	75	44	56	42	58
Sweden	20	20	27	73	20	20	16	84	48	52	47	53
United Kingdom	4	0	38	62	4	4	25	75	21	79	31	69
Croatia	21	0	-	-	21	21	5	95	-	-	24	76
Macedonia, the former Yugoslav Republic of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Turkey	81	0	-	-	81	75	1	99	-	-	4	96
Republic of Serbia	1	0	-	-	1	1	0	100	-	-	14	86
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Iceland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	19	19	32	68	19	19	16	84	42	58	45	55
All countries	398	224	14	86	398	379	11	89	31	69	27	73

Source: European Commission. Justice. Database: women & men in decision making (WMID).

European NGOs

From the same source of information as used above we can observe the presence of women in European NGOs. This category consists of are non-governmental organizations established at the European level. In particular it includes those recognized by the EU Civil Society Contact Group which brings together rights and value-based NGO sectors: culture, environment, education, development, human rights, public health, social issues and women. Data in 2004 showed 55 NGOs in total, of which 22 were headed by women (40%). In 21 NGOs half or more of members were women (Table 31). In 2010 there were fewer NGOs, and 50% were presided over by women. The share of women as members was 46%.

Table 31: Representation of women in European NGOs (2004 and 2010)

Organizations	President		Members of highest decision-making body			
	W (N)	M (N)	W (N)	M (N)	W (%)	M (%)
2004						
Amnesty International	1	0	2	2	50	50
Aprodev	0	1	5	11	31	69
Autisme Europe	1	0	12	18	40	60
Birdlife International (European Community Office)	1	0	0	6	0	100
CIDSE	0	1	1	13	7	93
Climate Network Europe	:	:	1	2	33	67
Coalition for the International Criminal Court	0	1	2	0	100	0
Comité Européen de l'habitat social (CECODHAS)	0	1	15	4	79	21
Concord Aisbl	0	1	4	5	44	56
Confederation of Family Organisations in the EC (COFACE)	0	1	9	5	64	36
Eurodad	1	0	2	6	25	75
Eurolink Age	0	1	10	13	43	57
Euro-Mediterranean Human Rights Network	0	1	4	5	44	56
EuronAid	0	1	3	3	50	50
European Anti Poverty Network (EAPN)	1	0	11	7	61	39
European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA)	0	1	7	4	64	36
European Association of service Providers for Persons with Disabilities (EASPD)	0	1	2	11	15	85
European Blind Union (EBU)	0	1	2	8	20	80
European Centre for Common Ground	0	1	2	2	50	50
European Confederation of Workers, Co-operatives, Social Co-operatives and Participative Enterprises (CECOP)	0	1	5	12	29	71
European Council for Voluntary Organisations (CEDAG)	1	0	3	5	38	62
European Disability Forum (EDF)	0	1	3	3	50	50
European Environmental Bureau	0	1	10	12	45	55
European Federation for Transport and Environment	1	0	2	6	25	75
European Federation of National Organisations Working with Homeless (FEANTSA)	0	1	0	14	0	100
European Federation of the Elderly (EURAG)	1	0	2	4	33	67
European federation of women working in the Home (FEFAF)	1	0	3	0	100	0
European Forum for Child Welfare (EFCW)	:	:	:	:	:	:
European Network Against Racism (ENAR)	0	1	8	7	53	47
European Network of the Unemployed (ENU)	:	:	:	:	:	:
European Public Health Alliance (EPHA)	1	0	3	3	50	50
European Round Table of Charitable Social Welfare Associations (ET Welfare)	:	:	1	3	25	75
European Social Action Network (ESAN)	0	1	8	10	44	56
European Women's Lobby (EWL)	1	0	3	0	100	0
European Youth Forum	0	1	5	5	50	50
Eurostep	0	1	3	12	20	80
Federazione ACLI Internazionali (FAI)	0	1	0	4	0	100
Friends of the Earth Europe	1	0	2	1	67	33

Organizations	President		Members of highest decision-making body			
	W (N)	M (N)	W (N)	M (N)	W (%)	M (%)
Greenpeace Europe	0	1	0	5	0	100
Human Rights Watch	0	1	4	5	44	56
Inclusion Europe (International League of Societies for persons with Mental Handicap)	1	0	5	6	45	55
International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW)	1	0	6	8	43	57
International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH)	0	1	5	16	24	76
International Federation Terre des Hommes	0	1	3	6	33	67
International Friends of Nature	0	1	2	7	22	78
International Lesbian and Gay Association (ILGA) - Europe	1	1	3	3	50	50
International Movement ATD Fourth World	0	1	1	2	33	67
International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) European Network	1	0	4	4	50	50
International Save the Children Alliance	1	0	8	4	67	33
Mental Health Europe (MHE)	0	1	5	9	36	64
Movement for Peace, Disarmament and Freedom (MPDL)	1	0	4	8	33	67
Open Society Institute	0	1	6	7	46	54
Quaker Council for European Affairs	2	0	2	1	67	33
Red Cross / EU Liaison Bureau	0	1	6	17	26	74
SOLIDAR	0	1	4	4	50	50
Voice	0	1	2	6	25	75
Women in Development Europe (WIDE)	:	:	2	0	100	0
World Organisation against Torture (OMCT)	1	0	3	5	38	62
World Vision	1	0	3	21	13	87
WWF European Policy Office	0	1	2	21	9	91
Total	22	35	235	391	38	62
2010						
Concord Aisbl	0	1	4	6	40	60
European Civil Society Platform on Lifelong Learning (EUCIS-LLL)	1	0	2	6	25	75
European Forum of the Arts and Heritage (EFAH/FEAP)	1	0	7	6	54	46
European Public Health Alliance (EPHA)	1	0	1	4	20	80
European Women's Lobby (EWL)	1	0	7	0	100	0
Green 10	-	-	4	6	40	60
Human Rights and Democracy Network (HRDN)	-	-	1	2	33	67
Social Platform	0	1	3	4	43	57
Total	4	2	29	34	46	54

Source: European Commission. Justice. *Database: women & men in decision making (WMID)*.

5.4. Contraceptive use

To capture women's abilities to control and make choices about their bodies and lives, indicators relating to contraception use are used. In order to determine the pattern of use of current methods in contraception, a survey was conducted in a large population of women drawn from five European countries (France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom) (Skouby, 2010).

The study was carried out through interviews of more than 12,000 randomly selected women, aged 15-49 years, using a standardized questionnaire that addressed the use of current methods of contraception.

The results show that the oral contraceptive (OC) is the most widely used method of contraception. Women using an OC reported very high levels of satisfaction (>90%). Male and female sterilization were the main methods of contraception in women aged 40 years and older. One-half of women in this age group had undergone sterilization before the age of 35 years. More than 50% of women who had undergone sterilization had not been adequately informed and counselled about alternative reversible contraceptive options. No method of contraception

was currently being used by 23% of the European study population, and unreliable methods of contraception (including cap/diaphragm, chemical, and natural and withdrawal methods) were being used by a further 6% of the population. Although many women gave valid reasons (e.g., not in a sexual relationship, wish to become pregnant) for not using contraception, there remain a large number of women in need of counselling regarding reliable contraceptive methods. The number of women aged 15-49 years in the five European countries considered at risk of an unwanted pregnancy is estimated to be 4.7 million (6.5%).

Differences in use of contraceptive methods emphasize the social and cultural differences between the countries. In some cases data are related to use by women and in others they refer to use by partners (see footnotes in next tables). Table 32 shows the percentage of women (or their partners) using condoms, with the highest percentage found in Ireland and Greece. Table 33 shows the percentage of women using other modern methods with the highest percentage observed in the United Kingdom, Belgium and Norway.

Table 32: Contraceptive prevalence rate – condom (Percent female 15-49 years)

Country	Time Period	Data Value	
Albania	2000	7.9	1
Albania	2002	2.1	2
Albania	2005	10.9	1
Belarus	2006	17.5	3
Belgium	2004	0.0	4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2000	3.1	1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2006	4.1	3
France	2000	4.7	5
France	2005	14.8	6
Greece	2001	33.9	7
Ireland	2002	28.1	8
Ireland	2004	55.0	9
Montenegro	2000	13.6	1
Montenegro	2006	4.3	3
Netherlands	2003	8.0	10
Norway	2005	12.8	11
Portugal	2006	8.5	12
Republic of Moldova	2000	3.5	1
Republic of Moldova	2005	7.4	13
Romania	2004	12.0	14
Serbia	2000	17.7	15
Serbia	2005	8.4	1
Spain	2006	24.8	16
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2006	4.5	3
Ukraine	2005	20.3	1
Ukraine	2007	23.8	17
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2000	22.0	18
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2001	19.0	19
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2003	18.0	20
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2004	22.0	21
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2005	20.0	22
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2006	25.0	23
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2007	25.0	24
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2008	27.0	25

Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDG Info 2010*.

Footnotes

1 LAM is included as a traditional method. Source: MICS.

2 Ages 15-44. Source: RHS.

3 LAM is included as a traditional method. Years of survey: 2005-2006. Source: MICS.

4 Figures for methods do not add up to the total. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Male and female sterilization, vaginal barrier methods and condoms are included as modern methods. Source: Enquete de sante par interview, Belgique 2004.

5 Ages 18-44. Including some cases of sterilization for non-contraceptive reasons. Source: Enquete Cohorte Contraception 2000.

6 Years of survey: 2004-2005. Ages 15-54. Sample of men and women. Figures on methods refer to the three most

commonly used methods only. Source: Enquete du Barometre Sante 2005.

7 Ages 16-45. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Source: Attitudes and Behavior towards Contraception among Greek Women during Reproductive Age: a Country-wide Survey 2001.

8 Ages 18-50. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Survey of Lifestyle, Attitudes and Nutrition 2002.

9 Years of survey: 2003-2004. Sample of men and women. Ages 18-45. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: Irish Contraception and Crisis Pregnancy Study. Methods used in the last year.

10 Ages 18-45. Source: Birth Control in the Netherlands Survey 2003.

11 Ages 20-44. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Methods used during the last three months. Source: Survey on contraceptive use.

12 Years of survey: 2005-2006. Sample of all women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Ages 20-49. Source: National Health Survey 2005-2006.

13 LAM is included as a traditional method. Source: DHS.

14 Ages 15-44. Source: Reproductive Health Survey Romania 2004.

15 LAM is included as a traditional method. Figures for methods do not add up to the total. Source: MICS.

16 Source: Encuesta de Fecundidad y Valores 2006.

17 Source: DHS.

18 Years of survey: 2000-2001. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2000 Omnibus Survey.

19 Years of survey: 2001-2002. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2001 Omnibus Survey.

20 Years of survey: 2002-2003. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2002 Omnibus Survey.

21 Years of survey: 2003-2004. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2003 Omnibus Survey.

22 Years of survey: 2004-2005. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2004 Omnibus Survey.

23 Ages 16-49. Years of survey: 2005-2006. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2005 Omnibus Survey.

24 Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Years of survey: 2006-2007. Source: 2006 Omnibus Survey.

25 Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2007 Omnibus Survey.

Table 33: Contraceptive prevalence rate – modern methods (Percent female aged 15-49 years)

Country	Time Period	Data Value	
Albania	2000	15.3	1
Albania	2002	8.0	2
Albania	2005	22.4	1
Belarus	2006	56.0	3
Belgium	2004	72.9	4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2000	15.7	1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2006	11.2	3
France	2000	76.5	5
Greece	2001	42.3	6
Ireland	2002	66.0	7
Ireland	2004	89.0	8
Montenegro	2000	30.0	1
Montenegro	2006	17.2	3
Netherlands	2003	65.0	9
Norway	2005	82.2	10
Portugal	2006	62.9	11
Republic of Moldova	2000	42.8	1
Republic of Moldova	2005	42.6	12
Romania	2004	38.0	13
Serbia	2000	31.8	14
Serbia	2005	18.6	1
Spain	2006	62.3	15
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2006	9.8	3
Ukraine	2005	58.2	1
Ukraine	2007	47.5	16
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2000	80.0	17
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2001	82.0	18

Country	Time Period	Data Value
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2003	81.0 ¹⁹
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2004	84.0 ²⁰
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2005	79.0 ²¹
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2006	82.0 ²²
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2007	84.0 ²³
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	2008	82.0 ²⁴

Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDG Info 2010*.

Footnotes

1 LAM is included as a traditional method. Source: MICS.

2 Ages 15-44. Source: RHS.

3 LAM is included as a traditional method. Years of survey: 2005-2006. Source: MICS.

4 Figures for methods do not add up to the total. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Male and female sterilization, vaginal barrier methods and condoms are included as modern methods. Source: Health survey par interview, Belgique 2004.

5 Ages 18-44. Including some cases of sterilization for non-contraceptive reasons. Source: Cohort Survey Contraception 2000.

6 Ages 16-45. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Source: Attitudes and Behaviour towards Contraception among Greek Women during Reproductive Age: a Country-wide Survey 2001.

7 Ages 18-50. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Source: Survey of Lifestyle, Attitudes and Nutrition 2002.

8 Years of survey: 2003-2004. Sample of men and women. Ages 18-45. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: Irish Contraception and Crisis Pregnancy Study. Methods used during used in the last year.

9 Ages 18-45. Source: Birth Control in the Netherlands Survey 2003.

10 Ages 20-44. Sample of all sexually active women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Methods used during the last three months. Source: Survey on contraceptive use.

11 Years of survey: 2005-2006. Sample of all women of reproductive age, irrespective of marital status. Ages 20-49. Source: National Health Survey 2005-2006.

12 LAM is included as a traditional method. Source: DHS.

13 Ages 15-44. Source: Reproductive Health Survey Romania 2004.

14 LAM is included as a traditional method. Figures for methods do not add up to the total. Source: MICS.

15 Source: Encuesta de Fecundidad y Valores 2006.

16 Source: DHS.

17 Years of survey: 2000-2001. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2000 Omnibus Survey.

18 Years of survey: 2001-2002. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2001 Omnibus Survey.

19 Years of survey: 2002-2003. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2002 Omnibus Survey.

20 Years of survey: 2003-2004. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2003 Omnibus Survey.

21 Years of survey: 2004-2005. Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2004 Omnibus Survey.

22 Ages 16-49. Years of survey: 2005-2006. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2005 Omnibus Survey.

23 Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Years of survey: 2006-2007. Source: 2006 Omnibus Survey.

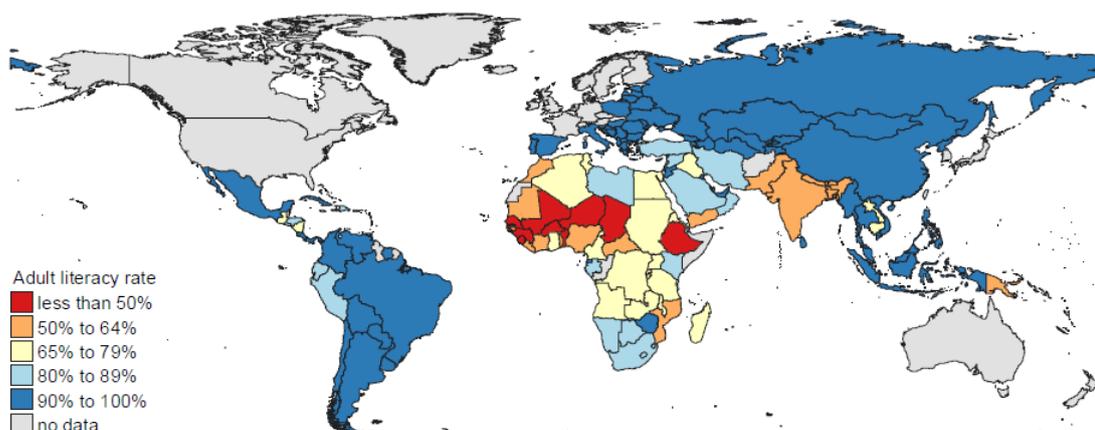
24 Ages 16-49. Figures for methods do not add up to the total because methods used in combination. Source: 2007 Omnibus Survey.

6- OPPORTUNITY AND CAPABILITY

6.1. Adult literacy rates

The proportion of population who can read and write is a base indicator for assessing the level of development of a country. As we can see in Figure 20, the rate of adult literacy in Europe is over 90%.

Figure 24: Proportion of adults that can write and read. A global view of adult literacy data, 2008



Source: UNESCO, *Institute for Statistics*, Data Centre.

Ratio female literacy rate over male values (<15 years)

Considering the female/male literacy rate ratio, the values are similar for both sexes can in the group between 15 and 24 years in all European countries for which there are data. Table 34 shows the literacy rate in 2007 (or the last available year) in some European countries.

Country	Time Period	Female 15-24 yrs	Male 15-24 yrs	Ratio Female/male
Albania	2007	99.5	99.3	1.00
Belarus	2007	99.8	99.7	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2000	99.8	99.7	1.00
Bulgaria	2007	97.4	97.5	1.00
Estonia	2007	99.8	99.7	1.00
Greece	2007	99.3	99.4	1.00
Hungary	2007	98.9	98.2	1.01
Italy	2007	99.9	99.9	1.00
Latvia	2007	99.8	99.7	1.00
Lithuania	2007	99.8	99.8	1.00
Malta	2005	99.1	97.5	1.02
Poland	2007	99.2	99.7	0.99
Portugal	2007	99.7	99.6	1.00
Republic of Moldova	2007	99.7	99.7	1.00
Romania	2007	97.6	97.3	1.00
Russian Federation	2007	99.8	99.6	1.00

Slovenia	2007	99.9	99.8	1.00
Spain	2007	99.7	99.7	1.00
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2007	98.5	98.9	1.00
Ukraine	2007	99.8	99.8	1.00

Table 34: Literacy rates, 15-24 years old
Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDG Info 2010*.

Considering the adult population (ages 15 and above), Table 35 shows the literacy rate percentages by sex in different European countries between 2000 and 2009. Despite a high literacy rate in most countries, the percentage of literate males is slightly higher than that of females.

Table 35: Adult literacy rates (>15 years old)

Country	% Adults	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Albania	Female		98.3							94.7	
	Male		99.3							97.3	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Female	94.4									96.4
	Male	99.0								99.4	
Bulgaria	Female		97.7								98.0
	Male		98.7								98.7
Croatia	Female		97.1								98.1
	Male		99.3	99.3	99.3	99.3					99.5
Cyprus	Female		95.1								96.9
	Male		98.6								99.1
Estonia	Female	99.8									99.8
	Male	99.8									99.8
Greece	Female		94.2								96.1
	Male		97.8								98.3
Hungary	Female					98.8					99.3
	Male					99.1					99.4
Italy	Female		98.0								98.6
	Male		98.8								99.2
Latvia	Female	99.7									99.8
	Male	99.8									99.8
Lithuania	Female		99.7								99.7
	Male		99.6								99.7
Luxembourg	Female										
	Male										
Macedonia, FYR	Female			94.1							95.6
	Male			98.2							98.7
Poland	Female					99.2					99.4
	Male					99.6					99.7
Portugal	Female										93.3
	Male										96.7
Romania	Female			96.3							97.0
	Male			98.4							98.3
Slovenia	Female					99.6					99.7
	Male					99.7					99.7
Spain	Female								97.3	96.9	96.9
	Male								98.6	98.4	98.5

Source: World Bank. *World data bank*. Gender Statistics. Countries for which no data is available were omitted.

6.2. Net primary, secondary and tertiary enrolments, M/W

Ratio: female net primary, second, tertiary level enrolments over male values

Considering the level of enrolment (primary, secondary and tertiary education), Table 36 displays the ratio of females/males between 2002 and 2009 in some European countries. The ratio of females is less than 1.0 in primary education but increases at higher levels of education in all countries considered.

Table 36: Female/male ratio according to level of enrolment

Country	Ratio female/ male primary enrolment (%)	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Albania	Primary	98.2	99.3	99.5					96.9
	Secondary		97.1	96.7					101.2
	Tertiary	152.1	156.3	156.8					
Andorra	Primary	97.2	96.7	96.9	96.5	99.4	99.0	99.3	101.2
	Secondary	107.6	108.0	107.6	110.2	109.7	108.4	108.4	107.8
	Tertiary	105.5	100.3	99.7	108.9	119.2		144.1	
Austria	Primary	98.8	99.2	100.0	99.7	99.1	98.9	98.5	99.1
	Secondary	95.0	94.8	94.4	95.1	95.9	96.1	96.0	95.7
	Tertiary	115.1	116.7	118.4	120.1	121.0	120.4	118.5	118.3
Belgium	Primary	99.4	99.2	99.7	99.6	99.5	99.8	99.9	99.7
	Secondary	112.0	110.2	96.8	96.7	96.7	96.5	96.8	97.0
	Tertiary	117.1	118.1	120.2	123.0	124.4	125.6	126.1	125.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Primary						101.6	101.2	102.2
	Secondary						102.3	101.9	102.1
	Tertiary								130.6
Bulgaria	Primary	98.0	98.1	98.4	98.8	98.6	98.9	99.6	99.8
	Secondary	97.7	97.5	96.0	95.7	95.8	95.7	96.5	96.2
	Tertiary	124.0	118.3	116.7	114.9	121.2	122.3	130.3	131.5
Croatia	Primary	99.0	99.3		99.8	99.6	99.8	100.1	99.8
	Secondary	101.9	101.6		103.0	103.0	103.1	103.2	103.5
	Tertiary	115.1	118.6		121.5	122.7	122.3	124.9	126.9
Cyprus	Primary	100.2	100.4	99.5	99.9	99.7	99.3	98.9	98.9
	Secondary	102.2	101.7	102.7	101.9	101.7	101.8	101.1	101.3
	Tertiary	125.9	103.4	98.0	113.2	104.8	99.4	95.8	87.2
Czech Republic	Primary	98.7	98.5	98.8	98.7	99.2	99.3	99.3	99.5
	Secondary	102.7	102.6	101.4	101.7	101.5	101.3	101.3	101.3
	Tertiary	109.7	107.3	109.7	116.1	122.2	127.0	131.9	138.2
Denmark	Primary	100.1	100.0	99.8	99.8	100.0	100.0	100.7	100.7
	Secondary	104.6	104.9	104.2	103.0	102.8	103.1	103.2	102.6
	Tertiary	139.2	141.7	141.1	138.7	138.7	140.7	144.2	146.8

Country	Ratio female/ male primary enrolment (%)	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Estonia	Primary	96.6	96.6	97.3	97.5	97.9	99.0	98.7	
	Secondary	102.7	104.1	102.7	101.7	102.6	102.4	102.9	
	Tertiary	164.8	165.9	167.9	166.4	167.2	163.8	168.6	
Finland	Primary	99.4	99.2	99.2	99.3	99.7	99.5	99.1	99.2
	Secondary	111.0	110.3	104.7	104.5	104.2	104.6	104.9	104.9
	Tertiary	123.0	120.1	119.7	120.6	122.3	123.0	124.0	123.0
France	Primary	99.1	99.1	99.3	98.8	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.7
	Secondary	100.4	100.8	100.3	100.1	99.9	100.1	100.3	100.6
	Tertiary	125.0	126.1	126.1	127.0	127.5	127.8	127.7	128.3
Germany	Primary	99.4	99.6	99.7	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.6	99.7
	Secondary	98.4	98.1	98.0	97.8	97.1	97.7	97.5	95.0
	Tertiary								
Greece	Primary	99.5	99.5	98.9	99.6	100.0	100.2		
	Secondary	102.8	102.1	100.5	97.8	97.3	94.7		
	Tertiary	115.4	114.0	117.3	114.2	112.9	110.3		
Hungary	Primary	98.4	98.6	98.5	98.0	98.2	98.1	98.5	98.9
	Secondary	100.7	100.1	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.3	98.3	98.6
	Tertiary	129.3	136.9	139.8	146.3	146.4	145.5	143.2	136.6
Ireland	Primary	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.6	99.5	99.7	100.5	100.8
	Secondary	109.0	108.6	107.7	109.0	107.5	107.2	106.4	105.6
	Tertiary	127.7	130.6	127.6	126.1	126.8	126.8	121.7	120.2
Italy	Primary	98.1	99.2	99.5	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.1	
	Secondary	96.6	99.2	99.4	99.3	99.1	99.0	99.1	
	Tertiary	133.0	133.4	133.7	136.2	138.7	140.7	142.1	
Latvia	Primary	98.4	97.5	97.0	96.3	96.6	96.1	96.2	97.5
	Secondary	100.7	99.7	99.6	100.2	100.6	102.6	102.6	101.5
	Tertiary	163.8	165.9	170.9	178.8	180.4	185.3	189.0	182.5
Lithuania	Primary	99.1	99.1	99.3	99.5	98.9	98.6	97.6	97.9
	Secondary	98.4	98.2	99.5	99.6	100.0	100.1	100.2	100.0
	Tertiary	156.7	154.5	154.9	156.3	155.4	156.5	155.8	151.6
Luxembourg	Primary	100.1	100.5	100.5	100.8	101.2	100.6	101.5	
	Secondary	106.1	105.4	105.4	106.1	104.5	104.0	103.2	
	Tertiary	115.4	118.2			111.9			
Monaco	Primary								95.0
	Secondary								100.7
	Tertiary								
Montenegro	Primary						99.7		98.2
	Secondary						101.0		101.0

Country	Ratio female/ male primary enrolment (%)	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
	Tertiary								
Netherlands	Primary	97.8	97.5	97.3	97.5	97.6	97.9	98.2	98.6
	Secondary	97.3	98.5	98.3	97.8	97.9	97.9	98.2	98.5
	Tertiary	106.3	107.5	106.9	107.2	108.0	109.6	110.8	112.0
Norway	Primary	100.3	100.1	100.2	100.4	100.7	100.1	100.2	100.3
	Secondary	102.1	102.1	103.0	101.0	99.4	98.7	97.8	97.5
	Tertiary	153.9	154.3	153.2	153.0	154.1	157.6	161.8	163.9
Poland	Primary	99.3	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.5	99.5
	Secondary	96.8	95.8	101.1	99.3	98.6	99.0	99.5	99.7
	Tertiary	142.3	141.8	140.3	140.1	139.6	139.6	141.0	143.1
Portugal	Primary	96.1	94.8	94.9	95.3	95.4	95.0	94.9	97.2
	Secondary		108.8	110.2	109.6	108.7	107.2	105.5	104.1
	Tertiary	136.9	134.8	132.2	130.3	128.1	122.0	120.0	119.3
Romania	Primary	97.9	97.9	98.5	98.7	99.1	99.4	98.7	99.0
	Secondary	101.6	101.6	101.2	101.1	100.4	99.3	99.0	99.3
	Tertiary	124.6	124.3	126.6	125.7	129.6	133.1	134.3	133.9
Serbia	Primary	99.3	100.7	100.9	100.8	100.2	99.9	99.8	99.0
	Secondary	102.9	103.3	102.8	102.9	103.6	102.9	102.7	102.6
	Tertiary						128.9	129.8	129.3
Slovak Republic	Primary	99.5	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.6	99.1	99.2	99.5
	Secondary	101.1	100.9	101.4	101.0	100.9	100.8	100.9	101.0
	Tertiary	113.2	117.8	122.8	129.2	142.3	149.5	158.4	159.4
Slovenia	Primary	99.1	99.5	99.9	99.1	99.2	99.1	99.2	99.1
	Secondary	100.4	99.4	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.4	99.4	99.6
	Tertiary	144.7	136.7	139.8	144.7	147.6	146.9	145.9	144.9
Spain	Primary	98.9	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.4	98.7	98.9	99.2
	Secondary	106.2	105.5	106.2	106.1	106.1	106.4	105.8	104.4
	Tertiary	118.8	118.8	122.1	121.6	122.4	123.4	123.7	124.4
Sweden	Primary	102.8	102.6	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.6	99.3	99.3
	Secondary	121.3	118.3	103.2	99.5	99.4	99.2	99.2	98.9
	Tertiary	153.8	154.7	154.4	154.7	154.5	156.8	159.2	158.2
Switzerland	Primary	100.2	100.2	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.6
	Secondary	94.4	94.3	93.7	94.0	94.0	94.7	95.4	95.9
	Tertiary	77.5	80.7	83.3	87.2	90.6	93.1	99.7	101.4
United Kingdom	Primary	100.1	100.2	100.2	100.0	100.7	100.7	99.9	
	Secondary	101.1	103.0	102.5	102.6	102.7	102.4	102.4	
	Tertiary	126.0	130.1	137.0	138.6	139.9	139.9	140.2	139.0

6.3. Availability of on-the- job, staff, specialized training for women and men

Ratio: female /male job, staff, specialized training

Table 37 presents EUROSTAT data in 2000, 2005 and 2010 for the population aged 24-35 years. Data for the EU-27 show a female/male ratio in education and training of 1.02 in 2000 and 1.1 in 2010. Only in Germany, Cyprus, Switzerland and Turkey is this ratio below 1.0 in the last year. Countries with the highest ratios in 2010 were Lithuania, Sweden and Denmark.

Table 37: Participation in education and training by sex and age - % (24-35 years)

Country	2000			2005			2010		
	M	F	Ratio F/M	M	F	Ratio F/M	M	F	Ratio F/M
European Union (27 countries)	12.3	12.6	1.02	15.3	16.5	1.1	14.5	15.8	1.1
European Union (25 countries)	13	13.3	1.02	16	17.4	1.1	15.2	16.6	1.1
European Union (15 countries)	13.9	13.9	1.00	17.4	18.5	1.1	16.4	17.7	1.1
European Community (12 countries)	13.4	13.4	1.00	16.7	17.8	1.1	15.8	16.9	1.1
Belgium	10.1	8.9	0.88	11.5	12.6	1.1	10.8	11.5	1.1
Bulgaria	:	:		4.6	3.8	0.8	3.9	4.4	1.1
Czech Republic	:	:		8.9	10.4	1.2	12.4	12.8	1.0
Denmark	25.2	29.8	1.18	37	40.6	1.1	39.2	49.3	1.3
Germany (including former GDR from 1991)	14.3	10.8	0.76	18.3	15.1	0.8	18	15.7	0.9
Estonia	9.6	16.3	1.70	9	16.1	1.8	15.9	18.8	1.2
Ireland	:	:		8.8	11.6	1.3	9.9	10.1	1.0
Greece	2.9	3	1.03	5	4.9	1.0	7	6.8	1.0
Spain	9.8	10.9	1.11	16.3	18.5	1.1	16.7	18.4	1.1
France	6.4	6.7	1.05	12	12.1	1.0	8.2	9	1.1
Italy	11.3	12.1	1.07	11	13.5	1.2	12	13.9	1.2
Cyprus	5.1	4.8	0.94	9.6	11.4	1.2	13.6	12.9	0.9
Latvia	:	:		9.8	18.3	1.9	6.7	12.4	1.9
Lithuania	4.4	6.9	1.57	9.1	16.3	1.8	7.6	11.1	1.5
Luxembourg	9.7	6	0.62	14.4	12.9	0.9	19.8	20.2	1.0
Hungary	6	8	1.33	7.8	10.8	1.4	6.3	6.9	1.1
Malta	10.8	7.5	0.69	9	6.8	0.8	7.6	9.3	1.2
Netherlands	26.6	20.5	0.77	26.5	23.8	0.9	27.6	26.8	1.0
Austria	15.2	12.9	0.85	21.2	19.7	0.9	21.8	23.2	1.1
Poland	:	:		10.2	12.1	1.2	10.6	11.8	1.1
Portugal	8	8.3	1.04	9.5	10.2	1.1	11.8	11.3	1.0
Romania	2.7	2.3	0.85	4.3	4.2	1.0	3.6	3.9	1.1
Slovenia	:	:		25.4	31.3	1.2	26.5	31.5	1.2
Slovakia	:	:		7.2	8.3	1.2	4.3	6.9	1.6
Finland	24	26	1.08	31.5	34.9	1.1	31.3	36.2	1.2
Sweden	26.3	30.5	1.16	21.7	28.8	1.3	27.6	39.7	1.4
United Kingdom	23.6	27.2	1.15	29.9	36	1.2	22.1	26.7	1.2
Iceland	29.6	30.7	1.04	29.8	37.4	1.3	31.4	37.9	1.2
Norway	15.6	15.8	1.01	23.1	24.5	1.1	23.2	25	1.1
Switzerland	46.4	34.9	0.75	34.6	30.4	0.9	38.3	36	0.9

Country	2000		2005			2010		
Croatia	:	:	6.8	7.6	1.1	8.2	8.8	1.1
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The	:	:	:	:		8.1	8	1.0
Turkey	:	:	1.02	:	:	5.5	5.1	0.9

Source: EUROSTAT data for European countries for 2005-2009 on life-long learning by gender.

7- ENABLING POLICY ENVIRONMENT

7.1-Existence of relevant government policies that include gender issues.

Existence of interministerial mechanisms for gender mainstreaming in government

The first attempts to integrate gender equality in European Union (EU) development policy came out of the United Nations Decade for Women (1975–1985) and the Third World Conference on Women in Nairobi in 1985. Following these events the European Commission (EC) established a Women in Development (WID) policy, including its first WID desks, communiqués and references to women in the Third and Fourth Lomé conventions in 1984 and 1989.

As Debusscher (2011) comments, the WID perspective addresses the exclusion of women from the development process by creating specific projects for women. Feminist scholars criticized this perspective by pointing out that focusing on women in isolation is ineffective as it ignores underlying societal problems and unequal gender relations. Following the 1995 United Nations (UN) Beijing Conference the WID paradigm was officially replaced by the gender and development (GAD) paradigm and the strategy of gender mainstreaming that implements it. The GAD paradigm focuses on gender, recognizing that improving women's status requires analysis of the relations between women and men. Where WID policies – even those policies aimed at redressing the imbalances between the sexes – were directed at women only, the gender mainstreaming approach stresses ‘the shared responsibility of women and men in removing imbalances in society’. The participation and commitment of men is thus fundamental in the GAD paradigm to change the social and economic position of women. As the ultimate aim of GAD is to change a discriminatory gendered society, it is regarded as a transformative approach.

In this context, Debusscher attempts to determine to what extent the shift from a conservative WID paradigm towards a transformative GAD paradigm has been genuinely made. In her view, the shift from WID to GAD in EC gender policies has only partly been accomplished. Although she discovered progress in developing the gender mainstreaming format and budget, her analysis of language, roles, frame and participation revealed serious shortcomings. She found conservative WID language focusing on women as a problem. The frame analysis also points in the direction of a traditional WID perspective, showing that gender is mostly mainstreamed in typical soft sectors (like primary education and maternal health) or else in sectors that are framed economically (employment and education). The participation analysis further reveals that there is no real place for the voices of women or their organizations ‘to shape the objectives, priorities and strategies of development’, which is severely hampering a genuinely transformative gender mainstreaming approach.

Table 38 presents data from the Global Competitiveness Report related to the policy framework in gender equality. The majority of European countries have legislation prohibiting gender-based discrimination and imposing gender-neutral practices at workplace, with Finland and Armenia being the only exceptions. Legislation for having a mandatory percentage of both

genders on corporate boards is present only in Belgium, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Portugal and Spain. The situation is similar with regard to legislation for mandatory percentage of both genders in political assemblies. Such legislation exists in Albania, Armenia, Belgium, Croatia, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Portugal and Spain. In the majority of countries an authority to monitor policy in gender equality exists. In the table there are no data for Spain, but Spain has a Ministry of Equity that is responsible for implementing and monitoring these policies. Gender equality labels are defined as labels, award and initiatives rewarding leading organizations committed to gender equality at work. In some countries such as Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Norway and Portugal subventions are made to female entrepreneurs.

Table 38: Policy framework in gender equality

Country	Legislation prohibiting gender-based discrimination	Legislation imposing gender-neutral practices at workplace	Legislation for mandatory % of both genders in corporate boards	Legislation for mandatory % of both genders in political assemblies	Monitoring authority	Gender equality labels*	Allowances/subventions to female entrepreneurs
Albania	■	■		■	■		
Armenia	■			■	■		
Austria	■	■			■	■	
Belgium	■		■	■	■	■	
Bulgaria	■	■			■	■	■
Croatia	■	■		■	■	■	■
Cyprus	■	■			■		
Czech Republic	■	■			■	■	
Denmark	■	■			■		
Estonia	■	■			■		
Finland							
Germany	■	■			■	■	
Greece	■	■	■	■	■		■
Iceland	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Ireland	■	■	■	■	■		■
Latvia	■	■			■	■	■
Lithuania	■	■			■	■	
Luxembourg	■	■			■	■	
Malta	■	■		■	■	■	■
Netherlands	■	■	■		■		
Norway	■	■	■		■		■
Portugal	■	■		■	■	■	■
Slovak Republic	■	■			■		
Slovenia	■	■			■	■	
Spain	■	■	■	■	■	■	
Sweden	■	■			■		
Switzerland	■	■			■	■	
United Kingdom	■	■			■		

Source: World Economic Forum. *Global Competitiveness Report* (2011). Appendix E: Policy Frameworks for Gender Equality.

8-WOMEN IN KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY DECISION-MAKING

In different studies, gender has been shown to be a strong predictor of being either a politically involved or a politically “aloof” citizen. Generally, men seem to display significantly stronger levels of involvement than women. Utilising data from the World Value Survey and Eurobarometer, Van Deth (2000), for example, points to a strong gender bias for every aspect of political involvement, noting that “this is in line with the common observation that people involved in politics are mostly higher educated men” (Van Deth, in Clarke, 2011).

Women continue to be under-represented at higher levels of management in organizations, board and other detected public and private sector positions.

Women are a majority of the world’s population, but form only a small minority (18.4%) of all members of parliament worldwide (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2009). This fact alone suggests that norms and practices of gender must operate to lower both the supply of and demand for female aspirants. This possibility is explicitly acknowledged by Norris and Lovenduski (1995), who observe that the supply of female candidates is shaped strongly by ideologies of gender, which lead women to have fewer resources of time and money and lower levels of political ambition and confidence. Similarly, they provide direct evidence of the gendered nature of demand, which causes selectors to overlook female aspirants as less competent or pass them over for selection due to unsubstantiated concerns about voter bias. These patterns indicate that ‘sex’, understood as biological differences between women and men, and ‘gender’, the social meanings given to these biological differences, distort the efficient operation of the ‘political

market' in ways that exclude women, regardless of their actual desires and qualifications to come forward as political candidates.

As per Mona Krook (2010), there are many additional ways in which norms and practices of gender shape the supply of female candidates by influencing the path and ability to hold public office. At the most basic level, the move from aspirant to candidate 'involves relying on and utilizing the types of backgrounds, experiences, and characteristics that have historically been impressed upon men, but discouraged among women' (Lawless and Fox, 2005). This leads many men to overestimate, and many women to underestimate, their qualifications to run for political office. Further, similar features are often interpreted differently for women and men: 'given traditional attitudes marriage and children may prove an advantage for a man but a disadvantage for a woman' (Norris and Lovenduski, 1995). When women's family connections do facilitate their selection as candidates, this generally occurs in a manner that feminists might not endorse.

While fewer women than men have been elected to parliaments around the world, some countries have witnessed much higher numbers of women in politics than others. In fact, attention to global figures masks substantial cross-national variations: countries such as Rwanda, South Africa and Sweden have nearly equal numbers of women and men in their national assemblies, while states like Kyrgyzstan and Saudi Arabia have no female members at all. At the same time, some political parties recruit greater proportions of women than others. One of the most commonly cited reasons for variations in women's political representation is the electoral system.

The supply of female aspirants may depend as well on the profile of those who vote and are members of a particular party. In British elections, Norris and Lovenduski (1995) find that supply seems to be a bigger issue for the Conservative party while demand appears to play a greater role in the Labour party. Conservative women tend to be middle-aged with traditional roles inside the home or elderly pensioners with few formal educational qualifications; while fewer women come forward, the proportion of female aspirants and candidates is roughly the same. In contrast, women in the Labour party form a much higher percentage of aspirants than selected candidates, due at least partly to the importance of trade union connections which enable men more readily to gain sponsorship and foster constituency contacts. A range of more fluid conditions, stemming from changing political circumstances, also shapes the supply of female aspirants. In some countries, these are related to feminist strategies vis-à-vis party politics, the key dilemma being whether or not to engage with the existing political parties (Kittilson, 2006). When women remain outside, their chances of being selected as candidates are very small indeed (Franceschet, 2005).

The structure and nature of parties and party system can also condition the presence of women. Research on Western Europe and North America findsthat left-wing parties tend to be more open than right-wing parties to recruiting more female candidates. As Opello (2006) explains, this difference stems from the generally distinct positions each type of party takes with regard to women's rights: socialist parties frequently seek to promote changes in women's status, while conservative parties are often more interested in preserving women's traditional roles. These differences translate into quite different policy stances regarding the desirability of quotas.

8.1- Share of women as legislators, senior official and managers

This indicator is useful to measure women's empowerment in the knowledge society in terms of representation at high decision-making levels of key knowledge society sectors. The Global Gender Gap Report (2011) provides information about the percentage of women and men as legislators, senior officials and managers in European countries. With this data a table with the ratio of female/male was obtained and a world rank was calculated according to this ratio. Table 39 shows that Latvia, Lithuania and Germany occupy the three first positions in Europe and are

among the 25 first in the world with ratios between 0.61 and 0.71. On the contrary Malta occupies the last position (number 89 internationally with a ratio of 0.21).

Table 39: Legislators, senior officials and managers by gender

Country	Female	Male	Female-to-male ratio	Rank
Latvia	41	59	0.71	11
Lithuania	40	60	0.67	16
Germany	38	62	0.61	23
Hungary	36	64	0.57	26
Estonia	36	64	0.57	27
Poland	36	64	0.57	28
United Kingdom	35	65	0.53	35
Slovenia	35	65	0.55	32
Italy	33	67	0.50	39
Iceland	33	67	0.50	40
Belgium	33	67	0.49	41
Bulgaria	32	68	0.48	42
Spain	32	68	0.48	43
Sweden	32	68	0.48	44
Ireland	32	68	0.47	47
Norway	31	69	0.46	49
Portugal	31	69	0.45	50
Luxembourg	31	69	0.45	51
Switzerland	30	70	0.43	58
Slovak Republic	30	70	0.42	60
Finland	30	70	0.42	61
Romania	29	71	0.42	62
Macedonia, FYR	29	71	0.40	64
Greece	28	72	0.40	65
Austria	28	72	0.39	66
Czech Republic	28	72	0.39	67
Netherlands	27	73	0.38	70
Croatia	27	73	0.36	71
Denmark	24	76	0.31	78
Malta	17	83	0.21	89

Source: World Economic Forum. *Global Gender Gap Report (2011)*.

8.2- Share of businesses with 35% or more women in decision-making positions

To analyze the presence of women in decision-making positions we consult the Report from the *Governance Metrics International (GMI)* in which data for more than 4200 companies in the world are included. This report includes statistics to compare the percent of women on the board in question to the average for companies in the same sector and to companies in the same home market or region.

Data presented in the report show that regional differences are very apparent. In Japan, for example, women comprise less than one percent of the average board. Scandinavia, on the other hand, has the highest average representation by far as a region, with women representing 12.1% of the average board in Denmark, 21% in Finland, 35.9% in Norway and 23% in Sweden (Table 40). Norway presents an interesting case study. In 2003, amendments to the Public Limited Companies Act provided for a requirement for certain minimum numbers of directors from each

gender. Depending on the number of board members, a company may be required to have somewhere between 33% and 50% of the board from each gender. This has led to a dramatic increase in the number of women on boards of Norwegian companies (GMI, 2009).

Table 40: Women on the Board of European countries

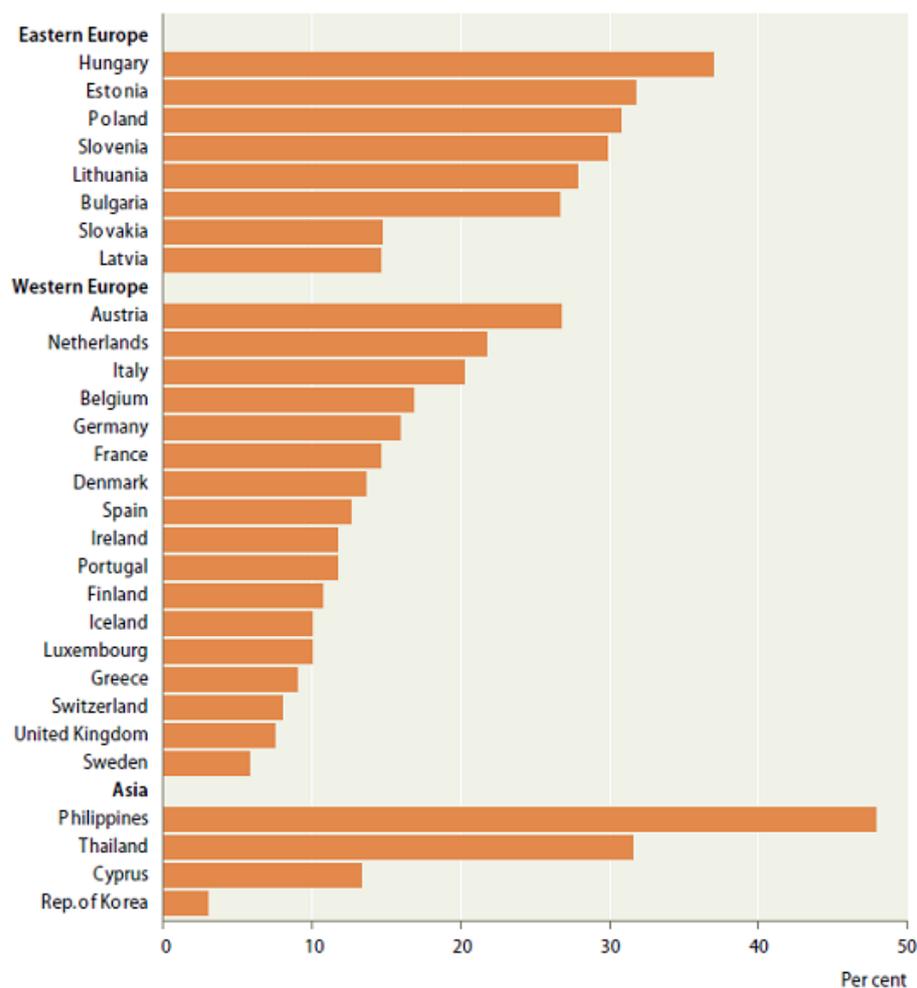
Country / Region	Number of Companies Rated by GMI	Average % of Women on Boards
Austria	18	6.7%
Belgium	25	6.5%
Denmark	26	12.1%
Finland	27	21.0%
France	104	8.2%
Germany	95	9.0%
Greece	27	9.5%
Iceland	1	14.3%
Ireland	19	7.1%
Italy	51	3.6%
The Netherlands	30	10.3%
Norway	23	35.9%
Portugal	12	0.4%
Spain	46	6.6%
Sweden	50	23.0%
Switzerland	53	8.4%
UK	398	7.8%
Industrialized Europe	1005	9.6%
Industrialized Asia-Pacific	717	3.6%
North America	1897	11.4%
Emerging Markets - Asia	337	4.7%
Emerging Markets -Europe	65	7.8%
Emerging Markets - Middle East & Africa	70	12.4%
Emerging Markets - Latin America	112	4.7%
Total Emerging Markets	584	6.0%
Total	4203	8.9%

Source: Governance Metrics International (GMI). *Women on Boards: a statistical review [...] (2009)*

* * * * *

Figure 24 presents the proportion of female directors and chief executives for 25 countries in Europe and 4 in Asia. The analysis is based on detailed occupation data by sex from 2000 and focuses on occupations variably listed as director, chief executive, president, managing director or other similar position at the head of an enterprise or organization. The available data show that the proportion of directors and chief executives who are women varies widely among countries even within the same region.

Figure 24: Proportion of women among directors and chief executives of enterprises or organizations, 2000



Source: Computed by the United Nations Statistics Division based on data from ILO, Labour Statistics database (LABORSTA), Employment by sex and detailed occupational groups (SEGREGAT), ISCO-88 code 121 (accessed in June 2009).

Source: United Nations Statistics Division. *The World's Women 2010*.

9-WOMEN IN THE KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY

9.1. Share of women in professional and technical positions

The presence of women in professional and technical positions is an interesting indicator to analyze their integration in the knowledge economy. With data from the *Human Development Report* (2009) we can see that in European countries there is a good integration of women. Table 41 shows the percentage of women in each country as professional and technical workers. In general women's share is around 50% but with the lowest percentage in Malta (41%) and highest in Lithuania (70%).

Table 41: Female professional and technical workers (percentage of women)

Country	(women as % of total)
Lithuania	70
Estonia	69
Latvia	66
Bulgaria	61
Hungary	60
Montenegro	60
Poland	60
Slovakia	58
Iceland	56
Romania	56
Slovenia	56
Finland	55
Serbia	55
Czech Republic	53
Ireland	53
Denmark	52
Croatia	51
Norway	51
Portugal	51
Sweden	51
Germany	50
Netherlands	50
Belgium	49
Greece	49
Spain	49
Austria	48
Cyprus	48
France	48
Italy	47
United Kingdom	47
Japan	46
Switzerland	46
Malta	41

Source: UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). *Human Development Report (2009)*.

9.2. Share of women in administrative and managerial positions

ILO LABORSTA provides data on the percentage of workers according to category of work. Table 42 shows, in general, that the share of women is lower than that of men in all categories and countries of directors and chief executives, production and operations managers and other specialist managers. The exceptions are women working as other specialist managers in Bulgaria (55%) and Luxembourg (57%). On the contrary Czech Republic there were no women at all recorded in the category directors and chief executives.

Table 42: Men and women in managerial positions in Europe (2000)

Country	Category	%M	%W
BELGIUM	Directors and chief executives	83.3	16.7
	Production and operations managers	71.6	28.5
	Other specialist managers	66.9	33.1
BULGARIA	Directors and chief executives	73.3	26.7
	Production and operations managers	64.7	35.3
	Other specialist managers	45.0	55.0
CYPRUS	Directors and chief executives	86.6	13.4
	Production and operations managers	78.5	21.6
	Other specialist managers	87.2	12.8
CZECH REPUBLIC	Directors and chief executives	100.0	0.0

Country	Category	%M	%W
	Production and operations managers	73.7	26.3
	Other specialist managers	68.2	31.8
DENMARK	Directors and chief executives	86.5	13.6
	Production and operations managers	71.6	28.4
	Other specialist managers	82.1	17.9
ESTONIA	Directors and chief executives	68.2	31.8
	Production and operations managers	66.9	33.1
	Other specialist managers	61.3	38.7
FINLAND	Directors and chief executives	89.3	10.8
	Production and operations managers	66.5	33.5
	Other specialist managers	69.3	30.7
FRANCE	Directors and chief executives	85.5	14.5
	Production and operations managers	73.9	26.1
	Other specialist managers	59.0	41.1
GERMANY	Directors and chief executives	84.0	16.0
	Production and operations managers	83.7	16.3
	Other specialist managers	72.1	27.9
GREECE	Directors and chief executives	91.0	9.0
	Production and operations managers	83.8	16.3
	Other specialist managers	74.8	25.2
ICELAND	Directors and chief executives	90.0	10.0
	Production and operations managers	65.1	34.9
	Other specialist managers	53.0	47.0
ITALY	Directors and chief executives	79.9	20.1
	Production and operations managers	87.7	12.3
LATVIA	Directors and chief executives	85.4	14.6
	Production and operations managers	61.1	38.9
LITHUANIA	Directors and chief executives	72.3	27.7
	Production and operations managers	62.1	37.9
	Other specialist managers	41.8	58.2
LUXEMBOURG	Directors and chief executives	90.0	10.0
	Production and operations managers	64.2	35.8
	Other specialist managers	43.4	56.6
NETHERLANDS	Directors and chief executives	78.4	21.6
	Production and operations managers	79.6	20.4
	Other specialist managers	76.1	23.9
	Other department manager		
POLAND	Directors and chief executives	69.2	30.8
	Production and operations managers	68.9	31.1
	Other specialist managers	65.7	34.3
PORTUGAL	Directors and chief executives	88.3	11.7
	Production and operations managers	70.6	29.4
	Other specialist managers	77.2	22.8
SLOVAKIA	Directors and chief executives	85.3	14.7
	Production and operations managers	67.8	32.2
	Other specialist managers	64.1	35.9
SPAIN	Directors and chief executives	87.5	12.5
	Production and operations managers	90.5	9.5
	Other specialist managers	79.7	20.3
SWEDEN	Directors and chief executives	94.3	5.7
	Production and operations managers	69.0	31.0
	Other specialist managers	76.2	23.8

Country	Category	%M	%W
SWITZERLAND	Directors and chief executives	92.0	8.0
	Production and operations managers	80.4	19.6
	Other specialist managers	78.8	21.2
UNITED KINGDOM	Directors and chief executives	92.5	7.5
	Production and operations managers	72.5	27.5
	Other specialist managers	60.0	40.0

Source: International Labour Organization, ILO LABORSTA.

9.3. Employment by economic activity

Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector

The highest participation rates of women working in the non-agricultural sector are found in Bulgaria, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway and Sweden, with women comprising more than half of workers in these fields (Table 43).

Table 34: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector

Country or Area	Year	Value	Value Footnotes
Albania	2000	28.9	1,2
Andorra	2009	47.3	3
Austria	2009	47.8	4
Belgium	2009	46.9	4
Bulgaria	2009	51.1	1
Croatia	2009	45.6	4
Cyprus	2009	48.3	4
Czech Republic	2009	46.3	4
Denmark	2009	49.5	4
Estonia	2009	54.4	4
Finland	2009	51.5	4
France	2009	49.4	4
Germany	2009	48.1	4
Greece	2009	43.2	4
Iceland	2009	51.1	4
Ireland	2009	51.6	4
Italy	2009	43.9	4
Latvia	2009	53.3	1
Lithuania	2005	53.0	2
Luxembourg	2009	42.9	1
Malta	2009	36.0	4
Montenegro	2009	46.3	1,4
Netherlands	2009	47.5	4
Norway	2009	50.1	4
Poland	2009	47.6	4
Portugal	2009	48.9	4
Romania	2009	46.3	4
Serbia	2009	43.7	4
Slovakia	2009	48.0	4
Slovenia	2009	48.1	4
Spain	2009	46.5	4
Sweden	2009	50.2	4
Switzerland	2009	47.8	4
United Kingdom	2009	46.8	4

Footnotes

1

Total paid employment

2	Labour-related establishment survey
3	Insurance Records
4	Labour Force Survey
5	Total employment
6	Population Census

Source: UN Statistics Division. *MDG Info 2010*.

9.4. Women with high-level computer skills

Data from EUROSTAT were used to analyze level of computer skills by gender.

The following table presents different aspects related to these topics in European countries. The following dimensions are analyzed:

- Individuals who have used a mouse to launch programs such as an Internet browser or word processor
- Individuals who have copied or moved a file or folder
- Individuals who have used copy or cut and paste tools to duplicate or move information on screen
- Individuals who have used basic arithmetic formulae to add, subtract, multiply or divide figures in a spreadsheet
- Individuals who have compressed files
- Individuals who have written a computer program using a specialized programming language
- Individuals who have connected and installed new devices, e.g. a printer or a modem
- Individuals who have connected computers to a local area network
- Individuals who have detected and solved computer problems (e.g. computer runs slowly)
- Individuals who have carried out 5 or 6 of the above computer-related activities.

In Table 44 the percentage of women between the ages of 16 and 74 years possessing high-level computer skills is presented. We can see that, in general, in all countries the percentage of women who have used a mouse (the most basic informatics tool) present the highest values, with the exception of Greece and Italy. The same result is detected for easy actions such as “copy or move” or “cut and paste”. About half of women can use basic office computer tools. On the contrary, on measures that describe high-level skills, such as writing a computer programme, the number of women is very low.

Table 35: Percentage of women (16-74 years) with high-level computer skills

Country	2005	2009	2009	2009	2009	2009	2009	2007
	Individuals who have used a mouse	Copied or moved	Copy or cut and paste tools to duplicate	Used basic arithmetic formulae	Compressed files	Written a computer program	installed new devices	connected computers
European Union (27 countries)	61	55	54	36	29	5	34	11
European Union (25 countries)	61	57	55	37	29	5	35	12
European Union (15 countries)	63	58	57	38	31	6	37	13
Euro area (EA11-2000, EA12-2006, EA13-2007, EA15-2008, EA16-2010, EA17)	59	57	56	38	32	5	37	13
Belgium	:	52	51	28	18	3	31	9
Bulgaria	:	35	31	23	21	1	7	2
Czech Republic	:	50	42	33	25	3	18	2
Denmark	89	72	69	51	25	7	51	15
Germany (including former GDR from 1991)	76	64	64	45	23	4	40	12
Estonia	60	53	53	41	43	7	29	22
Ireland	:	53	52	39	27	4	30	9
Greece	33	35	33	20	16	5	17	6
Spain	:	53	53	33	33	8	37	11
France	:	65	63	44	57	4	46	19
Italy	36	44	43	28	23	6	26	12
Cyprus	42	49	48	39	32	4	39	6
Latvia	55	47	47	38	27	3	18	3
Lithuania	47	53	51	40	36	6	31	4
Luxembourg	71	73	70	52	45	10	50	27
Hungary	43	58	56	44	29	7	36	7
Malta	47	46	45	27	25	4	23	8
Netherlands	82	76	74	45	39	7	48	18
Austria	65	63	59	38	32	5	32	6
Poland	53	44	38	26	15	3	20	4
Portugal	42	47	44	34	30	5	30	5
Romania	:	32	29	14	15	4	13	1
Slovenia	59	57	55	45	32	3	33	13
Slovakia	69	65	60	49	27	2	23	4
Finland	:	65	67	46	33	17	43	15

	2005	2009	2009	2009	2009	2009	2009	2007
Country	Individuals who have used a mouse	Copied or moved	Copy or cut and paste tools to duplicate	Used basic arithmetic formulae	Compressed files	Written a computer program	installed new devices	connected computers
Sweden	87	62	62	38	21	6	33	18
United Kingdom	70	64	62	41	28	7	41	14
Iceland	85	74	76	61	25	7	44	19
Norway	89	59	72	55	36	12	53	31
Croatia	:	40	36	29	23	12	25	4
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	:	38	37	15	14	7	12	:
Turkey	:	24	21	10	12	1	8	6
Serbia	:	38	37	23	19	1	11	2

Source: Self-elaboration based on EUROSTAT.

Table 45 presents data comparing the profiles of women and men who carried out 5 of 6 of the computer-related activities in European countries in 2006, 2007 and 2009. In Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey and Serbia both men and women presented a very low percentage of high-level computer skills. In the other countries the percentage of males with high-level computer skills is higher than that of females, and there were substantial differences by gender in Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, Slovakia, Iceland, Norway, Turkey and Serbia where women's scores were half or less of men's in 2009.

Table 36: Percentage of individuals (16-74 years) who have carried out 5 of 6 of the computer-related activities

Country	2006		2007		2009	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
Belgium	15	29	16	29	11	25
Bulgaria	5	8	5	8	6	9
Czech Republic	10	19	11	23	13	26
Denmark	25	52	25	47	19	42
Germany	16	37	17	39	16	39
Estonia	19	31	17	32	22	36
Ireland	16	22	15	22	19	26
Greece	13	19	12	19	9	16
Spain	17	29	22	33	22	33
France	15	28	18	36	24	37
Italy	11	23	12	26	16	30
Cyprus	16	22	15	22	27	31
Latvia	8	16	10	19	13	21
Lithuania	11	20	14	24	23	32
Luxembourg	21	51	24	54	28	55
Hungary	21	30	23	30	23	31
Malta	20	21	13	22	14	27
Netherlands	19	47	19	46	26	55
Austria	20	42	23	44	19	40
Poland	8	15	9	16	10	18
Portugal	16	25	18	27	22	32
Romania	4	6	4	6	8	11
Slovenia	20	36	25	31	23	33
Slovakia	9	25	11	26	13	29
Finland	19	38	19	38	25	42
Sweden	17	42	15	39	13	29
United Kingdom	19	35	16	36	21	37
Iceland	26	46	25	48	21	43
Norway	27	46	25	48	25	52
Croatia	:	:	7	14	18	30
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the	2	4	:	:	7	9
Turkey	:	:	4	11	5	13
Serbia	:	:	4	8	6	13

Source: EUROSTAT.

9.5. Share of women among information technology workers

To measure women's employment in the high tech sector we use data from LABORSTA on the number of workers in the information technology sector. For European countries, this category includes computing professionals in the majority of cases and computer systems designers, computer programmers in Norway and Spécialistes de l'informatique (computer specialists) in Switzerland. Data for 2000 are shown in Table 46. As we can see in all countries the F/M ratio is low. Only in Latvia and Bulgaria is the share of women higher than 40%.

Table 37: Share of women among information technology workers (2000)

Country	Total	Men	Women	Ratio F/M	% Female
AUSTRIA	1,100,288	1,055,828	44,460	0.04	4.0
BELGIUM	5,358,849	4,319,405	1,039,444	0.24	19.4
BULGARIA	638,771	376,301	262,470	0.7	41.1
CYPRUS	150,731	119,362	31,369	0.26	20.8
CZECH REPUBLIC	3,345,280	2,833,116	512,164	0.18	15.3
DENMARK	3,729,146	3,118,015	611,131	0.2	16.4
ESTONIA	224,986	168,092	56,894	0.34	25.3
FINLAND	3,740,396	2,953,573	786,823	0.27	21.0
FRANCE	24,205,500	19,721,500	4,484,000	0.23	18.5
GERMANY	29,552,928	25,580,336	3,972,592	0.16	13.4
GREECE	701,283	540,566	160,717	0.3	22.9
HUNGARY	1,364,204	1,087,403	276,801	0.25	20.3
ICELAND	209,338	172,563	36,775	0.21	17.6
IRELAND	2,084,542	1,487,075	597,467	0.4	28.7
ITALY	1,272,320	1,172,990	99,330	0.08	7.8
LATVIA	540,615	310,397	230,218	0.74	42.6
LITHUANIA	622,697	379,777	242,920	0.64	39.0
LUXEMBOURG	174,396	160,685	13,711	0.09	7.9
NETHERLANDS	12,563,733	11,329,996	1,233,737	0.11	9.8
NORWAY	33,000	NO DATA	NO DATA		
POLAND	6,094,591	4,572,082	1,522,509	0.33	25.0
PORTUGAL	498,793	320,503	178,290	0.56	35.7
ROMANIA	NO DATA	NO DATA	NO DATA		
SLOVAKIA	1,057,749	726,324	331,425	0.46	31.3
SLOVENIA	356,204	317,655	38,549	0.12	10.8
SPAIN	8,705,248	6,934,578	1,770,670	0.26	20.3
SWEDEN	9,290,885	6,975,913	2,314,972	0.33	24.9
SWITZERLAND	72,145	64,554	7,591	0.12	10.5
UNITED KINGDOM	48,596,600	40,761,700	7,834,900	0.19	16.1

Source: International Labour Organization, ILO LABORSTA.

10-WOMEN IN THE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION SYSTEM

Interest in women and science issues has increased in the European Union since the publication of the European Technology Assessment Network report (ETAN, 2000), which revealed that women were under-represented in European research. Several studies have also identified a number of factors affecting the career development of researchers that seem to exert much greater influence in the case of women. Several authors mention among major factors age (Bonacorsi and Daraio, 2003), marital status (Pripic, 2002), the existence of children (Mählck, 2001), specialization and type of activity performed (Abramo and others 2008). Also, in the academic activity there are a number of barriers that create the famous "glass ceiling" that prevents women from occupying senior or decision-making positions. This is reflected in the low presence of women in the highest ranks of academic careers on scientific committees and as senior managers of research centres and institutes, and presents evidence that the presence of women in scientific activity remains relegated to the more marginal roles (European Community, 2006).

As a consequence, the EU has promoted the development of new indicators disaggregated by gender that increase our knowledge of the situation of women in science in the EU, help to explain the scarce presence of female researchers at the highest levels of scientific research, and monitor progress towards gender equality (see for example the WIR, 2003, the ENWISE report 2003, and the *She Figures* report 2003 and 2006).

However, most of these studies refer to the input side of research. They collect personnel indicators that state the number of workers and their qualification levels and show only the presence of male and female researchers in different fields of science, their professional status or their allocation by sectors, areas and scientific fields, with scarce reference to the results of their scientific performance. Such studies are essential for comparative analysis, particularly for assessing the impact of performance policies. However, further research on different aspects of research performance, such as scientific output by gender, is needed.

10.1- Share of women studying science and engineering at tertiary level

Data related to women in science and technology system in Europe are analyzed using the report *She Figures 2009*. This source is a collection of available data related to the situation of women in science and research. Information on higher education by sex show that “although girls are generally more successful than boys at school – they less often repeat a year and obtain better results (European Commission 2008), when key study field choices need to be made girls often end up in literary and tertiary fields yielding uncertain professional prospects, whereas boys predominantly make their way towards scientific, technical and industrial fields from which it is generally easier to find a place in the labour market. This signals a gender pattern of study choice that needs to be addressed by considering both sexes equally. In 2006, on average in the EU-27, 45% of all PhD graduates were women.

However, in 11 countries, women accounted for more than half of all PhD graduates, reaching a maximum of 66% in Cyprus. Japan and Malta have particularly low proportions of women among PhD graduates, respectively 27% and 25% (Figure 22). Excepting Italy, France, Norway, Finland, Hungary, Bulgaria and Estonia, women’s under-representation among PhD graduates has been on the decline in recent years given that the compound annual growth rate of female PhD graduates exceeded that of men in the majority of countries between 2002 and 2006 (*She Figures*, 2009: 39).

The share of female PhD graduates varies considerably across the different fields of study. Figure 25 shows that in 2006 on average throughout the EU-27 women PhD holders accounted for 64% of all PhD graduates in education. A more or less balanced gender composition characterises the humanities (52% women) and the agricultural and veterinary sciences (51% women) and, to a lesser extent, the social sciences and business law (47% women) and health and welfare (54% women). On the contrary, the fields of science, mathematics and computing and especially engineering, manufacturing and construction are characterised by higher numbers of male PhD holders. In the former, women constitute 41% of PhD graduates and in the latter, 25%. The average figures for the EU-27 level out important cross-country variations.

Viewing the masculinisation of engineering, manufacturing and construction cross nationally, fewer than one in five PhD holders in this field is a woman in Germany (14%), Switzerland (19%) and Japan (11%). On the contrary, in Estonia, clearly an exceptional case, engineering appears to be a feminised field of study, with 59% of female PhD graduates. Nevertheless, the smallest relative degree of masculinisation of this field (>35% of female PhDs) were observed in Italy, Portugal, Latvia, Lithuania, Croatia, and Turkey (*She Figures*: 40).

Figure 25: Proportion of female PhD (ISCED 6) graduates by broad field of study, 2006

	Education	Humanities & arts	Social sciences, business & law	Science, mathematics & computing	Engineering, manufacturing & construction	Agriculture & veterinary	Health & welfare
EU-27	64	52	47	41	25	51	54
EU-25	64	52	47	41	25	52	54
EU-15	64	52	47	40	25	52	54
BE	50	32	38	40	26	35	49
BG	52	68	58	56	33	54	56
CZ	62	42	41	39	20	41	43
DK	-	50	46	34	25	61	63
DE	53	51	37	35	14	60	51
EE	100	77	39	47	59	100	68
IE	64	52	57	45	26	61	57
EL	47	52	33	31	25	27	86
ES	57	48	46	48	25	44	54
FR	59	54	48	37	27	65	46
IT	68	59	52	52	36	55	62
CY	100	67	29	75	-	-	-
LV	67	69	54	36	43	50	48
LT	-	50	68	63	40	75	69
HU	61	49	52	39	29	45	39
MT	0	-	-	100	0	-	0
NL	:	40	44	29	20	38	51
AT	64	45	49	38	21	55	60
PL	:	54	51	57	24	54	54
PT	76	67	60	55	39	55	69
RO	30	47	47	62	35	46	49
SI	75	66	54	60	22	57	47
SK	54	46	52	44	33	38	65
FI	75	55	55	39	24	51	65
SE	58	54	42	37	29	46	62
UK	59	48	51	38	22	48	55
HR	64	48	54	58	38	42	44
TR	41	35	38	38	36	38	55
IS	100	0	0	60	100	-	40
NO	65	42	42	31	23	52	52
CH	67	49	38	33	19	68	46
JP	45	51	35	22	11	26	29
US	65	46	57	38	21	41	73

Source: S&T statistics (Eurostat)

Exceptions to the reference year: IT: 2005; EL: 2005
 Data unavailable: IL, LU
 Data estimated: EU-27, EU-25 (by Eurostat), EU-15 (by DG Research)

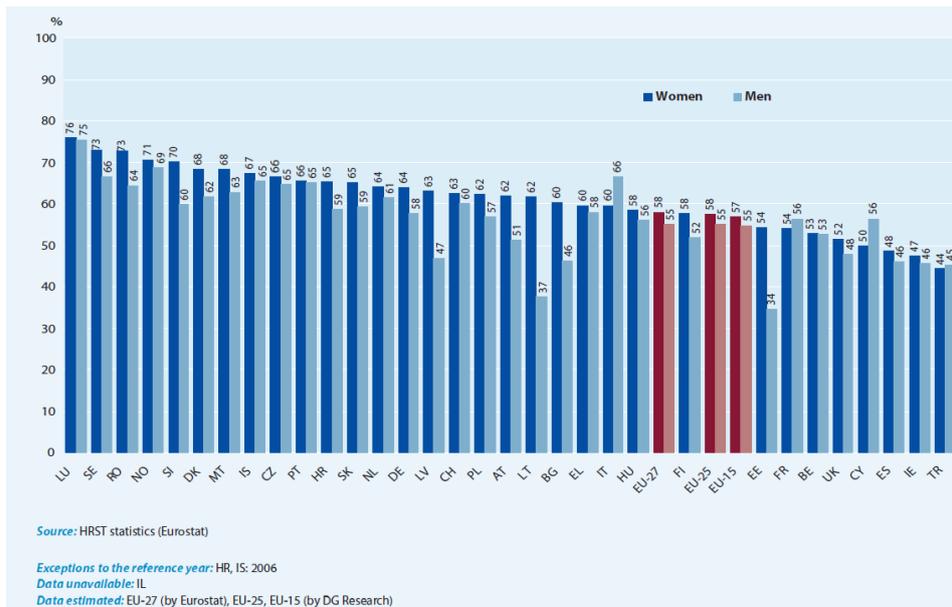
∴: not available; -: not applicable
 Most tertiary students study abroad and are not included: CY
 Most PhD (ISCED 6) graduates study abroad and are not included: IS
 Countries with small numbers of female PhD graduates: CY (19), IS (8), MT (1)

10.2- Share of women scientists and engineers

Data from *She Figures* show that the proportion of women is higher among highly educated professionals or technicians (52%) than in total employment (45%), illustrating that tertiary educated women are more successful in finding a job than their counterparts with a lower level of education. However, their proportion drops to 32% among employed scientists and engineers, which in turn exemplifies the problem of gender segregation in education. Between 2002 and 2007, women were catching up with men as women's compound annual growth rate has exceeded that of men both in total employment and two scientific/technical subgroups. The difference is largest among scientists and engineers, where the share of women has grown by an average of 6.2% per year between 2002 and 2007 compared with a male growth rate of just 3.7% and 5.4% for women as opposed to 3.9% for men working as professionals or technicians. Employment in these subcategories thus seems to be expanding much more rapidly over recent years for both men and women than total employment. The growth in total employment was limited to 1.8% on average per year for women and to 1.1% for men over the period considered (She Figures, 2009: 20).

There is not a high degree of discrepancy between men and women in the professional/technical workforce (Figure 23). For the year 2007 throughout the EU-27, on average 58% of highly educated women were working as professionals or technicians as compared with 55% of men. In the Baltic States, the difference between the shares of highly educated men and women in professional or technical jobs was much larger than elsewhere, with the gap in favour of women reaching as high as 25% in Lithuania. The opposite was noted in just four countries: in Italy, France, Cyprus and Turkey, more highly educated men than women were employed as professionals or technicians. In Belgium, there seems to be no gender dimension to the probability of the highly educated to work as professionals or technicians.

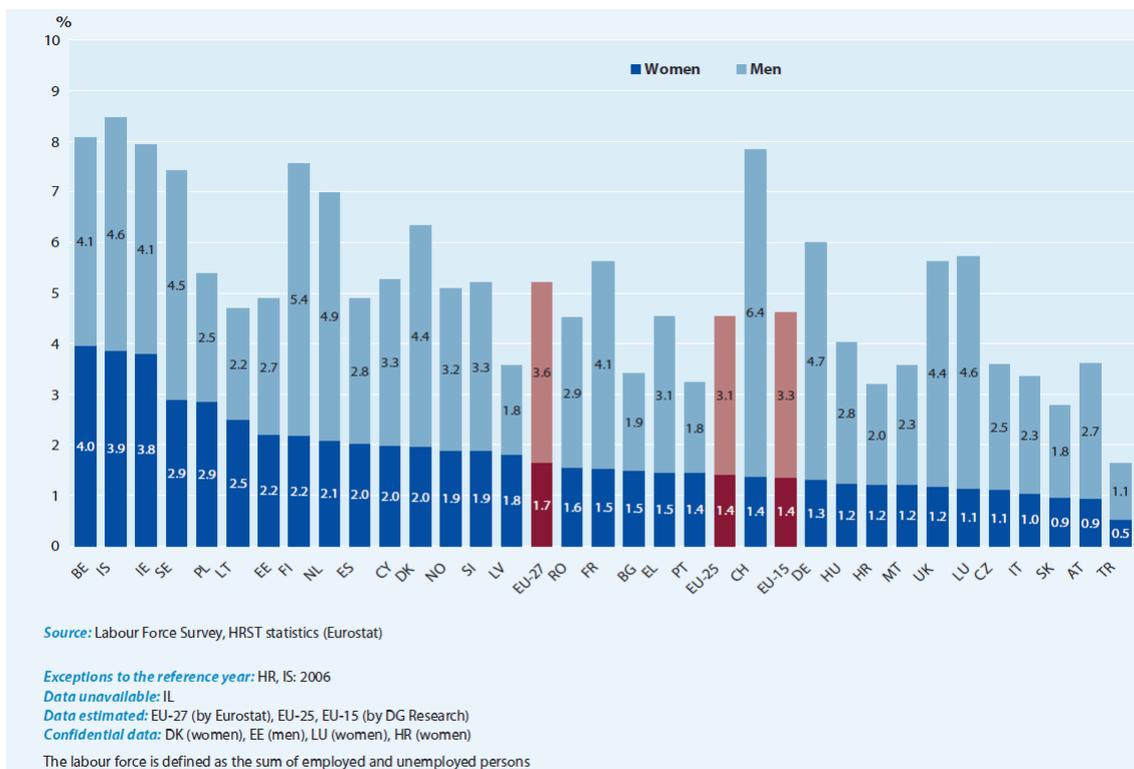
Figure 26: Employed professionals and technicians (HRSTC) as a percentage of tertiary educated (HRSTE) by sex, 2007



Source: She Figures (2009).

Gender differences stand out more in the field of science and engineering in most EU countries. Figure 24 shows that in 2007, there were only three countries where the proportion of female scientists and engineers was at 50% or more: Latvia (50%), Lithuania (53%), and Poland (54%). On average 32% of scientists and engineers were women in the EU-27.

Figure 27: Proportion of scientists and engineers in the total labour force by sex, 2007



Source: She Figures (2009).

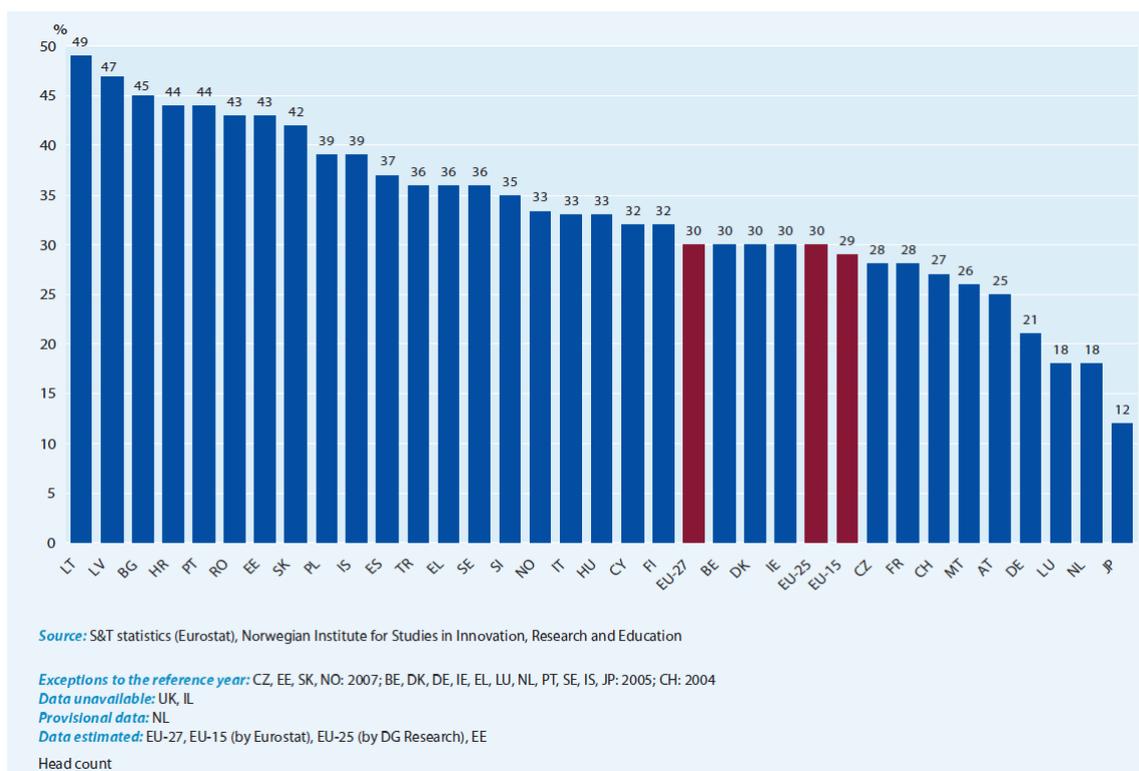
10.3- Share of women researchers

Although an increasing proportion of women prepare for careers in science, their presence in the academic field is not equal to that of men.

This is evidenced by the fact that women scientists in Europe occupy very few decision-making positions, their jobs often are minimized, they get less funding and fewer research grants and are worse paid than their male colleagues, despite the fact that their numbers are equal to that of men in early career stages. Even in countries where discrimination is less, women comprise only between 13% and 18% of the full professors in universities. There are countries where that percentage is 1% and 0%. As Angela Abos points out, white males ages 50 years and older predominate in decision-making positions in organizations that define science policy; they make grants, and award funds that perpetuate their predominance for the future (Abos, 2006). Another relevant fact is the frequent abandonment of the research race by women. While the proportion of male and female students is similar, and even higher for women in some disciplines, men hold the vast number of positions of full-time professor.

On average 32% of scientists and engineers in the EU-27 are women. However, in many countries, the share of women among scientists and engineers is at a much lower level. Switzerland is at the very bottom of the country rankings with just 18% of women in this category. The gender distribution is very similar in the population of researchers (Figure 25). The average proportion of female researchers in the EU-27 stood at 30% in 2006 but wide variations were noted between countries: Luxembourg and the Netherlands each had only 18% of female researchers. At the top of the country ranking according to the proportion of women in research are the Baltic States but also Bulgaria, Croatia, Portugal, Romania, and Slovakia, all of which have more than 40% of women in their research population.

Figure 28: Proportion of female researchers, 2006



Source: She Figures (2009).

Baker (2011) analyzes the potential problems facing women who seek university professorships. The author discusses the difficulty of keeping women within the field of academia. While it was

assumed that more women acquiring graduate degrees would lead to an increase in female professors, Baker shows that systemic barriers which historically kept women out of the science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields still dissuade them. A 2010 study conducted by Mary Ann Mason and her colleagues at the University of California at Berkeley showed that "research-intensive universities were considered the least family friendly of a range of possible career choices" by science scholars nationally. Another study (2009) by University of California, Berkeley and the Center for American Progress researchers showed that married women with children were 35% less likely to hold a tenure-track position in a STEM field than married men with children, a disparity that did not exist for single women. A 2008 study of STEM faculty in Research in Higher Education showed that married men and women had parity in tenure and promotion decisions, unless the women had children.

But, as the authors say, the solution is not just a matter of adding maternity benefits for graduate students or on-site day-care centres, as important as these measures are. Many women reject academic science because of the elusive question of "fit." According to surveys conducted of tenure-track faculty at 130 schools, the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education at Harvard University found that women STEM professors were less satisfied than their male counterparts with how well they fit in, with opportunities to work with senior faculty, and with institutional support for family life (Baker 2011).

10.4- Comparatives rates and trends of publications, M/F

Studies on women's participation in scientific knowledge production are currently a research area in progress within the field of bibliometrics. Bibliometric indicators provide an interesting overview of the structure and dynamics of men and women's research. However, the results are not always conclusive in view of the lack of effective and standardised methodology and difficulties encountered in gender identification of researchers, when most publications and databases only include authors' initials.

Since gender recognition through signature is often difficult, one alternative is to contact the author directly to conduct surveys or interviews (Kyvik and Teigen, 1996; Prpic, 2002), but this solution is laborious and the results depend on the rate of acceptance and reply. Another option is to use researchers' CVs as a source of gender identification.

Scientific productivity

Systematic and official information on productivity and performance by sex in the science and technology system is lacking. On the contrary, a number of case studies have been published in academic journals. Studies on gender influence on scientific productivity published so far have yielded varied results. Some research studies have suggested that women are less productive than men (Prpic, 1996; Marcuzzo, 1999; Kaplan et al, 1996), coining the expression gender "productivity gap". The reasons for this gap are unknown, thus constituting a "productivity puzzle" (Cole and Zuckerman, 1984). Various factors have been analysed in an attempt to explain this situation, including family responsibilities (husband and children), which limit women's productivity, particularly if their children are very young (Kyvik and Teigen, 1996; Xie and Shauman, 1998). However, other studies have not been able to verify this association, and in some cases women with children are known to achieve higher productivity (Fox, 2005), which could be due to improved time management.

Some studies suggest that there are more women among unpublished researchers, which could be one of the reasons behind lower productivity (Long, 1992) but Mauleón and Bourdons (2006) reject this hypothesis in a study on the Spanish National Research Centre. Other studies show that scientific performance is influenced by effects of individual factors as age (Fox, 1983; Bonaccorsi and Daraio, 2003), seniority (Allison and Long, 1990; Levin and Stephan, 1991; Hall, Mairesse and Turner, 2007) and the presence of children (Prpic, 2002).

Visibility and impact of research

The impact factor of journals that researchers publish in and the number of citations that their articles receive are interesting indicators to assess the scientific visibility and influence of their research (Oppenheim, 1997). These indicators are used by a number of studies on scientific characterisation by gender (Pravdic, 1991; Long, 1992; Nilsson, 1997), some of which have revealed that documents published by women are more frequently cited than those by men (Schiebinger, 1999; Sonnert and Holton, 1996; Zuckerman, 1987; Nilsson, 1997; Feller, 2004), suggesting that the lower productivity sometimes ascribed to women is associated with higher quality (Long, 1992).

In Palomba's analysis (2001) on scientific production of researchers at the Italian Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche (National Research Council), no significant differences by gender were observed in the impact of journals in which researchers published, showing that women's publications have as much influence as men's. Results obtained by Lewison for publications over a 20-year period in Iceland come to the same conclusion (Lewison, 2001).

Working style

A review of the literature indicates that inter-gender differences in working styles may account for the lower productivity of women. The lower collaboration described for women in some publications (Kyvik and Teigen, 1996) or their lower social prestige may limit their access to economic and material resources (Xie and Shauman, 1999). The possible influence of personal factors has also frequently been cited, with women described as being less ambitious and more insecure as a result of educational and cultural factors. These elements have been associated with what could be defined as working style or scientific tasks.

In relation to habits of collaboration, previous investigations (McDowell and Smith, 1992; McDowell et al., 2001) have found different patterns for men and women in the field of economics. Publications by female researchers presented a lower number of authors per document. This may be due to the fact that men preferred to collaborate with male researchers, thus excluding women from these groups.

Patenting activity

The under-representation of women in activities related to technological innovation has been pointed out in different studies. This results in even lower visibility of female scientists in the industrial sector than in the public one. According to the report "Women in Industrial Research: A Wake-up Call for European Industry", women constitute only 15% of researchers in the industrial sector in the European Union, and their representation as inventors in patent applications is below this rate. The absence of women in technological research hinders the ability of European countries to grow and innovate. For this reason the European Union is interested in identifying the disciplines with a deficit of female activity with the aim of creating the conditions needed by women to develop their careers in a sustainable manner. In recent years, a number of studies on technological activity have included gender among the variables to be analysed (Morgan et al, 2001; Burkhardt and Greif, 2001; Mauleón and Bordons, 2010). However, the participation of women in technology is still a little explored field.

Given the dearth of research on the participation of women in technology, the European Commission has endorsed a number of feasibility studies on the inclusion of gender variables in obtaining indicators of technological transfer to the productive sector based on patents. The most prominent is the work of Naldi (Naldi et al., 2004), which, focusing on differences by gender in technological activity, examines patents in a sampling of European countries (Germany, Spain, France, Italy, United Kingdom and Sweden). According to the study, 97% of patents had at least one male inventor, compared to the 12% that had at least one woman inventor. Spain had the highest percentage of women inventors, followed by France and Italy, while Germany had the lowest rate of women inventors (5% vs. 16% in Spain). However,

Germany was responsible for 48% of patents published by the European Patent Office, while Spain was responsible for only 1.6% of the patents analysed (Naldi et al, 2004).

Previous studies have shown that the effects of gender vary according to the institutional sector (industrial firms, universities, public research institutions, etc.) and thematic areas (Smith-Doerr, 2005). These aspects need to be taken into account in studies on technology and gender.

The inclusion of different personal and social variables in bibliometric studies would be highly desirable as a way to increase our knowledge about the situation of women in research and detect possible barriers to their progression in their scientific careers.

10.5- Gender trends in brain drain in highly skilled fields

Female-Male Ratio among tertiary educated immigrants by gender

With data from OECD based on census data for 22 countries we can analyze the brain drain in Europe by gender. Countries that do not take periodic censuses but keep population registers have provided data extracted from these registers; this is the case for Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.

Table 47 shows the situation of brain drain from one European country to another as well as to countries in other areas. When data refers to EU countries it reflects intra-EU mobility. As we can know the situation into the group of tertiary educated immigrant, only data on ISCED 5 and 6 classification were selected. In Table 47 we present data for people with Europe as place of birth and other country of residence. Due to confidentiality issues or imprecise information, the place of birth is sometimes recorded at the continental level instead of the country level. As we can see the ratio F/M is variable. Considering countries outside the European region there is a lower ratio of women living in Japan and México.

Table 38: Immigrants (level ISCED 5 and 6) by sex

Country of birth Country of residence	Male	Female	Ratio F/M
Australia	189,445	185,686	0.98
Austria	431,285	279,302	0.65
Belgium	832,957	889,514	1.07
Canada	375,640	373,960	1.00
Czech Republic	485,100	369,414	0.76
Denmark	372,486	417,891	1.12
Finland	442,735	541,610	1.22
France	3,568,074	3,926,760	1.10
Germany	6,636,831	3,965,446	0.60
Greece	663,711	560,752	0.84
Hungary	460,316	468,765	1.02
Ireland	315,105	359,985	1.14
Italy	1,912,275	2,014,795	1.05
Japan	10,809	6,134	0.57
Luxembourg	25,793	20,170	0.78
Mexico	12,586	8,114	0.64
Netherlands	1,244,823	965,816	0.78

New Zealand	43,347	37,014	0.85
Norway	379,026	416,179	1.10
Poland	1,440,714	1,750,122	1.21
Portugal	281,618	379,631	1.35
Slovak Republic	224,247	194,388	0.87
Spain	3,019,320	3,055,880	1.01
Sweden	590,365	786,260	1.33
Switzerland	639,450	289,346	0.45
Turkey	1,972,477	1,147,510	0.58
United Kingdom	3,813,123	3,831,410	1.00
United States	954,224	922,567	0.97
OECD - Total	31,337,882	28,164,421	0.90

Source: OECD *Stat Extracts*.

Likelihood of talented people to remain in country

The Global Competitiveness Report 2011-2012 from the World Economic Forum presents information on the brain drain, analyzing a country's ability to retain and attract talented persons. Switzerland ranked highest on this measure of any country in Europe, followed by the United Kingdom, Sweden, Netherlands, Norway and Finland. On the contrary, Serbia, Romania and Croatia are at the end of the list (Table 48).

Table 39: Capacity of each country to retain and attract talent people

RANK	COUNTRY/ECONOMY	VALUE	1	MEAN: 3.5	7
1	Switzerland	6.3			
2	Singapore	5.8			
3	United States	5.7			
4	United Kingdom	5.6			
5	Qatar	5.6			
6	Sweden	5.4			
7	Canada	5.4			
8	Hong Kong SAR	5.3			
9	Saudi Arabia	5.2			
10	United Arab Emirates	5.2			
11	Netherlands	5.1			
12	Norway	5.1			
13	Finland	5.1			
14	Chile	5.0			
15	Bahrain	5.0			
16	Luxembourg	5.0			
17	Belgium	4.9			
18	Korea, Rep.	4.8			
19	Malaysia	4.8			
20	Costa Rica	4.8			
21	Oman	4.8			
22	Taiwan, China	4.7			
23	Iceland	4.7			
24	Japan	4.6			
25	Rwanda	4.6			
26	Barbados	4.5			
27	Austria	4.5			
28	Australia	4.5			
29	Denmark	4.5			
30	Brazil	4.4			
31	Germany	4.4			
32	India	4.4			
33	China	4.3			
34	Ireland	4.3			
35	Israel	4.3			
36	Kuwait	4.2			
37	Indonesia	4.2			
38	Panama	4.2			
39	Peru	4.1			
40	Malta	4.1			
41	Thailand	4.1			
42	Brunei Darussalam	4.0			
43	France	4.0			
44	Gambia, The	4.0			
45	Cambodia	3.8			
46	Montenegro	3.8			
47	Cyprus	3.8			
48	South Africa	3.8			
49	Sri Lanka	3.8			
50	Botswana	3.8			
51	Tunisia	3.7			
52	Kenya	3.7			
53	Guatemala	3.6			
54	Spain	3.5			
55	Nigeria	3.5			
56	Estonia	3.5			
57	Ghana	3.5			
58	Slovenia	3.4			
59	Trinidad and Tobago	3.4			
60	Suriname	3.4			
61	Mexico	3.4			
62	Morocco	3.4			
63	Bonin	3.4			
64	Pakistan	3.4			
65	Argentina	3.4			
66	Namibia	3.4			
67	Angola	3.4			
68	Dominican Republic	3.4			
69	Colombia	3.3			
70	Mozambique	3.3			
71	Malawi	3.3			
72	Senegal	3.3			
73	Jordan	3.3			
74	Puerto Rico	3.3			
75	Tanzania	3.2			
76	Cape Verde	3.2			
77	Mauritius	3.2			
78	Azerbaijan	3.2			
79	Czech Republic	3.2			
80	Portugal	3.2			
81	Vietnam	3.2			
82	New Zealand	3.2			
83	Albania	3.1			
84	Uruguay	3.1			
85	Tajikistan	3.1			
86	Zambia	3.1			
87	Côte d'Ivoire	3.1			
88	Kazakhstan	3.1			
89	Latvia	3.1			
90	Honduras	3.1			
91	Philippines	3.1			
92	Ecuador	3.0			
93	Timor-Leste	3.0			
94	Uganda	3.0			
95	Jamaica	3.0			
96	Poland	3.0			
97	Turkey	2.9			
98	Russian Federation	2.9			
99	Zimbabwe	2.9			
100	Chad	2.9			
101	Bangladesh	2.9			
102	Georgia	2.9			
103	Armenia	2.9			
104	Madagascar	2.8			
105	Italy	2.8			
106	Bolivia	2.7			
107	Iran, Islamic Rep.	2.7			
108	Paraguay	2.7			
109	Ethiopia	2.6			
110	Syria	2.6			
111	Slovak Republic	2.6			
112	Nicaragua	2.6			
113	Mali	2.6			
114	Cameroon	2.6			
115	El Salvador	2.6			
116	Burkina Faso	2.6			
117	Lithuania	2.5			
118	Mongolia	2.5			
119	Greece	2.5			
120	Guyana	2.5			
121	Hungary	2.5			
122	Egypt	2.5			
123	Lebanon	2.4			
124	Belize	2.4			
125	Ukraine	2.4			
126	Bosnia and Herzegovina	2.2			
127	Bulgaria	2.2			
128	Croatia	2.2			
129	Mauritania	2.2			
130	Nepal	2.2			
131	Romania	2.2			
132	Swaziland	2.1			
133	Macedonia, FYR	2.1			
134	Moldova	2.0			
135	Venezuela	2.0			
136	Lesotho	2.0			
137	Kyrgyz Republic	2.0			
138	Yemen	2.0			
139	Serbia	1.8			
140	Burundi	1.8			
141	Algeria	1.7			
142	Haiti	1.7			

Source: World Economic Forum, *The Global Competitiveness Report 2011-2012*.

10.6. Women's early stage entrepreneurial activity

Ratio of women's early stage entrepreneurial activity to that of men

Data from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor dataset show the percentage of the population between the ages of 18 and 64 years who are nascent entrepreneurs or owner/managers of new businesses. A comparison of percentages for European countries by sex in 2001, 2005 and 2010 are presented in Table 49. The female/male ratio is calculated and presented in the last column for each year. Ireland was the leader in this area with a F/M ratio of 1.4:1, followed by Montenegro, which showed gender parity on this measure.

Table 40: Percentage of population 18-64 who are nascent entrepreneurs or owner/managers of new businesses

Country	2001			2005			2010		
	M	F	Ratio F/M	M	F	Ratio F/M	M	F	Ratio F/M
Austria	-	-		6.9	3.7	0.5	-	-	
Belgium	4.2	2.1	0.5	5.4	2.4	0.4	4	3.3	0.8
Bosnia & Herzegovina	-	-		-	-		11.2	4.2	0.4
Croatia	-	-		9.8	2.6	0.3	7.2	3.9	0.5
Czech Republic	-	-		-	-		-	-	
Denmark	7	3.1	0.4	6.4	3	0.5	5.2	2.3	0.4
Finland	5.6	3.4	0.6	5.4	4.4	0.8	7.5	3.9	0.5
France	3.2	2.1	0.7	7.4	3.3	0.4	7	4.8	0.7
Germany	7.9	3.7	0.5	6.3	3.8	0.6	5.4	2.9	0.5
Greece	-	-		9.7	3.4	0.4	6.9	4	0.6
Hungary	-	6.6		14.7	2.3	0.2	13.9	4.3	0.3
Iceland	16.1	-		14.2	6.4	0.5	9.5	7.2	0.8
Ireland	6.6	6.8	1.0	6.2	5.5	0.9	2.7	3.9	1.4
Italy	-	5.4		8.5	3.7	0.4	13.1	2	0.2
Latvia	-	-		-	5		11.9	6.5	0.5
Macedonia	-	-		-	-		19.6	3.9	0.2
Montenegro	6.6	-		6.6	-		10.1	10.5	1.0
Netherlands	19.5	2.8	0.1	21.7	2.1	0.1	-	4.4	
Norway	9.7	3.8	0.4	-	4.5		-	3.8	
Poland	7.8	6.4	0.8	-	-		6	-	
Portugal	-	2.8		-	-		5.1	3.1	0.6
Romania	-	-		-	-		4.4	3.2	0.7
Serbia	-	-		5.8	-		6.3	-	
Slovenia	7.3	-		7.2	2.9	0.4	5.4	2.9	0.5
Spain	5.2	3.3	0.6	5.1	4.2	0.8	6.2	3.2	0.5
Sweden	-	2.4		7.2	3	0.4	5.6	3.5	0.6
Switzerland	-	-		-	4.9		13.4	4.5	0.3
Turkey	7.6	-		8.6	-		8.4	3.7	0.4
United Kingdom		3.2			3.7			4.4	

Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor dataset.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report on Women Entrepreneurship shows the rate of entrepreneurial activity across European countries by gender for 2006. In Table 50 we can see that in all cases the percentage of women is lower than that of men. For both sexes higher values were detected in overall business owners (nascent and established entrepreneurs). Greece had the highest percentage of women on this measure, (11.9% of the adult female population) but men in Greece had a rate nearly double that of women.

Table 41: Rate of entrepreneurial activity across countries by gender (2006)

Country	Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (Nascent + New)		Established Business Owners		Overall Business Owners (Nascent+ New+ Established)	
	Percentage of adult population		Percentage of adult population		Percentage of adult population	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Czech Republic	10.75	4.93	7.66	3.14	18.41	8.07
Finland	5.92	4.04	11.58	4.81	17.50	8.85
France	6.26	2.53	1.31	1.35	7.57	3.88
Germany	5.79	2.58	3.92	2.10	9.71	4.68
Greece	11.12	4.69	9.32	7.16	20.44	11.85
Hungary	8.09	4.05	9.03	4.48	17.12	8.53
Ireland	10.51	4.20	12.23	3.41	22.74	7.61
Italy	3.87	3.06	4.32	1.72	8.19	4.78
Latvia	9.41	3.92	8.12	3.41	17.53	7.33
Spain	8.83	5.70	7.59	3.30	16.42	9.00
Sweden	4.44	2.43	5.96	4.00	10.40	6.43
United Kingdom	7.88	3.61	7.91	2.85	15.79	6.46

Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor *Report on Women Entrepreneurship* (2006).

10.7. Women and lifelong learning

In 2009 the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training set a number of benchmarks to be achieved by 2020, including one for lifelong learning: that at least 15% of adults aged 25 to 64 years old should participate in lifelong learning.

In 2009, the proportion of persons aged 25 to 64 in the EU receiving some form of education or training in the four weeks preceding the labour force survey was 9.3%, a share that was unchanged compared with the figures for 2004. As we can observe in Table 51, the proportion of the population who had participated in such lifelong learning activities was higher among women (10.2% in 2009) than among men (8.5%), and furthermore the share for women had increased compared with the situation in 2004. Denmark, Sweden, Finland and the United Kingdom stood out as having high proportions of their populations (between one fifth and one third) participating in lifelong learning. In contrast, Bulgaria and Romania reported lifelong learning participation rates of less than 2%.

Table 42: Percentage of the population aged 25 to 64 participating in education and training

	Total		Male		Female	
	2004	2009	2004	2009	2004	2009
EU-27	9.3	9.3	8.7	8.5	10.0	10.2
Euro area (EA-16)	7.3	8.1	7.2	7.7	7.5	8.5
Belgium	8.6	6.8	8.7	6.4	8.5	7.2
Bulgaria	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5
Czech Republic	5.8	6.8	5.5	6.5	6.0	7.0
Denmark	25.6	31.6	22.1	25.6	29.1	37.6
Germany	7.4	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.0	7.7
Estonia	6.4	10.5	5.1	7.6	7.5	13.2
Ireland	6.1	6.3	5.1	5.7	7.1	7.0
Greece	1.8	3.3	1.8	3.2	1.8	3.3
Spain (2)	4.7	10.4	4.2	9.6	5.1	11.3
France	7.1	6.0	7.0	5.6	7.1	6.4
Italy	6.3	6.0	5.9	5.6	6.7	6.4
Cyprus (2)	9.3	7.8	9.0	7.8	9.6	7.8
Latvia	8.4	5.3	5.7	3.6	10.8	6.9
Lithuania	5.9	4.5	4.2	3.6	7.4	5.4
Luxembourg (2)	9.8	13.4	9.5	13.4	10.1	13.5
Hungary	4.0	2.7	3.4	2.5	4.6	3.0
Malta	4.3	5.8	4.8	5.6	3.8	6.0
Netherlands	16.4	17.0	16.1	16.5	16.8	17.5
Austria	11.6	13.8	10.9	12.8	12.2	14.7
Poland	5.0	4.7	4.3	4.3	5.7	5.1
Portugal	4.3	6.5	4.1	6.2	4.4	6.8
Romania	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6
Slovenia	16.2	14.6	14.8	12.9	17.6	16.4
Slovakia	4.3	2.8	3.8	2.2	4.8	3.3
Finland	22.8	22.1	19.2	18.5	26.4	25.9
Sweden (2)	.	22.2	.	16.1	.	28.5
United Kingdom (2)	29.0	20.1	24.9	16.8	33.1	23.3
Iceland	24.2	25.1	19.6	20.4	28.9	30.0
Norway	17.4	18.1	16.3	16.8	18.6	19.5
Switzerland	28.6	24.0	29.7	22.8	27.4	25.2
Croatia (3)	1.9	2.3	1.8	2.4	2.0	2.1
FYR of Macedonia	.	3.3	.	3.2	.	3.4
Turkey	1.1	2.3	1.5	2.4	0.8	2.1

(1) Refer to the Internet metadata file (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/lfsi_edu_a_esms.htm).

(2) Break in series, 2007.

(3) 2009 male and female rates, unreliable or uncertain data.

Source: Eurostat (tsiem080)

Source: EUROSTAT.

<http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsiem080>

An interesting paper written by Goutro (2005) complements this data. The author refers to the work of Gorand et al. (1999) acknowledging that frequently there are gender differences in lifelong learning 'trajectories'. Edwards (1993) and Hayes and Flannery (2000) note that women's lives are diverse and varied, but they often share common challenges and experiences in continuing their education. Blundell (1992) and Stalker (2001) point out that while the majority of students in adult education programmes are women, numerous gendered disadvantages exist for women learners. Women's participation in education programmes is often co-ordinated around domestic and childrearing responsibilities. Shipley (1997) found that mothers of more than one preschooler were less likely to attend adult education programmes, while men at the same stage in life were more likely to participate. Caplan (1994), Stalker and Prentice (1998) and Leonard (2001) point out that while there are more women than men at the lower educational levels in universities, their numbers decrease at higher graduate levels. Forrester et al. (1995) found that women and minorities were less likely to be a part of the 'core' workforce that receive financial support from employers for ongoing education.

Women as users of (village) knowledge centres

Data from EUROSTAT contain information about the population studying in libraries or learning centres. As we can see in Table 52, in European countries there were around 30,000 people regularly using libraries or learning centres. In 25 of these, EU countries the number of women exceeded that of men, with Hungary as the only country in which more male than female users were found. The countries with the highest F/M ratio of users were the Baltic states of Estonia and Latvia, with more than twice the number of women users of most other countries.

Table 43: Participants utilizing libraries or learning centres (2010)

Country	Total	Total-Females	Total-Males	Ratio F/M
European Union (26 countries)	29,939	16,422	13,517	1.21
Belgium	792	408	384	1.06
Bulgaria	172	108	63	1.71
Czech Republic	470	267	203	1.32
Denmark	915	516	399	1.29
Germany (including former GDR from 1991)	10,203	5239	4964	1.06
Estonia	59	42	17	2.47
Ireland	409	250	160	1.56
Greece	250	127	124	1.02
Spain	2294	1214	1081	1.12
France	3484	2026	1458	1.39
Italy	2909	1591	1319	1.21
Cyprus	21	11	10	1.10
Latvia	107	80	26	3.08
Lithuania	233	155	78	1.99
Luxembourg	33	18	14	1.29
Hungary	7	3	4	0.75
Malta	30	15	15	1.00
Netherlands	1060	578	483	1.20
Austria	616	369	247	1.49
Poland	2106	1297	809	1.60
Portugal	1016	553	463	1.19
Romania	253	141	112	1.26
Slovenia	163	102	61	1.67
Slovakia	436	244	192	1.27
Finland	1521	849	672	1.26
Sweden	804	468	336	1.39

Source: EUROSTAT.

No data was found regarding the proportion of women as managers of knowledge centres.

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