

The **life** of women and **men** in **Europe**

A statistical portrait

Data 1980-2000



EUROPEAN
COMMISSION



THEME 3
Population
and social
conditions

3

A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet.
It can be accessed through the Europa server (<http://europa.eu.int>).

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Foreword



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The full realisation of democracy requires the participation of all citizens on equal terms with a balanced representation of women and men in the economy, in decision-making, and in social, cultural and civil life. During the last few years considerable progress towards gender equality has been achieved in the European Union, but we are still a long way from reaching the goal – full equality between women and men in day-to-day life.

Clear facts on the situation of women and men in our societies facilitate strategic efforts to eradicate the remaining inequalities between women and men.

This statistical portrait of women and men in Europe provides an overview of the situation at three stages of life: youth, adulthood and beyond retirement and marks developments over time.

The first section paints a picture of young people including demographic trends, in what kind of household boys and girls live and their participation in education.

The second section gives a broad picture of women and men at their prime age. It shows, in figures, remaining inequalities in caring activities, employment and pay, the participation of women and men in decision-making in politics and the economic sector, as well as the state of health for women and men.

The last part presents figures on women and men in retirement. The European population is ageing, and the different situation of women and men at this stage of life is striking. The figures show differences in life expectancy, employment, income, the health status and the social relations of older women and men.

This report brings together a complete presentation of gender statistics by presenting men and women in a comparative way thus showing the relative position of each sex in terms of income, influence and their respective roles in society. While nearly all of the data come from published sources, mainly from Eurostat, they are presented and analysed here in a way, which brings out the contrasting positions of women and men in different aspects of their working and social lives and the often significant differences which exist across the European Union.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to be 'A. Diamantopoulou'.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to be 'Pedro Solbes Mira'.

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The life of women and men in Europe: A statistical portrait

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UN (United Nations)
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Enquiries regarding the purchase of data should be addressed to one of the Eurostat Data Shops listed at the end of this publication.

A great deal of additional information on statistics relating to the European Union is available on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server at:
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat>.

More information concerning equality between women and men is available on the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs web-site at:
http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social.

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Introduction

This report is a statistical portrait of the similarities and differences between women and men in Europe at various stages of their lives, in their formative years when they are growing up and going to school, in the years when they are working and bringing up families and in their later years when they have retired. These three stages form the three main parts of the report, which are divided by theme rather than strictly by age. The first part, therefore, covers young people into their 20s as they pursue their education in college or university and as they move from the parental home to set up a home of their own, as well as when they are younger, while the second part covers all those of working age, including those in their late teens and early 20s.

The report is in no way intended to be comprehensive, in the sense of attempting to cover all aspects of people's lives. Instead, aspects are selected which are both important and, equally relevantly, for which reasonably reliable and up-to-date data exist. There are, therefore, aspects which are not covered because of a lack of statistics, and more specifically because of a lack of statistics by sex across the EU rather than because they are not regarded as being important. This applies, for example, to involvement in various cultural activities, travel abroad and knowledge of languages, where the data are both limited and not broken down by sex, though some attempt has been made to cover the first two topics indirectly by using household budget data. It should be a matter of course to distinguish between women and men in all social statistics, broadly defined, but despite significant improvement over recent years, it is still the case that some series are published without being so divided.

There are also some issues which are not covered in the report because they have been extensively analysed elsewhere and are examined on an ongoing basis in other publications. This applies especially to various employment and labour market issues, such as labour force participation, employment and unemployment rates. While these are not analysed specifically, basic data on these aspects are presented in the tables at the back of the report. A number of employment-related issues are, however, addressed – in particular, the relationship between caring responsibilities and employment, the relative numbers of women and men in positions of responsibility and power and the gap in wages between women and men – in part because they have social, and policy, implications as well as economic ones.

The report also covers the countries which are candidates for EU accession wherever the data are available on a comparable basis to those for EU Member States.

In graphs and tables where it is possible to include an aggregate figure for the EU, this has been done. In all cases, this is based either on the sum of the data for Member States or on weighted averages of these, where the weights used reflect the relative size of the different countries. In cases where data are missing for one or more Member States, the EU figure has been calculated excluding these. In most cases, the countries are ranked in the graphs in terms of the variable being presented in order to give a clearer indication of variations across the

Union or between candidate countries. Where women and men are both included, ranking is usually according to the values for women and men taken together.

Graphs and tables in the report include references to the source of the data and brief notes on the data. Fuller details are given in the Methodology and sources at the back of the report. Most of the data presented come from Eurostat and, in almost all cases, are available in NewCronos, Eurostat's online reference database, which covers a wide range of themes in addition to those included in this report.

Further information

The life of women and men in Europe: A statistical portrait is available as a paper publication as well as in PDF format in English, French and German. The publication may be purchased through the usual retail outlets for Commission publications (see the inside back cover for more details) or alternatively via Eurostat's web-site (<http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat>). More information concerning equality between women and men is available on the Directorate-General of the European Commission for Employment and Social Affairs web-site at http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/.

Eurostat and the Directorate-General of the European Commission for Employment and Social Affairs would gratefully receive any comments from readers that may help improve future editions of this publication (contact details may be found on page 4).

Symbols and abbreviations

EU Member States

EU	European Union
EU-15	Fifteen Member States of the European Union
B	Belgium
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
EL	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
A	Austria
P	Portugal
FIN	Finland
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom

Other country codes

BG	Bulgaria
CY	Cyprus
CZ	Czech Republic
EE	Estonia
HU	Hungary
LT	Lithuania
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
PL	Poland
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
TR	Turkey

Abbreviations

COICOP: Classification of Individual Consumption According to Purpose
CVTS: Continuing Vocational Training Survey
ECHP-UDB: European Community Household Panel – User database
EMCDDA: European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction
ESAW: European Statistics of Accidents at Work
ETAN: European Technology Assessment Network
HBS: Household Budget Survey
ISCED: International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO: International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS: Labour Force Survey
NACE Rev. :1 Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community, Revision 1.
NewCronos: Eurostat's reference database
NUTS: Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics
OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment
SES: Structure of earnings survey
UN: United Nations
UNCJIN: United Nations Crime and Justice Information Network
UOE: UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat
WiS database: Women in Science database

Symbols

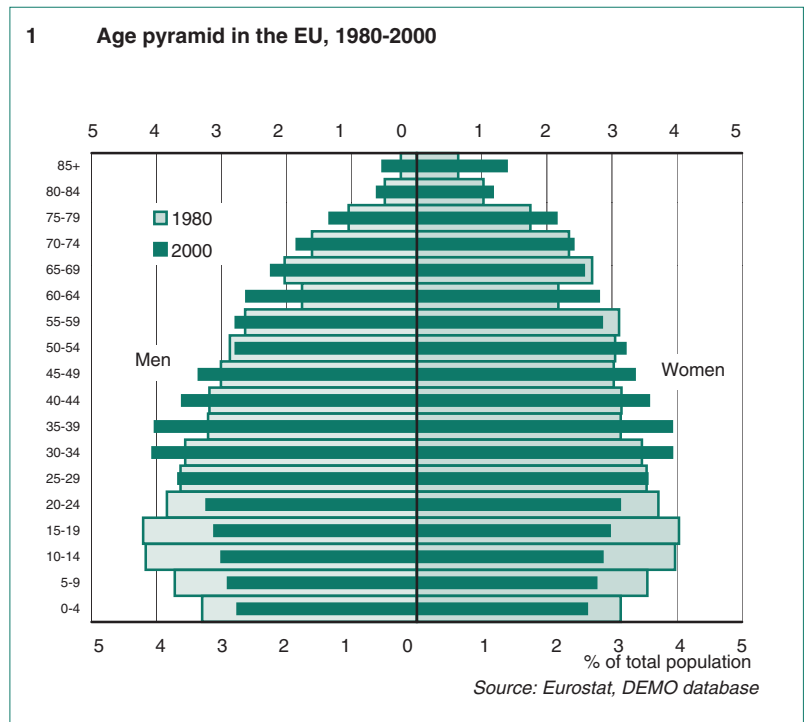
- Not applicable
- : Not available
- () Data published with warning concerning reliability
- % Percent
- 0 Real zero or close to zero (i.e. zero to the first significant figure or decimal place)



Part 1 — The formative years



1.1. Demographic aspects



There are consistently more boys born than girls in all parts of the EU and there has been little change over the past 20 years.

Births

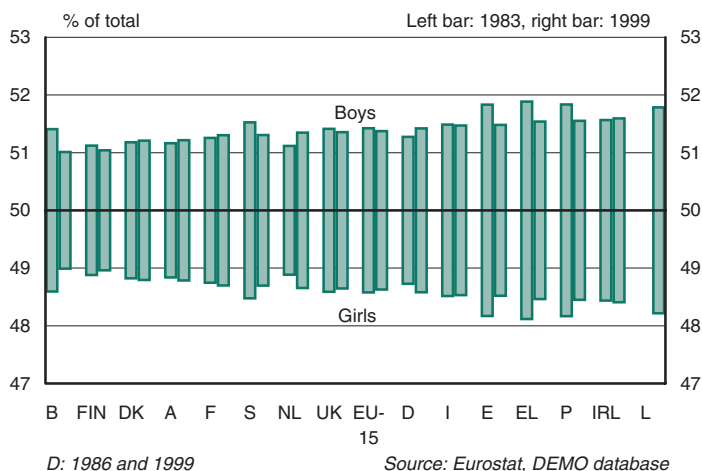
More boys are born each year than girls. This is a pronounced long-term feature of the demographics in all EU countries, as well as elsewhere, which shows little sign of changing. Between 1980 and 1999, some 48.6 % of the babies born in the European Union were girls, 51.4 % boys, the relative proportions remaining virtually constant over this period. (Note that these figures relate to live births, the data on still births at the EU level not being split by sex.)

The relative proportions also show very little variation between Member States. In 1999, the proportion of babies born who were girls varied only between 48.4 % in Ireland, Luxembourg and Portugal to 49 % in Belgium and Finland (Graph 2). In the five largest Member States, the variation was between 48.5 % and 48.7 %, suggesting that the larger the country, and the larger the number of births, the closer to 48.6 % the proportion tends to be. In most Member States, there was very little change in the relative proportions of male and female births over the 1980s and 1990s.

Relative numbers of boys and girls

The number of girls in the population tends to increase relative to the number of boys as children grow older, if only very slightly. While girls represented 48.7 % of the total number of children under 16 in the Union in 1999, they

2 Differences in male and female births, 1983 and 1999



The top of each bar in the graph shows male as a percent of total births and the bottom of the bar shows female births. The bar itself, therefore, shows the difference between the two. Graph 3 presents the data on population in the same way.

accounted for 49 % of those aged 16 to 24 (Graph 3). Since the relative number of girls and boys born has not changed over the past 20 years, and since there is very little difference in the proportions of girls and boys entering the EU as immigrants or leaving as emigrants (the numbers of whom are, in any case, very small), this implies a marginally higher mortality rate among boys than girls, as described below.

The difference in numbers between boys and girls tends to decline as they get older.

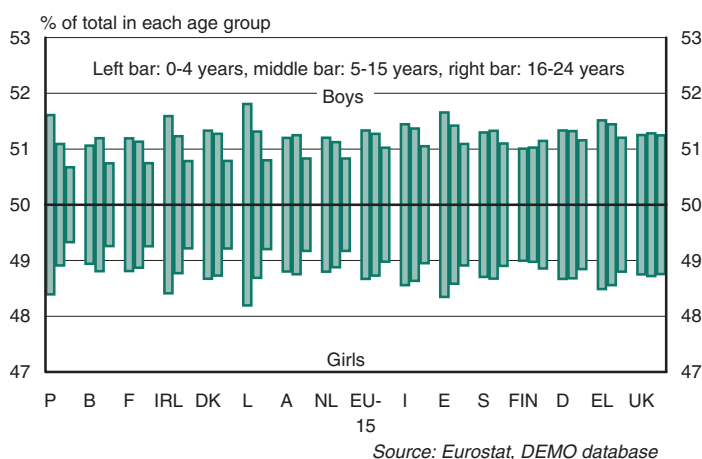
The same tendency is apparent in most Member States. In all of them apart from Finland and the UK, where the relative number of girls and boys does not change from one age group to another, the proportion of girls increases with the age of children. Nevertheless, even among young people in their early 20s, males remain in the majority in all EU countries

Infant mortality

The larger number of boys born relative to girls is partly offset by higher infant mortality among boys during their first year. In 1999, the infant mortality rate

More boys than girls die before they reach their first birthday and this is the case in all EU countries.

3 Differences in population structure by age group, 2000



— the proportion of deaths in the EU among babies in their first year — was 4.4 per 1 000 girls and 5.3 per 1 000 boys. Over 56 % of deaths of babies before they reached their first birthday were, therefore, among boys.

Much the same is true for individual Member States. While the overall rate of infant mortality varies between EU countries, from around 6.6 per 1 000 in Greece in 1999 to under 4 per 1 000 in Finland and Sweden, in all countries, deaths at this age were more prevalent among boys than girls throughout the Union (Graph 4). Nevertheless, there is some variation in the gap between the two rates, mortality among boys being some 70 % higher than among girls in Luxembourg and over 50 % higher in Sweden, as compared with only around 9 % higher in Italy and 11 % higher in the Netherlands.

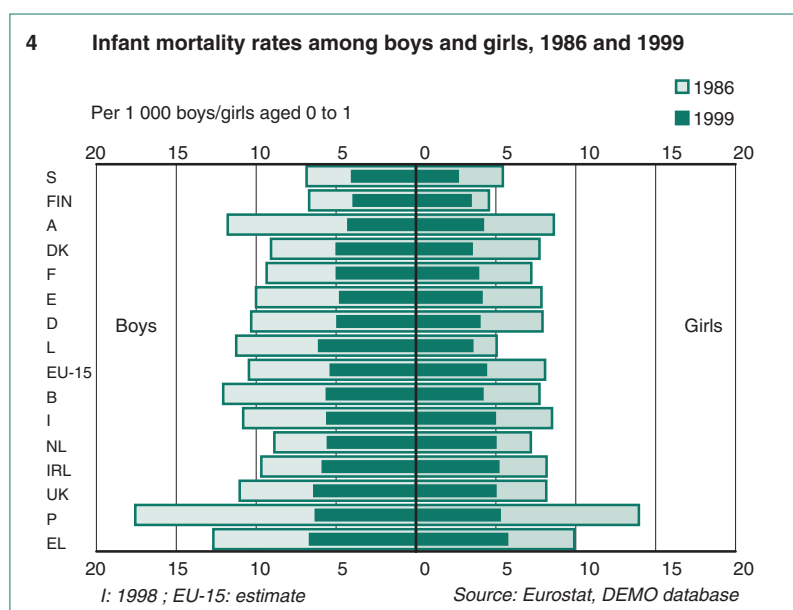
Although mortality among babies in their first year has fallen right across the Union since the mid-1980s (in 1986, the rates were, on average, 8.1 per 1 000 for girls and 10.5 per 1 000 for boys), the rate of decline has been only slightly faster for boys than for girls. The gap between the two rates has, therefore, narrowed only marginally over this period.

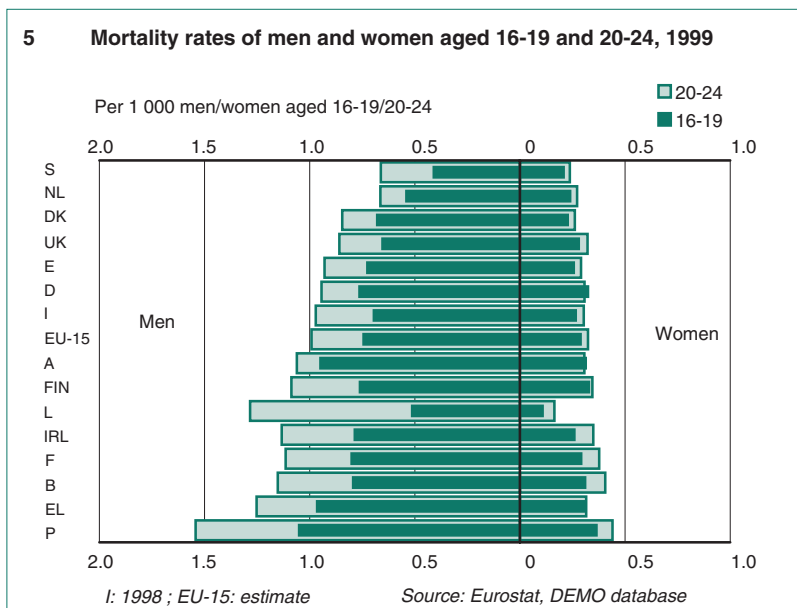
Mortality among children and young people

Deaths are more common among boys aged 5 to 15 than among girls and after 15, this difference becomes wider.

Mortality rates fall significantly once babies are past their first birthday. At the same time, it remains the case that the relative number of deaths among boys is higher than among girls. This is not so evident among boys and girls up to the age of 5, for whom mortality rates in the Union are both low (0.3 per 1 000 according to the latest data). It is, however, apparent for those aged 5 to 15, for whom, in the mid-1990s, the mortality rate in the Union among boys was 0.2 per 1 000 as opposed to 0.1 per 1 000 for girls, though for all children, the risk of dying is extremely small.

After the age of 15, mortality rates begin to rise significantly, especially among young men. While the average mortality rate for young women in their early 20s in the Union is only slightly higher than among those in their late teens (0.32 per 1 000 for those aged 20 to 24 in 1999 as against 0.29 for those aged 16 to 19), for young men, it is markedly higher. In 1999, mortality among men aged 20 to 24 in the Union averaged 0.99 per 1 000 as opposed to 0.74 among





those aged 16 to 19, in both cases, substantially above the rates for young women (Graph 5).

The pattern is much the same in all Member States. Moreover, whereas the variation across the Union in mortality rates among young women in both age groups is relatively small – leaving aside Luxembourg, where the rates are particularly low, they ranged from 0.21 per 1 000 in Sweden in 1999 to 0.36 in Portugal for those aged 16 to 19 and from 0.24 per 1 000 to 0.44 in the same two countries for those aged 20 to 24 – among men, it is much wider. For young men aged 16 to 19, therefore, the mortality rate was 1.05 per 1 000 in Portugal and 0.96 in Greece as opposed to 0.54 in the Netherlands and 0.41 in Sweden. For those aged 20 to 24, the rate was 1.54 per 1 000 in Portugal, 1.25 in Greece and 1.11–1.15 in Belgium, France and Ireland, but as low as 0.66 in both the Netherlands and Sweden.

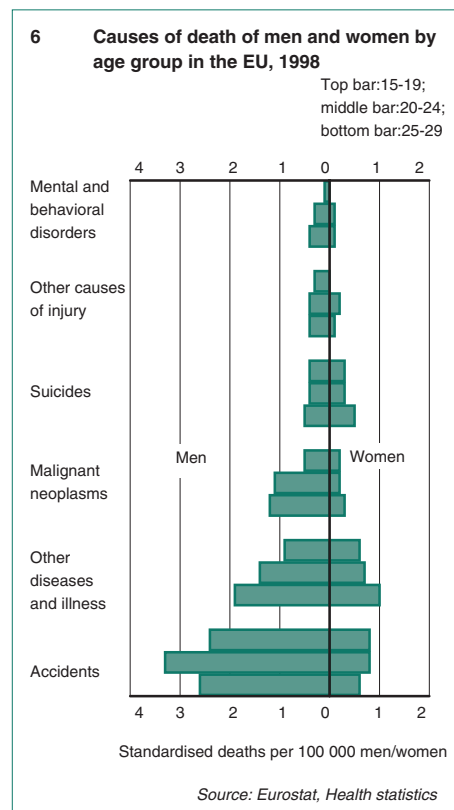
In all countries, mortality rates have declined since the mid-1980s for both young men and young women in their teens and early 20s, though for both age groups, the gap between the two rates has remained wide.

Causes of death

For children under 5, the main causes of death do not differ significantly between girls and boys. In both cases, most deaths are due to illness or disease. From the age of 5 on, however, boys are much more prone to fatal accidents than girls, especially when they reach their teens. In 1998, accidents accounted for some 52 % of deaths among young men aged 15 to 19 in the Union as opposed to 40 % among women of the same age, while other external causes, such as suicide, accounted for another 17 % or so of male deaths in this age group and 10 % of those of women. Accidents and other causes of injury to men were, therefore, responsible for around 70 % of all deaths of young men and half of those of women in their late teens (Graph 6).

Suicide tends to increase in importance as a cause of death as young people grow older, while drug-related deaths, including those associated with smoking, also become significant. Suicide was responsible for just under 17 % of all deaths among young men in their 20s in the Union in 1998, but for around

Mortality rates among young men in the late teens and early 20s are substantially higher than among girls in all Member States.



10 % of those of women, while drug addiction (not shown directly in the graph) was a major cause of some 4 % of deaths among both men and women.

Age at first marriage

Women tend to be 2–3 years younger than men when they marry in most EU countries.

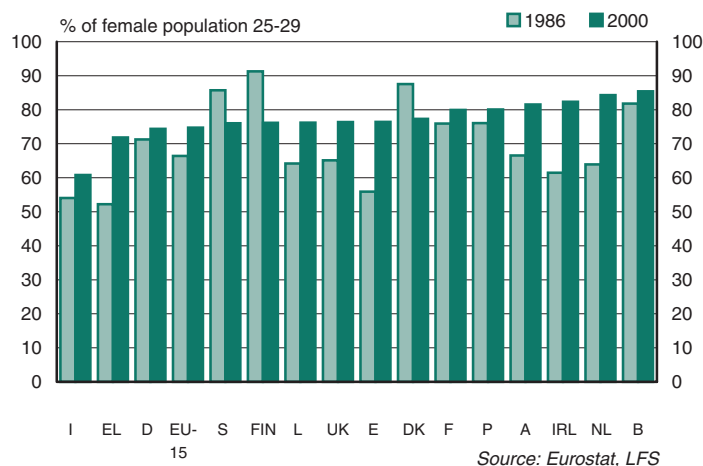
The age at which women and men first marry has tended to increase significantly over recent years. There are a number of reasons for this. Not least among them is the increasing tendency for both young women and young men to remain longer in education or initial vocational training before entering the labour market – at least on a full-time basis – as described later in this section. It also reflects growing pressure on both women and men to give priority to their working careers when they are young in order to strengthen their longer-term prospects.

For women, in particular, this can be seen in an increase in participation in the labour force of those in their late 20s, which has been common to all Member States over the past 15 years or so, except the three Nordic countries where participation was already high (Graph 7). It has been especially marked in Greece, Spain, Ireland and the Netherlands, countries where participation had been below average. This contrasts with a slight fall in labour force participation among men in this age group in most countries, reflecting the increased numbers remaining in education (Graph 8).

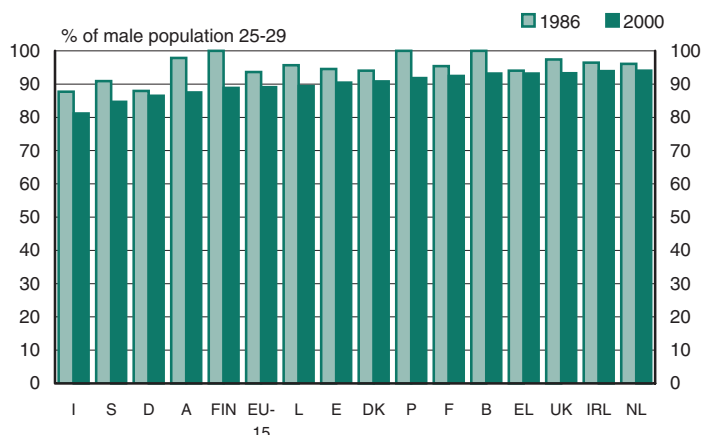
In 1999, the average age at first marriage for women was 28½ in the Union, as compared with just over 23½ in 1980 (Graph 9). For men, the average age was higher than for women, at above 30, and had risen to a slightly smaller extent than for women over the previous 15 years. The difference, therefore, fell marginally over this period, but was still more than two years.

The tendency for women to marry younger than men is common throughout the Union. The extent of the difference is also similar, varying between 2 and 2.6 years in most Member States, though it was slightly smaller than this in Portugal (1.7) and Ireland (1.8) and larger in Italy (2.9) and, most of all, in Greece (3.8).

7 Participation in the labour force of women aged 25-29, 1986 and 2000



8 Participation in the labour force of men aged 25-29, 1986 and 2000



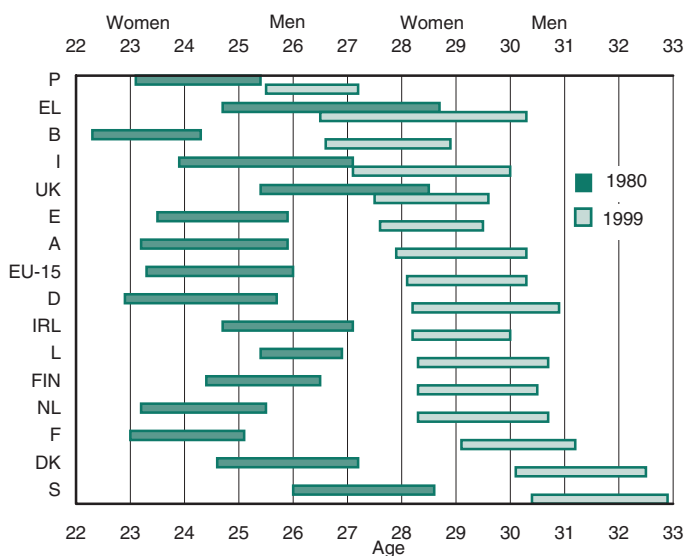
Source: Eurostat, LFS

All countries experienced an increase in the age of first marriage between the mid-1980s and the late-1990s, most especially in France (over six years for both men and women) but also in Germany, the Netherlands and Denmark (over five years for both women and men). On the other hand, the increase was relatively small in the UK (only 2.1 years for women and 1.1 years for men) Greece (under two years for both), in both of which the average age of men in particular when first marrying was already relatively high.

In all countries, the age at first marriage increased over the 1980s and 1990s.

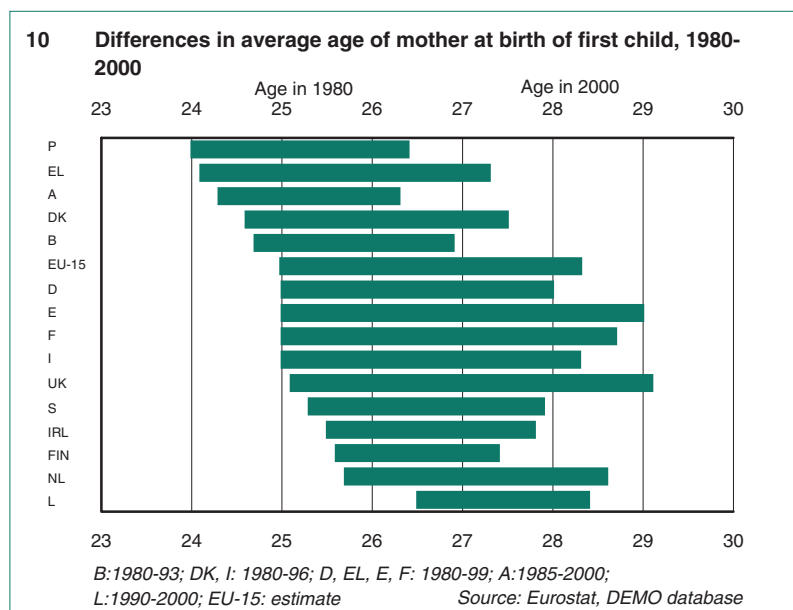
Apart from in Spain, Ireland, Portugal and the UK, however, the difference in age between men and women did not change much over the period.

9 Differences in average age at first marriage of men and women, 1980-1999



EL, IRL, I: 1998; EL: 1990-98; L: 1990-99;
UK: 1982-99; EU-15: estimate

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database



Women in the EU are, on average, around 25 when they have their first child; the age has risen in all Member States over the past 20 years.

Age at birth of first child

Along with the increase in the age of marriage and, more significantly perhaps with the increased participation of women in the work force, as well as in higher and further education, the age at which women give birth to their first child has also risen across the Union, from 25 in 1980 to just over 28 in 2000. According to the latest data, it ranged from 29 in the UK and Spain, in the late-1990s, to just over 26 in Austria and Portugal (Graph 10).

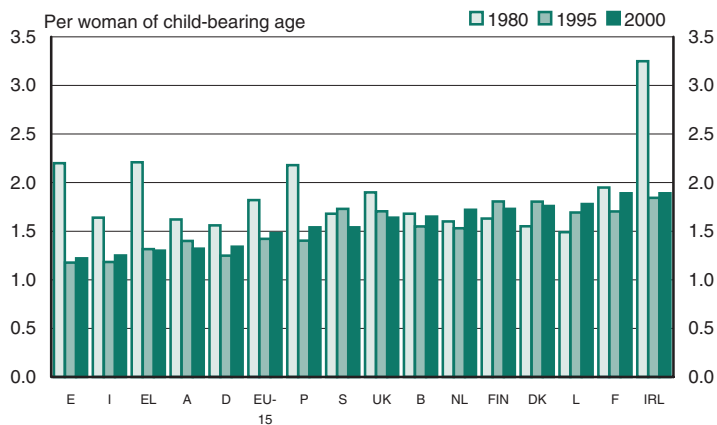
In five Member States, the three Nordic countries, Ireland and Austria (most significantly in Denmark and Sweden, where it was over two years lower), the average age of women at the birth of the first child was lower than the age at first marriage. Accordingly, there is no necessary link between the two, so that the countries where the age of first marriage was highest are not invariably those where the age at the birth of the first child is highest. In Denmark and Sweden, where women tend to be older than elsewhere when they marry, the age at which women give birth to their first child, therefore, is lower than in most other countries. By the same token, there is no necessary relationship between the age of marriage and fertility rates.

In all countries, the age of women at the birth of their first child rose between the early 1980s and the late-1990s, the increase being particularly marked in Spain and the UK. At the same time, the number of babies born outside of marriage rose from 10 % to 25 %, and to 45 % in Denmark and 55 % in Sweden (in contrast, in Spain, it was still under 15 %, in Italy, under 10 % and in Greece, under 4 %).

Fertility rates

Fertility rates have fallen in most Member States over the past 20 years.

The increase in age at the birth of the first child is reflected in a fall in fertility rates over the past 20 years in most Member States, though not all. In 2000, the number of live births per 1 000 woman of child-bearing age (15 to 44) averaged 1.48, down from 1.82 in 1980 (Graph 11). Since it was accompanied by a significant increase in the number of women in this age group (though concentrated in the 1980s) as well as by a fall in the mortality rate, the effect on the rate of population growth was marginal. In the future, however, with the number of

11 Fertility rates, 1980, 1995 and 2000

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

women aged 15 to 44 set to decline, any further fall in the fertility rate is likely to mean a fall in population in the EU.

The steepest falls in fertility rates between 1980 and 2000 were in countries where rates were highest at the beginning of the period, in Ireland, Greece, Spain and Portugal. In each case, the rate had been well over two in 1980 – in Ireland, over three – and fell back to a level where it was similar or below that in other Member States. Indeed, in Greece and Spain, the rate in 2000, at only around 1.2 live births per woman of child-bearing age, was well below the EU average and less than in any other country apart from Italy.

In contrast, there were four countries in which the fertility rate increased over these 20 years – Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Finland – in each case, from a level below the EU average to one above.

Moreover, there was a small increase in the average fertility rate in the EU between 1995 and 2000 (from 1.42 to 1.48). Although this was not general to all countries, it was evident in Spain and Italy, where rates had fallen to a lower level than anywhere else in the Union, while in Greece, where the rate was also low, it seems to have stopped falling.

Demography and young people in the candidate countries

The relative number of girls and boys born in the candidate countries is very similar to that in the Union. In the central and east European countries, the proportion of girls born in 2000 varied between 48.8 % in Slovakia to 48.2 % in the Czech Republic and 48.1 % in Estonia. As in the Union, there has been very little change in this proportion since 1980, though there were more countries in which the proportion of girls declined than in which it rose (Graph 12).

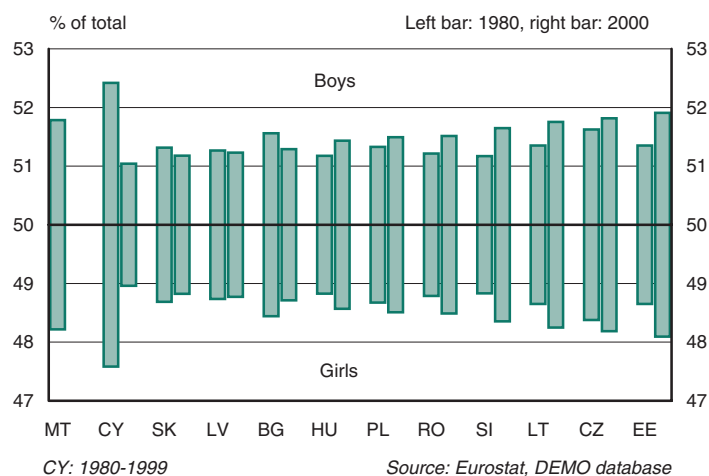
Again as in the Union, the relative number of girls in the population tends to increase as children grow older. This tendency is particularly marked in the three Baltic States, but is not evident at all in Bulgaria or Slovenia. Nevertheless, in nearly all the countries, the proportion of women among young people in their late teens and early 20s was around 49 % or above (Graph 13).

Fertility rates have fallen by most in southern European countries and Ireland where they were highest.

The difference in the number of girls and boys born is much the same in central and eastern European countries as in the EU.

The top of each bar in the graph shows male as a percent of total births and the bottom of the bar shows female births. The bar itself, therefore, shows the difference between the two. Graph 13 presents the data on population in the same way.

12 Differences in male and female births in candidate countries, 1980 and 2000

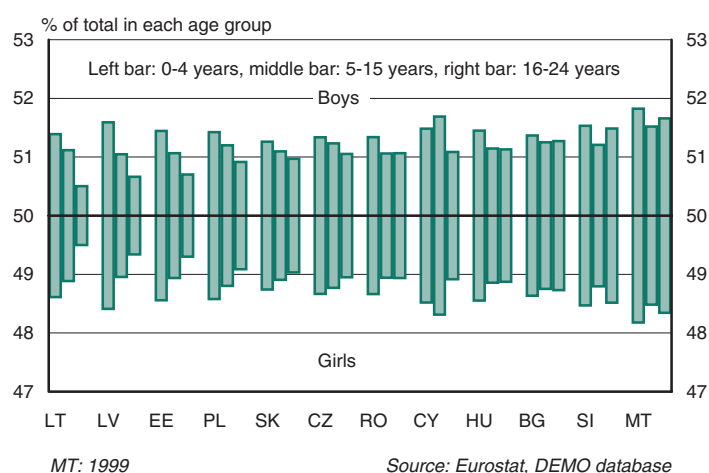


Both infant and child mortality rates tend to be higher in the candidate countries than in the EU but the difference in rates between girls and boys is similar.

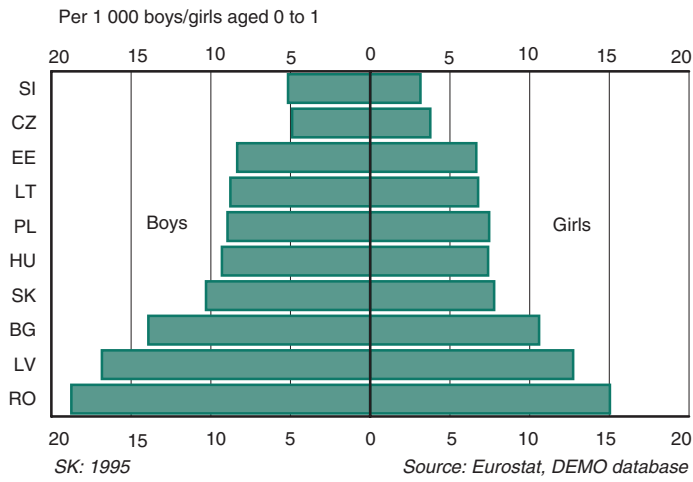
Infant mortality is generally higher in the candidate countries than in EU Member States, but in all of the countries, as in the EU, rates are higher among boys than girls. Infant mortality is especially high in Bulgaria, Latvia and Romania, the countries with among the lowest levels of GDP per head, where in 1998, they were 2–3 times the EU average. Only in Slovenia and the Czech Republic were mortality rates similar to those in the EU (Graph 14).

Mortality rates of children after the first year are also generally higher than in the EU for both girls and boys, though a similar difference between the two is evident. In the Czech Republic and Hungary, however, mortality among both girls and boys aged 16 to 19 as well as among those aged 20 to 24 was much the same as in the Union, boys having a rate some 2–3 times higher than girls (Graph 15). In all other countries, rates were higher than in the Union, most especially in the three Baltic States, where mortality among young men aged 20 to 24 years in Estonia was around 1.8 per 1 000 and in Latvia and Lithuania, well over 2 per 1 000, twice the rate in the EU. While mortality among girls was lower (some 0.6 per 1 000), the rate was still around twice the EU average.

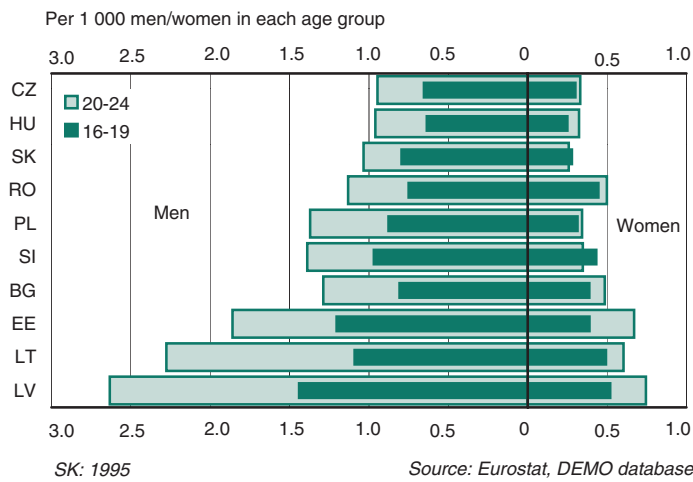
13 Differences in population structure in candidate countries by age group, 2000



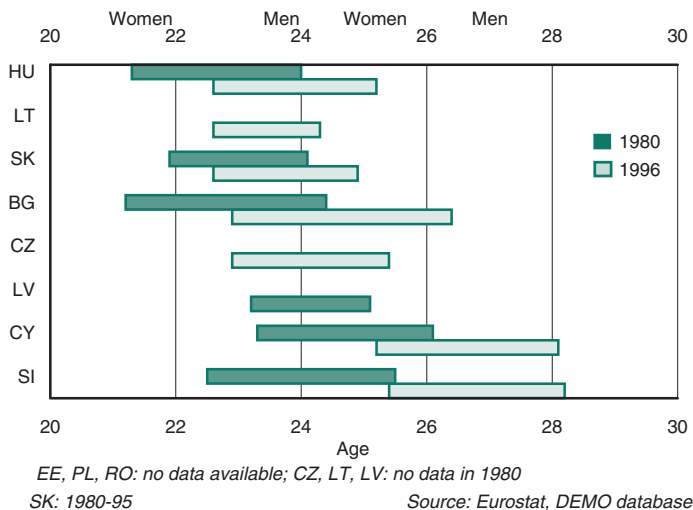
14 Infant mortality in candidate countries, 1998

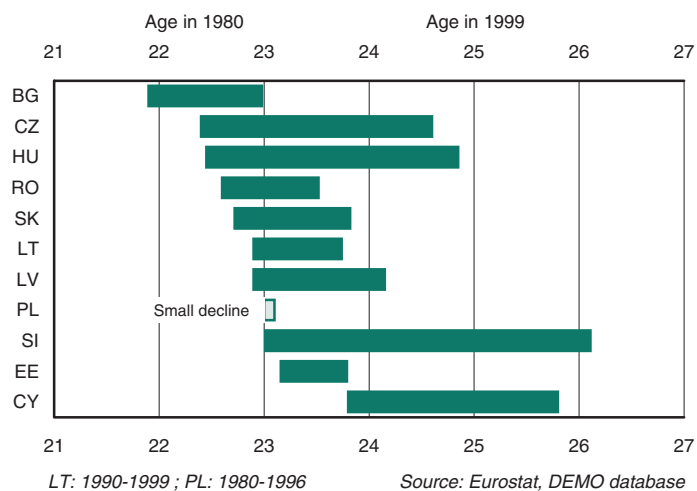


15 Mortality rates of women and men aged 16-19 and 20-24 in candidate countries, 1998



16 Differences in average age at first marriage of men and women in candidate countries, 1980-1996

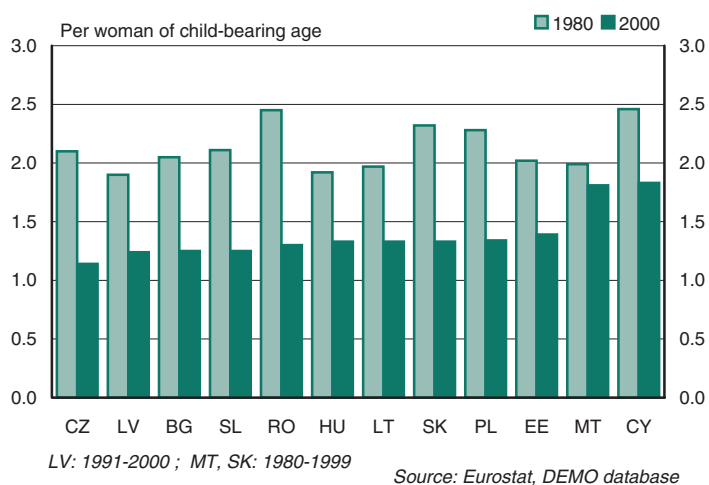


17 Differences in average age of mother at birth of first child in candidate countries, 1980-1999

Women tend to marry younger in the candidate countries than in the EU and, as in the EU, 2–3 years younger than men.

The average age of women and men at first marriage is lower throughout the candidate countries than in the EU, though a similar difference between men and women is evident (in most countries, between two and three years). Moreover, there has also been a rise in the average age for both women and men since 1980, though this has generally been more modest than in the EU (Graph 16).

Women also tend to have their first child at a younger age in the candidate countries than in EU Member States. In 1999, apart from in Slovenia and Cyprus (where the average age was around 26, still lower than the EU average), the average age varied between 23 and 25, some 3–4 years younger than in most EU countries, the age being lowest in the countries where the rural economy remains important (Bulgaria, Poland and Romania) (Graph 17). As in the EU, however, the average age has risen in general since 1980, especially in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovenia, though elsewhere the increase has been less than in the Union. Moreover, in Poland, the average age has fallen slightly over the period.

18 Fertility rates in candidate countries, 1980 and 2000

Despite the rise in the age of women at the birth of their first child, fertility rates have declined substantially in all countries over the past 20 years, in most cases, to a level well below the EU average. Indeed, only in Cyprus and Malta were rates in 2000 above the EU average, at a level similar to that in France or Ireland. In all other countries, live births were below 1.4 per 1 000 women of child-bearing age and in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia and Slovenia, at a similar level to that in Greece, Spain and Italy (Graph 18). This, together with net outward migration, is associated with declining population in nearly all central and eastern European countries.

Fertility rates have fallen to below those in the EU in most candidate countries.

1.2. Household circumstances

More young women in their late teens than men lived outside the family home, especially in Finland and the UK.

Household characteristics of women and men aged 16 to 19

Almost all of young women and men aged between 16 and 19 still seem to live in the family home, though the few who live alone or with people of their own age seem mostly to be women rather than men. (The analysis here is based on ECHP data for the composition of households. 'Older' people are defined as those aged 30 and over for the 16 to 19 age group, those aged 35 and over for the 20 to 24 age group and those aged 40 and over for the 25 to 29 age group – Table 1.) In 1998, some 6 % of young women in their late teens in the Union either lived alone or with people of a similar age, as compared with only just under 2½ % of men.

The relative number of young women and men living outside the family home is largest in Finland and the UK, where 10 % and 15 %, respectively of young women in this age group lived either alone or with someone of their own age, in each case significantly higher than the relative number of young men (under 5 % in both cases). In all Member States, the proportion of women living away from home was either higher (in most cases) or similar to that of men.

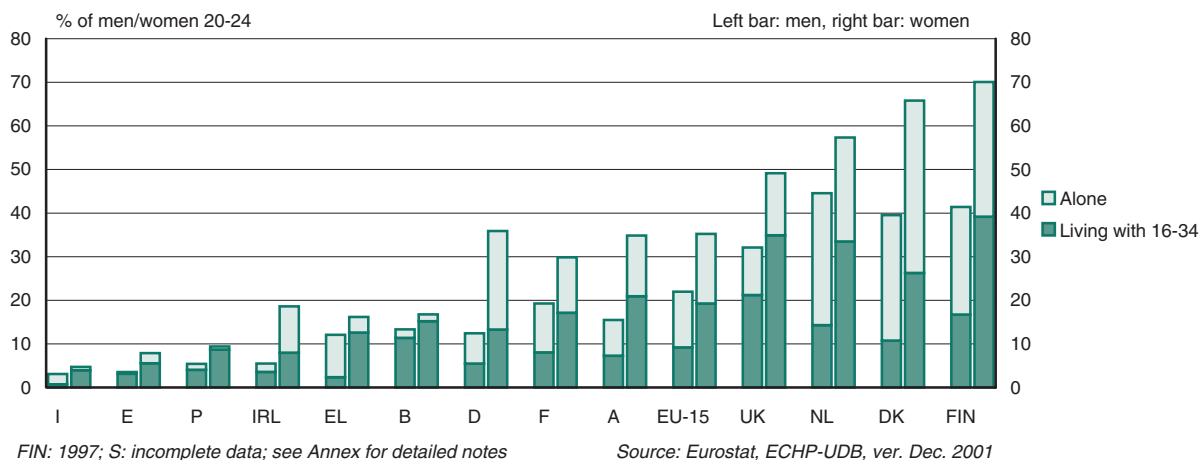
Table 1 – Men and women by age group and household type, 1998

	B	D	DK	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of men/women in each age group</i>																
Men	Aged 16-19															
Living alone	0	1	3	0	0	3	0	1	:	0	0	1	2	:	2	2
Living with someone 16-29	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	:	0	0	0	0	:	3	1
Living with parents+Other	100	99	96	100	100	97	100	99	:	99	99	99	97	:	96	98
Women	Aged 16-19															
Living alone	0	1	3	0	0	3	0	0	:	1	2	0	5	:	7	3
Living with someone 16-29	1	2	3	2	1	4	1	0	:	4	0	1	4	:	9	3
Living with parents+Other	99	98	94	98	99	93	99	100	:	95	98	99	91	:	85	94
Men	Aged 20-24															
Living alone	2	7	29	10	0	11	2	2	:	30	8	1	25	:	11	13
Living with someone 16-34	11	5	11	2	3	8	4	1	:	14	7	4	17	:	21	9
Living with parents+Other	87	88	60	88	96	81	95	97	:	55	85	95	59	:	68	78
Women	Aged 20-24															
Living alone	2	23	40	4	2	13	11	1	:	24	14	1	31	:	14	16
Living with someone 16-34	15	13	26	13	6	17	8	4	:	33	21	9	39	:	35	19
Living with parents+Other	83	64	34	84	92	70	81	95	:	43	65	91	30	:	51	65
Men	Aged 25-29															
Living alone	13	24	36	5	4	16	13	5	:	28	18	4	30	:	10	16
Living with someone 16-39	37	30	61	18	16	43	22	12	:	57	33	17	58	:	59	40
Living with parents+Other	50	46	3	77	80	42	65	84	:	15	49	79	13	:	31	43
Women	Aged 25-29															
Living alone	11	24	20	5	5	16	8	5	:	21	20	4	29	:	21	15
Living with someone 16-39	65	50	76	43	32	53	34	34	:	75	48	27	66	:	65	55
Living with parents+Other	24	26	4	52	63	31	58	61	:	4	32	69	5	:	15	31

FIN: 1997; L: no data; S: not shown because of incomplete data.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

19 Men and women aged 20-24 by household type, 1998



Young people aged 20–24

By their early 20s, a significant number of young women and men in the Union have moved out of the family home and either live alone or with another person (or people) of a similar age (here taken to be 16 to 34). Again, however, there tends to be more women in this position than men. In the Union as a whole, some 16 % of women aged 20 to 24 were living alone in 1998, as compared with 13 % of men, while a further 19 % were living with someone of a similar age as against only 9 % of men (Graph 19). These proportions, however, vary considerably across the Union. In Denmark, some 40 % of women in this age group and 30 % of men lived alone and in Finland and the Netherlands, some 25–30 % of both. By contrast, in Spain, Italy and Portugal, hardly anyone in their early 20s lived alone, which was also the case in Belgium, and only around 5 % or so lived with someone of their own age (around 10 % in Belgium).

Nevertheless, in all Member States, the proportion of women aged 20 to 24 living either alone or with someone of a similar age was larger than that of men – in Austria and the UK, over 10 percentage points higher and in Denmark, Finland and Germany, over 20 percentage points higher. In Denmark and Finland, over 60 % of women of this age seem no longer to have been living in the family home – though only 40 % of men – and in the Netherlands, around 55 % (and 45 % of men). In Spain, Italy and Portugal, well over 90 % of both women and men appear still to have lived at home and in Greece, over 85 %.

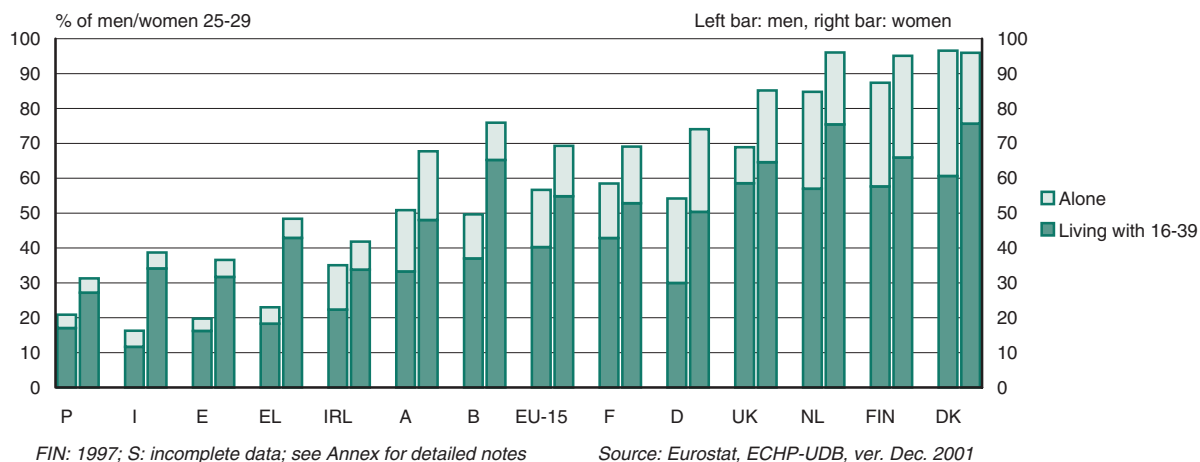
Young people aged 25–29

Once they reach their late 20s, a large number of the young people in the Union will probably have left the family home, though much fewer in Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal and Ireland than in other Member States. Among those aged 25 to 29, a similar proportion lived alone in the Union in 1998 as among those in their early 20s – around 15 % of both women and men (Graph 20). In the four southern Member States, however, the figures remain low – only around 5 % or less in each case. This compares with over 20 % in Germany and the Netherlands, around 30 % in Finland and some 35 % of men and 20 % of women in Denmark. The last is one of the few countries where the

Women in their early 20s are also more likely than men to have moved away from the family home.

By the time they reach their late 20s, most young people, and again more women than men, have moved away from home in the north of Europe but not in the south.

20 Men and women aged 25-29 by household type, 1998



relative number of men living alone in this age group substantially exceeded that of women, the Netherlands being the main other one. Equally, there were few countries where the reverse was the case, the UK being the only one where women exceeded men.

Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal and Ireland seem to be the only Member States where the great majority of both young men and women in their late 20s still lived in the family home in 1998, in Greece, Ireland and Portugal, a larger proportion of women than men, in Spain and Italy, similar proportions of both.

Employment status by household type

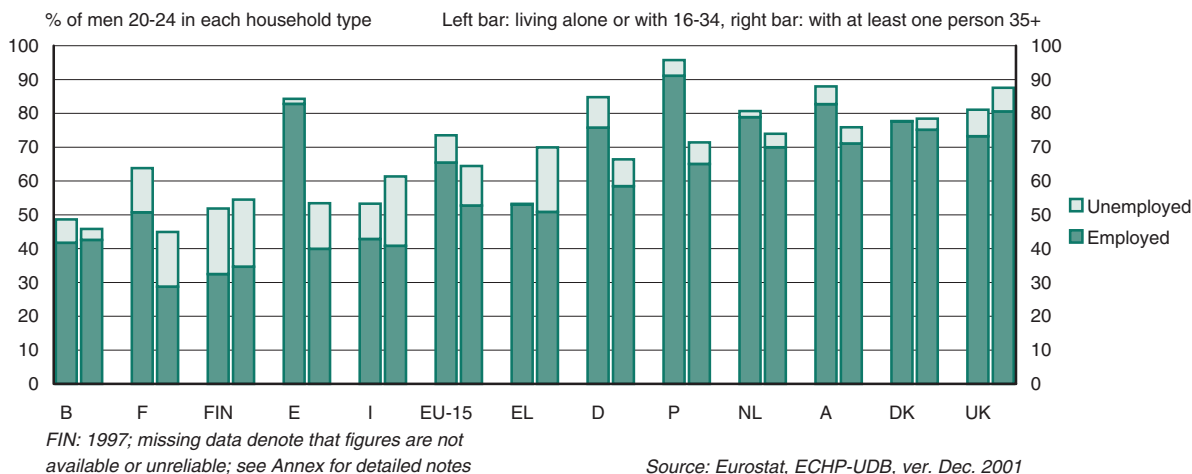
Both women and men in their early 20s who have moved away from the family home are more likely to be in work than those who remain at home.

The reason for young people leaving the family home is likely to be related to their desire for independence, but more directly perhaps to the need to leave home to pursue their studies, or training, or to take up employment.

In the Union as a whole, young men in their early 20s are, on average, more likely to be in work if they have left the family home and are living either alone or with someone of a similar age and much less likely to be unemployed. In 1998, some two-thirds of men aged 20 to 24 in the Union who had left the family home were in employment as against only just over half of those who were still living at home, while around 8 % were unemployed as opposed to almost 12 % living at home (Graph 21). This pattern is repeated in most Member States, comparing those living alone or with someone of a similar age with those seemingly still living in the family home. The difference in unemployment was particularly marked in Greece, Spain and Italy, those living at home having a much higher rate, which might reflect the lack of availability of unemployment benefits for people of this age.

A similar pattern is evident for women aged 20 to 24, with those living alone or with someone of a similar age being more likely to be employed than those remaining in the family home and slightly less likely to be unemployed (Graph 22). Nevertheless, while in most countries, differences in employment status for those with differing household circumstances were in line with those at the EU level, there were more Member States where the pattern for women varied from the EU average than for men. In particular, in Denmark, Ireland and

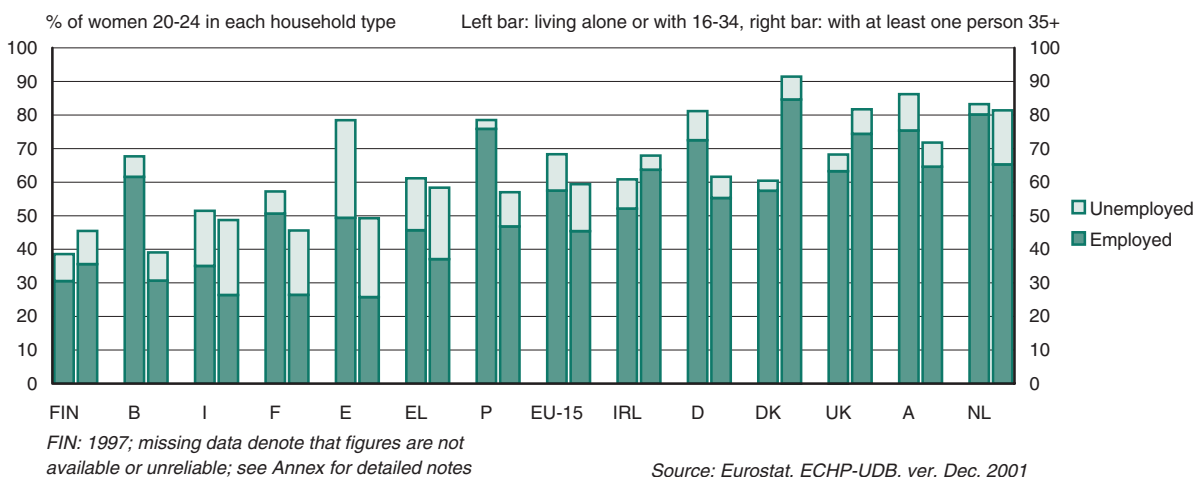
21 Participation rates of men aged 20-24 by household type, 1998



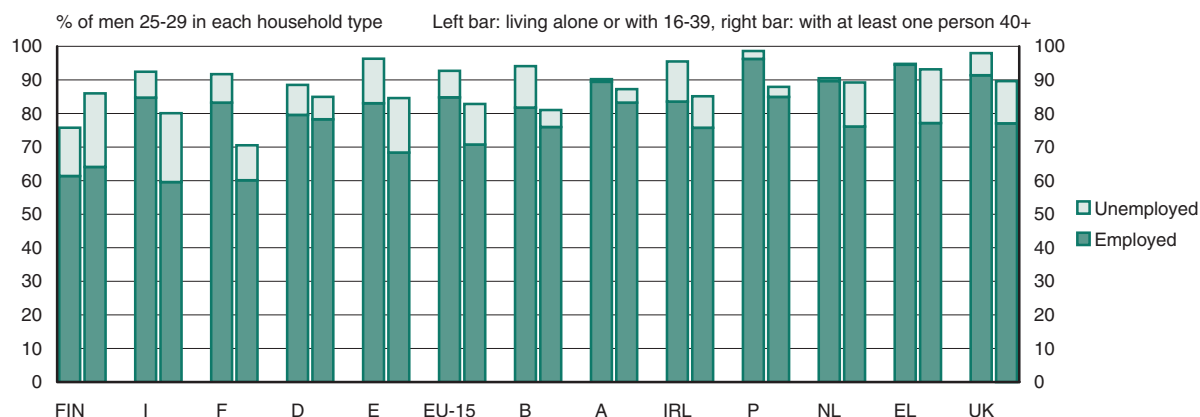
Finland as well as the UK, the proportion of women aged 20 to 24 in work was higher among those still living in the family home than among those who had left.

The relationship between employment status and household circumstances is much the same for men aged 25 to 29 as for those in their early 20s. Those living alone or with someone of their own age were more likely to have been in employment in 1998 than those living in the family home and slightly less likely to have been unemployed (Graph 23). This was the case in most Member States – though not in Finland – as in the Union as a whole (the average employment rate being around 85 % for those in the first group and just over 70 % for those in the second). Once again, in Greece and Italy (where access to income support from the social protection system is very limited), though not in Spain, unemployment was substantially higher among those living at home than those who had left.

22 Participation rates of women aged 20-24 by household type, 1998



23 Participation rates of men aged 25-29 by household type, 1998

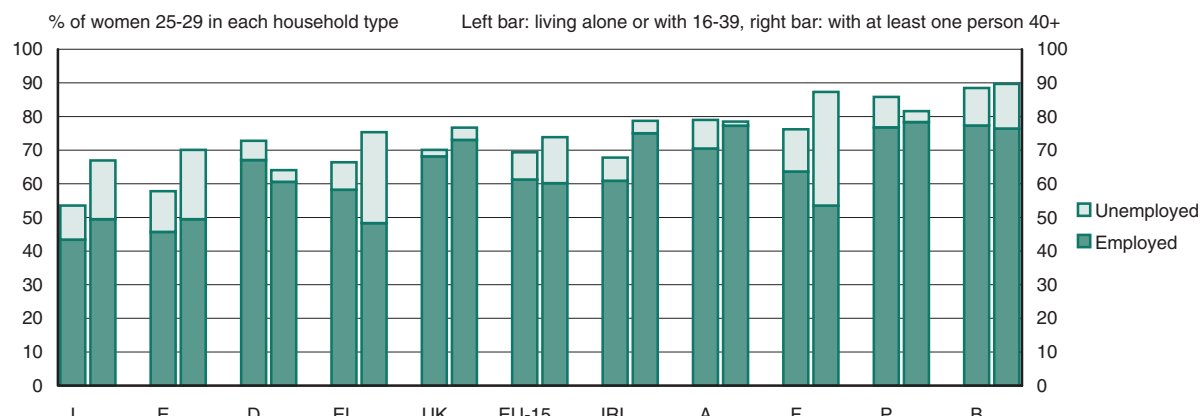


FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

For women aged 25 to 29, the pattern is different from that of men. Employment among women living alone or with someone of a similar age was not much different over the Union as a whole than for those still living in the family home (just over 60%), which may reflect possible caring responsibilities in the case of those living with a spouse or partner (Graph 24). However, the employment rate among those who had left home was significantly higher than those living at home in Greece and France while in Ireland the reverse was true.

24 Participation rates of women aged 25-29 by household type, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

1.3. Education

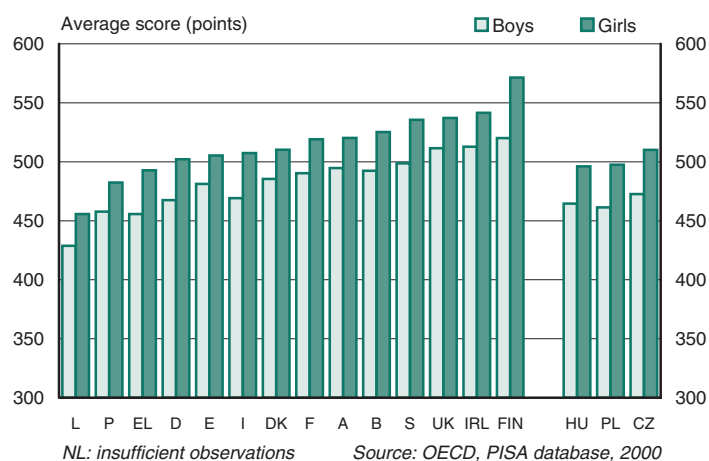
All girls and boys attend compulsory schooling in Europe, in most countries up to at least the age of 16 and there are increasing attempts to encourage young people to stay longer in education and initial training. Up to the age of 16, therefore, the difference in the number of girls and boys in education largely reflects the difference in their numbers in the population. There are, however, differences in their relative performance in different subject areas at the age they complete their compulsory schooling. There are also differences in the proportion of young women and men who remain in education after compulsory schooling and who go on to complete upper secondary and tertiary (i.e. university-level) education or initial vocational training. More notably, there are differences in the subject areas they study, which inevitably affect the kinds of profession or vocation they take up when they begin their working careers.

The performance of girls and boys at the end of lower secondary education

Girls of 15 are more proficient at reading than boys throughout Europe but boys outperform girls in maths and science.

Student achievement at the age of 15, when they are typically at the end of compulsory schooling, or lower secondary education, has recently been assessed in EU Member States, as well as in other developed countries (including three countries in central and eastern Europe which are candidates for EU entry) as part of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), undertaken by OECD. Specifically the programme was aimed at measuring the abilities of girls and boys at this age enrolled in schools or other educational institutions in reading, maths and scientific literacy. No specific account was taken of their level of education as such (i.e. whether or not they had completed lower secondary education).

25 Performance of 15 year-old students in reading literacy, 2000



The results indicate some very systematic tendencies across countries. In particular, girls outperform boys in reading literacy in all European countries, in many cases by a wide margin, whereas boys outperform girls in mathematical literacy in all countries, with the single exception of Finland, the top country in Europe, where girls and boys were ranked equally. On the combined reading literacy scale, therefore (i.e. covering a number of different aspects of proficiency) girls outscore boys by some 6-7 % on average, while the difference is even wider in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland (Graph 25).

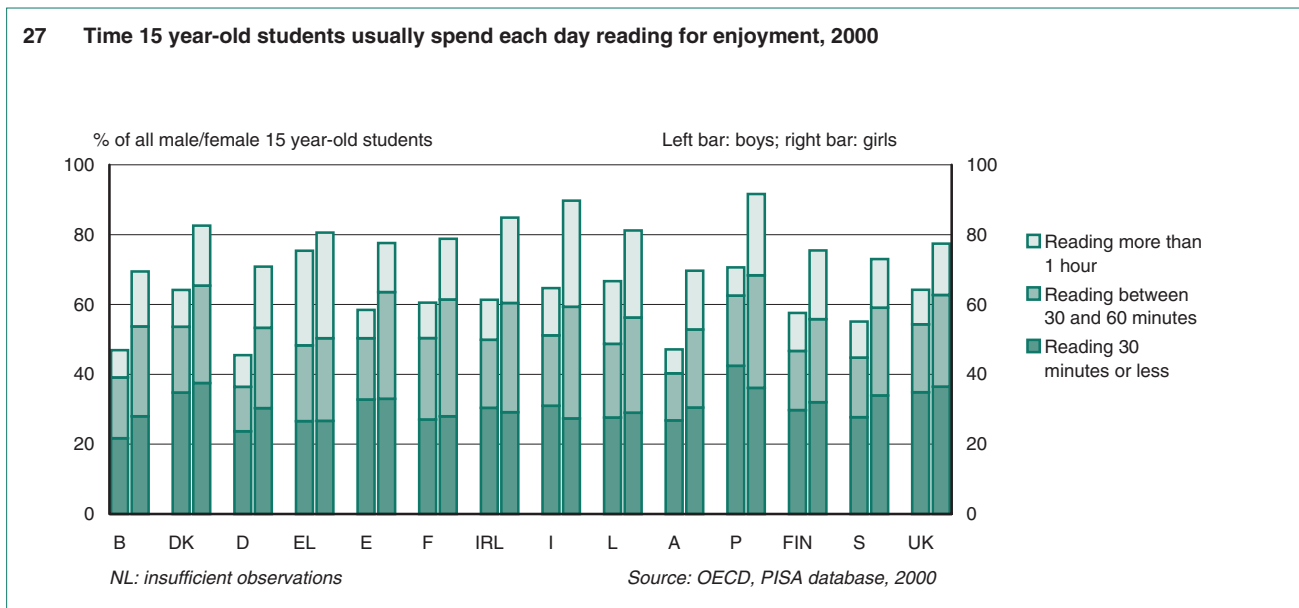
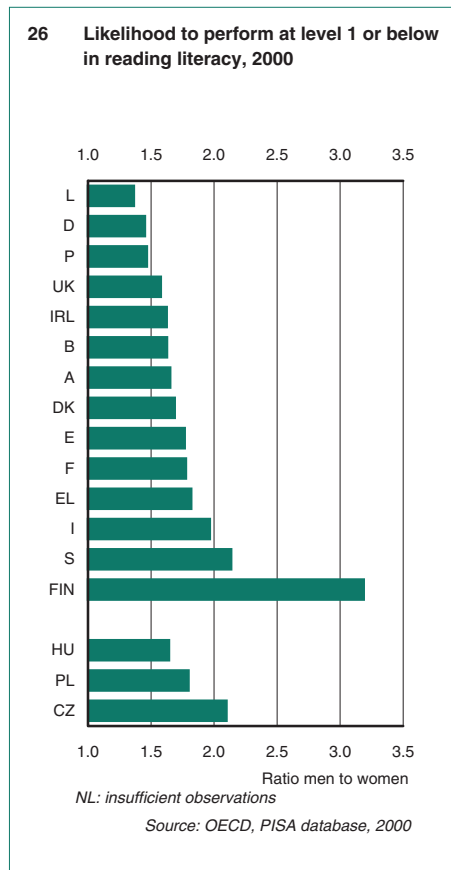
Moreover, boys are much more likely than girls to be among the lowest performers in reading literacy (i.e. to be assessed at Level 1 or below on the combined scale). The number of boys ranked at this level were, therefore, more than half as high again as the number of girls in all countries apart from Luxembourg, Germany and Portugal (where the difference was only just below this) and over twice as high in Sweden and Finland (in the latter, over three times as high) (Graph 26).

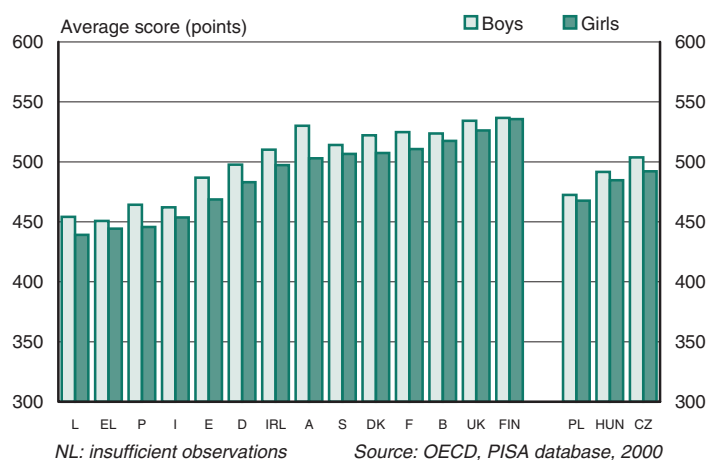
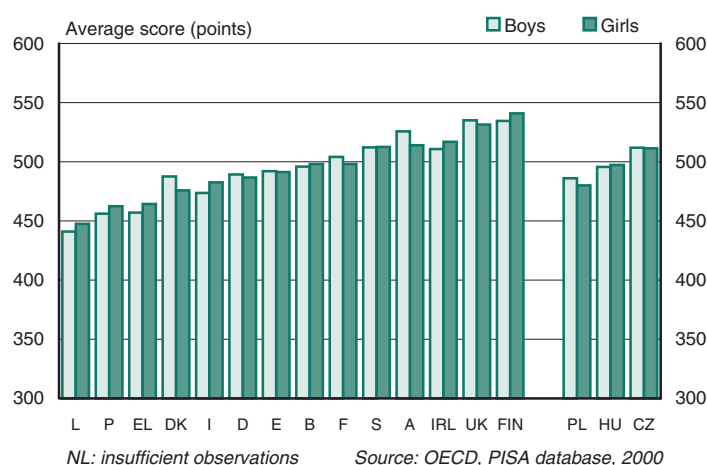
This difference in performance between girls and boys is associated with a similar difference in the time each on average spent reading for enjoyment. In all Member States, significantly more boys than girls did not read for enjoyment at all – over half the boys in Belgium, Germany and Austria as against only 30 % of girls in each case – while girls tended to spend more time reading among those who did read for pleasure (Graph 27).

While boys outscore girls in mathematical literacy in 16 of the 17 European countries covered, the differences are less pronounced, averaging 2-3 %, though the difference in the three candidate countries is slightly less (Graph 28). In scientific literacy, on the other hand, differences in performance between girls and boys are much less systematic and in most cases relatively small (Graph 29).

Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)

More than half the students enrolled in upper secondary education in the academic year 1999-2000 in 10 of the 15 EU Member States were women. (Upper secondary education is defined here to include initial vocational



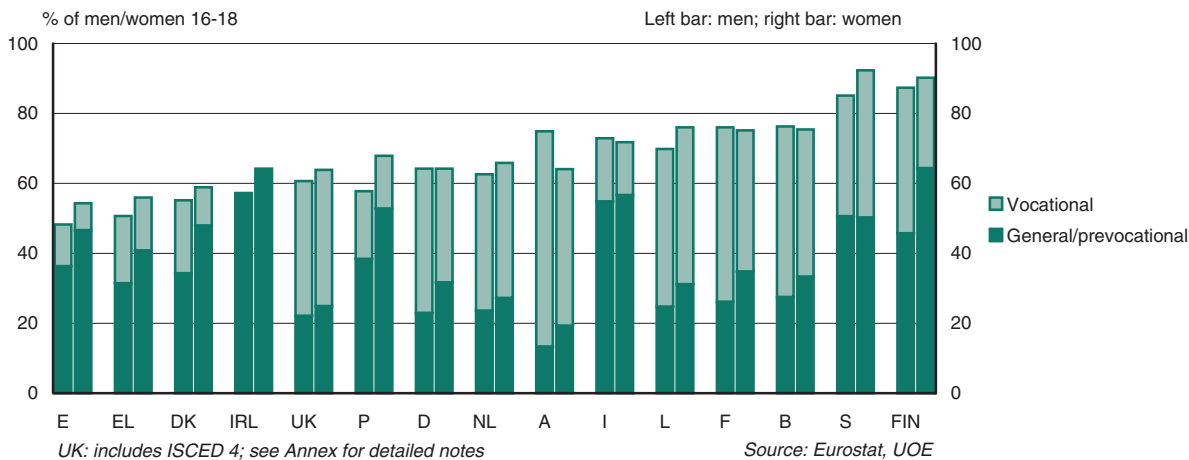
28 Performance of 15 year-old students in mathematical literacy, 2000**29 Performance of 15 year-old students in scientific literacy, 2000**

training which leads to an appropriate qualification, though it tends not to include apprenticeships – see below.) Since women are outnumbered by men in the age group 16 to 18, in these 10 countries, the proportion of women in this age group remaining in education beyond compulsory schooling was larger than for men. In six of these countries – Greece, Spain, Portugal, Ireland, Luxembourg and Sweden – the difference in the enrolment rate was over five percentage points (Graph 30). Moreover, in four of the five countries in which there were more men than women in upper secondary education, there was little difference in the proportion of the age group enrolled. The only country where there were proportionately more men than women to any significant extent was Austria.

Women are more likely than men to be in upper secondary education in most EU countries, though the relative numbers differ between them.

These differences were associated with significant variations across the Union in the overall proportion of women and men enrolled in upper secondary education, the figure ranging from over 80 % in Finland and Sweden to under 60 % in Denmark, Greece and Spain. In Denmark, however, as in Germany and Austria, in the first of which the proportion is only just over 60 %, the figure is likely to be misleading because it excludes a large number of apprentices

30 Enrolment rates in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of 16-18 year-olds, 1999/2000



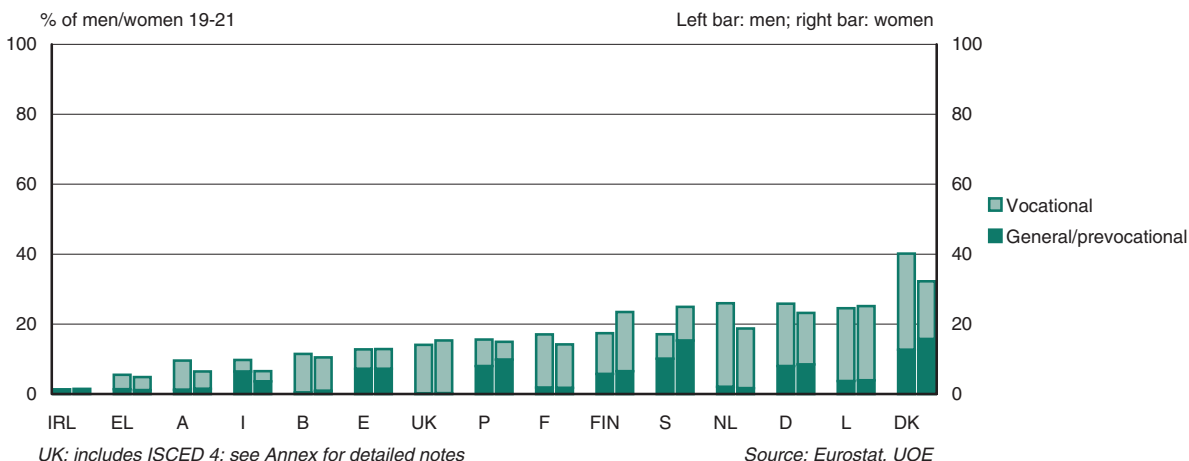
who have a contract of employment and are, therefore, not counted as being in upper secondary education. In terms of the relative numbers remaining in education or initial vocational training, therefore, all three countries would have proportions well over 80 %.

In addition, women were more likely than men to be enrolled in general education programmes rather than vocational ones. In all Member States apart from Sweden, the relative number of women aged 16 to 18 undertaking 'mainstream' programmes was higher than for men, in most countries markedly so. In all countries apart from the Netherlands and the UK, where there was little difference, the relative number of men undertaking vocational programmes was higher than for women.

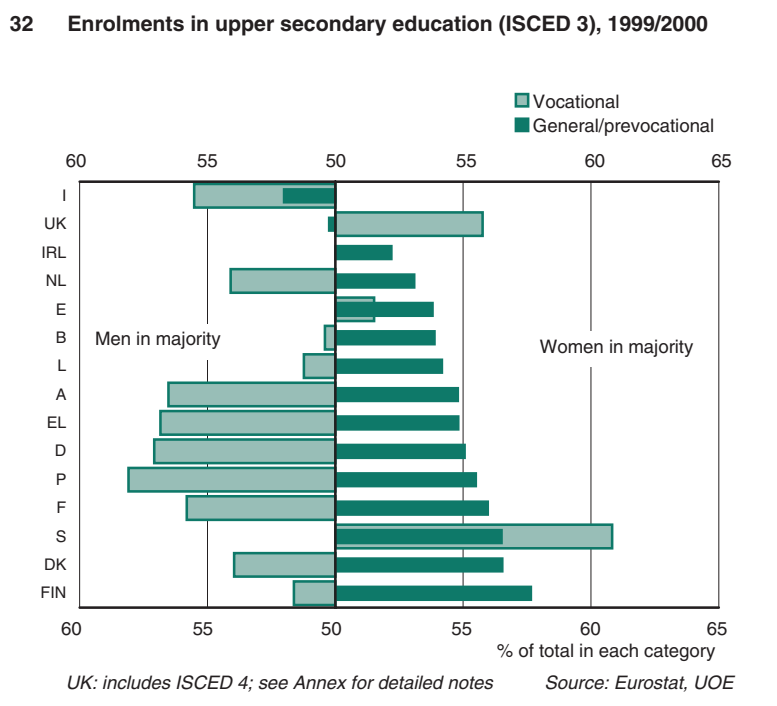
Men are more likely to undertake vocationally-oriented programmes than women.

For those aged 19 and over, the picture is somewhat different, with proportionately more men aged 19 to 21 being enrolled in upper secondary education than women in six Member States and the proportion of men being much the same as for women in six of the others. In only three cases, therefore – Finland,

31 Enrolment rates in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of 19-21 year-olds, 1999/2000



The graph shows the share of enrolments accounted for by men (on the left) when these are in the majority and women (on the right) when these are in the majority – e.g. in Finland, women are in the majority in general programmes (58 % of the total), men in vocational programmes (52 % of the total).



Sweden and, to a lesser extent, the UK – was the relative number of women higher than that of men (Graph 31).

Overall, taking all age groups together, there were more men than women in vocational education or training programmes at upper secondary level and more women than men enrolled in general education, mainstream programmes in most Member States. The exceptions were Spain, Sweden and the UK, where women outnumbered men in vocational education streams, and Italy and the UK, where men outnumbered women in general education streams (Graph 32).

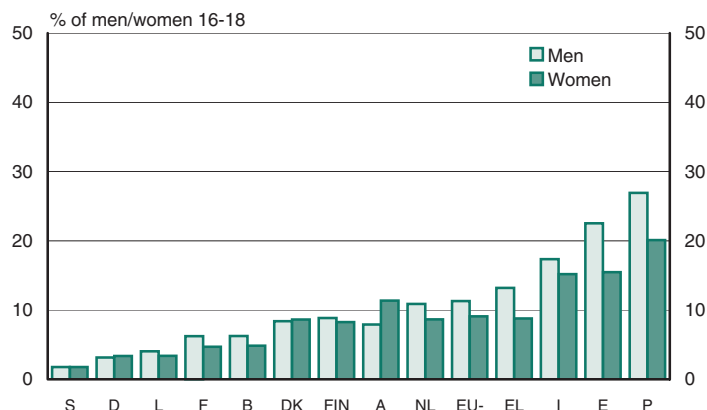
Drop-out rates

Women are less likely to drop out of education after finishing lower secondary school in almost all Member States.

Although young people are increasingly likely to remain in education beyond compulsory schooling, there are still significant numbers who drop out at this point and fail to acquire upper secondary or tertiary level qualifications, which are becoming of growing importance for job prospects both in the short and longer term. This is revealed by the proportions of the 16 to 18 age group who are not in upper secondary education across the Union, as described above. Since these proportions, however, do not include all those in training, it is possible to gain a further insight into the relative numbers leaving the education system without adequate qualifications from the EU labour force surveys (LFS), which reports the relative numbers of young people receiving, or not receiving, education or training.

According to the LFS data, some 9 % of women aged 16 to 18 in the Union in 2000 had no educational qualifications beyond lower secondary schooling (i.e. beyond compulsory schooling) and were not in receipt of education or training (or, more specifically, had not received any over the four weeks preceding the survey). This was less than the proportion of men, just under 11½ % (Graph 33 – which does not include the UK, where the identification of what constitutes lower secondary education as opposed to upper secondary has yet to be agreed, but where as elsewhere there seem to have been fewer women than men with lower secondary education not receiving further education or training).

33 Young people aged 16-18 with less than upper secondary education and not in education or training, 2000



IRL: no data available; UK: data not shown because division between lower and upper secondary education not yet agreed

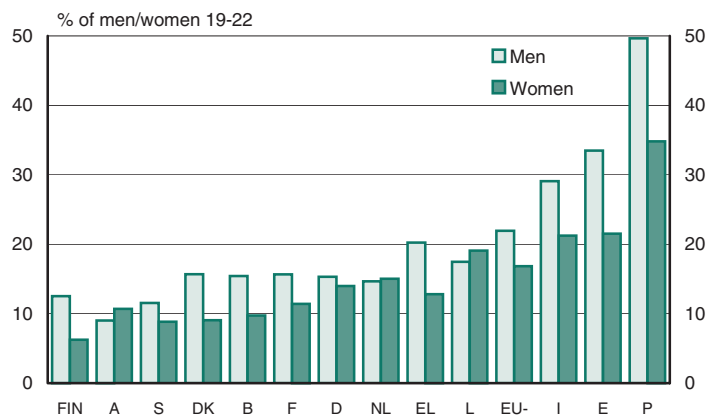
Source: Eurostat, LFS

A similar pattern was repeated in most Member States, with only Austria having a significantly larger share of women than men in this position (11½ % as opposed to 8 %), although in four Member States, Denmark, Germany, Finland and Sweden, there was not much difference between the two proportions. The gap was particularly wide in Greece, Spain and Portugal, especially in the latter two, where the proportion of men with low educational attainment and not in training was some 7 percentage points higher than for women. In both of these countries in any event, the overall proportions in this position were larger than anywhere else in the Union (averaging for both women and men around 18 % in Spain and 23½ % in Portugal, though they were only slightly lower in Italy (16 %). Elsewhere, they were below 10 % except in Greece (and possibly the UK).

For those aged 19 to 22, the relative number with low educational attainment and not participating in training was significantly higher, reflecting the numbers dropping out of upper secondary education without successfully completing their programme of studies. The gap between women and men, moreover,

Women are also less likely than men to drop out of upper secondary education without successfully completing a programme of study.

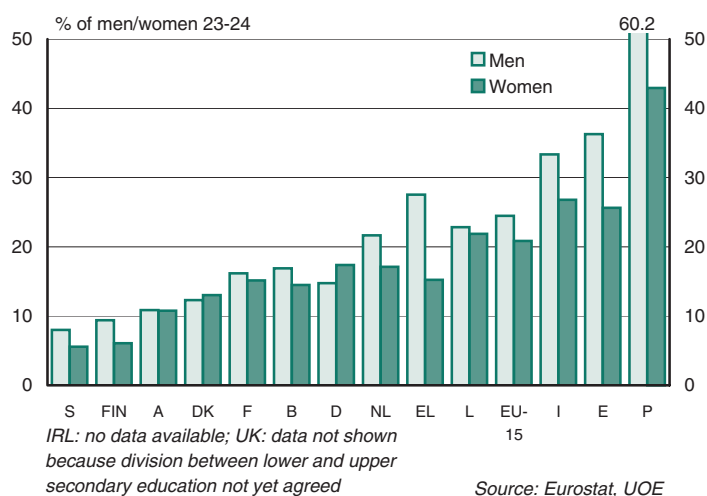
34 Young people aged 19-22 with less than upper secondary education and not in education or training, 2000



IRL: no data available; UK: data not shown because division between lower and upper secondary education not yet agreed

Source: Eurostat, LFS

35 Young people aged 23-24 with less than upper secondary education and not in education or training, 2000



was even wider than for the younger age group. Whereas some 17 % of women in this age group in the Union had lower secondary education and were not receiving education or training, the figure for men was 22 %, with only Austria, Luxembourg and, to a marginal extent, the Netherlands having a larger proportion of women than men in this position (Graph 34). Again the gap between men and women was especially wide in Spain and Portugal (12 percentage points in the former, 15 percentage points in the latter), where the overall figures were higher than elsewhere (a third of men in Spain, half in Portugal, and just over a third of women in both). It was also wide, however, in Greece and Italy as well as Denmark and Finland (over six percentage points in each case).

For those aged 23 to 24, the relative number with low education and not in training was higher again, though not markedly so, and the gap between women and men was narrower (24½ % as against 21 %). There were also more countries where the proportion of women with this level of education not participating in training was larger than for men – Denmark and Germany (as well as possibly the UK), but not Austria, where the figures were similar – though the gap in the reverse direction was once more substantial in Spain and Portugal, as well as Greece (over 10 percentage points in Spain, 17 points in Portugal and 12 in Greece) (Graph 35).

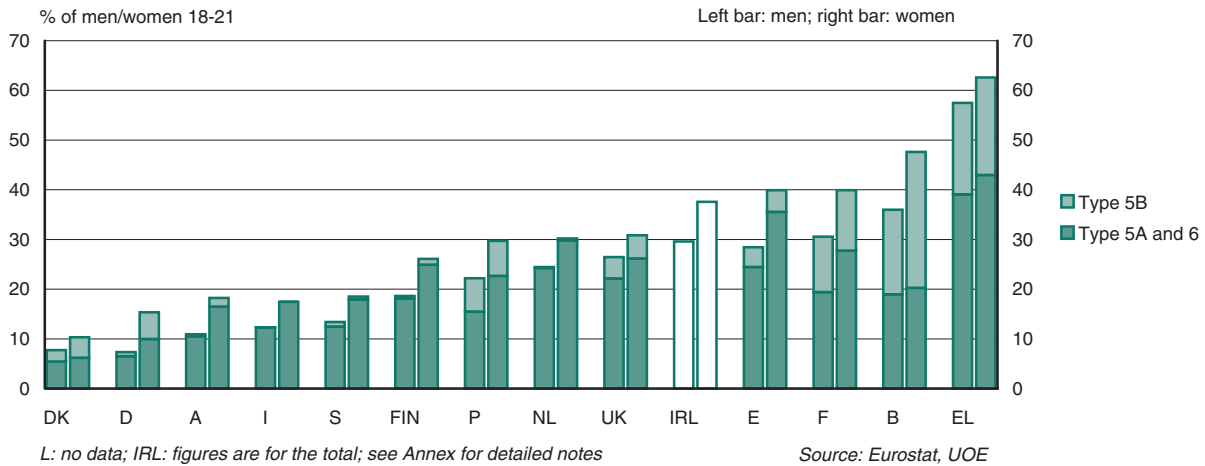
Tertiary education

Women are more likely than men to go on to university education in 14 of the 15 EU Member States.

As in the case of upper secondary education, there are more women than men engaged in tertiary, or university-level, education. Indeed, differences in enrolment rates between women and men are even more pronounced. In the latest academic year for which data are available, women represent more than half of those enrolled in university or equivalent programmes in 14 of the 15 Member States despite women being in a very slight minority in population terms among those in their late teens–early 20s. (It should be noted that these relative proportions might be affected by the larger number of men than women in the armed forces and, accordingly, not enrolled in tertiary – or indeed upper secondary – education. There are no comparable data, however, on the numbers involved across the Union or on how they might affect enrolment rates.)

A higher proportion of women aged 18 to 21, therefore, were enrolled in tertiary education than in the case of men both at the Union level and in all

36 Enrolment rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of 18-21 year-olds, 1999/2000



37 Enrolment rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of 22-24 year-olds, 1999/2000



38 Enrolment rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of 25-28 year-olds, 1999/2000



Member States. The overall enrolment rates, however, varied markedly between countries reflecting the differing ages at which women and men typically undertake university-level programmes of study. Whereas in most countries in Europe, it is around 18 to 22, in Germany, Austria and the three Nordic countries, it extends into the mid-20s, reflecting a tendency both for courses to be longer and for people to begin tertiary education slightly later. The other difference reflected in the figures concerns the different policies followed across the Union with regard to access to university education and the restrictions, or lack of them, imposed on enrolment. There are, accordingly, very different relationships between enrolments and graduations across the Union and substantial numbers of those enrolled fail to complete programmes successfully in a number of countries.

The proportion of women and men enrolled in tertiary education, therefore, ranged from around 60 % in Greece and over 40 % in Belgium, to under 15 % in Denmark, Sweden, Germany, Austria and Italy (Graph 36). In all countries except the Netherlands, moreover, the relative number of women exceeded that of men in both ‘academically-oriented’ (ISCED 5A and 6) and ‘occupationally-oriented’ (ISCED 5B) courses.

The proportion of women and men over 21 enrolled in tertiary education is similar across the EU as a whole.

For those aged 22 to 24, the relative rates of enrolment differ markedly from those for the younger age group. The proportions of women and men in this age group engaged in tertiary education are highest in the Nordic countries (around 35 % in Finland, 25 % in Denmark and Sweden), while they are also relatively high (around 20 %) in Germany, Austria and Italy as well as Spain and France (Graph 37). In Greece, the UK and Ireland, they are only around 10 %. The tendency for the proportion of women to be higher than men, moreover, is much less widespread. While it remains true in the three Nordic countries, Spain, France, Italy and Portugal, it is not the case in the other countries, where in most cases there is relatively little difference.

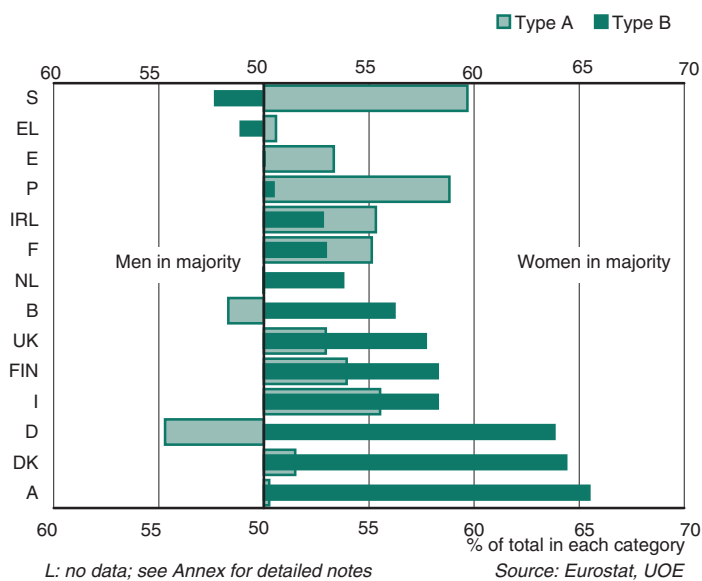
For the 25 to 28 age group, enrolment rates shrink to well under 20 % except in Finland and Denmark, and, elsewhere, are above 10 % only in Germany, Italy, Austria and Sweden (Graph 38). For this group, the proportion of women is significantly higher than for men only in Denmark, Italy, Portugal and Sweden, and the reverse is the case in Germany, Austria and the Netherlands. In most countries, there is little difference between the two. In some degree, the relative decline in the enrolment rates of women in tertiary education as compared with men as older age groups are progressively examined reflects the fact that fewer women than men are engaged in postgraduate studies in most countries – or at least, in those for which data are available.

Women are in the majority in both occupationally-oriented programmes and more academic ones, but more men have undertaken advanced research programmes.

The enrolment rates for the three broad age groups described above mean that in aggregate women represented around 53 % of all students enrolled in tertiary level education in 1999–2000 in the Union as a whole. They also represented, as intimated above, a larger proportion (56 % and – 52½ %, respectively) of those engaged in both practically oriented, occupationally-specific programmes (ISCED 5B programmes) and more theoretically-based, general education programmes (ISCED 5A) (Graph 39). On the other hand, at advanced research, doctorate or similar level (ISCED 6), men accounted for just over 54 % of the total.

Only in Belgium and Germany for general study programmes (Type A) and Greece and Sweden for occupational ones (Type B) did men represent the majority of those enrolled.

39 Enrolments in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5), 1999/2000



The graph shows the share of enrolments accounted for by men (on the left) when these are in the majority and women (on the right) when these are in the majority – e.g. in Sweden, women are in the majority in academically-oriented (Type A) programmes (almost 60 % of the total), men in occupationally-oriented (Type B) programmes (52 % of the total). Graph 40 shows the share of graduations in the same way.

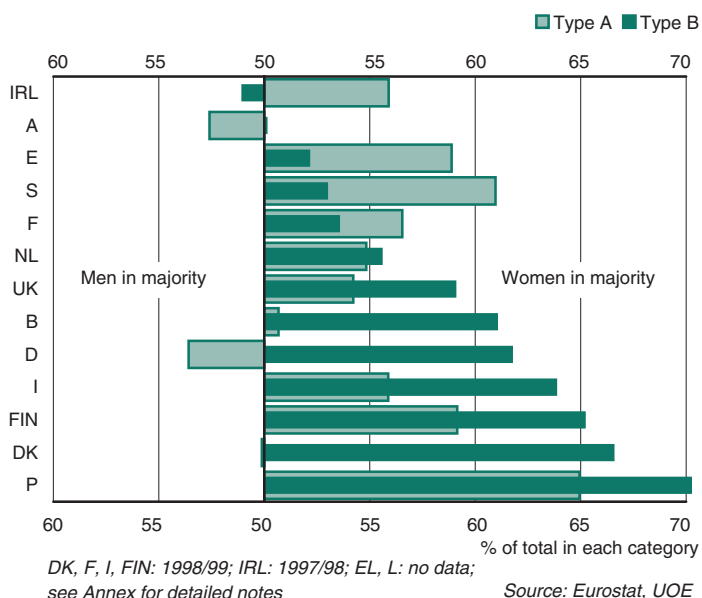
Women and men graduating by broad age group

In 2000, women accounted for some 56 % of those graduating from university or equivalent institutions with first-level (ISCED 5) tertiary qualifications, a slightly larger proportion than in the case of enrolments.

Apart from Austria, the pattern was common to all Member States. Women represented the majority of graduates in both the academically-oriented (ISCED 5A) and occupationally-oriented (ISCED 5B) programmes, with the exception of Germany and Austria as regards general programmes and Denmark (marginally) and Ireland as regards occupational ones (Graph 40).

Women are in the majority of those graduating from university in all Member States except one.

40 Graduations in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5), 2000



Moreover, apart from Austria and, to a lesser extent Ireland, women made up more of those graduating than of those who were enrolled.

At advanced research (ISCED 6) level, however, the substantial majority of graduates were men in all countries. In the Union as a whole (excluding Greece and Luxembourg for which data are not available), men represented around 61 % of all students graduating at this level, significantly more than their share of enrolments, a feature which was also true in all Member States except Italy.

Differences in subject areas studied

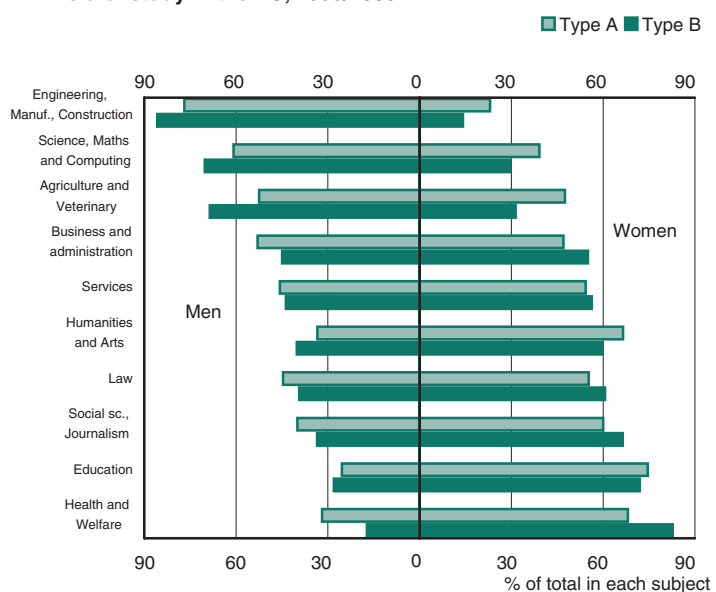
Despite the increasing number of women studying at tertiary level, some fields of study still seem to be highly segregated according to sex. After excluding the countries for which no data by field of study are available (Greece, France, Luxembourg, Austria), at ISCED 5 level, men represented the majority of those enrolled in Engineering, manufacturing and construction as well as Science, maths and computing in all Member States (and in most cases significantly so), with the only exception being Italy, where the proportion of women enrolled in Science and computing was marginally higher than that of men (Graph 41).

Differences are even more significant for occupationally-oriented (Type 5B) programmes, where on average in the Union the proportion of men was as high as 86 % in Engineering and 70 % in Science and computing as against 77 % and 61 %, respectively, in more academically-oriented (Type 5A) programmes.

On the other hand, women are more likely to choose either Educational sciences or Humanities and arts and Health and welfare. For these areas of study, in the EU as a whole, women represented over two thirds of all those enrolled at ISCED 5 level. In Health and welfare, women represented 83 % of students in occupationally-oriented programmes and 68½ % in more academically-oriented programmes.

There are still large differences in the fields of study chosen by women and men; men greatly outnumber women in science and engineering, the reverse is true in Arts and humanities.

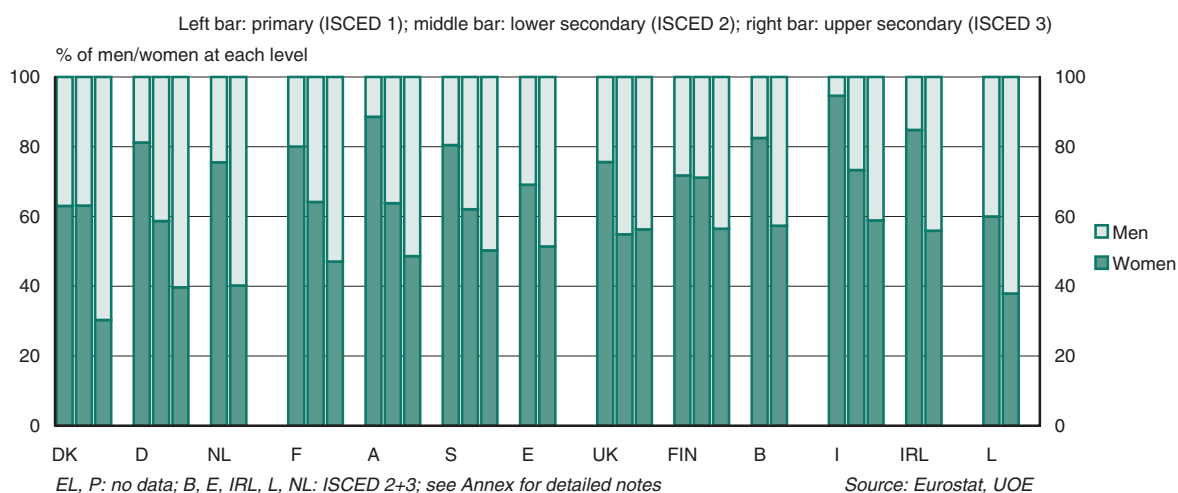
41 Enrolments in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) by field of study in the EU, 1999/2000



Excludes EL, F, L

Source: Eurostat, UOE

42 Teachers in primary and secondary education, 1999/2000



At the advanced research (ISCED 6) level, with the exception of Spain and Portugal, men represented the majority of those enrolled in all Member States for which data are available (i.e. excluding Germany and Luxembourg), and as much as 60 % in Greece and the UK and 65 % in Belgium. On average, men were in the majority in all fields of study except for Educational sciences and Health and welfare, where they represented just under half of all students at this level.

Teachers

Teaching in primary and secondary education is a predominantly female profession in all Member States, apart from Luxembourg. At the primary level, women outnumber men substantially in all Member States without exception. In 6 of the 13 countries for which data by sex are available, more than 80 % of teachers at this level of education in 1999–2000 were women and over 90 % in Italy (Graph 42).

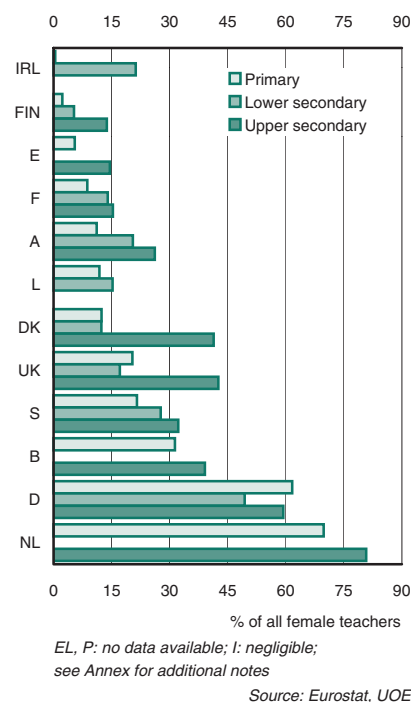
Women still represent over half of the teachers in lower secondary education, but the proportion is significantly lower than at the primary school level – 60 % in the Union as a whole in 1999–2000, though over 70 % in Italy and Finland and under 55 % only in Luxembourg (38 %).

At the upper secondary level, the proportion of women falls further to around 50 % of the total in 1999–2000, with the figure ranging from 60 % in Italy and over 55 % in Belgium, Finland and the UK to 40 % in Germany and the Netherlands and only 30 % in Denmark.

Although part-time working is not a particularly common practice among men and women teachers taken together, and while few men work part-time, around 30 % of women teachers are employed on a part-time basis in the Union as a whole – much the same as the share of part-time employment among women in other sectors of activity. As in other activities, however, large differences exist between Member States, and there are also differences in the importance of part-time working between levels of education (Graph 43).

More than half of women teachers in Germany and almost three quarters in the Netherlands teach part-time at primary and secondary levels taken together.

43 Women teaching part-time in primary and secondary education, 1999/2000



The relative number of women teachers falls as the level of education rise and more tend to work part-time

On the other hand, the figure is only around 10 % in Spain and Ireland and just over 6 % in Finland.

The proportion of women teachers who work part-time tends to increase with the level of education. For those teaching in primary schools, therefore, the figure was around 27 % in the Union in 1999–2000, for those teaching in lower secondary schools, 30 % and for those teaching in upper secondary schools, 34 %. While this general pattern holds for most countries – with, for example, only Germany having a larger proportion of teachers working part-time in primary schools than in other types – there are marked variations between Member States in the importance of part-time working at each education level.

The relative number of women teachers working part-time in primary schools, therefore, exceeded 30 % only in Belgium (marginally), Germany and the Netherlands and was under 15 % in six countries. The proportion of women teachers employed part-time in lower secondary schools was greater than 30 % only in Germany, but by a sufficient margin to push the EU average to 30 %. On the other hand, the proportion teaching part-time in upper secondary education was under 30 % only in four of the countries for which data are available.

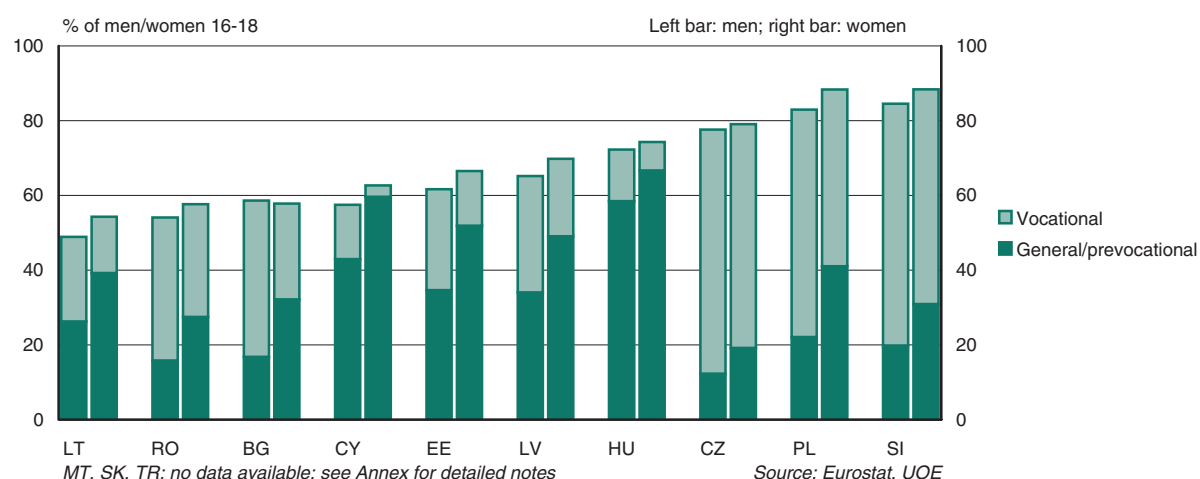
Women and men in education in the candidate countries

Upper secondary education

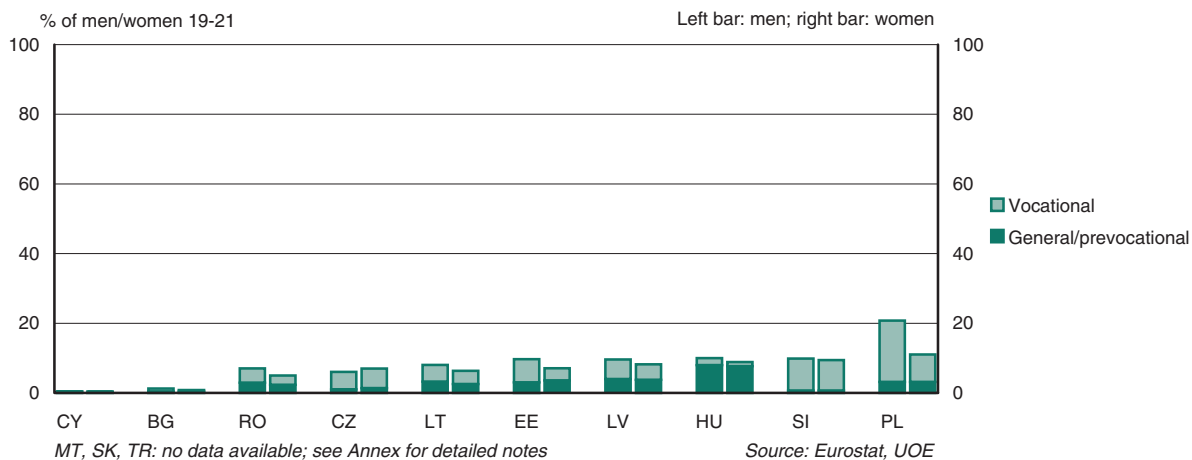
As in the EU, the proportion of women enrolled in upper secondary education is higher than men in the candidate countries.

As in the Union, the proportion of women aged 16 to 18 who are enrolled in upper secondary education in the candidate countries tends to be larger than that for men. In nine of the 10 countries for which data are available, there were proportionately more women than men in education at this level in this age group in 1999–2000, the difference being pronounced in most cases. Indeed in 6 of the countries – all three Baltic States, Poland, Slovenia and Cyprus – the proportion of women 16 to 18 year-olds enrolled was 4–5 percentage points higher than for men (Graph 44). Only in Bulgaria did the relative number of women remaining in education beyond compulsory schooling exceed that of men. The overall proportions, on the other hand, varied significantly between the countries, from over 80 % in Poland and Slovenia and almost 80 % in the Czech Republic to under 60 % in Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania and around 60 % in Cyprus.

44 Enrolment rates in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of 16-18 year-olds in candidate countries, 1999/2000



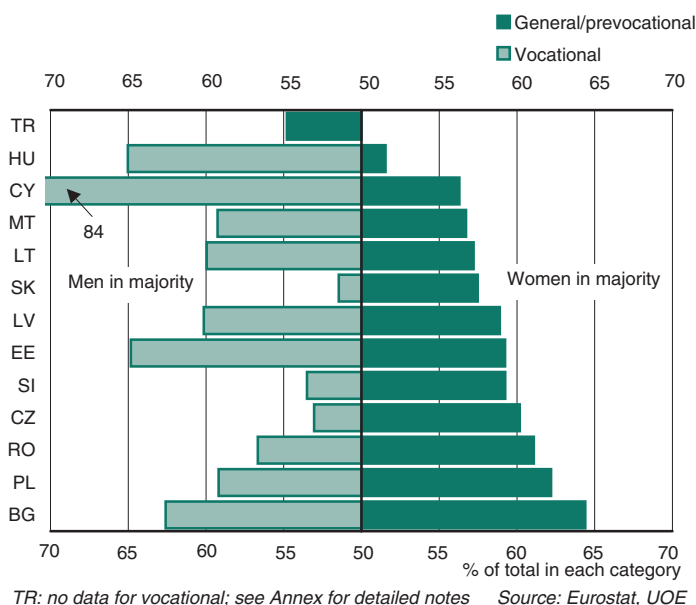
45 Enrolment rates in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of 19-21 year-olds in candidate countries, 1999/2000



There was a more marked difference between women and men than in the Union in the relative numbers enrolled in general as opposed to vocational education or training. In all the countries, the proportion of women in the 16-18 age group engaged in general – or mainstream – education was substantially higher than that of men, while the reverse was true in respect of vocational programmes of study.

Enrolments in upper secondary education of those aged 19 to 21 show a very different pattern. In all countries except the Czech Republic, the proportion of men in this age group engaged in education at this level exceeded that of women. The difference was particularly marked in Poland where it was almost 30 percentage points (Graph 45). The overall proportion participating in education at this level among 19 to 21 year olds varies considerably between the countries, from just over 20 % for men in Poland (though only around 11 %

46 Enrolments of men and women in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) in candidate countries, 1999/2000



The graph shows the share of enrolments accounted for by men (on the left) when these are in the majority and women (on the right) when these are in the majority – e.g. in Bulgaria, women are in the majority in general programmes (64 % of the total), men in vocational programmes (63 % of the total).

for women) and around 9–10 % in Hungary and Slovenia to 1 % and below in Bulgaria and Cyprus.

The main reason for the difference between the relative numbers of women and men in this age group engaged in upper secondary education is the much larger proportion of men undertaking vocational training. Whereas the proportion of the two enrolled in general education programmes was similar, in all the countries, again apart from the Czech Republic, a significantly higher proportion of men than women was undergoing vocational training.

Overall around two thirds of male students enrolled in upper secondary education, and three quarters or more in the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia, were undertaking vocational programmes in 1999–2000, as opposed to only just over half of women. In the countries in which a large proportion of men were enrolled in the vocational stream, however, the same was true for women. In consequence, in all the candidate countries apart from Turkey, men were in the majority in vocational programmes and women were in the majority in general programmes (Graph 46).

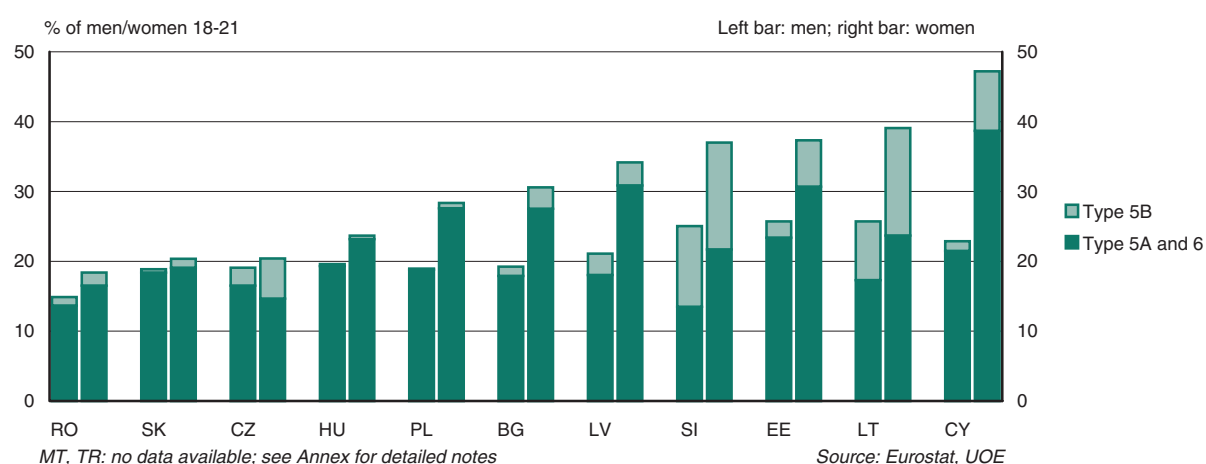
In all candidate countries, there were more women aged 18–21 in university education than men.

Tertiary education

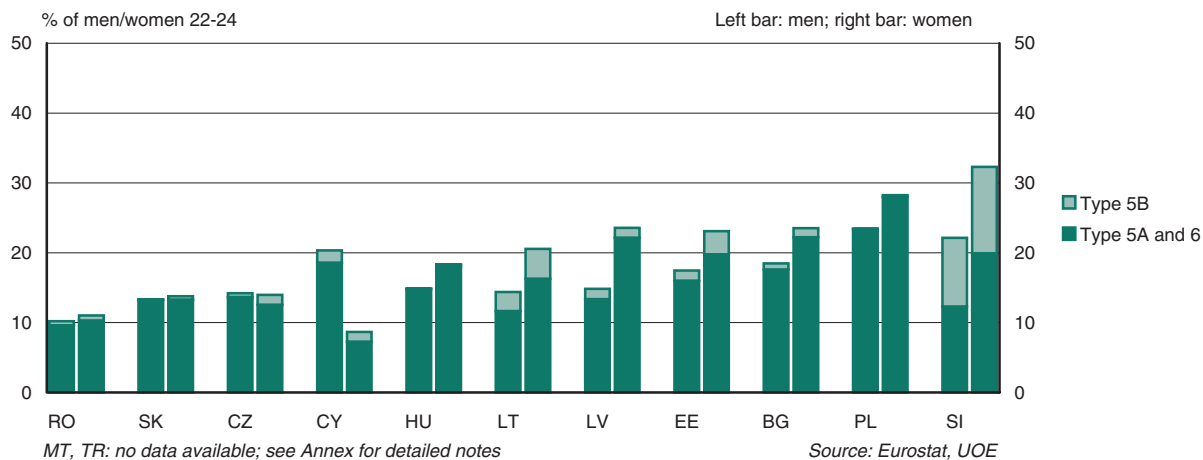
Again as in the Union, the proportion of women undertaking tertiary education was higher than for men, this time with no exceptions among the countries, as least as regards the 18 to 21 age group. Over a third of women in this age group were enrolled in universities or equivalent institutions in all three Baltic States and Slovenia, while only in Estonia and Latvia was the figure for men over 25 %, and then only marginally (Graph 47). This may be a reflection of the larger proportion of men than women of this age enrolled in upper secondary education, and specifically vocational training programmes within this, but the difference in proportions at the tertiary level was over 10 percentage points in six of the 10 countries for which data exist.

Although the gap is narrower for the 22 to 24 age group, it is still the case that the proportion of women of this age enrolled in tertiary education was larger than for men in most countries in 1999–2000, the only exceptions being the Czech Republic and Slovakia, where the two figures are much the same, and Cyprus, where the proportion was much larger for men than women (Graph 48). Overall, the relative numbers involved in tertiary education in this

47 Enrolment rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of 18-21 year-olds in candidate countries, 1999/2000



48 Enrolment rates in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of 22-24 year-olds in candidate countries, 1999/2000



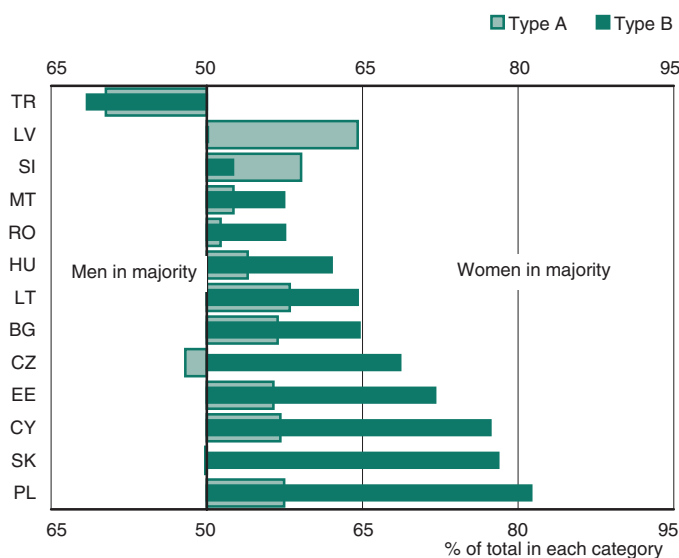
age group are not so different from those in the Union, with the proportion of women and men being over 20 % in Bulgaria, Poland and Slovenia and under 15 % only in Romania and Slovakia, most of them studying general rather than vocational programmes.

The proportions participating in tertiary education fall off for both women and men older than this, and under 10 % of those aged 25 to 28 are enrolled in tertiary education in all of the candidate countries.

Taking all those enrolled in tertiary education, the predominance of women is particularly marked in the more occupationally-oriented (ISCED 5B) programmes. In 1999–2000, women represented over 75 % of those enrolled in these types of programme in Cyprus, Poland and Slovakia and men were the majority only in Turkey, where they accounted for over 60 % of the total

Women outnumber men in both the occupationally-oriented and more academic programmes, but especially in the former.

49 Enrolments in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) in candidate countries, 1999/2000



The graph shows the share of enrolments accounted for by men (on the left) when these are in the majority and women (on the right) when these are in the majority – e.g. in the Czech Republic, women are in the majority occupationally-oriented (Type B) programmes (almost 69 % of the total), men in academically-oriented (Type A) programmes (52 % of the total). Graph 50 shows the share of graduations in the same way.

enrolled. Women were also in the majority in more academically-oriented (ISCED 5A) programmes at tertiary level in most of the candidate countries. Only in the Czech Republic and Turkey – where they accounted for around 60 % of those enrolled in this type of programme, only slightly less than for occupationally-oriented programmes – were there more men than women engaged in these types of programme, although in Slovakia, the number of men and women was much the same (Graph 49).

Except for Turkey, women made up the large majority of university graduates at first (ISCED 5) level in all countries (no data are available for Bulgaria), even more so than for enrolments. As in EU Member States, this was true for both more academically-oriented (ISCED 5A) and occupationally-oriented (ISCED 5B) programmes, the only exception being Malta where men represented the majority of occupationally-oriented graduates (Graph 50).

As in the Union, men represented the majority of graduates at advanced research (ISCED 6) level in most countries (seven of the nine for which there are data).

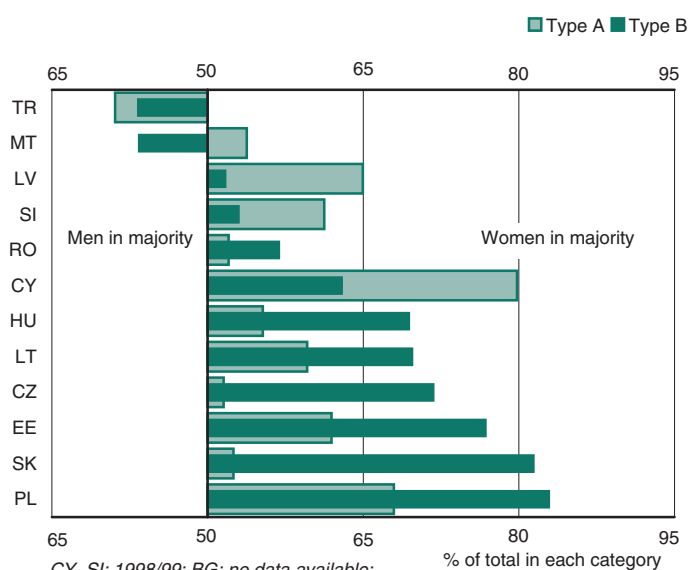
There is also a similar pattern of difference in the candidate countries as in the Union between the fields of study undertaken by men and women at tertiary level, though the pattern is less general and, in some cases, less pronounced. Women, therefore, represented a majority of those studying Science and computing in Bulgaria, Poland and Romania. Men, however, were in the minority in Humanities and arts, Health and welfare and Educational sciences in all the countries, especially in relation to occupationally-oriented programmes (Graph 51).

Teachers

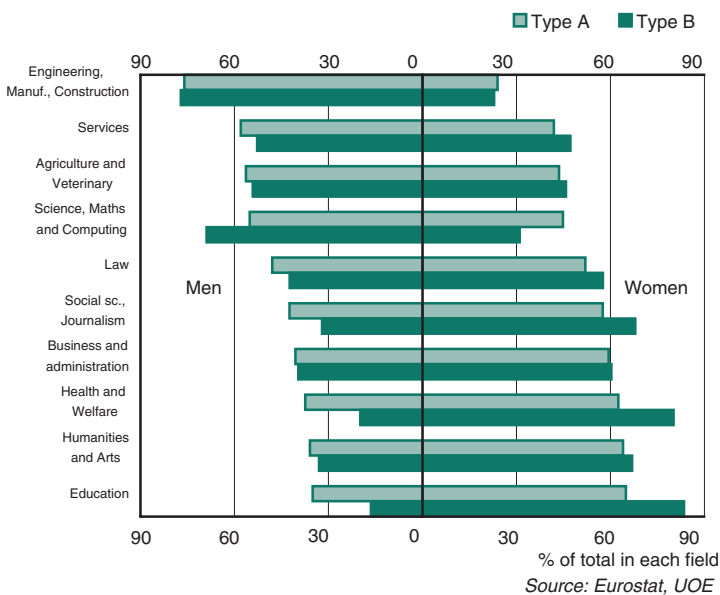
Most teachers are women at all levels of education in the candidate countries unlike in the EU where there are more male teachers at upper secondary level.

Unlike in the EU, most teachers are women in the candidate countries at the upper secondary as well as at the primary and lower secondary level. In 1999–2000, women accounted on average for around 80 % of all teachers in primary and secondary schools taken together in the countries for which data are available (Graph 52). At primary level, women represented over 90 % of

50 Graduations in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) in candidate countries, 2000



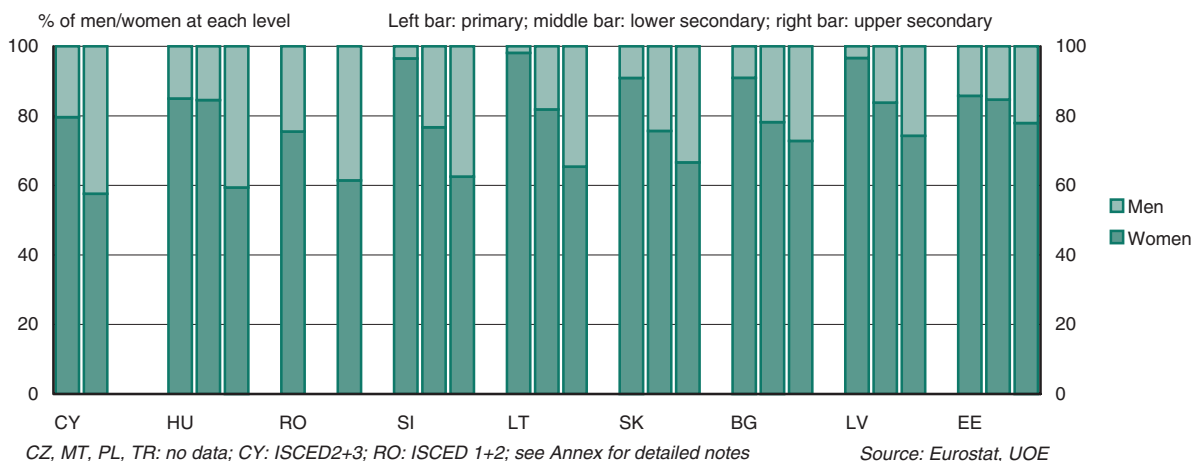
51 Enrolments of men and women in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) by field of study in candidate countries, 1999/2000



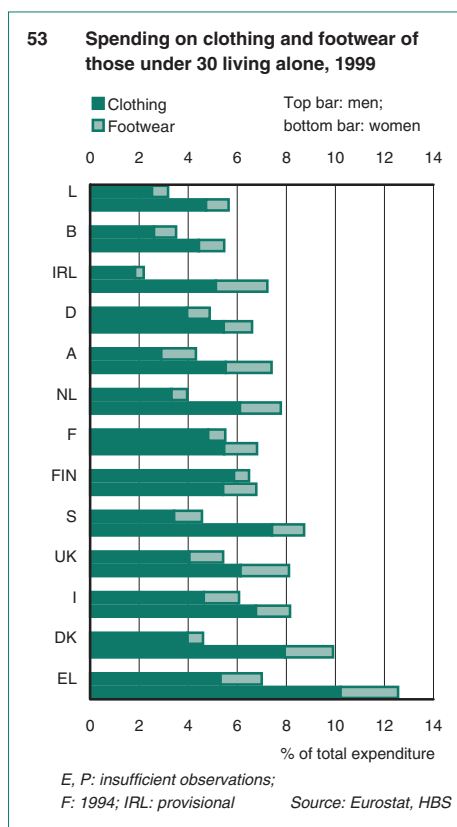
teachers in 5 of the 8 countries for which there are data and only in Cyprus was the figure below 80 % (and then only marginally). Women also accounted for over 80 % of teachers in lower secondary schools in 4 of the 8 countries where there are data and for over 75 % in the other four (though in Romania, the data for lower secondary education also include primary school teachers). Moreover, some 60 % or more of upper secondary teachers were women in all the countries, except Cyprus.

With the exception of Latvia (where over 30 % of women were employed part-time in 1999–2000), the extent of part-time working among women teachers was less than in the Union in all the candidate countries, though, as in the EU, there is a general tendency for a larger proportion of teachers to work part-time at upper secondary level than at lower levels.

52 Teachers in primary and secondary education in candidate countries, 1999/2000



1.4. Lifestyle



Social and cultural life of young women and men

Some indication of the life styles of young women and men can be obtained from statistics on consumers' expenditure, and, in particular, from data on the pattern of spending of those under 30 compiled from household budget surveys in EU Member States. Since these data do not distinguish the expenditure of different individuals within the household and, therefore, of young women as opposed to young men, an insight can only be gained by focusing on those living alone. This inevitably restricts the size of the sample, more so in some countries than others, since the relative number of single-person households differs significantly across the Union. Nor can it necessarily be assumed that the pattern of expenditure of those living alone is representative of young women and men as a whole, though there is no obvious reason why it should be substantially different, particularly in comparative terms.

Clothing and footwear

Although the overall amount of expenditure varies across the Union, young women spent a significantly larger share of their budget than men on clothes and shoes in 1999 in all Member States, for which data are available, except Finland, where they spent much the same amount (Graph 53). There was no Member State in which women under 30 spent less than 5½ % of their overall budget on these items, while men spent 5½ % or less in 10 of the 15 EU. The difference was especially marked in Greece, where over 10 % of the total expenditure of young women living alone went on these items some 5–6 percentage points more than that of men.

Alcohol and tobacco

By contrast, men spent more than women on beer, wines and spirits in 1999 in all Member States for which there are data. The difference between women and men in the share of the budget devoted to alcohol, however, was relatively small in Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria but relatively large in most other countries (Graph 54). In absolute terms, the difference was largest of all in Ireland, where women and men both spend considerably more on alcohol than elsewhere in the Union.

Young men also tended to spend more than women on tobacco, though in a number of countries – specifically, Denmark, France, Austria and Sweden – the difference in the proportion of expenditure going on this item was small.

Recreation and culture

Although the scale of expenditure on recreational and cultural activities varies markedly across the Union, in part reflecting variations in income per head – though not entirely – in most Member States, men devote a larger proportion

of their budget to these activities than women. The exceptions are Greece, Luxembourg and Sweden, where they spend less (Graph 55).

Young women and men both tend to spend a relatively large share of their budget on recreational and cultural activities. A significant proportion of this goes on televisions, stereos and other audio-visual equipment. In all Member States, young men spent more than young women in 1999, in many cases, substantially so (Table 2).

There is much less of a uniform difference between women and men in the share of their budget devoted to other recreational equipment and to games, toys, sporting equipment and hobbies. In seven of the Member States for which data are available, men spent more than women, in five, the reverse was the case, and in one (Sweden), they spent the same amount. A similar pattern was evident for expenditure on recreational, cultural and sporting services, which include fees for the use of facilities and equipment (such as for tennis courts, swimming pools or skis) as well as entrance fees for football grounds, cinemas or theatres. Again young men spent more of their budget on these items than women in seven Member States and a similar amount in another two (Germany and the UK).

By contrast, younger women tend to devote more of their budget to buying books, newspapers and periodicals than men, which is consistent with the finding, noted above, that girls tend to devote more time to reading for pleasure than boys. In eight of the 13 Member States for which there are data, a larger share of women's than men's spending went on these, in four countries (Denmark, Germany, France and Italy), the share was much the same and in only one case – Ireland – did men spend more than women.

There is less of a difference in expenditure on packaged holidays, women spending a larger proportion of their budget on these in seven Member States, men in four and the proportion being much the same in Greece and Finland. The overall scale of spending, however, varies considerably between countries, from an average of around 5% in Sweden to much less than 1/2% in Greece.

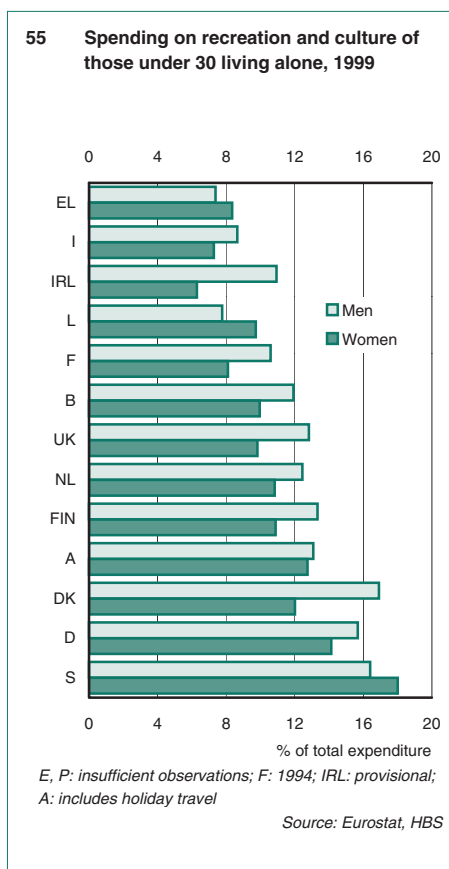


Table 2 – Consumption expenditure of private one-person households without dependent children and head of households aged below 30, 1999

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	% of total expenditure		
													FIN	S	UK
Alcoholic beverages – 02.1¹															
Men	1.7	2.5	2.1	0.7	:	1.2	(9.8)	0.8	(1.2)	(0.9)	0.8	:	2.2	(2.5)	1.4
Women	0.5	1.9	1.2	0.2	:	0.6	(7.4)	0.4	(1.0)	(0.7)	0.7	(0.1)	1.1	(1.7)	1.1
Tobacco – 02.2															
Men	1.5	2.0	:	3.7	:	2.0	(2.7)	1.3	(1.0)	(1.1)	2.1	:	1.5	(1.1)	2.3
Women	0.8	2.1	:	2.3	:	2.0	(2.4)	0.8	(0.7)	(0.4)	1.9	(0.6)	1.0	(1.1)	1.5
Clothing – 03.1															
Men	2.6	4.0	4.0	5.3	:	4.8	(1.8)	4.6	(2.5)	(3.3)	2.9	:	5.9	(3.4)	4.0
Women	4.4	7.9	5.4	10.2	:	5.5	(5.1)	6.8	(4.7)	(6.1)	5.5	(7.1)	5.4	(7.4)	6.1
Footwear – 03.2															
Men	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.7	:	0.7	(0.4)	1.4	(0.7)	(0.6)	1.4	:	0.6	(1.1)	1.4
Women	1.0	2.0	1.2	2.3	:	1.3	(2.1)	1.4	(0.9)	(1.7)	1.9	(2.1)	1.4	(1.3)	2.0
Audio-visual and data processing equipment – 09.1															
Men	2.9	6.1	5.3	2.0	:	3.6	(3.5)	1.5	(2.6)	(5.1)	4.1	:	4.4	(4.3)	4.1
Women	1.2	2.4	3.4	0.8	:	2.3	(2.3)	1.1	(2.0)	(1.6)	1.5	(1.0)	2.2	(3.7)	1.5
Other recreational equipment and items – 09.2+09.3															
Men	1.9	3.5	1.9	1.1	:	1.9	(0.8)	1.3	(1.3)	(1.8)	0.8	:	4.4	(1.8)	0.9
Women	1.6	1.8	2.1	0.6	:	1.1	(0.2)	1.5	(1.9)	(2.0)	1.6	(0.4)	2.2	(1.8)	0.8
Recreational and cultural services – 09.4															
Men	5.4	4.0	3.7	1.7	:	2.7	(3.0)	1.9	(2.2)	(2.3)	2.3	:	3.0	(5.1)	3.8
Women	4.0	3.4	3.8	1.4	:	2.5	(1.5)	1.7	(3.0)	(3.0)	2.8	(0.4)	3.3	(2.3)	3.7
Newspapers, books and stationery – 09.5															
Men	1.0	1.9	2.3	2.6	:	1.3	(2.0)	1.4	(0.7)	(1.3)	1.9	:	0.9	(2.2)	1.0
Women	1.9	2.0	2.3	5.4	:	1.5	(1.5)	1.3	(1.4)	(1.8)	2.7	(1.5)	2.3	(3.2)	1.9
Package holidays – 09.6²															
Men	0.7	1.5	2.4	0.2	:	1.1	(1.5)	2.6	(1.0)	(2.0)	4.0	:	0.7	(3.0)	3.0
Women	1.3	2.3	2.6	0.1	:	0.7	(0.9)	1.6	(1.4)	(2.3)	4.3	(0.1)	0.8	(7.0)	2.0

Digits in row headings refer to the Coicop classification. F and P: 1994; IRL: provisional; figures in brackets are published with a warning about reliability.

¹ D: figures are for alcoholic beverages and tobacco together.

² A: includes holiday travel.

Source: Eurostat, Household Budget Survey

Physical exercise

Young men are more likely than women to undertake activities involving physical exercise.

Young men aged 15 to 24 tend to engage in more physical exercise than women of the same age, according to a survey conducted in 1997 by the Institute of European Food Studies. Across the Union as a whole, some 81 % of men in this age group undertook some form of physical activity which lasted for two hours or more a week as against just under 70 % of women (Table 3). Moreover, whereas 60 % of men spent at least five hours a week performing a physical activity, the figure for women was only 40 %. The proportion of young people taking physical exercise, as well as the time spent, tends to increase with their level of educational attainment for both men and women (Graph 56).

Walking represents the most common form of exercise for young women, some 42 % spending at least 1 hour a week walking continuously as against 28 % of young men, while for young men, football is by far the most common form of physical activity, over 40 % playing for an hour a week or more and almost a third for two or more hours (Graph 57). Needless to say, very few women play football, but more of them than men took fitness classes (24 % as against 17 %) and went swimming (17 % as against 13 %). On the other hand, almost twice as many men as women cycled for an hour a week or more (19 % as opposed to 10 %), making it the third most popular form of physical exercise for men in this age group.

56 Men and women aged 15-24 spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity, by education level, 1997

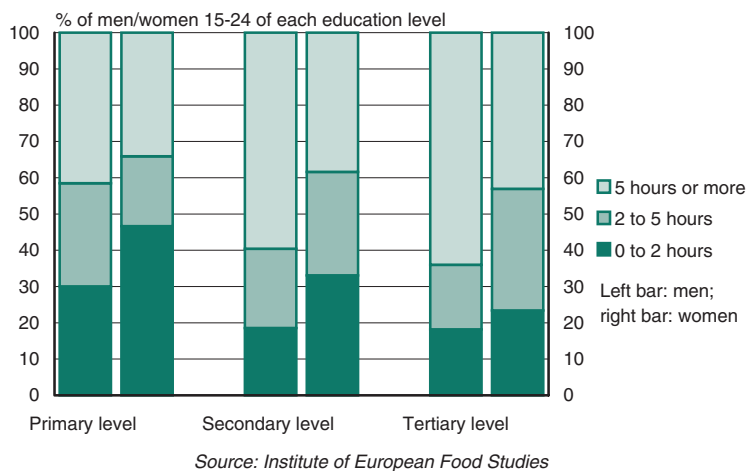
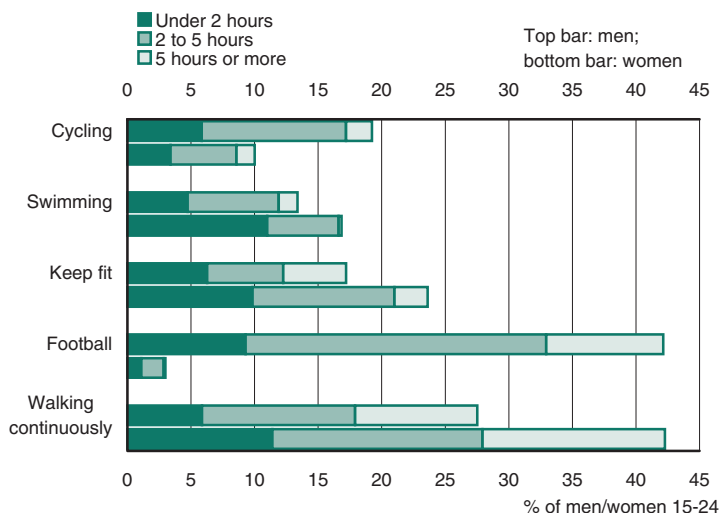


Table 3 – Men and women aged 15-24 spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity by education level, 1997

	% of men/women 15-24 of each level	
	Men	Women
Total		
< 2 hours	19	31
2-5 hours	21	30
5 or more hours	60	40
Primary level		
< 2 hours	30	47
2-5 hours	28	19
5 or more hours	42	34
Secondary level		
< 2 hours	19	33
2-5 hours	22	29
5 or more hours	60	38
Tertiary level		
< 2 hours	18	23
2-5 hours	18	34
5 or more hours	64	43

Source: Institute of European Food Studies

57 Main physical activities of men and women aged 15-24, 1997



Young people involved in crime

Comparing statistics on crime across countries is fraught with difficulty because of differences in legal systems and in the definition of what constitutes particular criminal acts. Moreover, there are also differences in the age at which a young person passes from being a juvenile to an adult. The only international set of data comes from the United Nations Criminal and Justice Survey (UNCJS), which attempts to apply standardised definitions to the statistics produced by individual countries. While it is difficult to determine how comparable the resulting figures are in practice, and although, like all data in this area, they are affected by under-reporting, they should provide a reasonable indication of the difference in involvement in crime of men and women.

Even after standardisation of the data, the number of juveniles (typically those aged between 14 and 17) reported to have been convicted in a criminal court varies considerably across the Union, from only around six young women per 100 000 in

Young men are very much more likely to become involved in crime than women, very few young women are convicted of crime and even fewer are imprisoned.

58 Juvenile convicted criminals and prisoners, 1997



Spain to almost 5 000 young men per 100 000 in Finland (both figures for 1997). Throughout the Union, however, the number of young men convicted substantially outweighs the number of young women. On the latest statistics (mostly for 1997), women accounted for under 20 % of total juveniles convicted in all nine Member States for which there are data, for only around 10 % in Belgium, Sweden and the UK and for under 5 % in Greece and Spain (Graph 58).

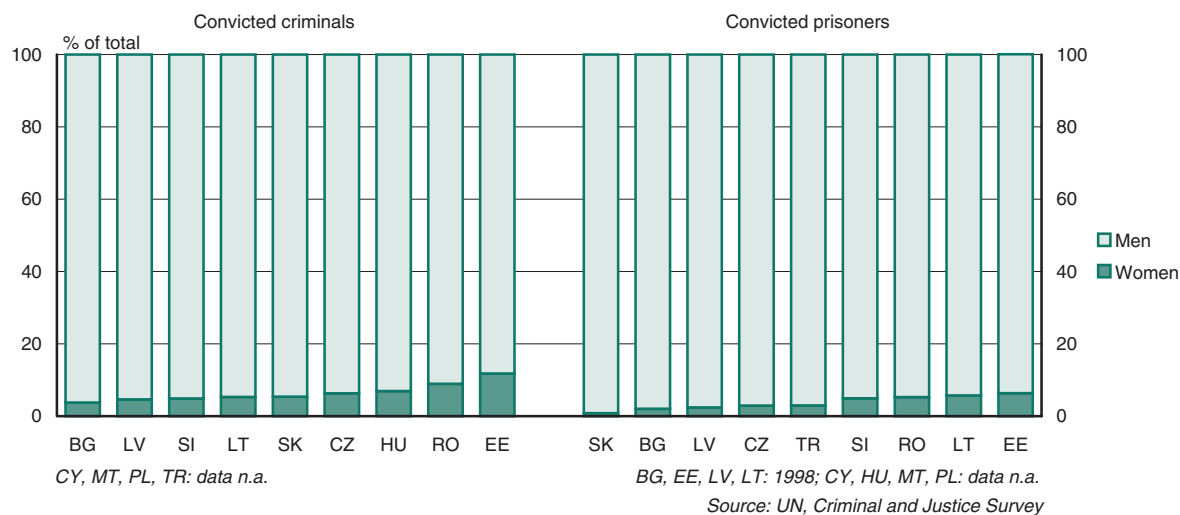
The relative number of young men as compared with young women who after conviction are then sent to prison is even higher. In nine of the 10 Member States for which data are available, men made up over 90 % of juveniles in prison in the latter part of the 1990s. In the 10th country, Italy, they accounted for 88 %. In five of the countries, under 5 % of young people in prison were women.

The disparity between young women and men involved in crime is even wider in candidate countries.

Involvement in crime in the candidate countries

The disparity between young women and young men involved in crime is even more pronounced in the candidate countries. In eight of the nine countries for

59 Juvenile convicted criminals and prisoners in candidate countries, 1997



which data are available, men represented over 90 % of juveniles convicted of a crime in 1997 and in the other country, Estonia, for 88 % (Graph 59). Indeed, in most of these countries, women accounted for only around 5 % of convicted juvenile criminals.

As in the Union, the difference in the relative number of young women and men in prison is even more marked. In all nine countries for which there are data, women represented only around 6 % or less of juveniles in prison in 1997-98.



Part 2 — The working and family years



2.1. Reconciling work and family life

Reconciling work and family life

Women far more than men are confronted with the problem of reconciling the pursuit of a working career with caring responsibilities, whether it be looking after young children or family members in need of care. In practice, although a significant number of men spend time looking after children, this does not seem to interfere in a perceptible way with the jobs that they do. For women, it can mean either that they are not employed at all or work part-time rather than full-time.

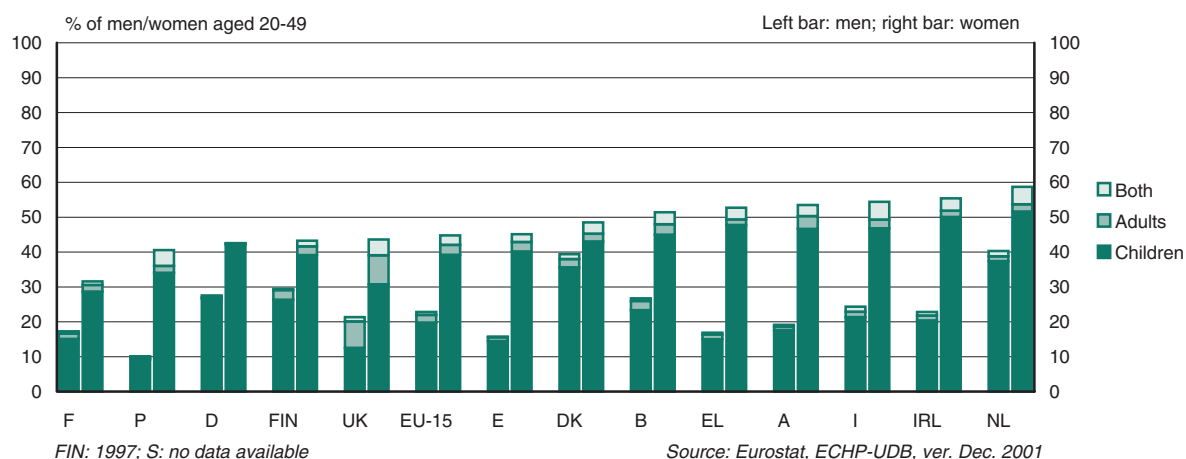
Sharing caring responsibilities

Women in the Union are twice as likely as men to spend time looking after children on a daily basis.

In 1998, according to the ECHP, just under 40 % of women aged 20 to 49 in the Union spent time looking after children as part of their daily activities as opposed to under 20 % of men. (Graph 60 – the specific question asked was whether a person’s daily activities included, without pay, looking after children; note that there are no data for Sweden). A further 6 % of women in this age group spent time looking after someone other than a child in need of care, because, for example, they were disabled or elderly and frail, once again around twice the proportion of men.

In all Member States, the proportion of women engaged in caring was much higher than for men. In the four southern Member States plus Ireland and Austria, the proportion was 2–4 times higher than for men and only in six Member States, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, the Netherlands and Finland, was it less than 50 % higher. (Although there may be differences between countries in the way that looking after children is interpreted and, therefore, some uncertainty about the comparability of the absolute proportions of

60 Men and women aged 20-49 spending time caring, 1998



women and men involved in child care, this ought not significantly to affect the relative numbers of women and men responding.)

The above figures imply that around 80 % of women aged 20 to 49 living in households with young children were involved in caring — though more in Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands and less in Portugal, the UK and France — well over 1½ times the proportion of men in households with young children (Graph 61). (It is difficult to know here whether the proportions are less than 100 %, which might have been expected, because some women are not the mothers of the child in the household or because some of them do not consider that their normal daily activities involve looking after children.) The proportion of women involved was over twice that of men in Greece, Spain, Portugal, Ireland and Austria but under 30 % higher in Germany, Finland, Denmark and the Netherlands.

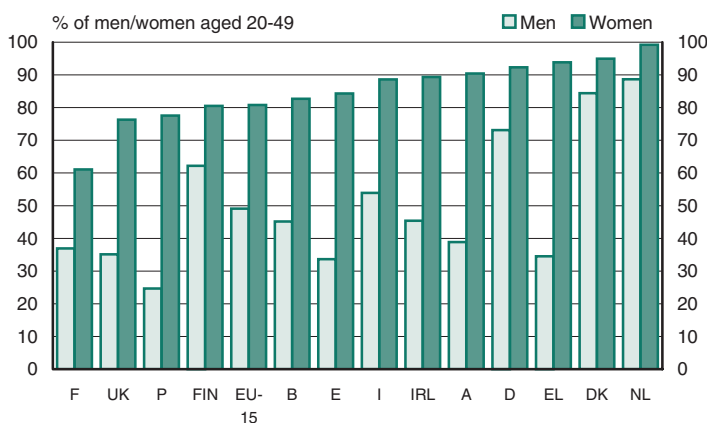
The proportion of women and men in the age group engaged in looking after someone other than a child in need of care also varied significantly across the Union, though again in all countries, apart from Germany, where the numbers involved were very small, this proportion was higher for women than men. The proportion for both men and women was much higher in the UK than anywhere else in the EU, some 13 % for women and 9 % for men. Elsewhere, the figure for women was over 7 % only in Italy and the Netherlands, in both cases, some 2½ times the proportion of men. In France and Finland, it was under 5 %, still higher than for men, while in Germany, the figures for both women and men were negligible.

The relative number of women and men in the 50 to 64 age group looking after children was much less than in the younger age group, as would be expected, though more were engaged in caring for someone other than a child. Around 16 % of women aged 50 to 64 in the Union reported spending time looking after children, while 10 % of them spent time looking after someone other than a child in need of care, around twice the proportion of men in both cases (Graph 62).

As for the younger age group, women looking after children outnumbered men in all countries, apart from Germany and the UK, where the numbers involved were too small to be reliable. Only in the Netherlands was the

Women were also more likely than men to look after someone in need of care other than a child as part of their daily activities.

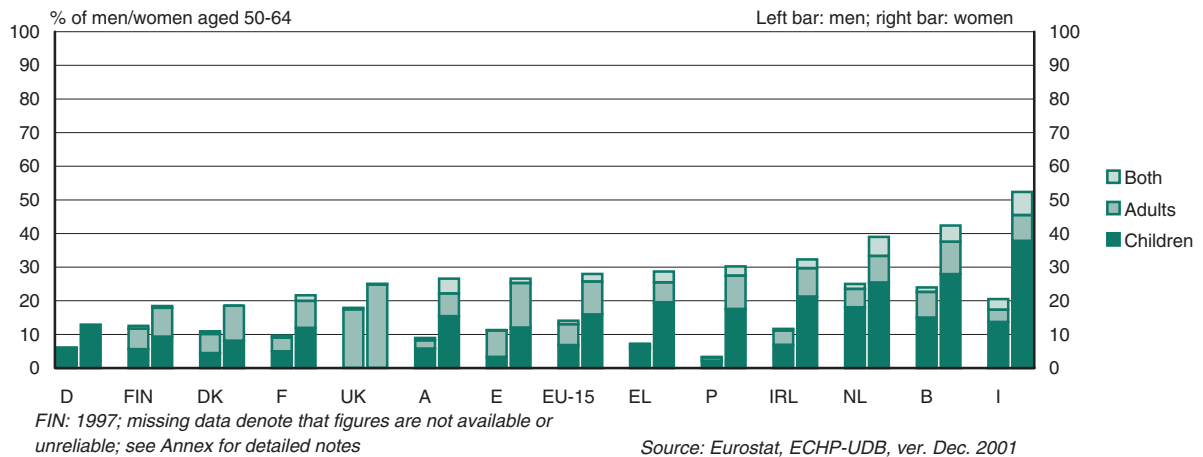
61 Men and women aged 20-49 with children spending time caring, 1998



FIN: 1997; S: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

62 Men and women aged 50-64 spending time caring, 1998



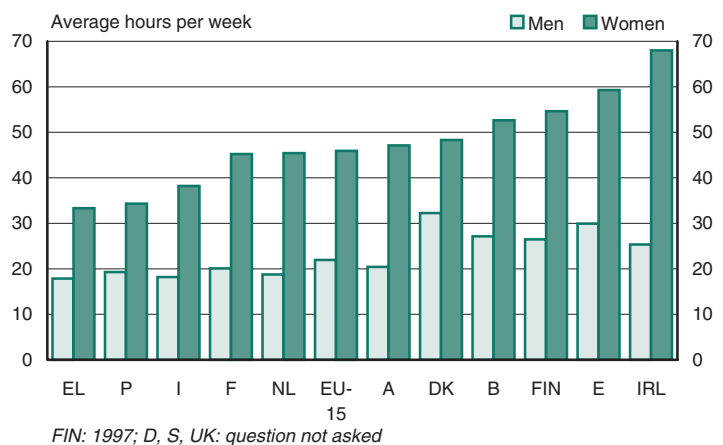
proportion of women looking after children less than 50 % higher than that of men and in Greece, Ireland and Portugal, it was over three times higher. The proportion of women looking after someone other than a child was less than 50 % higher than for men in all countries, apart from Finland and the UK, and over three times higher in Austria, Greece and Portugal.

Hours spent looking after children

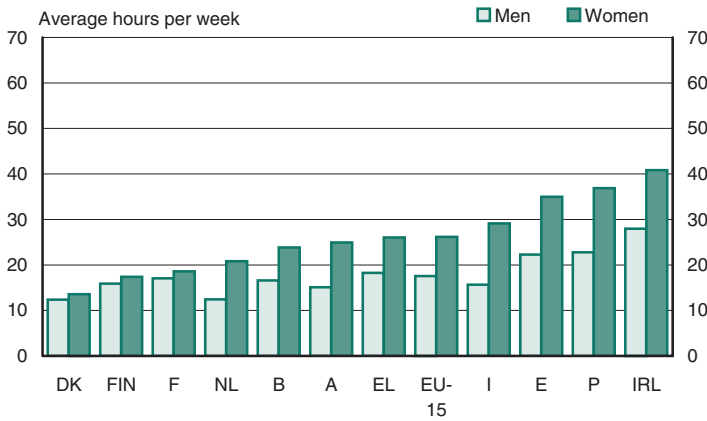
Women involved in looking after children spent, on average, twice as many hours a week as men doing so.

Not only are many more women than men involved in looking after children in all countries, but they also spend much more time doing so. In eight of the 11 Member States for which data are available, women in the 20 to 49 age group looking after children spent 45 hours or more a week on this activity. In Italy, the average was just under 40 hours a week and in Greece and Portugal, just under 35. By contrast, men spent under 30 hours a week in all Member States, apart from Denmark and Spain (Graph 63). Only in Denmark did women spend significantly less than twice as many hours looking after children than men.

63 Average hours spent looking after children by men and women aged 20-49, 1998



64 Average hours spent looking after children by men and women aged 50-64, 1998



FIN: 1997; D, S, UK: question not asked; see Annex for additional notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Women and men involved in caring in the 50 to 64 age group spend less time looking after children than those in the younger age group. Moreover, while women on average spent more hours than men in 1998, the difference was less marked than for those under 50 (Graph 64).

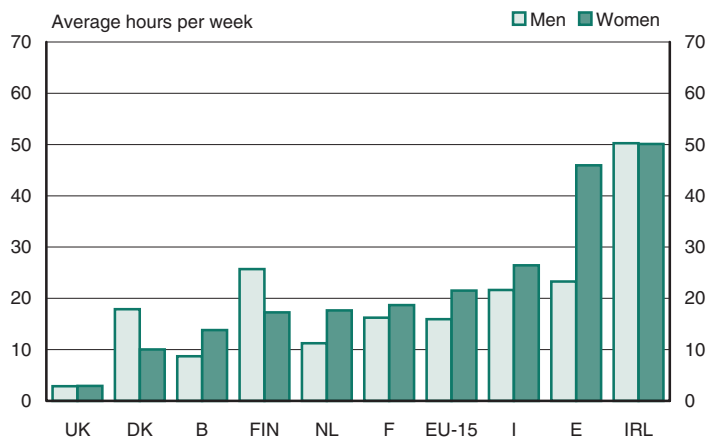
Among those aged 50 to 64 looking after someone in need of care other than a child, differences between women and men in the time spent were even less. Indeed, in Denmark and Finland, the men concerned spent more time than women and in Ireland, about the same amount of time (Graph 65).

Caring and employment

Whereas for men under 50, looking after children does not seem to have much effect on whether they are employed or not, for women it appears to make a significant difference. Across the Union as a whole, some 90 % of men aged 20 to 49 looking after children were in employment, while the figure for those not involved in this activity was only around 80 %. A similar difference was evident

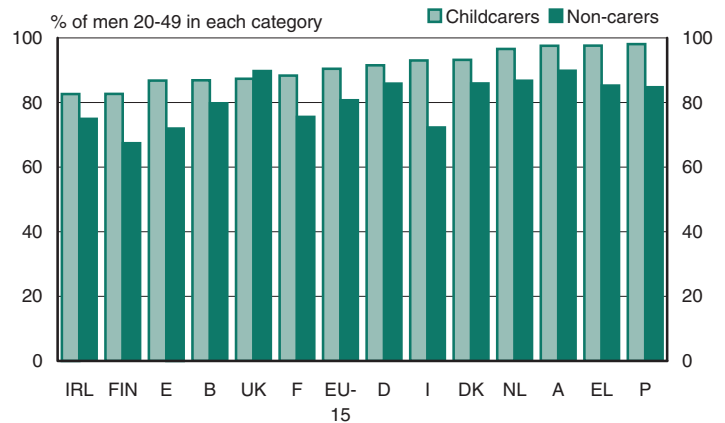
Looking after children significantly reduces the likelihood of women being in employment; for men, it has little effect.

65 Average hours spent looking after someone other than a child by men and women aged 50-64, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for additional notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

66 Employment of men aged 20-49 looking after children and not doing so, 1998

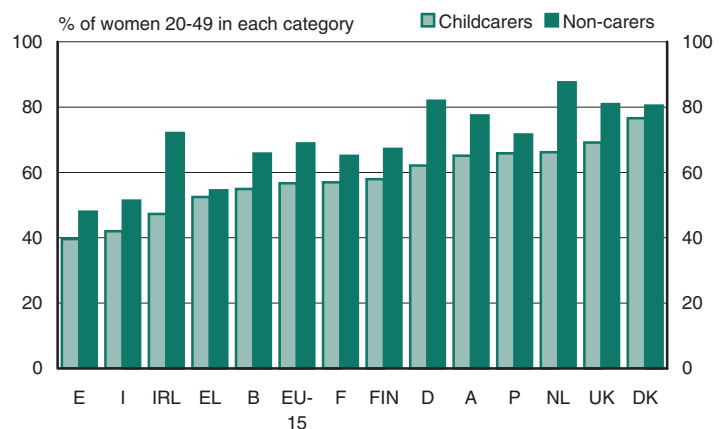
FIN: 1997; S: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

for all Member States apart from the UK, where much the same proportion of the two groups were in work (Graph 66).

In all Member States, women are less likely to be employed if they spend time looking after a child.

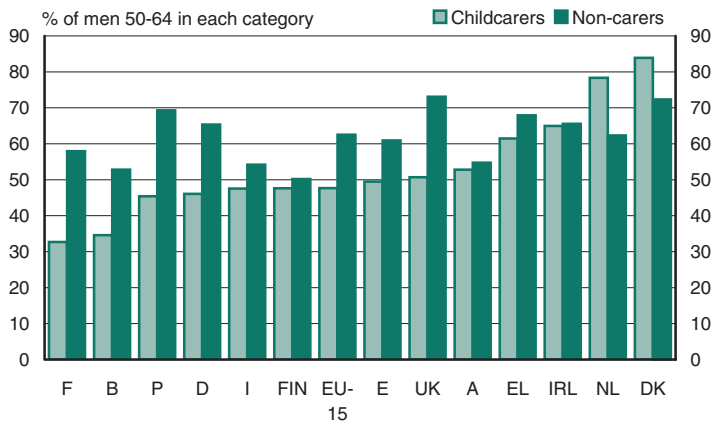
For women in the same age group, however, only around 57 % of those reporting looking after children were in employment as compared with some 69 % of those not spending time on this activity. Only in Denmark and Greece, was the difference in the employment rate between women looking after children and not doing so less than five percentage points (Graph 67). At the same time, the overall proportions differed substantially between the two countries, being only around 55 % in Greece as opposed to some 80 % in Denmark. Indeed, although the gap between the employment rate of those caring for children and those not doing so was relatively small in the southern Member States, with the exception of Portugal, this reflects a comparatively small proportion of women being in work irrespective of their family circumstances. By contrast, the gap was much wider than elsewhere in Germany and the Netherlands (around 20 percentage points), where the overall employment rate of women was well above the EU average, as well as Ireland, where it was below.

67 Employment of women aged 20-49 looking after children and not doing so, 1998

FIN: 1997; S: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

68 Employment of men aged 50-64 looking after children and not doing so, 1998



FIN: 1997; S: no data; see Annex for detailed notes

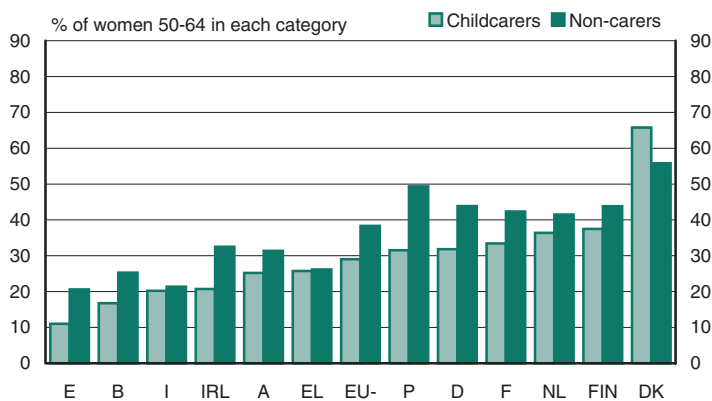
Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Among those aged 50 to 64, in contrast to the position for those under 50, the proportion of men employed was significantly lower for those looking after children than for those not doing so. In the EU as a whole, around 63 % of those not looking after children were in work as against 48 % of those involved in this activity. While in Denmark and the Netherlands, the employment rate was higher among carers than non-carers and in Austria, Ireland and Finland, it was much the same for the two groups, in all other Member States, it was perceptibly lower (Graph 68).

For women in this age group, the likelihood of being in employment was also greater among those not looking after children than those doing so, 38 % of women in the Union in the former category being employed as against 30 % in the latter. However, the employment rate in Denmark was higher among women looking after children than among those not doing so, while in Greece and Italy, the difference between the two groups was small, though in the latter two countries, only around 20-25 % of women were employed in any event (Graph 69). On the other hand, for this age group, unlike for those under 50,

For women and men aged 50 to 64, the likelihood of being in work is reduced if they spend time looking after a child.

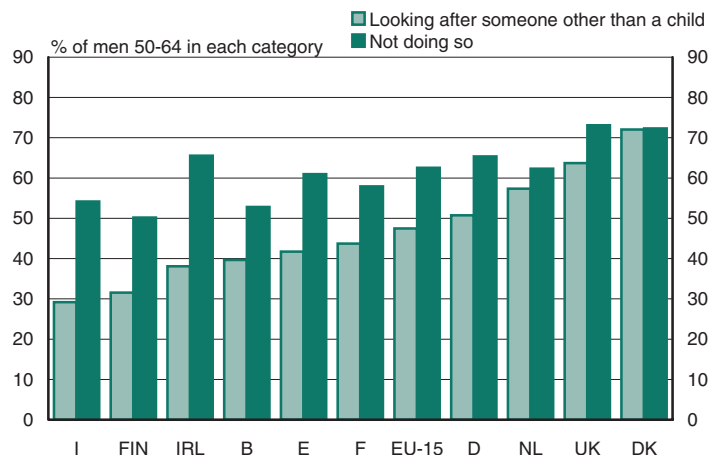
69 Employment of women aged 50-64 looking after children and not doing so, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec.2001

70 Employment of men aged 50-64 looking after someone other than a child and not doing so, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

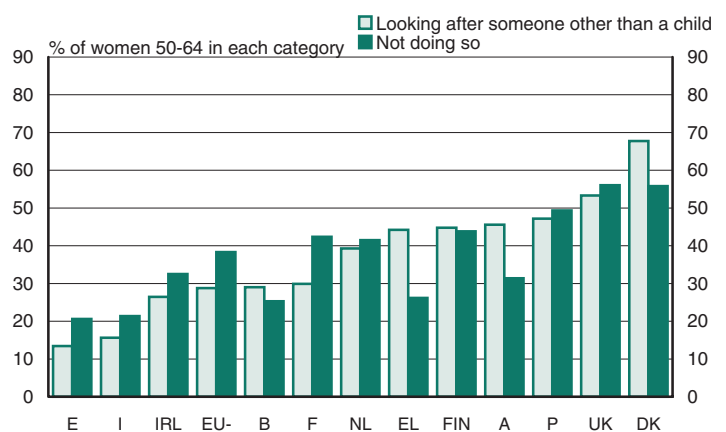
the proportion of women in work in Spain and Portugal was significantly lower among those looking after children than among those not doing so, which might reflect the fact that those concerned were looking after their grandchildren, enabling their children to work.

Indeed for this age group, the above figures need to be interpreted with care, in the sense that the fact that employment rates are generally lower for those looking after children than for those not doing so does not necessarily imply that the need to look after children is the cause of a person not working. On the contrary, the fact that they are not working may be the reason for them being able to look after children.

Women and men aged 50 to 64 are also less likely to be in employment if they look after an adult in need of care.

For those in the 50 to 64 age group involved in looking after someone in need of care other than a child, much the same pattern is evident. In the Union as a whole, the average proportion of both women and men carers in employment was significantly lower in 1998 than for non-carers and this was the case in most Member States. More specifically, for men in this age group, the

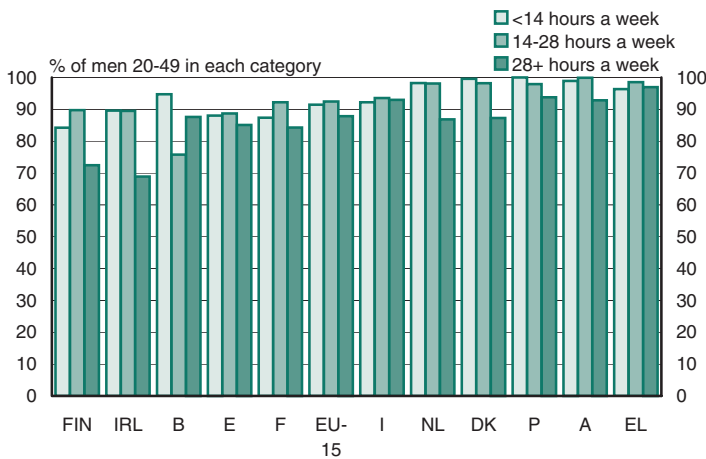
71 Employment of women aged 50-64 looking after someone other than a child and not doing so, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

72 Employment of men aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

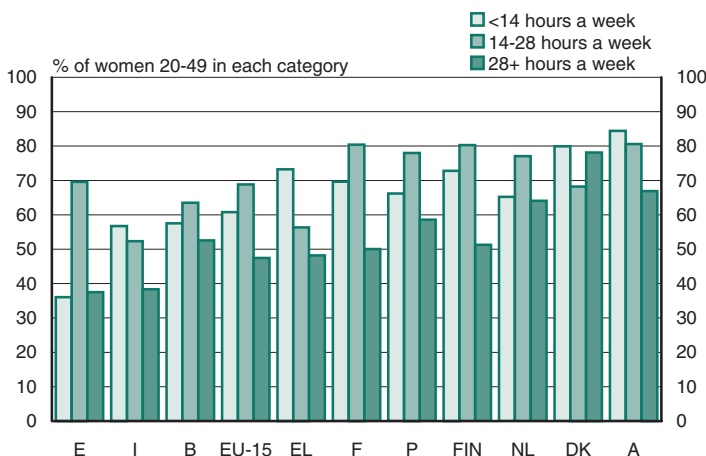
proportion of carers in work was lower than for non-carers in all countries apart from Denmark, where there was not much difference (Graph 70).

For women, the difference in employment rates between the two groups was generally less pronounced and less systematic. Again in Denmark, the proportion of women in work was higher among carers than among non-carers, though this was also the case in Greece, and Austria, while in the Netherlands, Belgium, Portugal, Finland and the UK, the difference was relatively small (Graph 71).

The effect of hours of caring on employment

For those involved in looking after children, the likelihood of being in employment tends to be less the longer the number of hours spent in this activity. In all Member States apart from Italy, the proportion of 20 to 49 year-old men in work was lower among those spending more than 28 hours a week on average looking after children than those spending less than 14 hours, though the

73 Employment of women aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998



FIN: 1997; missing data denote that figures are not available or unreliable; see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Table 4 – Employment of men and women aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998

	% of men/women aged 20-49					
	Caring less than 14 hours a week		Caring 14-28 hours a week		Caring 28 or more hours a week	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
B	95	58	76	64	88	53
DK	100	80	98	68	87	78
D	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	96	73	99	56	97	48
E	88	(36)	89	70	85	38
F	87	70	92	80	84	50
IRL	90	:	89	(84)	69	45
I	92	57	94	52	93	38
L	:	:	:	:	:	:
NL	98	(65)	98	77	87	64
A	99	(84)	100	81	93	67
P	100	66	98	78	94	59
FIN	84	73	90	80	72	51
S	:	:	:	:	:	:
UK	:	:	:	:	:	:
EU-15	91	61	92	69	88	47

FIN: 1997; D, S, UK, L: no data. IRL: sample too small for women caring less than 14 hours.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

difference was small (under three percentage points) in Spain and France (Graph 72 and Table 4, which report answers to the question in the ECHP asking people to indicate how long they spent looking after someone according to the groups of hours specified).

For women in this age group, the proportion in employment of those looking after children was in most countries much lower among those spending over 28 hours a week than those spending less time. Indeed, the proportion was 50 % or less in four countries – Greece, Spain, France and Italy (in Spain and Italy, only 37–38 %) – and only slightly above 50 % in Belgium and Finland. Except in Spain and Italy, the proportion was well over 50 %, and in most cases, over 60 %, for those spending less time caring (Graph 73).

The effect of caring on working time

Part-time employment

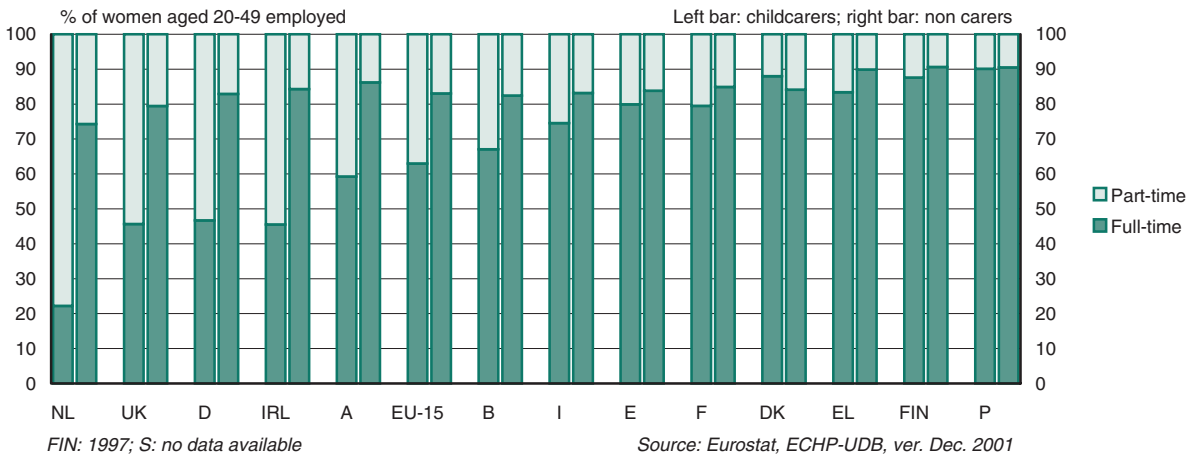
Looking after children and others in need of care affects not only whether or not a person works but how long they do so, both in terms of whether they work part-time or full-time and in terms of the average hours they work in either type of job. For women in many parts of the Union, the main means of reconciling paid employment with caring responsibilities seems to be through working part-time; for men, it seems to be through working shorter hours in full-time jobs.

In 1998, 37 % of women in the Union aged 20 to 49 spending time looking after children and in employment worked part-time, in the sense of usually working under 30 hours a week. This is over twice the proportion for women in the same age group who did not look after children (17 %). However, the difference in the two proportions – and accordingly in the apparent effect of child care on employment patterns – varies markedly across the Union.

Nevertheless, Denmark was the only country in the Union where the proportion of women in employment working part-time was lower for those looking

Both women and men are likely to have shorter working weeks if they look after a child, women by working part-time, men through fewer full-time hours.

74 Women aged 20-49 in employment working part-time and full-time, 1998

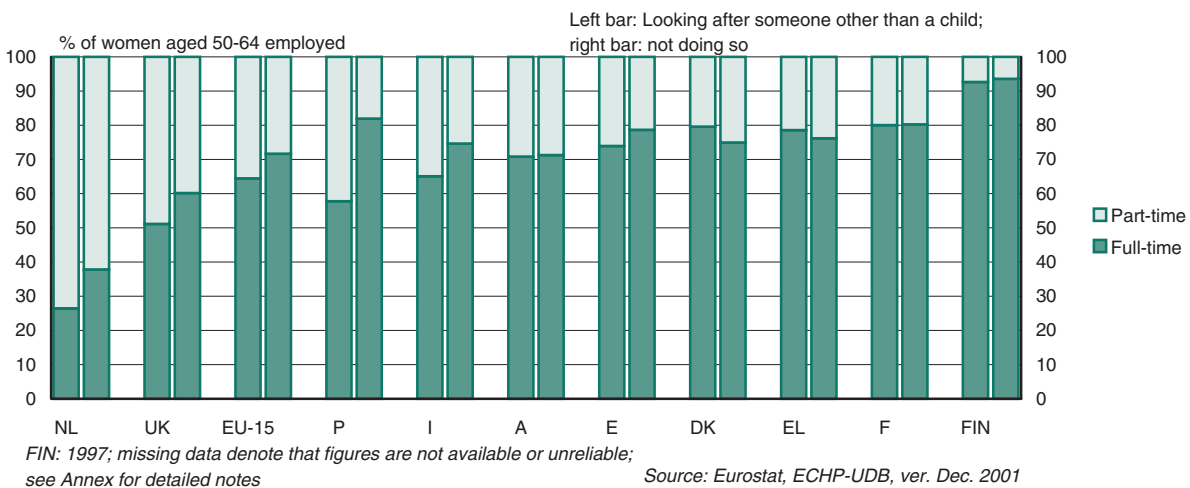


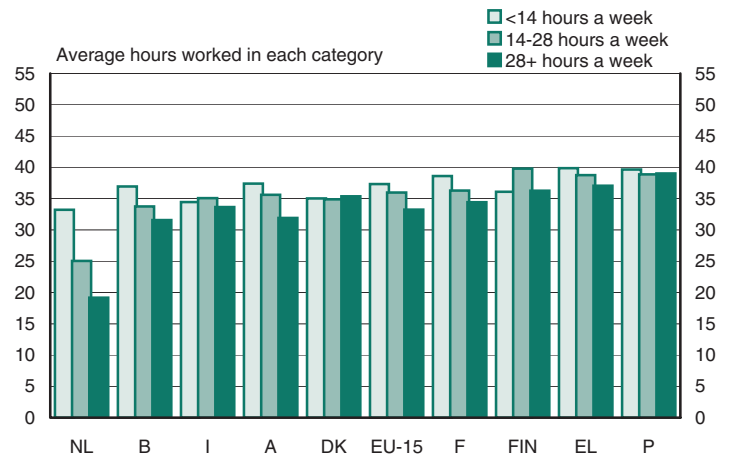
after children than for those not doing so, though in Finland and Portugal, it was much the same (Graph 74). In the three other southern Member States as well as in France, part-time working was more prevalent among women looking after children than among those not doing so, but the difference was relatively small. In the other countries, it was larger. In Germany, Ireland and the UK, the share of women employed part-time rather than full-time was some 35 percentage points or more higher for those looking after children than for others, in the Netherlands, some 50 percentage points higher. In each case, more than half the women in employment caring for children worked part-time.

In the case of men in this age group, very few worked part-time in the Union and the difference between those looking after children and those not doing so was small.

Looking after someone in need of care other than a child also seems to affect whether women work part-time or full-time in most of the countries where caring for children has an effect, but not elsewhere. In the Netherlands and the

75 Women aged 50-64 in employment working part-time and full-time, 1998



76 Average hours worked by women aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998

FIN: 1997; D, E, IRL, L, S, UK: data are not available or unreliable;

see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

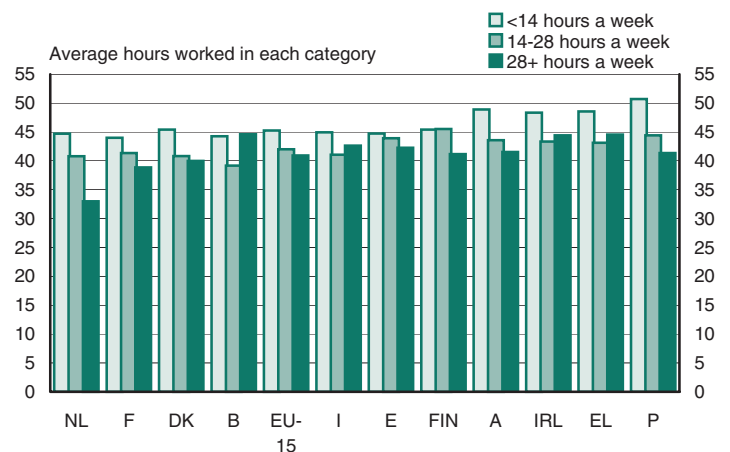
UK, part-time employment among women aged 50 to 64 – who are more likely to be involved in caring than their younger counterparts – was significantly higher among carers than non-carers, as it was in Italy and Portugal (Graph 75). In the other Member States, however (including in Austria where part-time working was higher among those caring for children), there was little perceptible difference between the two groups.

Hours of work

Both women and men work fewer hours the more time they spend looking after children.

Average hours worked by both women and men tend to be lower the more time is spent looking after children.

In the Union as a whole, women in employment worked an average of four hours a week less if they spent over 28 hours a week looking after children than if they spent under 14 hours a week. A difference of around this order was apparent in all Member States, except Denmark, Italy and Portugal, where there was not much variation in hours of work, and Finland, where the difference was between those caring for 14 to 28 hours and those spending more time

77 Average hours worked by men aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998

FIN: 1997; D, L, S, UK: data are not available or unreliable;

see Annex for detailed notes

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Table 5 – Average hours per week worked by men and women aged 20-49 by hours spent looking after a child, 1998

	Caring less than 14 hours a week		Caring 14-28 hours a week		Caring 28 or more hours a week	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
B	44	(37)	39	(34)	45	32
DK	45	(35)	41	35	40	35
D	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	49	40	43	39	45	37
E	45	:	44	40	42	34
F	44	39	41	36	39	34
IRL	48	:	43	:	44	28
I	45	34	41	35	43	34
NL	45	(33)	41	25	33	19
A	49	(37)	44	36	42	32
P	51	40	44	39	41	39
FIN	45	36	46	40	41	36
S	:	:	:	:	:	:
UK	:	:	:	:	:	:
EU-15	45	37	42	36	41	33

FIN: 1997; D, S, UK, L: no data; other countries: missing data denote sample too small.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

than this. The effect of caring on hours of work was particularly marked in the Netherlands (Graph 76 and Table 5).

Men in employment spending over 28 hours a week looking after children also worked on average four hours a week less than those spending under 14 hours a week. The difference is evident in all countries apart from Belgium and again is especially pronounced in the Netherlands (Graph 77).

The effect of household characteristics on the employment of carers

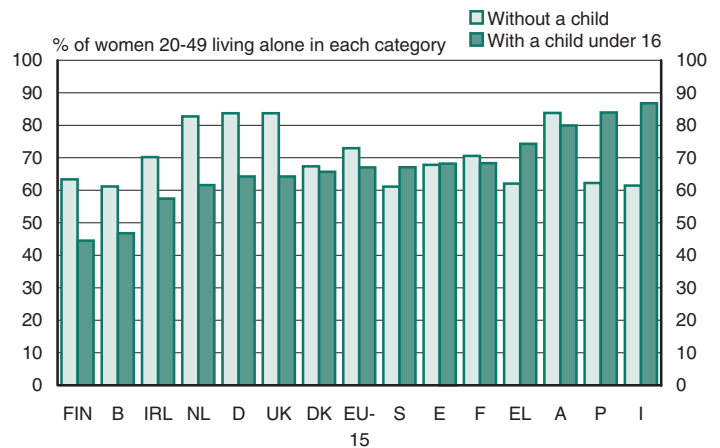
At the EU level, the average employment rate of women aged 20 to 49 living alone with a child under 16 was not much different in 1998 from that of women living alone without a child. This, however, conceals marked differences between Member States. While in Denmark, France, Austria and Spain, employment rates of women living alone were similar irrespective of whether they had a child, in Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland and the UK, the proportion of those in employment with children was considerably lower than for those without children (Graph 78). In Belgium, it was also lower, but less so. On the other hand, in Greece, Italy, Portugal and, to a lesser extent, Spain, the proportion of women living alone who were in employment was significantly higher in the case of those with children than for those without. The pressure on women in this position to earn income presumably, therefore, outweighed the problems of arranging child-care.

For men in the same age group, there are insufficient observations to carry out an equivalent analysis on the employment rate of those living alone with a child under 16.

For women aged 20 to 49 living with a spouse or partner, a similar pattern is evident as for those living alone, but differences are less pronounced. In Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Ireland and the UK, as well as in Denmark and Austria, the proportion of women in employment was lower for those with children than for those without, but the difference was large only in

In some countries, women living alone with a child are much less likely to be employed than those without, but in most this is not the case.

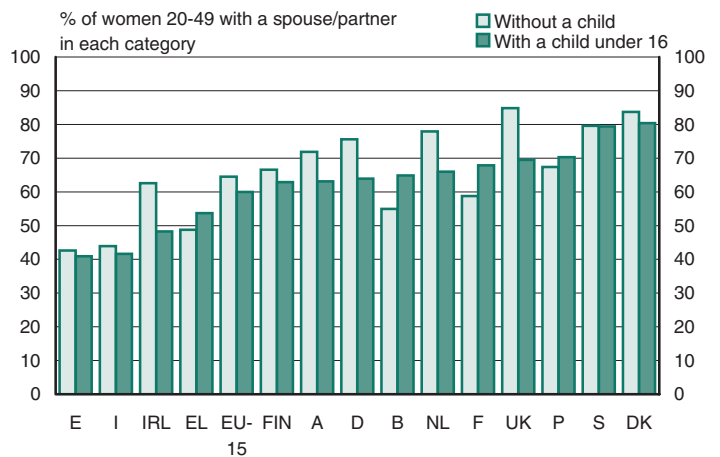
78 Employment of women aged 20-49 living alone, 1998



FIN: 1997

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

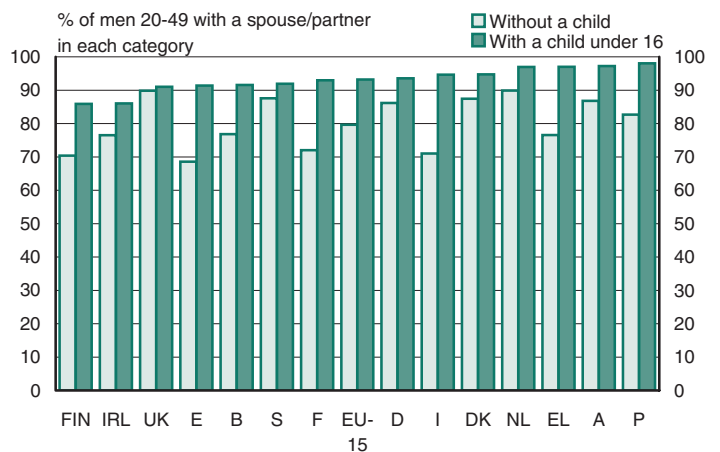
79 Employment of women aged 20-49 living with a spouse or partner, 1998



FIN: 1997

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

80 Employment of men aged 20-49 living with a spouse or partner, 1998



FIN: 1997

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Ireland and the UK (Graph 79). In Belgium, France and Greece, the proportion in work was higher for those with children than those without, while in Spain, Italy and Portugal, it was much the same.

For men in the same age group living with a spouse or partner, the proportion in employment was higher in all Member States for those with children than for those without (Graph 80).

2.2. Employment patterns and decision-making

Women in employment are much more concentrated in a few sectors of activity than men.

The graph indicates the extent to which women and men in employment are concentrated in a few sectors of activity. It shows, on the vertical axis, the cumulative proportion of women or men employed in each of the 60 NACE 2-digit sectors of activity, ranked according to the relative number of men or women employed in them. This is related to the proportion of the total in employment working in the sector concerned. If the proportion of women and men employed in each sector was the same, then the curves tracing the relationship between the two variables in the graph would lie on the 45 degree line for both women and men. The more the curve diverges from the 45 degree line, the more either women or men are concentrated in a few sectors and correspondingly the more women or men make up the work force in the sectors concerned. As the graph indicates, therefore, around 17½ % of all women in employment worked in Health and social services, which accounted for 9½ % of total employment. Accordingly, women made up around 80 % of all those employed in this sector.

What kind of jobs do women and men do?

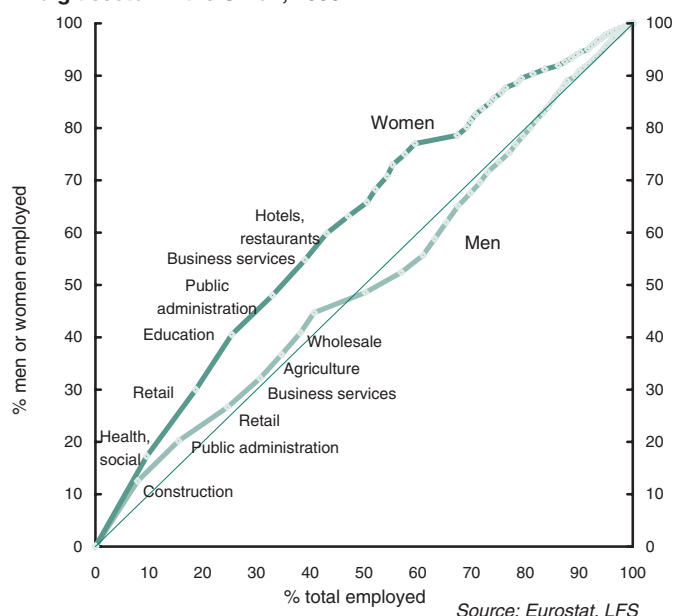
Despite a long-standing concern in the European Union to try to reduce imbalances in the pattern of women's and men's employment, there remain substantial differences both in the sectors of activity in which women and men tend to work and, within these, in the kinds of job which they do. These imbalances extend to the relative number of women and men in positions of responsibility.

The sectoral pattern of women's and men's employment

Women in the Union predominantly work in services while a large proportion of men are still employed in industry. Moreover, within services, women tend to be disproportionately concentrated in the public or communal sector, while men are more evenly spread across activities.

In 2000, almost half of women in employment in the EU (48 %) worked in just four main areas of activity, health care and social services, education, public administration and retailing – each of them one of the 60 NACE 2-digit sectors of activity into which employment is divided – which in aggregate accounted for only a third of total employment of women and men taken together (Graph 81). Some 17 % were employed in health care and social services alone, while another 18 % worked in education and public administration. Over a third (35 %) of all women in work were, therefore, employed in the provision

81 Concentration of men and women in employment by NACE 2-digit sector in the Union, 2000



of services which are predominantly organised on a collective basis in Europe and under public sector responsibility, as compared with just 15 % of men (and 24 % of women and men together).

Men's employment is far less concentrated. Just under a third of men in employment in the Union (32 %) worked in four areas of activity in 2000, construction, public administration, retailing and business services, which in aggregate were responsible for employing only a marginally lower proportion of men and women together. Two of the four most important sectors for men, therefore, are also among the four largest sectors employing women, though together they employed proportionately more women than men. A third sector, business services, moreover, was the fifth largest area of women's employment, though again it was a more important source of women's employment (accounting for 7 % of all those in work) than men's (5½ %).

The other major areas of men's employment, construction, agriculture, wholesaling and land transport (the last three, the fifth, sixth and seventh largest sectors, respectively), which together employed 25 % of all men in work, were far less important activities for women, accounting for only 8 % of employment, just as health care and education were more important for women than men. While, therefore, there are similarities in the sectors of activity in which women and men work, there are also significant differences.

Both the relative degrees of concentration of women's and men's employment in terms of sectors of activity and the specific areas in which women and men tend to work have not altered greatly over the recent past and were much the same in 1990 as in 2000, the main change being a relative decline in the importance of agriculture and manufacturing for the employment of men, in particular.

The pattern of concentration of women's employment is much the same in all Member States. In 10 of the 15 countries, the same four sectors of activity as at the EU level were the four largest employers of women in 2000. In three of the other five countries, they were among the largest six. Moreover, in six Member States – the three Nordic countries, Belgium, the Netherlands and the UK – these four areas of activity accounted for over half of women's employment and in all but Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal for 45 % or more. In Greece and Portugal, however, where agriculture was still the main employer of women, they were responsible for under 40 %. In Denmark and Sweden, over 30 % were employed in health and social services alone, which was the largest employer of women in most Member States (Table 6). In Portugal, a large number of women were not only employed in agriculture but also in the clothing industry – some 7 % of the total in work – and in France, 5 % of women in employment worked in private households. The only other sector to feature among the largest employers of women was financial services in Luxembourg, where it accounted for some 9 % of the total number in work.

The pattern of concentration of men's employment shows much more variation across the Union, in terms of both the overall degree of concentration and the sectors of activity involved. In all Member States, however, men are less concentrated in a limited number of sectors of activity than women. Only in Greece and Portugal were more than 40 % of men in work employed in the largest four sectors in 2000 (around 45 % in both cases), and only in these two countries plus Spain, Ireland and Luxembourg did four sectors account for more than 35 % of employment. Moreover, the composition of the largest four sectors differed significantly between Member States. Construction was the only sector which featured among the largest four in all countries, being the

Women tend to work disproportionately in communal services, men in industry and construction.

The sectoral pattern of employment of women is similar throughout the Union, for men there is more difference, in part because of the differing importance of agriculture.

largest employer of men in all but Belgium, where it was second to public administration, and Greece, where it was second to agriculture. Public administration was among the largest four sectors in most countries and among the five largest in all countries apart from Finland, while retailing was one of the largest six in all but Finland and Sweden.

In all Member States, except Germany, Greece and Portugal, business services were one of the six main areas of women's employment, while in 10 of the 15 Member States – all except Spain, Austria and Luxembourg as well as Greece and Portugal – they were also among the six largest sectors employing men. Other sectors which were important employers of men in parts of the Union were agriculture and land transport, which both featured among the top six in eight countries, but not at all in the case of women, except for agriculture in Greece and Portugal. Hotels and restaurants were among the top sectors for men in five countries as compared with being in the top six for women in 13 Member States (all except France and Luxembourg).

Manufacturing remains a large employer of men in some Member States but in few countries are significant numbers of women employed in manufacturing.

Except for textiles and clothing in Portugal, manufacturing sectors were not major areas of women's employment. However, mechanical engineering was still the third largest employer of men in Germany, but elsewhere was among the largest 6 only in Italy and Finland, and metal manufacture was one of the largest 6 sectors in Austria alone. Apart from construction, however, these were the only industrial sectors to feature among the largest employers of men in Member States.

Table 6 – Distribution of employment in top 6 NACE 2-digit sectors in each country, 2000

	% of total men/women employed															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men (top 6 in each country)	43	39	35	48	42	40	43	39	35	45	36	46	34	39	41	41
Construction (45)	10	12	13	11	17	11	16	11	13	10	14	21	12	9	12	13
Public administration (75)	10	5	8	8	6	9	5	9	12	8	7	7		5	6	8
Retail trade (52)	7	5	5	10	7	5	6	9	5	6	6	7			7	6
Business activities (74)	6	6	5			6	5	5		9			6	8	7	6
Agriculture (1)				15	7	5	11	5			6	10	6			5
Wholesale trade (51)		6				5				7			5	6		4
Land transport (60)	6			4	5				5		5		6	5	4	4
Health&Social work (85)			4							5						4
Education (80)	5	6												5	4	4
Hotels&Restaurants (55)				6	5		4		5			4				3
Metal products (28)											5					3
Machinery (29)			5					4					5			3
Vehicle sale&repair (50)												4				3
Financial intermed. (65)									8							2
Women (top 6 in each country)	69	64	52	65	58	59	61	56	62	69	60	58	61	68	65	60
Health&Social work (85)	21	32	17	8	10	18	16	10	15	27	14	9	26	34	20	17
Retail trade (52)	13	9	14	14	16	9	13	13	11	13	16	12	9	8	14	13
Education (80)	13	8	8	10	9	11	10	14	10	8	9	9	10	11	13	11
Public administration (75)	10	6	8	7	7	10	5	8	10	6			5	5	6	7
Business activities (74)	7	5			8	6	7	6	7	10	6		6	6	7	7
Hotels&Restaurants (55)	4	3	4	7	8		10	5		5	9	7	5	3	5	5
Agriculture (1)				19							6	14				3
Financial intermed. (65)									9							2
Private households (95)						5										2
Clothing (18)												7				1

Figures in brackets refer to NACE 2-digit codes.

Source: Eurostat, LFS

The occupational pattern of women's and men's employment

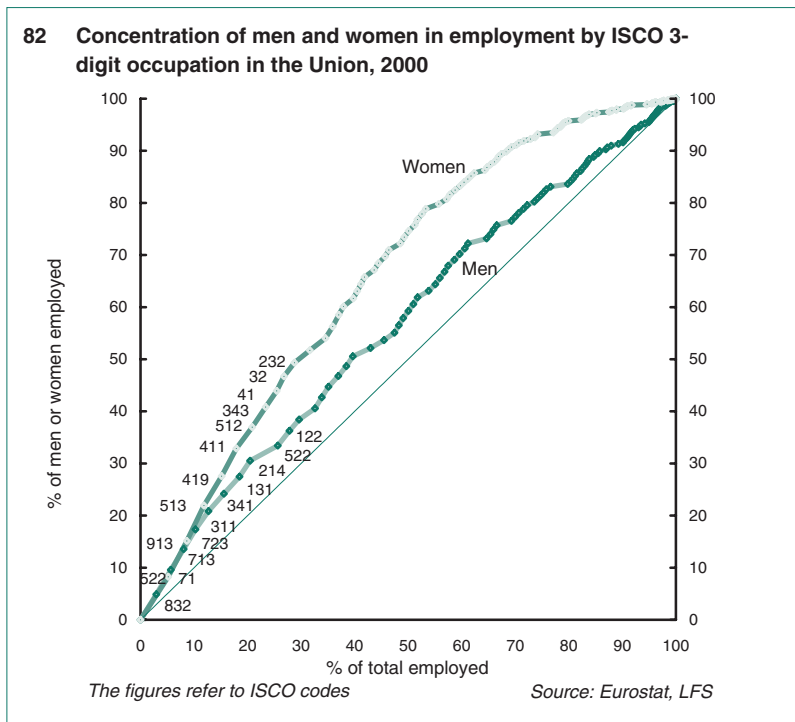
Women are also more concentrated in a limited number of occupations than men. Around half of women in work in the Union in 2000 were employed in just 10 of the 130 standard (ISCO-88 3-digit) occupational categories, whereas the 10 largest occupations in the case of men were responsible for around 36 % of the total number in work. The occupations concerned, moreover, were markedly different for women and men (Graph 82).

Some 8 % of women in employment in the Union worked as sales assistants in some form or other (as 'Shop, stall and market salespersons and demonstrators'), while another 7 % worked as domestic helpers ('Domestic and related helpers, cleaners and launderers') and a further 7 % as personal care workers. These three occupational groups, therefore, accounted for some 22 % of all women's employment. Since an additional 4 % of women were employed as workers in hotels and restaurants (as 'Housekeeping and restaurant services workers'), it means that over a quarter of women in employment in the Union worked in just four relatively low skilled occupational categories. By contrast, these occupations accounted for only 6½ % of jobs filled by men.

In addition, around a quarter of women were employed in general office jobs as clerks or secretaries, four of these categories featuring among the top 10 occupations for women – 'other office clerks' (5½ %), 'secretaries and keyboard operators' (5½ %), 'numerical clerks' (3 %), and 'administrative associate professionals' (5 %) – jobs which together accounted for just 9 % of men in employment.

The other main types of job undertaken by women were nursing and teaching, especially at the pre-primary, primary and lower secondary level (two of these, 'Nursing and midwifery associate professionals' and 'Secondary education teaching professionals', being included in the top 10 occupations for women).

Women and men also do different kinds of job; women disproportionately work as sales assistants, secretaries or as care workers ...



- ISCO-88 Occupation codes**
- Women**
- 522 Shop, stall and market salespersons
 - 913 Domestic and related helpers, cleaners
 - 513 Personal care and related workers
 - 419 Other office clerks
 - 411 Secretaries and keyboard-operating clerks
 - 512 Housekeeping and restaurant service workers
 - 343 Administrative associate professionals
 - 412 Numerical clerks
 - 323 Nursing and midwifery associate professionals
 - 232 Secondary education teaching professionals
- Men**
- 832 Motor vehicle drivers
 - 712 Building frame and related trades workers
 - 713 Building finishers and related trades workers
 - 723 Machinery mechanics and fitters
 - 311 Physical and engineering science technicians
 - 341 Finance and sales associate professionals
 - 131 Managers of small enterprises
 - 214 Architects, engineers and related professionals
 - 522 Shop, stall and market salespersons
 - 122 Production and operations managers

These occupations together were responsible for almost 12 % of jobs for women in the Union as compared with only 3 % for those of men.

For men, the largest occupational category was 'Motor vehicle drivers', which employed around 5 % of those in work, followed by two occupations in construction ('Building frame and related trades workers' and 'Building finishers and related trades workers'), which between them accounted for another 8½ % or so. Including mobile plant drivers and other manual workers in the building trade (such as painters), these broad types of job employed around 16½ % of all men in work in the Union, but under ½ % of all women.

A further 9½ % of men in work were employed as machine fitters, mechanics, metal workers and electricians (4 % in the single category 'Machinery mechanics and fitters'), as against ½ % of women. Over a quarter of men, therefore, worked in skilled or semi-skilled manual jobs as compared with under 1 % of women.

... men disproportionately work as drivers, fitters or machine operators, but also as engineers, finance professionals and managers.

The other occupations included in the 10 largest for men were more significant sources of women's employment, especially 'Shop and salespersons', which was the top category for women but was slightly less important for men (accounting for 3 % of all those in work as opposed to over 8 %). The other occupations included in the top 10 for men were 'Physical and engineering science associate professionals', 'Finance and sales associate professionals' and 'Architects, engineers or related professionals', which together employed 10 % of men in work, but only 4 % of women, and 'Managers of small enterprises' and 'Production or operations managers', which accounted for 6 % of men as against 3½ % of women. Indeed, around 10 % of all jobs for men were as managers of some kind, almost twice the proportion for women, as explored further below.

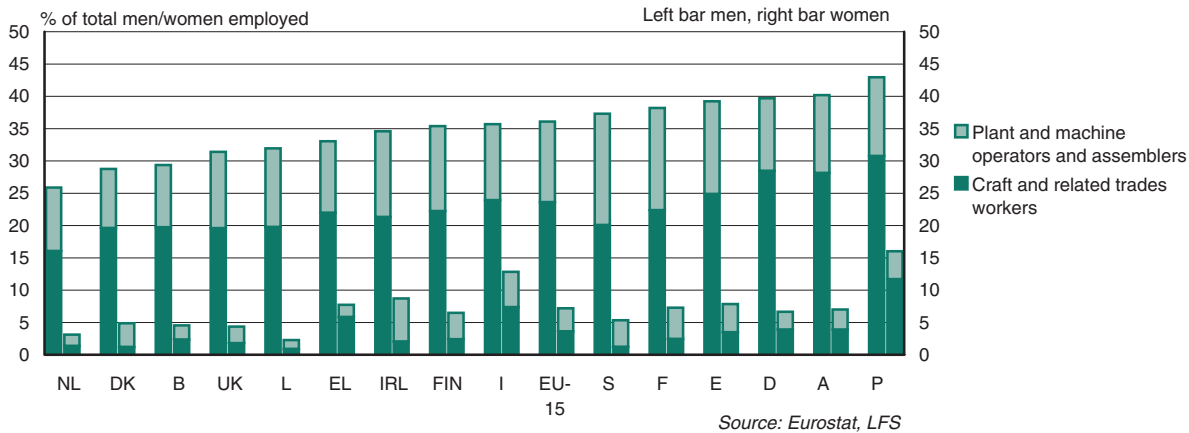
These occupational patterns for women and men are broadly repeated at the Member State level, though there is much less uniformity than for the sectoral distribution of employment, in part reflecting the greater difficulty attached to defining occupations in a comparable way across countries. In all Member States, women were more concentrated than men in a limited number of occupations, mainly in secretarial, clerical and sales jobs as well as in caring activities and teaching.

83 Share of men and women employed as office, sales and elementary workers and as nurses and teachers, 2000



Source: Eurostat, LFS

84 Share of men and women employed in skilled and semi-skilled manual occupations outside agriculture, 2000



Indeed, in nine Member States, over 40 % of women in work were employed in secretarial, clerical and sales jobs, as compared with under 20 % of men in all countries bar Italy, while over 10 % of women worked as nurses or teachers in all countries apart from Spain and Portugal, as against under 4 % of men in all but the three Benelux countries, Denmark and France (Graph 83). In addition, 10 % or more of women in employment worked in unskilled manual jobs, mainly as cleaners or domestic helpers, in 10 of the 15 Member States, while this was the case for men in only three countries (Belgium, Denmark and Spain).

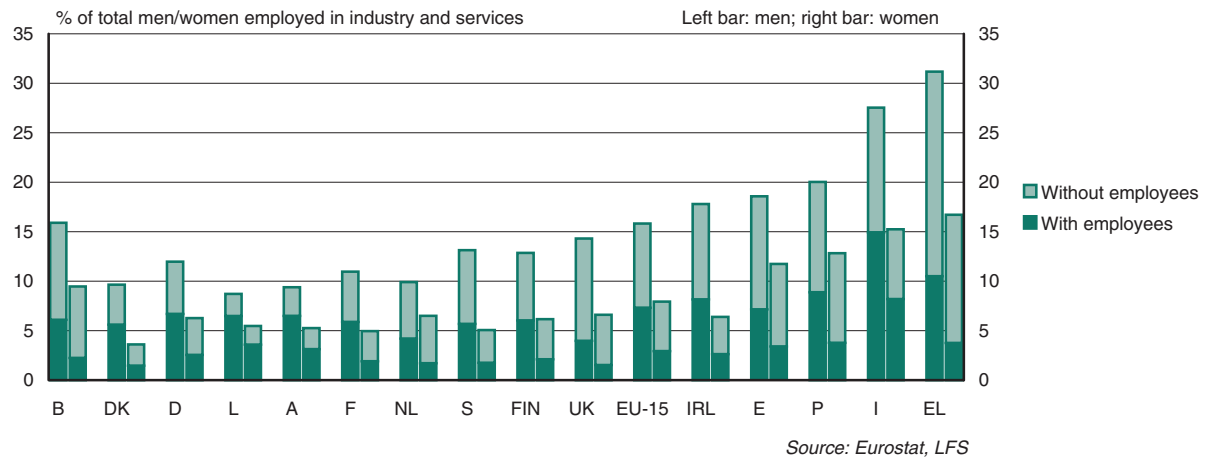
Many more men than women, however, were employed in skilled or semi-skilled manual jobs throughout the Union. Occupations categorised as ‘Craft and related trades workers’ and ‘Plant and machinery operators and assemblers’ were, therefore, responsible for 35 % or more of jobs for men in 9 Member States but for under 8 % of the jobs for women in all but Ireland (9 %), Italy (13 %) and Portugal (16 %) (Graph 84).

Women and men entrepreneurs

Women and men self-employed

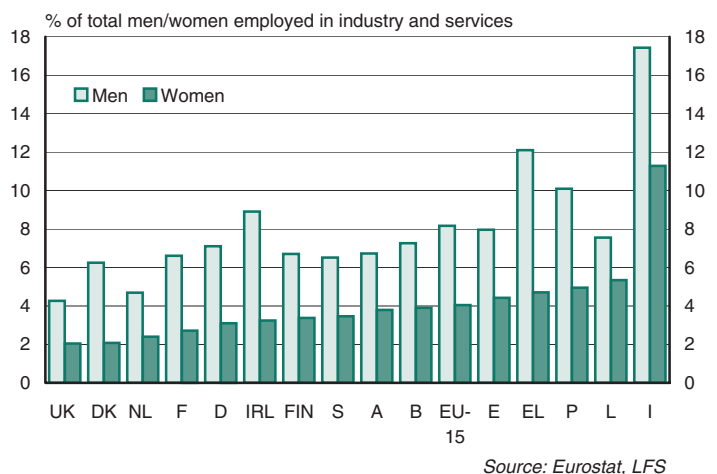
In practice, the number of women who are self-employed across the European Union is very much smaller than that of men and the number of women entrepreneurs, or those with employees, smaller still. Leaving aside agriculture, in which a large proportion of both women and men were self-employed (41 % of women, 57 % of men), the number of women who were self-employed in the Union as a whole in 2000 amounted to just 8 % of the total number of women in work, according to the EU labour force survey (Graph 85). This was only half the proportion of men in work who were self-employed.

The difference in relative numbers is even more marked for the self-employed with employees, which can be taken as a rough proxy for those running businesses or, therefore, for the number of entrepreneurs. This, it should be emphasised, is only a partial indicator of those in charge of businesses, since many of these – especially those in larger businesses – are likely to be classed as employees rather than as self-employed, since they draw a salary from their companies. A more direct indicator is the number classed as Directors and senior executives of companies in the occupational classification, which is examined below.

85 Men and women self-employed as a proportion of total employed in industry and services, 2000

Excluding communal services (i.e. education, health and social services and public administration), which are predominantly located in the public sector in Europe and, therefore, in which there are very few self-employed (but in which a disproportionate number of women work, as indicated above), as well as agriculture, just over 8 % of men in employment were classified as self-employed with employees in 2000 as compared with only 4 % of women in employment, a difference of over 2 to 1 (Graph 86). Only in Italy and Luxembourg was the proportion of men in employment who were self-employed less than 80 % higher than the proportion of women. In Greece and Ireland, the proportion of men was over 2½ times higher than that of women and in France, only slightly less than this, while in Denmark, it was three times higher.

These relative proportions, moreover, have changed only slightly over recent years. Between 1995 and 2000, the proportion of women who were self-employed with employees in the enterprise sector as defined above increased marginally in the EU as a whole (though the absolute number rose by around 3 % a year), while the proportion of men remained unchanged.

86 Men and women self-employed with employees as a proportion of total employed in industry and services (excluding communal services), 2000

Women and men managing companies

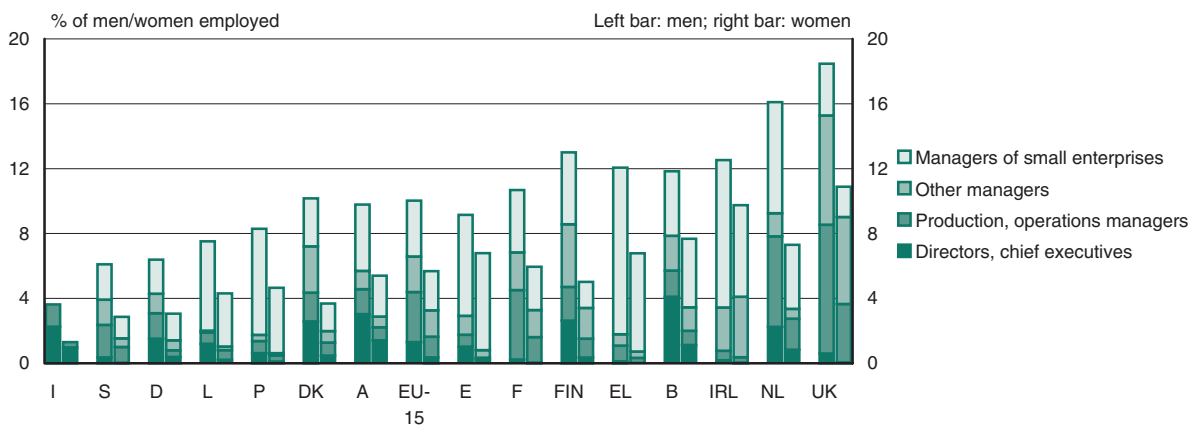
In line with the disparity in the relative number of women and men classified as self-employed with employees in the Union, many more men than women are classed as company managers of various kinds. In 2000, 10 % of men in employment in the EU were classed in this way as opposed to just over 5½ % of women. Only in Spain and Ireland was the figure for men less than 50 % higher than for women (30 % higher in each case), while in Denmark and Finland, it was over 2½ times higher (Graph 87). (The figure for men was also over 2½ times higher than for women in Italy, though this exaggerates the difference because there are data only for two of the four categories of manager.)

Moreover, the relative number of men employed as managers tends to be greatest as compared with that for women in the highest level categories of manager. Just under 1½ % of men in employment in the Union were, therefore, classed as ‘Directors and chief executives’ in 2000 as opposed to just under ½ % of women in employment, a difference of over 3½ times, while 3 % of men were classed as ‘Production and operating managers’ as against under 1½ % of women, a difference of 2½ times. On the other hand, just over 2 % of men were employed as ‘Other specialist managers’, only around 1½ times the proportion of women (1½ %), and 3½ % as ‘Managers of small enterprises’, again 1½ times the proportion of women (2½ %).

This general pattern is repeated in most Member States. Only in Italy, the Netherlands and Austria was the proportion of men employed as ‘Directors and chief executives’ less than 3 times the proportion for women and in the UK, it was 10 times higher and in Sweden, 15 times higher, though in both cases, the numbers involved were relatively small. In all countries, apart from Luxembourg, the proportion of men working as ‘Production or operations managers’ was around twice as high as the proportion for women or more. Similarly, in most countries, apart from Ireland, where women outnumbered men, the proportion of men employed as ‘Other specialist managers’ was significantly higher than for women. For ‘Managers of small enterprises’, there was even more uniformity, with the proportion of men employed in this capacity being around 1½ times higher than that of women in all countries, apart from Finland, where it was 2½ times higher, and Belgium and Spain, where it was much the same.

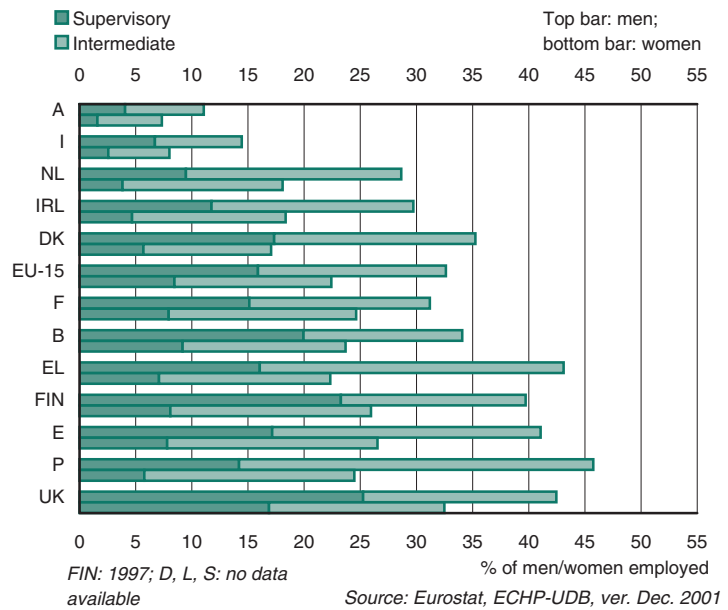
Men are about twice as likely as women to be in managerial positions and over three times as likely to be senior managers.

87 Men and women employed in managerial positions, 2000



Source: Eurostat, LFS

88 Men and women employed in supervisory and intermediate positions, 1998

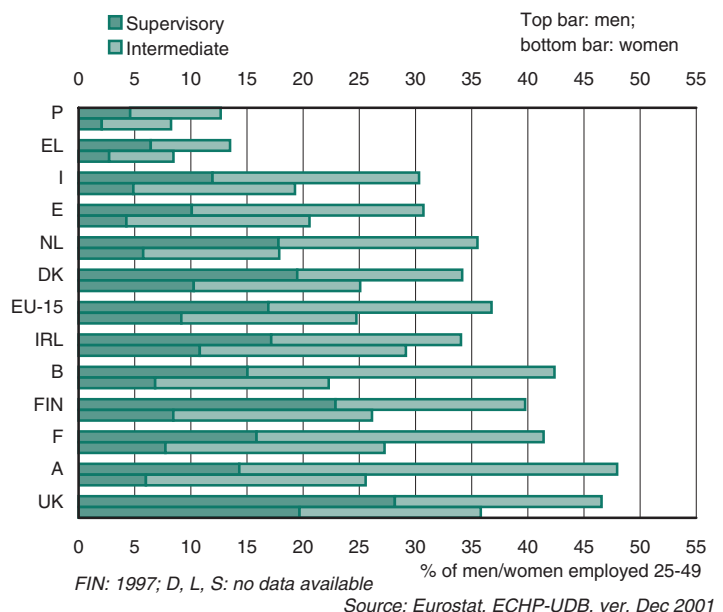


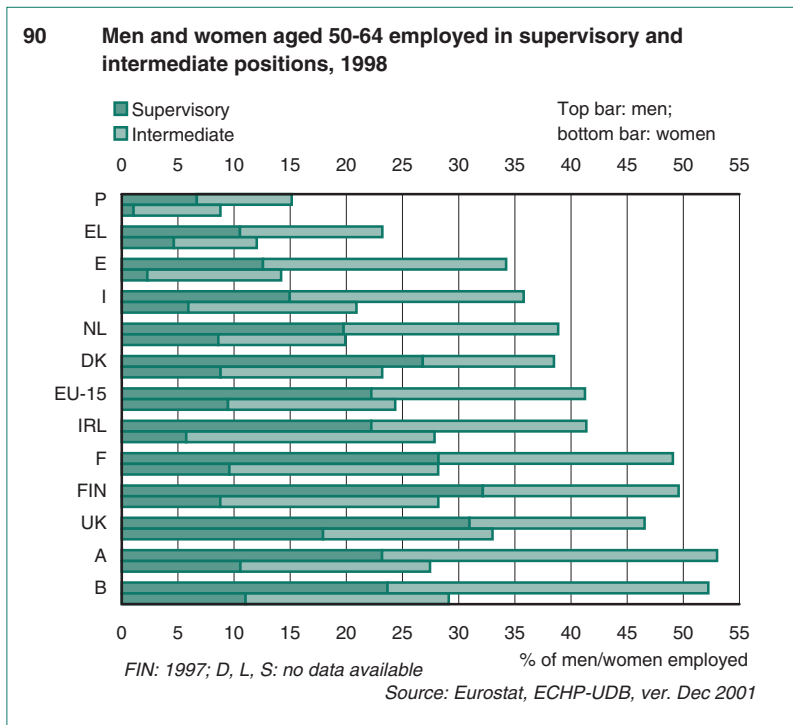
In line with the above, many fewer women than men have jobs with supervisory responsibilities and fewer still in older age groups.

Women and men in supervisory positions

Further light on the relative numbers of women and men in managerial positions in the economy is provided by the ECHP, which includes a question on whether or not respondents have jobs with supervisory responsibilities. (Specifically, respondents are asked whether their job is ‘supervisory’, ‘intermediate’ or ‘non-supervisory’.) In 1998, men in employment in the Union were around twice as likely to be in supervisory positions than women. Whereas an average of 16 % of men in employment reported being in such jobs, under 9 % of women did so. Although the overall proportion of both women and men in employment with supervisory responsibilities varied across the Union, from

89 Men and women aged 25-49 employed in supervisory and intermediate positions, 1998





over 25 % in the UK to under 7 % in Italy, in each case, except France and the UK, the proportion for men was at least twice as high as that for women (Graph 88).

Men are also more likely than women to be in intermediate positions, i.e. between having supervisory responsibilities and none at all. In the Union as a whole, just under 17 % of men in employment occupied this kind of job as against 14 % of women in employment. The proportion was also higher for men in individual Member States, apart from in Belgium, France and Finland.

Nor is this result affected greatly by the fact that women in employment tend on average to be slightly younger than men (because of the larger number who are economically inactive in the older age groups) and, therefore, less likely to be in positions of responsibility as a result. The relative number of women and men in supervisory positions was similar for those aged 25 to 49 in employment as for the total (Graph 89), while for those aged 50 to 64, the gap in the proportion between men and women was, in most countries, wider than for the younger age group (Graph 90).

Women and men in decision-making

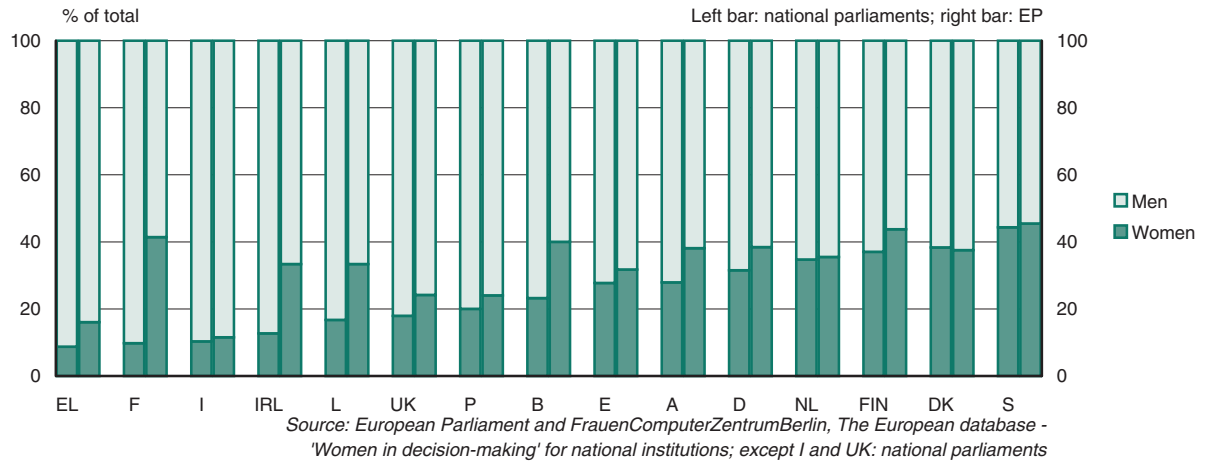
The data on which this section are based come from the database on women in decision-making established by the Frauen Computer Zentrum Berlin for national administrations and the IT industry, except for France, Italy and the UK, for which data on the composition of national parliaments come from the websites of the parliaments in question. Data on the European Institutions come directly from the European Parliament and the European Commission.

Women and men in parliament

There are fewer women members of national parliaments than men in all EU Member States, in many cases, considerably fewer. There are only four countries in the Union where women accounted for over a third of total members on the latest data available – Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden

Many fewer women than men have decision-making responsibilities in political life as well in virtually all European countries.

91 Composition of national parliaments and the European Parliament, 2001



— and only one, Sweden, where they accounted for more than 40 %. There are six countries where women represented fewer than one in five of members and in three of these — Greece, France and Italy — they represented only around one in 10 or fewer (Graph 91).

Women are also in the minority in the European Parliament, though in most countries, they represent a larger proportion of members than in the national counterparts. This is particularly so in Belgium, France, Ireland and Luxembourg, in each of which women accounted for a third or more of members — in Belgium and France, for around 40 %. Nevertheless, there are four Member States — Greece, Italy, Portugal and the UK — where less than a quarter of members are women, and in Greece and Italy, under 20 %.

Women and men in government

The relative numbers of women and men in national governments, including junior ministers as well as ministers, show a similar pattern to the composition of national parliaments. Apart from Sweden, where there is an equal number of women and men, men outnumber women in all Member States. Indeed, in all other countries, except Denmark (where the figure was around 43 %), Germany and Finland (around 39 % in each), women made up under a third of Government Ministers on the latest data available (Graph 92). In Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal, the figure was under 20 %.

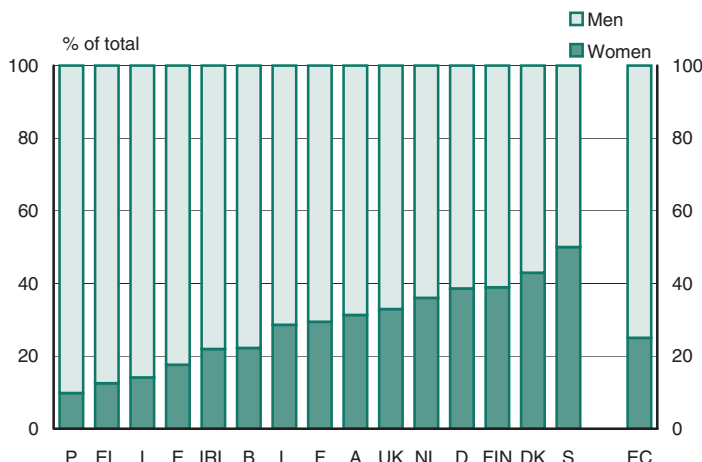
The relative position of women and men is similar in the European Commission. Five of the 20 commissioners, or 25 %, are women, which is much the same proportion as the average in national governments across the Union.

There is an even greater disparity between women and men within the administration of the European Commission. Women at present account for only around 15½ % of officials in the top five grades, A1 to A5 (which cover directors-general, directors and heads of unit — A5 is the minimum grade for someone to be a head of unit) and for just 10 ½ % of those in the top two grades (Table 7).

The number of women relative to men is higher among lower grades, so that whereas 78 % of all those in Grade A are men, this proportion falls to 59 % in Grade B (administrative assistants of various kinds), while in Grade C, which relates mostly to those in secretarial positions, some 81 % are women. Finally,

Men are not only in the great majority in most parliaments across Europe but also in governments.

92 Composition of national governments and the European Commission, 2001



Source: European Commission, Administration DG and FrauenComputerZentrumBerlin, The European database - 'Women in decision-making' for national institutions

to emphasise the gender segregation which is common in most areas of the economy, men make up 78 % of those in Grade D, which covers security and messenger services.

Women and men judges

Differences in the relative number of women and men in positions of authority extend to the judicial system. Men make up the majority of judges and magistrates in all Member States except Greece, where women accounted for just over half of the total in 1997. In the rest of the EU, over 65 % of judges and professional magistrates were men in all countries apart from Denmark and Sweden (Table 8).

Women and men in positions of authority in the candidate countries

Women are in an even smaller minority in parliaments in the candidate countries than in the Union. In all six countries for which data are available, men account for over 80 % of Members of Parliament and for over 90 % in Hungary and Malta (Graph 93).

Men are in a bigger majority in government in these six countries. Only in Estonia and Poland do women make up over 10 % of ministers and in the Czech Republic, all ministers are men.

There is a much different balance in the candidate countries between women and men in the judicial system. In six of the nine countries for which data are available for 1997, there were significantly more women judges and magistrates than men. Only in Latvia, Cyprus and Turkey were men in the majority – substantially so in the last two countries, where over 70 % of judges and magistrates were men (Table 9).

Table 7 – Men and women in the European Commission, January 2002

	% of total	
	Men	Women
Grade A	78.2	21.8
of which: A1-A5	84.5	15.5
A1-A2	88.5	10.5
Grade B	59.2	40.8
Grade C	18.7	81.3
Grade D	77.9	22.1
Grade LA	42.7	57.3

Categories:

- A – Administrators
- B – Assistants
- C – Secretaries and clerks
- D – Skilled workers
- LA – Linguists

Source: European Commission, Administration DG

Table 8 – Professional judges and magistrates in Member States, 1997

	% of total	
	Men	Women
B	69	31
DK	57	43
D	74	26
EL	49	51
E	67	33
F	:	:
IRL	84	16
I	68	32
L	:	:
NL	:	:
A	:	:
P	66	34
FIN	70	31
S	64	36
UK	87	12

B: 1995.

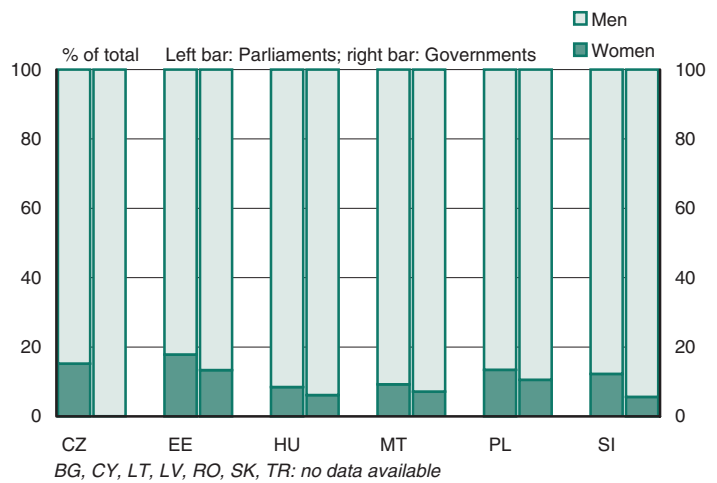
Source: United Nations Crime and Justice Information Network, UNCJIN

Table 9 – Professional judges and magistrates in candidate countries, 1997

	Men	% of total Women
BG	:	:
CY	77.1	22.9
CZ	37.1	62.9
EE	34.6	65.4
HU	:	:
LT	56.6	43.4
LV	30.3	69.7
MT	:	:
PL	:	:
RO	37.6	62.4
SI	35.5	64.5
SK	42.0	58.0
TR	73.4	26.6

Source: United Nations Crime and Justice Information Network, UNCJIN

93 Composition of parliaments and governments in candidate countries, 2001



BG, CY, LT, LV, RO, SK, TR: no data available

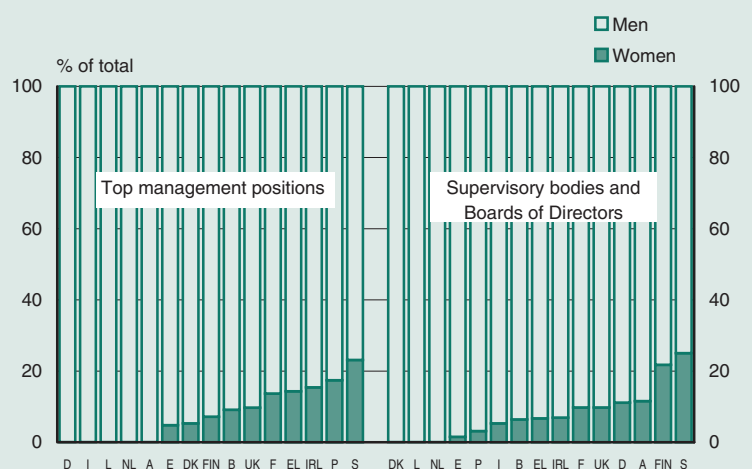
Source: FrauenComputerZentrumBerlin, The European database - 'Women in decision-making'

Women and men in managerial positions in the telecommunications industry

Women seem to be even less likely to be in managerial positions in the more advanced, high-tech sectors of the economy than in the more traditional sectors. According to a recent survey of the main companies operating in the telecommunications industry (i.e. those with the largest share of the voice telephony market), women were virtually absent from executive positions in 2000. Only in Sweden, did women account for over 20 % of top management posts and only in four other countries (France, Greece, Ireland and Portugal) was their share over 10 % (Graph 94). In Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria, there were no women executives at all.

The picture was very similar as regards supervisory bodies or boards of directors. In Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, there were no women on such bodies and they accounted for under 10 % in 8 Member States. In two others, Germany and Austria, the figure was only just over 10 %. In Finland and Sweden, the relative number of women was higher but still small (22 % and 25 %, respectively).

94 Men and women in top-leadership positions in the telecommunications industry, 1999



Source: FrauenComputerZentrumBerlin, The European database - 'Women in decision-making'

Women and men in science

While women represent more than half of those enrolled in, and graduating from, university or equivalent programmes in 14 of the 15 Member States, men represent the majority of teachers and researchers in higher education and government research institutes, according to the data compiled for the Women in Science project (which was carried out jointly by Eurostat and the Research DG, with the support of the Helsinki Group on women and science).

Professors

In 1999, women represented around 20 % of those employed as associate professor in the EU and 35 % or over in Spain, France, Portugal and Finland. Only in two countries, Ireland and the Netherlands, was the proportion of women associate professors below 10 %. The presence of women tends to decline, and that of men to increase, as the level of seniority of academic posts rises. Around 90 % of full professors in the Union as a whole were men in 1999 (or at least in 14 Member States – comparable data are not available for Luxembourg). The proportion of women ranged from a high of 17–18 % in Portugal and Finland and 14–15 % in Spain and France to just 5–6 % in Ireland, the Netherlands and Austria (Graph 95).

Researchers

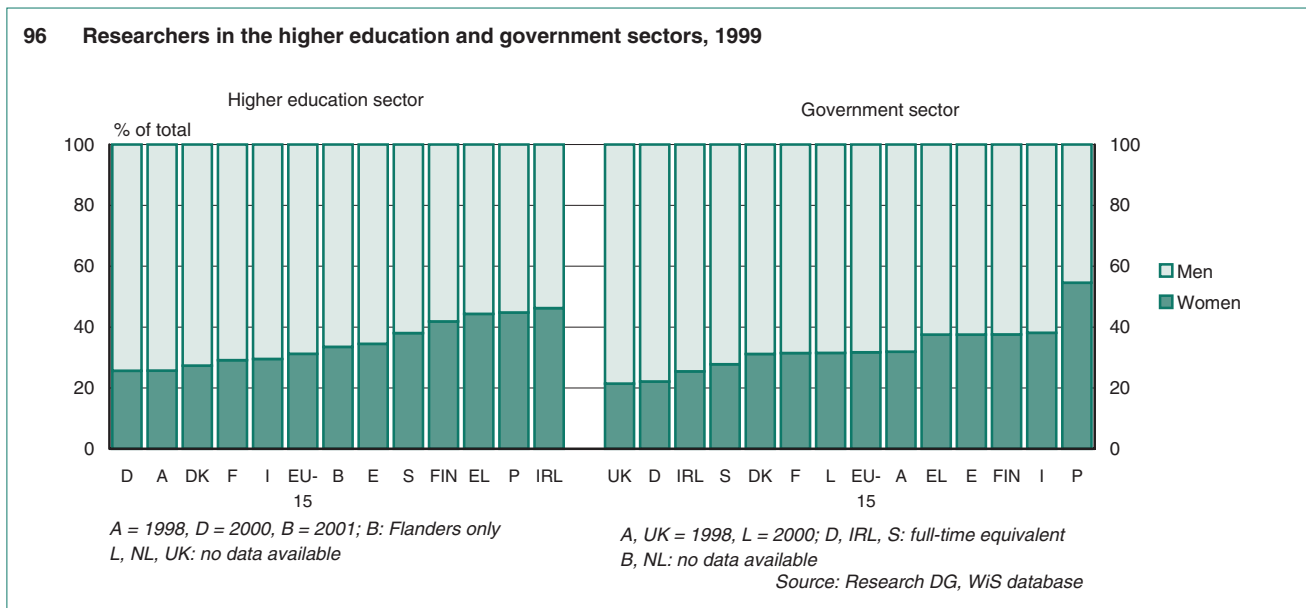
There were also more men than women working as researchers in higher education. In the EU as a whole, men accounted for over two-thirds of the total number of researchers in the latest year for which there are data. In the higher education sector, women represented only 26 % of researchers in Germany and Austria but over 40 % in Finland, Greece, Portugal and Ireland (Graph 96).

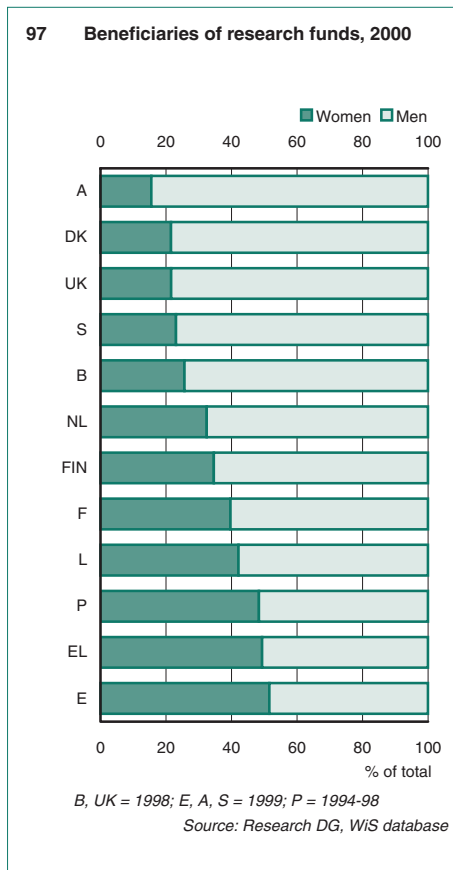
The situation was very similar in government research institutes. The share of women ranged from 55 % in Portugal, the only country where women outnumbered men, and just under 40 % in Greece, Spain, Italy and Finland to 25 % in Ireland and only around 21–22 % in the UK and Germany.

Research funds

Women were also less likely to be in receipt of government research funds than men, reflecting the disparity in their numbers. In 1999–2000, only in Spain

Men outnumber women significantly in university professorships and research activities.





did more women receive funds than men, though in both Greece and Portugal, women were almost as likely to receive funds as men. In Luxembourg and France, some 40 % of recipients were women, while in all the other Member States for which data are available (there are no data for Germany, Italy or Ireland), they accounted for around a third or less. In Denmark, Sweden and the UK, they represented less than a quarter of recipients (Graph 97).

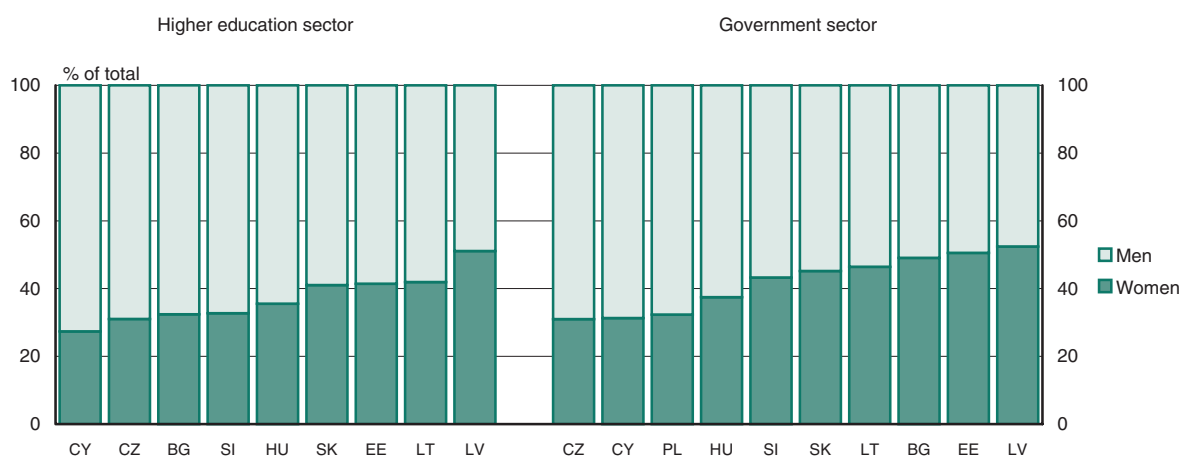
The candidate countries

In the candidate countries (excluding Romania and Turkey for which comparable data are not available), women represented, on average around 15 % of full professors, the proportion ranging from 19–20 % in Bulgaria and Latvia and 11–12 % in Lithuania and Slovenia to 5–7 % in Cyprus, the Czech Republic and Slovakia and to only 2 % in Malta (Graph 98).

There were also fewer women than men working as researchers in both the higher education and government sectors, though the difference was less wide than in the Union, women accounting for just under 40 % of the total on average. In the higher education sector, the proportion of women was above 30 % in all countries for which data are available, except for Cyprus, and over 40 % in Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovakia. In Latvia, women accounted for over half of the total (Graph 99).

In government research institutes, the share of women was higher than in higher education in all countries, with the sole exception of the Czech Republic where the share in the two sectors was virtually the same. In six of the 10 countries for which there are data, women accounted for over 40 % of the total and in both Estonia and Latvia, they slightly outnumbered men.

99 Researchers in the higher education and government sectors in the candidate countries, 1999/2000



BG, CY, CZ, SI = 1999; HU, LT, LV, SK = 2000; LT, SK: full-time equivalent
 Missing countries mean data are not available

Source: Research DG, WiS database

2.3. Access of women and men to continuing training

Women and men participate in continuing training to much the same extent across the Union but the level of access varies markedly between countries.

It is becoming increasingly important for women and men in employment to update and extend their skills and, accordingly, to have access to training which enables them to do this. The focus on lifelong learning in present EU policy, as regards the pursuit of both economic development and employment objectives, reflects the recognition of this. At the same time, sources of reliable information on training provided to those in employment are scarce, partly because of the inherent difficulty of defining what is meant by the term, which can cover both formal training programmes leading to recognised qualifications on completion and informal learning at the workplace, which might be no less valuable for the acquisition of skills.

The few information sources which are available at EU level all indicate that the availability of vocational training to those in work varies markedly across the Union. According to the Continuing Vocational Training Survey (CVTS), conducted across the Union in 2000–2001 (reference year 1999), the participation of employees in vocational training provided by enterprises ranged from around 60 % in Sweden and over 50 % in Denmark – the only countries in the Union, with Finland, where at least half of women or men in the enterprises covered participated in training – to around 25 % in Spain and only some 17 % in Portugal (Graph 100). (The CVTS covered enterprises with 10 or more employees in the ‘enterprise sector’ of the economy, i.e. excluding public administration, education, health and social services and agriculture. ‘Training’ is defined to mean training measures or activities financed wholly or partly by enterprises for their employees with employment contracts, ‘employees’ being defined to exclude apprentices and trainees.)

In most countries, there was comparatively little difference in the rate of participation in training between women and men. In Ireland, Luxembourg and Finland, the proportion of women participating in training was higher than for

100 Rate of participation in CVT courses, 1999



men, in Germany, France and the Netherlands, the reverse was the case, while in the other Member States for which data are so far available, there was only a small difference between the two (no data are yet available for Belgium, Greece, Italy and the UK).

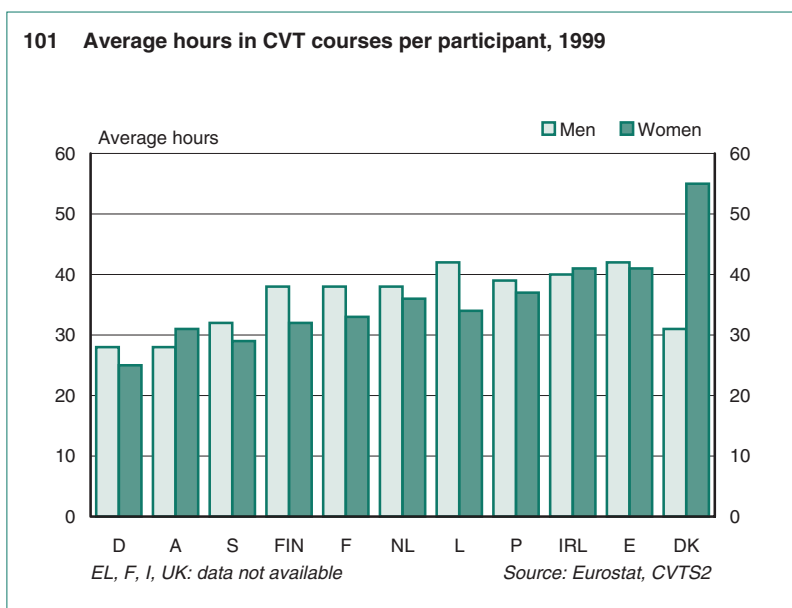
The average hours spent participating in training was also similar for women and men in most countries, though there were more in which men were trained for a longer time than women than the reverse (Graph 101). In only Denmark and Austria did women receive more hours of training than men, in the former substantially so, while in the other countries, they either received similar amounts as men (in four cases) or less (the other five).

In all countries, a larger proportion of both women and men tend to participate in training in larger enterprises than in smaller ones. There is some tendency, however, for women to participate more in training relative to men in small enterprises and less in larger ones, which may in some degree reflect differences in the sectors in which women and men work. In all Member States, a larger proportion of women than men working in small enterprises of under 50 employees participated in training. In most countries, a larger proportion of men working in large enterprises of 250 or more employees participated in training than women. The exceptions were the three Nordic countries, Austria and Luxembourg, where much the same proportion of women as men participated in training.

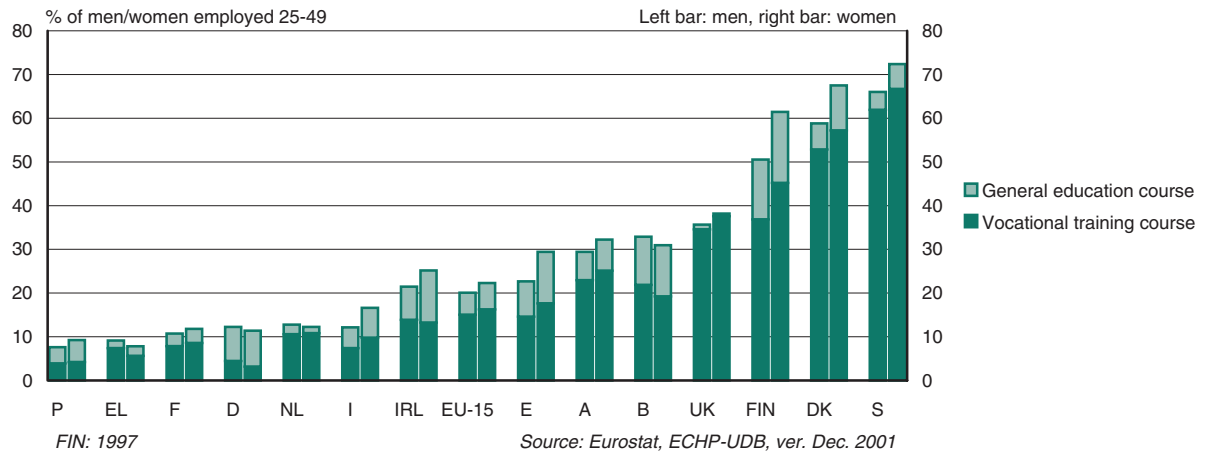
There are also some differences between the relative numbers of women and men participating in training in different broad sectors of activity, as well as differences in the overall proportion of women and men in training. In most Member States, a larger proportion of men than women participated in training in manufacturing and business activities. Conversely, in most Member States, a larger proportion of women than men participated in training in community and personal services. In the other two sectors, distribution and financial services, there was no systematic pattern (see tables in Annex).

Data from the European Community Household Panel Survey (ECHP) show a somewhat different picture in terms of the overall proportion of those in employment participating in training, possibly because of a wider coverage (the whole economy rather than just the enterprise sector, firms with 10 or more

Women are more likely than men to participate in training if they work in small firms and less likely if they work in large ones.



102 Men and women aged 25-49 who had been in education or training, 1998

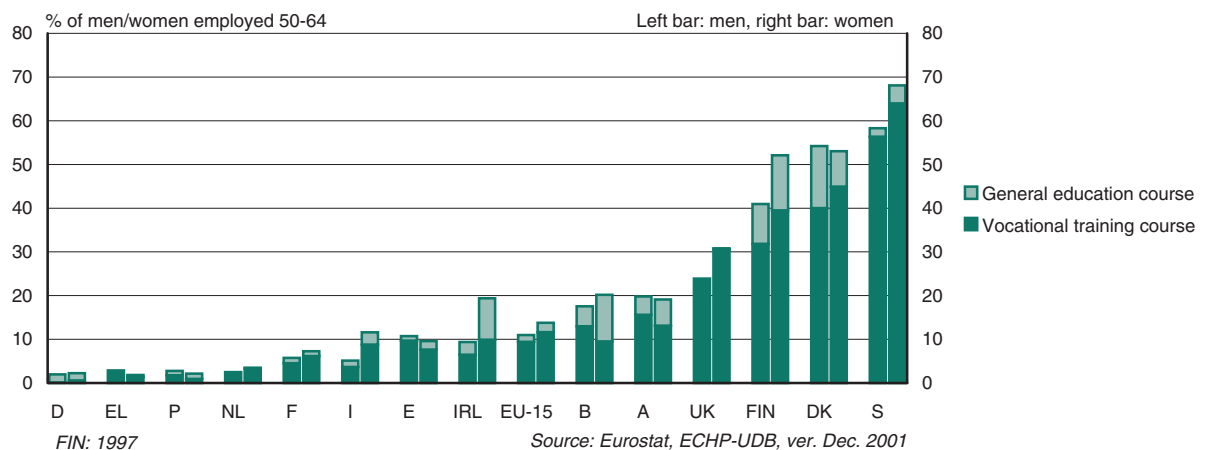


employees and the self-employed as well as employees). Probably the main reason for the difference, however, is that the information is collected from individuals rather than companies and relates to education or training courses rather than just training as such (which might be more widely interpreted insofar as it includes activities in addition to specific courses). (The specific question is whether the respondent has been in education or training since the beginning of the previous year, followed by a question on the kind of course it was — general or vocational or both.)

Unlike the CVTS, the ECHP enables women and men in different age groups to be examined. Like the CVTS, however, it indicates that the proportions of women and men in training were similar in most Member States, though there is some overall tendency for more women to be involved in training than men.

According to the ECHP, the proportion of women and men who had been in training over the year preceding the 1998 survey, taking all those in employment, varied more between Member States than indicated by the CVTS.

103 Men and women aged 50-64 who had been in education or training, 1998



2.3. — Access of women and men to continuing training

Moreover, women in the 25 to 49 age group who were in employment were more likely to have been in training than men. The relative number who had been on a vocational training course at some stage over the preceding year was higher in Denmark, Sweden and Finland than anywhere else in the Union, which is consistent with the CVTS results. In addition, in these three countries, a larger proportion of women in this age group than men had received vocational training (as distinct from general education not linked to the job they were doing). This was also the case in Spain, Italy, Austria and the UK (Graph 102). In all other Member States, Belgium apart, the proportions were similar (i.e. within two percentage points).

At the same time, in most countries, a larger proportion of women than men had been on a general education course, perhaps in an evening class, which was not specifically vocational in nature.

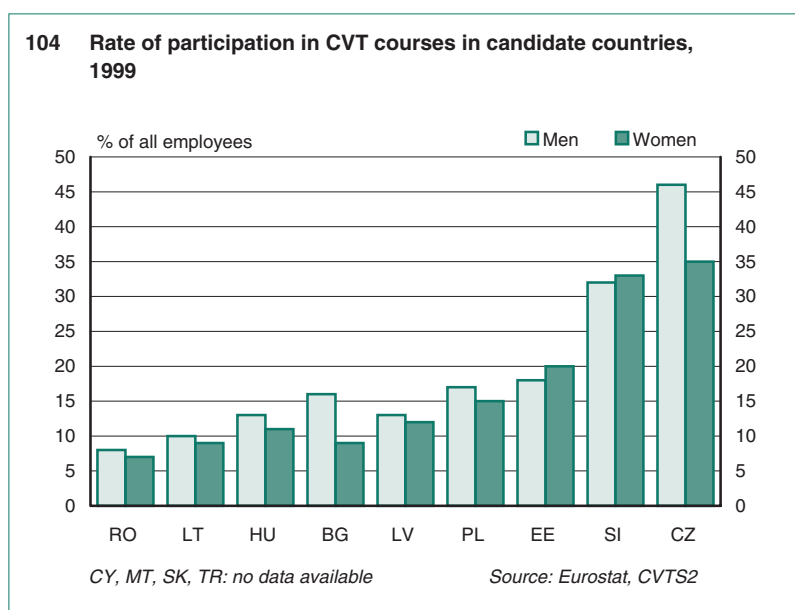
A much smaller proportion of both women and men aged 50 to 64 had been on a vocational training course in most Member States than those in the younger age group, only around 10 % on average and under 5 % in four countries (Germany, the Netherlands, Greece and Portugal). Again, however, women were slightly more likely than men to have undertaken training, with the reverse being the case only in Greece, Spain, Austria and, as for those aged 25 to 49, Belgium (Graph 103).

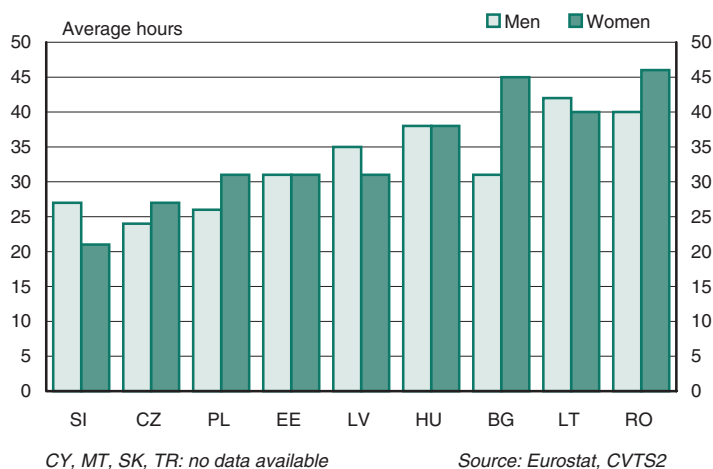
Participation in continuing training in the candidate countries

A smaller proportion of employees participated in vocational training in most of the candidate countries than in the Union in 1999, according to the CVTS, which also covered countries in central and eastern Europe. In seven of the nine countries for which data are available, the figure was less than 20 %. Unlike in the Union, a larger proportion of men in work than women participated in training in these countries. Only in Slovenia, to a small extent, and Estonia was the reverse the case (Graph 104).

There was, however, less of a systematic difference between women and men in the average hours of training involved, which tended to vary inversely with the

A larger proportion of men than women participated in training in most of the candidate countries.



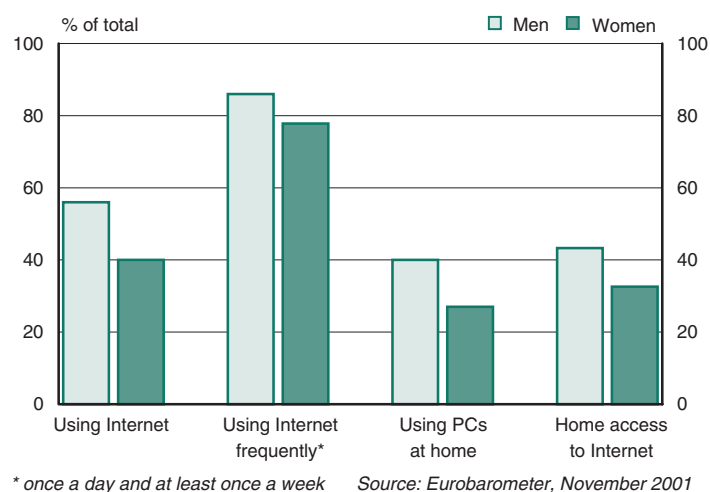
105 Average hours in CVT courses per participant in candidate countries, 1999

relative number of employees participating in training (it was highest in Lithuania and Romania, in which participation rates in training were lowest, and lowest in the Czech Republic and Slovenia, where rates were highest). In four countries, women received, on average, more hours of training than men – in Bulgaria, substantially so – men received more than women in three, and in the other two, there was little difference (Graph 105).

Access to ICT

Men in the EU are more likely than women to use PCs and access the Internet.

Results from a Eurobarometer survey, conducted towards the end of 2001, indicate significant difference between Member States in the use of personal computers and access to the Internet. The proportion of people using personal computers at home, therefore, varied from around two-thirds or more in the Netherlands and Denmark to only around 20 % in Portugal and just over 10 % in Greece, while the proportion of households with access to the Internet showed much the same variation. The results also show, however, that men in the Union are more likely to use computers both at work and at home than

106 Access of men and women to ICT, 2001

women as well as to have access to the Internet. They also tend to use the Internet more frequently.

Some 40 % of men, therefore, reported using a personal computer at home as opposed to 27 % of women, while 43 % of men as against 33 % of women had access to the Internet at home. Some 56 % of men as compared with 40 % of women used the Internet; of those using the Internet, around 42 % of men used it at work as against 38 % of women. The gap in use of the Internet between men and women, moreover, does not seem to be changing greatly over time, the difference being much the same at the end of 2001 as a year earlier (50 % as opposed to 35 %).

In addition, some 47 % of men using the Internet reported accessing it every day as compared with 33 % of women, while 86 % of men accessed it at least once a week as against 78 % of women (Graph 106).

2.4. Earnings of women and men

Women have lower average hourly earnings than men in all EU countries.

Women on average earn less than men right across the Union. In 1998, according to the ECHP, average gross hourly earnings of women in the Union employed full-time (here defined as those usually working 30 hours or more a week) were some 17 % below those of men. (The analysis is confined to those aged 20 and over and excludes employees working part-time whose rates of pay may be calculated on a slightly different basis from those employed full-time. There are no data for Sweden or Luxembourg. The figures are based on ECHP data on gross monthly earnings and converted to an hourly basis using the data on weekly hours worked.) Although the extent of the difference varied between Member States, in most countries, it was substantial. In only three countries, Belgium, Denmark and Portugal – in the first, only marginally – were average earnings of women less than 10 % below those of men (Graph 107). In Austria and the UK, they were some 19 % below those of men and in Germany, 24 % below.

There are relatively few women in the top 10 % of hourly wage earners, a disproportionate number in the bottom 10 %.

Women and men at the top and bottom of the pay scale

This disparity in earnings is reflected in the much larger proportion of women at the bottom end of the wage distribution than at the top. Over the EU, as a whole, women, on average, made up only 20 % of the top 10 % of full-time employees with the highest hourly earnings, as opposed to just under 40 % of all full-time employees. (Women, of course, account for a smaller proportion of full-time employees than of total employees because so many work part-time.) By contrast, they made up some 54 % of the bottom 10 % of employees with the lowest hourly earnings (Graph 108).

The difference between the respective proportions was particularly marked in the countries where women's earnings on average were well below those of

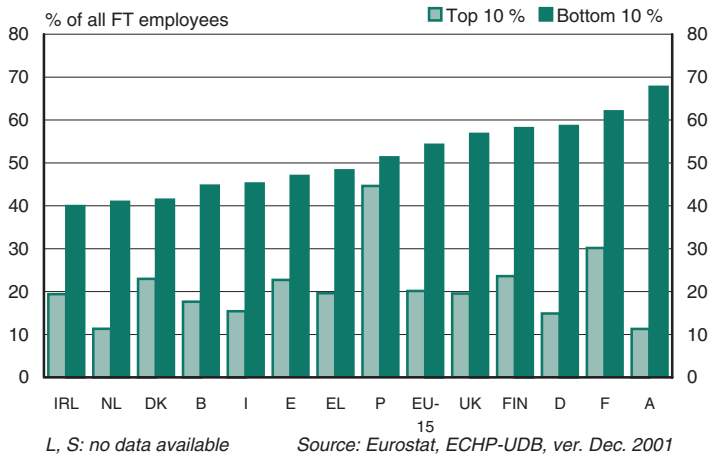
107 Average gross hourly earnings of women aged 20 and over in full-time employment relative to men aged 20 and over, 1998



S: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

108 Women aged 20 and over as a share of full-time employees in the top and bottom 10 % hourly wage-earners, 1998



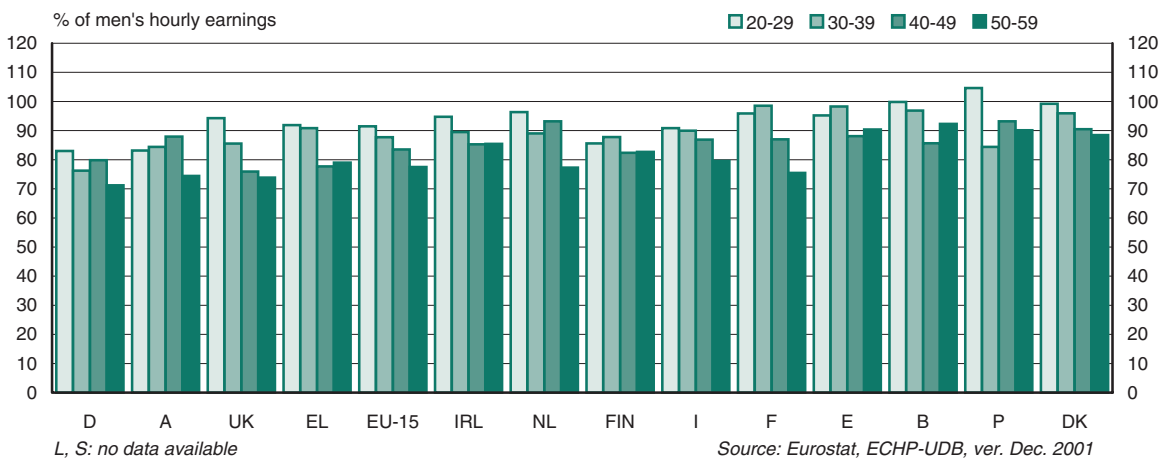
men. In Austria, women represented only 11 % of the top 10 % of wage earners but 67 % of the bottom 10 %, while in Germany, they represented around 15 % of the former group and 59 % of the latter. By contrast, in Portugal, women accounted for 45 % of the top 10 % of earners and 51 % of the bottom 10 %, by far the smallest difference in the Union. Elsewhere, the proportion of women in the bottom 10 % of wage earners was over 25 percentage points higher than the proportion in the top 10 % in all countries, apart from Denmark and Ireland, where it was around 20 points. In no Member State apart from France and Portugal did women make up more than 25 % of the top 10 % of hourly wage earners

The pay gap by age

The difference in hourly earnings between women and men owes very little to the fact that women in employment, especially in full-time employment, tend on average to be younger than men, reflecting the withdrawal of significant numbers of women from the labour market in many Member States when they

The gap in pay between men and women widens with age.

109 Average gross hourly earnings of women relative to men by age group, 1998



have a family and the large proportion working part-time among those who remain. Indeed, in most countries, the difference in average earnings between women and men is wider among older workers than among younger ones. In 1998, women in the Union in their 50s working full-time earned on average some 23 % per hour less than men, while those in their 40s earned 16 % less, those in their 30s, 12 % less and those in their 20s, 9 % less (Graph 109). There is, therefore, a progressive widening of the pay gap with age.

This pattern is repeated in most Member States. In all countries apart from the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal, the gap in hourly rates of pay between women and men was smaller for those in their 20s and 30s than for those in their 40s and 50s. Moreover, even for those in their 20s, for whom the gap was smallest, there were only three Member States – Belgium, Denmark and Portugal – where the average earnings of women were similar to, or, in the case of Portugal, higher than, those of men.

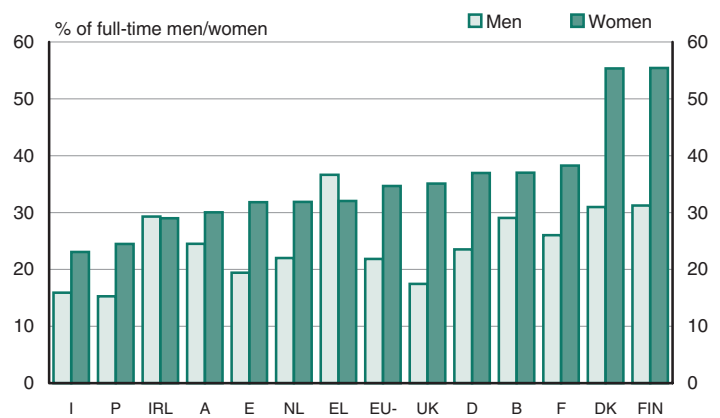
The widening of the pay gap with age may reflect the fact that women are far more likely than men to interrupt their working careers to take care of children and other members of the family in need of care and, accordingly, more likely to lose seniority. On the other hand, as noted below, the gap in earnings is relatively wide between men and women with university level education, who are less likely to take a period off work for caring reasons.

The pay gap in the public and private sectors

The gap in hourly wage rates between men and women is less in the public sector than in the private sector.

According to the ECHP, a disproportionate number of women employees working full-time were employed in the public sector. Around 35 % of women in full-time employment in the EU in 1998 worked in the public sector as against 22 % of men (Graph 110). Women, therefore, despite their smaller numbers overall, made up almost half of all full-time public sector employees as compared with under a third of those in the private sector. In Denmark and Finland, 55 % of women full-time employees worked in the public sector as against under a quarter in Italy and Portugal. Taking account of the position in the public sector as well as in the private sector is, therefore, potentially important when assessing pay differences between women and men.

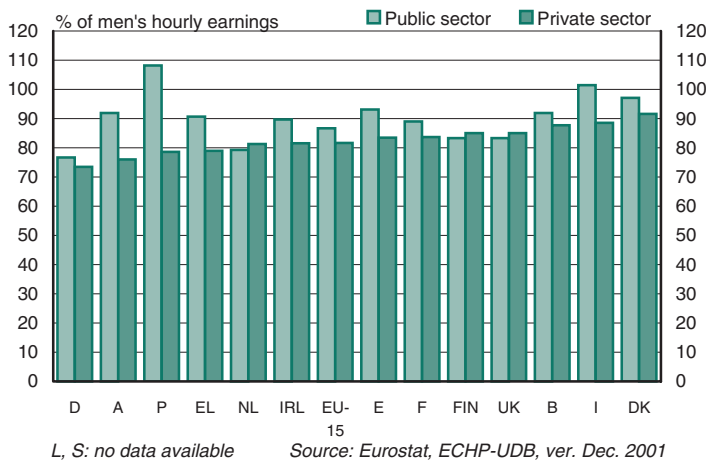
110 Share of men and women full-time employees working in the public sector, 1998



L, S: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB ver. Dec. 2001

111 Average gross hourly earnings of women aged 20 and over relative to men in the public and private sectors, 1998



The ECHP data indicate that the difference in hourly earnings between women and men tends to be less wide in the public sector than in the private. In 1998, average hourly earnings of women in the Union employed in the private sector were over 18 % lower than those of men. For those employed in the public sector, they were 13 % lower (Graph 111). This difference is evident in most Member States, the only exceptions being the Netherlands, Finland and the UK, where the difference was slightly narrower in the private sector than in the public. The difference was particularly marked (10 percentage points or more) in Portugal, Italy, Spain and Austria, in the first two of which, women in the public sector earned more on average than men.

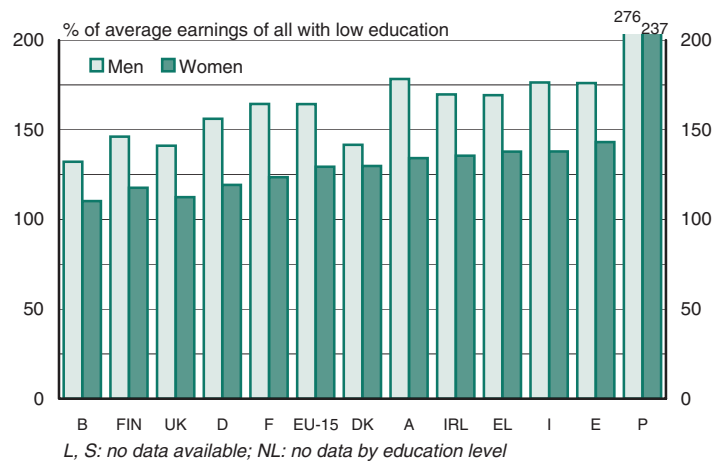
(The results for the private sector are broadly in line with those from the Survey of the Structure of Earnings (SSE) for 1995, which covered only the enterprise economy – i.e. excluding public administration, education, health and social services and personal and community services as well as agriculture – and excluded those working in local units with less than 10 employees. In general, however, the SSE shows a slightly wider gap between the average hourly earnings of women employed full-time and those of men than the ECHP – 77 % of those of men on average in the Union as opposed to 82 %, which may result from the difference in coverage. Nevertheless, the rank order of countries in terms of the size of the pay gap is similar.)

The pay gap by education attainment level

Throughout the Union, average earnings of both women and men are positively related to their level of educational attainment, in the sense that those with upper secondary education tend to earn more than those with only basic schooling (lower secondary education or less) and those with tertiary level education (university or equivalent) tend to earn significantly more than either. In other words, there are positive returns to education for both women and men, which are similar in scale for each, in the sense that the average earnings of women with tertiary level education exceed those of women with lower secondary education or below by much the same percentage as in the case of men. Men, however, earn more, on average, than women at each education level.

On average, men working full-time in the Union with tertiary education earned some 65 % more per hour than men and women with only basic schooling in

The gain in earnings from education is similar for women and men, but men have higher hourly earnings than women at all levels of education.

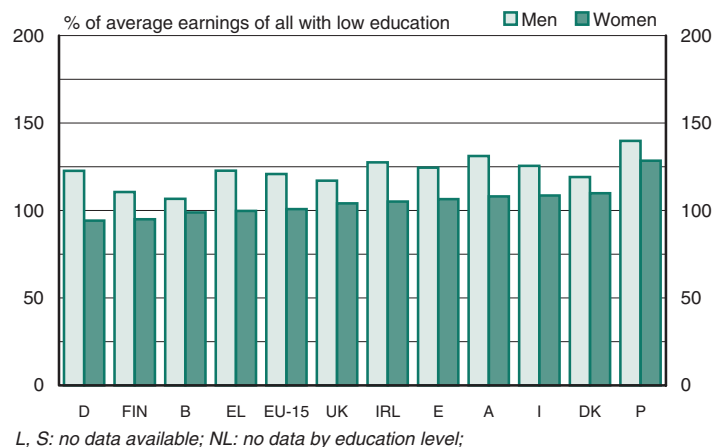
112 Average gross earnings of men and women with tertiary level education relative to those of people with low education, 1998

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

1998, while women with the same level of education earned around 30 % more (Graph 112 – no data are available for the Netherlands by education attainment level). Accordingly, the average hourly earnings of women with tertiary education were some 21 % below those of their male counterparts. The scale of this latter difference was similar in most Member States. In all apart from Denmark and Portugal, women with this level of educational attainment earned over 15 % less than men (in Denmark, 8 % less, in Portugal, 14 % less).

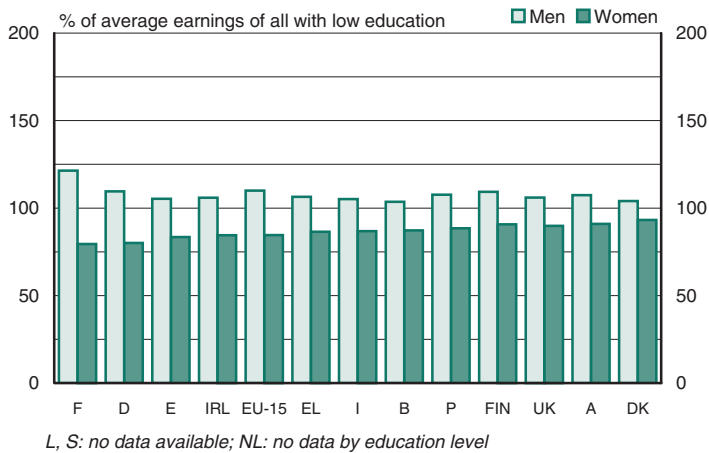
Women with upper secondary education have lower hourly earnings than men with only basic schooling in most EU countries.

For those with upper secondary educational attainment (but not tertiary level), the extent of the difference in earnings between women and men was smaller but still significant. In the EU as a whole, men with this level of education earned, on average, some 21 % more than those with no qualifications beyond basic schooling, while women earned only 1 % more (Graph 113 – no data are available for France for this level of education). The latter implies that women with upper secondary education also earned less, on average, than men with only basic schooling. Only in Denmark, Portugal, Spain and Italy did they earn more on average and in the last two only slightly so.

113 Average gross earnings of men and women with upper secondary level education relative to those of people with low education, 1998

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

114 Average gross earnings of men and women with lower secondary level education relative to those of people with low education, 1998



Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

It also implies that the average earnings of women with upper secondary education were some 16 % lower than those of men with the same education level. As in the case of those with tertiary education, the extent of the difference between women and men was similar in most countries, with again Denmark and Portugal showing a smaller difference than elsewhere, this time along with Belgium (in each of these countries, women earned 7–8 % less than men). These three countries apart, the hourly earnings of women with upper secondary education were at least 14 % lower than for men in all Member States.

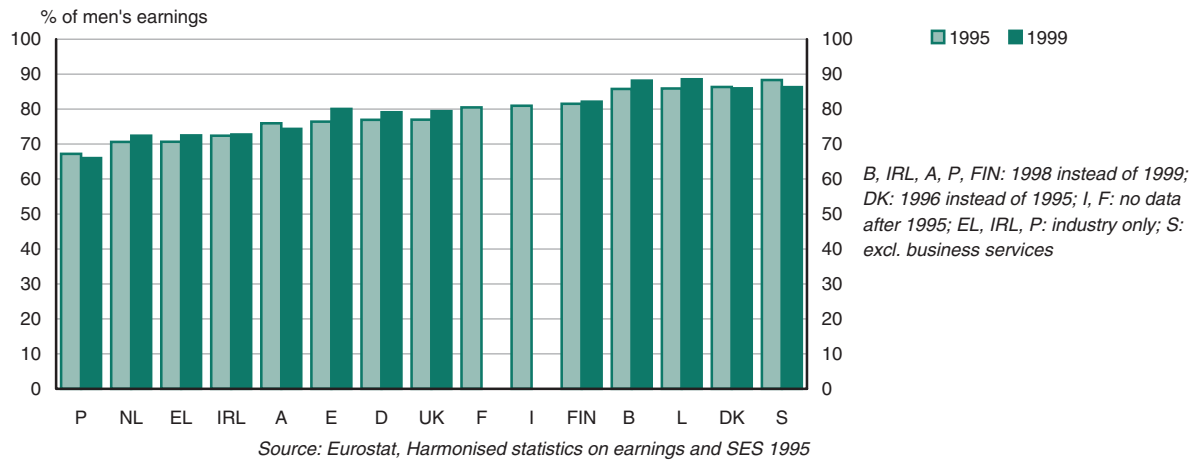
For those with only basic schooling, the average hourly earnings of women were some 23 % less than those of men, again restricting the comparison to full-time employees only (Graph 114). In all Member States, women earned, on average, over 10 % less than men and in all but Denmark, at least 15 % less. In six of the 11 Member States for which a comparison is possible, the average earnings of men with only basic schooling were higher than those of women with upper secondary education.

Developments over time

Although data from the ECHP are now available for five years, it is difficult to use these to give an indication of changes over time simply because the sample size is relatively small and, therefore, the year-to-year changes derived can tend to fall within the margin of error. The harmonised statistics on earnings, which are collected annually, are likely to give a more reliable view of developments in respect of the gap in wages between women and men. Unlike the ECHP, these are confined to the enterprise economy and exclude communal services such as health, education and public administration as well as agriculture. They indicate that, over the period 1995 to 1998 in some cases and to 1999 in others, average earnings of women employed in industry and the services covered increased relative to those of men in seven of the 13 Member States for which data are available, remained much the same in three countries (Denmark, Ireland and Finland); and declined in three (Austria Portugal and Sweden) – in each case, by 1–2 percentage points (Graph 115). (The harmonised earnings statistics have been aligned with data from the Survey on the Structure of Earnings for 1995.)

In the majority of EU countries, the gap in pay between men and women has narrowed in the second half of the 1990s, but only slightly.

115 Women's earnings in industry and services, 1995 and 1998/1999



Earnings developments in industry and certain services

The harmonised earnings statistics also provide an indication of changes in particular broad sectors of economic activity over a longer period of time. In seven of the nine Member States for which data are available for the period, the average earnings of women manual employees in industry rose relative to those of men between 1990 and 1999 (or 1998 in a few cases) (Graph 116). In the other two countries, Portugal and the UK, they remained at much the same relative level.

For six Member States, it is also possible to trace the development of women's earnings relative to men's in retailing and financial services over the 1990s. In five of these countries, average earnings of women non-manual workers increased relative to those of their male counterparts over the period, both between 1990 and 1995 and between 1995 and 1999 (Table 10). In Portugal, however, they fell. Nevertheless, the extent of the rise in the countries in which this occurred was relatively small in most cases.

116 Women's earnings in industry, 1990, 1995 and 1998/1999



Table 10 – Women's earnings in selected sectors, 1990, 1995 and 1998/1999

													<i>% of men's earnings</i>		
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Industry															
1990	79	:	76	70	:	:	68	:	:	72	:	66	:	86	69
1995	83	87	77	71	76	79	72	81	:	74	71	67	81	87	72
1999	83	90	78	72	77	:	73	:	:	76	71	66	81	88	70
Retailing															
1990	83	:	75	83	64	:	:	:	:	:	:	79	:	:	71
1995	86	82	79	84	72	82	85	90	83	73	:	75	85	97	74
1999	88	:	86	89	71	:	:	:	85	:	:	73	86	101	77
Financial services															
1990	77	:	72	83	:	:	:	:	77	:	:	81	:	:	65
1995	78	80	73	79	78	69	73	81	79	62	78	80	63	77	65
1999	78	78	74	:	81	:	:	:	80	65	76	80	65	74	66
Hotels and restaurants															
1990	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
1995	:	87	:	:	82	92	78	92	83	77	81	:	88	86	80
1999	:	84	:	:	83	:	:	:	90	74	80	77	89	96	82
Business services															
1990	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
1995	:	75	:	:	79	75	:	:	:	64	63	:	73	82	78
1999	:	75	:	:	83	:	:	82	:	67	63	70	72	82	82

Figures in italics: 1990=1991; 1995=1996, 1999=1998 except for retailing in P and FIN where figures are for 1997.

Source: Eurostat, *Harmonised statistics on earnings and Structure of earnings survey, 1995*

Earnings of women relative to men also fell in Portugal in financial services over the 1990s, as well as in Greece over the first part of the decade (the data for the second part are not comparable). Although women's earnings rose relative to men's in other Member States for which there are data, the rise was generally less than in retailing (and only around one percentage point in both Belgium and the UK).

In none of these three broad sectors of activity is there any sign of any quickening in the rate of convergence of women's earnings towards those of men.

Harmonised statistics are also available for two other service activities for the second half of the 1990s. In hotels and restaurants, the earnings of women employed full-time relative to those of men remained much the same between 1995 and 1999 in most Member States for which there are data. Only in Luxembourg and Sweden was there any significant increase. In business services, average earnings of women relative to men increased in Spain, the Netherlands and the UK, while in other countries, they remained broadly unchanged.

2.5. Women and men at risk of poverty

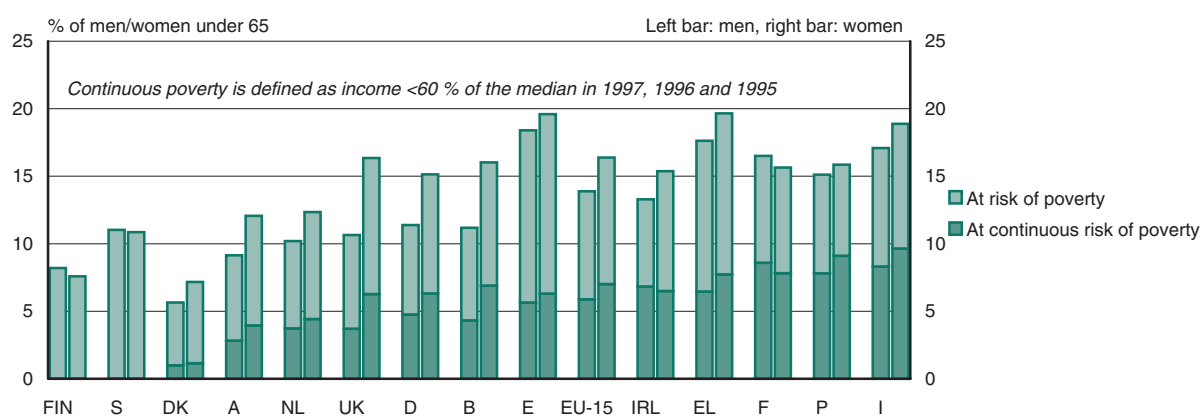
Women of working age are more at risk of poverty than men in most EU Member States.

In the Union as a whole, around 14 % of men and 16 % of women of working age, here taken to be those aged 18 to 64 (older people are considered separately later in the report), had a level of income in 1997 which put them at risk of poverty, in the sense that it was below 60 % of the median in the Member State in which they lived. (This is the conventional definition adopted in the Union to identify those at risk of poverty, which is defined in relative rather than absolute terms and is of relevance for the concept of social exclusion. Income here is defined in terms of equivalised income which is derived by dividing the total income of the household in which each person lives by the adult-equivalent numbers in the household, using the OECD-modified scale.)

Although the overall proportions varied significantly across the Union, from over 17 % for both women and men in Greece, Spain and Italy to under 8 % for both in Denmark and Finland, in the great majority of Member States, women in this age group were more at risk of poverty than men (Graph 117 – which also shows data for those with equivalised income below 60 % of the median in 1995 and 1996 as well as in 1997; those aged 16 and 17 are excluded from the definition of working age to avoid including those under 16 in the two earlier years; note that data are not available for Finland and Sweden for three consecutive years). There were only three countries where this was not the case, France, Finland and Sweden, in each of which there was comparatively little difference between the relative numbers involved. The gap between the proportions of men and women affected was widest in Belgium, Germany and the UK (in each of which, the proportion of women at risk exceeded that of men by four percentage points or more).

Women were also more likely than men to be at continuous risk of poverty, rather than simply in 1997, in the sense that their equivalised income was below 60 % of the median for three consecutive years. In 1997, therefore, some

117 Men and women aged 18-64 at risk of poverty, 1997



FIN: 1996. No continuous data for the period for FIN and S

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

7 % of women in the Union as compared with 6 % of men had had income below this level continuously since 1995. The proportion of those at risk of continuous poverty varies slightly differently across the Union as compared with those with income below the poverty level in 1997 alone. It was highest in France (especially for men), Italy and Portugal – higher than in Greece or Spain, which had larger proportions with income below the poverty level in 1997 – though the countries with the lowest levels, Denmark, the Netherlands and Austria, also had the lowest levels of risk in 1997 (there are no data for three consecutive years for Finland and Sweden).

The household circumstances of those at risk

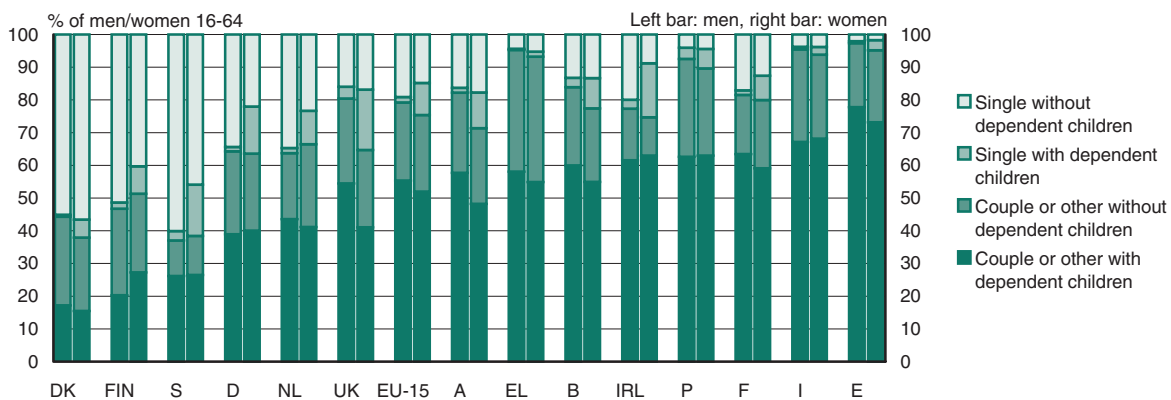
Household circumstances are likely to play an important role in determining whether or not someone is at risk of poverty, as well as, of course, whether or not they are in work and the kind of job that they do, both of which are examined below. The effect of household circumstances on the risk of poverty, however, varied markedly across the Union. In the Union as a whole, some 10 % of women with income below 60 % of the median in 1997 were living alone with a child as opposed to under 2 % of men. In Ireland, Sweden and the UK, over 15 % of women with an income below this level were in this position and in Germany, just under 15 % (Graph 118). In these countries, therefore, as in the Netherlands and Austria, where the figure was over 10 %, for a woman, having a child and living alone was a significant proximate cause of being at risk of poverty.

This is demonstrated more forcibly by the fact that over 40 % of all women living alone with a child had an income level below 60 % of the median in all the above-listed countries, apart from Sweden (19 %) and Austria (30 %), while the figure for Spain, where very few women are in this position, was also above 40 % (Graph 119 and Table 11). Men living alone with a child were also more at risk of poverty than those in other circumstances, though the overall numbers concerned covered by the ECHP were too small in most countries for the results to be reliable.

A further 15 % of women in the Union with income below 60 % of the median and 19 % of men lived alone without a dependent child. These figures varied

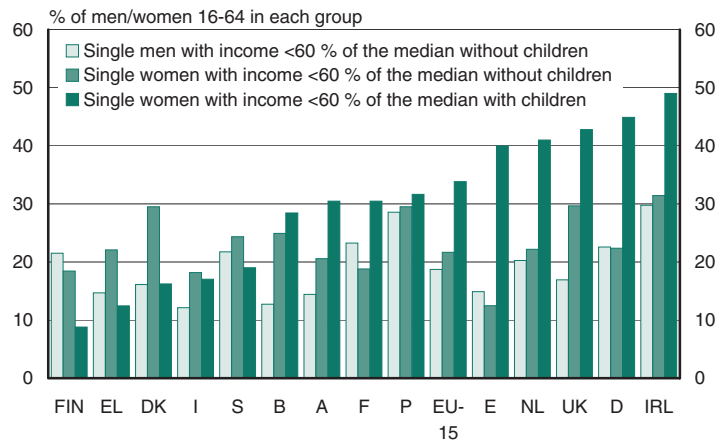
Women living alone with a child are at much more risk of poverty than those in other household circumstances.

118 Men and women aged 16-64 with equivalised income below 60 % of the median by household type, 1997



L: no data; FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

119 The risk of poverty among men and women aged 16-64 living alone, 1997

considerably across the Union, being particularly high in the three Nordic countries where a larger proportion of women and men live alone than in any parts of the Union, though in most Member States, the proportion of men at risk of poverty who lived alone was greater than that of women. Nevertheless, the probability of a woman living alone having an income level below the poverty level was higher than for men in 11 of the 15 Member States.

Although women and men living with spouses or partners with or without children or living in multiple occupancy households make up most of those with income below 60 % of the median in most Member States, this largely reflects the fact that the great majority of people live in such households. In practice, such people have a lower risk of having an equivalised income below the poverty level than those living alone in most countries, though couples with dependent children have a higher risk than those without in all Member States, except in the three Nordic countries (where the risk is low for both in any event). In both types of household, however, there was a larger proportion of women with an income below the poverty line than men.

Table 11 – The risk of poverty among men and women aged 16-64 by type of household, 1997

	<i>% of men/women 16-64 in each group with equivalised income <60 % of the median</i>																
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15	
Single without dependent children																	
Men	13	16	23	15	15	23	30	12	:	20	14	29	21	22	17	19	
Women	25	29	22	22	12	19	31	18	:	22	21	29	18	24	30	22	
Single with dependent children																	
Men	26	6	18	16	18	21	38	18	:	18	26	51	7	15	34	22	
Women	28	16	45	12	40	30	49	17	:	41	30	32	9	19	43	34	
Couple or other without dependent children																	
Men	7	4	7	16	12	9	7	12	:	5	6	12	7	4	6	8	
Women	10	4	9	19	14	9	6	12	:	7	8	13	6	4	9	10	
Couple or other with dependent children																	
Men	14	2	11	19	22	20	14	21	:	12	11	16	4	7	14	16	
Women	17	3	15	21	22	18	16	24	:	13	12	16	5	7	17	18	

FIN: 1996; L: no data.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

The employment circumstances of those at risk

Around 35 % of men aged 16 to 64 in the Union with income below 60 % of the median in 1997 were in full-time employment for most of the time during the year, while a further 4 % were in part-time work. (These figures are based on relating data on income to those on main activity status during 1997 as reported by the people surveyed. Those employed full-time are here defined as those usually working 30 hours a week or more at the time of the survey.)

By contrast, only 12 % of women in this age group with an income of this level were in a full-time job and 8 % worked part-time (Graph 120). The great majority of the women at risk of poverty were, therefore, not working, many of them living with a partner who was working but not earning enough to raise the level of income above the poverty line.

The majority of the men at risk of poverty were also not working. Some 26 % of the men in the Union with income below 60 % of the median were unemployed, as against 14 % of the women, and a further 35 % were inactive – a significant number of these under 25 and still in the education system – as opposed to 66 % of women.

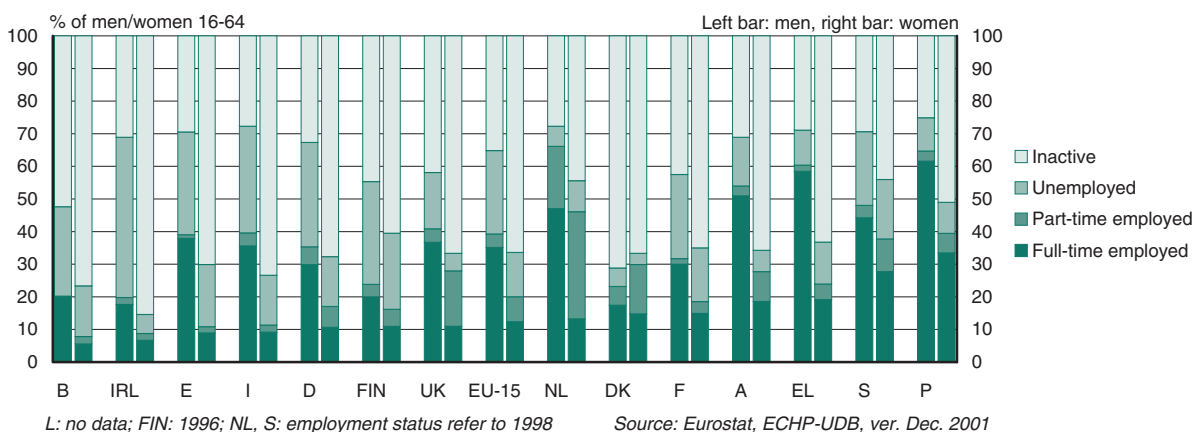
These proportions, however, vary significantly across the Union. In Greece and Portugal, around 60 % of men with income below the poverty level were in full-time employment and in Austria, around 50 %, while in Denmark, Ireland and Finland, the figure was under 20 %. In all Member States but two, the proportion of women at risk of poverty who were in full-time employment was under 20 %. The two exceptions were Portugal and Sweden, where about a third of the women with income below this level were in full-time jobs.

Comparatively few women and men with income below the poverty line were in part-time jobs. In the case of men, this largely reflects the relatively small proportion in such jobs overall, and in the case of women, the relatively small proportion in some Member States and in others, the relatively large numbers living with a spouse or partner in work. Nevertheless, in the Netherlands, almost a third of women with an income of this level were employed part-time.

Over a third of men at risk of poverty were in full-time work, but only just over 10 % of women.

Most women and men with income below the poverty line were, therefore, either unemployed or inactive.

120 Men and women aged 16-64 with equivalised income below 60 % of the median by employment status, 1997



121 Risk of poverty among men and women unemployed aged 16-64, 1997

L: no data; FIN: 1996; NL, S: employment status refer to 1998

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

Most of the women and men at risk of poverty were not in paid employment in most Member States. In Germany, Spain, Italy and Finland, almost a third of men with income below 60 % of the median were unemployed, while in Ireland, the figure was almost a half. In Denmark and the Netherlands, by contrast, the figure was only 5–6 %. For women, the proportion who were unemployed was generally lower, but it was over 15 % in Germany and Italy, around 20 % in Spain and over 20 % in Finland. On the other hand, in Ireland, only some 5 % of women with income of this level were unemployed.

A large proportion of both women and men unemployed have income below the poverty line.

These differences reflect the relative numbers of unemployed in the countries concerned. In 1998, the overall number of unemployed was relatively high in all the countries where the unemployed represented a large proportion of men with poverty levels of income. They also, however, reflect the level of unemployment benefits and the extent of coverage. Differences in these are indicated in the share of the unemployed who are at risk of poverty across the Union. In the EU as a whole, over 40 % of men who spent a large part of the year unemployed had equivalised income below 60 % of the median in 1997 and almost a third of women (Graph 121 and Table 12). In France, the figure for men was 50 % and in Italy, 55 %. In Italy, the figure for women was close to 40 % and again the highest in the Union, though it was only slightly less than this in the UK.

Table 12 – Risk of poverty among men and women aged 16-64 with different employment characteristics, 1997

	% of men/women 16-64 in each group with equivalised income <60 % of the median															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Employed full-time																
Men	3	1	5	14	12	8	4	10	:	6	6	13	3	6	5	7
Women	3	2	4	12	8	6	4	7	:	6	6	11	2	5	4	6
Employed part-time																
Men	(1)	20	(22)	12	14	12	8	32	:	24	(20)	35	17	15	18	20
Women	4	11	7	16	11	8	3	6	:	12	10	19	10	8	14	9
Unemployed																
Men	37	5	44	35	43	50	44	55	:	26	35	36	22	26	37	43
Women	24	4	32	36	32	31	31	39	:	29	28	26	13	18	37	32
Inactive																
Men	21	20	19	26	21	28	21	18	:	18	15	18	13	30	25	22
Women	26	15	25	23	23	27	23	23	:	17	17	19	12	26	30	25

FIN: 1996; L: no data; NL, S: employment status refer to 1998.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

Men who were economically inactive also had an above average probability of having an income below the poverty level in all Member States, though only marginally so in Italy, reflecting the relatively large number of the inactive in this age group (16–64) who were retired on a pension which was above 60 % of median income. The probability of having a poverty-level of income was greater for women who were economically inactive than for men both at the EU level and in the majority of Member States (though not in the three Nordic countries, the Netherlands, Greece and France). Around a quarter of all those who were inactive in the Union had an income below 60 % of the median and in the UK, the figure was 30 %.

For both women and men in full-time employment, the probability of having income below 60 % of the median was relatively small in most parts of the Union. On average, it was only around 6–7 % and under 4 % for both women and men in Belgium, Denmark, Ireland and Finland. On the other hand, it was over 12 % for men in Greece, Portugal and Spain and 11–12 % for women in the first two (8 % in Spain).

A relatively large proportion of men working part-time had equivalised income which put them at risk of poverty in most countries, though the overall numbers involved are small, while for women, comparatively few of those employed part-time had an income of this level in the majority of Member States. In only four countries – Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Portugal – was the probability of having an income below 60 % of the median greater for women working part-time than women in general.

The proportion of women and men in full-time employment who are at risk of poverty is small in all EU countries.

2.6. Lifestyle

Throughout the EU, households spent more of their budget on women's clothing and footwear than on men's.

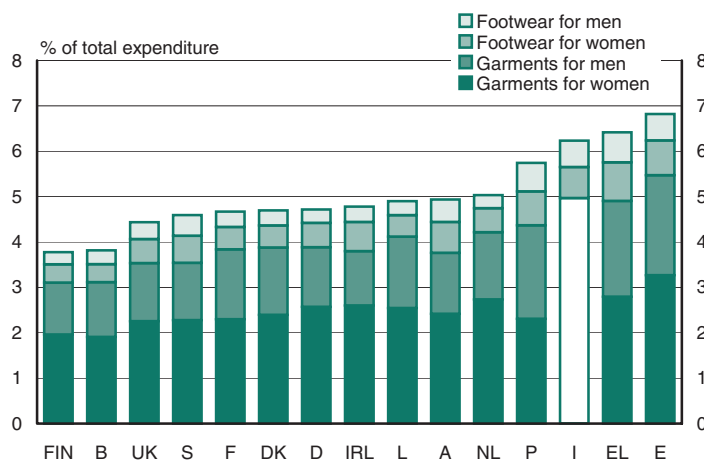
As for young people, some insight can be gained into the differing life styles of women and men across the Union by examining their respective patterns of expenditure on particular items as indicated by survey data on household budgets. In most cases, this insight relies on the breakdown of types of household and, in particular, on being able to distinguish women and men living alone in the statistics collected, specifically in this section on those aged between 30 and 65.

Expenditure on women's and men's clothing

Clothing and footwear is the only item of expenditure which gives a direct indication of differences in spending patterns since women's and men's clothes and shoes are separately distinguished in the survey data.

In 1999, clothing and footwear together accounted for around 6 % of total household expenditure in the Union. In all Member States, at least 2 % of total household spending went on women's clothes and a further ½ % or so on women's shoes (Graph 122). The combined expenditure on these two items ranged from 4 % of total spending in Spain and 3½ % in Greece (as well as probably in Italy, where no separate data are available for women's clothing) to just under 2½ % in Belgium and Finland. The share of spending going on clothes and shoes for men ranged from just under 3 % in Greece, Spain and Portugal (and probably Italy) to 1½ % in Belgium and Ireland and slightly below this in Finland. In all Member States, clothes and shoes for women absorbed more of the household budget than those for men, in all, apart from Greece and Portugal, over 50 % more.

122 Consumption expenditure on men's and women's clothing and footwear, 1999



F, P: 1994; IRL: provisional; I: no breakdown for garments

Source: Eurostat, HBS

Expenditure on clothing by women and men living alone

The pattern of spending on clothing and footwear by women and men living alone is consistent with the above findings. In 1999, the proportion of women's expenditure going on these items was highest in the four southern Member States together with Ireland and lowest in Belgium and Finland. Moreover, in all Member States, women spent significantly more of their budget on clothes and shoes, though in Greece and Portugal as well as Italy, the difference was smaller than elsewhere (12 to 20 % as opposed to 40 % or more) (Table 13).

Alcohol and tobacco

Spending on beer, wine and spirits ranged from 8 % of their total budget for men in Ireland and 3 % for women to well under ½ % for women in Greece, Spain, Italy, Austria and Portugal – though in this case, there may be differing tendencies across countries to understate the amount spent (Graph 123). In all Member States, apart from Luxembourg and Germany, where they spent a similar amount, men devoted a larger share of expenditure to alcohol than women, in many cases, much more. Much the same pattern is evident for tobacco, on which the scale of expenditure also varied considerably between Member States (from around 3 % of the total spending of men in Denmark, Greece and Portugal to only around ½ % of that of women in Spain, France and Portugal) but where again men spent more than women, except in Sweden.

Recreation and culture

As in the case of young people, men aged 30 to 64 tended to spend more of their budgets on recreational and cultural activities than women, Luxembourg, where they spent a similar amount, and Finland, where they spent slightly less being the only two Member States where this was not the case (Graph 124).

Purchases of televisions, stereo systems and other audio-visual equipment in 1999 accounted for between 3½ % of the total spending of men living alone in Denmark and the Netherlands and 1½ % in Greece and Portugal. In all countries, without exception, men spent a larger share of their budget on such items than women, in all but four, at least 2–3 times larger (Table 13).

By contrast, women tended to spend more than men on recreational and sporting equipment, games and hobbies, though the difference was smaller and less general. Only in Portugal, the Netherlands and Sweden did men spend more than women, but in another five countries, they spent much the same.

There was a more systematic difference in expenditure on recreational, cultural and sporting services, which include fees for the use of facilities and equipment (such as for tennis courts, swimming pools or skis) as well as entrance fees for football grounds, cinemas or theatres. In all Member States, except Belgium, men devoted a larger proportion of their overall spending than women to these items, in most cases over 50 % more.

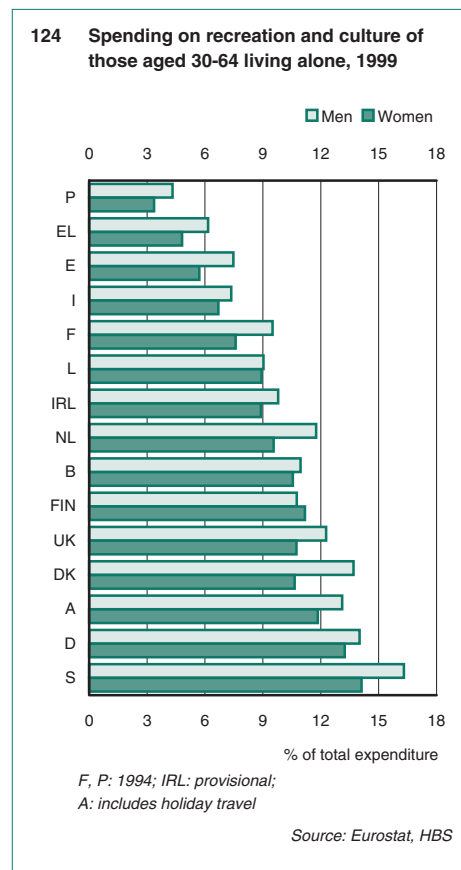


Table 13 – Consumption expenditure of private one-person households without dependent children and head of households aged 30-64, 1999

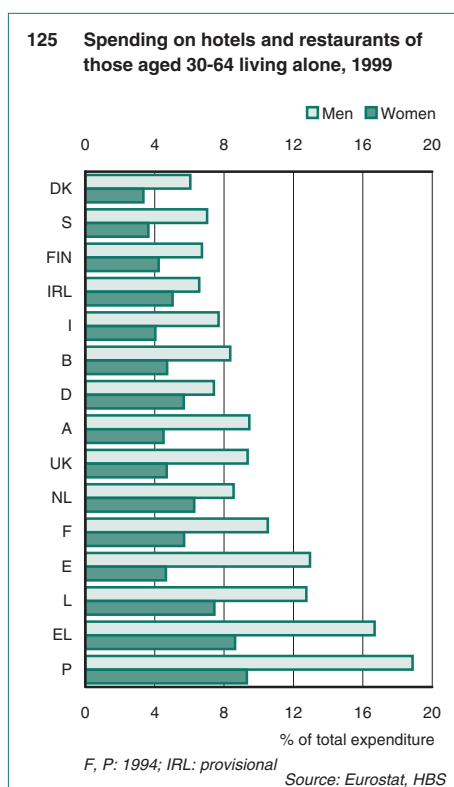
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	% of total expenditure			
													FIN	S	UK	
Alcoholic beverages – 02.1¹																
Men	1.8	3.0	2.2	0.9	0.8	2.4	7.9	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.8	3.4	2.6	1.6	
Women	1.4	2.2	2.2	0.3	0.5	1.3	3.0	0.7	1.7	1.1	0.7	0.5	1.4	1.5	1.3	
Tobacco – 02.2																
Men	1.4	3.4	:	3.1	1.6	1.9	2.6	1.4	1.1	1.6	2.3	2.9	2.3	1.6	2.3	
Women	1.1	2.6	:	1.8	0.7	0.7	1.8	0.9	0.7	1.3	1.7	0.5	1.1	1.6	1.8	
Clothing – 03.1																
Men	2.4	3.1	3.1	6.4	4.9	2.9	2.2	5.5	2.8	2.8	3.1	4.8	1.8	2.6	2.4	
Women	4.2	4.9	4.5	6.4	6.6	5.6	6.5	6.7	4.8	4.8	4.8	5.8	4.4	4.5	4.5	
Footwear – 03.2																
Men	0.5	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.2	0.7	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.2	0.5	0.9	0.7	
Women	0.7	0.8	1.0	2.3	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.5	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.5	0.4	1.1	0.7	
Audio-visual and data processing equipment – 09.1																
Men	2.2	3.6	3.2	1.5	2.4	2.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	3.7	2.9	1.4	2.6	3.2	2.4	
Women	0.7	1.0	2.3	0.6	0.7	1.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.6	1.2	1.6	1.1	
Other recreational equipment and items – 09.2+09.3																
Men	1.2	1.9	2.1	1.0	1.0	2.1	1.7	1.1	1.8	2.8	1.5	0.9	2.5	2.8	1.3	
Women	2.0	3.1	2.2	1.1	1.1	2.0	1.7	1.5	2.5	2.6	2.4	0.6	2.8	2.6	2.0	
Recreational and cultural services – 09.4																
Men	3.3	4.9	3.5	1.9	1.9	2.7	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.3	3.2	0.8	3.3	5.3	4.6	
Women	3.5	3.1	3.3	1.1	1.4	1.9	2.6	1.3	1.8	2.0	3.0	0.6	2.7	3.2	2.7	
Newspapers, books and stationery – 09.5																
Men	1.8	1.9	2.2	1.4	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.5	1.3	2.3	1.7	0.7	1.8	3.0	1.4	
Women	1.9	2.0	2.2	1.7	1.1	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.3	2.1	1.9	1.0	2.6	3.0	1.6	
Package holidays – 09.6²																
Men	2.5	1.4	2.9	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.5	1.3	1.7	0.8	3.8	0.5	0.7	3.5	2.6	
Women	2.4	1.5	3.3	0.4	1.4	0.5	2.0	1.5	2.4	1.7	3.4	0.6	1.8	3.6	3.4	
Hotels, cafés, restaurants – 11																
Men	8.4	6.1	7.4	16.7	13.0	10.5	6.6	7.7	12.7	8.6	9.5	18.9	6.7	7.0	9.4	
Women	4.7	3.4	5.7	8.6	4.7	5.7	5.0	4.0	7.4	6.3	4.5	9.3	4.2	3.6	4.7	

Digits in row headings refer to the Coicop classification. F and P: 1994; IRL: provisional.

¹ D: figures are for alcoholic beverages and tobacco together.

² A: includes holiday travel.

Source: Eurostat, Household Budget Survey



In contrast to this, and in contrast to the pattern of spending for young people, there is no uniform tendency for either men or women to spend more on books, newspapers and periodicals than the other. In two Member States (Spain and Ireland), a larger share of men's expenditure went on reading material, in three (Greece, Portugal and Finland), a larger share of women's and in the others, there was little difference.

There is some tendency, however, for women to spend a larger share of their budget than men on package holidays. This was the case in eight Member States, the difference being especially large in Spain, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland and the UK, while the reverse was the case only in Austria and France (where relatively little was spent on this item) and in the remaining five countries, there was little difference between women and men. (These difference, it should be noted, do not necessarily indicate a difference in the amount spent on holidays *per se*, only package ones.)

The difference in the expenditure of men and women on hotels and restaurants is more pronounced. Men uniformly spend a larger share of their budget than women on accommodation and eating out – in seven Member States around twice that spent by women (which may reflect a continuing stronger tendency for men to pay for women than the reverse) – the overall proportion varying from 19 % in Portugal and 17 % in Greece to 6-7 % in Denmark, Finland and Ireland (Graph 125).

126 Men and women aged 25-64 spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity, by education level, 1997

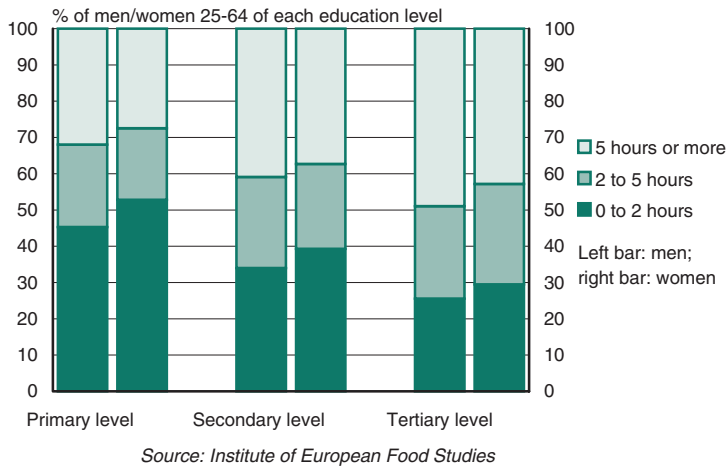


Table 14 – Men and women aged 25-64 spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity by education level, 1997

	% of men/women 15-24 of each level	
	Men	Women
Total		
< 2 hours	33	39
2-5 hours	25	24
5 or more hours	42	37
Primary level		
< 2 hours	45	53
2-5 hours	23	20
5 or more hours	32	27
Secondary level		
< 2 hours	34	39
2-5 hours	25	23
5 or more hours	41	37
Tertiary level		
< 2 hours	26	29
2-5 hours	25	28
5 or more hours	49	43

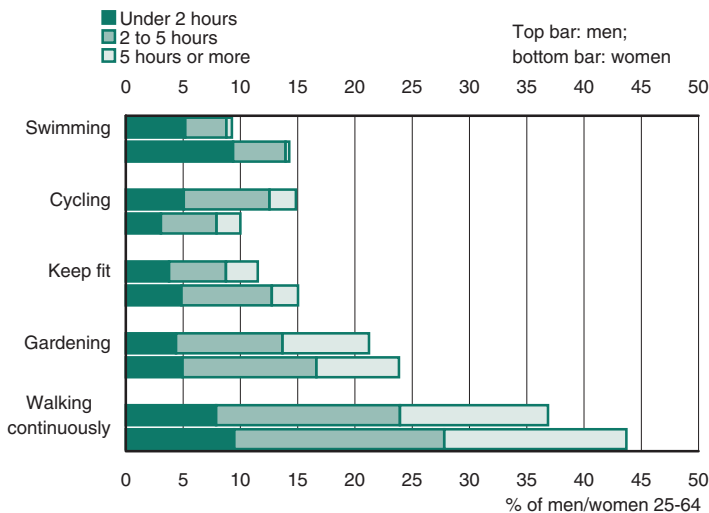
Source: Institute of European Food Studies

Physical exercise

Women tend to take less physical exercise than men, though the difference is less marked than for younger people. According to the survey conducted in 1997 by the Institute of European Food Studies, some 39 % of women aged 25 to 64 in the Union spent less than two hours a week on some form of physical leisure pursuit as compared with 33 % of men, while 37 % of women spent five hours or more a week as against 42 % of men.

More highly educated women and men were on average more likely to engage in physical activity than those with lower education attainment levels, with almost half of men and 43 % of women with university-level education spending 5 hours a week or more in some form of activity as opposed to 32 % of men and 28 % of women with only primary schooling. At the same time, some 45 % of men and 53 % of women with the latter level of education spent less than two hours a week on a physical pursuit as against only 26 % of men and 29 % of women with a university degree or the equivalent (Graph 126 and Table 14).

127 Main physical activities of men and women aged 25-64, 1997



As for younger people, walking represents the main way in which women and men take physical exercise, around 40 % of both reporting that they walked continuously for at least one hour a week. Gardening is the second most popular physical pursuit, involving just over 20 % of both women and men for one hour or more a week, while keep fit, cycling and swimming are the next most commonly pursued activities, 10–15 % of women and men spending at least one hour a week on these (Graph 127).

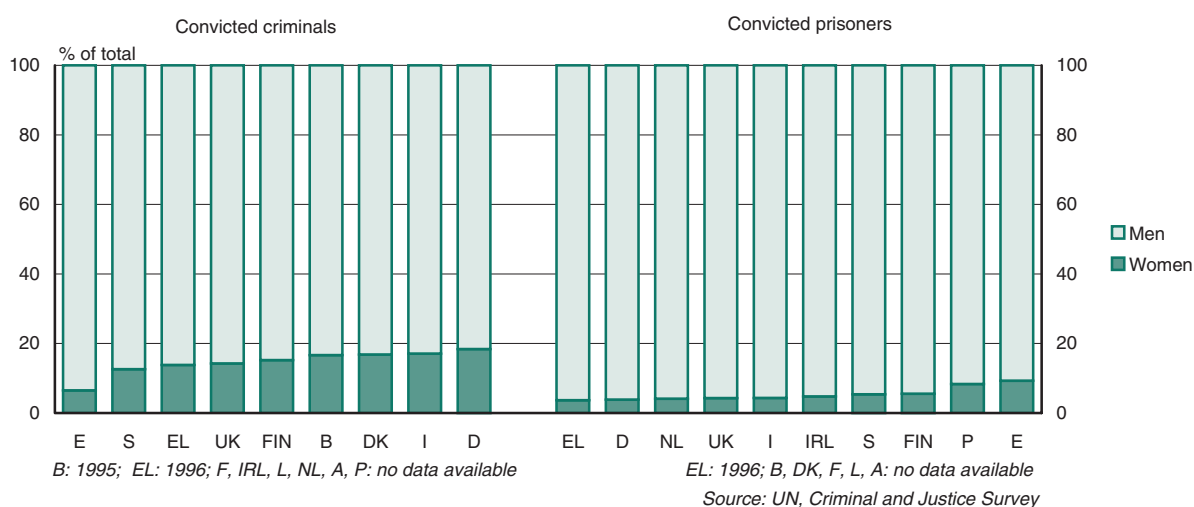
Women and men involved in crime

Women are much less likely than men to be involved in criminal activities and even less likely to spend time in prison.

As for young people, many more men than women are involved in crime. In 1997, over 80 % of those convicted of criminal acts were men in all nine Member States for which data are available, and over 90 % in Spain (Graph 128).

The difference is even more pronounced as regards those who are convicted and are sent to prison. In 1997, in all Member States for which there are data, men accounted for 90 % or more of all convicted prisoners and for women for 10 % or less. The difference in the numbers of men and women was particularly pronounced in Germany, Greece, Italy and the Netherlands, where women made up under 5 % of the prison population.

128 Adult convicted criminals and prisoners, 1997

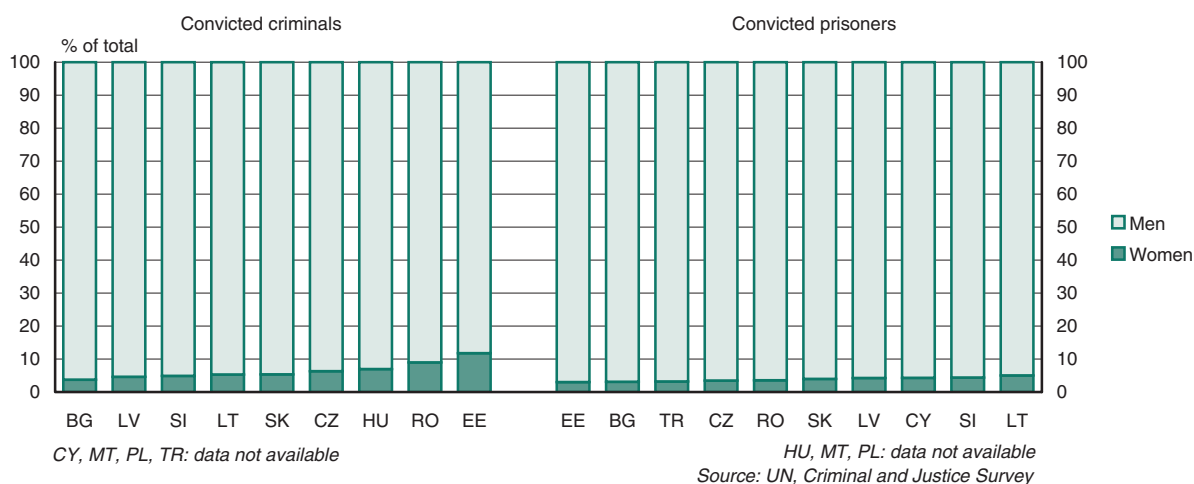


Women and men involved in crime in the candidate countries

The large difference in the relative numbers of women and men involved in crime is also evident in the candidate countries, where women make up an even smaller proportion of both those convicted of criminal acts and those in prison. In eight of the nine candidate countries for which there are data, women accounted for 10 % or less of those convicted of crime and in the other, Estonia, for 12 % (Graph 129). Moreover, in all of the countries without exception, women made up under 5 % of the prison population.

The disparity between men and women is even wider in candidate countries.

129 Adult convicted criminals and prisoners in candidate countries, 1997



2.7. The state of health of women and men

Deaths among men of working age in the Union are over twice as common as among women.

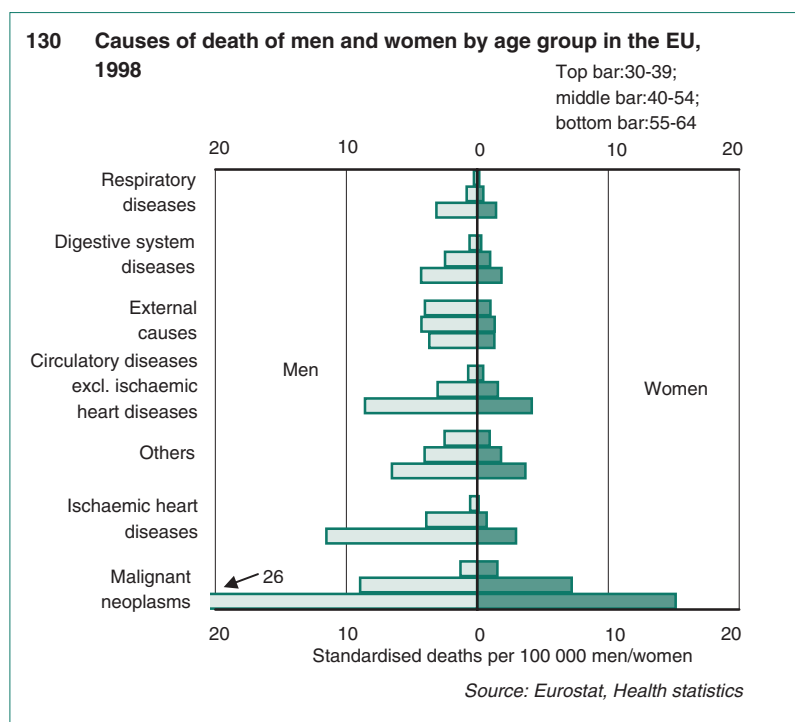
The concern here is to begin by examining the relative importance of different causes of death of women and men in their working years and then to go on to consider the extent of drug addiction, the relative incidence of accidents at work, people's self-perceptions of health and the relative frequency of their visits to doctors and stays in hospital.

Causes of death

Men in the Union are around twice as likely to die as women during their working years. Almost 70 % of deaths occurring among people in their 30s were among men in 1998. Around a third of all deaths in this age group were from external causes, such as from accidents, and men were some four times more likely to suffer these than women (Graph 130). External causes, therefore, were responsible for almost 40 % of deaths of men in their 30s and for just over 20 % of those of women.

Among women in their 30s, malignant neoplasms – cancers, in other words – were the most common single cause of death, accounting for over a third of the total. Although they were responsible for a much lower proportion of deaths among men of this age (13 %), the chances of a man dying of this cause was only some 16 % less than for a woman.

Although the likelihood of women and men dying from accidents and other external causes of death was, in both cases, slightly greater for those in their 40s and early 50s than for those in their 30s, they were much less important in



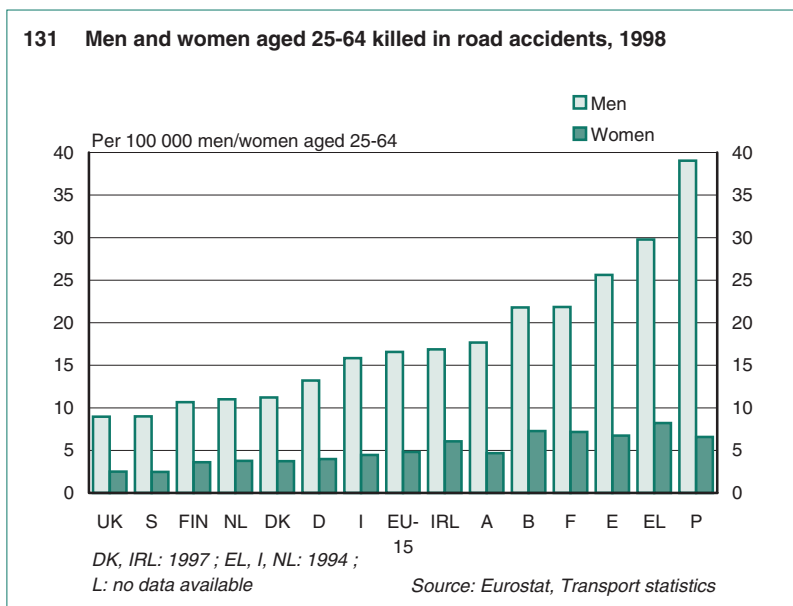
relative terms. In 1998, they accounted for around 15½ % of deaths among men and for 9½ % among women. For those in this age group, malignant neoplasms, partly due to smoking, acquire greater significance, being responsible for over half of the deaths among women and almost a third of those among men. In absolute terms, however, men were much more likely to die from this cause than women. Ischaemic heart disease (i.e. from reduced blood circulation) and other circulatory diseases also become a more common cause of death for those in this age group, especially for men, accounting for some 25 % of all male deaths and 16 % of those of women.

For those in their late 50s and early 60s, malignant neoplasms continue to be the most common single cause of death, again especially among women, being responsible for around half of all deaths of women in this age group as compared with just over 40 % of men. Again, however, the risk to men of this age is far greater than that for women (the standardised death rate being some 70 % higher) and almost three times greater than for men aged 40 to 54. The likelihood of men aged 55 to 64 dying from heart and circulatory diseases was also around three times greater than for those in the younger age group and, in this case, also three times greater than for women, such diseases accounting for almost a third of deaths among men of this age and almost a quarter of those of women.

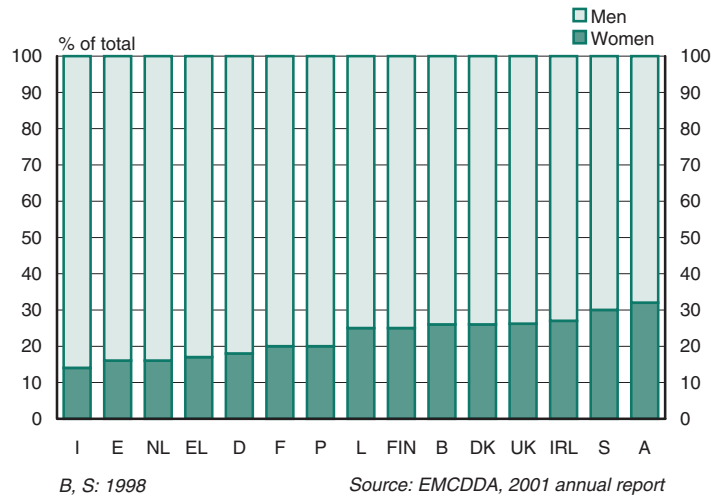
Road accidents

Road accidents feature prominently as a major external cause of death, especially among those in their late 20s and 30s. Among men in the broad age group 25 to 64, almost 17 in 100 000 died in road accidents across the Union in 1998 as opposed to just under five in 100 000 of women (Graph 131). While the overall numbers of men and women killed varied markedly across the Union – among men, from 39 in 100 000 in Portugal and 30 in Greece to only nine in Sweden and the UK and among women, from eight per 100 000 in Greece and just over seven in Belgium and France to only 2½ in Sweden and the UK – in all Member States, the ratio of men to women killed on the road was at least three to one, except in Ireland, the Netherlands and Finland, where it was only just below. In Portugal, it was almost six to one.

Men in the EU are over three times as likely to be killed in road accidents than women.



132 Men and women treated for drug problems for the first time, 1999



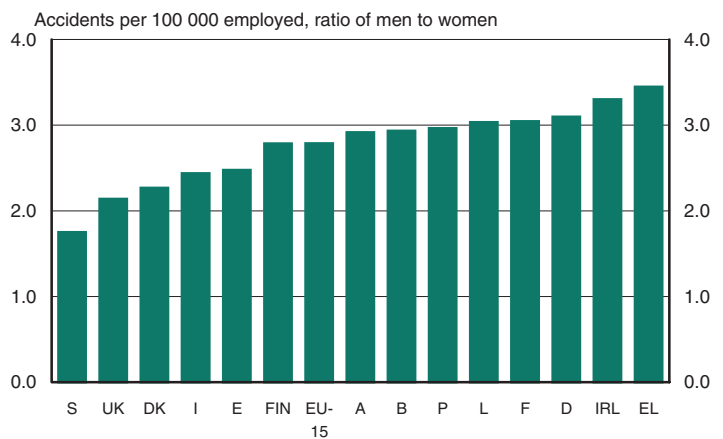
The number of men being treated for a drugs problem far exceed that of women in all EU countries.

Drug abuse

Addiction to drugs is a relatively minor cause of death among women and men, except in the case of tobacco, which, as noted above, is a prime cause of cancer. It can, however, have a harmful effect on the health of women and men in the prime of life. Although the absolute figures are not comparable across countries (because of differences in treatment policies and recording practices), the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) indicates, in its annual report for 2001, that the great majority of those registering for treatment for drug problems are men. In 1999, over 80 % of those registering for the first time were men in Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal (Graph 132). Only in Austria, was the proportion of men below 70 % and then only slightly.

A disproportionate number of those concerned are young people in their 20s or 30s, the mean age of those registering for treatment ranging from just over 30 in the Netherlands and Sweden to only 23–24 in Ireland and Finland and

133 Incidence rate of accidents at work suffered by men relative to women, standardised for sectoral structure, 1998 (> 3-day absence)

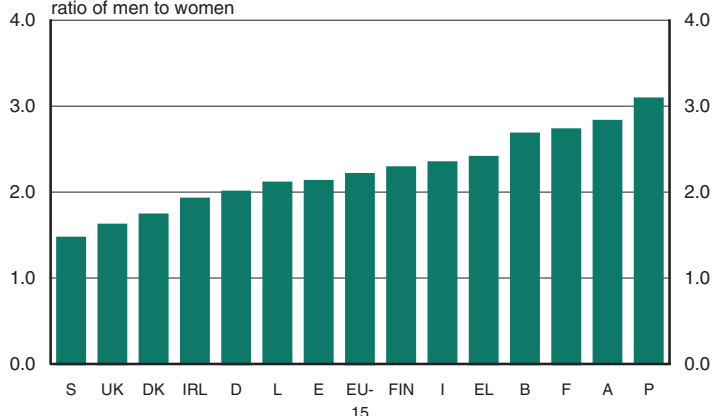


NL: no data by sex available

Source: Eurostat, ESAW

134 Incidence rate of accidents at work suffered by men relative to women on a FTE basis, standardised for sectoral structure, 1998 (> 3-day absence)

Numbers involved in accidents per 100 000 FTE employed, ratio of men to women



NL: no data by sex available

Source: Eurostat, ESAW

with women tending to be slightly younger than men (though only a year or so). Opiates, mainly heroin, feature prominently among the drugs taken in all countries.

The health and safety of men and women at work

Accidents at work

According to the European Statistics of Accidents at Work (ESAW), compiled by Eurostat, men are far more likely than women to suffer accidents at work. In 1998, an average of just under 5 300 men in the Union per 100 000 men employed were involved in accidents either at work or related to the job which they were doing which kept them away from work for 4 days or more. This was almost three times the figure for women of just under 1 900 per 100 000 employed (Graph 133). (These figures are standardised across countries to allow for differences between them in the structure of economic activity, since the incidence of accidents differs significantly between sectors. It is almost five times higher in the construction industry, for example, than in financial and business services.)

The figures, however, do not specifically allow for the different types of job performed by women than men, that men are more likely to be employed in

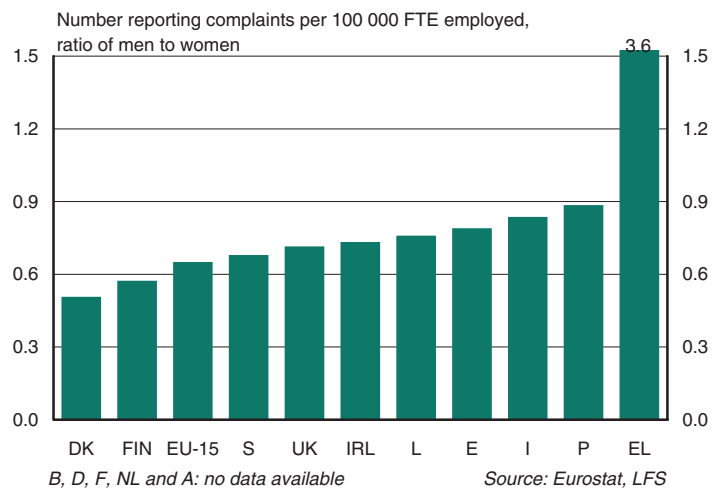
A much smaller number of women are involved in accidents at work than men, even when adjusted for differences in activities and hours worked.

Table 15 – Incidence rates of accidents at work suffered by men relative to women on a FTE basis by sector of activity, 1998 (>3 days absence)

Sectors	Number of men involved in accidents per 100 000 FTE employed relative to women															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Agriculture	1.6	1.0	1.5	3.7	1.2	1.4	2.3	1.2	0.9	:	2.0	3.1	2.7	0.9	1.7	1.5
Manufacturing	2.7	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.6	3.0	1.4	:	2.6	3.8	2.4	1.5	1.9	2.3
Energy and water	2.5	3.8	22.4	8.9	3.2	5.1	:	3.3	:	:	2.1	0.7	6.4	3.2	8.3	6.7
Construction	8.8	4.4	2.4	2.5	2.6	11.1	1.3	6.4	:	:	7.4	2.4	3.6	3.8	4.2	3.3
Distribution	2.3	1.6	2.6	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.2	:	2.3	3.2	1.6	1.1	1.0	2.1
Hotels and restaurants	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.9	:	1.4	7.7	1.7	0.7	0.9	1.1
Transport, communication	2.9	1.1	2.2	3.6	2.7	3.0	4.9	1.9	4.0	:	2.7	1.1	2.2	1.4	2.0	2.2
Financial and business services	2.4	1.2	0.6	2.9	1.3	2.5	1.3	1.4	2.3	:	2.8	4.2	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.7
Standardised total	2.7	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.1	2.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	:	2.8	3.1	2.3	1.5	1.6	2.2

Source: Eurostat, ESAW

135 Prevalence rate of work-related complaints of men relative to women, standardised for occupational structure, 1999



activities such as construction or transport where the risk of accidents is relatively high, whereas women are disproportionately employed in offices or shops where the risk is much smaller. Equally, women tend on average to work shorter hours than men, mainly because more are employed in part-time jobs, which means that they are at work for less time to be exposed to the risk of accidents. Even allowing for these two factors, however, and expressing the number suffering accidents in relation to full-time equivalent (FTE) employment, standardised for differences in sectors of activity in which men and women work, men in the Union were still over twice as likely than women to suffer accidents at work in 1998 involving four days or more off work (Graph 134). The difference was particularly marked in Belgium, France, Austria and Portugal.

The difference in accident rates between men and women to a significant extent reflects the different kinds of jobs they do within sectors of activity. Most men in construction, for example, would tend to work on building sites, most women in offices. The much higher incidence rate of accidents for men than women in construction and industry is, therefore, to be expected. In sectors of activity where men and women perform similar kinds of job, the difference is much smaller but still evident. Men, therefore, have a slightly higher incidence rate than women in hotels and restaurants, though in financial and business services, the average rate of accident for men was over 1½ times higher than for women (Table 15).

Table 16 – Prevalence rates of work-related complaints of men relative to women on a FTE basis by occupation, 1999

Occupations	Number of men reporting complaints per 100 000 FTE employed relative to women															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Managers, professionals, technicians	:	0.4	:	1.0	0.8	:	0.7	0.7	0.7	:	:	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.5
Office workers	:	0.9	:	:	1.3	:	1.1	0.9	0.8	:	:	0.8	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.7
Sales and service workers	:	0.5	:	:	0.7	:	0.6	1.0	0.8	:	:	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5
Skilled manual workers	:	0.5	:	2.4	0.6	:	1.1	0.9	0.6	:	:	0.9	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.8
Elementary workers	:	0.5	:	1.4	0.9	:	0.5	0.7	2.1	:	:	1.3	0.5	1.1	0.8	0.7
Standardised total	:	0.5	:	3.6	0.8	:	0.7	0.8	0.8	:	:	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6

Source: Eurostat, LFS

Illnesses and complaints from working

Data from the EU LFS for 1999 (from a special module of the survey) give an indication of the relative incidence of illnesses and complaints, such as backache and stress as well as infectious diseases, suffered by women and men at work. These show that once differences in the kinds of job which women and men do are allowed for within sectors of activity (i.e. standardised for differences in occupations), which have more effect in this case than the sectors of activity in which the two tend to work, women are more likely to suffer illnesses and complaints from working than men. In nine of the 10 Member States, for which data are available, the only exception being Greece, the number of complaints per 100 000 FTE employed, standardised for occupational differences, was larger for women than for men (Graph 135). Moreover, in all occupational groups considered separately, women were more likely than men to suffer complaints, though less so among skilled manual workers than others. The difference was particularly pronounced for managers, professionals and technicians, where complaints among women were around twice the rate for men in most countries (Table 16).

Women, however, are more likely to suffer illnesses and complaints from working than men.

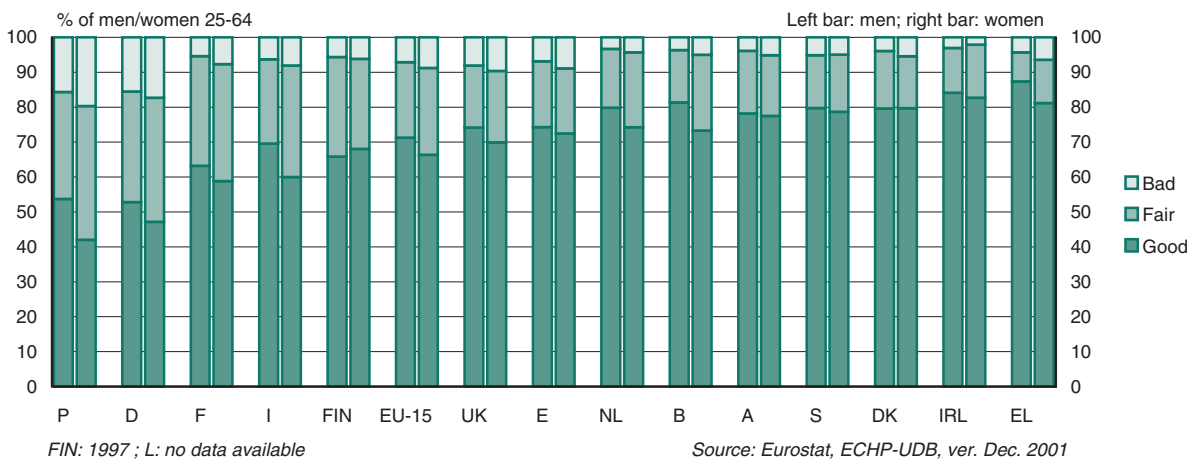
Self-perceptions of health

According to the ECHP, men in this broad age group enjoy on average slightly better health than women in the Union, or at least, consider that they do. Just over 70 % of men in the Union surveyed in 1998 believed that they were in good health as opposed to 66 % of women, while 9 % of women regarded their health as bad as against 7 % of men (Graph 136).

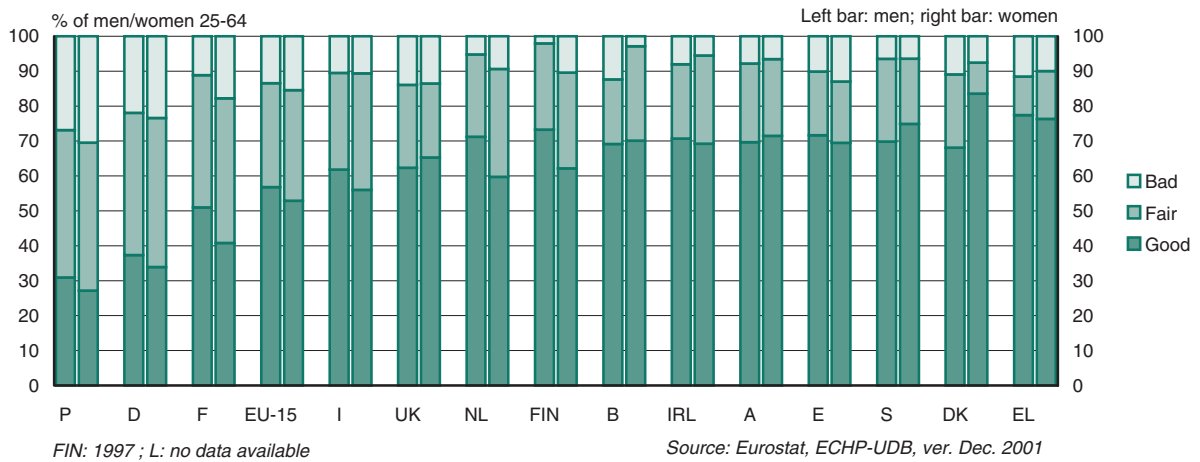
More men than women regard their health as being good and fewer considered they were in poor health.

Although it is hazardous to compare self-opinions of this kind across countries because of differences in social and cultural attitudes and in what is taken as the norm for good health, it should, nevertheless, be valid to compare the views of women and men. In most Member States, a higher proportion of men than women reported themselves as being in good health. Only in Finland was the reverse the case and then the difference was small, though the difference was also small in the other direction in five other countries, including Denmark and Sweden. Correspondingly, a larger proportion of women than men reported that they were in bad health in most countries, though the difference

136 Self-perception of health of those aged 25-64, 1998



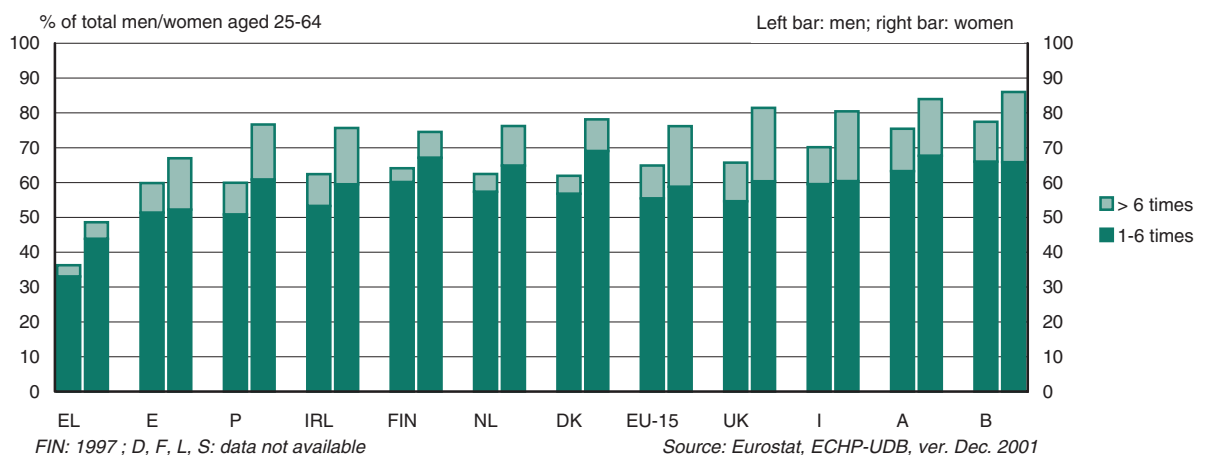
137 Self-perception of health of those aged 25-64 with income below 60 % of the median, 1998



was not large except in Portugal (where the figure for women was 20 % as against 16 % for men).

Health is also linked to income levels. In 1998, a relatively high proportion of those identified as being at risk of poverty, in the sense that their income was below 60 % of the median in the country in question, considered that their health was bad or only fair. At the EU level, only around 53 % of women and 57 % of men with this level of income reported that they were in good health, the figures for both women and men being only around 40 % in Germany and 30 % in Portugal (Graph 137). Again, in most countries, a larger proportion of women than men regarded themselves as not being in good health, though there were more countries where the reverse was the case – where proportionately more men than women considered their health to be poor – than for the population as a whole (specifically, Denmark, Sweden and the UK and, marginally, Austria).

138 Visits to a general practitioner over past year by men and women aged 25-64, 1998



Visits to the doctor

According to the ECHP, women are also much more likely to visit the doctor than men. In 1998, some 76 % of women in the Union aged 25 to 64 had consulted a general practitioner at least once during the preceding year and 17 % had done so on more than six occasions. By contrast, some 65 % of men had consulted a doctor and 9 % more than 6 times (Graph 138).

A larger proportion of women than men in the EU tend to visit the doctor.

Both the overall consultation rate and the extent of the difference between women and men varied across the Union, the proportion of both women and men visiting a doctor being much lower than elsewhere in Greece (where most people had not done so at all). In all Member States, however, a significantly larger proportion of women than men had consulted a doctor in the previous year, the difference being particularly marked in Denmark, Ireland, Portugal and the UK.

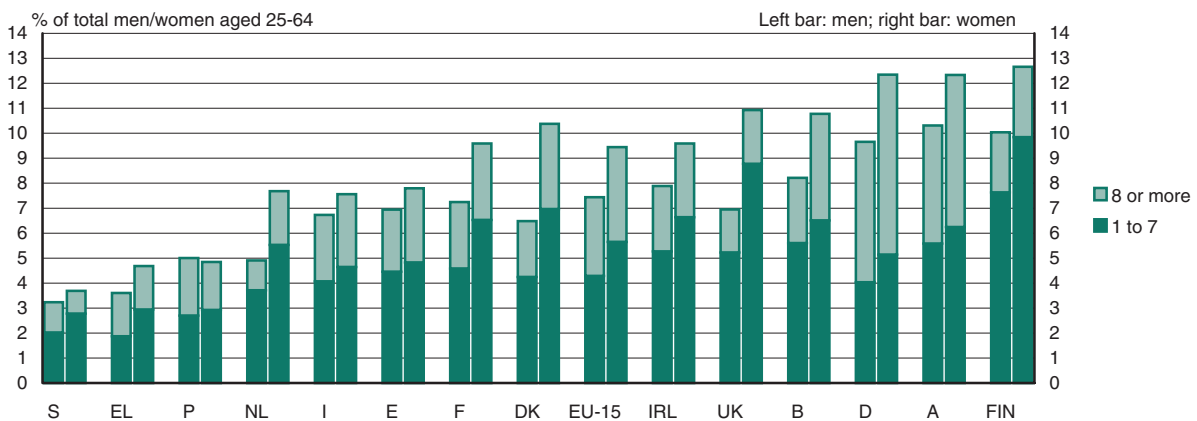
Nights spent in hospital

Women are also more likely than men to spend time in hospital. In 1998, just under 10 % of women aged 25 to 64 surveyed as part of the ECHP reported spending at least one night in hospital over the preceding year and almost 4 %, seven or more nights (Graph 139). This compares with figures for men of just over 7 % and 3 %, respectively.

Similarly more women than men spend time in hospital.

Again the figures vary across the Union, with a larger proportion of both women and men in Germany, Austria and Finland spending time in hospital than elsewhere – and, in the former two, longer periods on average – and a much smaller proportion in Greece, Portugal and Sweden. In all Member States except Portugal, where the figures are similar, more women in this age group than men had been in hospital for at least one night during 1997.

139 Number of nights spent in hospital over past year by men and women aged 25-64, 1998



FIN: 1997 ; L: no data available

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001



Part 3 — The retirement years



3.1. Demographic aspects and household circumstances

Women outnumber men substantially among those of 65 and over in the EU and even more so in older age groups.

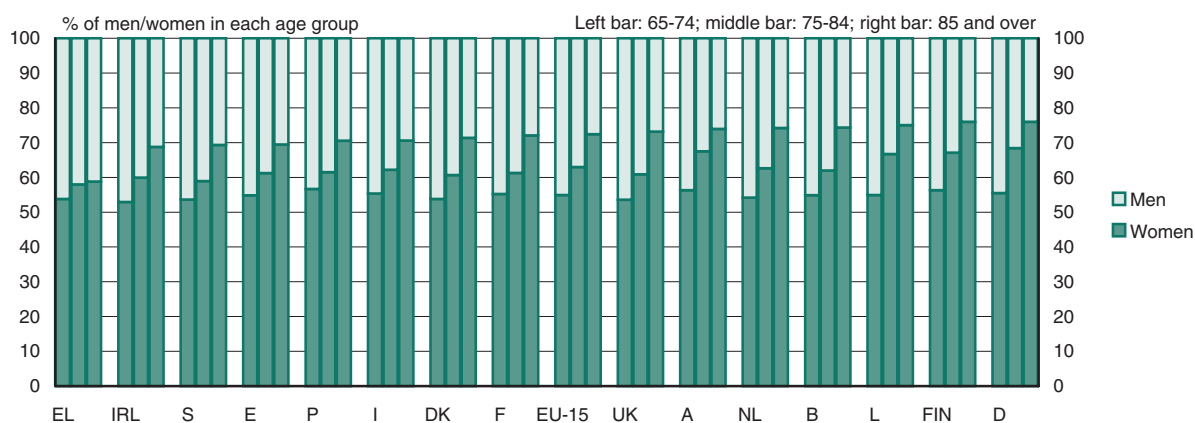
Relative numbers of women and men of 65 and over

According to the latest demographic data – for 2000 – some 16 % of the population in the European Union are aged 65 and over, the official age of retirement in most EU Member States. Of these, almost 60 % are women. Women represent an even larger proportion of the population in older age groups – around 65 % of those of 75 and over and 72 % of those of 85 and over (Graph 140).

The proportion of the total population who are 65 and over varies across the Union, from 18 % in Italy and over 17 % in Greece and Sweden to under 14 % in the Netherlands and only just over 11 % in Ireland. The proportion of those of 65 and over who are 75 and over also varies, from over 50 % in Sweden and 48 % in Denmark to under 40 % in both Greece and Portugal. In all Member States, irrespective of the relative number of elderly people, women outnumber men significantly. In Germany, Austria and Finland, some 62 % of all those aged 65 and over are women in 2000 and only in Greece and Ireland do women represent less than 57 % of those in this age group (55½ % and just under 57 %, respectively).

Women outnumber men increasingly in the Union as they grow older. In Germany, over 70 % of people of 75 and over are women and in Austria and Finland, over 69 %, while in every other EU country, except Greece, the figure is over 60 %. Among those aged 85 and over, women make up some 76 % of the total in Germany and Finland and only in Greece (59 %), Spain, Ireland and Sweden (around 69 % in all three cases) is the proportion below 70 %.

140 The relative number of men and women aged 65 and over by age group, 2000



Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

Life expectancy of women and men of 65 and over

The larger number of women than men of advanced years reflects differences in the longevity, or life expectancy, of the two (though in Europe, it also reflects the aftermath of war). At age 65, women in the Union can expect on average to live another 19½ years or more, according to the latest estimates (for 1999), while men can expect to live some 15½ years, almost four years less. Over the past 20 years, life expectancy at this age has risen for both women and men, though by only just over two years in both cases. The difference in life expectancy between women and men has, therefore, been maintained (Graph 141)

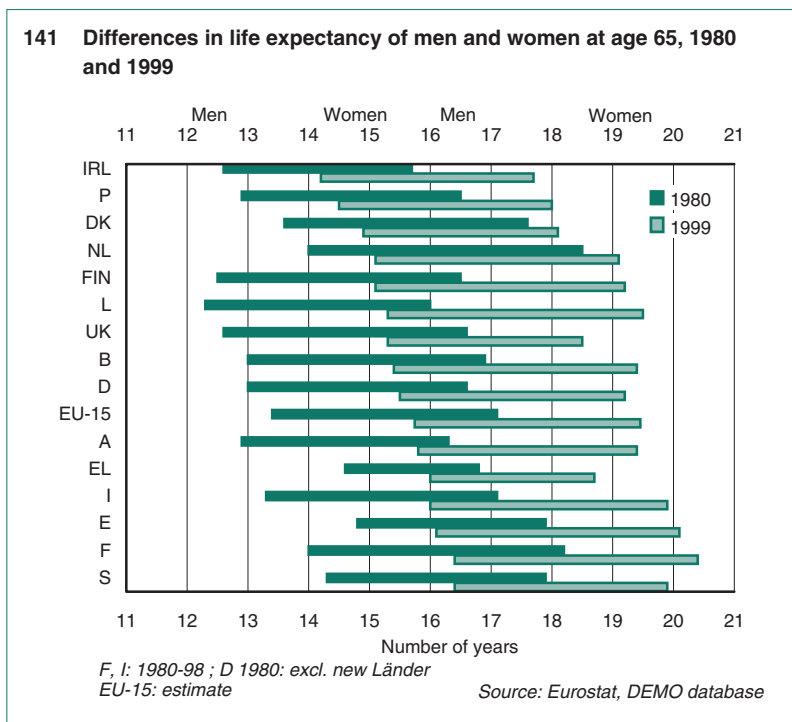
Although life expectancy varies at age 65 across the Union, even if by a relatively small amount, it is longer for women than men in all Member States and to similar extents. It is longest, therefore, in France, Sweden, Spain and Italy for both men and women and shortest in Ireland and Portugal for both.

Life expectancy also increased by similar amounts for women and men in most countries between 1980 and 1998, though the overall amounts involved differed significantly across the Union. It, therefore, increased by comparatively little for both men and, more particularly, women in Denmark and the Netherlands, countries in which it was already relatively high, and by much more in Luxembourg and Austria, where it was below average. There was a tendency, therefore, for differences between countries to narrow over this period, though not between women and men.

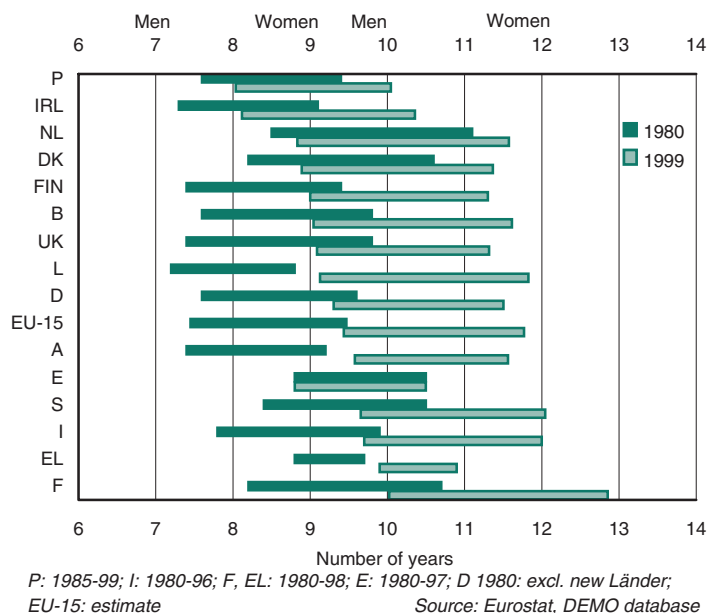
At age 75, women in the Union can still expect to live longer than men – almost another 12 years as opposed to 9½, according to the estimates made in 1999 (Graph 142). This represents an increase of two years for men and just over two years for women since 1980. Again, life expectancy varies between Member States to similar extents for women and men. It is longest in France for both and shortest in Ireland and Portugal. Men at 75 in the latter two countries can, therefore, expect on average to live two years less than in France and women almost three years less.

Women at age 65 in the EU can expect to live on average 4 years longer than men.

At age 75, women in the EU can expect to live an average of over 3 years longer than men.



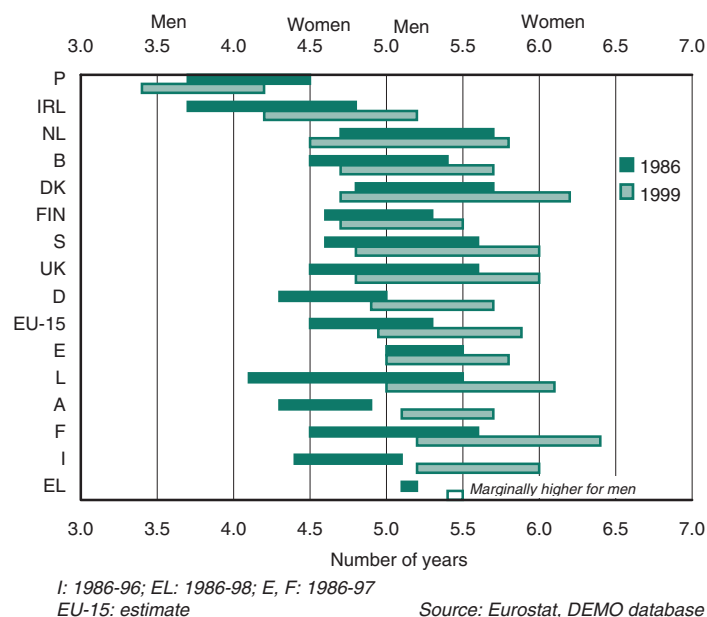
142 Differences in life expectancy of men and women at age 75, 1980 and 1999



When they reach 85, average life expectancy of women in the EU exceeds men by just one year.

At the age of 85, women in the Union can expect to live on average for another six years, men for five, women just over seven months longer than 20 years ago, men just under five months longer (Graph 143). At this age, life expectancy of women is longest in France, as at the younger ages, but it is also relatively long in Denmark, while for men, it is longest in Greece. Unlike at younger ages, there has been a small decline over the last 20 years in life expectancy for men at 85 in a number of countries – in Denmark, the Netherlands and Portugal – and in Spain, it has remained unchanged, while in Portugal, life expectancy for women at this age has also fallen slightly. The largest increases occurred in France, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria, where they were common to both women and men.

143 Differences in life expectancy of men and women at age 85, 1986 and 1999



Indeed a feature of the changes in life expectancy over the past 20 years in different Member States both at this age and younger ages is that, for the most part, they have been similar for women and men, so that the country in which a person lives is as important as their sex in determining their life span.

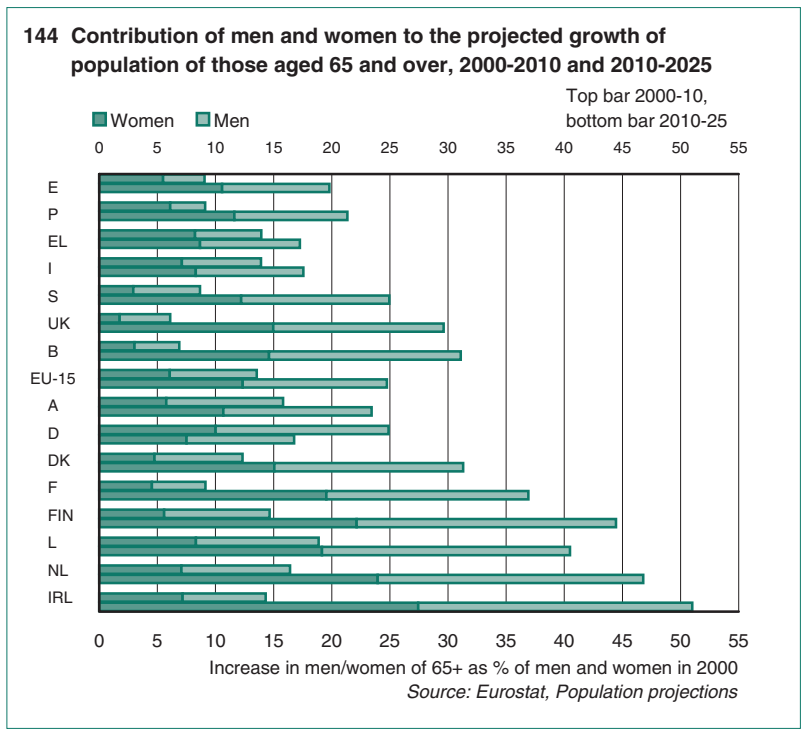
The projected growth in numbers of women and men of 65 and over

The ageing of the population and the continued growth of those in older age groups, coupled with the slow growth or decline of younger sections of the population will mean an increasing proportion of the population will be 65 or over in coming decades. According to the latest Eurostat projections (taking the 'baseline' projection, which broadly assumes continuation of existing demographic trends), the number of people aged 65 and over in the Union will increase by just over 13 % over the 10 years 2000 to 2010 and by a further 25 % over the subsequent 15 years. In the next 10 years, the number of men is likely to increase by more than the number of women, while thereafter, the increase is projected to be relatively evenly split between the two (Graph 144).

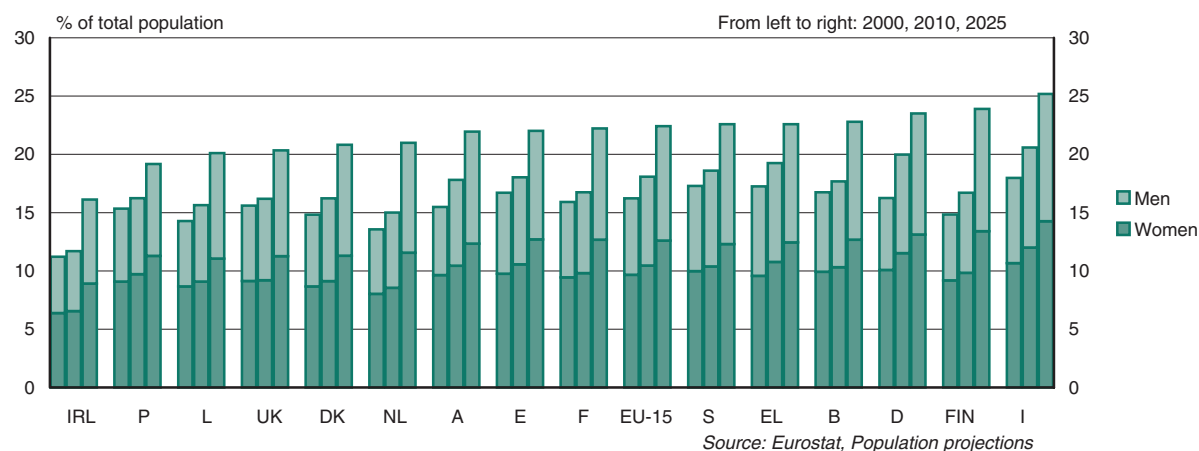
The increase in people of this age is expected to be especially large in Germany between 2000 and 2010, around 25 %, and over 15 % in Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria. Over the subsequent 15 years, growth is projected to slow down in Germany and Austria, but to accelerate in Luxembourg and the Netherlands, to around 3 % a year, giving an overall increase of over 45 % in the latter over the period. Growth is projected to be similarly high in Ireland and Finland. In all countries, apart from Greece, Spain and Portugal, where most of the additional numbers will be women, men are forecast to account for the larger part of the increase in the number of people of 65 and over in the 10 years 2000 to 2010. Over the subsequent 15 years, the rise in numbers is more evenly divided between women and men.

This growth of population of 65 and over, coupled in some countries with a declining number of people below this age and in others by only a very small rise,

There is likely to be a marked growth in the EU of those of 65 and over during the next 25 years and men will make up more of the increased numbers than women.



145 Men and women aged 65 and over in relation to total population, 2000, 2010 and 2025



will mean that the relative number of people aged 65 and over will increase from 16 % of total population in the Union in 2000 to 18 % in 2010 and 22½ % in 2025, a rise of over 6 percentage points in 25 years. At the same time, the proportion of men within this age group is set to increase from 40½ % in 2000 to almost 44 % in 2025 as younger cohorts in which men are more equally represented grow older (Graph 145).

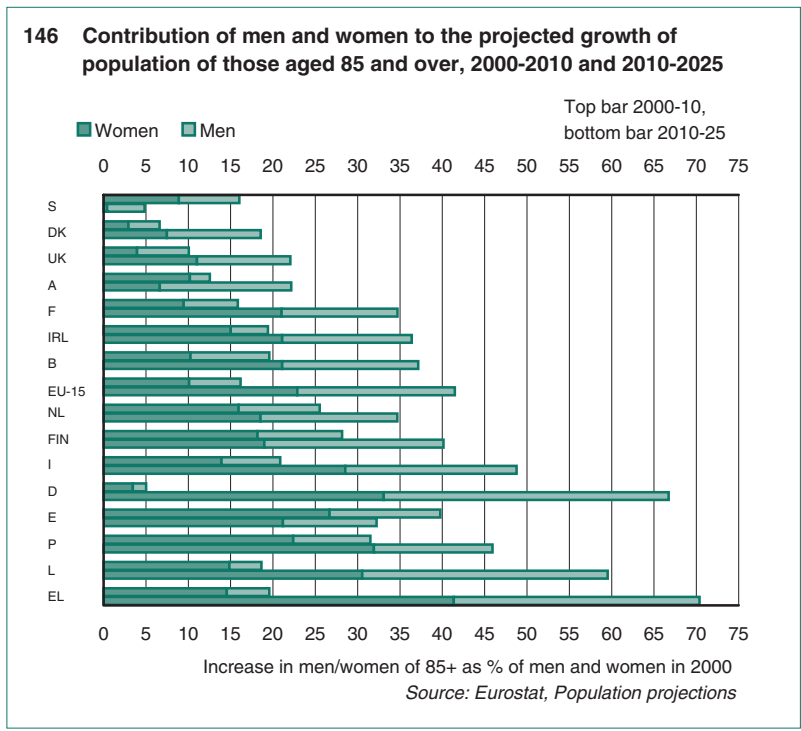
The growth in the relative number of people who are 65 or over is projected to be most pronounced in Finland, where it is forecast to increase by nine percentage points over the 25 years 2000 to 2025, as well as in Germany, Italy and the Netherlands – in all except the Netherlands, partly reflecting a decline in population under 65 – in all of which it is set to rise by over 7 percentage points (in Italy, this will mean that 25 % of the population is 65 or over). The increase is projected to be lowest in Portugal (under four percentage points) and Ireland (under five points), both among the few countries in which population of under 65 will not have declined between 2000 and 2025.

The projected increase in the relative number of men in this age group is largest in Germany, Austria and Finland (by around six percentage points in each case), each of which suffered substantial losses of men during the Second World War. By contrast in Greece, Spain and Portugal, the share of men in the population of 65 and over is forecast to remain broadly unchanged.

There is likely to be an even larger growth in the number of women and men of 75 and over, the increase being evenly split between the two.

The growth of population of 75 and over is projected to be even higher over the coming 25 years. In 2025, on the latest estimates, the number of people of this age will be some 50 % higher than in 2000 and in the Netherlands and Finland, over 70 % higher. The additional numbers of women and men is projected to be similar in the Union as a whole, though men are forecast to make up more of the increased number in Germany, Austria, the UK and the three Nordic countries and women in the four southern Member States and France.

This growth will mean a rise in the relative number of women and men aged 75 and over from just over 7 % of total population in the Union 2000 to 8½ % in 2010 and almost 11 % in 2025. In 2000, some 44 % of those of 65 and over were 75 or over, in 2025, this is expected to rise to 48 %. At the same time, the share of men within this age group is forecast to rise from under 35 % to just over 40 %.



The largest rise in the share of those 75 and over is expected to be in Italy, where it is projected to increase to 13 % of total population by 2025, a rise of five percentage points, which is matched by that in Finland. The largest rise in the relative number of men is again forecast to be in Germany, Austria and Finland, as well as Luxembourg, where in each case it is expected to increase from around 30 % to 40 % of the total in this age group. In Greece and Spain, the rise is projected to be modest and in Portugal, the share of men is expected to remain unchanged.

Growth in the number of women and men of 85 and over is forecast to be higher still, averaging 2 % a years over the next 25 years in the Union. The projected rate of increase, however, varies widely from around 3 % in Greece to under 1 % in Denmark and Sweden and only slightly more in the UK (Graph 146). Except in the latter three countries, women are expected to account for most of the increased number of people of this age throughout the Union.

Given this growth, people of 85 and over are forecast to account for just over 3 % of the population in the Union in 2025 (almost one person in every 30) as opposed to just under 2 % (less than one in every 50) in 2000. Men are expected to make up 34 % of the population of this age as against 28 % in 2000 (Graph 147).

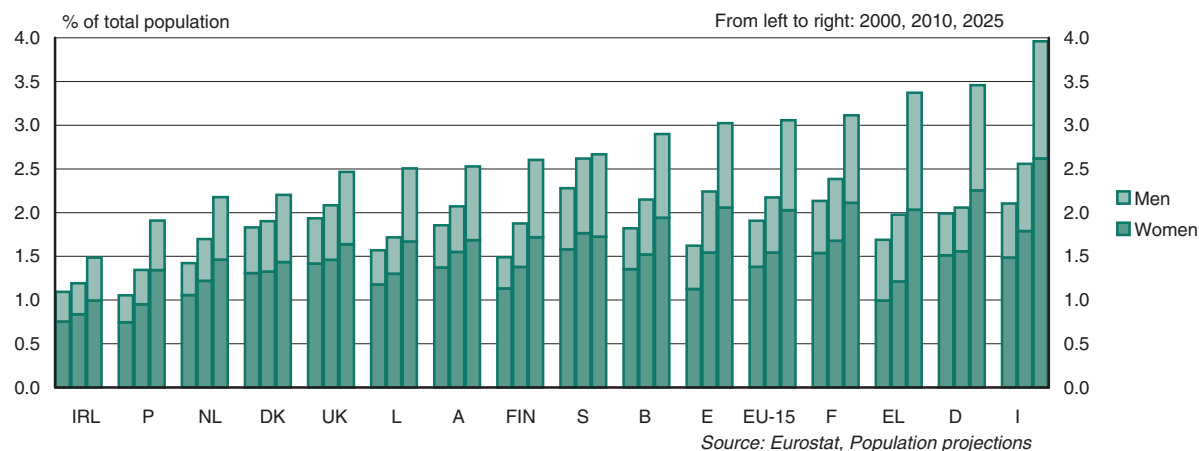
In Italy, the relative number of those of 85 and over is projected to double from 2 % of total population to 4 % over this period, while in Germany and Greece (though not Austria or Finland), it is forecast to rise to 3½ %. Except in Greece and Portugal, the share of men within the age group is projected to increase in all Member States, again especially in Germany and Finland

Household circumstances of women and men of 65 and over

The much larger number of women aged 65 and over than men has implications for their household circumstances. In particular, many more women

The growth in the number of those of 85 and over is projected to average 2 % a year over the next 25 years, with women making up most of these.

More women aged 65 and over live alone than men.

147 Men and women aged 85 and over in relation to total population, 2000, 2010 and 2025

than men in this age group in the Union live alone rather than with a spouse or partner or in a household with more than one other person. According to the European Community Household Panel (ECHP), some 45 % of women in the Union aged 65 and over lived alone in 1998 as compared with only 16.5 % of men. (Graph 148 – It should be noted that the figures here relate to private households and exclude those living in collective households, such as nursing homes.)

The relative numbers of women and men living alone, however, varied between countries. In seven of the 14 Member States for which data are available (i.e. excluding Luxembourg) – the three Nordic countries, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany and the UK – more than half of women of 65 or over lived alone, while the figure for men was around a quarter or less. By contrast, in Ireland and all four southern Member States, under 40 % of women of this age lived alone – under 30 % in Spain and Portugal – as against under 15 % of men, except in Ireland.

148 Men and women aged 65 and over by type of household, 1998

The counterpart of these variations are differences in the proportions of elderly people living in households with more than one other person, with perhaps sons or daughters or with other relatives. In Denmark and Sweden, less than 5 % of both women and men of 65 and over lived in such households and in the Netherlands, Finland and the UK, under 10 %. On the other hand, in Greece, Ireland and Italy, as well as Austria, the figure was some 20 % or more, and in Spain and Portugal, over 30 %. In all Member States without exception, the relative number of men living in households with more than one other person exceeded that of women (though in absolute terms, there were still more women than men living in households of this type in most of the countries).

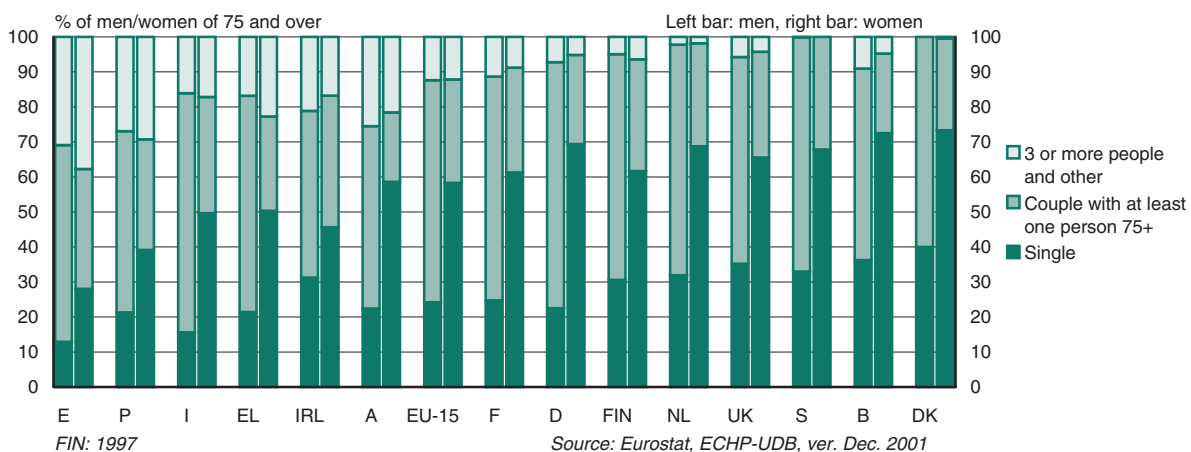
The fact that women increasingly outnumber men as they grow older means that the relative number living alone is almost bound to rise at the same time. In 1998, an average of 58 % of women aged 75 and over in the Union lived alone as compared with only 24 % of men, while just over 60 % of men lived with a spouse or partner as opposed to just 30 % of women. Much the same proportion of both lived in households with more than one other person (Graph 149).

In Belgium and Denmark, over 70 % of women in this age group lived alone, while in Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden, the figure was only slightly below this, in each case substantially higher than the proportion of men living alone, though in Denmark, this was higher than anywhere else in the Union (40 %). In Ireland, by contrast, only around 45 % of women of 75 and over lived alone, in Portugal, 40 % and in Spain, under 30 %. In both Spain and Portugal, the counterpart was a relatively large proportion of women, as well as men, living in households with more than one other person (around 30 % in Portugal, nearly 40 % in Spain in the case of women). By contrast, hardly anyone of this age in Denmark and Sweden lived in such a household and 10 % or less in all Member States apart from the four southern countries, Ireland and Austria.

In contrast to the broader age group, the proportion of women of 75 and over living in a household with two or more other people was higher than for men in all four southern Member States, together with Finland, In all other countries, apart from Denmark and Sweden, the reverse was the case.

The difference between the relative numbers of women and men living alone widens significantly with age.

149 Men and women aged 75 and over by type of household, 1998



3.2. Income levels

Only a very small proportion of women and men of 65 and over in the EU are still in employment.

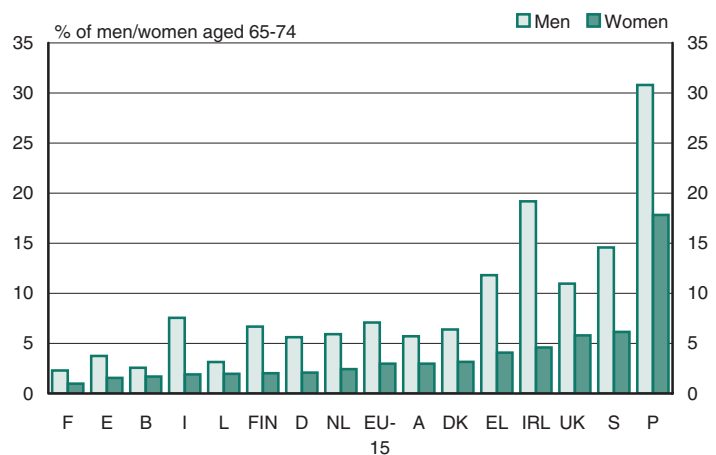
Women and men aged 65 and over and still in work

According to the EU labour force survey, some 7 % of men aged 65 to 74 in the Union in 2000 and 3 % of women were still working (Graph 150). There are large variations between countries, however, with over 30 % of men in this age group and 18 % of women in work in Portugal, much higher figures than anywhere else in the Union, as compared with under 4 % of men and under 2 % of women in Belgium, France, Luxembourg and Spain. In between these extremes, a relatively large proportion of men of 65 to 74 remained in work in Ireland (19 %), Sweden (15 %), Greece (12 %) and the UK (11 %), but in each case, the figure for women was only around 4 to 6 %. Elsewhere, the proportion of women in employment was some 3 % or below and the proportion of men under 8 %.

Around 40 % of men and 60 % of women in the Union in this age group who were in employment worked part-time – under 30 hours a week – and of these, around 60 % of women and just under half of men worked less than 15 hours a week (Graph 151). The importance of part-time working varied markedly between countries, with the great majority of both women and men in Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK working part-time (over 70 % of men, 60 % or more of women), most of them for less than 15 hours a week, but a small minority working part-time in Greece, Spain, Italy and Austria.

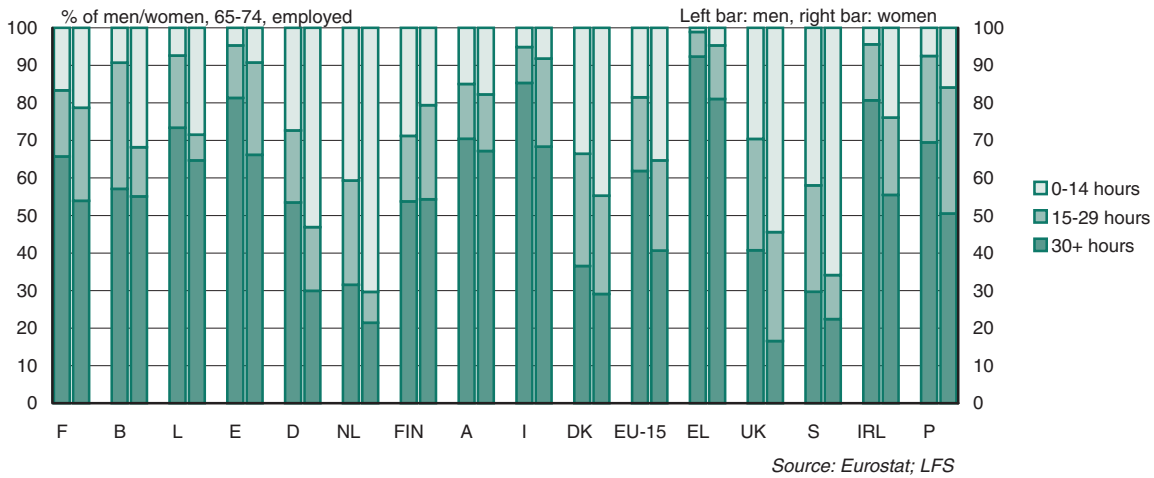
Over a quarter of women and men of 65 and over in employment in the Union worked in agriculture, as against under 5 % of those under 65. In Greece, Portugal and Austria, the proportion was well over half for both women and men of 65 and over (Table 17 at the end of this section). Moreover, some 60 % of the total number of men in work and 40 % of the women were self-employed

150 Employment rate of men and women aged 65-74, 2000

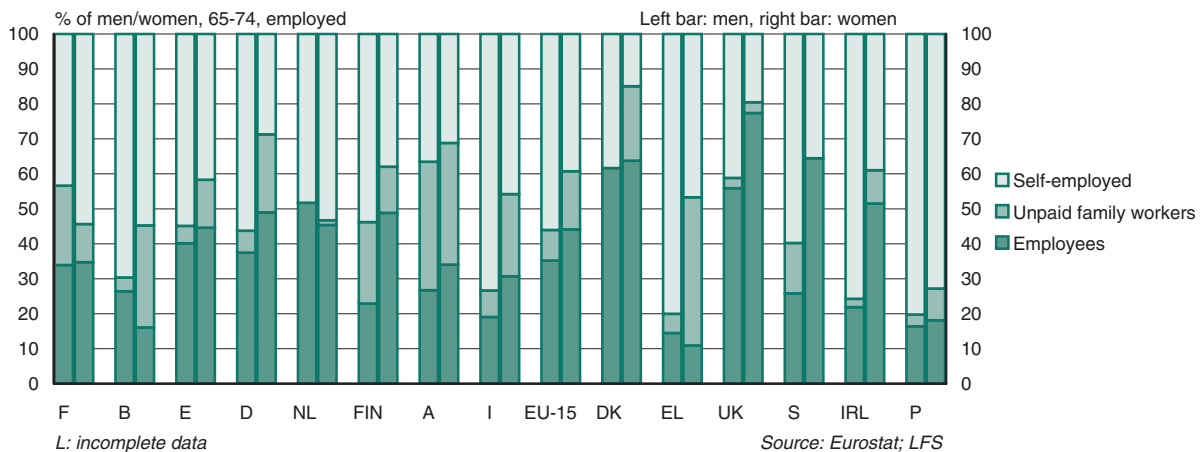


Source: Eurostat, LFS

151 Men and women aged 65-74 in employment by average usual hours worked per week, 2000



152 Men and women aged 65-74 in employment by professional status, 2000



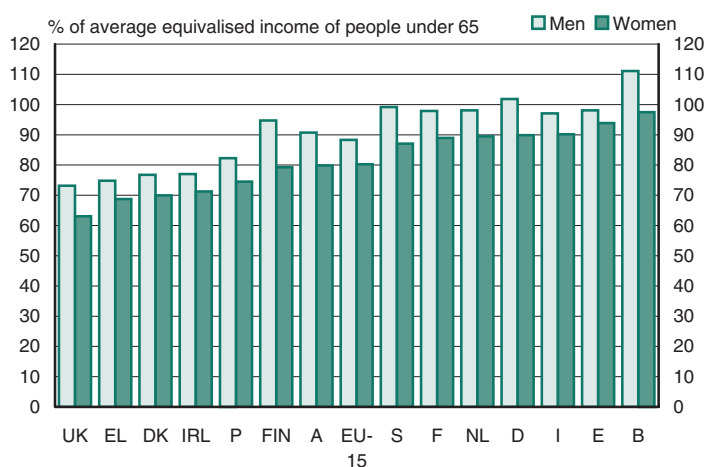
(many of them in agriculture), while another 17 % of women and 9 % of men were unpaid family workers. Only around a third of men and under half of women in this age group who were still working were, therefore, in paid jobs, the figure being under 20 % for both in Greece and Portugal and under 25 % for men in Ireland, Italy and Finland (Graph 152).

Income levels of women and men of 65 and over

The average income of women of 65 and over in the Union, in equivalised terms, was significantly less than that of men and even lower than the average for women and men under 65. (Average income, as earlier, is defined in terms of equivalised income which is derived by dividing the total income of the household in which each person lives by the adult-equivalent numbers in the household, using the OECD-modified scale.) In 1997, it was some 10 % below that of men in the same age group and some 20 % less than the average for those under 65, while the average income of men of 65 and over was, in turn, just over 10 % below the average for those younger (Graph 153).

Women of 65 and over in the EU tend to have much lower income than men.

153 Average equivalised income of men and women aged 65 and over in relation to income of those under 65, 1997



FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

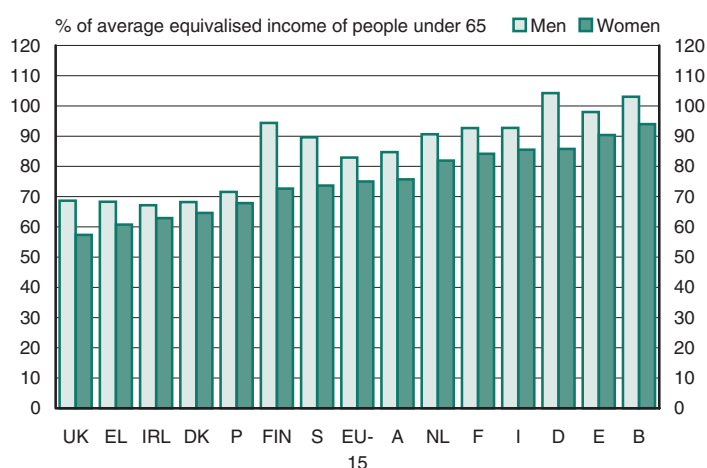
In all Member States, apart from Belgium and Germany, the average equivalised income of the elderly was less than that of people under 65, though in, Spain, it was under 5 % below. In the UK, Greece, Denmark and Ireland, it was around 25 % lower. The average income of women of 65 and over was less than that of men in all Member States, without exception, the extent of the difference ranging from just 4 % in Spain and 9–12 % in most countries to around 15 % in Finland and the UK. The variations in the size of the income gap between Member States in some degree reflects the relative number of women living alone compared with men, a feature explored further below.

Income levels of women and men of 75 and over

The average income of women of 75 and over in the EU is also around 10 % lower than that of men.

The average income of the elderly tends to decline with age. Men aged 75 and over in the Union, therefore, had an average equivalised income which was some 17 % below the average of those under 65 and some 10 % below that of men aged 65 to 74. The average income of women of 75 and over was around

154 Average equivalised income of men and women aged 75 and over in relation to income of those under 65, 1997



FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

10 % below that of men in this age group and some 25 % below the average of those under 65 (Graph 154).

In all Member States, the average income of women of this age was below that of men and, in most cases, even further below the average of those under 65 (the exceptions are Belgium and Germany, where the average income of men in this age group was slightly higher than that of those under 65). The income gap between women and men ranged from just under 5 % in Denmark and Portugal to over 15 % in Germany, Sweden and the UK and over 20 % in Finland, in all of which a substantial proportion of women of this age lived alone.

Income levels by household circumstances

In all Member States, the average income of women of 65 and over living alone was significantly less than that of those living in households with other people. In the EU, women living alone had an average income level which was over 20 % below that of those living in a household with someone else and 30 % below the average for women and men under 65 (Graph 155). In Greece, Ireland, and the UK, it was 40 to 50 % below the average of those under 65.

For men in this age group, although those living alone had a lower income on average than others, the difference was much less. Indeed, in Belgium and the Netherlands, especially the latter, men living alone had a higher average income than those people under 65. In all Member States, the average income of men living alone was higher than that of women, considerably so in most cases. Indeed, in nine of the 13 Member States for which there are data, it was over 20 % higher than that of women in the same circumstances.

Women of 65 and over living alone have a much lower income on average than others of the same age, while for men the difference is smaller.

Women and men of 65 and over at risk of poverty

As the difference in average income might imply, women aged 65 and over are more likely than men to be at risk of poverty, defining this as having an equivalised income below 60 % of the median level in the country in question (which, as noted above, is the conventional definition adopted in the Union). In the Union as a whole, some 21 % of women in this age group in 1997 had

The proportion of women of 65 and over at risk of poverty is larger than that of men.



income below this level as opposed to 16 % of men and 15 % of people under 65 (Graph 156).

Both the likelihood of someone of 65 and over having an income below 60 % of the median and the difference between the relative numbers of women and men affected varies greatly between Member States. In Greece, Portugal and the UK, over a third of those of 65 and over had an income which put them at risk of poverty, while in Denmark, it was over a quarter. By contrast, it was under 10 % in the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden. In the Netherlands and Sweden, the proportion of elderly people with income below the poverty line was less than that of those under 65, as it was in Spain and Italy. In most other Member States, it was significantly higher. This was especially the case in Denmark, Greece, Portugal and the UK, in all of which a correspondingly large proportion of those at risk of poverty were 65 or over.

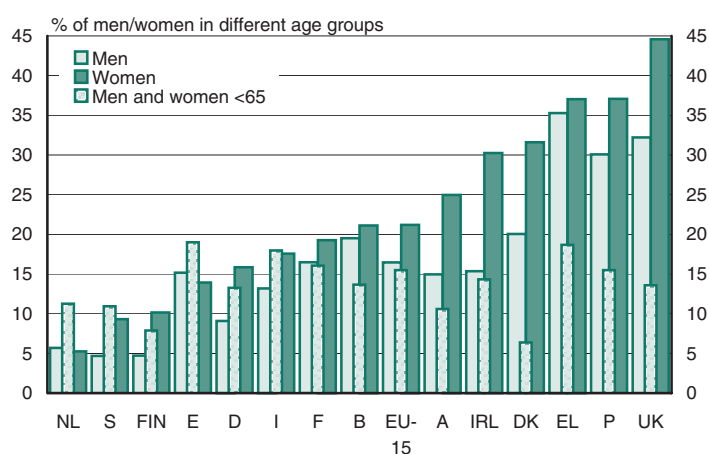
In 10 of the 14 Member States for which data are available, the relative number of women of 65 and over at risk of poverty was higher than for men, while in the other four, it was much the same. The difference was particularly marked in Denmark, Ireland and the UK, in each of which the proportion of women in this age group with an income below 60 of the median was over 10 percentage points higher than for men.

Women of 65 and over are also more likely than men to remain at risk of poverty over a number of years.

Around half of men aged 67 and over and just over half of women with income below 60 % of the median in 1997 also had an income below this level in the preceding two years, in both 1995 and 1996 (67 is used here as the age limit instead of 65 so as to distinguish those who were 65 or over in the two years before 1997). Accordingly, they can be regarded as being at continuous risk of poverty. In the Union as a whole, therefore, some 8 % of men and 12 % of women in this age group were in this position (Graph 157). The relative numbers affected varied across the Union, broadly in the line with the proportion of women and men with income below the poverty line in 1997.

In Greece, Portugal and the UK, around 25 % of women of 67 and over in 1997 were at continuous risk of poverty, defined as above, in each case more than the proportion of men in this position, especially in the UK, where it was some 10 percentage higher. In five of the other Member States for which there are data (data are not available for three consecutive years for Finland and

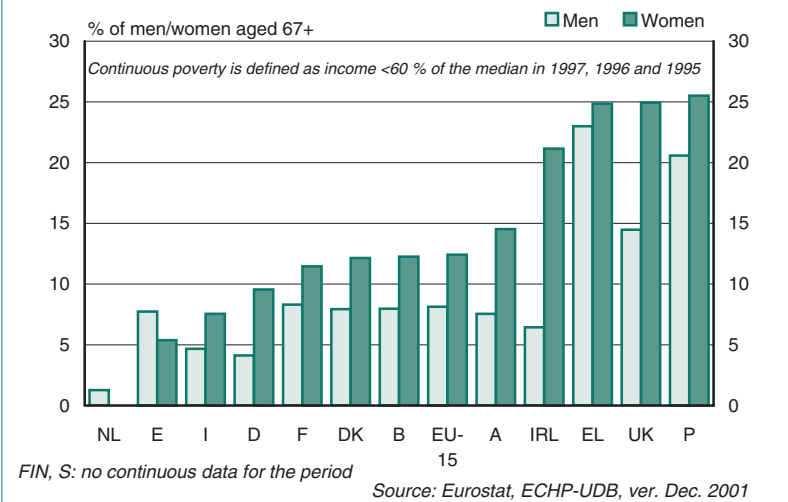
156 Men and women aged 65 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median, 1997



FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

157 Men and women aged 67 and over at continuous risk of poverty, 1997



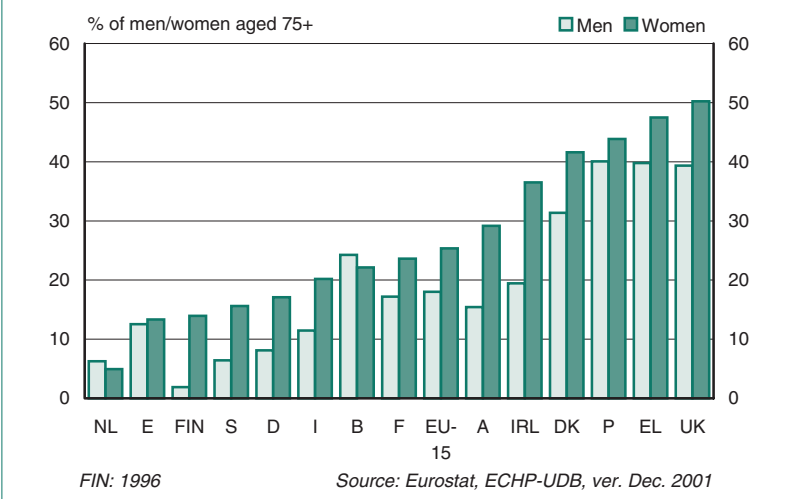
Sweden), the proportion of women with income continuously below the poverty line was around 12 % or more (21 % in Ireland) while the proportion of men in each case was only 7–8 % (6 % in Ireland). By contrast, the risk of continuous poverty was virtually zero in the Netherlands.

Poverty risk among those of 75 and over

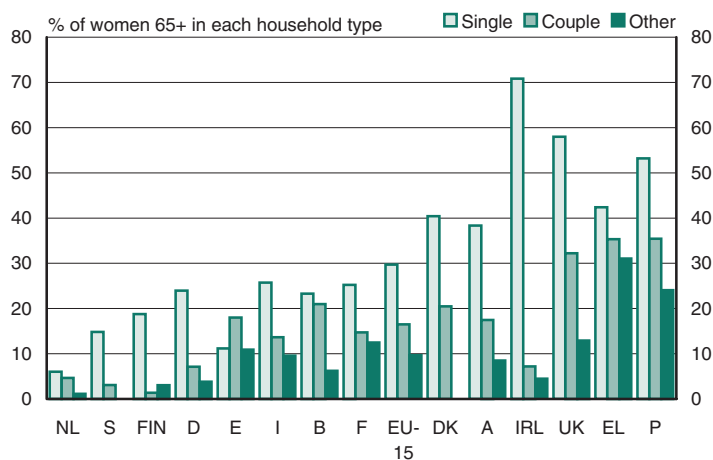
The likelihood of having a level of income below 60 % of the median tends to increase with age above 65. In 1997, some 25 % of women aged 75 and over in the Union had equivalised income below this level, while the same was true of 18 % of men (Graph 158). In Denmark, Greece and Portugal, over 40 % of women of this age had an income below the poverty line and in the UK, over 50 %, in each case, higher than the proportion of men, significantly so in all but Portugal. Nevertheless, the relative number of men with an income of this level was still substantial in all four cases – over 30 % in Denmark and around 40 % in the other three.

The proportion of women and men with income below the poverty line increases with age, though more for women than men.

158 Men and women aged 75 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median, 1997



159 Women aged 65 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median by type of household, 1997



FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

By contrast, in the Netherlands, only 5–6 % of women and men in this age group had income below 60 % of the median and in Germany, Finland and Sweden, under 10 % of men, though in each case 14–17 % of women.

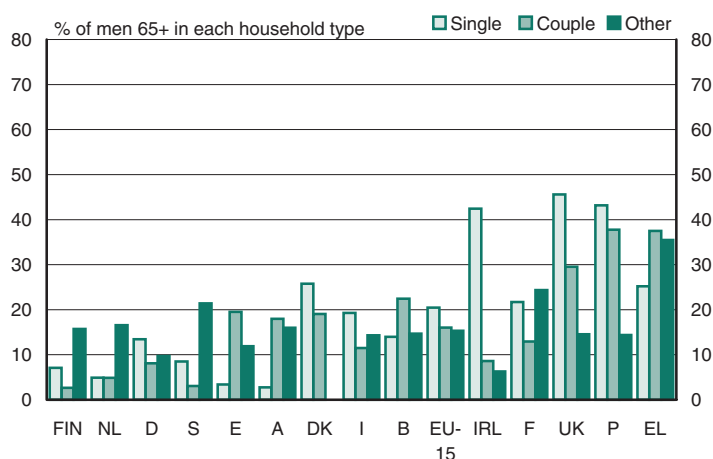
The risk of poverty and household circumstances

Women of 65 and over are much more likely to be at risk of poverty if they live alone, as are men but less so.

The likelihood of having income below 60 % of the median is affected by household circumstances, as intimated above. This is particularly the case for women. In 1997, around 30 % of women of 65 and over in the Union living alone had an income below this level, almost twice the proportion for those living with a spouse or partner (Graph 159). The comparable figure for men was 20 % (Graph 160).

The risk of poverty was particularly high for women of this age living alone in Portugal, the UK and Ireland, where the proportions with income below 60 % of the median were 53 %, 58 % and 71 %, respectively, in each case over 10 percentage points higher than the proportion for men living alone (almost

160 Men aged 65 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median by type of household, 1997



FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

30 percentage points higher in Ireland), though this meant that over 40 % of men in all three countries were at risk of poverty. Only in the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden, did much less than 20 % of women of 65 and over living alone have a poverty level of income, though in Spain and Sweden, the relative number involved was still well above the proportion for men, as in all other Member States.

Table 17 – Men and women in employment by sector, 2000

	<i>% of men/women under 65 in employment</i>															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Agriculture	2	5	3	14	8	5	11	6	3	4	5	8	9	4	2	5
Industry	28	27	34	18	24	27	23	28	17	23	30	25	32	31	27	28
Construction	11	13	14	11	17	11	17	12	13	11	14	22	13	11	13	13
Basic services	30	32	27	34	31	31	30	31	28	34	30	27	30	33	35	31
Advanced services	8	6	6	8	8	6	8	7	19	8	7	6	3	5	8	7
Public and communal se	21	17	16	15	12	19	11	17	20	21	14	12	13	17	15	16
Women																
Agriculture	1	2	2	18	5	3	2	4	1	2	6	11	4	1	1	3
Industry	11	13	17	12	13	14	14	20	5	9	13	22	14	11	11	14
Construction	1	1	3	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2
Basic services	31	28	34	34	43	33	36	33	34	34	38	33	30	27	35	34
Advanced services	9	8	9	11	11	8	16	8	22	9	13	9	9	6	11	9
Public and communal se	47	48	35	25	27	41	31	33	35	44	29	24	43	53	41	37
<i>% of men/women over 65 in employment</i>																
Men																
Agriculture	19	26	15	56	25	37	61	23	40	26	53	68	51	48	11	31
Industry	6	13	23	6	12	8	6	13	0	11	11	6	14	7	14	13
Construction	5	11	10	2	4	2	4	5	10	1	3	3	12	4	8	6
Basic services	56	31	36	27	39	31	18	39	19	48	20	16	17	27	48	35
Advanced services	3	3	7	4	6	6	4	5	7	6	7	3	0	5	6	5
Public and communal se	11	16	10	5	14	15	6	15	24	7	6	3	6	8	14	11
Women																
Agriculture	10	21	14	65	21	24	22	13	38	16	49	72	22	18	5	27
Industry	7	15	14	4	6	5	5	12	9	0	1	4	0	0	7	7
Construction	0	10	3	1	1	2	0	2	0	0	5	0	0	4	2	2
Basic services	53	40	42	20	50	49	42	50	16	25	30	17	50	37	44	38
Advanced services	18	0	12	7	9	10	11	9	0	9	10	2	2	4	9	8
Public and communal se	12	14	15	3	14	11	19	14	37	50	5	6	25	38	33	18

N.B.: NACE categories are aggregated as follows: Agriculture (A+B), Industry (C+D+E), Construction (F), Basic services (G+H+I+O+P), Advanced services (J+K+Q), Public and communal services (L+M+N).

Source: Eurostat, LFS

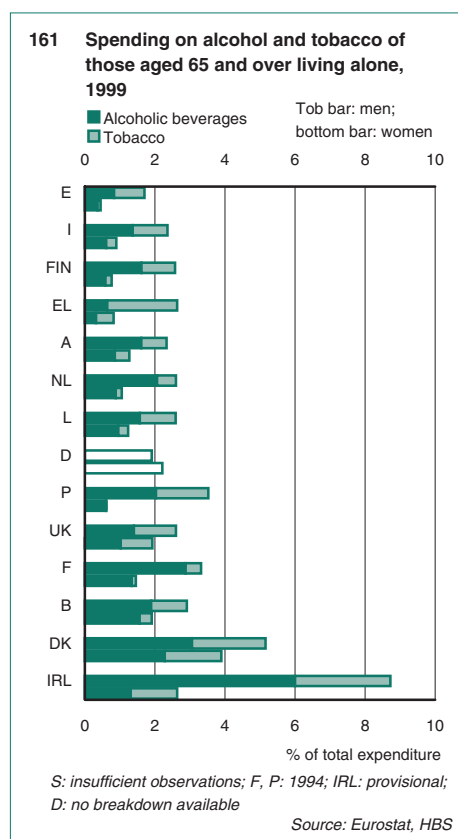
3.3. Lifestyle

Pattern of expenditure among women and men of 65 and over

Evidence on the different patterns of spending of women and men in retirement can be obtained from the household budget survey, in the same way as for people in younger age groups, by examining data on those living alone. This, in turn, gives an insight into the life styles of women and men in this age group.

Alcohol and tobacco

Men of 65 and over in the Union tend to spend significantly more than women on both alcohol and tobacco, especially the latter. In eight of the Member States for which data are available, men of this age devoted at least twice as much of their budget to buying beer, wines and spirits than women and in one other over 60 % more (Graph 161). In the case of tobacco, men spent at least three time more than women in nine Member States. Indeed, as compared with those under 65, women and men of 65 and over spent a similar amount, or only slightly less, on alcohol in most countries, but, especially in the case of women, much less on tobacco.



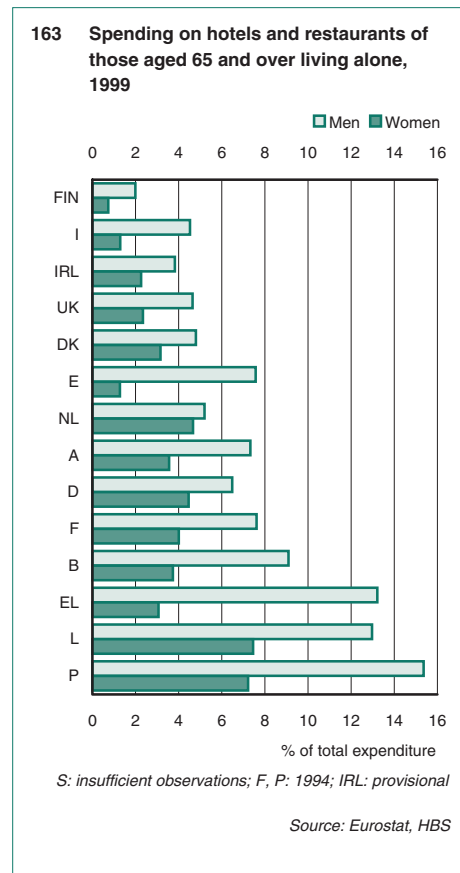
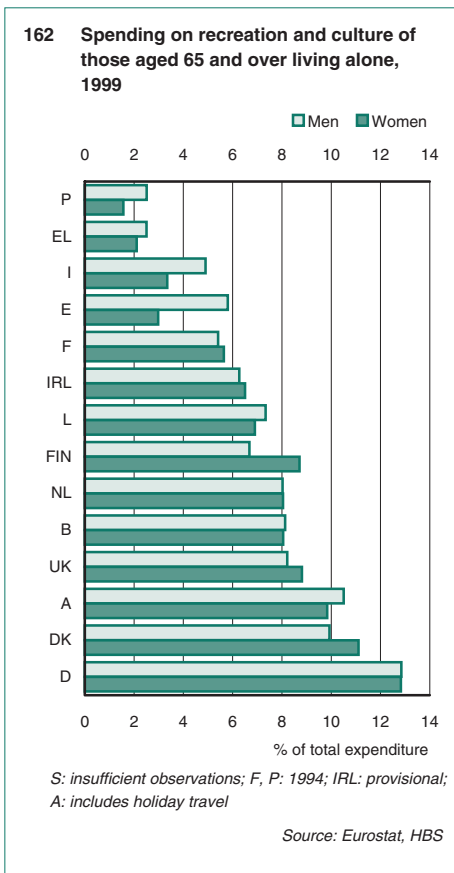
Recreation and culture

Women and men of 65 and over tend to spend similar shares of their budgets on recreational and cultural activities in most parts of the Union, but significantly less than those under 65. In five of the 14 Member States, the proportion of expenditure of women of 65 and over going on these activities was much the same as that of men and in nine Member States, for both women and men it was over 25 % less than that of those younger than this. In Denmark, Finland and the UK, women spent more than men, while in Greece, Spain, Italy, Luxemburg, Portugal and Austria, the reverse was the case (Graph 162).

Within recreation and culture, men of 65 and over spent more than women, or similar amounts to them, on televisions, stereo systems and other audio-visual equipment in 1999 in all countries apart from Denmark. Perhaps not unexpectedly, however, throughout the Union, the proportion of their budget going on these items was significantly less than for those under 65 (Table 18). This was also the case for spending on recreational and sporting equipment, games and hobbies, which was higher for women than men in 10 Member States, and similar in four of the others.

At the same time, men in this age group, in a similar way to those younger, devoted a larger proportion of their budget than women to recreational, cultural and sporting services (the use of facilities and equipment, entrance fees to sporting venues, cinemas or theatres) in all Member States, apart from France.

As for those younger than 65, there is no systematic tendency for women to spend more on books, newspapers and periodicals than men or vice versa.



More of men's expenditure than women's went on these items in all four southern Member States as well as in Denmark, the reverse was the case in Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and the UK.

Again following the pattern for those under 65, women of 65 and over devoted a larger or similar share of their budget to package holidays than men in six Member States. Only in Spain, Italy and Austria, did men spend more than women on these.

Hotels and restaurants

Older men spend more than women on hotels and restaurants across the Union, as is the case for younger age groups. In 1999, men aged 65 and over spent over three times as much of their budget as women on overnight accommodation and eating out in Greece, Spain, and Italy and over twice as much in Portugal Belgium, Austria and Finland. Only in the Netherlands, was their expenditure less than 50 % higher than that of women (Graph 163).

Healthcare products

It is difficult to compare spending on health care across countries since the level of expenditure in any particular case tends to reflect as much about the administrative arrangements for health service provision than about the spending habits of individuals as such. Accordingly, the countries in which expenditure on healthcare products is relatively low are in most cases those in which the health care is largely free at the point of delivery and drugs and appliances are supplied at a nominal price. The countries where it is relatively high tend to be those where consumers pay the full price, or close to it, and are then

Table 18 – Consumption expenditure of private one-person households without dependent children and head of households aged over 64, 1999

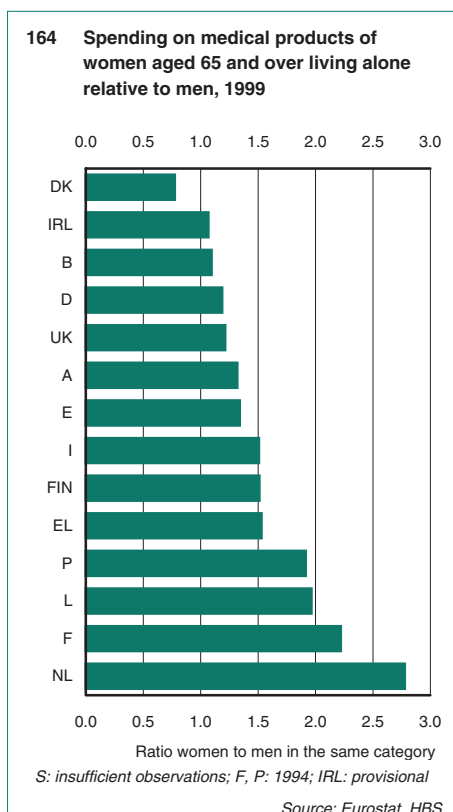
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	% of total expenditure
Alcoholic beverages – 02.1¹																
Men	1.9	3.1	1.9	0.6	0.8	2.9	6.0	1.4	1.6	(2.1)	1.6	2.0	1.6	:	1.4	
Women	1.6	2.3	2.2	0.3	0.4	1.3	1.3	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.6	(0.9)	1.0	
Tobacco – 02.2																
Men	1.0	2.1	:	2.0	0.9	0.4	2.7	1.0	1.0	(0.5)	0.7	1.5	1.0	:	1.2	
Women	0.3	1.6	:	0.5	0.1	0.1	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.2	(0.4)	0.9	
Medical products and appliances – 06.1																
Men	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.5	1.3	2.1	0.9	3.7	1.0	(0.5)	1.4	2.7	2.9	:	0.9	
Women	3.0	2.1	3.0	3.8	1.7	4.7	1.0	5.6	2.0	1.4	1.8	5.2	4.4	(3.3)	1.0	
Audio-visual and data processing equipment – 09.1																
Men	0.7	1.2	1.3	0.3	0.7	1.3	0.2	0.9	0.7	(1.1)	0.9	1.3	0.3	:	0.7	
Women	0.3	1.4	1.1	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.2	0.6	0.5	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.3	(0.5)	0.5	
Other recreational equipment and items – 09.2+09.3																
Men	1.4	1.1	2.2	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.8	0.9	2.0	(2.2)	0.9	0.3	1.0	:	0.7	
Women	1.8	2.3	2.1	0.5	0.7	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.9	1.8	1.7	0.5	1.4	(1.6)	1.6	
Recreational and cultural services – 09.4																
Men	3.8	3.6	3.2	1.1	1.9	1.1	2.4	1.0	1.8	(1.8)	3.5	0.6	2.5	:	2.9	
Women	2.6	3.4	3.0	0.7	0.5	1.3	2.1	0.4	1.2	1.7	2.0	0.4	2.4	(2.5)	2.7	
Newspapers, books and stationery – 09.5																
Men	1.7	3.1	2.2	0.6	1.6	1.4	2.1	1.4	1.0	(2.0)	1.7	0.4	2.4	:	1.7	
Women	2.0	2.3	2.2	0.5	0.6	1.6	2.0	0.9	0.9	2.3	2.1	0.2	3.0	(5.6)	2.0	
Package holidays – 09.6¹																
Men	0.6	0.9	3.9	0.0	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.7	1.7	(0.9)	3.5	0.0	0.5	:	2.2	
Women	1.4	1.8	4.4	0.2	0.8	0.3	0.8	0.4	2.4	1.3	3.3	0.1	1.6	(1.7)	2.1	
Hotels, cafés, restaurants – 11																
Men	9.1	4.8	6.5	13.2	7.6	7.6	3.8	4.5	13.0	(5.2)	7.3	15.4	2.0	:	4.6	
Women	3.7	3.2	4.5	3.1	1.3	4.0	2.3	1.3	7.5	4.7	3.6	7.2	0.7	(1.3)	2.3	

Digits in row headings refer to the Coicop classification. F and P: 1994; IRL: provisional; figures in brackets are published with a warning about reliability.

¹ D: figures are for alcoholic beverages and tobacco together.

² A: includes holiday travel.

Source: Eurostat, Household Budget Survey



reimbursed by the State, either fully or in part, on their expenditure. Nevertheless, the figures for spending on health care products should reflect differences in consumption between women and men within Member States.

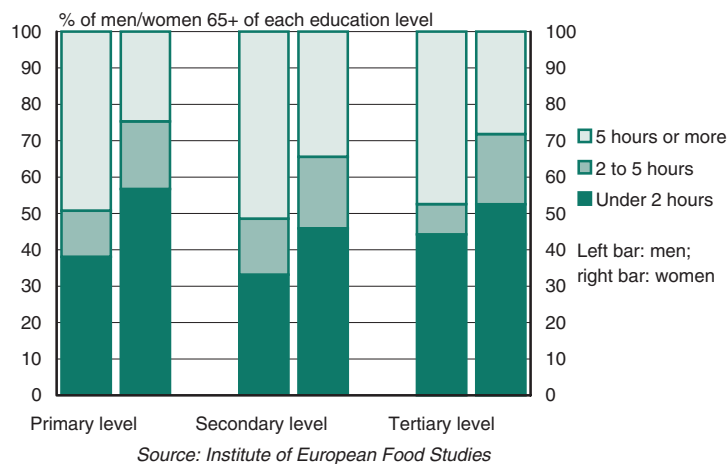
Women aged 65 and over devoted more of their budget than men to pharmaceuticals and medical appliances in all Member States, apart from Denmark, where men spent more than women (Graph 164).

The difference between women and men in the amount spent was particularly large in France, Luxembourg and Portugal, as well as in the Netherlands, where the level of (direct) expenditure was much less. In each of these four countries, women devoted over 50 % more of their budget to healthcare products than men

Physical exercise

Men of 65 and over are more likely to engage in some form of physical exercise than their younger counterparts while women in the same age group are less likely to. According to the survey carried out in 1997 by the Institute of European Food Studies, almost two thirds of men of 65 and over but only just over half of women spent two hours a week or more in some form of physical activity, while half of men but under a third of women spent five hours a week or more (Graph 165 and Table 19).

165 Men and women aged 65 and over spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity, by education level, 1997



In contrast to those under 65, men are less likely to take physical exercise for at least two hours a week if they have a university education than if they have only secondary education and also less likely to spend five hours or more a week on some physical activity or other. For women in this age group, however, the level of education seems to have little effect on whether they engage in physical activity or not. Nevertheless, even among the highly educated, men are more likely to take physical exercise than women.

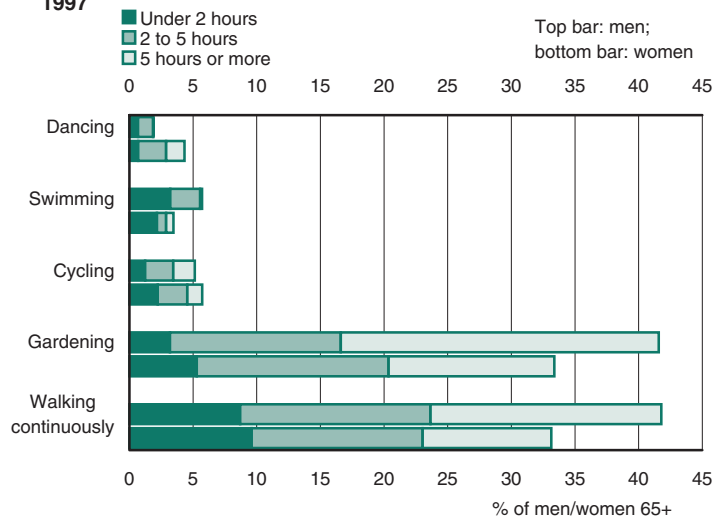
As for younger age groups, walking represents the most common form of physical activity, but much the same proportion of women and men spend one or more hours a week gardening as walking continuously – just over 40 % of men and around of third of women in both cases (Graph 166). The next most common pursuits are cycling and swimming, but these involve very much smaller numbers (only around 5–6 % of women and men in the first case and 4 % of women and 6 % of men in the second).

Table 19 – Men and women aged 65 and over spending different numbers of hours per week on physical activity by education level, 1997

	% of men/women 65+ of each level	
	Men	Women
Total		
< 2 hours	36	49
2-5 hours	14	19
5 or more hours	50	32
Primary level		
< 2 hours	38	57
2-5 hours	13	19
5 or more hours	49	25
Secondary level		
< 2 hours	33	46
2-5 hours	15	20
5 or more hours	51	34
Tertiary level		
< 2 hours	44	52
2-5 hours	8	19
5 or more hours	47	28

Source: Institute of European Food Studies

166 Main physical activities of men and women aged 65 and over, 1997



Men of 65 and over are more likely than women to be a member of a club or society throughout the EU.

Social relations of women and men aged 65 and over

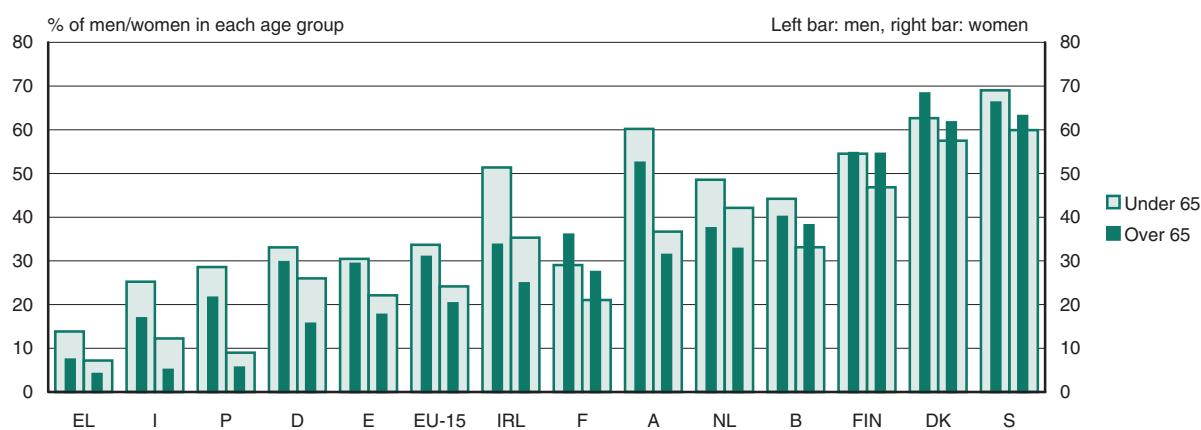
The ECHP gives some insight into the social life of women and men of 65 and over through a series of questions asked about contact with other people. In 1998, just over 30 % of men and 20 % of women in the Union aged 65 and over reported that they were members of a club or organisation (such as a sports or entertainment club, local or neighbourhood group or political party). Both figures are lower than for those under 65, but the difference between men and women is similar – i.e. men, on average, have a greater tendency to join a club or society than women (Graph 167).

The figures are highest in the three Nordic countries, where in each case, over half of women and men – and in Denmark and Sweden, over 60 % – were members of a club or society in this age group as in younger age groups. By contrast, in the four southern Member States and Germany, under a third of people of 65 and over were members of clubs, in Greece, under 10 %, with in each case, the proportion of men exceeding that of women substantially. Indeed, in Italy and Portugal as well as Greece, only around 5 % of women were club or society members.

About 80 % of both women and men in the Union aged 65 and over report that they often talk to their neighbours and only around 9 % that they rarely do so. Similar proportions apply in most Member States, and, as at the EU level, there is relatively little difference in them between women and men (Graph 168). Only in France did a significantly smaller proportion of people in this age group frequently talk to their neighbours. While in the former this was still over 75 %, in France, it was only around half (54 % of men and 48 % of women). In all Member States, the figures for those aged 65 and over were higher than for those aged 16 to 64.

A slightly smaller proportion of women and men of 65 and over reported meeting friends or relatives often – just over 70 % of both on average in 1998. Moreover, there is somewhat more variation between countries than in the case of talking to neighbours. In Ireland, Greece and Spain, over 85 % of women and men met friends or relatives frequently, while the proportion was only slightly smaller in the UK (Graph 169). On the other hand, it was only around two thirds for both women and men in Portugal, two-thirds for women

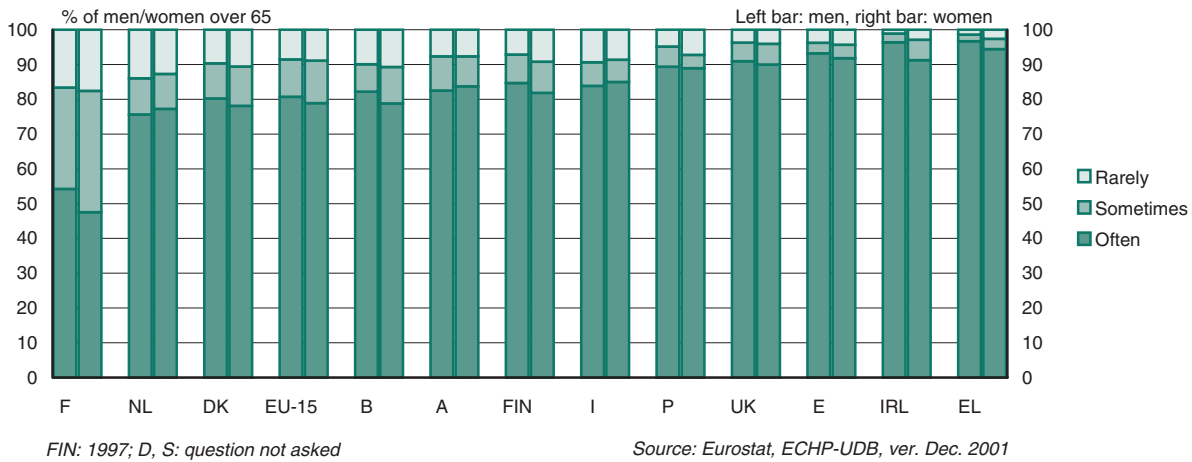
167 Men and women aged under 65 and 65 and over member of a club, 1998



FIN: 1997; UK: question not asked

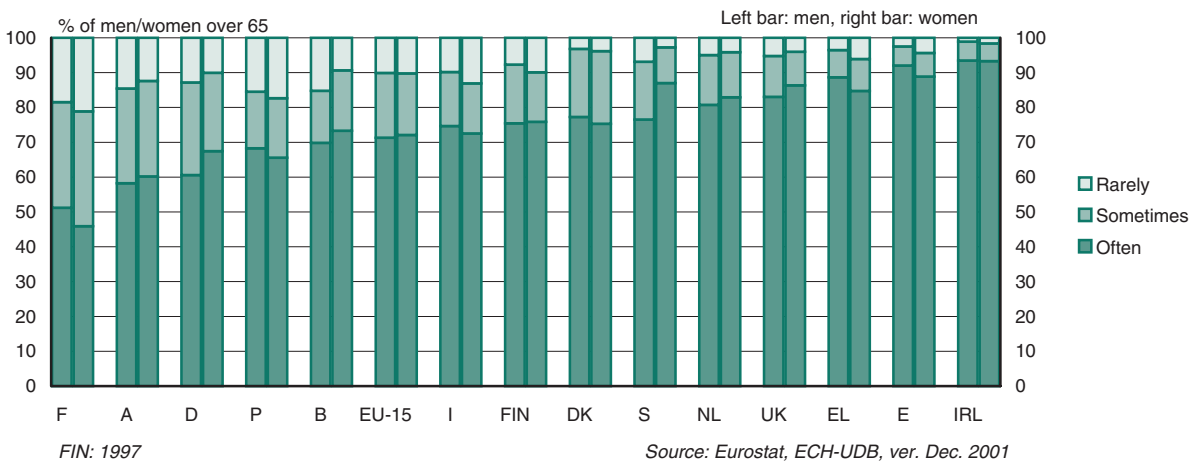
Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. Dec. 2001

168 Frequency with which men and women aged 65 and over talk to their neighbours, 1998



and 60 % for men in Germany and around 60 % for both in Austria, while in France, it was just over a half for men and 46 % for women. A similar pattern of variation applies to those rarely seeing friends or relatives, the proportion being very small in Ireland and Spain (under 5 %) but around 15 % for both women and men in Portugal, over 10 % in Germany and Austria, as well as for women in Italy and men in Belgium, and around 20 % for both in France. How frequently people see friends or relations, therefore, depends far more on the country in which they live than on whether they are a man or a woman.

169 Frequency with which men and women aged 65 and over meet friends or relatives, 1998



3.4. The state of health of women and men in retirement

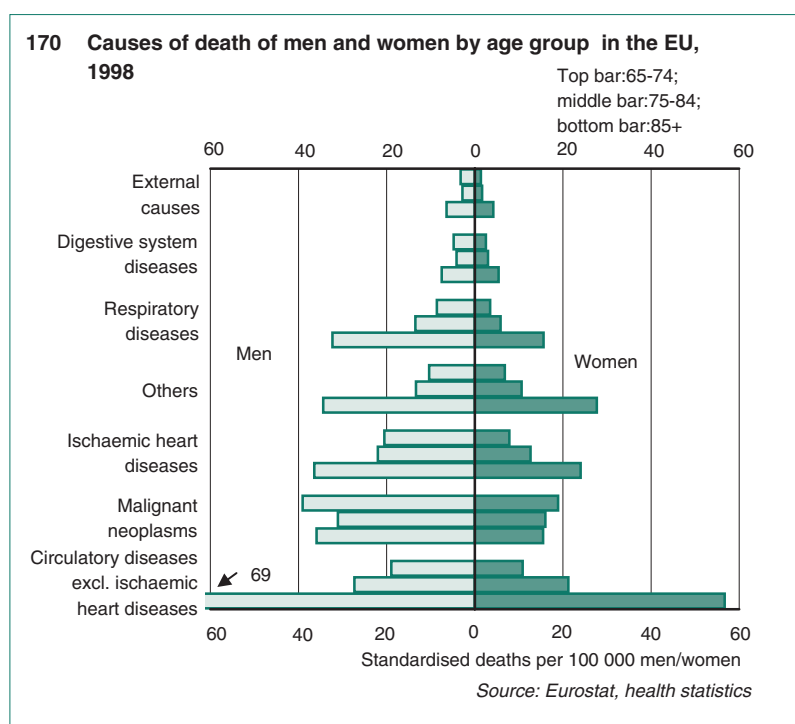
Death rates among men of 65 and over in the EU are higher than among women, but the causes are mostly similar.

Causes of death of women and men of 65 and over

There are significant similarities in the causes of death of women and men aged 65 and over, but also a few differences, which, however, tend to narrow as people get older. Moreover, throughout the Union, overall death rates among men (i.e. standardising for population) are higher than for women.

Although men in the Union aged 65 to 74 were twice as likely to die from malignant neoplasms, or cancer, in 1998 than women (39 men per 100 000 dying from this cause as against 19 women per 100 000), these accounted for virtually the same proportion of deaths among the two (37 % of deaths of men, 36½ % of those of women) (Graph 170). Similarly, ischaemic heart disease (i.e. heart problems associated with reduced blood circulation) and other circulatory problems were together responsible for twice as many deaths among men than among women, after adjusting for differences in the relative numbers of the two, but for much the same proportion of deaths. For both women and men of this age, accidents and other external causes of death, unlike for younger age groups, were of minor importance both in absolute and relative terms.

Among those aged 75 to 84, malignant neoplasms are a slightly less common cause of death, though more significant for men than women, accounting for some 27 % of all deaths as opposed to 23 %. On the other hand, ischaemic heart disease and other circulatory problems were more important, causing 48 % of all deaths among women and 43 % of those among men. Respiratory problem were also



more common than for those under 75, though they still accounted for relatively few deaths, if more among men than women (12 % of all deaths as against 8 %).

For those of 85 and over, heart and other circulatory diseases were responsible for over half of the deaths of women and close to 48 % of those of men, though men were still some 50 % more likely to die from a heart attack than women. Both men and women of 85 and over were some 2½ times more likely to die from circulatory problems as those aged 75 to 84. Malignant neoplasms were the cause of much the same number of deaths among women and men of this age as among those under 85, in relation to the size of population, but accounted for a much smaller proportion of deaths (around 16 % of all deaths of men and 10 % of those of women), similar relative numbers to those for respiratory diseases.

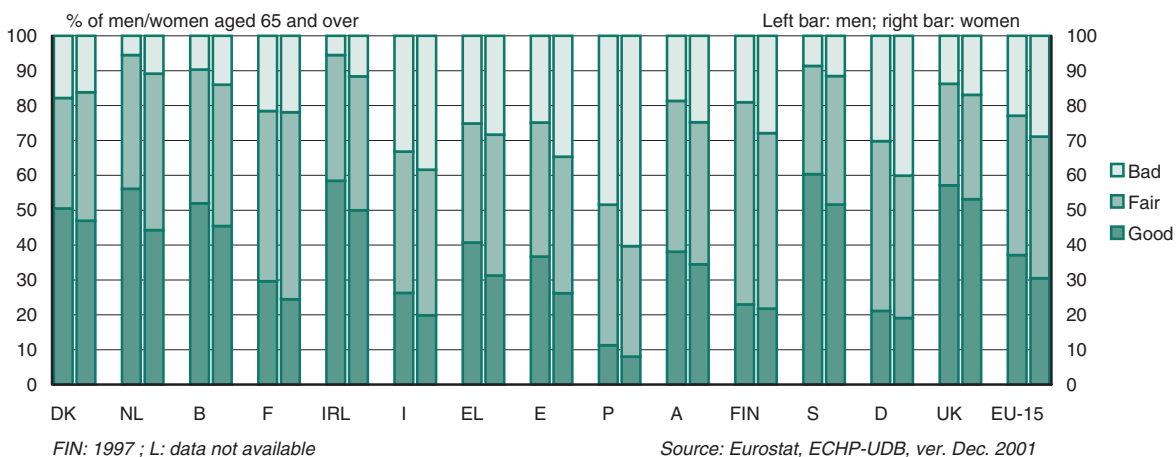
Self-perceptions of health

As noted above in relation to those younger than 65, people’s perceptions of their health are very much affected by their general attitude towards life and by social and cultural factors, which tend to differ across countries. While this makes comparisons of such perceptions between countries problematic, it ought, however, not greatly to affect comparisons between women and men within countries. According to the ECHP, which asked those surveyed to assess their general state of health on a scale from very good to very bad, in 1998 more men than women in the Union aged 65 and over were satisfied with their health. A minority of both, however, 37 % of men and only 30 % of women, considered themselves to be in good health. Conversely, some 29 % of women and 23 % of men reported that their health was bad (Graph 171).

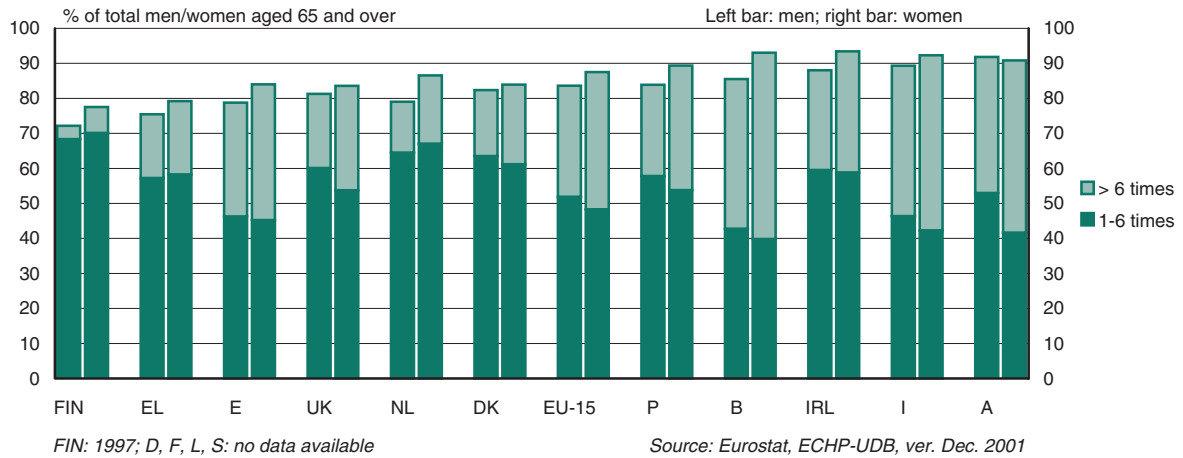
This difference in self-assessment between women and men was repeated across the Union, as it was in the case of those under 65, as described earlier. In all Member States, a larger proportion of men than women considered their health to be good, the difference being particularly large in Greece, Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands and Sweden and relatively narrow in Germany and Finland. At the same time, a smaller proportion of men regarded themselves as being in poor health in all countries apart from Denmark, where the figure was slightly larger for men than for women. The difference between women and men in this respect was especially wide in Germany and Portugal, in the former, some 40 % of women in this age group assessing their health to be bad and in the latter, some 60 %.

More men of 65 and over than women consider themselves to be in good health and fewer in poor health.

171 Self-perception of health of men and women aged 65 and over, 1998



172 Visits to a general practitioner over past year by men and women aged 65 and over, 1998



Women of 65 and over are more likely to visit the doctor than men ...

Visits to the doctor

The great majority of women and men in the Union of 65 and over see a doctor at least once a year and many several times, though slightly more women than men. In 1998, some 88 % of women and 84 % of men in this age group had seen their doctor at least once over the preceding 12 months and 39 % of women as compared with 32 % of men, more than 6 times (Graph 172).

Although the proportion of people of 65 and over seeing their doctor during the year varied between Member States, in all of them it was well over 70 % and in Belgium, Ireland, Italy and Austria, over 85 %, with, in each of these apart from Ireland, around half of those concerned visiting the doctor over 6 times in the year, a much larger proportion than elsewhere in the Union.

In all Member States, except Austria, where the figures were similar, a larger proportion of women than men had visited their doctor over the previous year and in all without exception, a much larger share of women than men had visited on more than six occasions.

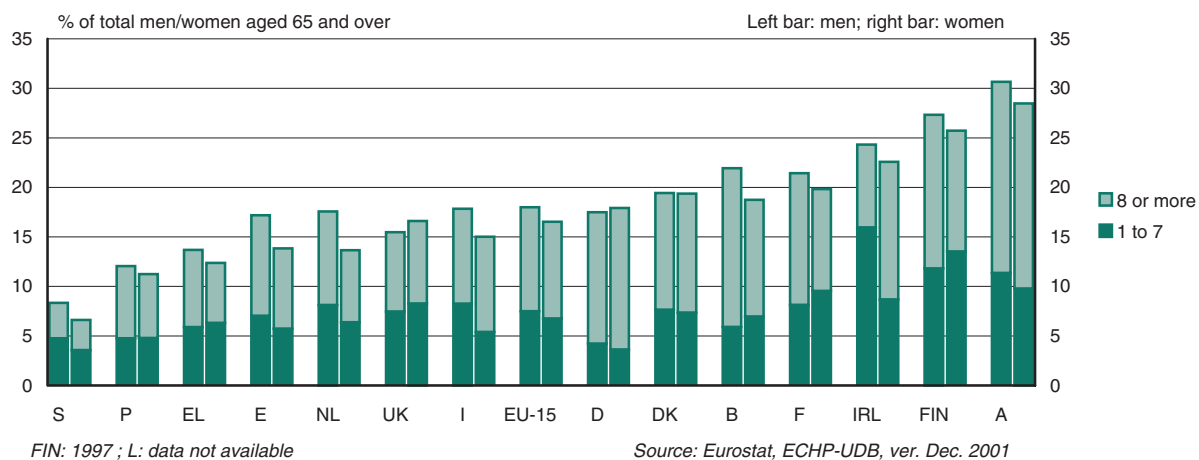
... but women are no more likely than men to spend time in hospital.

Overnight stays in hospital

Nevertheless, despite more frequent visits to the doctor, women of 65 and over are no more likely than men to spend time in hospital (in contrast to the prevailing pattern for those under 65). In 1998, some 17-18 % of women and men in the Union in this age group had spent a night in hospital over the preceding year (Graph 173).

As for those under 65, the relative number of women and men of 65 and over spending time in hospital was higher in Austria and Finland than elsewhere in the Union – over 25 % of women and men in both cases. Moreover, those who stay in hospital also tend to be there for a longer period than in other Member States, especially in Austria, where almost 20 % of women and men in this age group had stayed in hospital for eight or more nights, a significantly larger proportion than anywhere else. By contrast, only around 13 % of those in this age group in Greece, 11-12 % in Portugal and just 7-8 % in Sweden had been in hospital for one night or more during the year. (It should be noted that these comparisons might be misleading insofar as elderly people in some

173 Nights spent in hospital over past year by men and women aged 65 and over, 1998



countries might spend time in hospital for care reasons, because, for example, they are too frail to look after themselves, rather than for medical reasons, whereas in other countries, they might be looked after in residential or nursing homes instead.)

In all Member States apart from Denmark, Germany and the UK, the proportion of men spending time in hospital was larger than that of women, in Denmark, the figure for both being similar and Germany and the UK, the figure for women being higher than for men.



Statistical annex



A.1 – Demographic statistics on young people

		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Male and female births, 1983 and 1999¹ (% of total)																	
1983	Boys	51.4	51.2	51.3	51.9	51.8	51.3	51.6	51.5	50.0	51.1	51.2	51.8	51.1	51.5	51.4	51.4
	Girls	48.6	48.8	48.7	48.1	48.2	48.7	48.4	48.5	50.0	48.9	48.8	48.2	48.9	48.5	48.6	48.6
1999	Boys	48.6	48.8	48.7	48.1	48.2	48.7	48.4	48.5	50.0	48.9	48.8	48.2	48.9	48.5	48.6	48.6
	Girls	51.0	51.2	51.4	51.5	51.5	51.3	51.6	51.5	51.8	51.3	51.2	51.6	51.0	51.3	51.4	51.4
Population structure by age group, 2000 (% of total)																	
Age group																	
0-4	Boys	51.1	51.3	51.3	51.5	51.7	51.2	51.6	51.4	51.8	51.2	51.2	51.6	51.0	51.3	51.3	51.3
	Girls	48.9	48.7	48.7	48.5	48.3	48.8	48.4	48.6	48.2	48.8	48.8	48.4	49.0	48.7	48.7	48.7
5-15	Boys	51.2	51.3	51.3	51.4	51.4	51.1	51.2	51.4	51.3	51.1	51.2	51.1	51.0	51.3	51.3	51.3
	Girls	48.8	48.7	48.7	48.6	48.6	48.9	48.8	48.6	48.7	48.9	48.8	48.9	49.0	48.7	48.7	48.7
16-24	Boys	50.7	50.8	51.2	51.2	51.1	50.7	50.8	51.1	50.8	50.8	50.8	50.7	51.1	51.1	51.2	51.0
	Girls	49.3	49.2	48.8	48.8	48.9	49.3	49.2	48.9	49.2	49.2	49.2	49.3	48.9	48.9	48.8	49.0
Infant mortality rates, 1986 and 1999² (per 1 000 boys/girls aged 0 to 1)																	
1986	Boys	12.1	9.1	10.3	12.7	10.0	9.3	9.7	10.8	11.3	8.9	11.8	17.6	6.7	6.8	11.0	10.5
	Girls	7.7	7.7	7.9	9.9	7.9	7.2	8.2	8.5	5.0	7.2	8.6	13.9	4.6	5.4	8.2	8.1
1999	Boys	5.6	5.0	4.9	6.6	4.7	5.0	5.8	5.5	6.1	5.5	4.2	6.3	3.9	4.0	6.4	5.3
	Girls	4.2	3.5	4.0	5.7	4.1	3.9	5.1	4.9	3.5	5.0	4.2	5.2	3.4	2.6	5.0	4.4
Mortality rates by age group, 1999² (per 1 000 men/women aged 16-19/20-24)																	
16-19	Boys	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.7	0.7
	Girls	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
20-24	Boys	1.2	0.8	0.9	1.3	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3	0.7	1.1	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.9	1.0
	Girls	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Average age at first marriage of men and women, 1980 and 1999³																	
1980	Men	24.3	27.2	25.7	28.7	25.9	25.1	27.1	27.1	26.9	25.5	25.9	25.4	26.5	28.6	28.5	26.0
	Women	22.3	24.6	22.9	24.7	23.5	23.0	24.7	23.9	25.4	23.2	23.2	23.1	24.4	26.0	25.4	23.3
1999	Men	28.9	32.5	30.9	30.3	29.5	31.2	30.0	30.0	30.7	30.7	30.3	27.2	30.5	32.9	29.6	30.3
	Women	26.6	30.1	28.2	26.5	27.6	29.1	28.2	27.1	28.3	28.3	27.9	25.5	28.3	30.4	27.5	28.1
Average age of mother at birth of first child, 1980-2000⁴																	
1980		24.7	24.6	25.0	24.1	25.0	25.0	25.5	25.0	26.5	25.7	24.3	24.0	25.6	25.3	25.1	25.0
2000		26.9	27.5	28.0	27.3	29.0	28.7	27.8	28.3	28.4	28.6	26.3	26.4	27.4	27.9	29.1	28.3
Fertility rates in 1980, 1995 and 2000 (per woman of child-bearing age)																	
1980		1.7	1.6	1.6	2.2	2.2	2.0	3.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	2.2	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.8
1995		1.5	1.8	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.4
2000		1.7	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.9	1.3	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.5

¹ D: 1986-1999.² I: 1998.³ B, E, F, I: 1980 and 1997; EL, L: 1990 and 1998; UK: 1982 and 1998.⁴ B: 1980-93; DK, I: 1980-96; D, EL, E, F: 1980-99; A: 1985-2000; L: 1990-2000.

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

A.2 – Demographic statistics on young people in candidate countries

		BG	CY	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	TR
Male and female births, 1980 and 2000¹ (% of total)														
1980	Boys	51.6	52.4	51.6	51.4	51.2	51.4	51.3	51.8	51.3	51.5	51.2	51.3	:
	Girls	48.4	47.6	48.4	48.6	48.8	48.6	48.7	48.2	48.7	48.5	48.8	48.7	:
2000	Boys	51.3	51.0	51.8	51.9	51.4	51.8	51.2	50.0	51.5	51.5	51.6	51.2	:
	Girls	48.7	49.0	48.2	48.1	48.6	48.2	48.8	50.0	48.5	48.5	48.4	48.8	:
Population structure by age group, 2000² (% of total)														
Age group														
0-4	Boys	51.4	51.5	51.3	51.4	51.4	51.4	51.6	51.8	51.4	51.3	51.5	51.3	:
	Girls	48.6	48.5	48.7	48.6	48.6	48.6	48.4	48.2	48.6	48.7	48.5	48.7	:
5-15	Boys	51.3	51.7	51.2	51.1	51.1	51.1	51.0	51.5	51.2	51.1	51.2	51.1	:
	Girls	48.7	48.3	48.8	48.9	48.9	48.9	49.0	48.5	48.8	48.9	48.8	48.9	:
16-24	Boys	51.3	51.1	51.1	50.7	51.1	50.5	50.7	51.7	50.9	51.1	51.5	51.0	:
	Girls	48.7	48.9	48.9	49.3	48.9	49.5	49.3	48.3	49.1	48.9	48.5	49.0	:
Infant mortality rates, 1998³ (per 1 000 girls/boys aged 0 to 1)														
Boys		13.9	:	4.9	8.3	9.3	8.8	16.8	:	9.0	18.7	5.2	10.3	:
Girls		10.6	:	3.8	6.7	7.4	6.8	12.7	:	7.5	15.0	3.2	7.8	:
Mortality rates by age group, 1999³ (per 1 000 women/men aged 16-19/20-24)														
16-19	Boys	0.8	:	0.7	1.2	0.6	1.1	1.4	:	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8	:
	Girls	0.4	:	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	:	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	:
20-24	Boys	1.3	:	0.9	1.9	1.0	2.3	2.6	:	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.0	:
	Girls	0.5	:	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.7	:	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	:
Average age at first marriage of men and women, 1980 and 1996³														
1980	Men	24.4	26.1	:	:	24.0	:	:	:	:	:	25.5	24.1	:
	Women	21.2	23.3	21.5	22.6	21.3	:	22.8	:	22.5	22.0	22.5	21.9	:
1996	Men	26.4	28.1	25.4	:	25.2	24.3	25.1	:	:	:	28.2	24.9	:
	Women	22.9	25.2	22.9	23.7	22.6	22.6	23.2	:	22.3	23.0	25.4	22.6	:
Average age of mother at birth of first child, 1980-1999⁴														
1980		21.9	23.8	22.4	23.2	22.5	22.9	22.9	:	23.0	22.6	23.0	22.7	:
2000		23.0	25.8	24.6	23.8	24.9	23.7	24.2	:	22.9	23.5	26.1	23.8	:
Fertility rates in 1980 and 2000⁵ (per woman of child-bearing age)														
1980		2.1	2.5	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.3	:
2000		1.3	1.8	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	:

¹ CY: 1980-1999.² MT: 1999.³ SK: 1995.⁴ LT: 1990-1999; PL: 1980-1996.⁵ LV: 1991-2000; MT, SK: 1980-1999.

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

A.3 – Employment status of young people by age group and household type, 1998 (% of men/women in each age group)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Aged 20-24																
Man living alone or with someone aged 16-34																
Employed	(42)	78	(76)	53	(83)	51	:	(43)	:	79	(83)	(91)	32	:	73	65
Unemployed	(7)	0	(9)	0	(2)	13	:	(10)	:	2	(5)	(5)	19	:	8	8
Inactive	(51)	22	(15)	47	(16)	36	:	(47)	:	19	(12)	(4)	48	:	19	26
Woman living alone or with someone aged 16-34																
Employed	(62)	57	72	46	49	51	52	(35)	:	80	75	76	30	:	63	57
Unemployed	(6)	3	9	15	29	7	9	(16)	:	3	11	3	8	:	5	11
Inactive	(32)	40	19	39	22	43	39	(49)	:	17	14	22	61	:	32	32
Man living with at least one person aged 35+																
Employed	43	75	58	51	40	29	64	41	:	70	71	65	35	:	81	53
Unemployed	3	3	8	19	14	16	8	21	:	4	5	6	20	:	7	12
Inactive	54	22	34	30	47	55	28	39	:	26	24	29	46	:	12	36
Woman living with at least one person aged 35+																
Employed	31	(85)	55	37	26	26	64	26	:	65	65	47	36	:	74	45
Unemployed	8	(7)	6	21	24	19	4	22	:	16	7	10	10	:	7	14
Inactive	61	(9)	38	42	51	54	32	51	:	19	28	43	55	:	18	41
Aged 25-29																
Man living alone or with someone aged 16-39																
Employed	82	90	80	94	83	83	84	85	:	90	89	96	61	:	91	85
Unemployed	12	1	9	0	13	9	12	8	:	1	1	2	14	:	7	8
Inactive	6	9	12	5	4	8	4	8	:	9	10	1	24	:	2	7
Woman living alone or with someone aged 16-39																
Employed	77	69	67	58	46	64	61	43	:	81	70	77	46	:	68	61
Unemployed	11	15	6	8	12	13	7	10	:	3	9	9	13	:	2	8
Inactive	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	0	0	:	0	0
Man living with at least one person aged 40+																
Employed	76	:	78	77	68	60	76	60	:	76	83	85	(64)	:	77	71
Unemployed	5	:	7	16	16	10	9	21	:	13	4	3	(22)	:	13	12
Inactive	19	:	15	7	15	29	15	20	:	11	13	12	(14)	:	10	17
Woman living with at least one person aged 40+																
Employed	76	:	61	48	49	53	75	49	:	:	77	78	:	:	73	60
Unemployed	13	:	4	27	21	34	4	17	:	:	1	3	:	:	4	14
Inactive	10	:	36	25	30	13	21	33	:	:	22	18	:	:	23	26

FIN: 1997; L: data not available; S: excluded because of incomplete data; missing data for other countries denote that sample size is too small; figures in brackets are published with a warning about reliability.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.4 – Student performance in reading, mathematical and scientific literacy, 2000

	<i>Difference in mean score of boys/girls</i>		
	Reading	Maths	Scientific
B	-33	6	-2
DK	-25	15	12
D	-35	15	3
EL	-37	7	-7
E	-24	18	1
F	-29	14	6
IRL	-29	13	-6
I	-38	8	-9
L	-27	15	-7
NL	:	:	:
A	-26	27	12
P	-25	19	-6
FIN	-51	1	-6
S	-37	7	0
UK	-26	8	4
CZ	-37	12	1
HU	-32	7	-2
PL	-36	5	6

NL: Response rate too low.

Negative figures mean that girls perform better.

Source: OECD, PISA Database, 2000

A.5 – Time 15 year-old students usually spend each day reading for enjoyment, 2000

	<i>% of male/female 15 year-old students</i>									
	Not reading		<30 min.		30-60 min.		1-2 hours		>2 hours	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
B	53	31	22	28	17	26	6	12	2	3
DK	36	17	35	37	19	28	7	12	3	5
D	55	29	24	30	13	23	6	12	3	6
EL	25	19	27	27	22	24	19	21	8	10
E	42	22	33	33	18	31	6	11	2	3
F	39	21	27	28	23	33	8	13	3	4
IRL	39	15	30	29	19	31	8	17	3	8
I	35	10	31	27	20	32	11	25	3	6
L	33	19	28	29	21	27	10	16	8	8
NL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
A	53	30	27	30	13	22	5	12	2	5
P	29	8	42	36	20	32	6	18	2	5
FIN	42	25	30	32	17	24	8	15	2	5
S	45	27	28	34	17	25	7	10	3	4
UK	36	23	35	36	19	26	8	11	2	4
CZ	37	23	38	38	18	27	6	8	2	4
HU	38	23	32	28	19	26	8	18	3	5
PL	32	16	24	22	26	31	12	21	6	10

NL: Response rate too low.

Source: OECD, PISA Database, 2000

A.6 – Enrolments in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of men and women, 1999/2000

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Distribution of men and women of all ages by type of education (% of total for each type of education)															
General/prevocational															
Men	46	43	45	45	46	44	48	52	46	47	45	45	42	44	50
Women	54	57	55	55	54	56	52	48	54	53	55	55	58	56	50
Vocational															
Men	50	54	57	57	48	56	:	56	51	54	57	58	52	39	44
Women	50	46	43	43	52	44	:	44	49	46	43	42	48	61	56
Enrolments rates (% of men/women in each age group)															
Men															
Aged 16-18															
General/prevocational	27	34	23	31	36	26	57	55	25	24	13	38	46	51	22
Vocational	49	21	41	19	12	50	:	18	45	39	62	19	42	35	39
Women															
General/prevocational	33	48	32	41	47	35	64	57	31	27	19	53	64	50	25
Vocational	42	11	33	15	8	40	:	15	45	39	45	15	26	42	39
Men															
Aged 19-21															
General/prevocational	0	13	8	1	7	2	1	6	4	2	1	8	6	10	0
Vocational	11	27	18	4	6	15	:	3	21	24	8	8	12	7	14
Women															
General/prevocational	1	16	8	1	7	2	1	4	4	2	1	10	6	15	0
Vocational	10	17	15	4	6	12	:	3	21	17	5	5	17	10	15

B: students in (transitional) secondary technical and art education are included in vocational education.

F, L: students in technological education are included in vocational education.

S: some students (in adult and special education) cannot be split into general and vocational education.

UK: includes ISCED 4. All students in secondary schools are classified to general programmes; all those on further education courses, some of which are academic, are classified to vocational programmes.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.7 – Enrolments in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of men and women, 1999/2000

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Distribution of men and women of all ages by type of study at level ISCED 5 (% of total for each type of study)															
ISCED 5A															
Men	52	49	55	49	47	45	45	44	-	50	50	41	46	40	47
Women	48	51	45	51	53	55	55	56	-	50	50	59	54	60	53
ISCED 5b															
Men	44	36	36	51	50	47	47	42	-	46	35	50	42	52	42
Women	56	64	64	49	50	53	53	58	-	54	65	50	58	48	58
Enrolments rates in levels ISCED 5 and 6 (% of men/women in each age group)															
Men															
Aged 18-21															
ISCED 5a and 6	19	5	6	39	24	19	30	12	-	24	11	15	18	12	22
ISCED 5b	17	2	1	18	4	11	:	0	-	0	0	7	1	1	4
Women															
ISCED 5a and 6	20	6	10	43	36	28	38	17	-	30	16	23	25	18	26
ISCED 5b	27	4	5	20	4	12	:	0	-	0	2	7	1	1	5
Men															
Aged 22-24															
ISCED 5a and 6	12	15	18	6	23	19	12	19	-	25	19	12	35	24	9
ISCED 5b	9	8	2	3	3	3	:	0	-	0	1	5	2	1	2
Women															
ISCED 5a and 6	11	15	17	5	27	21	12	27	-	22	19	18	39	29	9
ISCED 5b	9	18	3	3	3	4	:	0	-	0	1	5	3	1	3
Men															
Aged 25-28															
ISCED 5a and 6	3	11	14	2	10	5	4	12	-	8	14	6	20	13	4
ISCED 5b	3	6	1	1	0	0	:	0	-	0	0	2	1	1	2
Women															
ISCED 5a and 6	3	11	10	2	9	6	5	14	-	6	12	8	21	15	4
ISCED 5b	2	10	1	1	0	1	:	0	-	0	0	2	1	1	3

D, NL: ISCED 6 is excluded.

IRL: data are for ISCED 5A, 5B and 6 together.

L: most students study abroad because there is no complete university system.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.8 – Percentage distribution of graduations in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5), 2000

	% of total population in each category			
	ISCED 5a		ISCED 5b	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
B	49	51	39	61
DK	50	50	33	67
D	54	46	38	62
EL	:	:	:	:
E	41	59	48	52
F	43	57	46	54
IRL	44	56	51	49
I	44	56	36	64
L	-	-	-	-
NL	45	55	44	56
A	53	47	50	50
P	35	65	30	70
FIN	41	59	35	65
S	39	61	47	53
UK	46	54	41	59

Exceptions to reference year – DK, F, I, FIN: 1999;
IRL: 1998.

E: ISCED level 5A first degree includes second degrees

IRL: data refers to public institutions only.

L: most students study abroad because there is no complete University system.

A: ISCED level 5B refers to previous year.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.9 – Percentage distribution of enrolments in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) by field of study in the EU, 1999/2000

	% of total in each field			
	ISCED 5a		ISCED 5b	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Educational Sciences	25	75	28	72
Humanities and arts	33	67	40	60
Social sciences, Journalism	40	60	34	66
Business and administration	53	47	45	55
Law	45	55	39	61
Science	61	39	70	30
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	77	23	86	14
Agriculture	52	48	69	31
Health and social services	32	68	17	83
Services	46	54	44	56

Data exclude L, where there is no complete University system, and EL and F, for which data by field of study are not available.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.10 – Young people with less than upper secondary education and not in education or training by age group, 2000

	% of men/women in each age group															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	Aged 16-18															
Men	6	8	3	13	23	6	:	17	4	11	8	27	9	2	:	11
Women	5	9	3	9	15	5	:	15	3	9	11	20	8	2	:	9
	Aged 19-22															
Men	15	16	15	20	33	16	:	29	17	15	9	50	13	12	:	22
Women	10	9	14	13	22	11	:	21	19	15	11	35	6	9	:	17
	Aged 23-24															
Men	17	12	15	28	36	16	:	33	23	22	11	60	9	8	:	24
Women	14	13	17	15	26	15	:	27	22	17	11	43	6	6	:	21

IRL: no data available.

UK: data are not shown because agreement on the division between lower and upper secondary education has not yet been reached.

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.11 – Teachers in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 1999/2000

	% of total at each level						Share of women teaching part-time		
	ISCED 1		ISCED 2		ISCED 3		ISCED 1	ISCED 2	ISCED 3
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women			
B	18	82	:	:	43	57	31	:	39
DK	37	63	37	63	70	30	12	12	41
D	19	81	41	59	60	40	62	49	59
EL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
E	31	69	:	:	49	51	5	:	15
F	20	80	36	64	53	47	9	14	15
IRL	15	85	44	56	:	:	0	21	:
I	5	95	27	73	41	59	0	0	0
L	40	60	62	38	:	:	12	15	:
NL	25	75	:	:	60	40	70	:	81
A	11	89	36	64	51	49	11	20	26
P	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
FIN	28	72	29	71	44	56	2	5	14
S	20	80	38	62	50	50	22	28	32
UK	24	76	45	55	44	56	20	17	43

DK, IRL, I, L, A, UK: 1998/99.

B, NL: pre-primary (ISCED 0) is included with primary (ISCED 1); ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 (lower secondary) and 4.

E: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 and 4.

IRL: ISCED 3 and 4 are included in ISCED 2.

L: data relate to public sector only; ISCED 3 is included in ISCED 2.

A: school management personnel are partly included; part-time teachers are estimated.

FIN: ISCED 2 and part-time teachers are estimated; ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4 and 5 vocational and technical programmes.

UK: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.12 – Enrolments in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) of men and women in candidate countries, 1999/2000

	BG	CY	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	TR
Distribution of men and women of all ages by type of education (% of total for each type of education)													
General/prevocational													
Men	36	44	40	41	48	43	41	43	38	39	41	43	55
Women	64	56	60	59	52	57	59	57	62	61	59	57	45
Vocational													
Men	63	84	53	65	65	60	60	59	59	57	53	51	:
Women	37	16	47	35	35	40	40	41	41	43	47	49	:
Enrolments rates (% of men/women in each age group)													
Men													
	Aged 16-18												
General/prevocational	17	43	12	35	58	26	34	:	22	16	20	:	:
Vocational	42	15	65	27	14	23	31	:	61	38	65	:	:
Women													
General/prevocational	32	60	19	52	67	39	49	:	41	27	31	:	:
Vocational	26	3	60	15	8	15	21	:	47	30	58	:	:
Men													
	Aged 19-21												
General/prevocational	0	0	1	3	8	3	4	:	3	3	1	:	:
Vocational	1	0	5	7	2	5	6	:	18	4	9	:	:
Women													
General/prevocational	0	0	1	4	8	3	4	:	3	2	1	:	:
Vocational	0	0	6	4	1	4	4	:	8	3	9	:	:

MT, TR: population data by age are not available.

HU: students in prevocational education are included in vocational.

SK: data are in full-time equivalent terms, special education is excluded; data by age are not available.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.13 – Enrolments in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6) of men and women in candidate countries, 1999/2000

	BG	CY	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	TR
Distribution of men and women of all ages by type of study at level ISCED 5 (% of total for each type of study)													
ISCED 5A													
Men	43	43	52	44	46	42	35	47	43	49	41	50	60
Women	57	57	48	56	54	58	65	53	57	51	59	50	40
ISCED 5b													
Men	35	23	31	28	38	35	50	43	19	42	47	22	62
Women	65	77	69	72	62	65	50	57	81	58	53	78	38
Enrolments rates (% of men/women in each age group)													
Men													
	Aged 18-21												
ISCED 5a and 6	18	21	17	23	19	17	18	:	19	14	13	18	:
ISCED 5b	1	1	3	2	0	8	3	:	0	1	12	0	:
Women													
ISCED 5a and 6	28	39	15	31	23	24	31	:	28	17	22	19	:
ISCED 5b	3	9	6	7	1	15	3	:	1	2	15	1	:
Men													
	Aged 22-24												
ISCED 5a and 6	18	19	14	16	15	12	13	:	23	10	12	13	:
ISCED 5b	1	2	1	1	0	3	2	:	0	1	10	0	:
Women													
ISCED 5a and 6	22	7	13	20	18	16	22	:	28	10	20	13	:
ISCED 5b	1	1	1	3	0	4	1	:	0	1	12	0	:
Men													
	Aged 25-28												
ISCED 5a and 6	7	0	5	8	6	4	7	:	7	4	5	4	:
ISCED 5b	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	:	0	0	4	0	:
Women													
ISCED 5a and 6	8	0	5	11	7	6	12	:	8	3	6	3	:
ISCED 5b	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	:	0	0	3	0	:

MT, TR: population data by age are not available.

SI: 1998/99

RO, SI: ISCED 6 is excluded.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.14 – Percentage distribution of graduations in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) in candidate countries, 2000

	% of total population in each category			
	ISCED 5a		ISCED 5b	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
BG	:	:	:	:
CY	20	80	37	63
CZ	48	52	28	72
EE	38	62	23	77
HU	45	55	31	69
LT	40	60	30	70
LV	35	65	48	52
MT	46	54	57	43
PL	32	68	17	83
RO	48	52	43	57
SI	39	61	47	53
SK	48	52	19	81
TR	59	41	57	43

BG: no data available

CY, SI: 1999.

CY: a large number of students study abroad. ISCED 5A and 5B include ISCED 6.

HU: ISCED 5B includes only students at colleges and universities and excludes those in secondary vocational schools.

RO, SI: ISCED 6 is excluded.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.15 – Percentage distribution of enrolments in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5) by field of study in candidate countries as a whole, 1999/2000

	% of total in each field			
	ISCED 5a		ISCED 5b	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Educational Sciences	35	65	16	84
Humanities and arts	36	64	33	67
Social sciences, Journalism	42	58	32	68
Business and administration	41	59	40	60
Law	48	52	42	58
Science	55	45	69	31
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	76	24	77	23
Agriculture	56	44	54	46
Health and social services	37	63	20	80
Services	58	42	53	47

Including 1998/99 data for SI and ISCED 6 for CY.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.16 – Teachers in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3) in candidate countries, 1999/2000

	% of total at each level					
	ISCED 1		ISCED 2		ISCED 3	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
BG	9	91	22	78	27	73
CY	20	80	:	:	42	58
CZ	:	:	:	:	:	:
EE	14	86	15	85	22	78
HU	15	85	16	84	41	59
LT	2	98	18	82	35	65
LV	3	97	16	84	26	74
MT	:	:	:	:	:	:
PL	:	:	:	:	:	:
RO	:	:	25	75	39	61
SI	4	96	23	77	38	62
SK	9	91	24	76	33	67
TR	:	:	:	:	:	:

SI: 1998/99.

CY: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2.

HU: the split between ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated; ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4.

RO: ISCED 2 includes ISCED 1.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

A.17 – Men and women aged 20-49 and 50-64 spending time caring, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of men/women aged 20-49</i>																
Caring for children																
Men	23	36	27	15	14	15	20	21	:	37	18	9	26	:	12	20
Women	45	43	42	48	40	29	50	47	:	52	47	34	39	:	31	39
Caring for adults																
Men	3	2	0	1	1	2	1	2	:	1	1	0	3	:	8	2
Women	3	2	0	2	3	2	2	3	:	2	4	2	2	:	8	3
Caring for both																
Men	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	:	2	1	1	0	:	1	1
Women	3	3	0	3	2	1	4	5	:	5	3	5	2	:	5	3
<i>% of men/women aged 50-64</i>																
Caring for children																
Men	15	4	6	6	3	5	7	14	:	18	6	2	6	:	:	7
Women	28	8	13	20	12	12	21	38	:	25	15	18	9	:	:	16
Caring for adults																
Men	8	6	3	1	8	4	4	4	:	5	3	1	6	:	17	6
Women	10	10	1	6	13	8	8	8	:	8	7	10	9	:	25	10
Caring for both																
Men	1	2	:	1	0	1	0	3	:	2	1	0	1	:	0	1
Women	5	4	:	3	1	2	3	7	:	6	4	3	1	:	0	2

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.18 – Men and women aged 20-49 with children spending time caring, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of men/women aged 20-49</i>																
Men	45	84	73	35	34	37	45	54	:	89	39	25	62	:	35	49
Women	83	95	92	94	84	61	89	89	:	99	90	78	81	:	76	81

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.19 – Average hours spent caring by men and women aged 20-49 and 50-64, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
20-49 year-olds looking after children																
Men	27	32	:	18	30	20	25	18	:	19	20	19	26	:	:	22
Women	53	48	:	33	59	45	68	38	:	45	47	34	55	:	:	46
50-64 year-olds looking after children																
Men	17	(12)	:	18	(22)	17	(28)	16	:	12	(15)	(23)	(16)	:	:	18
Women	24	(14)	:	26	35	19	41	29	:	21	25	37	17	:	:	26
50-64 year-olds looking after someone other than a child																
Men	(9)	(18)	:	18	23	(16)	(50)	22	:	11	16	24	(26)	:	3	16
Women	(14)	(10)	:	24	46	19	(50)	26	:	18	19	35	17	:	3	22

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.20 – Employment of men and women aged 20-49 and 50-64 spending time caring and not doing so, 1998

	<i>% of men/women in each category</i>															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
20-49 year-olds looking after children and not doing so																
Carers	87	93	92	98	87	88	83	93	:	97	98	98	83	:	87	90
Non-carers	80	86	86	85	72	76	75	72	:	87	90	85	67	:	90	81
Women																
Carers	55	77	62	52	40	57	47	42	:	66	65	66	58	:	69	57
Non-carers	66	80	82	54	48	65	72	51	:	88	77	72	67	:	81	69
Men																
50-64 year-olds looking after children and not doing so																
Carers	35	(84)	46	61	(49)	33	(65)	48	:	78	53	(45)	(48)	:	(51)	48
Non-carers	53	72	65	68	61	58	66	54	:	62	55	69	50	:	73	63
Women																
Carers	17	(66)	32	26	11	33	21	20	:	36	25	32	37	:	39	29
Non-carers	25	56	44	26	21	42	33	21	:	41	31	49	44	:	56	38
Men																
50-64 year-olds looking after someone other than a child and not doing so																
Carers	(40)	(72)	(51)	70	42	(44)	(38)	29	:	57	49	41	32	:	64	47
Non-carers	53	72	65	68	61	58	66	54	:	62	55	69	50	:	73	63
Women																
Carers	29	(68)	16	44	13	30	(26)	16	:	39	(46)	47	45	:	53	29
Non-carers	25	56	44	26	21	42	33	21	:	41	31	49	44	:	56	38

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.21 – Women aged 20-49 and 50-64 in employment working part-time and full-time, 1998

	<i>% of employed women in each age group</i>															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Carers																
20-49 year-olds looking after children and not doing so																
Part-time	33	12	53	17	20	21	55	25	:	78	41	10	12	:	54	37
Full-time	67	88	47	83	80	79	45	75	:	22	59	90	88	:	46	63
Non-carers																
Part-time	18	16	17	10	16	15	16	17	:	26	14	10	9	:	21	17
Full-time	82	84	83	90	84	85	84	83	:	74	86	90	91	:	79	83
Carers																
50-64 year-olds looking after someone other than a child and not doing so																
Part-time	:	(20)	:	21.5	26.1	(20)	:	34.9	:	73.6	(29)	42.3	(7)	:	48.9	35.6
Full-time	:	(80)	:	78.5	73.9	(80)	:	65.1	:	26.4	(71)	57.7	(93)	:	51.1	64.4
Non-carers																
Part-time	23	25	:	24	21	20	49	25	:	62	29	18	6	:	40	28
Full-time	77	75	:	76	79	80	51	75	:	38	71	82	94	:	60	72

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.22 – Employment of men and women aged 20-49 and 50-64 by type of household, 1998

	<i>% of employed men/women in each age group</i>															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men	20-49 year-olds living alone															
With a child <16	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
With no child	77	83	82	81	70	66	68	69	:	82	86	71	53	83	66	75
Women	20-49 year-olds living with a spouse or partner															
With a child <16	47	66	64	74	68	68	57	87	:	62	80	84	45	67	64	67
With no child	61	67	84	62	68	71	70	61	:	83	84	62	63	61	84	73
Men	20-49 year-olds living with a spouse or partner															
With a child <16	92	95	94	97	91	93	86	95	:	97	97	98	86	92	91	93
With no child	77	87	86	77	69	72	76	71	:	90	87	83	70	88	90	80
Women	20-49 year-olds living with a spouse or partner															
With a child <16	65	80	64	54	41	68	48	42	:	66	63	70	63	79	69	60
With no child	55	84	76	49	43	59	63	44	:	78	72	67	67	80	85	65

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.23 – Concentration of men and women in employment by ISCO 3-digit occupation in the EU, 2000

Occupation	<i>Cumulative % of men/women employed in top 10 occupations</i>	<i>Cumulative % of all employed in top 10 occupations</i>
	Men	
832 Motor vehicle drivers	4.9	2.9
712 Building frame and related trades workers	9.6	5.7
713 Building finishers and related trades workers	13.6	8.0
723 Machinery mechanics and fitters	17.3	10.3
311 Physical and engineering science technicians	20.8	12.7
341 Finance and sales associate professionals	24.2	15.6
131 Managers of small enterprises	27.5	18.5
214 Architects, engineers and related professions	30.5	20.5
522 Shop, stall and market salespersons and demonstrators	33.4	25.6
122 Production and operation managers	36.3	27.8
Women		
522 Shop, stall and market salespersons and demonstrators	8.2	5.2
913 Domestic and related helpers, cleaners and laundresses	15.1	8.6
513 Personal care and related workers	21.9	11.8
419 Other office clerks	27.5	15.2
411 Secretaries and keyboard-operating clerks	32.9	17.9
512 Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	37.0	20.9
343 Administrative associate professionals	40.8	23.4
412 Numerical clerks	43.9	25.4
323 Nursing and midwifery associate professionals	46.7	26.8
232 Secondary education teaching professionals	49.3	28.7

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.24 – Share of men and women employed in selected occupations, 2000

	% of all men/women employed															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Nursing & teachers	4.3	4.7	2.9	3.2	2.7	4.1	2.5	2.6	4.5	4.0	2.6	1.6	3.3	3.8	2.9	3.1
Elementary occupations	9.8	12.3	6.6	4.5	11.9	5.9	9.1	8.3	5.8	8.0	5.7	9.6	6.4	3.3	7.3	7.6
Sales	6.9	5.7	5.1	9.9	9.4	6.0	8.3	12.9	7.2	7.2	8.1	8.4	5.0	7.1	8.3	7.9
Office clerks	10.5	6.2	7.5	7.8	6.2	6.2	5.7	9.9	10.9	6.4	8.5	6.8	2.9	5.2	8.1	7.5
Plant/machine operators	19.7	19.6	28.4	22.0	24.9	22.4	21.3	23.9	19.8	16.1	28.1	30.7	22.2	20.1	19.6	23.6
Craft and related trade workers	9.6	9.2	11.3	11.1	14.4	15.8	13.3	11.8	12.2	9.8	12.0	12.2	13.2	17.2	11.8	12.5
Women																
Nursing & teachers	17.2	14.1	10.9	10.7	9.1	11.2	13.0	14.7	13.1	13.0	12.5	5.6	18.3	14.7	11.5	11.8
Elementary occupations	12.1	12.6	10.2	8.1	18.4	10.5	6.7	9.7	20.2	9.6	12.5	19.2	8.6	7.2	8.3	10.7
Sales	17.1	25.6	19.8	17.3	22.1	20.8	23.8	20.8	14.4	20.7	21.5	18.8	19.3	29.5	23.8	21.3
Office clerks	23.0	17.2	20.0	17.6	15.9	24.0	23.7	20.4	21.6	19.4	21.4	13.2	14.7	16.0	26.0	21.0
Plant/machine operators	2.3	1.2	3.9	5.8	3.5	2.4	2.0	7.4	0.9	1.4	3.9	11.7	2.4	1.2	1.8	3.6
Craft and related trade workers	2.2	3.7	2.8	1.9	4.4	4.9	6.7	5.5	1.4	1.7	3.1	4.3	4.1	4.1	2.6	3.6

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.25 – Men and women self-employed as a proportion of total employed in industry and services, 2000

	% of men/women employed in industry and services															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
With employees	6.1	5.6	6.7	10.5	7.1	5.9	8.2	14.9	6.5	4.2	6.5	8.9	6.0	5.7	4.0	7.3
Without employees	9.8	4.1	5.3	20.7	11.4	5.1	9.6	12.6	2.2	5.7	2.9	11.2	6.8	7.5	10.3	8.5
Women																
With employees	2.2	1.5	2.5	3.7	3.4	1.9	2.6	8.2	3.6	1.7	3.1	3.8	2.1	1.7	1.5	2.9
Without employees	7.2	2.1	3.7	13.0	8.4	3.0	3.8	7.1	1.9	4.8	2.2	9.1	4.1	3.3	5.1	5.0

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.26 – Men and women self-employed with employees as a proportion of total employed in industry and services (excluding communal services), 2000

	% of men/women employed in industry and services															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men	7.3	6.3	7.1	12.1	8.0	6.6	8.9	17.4	7.6	4.7	6.7	10.1	6.7	6.5	4.3	8.2
Women	3.9	2.1	3.1	4.7	4.4	2.7	3.2	11.3	5.3	2.4	3.8	5.0	3.4	3.5	2.0	4.0

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.27 – Men and women employed in managerial positions, 2000

	% of men/women employed															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Directors, chief executives	4.1	2.6	1.5	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.2	2.3	1.2	2.2	3.0	0.6	2.6	0.4	0.6	1.3
Production, operations managers	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.0	0.7	4.3	0.6	1.4	0.7	5.6	1.5	0.7	2.1	2.0	7.9	3.1
Other managers	2.1	2.9	1.2	0.7	1.2	2.3	2.7	0.0	0.1	1.4	1.1	0.4	3.9	1.6	6.7	2.2
Managers of small enterprises	4.0	3.0	2.1	10.3	6.2	3.8	9.1	0.0	5.5	6.9	4.1	6.5	4.4	2.2	3.2	3.5
Women																
Directors, chief executives	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.2	0.8	1.4	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.4
Production, operations managers	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.6	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.9	0.8	0.4	1.2	1.0	3.6	1.3
Other managers	1.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	1.7	3.7	0.0	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.1	1.9	0.5	5.4	1.6
Managers of small enterprises	4.2	1.7	1.6	6.1	6.0	2.7	5.6	0.0	3.3	4.0	2.5	4.0	1.6	1.3	1.9	2.4

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.28 – Men and women employed in supervisory and intermediate positions, 1998

	% of men/women in each age group															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Aged 15-64																
Supervisory	20	17	:	16	17	15	12	7	:	9	4	14	23	:	25	16
Intermediate	14	18	:	27	24	16	18	8	:	19	7	32	16	:	17	17
Women																
Supervisory	9	6	:	7	8	8	5	3	:	4	2	6	8	:	17	8
Intermediate	15	11	:	15	19	17	14	5	:	14	6	19	18	:	16	14
Men																
Aged 25-49																
Supervisory	15	19	:	6	10	16	17	12	:	18	14	5	23	:	28	17
Intermediate	27	15	:	7	21	26	17	18	:	18	34	8	17	:	18	20
Women																
Supervisory	7	10	:	3	4	8	11	5	:	6	6	2	8	:	20	9
Intermediate	15	15	:	6	16	20	18	14	:	12	20	6	18	:	16	16
Men																
Aged 50-64																
Supervisory	24	27	:	11	13	28	22	15	:	20	23	7	32	:	31	22
Intermediate	29	12	:	13	22	21	19	21	:	19	30	8	17	:	16	19
Women																
Supervisory	11	9	:	5	2	10	6	6	:	9	11	1	9	:	18	9
Intermediate	18	14	:	7	12	19	22	15	:	11	17	8	19	:	15	15

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.29 – Full professors and associate professors, 1999 (head counts)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	% of total	
														S	UK
Full professors															
Men	92	92	93	90	85	86	95	88	:	94	94	83	82	88	88
Women	8	8	7	10	15	14	5	12	:	6	6	17	18	12	12
Associate professors															
Men	87	80	89	79	65	63	92	74	:	91	89	64	55	75	76
Women	13	20	11	21	35	37	8	26	:	9	11	36	45	25	24

B = estimated from Wallonie 2000 + Flanders 2001; D = 2000; EL, P = 1997, E, IRL, A = 1998;

P: includes only academic staff in R&D activities and excludes those only involved with teaching duties.

Source: Research DG, WiS database

A.30 – Researchers in the higher education and government sectors, 1999 (head counts)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	% of total	
																EU-15	
Higher education sector ¹																	
Men	67	73	74	56	66	71	54	71	:	:	74	55	58	62	:	69	
Women	33	27	26	44	34	29	46	29	:	:	26	45	42	38	:	31	
Government sector ²																	
Men	:	69	78	63	63	69	75	62	69	:	68	45	62	72	79	68	
Women	:	31	22	37	37	31	25	38	32	:	32	55	38	28	21	32	

¹ A = 1998, D = 2000, B = 2001; B: Flanders only.

² A, UK = 1998, L = 2000; D, IRL, S: full-time equivalent.

Source: Research DG, WiS database

A.31 – Full professors and researchers in candidate countries, 1999 (head counts)

	BG	CY	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	MT	PL	RO	SK	SI	TR	% of total	
Full professors ¹															
Men	81	95	93	82	87	89	80	98	84	:	93	88	:		
Women	19	5	7	18	13	11	20	2	16	:	7	12	:		
Researchers in higher education sector ²															
Men	68	73	69	59	65	58	49	:	:	:	59	67	:		
Women	32	27	31	41	35	42	51	:	:	:	41	33	:		
Researchers in government sector ²															
Men	51	69	69	49	63	54	48	:	68	:	55	57	:		
Women	49	31	31	51	37	46	52	:	32	:	45	43	:		

¹ HU = 1998; CZ, EE, LV, PL = 2000; HU, LT: full-time equivalent.

² HU, LT, LV, SK = 2000; LT, SK: full-time equivalent.

Source: Research DG, WiS database

A.32 – Rate of participation in CVT courses by sector of activity and size of enterprise, 1999

	% of all employees															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	
By sector of activity																
C-K, O (NACE sectors covered by the survey)																
Men	:	52	34	:	25	48	40	:	34	44	31	17	48	60	:	
Women	:	54	29	:	26	44	43	:	39	35	32	17	53	61	:	
D Manufacturing																
Men	:	48	31	:	27	45	45	:	39	41	29	16	49	62	:	
Women	:	46	26	:	22	38	44	:	25	34	23	12	45	61	:	
G Wholesale and retail trade																
Men	:	57	30	:	26	48	29	:	37	42	37	20	45	54	:	
Women	:	56	24	:	29	43	31	:	39	31	33	27	50	57	:	
J Financial intermediation																
Men	:	63	44	:	62	77	54	:	51	64	49	47	60	78	:	
Women	:	65	39	:	61	68	49	:	50	66	61	47	53	87	:	
K Real estate, renting and business activities																
Men	:	59	43	:	25	45	48	:	60	41	26	15	51	67	:	
Women	:	56	23	:	19	43	43	:	51	29	29	10	55	63	:	
O Other community, social, personal service activities																
Men	:	59	36	:	15	35	24	:	26	40	17	15	45	55	:	
Women	:	59	41	:	22	39	50	:	13	37	24	12	52	57	:	
By size of enterprise																
10-49 employees																
Men	:	46	24	:	10	22	23	:	19	39	23	4	34	50	:	
Women	:	52	26	:	11	25	35	:	21	29	26	4	47	52	:	
50-249 employees																
Men	:	50	29	:	20	40	43	:	30	44	28	13	40	53	:	
Women	:	50	25	:	20	35	39	:	36	36	30	10	44	52	:	
250 employees and more																
Men	:	55	39	:	44	60	60	:	49	46	37	36	57	67	:	
Women	:	55	30	:	39	54	54	:	49	37	37	33	59	68	:	

Source: Eurostat, CVTS2

A.33 – Men and women aged 25-49 and 50-64 who had been in education or training, 1998

	% of men/women in each age group																
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15	
Men																	
Aged 25-49																	
General education course	11	6	8	2	8	3	8	5	:	2	7	4	14	4	1	5	
Vocational training course	22	53	4	7	15	8	14	7	:	11	23	4	37	62	35	15	
Women																	
General education course	12	10	8	2	12	3	12	7	:	1	7	5	16	6	1	6	
Vocational training course	19	57	3	6	18	9	13	10	:	11	25	4	45	67	38	16	
Men																	
Aged 50-64																	
General education course	5	14	2	0	1	1	3	2	:	0	4	1	9	2	0	2	
Vocational training course	13	40	0	3	10	4	6	4	:	2	16	2	32	56	24	9	
Women																	
General education course	11	8	2	0	2	1	10	3	:	0	6	1	13	4	0	2	
Vocational training course	9	45	1	1	8	6	10	9	:	3	13	1	39	64	31	12	

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.34 – Rate of participation in CVT courses by sector of activity and size of enterprise in candidate countries, 1999

	<i>% of all employees</i>												
	BG	CY	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK	TR
By sector of activity													
C-K, O (NACE sectors covered by the survey)													
Men	16	:	46	18	13	10	13	:	17	8	32	:	:
Women	9	:	35	20	11	9	12	:	15	7	33	:	:
D Manufacturing													
Men	15	:	49	16	12	11	10	:	18	9	37	:	:
Women	6	:	32	12	9	7	10	:	15	6	36	:	:
G Wholesale and retail trade													
Men	7	:	32	21	9	5	10	:	12	1	21	:	:
Women	6	:	21	21	7	5	7	:	10	2	24	:	:
J Financial intermediation													
Men	20	:	76	62	47	33	41	:	28	14	59	:	:
Women	41	:	67	67	44	31	40	:	39	12	55	:	:
K Real estate, renting and business activities													
Men	6	:	40	12	9	10	11	:	27	7	25	:	:
Women	5	:	30	13	15	12	12	:	14	4	29	:	:
O Other community, social, personal service activities													
Men	5	:	27	6	7	5	10	:	3	3	6	:	:
Women	9	:	21	6	8	5	9	:	10	15	19	:	:
By size of enterprise													
10-49 employees													
Men	5	:	27	12	7	4	7	:	8	1	11	:	:
Women	3	:	19	12	7	4	8	:	9	2	15	:	:
50-249 employees													
Men	5	:	39	19	9	6	9	:	15	2	20	:	:
Women	4	:	26	18	9	5	9	:	12	2	21	:	:
250 employees and more													
Men	25	:	58	27	21	19	21	:	28	12	46	:	:
Women	13	:	44	31	16	15	16	:	24	9	46	:	:

PL: refers to Pomorskie region only.

Source: Eurostat, CVTS2

A.35 – Earnings of men and women aged 20 and over, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Average gross hourly earnings of women in full-time employment, 1998 (% of men's earnings in each age group)																
Aged 20 and over	90	94	76	83	89	88	84	86	:	84	81	92	85	:	81	83
Aged 20-29	100	99	83	92	95	96	95	91	:	96	83	105	86	:	94	91
Aged 30-39	97	96	76	91	98	99	89	90	:	89	84	84	88	:	86	88
Aged 40-49	86	90	80	78	88	87	85	87	:	93	88	93	82	:	76	84
Aged 50-59	92	88	71	79	90	75	85	80	:	77	74	90	83	:	74	77
Women in the top and bottom 10 % hourly wage-earners, 1998 (% of full-time employees)																
Top 10 %	18	23	15	20	23	30	19	15	:	11	11	45	24	:	20	20
Bottom 10 %	45	41	59	48	47	62	40	45	:	41	68	51	58	:	57	54
Average gross hourly earnings of women in the public and private sector, 1998 (% of men's earnings in each sector)																
Public sector	92	97	77	91	93	89	90	101	:	79	92	108	83	:	83	87
Private sector	88	92	73	79	83	84	82	89	:	81	76	79	85	:	85	82
Share of men and women full-time employees working in the public sector, 1998 (% of full-time men/women employees)																
Men	29	31	24	37	19	26	29	16	:	22	25	15	31	:	17	22
Women	37	55	37	32	32	38	29	23	:	32	30	24	55	:	35	35
Average gross earnings of men and women with tertiary level education, 1998 (% of all with low education)																
Men	132	142	156	169	176	164	170	176	:	:	178	276	146	:	146	141
Women	110	130	119	138	143	124	136	138	:	:	134	237	118	:	118	112
Average gross earnings of men and women with upper secondary level education, 1998 (% of all with low education)																
Men	107	119	123	123	124	:	128	126	:	:	131	140	111	:	117	121
Women	99	110	94	100	106	:	105	109	:	:	108	128	95	:	104	101
Average gross earnings of men and women with lower secondary level education, 1998 (% of all with low education)																
Men	104	104	110	106	105	121	106	105	:	:	107	108	109	:	106	110
Women	87	93	80	86	83	79	84	87	:	:	91	88	91	:	90	85

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.36 – Risk of poverty among men and women aged 16-64, 1997

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men and women aged 18-64 at risk of poverty, 1997¹ (% of men/women <65 with income <60 % of the median)																
At risk of poverty																
Men	11	6	11	18	18	17	13	17	:	10	9	15	8	11	11	14
Women	16	7	15	20	20	16	15	19	:	12	12	16	8	11	16	16
At continuous risk of poverty²																
Men	4	1	5	6	6	9	7	8	:	4	3	8	:	:	4	6
Women	7	1	6	8	6	8	6	10	:	4	4	9	:	:	6	7
Distribution of men and women aged 16-64 with equivalised income <60 % of the median by household type, 1997 (% of men/women 16-64)																
Men																
Single without dependent children	13	55	34	4	2	17	20	4	:	35	16	4	51	60	16	19
Single with dependent children	3	1	1	0	1	1	3	1	:	2	2	3	2	3	4	2
Couple or other without dependent children	24	27	25	37	20	18	16	28	:	20	25	30	26	11	26	24
Couple or other with dependent children	60	17	39	58	78	63	62	67	:	44	58	63	20	26	54	55
Women																
Single without dependent children	13	57	22	5	2	13	9	4	:	23	18	4	40	46	17	15
Single with dependent children	9	5	14	2	3	7	17	2	:	10	11	6	8	16	18	10
Couple or other without dependent children	22	22	24	38	22	21	12	26	:	25	23	27	24	12	24	23
Couple or other with dependent children	55	15	40	55	73	59	63	68	:	41	48	63	27	26	41	52
Distribution of men and women aged 16-64 with equivalised income <60 % of the median by employment status, 1997³ (% of men/women 16-64)																
Men																
Part-time employed	0	6	5	2	1	2	2	4	:	19	3	3	4	4	4	4
Full-time employed	20	17	30	58	38	30	18	36	:	47	51	62	20	44	37	35
Inactive	52	71	33	29	29	43	31	28	:	28	31	25	45	29	42	35
Unemployed	27	6	32	11	32	26	49	33	:	6	15	10	32	23	17	26
Women																
Part-time employed	2	15	6	5	2	4	2	2	:	33	9	6	5	10	17	8
Full-time employed	6	15	11	19	9	15	7	9	:	13	19	33	11	28	11	12
Inactive	77	67	68	63	70	65	85	73	:	44	66	51	61	44	67	66
Unemployed	16	3	15	13	19	16	6	15	:	10	7	10	23	18	5	14

¹ Those aged 16 and 17 are excluded from the definition of working age to avoid including those under 16 in the two earlier years.

² Continuous poverty is defined as income <60 % of the median in 1997, 1996 and 1995. FIN, S: no continuous data for the period.

³ NL, S: employment status refer to 1998.

FIN: 1996.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.37 – Causes of death of men and women by age group in the EU, 1998

	Standardised deaths per 100 000 men/women					
	Aged 30-39		Aged 40-54		Aged 55-64	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Respiratory diseases	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.5	3.1	1.4
Digestive system diseases	0.6	0.3	2.5	1.0	4.3	1.8
External causes	4.0	1.0	4.3	1.3	3.7	1.3
Circulatory diseases ¹	0.7	0.4	3.0	1.6	8.6	4.2
Others	2.5	0.9	4.0	1.8	6.5	3.7
Ischaemic heart diseases	0.5	0.1	3.9	0.7	11.5	3.0
Malignant neoplasms	1.3	1.5	8.9	7.2	25.9	15.1

¹ Excluding ischaemic heart diseases.

Source: Eurostat, Health statistics

A.38 – Men and women aged 25-64 killed in road accidents, 1998

	Per 100 000 men/women 25-64	
	Men	Women
B	22	7
DK	11	4
D	13	4
EL	30	8
E	26	7
F	22	7
IRL	17	6
I	16	4
L	:	:
NL	11	4
A	18	5
P	39	7
FIN	11	4
S	9	2
UK	9	3
EU-15	17	5

DK, IRL: 1997; EL, I, NL: 1994.

Source: Eurostat, Transport statistics

A.39 – Men and women treated for drug problems for the first time, 1999

	% of total	
	Men	Women
B	74	26
DK	74	26
D	82	18
EL	83	17
E	84	16
F	80	20
IRL	73	27
I	86	14
L	75	25
NL	84	16
A	68	32
P	80	20
FIN	75	25
S	70	30
UK	74	26

Source: EMCDDA, 2001 annual report

A.40 – Incidence rate of accidents at work suffered by men and women, standardised for sectoral structure, 1998 (> 3-day absence)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	Accidents per 100 000 employed															
Men	6455	3956	6578	3826	8609	6532	1961	4987	5969	:	4408	8243	4418	1543	1867	5268
Women	2201	1745	2123	1110	3476	2146	594	2047	1967	:	1512	2781	1586	882	873	1890
Accidents per 100 000 FTE employed																
Men	6114	4415	6250	3331	8455	6250	1612	4856	5326	:	4071	8225	4562	1613	1695	5073
Women	2283	2543	3123	1384	3974	2292	839	2072	2526	:	1441	2666	1996	1101	1047	2298

Source: Eurostat, ESAW

A.41 – Prevalence rate of work-related complaints of men and women, standardised for occupational structure, 1999

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	<i>Number reporting complaints per 100 000 FTE employed</i>															
Men	:	11530	:	77	3729	:	3904	4929	9500	:	:	2064	29638	13599	4433	8225
Women	:	22975	:	21	4752	:	5362	5930	12600	:	:	2344	52203	20180	6248	8154

Source Eurostat, LFS

A.42 – Self-perception of health of men and women aged 25-64, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	<i>% of total in each category</i>															
Men	All income levels															
Good	81	80	53	87	74	63	84	70	:	80	78	54	66	80	74	71
Fair	15	16	32	8	19	31	13	24	:	17	18	31	29	15	18	22
Bad	4	4	16	4	7	5	3	6	:	3	4	16	6	5	8	7
Women																
Good	73	80	47	81	72	59	83	60	:	74	77	42	68	79	70	66
Fair	22	15	36	12	19	33	15	32	:	21	17	38	26	16	20	25
Bad	5	5	17	6	9	8	2	8	:	4	5	20	6	5	10	9
Men	Income below 60 % of the median															
Good	69	68	37	77	72	51	71	62	:	71	70	31	73	70	62	57
Fair	19	21	41	11	18	38	21	28	:	24	23	42	25	24	24	30
Bad	12	11	22	12	10	11	8	11	:	5	8	27	2	7	14	13
Women																
Good	70	84	34	76	69	41	69	56	:	60	71	27	62	75	65	53
Fair	27	9	43	14	18	41	25	33	:	31	22	42	27	19	21	32
Bad	3	8	23	10	13	18	6	11	:	9	7	30	10	6	14	15

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.43 – Visits to a general practitioner over past year of men and women aged 25-64, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	<i>% of men/women 25-64</i>															
Men																
No visits	23	38	:	64	40	:	38	30	:	38	25	40	36	:	34	35
1-6 visits	66	57	:	33	51	:	53	60	:	57	63	51	60	:	55	55
> 6 visits	11	5	:	3	9	:	9	11	:	5	12	9	4	:	11	9
Women																
No visits	14	22	:	51	33	:	24	20	:	24	16	23	25	:	19	24
1-6 visits	66	69	:	44	52	:	59	60	:	65	68	61	67	:	60	59
> 6 visits	20	9	:	5	15	:	16	20	:	11	16	16	7	:	21	17

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.44 – Number of nights spent in hospital over past year by men and women aged 25-64, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of men/women 25-64</i>																
Men																
None	92	94	90	96	93	93	92	93	:	95	90	95	90	97	93	93
1-7 nights	6	4	4	2	4	5	5	4	:	4	6	3	8	2	5	4
8 or more nights	3	2	6	2	2	3	3	3	:	1	5	2	2	1	2	3
Women																
None	89	90	88	95	92	90	90	92	:	92	88	95	87	96	89	91
1-7 nights	7	7	5	3	5	7	7	5	:	6	6	3	10	3	9	6
8 or more nights	4	3	7	2	3	3	3	3	:	2	6	2	3	1	2	4

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.45 – The relative number of men and women aged 65 and over by age group, 2000

		<i>% of men/women in each age group</i>															
		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
		Aged 65-74															
Men		45	46	45	46	45	45	47	45	45	46	44	43	44	46	46	45
Women		55	54	55	54	55	55	53	55	55	54	56	57	56	54	54	55
		Aged 75-84															
Men		38	39	32	42	39	39	40	38	33	37	33	39	33	41	39	37
Women		62	61	68	58	61	61	60	62	67	63	67	61	67	59	61	63
		Aged 85 and over															
Men		26	29	24	41	31	28	31	29	25	26	26	29	24	31	27	28
Women		74	71	76	59	69	72	69	71	75	74	74	71	76	69	73	72

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

A.46 – Life expectancy of men and women at age 65, 75 and 85, 1980 and 1999

		<i>Number of years</i>															
		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
		At age 65															
1980	Men	13	14	13	15	15	14	13	13	12	14	13	13	13	14	13	13
	Women	17	18	17	17	18	18	16	17	16	19	16	17	17	18	17	17
1999	Men	15	15	16	16	16	16	14	16	15	15	16	15	15	16	15	16
	Women	19	18	19	19	20	20	18	20	20	19	19	18	19	20	19	19
		At age 75															
1980	Men	8	8	8	9	9	8	7	8	7	9	7	8	7	8	7	7
	Women	10	11	10	10	11	11	9	10	9	11	9	9	9	11	10	9
1999	Men	9	9	9	10	10	10	8	10	9	9	10	8	9	10	9	9
	Women	12	11	12	11	12	13	10	12	12	12	12	10	11	12	11	12
		At age 85															
1980	Men	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5
	Women	5	6	5	5	6	6	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	6	6	5
1999	Men	5	5	5	6	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	3	5	5	5	5
	Women	6	6	6	5	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	4	6	6	6	6

F, I: 1980-98; D 1980: excluding new Länder; EU-15 estimate.

Source: Eurostat, DEMO database

A.47 – Contribution of men and women to the projected growth of population of those aged 65 and over and 85 and over, 2000-2010 and 2010-2025

		<i>Increase in men/women of 65+/85+ as % of men and women in 2000</i>															
		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
		Aged 65 and over															
2000-10	Men	4	8	15	6	4	5	7	7	11	9	10	3	9	6	4	7
	Women	3	5	10	8	5	5	7	7	8	7	6	6	6	3	2	6
2010-25	Men	17	16	9	9	9	17	24	9	21	23	13	10	22	13	15	12
	Women	15	15	8	9	11	20	27	8	19	24	11	12	22	12	15	12
		Aged 85 and over															
2000-10	Men	9	4	2	5	13	6	4	7	4	10	2	9	10	7	6	6
	Women	10	3	3	15	27	9	15	14	15	16	10	22	18	9	4	10
2010-25	Men	16	11	34	29	11	14	15	20	29	16	16	14	21	4	11	19
	Women	21	7	33	41	21	21	21	29	31	19	7	32	19	0	11	23

Source: Eurostat, Population projections

A.48 – Proportion of men and women aged 65 and over and 85 and over, 2000, 2010 and 2025

		<i>% total population</i>															
		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
		Aged 65 and over															
2000	Men	6.8	6.2	6.2	7.7	7.0	6.5	4.8	7.3	5.6	5.5	5.9	6.3	5.7	7.3	6.5	6.6
	Women	9.9	8.7	10.1	9.6	9.7	9.4	6.4	10.7	8.7	8.0	9.6	9.1	9.2	10.0	9.1	9.7
2010	Men	7.4	7.1	8.5	8.5	7.5	6.9	5.1	8.6	6.6	6.5	7.4	6.5	6.9	8.2	7.0	7.6
	Women	10.3	9.1	11.5	10.8	10.5	9.8	6.5	12.0	9.1	8.5	10.4	9.7	9.8	10.4	9.2	10.4
2025	Men	10.1	9.5	10.4	10.2	9.3	9.6	7.2	10.9	9.1	9.4	9.6	7.9	10.5	10.3	9.1	9.8
	Women	12.7	11.3	13.1	12.4	12.7	12.7	8.9	14.3	11.0	11.6	12.3	11.3	13.4	12.3	11.3	12.6
		Aged 85 and over															
2000	Men	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.5
	Women	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.5	0.8	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.4	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.4
2010	Men	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.6
	Women	1.5	1.3	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.7	0.8	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.0	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.5
2025	Men	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.0	0.5	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.0
	Women	1.9	1.4	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.0	2.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.0

Source: Eurostat, Population projections

A.49 – Men and women aged 65 and over and 75 and over by type of household, 1998

	<i>% of men/women in each age group</i>															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men	Aged 65 and over															
Single	21	25	14	14	8	18	22	12	:	21	16	12	21	27	24	16
Couple with at least one person 65+	64	72	72	60	52	65	47	61	:	72	56	53	70	72	67	65
3 or more people+Other	14	3	14	26	39	17	31	28	:	7	28	35	9	1	8	19
Women	Aged 65 and over															
Single	53	57	53	37	24	46	37	39	:	53	47	29	50	53	52	44
Couple with at least one person 65+	39	42	39	42	41	43	42	41	:	43	29	39	44	47	43	41
3 or more people+Other	8	1	8	21	35	11	21	20	:	3	24	31	6	0	6	15
Men	Aged 75 and over															
Single	36	40	22	21	13	25	31	16	:	32	22	21	31	33	35	24
Couple with at least one person 65+	55	60	70	62	56	64	48	68	:	66	52	52	64	67	59	64
3 or more people+Other	9	0	7	17	31	11	21	16	:	2	26	27	5	0	6	12
Women	Aged 75 and over															
Single	72	73	69	50	28	61	46	50	:	69	59	39	62	68	66	57
Couple with at least one person 65+	23	26	25	27	34	30	38	33	:	29	20	32	32	32	30	30
3 or more people+Other	5	0	5	23	38	9	17	17	:	2	22	29	6	0	4	13

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.50 – Employment of men and women aged 65-74, 2000

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Employment rate (% of men/women 65-74)																
Men	2.6	6.4	5.6	11.8	3.7	2.3	19.2	7.6	3.1	5.9	5.7	30.8	6.7	14.6	11.0	7.1
Women	1.7	3.2	2.1	4.1	1.6	1.0	4.6	1.9	2.0	2.4	3.0	17.8	2.0	6.2	5.8	3.0
Distribution of men and women by average usual hours worked per week (% of total)																
Men																
0-14 hours	9	34	27	1	5	17	4	5	7	41	15	8	29	42	30	19
15-29 hours	34	30	19	7	14	18	15	10	19	28	15	23	17	28	30	20
30 and more hours	57	37	53	92	81	66	81	85	73	32	70	69	54	30	41	62
Women																
0-14 hours	32	45	53	5	9	21	24	8	29	70	18	16	21	66	54	35
15-29 hours	13	26	17	14	25	25	21	23	7	8	15	34	25	12	29	24
30 and more hours	55	29	30	81	66	54	55	68	65	21	67	51	54	22	17	41
Distribution of men and women by professional status (% of total)																
Men																
Employees	26	62	37	14	40	34	22	19	:	52	27	16	23	26	56	35
Unpaid family workers	4	0	6	6	5	23	2	8	:	0	37	3	23	14	3	9
Self-employed	70	38	56	80	55	43	76	73	:	48	37	80	54	60	41	56
Women																
Employees	16	64	49	11	45	35	51	31	:	45	34	18	49	64	77	44
Unpaid family workers	29	21	22	42	14	11	10	24	:	1	35	9	13	0	3	17
Self-employed	55	15	29	47	42	54	39	46	:	53	31	73	38	36	20	39

Source: Eurostat, LFS

A.51 – Average equivalised income of men and women aged 65 and over, 1997

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of average income of people under 65</i>																
Aged 65 and over																
Men	111	77	102	75	98	98	77	97	:	98	91	82	95	99	73	88
Women	97	70	90	69	94	89	71	90	:	89	80	75	79	87	63	80
Aged 65 and over living alone																
Men	101	67	97	76	102	92	58	100	:	109	99	74	85	76	64	84
Women	82	63	79	56	73	80	52	79	:	81	71	59	66	72	52	69
Aged 75 and over																
Men	103	68	104	68	98	93	67	93	:	91	85	72	94	90	69	83
Women	94	65	86	61	90	84	63	86	:	82	76	68	73	74	57	75

FIN: 1996.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.52 – Men and women aged 65 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median, 1997

	% of men/women in each age group															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
	Aged 65 and over															
Men	20	20	9	35	15	16	15	13	:	6	15	30	5	5	32	16
Women	21	32	16	37	14	19	30	18	:	5	25	37	10	9	45	21
	Aged 75 and over															
Men	24	31	8	40	13	17	19	11	:	6	15	40	2	6	39	18
Women	22	42	17	47	13	24	37	20	:	5	29	44	14	16	50	25

FIN: 1996.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.53 – Men and women aged 67 and over ¹ at continuous risk of poverty, 1997 ²

	% of men/women aged 67+															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men	8.0	7.9	4.1	23.0	7.7	8.3	6.4	4.7	:	1.3	7.6	20.6	:	:	14.5	8.1
Women	12.3	12.1	9.6	24.9	5.4	11.5	21.2	7.5	:	0.0	14.5	25.5	:	:	24.9	12.4

¹ 67 is taken here as the age limit as to distinguish those who were 65 or over in the two earlier years.

² Continuous poverty is defined as income < 60 % of the median in 1997, 1996 and 1995.

FIN, S: no continuous data for the period.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.54 – Men and women aged 65 and over with equivalised income below 60 % of the median by type of household, 1997

	% of men/women 65+ in each household type															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Single	14	26	13	25	3	22	42	19	:	5	3	43	7	9	46	20
Couple	22	19	8	38	20	13	9	12	:	5	18	38	3	3	30	16
Other	15	0	10	35	12	24	6	14	:	17	16	14	16	21	15	15
Women																
Single	23	40	24	42	11	25	71	26	:	6	38	53	19	15	58	30
Couple	21	20	7	35	18	15	7	14	:	5	17	35	1	3	32	16
Other	6	0	4	31	11	12	4	10	:	1	8	24	3	0	13	10

FIN: 1996

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.55 – Social relations of men and women aged 65 and over, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	A	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
<i>% of men/women 65+</i>																
Men and women aged 65 and over member of a club																
Men	40	68	30	7	29	36	34	17	:	37	22	52	55	66	:	31
Women	38	62	16	4	18	27	25	5	:	33	6	31	54	63	:	20
Frequency with which men and women aged 65 and over talk to their neighbours																
Men																
Often	82	80	:	97	93	54	96	84	:	76	82	89	85	:	91	81
Sometimes	8	10	:	2	3	29	3	7	:	10	10	6	8	:	5	11
Rarely	10	10	:	1	4	17	1	9	:	14	8	5	7	:	4	9
Women																
Often	79	78	:	94	92	48	91	85	:	77	84	89	82	:	90	79
Sometimes	10	11	:	3	4	35	6	6	:	10	9	4	9	:	6	12
Rarely	11	11	:	3	4	18	3	9	:	13	8	7	9	:	4	9
Frequency with which men and women aged 65 and over meet friends or relatives																
Men																
Often	70	77	61	89	92	51	93	75	:	81	58	68	75	76	83	71
Sometimes	15	20	27	8	5	30	5	16	:	14	27	16	17	17	12	19
Rarely	15	3	13	4	3	19	1	10	:	5	15	16	8	7	5	10
Women																
Often	73	75	67	85	89	46	93	72	:	83	60	66	76	87	86	72
Sometimes	17	21	23	9	7	33	5	14	:	13	27	17	14	10	10	18
Rarely	9	4	10	6	4	21	2	13	:	4	12	17	10	3	4	10

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.56 – Causes of death of men and women by age group in the EU, 1998

	Standardised deaths per 100 000 men/women					
	Aged 65-74		Aged 75-84		Aged 85+	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
External causes	3.2	2.8	6.4	1.4	1.7	4.2
Digestive system diseases	4.8	4.1	7.5	2.5	3.0	5.4
Respiratory diseases	8.6	13.5	32.3	3.5	5.8	15.6
Others	10.4	13.3	34.4	6.8	10.6	27.7
Ischaemic heart diseases	20.5	22.0	36.4	7.8	12.6	24.0
Malignant neoplasms	39.0	31.0	35.9	18.9	16.0	15.5
Circulatory diseases ¹	18.9	27.3	69.3	10.9	21.2	56.7

¹ Excluding ischaemic heart diseases.

Source: Eurostat, Health statistics

A.57 – Self-perception of health of men and women aged 65 and over, 1998

	% of men/women 65+															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
Good	52	50	21	41	37	30	58	26	:	56	38	11	23	60	57	37
Fair	38	32	49	34	38	49	36	41	:	38	43	40	58	31	29	40
Bad	10	18	30	25	25	22	6	33	:	6	19	48	19	9	14	23
Women																
Good	45	47	19	31	26	24	50	20	:	44	34	8	22	52	53	30
Fair	41	37	41	40	39	54	38	42	:	45	41	32	50	37	30	41
Bad	14	16	40	28	35	22	12	38	:	11	25	60	28	12	17	29

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.58 – Visits to a general practitioner over past year by men and women aged 65 and over, 1998

	% of men/women 65+															
	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Men																
No visits	14	18	:	25	21	:	12	11	:	21	8	16	28	:	19	17
1-6 visits	43	63	:	57	46	:	59	46	:	64	53	58	68	:	60	52
> 6 visits	43	19	:	18	33	:	29	43	:	15	39	26	4	:	21	32
Women																
No visits	7	16	:	21	16	:	7	8	:	13	9	11	22	:	16	12
1-6 visits	40	61	:	58	45	:	59	42	:	67	42	54	70	:	54	48
> 6 visits	53	23	:	21	39	:	35	50	:	20	49	36	7	:	30	39

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.59 – Nights spent in hospital over past year by men and women aged 65 and over, 1998

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	% of men/women 65+		
														S	UK	EU-15
Men																
None	78	81	83	86	83	79	76	82	:	82	69	88	73	92	85	82
1-7 nights	6	8	4	6	7	8	16	8	:	8	11	5	12	5	7	7
8 or more nights	16	12	13	8	10	13	8	10	:	9	19	7	16	4	8	11
Women																
None	81	81	82	88	86	80	77	85	:	86	72	89	74	93	83	83
1-7 nights	7	7	4	6	6	10	9	5	:	6	10	5	14	4	8	7
8 or more nights	12	12	14	6	8	10	14	10	:	7	19	6	12	3	8	10

FIN: 1997.

Source: Eurostat, ECHP-UDB, ver. December 2001

A.60 – Key employment indicators in Member States, 1990, 1995 and 2000

		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Employment rates by age group (% of men/women in each age group)																	
1990^{1,2}																	
15-24	Men	33.3	67.8	59.1	37.4	38.4	39.7	42.8	38.8	44.0	53.8	:	58.7	:	:	68.0	49.8
	Women	27.5	62.2	55.1	23.8	25.9	32.0	37.5	27.8	41.7	52.1	:	46.0	:	:	60.5	41.5
25-54	Men	88.5	87.5	90.4	91.2	85.3	90.1	81.3	90.2	95.3	88.8	:	91.7	:	:	89.5	89.5
	Women	54.6	80.4	67.1	47.1	37.0	64.6	38.6	46.3	47.6	51.7	:	63.4	:	:	68.6	58.5
55-64	Men	34.3	66.0	53.5	58.4	57.0	37.0	60.2	50.9	40.9	44.6	:	64.7	:	:	62.4	52.1
	Women	9.4	42.4	24.1	23.9	18.2	25.0	17.8	14.7	13.6	15.7	:	31.1	:	:	36.8	23.3
15-64	Men	68.1	80.2	78.4	73.4	68.2	71.0	67.8	72.0	76.7	75.2	:	78.6	:	:	80.5	74.7
	Women	40.8	70.7	57.2	37.5	30.7	50.9	35.6	36.4	40.8	46.7	:	53.3	:	:	61.7	48.7
1995																	
15-24	Men	28.9	71.1	49.8	33.2	28.3	28.7	38.6	31.1	40.0	55.0	60.9	40.0	30.2	38.7	55.7	40.3
	Women	24.1	60.9	46.2	20.2	19.7	23.6	34.1	21.1	37.5	54.0	55.3	32.2	28.4	43.2	51.8	34.1
25-54	Men	86.5	87.3	87.3	89.7	78.6	86.8	81.1	83.6	91.5	87.7	89.8	88.6	75.3	86.1	84.8	85.3
	Women	60.6	75.9	66.3	49.1	40.1	67.5	48.8	47.0	50.0	60.5	69.9	69.0	71.5	83.5	69.5	61.1
55-64	Men	34.6	63.5	48.8	58.9	47.6	33.6	60.6	42.3	33.3	39.8	40.9	58.8	34.7	67.2	56.1	46.8
	Women	12.8	36.1	27.0	23.7	17.5	25.5	19.7	13.1	13.6	18.0	18.3	33.5	34.2	59.0	39.3	25.2
15-64	Men	67.0	80.8	73.9	72.2	60.8	67.3	66.9	65.7	73.6	75.0	77.6	71.2	61.4	74.6	74.8	70.1
	Women	45.4	67.0	55.3	38.1	31.2	52.0	41.3	35.6	41.9	53.2	59.3	54.3	58.1	72.3	61.4	49.6
2000																	
15-24	Men	33.7	70.3	48.6	31.9	37.0	31.4	52.8	30.2	35.4	69.9	56.5	47.7	47.0	36.6	58.2	43.3
	Women	26.7	64.0	43.6	22.0	26.4	25.2	43.8	22.0	28.5	66.7	48.6	36.1	43.8	37.1	53.5	36.5
25-54	Men	87.9	88.3	87.4	88.6	85.4	87.3	88.1	84.6	92.8	92.2	89.7	90.2	84.6	84.1	87.5	87.1
	Women	67.8	80.4	71.1	52.6	50.6	69.6	62.8	50.7	63.0	70.9	73.5	73.9	77.6	80.9	73.1	65.7
55-64	Men	35.1	61.9	46.2	55.3	54.8	32.8	63.0	40.3	37.6	49.9	41.3	62.6	41.8	67.0	59.8	47.6
	Women	15.4	46.3	28.7	24.4	19.9	26.0	27.1	15.2	16.6	25.8	17.8	42.3	40.6	61.7	41.4	27.7
15-64	Men	69.8	80.7	72.7	71.3	69.6	68.8	75.6	67.6	75.0	82.1	76.2	76.2	71.1	72.6	77.9	72.4
	Women	51.9	72.1	57.8	41.3	40.3	54.8	53.4	39.3	50.0	63.4	59.7	60.4	65.2	69.7	64.5	53.8
FTE employment rates of men and women aged 15-64 (% of men/women 15-64)																	
1990 ^{1,2}	Men	70.8	76.4	78.3	74.3	68.4	71.9	70.6	73.6	77.4	69.1	:	79.5	:	:	81.4	75.1
	Women	35.2	56.1	47.7	34.5	27.8	43.5	28.3	32.7	36.9	29.1	:	49.5	:	:	42.6	39.8
1995	Men	67.5	78.7	74.1	75.1	61.1	69.1	69.2	67.6	76.6	69.6	79.2	75.0	61.2	73.6	75.2	70.8
	Women	37.8	54.6	44.9	34.8	27.6	44.4	32.3	31.7	35.9	32.6	52.3	49.7	52.0	59.4	43.0	40.3
2000	Men	70.3	79.4	72.4	73.7	70.2	70.6	79.1	69.2	77.9	75.5	76.7	78.2	71.6	71.1	77.2	72.7
	Women	41.7	58.9	44.5	38.0	35.4	47.1	41.9	34.4	42.3	39.0	50.4	55.5	58.1	58.8	46.0	43.2
Employment rates by education attainment level of men and women aged 25-59, 2000 (% of men/women 25-59 for each education level)³																	
Low	Men	74.6	77.4	73.0	84.8	80.4	75.3	:	76.9	83.2	82.7	73.7	88.7	72.2	77.1	74.8	77.7
	Women	42.3	63.3	51.7	39.8	35.1	53.7	:	32.8	49.7	49.5	54.0	69.0	64.9	65.7	60.0	47.1
Medium	Men	88.6	88.7	84.1	86.5	86.7	87.3	:	84.4	92.1	92.4	87.0	88.4	82.0	84.9	88.6	86.2
	Women	68.7	80.7	69.7	50.0	57.8	71.0	:	61.7	60.5	74.2	70.0	81.2	74.3	82.3	77.3	69.4
High	Men	88.4	90.8	87.9	83.7	81.1	85.9	:	83.5	86.2	90.0	90.2	92.9	87.3	87.2	89.2	86.9
	Women	84.0	88.6	82.0	77.2	73.6	81.8	:	77.0	77.9	84.9	85.1	91.2	84.3	86.9	84.8	81.8

A.60 – Key employment indicators in Member States, 1990, 1995 and 2000 (continued)

		B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	EU-15
Harmonised unemployment rates (% male/female labour force)																	
1990 ⁴	Men	4.0	6.8	4.6	3.9	9.6	6.6	12.8	6.2	1.2	4.1	2.9	3.3	3.6	1.7	7.2	7.0
	Women	10.4	7.6	6.9	10.8	19.8	11.3	14.6	13.5	2.5	8.5	3.4	6.7	2.7	1.7	6.4	10.0
1995	Men	7.6	5.6	7.1	6.2	14.9	9.5	12.2	8.8	2.0	5.5	3.1	6.5	15.7	9.7	9.9	9.0
	Women	12.7	8.1	9.6	14.1	25.3	13.5	12.5	16.1	4.3	8.1	5.0	8.2	15.1	7.8	6.7	11.8
2000	Men	5.6	4.1	7.6	7.3	7.9	7.6	4.2	8.0	1.8	2.1	3.1	3.3	9.0	6.0	5.9	6.8
	Women	8.5	4.8	8.3	16.8	16.7	11.2	4.2	14.3	3.1	3.6	4.3	5.0	10.6	5.8	4.7	9.3
Youth unemployment ratios (% of men/women 15-24)																	
1990 ^{5,6}	Men	4.1	8.6	2.7	:	13.7	7.4	10.8	11.6	1.5	4.4	:	5.1	6.9	3.3	9.1	7.6
	Women	6.9	8.1	2.8	:	16.9	9.5	8.2	12.7	2.1	5.6	:	7.1	5.0	3.1	6.4	8.3
1995 ⁶	Men	8.0	6.5	4.8	:	16.6	9.0	10.1	12.3	3.0	7.2	2.8	7.1	13.7	10.4	12.6	10.1
	Women	8.7	9.1	4.3	:	18.9	10.7	7.5	12.8	3.1	8.0	4.0	7.2	12.6	9.0	8.1	10.2
2000 ⁶	Men	5.9	5.0	5.3	:	9.8	7.0	3.4	11.5	2.4	3.5	2.8	3.5	10.9	5.4	9.4	7.7
	Women	7.0	5.5	3.9	:	13.1	7.3	3.3	12.0	2.6	4.6	3.0	4.8	11.4	5.7	7.2	7.9
Long-term unemployment rate (% of male/female labour force)																	
1990 ⁷	Men	2.6	1.8	1.9	1.5	4.1	2.4	9.0	4.2	0.0	2.1	:	1.2	:	:	2.9	2.9
	Women	7.1	2.4	2.6	6.0	11.6	4.7	8.1	9.4	0.0	3.6	:	3.3	:	:	1.5	4.8
1995	Men	4.7	1.8	3.3	2.6	7.3	3.7	8.1	5.5	1.0	2.8	0.8	3.1	6.6	2.3	4.9	4.3
	Women	8.1	2.0	4.9	8.2	15.2	5.5	6.5	10.4	1.4	3.4	1.6	4.4	4.8	1.2	2.2	5.9
2000 ⁸	Men	3.1	0.8	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9	:	4.9	0.5	1.0	0.9	1.5	2.4	2.0	2.0	3.0
	Women	4.8	1.0	4.4	10.2	7.8	4.6	:	8.8	0.0	1.5	1.2	2.0	2.4	1.6	0.9	4.3

¹ D: 1991.² EU-15 includes D 1991 and excludes A, FIN and S.³ EU-15 excludes IRL.⁴ D, EU-15: 1991.⁵ EU-15 excludes A.⁶ EU-15 excludes EL.⁷ EU-15 excludes A, FIN and S.⁸ NL: 1999; EU-15 includes NL 1999 and excludes IRL.

Source: Eurostat. LFS for employment rates. Harmonised series on unemployment for total unemployment rates and youth unemployment ratios. Long-term unemployment rates are based on the LFS data for the numbers unemployed for a year or more which are expressed as a ratio of the total number unemployed and then applied to the harmonised unemployment rate to give an estimate of the average long-term

Sources and methodology

Most of the data on which this report is based come from Eurostat and almost all of them are published in NewCronos, Eurostat's online reference database. The main exceptions are the data from the European Community Household Panel, the Labour Force Survey, the Household Budget Survey and the Women in Science database, where microdata have been used for the detailed analysis presented here. (NewCronos contains summary data from all three surveys and more detailed data extractions can be obtained on CD-ROM from Eurostat or from the Eurostat Datashops in EU Member States.)

European Community Household Panel — ECHP

The ECHP, which is a major source of the data used in this report, is an annual survey of a representative panel of households and the individuals who live in them, covering a wide range of topics, including living conditions, employment status, health, education, family and household types, as well as various other social indicators. The aim is to interview the same households and individuals over a number of consecutive years so that changes in their circumstances over time can be monitored. The survey is based on a harmonised questionnaire, drawn up by Eurostat, and subsequently adapted by the national agencies responsible for collecting data in each of the countries to take account of their own institutional features. The data from the ECHP data are based mainly on the results of the fifth wave of the survey (version December 2001).

In the first wave in 1994, a sample of some 60 500 households, and approximately 130 000 individuals aged 16 and over, were covered in the then 12 Member States: Austria (from 1995), Finland (from 1996) and Sweden (from 1997) have been included in subsequent waves. Germany, Luxembourg and the UK stopped carrying out the harmonised survey after 1996 and have instead used existing national panel surveys to obtain comparable data. The data for Luxembourg have not yet been harmonised and so are excluded from the report. Finland abandoned the survey method of collecting data on income after 1996 in favour of using administrative sources. No data on income for Finland are at present available for 1997 and no data on gross earnings are available for 1998. Data for 1996 and 1997, respectively, are therefore used in this report.

For a detailed description of the ECHP methodology and questionnaires, see *The European Community Household Panel (ECHP): Volume 1 – Survey methodology and implementation* and *The European Community Household Panel (ECHP): Volume 1 – Survey questionnaires: Waves 1–3, Theme 3, Series E*, Eurostat, OPOCE, Luxembourg, 1996.

The data on population, births, mortality rates, mean age at first marriage, mean age at first child birth, fertility rates and life expectancy come from Demographic statistics published in NewCronos.

European labour force survey — LFS

The European labour force survey is an annual survey of households containing detailed data on employment, unemployment and related variables in EU Member States for the second quarter of each year (data for Austria and France has the first quarter as reference period). Since it uses a common set of variables and a common methodology, abstracting from national differences in definitions, methods of classification and administrative procedures and regulations, it provides a unique set of data that is comparable across the Union. The LFS has been carried out annually in the EU since 1983, but data for Spain and Portugal are only available from 1986 (1987 for some variables) and for Austria, Finland and Sweden, from 1995. Labour force surveys, based on the same methodology and classification system, have also been established in central and east European countries since their transition to market economies began, and data from these on a comparable basis to those for EU Member States are, in many cases, now available from Eurostat. For more details on the data included in the LFS, see *European union labour force survey – Methods and definition, 1998 Edition*, Catalogue No CA-19-98-536-EN-C.

Household budget survey — HBS

The Household Budget Survey is a survey of the consumption expenditure of private households, which are broken down by size, the composition and age of members, degree of urbanisation and so on. Data collection is undertaken through interviews and diaries, or logs, maintained by household members, generally on a daily basis. The length of the intensive recording of frequent purchases varies from a week or so to 30 days, while infrequent purchases are recorded over the year as a whole. Expenditure is recorded at the price actually paid and, therefore, includes indirect taxes. Goods produced directly by the household through private or professional activity (own production of food, for example) are included where possible at the retail price which would have been paid in a shop. The purchase of second hand goods is included, as are benefits (or income) in kind provided by employers in exchange for work.

Comparability of HBS data is least good for health care and education owing to the differences in the systems concerned in Member States. More details can be found in: *Household Budget Surveys in the EU, Methodology and recommendations for harmonisation, 1997*, ISBN 92-827-9805-4.

Data are compiled using the Coicop (Classification of Individual Consumption by Purpose) classification. In March 1999, the United Nations accepted a new version of the Coicop (further information is available at: <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/cr/registry/regcst.asp?cl=5>).

Part 1 The formative years

Demographic aspects

Population structure, birth and death rates

Data on the structure of population and on birth and mortality rates, as well as on age at first marriage and at the birth of the first child, come from the DEMO database. Annual estimates of population are based either on the most recent national censuses which have been processed (those for 1990–1991 or, in a few cases, 2000–2001) or on the data extracted from population registers. Birth rates are expressed per 1 000 of population. Mortality rates by age group relate to the age reached at last birthday. Infant mortality rates are measured as the ratio of the number of deaths of babies before they reach their first birthday to the number of babies aged under one year.

Causes of death

The data on causes of death come from the Public Health Statistics published in NewCronos. Data used relate to the standardised number of deaths per 100 000 women or men in the selected age groups. Causes of deaths are aggregated from the Eurostat shortlist of 65 causes of deaths, defined according to the WHO *International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, Revision 10* (). Mental and behavioural disorders include alcohol abuse and drug addiction. External causes of injury and poisoning include all accidents of various kinds.

Fertility rates

The overall fertility rate is calculated from age-specific fertility rates for women between 15 and 44, which in turn are calculated by relating the number of births to women in each five-year age group to the total number of women in the group concerned.

Household structure

The data on the composition of households and employment status are taken from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998 (see above). Sweden is excluded throughout because the data by household type are incomplete. Employment status is based on ILO definitions of employment and unemployment for all Member States except Germany and the UK where there is no split between unemployment and inactivity and where, therefore, data based on self-assessment are used instead.

Education

The performance of girls and boys at the end of compulsory schooling

Data on literacy skills of various kinds come from *PISA 2000*, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment, which is a collaborative attempt by OECD countries to measure the abilities of young people at age 15–16. The programme assessed more than 250 000 students in the schools of the 32 participating countries in 2000.

PISA 2000 covered three areas: reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy, the aim being to assess young people's ability to use their knowledge and skills to meet real-life challenges rather than how well they had mastered a specific school curriculum. Emphasis was on mastery of processes and understanding concepts. In each area, three different dimensions were examined, students being assigned a score to represent their degree of proficiency and the mean score giving the combined literacy scale. Results were then grouped into 5 levels of proficiency, level 5 corresponding to a score of over 625, level 4 from 553 to 625, level 3 from 481 to 552, level from 408 to 480 and level 1 from 335 to 407. The complete report with details of the methodology can be found at: <http://pisa.oecd.org>.

Upper secondary and tertiary education

The source of the data for enrolments and graduations is the joint Unesco/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) data collection. Data are classified according to the International Classification of Education (ISCED), 1997 revision, and relate to ISCED level 3 (upper secondary) and levels 5 and 6 (tertiary), which are defined as follows:

ISCED 3: upper secondary level of education – the final stage of secondary education in most countries, with the duration of programmes ranging from 2 to 5 years, divided between:

ISCED 3A: programmes designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5A.

ISCED 3B: programmes designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5B.

ISCED 3C: programmes designed to lead directly to employment, ISCED 4 programmes or other ISCED 3 programmes rather than directly to ISCED 5A or 5B

ISCED 5: first stage of tertiary education – programmes of at least two years' duration, divided between:

ISCED 5A: programmes that are theoretically based and/or preparatory to research or which give access to professions with high skill requirements, such as medicine, dentistry, and architecture.

ISCED 5B: programmes that are practically oriented and/or occupationally specific, preparing participants for employment in a particular occupation or trade.

ISCED 6: second stage of tertiary education – programmes of advanced study and original research leading to an advanced research qualification (e.g. a doctorate).

Upper secondary

Data on enrolments in upper secondary education relate to the academic year 1999/2000.

Belgium: students in (transitional) secondary technical and art education are included in vocational education.

France, Luxembourg: students in technological education are included in vocational education.

Sweden: some students (in adult and special education) cannot be split into general and vocational education.

UK: data include ISCED 4. All students in secondary schools are classified to general programmes; all those on further education courses, some of which are academic, are classified to vocational programmes.

Hungary: students in pre-vocational education are included in vocational.

Slovakia: data are in full-time equivalent terms, special education is excluded.

Tertiary

Data on enrolments in tertiary education relate to the academic year 1999/2000, except for Slovenia, where the data by field of study refer to 1998/99.

Germany and the Netherlands: ISCED 6 is excluded.

Luxembourg: most students study abroad because there is no complete university system. Data, where available, refer to ISCED 5B only.

France, Portugal: ISCED 6 includes Masters-level programmes.

Greece, France: data by field of study are not available.

Data on graduations relate to the academic year 1999/2000, except for Denmark, France, Italy and Finland, where they refer to 1998/99, and Ireland, where they refer to 1997/98.

Spain: ISCED 5A includes second degrees.

Ireland: data refer to public institutions only.

Austria: ISCED 5B refers to 1998/99.

Cyprus: a large number of students study abroad. ISCED 5A and 5B include ISCED 6

Hungary: ISCED 5B includes only students at colleges and universities and excludes those in secondary vocational schools.

Romania, Slovenia: ISCED 6 is excluded

Drop-out rates

Data on educational attainment levels come from the EU labour force survey (LFS). No data are available for Ireland and no data are shown for the UK because agreement on the division between lower and upper secondary education has not yet been reached.

Teachers

Data come from the UOE data collection and relate to the academic year 1999/2000, except for Denmark, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, the UK and Slovenia, where they refer to 1998/99.

Belgium, Netherlands: pre-primary (ISCED 0) is included with primary (ISCED 1); ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 (lower secondary) and 4.

Spain: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2 and 4.

Ireland: ISCED 3 and 4 are included in ISCED 2.

Luxembourg: data relate to public sector only; ISCED 3 is included in ISCED 2.

Austria: school management personnel are partly included; part-time teachers are estimated

Finland: ISCED 2 and part-time teachers are estimated; ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4 and 5 vocational and technical programmes.

UK: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4.

Czech Republic: there are no data on the split between full-time and part-time.

Hungary: the split between ISCED 1 and 2 is estimated; ISCED 3 includes ISCED 4.

Romania: ISCED 2 includes ISCED 1.

Cyprus: ISCED 3 includes ISCED 2.

Lifestyle

Patterns of expenditure

The data on patterns of expenditure come from the Household Budget Survey (HBS) for 1999 (see above).

Physical exercise

The data on physical exercise come from the Pan-EU Survey on *Consumer Attitudes to Physical Activity, Body-weight and Health*, carried out in 1997 under the direction of the Institute of European Food Studies (IEFS), which surveyed around 1 000 people aged 15 years and over in each Member State. The data collected on the highest level of education attained were for primary, secondary and tertiary levels, which means that comparatively few people are included in the primary category and there is no division between lower and upper secondary education. The results for the EU are based on weighting the national data by population size. More information can be found at: <http://www.iefs.org>.

Involvement in crime

Data on convicted criminals and prisoners come from the *Sixth Crime Trends Survey Questionnaire* of the United Nations. The definitions of people convicted and of juveniles as opposed to adults vary between countries. Juveniles are, therefore, defined as under 18 in the case of both convicted criminals and prisoners in Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands and Finland; under 21 in Germany, Sweden and the UK apart from Northern Ireland (where it is under 17); under 17 for convicted criminals and under 21 for prisoners in Ireland; under 18 for convicted criminals and under 21 for prisoners in Greece and Spain; under 20 for convicted criminals and under 21 for prisoners in Portugal. The minimum age of juveniles included also varies from seven in Greece, 10 in the UK and 12 in the Netherlands to 14 in Germany and 15 in other EU Member States except Spain and Portugal, where it is 16.

In the candidate countries, juveniles are defined as those under 18 in all countries, except Cyprus, where it is under 16 for convicted criminals and under 21 for prisoners. The minimum age is seven in Cyprus and 14 in other countries, apart from the Czech Republic and Slovakia, where it is 15.

Part 2 The working and family years

Reconciling work and family life

The data on caring and employment come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998. The analysis is based on data on whether or not a person's 'daily activities include, without pay, looking after a children or other persons' and on 'the number of hours a week spent looking after children or other persons'. Sweden is excluded from the analysis because no data were collected on this issue.

Because no data are available for the UK on the employment rate of carers and non-carers living alone, the analysis is presented instead in terms of the employment rate of those with and without children.

Employment and decision-making

Employment patterns

The main source of data is the EU labour force survey (LFS) for 2000 (see above). The data on sectors of activity are based on the NACE Rev. 1 Statistical Classification of Economic Activities, defined at the 2-digit level and those on occupation on the ISCO-88 (International Standard Classification of Occupations) 3-digit level statistics.

Self-employed

The data for the self-employed are taken from the LFS for 2000, which divides these between those who employ at least one other person and those who do not. Agriculture and fishing (NACE Sections A and B) are excluded from the analysis throughout. Communal services are also excluded in part of the analysis in order to improve the comparability of the relative number of self-employed between Member States. The activities excluded in this case are: public administration and defence (NACE L); education (NACE M), health and social work (NACE N) and extra-territorial organisations (NACE Q).

Women and men in government and parliament

Data on women in government and parliament come from the *European Database: Women in Decision-Making*, which is funded by the European Commission under the *Fourth EU Action Programme on Equal Opportunities*, as well as by the German Federal Ministry for Family, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (*Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend*) and the Berlin Ministry for Labour, Vocational Training and Women (*Senatsverwaltung für Arbeit, Berufsbildung und Frauen*). The database contains information on women in politics in national and regional governments and parliaments, the European Parliament, the European Commission and other selected European institutions. The database also contains data on women in top management positions in the telecommunication industry for 2000.

Women in science

Data on women in science are the result of a joint project between the Women and Science Unit of the Research DG and Eurostat in collaboration with the Helsinki Group on women and science and its statistical correspondents.

Data on researchers and academic staff come from the Women in Science (WiS) database and education data are collected through the joint UOE data collection questionnaires on graduates. They cover all 15 EU Member States and the 15 countries associated to the EU's 5th Framework programme. Time series are available from 1992/93 onwards.

Every effort is made to adhere to the definitions and categorisations proposed in the Frascati Manual, (1993) in order to ensure the greatest possible degree of comparability between countries.

Data on researchers in higher education and government institutions are collected from national R&D surveys.

Data on academic staff (full, associate and assistant professors) are collected from higher education institutions. The division of academic staff between full, associate and assistant professors is based on categories identified in the EU-ETAN report, 'Science policies in the European Union: Promoting excellence through mainstreaming gender equality' (EN report ISBN 92-828-8682-4).

Although it is not an internationally recognised framework, it aims to achieve some degree of comparability between Member States. Harmonisation between countries is regarded as acceptable for full and associate professors while the coverage for assistant professors is very variable across countries and therefore data for the latter are not shown in this publication.

Access to training

CVTS 2

The second survey of continuing vocational training (CVTS2) was conducted in 2000/2001 in all EU Member States, Norway and nine candidate countries and relates to 1999. The survey covered enterprises with 10 or more employees in NACE Sections C–K and O. They, therefore, exclude agriculture and fishing, public administration, education, health and social work, employment in private households and extra-territorial organisations. A total of around 35 000 enterprises in the EU Member States plus Norway and 26 000 in the nine candidate countries participated.

Employees in the survey were defined as the total number of persons employed, excluding apprentices and trainees. Continuing training was defined in the same way in all countries as training measures or activities, which enterprises finance, partly or wholly, for their employees with a work contract. CVT includes CVT courses (internal as well as external courses) and other forms of CVT. Data on participants and training hours refer to CVT courses only. Participants who took part in more than one training course are counted only once. The hours spent on CVT courses relate to the total spent during paid working time. At the time of writing, data for Greece, France, Italy and the UK were not available.

ECHP

Data on training from the ECHP come from the fifth wave, conducted in 1998, and relate to those participating in training courses, divided between general education courses (including language courses) and vocational education courses, at some time during the year from January 1997 to the date of the survey in 1998. The data covers all those in employment, including the self-employed.

Access to ICT

Data on access to ICT come from a Eurobarometer survey covering a representative sample of the population of 15 and over in EU Member States. The results were published by the European Commission, Unit B1, *Opinion polls, press reviews, Europe direct* of the Directorate-General for Press and Communication.

Earnings

ECHP

The figures on the hourly gross earnings of women and men come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998, and are derived from data on current gross monthly earnings at the time of the survey (these themselves are estimated by Eurostat from the data on net earnings reported) by dividing these by an estimate of monthly hours worked, based on the data for usual weekly hours worked.

Harmonised statistics on earnings

The data on the developments of earnings over time are based on the harmonised statistics on earnings (annual data), compiled by Eurostat from the most suitable national series, which relate to earnings of full-time and part-time employees combined and which cover manual workers in the case of industry and predominantly non-manual workers in the case of services. The data cover, except as specified below, workers in NACE sectors C to K – i.e. excluding public administration, education, health and social and personal services as well as agriculture and fishing.

Belgium: only non-manual workers are included; NACE H, I and K are excluded and NACE J (financial services) covers only banking (NACE 65).

Germany: only full-time employees and non-manual workers are included; NACE H, I and K are excluded; NACE J excludes NACE 67 (auxiliary financial services).

Greece: non-manual, full-time workers only are included in services; NACE J covers only banking (NACE 65).

Spain, Austria, Finland and Sweden: non-manual workers only are included in services.

Luxembourg: only non-manual, full-time workers are included; NACE I and K are excluded as well as NACE 67 (auxiliary financial services) from NACE J.

Netherlands: data for industry include non-manual as well as manual workers.
 United Kingdom: only full-time employees are included.

These statistics have been aligned in the analysis to the data on average earnings of full-time men and women employees as given in the Statistics on the Structure of Earnings (SSE), compiled by Eurostat for 1995. The figures for the earnings of women relative to men shown in the graphs and tables for 1995, therefore, come directly from the SSE. It should be noted that the SSE data for industry and services exclude public administration, education, health and social services and personal and community services as well as agriculture, a number of sectors, therefore, where a large proportion of women tend to work.

Women and men at risk of poverty — ECHP

Data on income and poverty come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998. Total household income is all the net monetary income received by the household and its members during the calendar year preceding the survey, in this case 1997. Income, therefore, includes income from employment and self-employment, income from investment, property and private transfers to the household, pensions and other social transfers directly received. Indirect social transfers, income in kind and imputed rent in the case of owner-occupied accommodation are excluded.

In order to allow for differences in household size and composition when comparing income levels, income is expressed in terms of 'equivalised mean income per person'. This is calculated by dividing total household income by the number of equivalent adults living in the household, using the modified OECD equivalence scale, which assigns a weight of 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to other adults and 0.3 to each child. It is, therefore, assumed that each of the household members receives the mean equivalised income.

Those 'at risk of poverty' are defined as those with income below 60 % of the median in the Member State in which they live. Those 'at continuous risk of poverty' are defined as those having an income of below 60 % of the median for each of the years 1995, 1996 and 1997.

Data for Finland are for 1996 since the data for 1997 are not yet available. These data need to be interpreted with caution, since the intention is to replace them with data from administrative registers in due course. Since data are not available for three consecutive years for Finland and Sweden, these are not included in the analysis of those at continuous risk of poverty.

Data on employment status relate to the (self-defined) most frequent status during 1997, except for the Netherlands and Sweden, where the (ILO-defined) main activity status was used instead. Part-time employment relates to those whose most frequent employment status was being employed and who usually worked less than 30 hours a week at the time of the survey.

Lifestyle

Pattern of expenditure

Data on the pattern of expenditure come from the HBS, as describe above.

Physical exercise

Data on physical exercise come from *Consumer Attitudes to Physical Activity, Bodyweight and Health*, a survey conducted by the Institute of European Food Studies (IEFS) in 1997, as described above.

Involvement in crime

Data on involvement in crime come from the *Sixth Crime Trends Survey Questionnaire* of the United Nations, as also described above.

The state of health

Causes of death

The data on causes of death come from Public Health Statistics, published in NewCronos. Data used relate to the standardised number of deaths per 100 000 women or men in the selected age groups (see above).

Road accidents

Data on men and women killed in road accidents come from Transport statistics published in NewCronos and are based on police declarations.

Treatment for drug problems

The data on men and women treated for drug problems for the first time come from the 2001 annual report of the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction. Drugs for which treatment was given consist of opiates, cocaine, amphetamines, ecstasy, hallucinogens and cannabis.

Accidents at work — ESAW

Data come from the European Statistics of Accidents at Work (ESAW), which covers all accidents that resulted in an absence of at least four calendar days. Accidents are broadly defined to include mishaps that may have little to do with the working environment as such but which occur in the course of performing working activities, such as a road accident. On the other hand, they exclude accidents that happen when travelling backwards and forwards to work as well as accidents caused by illnesses — such as a heart attack, for example — which occur when a person is working but which are not directly related to the working environment.

Data are standardised for differences between countries in the structure of economic activity. Some problems remain, however, in comparing the number of accidents between countries even after this, because of differences in coverage and reporting procedures. Although efforts are made by Eurostat to correct for the latter, problems remain in comparing data between Member States. Nevertheless, comparisons between women and men within countries ought to be reasonably reliable. See *European statistics on accidents at work (ESAW) — Methodology, 2001 edition*, Directorate-General Employment and Social Affairs series — Catalogue No KE-36-019-60EN-C.

Accidents and work-related complaints — LFS

Further analysis of accidents at work and of complaints related to working is based on the special *ad hoc* module included in the LFS 1999 on these issues. No data were collected from Belgium, France and Austria, only partial data were collected from Germany and the survey was conducted later in the Netherlands, which is not included in the analysis here. The data on complaints relate to all those suffered over the previous year or longer, irrespective of their severity, which are considered as being caused or made worse by work. The data are, therefore, based on self-assessment rather than on strictly medical criteria.

The incidence rate is defined as the number of accidents at work occurring during the year per 100 000 employed. The prevalence rate is the number of work-related health complaints suffered over the 12 months preceding the survey per 100 000 employed. In order to allow for differences in hours worked between men and women and between jobs in different sectors of activity and occupation, figures are adjusted to full-time equivalents. This is calculated by weighting each person employed by their usual weekly hours of work relative to the average hours worked by men and women employed full-time in the EU as a whole. (This differs from the usual procedure of defining FTE employment in terms of the usual full-time hours worked in each country separately because the aim is to adjust for differences in working time between Member States as well as between men and women, types of activity and occupation.) For further details, see *The health and safety of men and women at work*, Statistics in Focus, Population and Social Conditions, Eurostat, No 4/2002.

Self-perceptions of health, visits to the doctor, nights in hospital

Data on self-perceptions of health come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998, and are based on answers to the question, 'How is your health in general?', to which five possible replies were suggested, ranging from very good to very bad. In the text, 'very good' and 'good' are grouped together, as are 'bad' and 'very bad'. For the definition of those at risk of poverty, see above.

Data on visits to the doctor and nights spent in hospital over the previous year also come from the ECHP. In the first case, the specific question asked was, 'During the past 12 months, about how many times have you consulted a general practitioner (including home visits by the doctor)?' No data on this were collected for Germany and Sweden, while there are problems with the data for France.

Part 3 The retirement years

Demographic aspects and the household circumstances of those of 65 and over

Numbers of 65 and over, life expectancy

Data on the relative numbers of those of 65 and over and on life expectancy come from Demographic Statistics, as described above.

Projected growth in numbers of 65 and over

Data on the projected numbers of women and men aged 65 and over also come from Demographic Statistics, specifically from the Eurostat projections for the period 2000 to 2050, 1999 revision (i.e. based on population in 1999), as published in NewCronos. The 'baseline' scenario has been used, which essentially assumes that demographic trends in fertility and mortality rates and in net immigration flows observed over the recent past will continue in the future.

Household circumstances

Data on household circumstances come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998. Households are divided into types, according to an 'economic typology', namely, one-person households with a man or woman of 65 or over, two-person households with at least one person of 65 or over, and all other households, which include households with more than two people as well as households with dependent children.

Income levels

Data on income levels of those of 65 and over come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998, and relate to 1997. Those at risk of poverty are defined as described above.

Lifestyle

Patterns of expenditure

Data on patterns of expenditure come from the HBS as described above.

Physical exercise

Data on physical exercise come from the 1997 survey, *Consumer Attitudes to Physical Activity, Body-weight and Health*, conducted by the Institute of European Food Studies (IEFS), as described above.

Social relations

Data on social relations come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998. The figures on club membership relate to those who stated that they were 'members of a club or organisation (sport or entertainment club, local or neighbourhood group or a party)'. This question was not asked in the UK. The responses to the questions on 'frequency of talking to neighbours' and 'frequency of meeting friends/relatives' are divided into 'often', defined as at least once or twice a week, 'sometimes, defined as once or twice and a month, and 'rarely', which is less frequently than this. The first question was not asked in Sweden.

The state of health of women and men in retirement

Causes of death

Data on causes of death come from Public Health Statistics, published in NewCronos, as described above.

Self-perception of health, visits to the doctor, nights spent in hospital

Data on self-perception of health, visits to the doctor and nights spent in hospital come from the fifth wave of the ECHP, conducted in 1998, as described above.

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