GENDER EQUALITY INDEX 2025

Sharper data for a changing world

European Institute for Gender Equality

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An EU Agency

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The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) produces independent research and shares best practice to promote gender equality and eliminate discrimination based on gender. As the EU agency for gender equality, we help people achieve equal opportunities so everyone can thrive, independent of their gender and background.

We combine research, data and tools to help policymakers design measures that are inclusive and transformative and promote gender equality in all areas of life. We communicate our expertise and research effectively. We work closely with partners to raise awareness. We do this at the EU and national levels, and with EU candidate and potential candidate countries.

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Abbreviations

CARE survey	Survey of Gender Gaps in Unpaid Care, Individual and Social Activities
EHIS	European Health Interview Survey
EHW	education, health and welfare
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EQLS	European Quality of Life Survey
EU-GBV Survey	European Union Gender-based Violence Survey
EU-LFS	European Union Labour Force Survey
EU-SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
FRA	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights
FTE	full-time equivalent
ICT	information and communication technology
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IVET	initial vocational education and training
LGBTIQ ([1])	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer
MEP	Member of the European Parliament
pp	percentage point(s)
STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
VET	vocational education and training
WHO	World Health Organization
WMID	Women and Men in Decision-making

([1]) This report uses the abbreviation LGBTIQ, as it represents the most inclusive umbrella term for people whose sexual orientation differs from heteronormativity and whose gender identity falls outside binary categories. The language used to represent this very heterogeneous group continuously evolves towards greater inclusion, and different actors and institutions have adopted different versions of the abbreviation (LGBT, LGBTIQ and LGBTI). The report uses institutions' chosen abbreviations when describing the results of their work.

Country codes

BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czechia
DK	Denmark
DE	Germany
EE	Estonia
IE	Ireland
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FR	France
HR	Croatia
IT	Italy
CY	Cyprus
LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
AT	Austria
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
FI	Finland
SE	Sweden
EU-27	27 EU Member States

Note on numerical data

Numerical data in the report is rounded to whole numbers; therefore, small differences in percentages cited may not show or totals may not add up to 100 %.

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Gender Equality Index 2025 highlights

- The Gender Equality Index score for the EU is 63.4. With a 10.5-point increase since 2010, gender equality in the EU remains at least another 50 years out of reach.
- Greater gender balance in decision-making has been the driving force behind overall Index progress since 2020. Over the same period, most EU Member States have seen setbacks in the health and knowledge domains.
- Since 2010, the EU has been moving steadily towards gender equality, and disparities between the Member States are narrowing. During this period, Index scores converged at an average annual rate of 25 %. However, unequal progress at the national level reveals the need for targeted action to balance progress.

Domain of work

- While more women have joined the workforce in the last 10 years, their access to managerial, information and communication technology and other better-paid positions remains limited.
- Living together as a couple with children boosts men's work prospects but constrains women's, reflecting the impact of gender stereotypes on economic opportunities.
- Across age groups, men consistently believe they earn more than women because their jobs are more demanding – a perception far less shared by women, particularly young women.

Domain of money

- Although gender equality in financial resources is steadily improving, women in the EU earn 77 % of men's annual earnings – an increase from 69 % in 2015.
- Within couples, women earn on average 30 % less than their partners, with young, migrant and low-educated women making only about half their partners' earnings.
- In 2024, nearly half of men and over a third of women still believed a man's most important role is to earn money.

Domain of knowledge

- Far more young women than men complete tertiary education but, because they are steered into traditionally 'feminised' disciplines, their academic success does not translate into equal opportunities at work or in leadership – or into equal pay and pensions.

- Younger women have made the greatest headway in education, but access to higher education is far from equal. Foreign-born graduates and people with disabilities lag behind, though women in these groups still outpace men.
- Young women are more likely than young men to recognise how stereotypes limit their educational opportunities, with perception gaps highlighting the growing influence of regressive gender narratives among young men.

Domain of time

- Women continue to shoulder most unpaid and intense care provision, limiting their engagement in leisure and public life – although increasing, men's involvement in care remains limited.
- Routine household chores fall heavily on women, especially those in families with children, single mothers and women aged 25–49.
- Gender stereotypes strongly shape caregiving roles: nearly one in two people see men as less competent doing housework, and one in five people perceive taking paternity leave as having weak career ambition.

Domain of power

- It has the lowest score of all domains but also boasts the most impressive gains in gender equality in the economic sphere. Progress is uneven and mostly reaped by Member States implementing ambitious legislation and targets for gender balance in decision-making.
- Recent elections across the EU have done little to increase women's representation in political affairs at the national and regional levels, leaving them under-represented in most national governments, parliaments and regional assemblies.
- Women leaders are often caught in a no-win double bind: they are expected to have feminine-associated soft skills but criticised if they show masculine-coded traits of ambition and assertiveness – making leadership more difficult to access and navigate.

Domain of health

- Despite having the highest domain score, the domain of health's progress has stagnated, indicating that health in the EU is beset by chronic gender inequalities.
- Gaps in education translate into gaps in health: women with low education levels report poorer health than both men and highly educated women.
- One in four women in the EU believe men are treated better by medical staff. This perception is particularly prevalent among young women.

Domain of violence

- The most recent data shows that violence against women is a pervasive, severe and under-reported reality for millions of women in the EU.
- Women under 45 years are more exposed to physical and/or sexual violence.
- Tolerance for violence against women not only exists among many men, but is particularly high among young men.

Introduction

The Gender Equality Index is designed to help policymakers track progress and tackle ongoing challenges in gender equality in the European Union (EU). Since its launch in 2013, it has become a vital benchmarking tool for the EU and its Member States, shaping policy discussions and guiding decisions. It is recognised as the main yardstick for gender equality by the 2020–2025 gender equality strategy.

Today, the gender equality landscape is shifting. Rapid global changes, including the green and digital transitions, a changing world of work, increasing demographic imbalances and emerging health challenges, are reshaping opportunities for gender equality. In response to these trends and to assess whether the Index is still fit for purpose, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) comprehensively reviewed its Index methodology.

The review assessed which indicators were no longer relevant due to shifting priorities or data limitations, while identifying more impactful and forward-looking measures to enhance the Index. EIGE explored how the Index could incorporate new and emerging issues where robust data sources are available. Extensive stakeholder consultations ([2]) ensured that a wide range of perspectives and insights fed into the review, while simultaneously fostering dialogue and a shared vision of the future of gender equality metrics in the EU.

The revised Index for 2025 opens a new chapter, setting a new baseline for gender equality that is no longer comparable with the previous Index scores. With a refreshed structure and new data sources, the Index continues to track six key dimensions defining our everyday lives: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health. In addition, it retains two critical domains that cut across all areas: violence and intersecting inequalities. Based on 27 carefully selected indicators, the Gender Equality Index 2025 aligns with major EU gender equality policies and responds directly to policymaker needs. It offers a powerful tool to explore and compare how inequalities affect our lives at work, at home or in public life, and to propel action for a more equal Europe.

Weaving in fresh data on gender stereotypes across the EU brings a new dimension to the Gender Equality Index. The data shows how deeply engrained gender norms continue to influence our daily lives, choices and opportunities. Men are still widely seen as breadwinners and leaders, while women face subtle, yet pervasive, biases affecting their confidence, ambition and safety. Although attitudes are slowly changing, dismantling gender stereotypes is fundamental for true equality.

([2]) In 2024, EIGE ran two online stakeholders' surveys and a consultation meeting engaging gender equality policymakers, researchers, statisticians, civil-society organisations, social partners, EU agencies and international organisations. In 2025, three online consultations with representatives from the Member States took place.

Chapter 1 presents the updated methodology of the Index, including how past data was reconstructed to reveal the direction of change. Chapter 2 presents the results of the new Gender Equality Index 2025. Chapters 3–9 delve into each of the Index's domains, highlighting new indicators, policy contexts and key findings alongside public perceptions of gender roles in each area. In-depth country insights and analysis are presented on EIGE's dedicated web page, at 'Gender Equality Index'.

1. Reviewing the Gender Equality Index for a changing EU

1.1. Understanding the Index

The Gender Equality Index is a composite indicator designed to measure the relative position of women and men across the European Union. It enables comparisons between the EU Member States and allows progress to be monitored over time. By aggregating data from various key areas of life, it summarises the complex and multidimensional nature of gender equality and provides a comprehensive and nuanced picture of where inequalities persist and how they evolve.

The Index focuses on gender equality rather than women's empowerment. This distinction is important because it means that the Index evaluates the balance between women and men, treating situations in which men are advantaged in the same way as situations in which women are advantaged. The aim is not to maximise outcomes for one gender, but to achieve equality. In doing so, the Index adheres to the fundamental principle of equality: fairness and balanced outcomes for all.

The Index **places a dual emphasis on gender gaps and levels of achievement**, which is core to its conceptual and practical design. The approach acknowledges the need to consider varying levels of development and the specific contexts of the different Member States. It ensures that a high score is not merely a reflection of equality in poor conditions, but rather the result of both low gender gaps and high overall levels of achievement. For instance, equal access to education or employment is only meaningful when both women and men are experiencing favourable outcomes in these areas. This dual focus is closely aligned with EU policy practices, which emphasise the importance of progressing towards realistic and shared targets across the Member States. By incorporating levels of achievement into the scoring, the Index reflects the EU's commitment to upward economic and social convergence, as promoted by the European Pillar of Social Rights (European Commission, 2017). In this context, achieving gender equality means more than just closing gaps; it means doing so in ways that contribute to the broader well-being and advancement of all citizens.

The indicators used in the Index come from high-quality statistical sources **harmonised at the EU level**. These data sources adhere to the rigorous quality standards set by the European Statistical System, ensuring consistency, reliability and comparability across all Member States.

The Index **relies on outcome indicators** reflecting the status, experiences and achievements of individuals in key domains of life. These differ significantly from input and process indicators, which typically measure resources allocated (e.g. budget spent on gender equality initiatives or provision on childcare services). By focusing on outcomes, the Index captures the final effects of both policy and societal dynamics. This provides a more reliable measure of whether gender

equality is truly being achieved in practice, rather than just intended or partially implemented. This focus helps bridge the gap between policy commitments and actual change, ensuring that progress is not overstated simply because policies are in place or resources are allocated. Instead, the Index reflects whether those measures translate into equal opportunities and comparable results for women and men in their diverse situations.

Moreover, the Index **uses individual-level indicators**, rather than institutional- or macro-level ones, to allow for more granular and people-centred perspectives. It ensures that the data used is directly tied to the experiences of EU citizens, thereby enhancing the Index's relevance and accuracy in portraying gender equality in practice. Combined with comparable data from all Member States, this guarantees comparability and policy relevance and enables targeted action based on robust evidence.

The Index's **conceptual framework** is one of its most distinctive strengths. It is built around a set of thematically structured domains that align closely with **EU policy priorities** and international gender equality frameworks, such as the Beijing Platform for Action. The Index comprises six core domains: **work**, **money**, **knowledge**, **time**, **power** and **health**. Each domain captures a vital dimension of gender equality. Work measures the extent to which women and men can access employment opportunities of equal quality, and includes factors such as job segregation and working conditions. Money assesses gender differences in income and financial resources. Knowledge captures disparities in access to and participation in education, and segregation by field of study. Time examines the gender gap in time spent on care, domestic responsibilities and social activities. Power evaluates women's and men's representation in decision-making positions across political, economic and social spheres. Health covers differences in health-related statuses, behaviours and conditions.

In addition, the Index features two other domains, **violence against women and intersecting inequalities**. These are not part of the core Index due to their different conceptual and methodological nature. Notably, the Gender Equality Index is one of the few gender indices in the world to explicitly address gender-based violence and intersectional inequalities, two areas that are critical for understanding the full scope of gender inequality. The inclusion of violence against women as a dedicated domain highlights the persistent and severe threat to women's safety and autonomy. Gender-based violence is both a cause and a consequence of unequal power relations and remains the most extreme expression of gender inequality. The intersecting inequalities domain brings further conceptual depth by acknowledging that gender inequality does not affect all women and men in the same way. The interaction between gender and other factors, such as age, race, family status, disability, migrant status and education level, leads to different experiences and outcomes. Adopting this approach enables the Index to capture various and interconnected forms of disadvantage, offering a more inclusive and accurate picture of gender inequality across the EU.

The Gender Equality Index is helping to shape more effective and targeted interventions. By doing so, it plays a vital role in advancing gender equality across the EU.

1.2. Rationale behind the Index review

The Gender Equality Index, first launched in 2013, has become a cornerstone of gender equality monitoring in the EU. More than a decade has passed since its original release, during which time it has served as an essential tool for benchmarking progress, identifying persistent gaps, monitoring change over time and supporting evidence-based policymaking at the national and EU levels. However, even the most robust and policy-relevant indicators must evolve to remain meaningful and effective. The 2025 review of the Index was, therefore, both timely and necessary. It was guided by best practices in indicator development and by the EU's commitment to policy responsiveness and continuous improvement.

Periodic revisions are standard practice in the life cycle of composite indicators. As policy contexts change, societies evolve and data infrastructure improves, regular evaluation of an index is required to maintain its relevance and credibility. This ensures that the tool continues to reflect the current situation, remains aligned with strategic objectives and continues to be valuable to policymakers and the public. In the Gender Equality Index's case, the review was necessary to assess whether its structure, methodology and data sources still provided an accurate and meaningful representation of gender equality in the EU today.

One key motivation for the review was recognising the evolution of EU policy priorities since the Index was first designed. While the core principles of gender equality remain, the policy landscape now places greater emphasis on areas such as digitalisation, care, intersectionality and the socioeconomic impact of global crises – including the COVID-19 pandemic and geopolitical tensions. In order to remain a relevant and forward-looking monitoring tool that supports the EU's evolving strategic agendas, a revised Index needs to reflect these emerging concerns.

The review also addressed the issue of indicator weighting, a technical and critical aspect of any composite measure. Weights reflect the relative importance assigned to different domains and subdomains of the Index. Over time, the perceived priority of these areas may shift due to policy developments or new societal challenges. Reviewing the weighting scheme helps guarantee that the Index remains conceptually coherent and fair, and that no dimension of gender equality is disproportionately emphasised or overlooked.

The availability of new and improved data sources added further impetus for the review. Over the last decade, the EU's data landscape has grown, with improvements in the granularity, timeliness and coverage of sex-disaggregated data. These advancements open up new possibilities for refining the Index, enhancing its accuracy and potentially integrating indicators previously excluded due to data limitations. Using more comprehensive and up-to-date data also increases the Index's credibility and usefulness for researchers and policymakers.

In parallel, the review aimed to preserve the strengths of the original Index, particularly its alignment with EU policy goals and its practical utility. An essential mechanism to capture, track and assess progress in gender equality in Member States, the Index informs EU policy actions and supports the implementation of its flagship initiatives. Maintaining this alignment is crucial for the Index to remain embedded within the broader policy ecosystem.

Finally, the Index's accessibility and communicability remain central to its success. It translates complex data into a clear single score supported by detailed domain-level analysis. This clarity enhances its effectiveness as a tool for advocacy, public communication and stakeholder engagement. The review sought to protect and even improve these qualities, ensuring the Index continues to prompt policy developments and to encourage Member States to act where inequalities persist.

The 2025 review of the Gender Equality Index was not only a strategic and necessary step to safeguard its relevance, rigorousness and responsiveness, but also reinforced the Index's status as a trusted and dynamic tool for advancing gender equality across the European Union.

1.3. What's new? Key changes to strengthen relevance

The revision of the Gender Equality Index is the outcome of an extensive, collaborative process, shaped by numerous consultations with stakeholders across policy, research and civil society. These exchanges provided valuable insights into the strengths and limitations of the original framework and guided the refinement of the Index. The changes implemented can be broadly divided into two categories: those related to indicators and those related to computational aspects. Table 1 presents a summary of the main characteristics of the old and revised Indices.

Table 1: Main characteristics of old and new Gender Equality Indices

Characteristics	Old Index	New Index
Number of indicators	31	27
Number of subdomains	14	13
Number of domains	6	6
Data sources	Eurostat, EIGE, Eurofound	Eurostat, EIGE
Gender gap metric	Absolute difference between women and the average of women and men, relative to the average, with this difference multiplied by a correcting coefficient	One minus the ratio of the smaller of women or men to the larger
Aggregation and weights	— Gender gaps: arithmetic mean with equal weights — Subdomains: geometric mean with equal weights — Domains: geometric mean with experts' weights	— Gender gaps: arithmetic mean with equal weights — Subdomains: geometric mean with equal weights — Domains: geometric mean with experts' weights
Range	1–100	0–100
Time series	2013–2024	2010–2025

To ensure comparability over the time, past values have been recalculated using the updated methodology, producing a single, internally consistent time series. The previous series has been

discontinued and will no longer be updated. As a result, values within the new series (e.g. 2025 versus the recalculated 2020) are directly comparable, whereas comparisons with scores and rankings published under the old methodology are not valid. **The revised Gender Equality Index 2025 establishes a new baseline for gender equality, marking a fresh chapter with an updated structure and new data sources.**

Changes to indicators

This section focuses on the six core domains of the Index, the primary focus of the review. The two additional domains, violence and intersecting inequalities, were excluded from the revision process due to their distinct conceptual nature and the methodological considerations required for them, which are beyond the scope of this review and require separate, dedicated approaches. Specifically, the domain of violence cannot be treated in the same way as the other core domains because it does not measure the differences between women and men. Rather, it aims to eradicate violence altogether. Moreover, intersectionality acts as an overarching perspective that highlights inequalities within groups rather than forming a composite domain.

The comparisons provided in Tables 2 –7 outline both the original and revised indicators for each core domain. Detailed metadata on the new indicators can be found in Annex 1. Each change is accompanied by a brief explanation of its rationale. To support a clear understanding of the extent and nature of the revisions, a colour-coding scheme is used. Indicators highlighted in dark grey remain unchanged. Those in light grey have undergone minor adjustments while retaining their original concept. Indicators shown in white reflect major changes, because they have been either newly introduced or removed.

In the **domain of work**, the indicator on horizontal occupational segregation has been replaced with a new indicator measuring the share of information and communication technology (ICT) specialists (Table 2). This reflects the increasing relevance of the digital transition to the EU's long-term competitiveness and aligns with its Digital Decade priorities (European Commission, 2025a), which call for gender-balanced participation in digital sectors.

The EU's strategic vision for shaping Europe's digital future emphasises inclusive digital opportunities for all, regardless of gender, age or background (European Commission, 2020a). To this end, the Digital Decade policy programme sets a target of 20 million ICT specialists by 2030, with a specific focus on closing the gender gap in this field (European Parliament et al., 2022). The gender equality strategy also highlights the urgency of addressing gender imbalances in technological and digital domains, linking it to broader goals for innovation and growth (European Commission, 2020b). Without targeted action, women remain excluded from quality employment in future-oriented sectors, reinforcing occupational segregation and limiting their role in digital transformation.

Table 2: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of work

Old structure		New structure	
Participation	Full-time equivalent employment rate Eurostat, EU-LFS	Participation	Full-time equivalent employment rate Eurostat, EU-LFS
	Duration of working life Eurostat, EU-LFS		Duration of working life Eurostat, EU-LFS
Segregation and quality of work	Employed people in education, human health and social work activities Eurostat, EU-LFS	Segregation and quality of work	ICT specialists Eurostat, EU-LFS
	Ability to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters Eurofound, EWCS		Managers Eurostat, EU-LFS
	Career Prospects Index Eurofound, EWCS		Not low-paid workers Eurostat, EU-SILC

NB: Indicators in dark grey are unchanged. Indicators in light grey have been slightly revised but maintain their original concept. Indicators in white represent major changes as they are newly introduced or have been removed.

Two other indicators within the segregation and quality of work subdomain, previously based on the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), were also replaced. The irregularity of the EWCS, which was conducted in 2015, 2021 (with major methodological changes) and 2024, raised concerns about the timeliness and comparability of the data. The first indicator, on formal entitlement to time off, failed to reflect actual usage patterns. Since women more often take leave due to caregiving responsibilities, this measure risked overstating gender equality. The second indicator, the Career Prospects Index, combined multiple sub-measures into a single composite score. The indicator was only available from the 2015 EWCS and was not replicated in subsequent waves.

To strengthen this subdomain, the selection of new indicators drew on leading frameworks, including the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe's quality of employment framework, the International Labour Organization's decent work indicators, Eurofound's job quality framework and the European Trade Union Institute's Job Quality Index. The first new indicator measures the share of women and men in managerial positions. It captures vertical occupational segregation and reflects access to leadership, professional development, autonomy and influence over workplace conditions. A balanced share suggests fair opportunities, while under-representation of women indicates persistent barriers such as bias, unequal promotion practices or a lack of supportive work–life balance policies. These challenges are recognised in the European Pillar of Social Rights, which calls for gender equality in employment and career progression. Directive (EU) 2022/2381, the Gender Balance on Corporate Boards Directive, further addresses this by setting binding targets for gender balance in corporate leadership.

The second new indicator focuses on low-paid workers. A higher proportion of women among low-paid workers may suggest unequal access to valued and well-paid jobs, differences in working hours or the impact of unpaid responsibilities outside work. Addressing this issue is central to Directive (EU) 2023/970, the Pay Transparency Directive, which requires companies to disclose pay data and tackle

unjustified gender pay gaps. It also aligns with Directive (EU) 2022/2041, the Adequate Minimum Wage Directive, aimed at ensuring fair pay, especially in female-dominated sectors. In addition, the European care strategy supports better working conditions in care and recognises unpaid work, much of which is done by women (European Commission, 2022a). Together, these policies reinforce the importance of tracking the gender gap in low-paid work to assess whether women and men have equal access to decent pay and economic security, which are key elements of quality employment.

The domain of money is generally affected by long-standing data limitations. One of the most persistent challenges in measuring gender inequality in this domain has been the reliance on indicators derived from household-level data concerning access to and control of financial resources (e.g. income, wealth and expenditure) and economic situation (e.g. poverty and material deprivation).

Three of the four indicators in the previous structure (Table 3) were based on information reported at the household level. This assumes an equal distribution of income, decision-making power and standard of living among adult members of a household. The extent of income pooling and income sharing in a household is often unknown. This hides the real amount of each person's financial dependence, poverty and deprivation, and thus obscures gender inequalities.

Table 3: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of money

Old structure		New structure	
Financial resources	Mean monthly earnings Eurostat, Structure of Earnings Survey	Financial resources	Median earnings Eurostat, EU-SILC
	Mean equivalised net income Eurostat, EU-SILC		Gender pension gap Eurostat, EU-SILC
Economic situation	S20/S80 income quintile share Eurostat, EU-SILC	Economic situation	Median partner earnings ratio Eurostat, EU-SILC
	Not-at-risk-of-poverty rate Eurostat, EU-SILC		Not in-work poverty of adults in single or single-parent households Eurostat, EU-SILC

NB: Indicators in light grey have been slightly revised but maintain their original concept. Indicators in white represent major changes as they are newly introduced or have been removed.

To address this limitation, the revised Index reflects an intensive effort to shift towards individual-level indicators, which offer a clearer and more meaningful picture of gender gaps in this domain. However, the transition to individual-level data is constrained by limited data availability in the current statistical sources. Many existing indicators still reflect household aggregates, and the development of disaggregated, gender-sensitive income data remains an urgent priority for the EU's statistical and policy agenda.

In the subdomain of financial resources, the new Index introduces a significant enhancement: including the gender pension gap as an individual-level indicator. This addition allows the Index to address the long-term impacts of gender inequality, as it captures cumulative disadvantages faced by women over a lifetime, such as lower earnings, part-time work and career breaks due to unpaid

care – all leading to smaller pensions and increased poverty risk for older women. Principle 15 of the European Pillar of Social Rights affirms the right to pensions that ensure an adequate income for workers and the self-employed to live in dignity in old age. The gender equality strategy also acknowledges the gender pension gap as a critical issue. The inclusion of this indicator ensures close alignment with the goals of the European care strategy, which highlights the link between gendered care responsibilities and pension inequalities.

Another major revision is the replacement of the earnings indicator based on the Structure of Earnings Survey data, available only every 5–6 years, with a new, annually updated metric on median earnings from the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). This change greatly improves the timeliness and policy relevance of the Index. The data on gender gaps in median earnings provides an up-to-date and robust measure of the gender pay gap, a key issue the EU is addressing through the Pay Transparency Directive. It aims to enforce the principle of equal pay for equal work.

Earnings and/or pension income may be augmented by other sources of revenue such as state and inter-household transfers, and income from assets. These boost an individual's financial status and their bargaining and purchasing power. More individualised measures of income, consumption and wealth – including income pooling and sharing – and financial decision-making in the household could provide a more comprehensive picture of gender inequalities in the domain of money.

In the subdomain of economic situation, the Index now includes two new indicators to shed light on intra-household and structural economic inequalities. The first is the median of annual earnings expressed as a percentage of a partner's earnings and applied to coupled individuals of working age. This novel measure helps expose the extent of economic dependence within couples, especially among women, and addresses a long-standing blind spot in gender statistics. It captures the degree to which women's earnings lag behind their partners', offering a more granular understanding of financial vulnerability and bargaining power within households. This is particularly relevant in policy discussions around joint taxation, social benefits and family-related leave, where gender-neutral designs may have unequal impacts on men and women.

The second new indicator is the in-work poverty rate for adults living in single or single-parent households. This data is collected at the household level. However, as robust estimation of gender differences requires measuring risk separately for individual women and men, this indicator has been individualised by focusing on single-adult households. This is an individual-level indicator aligning with the EU's broader commitment to combating poverty and social exclusion, as outlined in the European Pillar of Social Rights action plan (European Commission, 2021b).

The **domain of knowledge** reflects the EU's strategic focus on inclusive, equitable and high-quality education as a foundation for gender-equal societies. The update aligns with the EU's 2021–2030 education and training strategic framework (Council of the European Union, 2021), which aims to ensure equal access and promote inclusive learning for all, regardless of gender.

One key change involves the indicator on graduates of tertiary education. It now focuses on the 30- to 34-year-old age group instead of the broader 15+ population (Table 4). This better reflects recent graduates, providing a clearer picture of gender gaps in current educational outcomes. This change aligns the Index with the social scoreboard of the European Pillar of Social Rights.

Table 4: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of knowledge

Old structure		New structure	
Attainment and participation	Graduates of tertiary education (15+ population) Eurostat, EU-LFS	Attainment and participation	Graduates of tertiary education (30- to 34-year-old population) Eurostat, EU-LFS
	People participating in formal or non-formal education and training Eurostat, EU-LFS		Initial vocational education and training graduates (25- to 34-year-olds) Eurostat, EU-LFS
Segregation	Tertiary students in the fields of education, health and welfare Eurostat, education statistics	Segregation	Tertiary graduates in the fields of education, health and welfare Eurostat, education statistics
			Tertiary graduates in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics Eurostat, education statistics

NB: Indicators in light grey have been slightly revised but maintain their original concept. Indicators in white represent major changes as they are newly introduced or have been removed.

The indicator on participation in formal and non-formal education and training was removed. While adult learning is undeniably valuable, participation metrics across the EU show little gender variation across Member States and over time, reducing its usefulness for policy monitoring. More importantly, participation rates alone do not necessarily reveal whether women and men face distinct barriers or disadvantages in accessing such learning opportunities.

A new indicator measures initial vocational education and training (IVET) ([3]) among 25- to 34-year-olds. Focusing on this age group captures those who have recently transitioned from education to work, where gender differences in vocational pathways have immediate consequences for job prospects, earnings and career development. Tracking IVET participation helps assess gendered educational trajectories and highlights whether young women and young men are equally accessing skills-based training and employment-relevant education. This is in line with the gender equality strategy and the Council recommendation on vocational education and training (VET) (Council of the European Union, 2020a). This recommendation emphasises the importance of gender equality in accessing VET to assure gender balance in traditionally male- or female-dominated professions and to tackle gender stereotypes.

([3]) 'IVET' is learning carried out in the initial vocational education and training system – usually before entering working life – to acquire skills and competences leading to a specific occupation or job.

Measuring gender segregation in education has also been refined, with two new aspects. The previous metric of enrolment in female-dominated fields (education, health and welfare (EHW)) now focuses on the share of graduates. This better captures completed study choices and actual qualification attainment, which are more relevant to policymaking on skills, employability and equal opportunities. It also provides a stronger link to employment patterns and gender segregation in the labour market.

To address the digital transition and complement the focus on female-dominated fields, a new indicator measures tertiary graduates in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM). This provides a more balanced and comprehensive view of gender segregation across all educational disciplines. Despite girls and boys performing similarly in science and mathematics at primary school, evidence shows girls' interest in STEM decreases as they age, a trend shaped by deep-rooted gender stereotypes and societal attitudes (Balta et al., 2023; Chan, 2022; EIGE, 2018; Lyons et al., 2022; Punzalan, 2022). As a result, women are under-represented in STEM fields at the tertiary level. Several key EU policy initiatives, particularly those related to the digital transition, focus on addressing this gap. For example, the key priorities of the 2021–2027 digital education action plan (European Commission, 2020c) include fostering digital skills and competences essential for the EU's digital transformation, with an emphasis on increasing women's representation in STEM studies and careers. The updated European skills agenda also identifies STEM skills as vital for driving the digital transition and boosting the number of STEM graduates, particularly among young women (European Commission, 2020d). The gender equality strategy similarly calls for tackling gender bias in study and career choices.

The **domain of time** historically depended on Eurofound's limited data on unpaid and social activities. This reliance caused gaps in frequency, timeliness and granularity, resulting in a stagnant domain score due to outdated input data. To overcome these limitations, the revised Index now leverages data from EIGE's Survey of Gender Gaps in Unpaid Care, Individual and Social Activities (CARE survey), enabling more frequent and detailed monitoring of gender-differentiated time burdens. This survey introduces new metrics that capture the intensity of care and social involvement, two historically overlooked yet deeply gendered dimensions.

In the care activities subdomain, the Index now distinguishes between childcare and long-term care to reflect different dimensions of policy-relevant realities and to allow better-targeted interventions to close the gender care gap (Table 5). This disaggregation supports intensified EU efforts to promote equal sharing of caregiving responsibilities and reinforces the subdomain's relevance. The rights to affordable early childhood education and care and to long-term care are enshrined in the European Pillar of Social Rights. The gender equality strategy makes closing the gender care gap a key priority, recognising that women's unequal care burden significantly impedes their ability to work and their professional growth (European Commission, 2020b). These commitments are supported by Directive (EU) 2019/1158, the Work–Life Balance Directive. This directive sets minimum standards for family leave and flexible working arrangements so that both women and men can better reconcile work and family life. New data from EIGE's CARE survey enables separate tracking of engagement in informal childcare and long-term care, providing policymakers with targeted insights with which to design measures. These include investments in

accessible, affordable and high-quality care services to more effectively reduce women's disproportionate unpaid care load and enhance their economic potential.

Table 5: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of time

Old structure		New structure	
Care activities	People caring for and educating their children or grandchildren, elderly or people with disabilities, every day Eurofound, EQLS	Care activities	People providing care to their own children aged 0–11 for more than 35 hours per week EIGE, CARE survey
			People providing informal long-term care for more than 20 hours per week Eurostat, EHIS
	People doing cooking and/or housework, every day Eurofound, EQLS		People doing housework chores every day EIGE, CARE survey
Social activities	Workers doing sporting, cultural or leisure activities outside their home, at least daily or several times a week Eurofound, EWCS	Social activities	People spending more than 8 hours per week on leisure activities EIGE, CARE survey
	Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities, at least once a month Eurofound, EWCS		People involved in voluntary, charitable or political activities at least once per week EIGE, CARE survey

NB: Indicators in light grey have been slightly revised but maintain their original concept.

The new indicators in this subdomain are highly gender-relevant, as women are much more likely to provide high-intensity care and to perform daily domestic tasks. By setting explicit thresholds for 'intensive' care and tracking daily household work, the Index better captures the time pressures that disproportionately limit women's economic opportunities, career advancement and leisure time. This also allows policymakers to distinguish between occasional and sustained care responsibilities, which have different implications for gender equality.

Within the social activities subdomain, the focus has shifted from 'workers' to the adult population (aged 16–74 years) to better illustrate leisure, volunteering, and cultural and social life participation across all social strata. Women's and men's equal engagement in such activities is essential for work–life balance and is a priority under the European Pillar of Social Rights action plan and the Work–Life Balance Directive. Although these policies mainly aim to improve access to leave, care services and flexible work, they can indirectly enable women's greater participation in social and cultural life. The EU also promotes culture, sport and leisure as drivers of social cohesion, health and well-being. The 2023–2026 EU work plan for culture (Council of the European Union, 2022) seeks to expand cultural participation for all citizens, though it does not explicitly address gender inequalities in time allocation. Research by the European Commission highlights the role of cultural participation in reducing social division, making sex-disaggregated monitoring in this subdomain relevant (European Commission: Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture et al.,

2023). Volunteering, supported by initiatives such as the European Solidarity Corps and Erasmus+ projects, is encouraged to foster civic engagement. However, gender-specific barriers are rarely addressed.

The new Index indicators address another persistent gender gap. Women tend to have less leisure time than men, which can negatively impact well-being and reinforce social exclusion. Tracking both leisure and civic engagement offers a fuller picture of how gendered time constraints extend beyond the household and labour market, affecting personal development, social integration and active citizenship.

In its previous formulation, the **domain of power** was affected by a methodological imbalance: indicators covering decision-making bodies with very small memberships disproportionately influenced the overall domain score. For instance, the board of a national central bank could cause significant fluctuations in the domain score when even a single member was replaced by a woman or a man. This volatility risked skewing the interpretation of gender equality outcomes, overshadowing progress made in other areas of decision-making and potentially misleading policymakers.

To address this issue, the revised Index has removed three indicators based on these small boards to make sure no single outlier exerts an excessive influence over the overall assessment (Table 6). This methodological adjustment enables a more balanced, fair and holistic picture of gender equality in decision-making. It reflects the Index's broader purpose as a tool for evidence-based policymaking, capturing structural trends rather than isolated fluctuations, and aligns with the EU's commitment to monitoring progress in a consistent way.

Table 6: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of power

Old structure		New structure	
Political	Share of ministers EIGE, WMID	Political	Share of ministers EIGE, WMID
	Share of members of parliament EIGE, WMID		Share of members of parliament EIGE, WMID
	Share of members of regional assemblies EIGE, WMID		Share of members of regional assemblies EIGE, WMID
Economic	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors EIGE, WMID	Economic	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors EIGE, WMID
	Share of board members of central bank EIGE, WMID		
Social	Share of board members of research-funding organisations EIGE, WMID		
	Share of board members in publicly owned broadcasting organisations EIGE, WMID	Social	
	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sports organisations EIGE, WMID		Share of members of highest decision-making body of the national Olympic sports organisations EIGE, WMID

NB: Indicators in dark grey are unchanged. Indicators in white represent major changes as they are newly introduced or have been removed.

The remaining indicators reflect EU policy priorities across three key subdomains: political, economic and social decision-making. At the political level, the EU continues to promote women's participation in formal political processes. The European democracy action plan (European Commission, 2020e) advocates inclusive democratic engagement, gender balance in decision-making and action against harassment or hate speech that deters women from public life. The gender equality strategy also underlines the persistent under-representation of women in politics and calls for targeted measures to increase the presence of women among politicians.

In the economic sphere, the Index tracks the share of women on the boards of the largest quoted companies, an area where progress has been slow and uneven. The adoption of the Gender Balance on Corporate Boards Directive has given fresh impetus to this agenda, setting binding targets for women's representation by 2026.

Finally, the percentage of women in the top decision-making bodies of national Olympic sports organisations captures a key dimension of social leadership. The 2021–2024 EU work plan for sport (Council of the European Union, 2020b) recognises the role that sports play in inclusion and equality, yet women remain significantly under-represented in this arena. By integrating this measure, the Index extends its scope beyond politics and business to document gender dynamics in another highly visible area of public life.

This methodological adjustment strengthens the Index's role as a tool for evidence-based policymaking, ensuring that measured changes in the domain of power reflect real and sustained progress rather than statistical anomalies. It reinforces the connection between the measurements taken and the EU's broader democracy, equality and inclusion agendas. It also helps to track the EU's long-standing priority to close the gender gap in decision-making across multiple spheres of influence and in policy-relevant ways.

The **domain of health** has been streamlined by replacing two separate indicators (life expectancy and healthy life years) with a single indicator that combines these concepts and focuses on the population aged 65 and over (Table 7). This change brings several advantages for gender-sensitive monitoring. Combining life expectancy and healthy life years produces a measure that captures not only how long people live but also how many of those years are lived in good health, a critical distinction for understanding gendered patterns of longevity and morbidity. As women typically live longer than men but spend more years in poorer health, a combined healthy-life-years-plus-life-expectancy measure focused on the 65+ cohort provides a clearer picture of the quality and quantity of later life for women and men. Focusing on the 65+ group improves policy relevance: many EU-level interventions (healthcare planning, risk prevention, long-term care, pensions and social services) target older age groups. The 65+ cohort is where gender differences in morbidity, disability and care needs most strongly affect welfare, carers' ability to continue working and public budgets. By consolidating this indicator, the Index reduces redundancy and measurement noise. It yields a more stable signal of long-term, structural gender differences in health that Member States and EU policymakers can act upon.

Another key change was the removal of the subdomain on access to health following a careful audit of the measurement's performance and policy fit. While unmet needs for medical and dental care are important policy issues, these two indicators did not add significant value to the Index's comparative nature. They failed to reliably capture gender differences or to reflect sufficient variation across the Member States and over time. Moreover, the two indicators only partly captured gender-specific healthcare needs and barriers. Their conceptual scope was limited, as they focused broadly on medical and dental examination needs without accounting for the distinct challenges faced by women and men. Removing poorly performing indicators reduces the risk that survey artefacts, questionnaire design or non-gendered factors (e.g. differences in reporting behaviour) are mistakenly interpreted as changes in gender equality. Moreover, the Joint Research Centre's statistical audit of the 2020 Index concluded that these particular indicators were found to be not sufficiently related to the overall Index and had a negligible impact on country rankings. In short, they added complexity without increasing explanatory power. Removing them therefore strengthens the Index's interpretability and its usefulness as a policy tool.

Table 7: Comparing the old and new structures of the domain of health

Old structure		New structure	
Status	Self-perceived health, good or very good Eurostat, EU-SILC	Status	Self-perceived health, good or very good Eurostat, EU-SILC
	Life expectancy in absolute value at birth Eurostat, mortality data		Healthy life years at 65 as percentage of total life expectancy Eurostat, EU-SILC and mortality data
	Healthy life years in absolute value at birth Eurostat, EU-SILC and mortality data		
Behaviour	People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking Eurostat, EHIS	Behaviour	People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking Eurostat, EHIS
	Percentage of people who are physically active at least 150 minutes per week and/or consume at least 5 portions of fruit and vegetables per day Eurostat, EHIS		Percentage of people who are physically active at least 150 minutes per week and/or consume at least 5 portions of fruit and vegetables per day Eurostat, EHIS
Access	Population without unmet needs for medical examination Eurostat, EU-SILC		
	People without unmet needs for dental examination Eurostat, EU-SILC		

NB: Indicators in dark grey are unchanged. Indicators in light grey have been slightly revised but maintain their original concept. Indicators in white represent major changes as they are newly introduced or have been removed.

Methodological enhancements

A core principle of the Gender Equality Index is that small gender gaps should not lead to high equality scores when both women and men experience adverse conditions. In previous editions, this was achieved by calculating a **relative gender gap** by comparing women's value with the average of women's and men's values and then multiplying it by a **correcting coefficient**. The coefficient lowered scores when a Member State's performance was far below the best-performing Member State, ensuring that both equality and the level of achievement were taken into account. While this approach was consistent with EU policy objectives and the European Pillar of Social Rights, it was complex and in some cases had a disproportionate effect on results (Permanyer, 2015).

The updated Index removes the correcting coefficient and replaces the old gender gap formula with a widely used metric also applied to indicators such as the gender pay gap. This new formula still accounts for differences between women and men, but places greater emphasis on performance levels, improving fairness, comparability and ease of interpretation. It maintains the

principle that equality should be assessed in the context of achievement, supporting the EU's commitment to upward social and economic convergence.

Once the gender gaps were computed for all the indicators, a multi-modelling approach was applied. This entailed the computation of a set of multiple indices to select the most robust formula for the Gender Equality Index, in line with the original methodology. The most robust formula is the same one used in previous Index editions. It aggregates indicators into subdomains using the arithmetic mean with equal weights. Then it aggregates the subdomains into the domains using the geometric mean with equal weights. Finally, it aggregates the domains into the overall Index using the arithmetic mean and experts' weights determined by using the participatory approach of the analytical hierarchy process (see Annex 4).

At every level of aggregation (gender gaps, subdomains, domains and the overall Index) the interpretation of the scores is the same: 0 means full gender inequality and 100 means full gender equality. The revised Index for 2025 is measured on a scale of 0–100, replacing the earlier 1–100 scale.

More detailed information is provided in the methodological annex and in a forthcoming methodological report.

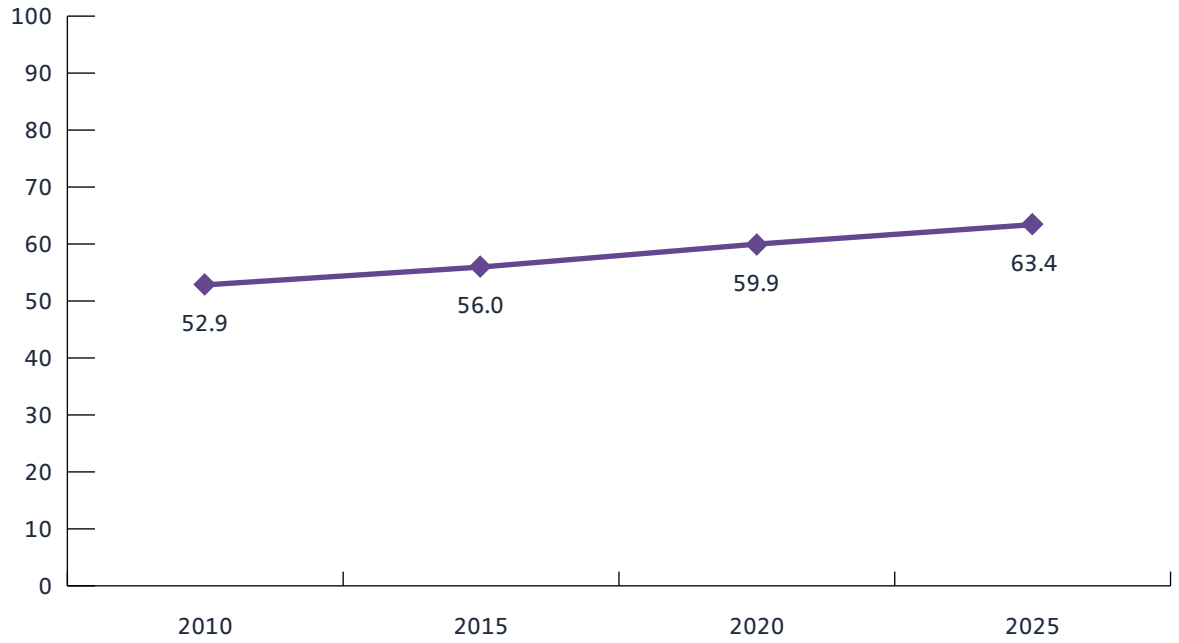
Given the changes introduced to the Index, both to the indicators and in the calculation of gender gaps, **the entire time series has been reconstructed**. The updated methodology was applied to previous years to ensure full comparability over time. For each indicator and each year, the Index was recalculated using the most recent data available for that specific year. As a result, the time series published up to 2024 will no longer be used. This revision preserves historical accuracy while allowing for consistent trend analysis under the new methodology.

2. Gender equality in the EU at a glance

2.1. Gender equality out of reach for at least 50 years

The new edition of the Gender Equality Index records a score of 63.4 out of 100 in 2025. Gender equality has advanced by 10.5 points since 2010 and by 7.4 points since 2015. At this pace – an increase of around 0.7 points a year – it will take a minimum of 50 years before there is gender equality in the EU (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Gender Equality Index, 2010–2025



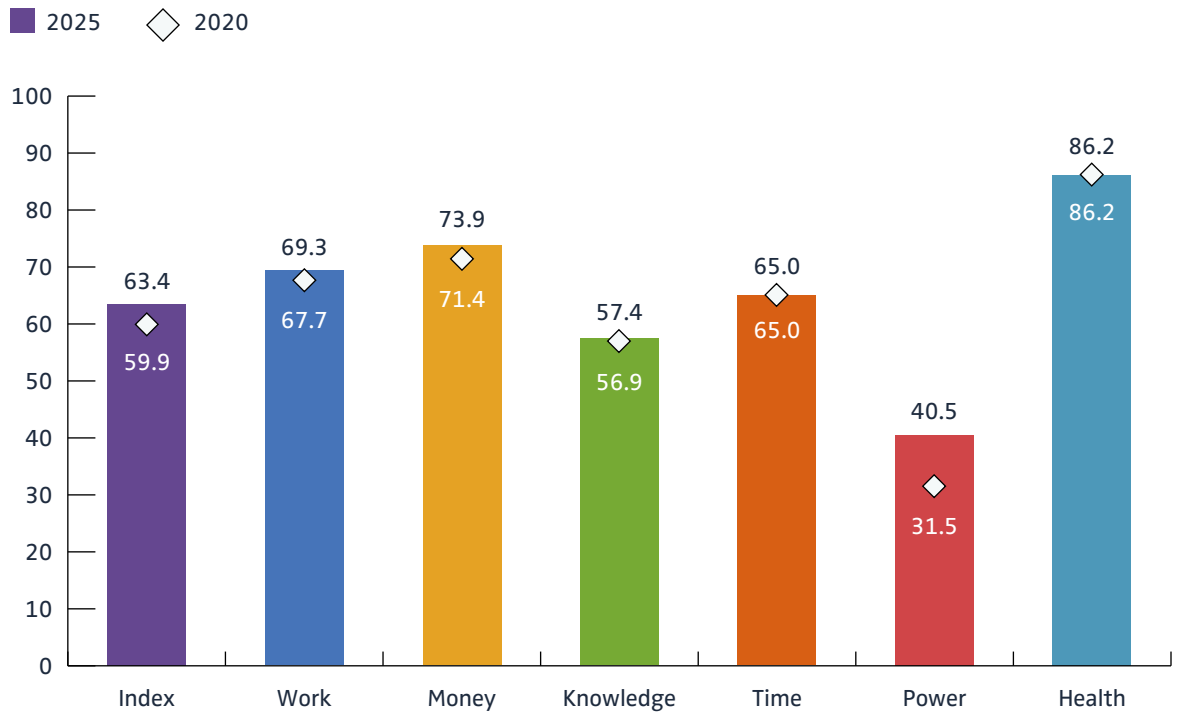
NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Of the six domains constituting the Gender Equality Index (Figure 2), the domain of power score of 40.5 in 2025 reveals that inequalities in decision-making pose the largest obstacle to gender equality, despite having made the greatest strides of any domain in the past 10 years. Since 2020, the score for the domain of power has risen by 9 points overall, averaging 1.8 points annually. This is largely due to gains in women's participation in economic and social decision-making in several Member States.

The domain of knowledge attained the second lowest score of 57.4. It has improved by only 1.8 points since 2010, and its slow pace remained consistent from 2015 to 2025. Although progress in educational attainment for both women and men is a long-standing EU achievement, persistent and pervasive gender segregation in certain fields of study in tertiary education continue to hamper progress in this area. At this rate, it will take many generations to achieve gender equality in education.

With a slightly higher score of 65.0, the domain of time fares little better. Despite data limitations hindering effective trend analysis, the domain highlights persistent gender inequalities in time spent on childcare, long-term care and social activities. The gender care gap is a key driver of gender inequality in the EU, limiting both women's ability to work and their time spent working, impacting their earnings and economic resources.

Figure 2: Gender Equality Index and domain scores, 2020 and 2025



NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

A 69.3 score for the domain of work marks a 1.6-point increase since 2020 and a 4.2-point increase since 2015. Although more women are now working, these results reflect the ongoing challenges of deeply entrenched gender inequalities in the workforce, in occupational and managerial segregation and in quality of work. It will take at least another 70 years to close gender gaps in employment and working life in the EU.

Persistent inequalities in the labour market ensure lifelong consequences for earnings and pensions. The domain of money score of 73.9, an increase of 5.2 points since 2015, shows how

families with or without children and older people in retirement are particularly affected by gender inequalities in earnings. With this pace of change, gender equality in financial resources and financial independence in the EU is unlikely for another 40 years or more.

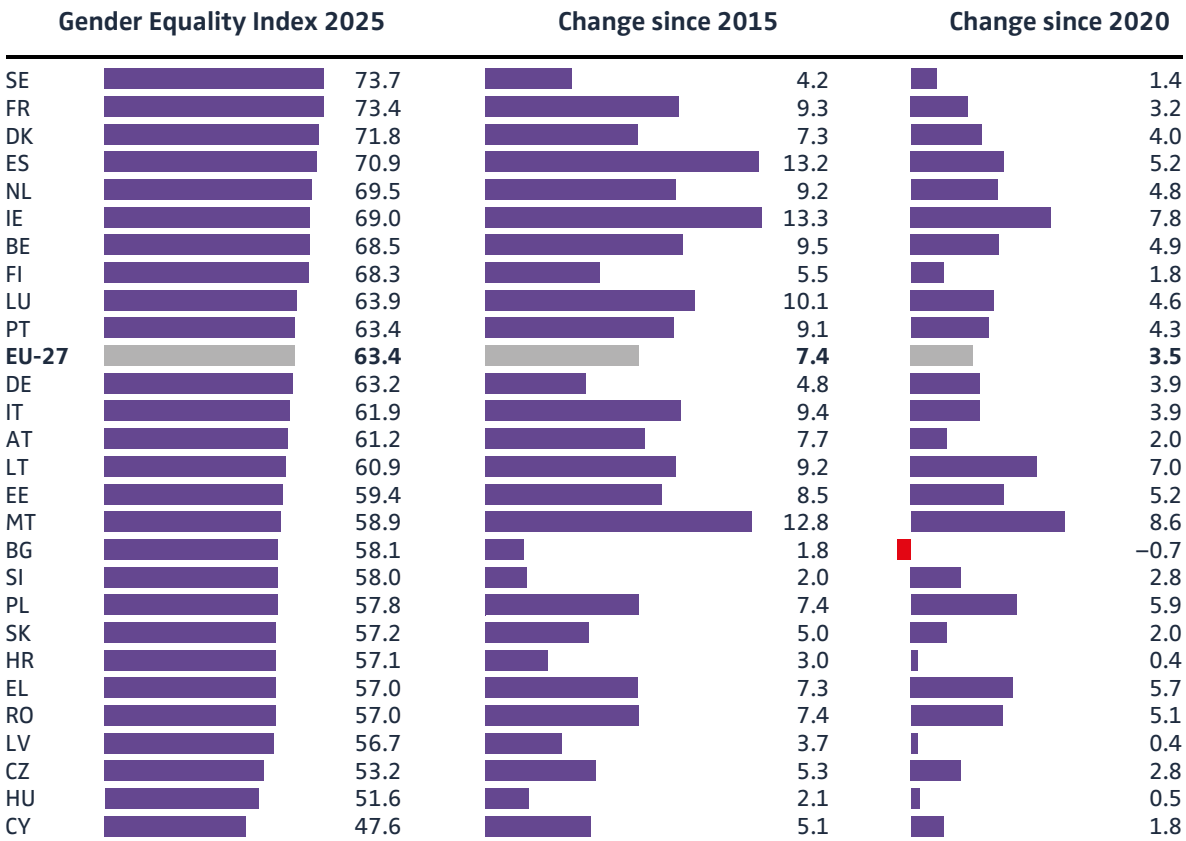
Finally, the highest Index score, 86.2, is for the domain of health. The domain has barely registered any change, a 2-point shift since 2015 and the same score as in 2020, which indicates that gender equality in health has flatlined.

2.2. Decision-making gains counteracts setbacks in education and health

The Gender Equality Index 2025 varies considerably between the Member States, with scores ranging from 73.7 for Sweden to 47.6 for Cyprus. Following Sweden's top ranking are France, Denmark and Spain, scoring 73.4, 71.8 and 70.9, respectively. Just above Cyprus among the Member States scoring lowest on gender equality are Hungary and Czechia, scoring 51.6 and 53.2, respectively (Figure 3).

Ten Member States are above the EU average of 63.4, with a total of 14 Member States scoring more than 60.0. Little more than 5 points separate the top eight Member States.

Figure 3: Gender Equality Index and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1. The Gender Equality Index 2025 uses 2024 data for the majority of indicators and traces progress over the short term (2020–2024) and the longer term (2015–2024). Greece and Romania have the same scores. Their position in the rank is determined statistically based on the second decimal place of the Index score.

Since 2020, Malta, Ireland and Lithuania have made most headway in gender equality, while Latvia, Croatia and Hungary went up by less than 1 point. Bulgaria is the only Member State to see its score fall – by 0.7 points (Table 8).

Since 2015, it is Ireland, Spain and Malta that have made the greatest strides, with scores rising by around 13 points, followed by Luxembourg and Belgium with an increase of around 10 points. Bulgaria, Slovenia and Hungary have registered the smallest changes over the long term, with respective score increases of 1.8, 2.0 and 2.1 points.

The substantial heterogeneity in performance across Member States and domains reflects the combined impact of progress and setbacks. Since 2020, 14 Member States have seen their scores for the knowledge domain fall, and 15 Member States saw their scores drop in the domain of health. Seven Member States saw their scores fall in the domain of work, while money and power fared better with five and three Member States regressing in each domain, respectively.

Table 8: Changes in the Gender Equality Index and domain scores, 2020–2025

	Changes in score (points), 2025 versus 2020						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-27	3.5	1.6	2.5	0.5	0.0	9.0	0.0
BE	4.9	1.6	3.3	3.4	0.0	12.9	0.4
BG	– 0.7	– 1.2	1.8	– 2.2	0.0	– 1.2	0.6
CZ	2.8	2.2	1.7	– 1.7	0.0	4.8	– 1.4
DK	4.0	– 1.0	– 0.1	– 0.3	0.0	16.6	– 0.9
DE	3.9	1.4	4.4	– 0.3	0.0	11.5	– 1.2
EE	5.2	2.2	4.0	0.3	0.0	7.7	– 1.2
IE	7.8	3.6	1.1	3.4	0.0	23.5	– 1.4
EL	5.7	– 0.5	2.1	– 4.4	0.0	12.0	– 0.5
ES	5.2	0.4	2.4	– 3.6	0.0	22.7	0.1
FR	3.2	3.3	1.7	4.0	0.0	9.5	– 0.4
HR	0.4	2.2	5.3	– 1.6	0.0	– 0.4	– 2.5
IT	3.9	0.5	2.8	0.2	0.0	12.7	– 0.1
CY	1.8	2.8	0.4	– 1.1	0.0	1.8	3.0
LV	0.4	– 1.1	– 1.6	2.3	0.0	0.3	1.7
LT	7.0	– 1.4	6.0	1.1	0.0	15.2	0.9
LU	4.6	4.0	2.6	1.5	0.0	9.7	– 0.4
HU	0.5	4.2	– 3.9	– 0.2	0.0	0.6	0.4
MT	8.6	9.6	2.9	1.3	0.0	14.2	– 2.9
NL	4.8	4.0	3.8	1.0	0.0	14.4	1.1
AT	2.0	2.3	1.3	– 0.2	0.0	5.1	– 0.9
PL	5.9	0.9	5.7	– 2.3	0.0	9.0	0.1
PT	4.3	3.0	– 1.0	– 1.3	0.0	11.2	1.0
RO	5.1	– 0.8	– 1.3	0.4	0.0	11.3	– 1.8
SI	2.8	– 2.6	2.4	– 2.7	0.0	6.7	– 0.2
SK	2.0	0.8	1.1	– 0.8	0.0	3.1	3.3
FI	1.8	0.2	1.1	0.7	0.0	7.6	– 0.8
SE	1.4	2.8	2.6	3.1	0.0	– 0.8	0.8

Progress in women's participation in decision-making structures continues to drive the overall progress captured by the Gender Equality Index since 2020 (Table 8). Twelve Member States increased their power domain scores by more than 10 points in five years, with Ireland making the greatest advance, 23.5 points. Spain follows with a 22.7-point jump, while Denmark's score rose by 16.6 points. Member States seeing score setbacks over the past five years are Bulgaria, Sweden and Croatia – by 1.2, 0.8 and 0.4 points, respectively.

In the domain of knowledge, the largest increase is observed in France, at 4 points. It is followed by Belgium's and Ireland's, 3.4 points each, and Sweden's 3.1-point rise. However, with growing gender disparities in educational participation and segregation in many Member States over the last five years, many scores have fallen. Greece's drop of 4.4 points was the highest, followed by Spain's 3.6 points and Slovenia's 2.7 points.

Despite most Member States scoring at least 80 in the domain of health – with only Lithuania, Latvia, Bulgaria and Romania below that threshold – the situation since 2020 has become less positive for many. Malta, Croatia and Romania have seen the largest falls in scores, by 2.9, 2.5 and 1.8 points, respectively.

In the domain of money, Lithuania has seen the most progress, with a 6-point score jump. It is followed by Poland's rise of 5.7 and Croatia's of 5.3 points. However, Hungary, Latvia, Romania and Portugal saw drops in scores of 3.9, 1.6, 1.3 and 1.0 points, respectively, while Denmark's score dropped by only 0.1 points.

In the domain of work, the Member States making the biggest leaps are Malta, with an 9.6-point rise, followed by Hungary, with a 4.2-point increase, and Luxembourg and the Netherlands, with a 4-point increase in each. Among the seven Member States with negative changes, Slovenia saw the largest fall, at 2.6 points, since 2020.

Due to lack of data, progress since 2020 was not recorded in the domain of time.

2.3. Uneven paths towards gender equality

Between 2010 and 2025, progress in gender equality across the EU has varied significantly between Member States, in terms of both the current levels and the pace of improvement. Examining the trends across the EU highlights how Member States are converging towards – or diverging away from – the shared goal of full gender equality. Achieving the EU's objective of upward social convergence – enhancing gender equality within each Member State while enabling less gender-equal Member States to catch up with more advanced ones – would help reduce disparities across the EU (Eurofound et al., 2021).

Analysis of the Gender Equality Index over this period shows that, on average, the EU has made steady progress, accompanied by a reduction in disparities between Member States. Overall, Index scores have converged at an annual rate of 25 %, reflecting a general upward trend. Yet this overall

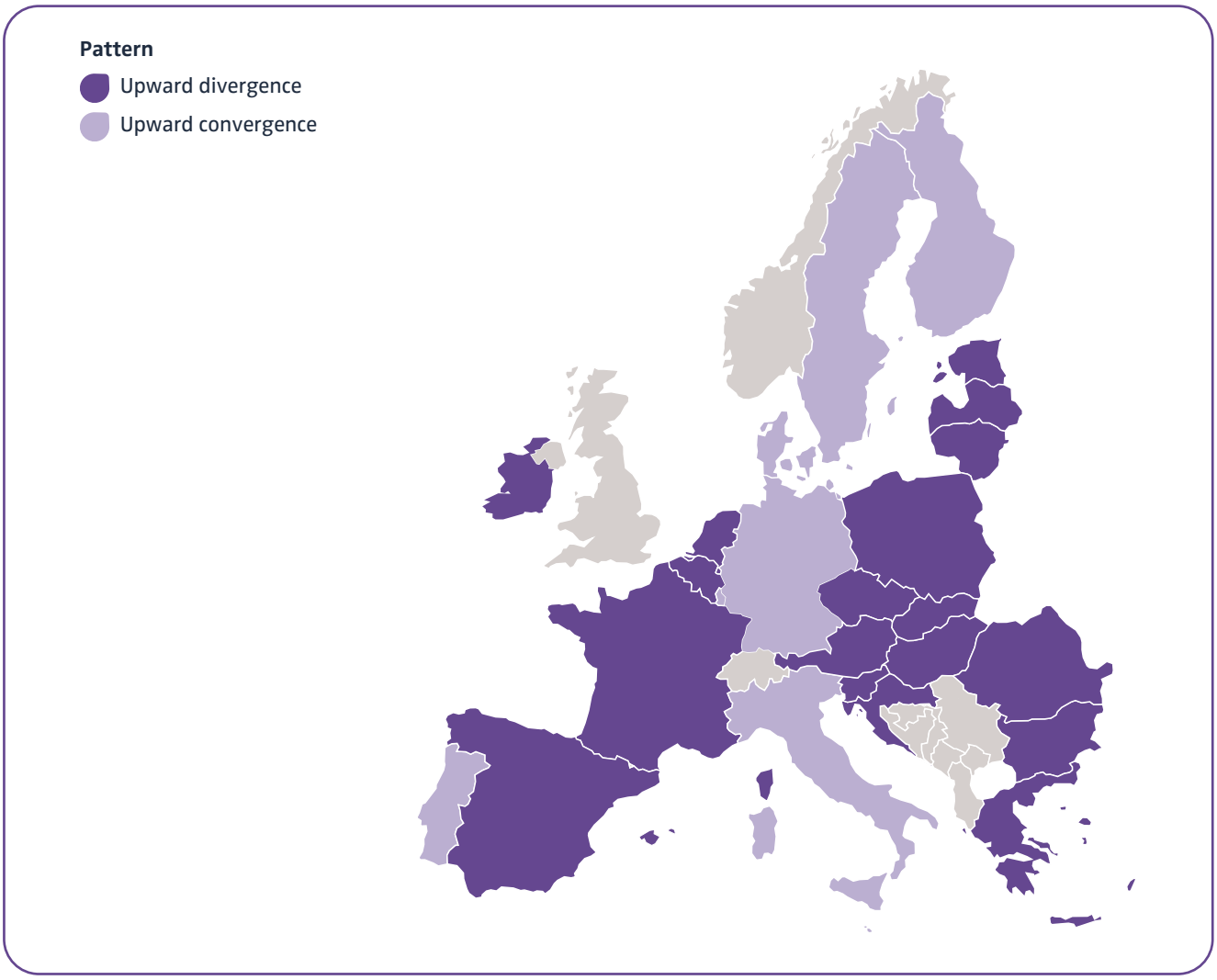
picture masks considerable variation in national trajectories, as not all Member States have progressed at the same pace.

Comparing each Member State's trend with the overall EU Index score reveals the following Member State patterns (Figure 4 and Figure 5).

- **Upward convergence.** Denmark, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal, Finland and Sweden are improving their scores over time while also reducing their gaps from the EU average.
- **Upward divergence.** Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechia, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia are improving their scores over time, but their disparities in comparison with the EU average are increasing.

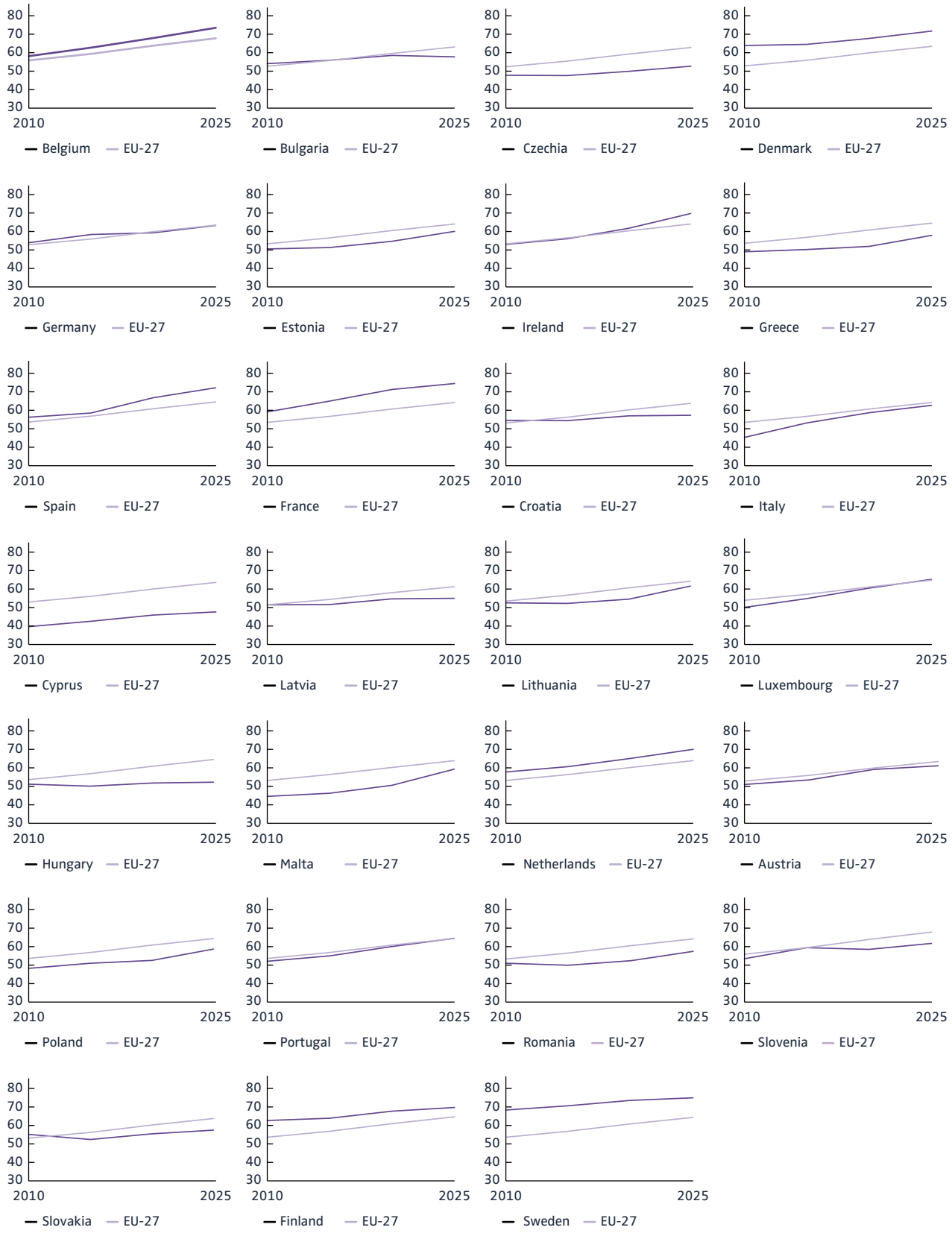
While the EU as a whole is moving towards greater gender equality, the path is uneven across Member States. Some Member States are rapidly catching up, others are consolidating their leading positions and a few continue to lag behind, highlighting the ongoing need for targeted policy action to ensure more balanced progress across the Union.

Figure 4: Patterns of convergence in the Gender Equality Index by Member State, 2010–2025



Source: Authors' calculations.

Figure 5: Gender Equality Index scores by Member State, 2010–2025



Source: Authors' calculations.

3. Domain of work

Women's employment rate in the EU is higher than ever, yet many women still face barriers to getting and staying in work. Limited job opportunities, constrained choices and discrimination, often linked to caregiving responsibilities, consistently hold women back. With unpaid care work pushing women into part-time jobs or out of the workforce entirely, improving work–life balance is essential for closing the employment gender gap.

EU policy actively promotes more people in paid work. It recognises higher levels of employment as crucial for economic growth, social cohesion and addressing challenges such as labour shortages and an ageing population. The European Pillar of Social Rights action plan set a 2030 headline employment target for at least 78 % of people aged 20 to 64 to be in jobs by 2030. While the employment rate for women in 2024 was 71 %, men exceeded the target at 81 %.

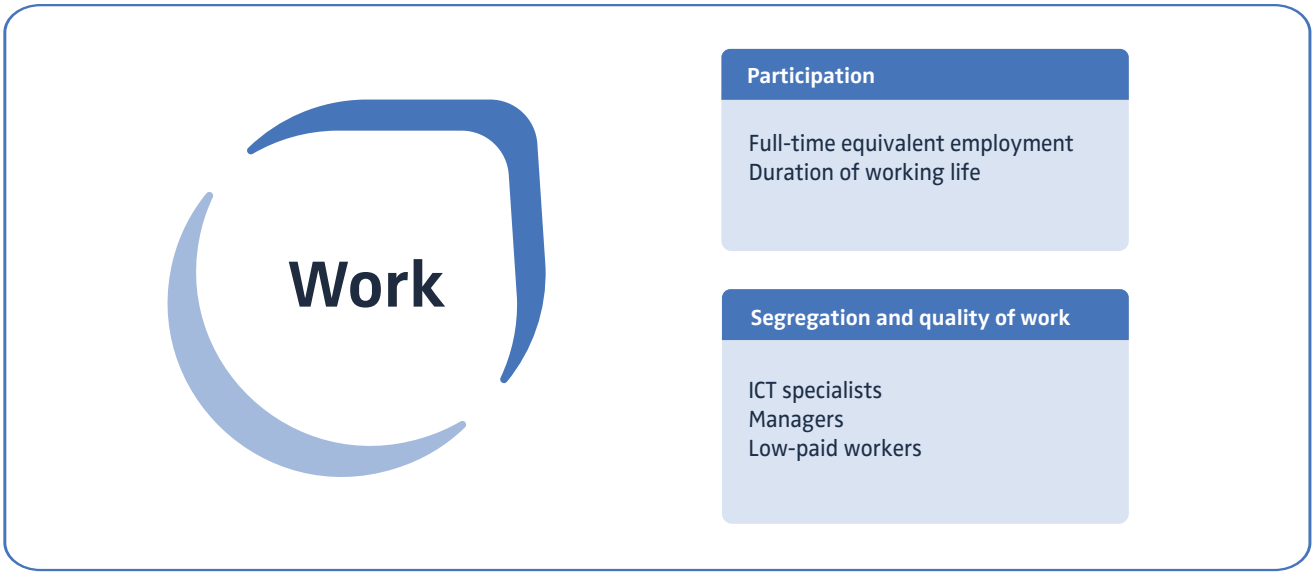
The gender employment gap is closely tied to occupational segregation and the presence of far fewer women in leadership roles. Tackling occupational segregation has taken on a new relevance given the digital and green transitions and their impact on work, changing demographics and other trends.

Women remain concentrated in sectors and jobs with lower pay and less perceived value – but, even here, men dominate top positions. Meanwhile, high-growth sectors like ICT suffer labour shortages. Despite promising career prospects, only 2 in 10 ICT specialists in the EU are women. Not only does segregation limit individual potential, but it is also a formidable barrier to societal cohesion, innovation and economic growth.

EU policy context

- The **European Pillar of Social Rights** aims to ensure that working women and men have equal treatment, opportunities, career progression and pay. It promotes quality jobs with fair working conditions and supports shared care responsibilities.
- The **Work–Life Balance Directive** strives to improve gender equality in the labour market by encouraging both parents to take up family leave and promoting flexible work arrangements.
- The **Adequate Minimum Wage Directive** requires Member States to set adequate minimum wage levels. This supports gender equality, as it benefits women, who are over-represented in the lowest-paid sectors and are more affected by low wages.
- The **Digital Decade policy programme 2030** promotes women's participation in digital careers, with a 2030 target of having at least 20 million ICT specialists and ensuring women's greater access to this field.
- Directive (EU) 2019/1152, the **Transparent and Predictable Working Conditions Directive**, seeks to strengthen protections for workers, particularly those in precarious and non-standard jobs, in which women are disproportionally represented. The need for flexible work that fits around their caregiving responsibilities leaves women more exposed to economic insecurity and poor working conditions.

The domain of work examines the extent to which women and men can benefit from equal access to jobs and the degree of gender segregation in the labour market and in the quality of work.



The subdomain of participation is based on two key indicators. Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment ([4]) captures not only how many people are employed, but also their working time. It factors in part-time work, which is far more common among women than men. The second indicator looks at the duration of working life.

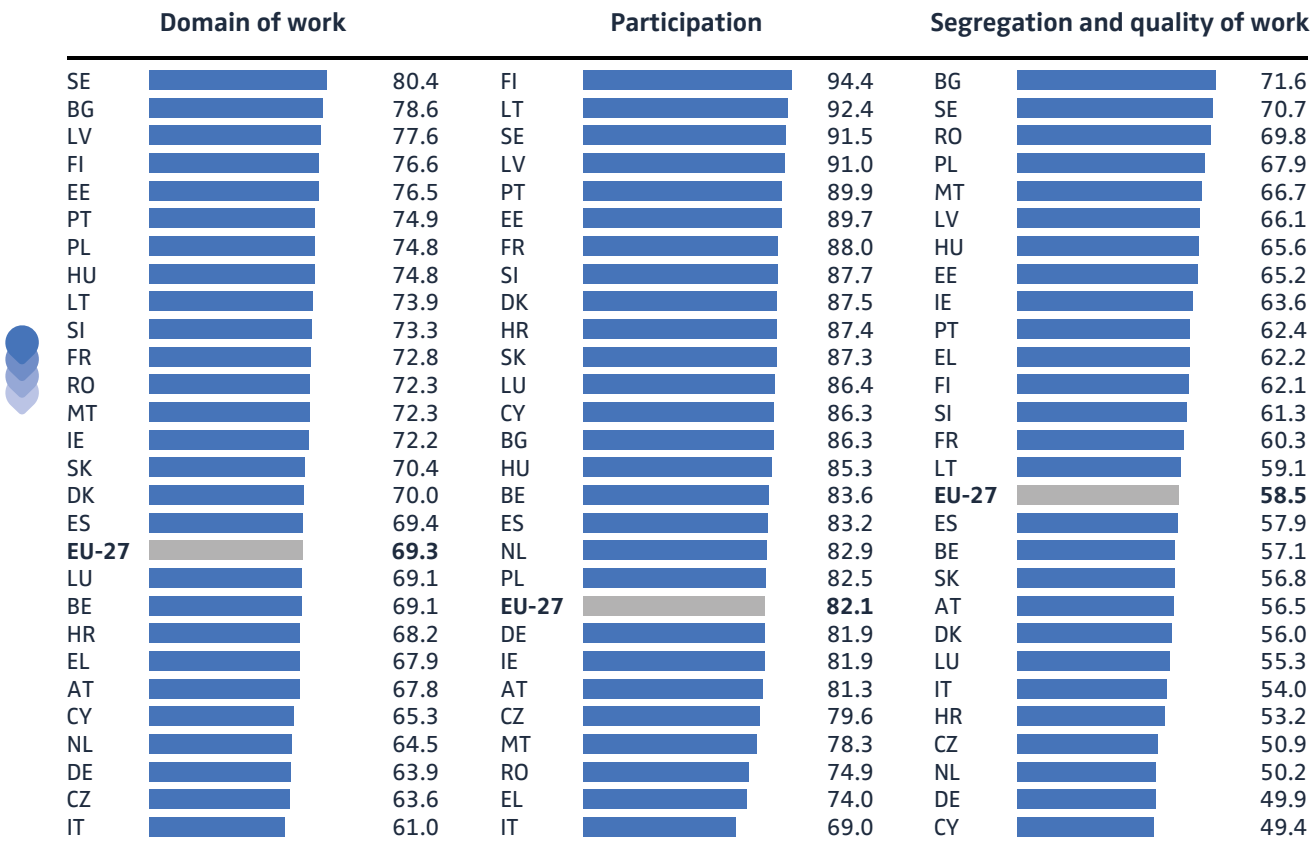
A second subdomain focuses on the structure and quality of work. It includes two indicators for gender segregation in the labour market and one indicator for low-paid workers, defined as receiving two thirds of the national median employee income or less (including gross cash, non-cash employee income and employers' social insurance contributions). Low-paid jobs are a key driver of economic vulnerability. Women – often stereotyped as secondary or supplementary earners – are at far greater risk of such vulnerability, as they are more often engaged in part-time work.

3.1. More women in jobs but also in poorer working conditions

Gender equality in the domain of work ranks third among all Index domains, with a score of 69.3. Of the two subdomains, gender equality in the participation of women and men in paid work has a far higher score, 82.1 points, than the 58.5 points for gender segregation and quality of work (Figure 6).

([4]) The FTE employment rate is a unit to measure employed people in a way that makes them comparable even though they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked with the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours they work. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week when full-time work consists of 40 hours is counted as 0.5 FTEs.

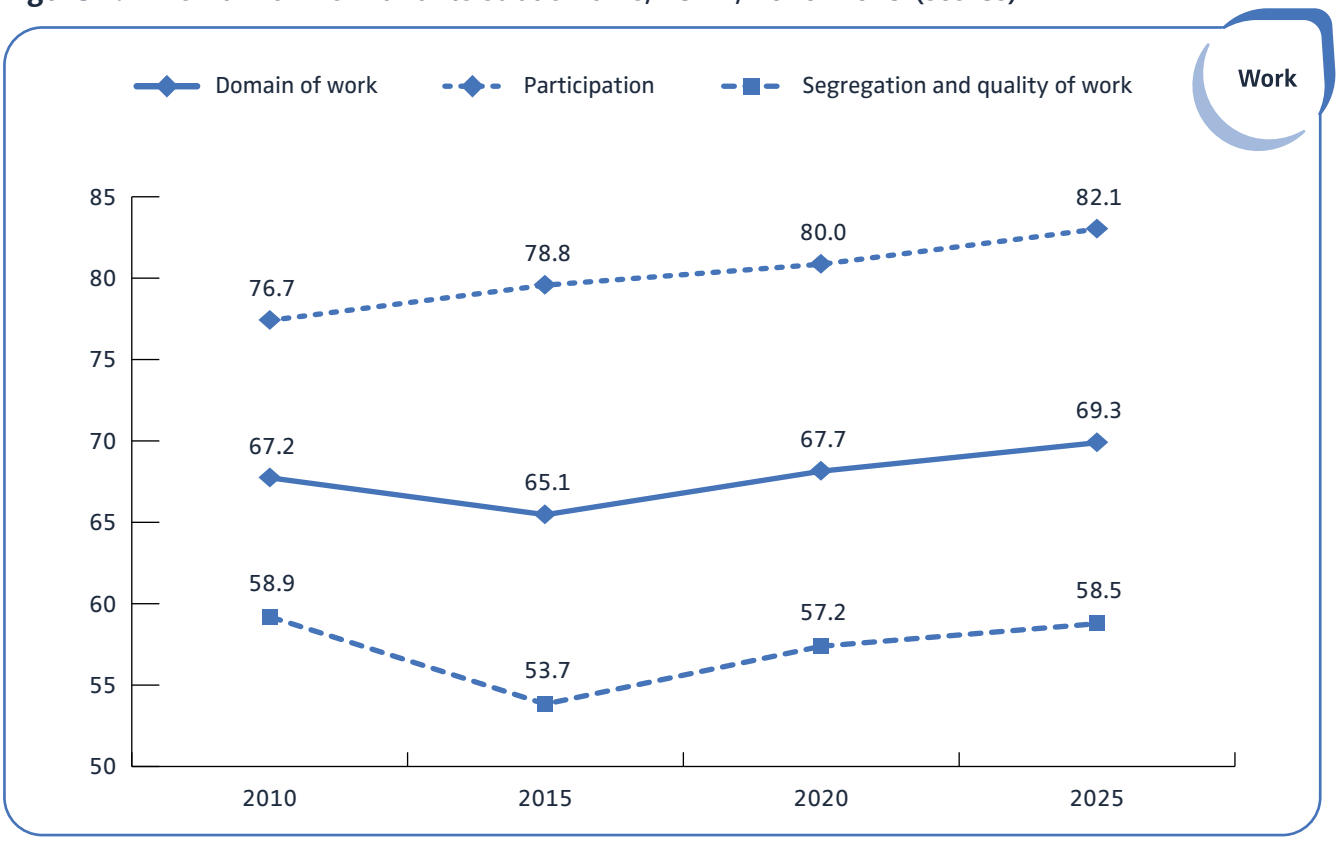
Figure 6: Domain of work and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Since 2010, women's employment has been increasing, and their working life is lasting longer. This is reflected in the gradual increase in the participation subdomain score (Figure 7). However, with progress since 2015 inching forward by just 0.4 points each year, it will take at least another 70 years before there is gender equality in the participation subdomain in the EU. In Member States such as Italy, Greece and Romania, the path to equality will be much longer. Care responsibilities, cultural norms and gender stereotypes continue to discourage women from entering certain professions or advancing in their careers. Meanwhile, the lack of affordable childcare and flexible work options continues to hamper sustained employment.

Figure 7: Domain of work and its subdomains, EU-27, 2010–2025 (scores)

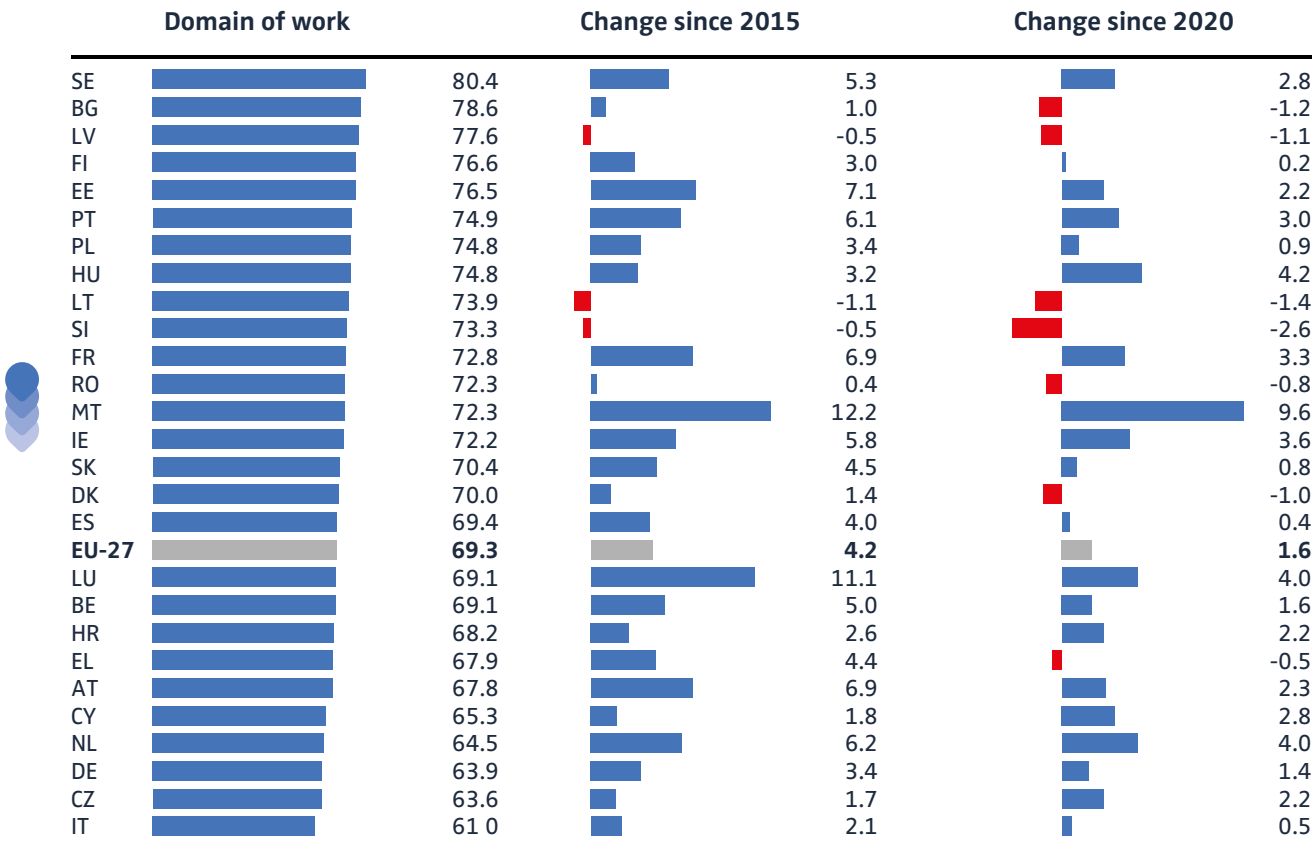


Progress in tackling the gender segregation of labour and gender inequalities in the quality of work has stalled at around 59 points after ups and downs. Women's access to managerial and ICT roles, and other better-paid jobs, is the key obstacle.

More women may be working and for longer, but this has not triggered change. They are still largely confined to 'jobs for women' with poorer working conditions.

National scores for the work domain range from 80.4 in Sweden to 61 in Italy, with the score variability between Member States lower than in the other domains (Figure 8). From 2015 to 2025 Member States such as Malta and Luxembourg have seen considerable growth in women's employment, the length of their working lives and the share of women managers. However, Slovenia, Lithuania, Latvia and others have regressed in gender equality in work. In Lithuania the number of female ICT specialists declined, while in Slovenia and Latvia women's share of managerial roles has fallen since 2020.

Figure 8: Domain of work and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



A closer look at the indicators reveals the need for tangible policy measures (Table 9). Gender gaps in employment underline women's untapped potential – a missed opportunity given critical labour shortages and EU efforts to maintain global competitiveness.

Despite the employment gap, women now work for 35 years, an increase of nearly 4 years since 2010. In the Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark, women work even longer, between 40 and 42 years (44–46 years for men). In Italy and Romania, women work less – about 28 and 29 years compared with 37 and 36 years for men.

Examining the share of women managers and ICT specialists helps us to better understand just how divided women and men are in the workplace, both in the work they do and in how far up the ladder they climb. While about 5 % of the total EU workforce is in ICT, this rapidly growing sector is badly in need of more specialists. The European Commission anticipates an ICT specialist shortage of 8 million in the EU by 2030, as outlined in its digital compass (European Commission, 2021a). Currently, women occupy 20 % of ICT jobs – an increase of just 3 % since 2015. Estonia, Romania, Bulgaria and Latvia have the highest percentages of women in the sector, at around 27 %. Their greater involvement is probably due to policy strategies with obvious socioeconomic benefits.

Meanwhile, 35 % of managers in the EU are women, a rise of only 3 percentage points (pp) since 2015. Sweden, Latvia and Poland are closest to achieving parity, with, respectively, 45 %, 43 % and 42 % of management positions held by women. Cyprus has the lowest share, at 26 %, followed by Croatia and Italy with 28 %. Resolving the gender power imbalance in management is crucial, as it is not just a matter of fairness – it carries a large socioeconomic cost. A lack of gender equality in the workplace can lead to reduced productivity, limited innovation and a less inclusive and engaged workforce. Furthermore, it can negatively affect a company's reputation and ability to attract and retain talent (EIGE, 2017a; European Commission: Directorate-General for Economic and Financial Affairs et al., 2022).

Table 9: Indicators of the domain of work, EU-27

	Women	Men
FTE employment rate, age group 15–89, 2023 (%)	44	59
Duration of working life, age group 15 and above, 2024 (years)	35	39
ICT specialists, age group 15–74, 2024 (%)	20	80
Managers, age group 15–74, 2024 (%)	35	65
Low-paid workers, age group 16 and above, 2024 (%)	28	16

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

By looking at low-paid workers, the Index aims to grasp an important aspect of precarious working conditions. Considerably more women than men (28 % and 16 %, respectively) in the EU are in poorly paid jobs – that is, earning two thirds of the national median employee income or less. The Member States with the highest shares of women in low-paid work are Luxembourg (38 %), Germany (37 %), the Netherlands (35 %), Austria (35 %) and Ireland (34 %). Among low-paid workers, gender gaps to women's disadvantage are largest in the Netherlands (20 pp), Austria (20 pp), Germany (19 pp) and Cyprus (19 pp). This disparity contributes to a wider gender income gap and broader societal inequalities. Addressing this requires tackling both the causes of low income and the systemic inequalities leading to women's prevalence in lower-paid jobs. This includes gender segregation in jobs, which usually follows set patterns in education (see the domain of knowledge, Section 5).

3.2. Working men fare best in a couple with children

Widespread gender norms and stereotypes – especially around unequal distribution of unpaid care – greatly shape gender gaps in employment, as they can cause women to not work or to work fewer hours than men. In 2024, more than three times as many women as men worked part-time (28 % and 8 %) ([5]). FTE employment rates capture both participation rates and actual work intensity by adjusting employment for hours worked.

FTE rates improved unevenly (2023 versus 2015)

Largest improvement – women outpaced men

Age 50–64: + 11 pp women, + 9 pp men
Couple with children: + 9 pp women, + 4 pp men
Age 25–49: + 8 pp women, + 5 pp men
Single parents: + 7 pp women, + 5 pp men

Smaller improvement – men outpaced women

Low education: + 1 pp women, + 4 pp men
Foreign-born: + 1 pp women, + 4 pp men

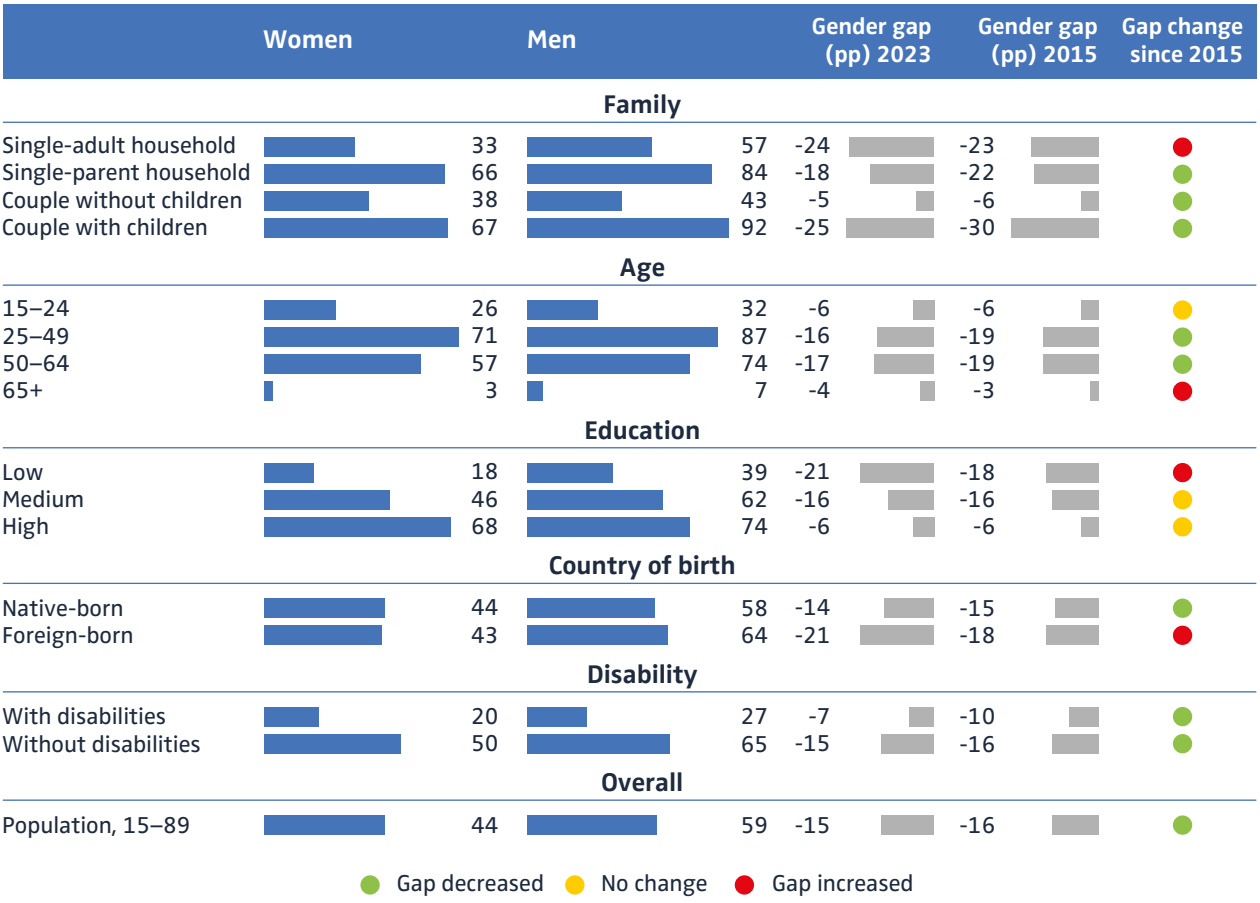
In 2023, 44 % of employed women aged 15–89 were in FTE employment, compared with 59 % of men, indicating an opportunity chasm between the two in earning their own income (Figure 9). Between 2015 and 2023, the FTE employment rate rose overall: by 5 pp for women and 3 pp for men. However, large gender gaps and skewed progress between different groups stress the need to better address root causes of intersecting inequalities.

Gender gaps in FTE employment rates grow much wider when specific family situations or personal factors are examined, for example single-parent households or a person's level of education. Analysis of cross-cutting gender gaps in FTE employment rates highlights unpaid care as a major factor behind the largest disparities. In 2023, 92 % of men in couples with children were working full-time, compared with 67 % of women in the same category. This remarkably high rate for men – the best across all groups – also revealed the widest FTE employment gender gap. Living together as a couple with children appears to boost men's opportunities for paid work, with support from partners, their workplace or wider settings – but limits women's. It underlines the influence and impact of gender stereotypes on financial opportunities when women and men are in a couple (see the domain of money, Section 4).

Other worrying trends include growing gender gaps among foreign-born and low-educated groups. They reflect the mounting barriers these women face in accessing jobs in an especially fast-changing world of work, and from the broader challenges of social inclusion and integration.

([5]) Based on Eurostat (lfsa_eppga) data.

Figure 9: Full-time employment equivalent rate among 15- to 89-year-olds, EU-27 (%)



Notes: EU-LFS data includes a break in the time series. Groups under the dimensions of 'age' and 'education' sum to the overall population. For other groups, missing data and/or excluded groups are not fully comparable with the overall population. Education attainment includes people who have completed International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 0–2 (low), ISCED level 3 or 4 (medium) or ISCED levels 5–8 (high). The family type definition is based on the relationships between the members of households – that is, a couple is defined as two adults living in the same household and declaring themselves to be in a relationship (whether married or not). Children are only those economically dependent household members (i.e. aged below 18, as of 2021; 18–24 in previous years) who are declared to be children or stepchildren of the couple or one parent (in single-parent households) and are not in employment or unemployment; for clarity of interpretation, indicated family types strictly account for the aforementioned types of relationships and the socioeconomic status of children, excluding households with different compositions. Gap changes: in green when it has decreased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in red when it has increased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in yellow when it has increased or decreased by less than 1 pp. Data for the disability analysis includes 2023 data for Hungary and provisional data for Lithuania.
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-LFS, 2023, and EU-SILC, 2024, microdata.

3.3. Tackling gender norms in work needs to start young

Despite some progress, gender stereotypes continue to reinforce employment inequalities across the EU by determining expectations, behaviours and institutional norms – even in Member States with high overall gender equality. Stereotypes associating leadership and assertiveness with men, and caregiving and emotional sensitivity with women, perpetuate workforce gender segregation by constraining career choices or curtailing promotion. For example, they discourage men from entering care-related jobs, and they fuel labour shortages in essential sectors (OECD, 2021). Widely held assumptions that women should shoulder unpaid caregiving hem women in. Their access to (full-time) jobs is limited, especially in high-investment sectors such as energy or technology, where masculine workplace cultures often fall short of supporting work–life balance.

Gender stereotypes operate in subtle yet powerful ways. They inform how women and men perceive workplace realities – often with little understanding of the challenges faced by the other gender. There is a clear gender gap in perceptions of equal treatment at work in all Member States: 45 % of men but 35 % of women think both genders are treated equally in the workplace ([6]). Similarly, 56 % of men compared with 48 % of women believe women and men have equal promotion opportunities ([7]).

Women and men agreeing that in their country

'Women and men are treated in the same way at work.'

Member States with the biggest gender gaps:

Finland: 34 % women, 59 % men

Slovenia: 39 % women, 57 % men

Ireland: 35 % women, 54 % men

Luxembourg: 29 % women, 48 % men

Poland: 46 % women, 61 % men

Across generations, support for gender equality is growing, albeit slowly. The pace is more gradual for young men than for young women. The belief that men have more right to a job than women do when jobs are scarce is still held by 16 % of men aged 45–64 and by 15 % of men aged 15–24 ([8]), showing little variation across age groups. While 14 % of women aged 45–64 hold this belief, only 7 % of women aged 15–24 do so. Men of different ages also consistently believe men earn more than women because their jobs are more demanding – a view less common among women, particularly young women ([9]). This suggests young women are most attuned to subtle discrimination, whereas young men may be more inclined to reproduce or reassert traditional norms, possibly under the influence of online spaces circulating misogynistic messages (Tremmel et al., 2023).

Women and men agreeing that

'Men earn more than women because their jobs are more demanding.'

The gender gap is largest between the youngest groups:

15–24: 29 % women, 43 % men

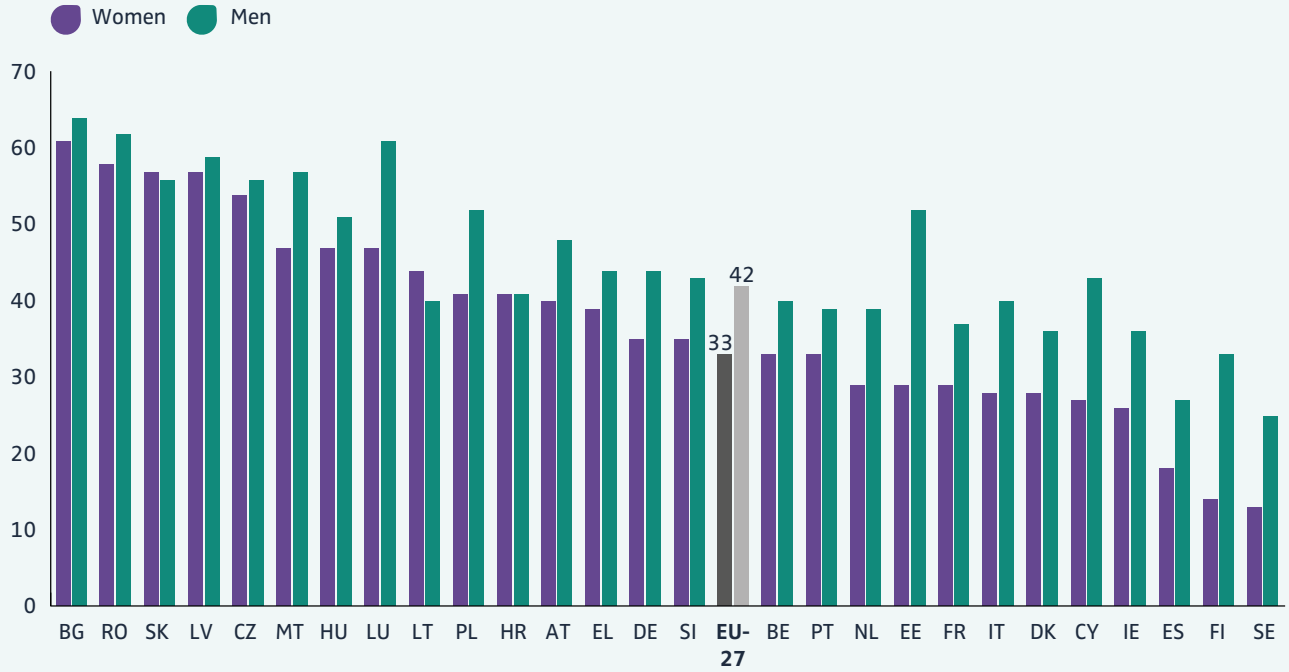
25–44: 35 % women, 46 % men

45–64: 35 % women, 45 % men

65+: 40 % women, 46 % men

([6]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([7]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([8]) Based on data from the 2017–2022 European Values Study 5 / World Values Survey 7. This includes answers from 23 Member States.
([9]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

Figure 10: Women and men aged 16–74 agreeing that 'If childcare services are not available, mothers should stay at home with the child and fathers should prioritise their job' (%)



Source: EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.

Gender stereotypes and their impact on employment vary across the Member States. EIGE's CARE survey shows an average of 42 % of men and 33 % of women who believe that fathers should work and mothers should stay at home when childcare services are unavailable (Figure 10). These averages mask significant variation between the Member States: from 25 % of men and 13 % of women in Sweden to 64 % men and 61 % women in Bulgaria with this view. Traditional beliefs around gender roles continue to define how people see women in the workplace. Even when women work as much as men, they are often seen as secondary earners. These perceptions affect both women's and men's decisions for their careers and family responsibilities, but affect them differently.

4. Domain of money

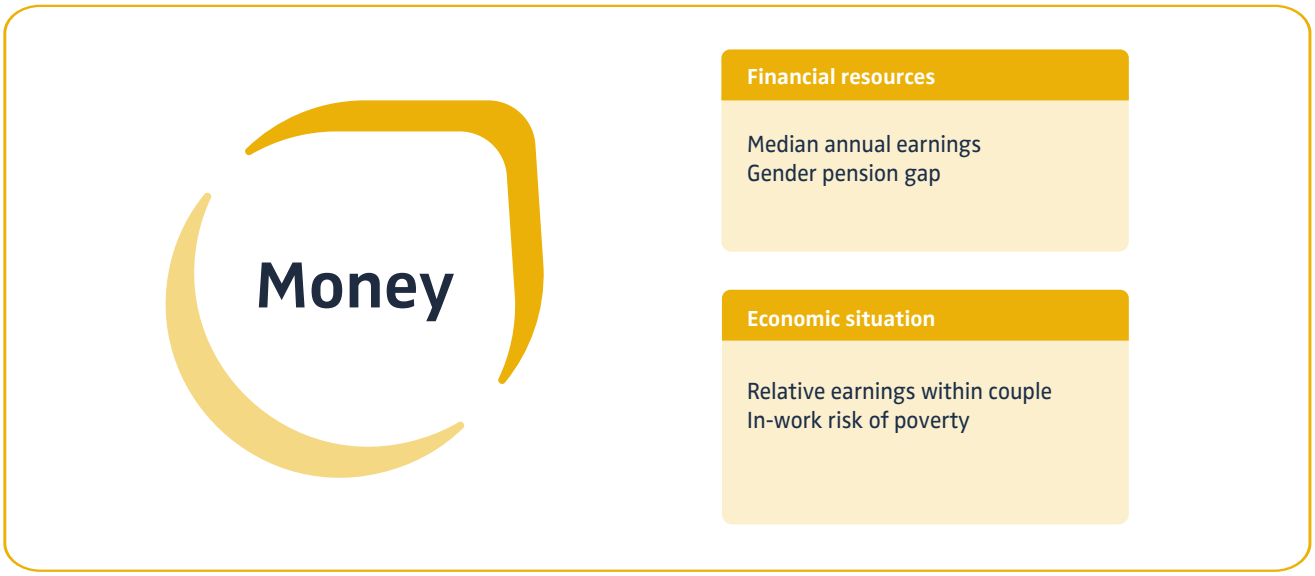
Economic independence is a prerequisite for both women and men to be able to make genuine choices and lead fulfilling lives. However, women in the EU continue to be more financially insecure and economically unequal. As they are more likely to be in unstable jobs and work part-time, with limited access to financial resources, they struggle more economically (EIGE, 2024a).

The principle of equal pay for work of equal value has been a cornerstone of EU law since 1957, offering legal protection against pay discrimination. Despite this long-standing commitment, women still earn less than men, with little to no headway made in closing the gender gaps on pay and pensions.

Access to financial resources is a key factor in determining power dynamics and decision-making within households. The concept of relative resources is particularly important among couples, with the partner on a lower income often having less bargaining power and influence over decision-making (Huber et al., 2009; Vogler et al., 1994). Gender differences in earnings likewise affect wealth accumulation. Although wealth disparities within couples are largely unknown due to data limitations, women's typically lower earnings and their structurally disadvantaged position in the labour market mean they are less able to generate long-term wealth (Balestra et al., 2025). Not only do these gaps translate into diminished financial autonomy for women – reinforcing traditional power imbalances within relationships – but their consequences are also lifelong.

The impact of lower pay, more part-time work and career breaks due to care responsibilities builds over a woman's lifetime. The resulting gender gap in pensions is a key contributor to poverty in older age. Even with legal safeguards in place, structural and cultural barriers continue to impede women economically. Changing demographics and the rapidly evolving nature of work fuelled by digital transformation and transition can have serious ramifications for further widening gender gaps in pay and income. These developments call for stronger action and systemic change.

The domain of money analyses key gender gaps in access to financial resources and in economic situations.



EU policy context

- The **2020–2025 gender equality strategy** emphasises that women and men in all their diversity should have equal opportunities to thrive and be economically independent, be paid equally for work of equal value, have equal access to finances and receive fair pensions.
- The **Pay Transparency Directive** aims to combat pay discrimination and to close the gender pay gap through pay transparency. EU companies will be required to share information on salaries and act if their gender pay gap exceeds 5 %.
- The **European Pillar of Social Rights** asserts the principle of equal pay for work of equal value and endeavours to address the gender pay gap. It sets an action plan to reduce the risk of poverty and social exclusion for at least 15 million people by 2030 (compared with 2019), including a minimum of 5 million children.
- The **2023 Council recommendation on adequate minimum income ensuring active inclusion** seeks to strengthen the safety nets for women and men by combining adequate income support with access to enabling and essential services for people lacking sufficient resources.
- The **Adequate Minimum Wage Directive** strives to enable workers to earn enough to afford a decent standard of living, which can indirectly help reduce the gender pay gap, lift women out of poverty and improve their economic standing.

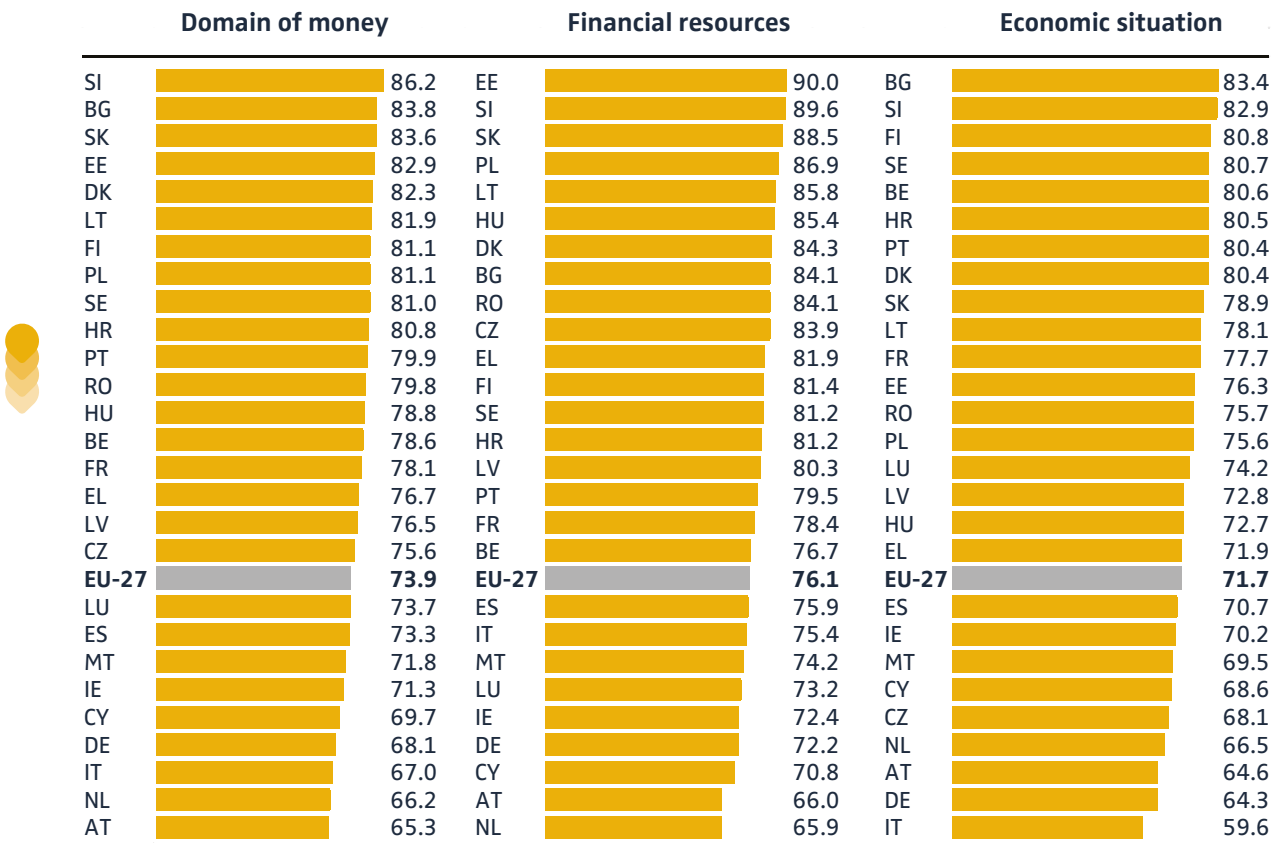
The subdomain of access to financial resources is captured through two main indicators. One looks at the median annual earnings of employed women and men based on EU-SILC data. The other focuses on the gender pension gap. It shows the percentage by which women's average pension income is higher or lower than men's average pension income. Pension income includes old-age benefits, survivors' benefits and regular pensions from individual private plans.

The subdomain of economic situation covers two aspects: financial inequalities within heterosexual and same-sex couples (i.e. earnings of an individual expressed as a percentage of a partner's earnings) and poverty risk despite having a job. The in-work poverty rate refers to the percentage of employed or self-employed people at risk of poverty. This data is collected at the household level. However, robust estimation of gender differences requires measuring risk separately for individual women and men. The Index proposes a way to overcome data limitations and focuses on in-work risk of poverty in single-adult households, which helps reveal gender gaps.

4.1. Bridging the earnings divide to close household inequalities

With a score of 73.9, gender equality in the domain of money ranks second in the Index. Of the two subdomains, gender equality in access to financial resources, at 76.1 points, has a higher score than economic situation, at 71.7 points (Figure 11).

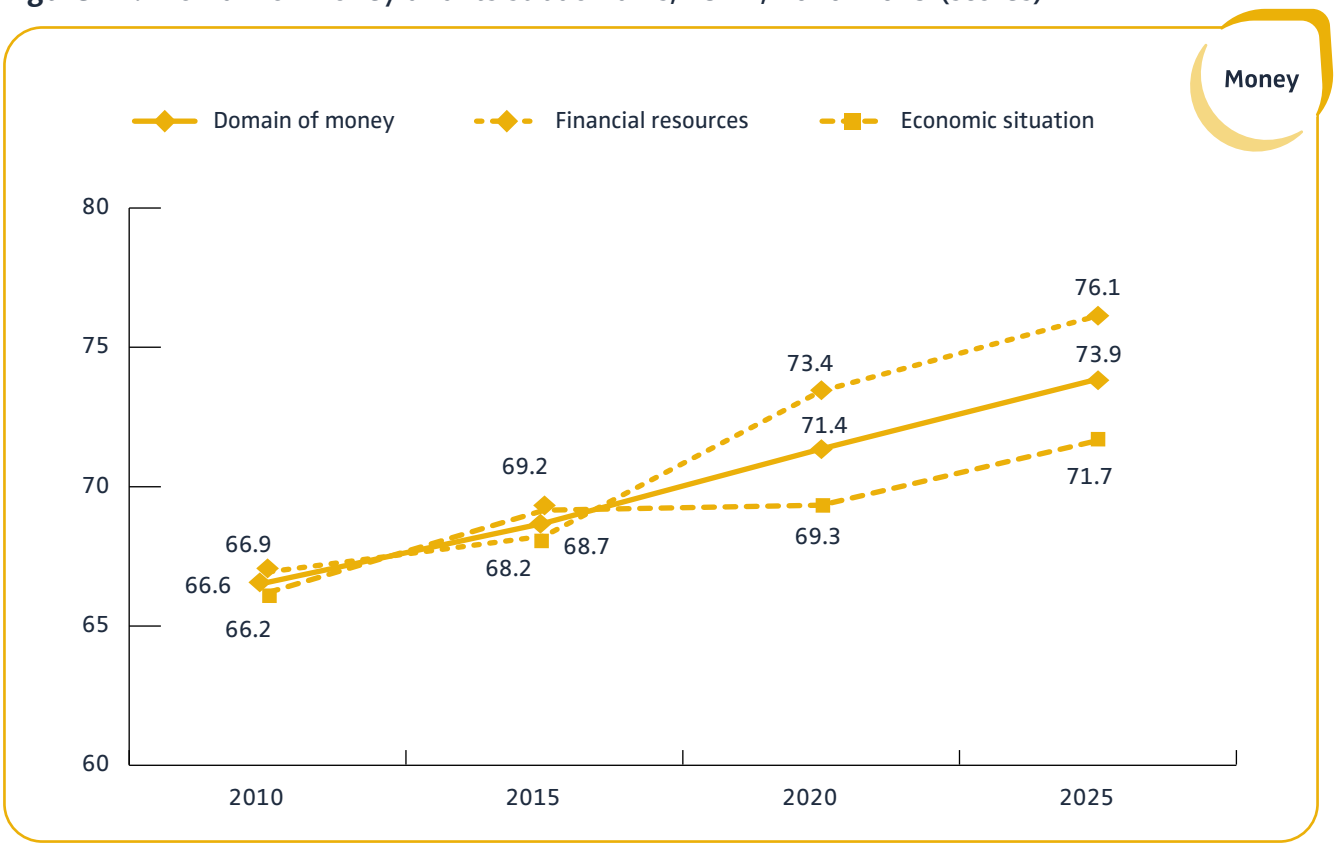
Figure 11: Domain of money and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Since 2010, both subdomains have been converging in an upward trend. Although gender equality in financial resources rose by 9.2 points, much remains to be done (Figure 12). Persistent gender gaps in annual earnings and pensions reflect structural inequalities shaped by deeply rooted societal norms and institutions. At this rate, it will take about two generations to achieve equality in earnings and pension income.

Figure 12: Domain of money and its subdomains, EU-27, 2010–2025 (scores)

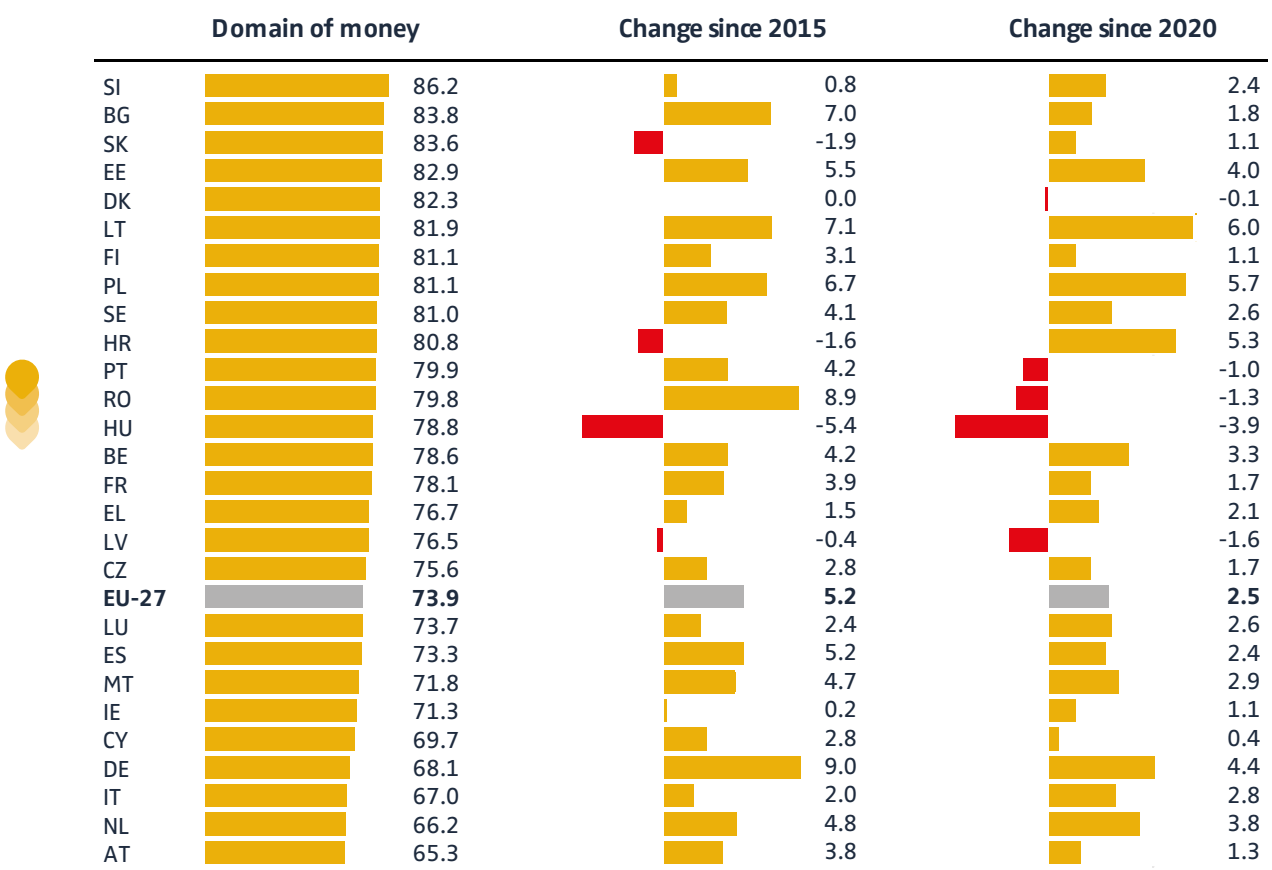


Progress in economic situation is moving slower – just 5.5 points up since 2010. Here, significant inequalities remain, especially in relative earnings between partners and in the in-work risk of poverty between women and men in single-adult households.

Ultimately, the two subdomains are tightly linked. Narrowing gender gaps in earnings and income could go far in reducing household earnings inequality (Azzollini et al., 2023).

Across the EU, scores for the money domain range from a high of 86.2 in Slovenia to a low of 65.3 in Austria (Figure 13). Over the past 10 years, Member States such as Germany, Romania, Lithuania, Bulgaria or Poland have made headway in reducing the gender divide in earnings, pensions and in-work poverty rates. This has been achieved through policies such as establishing an adequate minimum income and through legislative interventions addressing the gender pension gap or pay transparency. Legal systems, cultural norms and strong social dialogue are key drivers of how effectively a country responds to these challenges.

Figure 13: Domain of money and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



A closer look at the indicators calls for actionable policies: employed women in the EU earn 77 % of men's annual earnings (Table 10). This figure accounts for working time, making it a more accurate reflection of gender pay inequality than hourly pay comparisons. For example, in Austria, the Netherlands and Germany, where there is high prevalence of part-time work, women earn, respectively, 67 %, 68 % and 70 % of men's annual earnings.

The combination of women's shorter working time and lower earning potential builds up over time and leads to a 25 % gender pension gap in the EU. The gaps are largest in Malta (40 %) and in the Netherlands and Austria (both 36 %). The smallest gender gaps are in Estonia (6 %), Slovakia (8 %) and Czechia and Slovenia (both 10 %).

Earnings inequality also plays out within households. In couples, men in the EU earn an average of 52 % more than their partners. In Italy, Germany, Austria and the Netherlands, men earn between 112 % and 72 % more than their partners, reinforcing financial dependence at home (see more in Section 4.2).

Table 10: Indicators of the domain of money, EU-27

	Women	Men
Median annual earnings, age group 18–64, employed population, 2024 (purchasing power standard)	23 000	29 960
Gender pension gap, age group 65 and above, 2024 (%)	25	
Median of the earnings ratio within couples, age group 18–64, 2024 (%)	70	152
In-work risk of poverty in single-adult households, age group 16 and above, employed population, 2024 (%)	16	13

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

To understand the risks and experiences of poverty from a gender perspective, it is important to look beyond conventional indicators. By focusing on single-adult households (single parents, older people, students, etc.), the Index reveals the gendered dimension of in-work risk of poverty, which would otherwise go unnoticed. In the EU, 16 % of employed women and 13 % of employed men living in single-adult households have insufficient household income to meet basic needs. At the Member State level, women are most disadvantaged in Malta, with 25 % of employed women in single-adult households struggling to meet basic needs, followed by Luxembourg (22 %) and Spain and Italy (both 20 %). The highest figures for men are in Malta (22 %), Estonia (21 %) and Bulgaria (20 %).

To capture gender differences in poverty more accurately, the Index would greatly benefit from individual-level data. Indicators at the household level risk masking inequalities within households by assuming that all members share resources equally. In reality, access to income, assets and decision-making power often differs considerably between women and men within the same household. Individual-level data would reveal these dynamics and highlight how gender cuts through other inequalities in diverse manifestations of poverty. However, comparable EU-level data collected according to common standards is largely unavailable at the individual level, limiting the scope for fully disaggregated, gender-sensitive poverty measurement.

4.2. High earnings gap thwarts women's financial security

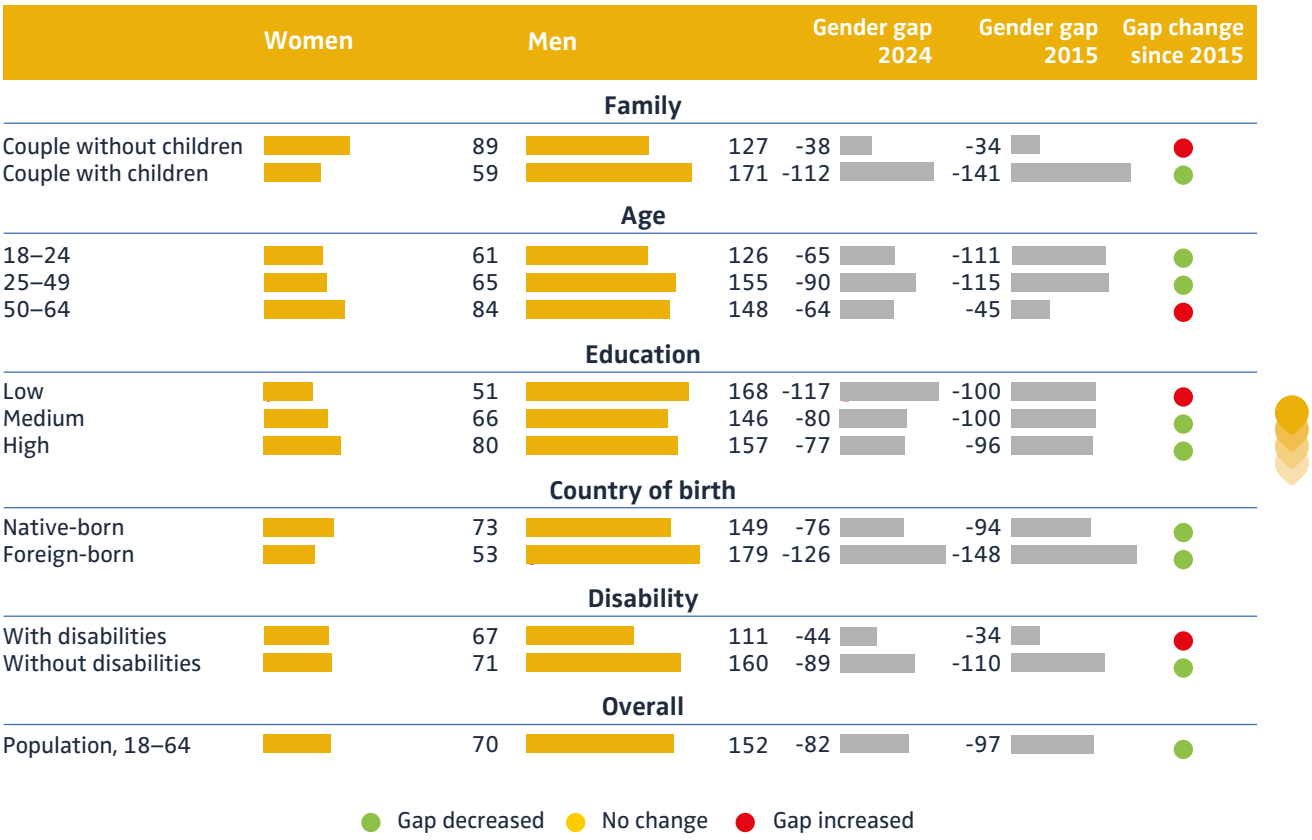
Financial independence means that every person, regardless of gender, background or life circumstances, can support themselves and continue do so throughout their life. Access to financial resources is more than just making ends meet. It is also associated with power, influence and the freedom to make decisions. The more a person contributes financially to a household – through earnings or income – the more likely they are to have a real say in how money is spent, saved or invested. This leads to greater autonomy, shared decision-making and a more balanced partnership in a household. Access to financial resources and equal decision-making power within couples also reduces the risk of material and emotional deprivation, poor health and intimate partner violence (EIGE, 2024a).

In the EU, women living in couples earn on average 70 % of their partner's earnings (Figure 14). The reverse is true for men: those living in couples earn 52 % more than their partners. It puts them in much better bargaining and decision-making positions within a relationship than women. Although this continues to be a sizeable gender gap, it marks an improvement. In 2015, men earned 63 % more than their partners. Since then, the overall gender earnings gap has narrowed from 97 pp to 82 pp.

Gender gaps in earnings are especially pronounced among couples where a partner has a migrant background, couples where a partner has a low level of education and couples with children. For instance, foreign-born men earn on average 79 % more than their partners, earnings of men in couples with children are 71 % higher than their partners' and for low-educated men the gap is 68 %.

Meanwhile, women with low education, women migrants and young women (aged 18–24) earn just about half their partners' earnings. These findings reveal that women across various groups are far more likely than men to be secondary earners in couple households. As all Index domains demonstrate, this is due to structural gender inequalities.

Figure 14: Median of earnings expressed as a percentage of a partner's earnings for coupled women and men among the EU-27 population aged 18–64 (%)



Notes: This analysis includes different-sex-couple and same-sex-couple households. Groups under the dimension of 'age' and 'education' sum to the overall of 'working population'; groups under other dimensions constitute partial coverage of the overall of 'working population' due to missing data and/or excluded groups. Educational attainment includes people who have completed ISCED levels 0–2 (low), ISCED level 3 or 4 (medium) or ISCED levels 5–8 (high). Family types are defined based on the relationships between the members – that is, a couple is defined as two adults living in the same household and declaring themselves to be in a relationship (whether married or not); 'children' refers to economically dependent household members (i.e. aged 24 and under) who are declared to be own/adopted children or stepchildren of the couple or of one parent (in case of a single-parent household) and are not in employment or unemployment; for clarity of interpretation, indicated family types strictly account for the aforementioned types of relationships and the socioeconomic status of children, excluding households with different compositions. Gap changes: in green when it has decreased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in red when it has increased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in yellow when it has increased or decreased by less than 1 pp. Data includes 2023 data for Hungary and provisional data for Lithuania.
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-SILC, 2024.

One of the most effective ways policies can support women's financial independence is by promoting and enabling their employment. This means tackling the unequal share of care responsibilities at home, putting in place sufficient care services and dismantling job disincentives created by tax–benefit systems. Research consistently shows that the labour market participation of women in couples is more sensitive to financial incentives or disincentives than the participation of coupled men (Bartels et al., 2023; European Commission: Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers et al., 2015). In practice, this means women are more likely than men to reduce their working hours or leave the workforce when taxes increase or care provisions fall. These findings demonstrate the profound impact of gender norms and partnership status on employment and working hours, emphasising the need for policies that promote equality both at home and in the workplace.

4.3. Entrenched views on gender roles shift patchily across EU

Understanding gender stereotypes in the domain of money is crucial, as these stereotypes greatly influence how women and men perceive financial decision-making, economic behaviour and access to financial resources (EIGE, 2024a). These stereotypes typically portray men as more financially competent, independent and risk-tolerant, whereas women are more often viewed as risk-averse, financially dependent or lacking financial skills. These stereotypes are embedded in institutional processes, shaping gender gaps in wealth, inheritance or access to business credit. Consequently, they impact individual financial autonomy, leading to gender imbalances in power and control over resources and women's greater financial insecurity over a lifetime – especially in partnerships. Breaking down and overcoming these stereotypes is essential for gender equality in both the private and public spheres.

Although societal attitudes on gender roles in financial matters are gradually evolving, entrenched patriarchal beliefs remain widespread. In 2024, 39 % of women and 45 % of men in the EU still believed a man's most important role was to earn money ([10]). In 2017, those figures were similar: 42 % and 48 %, respectively ([11]). In 2024, this view had the most support in Slovakia (73 % of women and 78 % of men), Bulgaria (72 % of women and 77 % of men) and Hungary (70 % of women and 72 % of men). It was least supported in Sweden (9 % of women and 14 % of men), Denmark (10 % of women and 15 % of men) and the Netherlands (16 % of women and 17 % of men). These beliefs affect financial autonomy and resource control, reinforcing income gaps and contributing to greater financial insecurity for women over time (Angelici et al., 2022).

Women and men agreeing that

'A man's most important role is to earn money.'

In some Member States, agreement with this view is growing, slightly more so among women than among men (2017 versus 2024):

Cyprus: + 15 pp women, + 13 pp men
2024: 52 % women, 54 % men

Malta: + 10 pp women, + 4 pp men
2024: 45 % women, 41 % men

France: + 6 pp women, + 1 pp men
2024: 31 % women, 37 % men

Austria: + 5 pp women, + 5 pp men
2024: 42 % women, 51 % men

The Netherlands: + 4 pp women, – 8 pp men
2024: 16 % women, 17 % men

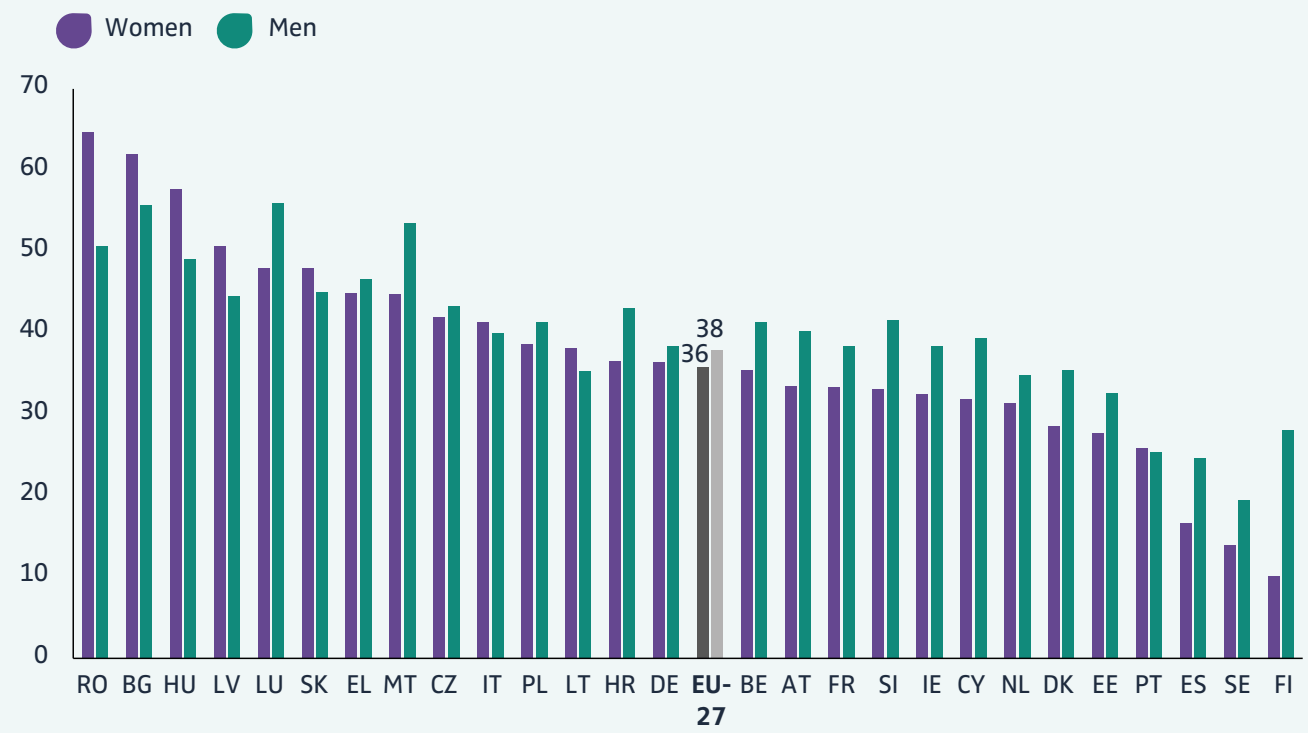
Signs of progress are seen in the gradual easing of traditional norms across generations. While the belief in a man's primary role being to earn money is widespread, it is noticeably less common among younger people, especially younger women. Although 53 % of men and 47 % of women aged 65 and above agree with this view, 43 % of men and 30 % of women aged 15–24 do so.

Earning money goes hand in hand with decision-making power and control over household resources. Research shows that women tend to be more involved than men in day-to-day financial management, while men maintain strategic control over household finances. Findings from EIGE's CARE survey reflect a common belief that women should decide on how to handle household basic

([10]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([11]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 465, 'Gender equality', 2017.

needs, while men are better suited to overseeing strategic financial matters (Figure 15). This mirrors deeper social norms, whereby caregiving and the mental and physical load of running a household fall largely on women, while financial provision is seen as a man's primary responsibility.

Figure 15: Women and men aged 16–74 agreeing that 'Women should make most of the decisions on how to run a household (planning and organising meals, doing shopping lists, arranging doctor appointments, etc.)' (%)



Source: EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.

Somewhat paradoxically, despite a fixed view that men should be the primary earners, there is a strong consensus on the importance of both women and men being financially independent. In the EU, 91 % of women and 89 % of men agree with this principle ([12]). Support for equal pay is also high: 81 % of women and 75 % of men ([13]) think it is good for the economy if women and men receive equal pay for doing the same job. This suggests that, while there is broad support for the economic benefits of gender equality at the macro level, household-level dynamics – particularly around the division of unpaid care – often lead to the implicit justification and normalisation of gender inequalities in financial matters.

([12]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([13]) Based on data from the European Social Survey, 2023, round 11. This includes answers from 19 Member States.

5. Domain of knowledge

Despite progress in recent years, education and training systems across the EU still grapple with diverse gender inequalities. The EU's strategic framework for education and training and other policies acknowledge the many challenges faced by girls and boys, and women and men. These include gender stereotypes in education impacting educational and career choices, unequal educational and training opportunities, boys' educational underachievement, and bullying and sexual harassment.

While women have made great strides in education – today 11 pp more women than men aged 30–34 have completed tertiary education – this success is not replicated in the labour market or in leadership. Women's over-representation in low-paid, undervalued and yet essential jobs, and higher risk of violence and harassment, continue to limit their full participation in public life (EIGE, 2018).

Concurrently, boys and young men are experiencing serious educational setbacks. In many Member States, they score lower in standardised assessments and are more likely to repeat grades or leave school early (OECD, 2024). These patterns, often driven by gender norms and classroom dynamics, hinder future opportunities and impact their overall social and economic well-being throughout life.

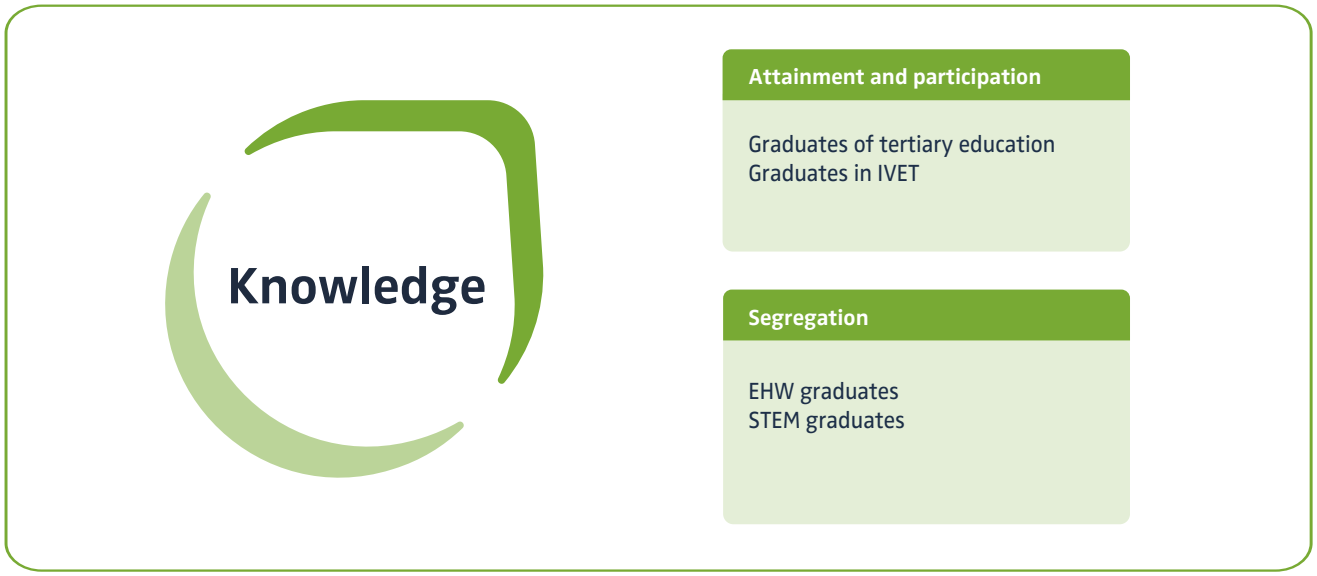
Entrenched gender segregation in education and training, underpinned by social norms, cultural pressures, pay and working conditions, flows into the workplace. Women and men largely continue to avoid careers and jobs traditionally dominated by the other gender. The divide is especially stark in sectors such as STEM, where women are a minority. In EHW, it is men who are under-represented. Segregation is as prominent in VET as it is in universities. Young men in VET pursue fields like engineering, manufacturing and construction, while women are more likely to choose business, administration, health and social services (OECD, 2023).

The impact of gender segregation in education is far-reaching. It is a key factor fuelling gender gaps in pay and pensions, and long-term systemic inequality. It both limits individual potential and holds back innovation, economic growth and social cohesion.

EU policy context

- The 2025 **roadmap for women's rights** prioritises quality and inclusive education, free from discrimination, as its main principle. It advocates a gender-balanced perspective in education content, fosters equal access to vocational training and lifelong learning, and encourages young people to choose subjects atypical of their gender.
- The **European education area** and the **2030 strategic framework for education and training** recognise gender equality as a key element of a cohesive and sustainable society. They aim to address gender gaps in education, challenge stereotypes and ensure equal access and outcomes for all by tackling gender-based violence and promoting diverse educational and career pathways, among other measures.
- The 2021–2027 **digital education action plan** and the 2025 **union of skills** plan foster women's participation in STEM studies and careers. The action plan includes creating gender-inclusive digital education content and advocating flexible learning paths. Other initiatives, such as the **women in digital policy** and **Europe's Digital Decade**, strive to get more women into the field.

The domain of knowledge responds to these major challenges by focusing on gender inequalities in educational attainment and participation and gender segregation in tertiary education.



The subdomain of attainment and participation is measured by two indicators. The first covers graduates (aged 30–34) of post-secondary technical and vocational courses and undergraduate and postgraduate degrees or equivalent programmes (bachelor's, master's, doctorate), representing their highest level of educational attainment. The second indicator looks at graduates (aged 25–34) of upper secondary IVET.

The subdomain of segregation concentrates on gender division in tertiary education, specifically between STEM, on the one hand, and EHW, on the other. The focus on two distinct study areas,

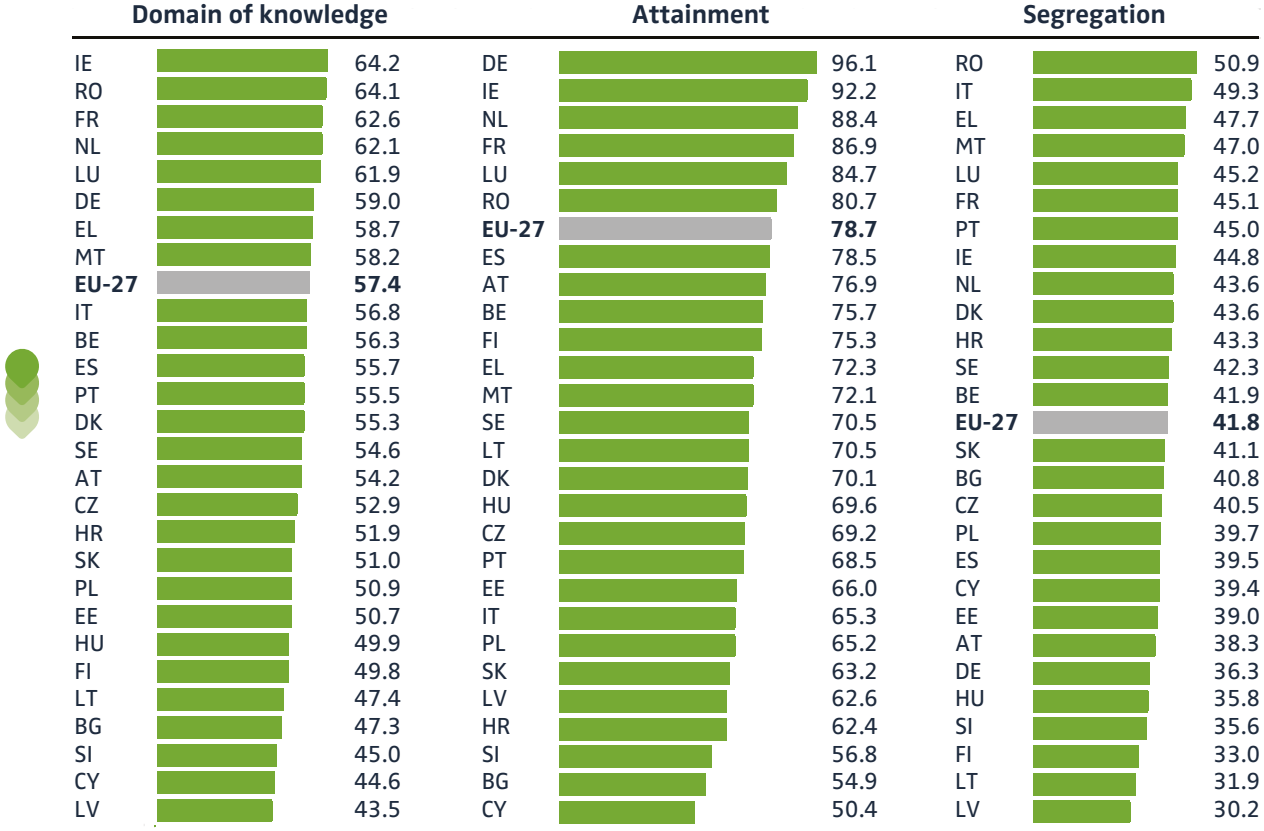
each dominated by either men or women, provides a more balanced and comprehensive view of gender segregation across educational disciplines.

5.1. Gender segregation in education – a high hurdle to overcome

With an EU score of 57.4, the domain of knowledge ranks fifth in the Index. Across the EU, national scores range from a high of 64.2 in Ireland to a low of 43.5 in Latvia (Figure 16).

Of the two subdomains, gender equality in attainment and participation scores 78.7, while a low 41.8 for segregation in education still holds the domain back. In examining attainment in higher education and IVET, there are striking differences between the Member States, with only six Member States scoring above the EU average (Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, France, Luxembourg and Romania). In segregation in education, only Romania has a score higher than 50.

Figure 16: Domain of knowledge and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



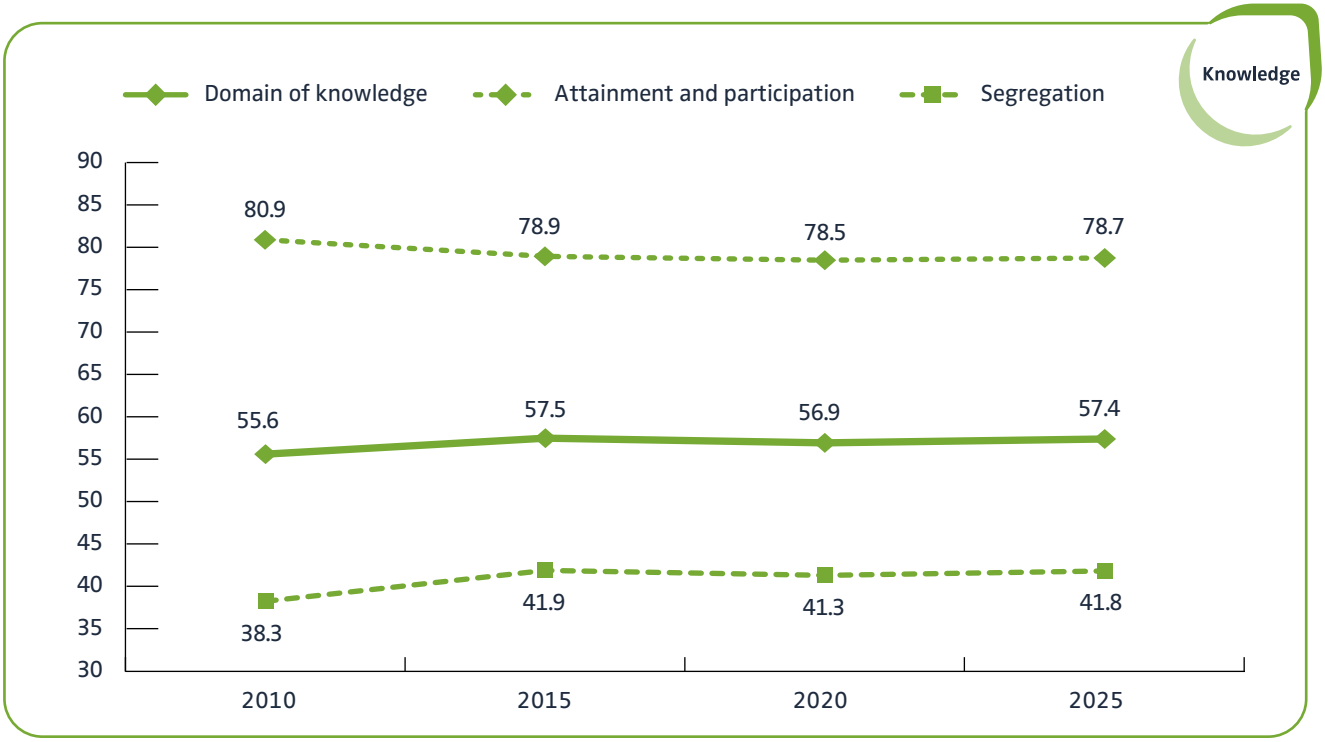
NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Both subdomains of knowledge have shown little to no progress since 2010. Not only has the score for tackling segregation in education risen by just 3.5 points in 15 years, but it has been at a

virtual standstill since 2015. At this pace, it will take at least 200 years to achieve gender equality in subject choices free from prejudices and stereotypes (Figure 17).

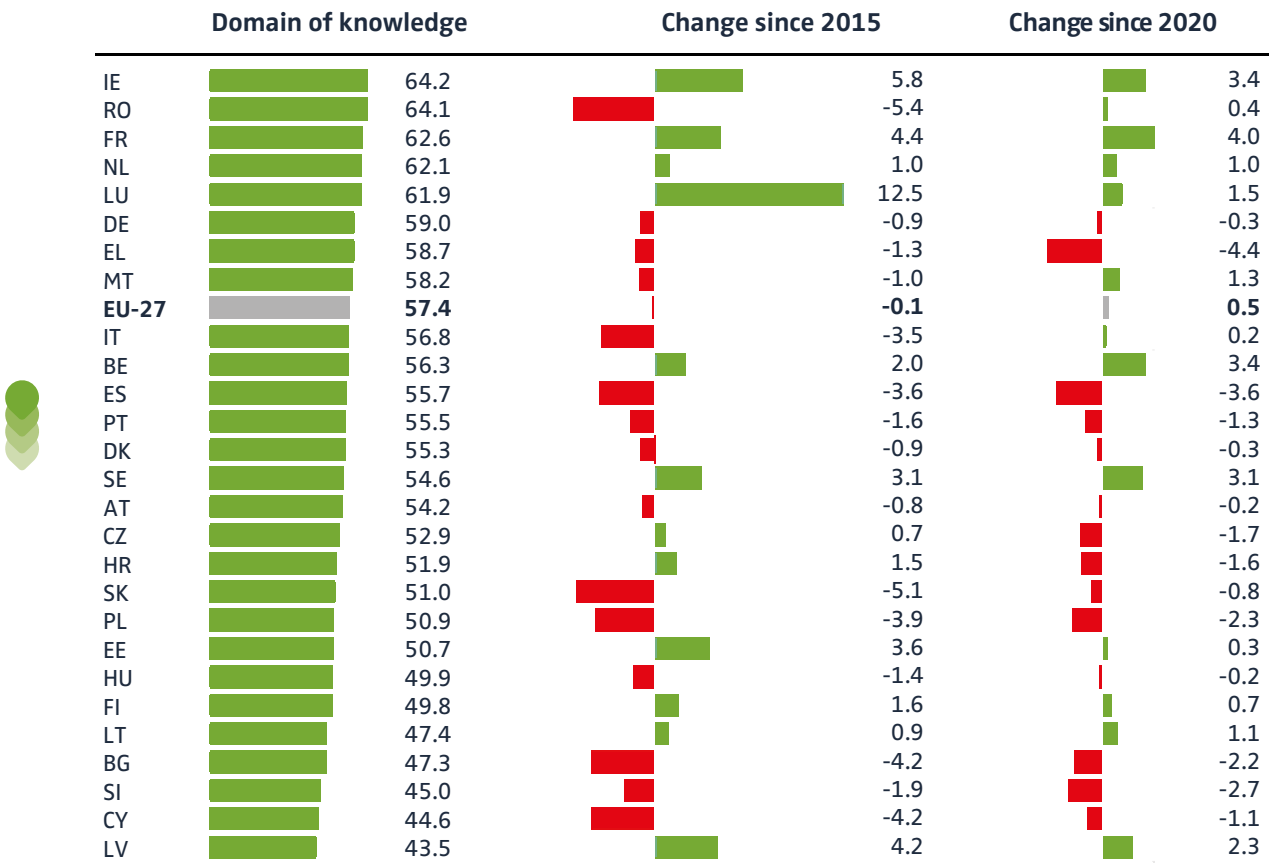
For attainment and participation, the score is worryingly lower than it was in 2010, despite improving slightly since 2020.

Figure 17: Domain of knowledge and its subdomains, EU-27, 2010–2025 (scores)



Domain scores for the majority of the Member States have fallen since 2015, showing an overall negative trend from 2015 to 2025, mostly driven by educational segregation (Figure 18). The presence of women in STEM is almost stable and was slightly increasing in recent years, while the presence of men in EHW is stable, if not decreasing. Looking at attainment and participation, while women outnumber men in tertiary education, their participation in IVET is lagging. These trends shed light on diverse gender gaps in education.

Figure 18: Domain of knowledge and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



The indicator analysis identifies specific issues requiring action (Table 11). The Europe 2020 strategy set a target that at least 40 % of 30- to 34-year-olds would hold tertiary qualifications by 2020. Women's contribution to this goal has been paramount for its success. In 2024, 50 % of women of that age in the EU had a tertiary education, 11 pp higher than men. Only a few Member States (Bulgaria, Slovakia, Czechia, Hungary, Italy, Romania) lag behind the target (see more in Section 5.2). Cyprus, Ireland, Lithuania and Luxembourg have the highest percentages of women with higher education. Gender gaps to men's disadvantage are largest in Slovenia (27 pp) and Latvia (25 pp).

Table 11: Indicators of the domain of knowledge, EU-27

	Women	Men
Tertiary graduates, age group 30–34, 2024 (%)	50	39
IVET graduates, age group 25–34, 2024 (%)	27	34
EHW graduates, ISCED 5–8, 2023 (%)	75	25
STEM graduates, ISCED 5–8, 2023 (%)	34	66

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

27 % of women, compared with 34 % of men, aged 25–34 have successfully completed IVET studies as their highest level of educational attainment.

The situation in IVET presents a different picture. For many students, transitioning from lower to upper secondary education means choosing between general education and IVET. Although IVET provides skills relevant to the whole economy, it plays a vital role in key sectors such as engineering and manufacturing. In recent years, IVET's importance has grown significantly in the face of complex challenges, including labour shortages in STEM and ICT specialists necessary for the transition to the green and digital economies. However, major gender imbalances continue to characterise graduation in STEM subjects in upper secondary VET. Women and girls make up only 7 % of all upper secondary VET graduates in engineering and engineering trades and only 12 % in ICT. However, more than 80 % of health and welfare VET graduates are women and girls (Cedefop, 2025).

In tertiary education, there is a pronounced gender imbalance among graduates in various STEM fields and EHW subjects. In Romania, Estonia, Greece and Poland, more than 40 % of graduates in STEM are women. In Austria, Belgium, Germany, Hungary and Spain, that figure does not reach 30 %.

Women represent around one in three STEM graduates in the EU, while only one in four graduates in EHW fields each year are men.

In EHW, three out of four graduates in health and welfare programmes are women, as are four out of five graduates in education. In Luxembourg, Malta, Belgium, Spain and France, around one graduate out of three in EHW is a man, while in Slovenia, Poland, Lithuania, Finland, Estonia and Latvia it is only one in five.

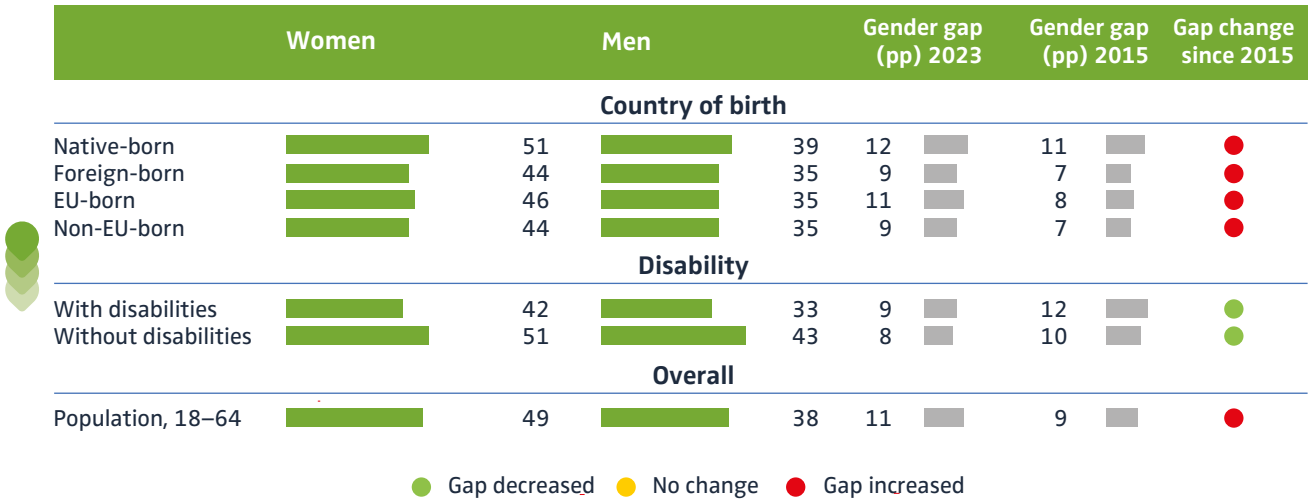
This divide is mirrored in the labour market, determining women's and men's earnings, career prospects, working conditions and financial security in older age. The consequences of this gender segregation are already being felt in an ageing society where rising demands for care, particularly in nursing, are not being met (OECD et al., 2022). Without more men studying and working in health and welfare, this growing social challenge will ensure that a crisis arises sooner rather than later.

5.2. Women continue to outperform men in tertiary education

Progress in educational attainment for both women and men is a long-standing achievement in the EU. Women now outnumber men in completing tertiary education, particularly among younger generations. Although more women and men between 15–74 years now hold tertiary qualifications – 32 % and 28 %, respectively – the trend in women reaching and exceeding men's educational attainment has seen the most progress in the last 15 years, with parity reached in 2010. The gender gap is now to women's advantage. Younger women, particularly those aged 25–29 and 30–34, have made the greatest headway. Only among 55- to 74-year-olds with tertiary education do men still outnumber women. If the trend continues, the gender gap will widen among older cohorts and in the overall population ([14]).

Despite women's progress in tertiary education, the analysis shows considerable disparities among different groups in accessing higher education. Limiting the analysis to people aged 30–34, both women and men born abroad have lower rates of attaining tertiary education, as do people with disabilities, with women in these groups still outnumbering men (Figure 19).

Figure 19: Graduates of tertiary education, age group 30–34, EU-27 (%)



Notes: The overall population indicator (aged 30–34) is calculated with 2023 microdata for consistency with the analysis of intersecting inequalities, and it differs from the indicator used to calculate the Index, available for 2024. Non-EU-born data is based on 26 Member States (data for Malta was not available). Data for Bulgaria, Croatia, Poland and Slovenia includes only those born in Europe but outside the EU. Gap changes: in green when it has decreased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in red when it has increased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in yellow when it has increased or decreased by less than 1 pp. Data for the disability analysis includes 2023 data for Hungary and provisional data for Lithuania.
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-LFS, 2023, and EU-SILC, 2024, microdata.

([14]) Authors' calculations based on EU-LFS microdata (2023).

5.3. Young people's widening perception gap on education equality

More women may be completing tertiary education, but gender stereotypes still undermine equality in learning. Stereotypes continue to influence educational choices, confidence in academic abilities and long-term career aspirations, ultimately reinforcing wider inequalities in the labour market and society as a whole (Brussino et al., 2022; van der Vleuten et al., 2016).

These biases, rooted in social expectations, teaching practices and stereotyped learning materials, perpetuate age-old ideas that boys are naturally more suited to STEM – including AI and other ICT subjects – and finance, while girls are better fitted for humanities, social sciences and care-related professions (Wang et al., 2023). As a result, already critical labour shortages, particularly in technology, and occupational segregation in essential sectors such as health, welfare and education, are exacerbated.

Academic performance does not explain gender differences in STEM subjects in higher education; girls and boys show similar achievement levels in science and maths in secondary education (European Commission, 2019). Social norms and gendered expectations regarding career choices, often reinforced by educational content and curricula, are the main drivers of gender segregation in higher education (EIGE, 2020, 2025c).

Gender stereotypes determine how knowledge is perceived, accessed and valued (Bahruz Nuri et al., 2024). Understanding how this dynamic affects young people is key to building more inclusive and equitable education systems.

Women and men agreeing that in their country

'Men are treated better at school/ university.'

The gender gap is largest among the youngest:

15–24: 25 % women, 15 % men

25–44: 25 % women, 18 % men

45–64: 22 % women, 16 % men

65+: 23 % women, 17 % men

Most people in the EU believe that women and men are treated equally in schools and universities – 66 % of women and 69 % of men ([15]). However, young women are less likely than young men to perceive equality in education. For example, among women aged 15–24 years, 25 % believe men are treated better in education, compared with 15 % of young men. This suggests that bias in teaching, classroom interaction or curricula still shapes how students experience education (Brussino et al., 2022). This, the widest gap of all age groups, indicates a paradox: the youngest generation indicates that there is, theoretically, equality in education, but their lived experiences of gender bias are widespread, especially among young women (Moon et al., 2024). Their experiences may reflect a growing awareness of how gender stereotypes and implicit biases influence expectations and opportunities from an early stage in the education system (Brussino et al., 2022).

([15]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

Although a substantial majority across all age groups reject the notion that university education is more important for boys than girls, regional and generational differences persist ([16]). At the Member State level, the proportions disagreeing with the idea that university education is more important for boys range from Slovakia, Romania and Czechia, at the bottom, to Finland, Denmark and Sweden, at the top (Figure 20). Among different age groups, the largest gender gap is again found among the youngest.

Women and men disagreeing that

'A university education is more important for a boy than for a girl.'

The gender gap is largest among the youngest:

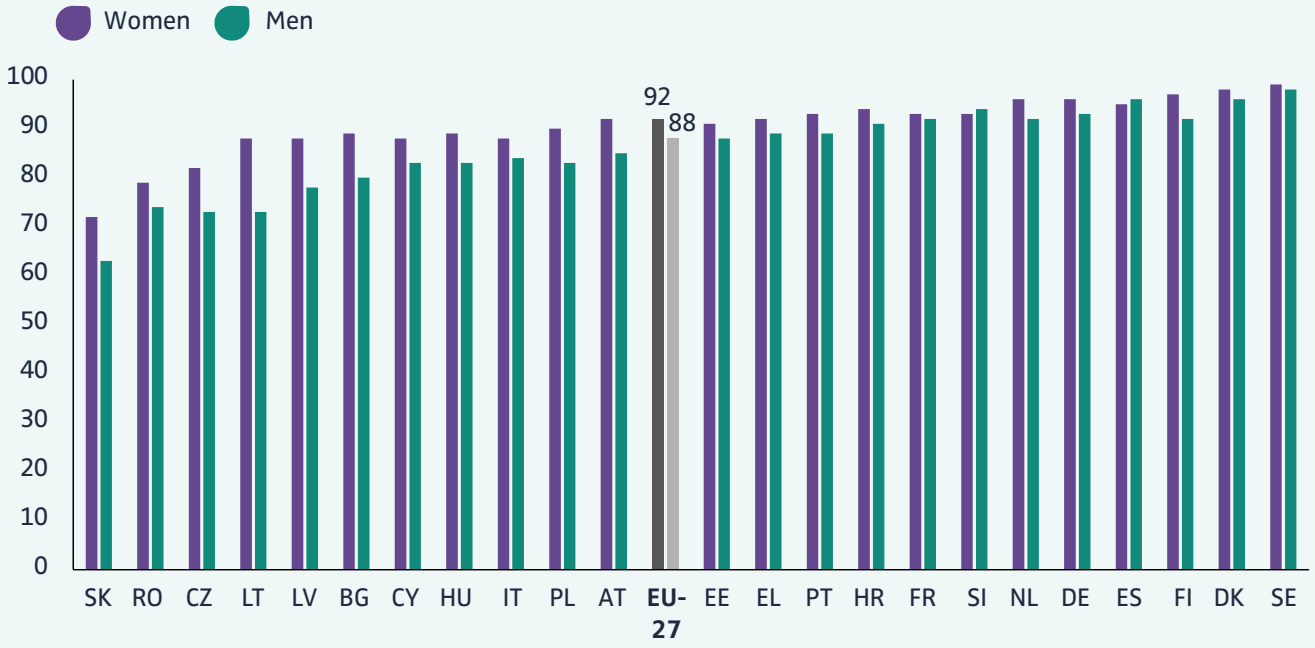
15–24: 95 % women, 88 % men

25–44: 94 % women, 90 % men

45–64: 93 % women, 89 % men

65+: 86 % women, 84 % men

Figure 20: Women and men disagreeing that 'A university education is more important for a boy than for a girl', age group 15 and over (%)



NB: Answers from 23 Member States.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the 2017–2022 European Values Study 5 / World Values Survey 7.

Growing pushback against gender equality among boys and young men poses a major challenge for the future. Overturning stereotypes is essential for an education system that enables all individuals to explore their full potential and to ensure a more diverse and robust workforce in vital sectors. This might be tackled by promoting positive and diverse models of masculinity from early childhood by integrating gender-sensitive approaches into early education, play and social–emotional learning. In parallel, more visible role models of women in science, leadership and technology are needed – and need to be systematically promoted among both girls and boys, and young women and young men.

([16]) Based on data from the 2017–2022 European Values Study 5 / World Values Survey 7. This includes answers from 23 Member States.

6. Domain of time

In recent years, the EU has stepped up efforts to encourage a more equal sharing of care responsibilities. Caregiving takes up substantial time and energy, often compromising a carer's employability, career progress, access to education and leisure time. There is growing recognition of how women's unequal care responsibilities significantly curtail their ability to work, and the consequent damage to the EU's economic potential.

Although men's involvement in care is steadily increasing, the gender disparity in caregiving remains a socioeconomic burden. Women not only dedicate more time to childcare, but also shoulder other demanding responsibilities, such as running the household to a much greater extent than men do (EIGE, 2023). As women spend more time alone with children, they are more prone to multitasking and constant interruptions, which often makes care stressful and less enjoyable (Gerstel et al., 2018).

Gender disparities in the provision of informal long-term care are generally less pronounced but become more evident among carers providing more than 20 hours of such care per week. Gender gaps in long-term care provision are largest among carers aged 45–64. This cohort is the most likely to have double-care responsibilities: simultaneously caring for children and older adults or people with disabilities.

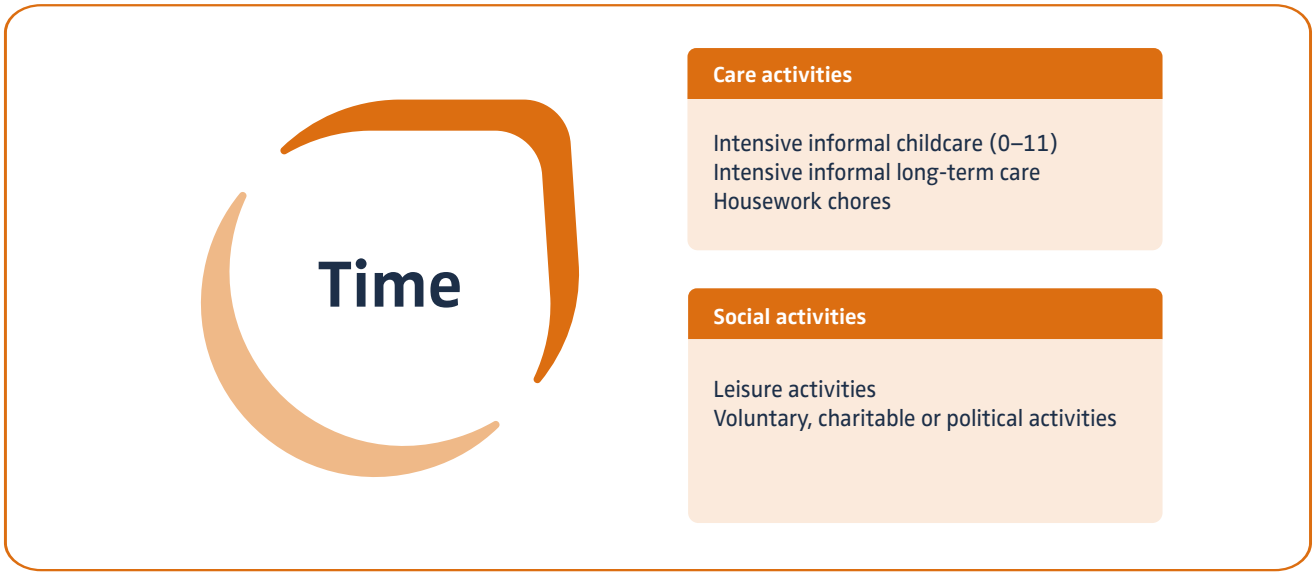
In housework, gender is still the strongest predictor of how tasks are allocated. While the gap has narrowed over time, women still do more housework than men. The type of work is also gendered. Women usually take on routine, everyday chores like cooking, cleaning and laundry, whereas men are more likely to handle occasional tasks such as home repairs, bill payments or car maintenance (EIGE, 2023; Eurostat, 2019a).

Leisure, a key contributor to mental health and personal well-being, is also unevenly shared. Women, particularly mothers, tend to have less leisure time than men – and, when they do, it is often squeezed between caregiving duties. Their free time is more likely to be limited, leaving little room for truly relaxing or engaging in restorative activities (Yerkes et al., 2020). These imbalances ripple into other areas of life, including a lack of time for voluntary, charitable or political activities.

EU policy context

- The **2020–2025 gender equality strategy** aims to close the gender care gap by promoting work–life balance, supporting caregivers and challenging traditional gender roles that often assign care responsibilities to women.
- The **European Pillar of Social Rights** provides a solid basis for work–life balance improvements. It sets the principle that parents and carers have the right to suitable leave, flexible working arrangements and access to care services.
- The **Work–Life Balance Directive** is designed to enhance families' access to leave and flexible work arrangements, facilitating women's labour market participation and a fairer distribution of unpaid care responsibilities.
- The **European care strategy** seeks to ensure access to quality, affordable and accessible care services, and improve working conditions and recognition for professional and informal carers. It focuses on strengthening care systems, supporting families and promoting gender equality in formal and informal care. The strategy was followed by the adoption of **two Council recommendations**, on early childhood education and care and on access to affordable high-quality long-term care.

The domain of time tackles these key challenges by tracking the persistent gender imbalances in caregiving and social activities and highlighting their repercussions.



The subdomain of care activities is based on three key indicators. The informal care of children under 12 years old looks at intensive care involving at least 35 hours a week, including weekends. The informal long-term care ([17]) indicator captures care for at least 20 hours a week by carers aged 45–64. The third indicator examines who does housework – cooking, cleaning, laundry – every day.

([17]) 'Informal long-term care' refers to care or assistance given at least once a week to one or more persons experiencing age-related limitations, a chronic health condition or infirmity.

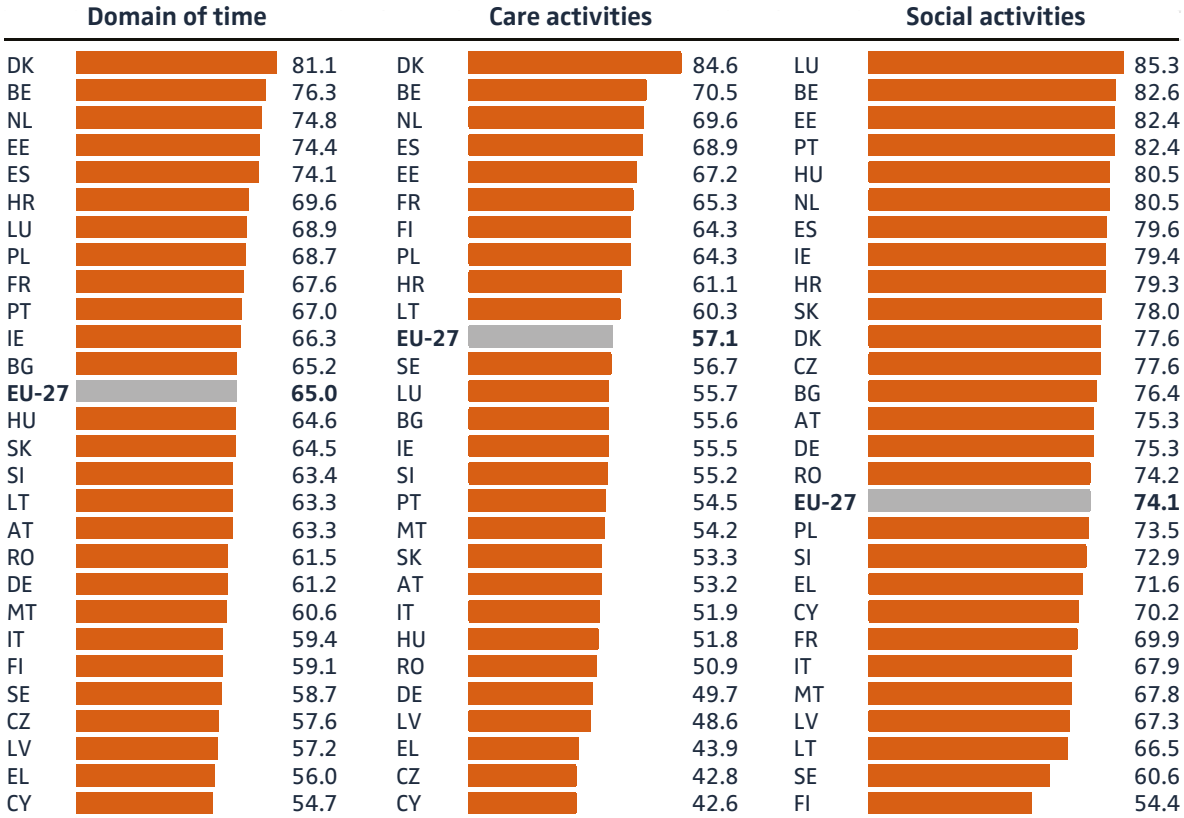
The subdomain of social activities looks at the percentage of individuals engaged in leisure pursuits (e.g. cultural activities, holidays, hobbies) for more than eight hours a week, and voluntary, charitable or political activities ([18]) at least once a week.

6.1. Time inequality in the EU: the forgotten cost of unpaid care

The time domain's score of 65 puts it fourth highest among Index domains. Nationally, scores range from Denmark's 81.1 points to Cyprus's 54.7. However, most Member States cluster around the EU average. Scores for the two subdomains are notably different: while the score for care activities is 57.1 points, the score for social activities is significantly higher at 74.1 (Figure 21).

The differing pattern of gender gaps across the two subdomains – whereby women spend more time providing care and men are more engaged in social activities – remains constant. It underlines the interconnectedness of the two subdomains: greater involvement in care reduces women's available time, thereby limiting their recreational opportunities and participation in public life.

Figure 21: Domain of time and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

([18]) 'Volunteering' refers to unpaid activities in which someone gives their time to help a not-for-profit organisation or an individual to whom they are not related. Volunteering includes being engaged in cultural, educational, sporting or charitable activities, distributing food, teaching, providing medical support, providing animal care, participating in art and music, doing environmental work, supporting fundraising, collecting donations, etc. 'Political activities' refers to running or helping a political campaign, distributing campaign material, signing a petition, protesting, contacting officials, etc.

Compared with the other domains, the domain of time presents only a partial picture of change over time (Figure 22). It is primarily based on indicators from EIGE's 2024 CARE survey, with only one indicator on long-term care provision (from Eurostat's European Health Interview Survey (EHIS)) available for both 2015 and 2025. Slight decreases in the domain score from 65.8 to 65, and in the care subdomain score from 58.5 to 57.1, are solely due to the widening gender gap in the provision of intensive long-term care between 2015 and 2025. The change in this indicator also explains variations in national scores from 2015 to 2025 (Figure 23). At the Member State level, the most progress overall was made by the Netherlands and Belgium, whose scores rose by 5.2 and 4.7 points, respectively, while Bulgaria's increased by 4.1. However, the score for Germany fell by 8.1 points, Lithuania's by 6.2 and Croatia's by 5.9.

Figure 22: Domain of time and its subdomains, EU-27, 2015–2025 (scores)

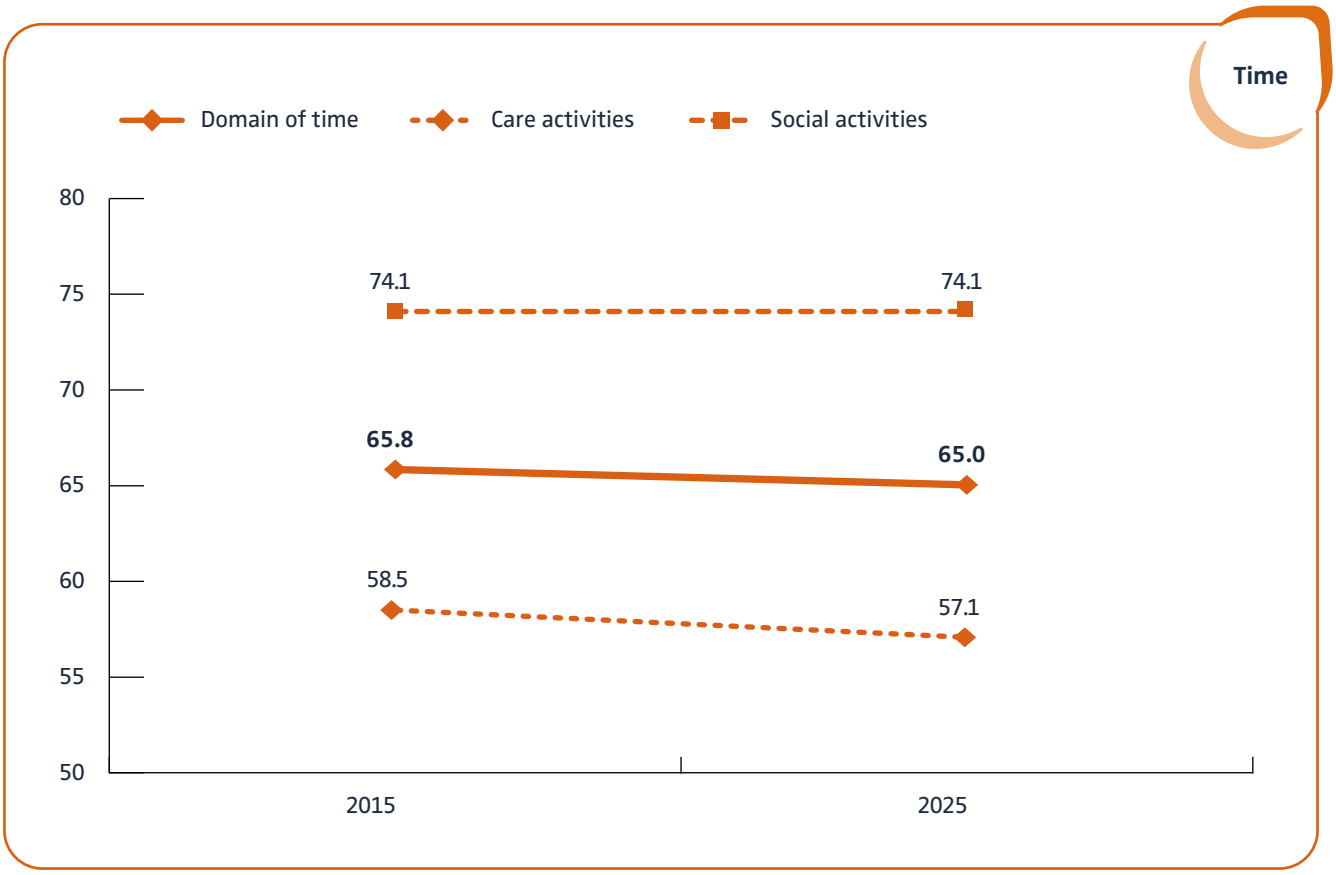
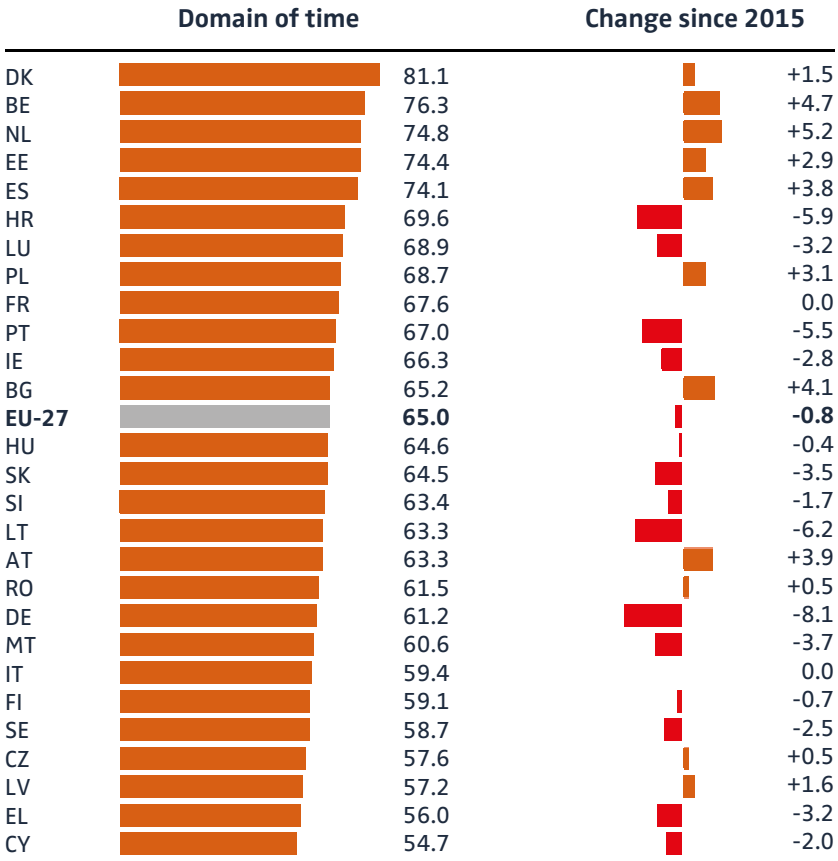


Figure 23: Domain of time and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



These specific indicators show that women are still shouldering a disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work in comparison with men. Although men's involvement in care is gradually increasing over time, the gender gap remains large, particularly when considering the intensity of care. Women are twice as likely as men to be providing childcare for at least 35 hours a week (41 % compared with 20 %). In Austria, Finland, Poland and Cyprus, the gender gap is around 30 pp, while the smallest differences are found in Denmark (0.2 pp), Croatia (5 pp) and France (8 pp).

Although generally narrower, gender gaps also persist in the provision of long-term care for people with age-related limitations, a chronic health condition or infirmity. The EU gender gap in long-term caregiving for more than 20 hours a week is 7 pp to women's detriment. However, within Member States, the gap can be much higher – at 16–17 pp in Portugal, Ireland and Croatia.

Another key factor influencing use of time is daily involvement in household tasks such as cooking, cleaning and laundry – reported by 59 % of women compared with just 33 % of men (Table 12). The gender gap is very large in Member States such as Croatia, Cyprus, Greece and Italy, where there is an almost 40 pp difference between women and men in their time spent on household tasks. The smallest gender gaps in housework, observed in Denmark (13 pp) and in Finland and Estonia (both 14 pp) are still significant. Participation in routine chores also varies greatly across social groups and is explored in more detail below (Figure 24).

Table 12: Indicators of the domain of time, EU-27

	Women	Men
Informal childcare (for children aged 0–11) for more than 35 hours a week, age group 16–74, 2024 (%)	41	20
Informal long-term care for more than 20 hours a week, age group 45–64, 2019 (%)	20	13
Housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, age group 16–74, 2024 (%)	59	33
Leisure activities (e.g. cultural activities, holidays, hobbies) for at least 8 hours per week, age group 16–74, 2024 (%)	30	43
Voluntary, charitable or political activities at least 1 day per week, age group 16–74, 2024 (%)	13	17

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

This discrepancy in who cares and does housework affects many areas of life, including paid work, education and recreational and civic activities. Across the EU, 43 % of men enjoy leisure time for cultural activities, holidays and hobbies for at least eight hours a week, compared with 30 % of women, with modest variation between Member States. The smallest gender gaps are in Bulgaria, Belgium, Denmark, Ireland and Cyprus (ranging from 7 pp to 9 pp). More men than women also undertake voluntary, charitable or political activities at least once a week – 17 % and 13 %, respectively – highlighting ongoing challenges in not only accessing leisure, but also participating in civic engagement.

6.2. Everyday inequality of women's housework load

Unpaid domestic work is unevenly distributed across societies, with nearly two in three women in the EU doing household chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, while one in three men do the same. Combined with childcare and long-term caregiving, it is not surprising that many women have little to no time left for a job, education, or leisure and social activities. A closer look at women's involvement in housework reveals how this responsibility is further affected by factors such as age, education, disability, migration status and socioeconomic background (Figure 24). Regardless, far more women than men do everyday housework chores across all groups in society.

Family structure influences both the time women and men devote to unpaid housework and the scale of gender inequality within households. Couples with children display the starkest disparities, with 67 % of women more likely to do daily housework chores, compared with 33 % of men. While the gender gap in domestic work is narrower in single-parent families, there are still more women doing daily housework – 67 % of single mothers as opposed to 44 % of single fathers. These divisions reflect age-old norms regarding unpaid work that are pervasive regardless of socioeconomic status, reinforced by societal expectations and limited access to paid care or housework services.

Figure 24: Share of women and men aged 16–74 doing housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, EU-27, 2024 (%)

	Women	Men	Gender gap (pp)
Family			
Single-adult household	53	39	14
Single-parent household	67	44	23
Couple without children	57	33	24
Couple with children	67	33	34
Age			
16–24	44	28	16
25–49	60	34	26
50–64	62	33	29
65–74	65	36	29
Education			
Low	62	33	29
Medium	59	34	25
High	55	33	22
Country of birth			
Native-born	59	33	26
Foreign-born	60	36	24
Disability			
With disabilities	60	35	25
Without disabilities	56	31	25
Overall			
Population, 16–74	59	33	26

Notes: Education attainment includes people who have completed ISCED levels 0–2 (low), ISCED level 3 or 4 (medium) and ISCED levels 5–8 (high). The family type definition is based on a certain household's members. A couple is defined as two adults living in the same household and declaring themselves to be in a relationship (whether married or not). Other adults in the household are excluded from the definition. Children are all children in the household, not just those who are the respondent's own children. For clarity of interpretation, indicated family types exclude households with a different composition.
Source: EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.

Gender disparities in unpaid care work emerge early, with girls and young women being involved in housework chores at higher rates than boys and young men: 44 % compared with 28 %, respectively. This gender divide deepens when children appear in families. At ages 25–49, the main working and caregiving years, 60 % of women do housework chores every day, compared with 34 % of men. These inequalities persist and increase in older age, where 29 pp gender gaps underscore the long-term consequences of gender norms (Figure 24).

While education appears to gradually, albeit slightly, reduce women's time spent on housework, it makes virtually no difference for men. This disparity is likely to be a reflection of a broader trend whereby employed and highly educated women are more likely to outsource domestic work.

6.3. A gradual but slower shift towards more egalitarian views on gender roles at home

While women are expected to do most unpaid domestic work, in line with the belief that caregiving is inherently female (Sharma et al., 2016), men who give care can face disproportionate stigma or lack of workplace support – revealing how these stereotypes are constraining for everyone.

A notable share of the EU population – 17 % of women and 21 % of men – still associates men's parental leave with a lack of career ambition ([19]). In some Member States, by contrast, parental leave is now widely accepted socially for both women and men. For example, only 1 % of women and 5 % of men in the Netherlands, 2 % of women and 6 % of men in Sweden, and 4 % of women and 6 % of men in Denmark associate men's parental leave with a lack of career ambition. In other Member States, this view is still common. For example, 38 % of women and 45 % of men in Slovakia and 39 % of women and 38 % of men in Hungary hold it.

Despite this, EIGE's CARE survey shows that most of the EU population – 82 % of women and 78 % of men – back equal sharing of parental leave between mothers and fathers. Support is especially strong in Italy, with 90 % of women and 82 % of men in favour. Even in the Member State with the lowest support, Czechia, more than half of respondents agree: 55 % of women and 57 % of men (Figure 25).

Women and men agreeing that

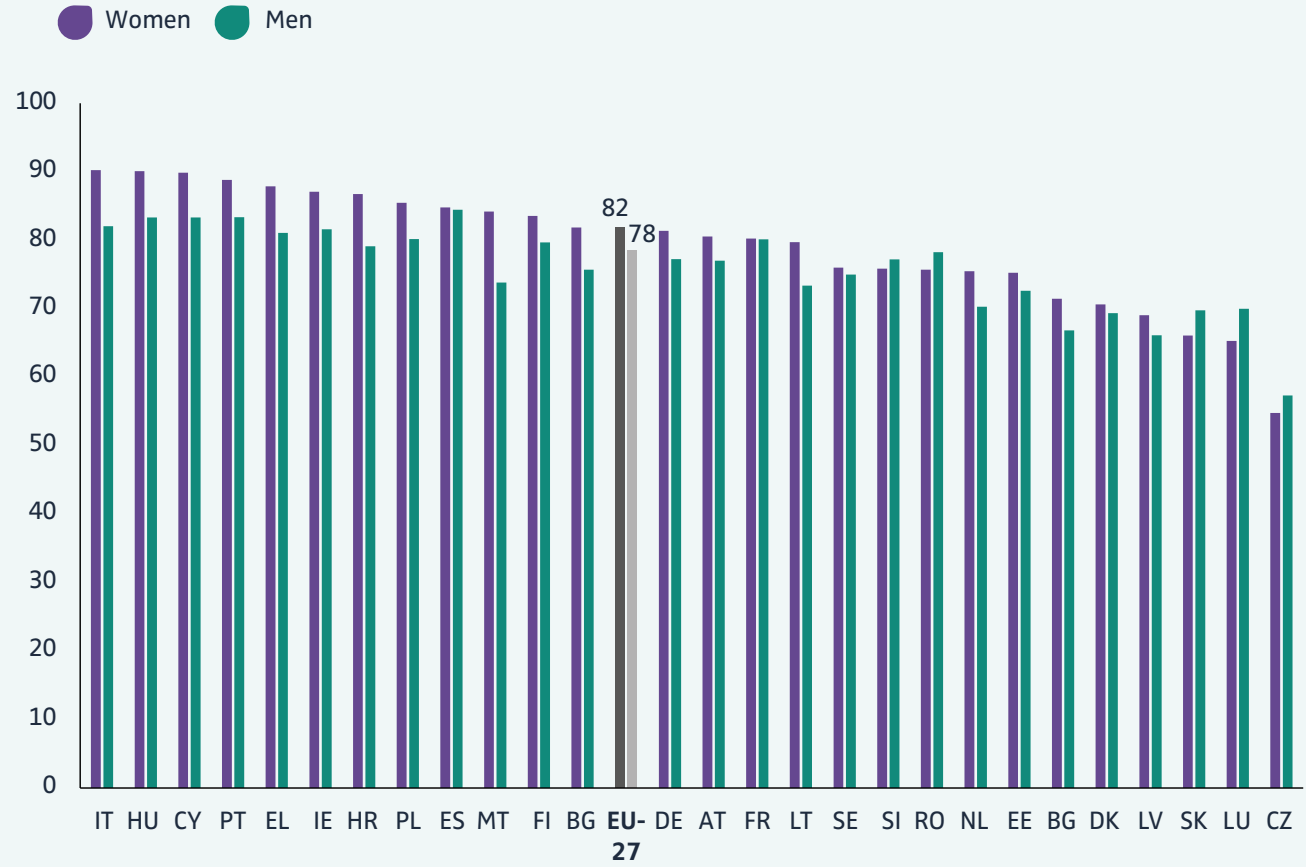
'Overall, men are naturally less competent than women to perform household tasks'

The gender gap is largest among youngest:
15-24: 39 % women, 45 % men
25-44: 47 % women, 42 % men
45-64: 48 % women, 49 % men
65+: 59 % women, 58 % men

While gender-sensitive parental leave policies and communications may have helped weaken the above gender stereotypes, nearly half the EU population – 49 % of women and 48 % of men – still believe that men are naturally less competent than women at performing household tasks ([20]). This belief has wide support in Hungary (74 % of women and men), Poland (65 % women, 62 % men) and Slovakia (63 % of women and men). This perception is generally weakening across generations, especially among young women, with 39 % of young women and 45 % of young men sharing this view.

([19]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([20]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

Figure 25: Women and men aged 16–74 agreeing that 'It is good for family well-being when fathers and mothers equally share parental leave', EU-27, 2024 (%)



Source: EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.

A related stereotype, but one focused on women – that a woman's most important role is to care for her home and family – shows more signs of eroding, with 37 % of women and 40 % of men in the EU holding this belief ([21]). Though still widespread, support for this claim has declined since 2017, when 44 % of both women and men in the EU-27 agreed with it ([22]). Progress is mixed, not only between genders – with women's support falling more than men's – but also between Member States. The sharpest decline is noted in Finland, from 39 % of women and 42 % of men in 2017 to 20 % and 28 %, respectively, in 2024, followed by Croatia, Greece, Latvia and Italy, where, on average, the approval rate for this belief fell by 15 pp across genders between the two time points. Only in a few Member States, such as Germany, did this belief strengthen. There, support rose from 30 % of women and 26 % of men in 2017 to 33 % and 31 % in 2024.

Despite progress in some Member States, intractable gender stereotypes in caregiving and household roles continue to drive inequalities in who performs care. It underlines the continually pressing need for societal change together with policy measures that address gender stereotypes in care. Success here would have positive knock-on effects across all Index domains.

([21]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.
([22]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 465, 'Gender equality', 2017.

7. Domain of power

Despite dynamic progress since 2010, gender parity in decision-making is still far from a reality. In parliaments and governments at all levels, in the largest businesses and in social institutions, women are generally in the minority. Their lack of representation is especially striking in crises, and too few women are currently visible in security and defence debates.

Inclusive leadership is not just a matter of fairness – it is essential for stronger, more resilient democracies. However, the road to equality in leadership is riddled with persistent barriers. Unequal caregiving responsibilities and volatile and/or hostile working environments continue to hinder women. Women leaders are often caught in a double bind: expected to display assertiveness typically associated with male leadership, while also being judged against stereotypical expectations of being warm and accommodating.

In politics, challenges are deepening. Women face difficulties securing campaign funding and often have less influence in candidate selection than their male peers. Gender stereotypes, violence and discrimination further discourage women from entering or remaining in public life, undermining democratic representation and progress (Welch, 2022).

Championing gender equality in sports leadership could set an example for workplaces, governments and communities to follow. The sports sector in the EU is an economic powerhouse ([23]) and an employer of at least 1.5 million people, more than a third of whom are under 30 years old ([24]). It is also a powerful cultural force shaping society's view of gender. Through traditions, media and role models, sport often reinforces rigid gender norms and stereotypes. It influences how girls and boys see themselves and their potential, limiting opportunities and reinforcing unequal power dynamics (Chalabaev et al., 2013; EIGE, 2015; European Commission: Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture, 2022). Women leaders in sport could inspire younger generations and normalise women decision-makers in other areas, instead of being on the sidelines or in supporting roles.

Bold systemic and systematic change is needed for gender balance in power – change that dismantles barriers, redefines leadership and creates space for women to not only participate, but also lead with impact.

([23]) In 2022, sports activities enterprises generated EUR 29 billion in value added in the EU, while their turnover (the total value of market sales of goods and services) totalled around EUR 60 billion according to Eurostat. More information can be found here: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Enterprises_in_the_sports_sector.

([24]) Eurostat estimates that, in 2023, 1.55 million people were employed in the sports sector in the EU, representing 0.76 % of total employment. More than one third (37.4 %) of people employed in sport were aged 15–29, which is more than twice the share reported in overall employment (17.4 %) for the same age group in 2023. More information can be found here: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Enterprises_in_the_sports_sector.

EU policy context

- The 2020–2025 **gender equality strategy** prioritises ensuring equal participation in decision-making across all sectors: political, economic and social.
- The 2025 **roadmap for women's rights** establishes a forward-looking agenda to strengthen gender equality across all spheres of life, with political participation at its core. It acknowledges that women's equal representation and leadership enable more stable and resilient democracies.
- The **Gender Balance on Corporate Boards Directive** is a key step in tackling the under-representation of women in corporate management and in improving transparency in board member selection. Boards of the largest EU companies must have a minimum 40 % of each gender holding non-executive director positions or at least 33 % of all director positions by mid 2026.
- The European Parliament's legislative resolution on the **proposal for a Council regulation on the election of Members of the European Parliament by direct universal suffrage** calls for the introduction of measures assuring equal opportunities for women and men to be elected without infringing the rights of non-binary people by using zipped lists or quotas.
- In June 2025, the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union reached a provisional agreement on changes to the **statute and funding of European political parties and European political foundations**, which should enhance transparency and reinforce European values by mandating alignment with EU principles, gender balance, anti-harassment policies and annual reporting on representation gaps.
- European Commission's 2022 **High Level Group on Gender Equality in Sport** recommends implementing a 50 % representation quota for women in sports decision-making bodies at all levels, possibly enforceable through funding incentives, and the implementation of gender action plans on leadership in sport.

The domain of power deals with these challenges by focusing on gender inequalities in the highest decision-making bodies of key political institutions, in the largest companies and in sports organisations in the EU.

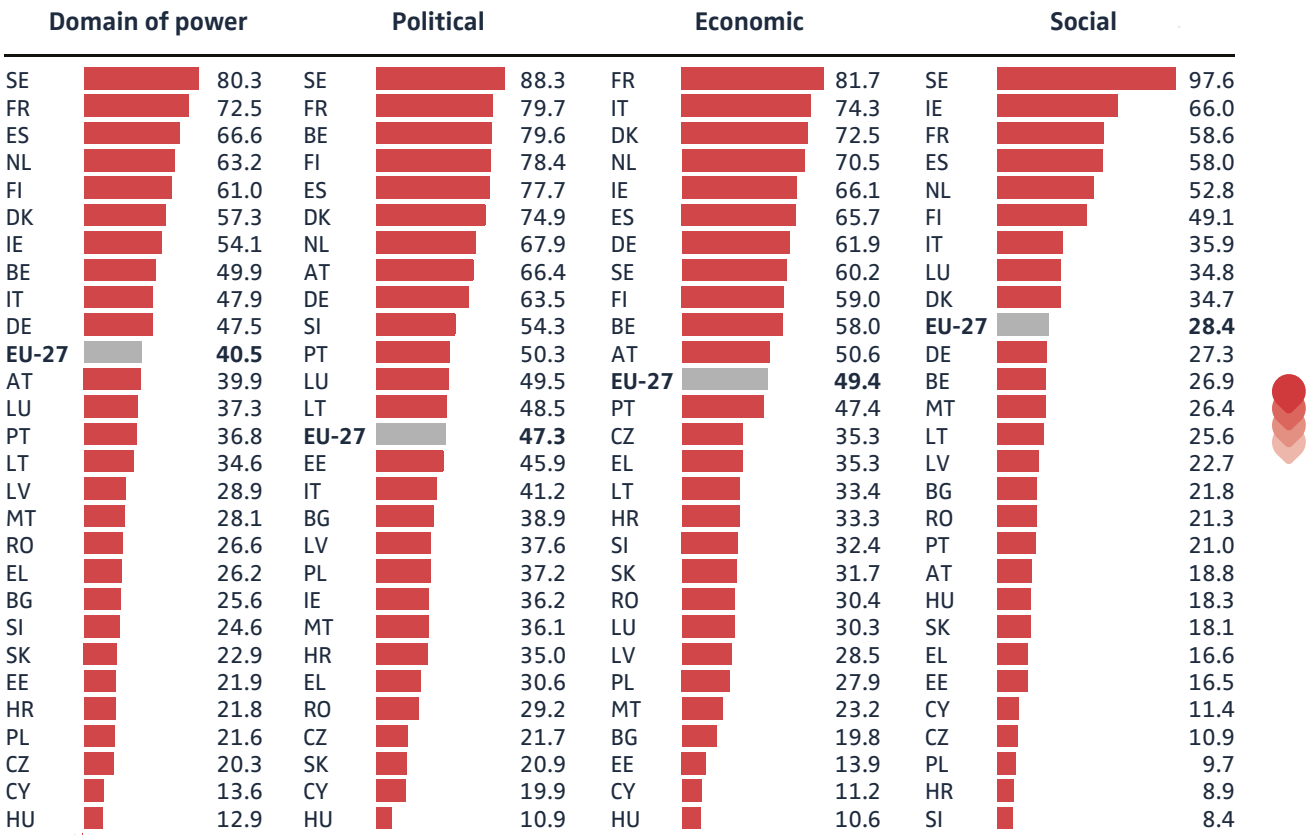
The first subdomain, political power, uses three indicators: the proportions of women and men as government ministers (junior and senior), parliamentarians and members of regional and/or local assemblies.

The subdomain of economic power explores the gender composition of boards of the largest quoted companies in each Member State. Meanwhile, the subdomain of social power examines the gender breakdown of the highest decision-making bodies of the 10 most popular Olympic sports organisations in each Member State.

7.1. Dynamic progress but still far from equal power

With a score of 40.4, the domain of power is the lowest-ranking domain in the 2025 Gender Equality Index. Among the three subdomains, economic power has the highest score of 49.4, while the score for political power is 47.2. Lagging considerably behind is the subdomain of social power, with a score of only 28.4 points (Figure 26).

Figure 26: Domain of power and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



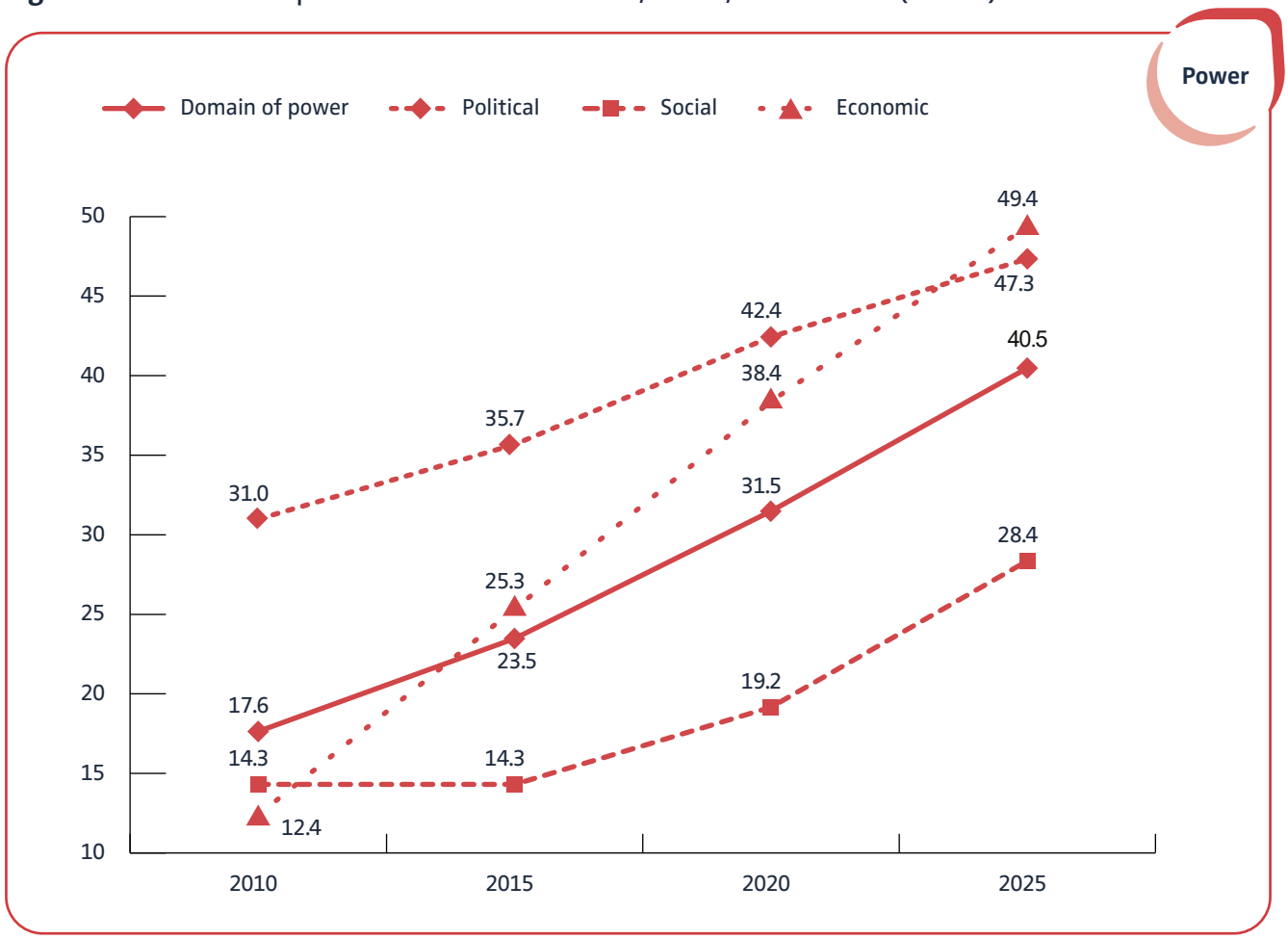
NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Although gender-equal power remains elusive, this domain has made marked progress since 2010, its score rising by 22.9 points (Figure 27). It stands out as the most dynamic aspect of gender equality measured by the Index. This rise in the domain score has been fuelled by the 37-point upswing in the subdomain of economic power over the same period, made possible by gains in women's representation on company boards. Since 2010, EU legislative action and legally binding quotas at the national level have driven solid progress (EIGE, 2020, 2025c). While less dramatic, 16.3- and 14.1-point gains in the subdomains of political power and social power, respectively, are still more striking than in other Gender Equality Index subdomains.

Across the EU, the scores for the power domain range from a high of 80.4 points in Sweden to 12.9 points in Hungary. This is the widest dispersion of all the domains of the Index. This variation across Member States is most acute in the subdomain of social power and political power (Figure 28).

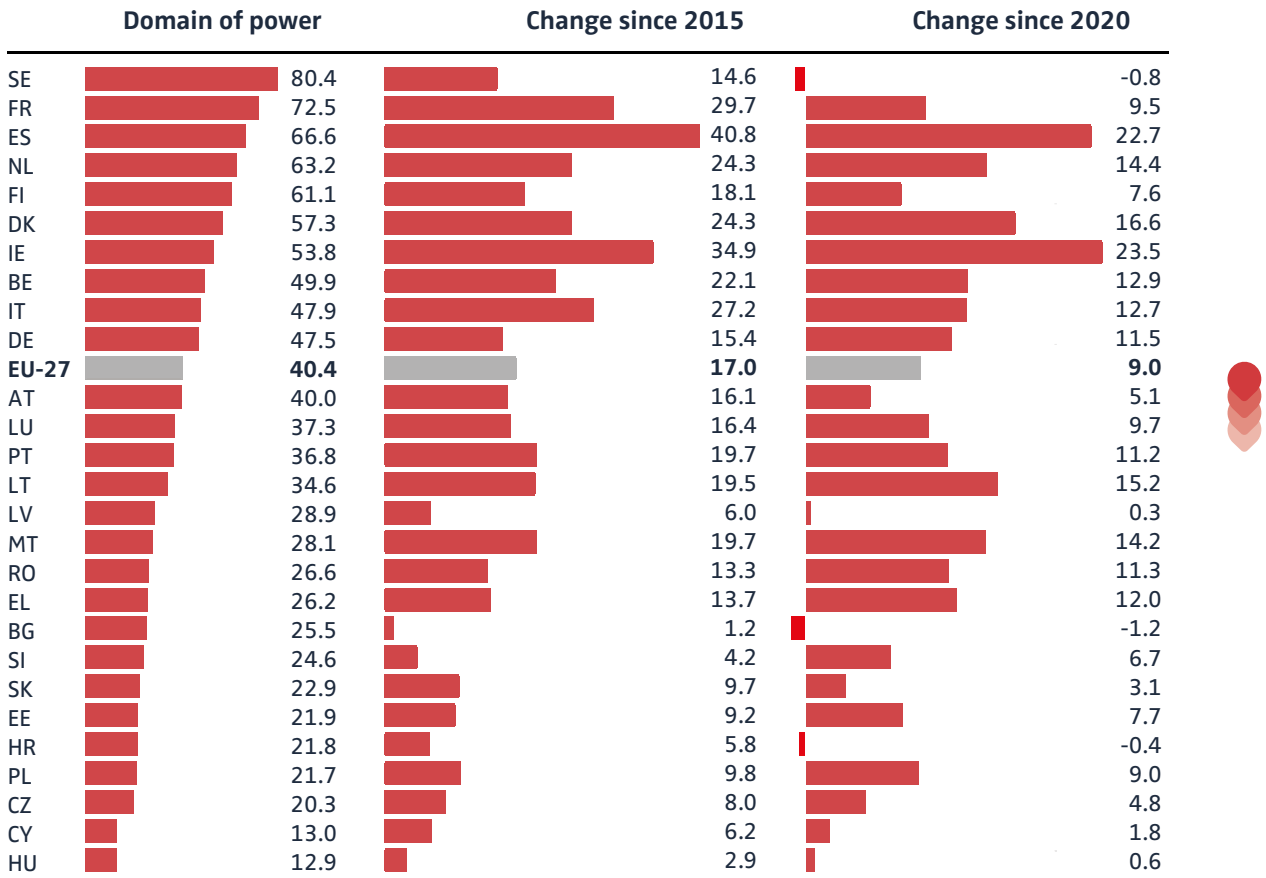
Scores for most Member States stand below 40 points (Figure 28), which shows both significant room for improvement and potential for transformative change. While greater representation of women in decision-making, in and of itself, is not sufficient to advance gender equality to advance gender equality in public policies, it has been associated with gains in terms of public governance (Hessami et al., 2020), health equity (Reeves et al., 2020, 2022) and environmental sustainability (Nicolò et al., 2022; Nuber et al., 2021; Orazalin et al., 2020).

Figure 27: Domain of power and its subdomains, EU-27, 2010–2025 (scores)



Over the past 10 years, Member States such as Spain, Ireland, France and Italy have made considerable progress in narrowing gender gaps in decision-making across the three subdomains (Figure 28).

Figure 28: Domain of power and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



Eleven Member States so far have adopted legislative gender quotas applicable to the lists of candidates for national elections ([25]). Another two have adopted general guidance or financial incentives for political parties ([26]). Malta's approach differs by being the only Member State to adopt a 'gender corrective' mechanism automatically allocating up to 12 additional seats to the under-represented gender if fewer than 40 % of the candidates elected are of that gender.

So far, Spain and Slovenia are the only two Member States to reach or exceed the quota threshold applicable to candidate lists. Ten Member States have set gender quotas for candidates in European Parliament elections, with women Members of the European Parliament (MEPs) reaching the quota level in Spain, France and Croatia.

([25]) Candidate lists quotas can be found in Belgium and France (50 %); in Greece, Spain, Croatia, Luxembourg and Portugal (40 %); in Poland (35 %); and in Ireland (40 % for national elections, none for European elections), Italy (40 % for national elections, 50 % for European elections) and Slovenia (35 % for national elections, 40 % for European elections). Malta does not have a legislative quota for candidate lists but a 'gender corrective' mechanism by which if there is less than 40 % of the under-represented gender among elected parliament members, up to 12 additional seats are allocated to members from the under-represented gender. There is no equivalent mechanism for elected MEPs for Malta.

([26]) In Romania, since 2022 the political parties have been obliged to ensure their lists of candidates for elections are gender-balanced; however, the law does not set a minimum requirement and there are no enforcement procedures or sanctions. Thus this cannot be considered a legally binding quota. In Austria, funding incentives exist for political groups with gender-balanced representation in the parliament.

Currently, nine Member States have implemented legislative gender quotas for boards of listed companies. France, Italy and, most recently, Spain, have a 40 % quota. In Belgium, the Netherlands and Portugal, it is 33 %, with Germany's and Austria's quotas set at 30 % and Greece's at 25 %. In October 2024, women accounted for 40 % of board members of the largest listed companies in these Member States, compared with 33 % of board members in Member States where only soft measures have been applied and just 18 % in Member States that have taken no action. Overall, in the EU, 35 % of members of boards in the largest quoted companies are women, the highest share since 2010 (Table 13). However, in the majority of Member States, the representation of women is below 30 % ([27]), with the lowest percentages found in Hungary and Cyprus (11 % each).

Women's leadership in sport trails other areas monitored by the domain of power. In Slovenia, Poland, Czechia and Cyprus, about one decision-maker in ten in national Olympic sports organisations is a woman ([28]). Sweden is the only Member State to have gender-balanced representation in sports decision-making bodies, with 51 % of board members being women. Ireland (41 %), France (39 %), Spain (38 %), the Netherlands (35 %) and Finland (34 %) follow, but gender parity is still some distance away.

Table 13: Indicators of the domain of power, EU-27

	Women	Men
Ministers, 2024 (%)	35	65
Members of parliament, 2024 (%)	33	67
Members of regional/local assemblies, 2024 (%)	32	68
Members of boards in largest quoted companies, 2024 (%)	35	65
Members of highest decision-making body of 10 most popular national Olympic sports organisations, 2024 (%)	23	77

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Gender balance in social and economic power is similarly understood by monitoring the share of positions held by women in each Member State's central bank. In 2024, decision-making bodies of these banks continued to be dominated by men, with 32 % of seats being held by women (EIGE, 2025c). Leadership in media and research-funding organisations is another useful marker of gender equality in society, with ramifications for the production of knowledge, science and innovation on the one hand, and for public debate, gender norms and cultural representations on the other. While the EU has achieved gender balance in decision-making at research-funding institutions (with 42 % of decision-makers in 2024 women), leadership of public broadcasting organisations is not there yet, with 37 % of decision-makers women.

([27]) Lithuania (28 %), Czechia (27 %), Greece (27 %), Croatia (27 %), Latvia (26 %), Slovakia (25 %), Romania (25 %), Slovenia (25 %), Poland (23 %), Luxembourg (23 %), Bulgaria (18 %), Malta (17 %), Estonia (14 %), Cyprus (11 %) and Hungary (11 %). Data as of September 2025.
([28]) Data for 2024: Slovenia (8 %), Croatia (9 %), Poland and Czechia (10 %) and Cyprus (11 %).

7.2. Setbacks and overall standstill in women's political participation

Key changes to the political landscape in the EU and the world at large were seen in 2024, with more than 64 countries and nearly half the global population called to vote. In addition to national elections in many Member States ([29]), voters elected a new European Parliament, which led to the renewal of the European Commission college. While the outgoing 2019–2024 European Commission and Parliament were the most gender-balanced in history (EIGE, 2024c, 2025c), the 2024 elections witnessed the first-ever drop in the share of women MEPs since 1979, down to 39 % from 41 % (EIGE, 2024b, p. 2).

In 2024, men accounted for 67 % of members of national parliaments in the EU. Hungary and Cyprus have the lowest share of women parliamentarians, at 14 %, followed by Romania at 19 %. Only seven Member States in the EU have reached gender balance – that is, at least 40 % of women or men members of parliaments ([30]). Although the percentage of women in national parliaments in the EU has only increased by 1 pp over since 2020, six Member States showed progress of 5 pp or more in the share of women sitting in parliament compared with 2020. Malta has seen a 15 pp increase since 2020, Croatia 9 pp, Slovenia 8 pp, the Netherlands 6 pp, and both Denmark and Lithuania 5 pp.

However, some setbacks have also been seen in several Member States, such as Cyprus (– 7 pp), Portugal (– 5 pp) and Bulgaria (– 2 pp), including some of the Member States with the largest populations. For example, in Italy, France and Romania, the representation of women in parliament decreased (– 2 pp in Italy and – 1 pp in France and Romania).

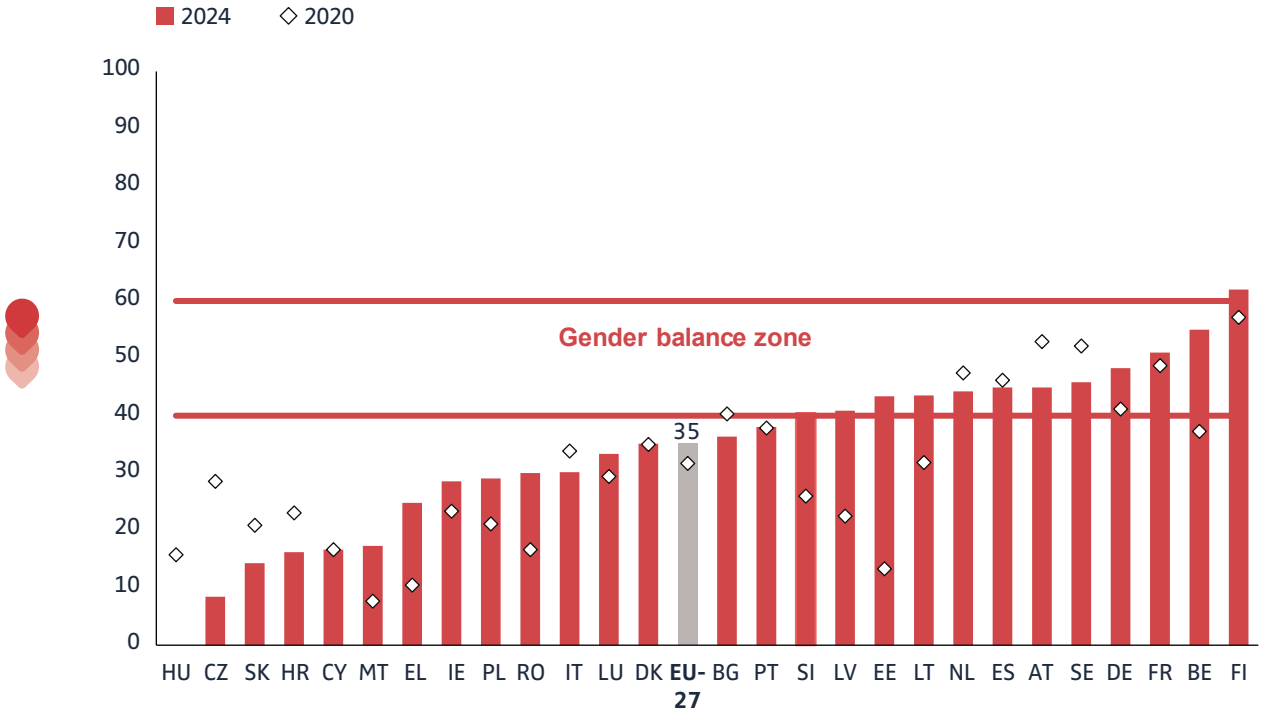
This intense electoral activity led to significant reshuffling in many governments across the EU. With an overall average of only 35 % of government ministers women, the Member States failed to reach the gender balance zone in executive power at the national level ([31]). In the EU overall, the share of women ministers has increased by 3 pp since 2020. This change is due to dramatic gains in several Member States, including Estonia (+ 30 pp), Belgium and Latvia (+ 18 pp each), Greece (+ 15 pp), Slovenia (+ 14 pp), Romania (+ 13 pp) and Lithuania (+ 12 pp).

However, the percentage of women ministers has plummeted in several Member States in recent years. The most striking decline is in Czechia, having dropped from 29 % to 8 % since 2020. Hungary, which had 16 % women ministers in 2020, now has a government of only men (Figure 29).

National governments show variations across the Member States. Eleven Member States have gender-balanced governments ([32]). In Finland, Belgium and France, women make up the majority of ministers (62 %, 55 % and 51 %, respectively).

([29]) Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechia, Germany, Ireland, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Finland.
([30]) Finland (47 % of members of parliament women), Sweden (46 %), Denmark (45 %), Spain (44 %), Belgium (43 %), Austria (41 %) and the Netherlands (40 %).
([31]) This is an annual average of quarterly data and includes both senior and junior ministers.
([32]) Slovenia, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Spain, Austria, Sweden, Germany, France and Belgium, in ascending order of the share of women government ministers.

Figure 29: Share of women government ministers, 2020 and 2024 (%)



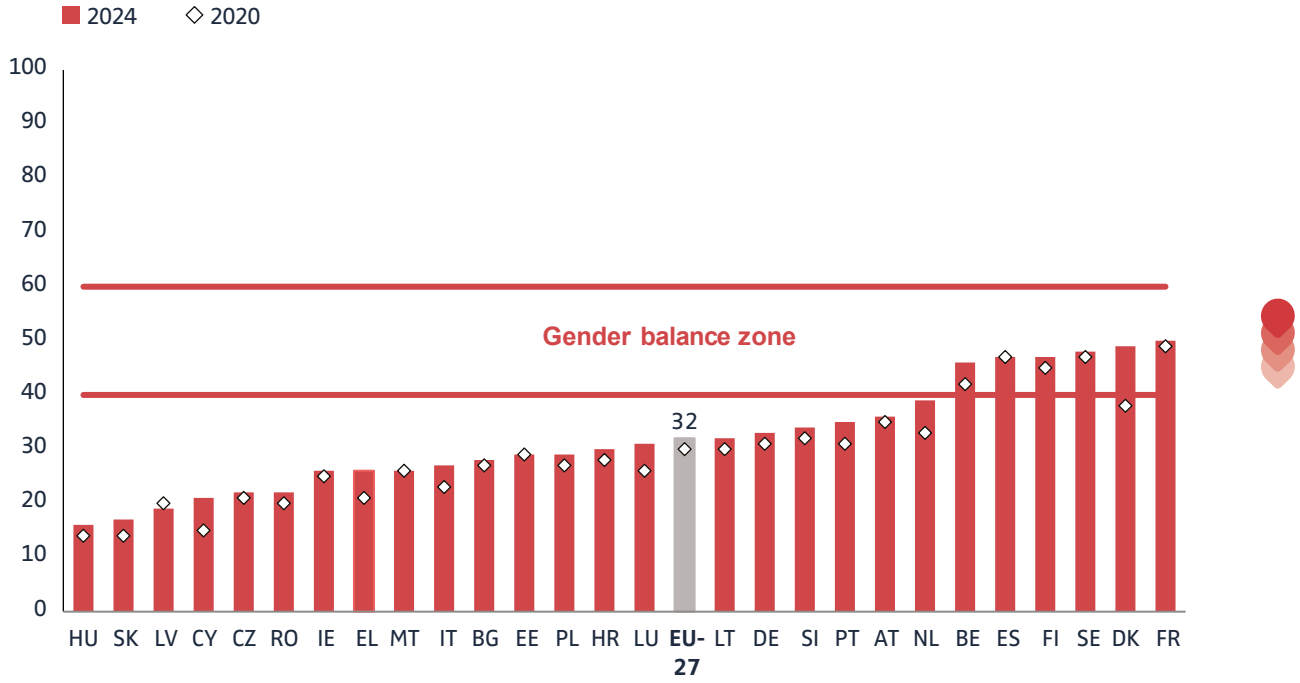
Notes: Annual average of quarterly data. Senior and junior ministers are included. For CZ, DK, EE, FR, HR, CY, LU, HU, RO and SE only senior ministers are included. Senior ministers are members of the government who have a seat in the cabinet or council of ministers (count includes the prime minister). Junior ministers are members of the government who do not have a seat in the cabinet.
Source: EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID; see Annex 1.

In regional or local assemblies, the EU average of 32 % women members in 2024 was mainly due to six Member States reaching gender balance in this aspect of public governance ([33]) (Figure 30).

Analysis over time shows a lack of progress in most Member States in the last few years, with the situation very similar to that in 2020. A 2 pp increase in the proportion of women in regional and local assemblies in the EU since then is due to progress in eight Member States: by 11 pp in Denmark, 6 pp in the Netherlands and Cyprus, 5 pp in Luxembourg and Greece, and 4 pp in Belgium, Italy and Portugal.

([33]) France, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Spain and Belgium, in descending order of the share of women in regional and/or local assemblies in 2024.

Figure 30: Share of women members of regional or local assemblies, 2020 and 2024 (%)



Notes: Yearly data. In Member States where regional assemblies do not exist (Bulgaria, Estonia, Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia), the share of women members of local and municipal assemblies is used instead.
Source: EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID; see Annex 1.

As noted by the European Commission's *Ninth Report on Economic, Social and Territorial Cohesion*, gender balance at the local level since 2015 has been at a standstill, and has regressed in some regions (European Commission: Directorate-General for Regional and Urban Policy et al., 2024).

European regional and local assemblies are not immune to the growing hostility towards women in public affairs seen across the world. Among the 2 600 locally elected female politicians surveyed in 31 European countries, almost a third of them (32%) reported experiencing violence during their political career. When asked about the impact of violence on their roles and lives, locally and regionally elected women report wide-ranging repercussions: feeling unsafe (41%), negative effects on their private lives (30 %), self-censorship on a political conflict (21 %) and withdrawing from public life (12 %). A worrying 9 % decided not to run for office again (Council of European Municipalities and Regions, 2024).

7.3. Women leaders still caught in a stereotype double bind

Gender stereotypes are especially pertinent to the domain of power, as they influence how leadership and authority are defined. They help shape public perceptions of who is considered fit to hold political office or fill certain roles in society.

Research shows that public leaders are expected to display traits aligned with gender norms (Eagly et al., 2002). These tend to assign behaviours revolving around agency to men. Traits such as self-sufficiency, self-confidence, dominance and assertiveness are often associated with masculinity and expected from men in leadership. In turn, characteristics and behaviours expected from women in public life are centred on communion and community building, traits such as empathy, kindness, service orientation and collaboration (Abele et al., 2007; Koburtay et al., 2019; Tremmel et al., 2023).

Thus, women are expected to display both agency and communion to access positions of leadership (Zheng et al., 2018). As a result, they must juggle two, often conflicting, sets of behaviours as leaders – with consequences (Johnson et al., 2008).

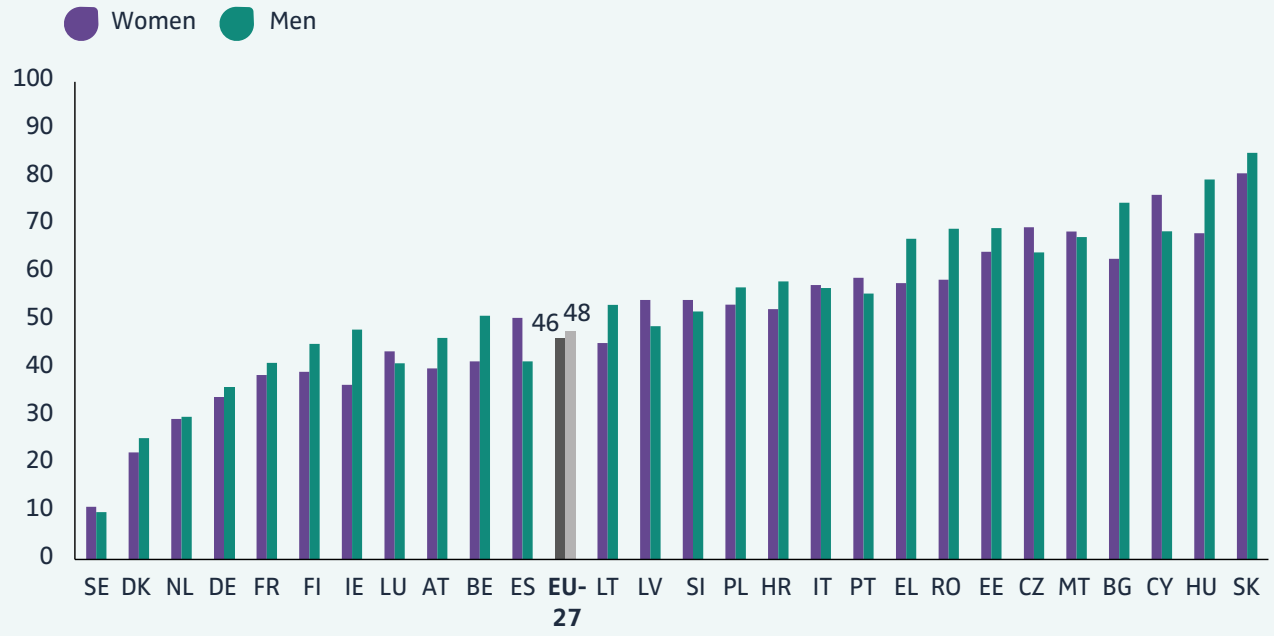
By showing traditionally masculine traits of decisiveness, self-reliance and authoritativeness, women risk being penalised for defying gender norms of femininity (Koburtay et al., 2019).

This is particularly the case when it comes to ambition. Nearly half – 46 % of women and 48 % of men in the EU – consider men to be more ambitious than women in politics (Figure 31). In more than 15 Member States, at least half the population concurs, with agreement reaching 83 % in Slovakia.

In most Member States, men are more likely than women to agree with the statement that men in political life are more ambitious than women. The biggest gender gap among those who agree is seen from respondents aged between 15 and 24 years: 48 % of young men agree, but only 34 % of young women. Agreement on this view also increases with age, particularly among women. Of those above 65 years, more women than men support the assertion: 55 % and 53 %, respectively.

The persistence of such a viewpoint matters, as women leaders who flout that stereotype and are ambitious will most likely be perceived negatively. This is referred to as ‘the Lady Macbeth bias’, in reference to the Shakespearean character, whereby women in authority are seen as calculating, manipulative and power-hungry. More research is needed on the effects of gender biases in leadership from an intersectional perspective (Abulbasal et al., 2024; Breslin et al., 2017). However, research shows that access to leadership positions by young women and women from ethnic minority groups is likely to be particularly hampered by stereotypes (Daldrop et al., 2023; Pogrebna et al., 2024).

Figure 31: Women and men aged 18–74 agreeing that 'Men are more ambitious than women in politics', EU-27 (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

Another set of behaviours posing risks for women leaders relates to displaying feminine traits, such as collaboration, inclusivity and the ability to reach a compromise. These can lead to women being perceived as incapable of effective leadership.

Women and men agreeing that

'Men make better leaders than women.'

The gender gap is largest among the youngest:

15–24: 15 % women, 33 % men

25–44: 19 % women, 30 % men

45–64: 18 % women, 31 % men

65+: 22 % women, 32 % men

Women political leaders are particularly judged on a perceived lack of skills or excessive emotivity. In the EU, 17 % of women and 22 % of men believe women do not have the necessary qualities and skills to fill positions of responsibility in politics ([34]). Support for this statement varies widely across the EU. Member States where agreement exceeds 35 % of respondents are Hungary (49 %), Slovakia (40 %) and Poland (39 %). It falls below 5 % in the Netherlands (2 %), Sweden (3 %) and Denmark (4 %).

The glass ceiling is a documented phenomenon by which women's promotion to decision-making roles in any sector is hampered by gender stereotypes. In recent years, cases of the 'glass cliff' have caught more attention, especially in the political and economic sphere. This term describes 'the phenomenon whereby women are more likely than men to be appointed to leadership positions associated with increased risk of failure and criticism' (Ryan et al., 2005). Simply put,

([34]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

women are more often favoured over men to lead failing organisations or institutions in times of crisis. Researchers have found that, in times of success and prosperity, the desire to maintain the status quo favours men as leaders. However, times of crisis call for a change in paradigm, where typically female traits would be expected to remedy a situation (Bruckmüller et al., 2010; Haslam et al., 2008). As a result of this phenomenon, women leaders usually face immense challenges navigating crises, spearheading change management in failing organisations with limited resources and meeting impossible standards of success. The difficulties women experience in these situations in turn reinforces the stereotype that women are less-effective leaders than men are.

The EU as a bloc is facing complex challenges, with mounting political polarisation, geopolitical tensions, economic uncertainty and the intensifying impact of climate change. This context of polycrisis and permacrisis can give rise to 'glass cliff' situations. Exemplifying how public attitudes underpin this phenomenon, in 2024, 63 % of people in the EU agreed that soft skills often attributed to women are needed to be a good leader ([35]).

([35]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

8. Domain of health

Although people are living longer, with more years in good health, the EU still faces enduring health challenges. The surge in poor mental health, exacerbated by the lingering effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, has been further complicated by ongoing crises such as Russia's war of aggression against Ukraine, climate change and the rising cost of living. The health impact of these crises disproportionately affects the most vulnerable people.

Women in particular report poorer health than men do. In addition to gender-related aspects, self-perceived health is shaped by factors such as social and economic status, physical environment, social support networks and/or access to health services. While women generally live longer, they spend a larger period of their lives in poor health. Women also report poorer mental well-being than men. Gender differences in mental health are linked to issues such as caregiving demands, the impact of gender norms throughout life and financial strain. Differences are also influenced by stigma related to seeking professional help (EIGE, 2021a).

Health behaviours similarly reflect entrenched gender norms. Cultural expectations around masculinity may push men to take more risks, including excessive drinking, smoking, violence or avoiding medical help. Consequently, men are less frequently diagnosed and treated for depression than women are (WHO, 2025), even though they are nearly four times more likely to die by suicide (Eurostat, 2024).

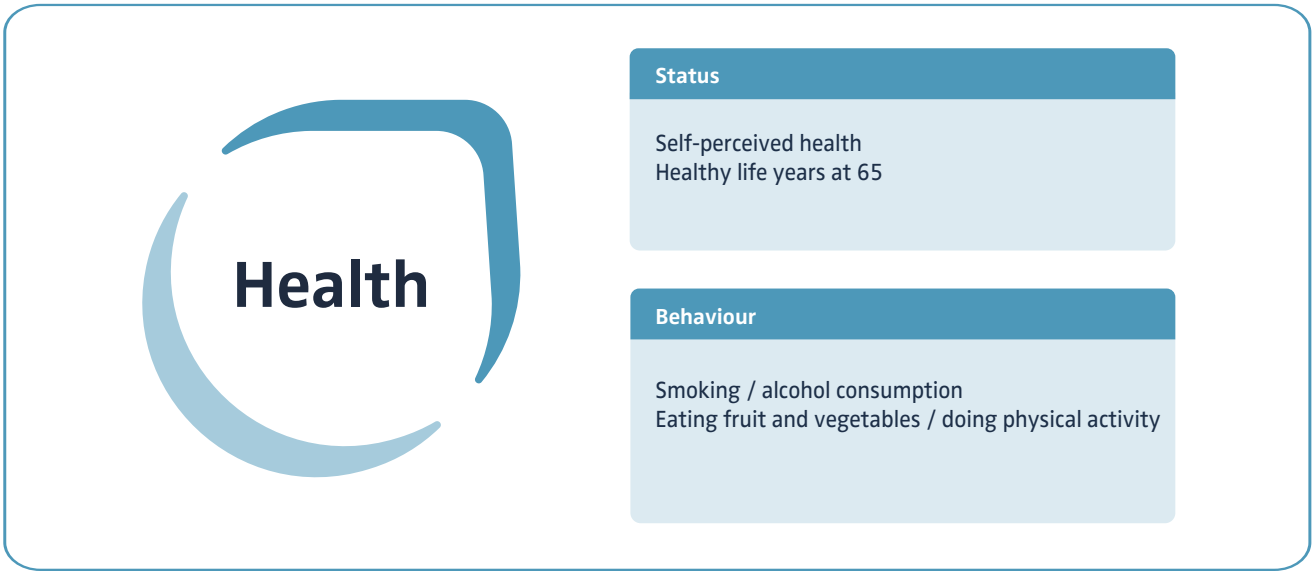
Ensuring gender-inclusive healthcare is essential for health promotion and disease prevention. Women are more likely to visit doctors (Eurostat, 2019b), largely because of reproductive health needs, caregiving roles or men's reluctance to seek help. However, discrimination, poverty and social exclusion can deprive women and men of access to healthcare.

The domain of health is crucial to understanding gender equality, as health is a prerequisite for participation in other domains captured by the Index.

EU policy context

- The 2025 **roadmap for women's rights** outlines objectives for achieving the highest standards of physical and mental health as its key principle.
- Timely access to sufficient quality healthcare is one of the 20 fundamental principles of the **European Pillar of Social Rights**.
- The 2021–2027 **EU4health programme** is the EU's most ambitious health initiative, aiming to make health systems innovative, resilient and better prepared for future challenges as well as gender-responsive and inclusive.
- Recent steps such as the European Commission's 2023 **communication on a comprehensive approach to mental health** and the 2022 European Parliament **resolution on mental health in the digital world of work** establish mental health as a key priority for the EU.

The domain of health addresses these challenges by focusing on gender inequalities in health status and behaviour.

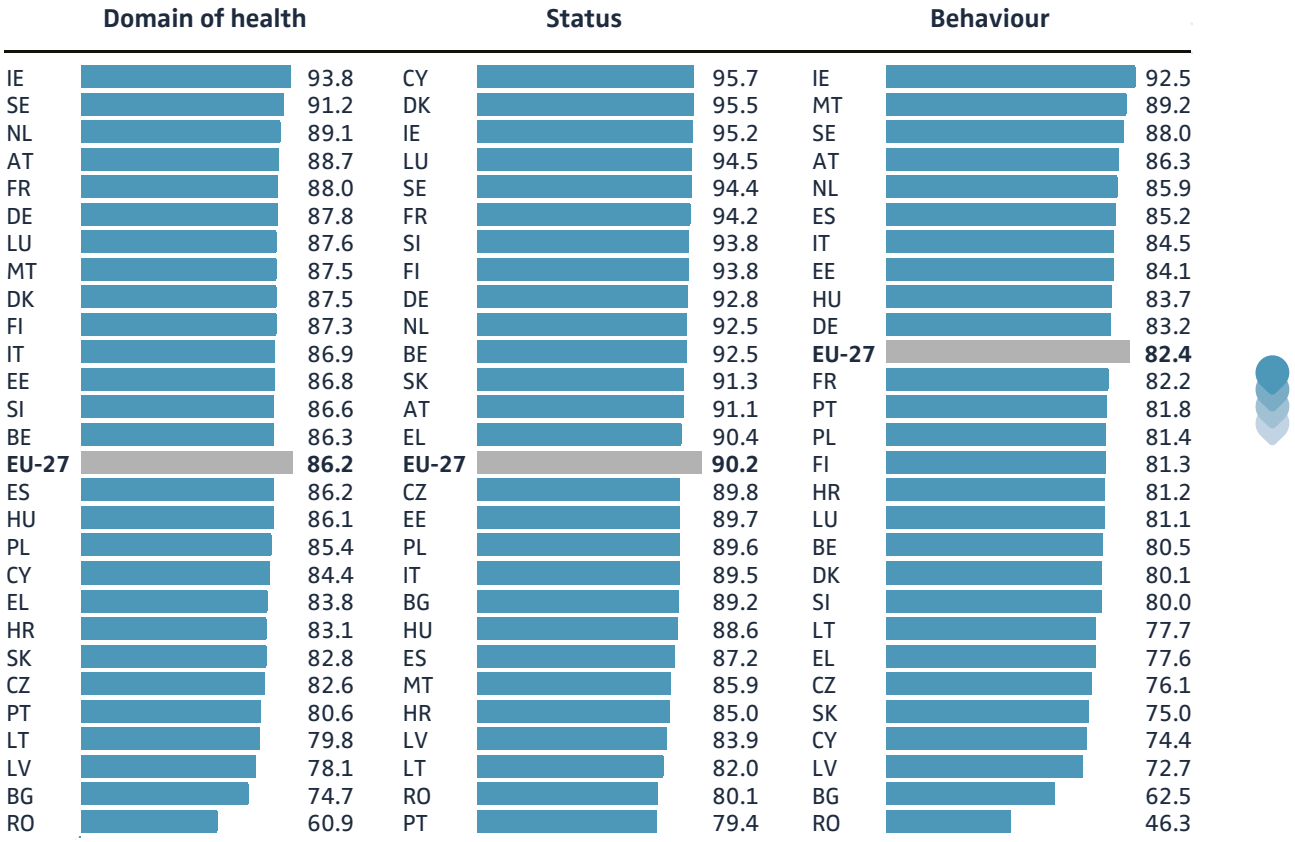


Health status is measured using two indicators: self-perceived health as good or very good, and healthy life years as a percentage of total life expectancy of people aged 65. Health behaviour captures gender differences in harmful health practices, such as heavy drinking or smoking, and enhancing health practices, such as physical activity or healthy diet.

8.1. High-performing health domain still misses the last mile

Gender equality in the domain of health tops all Index domains, with a score of 86.2 points for the EU. Of the two subdomains, health status scores a high of 90.2, with health behaviour achieving 82.4 (Figure 32). At the national level, scores in the health domain range from a high of 93.8 in Ireland to a low of 60.9 in Romania. The domain of health shows a smaller gap in Member States' scores than in other domains. Eighteen Member States rank within 10 points of the highest score (Ireland).

Figure 32: Domain of health and its subdomains, 2025 (scores)



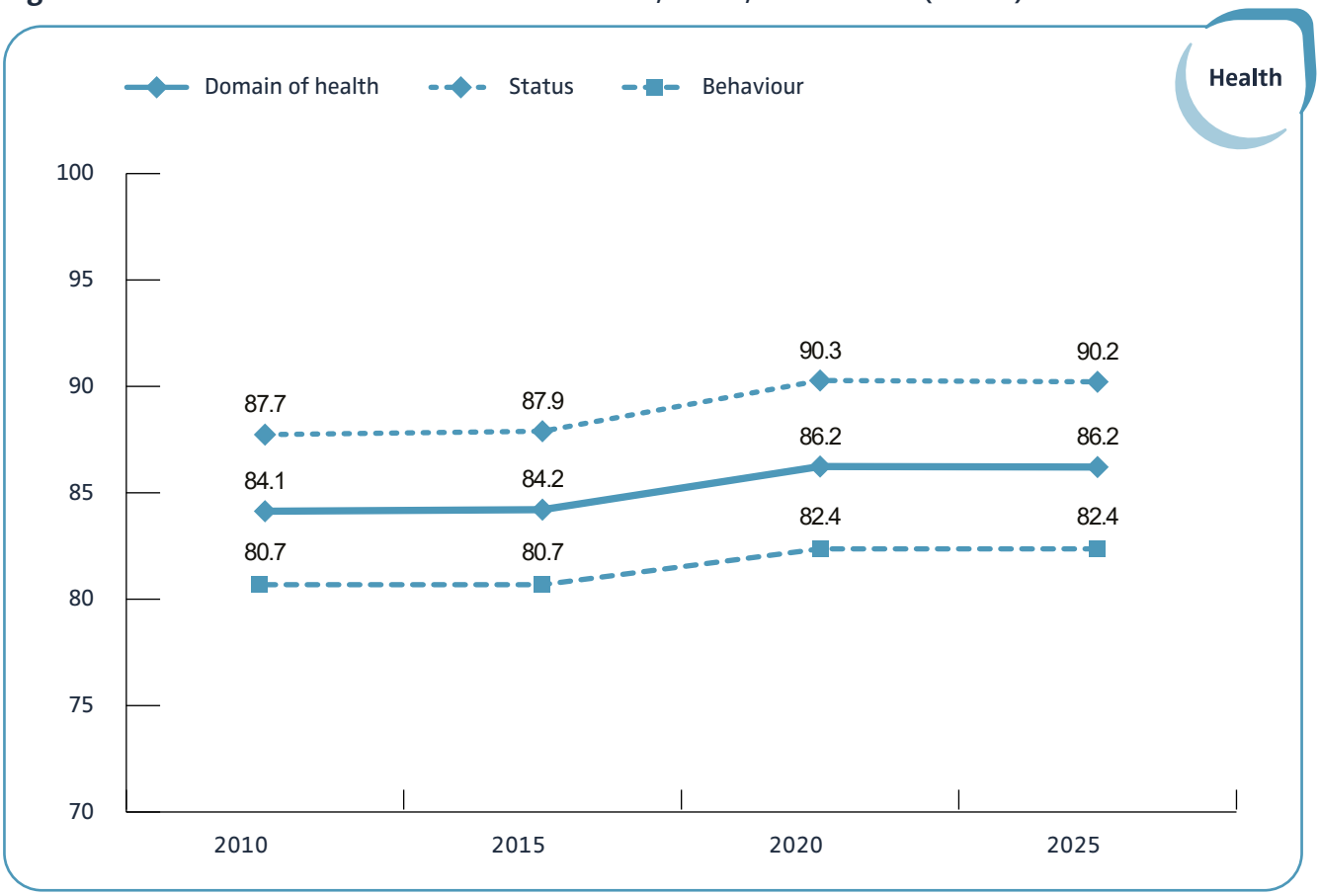
NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Since 2010, scores for the health domain and its two subdomains have been improving. The health status score has grown the most, by 2.5 points (Figure 33). Health status and behaviour not only score highly, but are also the best-performing subdomains of the Index, indicating relatively strong levels of gender equality in selected indicators.

Nevertheless, improvements in health have been modest compared with other domains. Since 2020, scores have stagnated or declined slightly, indicating that gender equality in health has plateaued. This underlines the importance of addressing persistent health inequalities and promoting gender-sensitive interventions to kickstart progress and complete the last mile.

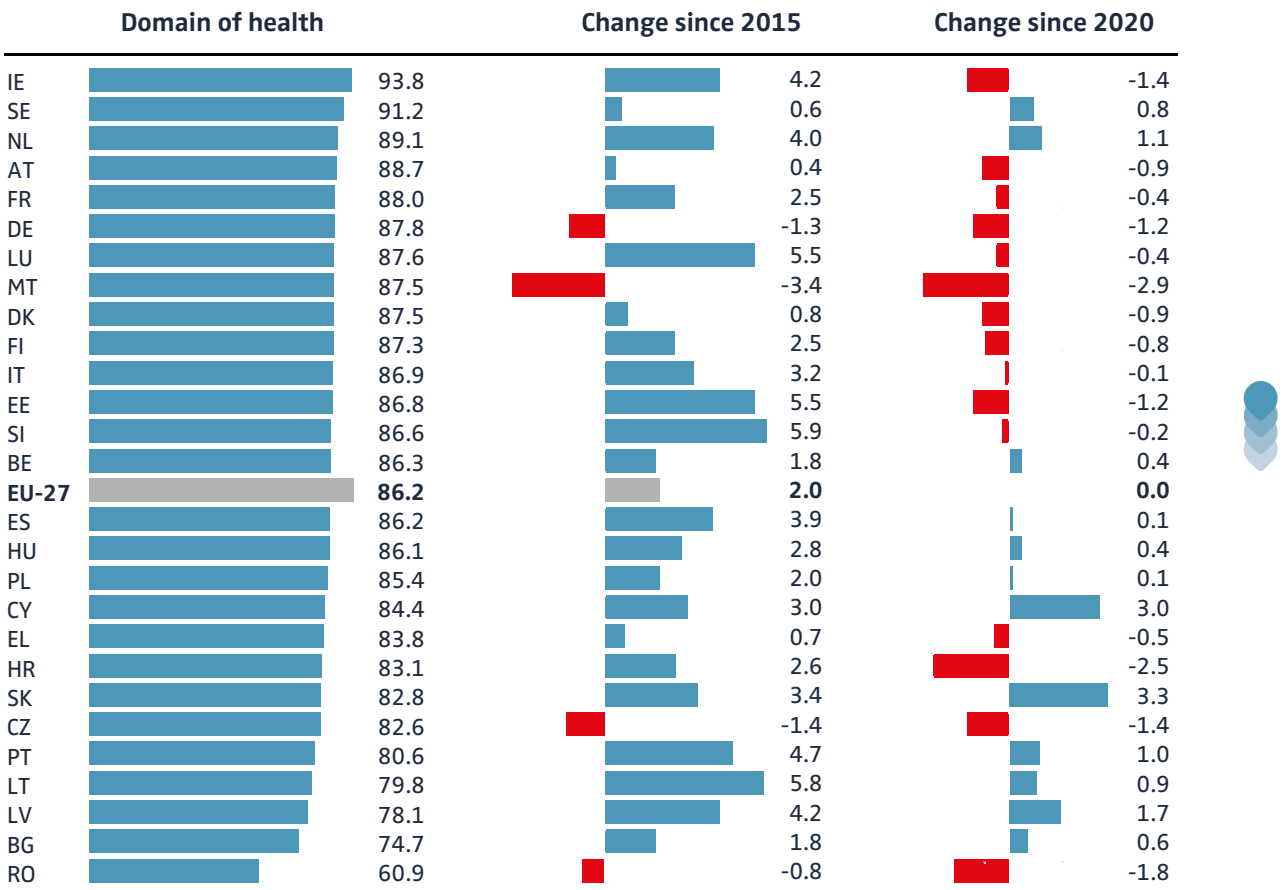
The health behaviour subdomain offers greater scope for improvement. It is measured by indicators on smoking and alcohol consumption and on healthy eating habits and physical activity, with set standards recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO). Gender gaps in these behaviours point to the influence of gender on lifestyles, occupational patterns and socioeconomic status, all of which can shape women's and men's health choices differently (Bosque-Prous et al., 2015; Martínez-Manrique et al., 2022).

Figure 33: Domain of health and its subdomains, EU-27, 2010–2025 (scores)



From 2015 to 2025, several Member States have made headway in narrowing health gender gaps: Slovenia has gained 5.9 points and Lithuania 5.8, while Estonia and Luxembourg have both increased their scores by 5.5 points (Figure 34).

Figure 34: Domain of health and changes over time, 2025 (scores)



However, many Member States have seen their scores fall since 2020. Malta's score has declined by 2.9 points, Croatia's by 2.5 and Romania's by 1.8. These setbacks partly explain the stagnating EU health score since 2020.

These and other health regressions in many Member States may be attributed to the gendered impact of health crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, persistent inequalities in access to healthcare and pressures on national health systems.

Similarly to other domains, a close look at the indicators highlights a critical need for effective interventions. Since 2010, the percentages of women and men in the EU who perceive their health as good or very good have barely increased – by 2.1 pp and 1.3 pp, respectively. Ireland shows the highest self-reported health status, with 80 % of women and men considering their health as very good or good. Lithuania and Latvia have the lowest rates: 45 % of women in Lithuania and 53 % of men in Latvia.

Although women generally live longer than men, they spend less time in good health. In the EU, women aged 65 can expect to spend about 44 % of their remaining years in good health, while men of the same age can expect around 50.3 % ([36]) (Table 14). Variations at the Member State level are vast. Overall, people over 65 can expect 67 % of their remaining life expectancy in good health in Bulgaria, compared with 23 % in Romania.

Women over 65 in Belgium and Sweden can look forward to 64 % of their remaining life expectancy in good health, the most of any Member State. However, women in Romania have the least, with just 20 % of remaining life expectancy spent in good health. For men, Bulgaria leads, with 71 % of remaining life expectancy in good health, compared with only 29 % in Romania. The largest gender gaps in healthy life years as a percentage of life expectancy to men's advantage are in Portugal and Malta (13 pp).

Table 14: Indicators of the domain of health, EU-27

	Women	Men
Self-perceived health, good or very good, age group 16 and above, 2024 (%)	66	71
Healthy life years at 65 as percentage of the total life expectancy, age group 65 and above, 2023 (%)	44	50
People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking, age group 16 and above, 2019 (%)	73	56
People doing physical activities and/or consuming fruit and vegetables, age group 16 and above, 2019 (%)	38	43

NB: The full list of indicators, including the data sources, is presented in Annex 1.

Health behaviour shows the greatest and most complex gender inequalities in the EU. Men in the EU are more likely than women to follow WHO recommendations for regular physical activity and diet (38 % of women and 43 % of men). However, the gender gap flips in terms of risky behaviour: 73 % of women compared with 56 % of men avoid smoking and excessive drinking.

([36]) Healthy life years measures the number of remaining years that a person of specific age is expected to live without any severe or moderate health problems. Life expectancy at a certain age is the mean additional number of years that a person of that age can expect to live.

In most Member States – except for Denmark, Sweden, Finland and Ireland – men are more likely than women to engage in health-promoting behaviours. The variation among men is striking, with 73 % of men in Finland meeting guidelines for healthy behaviour compared with only 14 % of men in Romania. Similar figures can be observed for women: 75 % of women in Finland meet guidelines for healthy behaviour and just 6 % in Romania.

When considering those who avoid smoking and excessive drinking, national gender gaps are similarly marked, from a modest 9 pp in Spain to a striking 38 pp in Romania, consistently to men's detriment.

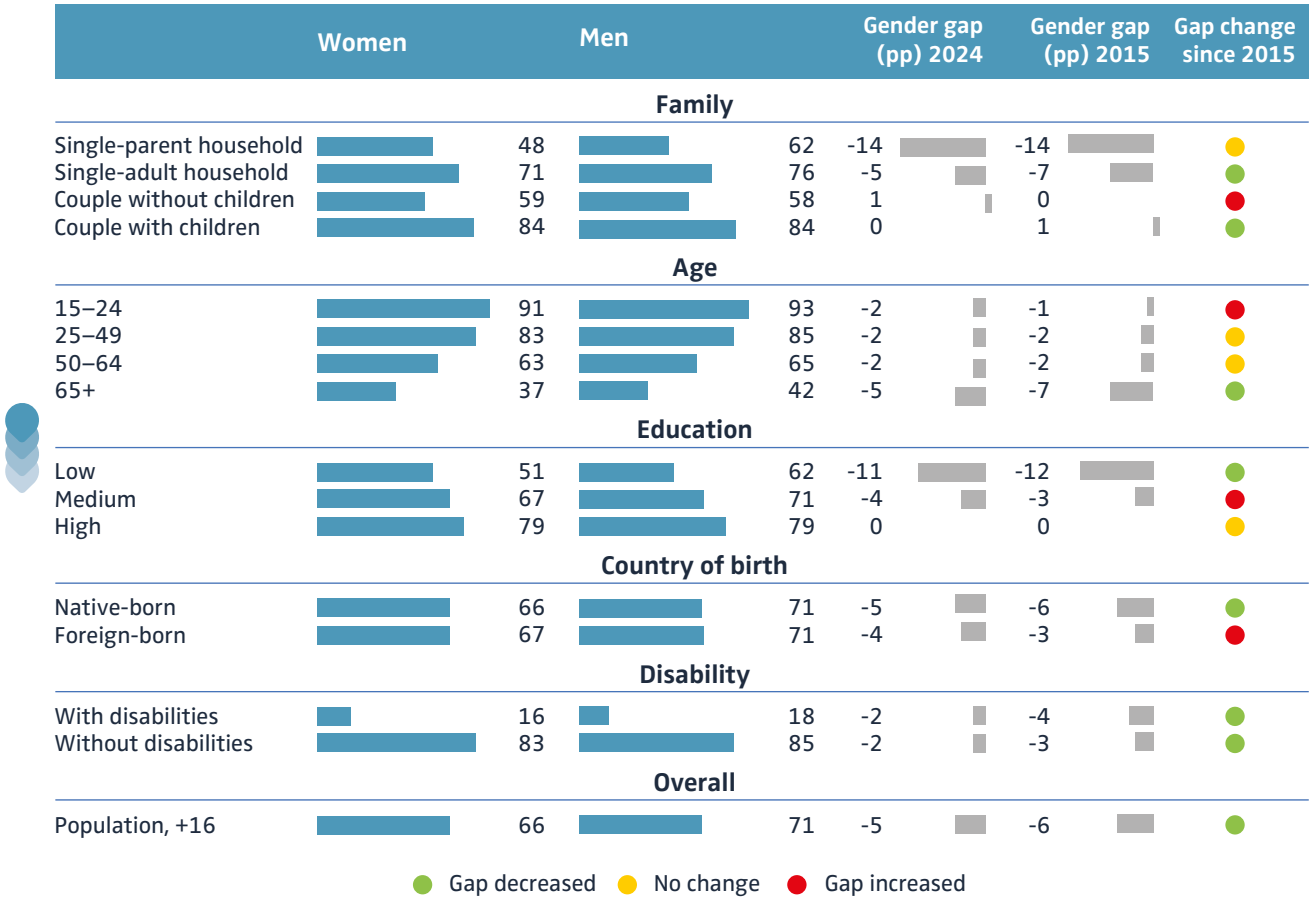
Gender is a key factor in determining health experiences. For example, traditional masculinity can harm men's health and well-being in many ways. It can push men into risky behaviour such as drinking, smoking, violence or speeding, and can make them less likely to ask for help when struggling. These risky behaviours may be adopted as mechanisms to cope with emotional distress or simply to conform to traditional masculine social norms (Baker et al., 2020; Fleming et al., 2015; Iwamoto et al., 2013). It is, therefore, essential to break the stigma around men's emotional expression and mental health through gender-sensitive mental health services and by encouraging men to seek help.

8.2. Low education a key marker of poor health – mostly for women

Gender can intersect with other aspects of identity to pose unique health challenges. Family type, age group, education level, migration and disability status all play a role. These factors can create multiple and simultaneous vulnerabilities that are more than the sum of their parts.

In 2024, 66 % of women and 71 % of men in the EU reported good health. However, these percentages hide how subgroups of the population are far less likely to report good health. These include people with disabilities, single women, women with low education, and women and men aged 65 or above. The proportion of these groups reporting good health has grown since 2015, but only marginally (Figure 35). Across almost all groups, women are less likely than men to say they are in good health.

Figure 35: Self-perceived health among 16-year-olds and above, EU-27 (%)



Notes: This analysis includes different-sex-couple and same-sex-couple households. Groups under the dimensions of 'age' and 'education' sum to the overall of 'working population'; groups under other dimensions constitute partial coverage of the overall of 'working population' due to missing data and/or excluded groups. Educational attainment includes people who have completed ISCED levels 0–2 (low), ISCED level 3 or 4 (medium) or ISCED levels 5–8 (high). Family types are defined based on the relationships between the members – that is, a couple is defined as two adults living in the same household and declaring themselves to be in a relationship (whether married or not); 'children' refers to economically dependent household members (i.e. aged below 24) who are declared to be the own/adopted children or stepchildren of the couple or of a single parent (in the case of a single-parent household) and are not in employment or unemployment; for clarity of interpretation, indicated family types strictly account for the aforementioned types of relationships and the socioeconomic status of children, excluding households with different compositions. Gap changes: in green when it has decreased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in red when it has increased since 2015 by 1 pp or more, in yellow when it has increased or decreased by less than 1 pp. Data includes 2023 data for Hungary and provisional data for Lithuania.
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-SILC, 2024, microdata.

Education is broadly recognised as a key social determinant of health, affecting access to healthcare, food and housing, in addition to encouraging a person's knowledge of healthcare systems and their overall understanding of health (EIGE, 2021a).

A higher level of education is tied to better self-perceived health, especially for women. Among the highly educated, women and men have the same level of perceived good health. In comparison, self-perceived health among those with low education is 28 pp lower for women and 17 pp for men. This suggests compounding vulnerabilities for women with low education. Between Member States, substantial variations emerge. For example, in Lithuania, only 27 % of women with low education report good health, compared with 63 % in Ireland.

While stable employment is also connected to better health outcomes (Răileanu Szeles, 2018), unreliable work can combine with low education to heighten health risks. In support of this, Gumà et al. (2019) found that gender differences in self-perceived health were greatest among those with lower education in parts of Europe where gender employment gaps are also more prevalent (i.e. southern and eastern Europe).

8.3. Almost one fifth of EU citizens believe that men are better treated in healthcare

Gender affects not only how individuals access and experience healthcare, but also how they are perceived and treated within health systems. Therefore, gender stereotypes can have far-reaching impacts on health-related behaviours, access to services, exposure to risks and overall health outcomes (WHO, 2021).

Stereotypes can cause harm when medical staff recreate them in healthcare settings, either knowingly or unknowingly. This can lead to biased assessments, misdiagnoses and unequal treatment decisions, as medical staff may make assumptions based on stereotypes rather than considering the individual symptoms and needs of each patient. For instance, studies have shown that women receive less favourable treatment from medical staff than men do when treated for cardiovascular diseases and pain (Samulowitz et al., 2018; Woodward, 2019).

The perception that women and men receive equal treatment from medical staff varies considerably across the Member States, reflecting different experiences and levels of trust in healthcare systems ([37]). While some Member States show relatively high levels of agreement with the statement that women and men are treated the same, others exhibit significantly less confidence. Notably, Sweden (10 pp), Austria (10 pp) and the Netherlands (9 pp) stand out as Member States with the largest gender gaps, where substantially fewer women than men believe that medical treatment is equal between genders.

Women and men agreeing that in their country

'Women and men are treated in the same way by medical staff.'

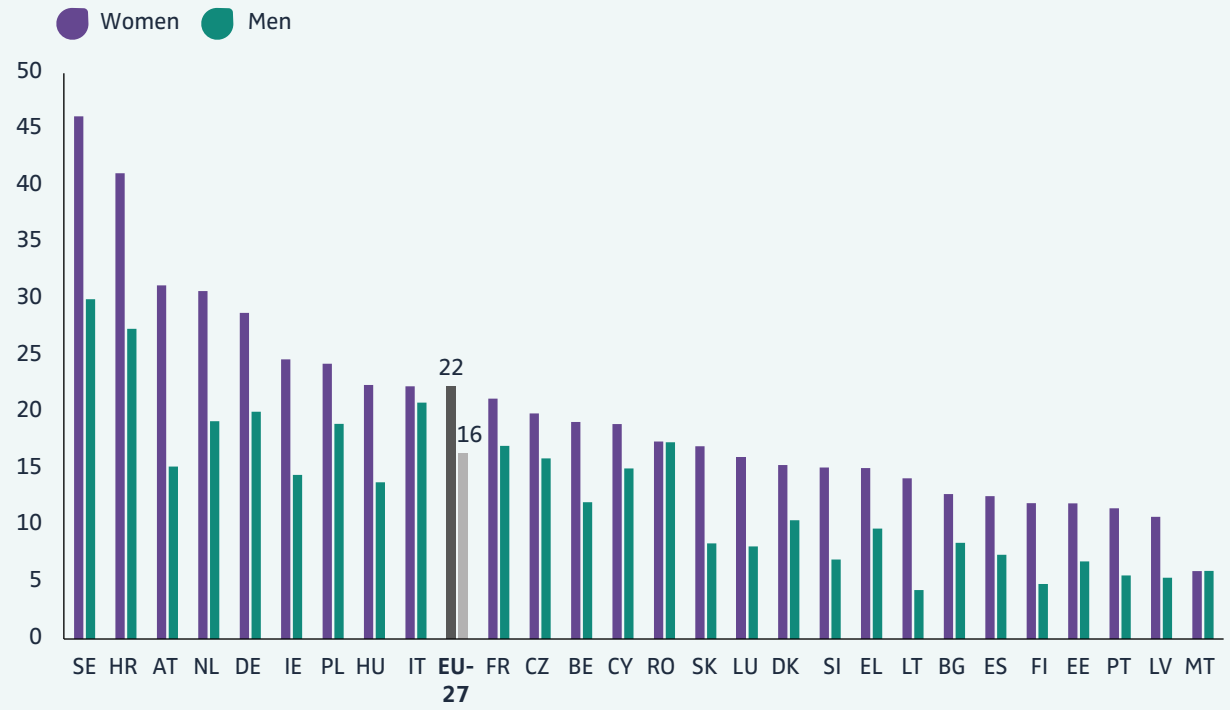
Malta (85 %), Portugal (85 %) and Greece (82 %) have the highest levels of agreement with the statement.

Germany (61 %), Croatia (54 %) and Sweden (51 %) have the lowest.

In line with these differences, an average of 22 % of women and 16 % of men across the EU believe that men receive better treatment from medical staff within their Member State (Figure 36). Sweden shows the highest proportion of respondents holding this view, with 46 % of women and 30 % of men expressing the belief that men are favoured in healthcare settings. Croatia (16 pp) and Austria (16 pp) also show high degrees of gender differences in this view, highlighting persistent concerns about unequal treatment in these healthcare systems.

([37]) Based on data from Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

Figure 36: Women and men aged 15+ who think that men are better treated by medical staff in their Member State (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer 545, 'Gender stereotypes', 2024.

When considering different age groups, the gender gap in perceptions of unequal treatment is most pronounced among younger respondents. Among 15- to 24-year-olds, 28 % of girls and women compared with 16 % of boys and men believe that men are treated better by medical staff. While this gap narrows slightly with age, it remains notable across all age groups. This pattern suggests that younger women may be both more aware of and more sensitive to gender inequality in healthcare, or possibly are more likely to experience or perceive such inequalities first-hand.

Women and men agreeing that

'Men are treated better by medical staff.'

15–24: 28 % women, 16 % men
25–44: 23 % women, 18 % men
45–64: 22 % women, 17 % men
65+: 19 % women, 15 % men

These findings are consistent with broader research indicating that young women are both more likely to recognise and more likely to experience healthcare inequalities (Golestani et al., 2025; Stavropoulou, 2019).

9. Domain of violence

Violence against women is one of the most enduring and brutal manifestations of gender inequality. It affects millions of women in the EU over their lifetimes and in various aspects of their lives: in the family, in education, at work, in the public sphere, online and offline.

Violence against women is a form of discrimination against women and is both a cause and a consequence of gender inequality. Its ability to limit women's participation in economic, social and political life perpetuates long-standing inequalities and creates new ones. Women who suffer violence can end up leaving jobs, losing income and falling into a pattern of financial dependence (EIGE, 2024a). At work, women are at higher risk of violence and harassment (EIGE, 2020 (p. 202), 2024c, 2025c; FRA et al., 2024). Fear of physical and/or verbal attack can deter women, especially young women, from political participation or public life, severely impacting their freedom of expression. Meanwhile, girls and young women exposed to violence at home or in schools are more likely to drop out or underperform (EIGE, 2024c). In the EU, it is estimated that one adult woman in three has witnessed violence between parents during her childhood ([38]). Childhood exposure to violence in the home is associated with enduring difficulties in adulthood, including in professional contexts, and even with involvement in criminal activities (EIGE, 2014).

Such violence intersects with multiple forms of oppression, such as poverty, racism and social exclusion, creating layers of disadvantage for certain groups of women. Older women are at a high risk of violence not only because they live longer than men, but also from compounded power imbalances that intensify with age-related physical and financial vulnerability (EIGE, 2025c; Saripapa, 2019). Women with disabilities face a similarly high risk. Like older women, they are often dependent on their perpetrators for care or support, which severely limits their ability to seek help (EIGE, 2025b, 2025c). The lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer (LGBTIQ) community suffers discrimination, violence and exclusion due to their sexual orientation, gender identity and/or expression. Young LGBTIQ people from a minority group, in terms of disability, religion, skin colour, ethnicity or migrant background, or with financial difficulties are at even higher risk of hate-motivated harassment (FRA, 2024). Migrant women and girls are at a high risk of gender-based violence, during the migration journey, in asylum reception centres or in the new country of residence (EIGE, 2025a). These interlinked inequalities highlight how diverse and complex the impact of gender inequality is on women of different backgrounds – an impact that needs to be accounted for in policy action.

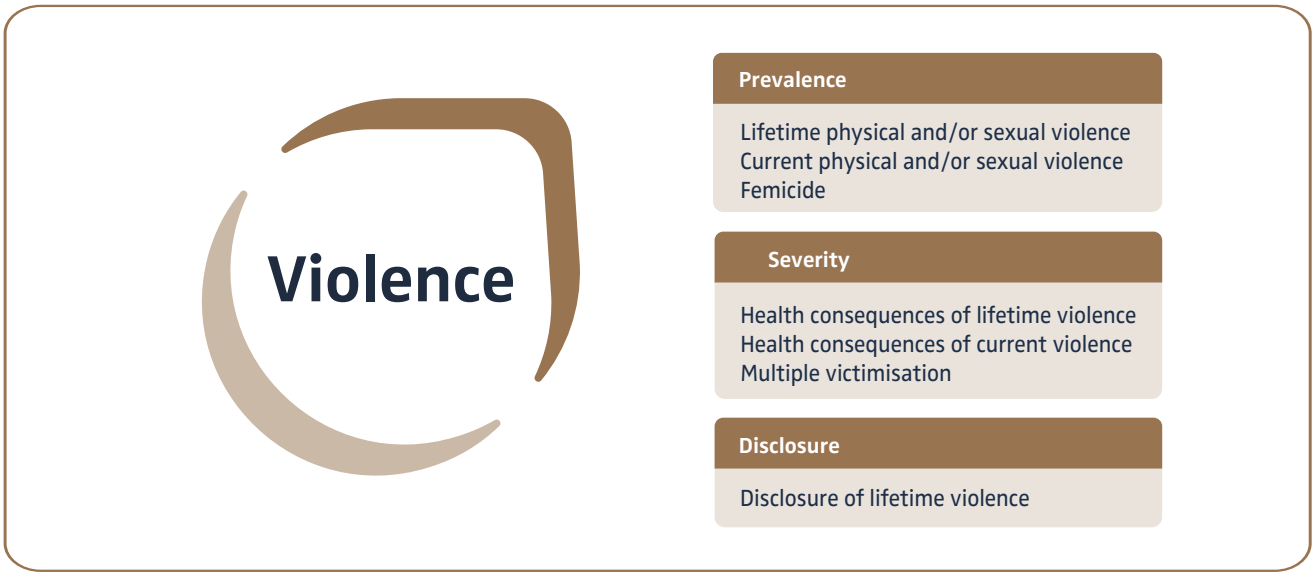
([38]) Data from the European Union Gender-based Violence Survey (2021 wave) (gbv_ch_vbp), accessible at this link: https://doi.org/10.2908/GBV_CH_VBP.

EU policy context

- The 2025 **roadmap for women's rights** aims to tackle systemic discriminatory norms and turn a number of key principles into lived reality. The first one is freedom from gender-based violence.
- The 2020–2025 **gender equality strategy** recognises ending gender-based violence as a strategic priority. It acknowledges violence against women as a significant obstacle to true gender equality and outlines actions to tackle its root causes and consequences.
- In 2023, the EU became a party to the Council of Europe **Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence** – the Istanbul Convention. It is now legally bound to prevent and combat violence against women in areas of judicial cooperation in criminal matters, asylum and *non-refoulement*, and through public administration (including through funding, policy and legislative measures).
- **Directive (EU) 2024/1385 on combating violence against women and domestic violence** lays the foundation for more consistent protection and prevention standards. It seeks to strengthen criminal justice responses to violence against women, improve protection and access to justice for victims, improve prevention and coordination efforts within and among Member States, and reinforce specialised support services.
- The 2020–2025 **EU strategy on victims' rights** aims to enhance protection and support for victims of crime. It focuses particularly on victims of gender-based violence, sexual assault and trafficking. This strategy includes challenging harmful attitudes and behaviours perpetuating violence against women.
- The 2021–2025 **EU strategy on combatting trafficking in human beings** accepts that human trafficking is a form of gender-based violence, acknowledges its disproportionate impact on women and girls, and highlights increased risk for groups such as Roma, LGBTIQ people and people with disabilities.
- The revised **Directive (EU) 2024/1712 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims** covers additional forms of exploitation such as forced marriage, illegal adoption and surrogacy. It requires Member States to ensure training for professionals and specialised victim support to adopt a gender-sensitive approach.

The domain of violence is an essential part of the Gender Equality Index, but differs from other domains in several ways. Although it does not measure gender gaps, it includes a set of indicators on the extent of violence against women that form the composite measure ([39]). This score synthesises the complexity of the extent of violence against women into an easy-to-understand metric. It captures the prevalence of violence, its severity and impact on women's lives, and women's readiness to disclose their experiences (EIGE, 2020, 2024c, 2025c).

([39]) Femicide, although part of the domain of violence as the most severe form of violence against women, could not be included in the current calculations of the composite measure due to a lack of EU-wide official comparable data. Data on femicide in the EU is only available for the 18 Member States shown in Figure 38.



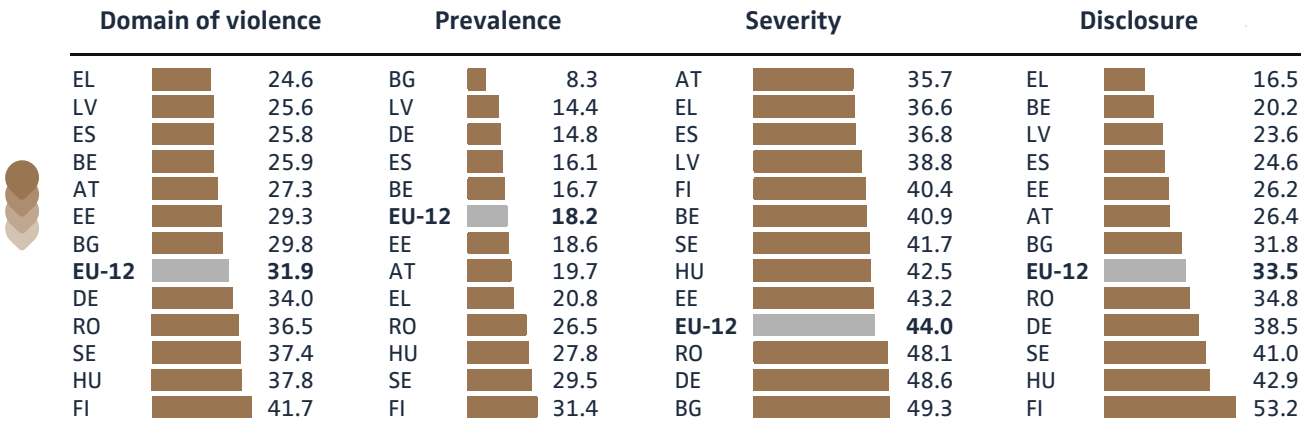
Unlike the general score of the Gender Equality Index – where a higher score denotes a Member States' closeness to achieving equality between women and men in all areas – the composite measure of violence against women takes the opposite approach. This means, the higher the composite score, the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women in a country, reflecting its prevalence, severity and under-reporting. Using a scale of 1 to 100, the metric illustrates where Member States are situated against two extremes: 1 represents the non-existence of violence and 100 signifies that violence against women is highly prevalent, extremely severe and undisclosed. Since the willingness of respondents to disclose and discuss their experience of violence varies depending on different circumstances, it is important to note that the composite measure accounts for disclosed violence and not the true extent of violence in each Member State.

9.1. Violence is still prevalent, severe and undisclosed in the EU

The score for the domain of violence, often referred to as the composite measure of violence, relies on data from the European Union Gender-based Violence (EU-GBV) Survey, 2021 wave ([40]). Due to data limitations, the composite measure could only be calculated for 12 Member States ([41]).

Nationally, scores range from 24.6 for Greece to 41.7 for Finland, with an average of 31.9 (Figure 37). These scores show that violence against women is prevalent, severe and under-reported in the 12 Member States for which a score could be calculated.

Figure 37: Domain of violence and subdomains, 2025 (scores)



Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-GBV Survey data, 2021 wave.

The score for the subdomain of prevalence is 18.2, although Member State scores range from 8.3 in Bulgaria to 31.4 in Finland. However, Finland's score does not mean that women there experience almost four times the violence that women in Bulgaria experience. It could indicate that women in Finland felt more able to divulge their experiences of violence in the survey.

Other low-ranking Member States include Latvia (14.4), Germany (14.8) and Spain (16.1). Joining Finland with high prevalence scores are Sweden (29.5), Hungary (27.8) and Romania (26.5).

Taking a closer look at the indicator level highlights the magnitude of the phenomenon of gender-based violence and how much still needs to be done (Table 15). Updated EU data shows that 31 % of women have experienced physical and/or sexual violence at some point in their lives and that about 3 % are currently experiencing physical and/or sexual violence. There is no EU aggregate

([40]) The EU-GBV Survey (2021 wave) includes results covering the 27 Member States. In total, the estimated EU-27 average results are based on data collected from 114 023 women (aged 18–74 years) across the EU. The data collection took place between September 2020 and March 2024. Eurostat coordinated the data collection in 18 Member States, and the national statistical authorities of these Member States carried out the survey. Italy agreed to share the data from its national survey to provide comparable data for the main indicators. For the remaining eight Member States, the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) and EIGE took responsibility for the data collection following the Eurostat methodological manual. More details on the survey methodology are available here: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/gbv_sims.htm.

([41]) More information on the calculation of the composite measure can be found in Annex 5.

data for femicide due to differences in data collection. Based on the 17 Member States that reported data in 2023, it is estimated that 749 women lost their lives to an intimate partner or a family member in 2023.

The majority (57 %) of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence at some point in their lives have suffered health consequences as a result. The health impacts of current violence are also very heavy, with 37 % of women facing health consequences due to violence they experienced in the 12 months preceding the interview. Sexual and/or physical violence often come from multiple people in women's lives. In fact, 69 % of women who have experienced violence have faced it from more than one type of perpetrator, such as a partner, a family member or someone else. The level of reporting of violence to authorities such as the police, to social services or to family and friends shows a high need for improvement. About 31 % of women surveyed who have experienced violence have never told anyone about it.

Table 15: Indicators of the domain of violence among 18- to 74-year-old respondents, EU-27

	Women
Lifetime physical and/or sexual violence, age group 18–74 (%)	31
Current physical and/or sexual violence, age group 18–74 (%)	3
Femicide, 2023 (rate per 100 000 inhabitants)	n/a
Health consequences of lifetime physical and/or sexual violence, age group 18–74 (%)	57
Health consequences of current physical and/or sexual violence, age group 18–74 (%)	37
Physical and/or sexual violence from several types of perpetrators, age group 18–74 (%)	69
Lifetime physical and/or sexual violence that was not reported to anyone, age group 18–74 (%)	31

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-GBV Survey data, 2021 wave.

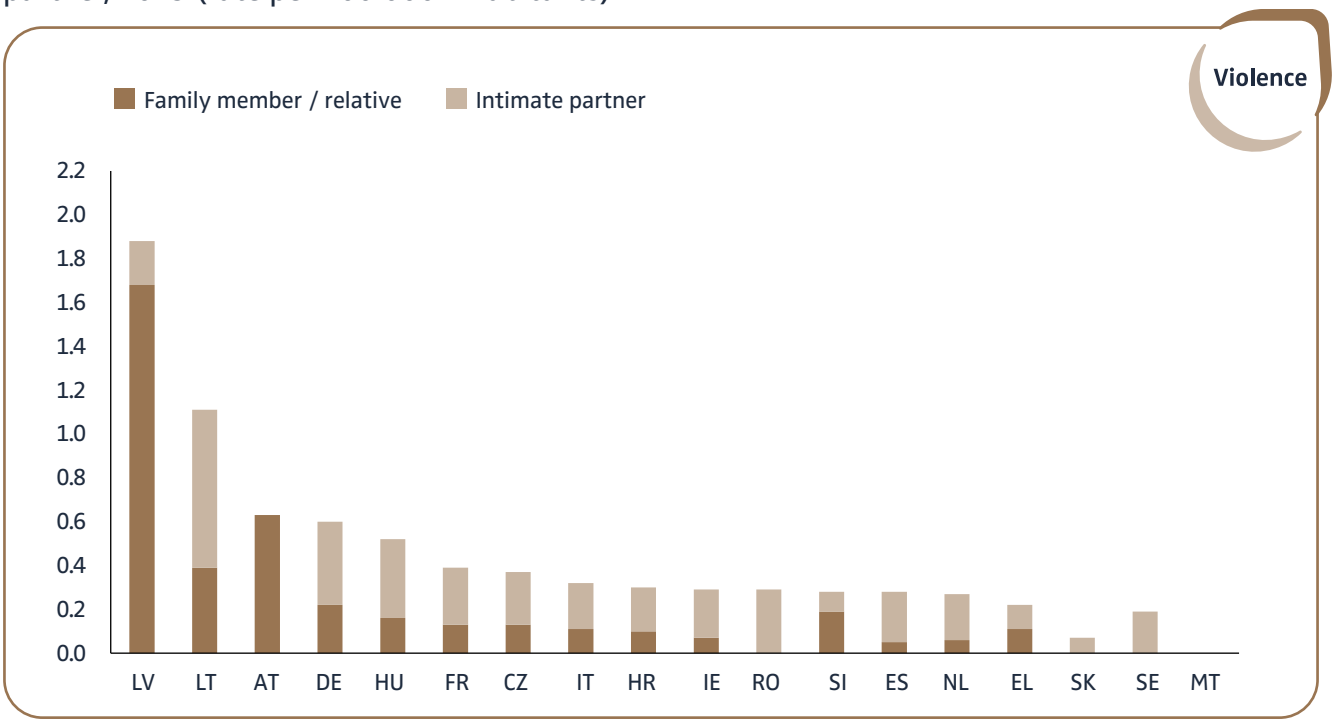
Femicide, the most extreme form of violence against women, is a tragic failure of society to stop violence before it is too late. The impact of femicide on families, communities and societies affected by it remains among one of the most under-studied and underestimated issues.

In the absence of an agreed definition in the EU, femicide rates are captured through the numbers of women killed intentionally by an intimate partner or family member (Figure 38) ([42]). However, the lack of comprehensive data collection means these numbers are an underestimation. This underestimation is further supplemented with up-to-date EU-wide survey data indicating that about 37 % of women who have experienced violence from an intimate partner have felt that their lives were in danger due to violence ([43]).

([42]) Collected data is from Eurostat and reflects official crime statistics from all Member States, including statistics from police, prosecution, courts and prisons. The collected data shows the intentional homicides; data on victims is disaggregated by sex and reflects their relationship to the perpetrator, that is, by intimate partner or family member.
([43]) Data from the EU-GBV Survey (2021 wave) (gbv_any_cnqv), accessible at this link: https://doi.org/10.2908/GBV_ANY_CNQV.

In 2023, Latvia recorded the highest number of femicides per 100 000 inhabitants, followed by Lithuania and Austria (Figure 38). Sweden and Slovakia only recorded femicide by an intimate partner ([44]).

Figure 38: Women victims of intentional homicide by a family member / relative or intimate partner, 2023 (rate per 100 000 inhabitants)



Notes: Data for 2023 was unavailable for Cyprus and Finland. Data on the number of women victims of intentional homicide by an intimate partner in 2023 was not available for Austria. Romania provided the total number of women victims of intentional homicide, but the data was not disaggregated by type of perpetrator. No female victims of intentional homicide were recorded in Malta in 2023.
Source: Eurostat (crim_hom_vrel).

9.2. Levels of disclosed violence higher among women under 45

Women from all demographic groups are at risk of violence, but not all those who experience violence are willing or able to disclose it. Recent survey data points to 31 % of women in the EU suffering physical and/or sexual violence in their adult lives (Figure 39). The highest rates are among women under 45 years of age.

Migration status and disability also impact a woman's likelihood of experiencing and reporting violence. More migrant women (36 %) than native-born women (30 %) report violence, and far

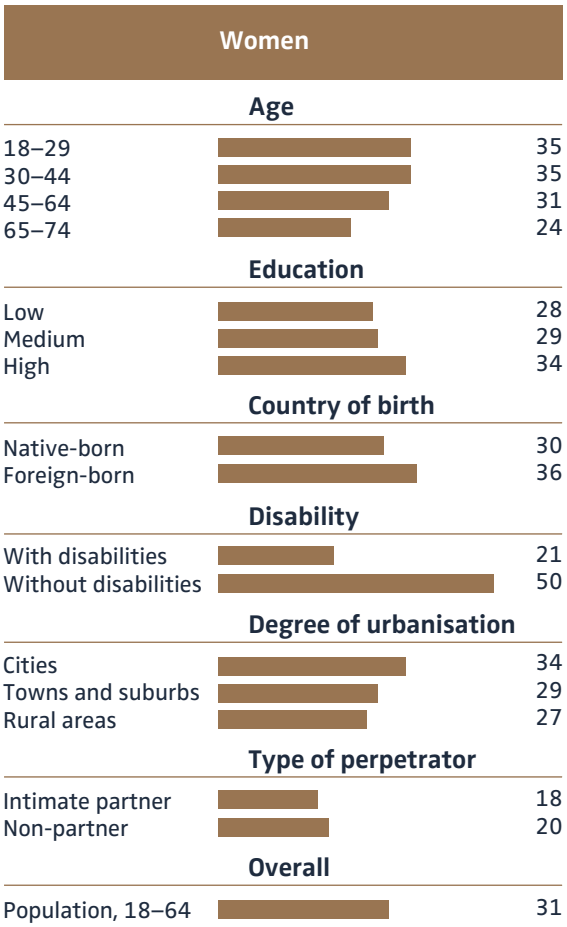
([44]) 'Intimate partners are persons with whom a respondent has or had an intimate relationship' (Eurostat, 2023). '"Family member or relative" includes blood relatives like parents and children, and other blood relatives that can be cohabitating or non-cohabitating, as well as other household members or relatives by marriage or adoption (e.g. siblings, grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, nephews, nieces, in-laws, etc.)' (Eurostat, 2023).

fewer women with disabilities (21 %) than women without disabilities (50 %) discuss what has happened to them.

The higher prevalence of violence among highly educated women (34 %) and those living in urban areas (35 %) – in comparison with women with lower levels of education and women in suburban and rural areas – can perhaps be explained by greater awareness of the issue and greater access to resources and services for reporting violence. Women Against Violence Europe highlights the unequal distribution of specialised support services within many Member States (EIGE, 2025b; Floriani et al., 2023). In several Member States, shelters and other essential services for women victims of violence are only located in the capital or main metropolitan cities (Floriani et al., 2023).

Women still face many obstacles when it comes to reporting violence to authorities, resulting in too many women not getting help. Survey data reveals that, while 64 % of women suffering physical and/or sexual violence have shared their experience of violence with a close person, only 21 % women contacted a health or social service about it ([45]). Worse still, only 14 % reported the incident to the police (FRA et al., 2024, p. 14).

Figure 39: Women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since age 15, age group 18–74, EU-27 (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave (gbv_any_type).

Despite systematic under-reporting, the number of reported cases of sexual assault, especially rape, has significantly increased in the EU ([46]). This could be because such acts of violence are on the rise or because victims are more willing to report them. Women's reporting of these crimes can be improved by changing attitudes to gender-based violence, particularly by tackling victim blaming, introducing a consent-based definition of rape in legislation, improving access to support services and developing trauma-informed and victim-centred reporting mechanisms.

([45]) Data from the EU-GBV Survey (2021 wave) (gbv_any_rp), accessible at this link: https://doi.org/10.2908/GBV_ANY_RP.
([46]) According to Eurostat data, in 2022, there was a 25 % increase in documented cases of sexual assault against women in the EU and reported cases of rape surged by 40 % compared with 2019 (EIGE, 2025c, p. 52).

9.3. Growing tolerance for abuse among youth threatens equality

Gender stereotypes around female and male traits and assigned roles in society often perpetuate gender relations marked by power differences and men's dominance over women. Thus, they are pivotal to shaping societal attitudes on violence against women, often reinforcing harmful norms that excuse, justify or minimise abusive behaviours towards women (Muratore et al., 2025).

Decades of activism against male perpetrators acting with impunity, including the #metoo movement, have raised awareness of violence against women as a widespread phenomenon in the EU. Nevertheless, the 2024 Flash Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', reveals continued tolerance for such abuse, particularly among men and younger generations.

While the acceptance of physical violence is relatively low overall, the acceptance of coercive control, harassment and victim blaming is common in several Member States (EIGE, 2025b).

Women and men agreeing that

'Women who share intimate pictures of themselves with someone else are at least partially responsible if an image is shared online without their consent'.

The gender gap is largest among the youngest:

18–24: 29 % women, 40 % men

25–44: 35 % women, 46 % men

45–64: 42 % women, 42 % men

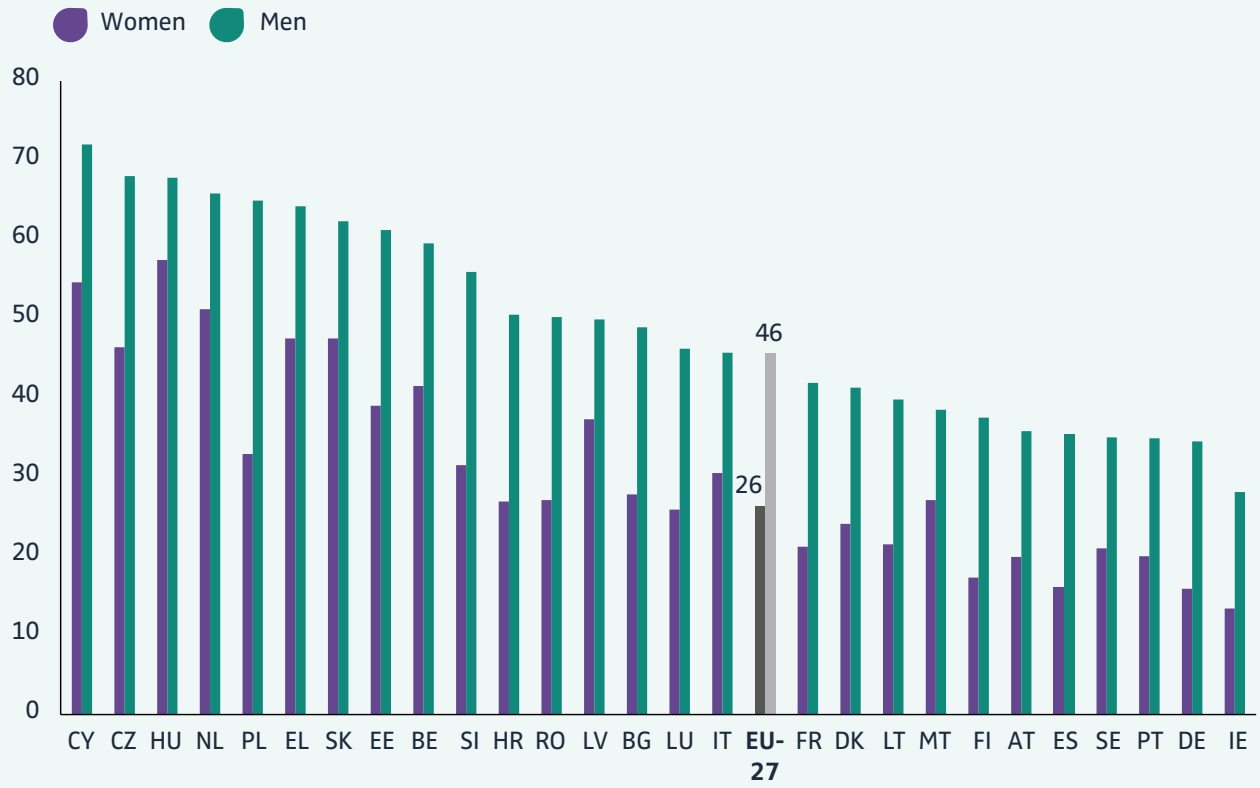
65+: 52 % women, 49 % men

Total population: 42 % women, 45 % men

Behaviours relating to coercive control in intimate relationships are still largely condoned. In 2024, 46 % of men and 26 % of women survey respondents across the EU agreed it is acceptable for a man to control his partner's finances (Figure 40). Agreement is especially high among the total population in Cyprus (63 %), Hungary (62 %) and the Netherlands (59 %). It is less so in Ireland (21 %) and in Germany and Spain (both 25 %). In every Member State, men more than women find such behaviour acceptable, revealing significant gender gaps ([47]). These findings confirm the normalisation of coercive control.

([47]) The largest gaps are seen in Poland (– 32 pp), and in Slovenia and Croatia (both – 24 pp), while the smallest – though still notable – gaps are found in Hungary (– 10 pp), Malta (– 11 pp) and Latvia (– 13 pp).

Figure 40: Women and men agreeing that 'A man controlling his wife's/partner's finances is acceptable', age group 18 and above, by Member State (%)



Source: Authors' calculations based on Special Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', 2024, data.

These behaviours – often early indicators of more overt abuse – reflect engrained gender norms that legitimise male dominance in relationships. They also help minimise the severity of economic and emotional abuse, shaping women's perceptions of violence (Muratore et al., 2023). In many cases, victims may struggle to distinguish financial control from broader patterns of economic insecurity, making such abuse harder to identify and resist (EIGE, 2022a; Postmus et al., 2020).

As with other indicators of gender-based violence, young men consistently express greater acceptance of violence against women. Among the 18- to 24-year-old cohort, 53 % of young men, compared with 33 % of young women, support financial control, compared with 43 % of men and 26 % of women aged 65 years or older ([48]). A similar trend appears in social and digital control, where 38 % of young men compared with 19 % of young women think it is acceptable for a man to control his wife's or girlfriend's activities or relationships (mobile phone use, activities on social media, etc.). In contrast, only 18 % of men and 10 % of women above 65 years agree ([49]).

([48]) Question 1.5, 'A man controlling his wife's/girlfriend's finances is acceptable', Flash Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', 2024.
([49]) Question 1.6, 'A man controlling his wife's/girlfriend's activities or relationships (e.g. mobile phone use, activities on social media, etc.) is acceptable', Flash Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', 2024.

In several Member States, including Slovakia, Hungary, Latvia and Malta, tolerance for sexist online abuse or workplace harassment ([50]) is considerably higher among young men than young women, with gender gaps exceeding 20 pp. This suggests that younger generations, far from being uniformly more progressive, are fuelling a backlash against gender equality. Young men, in particular, exhibit troubling levels of tolerance for abuse and control, posing a generational challenge that risks reversing recent gains (EIGE, 2025b, 2025c).

A correlation analysis between Gender Equality Index 2024 scores and statements on gender-based violence from the 2024 Flash Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', explored links between overall gender equality levels in a country and the acceptability of violence against women in the population. The hypothesis was that gender-equal societies would constitute a social environment in which violence against women would be less acceptable. On the flip side, acceptability of violence against women at the individual level could be predictive of non-prioritisation of or even pushback against gender equality policies at a collective and/or societal level. The analysis concluded that the acceptability of violence against women is lower in Member States with higher levels of gender equality as measured by the Gender Equality Index. In other words, in Member States where gender equality is high, people are less likely to condone violence against women (EIGE, 2025b).

([50]) This is the case for question 3.1, 'If women share their opinion on social media, they should expect sexist, demeaning and/or abusive replies'; question 3.3, 'If women share intimate pictures of themselves with someone, they are at least partially responsible if the image is shared online without their consent'; and question 1.3, 'Men making suggestive comments or allusions about a female colleague's appearance at work is acceptable', Flash Eurobarometer 544, 'Gender stereotypes – violence against women', 2024.

Conclusions

In 2025, the EU's Gender Equality Index stands at 63.4 out of 100. Since 2010, the Index has risen by 10.5 points, with most progress made – 7.4 points – from 2015 to 2025. This uptick masks a minimal 0.7-point annual rate of progress, putting full equality out of reach for another 50 years.

Equal access, fair conditions: shaping the future of work

Gender equality in the domain of work ranks third among all EU Index domains, with a score of 69.3. Despite the modest 0.4-point annual gains since 2015, it will take at least another 70 years to achieve equality in employment and working life.

While 71 % of women are now working (81 % for men), this is far below the EU target of 78 % by 2030. Age-old issues of limited job opportunities, discrimination and caregiving responsibilities continue to act as barriers for women, often forcing them into part-time work or out of the job market altogether. These inequalities, reinforced by insufficient care infrastructure and specialised family support services, underscore the urgent need for policies improving work–life balance.

Occupational segregation and far fewer women in leadership roles also continue to shape the gender employment gap. Gender segregation in work has taken on a new relevance given the digital and green transitions, the changing security landscape, the evolving nature of work and changing demographics. Women remain over-represented in lower-paid, undervalued sectors, while men dominate top positions – even within female-dominated fields. In parallel, high-growth sectors such as ICT face severe labour shortages, and only 2 in 10 ICT specialists are women. With gender segregation in education still strong, the risk of women being left out of this growing security sector is high – deepening gender divides in the labour market. Gender disparities in education and in the workforce are severe impediments to innovation and economic growth across the EU.

Deep-rooted gender stereotypes continue to fuel inequality. Norms linking leadership with men and caregiving with women constrain career choices, reinforce workplace segregation and discourage men from entering care-related professions. These stereotypes also restrict women's access to full-time, high-investment roles in fields such as tech, energy and finance, where masculine workplace cultures often neglect work–life balance.

The Index findings call for tangible policy measures. Closing the gender employment gap is not just about fairness – it is also a socioeconomic necessity. Unlocking women's full potential means tackling occupational segregation, ensuring quality jobs with decent conditions and creating equal career prospects – critical steps to strengthening competitiveness, innovation and social cohesion in the EU.

Closing gender gaps in pay and unlocking economic growth

Gender equality in financial matters ranks second in the Index, scoring 73.9, with a rise of nearly 7.3 points over recent years. Nevertheless, parity in earnings and pensions will not be seen before another two generations at least.

Equal economic independence is essential for an inclusive economy and for economic growth. However, women in the EU remain more financially insecure. On average, women earn just 77 % of men's annual income. Within couples, they earn 30 % less than their partners, reinforcing financial dependence at home.

The financial impact of lower pay, part-time work and career breaks due to caregiving responsibilities accumulates over a lifetime, resulting in a significant gender pension gap and a higher risk of poverty in older age. Structural and cultural barriers persist despite legal safeguards, while the green and digital transitions and demographic changes risk further widening financial disparities.

Policies promoting women's employment are among the most effective tools for fostering financial independence and broader economic benefits. This includes reducing unequal care responsibilities at home, expanding care services and eliminating work disincentives created by tax–benefit systems. Women are more likely than men to reduce their working hours or leave the workforce when taxes increase or care provisions fall short.

Societal attitudes are still slow to change. In 2024, 40 % of women and 45 % of men still believed a man's primary role is to earn money. Such stereotypes affect women's access to resources, business credit or accumulation of wealth, and perpetuate their financial insecurity. In addition, they create powerful yet invisible barriers to innovation and economic growth. Breaking down stereotypes and supporting equality both at home and at work is essential for women's lifelong economic security and greater socioeconomic gains.

Breaking down educational barriers and gender stereotypes for a fairer future

Despite progress in educational attainment, gender segregation in subject choices remains deeply entrenched across the EU. With an Index score of 57.4 and progress stalling, the domain of knowledge ranks fifth. At this rate, it could take a startling 200 years or more for true equality in subject choices free of prejudices and stereotypes.

Women have been instrumental in achieving the Europe 2020 goal of 40 % tertiary education among 30- to 34-year-olds. Their success stands in contrast with the setbacks faced by boys and young men: they often fare worse in standardised tests, repeat grades more frequently or leave school early. These patterns, influenced by gender norms and classroom dynamics, undermine their long-term opportunities and well-being.

While girls and boys show similar achievement levels in science and maths in secondary education, gendered expectations steer them into different fields. Women account for only one in three STEM graduates. Conversely, men are under-represented in EHW studies, impacting their involvement in the care sector later on. The consequences of this imbalance are already visible: critical labour shortages in tech, healthcare and social welfare are worsening, especially in an ageing society with rising care demands. Without more men entering health and welfare professions, a social crisis looms.

Structural barriers are not the only factor to blame. Young women are more aware that biases affect their opportunities, while young men are less likely to acknowledge persistent inequalities. This trend is exacerbated by online backlash and regressive gender narratives. Tackling these divides requires early intervention: challenging stereotypes, promoting diverse and positive models of masculinity, and elevating female role models in science and leadership. Breaking down stereotypes is not just a moral imperative – it is essential for unlocking individual potential and building a resilient, inclusive workforce for the future.

Redefine care and rethink time use to maximise equality gains

With a score of 65, the time domain ranks fourth in the Index. Women still spend considerably more time on unpaid care and domestic work than men, leaving them less time for social and recreational activities. Women are twice as likely as men to provide childcare for at least 35 hours a week. There are also substantial gender gaps in doing household tasks such as cooking, cleaning and laundry, which widen among couples with children and single-parent families. Gender gaps in long-term caregiving place additional demands on women's time. These overlapping responsibilities leave many women with little time for self-care and personal or professional development.

Though men's involvement in caregiving is slowly increasing, entrenched stereotypes continue to define expectations. Women are assumed to be naturally responsible for caregiving, while men providing care may face stigma or lack workplace support. Nearly one in five women and men in the EU still associate men's parental leave with a lack of career ambition. Meanwhile, almost half of the population believes that men are naturally less competent at household tasks, highlighting how deep these biases run.

Overcoming these disparities requires a cultural shift and targeted policy measures. Promoting equal, non-transferable parental leave for both parents can help normalise male caregiving, while campaigns and public discourse should redefine unpaid care as a shared societal responsibility. Incorporating time-use awareness into workplace equality policies and challenging stereotypes around household and care work are essential steps.

Success in this domain would ripple across all areas of gender equality, unlocking greater participation, well-being and economic opportunity for everyone. It is not just about time; it is about transforming how we value care and build a more just future.

Balancing power, revitalising democracy

Although the most dynamic, the domain of power ranks lowest in the Index with a score of 40.5. Since 2010, it has made notable progress, with significant gains in economic decision-making thanks to legislative action and binding quotas.

However, EU elections in 2024 marked a setback. For the first time since 1979, women's representation in the European Parliament fell from 41 % to 39 %. Men still dominate national parliaments, holding 67 % of seats. Only six Member States have achieved gender balance in parliamentary representation. Governments remain similarly unequal, with women making up just 35 % of ministers – a disquieting disparity, especially amid ongoing security crises in which male voices dominate security agendas.

Violence, discrimination and entrenched stereotypes continue to discourage women from entering or remaining in leadership roles. Assertiveness and dominance – traits coded as masculine – are still valued over empathy and communication, traits usually associated with women. Nearly half of EU respondents believe that men are more politically ambitious. Women leaders are often caught in a double bind: expected to be both assertive and nurturing, ambitious and approachable – making leadership harder to attain and sustain.

Online spaces have become a major source of abuse targeting women in politics, journalism and activism – particularly those advocating women's rights. This not only silences voices but deters future generations from engaging in public life.

True gender balance in power requires bold, systemic change. Redefining leadership beyond gendered traits, dismantling barriers and ensuring that women not only participate but also lead with authenticity and impact are essential to creating more representative and resilient democracies.

Health without bias: healing gender inequalities in healthcare

Health remains the top-performing domain in the Index, with a score of 86.2. However, progress is at a standstill, with scores of some Member States falling over the last five years. Since 2010, the share of women and men reporting good or very good health has barely shifted. Multiple crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, Russia's war of aggression against Ukraine, climate change and rising living costs, have exacerbated inequalities in access to healthcare and strained health systems.

Women generally live longer than men, but they spend more of their lives in poor health – particularly women with lower education and especially in Member States with high gender gaps in employment. Women also report poorer mental well-being, largely due to caregiving demands, financial strain, gender norms and the stigma surrounding mental health support.

Although more likely to meet WHO guidelines for physical activity and diet, men also engage more in harmful behaviours such as excessive drinking, smoking, violence and avoiding medical help. Gender stereotypes reinforce these risks, discouraging men from seeking care. As a result, men are under-diagnosed for depression despite being nearly four times more likely to die by suicide. Tackling stigma around men's mental health and promoting gender-sensitive mental healthcare is thus vital.

Health systems are also impacted by gender bias. While women are more likely to visit doctors, largely because of reproductive health needs, caregiving roles or men's reluctance to seek help, they are also more likely to experience unfair treatment. One in five people in the EU believe that men receive better treatment from medical staff, with young women particularly likely to perceive this healthcare inequality. Addressing gender stereotypes is essential for gender inclusive healthcare, health promotion and disease prevention.

No equality without freedom from violence

Violence against women remains one of the significant barriers to gender equality in the EU. The scale of this phenomenon is striking: one in three women in the EU report experiencing physical and/or sexual violence, with more than half of respondents suffering health consequences. However, nearly one third of victims never disclose their experience, particularly younger women.

Gender-based violence severely limits women's participation in economic, social and political life, often leading to job loss, financial dependence and diminished freedom of expression. It intersects with other forms of oppression – poverty, racism and social exclusion – placing vulnerable groups like older women, migrants, women with disabilities and LGBTIQ individuals at heightened risk.

Cultural attitudes play a central role. While physical and sexual violence are broadly condemned, coercive control, harassment and victim blaming remain disturbingly normalised. Economic abuse, such as controlling a partner's finances, often goes unrecognised. Younger people, especially younger men, show higher acceptance of such controlling behaviours than older generations, signalling a troubling generational shift that threatens gender equality progress.

Encouragingly, Member States with higher gender equality as measured by the Index show lower tolerance for violence against women (EIGE, 2025b). This correlation underscores the importance of advancing gender-sensitive policies, promoting women's leadership and ensuring equitable care and employment systems. A gender-equal EU is not just a moral imperative – it is a strategic pathway to eradicating violence against women and fostering inclusive, safe societies for all.

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Annexes

Annex 1. List of indicators of the Gender Equality Index

Table 16: Gender Equality Index 2025 – list of indicators

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Work	Participation	1	FTE employment rate, age group 15–89 (%)	The FTE employment rate is a means of measuring employed persons in a way that makes them comparable even though they may work a different number of hours per week. A full-time worker is counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours they work. The unit is obtained by comparing a part-time employee's average number of hours worked with the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week, where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.	EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat EU-LFS microdata	2023
		2	Duration of working life, age group 15 and above (years)	The duration of working life indicator measures the number of years a person aged 15 is expected to be active in the labour market throughout their life.	Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsi_dwl_a)	2024
	Segregation and quality of work	3	ICT specialists, age group 15–74 (%)	Shares of women and men employed as ICT specialists.	Eurostat (isoc_sks_itsps)	2024
		4	Managers, age group 15–74 (%)	Shares of women and men in managerial positions (International Standard Classification of Occupations major group 1).	Eurostat (lfsa_egais)	2024
		5	Low-paid workers, age group 16 and above (%)	Percentage of the employed population receiving two thirds of the national median employee income or less, which covers gross employee cash or near-cash income, gross non-cash employee income and employers' social insurance contributions.	EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat, EU-SILC, microdata	2024 (2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania)

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Money	Financial resources	6	Median earnings, age group 18–64, employed population (purchasing power standard)	Median annual earnings of the 18- to 64-year-old population in employment, computed as the median of gross employee cash or near-cash income, gross non-cash employee income and cash benefits from self-employment.	EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat, EU-SILC, microdata	2024 (2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania)
		7	Gender pension gap, age group 65 and above (%)	The gender pension gap is the difference between the average gross pension received by men and the average gross pension received by women, expressed as a percentage of men's average pension. It excludes zero pensions, meaning that it is computed with those respondents who have at least one positive income value in gross terms in the pension income variables (old-age benefits, survivors' benefits and regular pensions from individual private plans). It shows the percentage by which women's average pension income is higher or lower than men's.	Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_pnp13)	2024
	Economic situation	8	Median of the earnings ratio within couples, age group 18–64 (%)	The median of the annual earnings ratio is expressed as a percentage of a partner's earnings for coupled women and men in employment and in working age, by Member State. Earnings are computed as the median of gross employee cash or near-cash income, gross non-cash employee income and cash benefits from self-employment.	EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat, EU-SILC, microdata	2024 (2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania)
		9	In-work poverty of employed adults in single or single-parent households, age group 16 and above (%)	The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate is the percentage of employed persons who are at risk of poverty, meaning that their disposable household income (after social transfers) is below 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income.	EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat, EU-SILC, microdata	2024 (2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania)

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Knowledge	Attainment and participation	10	Tertiary graduates, age group 30–34 (%)	This is the percentage of the population aged 30–34 who have successfully completed tertiary studies at the highest level of education: ISCED level 5 (short-cycle tertiary education), which often begins after upper secondary education, and/or levels 6 (bachelor's degree or equivalent), 7 (master's degree or equivalent) and/or 8 (doctoral studies or equivalent).	Eurostat, EU-LFS (edat_lfse_03)	2024
		11	IVET graduates, age group 25–34 (%)	This is the percentage of the population aged 25–34 who have successfully completed IVET studies as the highest level of education attained at ISCED level 3, upper secondary education, and/or level 4, post-secondary non-tertiary education (ED3_4VOC). IVET is meant to help students/trainees acquire skills and competences leading to a specific occupation or job.	Eurostat, EU-LFS (edat_lfse_03)	2024
	Segregation	12	Graduates in tertiary education in EHW, ISCED 5–8 (tertiary students) (%)	Share of graduates in ISCED fields F01 (education), F02 (arts and humanities) and F09 (health and welfare) in ISCED levels 5–8 out of total graduates. Note on age: in ISCED levels 5–8, which covers tertiary education, the typical age range for students is generally from 18 or 19 years old onwards. In particular, ISCED level 5 (short-cycle tertiary education) often begins after upper secondary education, while levels 6 (bachelor's degree or equivalent), 7 (master's degree or equivalent) and 8 (doctorate or equivalent) typically follow. Many students in ISCED levels 6–8 are in their early to mid twenties and beyond, with some pursuing advanced degrees or doctoral studies later in life. There might be also people entering tertiary education at different points in their lives, and some may return for further studies later.	Eurostat, education statistics (educ_uoe_grad02)	2023

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Knowledge	Segregation	13	Graduates in tertiary education in STEM, ISCED 5–8 (%)	Share of graduates in ISCED fields F05 (natural sciences, mathematics and statistics), F06 (ICT) and F07 (engineering, manufacturing and construction) in ISCED 5–8 levels of education out of total graduates. Note on age: in ISCED levels 5–8, which covers tertiary education, the typical age range for students is generally from 18 or 19 years old onwards. In particular, ISCED 5 (short-cycle tertiary education) often begins after upper secondary education, while levels 6 (bachelor's degree or equivalent), 7 (master's degree or equivalent) and 8 (doctorate or equivalent) typically follow. Many students in ISCED levels 6–8 are in their early to mid twenties and beyond, with some pursuing advanced degrees or doctoral studies later in life. There might be also people entering tertiary education at different points in their lives, and some may return for further studies later.	Eurostat, education statistics (educ_uoe_grad02)	2023
Time	Care activities	14	Informal childcare (for children aged 0–11) for more than 35 hours per week, age group 16–74 (%)	Percentage of respondents providing care to their own children aged 0–11 for more than 35 hours per week (e.g. more than 5 hours per day). The question asks about the number of hours spent providing childcare to the respondent's own children (aged 0–11) in a typical week. Childcare includes personal care, assistance with school tasks, managing children's activities and leisure, supervision and emotional support.	EIGE's calculations based on CARE survey microdata	2024
		15	Informal long-term care for more than 20 hours per week, age group 45–64 (%)	Percentage of long-term carers providing care or assistance for more than 20 hours per week. Informal long-term care' refers to care or assistance to one or more persons experiencing age-related limitations, a chronic health condition or infirmity, at least once a week.	Eurostat, EHIS, and European Commission, 2025b	2019
		16	Housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, age group 16–74 (%)	Percentage of respondents doing housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day.	EIGE's calculations based on CARE survey microdata	2024

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Time	Social activities	17	Leisure activities (e.g. cultural activities, holidays, hobbies) for at least 8 hours per week, age group 16–74, 2024 (%)	Percentage of respondents spending more than 8 hours per week on leisure activities (e.g. cultural activities, holidays, hobbies), excluding sports.	EIGE's calculations based on CARE survey microdata	2024
		18	Voluntary, charitable or political activities at least 1 day per week, age group 16–74 (%)	Percentage of respondents involved in voluntary, charitable or political activities at least once per week. 'Volunteering' refers to unpaid activities in which someone gives their time to help a not-for-profit organisation or an individual to whom they are not related. Volunteering includes being engaged in cultural, educational, sporting or charitable activities, distributing food, teaching, providing medical support, providing animal care, participating in art and music, doing environmental work, supporting fundraising, collecting donations, etc. 'Political activities' refers to running or helping a political campaign, distributing campaign material, signing a petition, protesting, contacting officials, etc.	EIGE's calculations based on CARE survey microdata	2024
Power	Political	19	Share of ministers (%)	Share of ministers (senior and junior ministers) (annual average of quarterly data).	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID	2024
		20	Share of members of parliament (%)	Share of members of the national parliaments (both houses) (annual average of quarterly data).	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID	2024
		21	Share of members of regional assemblies (%)	Share of members of regional assemblies. If regional assemblies do not exist in the Member State, local-level politics are included (as is the case for Bulgaria, Estonia, Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovenia) (yearly data).	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID	2024
	Economic	22	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or board of directors (%)	Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies (annual average of biannual data).	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID	2024
	Social	23	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the 10 most popular national Olympic sports organisations (%)	Share of members of highest decision-making body of the 10 most popular national Olympic sports organisations (yearly data).	EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID	2024

Domain	Subdomain		Indicator	Description	Source	Data source (year)
Health	Status	24	Self-perceived health, good or very good, age group 16 and above (%)	Percentage of the population aged 16 and above assessing their health as 'very good' or 'good' out of the total population.	Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_silc_01)	2024
		25	Healthy life years at 65 as percentage of total life expectancy, age group 65 and above (%)	Healthy life years measures the number of remaining years that a person of specific age is expected to live without any severe or moderate health problems. Life expectancy at a certain age is the mean additional number of years that a person of that age can expect to live.	Eurostat (hlth_hlye)	2023 (2022 data for Luxembourg)
	Behaviour	26	People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking, age group 16 and above (%)	Percentage of people who are not involved in risky behaviour – that is, who don't smoke and are not involved in heavy episodic drinking.	Eurostat, EHIS, and Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2019 (2014 data for Finland)
		27	People doing physical activities and/or consuming fruit and vegetables, age group 16 and above (%)	Percentage of people who are physically active at least 150 minutes per week and/or consume at least five portions of fruit and vegetables per day.	Eurostat, EHIS, and Eurostat calculations according to EIGE's request	2019

Annex 2. Gender Equality Index scores

Table 17: Gender Equality Index 2025 – domains (scores and ranks)

Member State	Scores (points)							Ranks						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
EU-27	**63.4**	**69.3**	**73.9**	**57.4**	**65.0**	**40.5**	**86.2**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	68.5	69.1	78.6	56.3	76.3	49.9	86.3	7	19	14	10	2	8	14
BG	58.1	78.6	83.8	47.3	65.2	25.6	74.7	17	2	2	24	12	19	26
CZ	53.2	63.6	75.6	52.9	57.6	20.3	82.6	25	26	18	16	24	25	22
DK	71.8	70.0	82.3	55.3	81.1	57.3	87.5	3	16	5	13	1	6	9
DE	63.2	63.9	68.1	59.0	61.2	47.5	87.8	11	25	24	6	19	10	6
EE	59.4	76.5	82.9	50.7	74.4	21.9	86.8	15	5	4	20	4	22	12
IE	69.0	72.2	71.3	64.2	66.3	54.1	93.8	6	14	22	1	11	7	1
EL	57.0	67.9	76.7	58.7	56.0	26.2	83.8	22	21	16	7	26	18	19
ES	70.9	69.4	73.3	55.7	74.1	66.6	86.2	4	17	20	11	5	3	15
FR	73.4	72.8	78.1	62.6	67.6	72.5	88.0	2	11	15	3	9	2	5
HR	57.1	68.2	80.8	51.9	69.6	21.8	83.1	21	20	10	17	6	23	20
IT	61.9	61.0	67.0	56.8	59.4	47.9	86.9	12	27	25	9	21	9	11
CY	47.6	65.3	69.7	44.6	54.7	13.6	84.4	27	23	23	26	27	26	18
LV	56.7	77.6	76.5	43.5	57.2	28.9	78.1	24	3	17	27	25	15	25
LT	60.9	73.9	81.9	47.4	63.3	34.6	79.8	14	9	6	23	16	14	24
LU	63.9	69.1	73.7	61.9	68.9	37.3	87.6	9	18	19	5	7	12	7
HU	51.6	74.8	78.8	49.9	64.6	12.9	86.1	26	8	13	21	13	27	16
MT	58.9	72.3	71.8	58.2	60.6	28.1	87.5	16	13	21	8	20	16	8
NL	69.5	64.5	66.2	62.1	74.8	63.2	89.1	5	24	26	4	3	4	3

Member State	Scores (points)							Ranks						
	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health	Index	Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
AT	61.2	67.8	65.3	54.2	63.3	39.9	88.7	13	22	27	15	17	11	4
PL	57.8	74.8	81.1	50.9	68.7	21.6	85.4	19	7	8	19	8	24	17
PT	63.4	74.9	79.9	55.5	67.0	36.8	80.6	10	6	11	12	10	13	23
RO	57.0	72.3	79.8	64.1	61.5	26.6	60.9	23	12	12	2	18	17	27
SI	58.0	73.3	86.2	45.0	63.4	24.6	86.6	18	10	1	25	15	20	13
SK	57.2	70.4	83.6	51.0	64.5	22.9	82.8	20	15	3	18	14	21	21
FI	68.3	76.6	81.1	49.8	59.1	61.0	87.3	8	4	7	22	22	5	10
SE	73.7	80.4	81.0	54.6	58.7	80.3	91.2	1	1	9	14	23	1	2

Table 18: Gender Equality Index 2025 – domains and subdomains (scores and ranks)

Member State	Scores (points)																		
	Index	Work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Money	Financial resources	Economic situation	Knowledge	Attainment and participation	Segregation	Time	Care activities	Social activities	Power	Political	Economic	Social	Health	Status	Behaviour
EU-27	**63.4**	**69.3**	**82.1**	**58.5**	**73.9**	**76.1**	**71.7**	**57.4**	**78.7**	**41.8**	**65.0**	**57.1**	**74.1**	**40.5**	**47.3**	**49.4**	**28.4**	**86.2**	**90.2**	**82.4**
BE	68.5	69.1	83.6	57.1	78.6	76.7	80.6	56.3	75.7	41.9	76.3	70.5	82.6	49.9	79.6	58.0	26.9	86.3	92.5	80.5
BG	58.1	78.6	86.3	71.6	83.8	84.1	83.4	47.3	54.9	40.8	65.2	55.6	76.4	25.6	38.9	19.8	21.8	74.7	89.2	62.5
CZ	53.2	63.6	79.6	50.9	75.6	83.9	68.1	52.9	69.2	40.5	57.6	42.8	77.6	20.3	21.7	35.3	10.9	82.6	89.8	76.1
DK	71.8	70.0	87.5	56.0	82.3	84.3	80.4	55.3	70.1	43.6	81.1	84.6	77.6	57.3	74.9	72.5	34.7	87.5	95.5	80.1
DE	63.2	63.9	81.9	49.9	68.1	72.2	64.3	59.0	96.1	36.3	61.2	49.7	75.3	47.5	63.5	61.9	27.3	87.8	92.8	83.2
EE	59.4	76.5	89.7	65.2	82.9	90.0	76.3	50.7	66.0	39.0	74.4	67.2	82.4	21.9	45.9	13.9	16.5	86.8	89.7	84.1
IE	69.0	72.2	81.9	63.6	71.3	72.4	70.2	64.2	92.2	44.8	66.3	55.5	79.4	54.1	36.2	66.1	66.0	93.8	95.2	92.5
EL	57.0	67.9	74.0	62.2	76.7	81.9	71.9	58.7	72.3	47.7	56.0	43.9	71.6	26.2	30.6	35.3	16.6	83.8	90.4	77.6
ES	70.9	69.4	83.2	57.9	73.3	75.9	70.7	55.7	78.5	39.5	74.1	68.9	79.6	66.6	77.7	65.7	58.0	86.2	87.2	85.2
FR	73.4	72.8	88.0	60.3	78.1	78.4	77.7	62.6	86.9	45.1	67.6	65.3	69.9	72.5	79.7	81.7	58.6	88.0	94.2	82.2
HR	57.1	68.2	87.4	53.2	80.8	81.2	80.5	51.9	62.4	43.3	69.6	61.1	79.3	21.8	35.0	33.3	8.9	83.1	85.0	81.2
IT	61.9	61.0	69.0	54.0	67.0	75.4	59.6	56.8	65.3	49.3	59.4	51.9	67.9	47.9	41.2	74.3	35.9	86.9	89.5	84.5
CY	47.6	65.3	86.3	49.4	69.7	70.8	68.6	44.6	50.4	39.4	54.7	42.6	70.2	13.6	19.9	11.2	11.4	84.4	95.7	74.4
LV	56.7	77.6	91.0	66.1	76.5	80.3	72.8	43.5	62.6	30.2	57.2	48.6	67.3	28.9	37.6	28.5	22.7	78.1	83.9	72.7
LT	60.9	73.9	92.4	59.1	81.9	85.8	78.1	47.4	70.5	31.9	63.3	60.3	66.5	34.6	48.5	33.4	25.6	79.8	82.0	77.7
LU	63.9	69.1	86.4	55.3	73.7	73.2	74.2	61.9	84.7	45.2	68.9	55.7	85.3	37.3	49.5	30.3	34.8	87.6	94.5	81.1
HU	51.6	74.8	85.3	65.6	78.8	85.4	72.7	49.9	69.6	35.8	64.6	51.8	80.5	12.9	10.9	10.6	18.3	86.1	88.6	83.7

Member State	Scores (points)																		
	Index	Work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Money	Financial resources	Economic situation	Knowledge	Attainment and participation	Segregation	Time	Care activities	Social activities	Power	Political	Economic	Social	Health	Status	Behaviour
MT	58.9	72.3	78.3	66.7	71.8	74.2	69.5	58.2	72.1	47.0	60.6	54.2	67.8	28.1	36.1	23.2	26.4	87.5	85.9	89.2
NL	69.5	64.5	82.9	50.2	66.2	65.9	66.5	62.1	88.4	43.6	74.8	69.6	80.5	63.2	67.9	70.5	52.8	89.1	92.5	85.9
AT	61.2	67.8	81.3	56.5	65.3	66.0	64.6	54.2	76.9	38.3	63.3	53.2	75.3	39.9	66.4	50.6	18.8	88.7	91.1	86.3
PL	57.8	74.8	82.5	67.9	81.1	86.9	75.6	50.9	65.2	39.7	68.7	64.3	73.5	21.6	37.2	27.9	9.7	85.4	89.6	81.4
PT	63.4	74.9	89.9	62.4	79.9	79.5	80.4	55.5	68.5	45.0	67.0	54.5	82.4	36.8	50.3	47.4	21.0	80.6	79.4	81.8
RO	57.0	72.3	74.9	69.8	79.8	84.1	75.7	64.1	80.7	50.9	61.5	50.9	74.2	26.6	29.2	30.4	21.3	60.9	80.1	46.3
SI	58.0	73.3	87.7	61.3	86.2	89.6	82.9	45.0	56.8	35.6	63.4	55.2	72.9	24.6	54.3	32.4	8.4	86.6	93.8	80.0
SK	57.2	70.4	87.3	56.8	83.6	88.5	78.9	51.0	63.2	41.1	64.5	53.3	78.0	22.9	20.9	31.7	18.1	82.8	91.3	75.0
FI	68.3	76.6	94.4	62.1	81.1	81.4	80.8	49.8	75.3	33.0	59.1	64.3	54.4	61.0	78.4	59.0	49.1	87.3	93.8	81.3
SE	73.7	80.4	91.5	70.7	81.0	81.2	80.7	54.6	70.5	42.3	58.7	56.7	60.6	80.3	88.3	60.2	97.6	91.2	94.4	88.0

Member State	Rank																			
	Index	Work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Money	Financial resources	Economic situation	Knowledge	Attainment and participation	Segregation	Time	Care activities	Social activities	Power	Political	Economic	Social	Health	Status	Behaviour
EU-27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	7	19	16	17	14	18	5	10	9	13	2	2	2	8	3	10	11	14	11	17
BG	17	2	14	1	2	8	1	24	26	15	12	13	13	19	16	24	15	26	19	26
CZ	25	26	23	24	18	10	23	16	17	16	24	26	12	25	24	13	24	22	15	22
DK	3	16	9	20	5	7	8	13	15	10	1	1	11	6	6	3	9	9	2	18
DE	11	25	20	26	24	24	26	6	1	22	19	23	15	10	9	7	10	6	9	10
EE	15	5	6	8	4	1	12	20	19	20	4	5	3	22	14	25	22	12	16	8
IE	6	14	21	9	22	23	20	1	2	8	11	14	8	7	19	5	2	1	3	1
EL	22	21	26	11	16	11	18	7	11	3	26	25	19	18	22	14	21	19	14	21
ES	4	17	17	16	20	19	19	11	7	18	5	4	7	3	5	6	4	15	21	6
FR	2	11	7	14	15	17	11	3	4	6	9	6	21	2	2	1	3	5	6	11
HR	21	20	10	23	10	14	6	17	24	11	6	9	9	23	21	16	26	20	23	15
IT	12	27	27	22	25	20	27	9	20	2	21	20	22	9	15	2	7	11	18	7
CY	27	23	13	27	23	25	22	26	27	19	27	27	20	26	26	26	23	18	1	24
LV	24	3	4	6	17	15	16	27	23	27	25	24	24	15	17	21	14	25	24	25
LT	14	9	2	15	6	5	10	23	14	26	16	10	25	14	13	15	13	24	25	20
LU	9	18	12	21	19	22	15	5	5	5	7	12	1	12	12	20	8	7	4	16
HU	26	8	15	7	13	6	17	21	16	23	13	21	5	27	27	27	19	16	20	9
MT	16	13	24	5	21	21	21	8	12	4	20	17	23	16	20	23	12	8	22	2

Member State	Rank																		
	Index	Work	Participation	Segregation and quality of work	Money	Financial resources	Economic situation	Knowledge	Attainment and participation	Segregation	Time	Care activities	Social activities	Power	Political	Economic	Social	Health	Status	Behaviour
NL	5	24	18	25	26	27	24	4	3	9	3	3	6	4	7	4	5	3	10	5
AT	13	22	22	19	27	26	25	15	8	21	17	19	14	11	8	11	18	4	13	4
PL	19	7	19	4	8	4	14	19	21	17	8	8	17	24	18	22	25	17	17	13
PT	10	6	5	10	11	16	7	12	18	7	10	16	4	13	11	12	17	23	27	12
RO	23	12	25	3	12	9	13	2	6	1	18	22	16	17	23	19	16	27	26	27
SI	18	10	8	13	1	2	2	25	25	24	15	15	18	20	10	17	27	13	7	19
SK	20	15	11	18	3	3	9	18	22	14	14	18	10	21	25	18	20	21	12	23
FI	8	4	1	12	7	12	3	22	10	25	22	7	27	5	4	9	6	10	8	14
SE	1	1	3	2	9	13	4	14	13	12	23	11	26	1	1	8	1	2	5	3

Table 19: Gender Equality Index, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Scores (points)				Ranks			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**52.9**	**56.0**	**59.9**	**63.4**	—	—	—	—
BE	54.9	59.0	63.6	68.5	7	6	7	7
BG	54.4	56.3	58.8	58.1	9	9	13	17
CZ	48.2	47.9	50.4	53.2	23	25	25	25
DK	63.9	64.5	67.8	71.8	2	2	3	3
DE	53.9	58.4	59.3	63.2	11	7	10	11
EE	50.2	50.9	54.2	59.4	20	20	19	15
IE	52.6	55.7	61.2	69.0	13	11	8	6
EL	48.4	49.7	51.3	57.0	22	22	23	22
ES	55.5	57.7	65.7	70.9	6	8	5	4
FR	58.5	64.1	70.2	73.4	4	3	2	2
HR	54.4	54.1	56.7	57.1	10	13	15	21
IT	45.0	52.5	58.0	61.9	25	17	14	12
CY	39.7	42.5	45.8	47.6	27	27	27	27
LV	52.9	53.0	56.3	56.7	12	16	16	24
LT	52.0	51.7	53.9	60.9	14	19	20	14
LU	49.3	53.8	59.3	63.9	21	14	9	9
HU	50.5	49.5	51.1	51.6	19	24	24	26
MT	44.4	46.1	50.3	58.9	26	26	26	16
NL	57.3	60.3	64.7	69.5	5	5	6	5
AT	51.0	53.5	59.2	61.2	16	15	11	13

Member State	Scores (points)				Ranks			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
PL	47.7	50.4	51.9	57.8	24	21	21	19
PT	51.4	54.3	59.1	63.4	15	12	12	10
RO	50.7	49.6	51.9	57.0	18	23	22	23
SI	50.7	56.0	55.2	58.0	17	10	18	18
SK	54.9	52.2	55.2	57.2	8	18	17	20
FI	61.6	62.8	66.5	68.3	3	4	4	8
SE	67.3	69.5	72.3	73.7	1	1	1	1

Table 20: Gender Equality Index for the domain of work and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work					Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**67.2**	**65.1**	**67.7**	**69.3**	**76.7**	**78.8**	**80.0**	**82.1**	**58.9**	**53.7**	**57.2**	**58.5**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	66.1	64.1	67.5	69.1	76.2	80.0	82.9	83.6	57.4	51.4	55.0	57.1	BE	19	18	18	19	19	13	12	16	17	20	18	17
BG	75.5	77.6	79.8	78.6	86.3	87.2	85.4	86.3	66.0	69.0	74.6	71.6	BG	6	2	1	2	7	7	10	14	9	1	1	1
CZ	65.0	61.9	61.4	63.6	75.2	77.8	78.5	79.6	56.1	49.2	48.0	50.9	CZ	20	21	25	26	22	21	22	23	20	22	26	24
DK	67.5	68.6	71.0	70.0	86.7	85.3	86.6	87.5	52.7	55.2	58.3	56.0	DK	17	12	11	16	6	8	8	9	22	13	15	20
DE	60.4	60.5	62.5	63.9	75.5	78.9	80.8	81.9	48.4	46.5	48.3	49.9	DE	24	23	24	25	21	19	17	20	24	25	24	26
EE	77.6	69.4	74.3	76.5	91.5	87.4	88.6	89.7	65.7	55.2	62.3	65.2	EE	4	10	7	5	3	5	6	6	11	12	10	8
IE	72.0	66.4	68.6	72.2	77.4	77.1	79.2	81.9	67.0	57.2	59.5	63.6	IE	13	13	16	14	17	22	19	21	6	11	13	9
EL	73.0	63.5	68.4	67.9	68.3	73.4	73.3	74.0	78.1	54.9	63.8	62.2	EL	9	19	17	21	25	25	25	26	1	14	8	11
ES	68.1	65.4	69.0	69.4	75.9	78.8	80.8	83.2	61.1	54.3	58.9	57.9	ES	16	17	15	17	20	20	16	17	16	16	14	16
FR	71.1	65.9	69.5	72.8	82.3	84.8	86.1	88.0	61.4	51.2	56.2	60.3	FR	14	15	14	11	10	11	9	7	15	21	17	14
HR	66.9	65.6	66.0	68.2	80.7	83.3	81.8	87.4	55.4	51.6	53.3	53.2	HR	18	16	19	20	12	12	13	10	21	19	22	23
IT	62.4	58.9	60.5	61.0	63.0	65.8	67.3	69.0	61.8	52.7	54.3	54.0	IT	21	25	27	27	26	26	27	27	14	18	19	22
CY	56.0	63.5	62.5	65.3	80.0	84.9	81.1	86.3	39.2	47.4	48.2	49.4	CY	27	20	23	23	13	10	15	13	27	23	25	27
LV	78.8	78.1	78.7	77.6	94.5	89.3	90.5	91.0	65.6	68.3	68.4	66.1	LV	3	1	2	3	2	4	4	4	12	2	4	6
LT	79.5	75.0	75.3	73.9	94.9	91.8	92.1	92.4	66.5	61.3	61.5	59.1	LT	1	4	6	9	1	2	1	2	8	8	11	15
LU	57.0	58.0	65.1	69.1	71.5	80.0	85.3	86.4	45.5	42.0	49.7	55.3	LU	26	27	21	18	24	14	11	12	25	27	23	21
HU	79.1	71.6	70.6	74.8	81.2	79.7	77.7	85.3	76.9	64.3	64.1	65.6	HU	2	8	12	8	11	15	23	15	2	5	7	7
MT	60.5	60.1	62.7	72.3	51.4	63.0	73.1	78.3	71.2	57.3	53.9	66.7	MT	23	24	22	13	27	27	26	24	4	10	20	5

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work					Domain of work				Participation				Segregation and quality of work			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
NL	57.5	58.3	60.5	64.5	72.9	74.9	78.6	82.9	45.4	45.4	46.5	50.2	NL	25	26	26	24	23	24	20	18	26	26	27	25
AT	62.3	60.9	65.5	67.8	77.0	79.3	80.1	81.3	50.5	46.8	53.5	56.5	AT	22	22	20	22	18	17	18	22	23	24	21	19
PL	74.7	71.4	73.9	74.8	78.6	79.0	78.6	82.5	71.0	64.4	69.6	67.9	PL	8	9	8	7	14	18	21	19	5	4	3	4
PT	72.5	68.8	71.9	74.9	84.6	87.3	88.8	89.9	62.1	54.2	58.2	62.4	PT	10	11	10	6	9	6	5	5	13	17	16	10
RO	72.1	71.9	73.1	72.3	77.8	76.2	75.7	74.9	66.9	67.8	70.6	69.8	RO	12	7	9	12	16	23	24	25	7	3	2	3
SI	74.8	73.8	75.9	73.3	85.1	85.2	88.2	87.7	65.8	64.0	65.2	61.3	SI	7	5	5	10	8	9	7	8	10	6	6	13
SK	76.0	65.9	69.6	70.4	78.6	79.3	81.1	87.3	73.6	54.8	59.8	56.8	SK	5	14	13	15	15	16	14	11	3	15	12	18
FI	72.3	73.6	76.4	76.6	91.4	92.7	91.6	94.4	57.2	58.4	63.7	62.1	FI	11	6	4	4	4	1	2	1	18	9	9	12
SE	70.4	75.1	77.6	80.4	88.1	91.4	91.1	91.5	56.2	61.7	66.1	70.7	SE	15	3	3	1	5	3	3	3	19	7	5	2

Table 21: Gender Equality Index for the domain of money and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation					Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**66.6**	**68.7**	**71.4**	**73.9**	**66.9**	**68.2**	**73.4**	**76.1**	**66.2**	**69.2**	**69.3**	**71.7**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	73.1	74.4	75.3	78.6	70.7	72.6	74.0	76.7	75.7	76.3	77	80.6	BE	14	14	16	14	20	19	19	18	9	11	10	5
BG	74.8	76.8	82.0	83.8	73.8	77.1	83.7	84.1	75.8	76.4	80.3	83.4	BG	10	10	5	2	15	13	8	8	8	10	3	1
CZ	71.9	72.8	73.9	75.6	80.8	81.1	81.0	83.9	64.0	65.3	67.5	68.1	CZ	17	17	18	18	8	8	11	10	18	21	21	23
DK	80.7	82.3	82.4	82.3	82.8	87.1	89.9	84.3	78.7	77.7	75.6	80.4	DK	7	5	4	5	4	2	3	7	6	6	11	8
DE	56.4	59.1	63.7	68.1	56.4	57.7	67.0	72.2	56.3	60.5	60.7	64.3	DE	27	27	26	24	27	27	25	24	26	25	26	26
EE	75.5	77.4	78.9	82.9	80.7	87.1	91.1	90.0	70.6	68.9	68.2	76.3	EE	9	7	9	4	9	3	2	1	15	18	19	12
IE	68.9	71.1	70.2	71.3	70.2	72.0	73.3	72.4	67.6	70.4	67.3	70.2	IE	18	19	21	22	21	20	20	23	17	17	22	20
EL	66.0	75.2	74.6	76.7	68.4	78.1	78.9	81.9	63.7	72.4	70.6	71.9	EL	20	12	17	16	22	12	13	11	20	14	17	18
ES	67.0	68.1	70.9	73.3	70.8	70.2	74.5	75.9	63.4	66.1	67.6	70.7	ES	19	21	20	20	19	22	17	19	21	20	20	19
FR	72.1	74.2	76.4	78.1	70.8	73.1	75.3	78.4	73.4	75.4	77.6	77.7	FR	16	16	12	15	18	17	16	17	13	12	9	11
HR	84.9	82.4	75.5	80.8	82.6	79.9	71.5	81.2	87.4	85.0	79.8	80.5	HR	2	4	14	10	5	10	22	14	1	2	4	6
IT	65.6	65.0	64.2	67.0	74.9	72.8	72.8	75.4	57.5	58.0	56.7	59.6	IT	21	24	24	25	14	18	21	20	25	27	27	27
CY	59.4	66.9	69.3	69.7	61.0	62.7	67.5	70.8	57.8	71.4	71.1	68.6	CY	26	23	22	23	24	24	24	25	24	16	15	22
LV	83.7	76.9	78.1	76.5	88.5	81.4	84.1	80.3	79.2	72.7	72.5	72.8	LV	3	8	11	17	1	7	7	15	5	13	14	16
LT	83.1	74.8	75.9	81.9	82.4	85.9	83.6	85.8	83.8	65.2	69.0	78.1	LT	4	13	13	6	6	5	9	5	2	22	18	10
LU	60.6	71.3	71.1	73.7	57.7	71.2	69.1	73.2	63.8	71.5	73.1	74.2	LU	24	18	19	19	26	21	23	22	19	15	13	15
HU	85.2	84.2	82.7	78.8	87.0	86.5	93.5	85.4	83.4	82.0	73.2	72.7	HU	1	3	2	13	3	4	1	6	3	4	12	17
MT	61.9	67.1	68.9	71.8	79.1	76.1	74.2	74.2	48.5	59.1	64.0	69.5	MT	23	22	23	21	10	15	18	21	27	26	23	21
NL	60.0	61.4	62.4	66.2	59.4	62.0	62.8	65.9	60.6	60.9	62.1	66.5	NL	25	26	27	26	25	26	27	27	23	24	25	24

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation					Domain of money				Financial resources				Economic situation			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
AT	62.3	61.5	64.0	65.3	63.4	62.2	65.7	66.0	61.2	60.9	62.4	64.6	AT	22	25	25	27	23	25	26	26	22	23	24	25
PL	72.7	74.4	75.4	81.1	77.0	80.9	80.3	86.9	68.7	68.4	70.8	75.6	PL	15	15	15	8	13	9	12	4	16	19	16	14
PT	73.6	75.7	80.9	79.9	71.9	73.2	78.3	79.5	75.3	78.2	83.7	80.4	PT	12	11	7	11	17	16	14	16	10	5	1	7
RO	74.3	70.9	81.1	79.8	77.5	65.4	84.8	84.1	71.1	76.9	77.6	75.7	RO	11	20	6	12	12	23	6	9	14	8	8	13
SI	82.1	85.4	83.8	86.2	81.4	85.4	86.0	89.6	82.9	85.5	81.7	82.9	SI	5	2	1	1	7	6	5	2	4	1	2	2
SK	81.1	85.5	82.5	83.6	87.8	89.0	86.5	88.5	74.9	82.1	78.8	78.9	SK	6	1	3	3	2	1	4	3	11	3	7	9
FI	77.3	78.0	80.0	81.1	78.3	79.2	81.1	81.4	76.4	76.8	79.0	80.8	FI	8	6	8	7	11	11	10	12	7	9	5	3
SE	73.5	76.9	78.4	81.0	73.7	76.3	78.0	81.2	73.4	77.5	78.8	80.7	SE	13	9	10	9	16	14	15	13	12	7	6	4

Table 22: Gender Equality Index for the domain of knowledge and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation					Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**55.6**	**57.5**	**56.9**	**57.4**	**80.9**	**78.9**	**78.5**	**78.7**	**38.3**	**41.9**	**41.3**	**41.8**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	53.6	54.3	52.9	56.3	76.2	74.7	69.4	75.7	37.7	39.4	40.4	41.9	BE	19	15	17	10	14	12	15	9	15	16	17	13
BG	52.9	51.5	49.5	47.3	51.8	55.3	56.7	54.9	53.9	48.0	43.2	40.8	BG	21	17	22	24	27	26	26	26	1	3	7	15
CZ	54.9	52.2	54.6	52.9	83.1	73.7	74.1	69.2	36.2	37.0	40.2	40.5	CZ	14	16	13	16	8	13	11	17	20	21	18	16
DK	62.7	56.2	55.6	55.3	76.7	70.1	73.2	70.1	51.3	45.0	42.3	43.6	DK	2	11	12	13	13	15	13	15	3	6	8	10
DE	60.4	59.9	59.3	59.0	98.5	99.6	99.1	96.1	37.0	36.0	35.4	36.3	DE	4	5	7	6	1	1	1	1	19	23	24	22
EE	46.6	47.1	50.4	50.7	66.5	59.1	62.5	66.0	32.7	37.5	40.7	39.0	EE	24	24	20	20	22	23	25	19	23	19	16	20
IE	53.9	58.4	60.8	64.2	77.5	76.6	88.4	92.2	37.4	44.5	41.8	44.8	IE	17	8	4	1	12	8	2	2	17	8	10	8
EL	60.0	60.0	63.1	58.7	87.0	82.0	80.9	72.3	41.3	43.9	49.3	47.7	EL	5	4	2	7	5	6	8	11	10	9	3	3
ES	59.8	59.3	59.3	55.7	87.2	86.0	85.1	78.5	41.0	40.8	41.3	39.5	ES	6	6	6	11	4	5	5	7	12	15	14	18
FR	57.5	58.2	58.6	62.6	80.1	80.3	84.0	86.9	41.2	42.2	40.9	45.1	FR	9	9	8	3	9	7	6	4	11	11	15	6
HR	54.4	50.4	53.5	51.9	79.8	68.4	68.7	62.4	37.1	37.1	41.6	43.3	HR	15	20	15	17	10	17	16	24	18	20	13	11
IT	59.2	60.3	56.6	56.8	68.7	68.2	64.3	65.3	51.0	53.3	49.9	49.3	IT	8	3	11	9	21	18	19	20	4	2	2	2
CY	53.9	48.8	45.7	44.6	58.1	56.1	55.8	50.4	50.0	42.4	37.4	39.4	CY	18	22	26	26	26	25	27	27	6	10	20	19
LV	40.7	39.3	41.2	43.5	63.6	54.3	63.0	62.6	26.0	28.5	27.0	30.2	LV	27	27	27	27	24	27	22	23	27	27	27	27
LT	45.7	46.5	46.3	47.4	65.7	64.0	64.8	70.5	31.8	33.9	33.1	31.9	LT	25	26	25	23	23	21	18	14	24	25	25	26
LU	59.5	49.4	60.4	61.9	70.1	59.1	87.5	84.7	50.5	41.2	41.6	45.2	LU	7	21	5	5	19	24	3	5	5	13	12	5
HU	53.1	51.3	50.1	49.9	69.3	67.9	68.0	69.6	40.6	38.8	36.9	35.8	HU	20	19	21	21	20	19	17	16	13	17	21	23

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation					Domain of knowledge				Attainment and participation				Segregation			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
MT	61.2	59.2	56.9	58.2	84.0	75.4	80.6	72.1	44.6	46.4	40.1	47.0	MT	3	7	9	8	7	11	9	12	7	4	19	4
NL	57.2	61.1	61.1	62.1	90.3	91.0	86.4	88.4	36.2	41.0	43.2	43.6	NL	10	2	3	4	2	2	4	3	21	14	6	9
AT	54.2	55.0	54.4	54.2	86.9	87.0	81.5	76.9	33.8	34.8	36.3	38.3	AT	16	13	14	15	6	3	7	8	22	24	22	21
PL	55.7	54.8	53.2	50.9	70.7	66.9	62.7	65.2	43.9	44.9	45.1	39.7	PL	12	14	16	19	18	20	24	21	9	7	4	17
PT	57.1	57.1	56.8	55.5	73.9	70.5	71.7	68.5	44.1	46.2	44.9	45.0	PT	11	10	10	12	16	14	14	18	8	5	5	7
RO	67.4	69.5	63.7	64.1	88.1	86.4	78.8	80.7	51.6	55.9	51.6	50.9	RO	1	1	1	2	3	4	10	6	2	1	1	1
SI	44.3	46.9	47.7	45.0	61.9	60.1	63.0	56.8	31.7	36.7	36.1	35.6	SI	26	25	24	25	25	22	23	25	25	22	23	24
SK	55.4	56.1	51.8	51.0	78.2	75.8	63.8	63.2	39.2	41.4	42.0	41.1	SK	13	12	18	18	11	10	20	22	14	12	9	14
FI	47.2	48.2	49.1	49.8	75.8	75.8	73.3	75.3	29.4	30.7	32.8	33.0	FI	23	23	23	22	15	9	12	10	26	26	26	25
SE	52.1	51.5	51.5	54.6	72.3	68.5	63.4	70.5	37.5	38.6	41.8	42.3	SE	22	18	19	14	17	16	21	13	16	18	11	12

Table 23: Gender Equality Index for the domain of time and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities					Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**65.8**	**65.8**	**65.0**	**65.0**	**58.5**	**58.5**	**57.1**	**57.1**	**74.1**	**74.1**	**74.1**	**74.1**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	71.6	71.6	76.3	76.3	62.0	62.0	70.5	70.5	82.6	82.6	82.6	82.6	BE	5	5	2	2	10	10	2	2	2	2	2	2
BG	61.1	61.1	65.2	65.2	48.9	48.9	55.6	55.6	76.4	76.4	76.4	76.4	BG	19	19	12	12	23	23	13	13	13	13	13	13
CZ	57.1	57.1	57.6	57.6	42.0	42.0	42.8	42.8	77.6	77.6	77.6	77.6	CZ	25	25	24	24	27	27	26	26	12	12	12	12
DK	79.6	79.6	81.1	81.1	81.7	81.7	84.6	84.6	77.6	77.6	77.6	77.6	DK	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11	11	11	11
DE	69.3	69.3	61.2	61.2	63.8	63.8	49.7	49.7	75.3	75.3	75.3	75.3	DE	10	10	19	19	6	6	23	23	15	15	15	15
EE	71.5	71.5	74.4	74.4	62.0	62.0	67.2	67.2	82.4	82.4	82.4	82.4	EE	6	6	4	4	9	9	5	5	3	3	3	3
IE	69.1	69.1	66.3	66.3	60.2	60.2	55.5	55.5	79.4	79.4	79.4	79.4	IE	11	11	11	11	14	14	14	14	8	8	8	8
EL	59.2	59.2	56.0	56.0	49.0	49.0	43.9	43.9	71.6	71.6	71.6	71.6	EL	24	24	26	26	22	22	25	25	19	19	19	19
ES	70.3	70.3	74.1	74.1	62.1	62.1	68.9	68.9	79.6	79.6	79.6	79.6	ES	7	7	5	5	8	8	4	4	7	7	7	7
FR	67.6	67.6	67.6	67.6	65.3	65.3	65.3	65.3	69.9	69.9	69.9	69.9	FR	13	13	9	9	5	5	6	6	21	21	21	21
HR	75.5	75.5	69.6	69.6	71.8	71.8	61.1	61.1	79.3	79.3	79.3	79.3	HR	2	2	6	6	3	3	9	9	9	9	9	9
IT	59.4	59.4	59.4	59.4	51.9	51.9	51.9	51.9	67.9	67.9	67.9	67.9	IT	22	22	21	21	20	20	20	20	22	22	22	22
CY	56.7	56.7	54.7	54.7	45.8	45.8	42.6	42.6	70.2	70.2	70.2	70.2	CY	26	26	27	27	26	26	27	27	20	20	20	20
LV	55.6	55.6	57.2	57.2	45.9	45.9	48.6	48.6	67.3	67.3	67.3	67.3	LV	27	27	25	25	25	25	24	24	24	24	24	24
LT	69.5	69.5	63.3	63.3	72.6	72.6	60.3	60.3	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	LT	9	9	16	16	2	2	10	10	25	25	25	25
LU	72.1	72.1	68.9	68.9	60.9	60.9	55.7	55.7	85.3	85.3	85.3	85.3	LU	4	4	7	7	13	13	12	12	1	1	1	1
HU	65.0	65.0	64.6	64.6	52.5	52.5	51.8	51.8	80.5	80.5	80.5	80.5	HU	16	16	13	13	19	19	21	21	5	5	5	5
MT	64.3	64.3	60.6	60.6	61.1	61.1	54.2	54.2	67.8	67.8	67.8	67.8	MT	17	17	20	20	12	12	17	17	23	23	23	23

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities					Domain of time				Care activities				Social activities			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
NL	69.6	69.6	74.8	74.8	60.2	60.2	69.6	69.6	80.5	80.5	80.5	80.5	NL	8	8	3	3	15	15	3	3	6	6	6	6
AT	59.4	59.4	63.3	63.3	46.8	46.8	53.2	53.2	75.3	75.3	75.3	75.3	AT	23	23	17	17	24	24	19	19	14	14	14	14
PL	65.6	65.6	68.7	68.7	58.6	58.6	64.3	64.3	73.5	73.5	73.5	73.5	PL	14	14	8	8	17	17	8	8	17	17	17	17
PT	72.5	72.5	67.0	67.0	63.8	63.8	54.5	54.5	82.4	82.4	82.4	82.4	PT	3	3	10	10	7	7	16	16	4	4	4	4
RO	61.0	61.0	61.5	61.5	50.2	50.2	50.9	50.9	74.2	74.2	74.2	74.2	RO	20	20	18	18	21	21	22	22	16	16	16	16
SI	65.1	65.1	63.4	63.4	58.1	58.1	55.2	55.2	72.9	72.9	72.9	72.9	SI	15	15	15	15	18	18	15	15	18	18	18	18
SK	68.0	68.0	64.5	64.5	59.2	59.2	53.3	53.3	78.0	78.0	78.0	78.0	SK	12	12	14	14	16	16	18	18	10	10	10	10
FI	59.8	59.8	59.1	59.1	65.7	65.7	64.3	64.3	54.4	54.4	54.4	54.4	FI	21	21	22	22	4	4	7	7	27	27	27	27
SE	61.2	61.2	58.7	58.7	61.7	61.7	56.7	56.7	60.6	60.6	60.6	60.6	SE	18	18	23	23	11	11	11	11	26	26	26	26

Table 24: Gender Equality Index for the domain of power and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)																Member State	Rank															
	Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social					Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	
EU-27	**17.6**	**23.5**	**31.5**	**40.5**	**31.0**	**35.7**	**42.4**	**47.3**	**12.4**	**25.3**	**38.4**	**49.4**	**14.3**	**14.3**	**19.2**	**28.4**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
BE	19.0	27.8	37.0	49.9	49.8	55.0	66.0	79.6	11.0	31.1	57.2	58.0	12.6	12.6	13.5	26.9	BE	10	7	7	8	7	7	6	3	16	9	3	10	14	14	15	11	
BG	20.9	24.4	26.8	25.6	33.6	30.2	42.7	38.9	11.8	20.6	16.2	19.8	23.2	23.2	27.8	21.8	BG	7	9	14	19	10	15	11	16	15	14	20	24	5	5	7	15	
CZ	12.1	12.3	15.5	20.3	18.1	21.7	29.5	21.7	13.2	11.7	20.8	35.3	7.4	7.4	6.0	10.9	CZ	20	23	20	25	22	22	19	24	11	23	18	13	23	23	25	24	
DK	30.0	33.0	40.7	57.3	65.1	52.9	58.7	74.9	20.7	33.8	49.2	72.5	20.1	20.1	23.3	34.7	DK	4	5	6	6	3	8	8	6	6	6	8	3	6	6	10	9	
DE	21.8	32.1	36.0	47.5	41.5	55.4	51.2	63.5	13.6	32.8	54.4	61.9	18.2	18.2	16.7	27.3	DE	6	6	8	10	9	6	9	9	10	7	5	7	9	9	13	10	
EE	11.1	12.7	14.2	21.9	21.9	28.3	27.8	45.9	6.3	7.4	8.4	13.9	9.8	9.8	12.2	16.5	EE	21	21	23	22	17	16	20	14	21	26	27	25	17	17	16	22	
IE	14.6	19.2	30.6	54.1	18.9	24.1	31.8	36.2	8.9	15.9	36.8	66.1	18.5	18.5	24.4	66.0	IE	14	15	11	7	20	19	16	19	19	16	12	5	8	8	9	2	
EL	10.9	12.5	14.2	26.2	24.3	22.7	20.6	30.6	6.2	10.3	13.5	35.3	8.5	8.5	10.3	16.6	EL	22	22	22	18	15	21	25	22	22	24	22	14	21	21	22	21	
ES	20.4	25.8	43.9	66.6	59.0	58.6	77.2	77.7	10.1	20.4	37.3	65.7	14.3	14.3	29.3	58.0	ES	8	8	5	3	4	4	3	5	18	15	11	6	11	11	5	4	
FR	25.3	42.8	63.0	72.5	51.2	66.5	76.4	79.7	12.8	47.3	74.6	81.7	24.8	24.8	43.8	58.6	FR	5	3	2	2	6	3	4	2	12	1	1	1	4	4	2	3	
HR	14.5	16.0	22.2	21.8	25.6	24.0	31.0	35.0	16.8	24.3	33.0	33.3	7.0	7.0	10.7	8.9	HR	15	17	16	23	14	20	18	21	8	11	13	16	24	24	20	26	
IT	8.7	20.7	35.2	47.9	18.7	31.3	42.1	41.2	4.3	34.3	56.2	74.3	8.2	8.2	18.4	35.9	IT	24	13	9	9	21	14	12	15	24	5	4	2	22	22	11	7	
CY	6.1	7.4	11.8	13.6	15.2	11.8	20.1	19.9	3.9	8.8	10.6	11.2	3.9	3.9	7.8	11.4	CY	27	27	27	26	25	26	26	26	25	25	26	26	26	26	24	23	
LV	19.7	22.9	28.6	28.9	23.1	24.5	26.5	37.6	24.8	37.0	30.8	28.5	13.3	13.3	28.8	22.7	LV	9	11	12	15	16	18	21	17	5	4	14	21	13	13	6	14	
LT	13.4	15.1	19.4	34.6	20.7	24.8	33.5	48.5	12.3	14.7	12.5	33.4	9.5	9.5	17.6	25.6	LT	16	18	18	14	18	17	15	13	13	18	23	15	18	18	12	13	
LU	12.7	20.9	27.6	37.3	28.6	35.2	41.1	49.5	3.5	13.0	20.2	30.3	20.0	20.0	25.3	34.8	LU	17	12	13	12	12	11	13	12	26	20	19	20	7	7	8	8	
HU	9.7	10.0	12.3	12.9	7.3	7.1	14.6	10.9	13.7	15.2	11.6	10.6	9.3	9.3	10.8	18.3	HU	23	25	26	27	27	27	27	27	9	17	25	27	20	20	19	19	
MT	7.3	8.4	13.9	28.1	17.9	17.5	21.0	36.1	2.4	3.6	12.1	23.2	9.3	9.3	10.6	26.4	MT	26	26	24	16	24	24	24	20	27	27	24	23	19	19	21	12	

Member State	Score (points)																Member State	Rank															
	Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social					Domain of power				Political				Economic				Social			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
NL	31.1	38.9	48.8	63.2	53.7	56.1	61.7	67.9	16.9	31.5	52.4	70.5	33.3	33.3	36.0	52.8	NL	3	4	4	4	5	5	7	7	7	8	6	4	2	2	4	5
AT	18.2	23.8	34.8	39.9	46.2	41.9	69.5	66.4	8.8	21.9	41.8	50.6	14.8	14.8	14.5	18.8	AT	11	10	10	11	8	10	5	8	20	12	9	11	10	10	14	18
PL	8.5	11.8	12.6	21.6	20.7	32.3	31.3	37.2	12.0	20.7	26.9	27.9	2.4	2.4	2.4	9.7	PL	25	24	25	24	19	12	17	18	14	13	17	22	27	27	27	25
PT	12.4	17.1	25.6	36.8	27.7	31.3	50.4	50.3	5.1	12.0	30.3	47.4	13.3	13.3	11.0	21.0	PT	19	16	15	13	13	13	10	11	23	22	15	12	12	12	18	17
RO	14.7	13.3	15.3	26.6	11.4	17.5	21.6	29.2	25.1	12.1	13.9	30.4	11.1	11.1	12.0	21.3	RO	13	19	21	17	26	23	23	23	4	21	21	19	15	15	17	16
SI	12.4	20.4	17.9	24.6	30.1	51.1	36.6	54.3	10.5	27.0	28.4	32.4	6.1	6.1	5.5	8.4	SI	18	14	19	20	11	9	14	10	17	10	16	17	25	25	26	27
SK	16.9	13.2	19.8	22.9	18.1	15.8	22.2	20.9	25.4	14.1	37.8	31.7	10.4	10.4	9.2	18.1	SK	12	20	17	21	23	25	22	25	3	19	10	18	16	16	23	20
FI	40.5	42.9	53.4	61.0	77.2	76.3	79.4	78.4	33.0	39.6	51.1	59.0	26.1	26.1	37.5	49.1	FI	2	2	3	5	2	2	2	4	2	3	7	9	3	3	3	6
SE	60.0	65.7	81.1	80.3	85.2	88.6	91.8	88.3	34.9	44.1	62.1	60.2	72.6	72.6	93.6	97.6	SE	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	8	1	1	1	1

Table 25: Gender Equality Index for the domain of health and its subdomains, 2010, 2015, 2020 and 2025 (scores and ranks)

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of health				Status				Behaviour					Domain of health				Status				Behaviour			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
EU-27	**84.1**	**84.2**	**86.2**	**86.2**	**87.7**	**87.9**	**90.3**	**90.2**	**80.7**	**80.7**	**82.4**	**82.4**	**EU-27**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
BE	83.6	84.5	85.9	86.3	85.6	87.4	91.6	92.5	81.6	81.6	80.5	80.5	BE	12	10	15	14	18	14	12	11	9	9	17	17
BG	73.0	72.9	74.1	74.7	88.1	87.7	88.0	89.2	60.6	60.6	62.5	62.5	BG	26	26	26	26	14	11	20	19	26	26	26	26
CZ	82.8	84.0	84.0	82.6	88.4	91.0	92.8	89.8	77.5	77.5	76.1	76.1	CZ	17	11	20	22	11	7	10	15	20	20	22	22
DK	86.5	86.7	88.4	87.5	94.3	94.8	97.7	95.5	79.3	79.3	80.1	80.1	DK	8	6	7	9	3	2	2	2	16	16	18	18
DE	88.3	89.1	89.0	87.8	92.2	93.8	95.3	92.8	84.7	84.7	83.2	83.2	DE	3	4	5	6	5	4	5	9	5	5	10	10
EE	81.2	81.3	88.0	86.8	83.9	84.0	92.2	89.7	78.7	78.7	84.1	84.1	EE	19	19	11	12	19	20	11	16	17	17	8	8
IE	88.2	89.6	95.2	93.8	92.5	95.6	97.9	95.2	84.0	84.0	92.5	92.5	IE	5	3	1	1	4	1	1	3	6	6	1	1
EL	83.2	83.1	84.3	83.8	88.1	87.7	91.5	90.4	78.6	78.6	77.6	77.6	EL	14	15	19	19	13	10	14	14	18	18	21	21
ES	81.8	82.3	86.1	86.2	83.8	84.8	87.1	87.2	79.8	79.8	85.2	85.2	ES	18	16	14	15	20	16	22	21	12	12	6	6
FR	85.0	85.5	88.4	88.0	90.7	91.8	95.1	94.2	79.7	79.7	82.2	82.2	FR	9	7	6	5	6	6	6	6	13	13	11	11
HR	82.9	80.5	85.6	83.1	89.1	84.1	90.3	85.0	77.2	77.2	81.2	81.2	HR	16	21	17	20	9	19	15	23	21	21	15	15
IT	81.0	83.7	87.0	86.9	80.6	86.2	89.6	89.5	81.4	81.4	84.5	84.5	IT	20	12	12	11	24	15	17	18	10	10	7	7
CY	79.0	81.4	81.4	84.4	82.4	87.4	89.0	95.7	75.8	75.8	74.4	74.4	CY	21	18	21	18	22	13	19	1	23	23	24	24
LV	76.4	73.9	76.4	78.1	82.6	77.3	80.2	83.9	70.7	70.7	72.7	72.7	LV	24	25	25	25	21	26	25	24	24	24	25	25
LT	74.8	74.0	78.9	79.8	81.6	79.8	80.1	82.0	68.7	68.7	77.7	77.7	LT	25	24	24	24	23	25	26	25	25	25	20	20
LU	88.3	82.1	88.0	87.6	95.5	82.4	95.5	94.5	81.7	81.7	81.1	81.1	LU	4	17	10	7	1	22	4	4	8	8	16	16
HU	84.1	83.3	85.7	86.1	85.8	84.1	87.6	88.6	82.5	82.5	83.7	83.7	HU	10	14	16	16	17	18	21	20	7	7	9	9
MT	88.5	90.9	90.4	87.5	89.5	94.4	91.6	85.9	87.6	87.6	89.2	89.2	MT	2	1	3	8	8	3	13	22	3	3	2	2

Member State	Score (points)												Member State	Rank											
	Domain of health				Status				Behaviour					Domain of health				Status				Behaviour			
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025		2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025	2010	2015	2020	2025
NL	87.9	85.1	88.0	89.1	89.8	84.3	90.2	92.5	85.9	85.9	85.9	85.9	NL	6	8	9	3	7	17	16	10	4	4	5	5
AT	86.8	88.3	89.6	88.7	85.8	88.7	93.0	91.1	87.8	87.8	86.3	86.3	AT	7	5	4	4	16	9	8	13	2	2	4	4
PL	83.5	83.4	85.3	85.4	87.8	87.6	89.4	89.6	79.5	79.5	81.4	81.4	PL	13	13	18	17	15	12	18	17	15	15	13	13
PT	76.6	75.9	79.6	80.6	73.7	72.4	77.6	79.4	79.5	79.5	81.8	81.8	PT	22	23	22	23	27	27	27	27	14	14	12	12
RO	61.0	61.7	62.7	60.9	78.6	80.4	85.0	80.1	47.3	47.3	46.3	46.3	RO	27	27	27	27	25	24	23	26	27	27	27	27
SI	83.1	80.7	86.8	86.6	88.5	83.5	94.1	93.8	78.1	78.1	80.0	80.0	SI	15	20	13	13	10	21	7	7	19	19	19	19
SK	76.6	79.4	79.5	82.8	76.5	82.1	84.3	91.3	76.7	76.7	75.0	75.0	SK	23	22	23	21	26	23	24	12	22	22	23	23
FI	84.1	84.8	88.1	87.3	88.3	89.7	95.6	93.8	80.0	80.0	81.3	81.3	FI	11	9	8	10	12	8	3	8	11	11	14	14
SE	91.4	90.6	90.4	91.2	94.7	92.9	92.9	94.4	88.3	88.3	88.0	88.0	SE	1	2	2	2	2	5	9	5	1	1	3	3

Annex 3. Gender Equality Index 2025: breakdown by indicators

Table 26: Indicators of the domain of work

Member State	Participation								Segregation and quality of work							
	FTE employment rate, age group 15–89 (%)				Duration of working life, age group 15 and above (years)				ICT specialists, age group 15–74 (%)		Managers, age group 15–74 (%)		Low-paid workers, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-27	**44.0**	**58.6**	**51.0**	**– 15**	**35**	**39**	**37.2**	**– 4**	**19.5**	**80.5**	**35.3**	**64.7**	**28.4**	**15.7**	**21.5**	**12**
BE	42.2	54.2	47.9	– 12	33	37	35.0	– 4	19.0	81.0	34.2	65.8	26.4	14.9	20.5	11
BG	47.6	59.9	53.4	– 12	34	36	34.8	– 2	27.0	73.0	40.3	59.7	30.2	27.9	29.0	2
CZ	48.4	66.9	57.4	– 19	35	40	37.5	– 5	13.0	87.0	28.7	71.3	20.6	7.4	13.4	14
DK	49.5	59.7	54.4	– 10	41	44	42.5	– 3	21.2	78.8	28.4	71.6	24.1	18.7	21.2	5
DE	44.0	60.7	52.0	– 17	38	42	40.0	– 4	19.2	80.8	29.1	70.9	36.9	17.5	26.4	19
EE	55.3	66.6	60.5	– 12	42	41	41.4	1	27.6	72.4	39.7	60.3	32.5	27.2	29.8	6
IE	50.1	65.6	57.4	– 16	38	43	40.4	– 5	24.4	75.6	39.7	60.3	34.3	19.7	26.6	14
EL	38.0	57.0	47.1	– 19	31	38	34.8	– 7	16.0	84.0	34.6	65.4	14.4	6.6	9.9	7
ES	43.4	57.0	50.0	– 14	35	38	36.5	– 3	19.6	80.4	34.5	65.5	28.8	16.1	22.0	13
FR	45.3	54.5	49.6	– 10	36	39	37.2	– 3	19.3	80.7	39.6	60.4	28.7	18.2	23.3	11
HR	44.7	54.8	49.6	– 10	34	36	34.8	– 2	21.5	78.5	27.6	72.4	28.6	17.5	22.7	11
IT	33.0	53.1	42.5	– 20	28	37	32.8	– 9	17.1	82.9	28.0	72.0	31.3	15.8	22.4	15
CY	54.9	64.3	59.4	– 9	36	42	39.0	– 6	23.7	76.3	25.7	74.3	32.7	13.8	22.9	19
LV	52.4	63.6	57.5	– 12	38	37	37.4	1	26.8	73.2	43.4	56.6	31.4	21.9	26.8	9
LT	54.9	64.2	59.2	– 9	39	38	38.5	1	18.2	81.8	38.3	61.7	27.6	19.7	23.6	8
LU	52.4	64.5	58.4	– 13	34	37	35.6	– 3	17.4	82.6	35.8	64.2	38.0	22.4	29.6	16

Member State	Participation								Segregation and quality of work							
	FTE employment rate, age group 15–89 (%)				Duration of working life, age group 15 and above (years)				ICT specialists, age group 15–74 (%)		Managers, age group 15–74 (%)		Low-paid workers, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Total	Gap
HU	51.5	65.4	58.1	– 13	36	39	37.4	– 3	15.2	84.8	40.6	59.4	26.6	26.8	26.7	0
MT	51.5	70.6	61.6	– 19	35	42	39.0	– 7	14.7	85.3	37.0	63.0	30.2	21.6	25.1	8
NL	46.9	63.1	54.2	– 16	42	46	43.8	– 4	18.7	81.3	30.3	69.7	34.8	14.8	24.4	20
AT	42.9	60.2	51.2	– 17	37	40	38.7	– 3	21.1	78.9	36.2	63.8	34.5	15.0	24.0	20
PL	48.6	63.8	55.8	– 15	33	38	35.5	– 5	17.5	82.5	41.9	58.1	15.6	10.5	12.9	5
PT	51.6	61.1	56.0	– 9	38	40	39.3	– 2	22.7	77.3	38.3	61.7	15.7	9.7	12.7	6
RO	39.7	57.8	48.4	– 18	29	36	32.7	– 7	27.3	72.7	33.9	66.1	15.8	6.7	10.6	9
SI	49.3	60.0	54.7	– 11	36	38	37.1	– 2	19.2	80.8	33.8	66.2	21.3	16.2	18.5	5
SK	52.5	63.5	57.7	– 11	35	38	36.0	– 3	17.2	82.8	32.5	67.5	22.0	14.7	18.0	7
FI	50.3	55.8	52.8	– 6	40	40	39.8	0	22.4	77.6	37.8	62.2	22.2	15.5	18.8	6
SE	54.7	62.5	58.5	– 8	42	44	43.0	– 2	24.0	76.0	44.5	55.5	24.2	14.9	19.3	9
	Source: EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat, EU-LFS, 2023.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsi_dwl_a), 2024.				*Source:* Eurostat (isoc_sks_itsps), 2022.		*Source:* Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_egais), 2024.		*NB:* 2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat EU-SILC microdata, 2024.			

Table 27: Indicators of the domain of money

Member State	Financial resources					Economic situation						
	Median earnings, age group 18–64, employed population (purchasing power standard)				Gender pension gap, age group 65 and above (%)	Median of the earnings ratio within couples, age group 18–64 (%)			In-work poverty of employed adults in single or single-parent households, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-27	**23 000**	**29 960**	**26 513**	**– 6 960**	**24.5**	**70.2**	**151.8**	**– 45**	**15.6**	**13.0**	**14.2**	**3**
BE	37 709	44 512	41 474	– 6 803	31.3	80.5	129.2	– 50	9.7	10.7	10.2	– 1
BG	13 754	15 687	14 707	– 1 933	19.4	85.2	121.1	– 66	16.8	19.7	18.3	– 3
CZ	20 364	26 297	23 422	– 5 933	9.6	67.9	154.5	– 58	12.5	5.1	8.9	8
DK	45 067	53 484	49 085	– 8 417	15.6	79.3	128.4	– 63	14.1	15.0	14.6	– 1
DE	30 263	43 169	36 863	– 12 906	25.8	59.5	188.1	– 34	15.4	12.8	14.0	2
EE	19 485	22 779	20 932	– 3 294	5.6	78.0	133.4	– 72	16.4	21.3	18.8	– 5
IE	29 211	38 495	33 823	– 9 284	31.1	64.8	158.3	– 34	14.2	14.7	14.4	– 1
EL	17 815	20 329	19 195	– 2 514	23.8	71.7	160.7	– 48	12.3	11.6	11.9	0
ES	21 516	26 553	24 308	– 5 037	29.2	72.0	147.7	– 43	19.7	13.3	16.2	7
FR	26 997	32 121	29 596	– 5 124	27.2	80.5	134.1	– 54	16.2	12.2	14.3	4
HR	20 081	24 600	22 625	– 4 519	19.3	83.9	131.9	– 65	16.7	14.5	15.6	2
IT	23 942	30 174	27 610	– 6 232	28.6	53.2	212.4	– 24	20.0	14.9	17.1	5
CY	19 636	27 787	23 705	– 8 151	29.0	68.5	151.3	– 40	17.8	10.6	13.7	7
LV	18 725	24 746	21 281	– 6 021	15.0	70.7	140.1	– 56	16.3	12.0	14.5	4
LT	23 034	27 563	25 439	– 4 529	11.9	77.5	134.7	– 66	12.5	11.3	12.0	2
LU	43 870	55 498	51 025	– 11 628	32.7	79.9	132.8	– 47	22.2	12.0	16.6	10
HU	13 514	15 572	14 728	– 2 058	15.9	70.1	150.1	– 54	15.2	14.1	14.7	1
MT	24 312	27 383	26 469	– 3 071	40.3	65.5	155.7	– 26	24.7	22.3	23.1	3

Member State	Financial resources					Economic situation						
	Median earnings, age group 18–64, employed population (purchasing power standard)				Gender pension gap, age group 65 and above (%)	Median of the earnings ratio within couples, age group 18–64 (%)			In-work poverty of employed adults in single or single-parent households, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Gap	Women	Men	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
NL	30 393	44 687	37 711	– 14 294	36.3	60.6	172.1	– 25	14.6	12.7	13.6	2
AT	29 237	43 249	36 255	– 14 012	35.6	61.7	177.3	– 26	16.9	12.0	14.2	5
PL	18 822	21 321	20 034	– 2 499	14.5	73.7	133.0	– 59	10.0	13.8	11.8	– 4
PT	15 693	19 093	17 246	– 3 400	23.2	79.6	130.4	– 57	15.3	15.6	15.4	– 1
RO	21 434	24 624	23 623	– 3 190	18.9	77.9	132.4	– 59	7.1	14.1	11.0	– 7
SI	26 852	30 233	28 731	– 3 381	9.7	84.1	126.5	– 74	17.4	16.9	17.1	0
SK	12 772	14 964	13 769	– 2 192	8.4	80.6	130.0	– 73	15.1	18.6	16.4	– 4
FI	31 330	37 256	34 169	– 5 926	21.3	81.8	129.4	– 61	7.9	6.3	7.0	2
SE	28 442	33 172	30 746	– 4 730	23.3	80.6	130.3	– 58	12.1	12.5	12.3	– 1
	NB: 2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat EU-SILC microdata, 2024.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_pnp13), 2024.	*NB:* 2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat EU-SILC microdata, 2024.			*NB:* 2023 data for Hungary; provisional data for Lithuania. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Eurostat EU-SILC microdata, 2024.			

Table 28: Indicators of the domain of knowledge

Member State	Attainment and participation								Segregation			
	Tertiary graduates, age group 30–34 (%)				IVET graduates, age group 25–34 (%)				Graduates in tertiary education in EHW, ISCED 5–8 (tertiary students) (%)		Graduates in tertiary education in STEM, ISCED 5–8 (%)	
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	**50.2**	**39.4**	**44.7**	**11**	**27.1**	**34.3**	**30.7**	**– 7**	**74.5**	**25.5**	**33.5**	**66.5**
BE	56.3	45.5	50.9	10	21.3	30.2	25.8	– 9	72.3	27.7	28.7	71.3
BG	49.1	30.8	39.7	18	14.1	30.0	22.2	– 16	77.7	22.3	36.2	63.8
CZ	43.4	27.5	35.0	15	45.6	60.7	53.4	– 15	77.7	22.3	36.1	63.9
DK	62.8	47.5	54.9	15	16.2	25.1	20.7	– 9	74.1	25.9	35.1	64.9
DE	44.1	40.9	42.4	3	36.6	36.8	36.7	0	74.8	25.2	28.1	71.9
EE	56.9	34.7	45.3	22	22.3	31.4	27.0	– 9	82.5	17.5	41.7	58.3
IE	71.3	61.3	66.4	10	12.2	12.4	12.3	0	73.8	26.2	36.0	64.0
EL	50.8	38.3	44.4	13	18.6	26.9	22.9	– 8	75.5	24.5	41.1	58.9
ES	56.6	46.8	51.7	10	9.0	12.1	10.6	– 3	72.4	27.6	27.2	72.8
FR	56.0	48.8	52.4	7	25.8	29.8	27.8	– 4	72.5	27.5	34.5	65.5
HR	52.3	30.0	40.7	22	41.7	61.9	52.3	– 20	77.7	22.3	39.4	60.6
IT	37.9	23.8	30.7	14	28.1	41.4	34.9	– 13	72.8	27.2	39.3	60.7
CY	72.9	55.6	64.4	17	3.6	14.7	9.1	– 11	78.6	21.4	35.4	64.6
LV	56.8	32.3	44.3	25	17.7	25.9	21.9	– 8	84.9	15.1	33.5	66.5
LT	70.8	52.8	61.3	18	15.8	23.8	20.0	– 8	81.3	18.7	30.0	70.0
LU	70.3	62.4	66.3	8	23.4	29.0	26.3	– 6	69.9	30.1	32.2	67.8
HU	40.7	27.8	34.1	13	30.8	43.5	37.4	– 13	76.3	23.7	27.8	72.2
MT	53.1	40.6	45.9	12	13.4	19.8	17.1	– 7	71.0	29.0	32.8	67.2

Member State	Attainment and participation								Segregation			
	Tertiary graduates, age group 30–34 (%)				IVET graduates, age group 25–34 (%)				Graduates in tertiary education in EHW, ISCED 5–8 (tertiary students) (%)		Graduates in tertiary education in STEM, ISCED 5–8 (%)	
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Women	Men
NL	59.3	50.4	54.8	9	26.0	28.3	27.2	– 2	73.3	26.7	33.9	66.1
AT	50.5	38.3	44.3	13	31.8	40.8	36.4	– 9	74.4	25.6	29.4	70.6
PL	57.3	39.3	48.1	18	26.1	42.2	34.3	– 16	81.2	18.8	40.2	59.8
PT	49.8	34.1	41.9	16	16.5	24.1	20.3	– 7	74.1	25.9	36.5	63.5
RO	27.1	20.3	23.6	7	48.5	56.1	52.4	– 7	73.8	26.2	42.1	57.9
SI	57.6	31.0	43.2	27	31.4	52.5	42.6	– 22	79.5	20.5	32.8	67.2
SK	46.7	26.5	36.4	20	41.7	59.8	50.9	– 18	76.0	24.0	33.4	66.6
FI	50.1	36.3	43.2	14	33.6	43.0	38.4	– 9	82.1	17.9	33.2	66.8
SE	65.7	50.6	58.0	15	15.3	23.9	19.7	– 9	77.5	22.5	37.8	62.2
	Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (edat_lfse_03), 2024.				*Source:* Eurostat, EU-LFS (edat_lfse_03), 2024.				*Source:* Eurostat, education statistics (educ_uoe_grad02), 2023.		*Source:* Eurostat, education statistics (educ_uoe_grad02), 2023.	

Table 29: Indicators of the domain of time

Member State	Care activities												Social activities							
	Informal childcare (for children aged 0–11) for more than 35 hours per week, age group 16–74 (%)				Informal long-term care for more than 20 hours per week, age group 45–64 (%)				Housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, age group 16–74 (%)				Hours spent on leisure activities per week, age group 16–74 (%)				Voluntary, charitable or political activities at least once per week, age group 16–74 (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-27	**40.8**	**20.1**	**31.4**	**21**	**19.9**	**13.0**	**17.1**	**7**	**58.6**	**33.3**	**46.1**	**26**	**30.4**	**42.9**	**36.7**	**– 13**	**13.0**	**16.7**	**14.8**	**– 4**
BE	29.8	19.7	24.8	10	9.5	10.4	9.9	0	50.3	27.1	38.7	23	33.6	42.7	38.2	– 9	16.8	19.4	18.1	– 2
BG	41.0	19.5	32.3	21	26.7	18.0	23.0	9	60.6	31.4	46.3	30	30.6	37.6	34.2	– 7	16.8	12.0	14.4	5
CZ	45.1	17.7	33.0	27	13.4	5.8	10.7	7	53.7	24.6	39.3	29	32.1	44.7	38.5	– 13	10.3	12.4	11.3	– 2
DK	19.7	19.5	19.6	0	3.7	4.6	4.1	– 1	48.8	36.3	42.6	13	30.7	40.4	35.6	– 9	19.8	25.0	22.4	– 5
DE	38.0	17.9	28.6	20	14.1	5.9	10.5	8	55.2	33.3	44.2	22	36.2	50.4	43.4	– 14	15.6	19.8	17.7	– 4
EE	31.4	16.4	24.2	15	20.3	15.6	18.2	4	53.0	38.5	46.0	14	29.2	41.0	35.0	– 12	14.2	15.2	14.7	– 1
IE	51.3	26.3	41.0	25	37.2	21.1	29.8	16	60.5	35.3	48.1	26	30.3	38.5	34.4	– 9	13.0	16.2	14.5	– 3
EL	37.0	15.1	27.0	22	25.8	12.1	19.8	14	64.9	28.4	47.0	37	21.3	31.2	26.2	– 10	13.7	18.2	15.9	– 4
ES	55.9	29.3	43.1	27	44.5	39.7	42.7	5	59.4	38.7	49.2	20	34.9	47.3	41.0	– 12	12.1	14.1	13.1	– 2
FR	21.1	13.4	17.5	8	8.0	5.4	6.9	3	60.9	39.5	50.5	21	26.5	37.7	32.0	– 11	15.3	22.0	18.6	– 7
HR	37.7	33.1	35.5	5	38.0	20.7	31.5	17	65.3	26.6	46.3	38	32.0	41.8	36.9	– 10	14.2	11.6	12.9	2
IT	41.4	15.9	30.5	25	31.2	23.3	28.1	8	64.9	27.7	46.6	37	28.0	41.6	34.8	– 14	9.5	13.9	11.7	– 4
CY	42.8	14.8	30.6	28	9.2	5.1	7.7	4	62.5	23.8	43.7	39	15.8	25.4	20.5	– 9	12.2	15.6	13.8	– 4
LV	41.1	15.3	30.5	26	18.1	10.3	14.9	8	56.0	28.8	43.0	27	28.0	40.5	34.0	– 13	9.3	14.2	11.6	– 5
LT	37.2	25.1	31.9	12	21.7	12.5	18.6	9	59.7	33.4	47.1	27	32.3	43.9	37.9	– 12	6.8	11.5	9.1	– 5
LU	24.3 (u)	10.9 (u)	16.6	13	9.0	6.0	7.6	3	38.2	21.3	29.6	17	43.8	60.4	52.4	– 16	18.2	17.8	18.0	0
HU	47.0	22.5	36.4	24	12.5	7.9	10.8	5	48.4	21.4	35.0	27	29.5	40.2	34.9	– 10	10.4	11.8	11.1	– 2

Member State	Care activities												Social activities							
	Informal childcare (for children aged 0–11) for more than 35 hours per week, age group 16–74 (%)				Informal long-term care for more than 20 hours per week, age group 45–64 (%)				Housework chores (cooking, cleaning, laundry) every day, age group 16–74 (%)				Hours spent on leisure activities per week, age group 16–74 (%)				Voluntary, charitable or political activities at least once per week, age group 16–74 (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
MT	37.0 (u)	14.4 (u)	24.7	23	24.4	18.4	22.1	6	52.5	25.2	38.0	28	43.5	59.2	52.1	– 15	13.8	22.2	18.3	– 8
NL	49.0	25.5	37.8	23	8.7	8.3	8.6	1	52.3	32.0	42.1	20	38.0	49.1	43.6	– 11	15.8	18.9	17.4	– 3
AT	51.7	21.3	38.3	31	15.1	9.9	13.1	5	54.7	28.9	41.9	26	34.0	46.2	40.1	– 12	13.0	16.9	15.0	– 4
PL	53.7	25.3	41.7	29	26.0	23.2	24.9	3	58.2	32.8	45.8	25	26.3	38.2	32.2	– 12	10.6	13.5	12.0	– 3
PT	28.3	13.5	22.0	14	31.6	15.5	26.3	16	66.3	44.3	55.8	22	21.3	31.1	26.0	– 10	10.0	10.4	10.2	0
RO	46.4	22.0	37.0	24	22.2	12.9	18.9	9	61.4	29.0	45.4	32	24.8	37.8	31.4	– 13	10.8	13.0	11.9	– 2
SI	45.6	20.9	33.5	25	20.4	14.0	17.6	6	65.9	33.7	49.4	32	25.8	38.8	32.5	– 13	13.6	17.1	15.4	– 3
SK	44.7	24.0	36.1	21	31.8	18.7	26.3	13	57.4	27.1	42.4	30	26.1	41.5	33.8	– 16	12.5	13.4	13.0	0
FI	53.2	23.3	37.8	30	6.1	4.9	5.6	1	46.4	31.9	39.2	14	27.8	46.1	37.0	– 18	10.2	20.9	15.5	– 11
SE	41.7	22.9	32.0	19	22.5	9.9	17.9	13	60.4	43.1	51.7	17	26.2	43.1	34.9	– 17	8.6	14.1	11.4	– 5
	NB: (u) indicates low reliability. *Source:* EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.				*Source:* Eurostat, EHIS, 2019, and European Commission, 2025b.				*Source:* EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.				*Source:* EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.				*Source:* EIGE, CARE survey, 2024.			

Table 30: Indicators of the domain of power

Member State	Political						Economic		Social	
	Share of ministers (%)		Share of members of parliament (%)		Share of members of regional assemblies (%)		Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or boards of directors (%)		Share of members of highest decision-making bodies of the 10 most popular national Olympic sports organisations (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU-27	**35.1**	**64.9**	**33.4**	**66.6**	**32.0**	**68.0**	**34.5**	**65.5**	**23.2**	**76.8**
BE	55.0	45.0	42.9	57.1	45.9	54.1	37.7	62.3	21.9	78.1
BG	36.4	63.6	25.2	74.8	28.0	72.0	18.0	82.0	19.5	80.5
CZ	8.5	91.5	23.9	76.1	22.2	77.8	27.3	72.7	10.4	89.6
DK	35.1	64.9	44.6	55.4	49.0	51.0	42.7	57.3	26.3	73.8
DE	48.3	51.7	35.7	64.3	33.3	66.7	39.3	60.7	22.2	77.8
EE	43.4	56.6	29.2	70.8	28.9	71.1	13.8	86.2	16.0	84.0
IE	28.6	71.4	27.9	72.1	25.9	74.1	40.9	59.1	40.9	59.1
EL	24.8	75.2	23.0	77.0	25.8	74.2	27.2	72.8	15.0	85.0
ES	44.9	55.1	43.6	56.4	46.9	53.1	41.1	58.9	38.1	61.9
FR	51.0	49.0	36.7	63.3	49.8	50.2	47.2	52.8	39.1	60.9
HR	16.2	83.8	34.1	65.9	29.9	70.1	26.5	73.5	8.8	91.2
IT	30.2	69.8	33.7	66.3	27.2	72.8	44.2	55.8	27.6	72.4
CY	16.7	83.3	14.3	85.7	20.8	79.2	10.5	89.5	10.7	89.3
LV	40.9	59.1	30.8	69.3	18.8	81.3	25.6	74.4	21.5	78.5
LT	43.5	56.5	29.9	70.1	32.3	67.7	27.7	72.3	22.7	77.3
LU	33.3	66.7	34.2	65.8	31.4	68.6	23.1	76.9	25.7	74.3
HU	0.0	100.0	14.3	85.7	16.2	83.8	10.5	89.5	16.8	83.2

Member State	Political						Economic		Social	
	Share of ministers (%)		Share of members of parliament (%)		Share of members of regional assemblies (%)		Share of members of boards in largest quoted companies, supervisory board or boards of directors (%)		Share of members of highest decision-making bodies of the 10 most popular national Olympic sports organisations (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
MT	17.3	82.7	27.8	72.2	26.3	73.7	17.0	83.0	18.8	81.2
NL	44.2	55.8	40.1	59.9	38.5	61.5	42.0	58.0	35.1	64.9
AT	44.9	55.1	41.5	58.5	36.0	64.0	34.6	65.4	16.5	83.5
PL	29.1	70.9	28.7	71.3	29.2	70.8	23.4	76.6	9.6	90.4
PT	38.1	61.9	35.4	64.6	34.6	65.4	34.7	65.3	19.0	81.0
RO	30.0	70.0	19.4	80.6	21.9	78.1	24.8	75.2	18.8	81.2
SI	40.5	59.5	30.4	69.6	33.8	66.2	24.5	75.5	7.8	92.2
SK	14.3	85.7	23.0	77.0	16.9	83.1	25.3	74.7	16.2	83.8
FI	62.0	38.0	46.8	53.3	47.4	52.6	37.9	62.1	33.7	66.3
SE	45.8	54.2	46.5	53.5	48.2	51.8	37.5	62.5	50.5	49.5
	Notes: Data for national governments includes junior ministers and senior ministers. The data is an annual average of quarterly data. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Gender Statistics Database, WMID, 2024.		Notes: Data for national parliaments includes both houses. The data is an annual average of quarterly data. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Gender Statistics Database, WMID, 2024.		*NB:* Local-level data is used for Bulgaria, Estonia, Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovenia. *Source:* EIGE's calculations based on Gender Statistics Database, WMID, 2024.		*NB:* The data is an annual average of biannual data. *Source:* EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID, 2024.		*Source:* EIGE, Gender Statistics Database, WMID, 2024.	

Table 31: Indicators of domain of health

Member State	Status								Behaviour							
	Self-perceived health, good or very good, age group 16 and above (%)				Healthy life years at 65 as percentage of total life expectancy, age group 65 and above (%)				People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking, age group 16 and above (%)				People doing physical activities and/ or consuming fruit and vegetables, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
EU-27	**66.0**	**71.0**	**68.4**	**– 5**	**44.0**	**50.3**	**46.6**	**– 6**	**72.7**	**55.6**	**64.6**	**17**	**37.6**	**42.6**	**40.0**	**– 5**
BE	72.6	76.6	74.6	– 4	53.0	58.8	55.4	– 6	71.8	50.9	61.6	21	37.0	41.1	38.9	– 4
BG	62.0	69.7	65.6	– 8	63.7	71.2	66.7	– 7	69.6	47.4	59.1	23	11.3	19.8	15.3	– 9
CZ	64.1	68.6	66.3	– 5	38.3	44.5	40.8	– 7	69.6	50.4	60.2	20	26.7	33.4	30.0	– 6
DK	67.1	69.1	68.1	– 2	48.5	51.6	49.8	– 3	61.5	43.0	52.4	19	66.1	59.7	62.9	6
DE	62.9	66.5	64.6	– 4	42.6	46.8	44.5	– 4	61.0	43.5	52.4	17	51.8	54.6	53.2	– 3
EE	55.5	60.4	57.7	– 4	37.5	42.9	39.4	– 5	78.5	54.7	67.5	24	34.5	35.1	34.8	0
IE	79.6	80.3	79.9	0	54.0	59.2	56.5	– 5	69.0	59.3	64.2	10	55.9	55.4	55.7	1
EL	75.5	81.0	78.2	– 5	38.2	43.6	40.5	– 6	75.9	58.8	67.8	17	24.5	31.5	27.9	– 7
ES	67.3	73.1	70.1	– 6	42.8	52.0	46.7	– 9	78.5	69.3	74.0	10	38.2	46.6	42.3	– 9
FR	63.6	69.0	66.2	– 5	50.7	52.7	51.4	– 2	72.3	55.5	64.3	16	38.2	43.5	40.7	– 6
HR	64.4	69.9	67.0	– 6	29.9	38.4	33.3	– 8	70.5	55.2	64.0	16	25.2	29.9	27.2	– 5
IT	73.0	78.1	75.4	– 5	47.5	55.6	51.1	– 8	80.3	68.7	74.8	11	24.8	29.8	27.2	– 5
CY	74.5	75.8	75.2	– 1	39.2	42.1	40.6	– 3	84.1	59.8	72.3	24	24.4	31.4	27.8	– 7
LV	45.7	53.2	49.0	– 7	25.8	31.5	27.6	– 6	79.4	49.5	66.1	29	22.7	27.4	24.8	– 4
LT	44.8	54.5	48.9	– 10	37.3	45.6	40.1	– 9	82.4	51.7	68.4	30	31.2	33.7	32.3	– 3
LU	72.9	73.2	73.0	0	44.1	49.3	46.8	– 5	67.2	46.5	56.8	20	49.1	52.8	51.0	– 4
HU	61.7	67.7	64.6	– 6	41.9	48.7	44.6	– 7	71.9	56.6	64.6	15	34.6	38.9	36.6	– 4
MT	75.0	82.7	79.2	– 8	53.9	66.5	59.4	– 13	73.5	58.2	65.6	16	21.7	21.9	21.8	0

Member State	Status								Behaviour							
	Self-perceived health, good or very good, age group 16 and above (%)				Healthy life years at 65 as percentage of total life expectancy, age group 65 and above (%)				People who don't smoke and are not involved in harmful drinking, age group 16 and above (%)				People doing physical activities and/ or consuming fruit and vegetables, age group 16 and above (%)			
	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap	Women	Men	Total	Gap
NL	68.6	71.1	69.9	– 2	43.0	48.6	45.6	– 6	75.5	57.5	66.6	18	70.7	73.9	72.3	– 3
AT	66.3	69.1	67.7	– 3	43.4	50.3	46.4	– 7	70.7	56.1	63.6	15	44.5	47.7	46.0	– 3
PL	61.5	67.4	64.2	– 5	44.5	50.6	46.6	– 6	75.9	55.6	67.8	20	24.3	27.1	25.5	– 3
PT	50.0	57.6	53.6	– 8	34.2	47.5	39.6	– 14	83.0	62.0	73.3	21	26.3	29.7	27.9	– 4
RO	72.0	79.3	75.5	– 7	19.8	28.5	23.2	– 9	73.0	35.2	54.8	38	6.2	14.0	10.0	– 8
SI	63.3	69.3	66.3	– 6	55.9	58.1	56.8	– 2	68.1	54.0	61.1	14	31.3	38.8	35.1	– 8
SK	64.0	69.6	66.7	– 6	26.2	28.9	27.2	– 3	76.5	56.2	66.7	21	31.0	40.6	35.7	– 10
FI	65.9	67.0	66.5	– 1	44.4	49.8	46.8	– 6	69.9	45.7	58.4	24	75.1	72.9	74.1	2
SE	64.6	68.5	66.5	– 4	64.4	68.1	66.2	– 4	80.3	64.9	72.6	15	60.3	57.4	58.8	3
	Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (hlth_silc_01), 2024.				*NB:* 2022 data for Luxembourg. *Source:* Eurostat, mortality data (hlth_hlye), 2023.				*NB:* 2014 data for Finland. *Source:* Eurostat calculations based on Eurostat, EHIS, 2019 data.				*Source:* Eurostat calculations based on Eurostat, EHIS, 2019 data.			

Annex 4. Gender Equality Index: conceptual and measurement frameworks at a glance

The Gender Equality Index is a unique measurement tool that condenses the complexity of gender equality as a multidimensional concept into a user-friendly and easily interpretable measure. Its computation builds on the internationally recognised methodology for constructing composite indicators, developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (OECD et al., 2008).

The development of a conceptual framework was the first step in defining the structure of the Gender Equality Index and identifying what should be measured. Based on this framework, the measurement model was designed, which included selecting indicators to capture the theoretically defined concepts, creating a metric to calculate gender gaps and developing the methodology to aggregate results at the subdomain, domain and overall Index levels, both for each Member State and for the EU as a whole.

The Index was first launched in 2013 (EIGE, 2013, 2017c). In 2025, it underwent an in-depth review that followed the same methodological steps as those originally applied. These steps are summarised in this annex and will be described in detail in a forthcoming methodological report. To ensure comparability over time, past values have been recalculated according to the updated methodology, resulting in a single, internally consistent time series. The previous series has been discontinued and will no longer be updated. Consequently, values within the new series are directly comparable (e.g. 2025 versus recalculated 2020), while comparisons with scores and rankings published under the old methodology are not valid.

Conceptual framework

The selection of domains for the Gender Equality Index was informed by in-depth reviews of key gender equality policy documents at both the EU and international levels, theoretical frameworks of equality, relevant academic literature and consultations with EIGE's stakeholders. The Index is composed of six core domains – work, money, knowledge, time, power and health – combined into a single measure. In addition, two supplementary domains, intersecting inequalities and violence, are conceptually linked to gender equality but are excluded from the core Index, as they capture phenomena that apply only to specific groups of the population. This is the case, for instance, with gender-based violence against women, or with gender gaps among particular population groups, such as people with disabilities or single parents. Each domain is further divided into subdomains.

Work. The experiences of women and men in the labour market remain markedly different. Women are less likely to participate in paid employment and more likely to work part-time than men (EIGE, 2021b). They are also concentrated in sectors such as education and health, while remaining under-represented in STEM. The domain also addresses the quality of work, highlighting that women are disproportionately employed in non-standard or precarious jobs. Such positions

typically offer fewer training and promotion opportunities, reinforcing patterns of occupational segregation (EIGE, 2018).

Money. This domain captures differences in financial resources and economic situations between women and men. Financial resources include earnings and other income sources, such as pensions. Women generally have lower incomes than men, which undermines their financial independence and increases their risk of poverty across the life course (EIGE, 2019b, 2024a).

Knowledge. Gender gaps in education have shifted over time. Today, young women are more likely than young men to complete upper secondary education and to graduate from university. Nevertheless, patterns of segregation remain entrenched: women continue to be under-represented in STEM fields, while men are under-represented in health, education and welfare studies (EIGE, 2018). These divisions perpetuate unequal opportunities in the labour market.

Time. This domain examines how women and men allocate time between paid work, care and social activities. Although women's participation in the labour market has increased substantially, this has not been matched by men's greater involvement in unpaid care (EIGE, 2021b). Reductions in gender gaps in unpaid care largely reflect women doing less, not men doing more. As a result, women face fewer opportunities to engage in other activities, such as cultural, civic or social participation.

Power. Gender equality is significantly shaped by women's limited presence in decision-making. Large disparities remain across political institutions, corporate boards and civil-society organisations, leading to what has been described as a democratic deficit in the EU (EIGE, 2024b, 2025c). The under-representation of women in leadership across both political and economic spheres undermines balanced participation in decision-making processes.

Health. Differences in health status and behaviour between women and men are shaped by both biological and social factors. Women generally live longer than men, but they spend fewer years in good health. Men, meanwhile, face greater risks of violent death, road accidents, smoking, alcohol consumption and unsafe sexual practices. These differences highlight the need to consider gender both as a determinant of health outcomes and as a factor shaping behaviours (EIGE, 2021a; WHO, 2021).

Intersecting inequalities. This additional domain acknowledges that women and men are not homogeneous groups. It examines how characteristics such as age, race, family status, education, disability or migration background intersect with gender to shape inequalities (EIGE, 2019a). For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, young women and men, as well as single parents, predominantly mothers, were among the groups most severely affected by job losses (EIGE, 2022b). Although crucial, this domain is excluded from the final Index score due to its specific nature.

Violence. The second additional domain addresses gender-based violence against women. Conceptually, violence represents the most extreme expression of structural gender inequalities, rooted in disparities across work, health, money, power, education and care. Statistically, it differs from the core domains: while they compare the situations of women and men, the violence domain focuses solely on women's experiences. The goal is therefore not to measure gender gaps but to

monitor the phenomenon of violence against women and support its eradication. The full measurement framework of violence against women is presented in the 2017 Gender Equality Index. The measurement framework of violence against women (EIGE, 2017b) and steps taken to update the composite measure of violence in 2024 are described in Annex 5.

Measurement framework

The calculation of the Gender Equality Index follows a structured process consisting of the following main steps.

Step 1: selection of indicators

Indicators are chosen to populate the six conceptually defined core domains, based on theoretical foundations and a review of comparable statistical sources available at the EU level. The current Index is composed of 27 outcome-based, individual-level indicators. These are organised into 13 subdomains, which are in turn grouped into the six core domains of the Index (Annex 1).

Step 2: processing indicators

Once selected, indicators are standardised to ensure they measure gender equality in a consistent manner. All indicators must be expressed in a positive direction, meaning that higher values indicate greater gender equality and movement towards EU targets or a desirable situation ([51]).

Moreover, all indicators are expressed in relative terms, using the closest reference population to allow comparability across populations of different sizes and structures ([52]).

Step 3: calculating the gender gap metric

The Index measures gender gaps by comparing the relative positions of women and men in a symmetrical way. A disadvantage for women (e.g. lower earnings) is treated in the same way as a disadvantage for men (e.g. lower attainment in tertiary education). The gender gap is calculated as follows:

$$gender\ gap = \begin{cases} \dfrac{\text{men} - \text{women}}{\text{men}} & if\ women \leq men \\ \dfrac{\text{women} - \text{men}}{\text{women}} & if\ women > men \end{cases}$$

([51]) For example, variables measuring 'participation in tertiary education' or 'healthy life years' have a positive direction, as it is desirable to increase educational attainment or to live a long and healthy life. By contrast, the variable measuring 'being at risk of in-work poverty' implies a negative sign or interpretation, which means that, for the Index, the indicator was reversed to 'not being at risk of in-work poverty'.

([52]) For example, the indicator measuring the share of members of national parliaments was calculated as the percentage of women in parliaments among the population in each Member State aged 18 years and older (closest reference population).

An equivalent formulation is:

$$gender\ gap = 1 - \frac{\min\ (women, men)}{\max\ (women, men)}$$

The resulting values are bounded between 0 and 1, where 0 represents full equality and 1 represents maximum inequality. For interpretability, the values are reversed by taking the complement, so that 1 represents full equality and 0 represents full inequality.

Step 4: aggregating at the subdomain, domain and Index levels

In the final step, gender gaps are aggregated according to the Index structure. Within each subdomain, the arithmetic mean of the gaps is calculated with equal weights, producing a subdomain score. Subdomains are then aggregated at the domain level using the geometric mean, again with equal weights. Finally, the six domain scores are aggregated into the overall Gender Equality Index using a weighted geometric mean.

Domain weights were obtained through an online survey conducted in the last quarter of 2024, which gathered responses from 125 EIGE stakeholders. Weights were derived using the analytic hierarchy process (Table 32), a structured method based on expert judgement. Experts compared the importance of each domain with every other domain in pairs (e.g. 'Is work more important than health, and by how much?'). These comparisons were organised into a matrix and processed into a consistent set of weights. This ensures that the final weights reflect expert knowledge and policy priorities.

Table 32: Mean experts' weights used for the Gender Equality Index (rounded)

Work	Money	Knowledge	Time	Power	Health
0.16	0.18	0.13	0.19	0.18	0.16

The Gender Equality Index takes a value of 0–100, where a value of 100 represents complete gender equality and 0 represents full gender inequality. Its formulation is:

$$I_i^t = \prod_{d=1}^{6} \left\{ \prod_{s=1}^{ns_d} \left[\sum_{v=1}^{n_s} \frac{\Gamma(X_{ivt})}{n_s} \right]^{\frac{1}{ns_d}} \right\}^{w_{AHP_d}}$$

$i = 1,\ldots,27$
$d = 1,\ldots,6$
$s = 1,\ldots,13$
$v = 1,\ldots,27$
$n_s =$ number of indicators in the subdomains
$n_{sd} =$ number of subdomains in the domain d
$W_{AHPd} \in [0,1]$

Annex 5. Methodological note on the composite measure for violence against women

This annex sets out the calculation for the composite measure for violence against women as it included in the conceptual framework of the Gender Equality Index. A more detailed explanation of the conceptual framework of the composite indicator on violence against women is included in the 2017 methodological report (EIGE, 2017c).

The indicators included in the composite measure developed in 2017 were selected according to the same specific criteria applied to the indicators of the Gender Equality Index (individual-level, outcome-based indicators with no more than 10 % of values missing). In addition, the selection reflected the main forms of violence: first, those for which comparable and valid data is available; second, those that potentially concern all women in the general population; third, those whose inclusion does not decrease the meaningfulness of the composite measure; fourth, those that are widely criminalised; and fifth, those for which the comparison of data between Member States is possible.

To ensure the highest statistical robustness of the composite measure, the number of variables was limited to the minimum.

In 2024, with data from the EU-GBV Survey (2021) ([53]) becoming available for all Member States, an update to the composite measure of violence became possible. Due to slight differences in methodologies between the 2012 FRA EU-wide survey on violence against women and the 2021 EU-GBV Survey, several slight changes to the variables had to be introduced. These differences are mentioned in Table 33.

([53]) The EU-GBV Survey (2021 wave) includes results covering the 27 Member States. In total, the estimated EU-27 average results are based on data collected from 114 023 women (18–74 years of age) across the EU. The data collection took place between September 2020 and March 2024. Eurostat coordinated the data collection in 18 Member States, and the national statistical authorities of these Member States carried out the survey. Italy agreed to share the data from its national survey to provide comparable data for the main indicators. For the remaining eight Member States, FRA and EIGE took responsibility for the data collection following the Eurostat methodological manual. For more details on the survey methodology, see the survey metadata, available here: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/gbv_sims.htm.

Table 33: Indicators of the composite measure for violence against women and changes since the 2017 edition

Subdomain	Indicators and data source used in 2024	Denominator	Differences from the 2017 edition
Prevalence	Percentage of women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15 (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave, Eurostat (gbv_any_type)	All respondents (aged 18–74)	Physical and sexual violence includes threats
	Percentage of women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator in the past 12 months (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave, Eurostat (gbv_any_occ)	All respondents (aged 18–74)	
	Percentage of women victims of intentional homicide by a current or former partner or family member, per 100 000 inhabitants; Eurostat (crim_hom_vrel)	100 000 inhabitants	No difference
Severity	Percentage of women having experienced health-related consequences of physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15 (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave, Eurostat (gbv_any_cnq)	Respondents having experienced physical and/or sexual violence since age 15 (among those aged 18–74)	Psychological health consequences are captured only for cases of repeated violence
	Percentage of women having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave, Eurostat (gbv_any_cnq)	Respondents having experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months (among those aged 18–74)	
	Percentage of women having experienced violence from several types of perpetrators (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave (microdata calculations)	Respondents having experienced physical and/or sexual violence (among those aged 18–74)	Types of perpetrators are categorised differently
Disclosure	Percentage of women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15 and not told anyone (among those aged 18–74); EU-GBV Survey, 2021 wave, Eurostat (gbv_any_rp)	Respondents having experienced physical and/or sexual violence since age 15 (among those aged 18–74)	Timeframe is 'since the age of 15' compared with 'in the past 12 months' in the 2017 edition

Source: Authors' own.

The variable on the disclosure of current physical and sexual violence had to be excluded from the calculations and was replaced by disclosure of lifetime physical and sexual violence.

The computing of the composite measure was done similarly to the 2017 edition (EIGE, 2017c, p. 26). Variables within each subdomain were aggregated using an arithmetic mean. Then subdomain values were aggregated using an arithmetic mean. No weights were applied. The same metric was used and is included below.

For indicators:

$$\Gamma_{(X_i)} = 1 + 99 \cdot [\Upsilon_{(X_i)}]$$

For the composite measure:

$$I_i^{violence\ against\ women} = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{3}\left(\sum_{v=1}^{n_s}\frac{\Gamma(X_{iv})}{n_s}\right)}{s}$$

$i = 1,\ldots,27$
$v = 1,\ldots,7$
$s = 1,\ldots,3$
$n_s = \text{number of indicators in the subdomains}$

Due to data quality issues, especially with regard to unreliable data and missing data for certain variables, and in light of the quality criteria of a maximum of 10 % for missing values, the composite measure could only be calculated for 12 Member States (Section 9.1).

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