

Gender

Every three years the Commission is required to report to Parliament on the progress that society is making towards a more equal society that respects and promotes human rights and good relations. *How Fair is Britain?* is the first such review was published on 11th October 2010. This first Review focuses primarily on equalities. Many issues of relevance to human rights and good relations are covered but follow-on reviews on human rights and good relations will be published in 2011 and 2012 respectively.

The Review presents evidence for people who share common characteristics, which are: age, gender, disability, ethnicity, religion or belief, sexual orientation and transgender status, against a set of equality indicators across 8 different areas: life, physical and legal security, health, education, employment, standard of living, care and support and power and voice.¹ The Review gives the best available data to show how these different groups fare in relation to the indicators.

Gender profiles in Great Britain, England, Scotland and Wales

Across Great Britain, in all three nations, women constitute just over half the population because there are more women in older age groups than men. Men outnumber women to the 25-34- year-old band but thereafter women outnumber men² - see Appendix 3: *Equality groups*, Box A3.4.1

'How Fair is Britain?' - Main challenges and significant findings

Having amassed the evidence against the equality indicators in 'How Fair is Britain?', to conclude, the Commission carried out a simple analysis to identify which out of all the different challenges and inequalities in modern society, are the most significant and the most urgently in need of resolution.³

In this paper we have set out the evidence for gender that relates to these significant challenges.

Society should aim to eliminate the effect of socio-economic background on health and life expectancy. It is a significant challenge to:

- **Close the differences in health and life expectancy between the highest and the lowest socio-economic groups.**

To examine this challenge, we draw on the following indicators from *How Fair is Britain?*: life expectancy; suicide; accidental death; mortal illness (deaths from cardiovascular diseases and cancer); 'poor' health and limiting long-term illness or disability and 'poor' mental health

¹ Alkire, S., Bastagli, F., Burchardt, T., Clark, D., Holder, H., Ibrahim, S., Munoz, M., Terrazas, P., Tsang, T. and Vizard, P. 2009. *Developing the Equality Measurement Framework: selecting the indicators*. Research Report 31. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission.

² Equality and Human Rights Commission calculations from ONS, 2010, Mid-2009 population estimates for UK, England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Published 24 June 2010.

³ For more information about the analysis please see Equality and Human Rights Commission. 2010. *How Fair is Britain?* Chapter 17: An agenda for fairness. Page 657

In relation to gender some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- The gap in life expectancy between women and men
- That three times as many men as women commit suicide, and rates are particularly high for younger men aged 25-44
- That women are more likely to report potential problems with mental health, but under-reporting may mean that levels of mental health problems for men are higher than they appear

The evidence within *How Fair is Britain?* demonstrates the close association between poor health and poorer socio-economic circumstances. People who earn less, are in less-skilled employment or who live in more deprived areas experience poorer life expectancy and overall health, including mental health. For example, the gap in life expectancy at birth between the top and bottom socio-economic groups is approximately 7 years between social class 1 (professional) and social class 5 (partly skilled) - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 1: *What we know about life expectancy*. 'Poor' health, rates of LLTI/disability and 'poor' mental health are also all associated variously with manual and low skilled professions, low income and neighbourhood deprivation - see Chapter 9: Health, Indicators 1 and 2: *What we know about 'poor' health and limiting long-term illness or disability*

and *What we know about 'poor' mental health*.

Across Britain, women are more likely to be in a poor socio-economic position. For example, a higher proportion of women than men earn less than 60% of the median hourly wage - see Chapter 12: Standard of living, Indicator 2: *What we know about low pay and low income*. Therefore it may be expected that women are more likely to experience poor health outcomes – this is certainly the case for some indicators, and the evidence is set out below. However poorer men are also much more likely to be less healthy, and likely to live a shorter life. There are also many factors that affect the extent to which men report poor health, disguising many health issues for men.

Life Expectancy

Women on average live longer than men. However, some groups of women experience particularly high mortality rates. For example, Black African women who are asylum seekers are estimated to have a mortality rate 7 times higher than for White women - partly due to problems in accessing maternal healthcare - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 1: *What we know about life expectancy*, Box 6.1.1⁴

The poorer outcomes for men in terms of life expectancy are worsened by socio-economic circumstances. A woman from social class 1 (professional) can expect to live 5 years longer than a man in the same class, but nearly 12 and a half years longer than a man from social class 5 (partly skilled), whereas a man in social class 1 will live 4 years longer than a man from social class 5 - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 1: *What we know about life expectancy*, Tables: 6.1.1 and 6.1.2

⁴ Aspinall, P. and Watters, C. 2010. Refugees and asylum seekers: A review from an equality and human rights perspective. Research Report 52. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission.

Suicide

Looking at particular causes of mortality, men are more likely to commit suicide than women. Although suicide has fallen for most groups in recent years, it remains a disturbing cause of early death, especially among younger men - the rates were three times higher for men than among women in Britain in 2008. The suicide rate in Scotland is higher than that in England and Wales for both women and men in most age groups, and is particularly high in Scotland for men aged 25-34 and 35-44. The suicide rate rises for men in older age groups (75+) in England and Wales - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 3: *What we know about suicide*.

Accidental death

Men have higher rates of accidental death than women in every age group except 85+, and, linked to this difference almost all people killed at work are men: only four fatalities out of 129 at work in 2008/09 were women⁵ - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 4: *What we know about accidental death* and Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 4: *What we know about illness and injury at work*.

The risk of accidental death rises rapidly in very old age for both men and women. Because of women's longer life expectancy, a higher number of older women than older men die from accidents - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 4: *What we know about accidental death*.

Mortal illness

The leading cause of death for both women and men in Great Britain is coronary heart disease or, Ischaemic Heart Disease (IHD).

For both men and women, advancing age affects the number of deaths from ischaemic heart disease and cerebrovascular disease such as stroke (CBD) - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 2: *What we know about mortal illness*.

Men continue to experience higher numbers of cancer-related deaths overall than women: in England and Wales in 2008, the overall cancer mortality rate was 206 per 100,000 for men and 150 per 100,000 for women. The cancer mortality rate is higher in Scotland: in 2008, the rate for men was 309 per 100,000 and 283 per 100,000 for women.

The rates between the genders vary for different age groups: women experience higher rates than men between 25-44 years of age, after 55 years, men's rates are higher than women's - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 2: *What we know about mortal illness*, Table 6.2.

'Poor' health and limiting long-term illness (LLTI) or disability

⁵ Health and Safety Executive. Reporting of Injuries, Diseases and Dangerous Occurrences Regulations 1995. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/tables/agegen2.htm> Accessed 27/08/2010

There are no clear patterns of difference in reporting 'poor' health between the genders. However, because women live longer than men, this may mean that for women, a portion of these years are spent in ill health - particularly in later years.⁶ This is borne out in results from the 2008 Health Survey for England, which show that women's level of reported LLTI was significantly higher than men's: 22% of men and 25% of women aged 16+ reported having at least one LLTI or disability. Similar patterns are shown in the Scottish Health Survey, where 23% of men and 28% of women reported an LLTI and in the Welsh Health Survey, where 26% of men and 29% of women reported an LLTI⁷ - see Chapter 9: Health, Indicator 1: *What we know about 'poor' health and limiting long-term illness or disability.*

According to Census data, Bangladeshi and Pakistani women have the highest rate of reported LLTI or disability, as 25% reported of this group reported having 'LLTI or disability', compared to 15% for all ethnic groups.

'Poor' mental health

Women are more likely than men to have scores that indicate possible mental health conditions in the General Health Questionnaire (i.e. a score of 4 or more), but there is little consistency in the pattern across age groups - see Chapter 9: Health, Indicator 2: *What we know about poor mental health*, Table 9.1.1, 9.1.2 and 9.1.3.

However, there are clear gender differences once specific disorders are examined. Anxiety, depression and eating disorders are more commonly reported among women and there are particular concerns around the risk of domestic and sexual violence and its links to poor mental and physical health⁸ see Chapter 9: Health, Indicator 2: *What we know about 'poor' mental health.*; substance misuse and anti-social personality disorders are more commonly reported among men⁹ - see chapter 9: Health, Indicator 2: *What we know about 'poor' mental health.*

For men, there are particular concerns around the under-diagnosis, and therefore lack of treatment for mental health conditions. These are believed to account, at least in part, for the much higher risk to men of becoming homeless or being imprisoned.

Overall there is a strong correlation between gender and socio-economic profile, where women in the poorest 5th of the population are more than twice as likely to have a score of 4 or more than those in the richest 5th. For men, the difference is almost three-times- see Chapter 9: Health, Indicator 2: *What we know about poor mental health.*

In Scotland, women also have higher rates of self reported 'poor mental health' with 12% of men and 17% of women obtaining GHQ-12 scores of 4 or more. The data available for Wales from the Welsh Health Survey uses a different questionnaire, but

⁶ Allmark, P., Salway, S., and Piercy, H. (eds) 2010. Life and Health: An evidence review and synthesis for the Equality and Human Rights Commission. University of Sheffield Hallam. This paper is available on the Equality and Human Rights Commission's Triennial Review web pages.

⁷ Allmark, P. et al. 2010. Chapter 8. Page 51.

⁸ Allmark, P. et al. 2010. Chapter 8. Page 57.

⁹ Allmark, P. et al. 2010. Chapter 8. Page 53.

shows a similar gender pattern, with women consistently having a lower SF-36 score than men (a lower score indicates possible problems).¹⁰

¹⁰ Allmark, P. et al. 2010. Chapter 8. Page 55.

Society should aim to ensure that every individual has the chance to learn and realise their talents to the full. It is a significant challenge to:

- **Close the performance gap in education between boys and girls.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicators from *How Fair is Britain?*: level of development at age 5, educational attainment at age 16, permanent exclusion from school and adult skills and qualifications.

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- That boys have lower levels of school attainment than girls at aged 5, 16 and degree level
- In England nearly 4 out of 5 (78%) of the total permanent exclusions were received by boys.
- Despite girls good performance in school, just under half (48%) of women aged 16-24 in England achieve functional numeracy, compared to 53% of men of the same age.

Level of development at age 5

By the age of five, girls' development is more advanced in 11 of 13 assessment scales on the Early Years Foundation Stage profile in social and emotional, as well as cognitive areas of development. The gap is greatest in writing, in which nearly three-quarters (72%) of girls but only just over half (53%) of boys, reach the expected level.

When combined with socio-economic background, the difference is even greater: only 25% of White British boys eligible for free school meals (FSM) achieved a good level of development at age 5 in 2008/09, compared to 48% White British boys not on FSM. 42% of White British girls eligible for FSM reached a good level of attainment at 5 compared to 67% not on FSM. For some ethnic groups, the rates are far lower: 9% of boys who are Travellers of Irish heritage achieved a good level of development and 22% of girls¹¹ - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 1: *What we know about level of development at age 5*.

One quarter (25%) of boys are classified as being the lowest achieving 20% of pupils (based on all 13 scales in Early Years Foundation Stage profile) compared to 15% for girls - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 1: *What we know about level of development at age 5*.

Educational attainment at age 16

These inequalities persist into young adulthood. At the age of 16 girls outperform boys. In 2009 (in England) 54% of girls achieved 5+ good GCSEs including Maths

¹¹ Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF), 2010a. Early Years Foundation Stage Profile Achievement by Pupil Characteristics, England 2008/09. Statistical First Release 03/10. Available at: http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SFR/s000911/SFR03_2010v2.pdf Accessed 23/09/10.

and English compared to 47% of boys. Girls are furthest ahead of boys in Wales (achievement rates of 51% compared to 43%),¹² and have the narrowest lead in Scotland where 50% of girls achieved the equivalent of 5+ good GCSEs compared to 46% of boys.¹³

The differences between genders persist when other characteristics are taken into account, such as eligibility for FSM and ethnicity, although differences vary between ethnicities. The largest difference in attainment at 16 were seen in 'Other Asian' and Chinese pupils, where there was a gender gap of 14 percentage points and in Black Caribbean pupils where there was a gender gap of 13 percentage points - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 3: *What we know about educational attainment at age 16*, Table 10.4.1.

Permanent exclusion from school

Being expelled from school will obviously affect children's' school performance. In 2008/09, the permanent exclusion rate for boys in England was over 3.5 times higher than that for girls. Nearly 4 out of 5 (78%) of the total permanent exclusions were received by boys.

The situation in Wales was very similar, with boys accounting for 77% of permanent exclusions (down from 83% in 2007/08). Due to the way that data are recorded in Scotland we do not know the gender difference in terms of permanent exclusions. However, the data do show that boys account for 78% of all exclusions - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 2: *What we know about permanent exclusion from school*.

Adult skills and qualifications

Women are less likely to achieve functional numeracy. Just under half (48%) of women aged 16-24 in England achieve functional numeracy, compared to 53% of men of the same age. However the gender gap has narrowed significantly over time. For those aged 55-65, only 37% of women achieved functional numeracy compared to 57% of men.

- **Reduce the level of gender segregation in education.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicators/issues from *How Fair is Britain?*: subject segregation at age 16, participation in higher education and adult skills and qualifications

In relation to gender, some of the most severe detriment appear to be:

- Girls and women tend to be under-represented in some courses of study (such as engineering and physical science).
- A higher proportion of women attended Higher Educational establishments (non-vocational institutions that have yet to be awarded university status), whilst men were more likely to attend a Russell Group university.

¹² Welsh Assembly Government, 2010b. Examination Results in Wales, 2008/09 (Revised). Statistics for Wales. First Release SDR 188/2009(R). Available at: <http://wales.gov.uk/docs/statistics/2010/100514sdr1882009ren.pdf> Accessed 04/08/10.

¹³ DCSF 2010a

Subject segregation at age 16

Patterns of participation in vocational education and training strongly influence career choices and later income profile. There are differences in the routes taken by boys and girls. For example, in 2008/09 half of all apprenticeships in England were taken by women. However, they comprised over 9 in 10 apprenticeships in the children's care, business administration and hairdressing sectors, but less than 1 in 30 of those in construction or engineering. The Scottish data follow very similar patterns; due to different sector framework groupings, the data in Wales are not directly comparable but still demonstrate gender segregation - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 4: *What we know about educational attainment at age 16*, Box 10.4.1

Participation in higher education

Girls are more likely to attend university than boys. They accounted for 58% of students in 2009 on their first degree course - a pattern broadly unchanged since 2003/04. However, there is continued subject segregation – in 2008/09 women made up 48% of first degree students studying Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths (STEM) subjects despite comprising more than half of students on their first degree overall.

In 2008/09, subject areas with a high proportion of women included subjects allied to medicine (80%), veterinary science (76%), education (76%) and languages (68%). Subject areas with a high proportion of men included engineering and technology (84%), computer science (81%) and architecture, building and planning (69%)¹⁴ - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 5: *What we know about participation in higher education*.

Women dominate part-time study, with two-thirds (61%) of all part-time students being women.¹⁵

Women and men have different experiences and outcomes when studying for their first degree: of first degree qualifiers in 2008/09, more women than men obtained first or upper second class degrees (64%) compared to men (59%).¹⁶

The National Equality Panel (2010) analysis of university students who graduated in 2002/03 found that a higher proportion of women attended Higher Educational Establishments (non-vocational institutions that have yet to be awarded university status), whilst men were more likely to attend a Russell Group university - see Chapter 10: Education, Indicator 5: *What we know about participation in higher education*, Box 10.5.1

Society should give every person the opportunity to play a part in strengthening Britain's economy. It is a significant challenge to:

- **Close the gender pay gap faster and further.**

¹⁴ Higher Education Statistics Authority (HESA), 2010. Students in Higher Education Institutions 2008/09. Cheltenham: HESA.

¹⁵ HESA 2010.

¹⁶ HESA. Student Record 2008/09 supplied by the Department for Education.

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicators from *How Fair is Britain?: Pay gap (between genders), employment rates, unpaid care responsibilities, occupational segregation.*

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- In Britain, women occupy 77% of administration and secretarial posts but only 6% of engineering roles; they make up 14% of architects, planners and surveyors. 83% of people employed in personal services are women.
- At age 40, men are earning on average a salary that is 27% higher than that of women.
- Between 2004 and 2007, White British women experienced a pay gap of 16% compared to men. The gap was 21% for Black African women and 26% for Pakistani women.

Pay gap

The gender pay gap (as measured by median hourly pay excluding overtime) narrowed between 2008 and 2009. The gender pay gap for all employees decreased to 22% in 2009 from 22.5% in 2008. The full-time gender pay gap fell from 12.6% in 2008 to 12.2% in 2009. The part-time gender pay gap is the difference between the pay rate of men working full-time and women working part-time. This gap fell from 39.9% in 2008 to 39.4% in 2009. However, at the same time we know that women working part-time earned 3.6% more than men working part-time in 2008, although this small premium declined to 1.9% in 2009. These overall figures are the result of a set of interrelated factors including differences in returns to work, qualifications, average hours worked, penalties at different ages, occupational segregation and trends among different ethnic groups.

Across Britain, the gender pay gap varies with age. The average earnings of most groups rise in the early part of the lifecycle and decline in the latter. However, the peak is different for women largely because of the impact of having children (women's pay peaks at 35-39 years compared to men whose pay peaks at 40-44 years).¹⁷ The full-time gender pay gap is lowest for the under 30s, but is still 5% in favour of men, then steadily grows as workers get older reaching 27% by the time workers are aged 40¹⁸ - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 2: *What do we know about pay gaps*, Figure 11.2.1.

Between 2004 and 2007, White British women experienced a pay gap of 16% (using White British Christian men as the reference group). This rose to 21% for Black African women and 26% for Pakistani women. All women, regardless of ethno-religious group, experienced large pay penalties with Chinese and Pakistani Muslim women experiencing the largest gaps¹⁹ - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 2: *What we know about pay gaps*, Table 11.2.2 and Box 11.2.2

¹⁷ Longhi, S. and Platt, L. 2008. Pay Gaps across Equalities Areas. Research Report 9 Manchester: Equalities and Human Rights Commission. This is based on an analysis of the 2004-07 LFS.

¹⁸ Hills, J. et al. 2010. Page 128.

¹⁹ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010, drawing on LFS data. Page 76.

Looking at pay gaps by religion across Britain, women consistently earn less than men (apart from Jewish women) with Muslim and Sikh women faring least well - experiencing pay gaps of 22% between 2004 and 2007²⁰ - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 2: *What we know about pay gaps*, Table 11.2.3

Employment

The pay gap between women and men is fed by continuing differences in employment rate, occupational segregation and the levels of caring responsibility between men and women. Gendered patterns in employment rates are broadly the same across Great Britain: women of all ages are significantly more likely to be in part-time employment than men and are less likely to be self-employed - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 1: *What we know about employment*.

Women with children (aged under-16) are over 4 times as likely as men with children up to the age of 16 to be economically inactive (26% compared with 6%). The figures for men and women without children show no significant difference in the rate of economic inactivity.²¹ Women aged 25-34 are also much more likely to be economically inactive, due to looking after the family or home (70% of women gave this reason compared to 10% of men in the same age group), and men are more likely to be economically inactive due to disability or long-term sickness²² - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 1: *What we know about employment*, Table 11.1.3

The patterns of young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) by gender are similar in England and Wales with younger men (16-18) slightly more likely than younger women to be NEET, and this gender pattern reversing after the age of 22. This pattern may be due to caring responsibilities - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 1: *What we know about employment*, Box 11.1.1.

Unpaid care responsibilities

According to the 2001 Census, 58% of carers are women and 42% are men, rising to 62% of women in Scotland (compared with 38% who are men), which has a knock-on impact on employment and pay levels. Both men and women who are in paid employment and care for adults are much less likely than non-carers to be in higher level jobs – almost 45% of men and 55% of women who are in paid work and caring for 20 or more hours a week are in elementary occupations (process plant and machine operative jobs) or in sales, customer services or personal services.²³ -see Chapter 13: Care and support, Indicator 3: *What we know about unpaid care responsibilities*.

Occupational segregation

Occupational segregation continues to feed pay differences. In 2009, women held just over a third (34%) of managerial positions, just over two-fifths of professional jobs, (43%) and half of associate professional jobs (50%).

²⁰ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 75.

²¹ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Table 2.2a. Page 33.

²² Leaker, D. 2009. 'Economic inactivity', *Economic and Labour Market Review*, 3, 2: 42-46.

Table 1. Available at: http://www.statistics.gov.uk/elmr/02_09/downloads/ELMR_Feb09_Leaker2.pdf. Accessed 24/09/2010.

²³ Carers UK 2009. Page 4.

The proportions of female managers, professionals and associate professionals increased by about 3 percentage points between 2002 and 2009, however traditional gender patterns persist - for example, women make up 83% of people working in personal services (such as caring and hairdressing) but just 6% of engineers; 40% of working women are employed in the public sector, compared to just 15% of men - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 3: *What we know about occupational segregation*. The large proportion of women in part-time jobs also contributes to lower rates of pay - see Chapter 11: Employment, Indicator 3: *What we know about occupational segregation*.

Society should aim to put an end to identity-based violence and harassment. It is a significant challenge to:

- **Raise the rate of rape convictions further.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicators from *How Fair is Britain?: crimes against the person, offences reported and brought to justice - rape, domestic violence and hate crime*.

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- That women experience over three-quarters of domestic violence and sexual assault
- Despite some improvements in levels of reporting, the rate of conviction for rape is lower than for similar crimes.
- In 2009/10 over a quarter of all rapes reported to the police were committed against children aged under-16: over half of all male rapes reported to the police that year were of children aged under-16.

Crimes against the person

According to data from the British Crime Survey, women in England and Wales experienced 4 times more rape (including attempts) than men during the previous 12 months in 2009/10; they experienced 8 times more rape (including attempts) since reaching the age of 16.²⁴ Similarly, data from the Scottish Crime and Justice Survey suggests that significantly more women than men have been forced to have sexual intercourse since reaching the age of 16²⁵ - see Chapter 8: Physical security, Indicator 1: *What we know about crimes against the person*.

Offences reported and brought to justice - rape, domestic violence and hate crime

Since 1997, the number of cases of rape being recorded by the police in England and Wales has risen: this not only reflects a rise in incidents, but also reflects changes in the 'counting rules' under which crimes are recorded, and to legislation on sexual offences. This increase is not matched by a rise in the number of prosecutions; between 1997 and 2006, the prosecution rate for rape fell from 30% to

²⁴ Smith, K. et al. 2010. Table 3.01.

²⁵ MacLeod, P. et al. 2009b. Table 4.1.

18% of cases reported to the police; similarly calculated, the conviction rate halved from 10% in 1997 to 5% in 2003 before rising slightly to 6% in 2006.²⁶

Despite increases in levels of reporting, there is evidence of severe under-reporting: in analysis of British Crime Survey data conducted to test the measure for the Equality Measurement Framework, it was estimated that 87,280 rapes occurred in 2007/08,²⁷ while 12,637 rapes were recorded by the police in England and Wales that year²⁸ - see Chapter 7: Legal security, Indicator 2: *What we know about offences reported and brought to justice - rape, domestic violence and hate crime.*

It is estimated that as many as 95% of cases of child sexual abuse go unreported to the police in the UK.²⁹ Despite this, the amount of police-recorded rape affecting girls aged under 13 years rose by over 70% in just 5 years to 2008/09.³⁰ In 2009/10 over a quarter of all rapes reported to the police were committed against children aged under-16: over half of all male rapes reported to the police that year were of children aged under-16 - see Chapter 8: Physical security, Indicator 1: *What we know about crimes against the person*, Figure 8.1.7

- **Reduce the rate of repeat domestic violence offences.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicators from *How Fair is Britain?:* homicide, crimes against the person and offences reported and brought to justice.

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- In 2008/09 domestic violence (including by partners, ex-partners and family members) accounted for 68% of female homicides and 15% of male homicides in England and Wales, and 53% of female homicides and 20% of male homicides in Scotland.
- Over 1 in 4 women (27%) and around one in six men (15%) have experienced some form of domestic abuse since reaching the age of 16 in England and Wales
- Domestic violence is associated with a higher rate of repeat-victimisation than any other kind of violent or acquisitive crime

Homicide

Overall most homicide victims are male - in 2008/09, 71% of homicide victims in England and Wales were male. However, while male victims are more commonly

²⁶ Walby, S., Armstrong, J. and Strid, S. 2010. Physical and Legal Security and the Criminal Justice System: A Review of Inequalities. UNESCO Chair in Gender Research Group Lancaster University. This is available on the Equality and Human Rights Commission website, Table 5.1. Note that these prosecution and conviction rates are not based on tracking cases through the criminal justice

system.

²⁷ Alkire, S. et al. 2009. See Chapter 7. Alkire et al. draw on British Crime Survey (Self-completion module) and ONS Mid-Year Population Estimates. Table 3. Available at: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=15106>. To find about The British Crime Survey figure please refer to note footnote 52, Chapter 7: Legal Security.

²⁸ Flatley, J. et al. 2010. Table 2.04.

²⁹ National Crime Intelligence Service. 2005. UK threat assessment: the threat from serious and organised crime 2004/5–2005/6. NCIS.

³⁰ Such trends need to be interpreted with caution however, because crimes reported to the police are more susceptible to changes in reporting rates than other data presented in this chapter.

killed by friends/acquaintances or strangers, female victims are far more likely to be killed by partners or ex-partners - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 5: *What we know about homicide*.

There has been a general downward trend in homicides carried out by partners or ex-partners since 2004/05 in England and Wales. However, the number of females killed by a partner or ex-partner rose above 100 for the first time in 4 years in 2008/09 – a year in which domestic violence (including by partners, ex-partners and family members) accounted for 68% of female homicides and 15% of male homicides - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 5: *What we know about homicide*, Figure 6.5.2

The situation is similar in Scotland, where domestic violence (including by family members, partners and ex-partners) accounted for 53% of female homicides and 20% of male homicides - see Chapter 6: Life, Indicator 5: *What we know about homicide*.

Crimes against the person

Over 1 in 4 women (27%) and around one in six men (15%) have experienced some form of domestic abuse since reaching the age of 16 in England and Wales.³¹ Meanwhile, 1 in 7 women in Scotland and 1 in 9 men have experienced physical partner abuse since reaching the age of 16 - see Chapter 8: Physical security, Indicator 1: *What we know about crimes against the person*.

Women were the victims of just under three-quarters (73%) of the domestic violence recorded in the 2009/10 British Crime Survey.³²

Domestic violence is associated with a higher rate of repeat-victimisation than any other kind of violent or acquisitive crime: in 2009/10, three-quarters (76%) of all incidents of domestic violence in England and Wales were repeat offences.³³ Almost half (47%) of victims experienced domestic violence on more than one occasion between 2009 and 2010, compared to 31% of victims of acquaintance violence and 16% of victims of stranger violence³⁴ - see Chapter 8: Physical security, Indicator 1: *What we know about crimes against the person*.

Offences reported and brought to justice

In all three nations, women are the victims in well over three quarters of the cases of domestic violence reported to the police- see Chapter 7: Legal security, Indicator 2: *What we know about offences reported and brought to justice*.

Despite improving conviction rates, criminal charges are only made in a proportion of cases of domestic violence and particular groups are more likely to lack access to justice. Evidence collected from small-scale studies, for example, suggest that many refugee women have difficulties in accessing justice and often suffer in silence³⁵ -

³¹ Smith, K. et al. 2010. Table 3.01.

³² Flatley, J. et al. 2010. Table 3.01. Note, however, that these data are from the full survey and not the self-completion module, and therefore are less reliable.

³³ Flatley, J. et al. 2010. Page 24.

³⁴ Flatley, J. et al. 2010. 2010. Figure 2.10.

³⁵ See Refugee Council 2009. The Vulnerable Women's Project: Refugee and

see Chapter 7: Legal security. Indicator 2: *What we know about offences reported and brought to justice.*

Similarly, many women from ethnic and religious minority groups face barriers: partly these reflect concerns of victims about the ramifications of reporting for and within their communities,³⁶ but there is also evidence of a lack of cultural sensitivity within the CJS.³⁷ Women from black and minority ethnic communities have been found to be less likely than White people to access statutory services.³⁸ - see Chapter 7: Legal security, Indicator 2: *What we know about offences reported and brought to justice.*

Barriers to justice also exist for people with disabilities who experience domestic abuse: in particular, those who feel unable to leave their home because it has been adjusted to accommodate their physical, communication, or mental health needs, or because of their dependence on their abuser, are at risk of further sexual violence and emotional or financial abuse.³⁹ In addition, those who leave their registered address risk losing their access to welfare entitlements, personal assistants and so on (i.e., their 'care' package); and only a small proportion of refugees are able to compensate. Where a victim of abuse is disabled and has children, this can create overlapping difficulties⁴⁰ - see Chapter 8: Physical security, Indicator 1: *crimes against the person*, box 8.1.3

The government includes 'honour' crimes, forced marriage and Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) within its policy on domestic violence; and in addition, the Crown Prosecution Service has specific definitions of forced marriage and 'honour' crimes-based violence that can be prosecuted separately. So far there have been no prosecutions for FGM crimes;⁴¹ there have been 182 Forced Marriage Protection Orders issued between the launch of the Forced Marriage (Civil Protection) Act in November 2008 until the end of July 2010;⁴² it is not known how many prosecutions there have been for 'honour' crimes, although the Crown Prosecution Service is now monitoring all cases;⁴³ during 2008/09, there were 219 arrests for human trafficking⁴⁴ - see Chapter 7: Legal security, Indicator 2: *What we know about offences reported and brought to justice - rape, domestic violence and hate crime*, Box 7.2.2

asylum seeking women affected by rape or sexual violence; a literature review. London: Refugee Council.

³⁶ Burman, E. 2003. 'Taking refuge? Domestic violence, "race" and asylum', *Asylum*, 13, 3.

³⁷ Chakraborti, N. and Garland, J. 2003. 'Under-researched and overlooked: an exploration of the attitudes of rural minority ethnic communities towards crime, community safety and the criminal justice system', *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 29, 3. Pages 563-572.

³⁸ Hester, M. and Westmarland, N. 2005. *Tackling Domestic Violence: effective interventions and approaches*. Home Office Research Study 290. London: Home Office.

³⁹ Women's Aid 2008. *Making the Links: Disabled women and domestic violence*. Available at: http://www.womensaid.org.uk/core/core_pickerdownload.asp?id=1481 Accessed 25/08/2010.

⁴⁰ Women's Aid 2008.

⁴¹ Crown Prosecution Service, 2009b. *Violence Against Women crime report, 2008/09*. CPS Management Information Branch.

⁴² Information supplied in private correspondence with the Home Office.

⁴³ CPS 2009b. Page 50.

⁴⁴ CPS 2009b. Page 56.

Society should aim to give more people greater personal autonomy and civic power. It is a significant challenge to:

- **Reduce the rise of the need for and cost of informal care, and to increase autonomy, choice and control for both carers and those who receive care.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicator from *How Fair is Britain?*: unpaid care responsibilities.

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- Some research suggests that women have a 50:50 chance of providing care by the time they are 59
- 58% of carers are women and 42% are men rising to 62% of carers who are women in Scotland, compared with 38% who are men.
- Men and women who are in paid employment and care for adults are much less likely than non-carers to be in higher level jobs

Unpaid care responsibilities

According to the 2001 Census, 5.2 million carers in England and Wales provide care for an adult family member or friend, including over a million who provide more than 50 hours a week.⁴⁵ Carers make up 12% of the adult population in England⁴⁶ and Scotland, and 11% in Wales.⁴⁷ Around 175,000 carers are young people under the age of 18⁴⁸ - see Chapter 13: Care and support, Indicator 3: *What we know about unpaid care responsibilities.*

One in 8 people in England provide unpaid care to adults. According to the 2001 Census, 58% of carers are women and 42% are men⁴⁹ rising to 62% of carers who are women in Scotland (compared with 38% who are men)⁵⁰ - see Chapter 13: *What we know about unpaid care responsibilities.*

Research suggests that women have a 50:50 chance of providing care by the time they are 59, compared with men who have the same chance by the time they are 75-years-old⁵¹ - see Chapter 13: Care and Support, Indicator 3: *What we know about unpaid care responsibilities.*

⁴⁵ Office for National Statistics (ONS). 2003. Carers. Available at: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/cci/nugget.asp?id=347> . Accessed 23/08/2010.

⁴⁶ NHS Information Centre for Health and Social Care 2010. Survey of Carers in Households in England 2009/10. Provisional Results. Available at: http://www.ic.nhs.uk/webfiles/publications/Social%20Care/carersurvey0910/Survey_of_Carers_in_Households_2009_10_England_Provisional_Results_post_publication.pdf Accessed 23/09/2010.

⁴⁷ Carers UK 2009. Facts about carers, citing 2001 Census. Carers UK Policy Briefing. Available at: <http://www.carersuk.org/Newsandcampaigns/Media/Factsaboutcaring> Accessed 23/09/2010.

⁴⁸ ONS 2003.

⁴⁹ ONS 2003.

⁵⁰ Scottish Executive 2003.

⁵¹ George, M. 2001. It could be you: a report on the chances of becoming a carer. Report for Carers UK. Available at: <http://www.carersni.org/Policyandpractice/Research>. Accessed 23/09/2010.

Male carers are more likely to combine caring work with paid work.⁵² 37% of male carers are in full-time employment compared with only 26% of female carers and more men than women combine full-time work with 50 or more hours of care.⁵³ Female carers are more likely to work part-time: 25% of female carers are in part-time employment compared with only 15% of male carers.

- **Close the 'power gap' in public bodies.**

In examining this challenge, we draw on the following indicator from *How Fair is Britain?*: formal political participation.

In relation to gender, some of the most severe issues appear to be:

- The percentage of women MPs is higher in many other European countries than it is in the Westminster Parliament
- Women are better represented in the Scottish Parliament and the National Assembly for Wales, making up 35% and 48% of the membership of each institution, respectively.

Formal Political Participation

The percentage of women MPs is higher in many other European countries (above 37% in Spain, Denmark, Belgium and Finland and above 40% in the Netherlands and Sweden) than it is in the Westminster Parliament.⁵⁴

The number of women MPs has risen since 1992, when the British Parliament had the lowest representation of women in Europe (at 9%, or 60 MPs). In 1997, the proportion of women MPs doubled to 18% (120 MPs) following the use of the All Women Shortlist by the Labour Party between 1993 and 1996.⁵⁵ Since then, the proportion of women MPs has risen less quickly, although Labour reintroduced the All Women Shortlist prior to the 2005 general election.

There are currently more women MPs (143) than ever before, with women making up 22% of the House of Commons since the 2010 general election. Men remain vastly over-represented, accounting for nearly 4 out of 5 MPs.⁵⁶

The most recent increase is largely due to the number of incumbents standing down: there was only a small rise in the proportion of women candidates between 2005 and 2010 (from 20% to 21%).⁵⁷

⁵² Carers UK 2009.

⁵³ Yeandle, S. et al. 2007.

⁵⁴ See European Commission (2010), Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities: Gender balance in Decision-Making. Available at:

<http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=774&langId=en>

⁵⁵ Fieldhouse, E. et al. 2010. See also: Cracknell, R. 2005. Social background of MPs. House of Commons Library Standard Note 1528. Available at:

<http://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons/lib/research/briefings/snsg-01528.pdf> Accessed 23/09/2010.

⁵⁶ Cracknell, R. 2010. General Election 2010: detailed analysis. House of Commons Briefing Paper 10/36. Section 7, page 45. Available at: <http://www.parliament.uk/briefingpapers/commons/lib/research/rp2010/RP10-036.pdf> Accessed 24/09/2010.

Women are better represented in the Scottish Parliament and the National Assembly for Wales, making up 35% and 48% of the membership of each institution, respectively.

There are large differences between the proportions of men and women councillors in all three nations. In England, the proportion of women councillors was just short of 31% in 2008 – up from 29% in 2006 (and 28% in 1997); men constituted almost 70% of councillors.⁵⁸

In Scotland and Wales men made up almost 80% of councillors in 2004 and 2007, respectively; women constituted just over 20%.⁵⁹

Some other key findings

Legal and physical security

The number of women prisoners has nearly doubled since 1995 in England and Wales, and since 2000 in Scotland: currently around 5% of prisoners are women. There is evidence that a higher proportion of women in prison have experienced domestic violence than have women in the population as a whole.

Health

Men more likely to be overweight than women. However, among Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Black African populations, women are less likely to be of normal/healthy weight than men (data available for England only).

Standard of living

60% of women reaching state pension age in 2008 were entitled to less than the full basic state pension, compared to 10% of men.

Only 1 in 40 households today are defined as overcrowded – however, female-headed households are three times as likely as average to be overcrowded.

1 in 10 people report living in polluted and grimy neighbourhoods but reports of crime, violence and vandalism are higher among many groups, including women householders with children.

⁵⁷ Cracknell, R. 2010. Section 6, page 42.

⁵⁸ NFER 2009.

⁵⁹ Maloney, W. 2008. Scotland's Councillors 2007. COSLA Research Report 2008. Edinburgh: Convention of Scottish Local Authorities. Welsh Local Government Association (WLGA) 2005. National Census of Local Authority Councillors, 2004. Cardiff: WLGA.