Scottish Government
Equality Outcomes:
Gender
Evidence Review
The views expressed in this report are those of the researcher and do not necessarily represent those of the Scottish Government or Scottish Ministers.
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1 INTRODUCTION

Purpose of this document

1.1 This paper is one of a series written to inform the development of equality outcomes for the Scottish Government. Guidance from the Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) states that a range of relevant evidence relating to equality groups and communities should be used to help set equality outcomes that are likely to make the biggest difference in tackling inequalities.

1.2 The EHRC suggests the following criteria for selecting equality outcomes:

- Scale – how many people are affected by the issue and how does the issue impact on their life chances?
- Severity – does the issue present a risk to equality of opportunity for particular protected groups? Is it a significant barrier to opportunity or freedom?
- Concern – do equality groups and communities see it as a significant issue?
- Impact – is the problem persistent or getting worse? What is the potential for improving life chances? Is the problem sensitive to public intervention?
- Remit – are you able to address the issue given your remit?

1.3 This series of papers provides evidence for some of the questions listed above – in particular, on the scale and severity of issues facing equality groups. It is intended that this evidence will feed into a process of engagement with equality groups and communities, to help develop the most relevant equality outcomes.

1.4 The papers seek to identify, very briefly, key facts and evidence gaps for the equalities groups in policy areas including: education, employment, poverty, housing, transport, hate crime, justice, public appointments, health, social care, sport, and culture.

Key facts

1.5 Education: at school, boys present more behavioural difficulties than girls, and girls generally out-perform boys - although with a gendered bias in the subjects studied. There are more female than male students in Further and Higher Education (FEHE), but again with a bias in subjects. More female than male graduates secure positive destinations after FEHE.

1.6 Employment: more women than men are unemployed (although the gap has narrowed since 2010), economically inactive (but levels have dropped back to those seen before the recession), work part-time (in proportions largely unchanged since 1984), or are unpaid carers; however, more young men than women are Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET). Women in full-time work are generally paid less than men (although the difference shrank between 2009 and 2010), and women continue to tend to cluster in caring and service professions, and in lower-grade jobs. More men than women are self-employed.
Poverty: among single-adult households – whether of working-age or pensioners – more women are in relative poverty than men, although the gap has recently narrowed. Across the adult population as a whole, however, there is no gender difference. Whilst welfare reform is expected to offer women greater incentives to move into work, the caps on benefits and housing benefit will hit women harder as they form a higher proportion of claimants.

Housing: female lone parents are more likely to rent rather than own their home, and are more likely to live in overcrowded homes. More women than men apply for homeless provision, possibly to escape domestic abuse, and more than half of young homeless households are headed by women.

Transport: women are less likely to drive than men, and more likely to use public transport – and to feel unsafe when using it. Practical difficulties of using public transport when accompanied by children are experienced particularly by women. Men cycle more than women, and have more accidents doing so.

Hate crime: men are more often the perpetrators and victims of violent crime than women. Data on violence against women include rape and domestic abuse; the latter has been on the rise since records began in 1999/2000, but it is thought that many incidents might go unreported.

Justice: men are more often stopped by the police than women, commit more crimes, and receive more custodial sentences, but the female prison population is rising. Women form the majority of applicants for civil legal aid, and men for criminal legal aid.

Public appointments: women are under-represented in public appointments, especially at Chair level. The overall proportion of women in post is in decline, although this is not uniform across all sectors.

Health: compared with women, men have a higher incidence of heart disease, stroke, diabetes, overweight and attendance at hospital Accident and Emergency departments; men also have lower life expectancy. Despite this, they are more likely to rate their health as good compared to women. Women have poorer mental health than men, and report less positive inpatient experiences.

Social care: more women than men are carers, and more women receive care – whether this is provided in their own home, or in a residential care home. More elderly women than men feel that they receive care that meets their needs.

Sport: lower rates of participation are reported for females, both for children and for adults. This is reflected in fewer women achieving recommended levels of sporting activity.
1.16 Culture: in general, women participate in a wider range of cultural activities, and more often, than men. However, more men participate in music and photography.

Gaps in the data

1.17 The data source used by the EHRC Triennial Review for school bullying cannot be disaggregated by gender.

1.18 Poverty can be analysed by gender only where households contain a single adult rather than a couple, because the data that are used to measure poverty are equivalised net income data for households. Similarly, the research on gender differences in housing tends to focus on single adults rather than couples.

1.19 Data on housing only indicate gender in the context of single-parent families, rather than the population more generally. In a similar vein, poverty data are collected by household, so splits by gender are obtained by observing single-adult households.

1.20 Relatively little research has been conducted on gender and transport in Scotland to date, and there is potential for greater analysis of the improved data on transport from the Scottish Household Survey. The limited sources of evidence for gender and transport may indicate that a broader search is required, or alternatively that gender has not been found to impact upon transport.

1.21 It is thought that the data for domestic abuse understate the actual number of incidents due to under-reporting.
2 CONTEXT

Legal definition in the Equality Act (2010)

2.1 The EHRC’s guidance for the Equality Act⁴ gives the following definition: “Sex: A man or a woman”. This appears to emphasise the physical or anatomical determination of “sex”, over social or cultural interpretations of gender or gender roles.

2.2 It should be noted that some of the data sources cited in this Evidence Review cover the whole of the UK and so are not specific to Scotland. This will be pointed out in the text.

Demography

2.3 The resident population of Scotland on Census Day (29 April 2001) was 5,062,011, of which 52% were female and 48% were male². Figure 1 shows a population pyramid for Scotland in 2009, illustrating the gender distribution of the population by age, and the greater numbers of women in the older age groups. 2011 Census demographic data will be available in 2013.

Figure 1: Estimated population by age and gender, 30 June 2009 (Source: General Register Office for Scotland)
3 SCHOOL EDUCATION

3.1 This section addresses the reported relationships between gender and school education, in terms of: behaviour, academic attainment, the choice of subjects studied, post-school destinations, and the composition of the teaching profession.

Behaviour

3.2 Since attendance at school is mandatory until age 16, the gender distribution of pupils reflects that of the population as a whole. The Gender Audit concludes that in the academic year 2004/05, boys in publicly-funded primary schools were more likely than girls to have behavioural or emotional difficulties (71% of such pupils were male in 2005) and to be excluded from school (91% of all exclusions were of male pupils in 2004/5). Overall, male pupils accounted for 78% of exclusions in 2010/11; this percentage has been stable at around 78% to 79% since 2003/04.

3.3 The EHRC Review of Research explores possible reasons that have been put forward for boys’ greater difficulties at school, based on the Gender Audit statistics reported above. It cautions that research emphasising individual factors (such as boys’ greater vulnerability to illness, or inability to engage with the increasingly feminised teaching profession) offers only a partial explanation, and that these should rather be seen in relation to the more complex social processes that shape and interact with gender - for instance class, family, neighbourhood, and peers. In its Triennial Review, the EHRC reports that permanent exclusion appears to be strongly associated with multiple deprivation in Scotland: 41% of permanent exclusions were among pupils from the 20% of areas with the highest levels of multiple deprivation in 2006, compared to just 3% among pupils from the 20% of areas associated with the lowest levels of multiple deprivation. The EHRC report does not have data for bullying disaggregated by gender.

Attainment

3.4 The Gender Audit further reports that girls are more likely than boys to stay on after the period of compulsory schooling, with approximately 7% more girls staying on for S5 and S6 in 1998 and in 2005. Girls also attain better results than boys - in 2004/05:

- In S4, 38% of female pupils achieved 5+ Awards at Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework (SCQF) level 5 or better, compared to 29% of male pupils;
- In S5, 11% of females achieved 5+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better, compared to 8% of males.
- In 2010/11, female school leavers had the highest levels of attainment with an average tariff score of 412, compared to 358 for male school leavers.

3.5 The EHRC Review of Research also gives data showing girls out-performing boys for the three academic years 2004/05, 2005/06, and 2006/07. It again
looks at possible contributory factors, including girls taking their education more seriously, and the different peer pressures that girls and boys face.

3.6 The EHRC *Triennial Review* compares performance across the UK. It finds that girls are ahead of boys in England, Scotland and Wales, which is a reversal of the situation for most of the post-war period. However, girls have the narrowest lead in Scotland, where 50% of girls achieved the comparative measure (Standard Grade awards at levels 1-3, Intermediate 2 at grades A-C, and Intermediate 1 at grade A, at age 16) compared to 46% of boys.

Subject choice

3.7 The subjects studied show a gender bias, with girls making up the majority of pupils taking administration, art, biology, home economics and psychology to SCQF level 5 in 2008, with boys dominating in economics, computing, design and physics. A similar variation persists through levels 6 and 7, with girls taking arts and social sciences, and boys taking science and technology. These preferences are supported by anecdotal evidence from Engender on the choice of subjects studied at school: “Many women in our communities of interest felt that young girls are still being encouraged to study ‘female friendly’ subjects, which lead to stereotypically female related careers” (p4).

Destinations

3.8 In 2010/11, 88.5% of female school leavers were in a positive follow-up destination compared to 86.0% of male school leavers. The *High-level summary of equality statistics* illustrates school leaver destinations (see Figure 2). Sixty% of female school leavers and 45% of male school leavers went on to full time further or higher education in 2004/05. A higher proportion of males went on to employment (31%) compared to females (22%), whilst a slightly higher proportion of males were unemployed and seeking employment or training (12%) than females (8%).
Teaching profession

3.9 The High-level summary of equality statistics also reviews the gender composition of the teaching profession (see Figure 3). Female school teachers considerably outnumber males in publicly funded primary and secondary schools. In 2004/05, female school teachers outnumbered males by a ratio of 2.9:1, and this compares to a ratio of 2.7:1 in 1999/2000. The number of male school teachers has decreased by 5% from 12,858 in 1999/00 to 12,228 in 2004/05. Conversely, the number of female school teachers has increased by 3% from 34,240 to 35,333 during this period.
3.10 In September 2011, 62% of all secondary school teachers were female; however, when broken down by grade, only 34% of secondary school head teachers are female\textsuperscript{13}. 

Figure 3: Gender composition of the teaching profession (Source: High-level summary of equality statistics)
4 FURTHER AND HIGHER EDUCATION

4.1 This section looks at the gender profile of students, the subjects studied, variations in learning patterns, and destinations; it closes with the gender structure of the workforce. Where possible, it draws comparisons between Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE).

Student gender profile

4.2 Scottish Government data for 2009/10 and 2011 show that over half of entrants to HE are female (over 55%), while there are more males undertaking Modern Apprenticeships than females (66% in training are males, 56% of new starts are males).\textsuperscript{14}

4.3 The Equality Challenge Unit (ECU)\textsuperscript{15} reports that between 2005/06 and 2010/11, there have been consistently more female students than male students studying in colleges in Scotland (see Figure 4) – note that this chart does not distinguish between HE and FE, although the report draws on data sources for both. However, the proportion of male students has increased during this time. In 2005/06, there was a gap of 15% between female and male students’ representation; this gap has more than halved to 7% in 2010/11. The current student gender ratio is 54% female to 46% male, which is the closest it has been to the national gender ratio for Scotland (52% female to 48% male) since 2005/06.

![Figure 4: Gender profile of students over time (Source: Equality Challenge Unit)](image)

Subject choice

4.4 In FE, HE and Modern Apprenticeships combined, subjects including engineering, technology, and construction are a more popular choice for
males whereas medicine, arts & crafts, health care and social work are a more popular choice for females.\textsuperscript{16}

4.5 The ECU’s 2012 report finds that in FE, male students make up the majority of those studying science, engineering and technology (SET) programmes (75%). However, they are concentrated in certain subjects, notably engineering and technology (90%), architecture, building and planning (87%) and mathematical and computing science (84%) – see Figure 5. In contrast, a higher proportion of students studying subjects allied to medicine and biological sciences are women than men (85% and 59% respectively).

4.6 At HE level, the majority of both female and male students study full-time (62% and 60%, respectively) (ECU, 2012). At FE level, 69% of women and 73% of men are in part-time study.

4.7 For both female and male students, the proportion of those studying via self-study and distance learning is higher at FE level than at HE level (ECU, 2012).

4.8 At HE level, a slightly higher proportion of female students complete their course than male students (83.1% and 82.5% respectively) (ECU, 2012). At FE level, the inverse is true: just 88.0% of female students complete their course compared with 90% of male students.
Destinations

4.9 The National Indicator data from Scotland Performs in 2012\textsuperscript{17} report that, historically, the percentage of graduates in positive destinations six months after graduating has been higher for females than for males. In recent years, the gap was generally between 5 and 8 percentage points. However, the gap decreased from 5.0 percentage points in 2009-10 to 2.1 percentage points in 2010-11.

Staff composition

4.10 Figure 6 shows the gender distribution across staff roles in Scottish FE colleges\textsuperscript{18}, with a predominance of men in managerial and technical posts, and women in non-technical support and clerical roles.

Figure 6: Staff by cross-college grade of post and gender (Source: Riddell et al (c. 2005) Equality and diversity in the further education workforce)
5 EMPLOYMENT

5.1 This section examines gender gaps in the rates of employment, unemployment, and economic inactivity; pay gaps, occupational segregation, and patterns of employment. It also touches on unpaid care work, and welfare reform.

Rates of employment

5.2 The Scottish Government’s report, *The position of Scotland’s equality groups - revisiting resilience in 2011*[^19], explains that “the strong growth in output from 2000 to the start of the recession [c. 2008] helped generate significant increases in employment levels within the Scottish economy” (p18). An additional 260,000 people secured employment in Scotland prior to the recession compared to in 2000. While there were a number of reasons behind this increase in employment, one key trend was a sustained increase in the number of women entering the Scottish labour market. By the end of 2007 there were over 100,000 more women participating in the Scottish labour market compared to the start of 2000. Figure 7 shows that in 2011, the employment rate for males was 76% and for females was 69% - a gap of 7%. This narrowing from its trend of c.10% from 2000-2007 is attributed to a faster rate of increase in female employment.

![Figure 7: Male and Female Employment Rates, Scotland and UK, 1997-2011](source: Labour Force Survey, ONS)
5.3 The EHRC’s *Review of Research* observes that part-time employment plays a significant role in women’s participation in the Scottish labour market: 41% of women in employment worked part-time in 2005, compared with 10% of men. This proportion of women is largely unchanged since 1984. The Office for National Statistics data for March 2011 – April 2012 show 48% of women employees in Scotland working part-time, compared to 16% of men.

5.4 The Scottish Government’s paper for the Women’s Employment Summit in 2012 finds that women have lower employment rates across all qualification levels than men. The gap between male and female employment rates is smallest at the highest qualification levels (SVQ levels 4 and 5) – a gap of 5 percentage points. The gap increases as the level of qualification drops, to around 20 percentage points at SVQ level 1. The gap for those with no qualifications is 10 percentage points.

5.5 The *Annual Population Survey* shows that, for all of the years 2007-2011, employment rates have been higher for men with children under 12 than for men without. In contrast, employment rates are lower for women with children under 12 than for women without.

**Rates of unemployment**

5.6 *Revisiting Resilience* reports that Scotland’s unemployment rate stood at 8.5% for males and 6.5% for females in 2011. It attributes an improvement for males during 2011 (see Figure 8) to men moving out of unemployment and inactivity into employment, while women moved out of inactivity into employment and unemployment.

![Figure 8: Male and Female Unemployment Rates, Scotland and UK, 1997-2011](Source: Labour Force Survey, ONS)
In *Who Counts*? (c. 2012), Engender identifies three barriers to women wishing to rejoin the workforce:

1. Access to flexible working arrangements. Engender point out that employees can only request flexible working arrangements after they have been in employment for 26 weeks, and that employers are not obliged to grant the request. This is seen as a barrier to mothers seeking to re-enter the workforce.

2. Affordable childcare: the report cites the Daycare Trust, “In 2011, the cost of childcare in Scotland went up by 8.3% - almost four times as much as the average wage”. The average cost of childcare is higher in Scotland than in England or Wales, and at approximately 63% of the average wage (estimated costs for five-day care for two children, relative to the average salary of £25,428) it is thought to deter half of parents from returning to full-time employment.

3. Equal pay for men and women in the public sector: the report states (without sources) that “65% of public sector workforce are women and working in the lowest paid jobs”, leading it to call for elimination of any pay gap in the public sector. In the context of access to flexible working and affordable childcare, it points out that “Any poverty strategy that relies on paid work as the main route out of poverty has to be an explicitly gendered strategy; paid work is not always appropriate or in the best interests of mothers and their children”.

The *High-level summary of equality statistics* plots the number of 16 to 19 year olds ‘Not in Employment, Education or Training’ (NEET), by gender – see Figure 9. In 2005 the total number was approximately 36,000, equating to 14% of all those aged 16 to 19 years. For males aged 16 to 19 years, the NEET proportion was 15%, compared to 14% for females aged 16 to 19 years. There has not been a marked change in the NEET proportion in any year since 1996.
Rates of economic inactivity

5.9 Economic inactivity is defined as “people [who] are not in work and do not meet the internationally agreed definition of unemployment… people without a job who have not actively sought work in the last four weeks and/or are not available to start work in the next two weeks”26. According to Revisiting Resilience, by the end of 2011 Scotland’s female inactivity rate had returned to that seen before the recession; female inactivity rates in Scotland are 2.4 percentage points lower than across the UK (Figure 10). Male inactivity rates had been on an upward trend and had been higher than the UK rate since Dec-Feb 2010. However, the inactivity rate for Scottish men decreased by 1.7 percentage points during April-June 2011, and is now equal to the UK rate of 17.0%.
The EHRC’s Review of Research reports that economic activity rates for women in Scotland have risen from 63% in 1984 to 76% in 2006, compared to 83% for men in 2006. The higher level of economic inactivity for women is commonly associated with women’s involvement in caring, while for men, the rise in economic inactivity reflects increasing participation in higher education and early retirement.

Pay gaps

In terms of pay gaps, Revisiting Resilience reports that the difference between full-time female and male hourly median earnings (excluding overtime) in Scotland was 7.2% in April 2010, down from 8.5% in 2009. The equivalent difference for the UK was 10.2% in April 2010, down from 12.2% in 2009. For part-time employees, male hourly earnings are lower than female hourly earnings. This negative pay gap reflects the fact that more women tend to work part-time, including those in professional and managerial occupations, increasing the median hourly earnings for part-time women. In 2010 male median part-time hourly earnings (excluding overtime) were £7.55 compared to £8.18 for women: this constitutes a part-time gender pay gap of -8.4% in 2010, up from -7.2% in 2009.

The EHRC’s Review of Research cites the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings’ (ASHE) explanation that as far larger numbers of women work part-time than men, and as the nature of male and female part-time work varies, a comparison of women’s part-time hourly pay with men’s full-time hourly pay offers a more meaningful comparison of pay differentials than part-
time or full-time for both. These data indicate a gender pay gap of 35% in 2008. The report cites an Equal Opportunities Commission review (2005)\textsuperscript{28} of gender equality and employment in Scotland which found that particular professional groups had markedly higher gender pay gaps. It suggests that financial services and law are particular professions where the pay gap is most pronounced, and that pay gaps grow the longer people are in legal practice.

5.13 The EHRC report, \textit{Pay gaps across the equality strands}\textsuperscript{29}(2009), uses as its main UK datasets the ASHE - which superseded the New Earnings Survey, NES - and the Labour Force Survey (LFS). Note that \textit{Pay gaps} does not contain statistics specific to Scotland. The hourly gender pay gap varies across the pay distribution: \textit{Pay gaps} cites studies showing that it is wider at the top of the pay distribution and narrower at the bottom\textsuperscript{30}, although, for part-timers, it is smaller at each end of the wage distribution\textsuperscript{31}. The weekly earnings gap is larger than the hourly pay gap, reflecting the longer hours worked by men on average: for example, in 2004, the gender earnings gap for hourly earnings was 18\%, for weekly earnings it was 24\% and for annual earnings it was 28\%\textsuperscript{32}.

5.14 \textit{Pay gaps} observes that the lifetime earnings gap is larger than the hourly and weekly gaps, due to lower economic activity rates amongst women than men. The main additional influence on the gender pay gap in lifetime earnings is motherhood, as it affects labour market participation, hours of work and work patterns. The evidence cited to support this gap comprises (rather dated) studies simulating lifetime employment and earnings, and the gaps vary substantially by education level. For example, a 2002 study comparing women with no educational qualifications, those with two children suffer an earnings loss of 58\% compared with childless women; those with mid-level qualifications suffer a loss of about 25\%\textsuperscript{33}. A study in 2000 found that, for graduate women, the loss falls to 4\%, and is estimated to be zero for graduates with one child\textsuperscript{34}. The loss rises with number of children. Losses are due to periods outside the labour market, working part-time, the part-time pay penalty and lower earnings due to lost experience. \textit{Pay gaps} continues with a detailed, statistical analysis of the possible impact of different contributory factors to the gender pay gap.

5.15 The EHRC \textit{Pay Gaps} report finds that research into gender differences in remuneration focuses on pay. However, there is also evidence of a gender pension gap: in 2007, men were more likely to be contributing to a private pension than women, although there is little gender difference in membership of occupational pension schemes\textsuperscript{35}. The gender gaps in pension membership and entitlement are larger for mothers, and part-timers, and vary with education:

- In 2002, women with a degree working full-time were as likely as men to contribute to a private pension, but their likelihood of pension membership dropped to the same level as unqualified women if they work part-time\textsuperscript{36}.
- Ginn and Arber (2002) also found a substantial effect on pension entitlement for mothers with medium and high levels of education, due to motherhood.
reducing lifetime earnings particularly through part-time working. The pension gap was highest for women with medium-level skills.

**Occupational segregation**

5.16 The EHRC's *Review of Research* finds that occupational segregation is apparent by industrial sector and by occupation: data from the Equal Opportunities Commission (2006) shows that women continue to be the majority of those working in health and social work sectors (77%) and education (75%), while men are the majority of employees in construction (93%), transport, storage and communication (76%) and manufacturing (75%). Women are the majority in occupations including personal social services (83%), administrative and secretarial (82%) and sales and customer services jobs (68%), while men are the majority in skilled trades (92%), process, plant and machine operative jobs (88%) and as managers and senior officials (64%). Segregation of women and men in different occupational groups (horizontal segregation) and the concentration of women in low paid and low status jobs (vertical segregation) are thought to be major contributors to the continued gender pay gap.

5.17 *Revisiting resilience* tracks women's employment in broad industrial groups from 2008 to 2010, showing little change in the distribution between sectors over this period.

5.18 The paper presented by the Scottish Government to the Women’s Employment Summit (in 2012) identifies the following key issues in women’s employment:

- Gender segregation continues to be a strong feature in women’s employment, with fewer women than men in management roles.
- Women’s dominance in the public sector makes them more at risk of potential job losses in the public sector.
- Many women are dependent on flexible working and other work-life balance and diversity initiatives in order to sustain their employment. In the current economic climate, these are likely to be given lower priority by employers.
- Many women work part-time but these jobs tend to be less highly skilled and lower paid.
- Women are better qualified/more highly skilled but this is not reflected in long-term employment outcomes.

5.19 The Scottish Government paper continues by observing that relatively few women reach senior management positions, despite leaving the education system on the whole with better qualifications. It cites OECD research that shows that irrespective of family commitments, many women still find it very hard to reach the top of their career ladder, with inequalities rising with progression up the pay scale: in the OECD countries, women earn on average 16% less than men, but for top female earners the gap is 21%.
5.20 A paper presented at the 2012 Women’s Employment Summit by the Commission on Occupational Segregation in Scotland\(^{38}\) identifies causes of segregation that include:

- Restricted access to career options, including by means of gender stereotyping,
- Workplace practices and culture, that can be inflexible and unsympathetic to women with caring responsibilities, and
- The under-valuing of roles and occupations that are perceived to be “women’s work”.

5.21 The EHRC’s *Sex and Power Scotland* 2008 list\(^{39}\) reports under-representation of women in the most senior occupations throughout the country. It examines 14 categories of employment and finds four categories where women’s representation decreased since the 2007 list (Members of the Scottish Parliament, public appointments, university principals and senior police officers), and a further six categories unchanged over this period. However, four categories have experienced a small increase from 2007 to 2008 including ministers in the Scottish Parliament, head teachers in secondary schools, further education college principals, and Trade Union general secretaries.

**Patterns of employment**

5.22 The EHRC’s *Triennial Review*\(^{40}\) (2011) finds that gendered patterns of employment are broadly the same across England, Scotland and Wales: women of all ages are significantly more likely to be in part-time employment than men and less likely to be self-employed. In Scotland, there is generally a higher proportion of 16-19 year-old NEET men than women.

5.23 The Scottish Government’s paper for the Women’s Employment Summit reports that the rate of self-employment for women in Scotland is around half of that for men - 7% in 2011 compared with 15% for men. Almost half (49%) of all self-employed women work in either Public Administration, Education and Health, or Other Services, compared with 14% of self-employed men. The female self-employment rate is lower in Scotland than in the UK as a whole (7% compared with 9%, although the UK figures are influenced by high rates in London and the South. However, the gap between male and female self-employment rates is slightly narrower in Scotland – a difference of 8 percentage points compared with 9% across the UK.

5.24 A paper presented at the Women’s Employment Summit by the Commission on Women in Enterprise\(^{41}\) reports statistics from the *Small Business Survey for Scotland* 2007/08 and the *Annual Population Survey* 2010/11 showing the under-representation of women in self-employment and small business ownership. This is further illustrated in the high-level summary of equality statistics\(^{42}\): between 1996 and 2006, rates of self-employment remained fairly constant for both males and females (Figure 11), but working age males were much more likely to be self-employed than females (13% compared to 6% in 2006).
Unpaid work

5.25 The Scottish Government report (2010) *Caring in Scotland: Analysis of existing data sources on unpaid carers in Scotland*\(^4^3\) analyses the *Scottish Household Survey (SHS)* 2007/08. It finds that 63% of women, compared to 37% of men, provide care to someone not living with them. When gender is explored by age, it is found that across almost all age groups, women are more likely than men to be carers. The exception is for the 0-18 age group, where a higher proportion of men than women are carers.

5.26 *Caring in Scotland* also provides further detail from its analysis of 2001 Census data on unpaid care work within the respondent’s household. It found that across all age groups women are more likely than men to be carers, and that the gender balance is more pronounced for young carers (0-15) and carers aged 85 plus. For male carers, the number of hours caring increases with age, although this pattern is not as obvious or acute as for female carers. However, it is younger and middle-aged female carers who are more likely than other age groups to be providing more than 50 hours of unpaid care each week.

Welfare reform

5.27 A paper by Engender\(^4^4\) (2012) suggests that, although Universal Credit will improve the incentive for one person in a couple household to move into employment, couple households will have one shared earnings disregard. This will be used up by the main earner, meaning that second earners will find
that their Universal Credit payments are reduced as soon as they start earning. This may weaken the incentives for many second earners - usually women - to enter work, or to continue working. If women are discouraged from seeking paid work, this may have both an immediate impact of a lack of an independent income, and also long-term impacts of limited opportunities for women to contribute to a pension. The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) recognises this risk in its *Equalities Impact Assessment for the Universal Credit*\textsuperscript{45}, but considers it subordinate to the priority of getting one household member into work.
6 POVERTY

6.1 This section addresses single adult, pensioner, in-work and child poverty, and explores possible impacts of welfare reform.

Adult and pensioner poverty

6.2 *The position of Scotland’s equality groups*\(^\text{46}\) warns that examining the relationship between poverty and gender is not simple because of the way that poverty is defined by the UK and Scottish Governments. The income data that are used to measure poverty are equivalised net income data from the *Households Below Average Income* datasets, derived from the *Family Resources Survey*. To assess the differences between men and women on the income distribution, data are presented for single adult families. Figure 12 shows that, since 2002/03, single women have been more likely than single men to be in relative poverty, although the gap narrowed in 2008/09.

![Figure 12: Relative poverty in Scotland (Source: DWP Family Resources Survey)](image)

6.3 The Scottish Government’s web page on *Income and Poverty Analysis*\(^\text{47}\) uses more recent data to report that, overall, there is no difference in the relative poverty rates (before housing costs) for adult males and adult females (15% for both). It offers an alternative way of analysing poverty rates by gender, by comparing single adult household compositions (see Figure 13).
For single pensioners without children, 17% of males are in poverty, compared to 19% of females. The gender divide is less obvious for single working age adults without children: in this case 20% of males are in poverty, whereas for females the figure is 19%. The poverty rate for single women with children is 23%. In Scotland there are so few households composed of a single man and children (less than 10,000) that we cannot produce robust poverty figures for this group.

6.5 The relationship between gender and in-work poverty is complex, in the view of *The position of Scotland’s equality groups*, because poverty rates differ between household compositions. There is little difference in in-work poverty rates for households where a man or woman is the highest income householder (HIH). In 2009/10, 6% of households with a man as the HIH were in in-work poverty, compared to 5% for women. The in-work poverty rate is 8% for single working age adult households, regardless of their gender. For the 130,000 households containing a single woman with children, the in-work poverty rate is 6%.

6.6 The Women in Scotland’s Economy Research Centre at Glasgow Caledonian University (WiSE) explores a possible association between increasing rates of female employment and falling child poverty during the period 1998-2010. It recommends that efforts to reduce child poverty be focused on increasing the employment of women, rather than women and men, because of women’s tendency to prioritise the needs of their children.
Welfare reform

6.7 This section looks at the expected gender impacts of the Universal Credit, the new benefits cap, and the changes to housing benefit.

6.8 The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) has published an *Equalities Impact Assessment for the Universal Credit*\(^{49}\). It models the positive impact of Universal Credit on the distribution of participation tax rate (PTR, calculated as the proportion of earnings which are lost in tax, national insurance or reduced benefit payments when a person moves into work) for people moving into ten hours of work per week at the minimum wage. This improvement is seen for both men and women, with a decline of approximately 30 percentage points in the number of individuals of both genders facing high PTRs (of over 70%). The DWP asserts that this improved incentive for potential first earners to enter work is more pronounced for women than for men, due to the fact that women have poorer incentives than men in the current system.

6.9 The DWP ascribes these improvements to key aspects of the policy design of Universal Credit, including the higher earnings disregard in Universal Credit and the single rate of withdrawal, and support with childcare costs which are essential to support families return to or progress in work. Help with childcare costs will be available to all lone parents and couples, where both members are in work, regardless of the number of hours they work. Removing the current requirement to work 16 hours before any help is provided will provide an important financial incentive to lone parents and second earners taking their first steps into paid employment. The new system is expected to be particularly beneficial to lone parents, including those who wish to work a small number of hours as the Government will now pay support for childcare for those working under 16 hours per week. Evidence suggests that most lone parents looking for work want to fit this in with their children’s schooling, so are looking predominantly for work that is part-time and preferably within school hours.

6.10 In contrast, the DWP’s *Household Benefit Cap: Equality impact assessment*\(^{50}\) anticipates that the benefit cap will have a significant negative impact on women and children. Around 50% of the households affected are expected to be lone parents, the vast majority of whom are women: the household benefit cap is thus expected to reduce the benefit payments to significantly more women than men. Furthermore, 89% of the households that will be affected by these reduced payments contain children.

6.11 The DWP’s *Housing Support* webpage\(^{51}\) explains that changes to housing support are expected to reduce the amount of Housing Benefit households receive. It anticipates that claimants will respond either by moving to more affordable properties, or by paying rent from other sources of income, or else by running up rent arrears such that they risk being evicted. The gender make-up of the Housing Benefit single claimant caseload in Scotland is dominated by women although it varies by age\(^{52}\): in 2012, women made up 69% of the caseload for those aged under 35, 55% for those aged 35 to 69, and 72% for those aged over 70. This means that it is likely that women will be disproportionately affected by the changes to Housing Benefit.
7 HOUSING

7.1 The small amount of evidence that has been found concerning gender and housing addresses housing tenure and overcrowding. The Gender Audit observes that, as a substantial proportion of households are couple households, men and women in such households have access to the same type and quality of housing: the research on gender differences therefore tends to focus on single parents. This section closes with a review of gender and homelessness.

Tenure

7.2 The EHRC’s Review of Research cites data from the (then) Scottish Executive to demonstrate gendered differences in tenure. It shows that in 2006 male single parents (10%) were more likely than their female counterparts (5%) to own their own home outright. Similarly, 46% of male lone parents, compared with only 23% of female lone parents, were buying a property with the help of a loan/mortgage. In contrast, female lone parents were far more likely to rent from a housing association or local authority than their male counterparts. These patterns have shown little change since 2001.

Overcrowding

7.3 The EHRC’s Triennial Review reports Scottish data (Scottish Household Survey for 2005 and 2006, and the Scottish House Condition Survey for 2005/06 to 2007/08) that show greater likelihood for women with children to be in overcrowded housing compared to men: 10% of female-headed households with children in Scotland compared to 6% for male households with children reside in overcrowded housing. The Scottish data also show lower rates of poor housing (e.g. overcrowded or in need of repairs) for male-headed households with children (3%) compared to female-headed households with children (12%).

Homelessness

7.4 Scottish data for 2011-12 show that more childless single men than childless single women applied for homeless provision, but also that 72% of the applications by single parents were by female applicants.

7.5 Shelter (2011) suggests that there is often a view that most homeless young people are male; however, if homeless young people who have children are taken into account, then most households are women-headed. Shelter thus estimates that more than half (57%) of young homeless households are headed by a woman.

7.6 While homelessness for men and women is often the result of a combination of factors, the experiences leading women to homelessness tend to be rather distinct. A study by Crisis in 2008 highlighted that the most commonly cited reasons for becoming homeless among UK women were physical or mental health problems, and escaping a violent relationship. While it is recognised that domestic abuse can be experienced by men and people in same-sex
relationships the vast majority of domestic abuse is perpetrated by men and experienced by women. Domestic abuse has long been recognised as a major contributing factor in homelessness, particularly among women (Scottish Government, 2010)\textsuperscript{58}.

7.7 However, it is understood that domestic abuse is often hidden and unreported and that these statistics do not fully capture the extent of women experiencing domestic abuse who present as homeless (Ozga, 2005)\textsuperscript{59}: a number of women will not present as homeless, but will instead become part of the ‘hidden homeless’ population by staying with family and friends. It is also important to note that whilst specific support services are not as widely available for men, the statutory and legal remedies open to women wishing to escape an abusive relationship apply equally to men (Shelter, 2012)\textsuperscript{60}.

7.8 Other factors associating gender with homelessness may include the gender pay gap and prostitution. In Shelter’s opinion, women’s vulnerability to homelessness is likely to be related to their differential access to housing, which in turn is attributed to their disadvantaged position in the labour market\textsuperscript{61}.

7.9 A study by Reeve et al (2006)\textsuperscript{62} describes a number of women who had engaged in unwanted sexual liaisons (paid and unpaid) in order to secure accommodation and in exchange for basic necessities such as food and clothing. Reeve et al (2006) suggest that many of these women would not have engaged in such activity had they not been homeless. Qualitative work based in Edinburgh in 2002 has explored the links between homelessness and prostitution among prostitutes using the support services of an agency in Leith\textsuperscript{63}. From a sample of eight, all had experienced homelessness before gaining temporary or permanent accommodation, and some had slept rough. The majority first left home because of conflict, abuse or violence and the younger girls interviewed regarded entry into prostitution as a survival strategy. While this small study may have reflected certain specific local issues, it is considered to have provided useful insights into the relationship between women’s past and continued vulnerability to violence, their limited housing options and prostitution\textsuperscript{64}. 

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8 TRANSPORT

8.1 The evidence on transport shows a relationship between gender roles and patterns of transport use, and identifies issues including the practicality of travelling with children, safety concerns, and access to information in a range of languages.

8.2 The Gender Audit reviews evidence of gender differences in access to and usage of transport in Scotland, with data from 2004 and 2005. Overall, men are more likely than women to hold a driving licence and to live in households where a car is available for private use. They are also likely to drive more frequently and to travel greater distances. Women are more likely than men to use local bus services, though the majority of both women and men do not use local bus services frequently. Despite being more frequent users of bus services than men, women were more likely to feel unsafe using such services. Of those who had used local bus services recently, the majority of both men and women had a positive attitude towards these services. Men are more likely than women to use cars for travel to work and for work related travel. The majority of men and women carry out some journeys on foot, but only a small minority walk on a daily basis, while only a very small proportion of men and women cycle regularly. There are some gender differences with respect to purpose of journeys, particularly with respect to journeys to work, and food shopping journeys.

8.3 The Gender Audit suggests that differences between men and women in access to and use of transport are likely to reflect differences in gender roles, for example, the fact that men often tend to be the main earner and to be working full-time, while women are more likely to be secondary earners and to take the major responsibility for childcare, including escort journeys to school, and for domestic responsibilities such as food shopping (citing findings of the Scottish Household Survey, 2006). In general these differences have been declining over time, with the proportion of women having driving licences increasing at a much faster rate than for men in recent years. This is in part a consequence of women's increased earning power, though research has also indicated that women are motivated to own and use cars by safety concerns (see Hamilton et al, 2005). In general, women's poorer access to transport affects their access to training and employment opportunities, and to services such as hospitals, and to shopping and leisure facilities.

8.4 A study carried out in Scotland in 2000, although somewhat dated, supports the findings reported above regarding patterns of gendered access to transport, and also emphasises the extent to which women make 'encumbered' journeys i.e. journeys where they are accompanied by children or other dependents, carrying shopping, etc. The research further found that a range of groups experienced constraints on their use of transport, including women in rural areas, women on peripheral estates, minority ethnic women, disabled women, and older women. These constraints were identified as lack of safety, physical access, timing and routes of services, cost, and information.
8.5 The Scottish Government's user strategy for the *National Transport Strategy* (2006) sought the views of women regarding public transport. Elaborating on the reference to 'encumbered' journeys above, the difficulty of travelling by public transport with children was described both in terms of the physical difficulty (lack of pushchair spaces in buses, and not all buses offering easy access for pushchairs) and the cost implications of multiple family members using public transport: some mothers wished to travel by public transport, but found the cost meant it was cheaper to travel by car. For most, it was felt to be more convenient to use a car, and some respondents living in more rural areas noted a lack of available public transport.

8.6 The National Indicator data from *Scotland Performs* show that women are more likely than men to use public or active transport to travel to work, with one in three women using public or active transport in 2011 compared to one in four men. The gap between men and women has remained stable since 2004, and since 1999 there has been no significant change in the proportion of people using public or active transport, either for the whole population or by age band.

8.7 The report on the *Consultation on initiatives related to the ScotRail franchise extension* (which has no publication date) found that, although more women use public transport than men, they have concerns for their personal safety - especially at night. Respondents felt that improved lighting at stations and more staff available to assist would help to allay some of these fears. Language problems are also an issue for women from ethnic minority groups who found information difficult to access.

8.8 The *Equalities impact assessment for Scotland’s cycling strategy* reviewed the following research evidence:

- Surveys for Scotland and the UK show that men cycle more often than women. For example, the 2009 *Scottish Household Survey* (SHS) shows that men were more likely to cycle to work than females (3.6% vs. 1.1%), and the 2008 SHS also showed that a marginally higher percentage of men than women had made a trip by bicycle in the last seven days (either to get somewhere or for pleasure).

- There may be a connection between gender and cyclists' approaches to traffic – a qualitative study in the UK in 2010 found that men tended to be more assertive or opportunistic when cycling on roads, while women were more likely to avoid traffic.

- According to research included in a Department for Transport evidence review in 2006, safety concerns and journey complexity are issues for women when it comes to cycling, although women may be more likely to cycle when larger numbers of people cycle in their local area.

- The theme of safety is echoed in further evidence from 2009 and 2010, suggesting that some women are concerned about their safety when using off-road cycle routes or cycling in deserted areas.
Road casualty statistics for the UK in 2010 show that young males are involved in more road accidents than females.
9 VICTIMS OF CRIME

9.1 This section outlines the relationships between gender and violent crime, and then considers violence against women and domestic abuse as examples of crimes in the context of gender.

Gender and the incidence of violent crime

9.2 The EHRC Review of Research offers evidence of gender differences in who is typically the victim of violent crimes. Men of all ages are more likely to be victims of both assault and robbery than women; women are the majority of victims of rape and other forms of sexual assault; men are both the majority of victims of violent crime and are the majority of perpetrators of violence - specifically violence against women. Males accounted for 84% of the victims of homicide in Scotland in 2006/07, and 79% in 2011/12; in both of these periods, men were most often killed an acquaintance, while women were most often killed by a partner. Homicide rates recorded in the ten years to 2011/12, for example, show that over half (51%) of the female victims aged 16 to 70 years were killed by their partner, 29% were killed by an acquaintance and 9% by a stranger. For male victims aged 16 to 69 years in the same period, only 6% were killed by their partner, while the majority (64%) were killed by an acquaintance, and 17% by a stranger.

9.3 It should be noted that these data do not provide the additional context that would be necessary to ascertain whether someone was acting in self defence. Nevertheless, the results suggest that women are at a far greater proportionate risk of homicide from their partners or former partners compared to men.

9.4 The gender distribution of homicides (up to 2010-11) is further illustrated in Figure 14.
Figure 14: Number of victims of homicide by gender where relationship to main accused is partner or ex-partner, Scotland, 2000-01 to 2010-11 (Source: Derived from Scottish Government (2011) Recorded Crime in Scotland 2010-11).

9.5 Women are also more likely to be the victims of sexual assault than men, as reported in the *Scottish Crime and Justice Survey* (SCJS) 2010-11. In the case of serious sexual assault, women are five times more likely than men to be victims. While the risk of experiencing partner abuse as measured by the SCJS was similar for men and women, the nature and impact of the abuse differed. For example, the risk of experiencing either psychological or physical partner abuse over the course of their adult life was higher for women than for men. Over that time women experienced a greater number of forms of partner abuse on average than men and were more likely have experienced particular forms of physical abuse than men.

9.6 The Crown Office (2011) reports the following data for rape (by men, of women) in Scotland:

- The number of charges of rape reported to the Procurator Fiscal in 2008/09 was 528, a fall of 18% from the figure of 647 in 2007/08. This mirrors the fall in rapes recorded by the police.
- Thirty four per cent of rape charges reported to the Procurator Fiscal in 2008/09 were indicted for trial, compared to 33% in 2007/08 and 26% in 2006/07.
- In 2008/09, 32% of charges reported to the Procurator Fiscal and subsequently indicted resulted in a conviction for rape or an alternative offence. Sixty two per cent did not result in conviction, and 6% are not yet concluded. The conviction rate is higher than that for 2006/07 (31%) but lower than 2007/08 (36%).
Violence against women

9.7 The Scottish Government report, *Tackling violence against women: a review of key evidence and national policies*[^81^], contains a 24-page section reviewing evidence. The statistics are generally from 2008/09, from Scottish Government publications dated 2009. The section covers the nature and extent of violence against women, risk factors that increase women’s vulnerability to violence, and service provision for women experiencing violence. It also addresses particular issues such as domestic abuse, housing and homelessness, and the impact of violence against women on children and young people. The report also considers men as victims of domestic abuse. It concludes that the evidence reviewed presents a strong case for continued review of policy and practice, and reporting in this area, supported by robust, reliable and current information.

9.8 The EHRC *Review of Research* cites a finding[^82^] that more women than men stated (in the SCJS 2000) that they have experienced threat or force from partners or ex-partners: 16% of women and 6% of men reported that they had ever experienced threats, while 17% of women and 7% of men reported that they had ever experienced force. Pp156-158 address gender and domestic abuse in detail.

9.9 The EHRC *Triennial Review*[^83^] addresses targeted violence against women. In Scotland, significantly more women than men have been forced to have sexual intercourse since reaching the age of 16 (3% and less than 1%, respectively, in 2009). In Scotland, women’s fear of being sexually assaulted has declined significantly – from 55% in 1993 to 25% in 2008/9.

Domestic abuse

9.10 The *Gender Audit*[^84^] chapter on crime includes domestic abuse. Using figures from the SCJS, it points out that both men and women can be victims. MacQueen and Norris (2012)[^85^] report an estimate of only one in five victims of abuse reporting it to the police, and they explore a variety of structural, ecological, normative and situational factors that might serve to constrain the individual reporting it.

9.11 Data reported in the *Statistical Bulletin*[^86^] (see Table 1) show the generally increasing trends in domestic abuse recorded by the police in Scotland since 2002/03. There were 59,847 incidents of domestic abuse recorded in 2011/12, compared to the 55,698 incidents recorded in 2010/11, an increase of 7%.
9.12 The same Bulletin also reports that domestic abuse incidents with a female victim and male perpetrator represented 81% of the reported domestic abuse incidents in 2011-12 (where this information was recorded), the same as in 2009-10. The percentage of domestic abuse incidents with a male victim and female perpetrator has steadily increased from 9% in 2002-03 to stand at 17% in 2011-12. Figure 15 illustrates this gender split in the proportion of incidents, and also shows the increasing incidence involving same sex partners.

Table 1: Number of incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police, by type of crime/offence and financial year, Scotland, 2002-03 to 20011-12

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total incidents</td>
<td>35,877</td>
<td>41,235</td>
<td>43,633</td>
<td>45,331</td>
<td>48,908</td>
<td>49,940</td>
<td>53,931</td>
<td>51,926</td>
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<td>Incidents resulting in the recording of a crime/offence</td>
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<td>21,829</td>
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<td>23,884</td>
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<td>25,526</td>
<td>32,666</td>
<td>32,376</td>
<td>32,386</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Of which reported to the procurator fiscal)</td>
<td>9,313</td>
<td>11,014</td>
<td>14,176</td>
<td>14,857</td>
<td>15,565</td>
<td>15,843</td>
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<td>21,266</td>
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<td>24,963</td>
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<td>Non-aggravated crimes of violence</td>
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<td>682</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>625</td>
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<td>606</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>583</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>Attempted murder and serious assault</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>349</td>
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<td>307</td>
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<td>314</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>260</td>
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<td>Sexual Offences</td>
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<td>191</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>135</td>
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<td>Rape &amp; attempted rape</td>
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<td>75</td>
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<td>72</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>107</td>
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<td>Sexual assault</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Crimes of dishonesty</td>
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<td>187</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>829</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fire-raising, vandalism, etc.</td>
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<td>1,342</td>
<td>1,653</td>
<td>1,611</td>
<td>1,745</td>
<td>1,734</td>
<td>1,918</td>
<td>1,793</td>
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<td>1,885</td>
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<td>Vandalism, etc.</td>
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<td>1,327</td>
<td>1,636</td>
<td>1,590</td>
<td>1,725</td>
<td>1,713</td>
<td>1,895</td>
<td>1,772</td>
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<td>Other crimes</td>
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<td>1,984</td>
<td>2,189</td>
<td>2,288</td>
<td>2,176</td>
<td>2,716</td>
<td>3,265</td>
<td>3,446</td>
<td>3,685</td>
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<td>Crimes against public justice</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>1,217</td>
<td>1,897</td>
<td>2,052</td>
<td>2,170</td>
<td>2,066</td>
<td>3,097</td>
<td>3,333</td>
<td>3,550</td>
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<td>Handling an offensive weapon</td>
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<td>50</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>58</td>
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<td>Drugs</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>25,418</td>
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<td>Common assault</td>
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<td>9,548</td>
<td>9,841</td>
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<td>12,522</td>
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<td>Breach of the peace</td>
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<td>7,265</td>
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<td>7,475</td>
<td>7,808</td>
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<td>10,489</td>
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<td>Threatening or abusive behaviour</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,794</td>
<td>5,453</td>
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<td>Stalking</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Drunkenness</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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<td>754</td>
<td>1,181</td>
<td>1,381</td>
<td>1,512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle offences</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour not leading to recording a crime or offence</td>
<td>26,208</td>
<td>19,042</td>
<td>21,804</td>
<td>21,825</td>
<td>25,084</td>
<td>24,822</td>
<td>24,465</td>
<td>19,866</td>
<td>23,328</td>
<td>27,478</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 15: Gender of victim and perpetrator where known, Scotland, 2002-03 to 2011-12. (Source: Scottish Government (2012) Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 2011-12)

9.13 The SCJS 2010/11 offers a comparison between responses for 2009/10 and 2010/11. As this comparison makes no reference to gender, a high-level summary is:

- In both periods, 3% of adults reported experiencing partner abuse in the last 12 months, and 3% had experienced physical abuse in the last 12 months.
- There was no significant change in the number who had experienced psychological abuse in the last 12 months.
- There has been no change in the risk of partner abuse between 2010/11 and 2009/10.

9.14 From a list within the SCJS 2010-11, respondents can identify a range of forms of physical abuse, and psychological impacts, they have experienced as a result of partner abuse. Table 2 shows the broader range of forms of physical abuse, and the fact that greater proportions of men than women reported having experienced them.
Table 2: Form of physical abuse experienced since the age of 16 (Source: SCJS 2010-11).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of physical abuse</th>
<th>Experienced since age 16 by:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adults %</td>
<td>Women %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrown something at you</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kicked, bitten or hit you</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pushed you or held you</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used a weapon against you</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choked or tried to strangle / strangle</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced / tried to force you to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced you or tried to force you to take part in another sexual activity when you did not want to</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPERIENCED AT LEAST ONE FORM OF PHYSICAL ABUSE</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.15 Table 3 shows that higher proportions of women than men experience all of the forms of physical abuse listed.

Table 3: Form of psychological abuse experienced since the age of 16 (Source: SCJS 2010-11).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of psychological abuse</th>
<th>Experienced since age 16 by:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adults %</td>
<td>Women %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaved in a jealous or controlling way</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeatedly put you down so that you felt worthless</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to hurt you</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stopped you from seeing friends / relatives</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to / attempted to / actually hurt themselves to make you do something / stop you doing something</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stopped you from having your fair share of household money / taken money from you</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened you with a weapon (e.g..atrocity or bottle)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to hurt your other / previous partner</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to kill / attempt to kill themselves to make you do something / stop you from doing something</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to kill you</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to hurt someone / other living thing close to you (e.g. children, other family, friends or pets)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced you to view material which you considered to be pornography</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPERIENCED AT LEAST ONE FORM OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ABUSE</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.16 A paper by Refuge\(^{88}\) describes ‘economic abuse’ as a form of domestic abuse. This can take the form of the abuser controlling their partner’s access to economic resources. In Refuge’s study, of those women who reported claiming benefits whilst in a relationship with the perpetrator, only 48% reported having access to this source of income. As a result of welfare reform, the new Universal Credit will comprise a single payment – including an element for childcare which is usually paid to the mother at present - into the bank account of one claimant representing a couple or family\(^{89}\). This raises the risk that economic abuse, by restricting access to benefit payments, might increase after the reforms\(^{90}\). Similarly, the Childcare Element of the Working Tax Credit (WTC) is currently paid alongside Child Tax Credit to the main carer of the children. In December 2011 85% of in-work couples receiving Child Tax Credits had a female payee\(^{91}\). Therefore the reduction in the proportion of childcare costs covered by WTC represents a reduction in the real income of women. Additionally the inclusion of the childcare element in Universal Credit paid monthly to one claimant per household could represent a loss of income to women if the man in couple households makes the claim for Universal Credit.
10 JUSTICE

10.1 This section addresses confidence in the Criminal Justice System, police powers to stop and search, trends in sentencing and fines, the prison population, reconviction, the composition of the police force and the legal profession, legal aid, and family law. Note that data are given for the UK, where data disaggregated by gender are not available for Scotland.

Confidence in the Criminal Justice System (UK data)

10.2 The EHRC Triennial Review (2011, Chapter 7) reports low confidence in the confidence in the Criminal Justice System (CJS): it cites the British Crime Survey 2010’s finding that over 60% of people did not think that victims are treated fairly by the CJS, with men marginally less likely to think that the system meets the needs of victims than women (34% and 37%, respectively).

10.3 This lack of confidence affects the reporting of crime: data from the Witness and Victims Experience Survey (WAVES) 2010 suggest that men who are victims of crime are more likely than women victims to report being satisfied with the information given about the CJS. This is particularly relevant in the context of domestic and sexual violence: many victims require access to a range of services to make a complaint and navigate the criminal justice process, and then to rebuild their lives after leaving an abusive relationship; the absence of such support is said to leave many women trapped in abusive situations. Indeed, insensitive handling by police and the CJS can discourage women from reporting intimate violence, such as rape, and leads to attrition once the police have been involved.

Stop and search (UK data)

10.4 The EHRC Triennial Review (2011, Chapter 7) cites the preliminary findings of an analysis of 2007/08 British Crime Survey data that was undertaken as part of the Equality Measurement Framework, using small samples to enable a disaggregation by gender. This suggests that men are twice as likely as women to be stopped by the police, and three times more likely than women to experience stop and search.

Sentencing, prisons and fines

10.5 The statistics on sentencing trends should be treated with caution when comparing differences between gender and age groups due to the differences in the types of crimes for which males and females are proceeded against/sentenced in court, and different patterns of offending and conviction histories of the different groups of offenders.

10.6 While males accounted for 84% of all convictions in 2010-11, they represented 91% of custodial convictions; females accounted for 16% of all convictions and 26% of other sentences, mainly admonition. Across all crimes and offences, 14% of males were given a custodial sentence compared with 7% for female offenders. For the most serious crime group of non-sexual crimes of violence (which includes homicide, serious assault and attempted
murder, and robbery), 57% of males received a custodial sentence compared to 29% of females. Of those sentenced to custody in 2010-11, 75% of females and 68% of males received a tariff of 6 months or less.

10.7 Males accounted for 68% of all fines issued in 2010-11. The profile of crimes and offences for which a fiscal fine was issued differed between males and females. Most notably, Communications Act offences (mainly television licence offences) accounted for 53% of fiscal fines issued to females compared to just 12% for males. Drugs offences accounted for 32% of fiscal fines issued to males compared to 8% for females. Males accounted for 88% of all anti-social behaviour fixed penalty notices issued in 2010-11.

10.8 Almost 6% of the people in prison as at 30 June 2011 were female. The female prison population has been rising more quickly over the past 10 years than the male population. The average daily female prison population during 2011-12 was 82% higher than in 2001-02, compared to 30% higher for males.

10.9 The *High-level summary of equality statistics* maps the trends in numbers of young people in secure accommodation (see Figure 16). There were 82 young people aged 11 to 18 years in secure accommodation as at 31st March 2006. Of these, 62 were boys and 20 were girls. Since 1999/2000, there have only been small variations in this gender split.

![Figure 16: Young people in secure accommodation (Source: Secure accommodation statistics, 2005-06, in *High-level summary of equality statistics*).](image)

10.10 Scottish Government data for 2012 show that males are more likely to be reconvicted within a year than females (32% compared to 26%). Reconviction rates for males decrease consistently with age; 39% aged under 21 are reconvicted within two years compared with 26% of those aged over 30. The pattern for women is somewhat different in that the peak occurs in the 21-30
age group (30% compared to 26% for the under 21 group and 22% for those aged over 30).

Workforce composition

10.11 In 2010-11 73% of police officers and 35% of police support staff were male\textsuperscript{102}.

10.12 Data collected by the Law Society for Scotland in 2009 show that 50% of the legal profession in Scotland are women, 49% are men and 1% did not state their gender\textsuperscript{103}. The proportion of women holding legal practising certificates has continued to increase over recent years: in 2008, 45% of those holding practising certificates were female, compared with 41% in 2004. Among those under 30 years, 67% were female (compared with 61% in 2004); but in spite of the increasing number of females entering the legal profession, much lower proportions of females than males are partners in firms, although this is no doubt attributable in part to the fact that there are almost twice as many men in the profession in the 40-59 age bracket as women. Since two-thirds of newly qualified solicitors are female, it is likely that as they progress in their careers, the number of female partners will begin to rise significantly. After their first five years in practice, a significant gap emerges between male and female solicitors’ salaries: between 6 and 10 years after admission, men in private practice earn £14 000 more than their female peers and after 21 and 25 years the gap widens to more than £42 000\textsuperscript{104}. Figure 17 shows the gender split reported in the Scottish Legal Aid Board’s survey of legal aid solicitors in Scotland in 2010\textsuperscript{105}; this shows male dominance of criminal case work (as opposed to civil case work), and of partner roles (as opposed to non-partner roles).

Legal aid and family law

10.13 Regarding access to justice and legal aid, as women overall are more likely to be economically inactive than men, they are also more likely to be eligible for civil legal aid\textsuperscript{106}. In 2010, 65% of solicitors providing legal aid were male, and more male solicitors undertook criminal legal aid; there was an even split of
male and female solicitors undertaking civil legal aid. In 2009, 65% of applicants for civil legal aid were female. Approximately 80% of applicants for criminal legal aid in 2009 were male, which the Scottish Legal Aid Board considers to be in line with the higher rates of male offending.

10.14 The Scottish Government’s explanatory material on Parental Responsibilities and Rights (PRRs) explains that, in family law, mothers have automatic PRRs, whilst the situation for unmarried fathers varies. Fathers without PRRs can ask the court to be given them. Whilst it concedes that this could be perceived by some as gender inequality when it comes to parents’ rights regarding their children, the law states the welfare of the child is paramount as opposed to the rights of the parents. When parents divorce, decisions have to be made over which parent the children should reside with, and over contact time with the non-resident parent: in 2004, the vast majority of non-resident parents pursuing contact/residence through the courts were male (87%). Of the current child maintenance service caseload, 95% of parents with care of children, seeking financial support from non-resident parents, are female.
11 PUBLIC APPOINTMENTS

11.1 A Public Appointment is an appointment to the board of any of the public bodies across Scotland - either as a member, or as the chair\textsuperscript{114}. The board's role is to provide leadership, direction and guidance; it is not involved in the day-to-day running of the public body.

11.2 At the time of the Gender Audit\textsuperscript{115} in 2007, the non-departmental public bodies (NDPBs) concerned were subject to the Gender Duty on public bodies and were expected to produce equality schemes. Annual statistics are given from 2001 to 2006, a period when women have held approximately one-third of NDPB posts (whether as chairs or members), but the proportion of chairs held by women declined over the same period from 22.7\% to 17\%.

11.3 The EHRC Review of Research contains more recent data showing the under-representation of women in 2007 and 2008, in a variety of public roles. The figures for public appointments are 34.7\% of roles held by women in 2007, down to 32.4\% in 2008.

11.4 During the year 2011/12\textsuperscript{116}, 33\% of applicants for public appointments in Scotland were female and 34\% of people appointed to boards were female.

11.5 Engender\textsuperscript{117} has commented on women in public life more broadly. It has held two seminars (to date) covering labour markets, education, migration, environment, reproductive health, transport, and women in government.

11.6 The Scottish Government’s website for public appointments\textsuperscript{118} reports that, in the public appointments rounds for 2011-12, 31\% of applicants were female and 34\% of appointments were to females. It is anticipated that data to 2013 will be published on the same website later this year.
12 HEALTH

12.1 This section begins with an overview of summary statistics, and then reviews in detail the findings of the Scottish Health Survey (2012) and the Inpatient Experience Survey (2010).

Summary statistics

12.2 In 2010 the healthy life expectancy among women in Scotland was 61.9 years, almost two years more than the healthy life expectancy for men of 59.5 years\textsuperscript{118}. The EHRC Triennial review plots ONS data for overall life expectancy for men and women, for the years 2000-2007\textsuperscript{120}, showing longer life expectancy for women than men in all countries of the UK throughout the period.

12.3 Heart disease incidence and mortality is consistently higher for males than it is for females, across all age groups. Up to the age of 75, stroke incidence and mortality rates are higher for males\textsuperscript{121}.

12.4 Men consult their GP less often than women. For the years 2003/4 to 2011/12, the number of consultations per 1,000 populations has been approximately 50% higher for women than for men\textsuperscript{122}. In contrast, in 2010/11 males were 17% more likely to attend an NHSScotland emergency department than females, with 274 attendances per 1,000 population for males versus 235 for females\textsuperscript{123}.

Scottish Health Survey (2012)

12.5 All of the data in this section are taken from the Scottish Health Survey (2012)\textsuperscript{124}, except where the National Indicator data from Scotland Performs are specifically mentioned.

12.6 In the Scottish Health Survey (2012) men were significantly more likely than women to assess their health as being good or very good (77% compared with 75%). However, these may be partly be due to gender-specific assessments rather than objective differences. Men also had higher levels of positive wellbeing, with average scores of 50.1 versus 49.7 on the WEMWBS scale (which measures mental wellbeing). A higher proportion of women (17%) than men (12%) had a high GHQ-12 score, which is an indicator of psychological ill-health.

12.7 In terms of dental health, there was a small, but significant difference in the proportion of men (73%) and women (71%) who had 20 or more natural teeth. There was no significant difference in the experience of toothache between men and women: 13% of both men and women had experienced toothache in the previous month.

12.8 For alcohol consumption, men were more likely than women to be hazardous or harmful drinkers: 27% of men drank at hazardous or harmful levels compared to 19% of women. They were also significantly more likely to drink above the recommended daily limit on their heaviest drinking day in the
previous week (43% of men compared to 34% of women). These findings support gendered differences in drinking behaviour found elsewhere. National Indicator data from Scotland Performs show that in 2010/11, rates of alcohol related hospital admissions for males were more than double females rates (1,020 per 100,000 population compared to 395 per 100,000 population). Alcohol-related hospital admission rates for both males and females have seen slight declines in recent years.

12.9 There was no real difference in smoking prevalence between men and women. The rate for men was slightly higher but the difference was not significant (26% compared with 24%). However, men smoked an average of 2 cigarettes per day more than women (15.2 compared with 13.3) and started smoking at a slightly younger age (17.2 years) than women (17.8 years).

12.10 There was a small but significant gender difference in the proportion of men and women eating 5 or more portions of fruit and vegetables per day (24% of women compared with 21% of men) with a similar pattern in the mean number of portions eaten per day (women ate 3.4 portions compared to 3.1 for men).

12.11 There was no significant gender difference in the prevalence of obesity, although men were more likely to be overweight than women (69% compared with 61%). National Indicator data from Scotland Performs suggest that, for children, a lower proportion of boys are in the healthy weight range than girls, although the size of the gap has varied over recent years. The indicators also show that a higher proportion of men than women meet the physical activity recommendations, with 45% of men meeting the requirements compared to a third of women.

12.12 There was a small but significant difference in the prevalence of cardiovascular disease (CVD) between men and women, with men being more likely to have a CVD condition (16% vs 14%). There were also significantly more men (6%) than women (4%) with diabetes.

Inpatient Experience Survey (2010)

12.13 The Scottish Government’s analysis of the 2010 Inpatient Experience Survey reports that females were generally less positive than males across most of the survey questions. Of the 56 questions, there were 50 for which women were less likely to report a positive experience. The biggest differences where women tended to be more negative were around the questions about the staff e.g. being kept informed in a way they could understand. For the remaining six questions there were no differences in the reported experiences of males and females.

12.14 It is not clear whether these differences in reported experience are accounted for by women receiving poorer services, or whether the differences are more likely to reflect different expectations among women. The Scottish Government’s analysis cites the Commission for Health Improvement’s secondary analysis of the English patient experience surveys (2004; no reference is given, and the Commission has since been abolished), in which a suggestion was made that gender differences in the reasons for accessing...
services may also play a part. The Scottish Government's analysis concludes that further investigation is required to assess the reasons for these gender differences.
13 SOCIAL CARE

13.1 This section looks at the number of people receiving social care in care homes and in their own homes, and at those who provide care.

13.2 In 2011, in Scotland, a clear majority of both long stay care home residents and home-care clients were female\textsuperscript{128}.

Care Homes

13.3 The *High-level Summary of Equality Statistics*\textsuperscript{129} illustrates this gender balance and the age profile of residents (see Figure 18): it explains that the female majority is due mainly to the larger numbers of females than males aged 75 years and over in care homes. However, it also observes that, between 2003 and 2005, there was a drop in the number of female long stay residents due to the drop in the number of female residents aged 85 years and over – and a corresponding increase in home-care (see next section). The picture for male care home residents is different, with small drops in the number of males for all age groups, apart from men aged 75 to 84 years where there was a rise.

![Care Home Residents by Age and Gender, Scotland, 2003-2005](source: Scottish Executive Health Department, Scottish Care Homes Census)

**Figure 18: Care home residents (Source: High-level Summary of Equality Statistics)**

Home-care

13.4 Between 2003 and 2005 there was an increase in the number of home care clients of both genders in each age group, with the exception of the 0 to 15
year age group (see Figure 19). The biggest increase occurred in the 16 to 64 year age group, whilst the gender imbalance increases past the age of 75.

![Home Care Clients by Age and Gender, Scotland, 2003 to 2005]

**Figure 19: Home care clients** (Source: High-level Summary of Equality Statistics)

13.5 The EHRC *Triennial Review* finds that older people are more likely to report receiving help which meets their needs than younger people. It cites initial analysis of the *English Longitudinal Survey of Ageing* showing that 57% of those aged over 75 felt this was the case, compared with 40% of those aged 65-74 and 37% of those aged 50-64. At every age, a larger proportion of women than men report that the practical support they receive meets their needs. Overall 48% of women respondents said this, compared with 39% of men.

13.6 A further report on the *English Longitudinal Survey of Ageing* observes that sources of help and support differ by gender and age. Except for women aged 75 years and over, a spouse or partner was the most common source of help. Married men also receive most of their support from their spouses regardless of their age. Many of those women aged 75 and over were widowed - children were a prominent source of help for these women, particularly for those aged 85 and over.

13.7 Regarding social care in Scotland, the *Triennial Review* uses data from the *Scottish Household Survey 2007-08* to illustrate an association between lower household income and greater likelihood of a member of the household needing regular care or support. No distinction is made for gender in this analysis.
Carers

13.8 The DWP reports that, in May 2011, females were over twice as likely to be in receipt of Carer's Allowance than males: 13.0 females per 1,000 population were in receipt compared to 6.1 males\textsuperscript{133}.

13.9 The EHRC \textit{Triennial Review} cites Scottish Community Care Statistics\textsuperscript{134} to show that carers make up 12\% of the adult population in Scotland, and it refers to the 2001 Census (ONS, 2003) to show that in Scotland 62\% of carers are women compared with 38\% who are men.

13.10 The Scottish Government report (2010), \textit{Caring in Scotland}\textsuperscript{135}, draws on multiple sources to estimate the gender balance of carers. It reports that:

> The 2001 Census data indicated that around 11\% of women were undertaking a caring role, compared to 8\% of men. The prevalence of female to male carers was around 60:40. Data relating to claimants of the Carer's Allowance in Scotland supports this finding, with more women than men claiming the allowance. This finding is further substantiated by the SHS, as 63\% of women and 37\% of men provide care to people not living with them. However this difference in prevalence is less apparent when unpaid care is provided by a carer to someone within their household - in this case 54\% of women and 46\% of men provide care.
14 SPORT

14.1 This section first reviews the levels of sports participation by adults, and then
explores the changes over time in young people’s participation and the
reasons for them.

Adults and sport

14.2 The *Scottish Health Survey 2011*\(^{136}\) reports that 45% of men met
recommended levels of physical activity, compared to only 33% of women.
Low levels of physical activity were reported by 30% of men and 35% of
women. In the Equality Groups report for the *Scottish Health Survey 2011*\(^{137}\),
men were still significantly more likely to meet the physical activity
recommendations than women (with rates unchanged at 45% and 33%). Men
were also more likely to participate in sport: 53% of men did so in the previous
four weeks, compared to 45% of women.

14.3 In Scotland in 2009/10, the *Scottish Household Survey* reports the percentage
of women who had participated in sport in the last four weeks as lower than
the corresponding figure for men (69% versus 75%)\(^{138}\). Other than walking,
the most popular sport for men was football, with 17% playing in the previous
month. For women it was swimming, with 19% having gone swimming in the
previous month.

14.4 The 2007/8 *People and Sport in Scotland* report, based on the *Scottish
Household Survey*\(^{139}\), elaborates on the gender differences in sport (see
Table 4). In 2008, 73% of respondents participated in sport including walking
and 48% participated in sport excluding walking, and men were more likely to
participate than women (76% vs. 70%). Levels of participation including
walking did not change significantly between 2007 and 2008. Participation
excluding walking dropped slightly between 2007 and 2008 (51% to 48%): this
was driven by a decrease among males from 60% to 54%. Care should be
taken in drawing any conclusions about trends, as two years of data are not
enough to establish a trend. Although the decrease in participation excluding
walking is significant, it is only marginally so and further years of data are
required before establishing whether there is a true downward trend.
Table 4: Participation in sport in last four weeks by gender and age (Source: 2007/08 Scottish Household Survey)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adults</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>16-24</th>
<th>25-34</th>
<th>35-44</th>
<th>45-59</th>
<th>60-74</th>
<th>75+</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007 Any sport (excluding walking)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 Any sport (including walking)</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 Walking (at least 30 mins for recreational purposes)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 Any sport (excluding walking)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 Any sport (including walking)</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 Walking (at least 30 mins for recreational purposes)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Base 2007</td>
<td>1,436</td>
<td>1,952</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>780</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>3,388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Base 2008</td>
<td>1,468</td>
<td>1,901</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>845</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>3,387</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14.5 Of those who did not participate in sport during the previous 12 months (see Table 5), the most common reason for not participating was poor health (54%), followed by a lack of interest (24%) and not having enough time (16%). These figures were broadly similar for both males and females.

Table 5: Barriers to sport participation by gender and age (Source: 2007/8 Scottish Household Survey)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adults who had not participated in sport during the last 12 months</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>16-24</th>
<th>25-34</th>
<th>35-44</th>
<th>45-59</th>
<th>60-74</th>
<th>75+</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Health isn't good enough</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Not really interested</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 It's difficult to find the time</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Never occurred to me</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 I wouldn't enjoy it</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 It costs too much</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Fear of injury</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Lack of transport / I can't easily get to it</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 No-one to do it with</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 I might feel uncomfortable or out of place</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Not enough info on what is available</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008 Changing facilities are not good enough</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Base 2007/2008</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>1,501</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Young people and sport

14.6 A survey of secondary school children in Scotland in 2008\(^\text{140}\) reports that just over a quarter of young people are a member of a club through which they participate in sports outside of school, with boys most likely to be a member of a club through which they play football and girls more likely to belong to a club or organisation relating to dance. Boys tend to spend significantly more time taking part in physical activity outside of school (7 hours in a typical week) than girls (4 ½ hours), though for both boys and girls, there is a steady decline in the amount of time spent doing physical recreation outside of school as they get older. The most common reason given by boys for not participating in any sport or recreational activity outside of PE lessons is that they prefer to do other things in their spare time; for girls, the main reason is not having anyone to do it with. During school time, young people tend to spend an average of 2 ½ hours in PE classes every week, with boys doing around 20 minutes more than girls.

14.7 A 2003 report on a series of surveys\(^\text{141}\) is useful for exploring change over time, even though they were conducted only in England:

- Football was the most popular extra-curricular sport in 2002, and it was popular with both boys (24%) and girls (7%, second behind netball).

- Boys are significantly more likely to participate in sports competitions than girls. Their participation rates in each type of competition have significantly increased between 1994 and 2002, with the exception of competitions at a national level.

- The findings suggest that the types of sport that girls participate in during lessons has changed between 1994 and 2002, and to a greater extent than boys. Girls’ participation in rounders, tennis, football, cricket, basketball, dance classes and walking increased significantly over this period. In contrast, their levels of participation in gymnastics, aerobics and volleyball decreased. The most significant changes among boys have been the increase in participation in rounders and tennis.

14.8 A qualitative study of a school sport partnership in 2008\(^\text{142}\) identifies two factors that might be reducing the effectiveness of these partnerships in increasing girls’ participation in after-school sport. This study is included here because of the light it sheds on barriers, even though it is specific to England. One of the factors is a focus on competitive inter-school sport, which erodes the interest of those not selected for teams. The other factor is a reluctance to actively target under-represented groups such as girls, for fear of excluding those who are not actively targeted.

14.9 In a summary of sports equality research from the last 15 years\(^\text{143}\), the EHRC explores variations with age in the gender profile of young people’s participation in sport:
- Almost 18% of girls aged between 11 and 13 spent less than an hour a week taking part in sport during their summer holidays, compared with 12% of boys;
- By the age of 15 to 16, 29% of girls say they do not want to take part in sport when they leave school, compared to 16% of boys; and
- Only 39% of secondary school aged girls are members of a sports club outside school, compared with 60% of boys (Young people and sport survey, 1999).
15 CULTURE

15.1 This section uses the Scottish Household Surveys of 2011 and 2007/8 to explore gender variations in cultural engagement.

15.2 In 2011, the percentage of adults who engaged in culture in the previous 12 months (i.e. those who attended a cultural place or event, or participated in a cultural activity) was 89% for women and 85% for men. These headline figures are from the Scottish Household Survey (SHS 2011), which distinguishes between "attendance at a cultural place or event" including cinemas, libraries and live music events, and participation in cultural activities which include reading for pleasure, dancing and crafts.

15.3 The SHS 2011 gives the following gender detail for attendance at a cultural place or event:

- Slightly more women attend cultural events and places than men (76% and 75% respectively) although the difference between men and women is much less than that for cultural participation.

- Women are more likely to attend a wider range of cultural events or places than men. The greatest percentage point difference is for attendance at plays, drama or theatrical performances: 32% of women compared with 22% of men. Library visits also show considerable differences by gender, with 33% of women and 24% of men reporting that they have visited in the last 12 months.

- There are some cultural events and places where attendance by men is greater than for women. For instance, 22% of men state that they have attended a place of historical or archaeological interest in the last year compared with 20% of women.

15.4 Regarding cultural activity, the SHS 2011 finds that:

- More women participate in a cultural activity than men: 79% and 67% respectively.

- Women participate more than men in a number of cultural activities including reading for pleasure (70% compared with 55%), dancing (21% compared with 13%) and in crafts (17% compared with 7%).

- Participation is higher for men than women in activities including playing a musical instrument or writing music (14% of men, 7% of women), photography as an artistic activity (9% of men compared with 6% of women) and using a computer to create artworks or animation (8% of men compared with 5% of women).

15.5 The 2007/8 Scottish Household Survey elaborates on the gender profile for attendance at cultural events (see Figure 20). It shows that females were more likely to attend almost all cultural events than males, although most music events are exceptions to this finding along with attendance at video or electronic art events. The main difference in patterns of cultural attendance
between the genders is that almost twice the proportion of females went to musicals or pantomimes, compared with males.

Figure 20: Attendance at specific cultural events in the past 12 months, by gender (Source: 2007/08 Scottish Household Survey)
16 CONCLUSIONS

Links across policy areas

16.1 Although the evidence has been presented here by policy area, a number of threads appear to connect issues between these areas. For example:

- Boys’ poorer educational attainment, and smaller chances of finding positive destinations after school in terms of training or employment.
- Women’s reduced access to transport can limit their uptake of employment and educational opportunities.
- Victims of domestic abuse, particularly women, who present as homeless and in need of housing provision.

Cross-cutting summary

16.2 This evidence review has found that women do less well than men in several policy areas.

- More women than men are unemployed, work part-time, or are paid less than men, and in lower-grade jobs. Women are more likely to use public transport and less likely to drive, despite the practical difficulties posed by accompanying children.
- More single women are in relative poverty than single men, and the caps on benefits and housing benefit are expected affect women more as they form a higher proportion of claimants. Female lone parents are more likely to rent rather than own their home, and are more likely to live in homes that are overcrowded or in poor condition, or to be homeless.
- The female prison population is rising faster than the male prison population.
- Women are under-represented in public appointments, and have lower rates of participation in sport than men.

16.3 However, in the following policy areas men do worse than women:

- Male school pupils present more behavioural problems than females, and attain lower results. There are fewer male than female students in Further and Higher Education (FEHE), and fewer male than female graduates secure positive destinations after FEHE. More young men than women are Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET).
- Men are more often the perpetrators and victims of violent crime than women. Men are more often stopped by the police than women, commit more crimes, receive more custodial sentences, and have higher reconviction rates.
- Men have a higher incidence of heart disease, stroke, diabetes, attendance at Accident and Emergency departments and are more likely to be overweight; men also have lower life expectancy.
- Men participate in a narrower range of cultural activities than women.
17 APPENDIX: METHODS

17.1 Limitations of the research: it should be noted that, due to the time constraints under which this review was prepared, the evidence search has been selective rather than systematic or exhaustive.

17.2 The criteria for inclusion of evidence in this review were that it should have been produced within approximately the last ten years, be based on ideally on Scottish or else on UK data where this is available, and address the relevant policy areas.

17.3 The principal sources that have been checked in detail include:

- The Scottish Government’s report, *The position of Scotland’s equality groups - revisiting resilience in 2011*\(^{146}\)
- Engender\(^{147}\)
- *A Gender Audit of Statistics: Comparing the Position of Women and Men in Scotland*\(^{148}\).
- Tackling violence against women: a review of key evidence and national policies\(^{149}\).
- EHRC *Equality issues in Scotland: a review of research, 2000-08*\(^ {150}\)
- EHRC: *How fair is Britain?*\(^ {151}\)
- EHRC: *Pay gaps across the equality strands*\(^ {152}\)
- Scottish Government: *Women’s Employment Summit evidence paper*\(^ {153}\)
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